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Report on MATS 2014

Scott Charlesworth

**Just War and Tribal Fighting –
Reconciliation not Retaliation**

Peter J. Frost

**Payback: a Gospel Response,
from a Franciscan Perspective**

Ruben Martello

**Towards Contextualising Paul's Expressions of
Community in Ephesians 2 for Melanesian Christians**

Allan Alafa Sanga

Journal of the Melanesian Association of Theological Schools



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MELANESIAN JOURNAL OF THEOLOGY

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The *Melanesian Journal of Theology* aims to stimulate the writing of theology in Melanesia. It is an organ for the regular discussion of theological topics at scholarly level by staff and students of the member schools of the Melanesian Association of Theological Schools (MATS), though contributions from non-members and non-Melanesians are welcome.

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TOWARDS CONTEXTUALISING PAUL'S EXPRESSIONS OF COMMUNITY IN EPHESIANS 2 FOR MELANESIAN CHRISTIANS

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ABSTRACT

The concept of community is like a backbone to the very existence of Melanesians. Melanesians are communal people, and their activities revolve around the notion of community. However, Melanesians find it daunting to conceptualise and transfer the meaning of Christian community into their Christian lives.

It seems that allegiance to Christ is secondary to traditional clan ties. Reverting to these traditional ties in problem circumstances is evident, even among professing Christians. Consequently, by tracing Paul's metaphorical expressions of community in Eph 2, clearer teachings can be deduced for Melanesians. These metaphors can be explored in terms of dynamic equivalent concepts in Melanesia, to formulate biblical teachings that may help Melanesian Christians to understand what it means to be a part of the Christian community.

Towards this end, this qualitative study argues that contextualisation is a step forward in helping Melanesians to understand the biblical concept of community. With the aid of Hiebert's four steps of critical contextualisation, this study will explore four Melanesian analogies, to convey the ideas of community in Eph 2. From these explorations, new contextualised approaches may ease the necessary transition for transferring

the Christian concept of community to Melanesians. In this way, a clearer view may be obtained in understanding the community of God.

INTRODUCTION

In this section, preliminary information about this research project is supplied. These include the purpose of the study, the guiding questions, methodology, limitations and delimitations, definitions of terms, and study assumptions.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this research is to identify the expressions of community in Eph 2, which are being taught to, but are not practically seen, in the lives of the people of Melanesia. Melanesian Christians hear and accept the gospel, but their first loyalty and allegiance is not to the new Christian community, but to their traditional clan communities. This paper seeks to identify the expressions of community in scripture, and to contextually project these into understandable and meaningful forms in Melanesia. Notwithstanding, community is a complex topic to adequately cover in such a single research project. Therefore, this paper is limited to Paul's ideas in Eph 2, and their application to Melanesian contextual forms. It is hoped that a clearer scriptural understanding of community in Melanesia is conveyed to the church for its growth and maturity.

GUIDING QUESTIONS

There are the four guiding questions for this research project. Firstly, what is the cultural context of Melanesia? Secondly, how has Christianity influenced Melanesian communities? Thirdly, what are some of the descriptions for community that Paul used in Eph 2? Finally, what are some contextually-meaningful ways to communicate biblical expressions from Eph 2 in Melanesia?

METHODOLOGY

This paper uses a qualitative approach to research; obtaining relevant data on the topic of study from library and internet sources. From an ethnographic perspective, the common practices and values of diverse

Melanesian cultures are gleaned from different authors. For example, Fugmann describes relationships as a key to salvation in Melanesia, which should help in contextualising the community section.¹ Other vital contributions are made by Chao² in the section on traditional loyalties, and by Mantovani,³ in the qualities of culture section. In addition, as a Melanesian researcher, complementary data to the literature is in the form of personal experiences and reflections.

Exegetically, the exegetical steps found in the *Elements of Biblical Exegesis*⁴ by Gorman are applied to Eph 2, to expose and critically analyse Paul's expressions of community, before contextualising these to the Melanesian Christian community. Contextually, the four steps by Hiebert, in *Critical Contextualisation*,⁵ as modified by Douglas Hanson in his thesis,⁶ will be used to exegete the Melanesian values. Doing so ensures a better understanding of the Melanesian contemporary context; thereby enabling a contextualisation of the expressions given by Paul in Ephesians to Melanesians. Finally, the paper concludes with considerations of the questions raised, and offers suggestions for future scholarly work.

LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

In order to carry out the tasks described above, the paper recognises that there are limitations, and acknowledges certain delimitations to this study. Firstly, on limitations: the author was aware that not all relevant resources

¹ Gernot Fugmann, "Salvation in Melanesian Religions", in Ennio Mantovani, ed., *An Introduction to Melanesian Religions, Point 6* (1984), pp. 283-284.

² M. John Paul Chao, *A New Sense of Community: Traditional Loyalties, Citizenship, and Government Policies: Perspectives from a Squatter Settlement*, Occasional Papers of the Melanesian Institute 5, Goroka PNG: Melanesian Institute, 1987, pp. 7-10.

³ Ennio Mantovani, *Meaning and Functions of Culture: an Introduction for Melanesia*, Occasional Paper of the Melanesian Institute 9, Goroka PNG: Melanesian Institute, 1995, pp. 41-42.

⁴ Michael J. Gorman, *Elements of Biblical Exegesis: a Basic Guide for Students and Ministers*, 4th edn, Peabody MA: Hendrickson Publishers, 2009, pp. 177-178.

⁵ Paul G. Hiebert, "Critical Contextualization", in *International Bulletin of Missionary Research* 11-3 (July 1987), pp. 109-111.

⁶ Douglas D. Hanson, "Contextual Christology for Papua New Guineans", DMiss dissertation, Portland OR: Western Seminary, 2012, p. 118.

were available within the CLTC library to undertake this research. There may have been valuable monographs on Melanesian studies, which are available in other libraries in the Pacific, but these had not been accessed. Another limitation has been one of finances. Due to financial constraints, the researcher was unable to travel to undertake any extensive fieldwork in other parts of Melanesia. Yet another limitation was one of time. This research project had a limited time frame for completion. Therefore, the author was unable to undertake an elaborate literature research in libraries within the Melanesian region, where certain data sources may be accessed.

Secondly, on delimitations, the entire New Testament, and the book of Ephesians, are rich concerning the theme of community. However, this paper confines itself to the study of this theme in Eph 2 only. Another delimitation is that Melanesia is a vast region, which extends from the Fiji Islands in the east to Timor (Indonesia) in the west, and from Papua New Guinea in the north to the Tasman (Australia) down south. However, this paper focuses only on Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu. Finally, this paper will deal only with Melanesian tribal cultures, as opposed to other tribal cultures in Africa, South America, or elsewhere.

DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

A few terms need clarification or definition. These include: *Abu*, contextualisation, blood relationship, primal religion, and *wanpela hauslain*. Let us now consider each term individually:

Abu is the traditional Malaita (Solomon Islands) term for sacredness. Kabini Sanga defined this term as, “a state of being, of sacredness or holiness, requiring reference, respect, and honour”.⁷ Furthermore, the notion of *abu* also carries the concept of purity from defilement. It is a deep-rooted term in traditional Melanesian religious life.

“Blood relationship” is a Melanesian phrase, which is equivalent to, or related to, the phrase “kinship relationship”. In Melanesian usage, “blood

⁷ Kabini Sanga, “Lightning Meets the Light-bulb: *Abu* (*tapu*, sacredness) and transformational leadership in indigenous Solomon Islands”, www.leadershippacific.org/documents/Lightning%20Meets%20the%20Light-bulb.pdf, accessed April 11, 2013.

relation” emphasises the closeness of a person to another, in terms of: a common ancestry, both in patrilineal and matrilineal societies, and that related people are tied to their land. Whereas, in Western kin relationships, there are no vigorous interactions, because family members tend to move out from the land and basically fend for themselves.

Another term to define is “primal religion”. “Primal religions are indigenous, local, traditional, or tribal religions that are non-universal.”⁸ Jason Mandryk uses another related term, “traditional ethnic religions”, which means the same, and can be used interchangeably.⁹ Primal religion and traditional ethnic religions will be preferred for use in this paper, although other terms are available, such as, “animism”, or “animatism, totemism, ancestor-worship [sic], or even polytheism”,¹⁰ which may imply negative and derogatory connotations to be avoided.

“Contextualisation” is another term that needs to be defined. Although it is a slippery term that depends on who is using it,¹¹ a broad definition of this term would be to understand the meaning of a text or message that is transferred from one cultural setting to another. In this paper, it means to re-present the concept of the authentic community,¹² as presented in Eph 2, to speak to Melanesian cultures. Generally, it is the transferring of Paul’s understanding of community, by using concrete examples, to enable Melanesians to grasp the concept in their context.

⁸ Carol V. McKinney, “Primal Religion”, in *Evangelical Dictionary of World Missions*, A. Scott Moreau, ed., Grand Rapids MI: Baker Books, 2000, p. 787.

⁹ Mandryk uses this term, when he refers to the primal religions of three Melanesian countries: Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu, in *Operation World*, see respective pages given: Jason Mandryk, *Operation World*, 7th edn, Colorado Springs CO: Biblica Publishing, 2010, pp. 670, 752, 876.

¹⁰ E. A. Adeolu Adegbola, “History of Thought”, in *Primal World-Views: Christian Involvement in Dialogue with Traditional Thought Forms*, John B. Taylor, ed., Ibadan Nigeria: Daystar Press, 1976, p. 65.

¹¹ D. A. Carson, *The Gagging of God: Christianity Confronts Pluralism*, Grand Rapids MI: Zondervan, 1996, p. 539.

¹² John M. Hitchen, “Culture and the Bible – The Question of Contextualisation”, course notes, Banz PNG: Christian Leaders’ Training College, 2014, p. 1, a revised version of a paper presented at the SPBC Biennial Conference, Sydney, July 1-5, 1991, published in its original form in *Melanesian Journal of Theology* 8-2 (1992), pp. 30-52.

Wanpela hauslain refers to a small community from about ten households to around a few hundred households, who are kin- or blood-related. *Wanpela hauslain* will always look after itself in trying situations, such as, compensation payments, mortuary rituals, and tribal warfare.

ASSUMPTIONS

Before going into the next section on the Christian and traditional cultural background of Melanesia, it is noteworthy to state some of the basic assumptions underlying the writing of this paper. There are three basic assumptions. Firstly, the biblical record of God's word is trustworthy and final in authority in matters concerning theology. Secondly, the paper can group together different Melanesian cultures and practices, because all Melanesian cultures are conceived, informed, and influenced by primal religion. Finally, there is enough material to methodologically approach the issue of contextualisation of community in Eph 2 in Melanesia, based on available library and internet sources. Now, we will proceed to analyse the Christian cultural context of Melanesia.

UNDERSTANDING THE MELANESIAN CONTEXT

Two questions need to be asked in dealing with the Melanesian context. What is the Melanesian context? How did Christianity influence Melanesian communities? These questions are dealt with in three ways. Firstly, by locating Melanesia in relation to the rest of Oceania, then analysing the common features of Melanesian traditional cultures and governmental systems. Secondly, by analysing the mission strategies used by different Christian missionary organisations. Thirdly and finally, by understanding and determining the root causes of the problems, together with the effects, results, and impacts of the changes brought on by Christian missionaries and colonisation on Melanesian communities.

THE NATURAL AND TRADITIONAL MELANESIAN CONTEXT

Consideration of the Melanesian context will cover the following: geographical location and people, cultural commonalities, and government systems used by Melanesians before and after the advent of Western colonialism. To claim that these are the only ways to understand the

Melanesian context is an understatement. Nevertheless, elucidating these areas will give vital background information for this study.

Geographical Location

Geographically, the whole of Melanesia spans from Timor Island (Indonesia) in the west to Fiji in the east, from the New Guinea Island in the north to Tasmania (Australia) in the south. This would represent the true meaning of Melanesia, since it is made up of two Greek words: μέλας (melas), which means “black”, and νῆσος (nēsos), which means “island”, hence, the meaning “islands inhabited by black people”.¹³ However, this research covers the part of the area known as the north-central Melanesia. This consists of three Melanesian island nations, namely; Papua New Guinea, Vanuatu, and the Solomon Islands. These island nations are located from east of Australia, to the Kingdom of Tonga to the east, and from Nauru in the north, to Indonesia in the west (see Figure 1).¹⁴

¹³ Zdzislaw Kruczek, *A Short History of Christianity in Melanesian Countries*. Mt Hagen PNG: Mi-cha-el CSMA, 2011, pp. 27-28.

¹⁴ Map of Oceania, from www.mapsofworld.com/australia-and-oceania, accessed April 12, 2014.



Figure 1: Location of Melanesia in Oceania

The largest island, Papua New Guinea (PNG), in Figure 2,¹⁵ has an area of 462,840 square kilometres.¹⁶ PNG lies across the northern tip of Australia (see Figure 1), and shares a common border with West Irian (Indonesia), to make the second largest island in the world.¹⁷ West Irian was annexed by Indonesia,¹⁸ although it was supposed to be given the opportunity to determine its own future, after an administrative period from 1965 to 1969.¹⁹ PNG, however, went on to gain its independence from the Australian administration in 1975.²⁰

¹⁵ Map of Papua New Guinea with West Irian (Indonesia), from www.google.com.pg/?gws_rd=cr&ei=19xIU9utNcaGrgeY4IDwAw#q=map+of+papua+new+guinea, accessed April 24, 2014.

¹⁶ Mandryk, *Operation World*, p. 670.

¹⁷ Bruce Grant, *Indonesia*, Carlton Vic: Melbourne University Press, 1966, p. 117.

¹⁸ See Figure 2: The political division between Papua New Guinea with West Irian (Indonesia), from www.google.com.pg/?gws_rd=cr&ei=19xIU9utNcaGrgeY4IDwAw#q=map+of+papua+new+guinea, accessed April 24, 2014.

¹⁹ J. D. Legge, *Indonesia*, Englewood Cliffs NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1964, p. 156.

²⁰ Mandryk, *Operation World*, p. 670.



Figure 2: The political division between Papua New Guinea and West Irian (Indonesia)

According to *Operation World* in 2010, PNG had an approximate population of 6,888,387 people, of which 98.2 percent were Melanesians, while Christians numbered 95.84 percent.²¹ Linguistically, PNG is varied and diverse, so that villagers, even only a few miles apart, cannot understand each other.²² It has about 1,000 people groups, who speak 830 languages.²³ Despite the high percentage of Christian affiliation, traditional ethnic religion remains a powerful underlying influence.²⁴

Vanuatu, as seen in Figure 3, below,²⁵ is a nation with scattered islands. In the *Operation World* record, Vanuatu is made up of 12 larger islands and 70 smaller ones, which amount to an area of 12,190 square kilometres.²⁶ It has

²¹ Ibid.

²² Brian Essai, *Papua and New Guinea: a Contemporary Survey*, Melbourne Vic: Oxford University Press, 1961, p. 32.

²³ Mandryk, *Operation World*, p. 670.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Map of Vanuatu Islands, from www.google.com.pg/search, accessed April 26, 2014.

²⁶ Mandryk, *Operation World*, p. 875.

a population of 245,000 people, of which 94.08% affiliate to the Christian religion.²⁷



Figure 3: Map of Vanuatu Islands

Even though Vanuatu has a high percentage of Christian affiliations, there are still influences of traditional ethnic religion on islands, such as, Tanna, Aniwo, Santo, Vao, and others.²⁸ The influence of traditional ethnic religion is slowly gaining momentum among the people. Lionel Tom, a budding theologian from Santo Island, in the introduction to his article *A Biblical Response to Divination in the Churches Among the Akey People on the Island of Santo in Vanuatu*, commented that divination is a problem in the churches today.²⁹ Therefore, even with a high proportion of Christians, traditional ethnic religion is still an underlying, determining factor for Christians in this Melanesian nation.

²⁷ Ibid., pp. 875-876.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 876.

²⁹ Lionel Tom, "A Biblical Response to Divination in the Churches Among the Akey People on the Island of Santo in Vanuatu", in *Melanesian Journal of Theology* 30-1 (2014), p. 36.

Solomon Islands is made up of six main volcanic islands and numerous smaller islands,³⁰ which make up an area of 27, 556 square kilometres.³¹ It has a total population of 535,699 people, of which 90.2 percent are Melanesians.³² Solomon Islands is sandwiched between Papua New Guinea, in the north-west, and Vanuatu, in the south-east.



Figure 4: Map of Solomon Islands

Religiously, about 95.8 percent are Christian affiliates, and other religions make up the other 4.2 percent. Even though there is a high percentage of Christian affiliation, and, in spite of having revival in almost all denominations in 1982, Solomon Islands still has a problem of nominalism.³³

³⁰ See Figure 4: Map of Solomon Islands, from www.google.com.pg/search, accessed April 24, 2014.

³¹ Mandryk, *Operation World*, p. 751.

³² Ibid.

³³ The word “nominalism” roughly means to be a Christians in form only, not a committed follower of Christ, Ibid., p. 752.

Country	Total Population	Melanesians %	Christian Affiliation %	Other Religions %
Papua New Guinea	6,888,387	98.2	95.84	4.16
Solomon Islands	535, 699	90.2	95.8	4.2
Vanuatu	245, 000	91.9	94.08	5.92

Table 1: Populations of Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu, comparing Christian affiliation and other religions

Summary – The data in Table 1, above, shows that more than 90 percent of the three Melanesian countries profess to be Christians, and only less than 10 percent of their total populations are affiliated with other religions. Nevertheless, two principles are working beneath the high percentages of Christianity. Firstly, in each of these Melanesia countries, the underlying force of traditional ethnic religion can still be felt among Christians. Secondly, there is a high rate of nominalism among professing Christians, as is the case in the Solomon Islands. Hence, the concept of Christian community is vague in Melanesia.

Government Systems

The traditional Melanesian way of governing is not equivalent to modern-day political governing systems.³⁴ For example, a state has its elected members and parliament as the highest decision-making body, with various supporting systems to enforce the policies made and to oversee and provide services to the people. Therefore, two leading questions can be asked.

The first question is: How did a Melanesian community govern itself traditionally? An analysis of the documents available shows that at least the following features of traditional Melanesian cultures are seen as governing instruments.

³⁴ Phyllis M. Kaberry, “Political Organisation among the Northern Abelam”, in *Anthropological Forum* 1-3&4 (December 1965-June 1966), p. 334.

Firstly, there is strong evidence of the function of a legal code and procedure within any given traditional Melanesian culture. Gross agrees with Redfield, and other anthropologists, that traditional societies have laws, which exist in incipient and rudimentary forms.³⁵ This is agreeable, a leaning towards the Darwinian concept of evolution.³⁶ These laws are the basis for Melanesian morality. The laws govern the relationships between males and females, and the restrictions demanded by rituals and ceremonies. To ignore these laws, means to face punishment, and even banishment.

The term “law” can be equated with different terms in the Melanesian context. In Papua New Guinea, it is *lo*, which generally means “custom or rule”.³⁷ Nehrbass, who studied the Tannese culture in Vanuatu, identified this, and argued that, in order for change to happen, a careful analysis and synthesis of the *kastom* concerning all aspects of life must be undertaken, because *kastom* is deeply rooted in rituals and magic.³⁸ Therefore, laws in traditional Melanesian cultures, are the functional mechanism of governing a society.

Secondly, the governing effect of law is transmitted through the relationships and social structures of the community. Radcliffe-Brown notes that the study of social anthropology deals with the “relations of association between individual organisms”.³⁹ These relations of association can either be between the individual person, who forms the traditional autonomous political unit, between villages, which are the next political unit, or tribes, as the wider political unit.⁴⁰ It is the respect towards these levels of units that

³⁵ Robert Redfield, “Primitive Law”, in *Law and Warfare: Studies in the Anthropology of Conflict*, Paul Bohannan, ed., Garden City NY: National History Press, 1967, pp. 3-24, quoted in Daniel R. Gross, *Discovering Anthropology*, Mountain View CA: Mayfield Publishing, 1992, p. 420.

³⁶ Garry W. Trompf, *Melanesian Religion*, Cambridge UK: Cambridge University Press, 1991, p. 8.

³⁷ Francis Mihalic, *The Jacaranda Dictionary and Grammar of Melanesian Pidgin*, Milton Qld: Jacaranda Press, 1971, p. 122.

³⁸ Kenneth. Nehrbass, *Christianity and Animism in Melanesia: Four Approaches to Gospel and Culture*, Pasadena CA: William Carey Library, 2012, p. 25.

³⁹ A. R. Radcliffe-Brown, *Structure and Function in Primitive Society*, London UK: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1952, p. 189.

⁴⁰ Kaberry, “Political Organisation”, p. 334.

ensures the upholding of the unwritten Melanesian behavioural codes of governance in society.

Thirdly, the governing effect of law is propagated through experiences within society. The experience of a society is both positive and negative. Mantovani rightly states that people experience the help and safety of the community, because of that, they believe in the value of the community, and readily serve or suffer for their community.⁴¹ However, if one does not collaborate in communal endeavours, negative measures, such as, gossiping, or even sorcery, are used to pull people back into line.⁴² The experience of the individual shows the effect of the unwritten codes at work in the community.

Finally, the unwritten laws of any traditional Melanesian society are directed towards the well-being, or what is sometimes referred to as *gutpela*⁴³ *sindaun*,⁴⁴ of the society. The *kastom*, or *lo*, of Melanesian societies is integral to the well-being of each society, although there are minor differences of *kastom*, or *lo*, in each society. Therefore, the above discussion generally points to the fact that, in traditional Melanesian societies, there are laws that undergird the governance of the community. These laws work only through the mutual respect of the stakeholders of the culture, in the expressions of *kastom*, and *lo*, before the *gutpela sindaun* of each Melanesian traditional society is guaranteed.

The second question to ask is: Why have Melanesian traditional cultural forms of governance changed? For the purpose of this paper, two specific influences will be discussed. The Melanesian ways of governance have changed over the years, due mainly to the advent of Christianity, and Western colonisation. Of these two external influences, the thrust of Christianity caused more rapid changes than Western colonialism. Luzbetak states that “Whether missionaries are inclined to admit it or not, they are

⁴¹ Ennio Mantovani, *Traditional and Present-day Melanesian Values and Ethics*, Occasional Paper of the Melanesian Institute 7, Goroka PNG: Melanesian Institute, 1993, p. 14.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 14.

⁴³ Mihalic, *Jacaranda Dictionary*, p. 91.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 173.

professional agents of culture change, for there is no other way of establishing, consolidating, and perpetuating the church in a society than through its culture".⁴⁵ However, the rate of change within different localities depended entirely on the ethos of the mission agency that worked in a particular locality. For example, Keesing argued that the ethos of the South Sea Evangelical Mission (SSEM), working among the Kwaio in the Solomon Islands, was to destroy all cultural practices, so as to perpetuate Christianity.⁴⁶ But the Melanesian Mission philosophy was to allow the islanders to keep as many traditional ways and culture as possible.⁴⁷ Under the SSEM's influence, cultural changes were faster, while, under Melanesian Mission, change was slower, in certain aspects of traditional beliefs. The goals of both missions were to build a new community of God. The slow or rapid erosion of traditional Melanesian cultures and forms came as a product of the change in the lives of the people. It reflected the standards of the new community, to which they now belonged.

The other influence for change in traditional Melanesian cultural systems of governance was the "cause and effect" of the introduced governing systems from the Western colonisers, such as, England, France, and Australia. In the quest to expand their frontiers, Western nations claimed authority over certain blocks of the Pacific islands. Balasuriya rightly portrays the Western colonial superiority complex as at its height under European expansion over the past 450 years.⁴⁸ Balasuriya goes on to state that, "From the point of view of Western man [sic], they were a period of great expansion, triumph, and growth. For others, they were centuries of defeat, colonisation, pillage, and exploitation."⁴⁹ While Balasuriya is more polemic in this stance, John

⁴⁵ Louis J. Luzbetak, *The Church and Cultures: An Applied Anthropology for the Religious Worker*, Techny IL: Divine Word Publications, 1970, p. 6, quoted in Jacob A. Loewen, *Culture and Human Values: Christian Intervention in Anthropological Perspective*, South Pasadena CA: William Carey Library, 1975, pp. 5-6.

⁴⁶ Roger M. Keesing, "Christians and Pagans in Kwaio, Malaita", in *The Journal of the Polynesian Society* 76-1 (1967), pp. 82-100.

⁴⁷ A. R Tippet, *Solomon Islands Christianity: a Study in Growth and Obstruction*, London UK: Lutterworth Press, 1967, p. 35.

⁴⁸ Tissa Balasuriya, "Developing the Poor by Civilising the Rich", in *Pacific Perspective* 2-1 (1973), p. 9.

⁴⁹ Balasuriya, "Developing the Poor", p. 9.

Hitchen notes that in this “onward march of Western civilisation”⁵⁰ there are some positive aspects to it. For example, Hitchen, who studied the influence of Pacific missionaries on anthropology, agreeably argues that Christian missionaries contributed to the preservation and protection of the cultural heritages of local people.⁵¹ The Melanesian region was no exception in this period of Western colonial expansion. Melanesia has been influenced, to a certain degree, as the following brief history of Papua New Guinea, Vanuatu, and the Solomon Islands shows.

Papua New Guinea was claimed to have been sighted by an unknown Portuguese captain in 1512, and later by the Spanish sailor Alvaro de Saavedra in 1528.⁵² It was not until more than 300 years later that Captain Moresby surveyed and named Port Moresby in 1871.⁵³ On April 4, 1883, Britain annexed South-East New Guinea, under the promulgation effort of a Mr Chester, who took possession in the name of the Queen, and a year later, after a political conference in Sydney, Commodore Erskine of the Australian Station proceeded to proclaim British protectorate over South-East Papua on November 6, 1884.⁵⁴ Because of these two different declarations, New Guinea and Papua were two separate territories, with their own legislative councils (see Figure 5).⁵⁵

⁵⁰ John M. Hitchen, “Relations Between Missiology and Anthropology Then and Now: Insights from the Contribution to Ethnography and Anthropology by Nineteenth-Century Missionaries in the South Pacific”, in *Missiology: an International Review* XXX-4 (October 2002), p. 460.

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 458-460.

⁵² J. P. Thomson, *British New Guinea*, London UK: George Philip & Son, 1892, p. 2.

⁵³ *Ibid.*

⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

⁵⁵ D. Barrett, “Rubber Stamp or Parliament?”, in *The Politics of Melanesia*, Marion W. Ward, Susan C. Tarua, May Dudley, eds, Canberra ACT: The Research School of Pacific Studies, The Australian National University, 1970, p. 428.



Figure 5: The two territories under Australian control

In the years after 1884, colonial influences on cultural roles began to be superimposed on the local people. Fort confirms, in his historical account of the establishment of Port Moresby, that a certain village chief, by the name of Boevagi, was formally appointed to be recognised as the chief for the district. Other village chiefs had to refer all complaints to him.⁵⁶ PNG became a territory of Australia in 1906,⁵⁷ and finally adopted its constitution on August 15, 1975, a month before gaining independence on September 16, 1975.⁵⁸ However, PNG has continued to depend on foreign goods to satisfy the cultural changes, that it went through, because of external influences. Even today, dynamic cultural changes are continuing to be experienced.

The Solomon Islands was sighted by Alvaro de Mendana in 1568, and was annexed to the king of Spain between April 7, 1568, and May 5, 1568.⁵⁹ However, nothing much came from Mendana's voyage, other than his report and the naming of the Isles of Solomon.⁶⁰ There were other sightings of the

⁵⁶ G. S. Fort, "Report on British New Guinea from Data and Notes by the Late Sir Peter Scratchley", in *Readings in New Guinea History*, B. Jinks, P. Biskup, H. Nelson, eds, Sydney NSW: Angus & Robertson, 1973, p. 45.

⁵⁷ Charles W. Forman, *The Island Churches of the South Pacific: Emergence in the Twentieth Century*. Maryknoll NY: Orbis Books, 1982, p. 54.

⁵⁸ John Dademo Waiko, *A Short History of Papua New Guinea*, Oxford UK: Oxford University Press, 1993, p. 189.

⁵⁹ J. C. Beaglehole, *The Exploration of the Pacific: The Pioneer Histories*, V. T. Harlow, J. A. Williamson, eds, London UK: A. & C. Black, 1934, p. 57.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 67-68.

islands, but it was not until 1791 that the islands were explored fully by d'Entrecasteaux, in his search for the missing Captain La Perouse.⁶¹ After d'Entrecasteaux's voyage, gradual increase of contact and influence came from the outside world to the Solomon Islands.

British annexation of the Solomon Islands came in 1893, governing the remote colony via Suva, with a minimal involvement policy.⁶² However, two reasons forced Britain to annexe the islands. Firstly, there was widespread dealing in arms, and in labour trafficking, also known as blackbirding, by foreigners into Fijian and Queensland sugar plantations.⁶³ Hilliard affirms this by noting that Malaita was a popular recruiting ground, though not free of danger, where about 10,000 labourers were taken to Queensland alone.⁶⁴ Secondly, an "annexation by any other power would have antagonised . . . Queensland, with its interest in obtaining labour".⁶⁵ At least, for these obvious reasons, Britain had to take the Solomon Islands under protection.

On July 7, 1978, Solomon Islands became a sovereign nation. However, the young nation was made in the Western mould, to support Western civilisation. In sketching the impact of colonialism on the Solomon Islands, Keesing iterates that the Solomon Islands was designed to reflect the white man's fashion – air-conditioned offices, mini-skirted Melanesian girls, transistor radios, trade stores, plantations, schools, clinics, and missions.⁶⁶ This became the basis for a continuous craving by Solomon Islanders for outside material kinds. The Solomon Islands will never be the same. It has

⁶¹ Leslie R. Marchant, "La Pérouse, Jean-François de Galaup (1741-1788)", in *Australian Dictionary of Biography*, Carlton Vic: Melbourne University Press, 1967, <http://adb.anu.edu.au/biography/la-perouse-jean-francois-de-galaup-2329>, accessed May 14, 2014.

⁶² I. Q. Lasaqa, "Melanesians' Choice: Tadhimboko Participation in the Solomon Islands Cash Economy", in *New Guinea Research Bulletin* 46, Canberra ACT: Australian National University New Guinea Research Unit, 1972, pp. 8-9.

⁶³ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

⁶⁴ David Hilliard, "The South Sea Evangelical Mission in the Solomon Islands: The Foundation Years", in *The Journal of Pacific History* 4 (1969), p. 41.

⁶⁵ Lasaqa, "Melanesians' Choice", p. 8.

⁶⁶ Roger Keesing, "Seeking Paths for Solomon's Development", in *Pacific Perspective* 2-1 (1973), p. 21.

changed in culture, and now has to look for help from those who instigated the change in the first place.

In 1606, the Portuguese navigator, Pedro de Quiros, was the first to sight Vanuatu. He believed that it was the elusive Southern continent, though it was Santo that he had reached, and he named it *Terra Australis de Espiritu Santo* (Great Southland of the Holy Spirit).⁶⁷ However, it was Captain Cook, who charted most parts of the Islands, and named it the New Hebrides.⁶⁸

The New Hebrides became a farmland for cotton growers, traders, and opportunists, heightened by the civil war in America, which downplayed its cotton production. The arrival of British, Australian, and French settlers necessitated the formation of the condominium⁶⁹ governing system. By 1887, they had formed the Anglo-French Naval Commission. This never went well, because of the British-French rivalry in Egypt, and other places. As a result, the condominium was actually set up in 1906, and the two powers had systems in place, side by side.⁷⁰

According to Lini, the condominium had had some modifications, and, from 1922, a joint administration was imposed on the New Hebrideans, with no control, power, or citizenship in their own land.⁷¹ Nevertheless, Lini piloted the nation to independence from British and French domination on July 30, 1980, following a lot of insurgence by local people, who were motivated by foreigners with French interests, and the New Hebrides became Vanuatu.⁷² Within the years that the condominium was in place, the Vanuatu people experienced many cultural changes. They not only produced goods for

⁶⁷ Harry Luke, *Islands of the South Pacific*, London UK: George G. Harrap, 1962, pp. 137-138.

⁶⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 138.

⁶⁹ The phrase “condominium” means “the joint control of a state’s affairs by other states”; see “condominium”, in *Oxford English Dictionary*, 11th edn, Catherine Soanes, Angus Stevenson, eds, Oxford UK: Oxford University Press, 2008.

⁷⁰ Luke, *Islands of the South Pacific*, pp. 138-139.

⁷¹ Walter Lini, *Beyond Pandemonium: From the New Hebrides to Vanuatu*, Wellington NZ: Asia Pacific Books, 1980, p. 17.

⁷² *Ibid.*, pp. 53-54.

personal consumption, but also copra, coffee, cocoa, and other tropical products, to support outside trade.⁷³

Summary – From the foregoing discussions, we see that, generally, Melanesians governed themselves by traditional laws, which formed the basis of their morality. However, with the expansion of Western civilisation and Christianity, we see that Melanesia has changed. Melanesia has changed from islands, scattered across the sea, to island nations. New forms of governing systems were imposed on these new nations. They made new friends, to supply their demands (imports), and trades local, raw produce (exports), to meet what was required of them.

Melanesia has changed since its initial contact with the outside world, and will continue to change in the future. The focus is shifting from the local to the international community. This provides a challenge in the understanding of Christian community. With this ongoing process of cultural change, the traditional concept of communal living is slowly disappearing from the minds of a new generation of Melanesians.

Cultural Commonalities

Melanesian cultures are rich and diverse, in so many ways. The scope of culture varies from the simple preparation of food to the more complex patterns of thought, behaviour, and symbolic meanings.⁷⁴ To discuss the spectrum of Melanesian cultural traditions would be a daunting task to attempt here. However, there is a fine opportunity to take on the challenge to discuss Melanesian cultures, through analysing the cultural commonalities that are presented.

The first common aspect in all Melanesian cultures is what social anthropology had previously termed “animism”,⁷⁵ or, more recently, “primal

⁷³ Luke, *Islands of the South Pacific*, p. 141.

⁷⁴ Daniel R. Gross, *Discovering Anthropology*, pp. 14-15.

⁷⁵ The anthropologist, E. B. Tylor, was the first to use the term “animist” in the 19th century, Robert H. Lowie, *Primitive Religion*, New York NY: Liveright Publishing, 1952, p. 99.

religion”.⁷⁶ Primal religion is the underlying cognate in all Melanesian cultures and communities. Primal religion has historically informed the cosmological understanding, and the interpretation of events and experiences in life. Burnett contrasts the secular and primal religious worldviews,⁷⁷ which is adapted and modified in this paper, as seen in Figure 6.

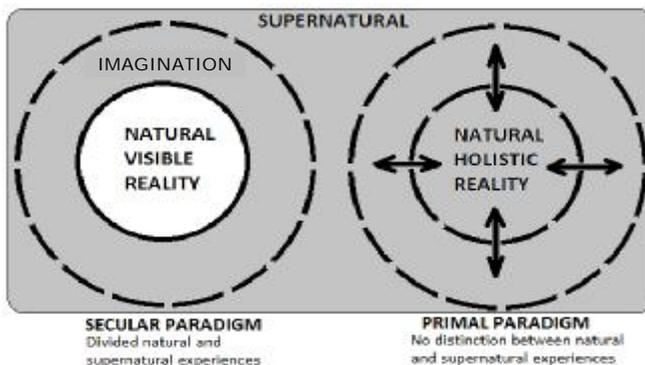


Figure 6: Two contrasting paradigms: secular and primal worldviews

The primal religious paradigm does not differentiate between supernatural and natural occurrences, as in a secular worldview. Consequently, on the one hand, an experience, in the Melanesian community context, is both natural and supernatural, although it is deemed natural in the secular paradigm. On the other hand, what is seen as a supernatural religious experience, in the Melanesian culture, exists only in the imagination of the person with a secular paradigm.

Melanesians have no distinction or disparity between natural and supernatural entities, but have one whole cosmology, which incorporates both. It is this primal paradigm that is the basic root of all Melanesian

⁷⁶ In the introduction to *Primal World-Views*, John B. Taylor defined “primal” as “the basic form of religion, as opposed to the suggestion that it means truer and more authentic than other religions, John B. Taylor, ed., *Primal World-Views: Christian Involvement in Dialogue with Traditional Thought Forms*, Ibadan Nigeria: Daystar Press, 1976, p. 3.

⁷⁷ David Burnett, *Unearthly Powers: A Christian Perspective on Primal and Folk Religion*, Eastbourne UK: MARC, 1988, p. 16.

worldviews; giving meaningful frameworks to the way people behave and practice in their social contexts.

Secondly, fear is a common aspect in Melanesian cultures. In the Melanesian community context, it can determine a child's upbringing, relationship building, or how a person decides to fulfil a day's chores. For example, in analysing the factors that shaped his personality traits, Yandit reflected on his childhood days that children were taught to fear the spirit world, because it "controlled the natural world, including human existence, with its taboos and regulations . . . and failure to observe such realities brought retributions on . . . the community".⁷⁸

Another example of fear concerns the behaviour of the Akey people in Vanuatu. Lionel Tom raised two questions concerning their behaviour. Firstly, to whom do the people give priority, when they need guidance? Secondly, why do people give priority to diviners, and not to pastors? His answers to both questions are that the Akey people give priority to seek guidance from diviners, and not the pastors. The reason is because pastors could not do the following: provide answers quickly, diagnose the cause of a sickness, or determine if a journey will be safe.⁷⁹ However, the underlying issue of fear is not addressed in the article. It is fear of the causes of sickness, or of the unknown future, that caused the Akey people to behave in that particular manner. Melanesian people are fearful of the unknown sphere of the supernatural spiritual world. Therefore, they want to get quick answers to their questions about the uncertainties of what is to happen in the future.

Thirdly, another common aspect in Melanesian societies is sacredness, or *abu*. The notion of *abu*, in the traditional Gula'ala⁸⁰ (Solomon Islands) culture, is vital for existence within the community, in "reference, respect, honour,"⁸¹ and "purity in actions".⁸² *Abu*, or sacredness, as a value,

⁷⁸ Kirine Yandit, "Personal Development Portfolio", DMin program paper submitted for the Course PD810, Wantirna Vic: Melbourne School of Theology, 2013, pp. 6-7.

⁷⁹ Tom, "Divination in the Churches", p. 43.

⁸⁰ Gula'ala traditional culture is that of the author.

⁸¹ Kabini Sanga, "Lightning Meets the Light-bulb".

demands mutuality among all stakeholders. In the Melanesian context, stakeholders of *abu* refer to a sacred space, persons, and objects. Habel notes that a sacred space, sacred persons, and sacred objects are notable features in any one particular Melanesian traditional cultural context.⁸³

Sacredness, or *abu*, is expressed in a variety of ways and forms in most Melanesian traditional cultures. Because of the sacredness of an object, space, or the person, people behave appropriately towards it. To deviate from *abu*, or sacredness, will bring heavy consequences on the individual person, or the whole community. For example, in Tolai traditional culture, *tambu*,⁸⁴ or shell money, can be used for many different purposes. The use of this *tambu* ranges from a simple daily transaction between people at the market place to a more serious business transaction involving “cash crops, such as, copra and cocoa”.⁸⁵ Significantly, our primary concern is when *tambu* is used in ritualistic occasions. During ritualistic occasions, “[T]ambu is considered very sacred, and seen as a means of contacting the spirit world”.⁸⁶ When *tambu* is to be used in a ritualistic sense, right protocols need to be considered carefully, to avoid unwanted repercussions. Therefore, whether sacredness is implied to shell money, a place, or a person; the above discussion shows that sacredness is, in fact, a commonality in Melanesian traditional societies.

Lastly, symbols are another significant common aspect in traditional Melanesian cultures. For example, in the case of *tambu*, when it is used in ritual ceremonies, it translates as a distinguishable sacredness, apart from its

⁸² Allan A. Sanga, “The Resurgence of Witchcraft and Sorcery Practices in the Gula’ala Society of the Malaita Province, Solomon Islands: a Theological Response”, in *Melanesian Journal of Theology* 30-1 (2014), pp. 56-74.

⁸³ Norman C. Habel, “Introduction”, in *Powers, Plumes, and Piglets: Phenomena of Melanesian Religion*, Norman C. Habel, ed., Bedford Park SA: Australian Association for the Study of Religions, 1979, pp. 8-11.

⁸⁴ The term *tambu* should not be confused with a similar term, *tabu*, which is equivalent to “taboo”, or “sacred and forbidden”.

⁸⁵ Casper G. ToVaninara, “Tambu: Traditional Sacred Wealth”, in *Powers, Plumes, and Piglets: Phenomena of Melanesian Religion*, Norman C. Habel, ed., Bedford Park SA: Australian Association for the Study of Religions, 1979, p. 33.

⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

normal use, because it becomes a symbol. In analysing symbols, Flannery stated that symbols are very complex human realities, because of that, it is difficult to give symbol a precise and simple definition.⁸⁷ However, she goes on to produce six characteristics of symbols, and one of these is: “When a sign becomes a true symbol, it points to a meaning, or set of meanings, ‘larger’ than what it signifies in ordinary experience. It represents a reality beyond the ordinary, which is elusive, and cannot be fully grasped.”⁸⁸ An example is given in the table below.⁸⁹

Cultural or Natural Sign	Context	Conventional Meaning
<i>Tambu</i>	Daily usage in a market place	Normal monetary medium of exchange
	<i>Minamai</i> ceremony. Shell-money sharing after burying a dead person	Guarantee the right of passage of the dead, and relationship with ancestral spirits of those dead before, protection from evil talk of those left behind, ensure proper burial process

Table 2: An example of symbolic and natural uses of *Tambu*

ToVaniara describes this dynamic change of the meaning of *tambu* from a normal medium of exchange to a more sacred ritualistic symbol as “more or less identified with ancestral spirits, but not identical with them”.⁹⁰ *Tambu* becomes even more valuable than the deceased itself, because it is identified with the ancestral spirits, hence it becomes a spiritual thing, while the deceased is still part of the physical realm. Therefore, sacred symbolism is a commonality in Melanesia.

⁸⁷ Wendy Flannery, “Symbol and Myth in Melanesian Cultures”, in *Missiology: an International Review* VII-4 (October 1979), p. 238.

⁸⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 438.

⁸⁹ The table has been adapted and modified, using the example from the paper, as discussed, above, *Ibid.*

⁹⁰ ToVaninara, “Tambu: Traditional Sacred Wealth”, pp. 35-37.

The different examples, given above, verify that, although Melanesian traditional practices are diverse, there is a cognate sense. While traditional practices and forms are unique to individual Melanesian cultural contexts, the underlying primal religion, fear, sacredness, and symbolism are still present within each culture. This means that each culture has the potential to express and contribute towards the cultural commonalities in a specific and unique way within the Melanesian context. Hence, there is a glimpse of hope to teach and understand the meaning of the expressions in Eph 2 of the biblical community.

Section Summary

This section discusses three specific aspects of the Melanesian context. Firstly, the identification of the general geographical location and the population of the three island nations of Melanesia. Concerning the location and population, two principles are seen to be at work: beneath the high percentage of Christian affiliation, there is the traditional ethnic religion and there is nominalism. This may be the challenge to understanding the Christian community.

Secondly, Melanesians govern themselves by traditional laws, which form the basis for their morality. Their governing systems have changed since contact with Western civilisation. They have moved from traditional laws and morality to a Westminster and condominium systems, and from simple barter systems to meeting international market standards and demands. Melanesia has been swallowed up by the dynamic process of change, and the region will never be the same again. This could be another challenge for relaying the biblical concept of community.

Finally, this section gives different examples of the cultural commonalities in Melanesia. These cultural commonalities should be seen as in-built possibilities, in the Melanesian context, that are readily available for Melanesians to use in contextualising the concept of the new Christian community in Eph 2.

CHRISTIANITY IN THE MELANESIAN CONTEXT

One of the contributing factors towards misunderstanding the Christian concept of community in Melanesia is the outcome of different mission organisations coming to Melanesia. Each of these mission organisations came to Melanesia with differing strategies and ethos in their mission work.

Mission Strategies and Ethos

The Protestant mission movements, such as the LMS, Methodist Mission, Lutheran Mission, and the SSEM, used similar strategies to reach the Melanesian people. The successes of the different mission agencies depended entirely on the strategies employed by individual mission agencies. The following are descriptions of the strategies and ethos of different mission movements.

The pattern for evangelism in the LMS was a providential happening which led to a more aggressive mission strategy used by John Williams, in 1823, in the Cook Islands,⁹¹ and later, in 1839, in the New Hebrides.⁹² Local evangelists were placed in locations to reach out to others.⁹³ This became the pattern for the westward mission expansion into Melanesia, which was that of partnership between the foreign and islander missionaries.

The Methodist Mission used this same strategy in bringing island missionaries from Fiji and Samoa.⁹⁴ In the same way, the Lutheran Mission also used local teachers, or what they termed “Simbang boys”,⁹⁵ to teach their own people. The SSEM and the Melanesian Mission also used a variation of this method in the different mission fields, where schools were set up to teach young islanders to become the evangelists to their own

⁹¹ John M. Hitchen, “Our South Pacific Mission Heritage: the Forgotten Central Strand”, course notes, Banz PNG: Christian Leaders’ Training College, 2014, p. 18.

⁹² *Ibid.*, p. 23.

⁹³ Forman, *The Island Churches of the South Pacific*, p. 8.

⁹⁴ John Garrett, *To Live Among the Stars: Christian Origins in Oceania*, Geneva Switzerland: WCC Publications, 1982, pp. 220-222.

⁹⁵ Johann Flierl, *Christ in New Guinea: Former Cannibals Become Evangelists by the Marvellous Grace of God: a Short History of Mission Work done by the Native Helpers and Teachers in the Lutheran Mission New Guinea*, Tanuda SA: Johann Flierl, 1932, pp. 14-21.

people. However, the Melanesian Mission used the “extraction” pattern.⁹⁶ Garrett precisely conceptualises this in the following quote: “Young men were recruited, with the consent of their families, from the Banks Group, north of the New Hebrides, the Loyalties, and parts of the Solomons, to be trained as ‘scholars’ in Auckland, and sent back to teach Christianity to their own people”.⁹⁷

The Roman Catholic Mission used a much different strategy. Forman noted that the Roman Catholic Mission’s reason for not using islanders as much as the other missions was that “there have been so many European missionaries available”,⁹⁸ and local personnel were not trained to take responsibility by then.

Therefore, the general strategy used in most of the mission movements, discussed above, was the partnership between Western and islander missionaries to propagate the gospel. Besides having that transmission strategy, each mission movement used a specific ethos in the Christianisation process. The ethos of these mission movements had a lot of bearing on the type of Christianity in a particular community of its influence.

The LMS ethos for evangelisation can be traced back to the first batch of missionaries into the Pacific. According to Forman, there were mostly artisans in the group of 30, and only four ministers.⁹⁹ Forman further comments that “it was assumed that these people would have to be civilised before they could understand Christianity”.¹⁰⁰ It was apparent that they had come with a preconceived cultural standard, to teach the islanders civilisation before Christianisation.

The Methodist Mission also used a similar philosophy to that of the LMS. Commenting on the nature of the emphasis of the Methodist Mission, Harwood iterates that “to missionaries like Goldie, Christianity was . . . a

⁹⁶ Hitchen, “Our South Pacific Mission Heritage”, pp. 28-29.

⁹⁷ Garrett, *To Live Among the Stars*, pp. 182-183.

⁹⁸ Forman, “The Missionary Force of the Pacific Island Churches”, in *International Review of Missions* 59-234 (April 1970), p. 221.

⁹⁹ Forman, *The Island Churches of the South Pacific*, p. 3.

¹⁰⁰ *Ibid.*

total way of life for his converts, which entailed a renunciation of the traditional lifestyle and its values”,¹⁰¹ and that Christianity replaced old ways rather than being an additive. With this mental envisioning, Harwood states that, after six years of founding the mission in the Solomon Islands, Goldie introduced the policy of an “industrial mission”.¹⁰² This was in vogue with “the mission’s emphasis on a ‘social ethic’, which stressed ‘works’ over ‘beliefs’, and emphasised the ‘here and now’, rather than a ‘future’ salvation”.¹⁰³ Therefore, the Methodist’s ethos in evangelism was to replace traditional values by introducing industry-based values, which would demonstrate the Christian way of living to the people.

The ethos of the Lutheran Mission can be deduced from the attributes of the beginning of the mission. According to Wagner, the only available model for propagation of the gospel, familiar to the missionaries, was that which was taught to them back home – formal worship services.¹⁰⁴ Meanwhile, Flierl went on to build a schoolhouse, which later became useful when Labita, a close relative of a ruling chief, appeared with 14 young men, to be taught for five months. That act was regarded as an evil trick, just to obtain iron tools, but, somehow, it became the approach used for evangelism.¹⁰⁵ The missionaries eventually attracted the young people by offering tools, after training in cultivation methods, different fruit trees, and the “Christian way of life”, hence, evangelisation by civilisation.¹⁰⁶ Therefore, the Lutheran Mission had to change its philosophy, even if it meant being patient before the first harvest of souls.

¹⁰¹ Francis H. Harwood, *The Methodist Mission and the Emergence of the Christian Fellowship Church: an Analysis of Partial Equivalent Structures in the Western Solomon Islands*, draft photocopy, PNG: Wesleyan University, 1974, pp. 8-9.

¹⁰² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

¹⁰³ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁴ Herwig Wagner, “Beginnings at Finschhafen: the Neuendettelsau Mission Jointly with the Australian Lutheran Church”, in *The Lutheran Church in Papua New Guinea: the First Hundred Years 1886-1986*, Herwig Wagner, Herman Reiner, eds, Adelaide SA: Lutheran Publishing, 1987, p. 38.

¹⁰⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 38-39.

¹⁰⁶ *Ibid.*

The Melanesian Mission's¹⁰⁷ philosophy of working within Melanesian fields was to be more tolerant of the native cultures.¹⁰⁸ In analysing the policies of the Melanesian Mission, as laid down by Selwyn, Tippett specifies that one of these policies was the Melanesian Mission ethos, which allowed that "as many as possible of the ways and customs of the Melanesian should be retained within the faith and approach of the Church of England".¹⁰⁹ This philosophy was hand in hand with the mission's principle of evangelising by civilisation.¹¹⁰ Consequently, the Melanesian Mission allowed the people to retain much of their traditional cultural forms and arts without really knowing that these were tied together in the traditional belief system of the native people.

The SSEM philosophy of ministering to the islanders was to emphasise a total break from past traditional belief systems. In portraying the ethos of SSEM, Hilliard states that "the Bible was primarily a source of doctrine . . . a textbook, which gave practical guidance in every problem".¹¹¹ With this understanding, the SSEM sought the conversion of individuals, rather than a direct permeation of a larger group of people. Garrett agrees with Hilliard in stating that "the church they nurtured, with upright doctrinal and moral solitude, took its theology from beliefs upheld at the Keswick Convention and . . . the Katoomba Convention [held in NSW Australia] . . . the priority of preaching over social service"¹¹² – hence, evangelisation before civilisation.

The Roman Catholic Mission's effort can be understood in the light of the question of the anonymous Christian: "can anyone outside of the Roman Catholic church attain salvation?" The resolute answer to this theological and philosophical question, from the Roman Catholic perspective, is "yes!"

¹⁰⁷ The Melanesian Mission was an effort by the Anglican church to reach the South Pacific.

¹⁰⁸ John Barker, "Cheerful Pragmatists: Anglican Missionaries Among the Maisin of Collingwood Bay, Northern Papua, 1898-1920", in *Journal of Pacific History* 22-2 (April 1987), p. 66.

¹⁰⁹ Tippett, *Solomon Islands Christianity*, p. 35.

¹¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹¹ Hilliard, "The South Sea Evangelical Mission", p. 59.

¹¹² Garrett, *To Live Among the Stars*, p. 299.

The Roman Catholicism argument is that every person has the natural potential to be open to God's love, because wherever they are, they are within the sphere of His salvific influence, and grace is extended to all.¹¹³ Even those, who live and practice in traditional worship, can be reached through conscience. From this philosophical standpoint, "the Roman Catholic church differs . . . it has made an attempt to adapt cultural rituals into a Christian context".¹¹⁴ Culture is seen as a bridge to gain meaning into Christian concepts and sacraments. Accordingly, the Roman Catholic Mission's methods of contextualised evangelism are based on the ethos of people-Christianising, a more extreme form of evangelisation by civilisation. This ethos does not care whether it is productive or counterproductive, to walk the fine line of syncretism between Christianity and traditional beliefs.

The brief reflections, above, show that strategies and ethos make a big difference in the presenting of the gospel, which affects the understanding of the community of God, the believers. Firstly, it defines what type of a Christian community that mission will become. In using different methods and ethos, missions set the boundaries and standards of the particular Christian community. Secondly, it forms the DNA of the members of the Christian community, to which they belong. Thirdly, the mission strategies and ethos used become an inclusive boundary, specifying a separate mission movement, to which a Christian belongs, or does not belong. Hence, the gospel is segregating professing Christians into small groupings, or what is known as divided Christianity,¹¹⁵ instead of establishing a body of Melanesian believers.

Therefore, it was on the basis of the strategies and ethos, taken by individual mission agencies, which created separate Christian communities, apart from

¹¹³ Roger C. Bassham, *Mission Theology: 1948-1975: Years of Worldwide Creative Tension: Ecumenical, Evangelical, and Roman Catholic*, Pasadena CA: William Carey Library, 1979, p. 311.

¹¹⁴ R. Watts, "The Entry of the Roman Catholic Mission into PNG and its Impact Upon the Local Culture of Wahgi Valley", assignment paper, Banz PNG: Christian Leaders' Training College, 1987, p. 4.

¹¹⁵ "Divided Christianity" is the situation where the gospel is brought in from different denominations. This causes family members to adhere to separate denominations, and attend different churches for worship.

each other. The things that should help in understanding the Christian concept of community in Melanesia have become the natural concomitants of counter-productivity.

Synthesis of Mission Strategies and Ethos

Having discussed the mission strategies and ethos of some of the mission movements working in Melanesia, this paper now raises the question of what was the effect of the various mission strategies and ethos on the gospel, which was brought into Melanesia? While Melanesians applaud and appreciate the sacrifices of other Pacific Islanders and Western missionaries, for bringing the gospel, that gospel was riddled with philosophies, principles, and methods, designed to procure optimum benefit in evangelistic effort. However, the same features were the natural concomitants of counter-productivity to understanding the Christian concept of community in Melanesia. At least two reasons can be deduced from the above discussions.

The first obstacle to understanding the Christian concept of community is the entry of the many different missions, which led to a divided Christianity. When the local people idealise the philosophies of a particular mission, denominational categorising is inevitable. This becomes a threat to understanding the biblical concept of community. Forman rightly argues that, when this happens, a brand of Christianity is “absolutised [sic], and all others have tended to be despised”,¹¹⁶ moreover, it results in disputes with neighbouring missions. The Christianity that Melanesians came to know was segregated from the beginning.

The formation of comity¹¹⁷ by mission movements had been to deal with the problem.¹¹⁸ According to Tippett, comity is not only strategic for focusing missionary effort in a particular area, but is also helpful for follow-up care

¹¹⁶ Forman, “The Missionary Forces of the Pacific Island Churches”, p. 224.

¹¹⁷ “Comity” is the courtesy that mission movements have towards each other, which results in the apportioning of specific areas to do ministry. The *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* defines it as, “Courtesy and considerate behaviour towards others”; see “comity”, in *Concise Oxford English Dictionary*.

¹¹⁸ The Roman Catholic mission was the only mission that did not agree with the concept of comity, Garrett, *To Live Among the Stars*, p. 299.

and organisation, and, most of all, it prevented denominational competition, and doctrinal disputes.¹¹⁹ However, comity arrangements function well when adherents of each mission were confined within their locality. With the influence of modernisation, urbanisation,¹²⁰ and movement of people to other localities, the invisible divisions, agreed on through comity, have disintegrated. This exposed Christian rivalry, let alone the influx of Pentecostalism.

The second barrier to a better understanding of Christian community is the use of different philosophies from the beginning by each mission. Some missions were more tolerant of local culture, while others wanted a clear break from all traditional associations. For example, the SSEM sought the conversion of individuals through presenting God's word.¹²¹ On the other hand, the Roman Catholic Mission allowed certain traditional values and practices to continue, in their Christian community context.¹²²

The differing methods, which each mission movement used, are based on one of these three philosophies: evangelisation by civilisation, civilisation before evangelisation, and evangelisation before civilisation. These philosophies were aimed at presenting the gospel to Melanesians. However, having these philosophies as the underlying concept for mission, has a great deal of influence on the methods for mission involvement among Melanesians. For the mission movements, which are flaccid towards culture; there is a possibility of syncretism. For others, who were very rigid towards a total break from the past; there is a possibility to conceal traditional practices and values to a certain degree, which may later surface.¹²³

The question is “what is the problem with Christianity in Melanesia?” The problem lies in the Melanesian principle of allegiance to the community. When a person perceives that another person is part of the family, or community, then allegiance is placed confidently in him or her. Thus, every

¹¹⁹ Tippett, *Solomon Islands Christianity: A Study in Growth and Obstruction*, p. 34.

¹²⁰ *Ibid.*

¹²¹ Hilliard, “The South Sea Evangelical Mission”, p. 59.

¹²² Watts, “The Entry of the Roman Catholic Mission into PNG”, p. 4.

¹²³ Sanga, “The Resurgence of Witchcraft”, p. 64.

person supports each other, when the need arises. If a person is deemed a member of another community, he or she may be seen as an opponent.

Studying traditional loyalties and citizenship among the Nine-mile Settlement at Port Moresby, Chao found three major ethical principles that functioned in this multi-ethnic and cultural locality. These principles were “kinship, ethnicity, and church affiliations”,¹²⁴ respectively, in the order of importance. She explained, further, that, if two of these principles come into collision, the higher takes precedence.¹²⁵ That is true, because it is normal Melanesian behaviour, and a perception of community allegiance, to act in that manner. On the contrary, the Christian concept of community should take precedence over, and supersede, all other principles. In fact, the Melanesian understanding of community should be used to better understand the biblical concept of community.

SUMMARY

This section has highlighted two things, which should help us to understand the Melanesian context. Firstly, the natural and traditional Melanesian context, which includes the geographical location, the traditional and introduced governing systems, and the commonalities in culture in Melanesia. The geographical locations, and the government systems, may give a challenge for Melanesians to understand the concept of Christian community. On the other hand, the cultural commonalities in Melanesia can be of value in trying to understand the Christian concept of community.

Secondly, the section discussed Christianity, in the Melanesian context. Under this section, we have discussed the strategies and ethos, which several mission movements used in Melanesia. Three differing philosophies were used by the different mission movements, which has determined the behaviour and practices of Melanesian Christians towards other missions and their adherents. This, in turn, has become a hurdle for understanding the Christian concept of community.

¹²⁴ Chao, *A New Sense of Community*, p. 2.

¹²⁵ *Ibid.*

PAUL'S EXPRESSIONS OF COMMUNITY IN EPH 2

In the previous section, the paper discussed the Melanesian context, which poses the problem of understanding the biblical concept of community. This section looks at the biblical understanding of community, by exegetically analysing, and theologically reflecting on, Eph 2. It goes on to answer the question of what are some of the descriptions for community that Paul uses in Eph 2? To carry out this task, the seven steps in the *Elements of Biblical Exegesis*, by Michael J. Gorman, are employed.¹²⁶ Consequently, applicable points of Paul's concept of community are identified and explored in relation to the Melanesian context.

HISTORICAL AND LITERARY CONTEXT OF EPH 2

Before going on to exegete the passage, we first consider the historical and the literary context of this passage, as follows:

Historical Context

An analysis of different accounts of Ephesus points to two very important facets of this historical city: the political and religious facets of Ephesus' history. According to Acts 19:8-10, 20:31, Paul must have ministered in Ephesus for some three years, and, while there, wrote Corinthians and several other letters.¹²⁷

Political Facet – The strategic location of the city helped to create a significant opportunity for Ephesus, as a capital for Roman occupation in Asia.¹²⁸ The political evidences of the history of Ephesus go back to the 7th century BC, although it may have predated that period.¹²⁹ Ephesus was a tributary of Athens in 466 BC, but was captured by the Persians at the beginning of the 4th century BC.¹³⁰ However, it was under Greek rule until 133 BC, when it was bequeathed to the Romans.¹³¹ Under Roman rule,

¹²⁶ Gorman, *Elements of Biblical Exegesis*, pp. 177-178.

¹²⁷ L. M. MacDonald, "Ephesus", in *Dictionary of New Testament Background*, Craig A. Evans, Stanley E. Porter, eds, Downers Grove IL: IVP, 2000, pp. 318-321.

¹²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 318.

¹²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 318-321.

¹³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 319.

¹³¹ *Ibid.*

Ephesus enjoyed the right of self-governing. In his introduction to the letter to the Ephesians, Hodges states that, “Its constitution was essentially democratic. The municipal authority was vested in a Senate, and in the Assembly of the people.”¹³² It was to this city of Ephesus that Paul wrote this striking letter.

Religious Facet – Religiously, the locals offered sacrifices to the mother goddess Cybele, who was later identified with the Greek goddess, Artemis.¹³³ The Artemision was originally built in the 7th century BC.¹³⁴ It was destroyed in 350 BC, and reconstructed in the 3rd century BC.¹³⁵ According to Arnold, the Artemis cult was the most prominent and significant in Ephesus, however. other gods and goddesses were also introduced and worshipped.¹³⁶ For example, the Egyptians introduced the worship of Sarapis and Isis, different evidences also point to the veneration of other deities, such as, Agathe Tyche, Aphrodite, Heracles, Pion (a mountain god), Pluto, and Zeus, to name a few.¹³⁷

Therefore, as stated above, these two historical aspects of the community: the underlying democratic governance, through the senate, and the religiousness of the people of Ephesus gave a rich background to Eph 2.

Literary Context

The letter to the Ephesians is different in some ways to other letters, which Paul wrote. Walter Liefeld described this feature as “Ephesians is both less and more than a letter”.¹³⁸ He rightly argued that it is less, in the sense that the personal references to readers, and narrative reflections, were lacking, and yet, it is more, because its essay style permits deeper and more extended

¹³² Charles Hodge, *A Commentary on the Epistle to the Ephesians*, Grand Rapids MI: William B. Eerdmans, 1994, p. v.

¹³³ MacDonald, “Ephesus”, p. 319.

¹³⁴ The temple of the goddess Artemis is called an “Artemision”, *Ibid.*

¹³⁵ C. E. Arnold, “Ephesus”, in *Dictionary of Paul and His Letters*, G. F. Hawthorne, R. P. Martin, D. G. Reid, eds, Downers Grove IL: IVP, 1993, pp. 249-253.

¹³⁶ *Ibid.*

¹³⁷ *Ibid.*

¹³⁸ Walter L. Liefeld, *Ephesians*, The IVP New Testament Commentary, Grant R. Osborne, ed., Downers Grove IL: IVP, 1997, p. 13.

exploration of the individual issues than in a letter.¹³⁹ Another point to note with this particular work is that, as a whole, the letter does not deal with a particular error or a heresy. Although the letter has these distinguishable marks, it does not differ much from other letters ascribed to Paul.¹⁴⁰

The letter was written during Paul's first imprisonment in Rome.¹⁴¹ Traditionally, a majority of scholars discounted it as being intended only for exclusive use in Ephesus. They argued, on textual-critical grounds, of the appearance of "in Ephesus" in Eph 1:1 as an addition, and that the letter was a circular to the churches in the Roman province of Asia.¹⁴² However, C. E. Arnold rightly points that it is reasonable to hold that Ephesus was one of the recipients, or the primary recipient, of the letter, because of its prominence as the leading city, and its strategic importance for Christianity in the province.¹⁴³

More importantly, the letter to the Ephesians gives light on the issues that the fledgling Christian community needed to know. The literary style can be referred to as epideictic rhetoric, and it is about appreciation of truth, rather than argumentation and proof.¹⁴⁴ In Eph 1, Paul introduced himself, and prepared the minds of his readers by generally forecasting what he intended to teach them (1:3-14), and by praying for their divine enlightenment (1:15-23). After his prayer, Paul progressively taught, through his letter, beginning from Eph 2, through to Eph 6, on various important truths, of which the Christian community needed to be reminded. In his analysis, Francis Foulkes gives the following: Life in Christ (2:1-3:21), Unity in the Body of Christ (4:1-16), Personal Standards (4:17-5:21), and Relationships

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 14.

¹⁴¹ Kenneth Boa, *Talk Thru the New Testament*, Homebush West NSW: ANZEA Books, 1982, p. 93.

¹⁴² Arnold, "Ephesus", pp. 249-253.

¹⁴³ Ibid.

¹⁴⁴ Ben Witherington III, *The Letters to Philemon, the Colossians, and the Ephesians: a Socio-Rhetorical Commentary on the Captivity Epistles*, Grand Rapids MI: William B. Eerdmans, 2007, p. 7.

(5:22-6:9).¹⁴⁵ By contemplating on Foulkes' analysis, it is reasonable to say that Paul wrote to a Christian community. Therefore, Eph 2 is part of the larger teaching unit that Paul embarked on to expand the horizons of the church in Ephesus as a Christian community.

FORM, STRUCTURE, AND MOVEMENT OF EPH 2

Ephesians is in the form of a letter, though, as mentioned earlier; it is slightly different to Paul's other letters. Since it was written in this way, it directly affects the structure of the chapter considered. An outline of the movement of Paul's thought in Eph 2 is given in the analysis below.

A Diagrammatic Analysis of Eph 2

1. The new community, and the work of God – vv. 1-10
 - (a) Former state of the Ephesian Christian community – vv. 1-3
 - Dead in transgressions and sins – v. 1
 - Followed the ways of the world – v. 2
 - Disobedient and gratifying the sinful nature – vv. 2-3b
 - Objects of wrath – v. 3c
 - (b) God's character and final triumph for the Christian community – vv. 4-7
 - God's great love for us – v. 4a
 - God, who is rich in mercy – v. 4b
 - Made us alive with Christ – v. 5
 - Seated with Him in the heavenly realms in Christ Jesus – v. 6
 - In the coming ages, He might show the incomparable riches of His grace – v. 7
 - (c) The salvation of the new community explained – vv. 8-10

¹⁴⁵ Francis Foulkes, *The Letter of Paul to the Ephesians*, Tyndale New Testament Commentaries, 2nd edn, Leon Morris, ed., Grand Rapids MI: William B. Eerdmans, 1989, p. 49.

- It is by grace you have been saved, through faith – v. 8a
 - It is a gift – not by works . . . so no one can boast – vv. 8b-9
 - We are God’s workmanship, created in Christ to do good works – v. 10a
 - God prepared in advance – v. 10b
2. The new community and the work of Christ – vv. 11-22
- (a) A reminder of the former state of the new community – vv. 11-13
- Formerly, you who are Gentiles by birth – uncircumcised – v. 11
 - At that time you were separate from Christ – v. 12a
 - Excluded from citizenship in Israel, and foreigners to the covenants of promise – v. 12b
 - Without hope, and without God in the world – v. 12c
 - But now in Christ Jesus you . . . have been brought near through the blood – v. 13
- (b) A new relationship: the new community with those under Law – vv. 14-16
- He Himself is our peace, who has made the two one – v. 14a
 - He has destroyed the barrier, the dividing wall of hostility, by abolishing in His flesh the law, with its commandments and regulations – v. 15a
 - He created, in Himself, one new man out of the two – v. 15b
 - He reconciled both of them to God, through the cross – v. 16a
 - He put to death their hostility – v. 16b
- (c) A new relationship: the new community with God – vv. 17-22

- Access to the Father by one Spirit – v. 18
- Members of God’s household – v. 19
- Holy temple in the Lord – v. 21
- Become a dwelling place, in which God lives by His Spirit – v. 22

This analysis shows that Eph 2 is a well-constructed piece of literature. The clearly-defined structure was narrated to show that vv. 11-22 are reflections of vv. 1-10, where Paul goes back to reiterate and expand more on his thematic flow of thought. Hence, the structure of Eph 2 is given in two stanzas, which begin with the former state of the believer (vv. 1-3, 11-13); Gods character towards the human predicament (vv. 4-7, 14-16), and finishes with the believer’s position after salvation (vv. 8-10, 17-22). Andrew Lincoln agreeably states that the Eph 2 discourse comprises two pericope, which form a persuasive strategy to the audience.¹⁴⁶ He further elaborates that “by means of the dramatic contrast in this passage between the readers’ past and their present . . . the writer impresses on them how much they owe to what God has done in Christ”.¹⁴⁷

DETAIL ANALYSIS OF EPH 2

In Eph 1, Paul asked God to give the Ephesian Christians “the Spirit of wisdom and revelation . . . also that the eyes of your heart may be enlightened”¹⁴⁸ to know the “hope . . . riches . . . and His incomparably great power” (1:18-19). In Eph 2, Paul begins to expand on the things, which he had mentioned earlier in 1:3-14 and 19-23, using the dramatic contrast sequence, after his prayer. Thomas Allen analysed Eph 1 and 2, and argued that there is a notable correlation in both thought and vocabulary.¹⁴⁹ The analysis of Eph 2 will be given in two subsections below. Firstly, we look at the new community, and the work of God. Secondly, we will look at the new community, and salvation through Christ.

¹⁴⁶ Andrew T. Lincoln, *Ephesians*, Word Biblical Commentary, Ralph P. Martin, ed., Dallas TX: Word Books, 1990, p. 91.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.

¹⁴⁸ Eph 1:17-18. All scripture quotations are taken from the New International Version.

¹⁴⁹ Thomas G. Allen, “Exaltation and Solidarity with Christ Ephesians 1:20 and 2:6”, in *Journal for the Study of the New Testament* 28 (1986), p. 103.

The New Community and the Work of God – vv. 1-10

As noted earlier, the narration of Eph 2 is comprised of two stanzas. By exploring this structure one can raise the following questions. What was the former state of the community in Ephesus, before they became Christians? How does God deal with the believers' former situation? Finally, what is the response of the new community towards salvation? These questions will be dealt with in the exegesis on this passage.

The former state of the Christian community is dealt with in vv. 1-3. These three verses give descriptions of the Ephesian community, before they became believers. Paul describes two things in particular. Firstly, in their unrepentant state, the Ephesian Christian community was described as dead, in v. 1, and objects of wrath, in v. 3. Steve Motyer explains these in the following manner, “in ourselves: dead to transgressions and sin . . . in God’s eyes: we were, by nature, objects of wrath”.¹⁵⁰ Even though the Ephesian Christian community had not felt God’s wrath at that time, because of their spiritual state, God is continually angered towards their evil.¹⁵¹ Paul clearly notes that this spiritual condition was a thing of the past, in the phrases “in which you used to live”, and “all of us also lived among them at one time”. When the Ephesian community had become Christians, they became a new community of believers. They used to live that way, but were no longer spiritually dead, and under God’s wrath, because they have passed to life, and have peace with God. When people have peace with God, they have good relationships with Him. John Stott describes this wrath as God’s constant hostility towards evil, and His refusal to compromise with it.¹⁵² Hence, this hostility is for anyone holding onto and living a life contrary to God’s standard. They are under His continuous judgment.

This leads into the second description in these verses, which is inserted between the spiritual deadness and the objects of wrath. In their unrepentant state, the Ephesians had a set of behaviours that governed their lives. These

¹⁵⁰ Steve Motyer, *Ephesians: Free to be One*, Crossway Bible Guides, 2nd edn, Nottingham UK: Crossway Books, 1999, p. 58.

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

¹⁵² John R. W. Stott, *The Message of Ephesians: God’s New Society*, Leicester UK: IVP, 1979, p. 76.

standards were contrary to that of God. Paul uses these phrases to describe these standards: “You followed the ways of the world . . . disobedient . . . gratifying the cravings of our sinful nature, and following its desires and thoughts” (vv. 2-3).

The readers of the letter were once controlled by their fleshly desires, and were so dominated that they had to fulfil these actions and behaviours.¹⁵³ In their former life, the Ephesian Christian community were so entangled in their bad behaviour that it compelled them to continue to please their evil desires, and be disobedient. This state is for all people before they become believers, as Paul notes in the phrase “all of us also lived among them at one time” (v. 3). For the Ephesians, as noted in the historical context, they were religious concerning idols, but they were spiritually dead towards God.

The second question, asked earlier, was: How did God deal with the believers’ former situation? Vv. 4-7 gives God’s character and responses towards human fallen nature. According to Lincoln, God’s character and response towards the human predicament is staged by the adversative use of ὁ δὲ θεὸς (ho de theos = but God).¹⁵⁴ He explains that “ὁ δὲ θεὸς (ho de theos = but God) . . . introduces a contrasting situation, brought about because of who God is, and what He has done”.¹⁵⁵ This contrast is between the previous fallen nature of the Ephesian community and their current state as believers.

Although they were spiritually dead, and by nature objects of wrath (vv. 1-3), it is God who moves to save, in love and mercy (v. 4). It is God’s character to initiate the emancipation of humanity in its fallen state. Paul uses the phrase “because of His great love . . . who is rich in mercy” to describe motivation for His action. This action is rooted from within Himself. Paul mentions this action as “made us alive with Christ, even when we were dead in transgressions” (v. 5). God’s personal attributes are being displayed in the action of the making “alive” of those who are spiritually dead. Motyer rightly outlines vv. 4-7, using three words connected with

¹⁵³ Lincoln, *Ephesians*, p. 98.

¹⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 100.

¹⁵⁵ *Ibid.*

God: His motivation, His action, and His purpose.¹⁵⁶ It is His great love, mercy, and grace that motivated Him to do what He did through Jesus Christ. This action is consistent with His being the God of love, mercy, and grace.

In addition to this, God's purpose is that "He might show the incomparable riches of His grace" (v. 7). Foulkes defines the verb ἐνδείκνυμι (endeiknumi) as to " 'display' (NEB) or 'show', rather than simply to 'make known' ",¹⁵⁷ and further elaborates that the new community, as Paul understands it, is "to be the exhibition to the whole creation of the wisdom and love and grace of God in Christ".¹⁵⁸ The idea of displaying, or exhibiting, gives the picture of someone winning a race, and holding the winner's trophy up so that others may see. Now, project that analogy onto God, He has the new community of believers as His personal trophy (v. 7). He has glorified Himself by conjoining His grace and love to the new community, through Christ, which are the incomparable riches that He intends to display as the trophy.

W. Hall Harris III rightly points out that God's gracious acts verify that it is not Christ alone, who is raised, but the new community of believers, who participate in this exaltation and dominion with Him.¹⁵⁹ Therefore, God dealt with the past, by reaching out willingly to those who deserve no love, mercy, or grace, from His own, just wrath and intends to show that He triumphs over all through Christ. Consequently, by telling his audience of these eschatological features, Paul would somehow inform his readers of the extent of the new community, to which they now belong. Moreover, Witherington quotes Jeal as saying Paul uses eschatological language to cause deep emotional impact, to set a foundation for further exhortations.¹⁶⁰

¹⁵⁶ Motyer, *Ephesians*, pp. 61-63.

¹⁵⁷ Foulkes, *The Letter of Paul to the Ephesians*, p. 82.

¹⁵⁸ Ibid.

¹⁵⁹ W. Hall Harris III, "The Heavens Reconsidered: Οὐρανός and Ἐπουράνιος in Ephesians", in *Bibliotheca Sacra* 148-589 (January 1991), p. 78.

¹⁶⁰ Roy R. Jeal, *Integrating Theology and Ethics in Ephesians: the Ethos of Communication*, Lewiston NY: E. Mellen Press, 2000, p. 139, quoted in Witherington III, *The Letters to Philemon*, p. 256.

These eschatological understandings should give the reason to live in the new community.

The final question asked is, what is the response of the new community towards salvation? This question is answered in vv. 8-10. Motyer gives an interesting background to these verses by stating that, “Whether they were originally Jews or Gentiles, the Ephesian Christians had all grown up with religion, which told them, ‘this is what you should do, if you want God to like you!’ ”.¹⁶¹ He rightly argues that, for the Jews, there are long lists of rules to follow covering all aspects of life, and, for the Gentiles, there are rules, rituals, and spells, to infer the favour of the many gods available,¹⁶² as discussed in the historical and literary context section.

It is contrary to this philosophy of a meritorious work background that Paul wrote the words, “For it is by grace you have been saved, through faith” (v. 8). Commenting on the phrase, Stott states that, inclusively, there are three foundational words of the Christian good news – salvation, grace, and faith.¹⁶³ He goes on to elucidate each term in the following manner:

Salvation is more than forgiveness. It is deliverance from death, slavery, and wrath . . . it includes the totality of our new life in Christ . . . exalted and seated in the heavenly realm. Grace is God’s free and undeserved mercy towards us, and faith is the humble trust, with which we receive it for ourselves.¹⁶⁴

In saying this to the Ephesian Christian community, Paul disqualifies any argument of being saved by performing some good deeds. In fact, Paul goes on further to solidify the concept of salvation by grace through faith with two negative statements: the first is *καὶ τοῦτο οὐκ ἐξ ὑμῶν* (*kai touto ouk ex humōn*),¹⁶⁵ which freely translates as “and this not of you”.¹⁶⁶ Note that

¹⁶¹ Motyer, *Ephesians*, p. 64.

¹⁶² *Ibid.*, pp. 64-65.

¹⁶³ Stott, *The Message of Ephesians*, p. 83.

¹⁶⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁶⁵ Kurt Aland, ed., *The Greek New Testament*, Stuttgart Germany: United Bible Societies, 1975, p. 667.

τοῦτο (touto), “this”, is neuter, therefore, it does not refer to “faith”, a feminine noun, which should take the feminine demonstrative pronoun for “this”, which is αὐτή (hautē).¹⁶⁷ Hence, it refers to the whole of the previous sentence.¹⁶⁸ The second phrase is οὐκ ἐξ ἔργων, ἵνα μή τις καυχῆσθῃται (ouk ex ergōn, hina mē tis kauchēsētai),¹⁶⁹ which freely translates as “not out of works, that anyone should boast”. These two negatives consolidate Paul’s idea that salvation by grace through faith (v. 8) is not generated by those, who are being saved, nor is it attained by meritorious work. Salvation is a gift, and no one has to work for it. It is a grace gift, so no one has to boast because of it (v. 9). Interestingly, the Greek word for “boast” can also mean “self-glory”.¹⁷⁰ Thus, no one glorifies in his or her salvation, because it is entirely God’s initiative and making. “What the apostle wants to say is that the whole initiative, and every aspect of the making available of this salvation, is God’s.”¹⁷¹ All experiences under previous religious affiliations, with its regulations and rites, to confer right worship and favour to gods, does not apply, or be equated, to the salvation of God in Christ Jesus, which is a gift. R. C. H. Lenski describes this well in stating that, “A salvation coming from ourselves would . . . exclude also faith, just as salvation, obtained from works, would exclude grace”.¹⁷²

Moreover, Paul did not stop with the two negative phrases, but intended to sincerely clarify his readers’ thoughts on the subject at hand by stating “For we are God’s workmanship, created in Christ Jesus to do good works” (v. 10). Commenting on this particular verse, Leon Morris states that “it is

¹⁶⁶ Reading through *Learn to Read New Testament Greek*, by David Alan Black, helped the author to translate the phrase, David Alan Black, *Learn to Read New Testament Greek*, 3rd edn, Nashville TN: B. & H. Publishing, 2009, pp. 60, 66, 80, 218.

¹⁶⁷ Black, *Learn to Read New Testament Greek*, p. 80.

¹⁶⁸ Stott, *The Message of Ephesians*, p. 83.

¹⁶⁹ Aland, ed., *The Greek New Testament*, p. 667.

¹⁷⁰ “καυχῆσθῃται (kauchēsētai) ‘boast’”, in *The Analytical Greek Lexicon*, London UK: Samuel Bagster & Sons, nd, p. 226.

¹⁷¹ Foulkes, *The Letter of Paul to the Ephesians*, p. 84.

¹⁷² R. C. H. Lenski, *The Interpretation of St Paul’s Epistles to the Galatians, to the Ephesians, and to the Philippians*, Peabody MA: Hendrickson Publishers, 1937, p. 424.

His workmanship that results in our new creation to do good works”.¹⁷³ Roy Zuck agrees with Morris that the phrase αὐτοῦ γὰρ ἔσμεν ποίημα, which begins with αὐτοῦ (autou = his) is emphatic, which means that we are, indeed, God’s creation! “And that creation has a purpose”,¹⁷⁴ that is, to do good works. Therefore, when a person is created anew, he or she has been transformed from the past, and, as a result, they are able to do good works. He or she is a transformed person; added into the new community, with a set of new behaviours and practices, or good works.

The New Community and the Work of Christ – vv. 11-22

It was noted earlier that Eph 2 can be naturally divided into two sections. In this second section, Paul goes on to remind the Ephesian Christian community of their former state (vv. 11-12). After that, he goes on to describe the results of the community’s post-salvation state: Relationship with Jews (vv. 13-16), and relationship with God (vv. 17-22).

Vv. 11-12 begins the second stanza of Eph 2, by reminding the Ephesian Christian community of their past state. Paul uses the word “therefore” to begin the discussion in this second stanza. A. Skevington Wood argues that the word “therefore” refers not only to v. 10, but to the paragraph (vv. 1-10), which forms a single statement in the Greek text.¹⁷⁵ It is on the basis of the preceding paragraph that Paul now proceeds to draw some conclusions.¹⁷⁶ Moreover, Morris notes that what is unexpected is the nature of that conclusion, which is the argument of circumcision (v. 11).¹⁷⁷ However, what Morris sees as a conclusion, should not be seen as unexpected, but as a restatement and expansion of vv. 1-3. A comparison of vv. 1-3 with vv. 11-12 is seen in Table 3, below.

¹⁷³ Leon Morris, *Expository Reflections on the Letter to the Ephesians*, Grand Rapids MI: Baker Books, 1994, p. 57.

¹⁷⁴ Roy B. Zuck, ed., *A Biblical Theology of the New Testament*, Chicago IL: Moody Press, 1994, p. 312.

¹⁷⁵ A. Skevington Wood, “Ephesians”, in *The Expositor’s Bible Commentary*, 12 vols, Frank E. Gaebelin, ed., Grand Rapids MI: Zondervan, 1978, p. 11:38.

¹⁷⁶ Morris, *Expository Reflections on the Letter to the Ephesians*, p. 59.

¹⁷⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 59-60.

Vv. 1-3	Vv. 11-12
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● You were dead in your transgressions and sins ● You followed the ways of this world Disobedient ● Gratifying the cravings of our sinful nature, and following its desires and thoughts Objects of wrath 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● You who are Gentiles by birth and called “uncircumcised” ● You were separate from Christ Excluded from citizenship Foreigners to the covenants of the promise Without hope Without God

Table 3: Comparing character traits of the Ephesians before being saved, in vv. 1-3 to vv. 11-12

Table 3 shows that Paul’s list in vv. 1-3 is concerned with sins, attitudes, and natural cravings, while vv. 11-12 show that, because of the Ephesians’ former state, they are distinct from God’s people, and deprived of privileges. Therefore, vv. 11-12 are a constructed repetition, which further describes the former state of the Ephesian Christian community.

A few phrases, which are relevant to our study, need to be considered here. Paul specifically describes the points at which the Ephesian Christian community was underprivileged in their former state: That they were “Gentiles by birth, and called uncircumcised” (v. 11). Not only that, the Ephesian Christians were spiritually dead (v. 1), but they were also underprivileged by their physical birth, and that they were called the uncircumcised (v. 11). Wood rightly notes the fact that Paul does not use these terms derogatorily, but merely reports that the term is used then to make the distinction. He goes on to point out that self-styled circumcision has nothing to boast about, since the spiritual significance of circumcision has ceased when the redemptive work was finally accomplished in Christ.¹⁷⁸

¹⁷⁸ Wood, “Ephesians”, p. 38.

In v. 12, Paul uses four phrases to further expose the deficiencies that the Ephesian community had in their former state. Wood rightly points out these phrases, as follows.¹⁷⁹

1. The Ephesians were χωρὶς (chōris),¹⁸⁰ or separate from Christ, by this, they have no expectation of a Messiah to save them.
2. They were ἀπηλλοτριωμένοι τῆς πολιτείας (apēllotriōmenoi tēs politeias),¹⁸¹ or “alienated from citizenship”.¹⁸² By being alienated, the Ephesians had no legal reason or right to God’s kingdom. However, Pheme Perkins points out that, ordinarily, the verb ἀπηλλοτριωμένοι (apēllotriōmenoi), which is translated “alienated” or “excluded” (NIV), “refers to separation from someone or something, to which one was formerly attached”.¹⁸³ He elaborates further by stating, “this meaning hardly fits the case of Gentiles and Israel, since the Gentiles were excluded from the prior covenant (Ex 19:6; Ps 80:8-9, 105)”.¹⁸⁴ In contrast to this thought, if v. 10 is seen as a reference to God’s re-creation of humanity through Christ, then being “alienated or excluded” may have been a reference to that which was God’s in the first place. Foulkes agreeably states that “humanity was His making at the first, and now, because that work of His was spoilt by sin, there is a new divine act of creation”.¹⁸⁵

¹⁷⁹ Ibid., p. 39.

¹⁸⁰ Aland, ed., *The Greek New Testament*, p. 667.

¹⁸¹ Ibid.

¹⁸² Author’s translation of the Greek phrase ἀπηλλοτριωμένοι τῆς πολιτείας (apēllotriōmenoi tēs politeias).

¹⁸³ Pheme Perkins, “The Letter to the Ephesians: an Introduction, Commentary, and Reflections”, in *The New Interpreter’s Bible*, 12 vols, Leander E. Keck, ed., Nashville TN: Abingdon Press, 2000, p. 11:397.

¹⁸⁴ Ibid.

¹⁸⁵ Foulkes, *The Letter of Paul to the Ephesians*, p. 85.

3. The Ephesian Christians were ἐλπίδα μὴ ἔχοντες (elpida mē echontes),¹⁸⁶ or “without hope”. Before being saved, the Ephesian Christian community lived in a world devoid of hope. The last phrase used is ἄθεοι (atheoi), or “without God”. This points to the fact that they lived in ignorance of God, even though God created them in the first place.¹⁸⁷

In the immediate context of these phrases lies the sentence “excluded from citizenship in Israel, and foreigners to the covenants of the promise” (v. 12b). The Ephesians do not have the right mark (circumcision), and they have no expectation of a Messiah (separate). The lack of these two things implies that the Ephesians neither have the mark of the old system (circumcision), nor the new system (Messiah) (vv. 11-12a). They are totally lost, and are excluded from citizenship in the new community (v. 12b). Hence, the Ephesian Christian community’s former state was one which was deprived of knowledge of God, estranged of any fellowship with Him, and devoid of the hope of salvation.

In vv. 13-16, Paul describes the new relationship, which the Ephesian Christian community has with those under the law, to which the hope of salvation belongs. He introduces this next section with the phrase “But” to make the contrast between their “former desolation, and the joy of their reconciliation in Christ”.¹⁸⁸ Formerly, as described in vv. 11-12, the Ephesian Christian community was separate from Christ, excluded from citizenship in Israel, without hope, and without God. Yet, a new sphere of possibilities is opened through Christ for those who are far away, because Christ Himself is our peace (vv. 13-14).

One specific possibility is the destroying of “the barrier, the dividing wall of hostility, by abolishing in His flesh (vv. 14-15)”. According to Geoffrey Wilson, and others, the allusion to the dividing wall of hostility is a reference to the wall in Herod’s temple, beyond which no Gentile might pass.¹⁸⁹

¹⁸⁶ Aland, ed., *The Greek New Testament*, p. 667.

¹⁸⁷ Wood, “Ephesians”, p. 39.

¹⁸⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁸⁹ Geoffrey B. Wilson, *Ephesians*, Edinburgh UK: Banner of Truth Trust, 1978, p. 55.

Josephus, the historian, also alludes to this dividing wall.¹⁹⁰ On the contrary, it is noteworthy to analyse the recurring phrase in the immediate context. Klyne Snodgrass rightly states that “items given prominence provide a pathway to the author’s intent”.¹⁹¹ Accordingly, the phrase ἐν σαρκί (en sarki)¹⁹² or “in the flesh” appears twice in v. 11, and once in v. 15. The fact that “in the flesh” is in the immediate context heightens the probability that the phrase “the dividing wall of hostility” (v. 14c) is a reference to circumcision, rather than an allusion to the dividing wall of Herod’s temple. Therefore, the sting of the dividing wall, which is the law, and its commandments and regulations, which gives the Jews pride in circumcision, is abolished in the flesh of Jesus, through His death. Snodgrass is correct by arguing that the central focus of the Jews’ and Gentiles’ hostility, which is “in the flesh”, is also the source of the solution, Jesus’ death in the flesh.¹⁹³ The abolishing of this argument is made on the cross, which is also the beginning of the establishment of the new community, which God is calling together.

Paul now moves to elucidate the purpose of the negative aspect of abolishing the differences between the Gentiles and Jews: the laws and regulations (v. 15a). In order to do this, he states a positive in v. 15b, κρίση (ktisē) “to call into individual existence”.¹⁹⁴ This meaning denotes that Christ calls the two hostile groups, and caused them to exist as one. Richard Erickson identifies a dual purpose of Christ’s work, “to create in Himself one new humanity out of the two hostile groups . . . and to reconcile in this one united body both groups to God”.¹⁹⁵ Therefore, because of Christ’s work in the reconciliation of the two groups, there is no disparity between them. His work destroys all reasons for disunity and intolerance between each other,

¹⁹⁰ Josephus Flavius, *Josephus: Complete Works*, William Whiston, tran., Grand Rapids MI: Kregel Publications, 1981, p. 336.

¹⁹¹ Klyne Snodgrass, *Ephesians*, NIV Application Commentary, Grand Rapids MI: Zondervan, 1996, p. 124.

¹⁹² Aland, ed., *The Greek New Testament*, p. 667.

¹⁹³ Snodgrass, *Ephesians*, p. 124.

¹⁹⁴ “κρίση (ktisē) ‘create’”, in *The Analytical Greek Lexicon*, p. 332.

¹⁹⁵ Richard J. Erickson, “Ephesians”, in *Baker Commentary on the Bible*, Walter E. Elwell, ed., Grand Rapids MI: Baker Books, 1989, p. 1025.

because of past experiences. The two hostile groups have become one community of God (vv. 15-16).

In vv. 17-22, Paul goes on to describe the relationship between the new Christian community and God. Paul starts by reflecting on the work of Christ, that Christ came to preach peace, and give access to both, those who are afar, and those who think they are near (vv. 17-18). As seen above, the dividing wall has been removed (v. 14), denoting a new relationship between the antagonistic groups. Paul goes on further to explain other metaphors, which describe the new relationship, which the Ephesian community has, through the work of Christ, “God’s household” (v. 19), and “a dwelling in which God lives” (v. 22).

Evidently, the prerequisite to this other relationship that the Ephesians have is to be at peace, and become one with the Jews, which is fulfilled in Christ (vv. 13-15; 17-18). Consequently, the two become fellow citizens, and members of God’s household. According to Francis Lyall, who analyses the different metaphorical images that Paul uses in the epistles, the phrase “God’s household”, in Roman culture, has a complex association in law.¹⁹⁶ He explains that, at the heart of the household, is the father, whose power is all pervasive. The father is the personification of the family, and represents them before the family god. This position is the basis and justification for his power over all his biological children.¹⁹⁷ Those who are under his power, both the person and possessions, are under his control. Once a person is born into a Roman family, he or she is legally under the power of the father or paterfamilias. The only other way to become part of a family is through adoption. In both cases, the status of the person under that paterfamilias will not change unless the father transfers a child through adoption to another, or if he is pronounced dead.¹⁹⁸

What is relative for this study is the fact that those, who are foreigners and aliens, are brought into this household of God (v. 19). From a theological

¹⁹⁶ Francis Lyall, *Slaves, Citizens, Sons: Legal Metaphors in the Epistles*, Grand Rapids MI: Academie Books, 1984, p. 120.

¹⁹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁹⁸ *Ibid.*

perspective, God is bringing in outsiders (Ephesians) to become His children. God is forming a new relationship within His family. And, according to the Roman understanding of adoption, as noted above, those who are adopted have equal and legal rights, just as much as the children born into the household. Stott rightly points out that the emphasis here is not on the fatherhood of God, but that the children, who are brought in across racial barriers to be one in God's household.¹⁹⁹ God's household is not about the individual child born into the family, it is more than that, it is about the reconciled coming together to live and enjoy His presence.²⁰⁰

Now, Paul uses an analogy to describe this new relationship: a holy temple (v. 21). This holy temple is the work of God, in the formation of a new community, by bringing Jews and Gentiles together.²⁰¹ In Paul's usage, he tied the temple concept with the idea of a dwelling place. "The temple, in its most basic sense, symbolises the dwelling place of God."²⁰² This holy temple is constructed of Jews and Gentiles. They become the κατοικητήριον (katoikētērion),²⁰³ or the "dwelling" of God's Spirit. Lawrence Richards defines the root verb κατοικέω (katoikeō), or "dwell", as "to establish permanent residence".²⁰⁴

It is noteworthy to take a look at the materials used for the construction of this temple, which is the dwelling place of God, through His Spirit. V. 20 specifies the building materials as the "foundation of the apostles and prophets, with Christ Jesus Himself as the chief cornerstone". Stuart Olyott²⁰⁵ agrees with Liefeld²⁰⁶ that Paul's reference to the "foundation of

¹⁹⁹ Stott, *The Message of Ephesians*, p. 106.

²⁰⁰ Stanley J. Grenz, *Theology for the Community of God*, Nashville TN: Broadman Press, 1994, p. 626.

²⁰¹ Darrell L. Bock, "A Theology of Paul's Prison Epistles", in *A Biblical Theology of the New Testament*, Roy B. Zuck, ed., Chicago IL: Moody Press, 1994, p. 308.

²⁰² "Temple", in *Dictionary of Biblical Imagery*, Leland Ryken, James C. Wilhoit, Tremper Longman III, eds, Downers Grove IL: IVP, 1998, p. 849.

²⁰³ Aland, ed., *The Greek New Testament*, p. 668.

²⁰⁴ Lawrence O. Richards, *Expository Dictionary of Bible Words*, Grand Rapids MI: Zondervan, 1985, p. 239.

²⁰⁵ Stuart Olyott, *Alive in Christ: Ephesians Simply Explained*, Durham UK: Evangelical Press, 1994, pp. 74-75.

the apostles and prophets” refers to the preaching of Christ, as opposed to the apostles and prophets themselves being the foundation. Liefeld goes on further to argue that, if Paul teaches that he laid the foundation of Christ, and it will not be substituted, it is the teaching and preaching of Jesus by the apostles and prophets that constitute the foundation.²⁰⁷

The other building material in this reference in v. 20 is “Christ Jesus Himself, as the chief cornerstone”. According to Stott, Paul’s emphasis here is on the function of Jesus, as holding the growing temple together in unity.²⁰⁸ This metaphor clearly shows that Jesus, as the chief cornerstone, is indispensable to every brick or stone that is laid. The growth and the unity of every stone, laid to build the temple, which is the dwelling place of God, depend on Him. Unless the temple is built on Jesus Christ Himself, the work is futile, and the “unity will disintegrate, and its growth either stop or run wild”.²⁰⁹ This is the new relationship that the Ephesian Christian community has with God. Howard Marshall rightly states this new relationship of the believers with God as, “the metaphor is developed in terms of believers being incorporated into a building . . . a holy shrine in the Lord, and believers are built into it, to be a dwelling of God in the Spirit”.²¹⁰ Theologically, the focal point of God’s presence is the gathering of His people.²¹¹ The temple concept is transferred to believers, which are now the dwelling place of God’s Holy Spirit. God’s Holy Spirit lives in the believers, and they are always in His presence.

SYNTHESIS OF PAUL’S CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY IN EPH 2

Eph 2 is a well-constructed pericope,²¹² in which Paul describes the Ephesian believers as the new Christian community, and the new relationships they have, after being saved. In doing this, Paul employs five

²⁰⁶ Liefeld, *Ephesians*, p.75.

²⁰⁷ Ibid.

²⁰⁸ Stott, *God’s New Society: The Message of Ephesians*, p. 108.

²⁰⁹ Ibid.

²¹⁰ I. Howard Marshall, “Church and Temple in the New Testament”, in *Tyndale Bulletin* 40-2 (1989), p. 214.

²¹¹ Grenz, *Theology for the Community of God*, p. 608.

²¹² “Pericope” is derived from the Latin word *perikope*, which is an extract from a text, especially a passage from the Bible; see “pericope”, in *Concise Oxford English Dictionary*.

expressions, which should help the Ephesians Christians to understand the new community God is initiating. These metaphorical expressions are: the community, as alive in Christ (2:1-6); the community, as a trophy (2:7); the community, as citizens of heaven (2:12); community, as the household of God (2:19); and community, as a temple (2:22). These metaphors, which Paul is using, can be generally placed under two categories: ones that are comparisons, and others that are analogies (see Table 4).

Comparisons	Analogies
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The community as alive in Christ (2:1-6).• The community as citizens of heaven (2:12).	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The community as a trophy (2:7).• The community as the household of God (2:19).• The community as a temple (2:22).

Table 4: The general categories of metaphors used in Eph 2

In these metaphors, Paul describes the new community of God vividly, to enable the Ephesian Christians to differentiate between their former state and their new position in Christ, in at least three ways: the change of condition, the community as God’s possession, and the community as God’s vessel.

The change of condition is seen in the two comparisons (dead vs alive (2:1-6); and citizens vs foreigners (2:12-16)). Paul wants his readers to see that there is a vast difference. In the past, the Ephesians were dead, and foreigners to God’s community. They collaborated with their sinful desires and thoughts (v. 3). They were not under God’s covenants of promise (v. 12). They were religious, according to the world’s standards, in worshipping idols. They were physically alive, and governed themselves democratically, but, according to God’s standards, they were spiritually dead. They need God for them to be spiritually alive, in order to transfer to being citizens of His new community.

Concerning the community as God’s possession, Paul uses the analogies of trophy (v. 7), and the household (v. 19), to help the Ephesians to capture an understanding of the new community of God. As a trophy, created in the “incomparable kindness of His grace”, the new community is perfect. This

perfect aspect of the community is derived only through Christ (v. 6). As the household of God, the community has to be complete. Whether the children are born, or adopted, into the household, the community is incomplete without one.

The final analogy is the community as God's vessel (vv. 21-22). As a vessel, the community is readily available for use. The temple fulfils this function of being the dwelling place of God. However, in v. 22, this concept is transferred to the believers, as the dwelling place of God.

Therefore, in Eph 2:1-22, Paul elucidates the concept of community to the believers at Ephesus. He systematically employs descriptive metaphors to make comparisons and analogies of the diverse features, which are necessary for Christians to know, about the new community.

REFLECTIONS: THEOLOGICAL INTERPRETATION OF EPH 2

This paper suggests that the pericope can speak to the contemporary issues of the Christian community today, in the following ways. Firstly, believers need to be aware that God is building His community, through the salvation of the lost. Eph 2 presents the fallen state of humans as “dead in your transgression and sins . . . disobedient . . . gratifying the cravings of your flesh . . . desires and thoughts” (vv. 1-3). In that condition, humanity is lost, hopeless, walking in the vanity of their minds, and in dire need of God's salvation. The consciousness of God's work in saving and ushering people into the community is a step towards victory.

Secondly, believers need to be aware that God is transforming people's lives. He is perfecting the new community, according to His expectation. This perfecting action is the incomparable riches of His grace to the community, which God intends to exhibit. When God regenerates individual people, the resultant scene is one of perfect and harmonious community. Relationships between traditional enemies are mended, and oneness is experienced in the new community. Regardless of status, caste, or experiences, God deals with the past, and is anticipating the exhibition in the coming ages.

Finally, believers need to be aware that God is living among His people. God is preparing a temple, through Christ. This holy temple is the new community He is building, together with other believers. This will be His dwelling place, through His Holy Spirit. However, at times, the new Christian community does not reflect the character of God, as His dwelling place. The community, as God's dwelling place, needs to be vibrant in saving others.

Therefore, believers need to be aware of three specific theological facets of the new Christian community of God. The fact that God is building the new community, by saving those who are lost; that God is making this new community perfect; and that God lives in the new community. Unless Melanesians are aware of these facts in their Christian lives, they know little or nothing about being a part of God's community.

SUMMARY

This section highlights that there are at least five different metaphorical expressions, which Paul uses in Eph 2. Paul's intent is to help believers to grasp the essence of the new community of God. Being aware of these expressions should help Melanesian Christians to understand the vital traits of the new community of God. Theologically, God in His grace, reaches out to hopeless people, and transforms them to be His dwelling. Melanesians must teach, and aspire to understand, these biblical expressions, to understand the new Christian community of God.

CONTEXTUALISING THE CHRISTIAN COMMUNITY

In this section, the question is asked: what are some of the contextually-meaningful ways to communicate the biblical expressions in Eph 2 in Melanesia? This paper proposes that, by using contextually-appropriate equivalence of the biblical expressions in Eph 2, Melanesians are more likely to grasp the meaning of community.

As stated in the methodology, a modified version of the four steps suggested by Paul Hiebert in "Critical Contextualisation"²¹³ will be employed.

²¹³ Hiebert, "Critical Contextualisation", pp. 104-112.

Although other models are available, for example, Stephen Bevans presented six models in his book *Models of Contextual Theology*,²¹⁴ or there is another model by Ma'afu Palu, which he refers to as intra-textualisation, in his article "Pacific Theology".²¹⁵ However, this paper will follow Douglas Hanson's modification of Hiebert's critical contextualisation, in the following order: step one (exegete culture), step two (exegete scripture and build a contextualisation bridge), and step three (critical response), will be implemented.²¹⁶ In addition, the fourth step (new contextualisation practices) is omitted from each analogy, but will be used as the recommendation at the end. The above steps of the critical contextualisation will be applied to: *abu*, or sacredness, in community, the practice of initiation, the practice of bounty showing, and *wanpela hauslain*, in the Melanesian context.

THE *ABU*, OR SACREDNESS, IN COMMUNITY

Since *abu*, or sacredness, is a basic tenet in the rural Melanesian context, its understanding is valuable in transferring the meaning of the biblical community in Eph 2 in Melanesia.

Exegesis of Culture

The context of *abu* is that of the traditional Melanesian culture of rural Malaita Island in the Solomon Islands. *Abu* is the basic tenet by which every aspect of community life and people live. Commenting on the nature of *abu*, Sanga explains that,

Abu (*tapu*, sacredness, holiness, etc.) is foundational to the survival and healthy functioning of communities. People speak it. People aspire to live by it. Institutions are built on understandings of *abu*.

²¹⁴ Stephen B. Bevans, *Models of Contextual Theology*, 3rd edn, Maryknoll NY: Orbis Books, 2008, pp. 37-137.

²¹⁵ Ma'afu Palu, "Pacific Theology", in *Pacific Journal of Theology* series II 28 (2002), pp. 21-53.

²¹⁶ Hanson, "Contextual Christology", p. 118.

Processes are designed to achieve, sustain, and evaluate *abu*. In other words, *abu* permeates indigenous Solomon Islands communities.²¹⁷

In addition to Sanga's explanation, *abu* exists in a tri-aspect relationship. Its nature is tri-aspect. Its existence is tri-aspect, in any feature of the community. Traditional Melanesian communities are made up of the tri-aspect features of *abu*: sacred, common, and defile. The permeation of this tri-aspect creates a tension and balance so that people within the community must always take heed not to break *abu*. For example, in a traditional kitchen (house for cooking), there are different areas that are designated for men and women. While the entire kitchen is accessible, there are specific guidelines concerning *abu*, which govern people's movements and relationships within the kitchen.

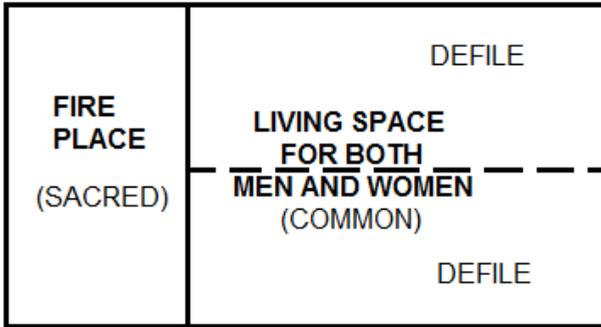


Figure 7: The tri-aspect of *abu* relationship in the traditional Malaita kitchen

In Figure 7, above, the kitchen is traditionally zoned for its use. The fireplace is the most sacred zone in the kitchen. However, it is accessible to the members of the family, because it is where the food is cooked. The women can only lean over and use tongs to do their cooking. They are not allowed to step over or sit on the boundary marker between the sacred and the common places. The men can walk over the boundary marker, but are not allowed to step into the actual fireplace, which is the most sacred. The sacredness of the fireplace stems out from the fact that pagan priests, and those who are under rituals, also eat the food prepared in the fireplace.

²¹⁷ Sanga, "Lightning Meets the Light-bulb".

In the living and working (common) space of the kitchen, both male and female members of the family move freely. However, if the women sit on one side of the kitchen, it has the potential to defile the men. These intrinsic relationships create the tension and balance of living together, in respect and regard to each other's space. It is this balance and the tension, in the tri-aspect of *abu* (between the sacred, common, and the defile), that can be applied to help Melanesians to understand the concept of separateness in sacredness, even when people mingle together.

Exegesis of Scripture

The example of *abu* can serve as a cultural bridge to understand the distinctiveness of the new Christian community, in the metaphorical concept of "alive vs dead" in Eph 2:1-6. Paul teaches that, when someone is saved, he or she becomes spiritually alive, as opposed to being spiritually dead. Theologically, it is God who raises the spiritually dead community to become a living community, spiritually. Each person has to be raised individually into this new community. Although people are physically alive, Paul describes that, in the eyes of God, they are spiritually dead.

When God separates His people, it has a physical and spiritual influence on them. Physically, they are changed in their attitudes. The believers stopped doing what they used to do in the past. Their separation from the past is to enable them to live a new life in a new community. Spiritually, in the eyes of God, they are no longer objects of wrath. Their standing before God has changed. They are no longer under God's continuous judgment, but have peace with Him.

Critical Response

In light of the scriptural and cultural exegesis, we need to raise the question: is the "dead vs alive" metaphor transferable into the Melanesian *abu*? The process to shift from the "dead" to the "alive" position is a sovereign act of God's grace. God changes the status of those whom He saved from being dead to being alive. The change makes a spiritual impact on the new community, which causes it to behave differently.

In a similar way, *abu* causes a certain degree of restraining effect on the people, who aspire to live by it in the traditional community. When one lives in *abu*, his or her behaviour is such that it is in line with the nature of *abu*. Hence, there is no difficulty with the tri-aspect nature of *abu*, and the boundaries, which may cause defilement.

Now, we may ask, how would biblical separateness, in the metaphor of spiritual death, be applied to the concept of *abu* in Melanesian culture? While biblical separateness is a spiritual condition, Melanesians can be enlightened that reference and sacredness are essential, so as to ensure *abu*. This understanding can be transferred to the new community of believers. The new community is God's work of grace, hence it is a sacred work. The sacredness of the community must be valued above other things.

THE PRACTICE OF BOUNTY SHOWING

Another cultural bridge to use for contextualising the biblical concept of community in Melanesia is the practice of bounty showing.

Exegesis of Culture

The practice of bounty showing is tied in closely with the traditional payback, or vengeance killing, in Melanesian culture. Payback, or vengeance killing, is a common aspect in Melanesia, which restores the balance of honour. The cause for payback is either a killing event in the past that needs redressing, or, as Robert W. Williamson notes in *The Ways of the South Sea Savage*, that, in the Mafulu area (now in the Goilala electorate of Papua New Guinea), adultery is regarded as a serious crime, always resulting in death.²¹⁸ However, in some Melanesian cultures, such as, the Mae Enga people group, in the highlands of Papua New Guinea, the initial stimulus to mount a fight, and the eventual killing, varies from a simple pig theft, ignoring the disbursement of valuables after a wedding, to a more complex interpretation of social events, and satisfaction of egos.²¹⁹ These

²¹⁸ Robert W. Williamson, *The Ways of the South Sea Savage*, Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1914, pp. 218-219.

²¹⁹ Mervin Meggitt, *Blood is Their Argument: Warfare Among the Mae Enga Tribesmen of the New Guinea Highlands*, Palo Alto CA: Mayfield Publishing, 1977, p. 17.

events are generally the background to the putting up of the bounty for showing, and possibly collection, after one fulfils the revengeful act.

The actual bounty showing is a planned preparation, which must occur after a few months, or years, if a person is not ready for it. It can also happen immediately, if the offended party has enough traditional goods, pigs, and shell money readily available for the service provided. Roger Keesing notes in his book, *Kwaio Religion*, that pigs and blood money are put up to be collected by the man or men who killed an approved victim.²²⁰ But, before these people took on the murderous job, they had to see the bounty first, and agree that it was worth the risky task. The warriors, or *lamo*,²²¹ from the neighbouring tribes would come to see the bounty. This denotes that a bounty must first be attractive, and catch the attention of warriors, in order for them to take the challenge of taking action, which would lead to their collection of the bounty. The bounty is seen as a trophy that one gets after going through tough circumstances, before collecting it.

Exegesis of Scripture

The reference to the community as a trophy in Eph 2 is in v. 7. It is the verb to “ ‘display’ (NEB) or ‘show’, rather than simply ‘to make known’ ”.²²² God is intending to display the work that He accomplished, through the new Christian community, as a trophy, in front of a great crowd, in the same way as an athlete does. The new Christian community will be an exhibition of God’s wisdom and love and grace in Christ, the trophy of God.

The background to God’s act in this exhibition must be rightly understood. Its history goes back to the very act of saving the new community from their past. The re-creation of the people to become His community is a gratifying act in Christ that God intends to display as a trophy. To display the new community is an evidence of the work He has done, through Christ, to renew

²²⁰ Roger M. Keesing, *Kwaio Religion: The Living and the Dead in a Solomon Island Society*, New York NY: Colombia University Press, 1982, p. 19.

²²¹ A *lamo* or *ramo* is an intimidating warrior, a bounty hunter, and an executioner, which is often attractive for bounties, *Ibid*.

²²² Foulkes, *The Letter of Paul to the Ephesians*, p. 82.

the people, who were once said to be difficult, wretched, and objects of wrath.

Critical Response

Is the act of displaying the new community as a trophy transferable to the act of bounty showing in the Melanesian context? To the one, who is offended, it takes much consideration to decide to engage in the bounty showing. To God, the act of saving people to the new community demands the most perfect sacrifice that He must offer, Jesus Christ. Before God could exhibit the new community as an attractive trophy, He has calculated the cost that will be involved in His act.

The concept of the community as a trophy is transferable to the idea of a traditional Melanesian bounty showing. The bounty, which is attractive, does not just come into existence on its own. It needs considerable evaluation of the cost that will be involved to show a good bounty, which will attract bounty hunters to take on the job. The concept of the biblical community can be understood in the sense of its attractiveness to all who see it. Bounty showing is a bridge for understanding the new community as God's trophy.

THE PRACTICE OF INITIATION

The concept of initiation, in traditional Melanesian culture, is another way to understand the expression of "foreigners and citizens" in Eph 2, concerning the new community. Initiation refers to two distinct rituals: *rites de passage*, where the common element is the change in status, and rites performed by closed and secret associations to admit someone into their company.²²³ The concern here is the change of status, with the different opportunities presented, because of the change.

²²³ Michael Allen, "Initiation", in *Encyclopaedia of Papua and New Guinea*, Peter Ryan, ed., Clayton Vic: Melbourne University Press, 1972, pp. 552-558.

Exegesis of Culture

In the traditional Melanesian context, initiation practices are found in many communities, and exist in different variations, both in form and content.²²⁴ Commenting on initiation, M. R. Allen states that, “the rites may be voluntary or compulsory; those initiated may form inclusive cult groups, age grades, aristocracies, or secret societies; membership may be reserved exclusively for males or females, or the two sexes may be jointly admitted”.²²⁵ What Allen is saying here is that initiation is received only by those who are deemed fit, even if it is voluntary, or compulsory, to undergo the process. Once a person undergoes the process of initiation, he or she is part of the group, whether it is a cult group, age grade, or a secret society.

For example, in analysing the initiation process of becoming a real man, and bearing responsibility, in the Kiniambu village in Sepik, Patrick Gesch states that “the main results of initiation are the expectation that the new man has a voice in the village assembly to help . . . identify what is happening . . . and what can be done about it”²²⁶ in the community. This example helps to clarify that, unless the young person is initiated, he has no voice in matters concerning the welfare of the community.

The author’s recollection of Ilahita village, in East Sepik, is that of a young person, who was asked to do something, rather than an older person. When the author enquired, the answer was that the elderly person had not gone through a certain stage of initiation, which disqualified him from doing the specific task. However, the younger person had undergone the right stage of initiation, which made him eligible to do the task, rather than the older person.

The examples, above, and the author’s experiences, indicate that initiation can play a role in a Melanesian community. Initiation gives a certain degree of distinctiveness between those who do, and those who do not, undergo the

²²⁴ M. R. Allen, *Male Cults and Secret Initiations in Melanesia*, Carlton Vic: Melbourne University Press, 1967, p. 3.

²²⁵ Ibid.

²²⁶ Patrick F. Gesch, “Initiation and Cargo Cults: the Peli Case”, in Wendy Flannery, ed., *Religious Movements in Melanesia Today (1)*, Point 2 (1983), pp. 99-100.

rite of initiation. This distinctiveness can be a bridge for Melanesians to better understand their new citizenship in the new community.

Exegesis of Scripture

In Eph 2:12, Paul contrasts the difference between foreigners and citizens of the new community. In the old state, the Ephesian Christian community was described as separate, alienated, without hope, and without God. In this condition, the Ephesian community had no legal right to this new community. Their state was that of total depravity and disparity.

However, through God's intervention, the Ephesian community, who were outcasts, becomes citizens of the new community. When this *Deus revelatus* (self-revealed God) intervenes, new opportunities are opened to them. The dividing wall of argument, on the basis of circumcision, is removed (vv. 14-15). God creates a new community, with these two opposing components of the human race to become one in Christ. The Ephesians become citizens of the community, to which they were once foreigners, because of their futility towards God. The Ephesian Christian has equal access to God, just as the Jews had.

Critical Response

Now, the issue of transferability of citizenship into the new community can be addressed. The "citizenship vs foreigners" concept denotes the fact that God is building a new community, which is separate for certain people. Stott argues that Paul's use of πολιτείας (politeias), or "citizenship", is a metaphorical allusion to being citizens of God's kingdom.²²⁷ In the Old Testament, it is seen in the Israelites as the people of God. The pride that the Israelites held in being the community God had chosen is in circumcision. It is their mark of being the people of God. In the New Testament, it is seen in those who are spiritually born again – the believers. This spiritual birth is available, only because God reached out to the people. In this act, God destroys all existing barriers, which encourage an unnecessary antagonistic atmosphere between Jews and Gentiles. He

²²⁷ Stott, *The Message of Ephesians*, pp. 104-105.

established a new mark, through the flesh of His son, Jesus Christ, and conjoins opposing parties, to become the new community.

To enter this new community of God is not a work done by human effort. It is God Himself, who creates and establishes the citizens of this new community. The meaning of this biblical concept in Eph 2 can be understood and transferable via the traditional initiation process. It is God who transforms a believer, and incorporates the person into the new Christian community. The believer is transformed from an alien status to being a citizen of this new community. In much the same way, the traditional concept of initiation, in the Melanesian context, changes the status of the one who has been initiated to be eligible to participate fully in the society.

WANPELA HAUSLAIN CONCEPT

The concept of *wanpela hauslain*, in the Papua New Guinea rural context, is the community itself. The concept is understood in two ways. Firstly, *wanpela hauslain* is a description of an actual community. It is the village, where people dwell. Secondly, it is the description of identifying oneself with another person of the same village to another.²²⁸ These two principles of *wanpela hauslain* are important in understanding the concept of the new community.

Exegesis of Culture

In Melanesian societies, *wanpela hauslain* is an evidence of kinship relationships. Radcliffe-Brown refers to a kinship relationship as more than a relationship between two people, it is a system.²²⁹ He explains that a system constitutes a network of social relations, which include the duties to one another, social contacts and usages they observe, and even between the

²²⁸ *The Jacaranda Dictionary and Grammar of Melanesian Pidgin*, by Francis Mihalic, does not account for the combined word or phrase *wanpela hauslain*. However, it is a common description, if one is asked of another person that belongs to the same village. For example, to answer the question, "Do you know Peter?", the obvious answer would be, "*Mipela bilong wanpela hauslain stret!*" (We are from the same place or dwelling).

²²⁹ Radcliffe-Brown, *The Structure and Function in Primitive Society*, p. 53.

people and their dead.²³⁰ Because of these relationships, the stakeholders of a *wanpela hauslain*, living or dead, support each other. By supporting each other, the propagation of their *wanpela hauslain*, or community, continues. Marie de Lepervanche states that “in the small-scale societies of Papua New Guinea, social relations are primarily kinship relations. This means . . . that closely-related people tend to live together, and associate with each other in various enterprises.”²³¹

It is in these various enterprises that the people execute tasks to fulfil their obligations towards the *wanpela hauslain*, or community. Failure to fulfil one’s part has serious repercussions. Kenneth McElhanon and Darrell Whiteman give the following example of a young girl, who is a bride-to-be to a young man, who is working in a far-off plantation, who is found to be with child. The *wanpela hauslain*, or community, gathers together in an open-air court. The plaintiffs, the girl’s family, intend to find out who is the father. An elder, who represents the plaintiffs, moves into the open space, where the *wanpela hauslain* gathers, and begins to investigate. The elder outlines that the girl is marked already, but now is with a child. He asks, “What is to be done? Who is responsible for this misfortune?”²³² After raising the problem, and asking these questions, he sits down.²³³

The elders of the *wanpela hauslain* discuss in little groups. After a few minutes, one elder comes forward and said that it was not him that caused the girl to be pregnant, because he only slept with her twice. Other elders, and some pastors, also defend themselves in the same manner. Each of these elders represents one of the young people, who are accused of impregnating the bride-to-be. Now, from an outsider’s perspective, it is ridiculous that these elders, and even pastors, have no moral values. But, to this *wanpela*

²³⁰ Ibid.

²³¹ Marie de Lepervanche, “Social Structure”, in *Anthropology in Papua New Guinea: Readings from the Encyclopaedia of Papua New Guinea*, Ian Hogbin, ed., Carlton Vic: Melbourne University Press, 1973, p. 8, quoted in Kenneth McElhanon, and Darrell L. Whiteman, “Kinship: Who is Related to Whom”, in Darrell L. Whiteman, ed., *An Introduction to Melanesian Cultures: a Handbook for Church Workers, Point 5* (1984), p. 109.

²³² Ibid., pp. 105-108.

²³³ Ibid.

hauslain, it is a higher value to stand in for a younger relative, when they are accused or attacked. The elders and pastors are fulfilling the obligation to defend someone in the *wanpela hauslain* from public shame, which is “more disgraceful than being involved in premarital sex”.²³⁴

The basic point of the story is that *wanpela hauslain*, or the community, is there to take care, and to offer the necessary security, that each person needs. This ensures that relationships in the *wanpela hauslain* operate on traditionally-established principles and values. The operation of these intrinsic relationships propagates the continuation of the *wanpela hauslain*, or community. Williamson exemplifies this principle, appropriately, in his observation of the Mafulu people of Papua New Guinea, who, in the case where a married woman elopes with a new lover, the husband will demand from her people a refund of the bride price.²³⁵ However, if this is not paid, a punitive expedition will be launched by the *wanpela hauslain*, or community. Hence, the *wanpela hauslain*, or community, always takes care of the well-being of its members.

Exegesis of Scripture

From the analysis of Eph 3 in this paper, in vv. 19-22, Paul unfolds insights into the new community, which God intends to make as His dwelling place. Firstly, Paul uses the metaphor “household”, in relation to the new community. This new community is built on the foundation of the teachings of the apostles and prophets, concerning Jesus Christ. In stating that the household is being built, he uses another metaphor of building. This second metaphor is then transferred to take on a totally new meaning, which is the third metaphor, which is the temple, the dwelling place of God.

All these metaphors are references to the new community of God. One aspect of this new community is the household of God. However, the community is also portrayed as a building, the metaphorical temple, which is the new community, the body of believers, the dwelling place of God. The believers are individually called to be reconciled and unified, as a single people, who are the new community of God. There will be no distinction or

²³⁴ Ibid.

²³⁵ Williamson, *The Ways of the South Sea Savage*, p. 219.

intolerance made on the basis of their background, race, or sex. This will be the community of God, the dwelling place of His Spirit.

Critical Response

Is the understanding of the household or temple transferable into the Melanesian context? How can the biblical metaphor of the household, or the temple, which is the dwelling place of God, be understood in Melanesia? In Eph 2:19-22, Paul uses these metaphorical expressions, which should help both Jews and Gentiles to understand what it means to be incorporated into the new community of God.

The household, in v. 19, relates the idea that the new community is an established corporate body, built into Christ, to be a family under God. As in the Roman household, membership is by birth, or adoption, and there is no disparity status. Both the biological and the adopted child have equal legal rights in the household. When one is born or adopted into a household, he or she has full rights, and nothing can change that status.

The analogy of *wanpela hauslain* should be able to help Melanesians to capture the meaning of the community of God. The person, who is born into a *wanpela hauslain* will always be taken care of by others in the same *wanpela hauslain*. This should be the understanding that must be transferred to the biblical community. Once a person is a believer, it does not matter whatever background, race, or sex, to which he or she belongs. He or she is now a member of the *wanpela hauslain*, or the new community of God.

Furthermore, Paul states, in Eph 2:22, that “you, too, are being built together to become a dwelling”. The dwelling place of God, the temple, was only available to Jews, but now Paul is using it as an analogy of a spiritual temple, of which Gentiles are also a part. Paul’s argument is that Gentiles are outcasts, but now they are a component of the temple.²³⁶ Gentiles are now part of the dwelling place of God. It is a time of radical change. God

²³⁶ Maxie D. Dunnam, *Galatians, Ephesians, Philipians, Colossians, Philemon*, The Communicator’s Commentary: Mastering the New Testament, Lloyd J. Ogilvie, ed., Dallas TX: Word Publishing, 1982, p. 177.

does not dwell in physical structures, such as, the temple, He lives in the lives of people. This is the new dwelling place of God, Jews and Gentiles coming together, forming His new community.

How can this biblical truth of becoming one people be transferred into the Melanesian context? In Melanesian traditional society, the *wanpela hauslain* concept is a system,²³⁷ which always finds a way to protect its members.²³⁸ This notion of constant lookout for the welfare of members of the *wanpela hauslain* should be the point of contextualised contact for Melanesians. Once a person is a believer, he or she has become a member of the new Christian *wanpela hauslain*. It does not matter if that person is from a traditional enemy tribe. The new *wanpela hauslain*, to which believers now belong, should take precedence over all other systems of relationships in the Melanesian context.

NEW CONTEXTUALISATION PRACTICES

In the above subsections, this paper exegetes the cultural traditions that are corresponding to the biblical expressions of community in Eph 2. Here, the paper seeks to analyse these traditional practices, in the light of Eph 2. The question that needs to be asked here is how is it that professing Christians live contrarily to the principles of the new community of God today?

The answer to this question lies in the transferability of biblical expressions of community into the Melanesian context. Melanesians must interpret and understand biblical truths, in order to translate and transfer their meanings to Melanesian Christians, to make the change. This is why this section raises these four analogies, as examples, to see the different aspects of the new Christian community. Now, let us consider each of these examples.

Abu, or Sacredness, and the New Community

The valuing of *abu* in Melanesian traditional society is significant, in that it separates opposite sexes, and persuades them to have proper respect for each other, in their interactions within the community. It “is foundational to the

²³⁷ Radcliffe-Brown, *The Structure and Function in Primitive Society*, p. 53.

²³⁸ de Lepervanche, “Social Structure”, p. 109.

survival and healthy functioning of communities”.²³⁹ If one does not follow the ways of *abu*, he or she is judged, and is deemed unfit for the community. By living in *abu*, people live sanctified and undefiled lives. This concept can be a point for teaching the separateness of the new Christian community to Melanesians.

The new Christian community is a community separated from the past (Eph 2:1-6, 12-16). Those who are separated from their past are sanctified into a new Christian community. As stated earlier, the change in the believer’s life occurs in two distinctive ways. The believer’s attitudes change, to become Christ-like, and the believer passes from being under God’s continuous judgment. The outworking of *abu*, in a traditional society, functions in almost the same way. *Abu* is a constant restraint on people from defiling themselves, and it is an unseen constant judge.

Bounty Showing and the New Community

Bounty showing is a negative component in Melanesian culture. It is the showing of blood money, and other traditional goods, for the ratification of a wrong done. The bounty can be collected by someone, or a group, who have killed an approved person. However, the notion that the bounty is so compellingly attractive, that one is prepared to undertake any risk, is of value to our study.

In Eph 2:7, Paul teaches that God’s intent is to show or exhibit the incomparable trophy. This trophy is the outworking of His grace, expressed in the formation of the new community, through Christ. What God has done in the new community is prestigiously exhibited before the entire creation for them to see. If Melanesians could grasp the beauty of the new community, the point of reference to understand it is in the transfer of the compelling attractiveness of the bounty, which urges a person to do anything for it.

Initiation and the New Community

The traditional Melanesian concept of initiation carries a lot of forms. However, the meaning of each form is coherently uniform, since the rite

²³⁹ Sanga, “Lightning Meets the Light-bulb”.

gives a person access, or the passage, to enter a new group, a stage in life, or a sacred society. Once a person has the right of passage, through initiation, he or she has the full right to participate in the new group, to which he or she now belongs. Whatever are the rights of those initiated are now accessible to the new person after initiation. Traditional initiation rites make big differences in the life of a person.

In Eph 2: 12, Paul teaches that Ephesian Christians need to remember that, at one stage, they were separated from Christ, excluded from citizenship in Israel, and foreigners to the covenant of promises. Their position changed, and new opportunities were opened, through the blood of Jesus (v. 13). In other words, Ephesian Christians were initiated, through the blood of Jesus Christ, into the new community of God. Hence, the understanding of initiation should be another starting point for Melanesians to understand what it truly means to be born into the new community of God.

Wanpela Hauslain and the New Community

From earlier discussions, the concept of *wanpela hauslain* gives vital and interconnected principles in the traditional Melanesian community. Melanesian people identify with the *wanpela hauslain*, because it gives the people a sense of belonging, security, and unity.

The principle of belonging to the *wanpela hauslain* causes a person to be obligated to own the community. Ownership is seen in practical things, such as, defending another member. Hence it is a form of security to others in the same community. When one does good to the other, there is unity and mutual respect in the *wanpela hauslain*.

Therefore, the *wanpela hauslain* forges and maintains relationships in practical ways. When vital relationships are made by members, this ensures the continuation of the community. Belonging to the *wanpela hauslain* demands individual members undividedly commit themselves to it. Without a strong commitment, the *wanpela hauslain* will not stick, or it will become non-existent.

These essential principles can be transferred to help Melanesians understand the concept of the new community of God. In Eph 2:20-22, Paul teaches that, as believers, Ephesian Christians are joined to become part of the holy temple, where God dwells. The teachings encapsulate the notable principles in the Melanesian concept of *wanpela hauslain*. It could be a unifying factor for Melanesians, even with divisions, caused as the result of government systems, and Christian affiliations.

When Melanesians become believers, they belong to a particular *wanpela hauslain*, the holy temple of God. Every believer, from every ethnic group in Melanesia, becomes a unit in that one holy temple of God. This means that, even if a believer is from an enemy tribe, he or she should be treated as one that belongs to the new *wanpela hauslain*. All the obligations of the new community should overrule in every situation.

SUMMARY

In this section, the paper will attempt to offer two things. Firstly, it will provide four Melanesian contextual analogies. These analogies are the concept of *abu*, or sacredness, which correlates with the concept of separateness, and enables Melanesians to understand it in the community of God. The practice of bounty showing should help Melanesians to understand the aspect of the community as a trophy. The traditional initiation practices should help Melanesians to grasp the concept of entering into a new community. Finally, the *wanpela hauslain* concept should enable Melanesians to understand the concept of the new community being the dwelling place of God. Secondly, by providing these analogies, and explaining them, the paper suggests ways that Melanesians will begin to be exposed to the truth concerning the new community of God.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR STUDY

The aim of this paper was to provide a contextual understanding of Paul's expressions of community in Eph 2. In this section, the paper summarises the different sections, and makes concluding remarks.

SUMMARY

This paper has four sections. The first section was an introduction, which gave the background information of the study. Section two discussed the natural and traditional clan context, and Christianity in the Melanesian context. In section three, the paper exposed Paul's expressions of community in Eph 2. Finally, in section four, the paper dealt with contextualising the Christian community. Now, let us summarise these sections, individually.

In section one, the paper gave the background information of the study. The introduction covered the aspects of the purpose of the study, the guiding questions, the methodology, the limitations and delimitations, the definition of key words, and finally, the study assumptions.

Section two discussed three specific aspects of the Melanesian context: the geographical location of Melanesia, the traditional and introduced government systems in Melanesia, and the cultural commonalities in Melanesia. Firstly, by way of presenting the facts concerning Melanesia, we began to see that it is a diverse region, which offers a challenge to contextualisation of the concept of Christian community. Secondly, the paper looked at the government systems: the traditional and the introduced democratic systems of Melanesia. The government systems in Melanesia are separate entities, offering independence and patriotism to the people, ideals, which are contradictory to the concept of the new community. However, cultural commonalities can be seen as in-built mechanisms, in the Melanesian context, that provide possibilities for Melanesians to use, in contextualising the Christian concept of the community. These cultural understandings offer an entry point for the contextualisation of the new community, thereby promoting unity in Melanesia.

Section three evaluated the biblical perspective of the new community. Paul discussed the expressions for the new community, in relation to the work of God, and to the work of Christ, in Eph 2. It highlights that at least five specific metaphorical expressions are utilised in Eph 2 of the new community, which are then used in the fourth section. Paul is specifically persuading the believers to understand the depth of what it means to be the

new community of God. These important aspects of the Christian community need to be understood by Melanesian Christians. Understanding these biblical expressions should begin to help Melanesians grasp the concept of God's community. Moreover, it is God, in His grace, who reaches out to humanity, to provide the hope and transformation to become His community. Therefore, Melanesian Christians must desire to understand these metaphorical expressions.

Finally, section four provided four Melanesian contextual analogies. These analogies are the concept of *abu* in Melanesia, the practice of bounty showing, the process of initiation in Melanesia, and the concept of *wanpela hauslain* in Melanesia. Each of these analogies is then subjected to the four steps of critical contextualisation by Hiebert. After going through each analogy, with the steps provided by Hiebert, the paper used the information to propose new contextualised practices for Melanesians, to better understand the concept of Christian community.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The underlying statement for this study is "Towards Contextualising Paul's Expressions of Community in Eph 2 for Melanesian Christians". This statement is raised, because of a perceived lack of understanding of the biblical concept of community by Melanesian Christians. As stated earlier, Melanesian Christians prioritise their traditional values and practices over the community of God, the believers. Therefore, to embark on this statement, four questions were raised and deliberated on, in the previous sections. It is on the bases of these deliberations that the following concluding remarks are made.

Firstly, Christianity has been around in Melanesia for over a century, yet the proper understanding of the community of God is sketchy, in the lives of professing believers. However, as seen in section two of this study, the statistics of each of these three Melanesian nations shows that more than 90 percent of their populations are Christians. Even with the high percentage of professing Christians, the understanding of the community of God needs to be taught. This causes one to wonder what has become of

Christianity in Melanesia concerning the new community of God, the believers.

Secondly, the insights, gleaned from the expressions depicting the new community of God in Eph 2, are at the very core in understanding the community of God. For this reason, it is not a small issue that Melanesians Christians should take lightly. Paul has profoundly expressed that the new community is the work of God. It is not about individual believers. It is more than that, because it is about a community of believers that God Himself is bringing together.

Thirdly, Melanesian Christians need to understand the biblical concept of community. This can be done by exegeting and understanding God's word, and using contextual analogies as entry points for teaching. As demonstrated by the examples used in this paper, there are analogies available, in the diverse Melanesian contexts, which can be used for teaching and expressing the community of God in Melanesia.

Fourthly, the challenge to understanding the community of God is still pending. This calls for vibrant Christian leaders, in all denominations, to collaborate in creating the atmosphere of the Christian community, by dissipating and living to reflect the community of God.

Finally, on a personal note, this study has greatly influenced and challenged my perception on Melanesian Christianity. The teaching of the concept of community is vital, and may point Melanesians to a right understanding of the Christian life. This is a task in need of serious consideration.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

There are different ways to do further study, in line with the subject matter of the community of God. Here are some suggestions for future study. One can research into the community of God, as the church in the New Testament, relating it to the Melanesian context, or taking on from where

Tippett left off, of promoting an educational system that appreciates the unity of denominationalism.²⁴⁰

Another option for further study would be the contemporary obstacles, and their effects, on the community of God, or one could follow on from Robert Banks concept of *Paul's Idea of Community* in Ephesians, since Banks has left out this epistle from his book, because of authorship reasons.²⁴¹ Lastly, one could take on the concept of how to become a community of God in the Melanesian context.

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²⁴⁰ Tippett, *Solomon Islands Christianity*, p. 131.

²⁴¹ Robert Banks is using Ephesians only in certain places, where he thinks it could help make his point. This treatment leaves a lot of material uncovered. His argument is that Ephesians' authorship is uncertain, Robert Banks, *Paul's Idea of Community: the Early House Churches in Their Historical Setting*, Surry Hills NSW: ANZEA Books, 1979, p. 16.

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