Gender and Power Dynamics

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GENDER AND POWER DYNAMICS IN ENÛMA ELIŠ AND THE PRIESTLY CREATION ACCOUNT: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

One of the most significant cuneiform texts from the ancient world is *Enûma Eliš*. It was discovered in the 19th century by Henry Austin and first published by George Smith. Composed during the Old Babylonian period and written by scribes involved in cultic leadership, the text narrates a myth about the rise of Marduk as head of the pantheon. In the myth, Apsû, the husband of the premortal goddess, Tiamat, is murdered for plotting rebellion against the pantheon. Angry that her husband has been killed, Tiamat prepares to destroy the current leadership and establish

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her own order. When the pantheon hears of her plan, they attempt to thwart it, but fail. The pantheon then turns to Marduk for help, to which he agrees, but only if he is established as the supreme deity as recompense. Because Marduk uses the bodies of Tiamat and Apsû to create mankind and the world, scholars refer to this text as *The Babylonian Creation Myth*.

In Biblical Studies, *Enûma Eliš* influenced renewed discussion regarding the historicity and mythological aspects of the Hebrew Bible. Concluding her analysis on how the discovery of *Enûma Eliš* impacted scholarship through a comparative studies approach of Genesis 1, Joan Heuer DeLano offered a polished summary:

> The comparative study, drawing as it did from comparative religion and anthropology, reached beyond the small group of scholars who engaged in the primary research. It impinged on biblical scholarship in its implicit questioning of Mosaic authorship. Its acceptance by biblical scholars afforded... a broader reception in biblical commentaries. These, in turn, made the primary research available to students, teachers, preachers, and other interested readers. Indeed, George Smith’s initial publication and enthusiasm regarding the discovery of the Babylonian creation tablets

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sparked a scholarly discussion which went well beyond the limits of Assyriological scholarship. Like a pebble cast into a stream, the content, speculation and methodology of the comparative study spread into wider scholarly circles.³

While scholars like George Smith, A. H. Sayce, and L. W. King drew parallels between Genesis 1 and Enûma Eliš before 1895, comparative study garnered the most attention through Hermann Gunkel’s Schöpfung und Chaos (1895).⁴ In his work, Gunkel utilized the ancient Near Eastern motif Chaoskampf while comparing Genesis 1 and Enûma Eliš. (Chaoskampf is a motif of “a cosmic battle with the powers of chaos” and “a combat between a patron god who is associated with order and

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some sort of a power of chaos.”)\(^5\) Safwat Marzouk uses the term to designate “a loss of boundaries and to describe a state of disorder.”\(^6\) This understanding is misleading as it anachronistically defines oppositional figures as “agents of chaos” or “cosmic evil” rather than what Debra Ballentine has suggested as “agents of an alternative divine power structure,”\(^7\) a topic we will explore further as part of the methodological assumptions.

Gender also has been a major topic of interest among scholars regarding this myth. Tikva Frymer-Kensky’s *In the Wake of the Goddesses* thoroughly explores gender in the ancient Near East and the Hebrew Bible. In her diachronic approach to myth and history, she argues that the earliest Sumerian records provided royal women considerable power; however, due to unknown factors, goddesses became eclipsed in tandem with the public role of women. Frymer-Kensky asserts, “the end of the second millennium was a male’s world, above and below; and the

\(^6\) Ibid., 16.
ancient goddesses have all but disappeared.” More recently, Karin Sonik explored how the character Tiamat steps outside of social boundaries to become the monstrous antagonist. While these works have provided critical insight to portrayals of gender in Enūma Eliš, none utilize a comparative approach to examine how the literature reflects the gender and power dynamics in two related, albeit distinct, cultures in the ancient world. For instance, Frymer-Kensky explores Elohim in the Hebrew Bible, Tiamat, and various other Mesopotamian deities; however, she never attempts comparative analysis to unpack how gender and power were related in the communities behind the Priestly Creation Account (Genesis 1:1-2:4a; henceforth PCA) and Enūma Eliš. Likewise, Benjamin Foster’s work has also been important; however, he primarily provides narrative overview rather than in-depth analysis. It is my hope that this paper will begin to fill a major lacuna in the scholarship on gender and power dynamics in Enūma Eliš and PCA by elucidating our understanding

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of ancient cultures. Utilizing Ballentine’s focus on alternative power structures and the work of prominent scholars such as Frymer-Kensky and Foster, we will compare the dynamics between gender and power in Enûma Eliš and the Priestly Creation Account (Gen. 1:1-2:4a) as found in the Genesis account within the Hebrew Bible. In doing so, I argue that the socio-political and religious atmospheres of each text will be further elucidated. Additionally, I hope to demonstrate that Enûma Eliš as liturgy encouraged a strong sense of patriarchal power over women, while PCA as liturgy encouraged an egalitarian view of gender and power.

Prior to analysis, there are three preliminary issues to deal with: terminology, methodological assumptions, and historical and literary relationship between the two accounts.

TERMINOLOGY

Because this paper is about gender and power dynamics, it is necessary to define the word gender. For this paper, “gender” refers to the biological distinction between males and females. There are, however, some nuances to address regarding this issue. First of all, eunuchs played

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12 Helen Kraus, *Gender Issues in Ancient and Reformation Translations of Genesis 1-4* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2011) explores gender in Genesis 1-4; however, she does not distinguish between the P and J sources in the Genesis creation accounts.
important political and social roles in the ancient Near East.\textsuperscript{13} They were still considered male, as can be extracted from the text, which refers to eunuchs with masculine pronouns.\textsuperscript{14} To apply modern gender constructs is anachronistic and misrepresents the text. Designation as a eunuch had more to do with social opportunities than any sort of personal identity and eunuchs were still considered male.\textsuperscript{15} Secondly, Martti Nissinen highlights an important third gender known in Mesopotamian literature as \textit{assinu}, \textit{kurgarrû}, and \textit{sinnišānu} who were known in different roles such as “cross-dressing, ritual dance, healing, prophecy, and lament.”\textsuperscript{16} While this third gender or non-gender was active in Mesopotamian history, their justification for not conforming to cultural sexual ideals made them into “acceptable gender roles by way of manifestly violating them.”\textsuperscript{17} As defined by S. Crane, gender is “the exterior, social interpretation of sexual


\textsuperscript{14} \textit{COS} 2.132 §15, 2.117D, 2.118F, 2.118D, 2.119A, 1.159.75-79.

\textsuperscript{15} Martti Nissinen, “Are There Homosexuals in Mesopotamian Literature”, in \textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society} 130.1 (2010), 73-77, carefully notes that “ancient written sources were not composed with the… idea of ‘sexuality’ in mind and do not categorize human gender and its manifestations accordingly.”

\textsuperscript{16} Ibid, 75.

\textsuperscript{17} Ibid, 76. See also Ilan Peled, \textit{Masculinities and Third Gender}, Alter Orient und Altes Testament Band 435 (Münster: Ugarit-Verlag, 2016), 32-34.
practices, specific to a particular society. Sexuality, broadly understood as the generation, expression, and organization of desire, is the ongoing behavior that informs gendered identities.”

Ancient Mesopotamian gender and sexuality, therefore, ought to be viewed through their unique culture and society, namely with males, females, and the non-gender. In context of PCA and Enûma Eliš, though, the third gender never appears. Therefore, this study will utilize gender to reference males and females as two of three biological, gender, and social categories in ancient Mesopotamia.

The term “power” is the authority and ideological rule associated with kingship. Authority and ideological rule were often established through historiography in order to legitimize the king and his sponsoring deity. Within ancient Near Eastern literature, one primary tool for legitimation was establishment of a temple, an important aspect to both Enûma Eliš and PCA. Although Enûma Eliš is a mythological account, it

18 Harris, *Gender and Aging In Mesopotamia*, 142, citing S. Crane.
20 Regarding Enûma Eliš, see Tablet 6.70-75; Hugh W. Nibley, “Return to the Temple,” in *Temple and Cosmos: Beyond This Ignorant Present* (Salt Lake City: Deseret Book and FARMS, 1992), 71-73, emphasizes focus on the lack of power by Marduk through
still fits under John Walton’s categorization of types of historiographical literature as legitimation, theological, polemical, and foundation history.\(^\text{21}\)


\(^{21}\) Walton, *Ancient Near Eastern Thought and the Old Testament*, 231, notes that “foundation narratives tend to be mythographical rather than historiographical.” So although *Enûma Eliš* and the Priestly Creation Account are myths, they can be understood as legitimation historiography.

distinct ways, with distinct religious, political, and social contexts, they
are both legitimized as king and primary deity through their respective
mythographical foundational narratives and the establishment of a temple
as the foundation and bond that holds together the cosmos.23 Historically
these ideas were reinforced in society on a daily basis because temples
played a central role in ancient societies.24 Although power is defined,
what is the “myth” in which power is legitimized?

“Myth” is often understood in the sense of falsehood or error.25
Douglas Knight and Amy-Jill Levine offer a more balanced approach to
defining myth: “[myth] means a story, usually set in the distant past when
the normal rules of physics do not apply (i.e., that world is not our world),
that offers a summary of a cultural worldview; it explains how life as we
know it came to be; it expresses our hopes and fears. It is true, in the same
way that a parable is true.”26 Likewise, Jan Assmann notes that “The

24 J. Robertson, “The Social and Economic Organization of Ancient Mesopotamian
Temples” *CANE* 1:444; J. N. Postage, “The Role of the Temple in the Mesopotamian
Secular Community,” in *Man, Settlement, and Urbanism*, eds. P. Ucko, R. Tringham, and
25 Ibaid, 3, Callender cites the definition of Douglas Knight and Amy-Jill Levine, *The
theme of myth was not the essence of the deities, but rather … the essence of reality … Myths establish and enclose the area in which human actions and experiences can be oriented. The stories they tell about deities are supposed to bring to light the meaningful structure of reality.” Assmann, Knight and Levine focus on the reality of myth as an expression of social, political, and religious situations and provide structure by which to understand them. What needs to be avoided is the tendency to assume myths are universally connected. J.G. Frazer argued for the “Urmyth,” namely that all myths build off of one original myth—he was the first to introduce this into scholarship. He also assumed that all mythology can be compared without question of time period or geographical location. After analyzing various approaches to the myth and ritual theories, including Frazer’s, Catherine Bell aptly notes that her “analyses help demonstrate that attempts to understand ritual,” and thereby myth, “by focusing on its supposed “origins” can be highly misleading; on the other hand, they also suggest that a focus on underlying universal patterns common to cultures across space and time is likely to come undone by the

details of history.”

Therefore, we will not apply the Urmyth model and will consider the autonomous nature of different cultural myths to provide a broader understanding of each myth, whilst fully recognizing possible intercultural influences.

Myth reflects the assumptions about gender and how it relates to power within a historical context. In order to compare Enûma Eliš and PCA, there must be an established, historical relationship between the two mythological creation accounts. That relationship will be demonstrated after discussion of our methodological assumptions.

**METHODODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS**

As Frymer-Kenskey demonstrates, by the period of composition of the Hebrew Bible, the feminine roles typified by goddesses in Sumerian and other early myths were now “performed by the One God of Israel.”

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29 Bell, *Ritual: Perspectives and Dimensions*, 20. For example, Benjamin Foster, “Enûma Eliš as a Work of Literature”, 20-21, notes how in Enûma Eliš myth fails to fall into popular, generalized categories where the son murders his father and marries his mother. Thus, right off the bat Enûma Eliš does not fit into this popular construct and must be understood in its own terms.

30 Ballentine, *The Conflict Myth*, 31, comments, for example, that Enûma Eliš’s “divine legitimation of Babylon and the elevation of Babylon’s patron deity within the pantheon would fit within a broader effort of Nebuchadnezzar I to promote “nationalistic revival” within the Babylonian state.”


Baring and Cashford, reaching similar conclusions, emphasize the foundations of ancient Israelite religion:

The Levite priesthood of Israel constructed its doctrine of pure monotheism with the image of the sole Father God, King of kings and God of gods. No apparent trace of the goddess and her son-lover remained to challenge it, although in other cultures this myth continued to live, however obscurely. Doctrinally (but only doctrinally) the drama of the conflict with the goddess is finished: the supreme Father is One.\(^{33}\)

Baring and Cashford do well in emphasizing the absence of an explicitly feminine role in ancient Israelite religion; however, the conclusion is problematic, for they fail to identify the extent to which the Levite Priesthood was actually representative of ancient Judahite religion. In reality, Judahite elite drove the idea of divine exclusiveness and “for most of the population…the existence of other deities and the propriety of their private worship were never very much in question.”\(^{34}\)

The average Judahite did not adhere to the priestly school of thought. Thus the whole

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of Judahite thought is not accurately represented in PCA. Arvid S. Kapelrud offers a similar conclusion: the author was likely a learned scribe, held some sort of important position in the Judaean community, and possibly participated in dialogue with Babylonians. Therefore, in analyzing PCA, the group represented is the Judahite elites who are part of the priestly school of thought. Likewise, *Enūma Eliš* does not constitute the norm in Babylonian thought; rather, as W. G. Lambert notes, it “merely reflects the situation that it was popular in the period when the libraries were formed from which most Babylonian literature has reached us.”

Augmenting Lambert’s statement, *Enūma Eliš* likely reflects the literate and elite class of peoples. While the thoughts and roles of the elite in ancient Mesopotamia and ancient Israel enhance our understanding of the ancient world, we should be careful not to apply the analysis to the whole of each culture and society.

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Secondly, we will not utilize *Chaoskampf* and understand Tiamat as an agent of Chaos; rather, we will use Ballentine’s approach to the conflict motif: competition between two power structures. Far too often, the conflict myth in *Enûma Eliš* is interpreted as an issue of Chaos versus Order with Tiamat as an agent of Chaos. Being an agent of Chaos, Tiamat becomes nothing more than one who breaks boundaries. To label Tiamat as an agent of Chaos anachronistically applies Greek and Roman traditions to the conceptual world of *Enûma Eliš.* In her article on gender in *Enûma Eliš*, Sonik categorizes Tiamat’s organization, in contrast to Marduk’s, as “chaos incarnate.” However, the conflict myth and struggle between gods and goddesses, alternatively, should be read as a struggle for divine power structure and acceptance of it among the pantheon. As Ballentine points out, for example, Kingu’s kingship and his possession of the Tablet of Destinies—a material, legal document declaring one’s rule over the universe—is the same device utilized by other gods, indicating that the issue relates to the acceptance of divine hierarchy and the power of the

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38 Contra Walton, *Ancient Near Eastern Thought and the Old Testament*, 184-185, who utilizes Hesoid’s *Theogony* and Virgil’s *Aeneid* to draw out that chaos, opposite *cosmos*, “is more evident in the ancient Near East”. See Frymer Kensing, *In the Wake of the Goddesses*, 75, “Ti’amat is not an evil force;” Foster, “Enuma Elish as a Work of Literature,” 20, “our story is butchered by some experts on myth who claim that Tiamat is “chaos” so Marduk kills chaos to establish ‘order.’”

39 Sonik, “Gender Matters in *Enûma Eliš*”, 95.
PCA will be read through a similar lens: it is not about Elohim defeating Chaos and establishing Order, but about legitimizing his power through the creation of mankind, his temple, and establishing order within the world. Having established functioning definitions and our methodological assumptions, we will proceed by demonstrating the historical and literary relationship between the two texts in order to justify their comparison.

HISTORICAL AND LITERARY RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ENŪMA ELIŠ AND THE PRIESTLY CREATION ACCOUNT

Although the two pieces of literature under examination do not originate from the same cultural and geographical groups, there is compelling evidence that both accounts are connected literarily and historically. Kenton Sparks applies the mimetic phenomena to the priestly account based on the idea that “peripheral cultures … seek legitimacy by symbolically imitating the prestigious culture that dominates them.”

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41 Sparks, “*Enūma Elish* and Priestly Mimesis: Elite Emulation in Nascent Judaism”, in *Journal of Biblical Literature* Vol. 126, No. 4 (Winter, 2007), 625-648. See the classic
Considering the likelihood of Babylonian influence following the exile of Judean elites, his proposition for mimesis and literary influence is highly likely. Adding to the corpus of already existing scholarship about the similarities between Mesopotamian and Israelite rituals, Sparks extends the literary, and therefore historical, relationship between the two texts by exploring the priestly corpus and connecting it to Ṣennūma Eliš and the Akītu rite. Specifically regarding PCA, a significant number of thematic similarities between the two texts further indicate their historical and literary relationship. While Sparks’s evidence is compelling, it is not

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43 Sparks, “Enūma Elish and Priestly Mimesis”, 634 n. 25, cites Baruch A. Levine, In the Presence of the Lord: A Study of Cult and Some Cultic Terms in Ancient Israel (SJLA 5; Leiden: Brill, 1974); Jacob Milgrom, Leviticus 1-16: A New Translation with Introduction and Commentary (AB 3; New York: Doubleday, 1991), 1067-70, 79-84; David P. Wright, The Disposal of Impurity: Elimination Rites in the Bible and in Hittite and Mesopotamian Literature (SBLDS 101; Atlanta: Scholars Press, 1987); James M. Fennelly, “The Persepolis Ritual”, in Biblical Archaeologist (Summer, 1980), 140, even notes that a copy of Tablet 5 was copied for Assurbanipal’s library (c. 668-626 BCE) and one Tablet of the myth dates to 495 BCE during Persian Empire. He also notes that Ṣennūma Eliš likely influenced the Persian ritual at Persepolis, re-enforcing the history connection between PCA and Ṣennūma Eliš. Lambert, Babylonian Creation Myths, 6, writes that one MSS dates to the Seleucid period, another indication that the author of PCA may have been aware of the myth.

44 Sparks, “Enūma Elish and Priestly Mimesis”, 631-632. For additional analysis of literary relationship between the two sources, see Babtunde Ogunlana, “Inspiration and
compelling enough to argue that the priestly "agenda was not merely to imitate Enūma Eliš; it was to imitate Mesopotamia in general."  

Essentially Sparks argues that the priestly author, the author who wrote PCA, wrote all of the priestly material as a polemic against Enūma Eliš. Because the priestly writer existed in a common conceptual world as Enūma Eliš, cultural exchange, development, and appropriations should not be immediately considered polemical. We should not merely assume that the author of PCA was directly responding to Enūma Eliš. The priestly author should be permitted to maintain a voice with independent intentions and some ideological autonomy.

Although, Marduk’s historical city of Babylon was destroyed by Xerxes (485-465 BCE), studies demonstrate the continued existence of the cult of Marduk and the use of Enūma Eliš. As both texts existed within the same historical framework, we are justified to compare them. Therefore, historical and literary relationship between Enūma Eliš and PCA is reasonable, so long as we permit PCA to maintain some sense of

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45 Sparks, “Enūma Eliš and Priestly Mimesis”, 642.

autonomy in its literary, mythological, and ideological choices. Having established the historical and literary relationship between Enûma Eliš and PCA, we will explore the gender and power dynamics and then compare the dynamics within each text.

**ENÛMA ELIŠ: GENDER AND POWER**

A basic assumption in Enûma Eliš is that deities are gendered. Each genealogical development at the beginning of the text is the result of some sort of divine sexual intercourse between a god and goddess; thus we see gender play a major role within Enûma Eliš. The question remains; what role does gender play within the text and how does it relate to power?

Through the text a-me-lu is used to denote human beings as opposed to deities and animals. A-me-lu is the masculine form for humankind. By referencing the term for humanity only in the masculine

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48 amīlu: See *CAD*, A2, p. 49, in the sense of “in contrast to gods and animals”.
form, the author may subtly be conveying an idea that men are more powerful than women. To claim this, though, is highly conjectural, especially because a-me-lu may be used as a common term for humanity. Thus, it should not be considered significant for understanding Enûma Eliš’s overall gender and power dynamics. The following arguments are more substantial to the gender and power dynamics.

Goddesses do have authority and power in Enûma Eliš. Of Tiamat it is said “her commands were tremendous, not to be resisted” (1.145). The word “command” (te-re-tu-ša) relates to a decree “referring to the order of the cosmos,” emphasizing Tiamat’s perceived power. Additionally, she creates monsters to destroy the noisy pantheon and deems them gods (1.138). While the Chicago Assyrian Dictionary reads that Tiamat literally transforms the monsters into gods, Lambert’s translation depicts the transformation as less literal, they are made godlike, rather than into gods. Both translations, however, demonstrate extraordinary power on Tiamat’s part as she attempts to thwart the pantheon and establish a new power

49 têrtu: See CAD, T, p.363, which translates it as “her decrees are weighty, they are irresistible”
50 Ilu: See CAD, I-J, p.91, where “(Tiamat) endowed (them) with radiance, (and thus) turned (them) into gods.”
structure. When Ea and Anu eventually attempt overthrowing Tiamat, they do so in fear of her power and strength (2.85-94, 2.104-118).

Following Tiamat’s defeat, Marduk commands humanity to bring food to the gods and goddesses, symbolizing the recognition of both genders (6.115-116). At least speaking generically, humanity is required to be pious unbiasedly towards both genders in the pantheon. In each of the previous examples, the female gender is demonstrated to hold power in some fashion; however, despite numerous expressions of women’s authority, the text also reveals that male deities tend to ridicule that authority.

In his article on Enûma Eliš as literature, Benjamin Foster explores the instances of gender conflict. After Foster establishes that Tiamat is the only significant female character in the story arc, he notes that male gods mock her strength as secondary to themselves: “Though a woman’s...”

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51 Being “godlike” versus a “god” does, though, nuance the extent to which each interpreter and poet understands Tiamat’s power. COS 1.111 translates the phrase as “Causing them to bear auras like gods.”

52 ḫašāsu: See CAD, H, p. 122, “v.; (1) to think of a deity = to heed a deity, to be pious”.

53 See Foster, “Enuma Elish as a Work of Literature”, 20. Regarding the overall narrative of Tiamat, Sonik, “Gender Matters in Enûma Eliš”, 93-94, notes that after Tiamat chooses to avenge her husband Apsû, she becomes an unnatural force who “ceases to play the role of a goddess, of a proper domestic female, and takes on the mantle of a monster”.

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strength is very great, it is not equal to a man’s.”54 Ironically, these statements follow Ea and Anu’s failures to defeat Tiamat, demonstrating intent to overrule female power despite her clear supremacy, at least over Ea and Anu.

Second, Tiamat is presented as a passive deity prior to her attempt to destroy the pantheon. Rather than becoming angry, some children of Tiamat must stir her from her indifference regarding Apsû’s death:

When Apsû, your spouse, was killed,  
You did not go at his side, but sat quietly55 …  
You gave no thought to Apsû, your spouse, …  
And as for us, who cannot rest, you do not love us!  
Consider our burden, our eyes are hollow.  
Break the immovable yoke that we may sleep.  
Make battle, avenge them! …  
Tiamat heard, the speech pleased her.  
She said, “Let us do now all you have advised.”  
(1.113-114, 117, 119-123, 125-126; italics added for emphasis)

In this passage, Tiamat’s children deride her inaction following Apsû’s death. She only acts under their advice. Tiamat’s depiction as an indifferent and passive character reflect words by Catherine Keller: when Tiamat “falls into psychic disarray … the gods of the middle generation

54 Foster, “Enuma Elish as a Work of Literature”, 21. These words also occur in 2.116 and 2.92.

55 See qāliš: CAD, Q, 59, “adv. ; silently, in silence” indicates her passivity in the situation.
guilt-trip her.”\textsuperscript{56} Evidently Tiamat is subject to manipulation via guilt-tripping, the author painting her as a caricature of women. Expanding on how Tiamat shifts from being an indifferent pacifist into a fearsome aggressor and monster, Sonik explains it as “the charge of her restive children, striking at the core of her identity as a civilized being, that she is a failure as both a wife and a mother.” As a result, Tiamat becomes an unnatural figure and no longer fits the feminine paradigm.\textsuperscript{57} Thus the caricature of women functions by depicting Tiamat as breaking the social boundaries of what is expected from females.

Third, when Tiamat is finally provoked and convinced to rouse a rebellion, she places Kingu as the king of the alternative power structure, providing him army leadership, making him the weapon bearer, and giving him a throne (1.148-152). As a matter of fact, the term for the lordship ascribed to Kingu by Tiamat is the same ascribed to Marduk, the primary difference being that Marduk’s lordship is explicitly unopposed.\textsuperscript{58} Rather than glorifying Tiamat for her power, Kingu is instead glorified as the

\textsuperscript{56} Catherine Keller, \emph{Face of the Deep: A Theology of Becoming} (London: Routledge, 2003), 29.

\textsuperscript{57} Sonik, “Gender Matters in \textit{Enûma Eliš}”, 95.

\textsuperscript{58} See ēnūtu: \textit{CAD}, E, 180. Note Lambert’s translation that Marduk’s lordship was “superior and himself without rival” (6.106).
leader when she provides him the Tablet of Destinies (1.157). Following the rebellion, Ea accuses Kingu of making war (6.21-34), not Tiamat. Especially note 6.29-30: “Qingu is the one who instigates warfare, / Who made Tiamat rebel and set battle in motion.” Foster highlights this passage, noting that “by no stretch of the imagination did Kingu “suborn to Tiamat” because he does nothing in the story itself.” Placing responsibility upon Kingu rather than Tiamat highlights an important aspect of the ideology behind Enūma Eliš, namely that women should remain in their perceived boundaries as proper domestic females. For this reason, power is ascribed to Kingu rather than Tiamat and Marduk condemns Tiamat as an “unnatural mother.”

In each instance discussed above, it is evident that, while Tiamat has power, men clearly perceive her power as inferior. Rather than permitting Tiamat to maintain lordship, the author establishes male antagonists that eventually overthrow her. An alternative divine power

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59 Describing the Tablets of Destiny, Fennelly, “The Persepolis Ritual”, 140, writes that “the Tablets of Destiny are like two stones on which the sacred law is written” (140). These tablets were representative that one controlled the destiny of the universe. Note the similarities between the Tablets of Destiny and the tablets from Mount Sinai: “When God finished speaking with Moses on Mount Sinai, he gave him two tablets of the covenant, tablets of stone, written with the finger of God” (italics added for emphasis, NRSV, Exodus 31:18).

60 Foster, “Enuma Elish as a Work of Literature”, 21.

61 Sonik, “Gender Matters in Enūma Eliš”, 95; Tablet 4.79-84.
structure, which Tiamat establishes, is overthrown by Marduk who sets up his own divine power structure. His success is distinctly a male accomplishment.\textsuperscript{62} Grounding these political dynamics in history through the yearly \textit{akītu} festival,\textsuperscript{63} Ballentine writes that it is “an example of how the ideology of \textit{Enuma Elish}, a particular Babylonian articulation of the conflict topos, was used for political purposes and it offers a view of the legitimizing connotations of the conflict topos in Babylonian traditions.”\textsuperscript{64} Within those political purposes, the gender and power dynamic simultaneously become reinforced on a yearly basis. In agreement with Keller, “the new masculine creation is performed as a satiric aggression against the mother’s body, to be replayed annually at the festival of the new year.”\textsuperscript{65} The satiric aggression to which Keller refers is how Tiamat’s body becomes mutilated for the cosmos: “He split her into two like a dried fish: / One half of her he set up and stretched out as the heavens. / He stretched the skin and appointed a watch / With the instruction not to let her waters escape” (4.136-140). Annual liturgical reproduction of \textit{Enûma}

\textsuperscript{62} Foster, “Enuma Elish as a Work of Literature, 22; See Sonik, “Gender Matters in \textit{Enûma Eliš}”, 95 who emphasizes the complete butchering of Tiamat the Mother Goddess as material for establishing Order. \\
\textsuperscript{63} The \textit{akītu} festival was a New Year festival in ancient Mesopotamia within which \textit{Enuma Elish} was recited. See “Akitu Ceremony”, Eric Orlin (ed.), \textit{The Routledge Encyclopedia of Ancient Mediterranean Religions} (New York: Routledge, 2016), 27-28. \\
\textsuperscript{64} Ballentine, \textit{The Conflict Myth}, 38. \\
Eliš, thus, engrained even deeper into the minds of the viewers the power which men hold over women and, I argue, impacted the decline of the goddesses’ role in the ancient Near Eastern pantheon.66

PRIESTLY CREATION ACCOUNT: GENDER AND POWER

The Priestly Creation Account (Genesis 1:1-2:4a) is a myth about how God created the world in seven days. In classic and recent studies, the priestly creation is the beginning of what is considered the priestly Source, a hypothesized source for the Pentateuch (Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers, and Deuteronomy). Unlike Genesis 2:4a-24, PCA does not include the account of Adam and Eve.

Before engaging with Genesis 1:1-2:4a, there are two preliminary issues to deal with: the relationship between Tiamat and tehom,67 and the role of man in the image (ṣēlēm) and likeness (ḏēmûṯ) of Elohim. First of all, Tiamat and tehom, the term in Genesis 1:2 used to reference the deep, are conceptually similar and have a cognate relationship.68 Tsumura

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67 Recent and classic studies argue that tehom is a demythologized representation of Tiamat.

68 Walton, *Genesis 1 as Ancient Cosmology*, 145, 7;
argues that *tehom* should not be understood as demythologized\(^{69}\) chaos to be defeated.\(^{70}\) In a critique of Tsumura’s argument, Sparks notes that “nothing … precludes a Hebrew author using his own term, *[tehom]*, in a polemic against the obviously related cognate term Tiamat.”\(^{71}\) Although Spark claims that Tsumura’s argument does not hold, he fails to provide compelling evidence for *tehom* as a polemic term. After all, *tehom* is used in many contexts to represent primeval water.\(^{72}\) These waters are used due to the ancient Near Eastern cognitive environment in which water was part of the pre-cosmic creation.\(^{73}\) Therefore, the *tehom* in the Israelite portrayal “does not present the precreation state as negative or personal/personified; instead, it is a neutral, functionless ambiguity.”\(^{74}\) Such a conclusion is important because it clarifies that, at least when we compare PCA and

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\(^{71}\) Sparks, “*Enûma Elish* and Priestly Mimesis”, 630.

\(^{72}\) Gen. 7:11, 8:2, 49:24; Exod. 15:5, 8; Deut. 8:7, 33:13; Job 28:14, 38:16, 30, 41:32; Ps. 33:7, 36:6, 42:7, 71:20; Ezek. 26:19, 31:4, 15; Jonah 2:5; Hab 3:10.


Enūma Eliš, Tiamat and tehom should not be compared or examined in tandem for their gender and power dynamics.

Secondly, we need to determine the historical and cultural foundations of šēlēm and ḫmūṯ, along with their literary function in Genesis 1. Šēlēm is typically translated as “image” and ḫmūṯ as “likeness.” In an older, yet valuable, article on the image of God, D. Clines writes: “the term ‘likeness’ is an assurance that man is an adequate and faithful representative of God on earth. … The image is to be understood not so much ontologically as existentially: it comes to expression not in the nature of man so much as in his activity and function. This function is to represent God’s lordship to the lower orders of creation.” Randall Garr argues that image relates to procreative ability and likeness relates to a representative role. Regardless of the specific interpretation of the terms, the common denominator is that Elohim, to some extent, ordains humanity as rulers of the earth.

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75 So, according to Genesis 1:26, “Then God said, “Let us make man in our image, after our likeness” (ESV).
important that we examine Yahweh’s gender as constructed and depicted within the Priestly Creation Account.

To understand the gender and power dynamics in PCA, we must first discuss the representation of Elohim within the text. Unlike in the gods in *Enūma Eliš*, Elohim is not represented as producing humanity or gods through sexual relations. With regard to his divinity, gender is, arguably, a less significant factor in how Elohim fulfills his role in the narrative of PCA. Although Elohim is linguistically presented as male and represented in masculine verbal forms, there is no conflict or sexual relations with a woman figure. Therefore, I argue that gender should not be overemphasized in our reading of Elohim’s actions. Kevin Harris has pointed out that Elohim is an androgynous divinity that could be represented as *he* or *she*. 79 Therefore, while Elohim is represented in the masculine plural, Elohim may be more accurately depicted as genderless and possibly a-sexual. 80 Pushing against this proposal, Baring and Cashford claim that the Hebrew culture inherited the idea of the supreme

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80 Frymer-Kensky, *In the Wake of the Goddesses*, 98-99, supports this idea because she emphasizes how Elohim becomes the deity who is in control of all essential power, thereby removing the “powers in dynamic interrelationship,” powers sometimes marked by gender difference.
Father; however, this conclusion is weak and not compelling because the Hebrew Bible rarely refers to Yahweh, or Elohim, as father.\(^81\)

**Genesis 1:27-28** also introduces an important gender and power dynamic within the text:

\[(27) \text{So God created man in his own image,} \\
\text{In the image of God he created him;} \\
\text{Male and female he created them.} \]

\[(28) \text{And God blessed them. And God said to them, “Be fruitful and multiply} \\
\text{and fill the earth and subdue it, and have dominion over the fish of the sea and} \\
\text{over the birds of the heavens and over every living thing that moves on the} \\
\text{earth.” (Gen. 1:27-28 ESV)} \]

There is one major feature regarding gender and power in this passage. Male and female are blessed together to perform equal tasks of ruling (\textit{radah}) and subduing (\textit{kavash}), terms associated with kingship and warfare.\(^82\) No remarks or ideas dividing between power and gender are present; rather, male and female are both considered humanity and both are given power.\(^83\) Essentially, their being made in the image and likeness

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\(^81\) Baring and Cashford, \textit{The Myth of the Goddess}, 298. See also C. L. Crouch, “Genesis 1:26-27 as a Statement of Humanity's Divine Parentage”, in \textit{Journal of Theological Studies} vol. 6, no. 1 (April, 2010), 1-15, esp. 11, n. 24. Although Elohim is at moments identified as a father, it is almost always in a prophetic portions of the Hebrew Bible. Thus, he is never designated “father” as an official title as a deity.\(^82\) On \textit{kavash}, see Josh 18:1, 2 Sam 8:11, 1 Chron 22:18, Micah 7:19; on \textit{radah} see Lev 25:43, Num 24:19, 1 Kings 4:24, Neh 9:28. See especially Joel 3:13 which in context of war preparation and utilizes the same verbal form.\(^83\) Contra James Montgomery Boice, \textit{Genesis Volume I: Creation and Fall (Genesis 1-11)} (Grand Rapids: Baker Books, 2006), 96-97, whose evangelical lens leads him to conclude
of Elohim (Genesis 1:26) results in both genders equally being royal representatives of divine authority and power.\textsuperscript{84} Although 1:27b notes that God created “him,” the pronoun functions as a term which encompasses both genders.\textsuperscript{85}

Apparent through the minimal focus on gender and power issues in PCA, the author’s cultural standards are fairly straightforward with regard to gender and power: males and females are equally representative of God, and God, although masculine by linguistic denotation, is depicted as androgynous and asexual.

**COMPARISON OF ENŪMA ELIŠ AND THE PRIESTLY CREATION ACCOUNT**

As demonstrated in the previous analysis, *Enūma Eliš* and PCA reflect much about the socio-cultural context of their respective communities. At moments, they portray similar ideas due to priestly

\[\text{that “man is to lead, protect, care for, cherish, act upon, and initiate. The woman is to respond, receive, be acted upon, bear, nurture, follow”. Even as expositional commentary, absolutely nothing in the priestly creation account speaks to gender roles.}\]

\textsuperscript{84} Caterina Moro, “Dividing the Image of God”, eds. Lukasz Niesiolowski-Spano, Chiara Peri, and Jim West, in *Finding Myth and History in the Bible: Scholarship, Scholars and Errors* (Bristol: Equinox, 2016) 105, notes that “In the image of God” and “male and female” parallel each other in order to emphasize that both genders are representatives of the image of God.

\textsuperscript{85} Kraus, *Gender Issues in Ancient and Reformation Translations of Genesis 1-4*, 19-20.
mimesis,\textsuperscript{86} however, they also reflect distinct cultural differences and appropriations of ancient Near Eastern topoi regarding gender and power.

First, both texts revolve around the kingship of a central figure and seek to legitimize their respective deities through different approaches. Marduk’s kingship is established through the divine combat topos. On the other hand, Elohim’s power is established through creation of the cosmos without conflict. He also already has masculine and feminine roles and does not need to overthrow any deity to attain them, with a number of scholars suggesting an androgynous representation of Elohim in Genesis 1:1-2:4a. Both accounts also reflect kings acting in traditionally masculine and feminine roles; however, PCA suggests an androgynous image of divinity while \textit{Enûma Eliš} focuses on overthrowing females in order to attain feminine roles. A likely explanation is that although \textit{Enûma Eliš} is present during the history of the Judean exile, it has historical roots that can be traced earlier than 1200 BCE.\textsuperscript{87} Therefore, by the time the author of PCA came in contact with \textit{Enûma Eliš}, the cognitive environment and

\textsuperscript{86} See “Historical and Literary Relationship” section.
how it approaches goddesses would have been very different than that in which *Enûma Eliš* was originally written.  

Secondly, the creations of humanity in *Enûma Eliš* and PCA have distinct aims and represent gender and power differently. In one respect they are the same because both only briefly mention the creation of mankind. *Enûma Eliš* keeps the situation relatively simple: mankind, as opposed to animals, is supposed to serve the gods and goddesses. Humans do not play a significant role in the cosmos and neither human gender is provided with much power. PCA specifies male and female as humanity and their roles as ambassadors of Elohim. While both narratives converge in regard to the creation of humanity, PCA highlights males and females as integral to the created Order and provides both parties with power, not barring or speaking negatively about one or the other. Essentially, both narratives present the creation of humanity apart from any specific order of male power and female power; however, PCA specifies both genders as having authority and power as royal representatives. Without overemphasizing either narrative, it is evident that the communities behind

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88 Noting the long progression to a man-oriented society, Espak, *The God Enki in Sumerian Royal Ideology and Mythology*, 66, writes that “the decline of the mother-goddess in Sumerian religion was probably a result of a long process of developments towards the more man-oriented society in general although the decline of her city must have also played a certain role”.
Enūma Eliš and PCA held similar conceptions regarding the importance of males and females to worshipping their respective deities. However, each text has different expectations: Enūma Eliš focuses on the importance of temple worship in its community and PCA focuses on the importance of humanity as royal representatives of Elohim in its community.

Third, Enūma Eliš and PCA use different existing cultural paradigms regarding gender and power for their communities. Enūma Eliš uses traditional ideas of femininity to develop Tiamat as the antagonist in the narrative and applies already existing societal ideas about femininity to the narrative, reinforcing certain ideas through yearly reenactment of the myth. The Priestly Creation Account does not ascribe socio-cultural expectations to males and females, as is evident in the gender egalitarian representation of males and females as royal images (Genesis 1:26-28) and Elohim’s seemingly androgynous representation. This is not to say that ancient Israel held no socio-cultural gender and power expectations; however, it does indicate that the author of PCA did not consider gender to be of the utmost importance in gender and power dynamics. One possible explanation, similar to the first conclusion, is that PCA’s representation of women in power occurs in a world with different ideas about gender because they had already developed a sense in which Elohim performed
masculine and feminine tasks, with no focus on one male deity replacing another male or female deity. In contrast, *Enûma Eliš* reflects a community in which gender power was visibly shifting and therefore the myth reflected gender and power as they were relevant to the audience. Foster cautions that it is going too far to assume the author feared or hated women; however, we should recognize the possibility that the distinctions between men and women were extremely important to the community from which the text was derived. The preceding evidence suggests that PCA was composed by a community where gender and power dynamics were not in question, while *Enûma Eliš* was composed during periods of shifting social dynamics relating to gender power.

Although the extent to which the texts represent their communities is debatable, it is clear that the communities behind *Enûma Eliš* and PCA each held unique conceptions of gender and power relations. Our understanding is complicated because *Enûma Eliš* represents an ancient text, which found its way to the period of the Judean exile. With the reinforcement of the *akītu* festival regarding male hegemony, it may be assumed that *Enûma Eliš* influenced greater segregation between males.

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89 Foster, “Enuma Elish as a Work of Literature”, 22.
90 Samuel Meier, “Women and Communication in the Ancient Near East”, in *Journal of the American Oriental Society* 111 (1991), 544, suggests that this shift may be due to “orientation from female to male priority in institutionalized learning”.
and females, thereby reinforcing male hegemony. PCA likely influenced closer affiliation between males and females because certain ideas about gender were already well-developed by the time of its composition. While both texts portray women as wielding power, *Enūma Eliš* marginalizes the power and authority of women. PCA places women and men on the same plane of power. I argue that the community from which PCA derived likely had a more egalitarian understanding in regard to gender and power than the community behind *Enūma Eliš*.  

In conclusion, comparative literary analysis of *Enūma Eliš* and PCA accomplishes a few major tasks. First, it further elucidates the socio-cultural standards and expectations about gender and power behind the two texts. Consequently, we attain a more developed understanding of Mesopotamian and ancient Israelite society. Comparative analysis provides a greater framework by which to understand Mesopotamian culture and ancient Israelite culture by placing their ideas of gender and power side-by-side. Although this study did not cover the full breadth of

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91 Elizabeth Goldstein, *Impurity and gender in the Hebrew Bible: Ideological Intersections in the Books of Leviticus, Ezekiel, and Ezra* (University of Chicago Dissertation, 2010), 70, suggests that, regarding the priestly corpus as a whole, "men and women equally reflect a part of YHWH (Genesis 1), and yet their bodies and social roles must be sharply differentiated (Leviticus 15.)" In Goldstein’s analysis, the priestly author did not write against females; rather, because women generally had more contact with impure substance, they tended to have more cultic regulations. Simply put, the priestly material is not anti-women.
priestly material, it is programmatic in the sense that it offers a new avenue and approach to nuanced analysis of priestly material and Enūma Eliš.
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