THE MEANING OF נפש מת IN THE OLD TESTAMENT

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THE MEANING OF אום מת IN THE OLD TESTAMENT

BY
MIRIAM SELIGSON

HELSINKI 1951 SOCIETAS ORIENTALIS FENNICA In memory of my mother

PREFACE.

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ABBREVIATIONS.

AEDH = Muss-Arnolt, W., Assyrisch-Englisch-Deutsches Handwörterbuch.

AEL = Lane, E. W., An Arabic-English Lexicon.

AH = Delitzsch, F., Assyrisches Handwörterbuch.

AHK = Abhandlungen des Hamburgischen Kolonialinstituts.

AUA — Turun Yliopiston Julkaisuja — Annales Universitatis Aboensis.

BASOR = Bulletin of the American Schools of Oriental Research.

BE = The Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. Series A: Cuneiform Texts.

BH = Biblia Hebraica.

BKBR = Zimmern, H., Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Babylonischen Religion.

BMS = King, L. W., Babylonian Magic and Sorcery.

ChAG = Conti Rossini, K., Chrestomathia arabica meridionalis epigraphica edita et glossario instructa.

CGl = Gordon, C. H., Comprehensive Glossary. Ugaritic Handbook III.

ChW = Levy, J., Chaldäisches Wörterbuch über die Targumim.

CT = Cuneiform Texts from Babylonian Tablets, etc., in the British Museum.

Ges.-B. = Gesenius, W., Hebräisches und Aramäisches Handwörterbuch über das Alte Testament, bearbeitet von Fr. Buhl.

HAT = Handkommentar zum Alten Testament, herausgegeben von W. Nowack.

HbAT = Handbuch zum Alten Testament, herausgegeben von O. Eissfeldt.

HAW = König, Ed., Hebräisches und Aramäisches Wörterbuch zum Alten Testament.

HB = The Holy Bible according to authorized version (A.D. 1611) with an explanatory and critical Commentary, edited by F. C. Cook.

HBA = Handwörterbuch des Biblischen Altertums für gebildete Bibelleser, herausgegeben von Ed. C. Aug. Riehm. Zweite Auflage besorgt von Fr. Baethgen.

HChW = Fürst, J., Hebräisches und Chaldäisches Wörterbuch.

 HEL = A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, based on the Lexicon of W. Gesenius, edited by Fr. Brown, S. R. Driver and Ch. A. Briggs.

HW = Siegfried, C. und Stade, B., Hebräisches Wörterbuch zum Alten Testament.

ICC = The International Critical Commentary on the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments, under the Editorship of S. R. Driver, A. Plummer and Ch. A. Briggs.

JAI = The Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland.

JAOS = Journal of the American Oriental Society.

JBL = Journal of Biblical Literature.

K = Kuyunjik Collection in the British Museum.

KA = Kansatieteellinen Arkisto.

KB = Keilinschriftliche Bibliothek.

KKHS = Kurzgefasster Kommentar zu den Heiligen Schriften Alten und Neuen Testaments sowie zu den Apokryphen, herausgegeben von H. Strack und O. Zöckler.

LLAe = Dillmann, Chr. Fr. Aug., Lexicon Linguae Aethiopicae cum indice Latino.

LS = Brockelmann, C., Lexicon Syriacum.

LVTL = Koehler, L.—Baumgartner, W., Lexicon in Veteris Testamenti Libros.

MSFO = Suomalais-ugrilaisen Seuran Toimituksia — Mémoires de la Société Finno-ougrienne.

NHChW = Levy, J., Neuhebräisches und Chaldäisches Wörterbuch über die Talmudim und Midraschim.

PEF = Quaterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund.

OrNS = Orientalia, Nova Series, Roma.

PRE = Realencyklopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche, herausgegeben von A. Hauck.

R = Rawlinson, The Cuneiform Inscriptions of Western Asia.

SO = Studia Orientalia.

SSPhR = Studien zur semitischen Philologie und Religionsgeschichte Julius Wellhausen zum siebzigsten Geburtstag am 14 Mai 1914 gewidmet, herausgegeben von K. Marti.

ZATW = Zeitschrift für die Alttestamentliche Wissenschaft und die Kunde des Nachbiblischen Judentums, herausgegeben von H. Gressmann.

ZDMG = Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.

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INTRODUCTION.

The interpretation of the expression has caused great difficulties to students of the Old Testament. It has been translated in many different ways, e.g. the 'ghost of the dead,' a 'dead body,' 'somebody dead,' 'one dead,' a 'dead soul.' 1

In the following the expression is studied against the background of old Hebrew cosmic conceptions, consideration being given to the use of NPS in other Semitic languages.

A remark must be made concerning the age of the Old Testament text. There are various conceptions of the chronology of the different passages. At any rate a great deal of the content is older than the written text, and though it may be of a certain interest to scrutinize the use of the expressions with regard to the age of the passages, in this case it is not of great help. Old expressions can easily be mixed in rather young passages whereas, of course, an old idea can be expressed in a younger usus loquendi according to more recent conceptions. The Old Testament was composed between 1000 and 100 B.C., and at this time the original idea behind certain expressions may very well have fallen into oblivion though the old wordings in some cases are still current. Old customs too can be in vogue and old rites performed in exactly the same way as they have been originally though conceptions have changed and the execution is given an interpretation which differs greatly from the primary idea in the custom.

About thinking and acting in protosemitic time only hypotheses can be advanced. Unfortunately, they are merely conclusions drawn by what is today termed logical thinking.

¹ vide infra.

It is very important in this work to determine the difference between which and him. But though the words were originally used in quite different senses even when the idea of writing down the oral traditions came, both, in addition to the original one, were used in derived senses, depending to a great extent on new cosmic conceptions. The comparison with corresponding expressions in other tongues outside the Semitic sphere, however, has been left out of consideration.

The Semitic type of mind, such as it appears in the construction of the languages belonging to this group, deviates much from e.g. Indo-European ways of thinking. Words and expressions in different groups of languages often do not fully correspond in meaning, though they seem to refer to the same ideas. For that reason the study presented below deals exclusively with the Semitic world.

CHAPTER I

The sense of NPS.

In order fully to elucidate the expression as a minute study of the meaning of well is required. It has been given different senses such as 'the breathing substance or being,' 'breath,' 'soul,' 'throat,' 'appetite,' etc.¹

A study of the different dictionaries of the Semitic languages establishes that the sense of the word common to all these languages is 'soul.'2

Akkadian: napištu

Ugaritic: npš
Hebrew: well
Aramaic: well
Syriac: nefša
Arabic: nafsun

South-Arabic: np/fs Ethiopic: nafes

A theory quoted by almost all scholars dealing with problems of primitive thought is that man very early thought that the difference between the living and the dead was breath — or lack of it. Then at a certain stage of civilization, when the belief arose that everything in nature was animated by spirits, man identified breath with this spirit. Thus the word used for

¹ cf. dictionaries and Briggs in JBL XVI, p. 17.

² Akkadian: AH and AEDH, sub voce; Ugaritic: CGl, sub voce; Aramaic: ChW and NHChW, sub voce; Syriac: LS, sub voce; Arabic: AEL, sub voce; South-Arabic: ChAG, sub voce; Ethiopic: LLAe, sub voce.

'breath' came to signify the 'power' vivifying the body. The sequence could as well have been the reverse. The 'power' in life could have been thought to manifest itself in the breath. There is no way of knowing the proper order (if there was any at all) in which the sense of the term has developed.

One more theory can be suggested. Regarding the Semitic languages the word NPS may never have meant 'breath.' In Ugaritic, Gordon does not give npš in this sense. 2 Muss-Arnolt in his dictionary gives instances for the various ways of using napištu, but though he also suggests the sense 'breath' for it, he presents no example of the word used in this sense.3 Delitzsch, in his turn, makes no mention at all of 'breath' in this connection.4 According to Conti Rossini, in South-Arabic, np/fs does not seem to take the sense 'breath.' 5 The Arabic word for 'breath' is nafasun. The word for 'soul' is nafsun. The verb nafasa from this root is denominated and nafasun takes the same form as inf. I of it. 6 According to old Semitic conception NPS was the active element in all vital functions, of which breathing was one. Not the breath, then, was the difference between living and dead, but the breathing. In the dead man was aware of a lack of motion; he missed the vivifying potency. 7

The development 'breath' > 'soul' may be the correct one. But as far as written evidence from the most remote times is concerned there is no proof of it. It is, of course, striking that there should originally have been no word for 'breath,' but neither of these two theories can be proved. In historical times, however, NPS is always used in the sense given below.

The sense of well in the Old Testament is only a 'mysterious potency.' Even when the word seems to be used in a transferred meaning a careful study will show that it is always used in this same way: a 'potency.'

¹ Tylor, 'Primitive Culture I,' p. 432 sqq.

² GGl, sub voce.

³ AEDH, sub voce.

⁴ AH, sub voce.

⁵ ChAG, sub voce.

⁶ AEL, sub voce.

⁷ vide infra p. 23 sqq.

The word for this potency in the body nowadays is soul, but when well is translated by this term it must not be taken in its modern sense. The word soul may be justified only if it is understood simply — to quote Frazer — as "the unknown principle of life about which philosophers have disputed from the days of Plato and Aristotle to the present time, and to all appearance are likely to dispute till life on earth is extinguished by some final cosmic catastrophe, unless in the meantime science should crown its long series of victories over nature by discovering the origin of life." ¹

Pedersen gives a very fine definition of the conception of the soul. It runs as follows: "The soul is constructed with a view to action, but the presupposition of its being able to act is that the construction is firm. The best characterization of the soul is as an organism, which at any time centres and ranges itself round a point of gravity. This point of gravity is the centre of force in which action is created, and this centre must be firm and strong; otherwise the soul must not be stiff but pliable, so that it subordinates itself to its centre." ²

The above ought to make clear that the soul was conceived of as material.

In the Old Testament well cannot be found in any context where it is not translatable by soul, taken in the abovementioned sense.

WDI — a necessity to the body.

Being the word for the life-giving potency in the body was used in instances where modern European languages would use 'life.' It must, however, be kept in mind that according to the Semitic conception 'life' depended on was. When the question was one of life in any way, say, the risking of life, in danger, etc., this was expressed by was the 'principle of life' and thus when was in peril or

^{1 &#}x27;The Fear of the Dead I,' p. 6.

² 'Israel . . , I,' p. 145.

destroyed life was in danger or extinguished. If somebody tried to effect the death of somebody else he 'sought his wal.'

II Sam. XVIII: 13

או־עשיתי כנפשו .. שקר But if I had acted treacherously against his life ...

Jul baan A

I Kings XIX: 2

כירכעת מחר אשים את-נפשך כנפש אחר מהם

... if I make not thy life as the life of one of them by tomorrow about this time.

I Kings III: 11

ולא־שאלת נפש איכיך

Thou hast not asked the *life* head of thine enemies.

Ps. XIX: 8

משיכת נפש

... restoring life (stoly)

Lament. I: 11

להשיב נפש

... restore life

Jos. IX: 24

ונירא מאד לנפשתינו

Therefore we were sore afraid for our lives.

Ezek. XXXII: 10

וחרדו לרגעים איש לנפשו And they shall tremble at every moment, every man for his own *life*.

I Sam. XXVI: 21

יקרה נפשי בעיניך

My life was precious in head thine eyes.

cf. Akkadian: kima uknê napišti ina panika lêqir — like lapis lazuli may my life be precious in thy sight.1

I Kings XIX: 3

וילך אל־נפשו

... and he fled for his life head

II Kings VII: 7

וינסו אל־נפשם ... and fled for their life

cf. Akkadian: ana napšāti (pl) (w)asû 2

II Sam. XXIII: 17

הדם האנשים ההלכים בנפשותם ... the blood of the men who went

... at the risk of their lives

I Kings II: 23

כנפשו דבר אדניהו את־הדבר הזה

... at the cost of his life ...

Prov. VII: 23

ולא ידע כייבנפשו הוא

.... and knoweth not that it is

at the risk of his life

light

Lament. V: 9

בנפשנו נביא לחמנו

We gat our bread with the peril of our life.

¹ K 163 + 218 (IV R 57). Rev. (King, BMS, Nr. 12).

² e.g. Sanherib Prisma VI. 23 (I R 37-42).

II Sam. XIV: 7

יומתהו בנפש אחיו ... that we may kill him, for the life of his brother whom he

slew

Jon. I: 14

Let us not perish on account of this man's life. (meaning, for killing Jonah)

Cook comments on this: "for doing what may touch his life." 1

Given below are some examples showing that we was of the greatest importance to the body. Its presence was a prerequisite for life and the absence of it was equivalent to death.

II Sam. I:9

עמדינא עלי ומתתני Stand, I pray thee, upon me, and slay me, for anguish (?) is come upon me, because my <u>soul</u> is yet in me.

heut.

Jer. XV: 9

אמללה ילדת השבעה נפחה נפשה כאה שמשה בעד יומם

She that hath borne seven languisheth. She hath blown out her <u>soul</u>, her sun has gone down while it was yet day.

Lament, II: 12

שמתפך נפשם When their soul was poured out into their mothers' bosom.²

heal?

Isa. LIII: 12

תחת אשר הערה because he hath bared his פות נפשו soul to death

¹ HB VI.

² cf. infra p. 31.

³ The accepted rendering of this text 'poured out' (Orelli KKHS IV - V: "ausgeschüttet seine Seele, als deren Sitz das Blut gedacht ist) does not correspond to the Hebrew. Cf. HEL, sub אַכּה.

Gen. XXXV: 18

ויהי בצאת נפשה As her soul was departing, heak לי מתה for she died.

I Kings XVII: 21

יהוה אלהי תשברנא O Lord my God, I pray thee, let נפש־הילד הזה על־קרבו this child's soul come into him again.

8Vela

and v. 22

... and the soul of the child came into him again, and he revived.

Gen. XXXVII: 21; Deut. XIX: 6, 11; Lev. XXIV: 17, 18; Jer. XL: 14; Num. XXXV: 11, 15, 30; Jos. XX: 3, 9.) and with דער (cf. Deut. XXII: 26).

The same method of expression is found in other Semitic languages:

In Akkadian: e.g.

napištu

with quttû, bullû, — 'to destroy one's own or somebody else's life.' hullugu

with tabaku - 'pour out life (shed blood)' with bullutu - 'to keep somebody in life'

- 'to save one's own life or that with eteru, gamalu

of somebody else.'

with šûzubu - 'save, rescue.'

with šakānu - 'give up the ghost, die,'

In Ugaritic: 1

3 Aght 24—25

---- tsi . km - "Let his soul go out like wind." 2 rh. npšh.

¹ Gordon, 'Texts in Transliteration.'

² Gordon, 'A Comprehensive Translation..,' p. 93.

line 36

ysat . km . rh . npš(h — "(His) soul goes out like a wind." 1

1 Aqht 92

btlt . cnt . k(rḥ npšh) — "The virgin cAnat (has caused his soul to go out) like (wind). 2

and in Arabic: 3

harağat nafsuhu— "His soul went forth."sālat nafsuhu— "His blood flowed."nafsun sā'ilatun— "Flowing blood."dafaqa nafsahu— "He shed his blood."

well - blood.

In his translation of the Babylonian Creation Story Enuma eliš, Tablet IV line 18, Heidel comments on the expression 'to pour out the life of some one,' tubuk napšatsu, saying that the pouring out (i.e. shedding) refers "to blood, the seat of the element of life." ⁴

It is a common idea that man at an early stage of culture identified blood with the vital force. The usual explanation of this theory is that primitive man realized that the consequence of a great loss of blood was death. Another conception which situates the vital force in the blood is supposed to be of a later date.

It has been supposed that both beliefs are represented in the Old Testament. ⁵

¹ op. cit., p. 93.

² ibid, p. 96.

³ AEL, sub voce.

^{4 &#}x27;The Babylonian Genesis,' p. 37 n. 71.

⁵ Karsten, in 'The Origins of Religion,' p. 53—54 referring to an unpublished manuscript by Schur.

Gen. IX: 4

אך כשר כנפשו דמו לא תאכלו But flesh with the soul thereof, which is the blood thereof, shall ye not eat.

Lev. XVII: 14 b

כי נפש כל־בשר דמו הוא For the *soul* of all flesh is the blood thereof.

Deut. XII: 23

רק חזק לבלתי אכל הדם כי הדם הוא הנפש Only be sure that thou eat not the blood: for the blood is the *soul*.

These passages stand for the belief that the blood was was which idea is supposed to be the older one. The other conception is represented by

Lev. XVII: 14 a

כי־נפש כל־בשר דמו בנפשו הוא For the soul of all flesh is its blood with its soul (i.e. its blood and soul together.)

Gen. IX: 5

ואך את־דמכם לנפשתיכם אדרש And surely your blood of your souls will I require. 1

Jer. II: 34

גם ככנפיך נמצאו דם נפשות אכיונים נקיים Also in thy skirt is found the blood of the *souls* of the poor innocents.

¹ Strack, KKHS I, understands יוֹם in מֹנְפְשׁי as "Dativ der Zugehörigkeit." It can also be understood as 'with consideration for your souls.' cf. Ges.-B. יוֹם "in Beziehung auf mein — — Leben," sub voce, — Gunkel, HAT I, translates: "Aber euer eigen Blut will ich heimfordern."

Lev. XVII: 11

כי נפש הכשר בדם הוא For the *soul* of the flesh is in the blood.

The examples which might support the opinion that the old Hebrews identified the blood with well may be understood as a mode of expression emphasizing the importance of the blood as being the place where well resides. 1

The same can be said of the corresponding expressions in other Semitic languages.²

Discussion of the possible existence of two different conceptions and their chronology is outside the scope of the present work. But, presupposing their existence and allowing that the older is the one which identifies the blood with wal, this term cannot originally have meant 'breath.' 3

WDJ - referring to tears.

In Hebrew the verb שבן (pour out, pour), in connection with שבן. can be used in different senses. When Hannah says: למני יהוה there is no question of her dying. According to primitive conception some of the life-giving power is situated in the secretions of the body. The tears she had shed in crying (v. 10) contained, according to the conception of her time, some of her well. Here it means a kind of sacrifice to or covenant with the godship.

¹ Grüneisen, 'Der Ahnenkultus und die Urreligion Israels,' p. 38. — If wis, as is supposed here, vis vitalis, it cannot be said to 'reside' anywhere. The blood, the breath, the heart, the brain, and any vital organ or element are essential to life, but not the seat of life.

² vide supra, pp. 27-28.

³ vide supra, pp. 21—22.

⁴ I Sam. 1: 15.

⁵ Van der Leeuw, in 'Phänomenologie der Religion,' p. 257, states that the 'soul power' was considered to exist in all corporeal parts, including such substances as were emitted by the body. *vide* also *pp.* 258 *sqq.*.

⁶ cf. Robertson Smith, '.. the Religion of the Semites,' p. 319.

cf. Job XXX: 16

עלי תשתפך גפשי My soul pours itself out upon me.

Budde gives the translation: "Und jetzt ist in mir ausgeschüttet meine Seele."

and he comments on it: "Die Seele zerfliesst wohl in Tränen, wegen der Leidenstage, die ihn ergriffen haben ..." 1

Ps. XLII: 5

ואשפכה עלי נפשי

(When I remember these things) I pour out my soul upon me. sydae.

The translation and comment given by Baethgen run:

"Daran will ich gedenken und mein Herz bei mir ausschütten." 2

"Das Herz oder die Seele ausschütten heisst: allen den Gedanken, welche die Seele bewegen, freien Lauf lassen, vgl. I Sam. I: 15, Thr. II: 19, Ps. LXII: 9, CII: 1, CXLII: 3."

שלי" besagt dass der Erguss der Klage ein innerlicher, nicht lautbarer ist; es hat etwa dieselbe Bedeutung wie בקרבי XXXIX: 4; vgl. Hos. XI: 8." 3

When نوس in this context is understood as 'tears,' being the substance which contains some of the 'principle of life,' עלי offers no difficulty. It is no inward crying. על is taken in its sense 'upon,' and the tears are rolling upon the face. This fully explains עלי = upon me (contra "in mir" and "bei mir").

It is not beyond doubt that Lament. II: 12 4 is to be translated as mentioned above. The children may have asked for bread and wine 'shedding tears' on their mothers' bosom.

¹ HAT II₁, — cf. also Hölscher (HbAT): "meine Seele zerfliesst in mir." In his comment on this passage he says that it means to pour out from oneself the soul in sobs, complaint or weeping. Consequently hitpael would be "the soul is poured out' ("die Seele wird hingegossen"), viz. man is 'soulless' from suffering (Der Mensch ist vor Schmerzen "seelenlos").

² Schmidt (HbAT) gives almost the same interpretation: "Daran will ich denken und in mir ausschütten meine Seele."

³ HAT II2.

⁴ vide supra, p. 26.

So much for the interpretation of well in this connection by 'tears'.... As for the power in tears, it can be mentioned that Dr. Seligmann claims tears to be a means of protection against 'the evil eye.' "Die Tränen halten in Posen den bösen Blick ab; deshalb muss die Braut auf dem Wege zur Kirche recht viel weinen. Darauf beruht auch wohl ein Schutzmittel in Bengalen, das darin besteht, dass man dem Kinde in den Kleinen Finger beisst. Das Kind wird naturgemäss vor Schmerz anfangen zu weinen, und jemand, der Schmerz empfindet und Tränen vergiesst, pflegt nicht beneidet zu werden." ¹

In Kalevala the bride is made to cry by sad songs about her future life as a wife and daughter-in-law, and finally she is repeatedly told

"Itke, itke, neiti nuori, Kun itket, hyvinkin itke! Kun et itke itkettäissä, Itket toiste tullessasi." ² Weep thou, weep thou, youthful maiden,
When thou weepest, weep thou sorely;
If thou weepest not yet freely,
Thou shalt weep when thou returnest."

The extensive weeping at Jewish weddings may also be called to mind. It seems to belong to a custom which probably springs from the fear of 'evil-minded spirits' active on critical occasions.³

As for interpreting Hannah's words as referring to a covenant with God, it must be recalled that blood is sacrificed to God and also employed as a safeguard against the 'evil eye.' ⁴ If blood can be a phylactery against the 'evil eye' and sacrificed to God, and if tears being a secretion of the body can be a safeguard against the 'evil eye,' it can also be applied to the purpose suggested above. ⁵

¹ 'Der böse Blick . . , II,' p. 207.

 $^{^2}$ Chapt. XXII. 'Morsiamen hunnutus ja itkettäminen, ll. 359—362; 367—370; 375—378. — English translation by Kirby. — cf. Harva, AUA, Ser. B. Tom. IX, pp. 5—6 and 128 sqq.

 $^{^3}$ For marriage as an occasion where evil spirits were feared cf. e.g. Crawley, The Mystic Rose I, p. 7 sqq.

⁴ Seligmann, 'Der böse Blick.., II,' pp. 217-218.

⁵ cf. Hämäläinen, MSFOu XLVII, pp. 75 and 83.

Something similar can be found in other connections. It is already known that hand-shaking in greeting is a kind of covenant. Parts of different bodies where vsi is particularly active touch each other. To this same covenant often belongs kissing and rubbing noses. Not unusual is the shedding of tears. ¹ The Old Testament offers instances where tears are shed in greeting. ²

WDI — the carrier of emotions and animal instincts.

Examples have been given above showing that well was conceived of as the potency on which life depended. Being thus the essential element in man, well was supposed to be the carrier or subject of emotions and animal instincts.

experiences emotions and what is in the mind

Ex. XXIII: 9

For you know the *soul* of the stranger.

is bitter, troubled and feels sorrow

Judges XVIII: 25

מרי נפש .. bitter of soul

Job X:1

נפשי .. in the bitterness of my soul

Job XXVII: 2

.. who hath (made my soul bitter) vexed my soul

¹ Frazer, 'Folk-Lore in the Old Testament, II,' pp. 82-93.

² Gen. XLV: 2, 14 sqq. XLVI: 29; I Sam. XX: 41.

---- feels delight Ps. LXXXVI: 4 עבדך Rejoice the soul of thy servant. —— likes, feels sympathy Isa. XLII: 1 יבתה נפשי ... in whom my soul delighteth Cant. III: 1-4; I: 7 .. whom my soul loveth ---longs for Ps. XLII: 2 נפשי תערג אליך אלהים My soul longeth for Thee, o God. - is nauseated, loathes Num. XXI: 5 ונפשנו קצה בלחם הקלקל ... and our soul loatheth this light bread is delighted in good things (food) Isa. LV: 2 ותתענג ברשן נפשכם .. and let your soul delight itself in fatness —— feels a desire to eat Deut. XII: 20 הבשך לאכל .. because thy soul longeth to flesh Mi. VII: 1

אותה נפשי .. my soul desired (of the firstripe fruit)

- feels hunger and thirst

Isa. XXIX: 8

וריקה נפשו .. his soul is hungry .. his soul is thirsty

cf. Akkadian:

śigi napištija lā taplahu 'The anger of my soul thou didst not fear.' 1

WED Referring to the whole of the being.

a) was provided with a suffix.

In full accordance with all that has been said is the fact that when well is provided with a suffix, it refers to the person's self and thus is the equivalent of a personal or reflexive pronoun. This, however, is true with certain limitations. Many scholars misunderstand this characteristic of the term and attempt to represent the case it is important to refer to the essential meaning of the word.²

Two examples show what an indiscriminate translation by the English personal pronoun of was with a suffix leads to.

Cant. V: 6

נפשי יצאה בדברו

has caused difficulties to the commentators because of the use of will in it. Johnson comments on this passage as follows: "A.V. 'my soul failed when he spake. 'R.V. 'My soul had failed me

¹ K 2852 + K 9662 I 31.

² Ges.-B., sub voce.

(mgn.: Heb. went forth) when he spake.' This is taken to mean (in line with the renderings of EVV) that the speaker had fainted when she heard her lover's voice. Cf., for example, A. Harper, C.B. (1920) in loc. On the other hand, however, we may not dismiss too readily the view (sponsored by F. Hitzig, K.e.H. (1855), in loc.) that the consonantal text of the last word should be associated with the Arabic dabara e.g. IV, 'to turn back;' for this seems to fit the context much better than the foregoing traditional interpretation, if we then take the sentence as a whole to mean 'I myself went out on his turning back'." 1

Whatever the expression נפשי יצאה is supposed to mean in this context, the word, without doubt, stands for the soul, not for the girl as a whole.

In the language was is the subject of emotions and animal instincts, but not of physical actions as far as the whole person is concerned. It has already been mentioned that was a pre-requisite for life, and life includes all kinds of motion. This way of employing was seems to be very comprehensible. In the time of primitive man science had not yet detected the connection between the nervous system and physical actions. Once man was in possession of was able to move, and he did so instinctively and automatically without paying any attention to it. The movement was an evidence of way's being in the body. It was however, his body that moved. But emotions and instincts were something different from visible movements. They were felt inwardly, and the subject of the feeling was thought to be web. For instance, the soul feels hunger and is filled. By eating man fills his soul. The body performs the physical act of eating and the soul experiences satisfaction when its desire (hunger) is appeased.

Johnson's second example where he wants with a suffix to stand for the personal pronoun in a similar way is

Judges IX: 17

וישלך את־נפשו מנגד

"A.V. 'and adventured his life far' (mgn. Heb. 'cast his life') R.V. 'and adventured his life' (mgn. Heb. 'cast his life before

^{1 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individual . . ,' p. 20 n. 1.

him'). This is taken to mean (as in E.V.V.) that Gideon hazarded or risked his life, i.e. and thus saved the people of Shechem from the Midianites (vide comm., in loc.); but a more likely meaning appears to be that he achieved this result because, as we should say, 'he flung himself to the fore.'"

The same holds true of this instance as above.

Johnson takes

Job XXX: 25

אם־לא בכיתי לקשה־יום עגמה נפשי לאביון

to show the "poetic parallelism" in which such a form as discussed above "is balanced by another form with a corresponding pronominal element, i.e. a suffix or such as is involved in the inflexion of the verb."

His translation with comment runs:

"Wept I not for him that had a hard time? Did not my was grieve for the poor?

- the second stichos comes very close to meaning,

Did not I personally grieve for the poor or Did not I myself grieve for the poor?"²

To weep is a visible action — to shed tears, whereas grieving is experiencing an emotion the carrier of which is well. The poetic parallelism is built up by two phrases expressing the sympathy Job had felt for the unfortunate. The construction of well with a suffix in the one case and the verbal form in the other may be an instance of some form of poetic licence where the author uses an older way of expression in the second stichos in accordance with the usus loquendi based on a conception from maybe older times.

¹ ibid., p. 20 n. 1.

² ibid., p. 20.

b) was indicating the individual.

alone was frequently used simply to indicate somebody in possession of the life-giving power. When the Hebrew said with he often meant this idea, just as we do with 'somebody;' aliquis. But, nota bene, when it is used in this sense it always stands alone. As soon as it stands before another noun it takes the status constructus and is used in the sense vis. When the expression is used in the Codes, the thought behind the words is 'anybody' (in possession of the vital force).

It is, therefore, somewhat difficult to see the correctness of those translations which interpret שם by 'one,' 'one of a kind.' König gives for נפש בהמה (Lev. XXIV: 18)'one of the species cattle.' Aurelius mentions several passages where he presumes that שם indicates 'one of a kind.' 3

In Lev. XXIV: 17

ואיש כי יכה כל-נפש אדם

In Num. XXXI: 46

ונפש אדם ששה עשר אלף

can hardly be thought of as "'one' man." '.. and of human life' is the correct translation. Here the concern is with human

The English language uses 'body:' 'nobody,' 'somebody,' 'anybody;' the Hebrew uses was representing the whole creature.

² HAW, sub WDJ; Strack, KKHS I, too, gives the translation:"und wer ein Stück Vieh tot schlägt..,"

³ 'Föreställningar i Israel om de döda..,' p. 67 sqq.

life in general and נפש is 'the principle of life in human beings;' is here used in the same way as when counting 'per capita.'

Lev. XXII: 11 seems to have been somewhat wrongly understood. קנין is not "'one' slave." The passage runs:

וכהן כי־יקנה נפש קנין כספו

This means: 'if a priest buy a slave with his money,' but it is not literally יקנה — buy; פנין — one; קנין — slave; בספו — for his money. קנץ כספו does not belong to קנץ, but the words קנץ form one expression in this sentence. Ges.-B. gives this expression the meaning "Erwerb des Geldes, gekauft." 1 So in this sentence כפש means 'somebody,' a 'living being.' קנין is status constructus of און and must consequently be followed by its determining word. He has bought a was as his property. If the words belonged together in one expression קנין must take status absolutus (כְנִין). In fact Aurelius gives this word in status absolutus, but this is not in accordance with the Hebrew text. The correct translation runs: "But if a priest buy any wen with his money." It is not 'buys one slave,' but 'buys any with the purchase of his money.' Consequently the sense of the passage is: "If a priest buy a slave with his money" for, a man whom one buys with the purchase of one's money is the same as a slave. This in any case does not justify the interpretation of was by 'one.'

value can indicate an individual, but it never takes the place of 'one,' 'one of a kind.' It emphasizes the fact that the subject referred to is in possession of vitality and not the 'units' of that vitality. Aurelius seems to have arrived at a false conclusion in declaring (apart from contradicting himself) that value can also indicate the unit of lifeless things.

¹ sub כְּנִין; HEL: "Thing got or acquired, acquisition, thing acquired by purchase."

² 'Föreställningar i Israel om de döda...,' pp. 67, 68, 68 n. 1.

CHAPTER II

חיה and היה

When שם is understood in the way mentioned in the previous chapter the attention of the reader must be drawn to the fact that the term stands for the longer expression: תֹבשׁ החֹיה, or נפשׁ החִיה. It will be proved that this means literally the 'principle of life,' vis vitalis. שם alone means nothing else than vis, a kind of mysterious inexplicable potency. Only when the reference is quite obvious can the limiting definition be dropped and שם alone represent the whole idea. In the expression its last part defines the first part to a certain extent. But it also happens that הוא is implied alone representing the whole expression.

Ps. LXXVIII: 50

לא־חשך ממות נפשם

..he spared not their נפש from death, but gave their היה over to pestilence.

Ps. CXLIII: 3

כי רדף אויב נפשי דכא לארק חיתי For the enemy has persecuted my נפש, he hath smitten my משה down to the ground.

Job XXXIII: 18

יחשך נפשו מני־שחת וחיתו מעבר בשלח He keepeth back his שנו from the pit, and his חיה from perishing by the sword.

Job XXXIII: 22

ותקרב לשחת נפשו וחיתו לממתים

Yea, his נפש draweth near unto the grave, and his היה to the destroyers.

Job XXXIII: 28

פדה נפשי מעבר בשחת וחיתי באור תראה

(He hath delivered) He will deliver my נפש from going into the pit, and my היה shall see the light.

Job XXXVI: 14

תמת כנער נפשם וחיתם כקדשים Their נפש dieth in youth, and their is among the unclean.

Job XXXIII: 20

וזהמתו חיתו לחם ונפשו מאכל תאוה

So that his חיה abhorreth bread, and his נפש food of desire.

Job XXXVIII: 39

התצוד ללביא מרף וחית כפירים תמלא

Wilt thou hunt the prey for the lion or fill the היה of the young lions.

cf. Prov. VI: 30

לא־יבוזו לגנב כי יגנוב למלא נפשו כי ירעב

Men do not despise a thief, if he steal to satisfy his was when he is hungry.

The three last instances show that היה and משש can both imply the carrier of instincts and emotions. 1

Budde comments in his translation of Job XXXIII: 20: "היה" ist hier zwar auch Synonym zu בש aber in andrer Bedeutung als v. 18 u.s.w., für Lebenstrieb, Gier, Esslust; ebenso XXXVIII: 39, wo es בי חובר nicht neben sich hat, in der Verbindung wofür Jer. XXXI: 25, Prv. VI: 30 מלא חיה

¹ cf. supra, p. 33 sqq.

² HAT II₁.

Budde's comment deviates from the leading idea in this work.

""" is not 'Lebenstrieb, Gier, Esslust;' it is the active potency in these instincts.

החודה the full expression for vis vitalis.

This circumstance appears more distinctly in Gen. I: 21. The Hebrew way of thinking is more obvious here because החיה in this case takes the definite article אוֹה, which emphasizes the use of חיה in its quality of a noun. The same can be said of Gen. IX: 10; Lev. XI: 10, 46, where הוה takes the definite article in this same expression.

Johnson makes a distinction between היה in Gen. II: 7 and the other cases where it appears in connection with נפש There

¹ LVTL.

² HW.

³ The fem. form is used in other words connected with the idea of vitality, such as ארץ, and ארץ; cf. ארץ; cf. ארץ 'Mutter Erde.'

⁴ JBL XVI, p. 19.

⁵ HChW.

⁶ So also LVTL, sub II היה.

ז vide e.g. HAW, sub II הויה.

⁸ AEL, sub 'nafsun.'

he wants it to be an adjective, whereas he declares that here the expression "is used with a collective force to denote creatures of the 'animal' world in the narrow sense, i.e. other than man." In the latter case according to him and is a noun "(lit. 'living thing', i.e. 'animal')". 1

The instances, however, where היה appears, do not clearly show the reference to the animal world. On the contrary they are distinctly used in the sense given above to the expression: 'principle of life.' There is no point in making a difference in the use of היה in this expression in different cases.

Gen. I: 20

ויאמר אלהים ישרצו המים שרץ נפש חיה ועוף יעופף על־הארץ על־פני רקיע השמים And God said: The water may push out a swarm of מש and fowl may fly above the earth in the open firmament of the heaven.

Gen. I: 21

ויברא אלהים את־התנינים הגדלים ואת כל־נפש החיה הרמשת אשר שרצו המים למינהם ואת כל־עף כנף למינהו And God created the great whales and every משהדה that moveth which the waters brought forth after their kind and every winged fowl after his kind.

Gen. I: 24

ויאמר אלהים תוצא הארץ נפש חיה למינה בהמה ורמש וחיתו־ארץ למינה And 'God said: Let the earth bring forth משחיה after its kind, cattle and creeping thing and beasts of the earth after its kind.

Gen. I: 30

ולכל רומש על־הארק אשר־בו נפש חיהAnd to every thing that creepeth upon the earth wherein there is

Gen. IX: 10

ואת כל־נפש החיה אשר אתכם בעוף בבהמה ובכל־ חית הארץ אתכם And God made a covenant with Noah

and with all נפש החיה that is with you in the fowl, in the cattle, and in every beast of the earth with you.

^{1 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individual..,' p. 23 and n. 2. — cf. HEL, sub and Briggs JBL XVI, p. 19.

Gen. IX: 12

אות־הברית אשר אני נתן ביני וביניכם ובין כל־נפש חיה אשר אתכם And God said: This is the

token of the covenant which I make between me and you and every נפש that is with you.

Gen. IX: 15

וזכרתי את־בריתי אשר ביני וביניכם ובין כל־נפש חיה בכל־בשר And I will think of my covenant between me and between you and between all היה in any flesh.

Gen. IX: 16

ברית עולם כין אלהים וכין כל־נפש חיה בכל־בשר אשר על־הארץ An eternal covenant between God and any היה in any flesh that is upon earth.

Lev. XI: 10

וכל אשר אין־לו סנפיר וקשקשת בימים ובנחלים מכל שרץ המים ומכל נפש החיה אשר במים שקץ הם לרח And all that have not fins and scales in the seas, and in the rivers, of all that move in the waters, and of any which is in the water, they shall be an abomination unto you.

Lev. XI: 46

זאת תורת הבהמה והעוף וכל נפש החיה הרמשת במים ולכל-נפש השרצת על-הארץ This is the law of the cattle and of the fowl, and of every that moveth in the water, and of every that creepeth upon the earth.

Ezek. XLVII: 9

נפש חיה כלינפש חיה And it shall be that every נפש חיה אשרד which moveth....

As for this same expression in Gen. II: 19

וכל אשר יקרא־לו האדם נפש חיה הוא שמו:

all commentators are of the opinion that it must be a later addition to the context which increases the difficulties of giving a good translation of this passage.

In Gen. IX: 12, 15 and 16 it is hard to realize why נפש היה should refer to animals only. Noah was not the only human survivor of the Great Flood. Having saved those whom he wanted to save God made a covenant with all of them, men and animals.

In Gen. I: 30; IX: 10, 15, and 16 it is clear that רפש (ה) דיה refers to the vital principle i n a creature.

The translation of היה"ה as 'living creature' is justified in the rest of the passages mentioned as a free interpretation. But the Hebrew thought behind the words is: the 'vital force,' 'the principle of life' taken as a whole for the living being.²

Pedersen describes how the whole of man is soul, how this potency fills every part of him. This leads the author — according to the conception of his time — to say 'and man became a הנפש היה,' although this means the active power in man which enlivens him. "The body is the soul in its outward form." ³

¹ cf. Gen. VI: 18; VII: 1, 7, 13; VIII: 16, 18.

² In Gen I: 24 and IX: 10 ארץ; וחיתורארץ; הארץ, היה, הארץ, may refer to 'vitality:' 'any vitality on earth,' meaning in plants or anything living.

— The present author hopes to deal with this interesting problem in an article to be published in the near future.

^{3 &#}x27;Israel . . I,' p. 171 sqq.

CHAPTER III

WEI has never meant a part of the body.

Another translation given to was is 'throat' or 'neck'. This interpretation of the word has been suggested only in Akkadian," Hebrew and Ugaritic. The first language in which this sense of NPS has been suggested was Akkadian. 1 Holma describes how the sense of the term has been developed from its meaning of 'life' to that of 'throat,' the throat being the part of man in which he is most easily mortally wounded.2 But this constitutes no reason for the adoption of the suggested meaning. It is as easy to strike a man in the heart with a sword as to cut through his bronchial passage. Dhorme inspired by this new interpretation of the Akkadian napištu tried to trace the same sense in the Hebrew was. He too allows the sense 'throat' to be developed from soul: "l'âme, souffle vital et principle de vie" as being "l'organe par excellence d'où sort le souffle vital, le canal de respiration, à savoir la gorge et plus spécialement la partie visible de la gorge, le cou."3 After Dhorme, Dürr⁴ and Weill⁵ have added to the list of instances where the word might be translated in this way.

Dürr, however, makes objections against the presumption that 'throat' may be taken as the secondary sense of NPŠ. "Das ursprüngliche ist, wie auch H. Holma, Körperteile 41, annimmt

¹ Jensen, KB III₁, p. 143 n. °

² 'Die Namen der Körperteile im Assyrisch-Babylonischen,' p. 41.

³ 'Lemploi métaphorique des noms de parties du corps..,' p. 19.

⁴ ZATW 1925, N.F. 2, p. 262 sqq.

⁵ ZATW 1926, N.F. 3, pp. 62-63.

und wie die einzelnen Uebergänge vom physischen zum geistigen Hunger und Durst der $nefe\check{s}$ usw. zeigen, die rein sinnliche Bedeutung = Gurgel, Kehle, dann Hals. Von hier aus tritt der "Atem" in die Erscheinung, die Kehle ist das Organ, darum $napi\check{s}tu$ = Atem. Der Atem aber ist dem Altorientalen das Prinzip des Lebens, so wird dann $napi\check{s}tu$ = Atem auch das Lebensprinzip und der Träger aller niedrigen Lebensfunktionen." 1

As regards the Ugaritic text, which has not been known for more than about twenty years, this interpretation has been a help, when the sense has been difficult to arrive at. ² Finally Johnson, relying upon these translations agrees with Dürr in seeing "reason to believe that the original meaning of NPS was 'throat' or 'neck'." He is ready to understand "a transition in meaning to that of 'breath' (if this be the true sequence).... even though there be no certain example of its use in this way." ³ Johnson has pointed out that in "Israelite thought psychical functions have close physical associations," which circumstance motivates the interpretation of way by 'throat.' But when the idea of soul is ascribed to primitive mind, it is presupposed that this is thought of as something material, a 'soul-stuff.' ⁵

Some of the instances which have been taken to prove the meaning of *napištu* to be 'throat' will suffice to show the error in this way of understanding the word.

In CT. XVII. 9 the parts of the human body which are especially vulnerable to demons and evil spirits are enumerated. Regarding these a striking parallel can be found in the removing of Ištar's ornaments on her descent to the nether regions—almost the same parts being considered—and the same order of vulnerability being observed.

¹ ZATW 1925, N.F. 2, p. 269. — If the present author has understood Holma correctly, he is not of the same opinion as Dürr as regards the sequence of the meanings of the word, cf. supra.

² Gordon, 'Texts in Transliteration,' 67: I: 7; Albright, BASOR 83, 1941, p. 41 and n. 15.

^{3 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individual..,' p. 11.

⁴ ibid., p. 9.

⁵ cf. supra, p. 23.

CT XVII.9	Ištar's descent (CT XV 45—48; KAR Nr 1	
(IV R 29 Nr 2)	and p. 321) Obv.	
qaqqadu	1.42 agû (crown)	qaqqadu (head)
napištu	$1.45 insab\overline{a}te \dots$	uznā (ears)
k iš \overline{a} d u	1.48 erimmāte	
irtu	1.51 dudināte	irtu
qablu	1.54 šibbu aban alādi (girdle with birth stones 1)	qable
$q\overline{a}tu$	1.57 šemirē (bracelets)	$q\bar{a}t\bar{e}\ \bar{u}\ \check{s}\bar{e}p\bar{e}$ (hands and feet)
šēpu	1.60 subat balti 2 (cloth for pudendum)	eumru

No mention is made of Ištar's garments so it must be supposed that she was dressed only in those ornaments, which can be



Clay figurine. Andrae, 'Die Archaischen Ischtar-Tempel in Assur', picture 39, p. 54.

^{1 &}quot;Les 'pierres d'accouchement' étaient évidemment portées comme un talisman destiné à procurer aux femmes des couches faciles." Fossey, 'La magie Assyrienne..,' p. 110.

considered as some form of amulets, *i.e.* she had only protected those parts of the body which were considered to be vulnerable to attack by evil spirits. In every case the parts in the two enumerations are equal. Thus it can be concluded that napištu and $uzn\bar{a}$ refer to the same regions. In CT. XVII. 9 the most apparent regions of napištu are aimed at and in the story of Ištar the 'ears' stand for those easily hurt parts.

In 'Maqlû' ² the same parts of the human body appear again. Here different deities are enumerated as protecting the vulnerable parts of the body:

qaqqadu

 $p\bar{a}nu$ (corresponds to $napi\check{s}tu$. In the text only pa remains, but the complete word, almost with certainty, is pa-[ni-ja]).

kišādu

ida

zumru

irtu

šēpā

In CT XVII. 20—21, 80 sqq. (IV R 3b 9 sqq.) are mentioned the parts of a sick person's body that are to be bound. These are given in the same order: qaqqadu, kišādu, napištu, mešrēti. 3

In Be, A vol. VI (1) Nr. 84,3 sqq.

6 šiqil hurāsim ša uzniša (4) 1 siqil hurāsim ša pāni napšātiša (na-ap-ša-ti-ša). 4

it is rather obvious that $nap\bar{s}ati$ cannot stand for 'throat.' One person cannot have many throats. Holma $loc.\ cit.$ explains $nap\bar{s}ati\bar{s}a$ as sg.: $nap\bar{s}atu$ — a parallel-form of $napi\bar{s}tu$. Schorr suggests here 'nostrils' (Nasenlöcher). ⁵

¹ cf. Van Buren, OrNS XIV, (1945) p. 23.

 $^{^2}$ 'Die Assyrische Beschwörungssammlung 'Maqlû' neu bearb. v. G. Meier, Tafel VI, 11. 1—8 p. 41.

³ Here napištu may be used to abbreviate the text as mešrēti (the members) covers more than one part (hands and feet). cf. infra, p. 50—51.

⁴ vide infra p. 51.

⁵ 'Altbabylonische Rechtsurkunden.., II,' p. 81; — Delitzsch, in 'Handel und Wandel in Altbabylonien,' suggests "Brust," but queries it. (p. 55 n. 58).

In the enumerations quoted above it is easily established that the other parts of the body are mentioned by their proper names. Only the anterior part of the head including the ears furnish any variation in expression: $p\bar{a}nu$ (face), uznu (ear), and $napi\check{s}tu$. Besides it seems awkward to conceive of a separate enumeration of the front and the back of the neck as far as binding them is concerned, and the inside of the neck, the throat, cannot be bound. It is tempting from this to arrive at the conclusion that qaqqadu stands for the back of the head, and that $napi\check{s}tu$ in these cases refers to the anterior part of it. But this must be understood indirectly.

In the illustrations (pp. 48, 51 and 55) the parts mentioned in the quoted texts are emphasized. Without doubt this has been done intentionally.

When napištu indicates the 'eyes,' 'nose,' 'mouth,' 'ears' or the whole face it refers to napištu in the sense it has been shown to hold, the vis vitalis. The particular organ which is named is mentioned as one of the corporeal parts in which the function of napištu is especially perceived. Napištu is not used in the sense of 'nose,' 'ears,' 'mouth' or 'eyes,' but as referring to the potency in the function of these organs, which are the organs of four of the senses. Thus napištu is never the word for a particular part of the body, but for the potency acting in this part.

It is striking that *napištu* when used thus only implied the anterior part of the head including the ears. The only explanation of this fact can be that the other parts enumerated are connected with copulation and childbirth. Hands and feet are thought to be especially sensitive. But in the function of

¹ The part of the head covered by hair, since the hair, containing much of the 'soul-stuff', (cf. Crawley, The Mystic Rose I, p. 161 sqq.) is especially vulnerable to evil spirits.

² (IV R 3b 9 sqq.) Fossey, in 'La magie Assyrienne.,' translates line 11, na-piš-ta-šu ru-kus-ma (p. 218) "lie son corps" (p. 219) but on p. 466 he comments on this passage: "napištu designe proprement l'âme, et par suite la personne; peut-être aussi n'est-ce qu'un euphémisme pour désigner le membre viril, en sumérien ZI-PA-GIRI, vie-bâton-fondement." — This suggestion corresponds to the Arabic use of nafsun for pudendum. (vide AEL, sub voce.)



Andrae, 'Die Archaischen Ischtar-Tempel in Assur,' Pl. 28 c.

the organs of the other senses the action of napištu is more striking.

This explains the plural of *napištu* in BE,A Vol. VI (1) Nr. 84, 3 sqq.¹

'6 shekels gold on her ears and a total of 1 shekel gold on the rest of the organs for the senses.'

In this case it can be the eyes. To the eyes was ascribed a quite special power, and this is probably why in the pictures this organ is always most emphasized.² As Pedersen remarks, the word — 'to see,' implies not only the function of the eyes, but practically any sensory function; heat, for example, was 'seen,' as were hunger and death.³

¹ vide supra, p. 49.

² cf. infra, p. 31, 'evil eye.'

^{3 &#}x27;Israel . . , I,' p. 100.

As for the medical text in K 191 II 27, where Küchler suggests as the translation of napištu 'rectum,' or better 'throat,' this interpretation of the word need not be considered the only possibility. I $š\bar{a}ru$, by which word Küchler understands "der Krankheitswind" is, of course, the evil spirit which has caused a disease. But spirits were supposed to be able to enter and leave a body by other ways too.

Baldensperger tells of a woman who "was struck dumb by terror, and ran into the house, but could show only by signs that something extraordinary had happened. Immediately a sheikh from Saknet Abu Darwîsh, near by, was fetched, who brought his sacred books — ghost-books — and, to begin with, administered a severe flogging to the patient; then, burning incense all the time, he began questioning — "Who art thou?" (Ghost) (out of the woman) 'A Jew.' 'How cam'st thou hither?" 'I was killed on the spot.' 'Where art thou come from?' 'I am from Nablûs.' 'When wast thou killed?' 'Twelve years ago.' 'Come forth of this woman!' 'I will not.' 'I have fire here and will burn thee.' 'Where shall I go out?' 'From the little toe.' 'I would like to come out by the eye, by the nose, etc.' After long disputing, the ghost with a terrible shake of the body and the leg, fled by the toe." '2

Another story is told by Curtiss: A young woman was possessed by an evil spirit. A "holy man commanded the spirit to come out of her. He replied, 'I will come out of her head.' 'But if you do,' said the holy man, 'you will break her head.' 'Then,' said the spirit, 'I will come out from her eye.' 'No,' said the holy man, 'you will destroy it.' At last he proposed to come out of her toe and this was permitted." ³

Josephus once saw "Eleazar draw out a malignant demon by holding a ring under the nose of the possessed man, under the seal of which was one of the roots recommended by Solomon. By these means, with magical incantations, he drew out the evil demon through the man's nostrils." ⁴

¹ 'Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Assyrisch-Babylonischen Medizin,' p. 91,

² PEF, 1893, p. 214, (Thompson, 'Semitic Magic..,' p. 105.)

³ 'Primitive Semitic Religion to-day,' p. 152.

^{4 &#}x27;Antiquitatum Iudaicarum epitoma,' VIII § 46—49 (p. 98, 1. 5 sqq.)

- English translation by Thompson, 'Semitic Magic..,' p. 106.

Among the Assyrians mere glancing at a dead body could require a purifying ceremony. This is clear from a ritual tablet published by Zimmern:

"When a man looketh upon a corpse and the spirit (etimmu) seizeth upon him...

Thou must sanctify the dwelling (?), lay down upuntumeal....."

Thus the spirit could enter through the eyes by the man glancing at the corpse.

Doughty tells of a man who intended to descend a well: "They stopped his ears with cotton (lest the demons, by those ingates, should enter into the man)." ²

Furthermore the attention must be drawn to the very general practice of closing the eyes of the dead. The Jews do not only close the eyes, they also put a potsherd on each of the eyes of the dead.³ This last mentioned custom has been explained as a means of preventing the dead from finding their way back to the living. ⁴ It has, however, also been regarded as a preventive against the passage of a spirit through the eyes.⁵

These instances will suffice to prove that the medical text ⁶ does not necessitate the translation of *napištu* by 'throat.' The word here is taken in the same sense as in the examples mentioned above.

Further evidence for *napištu* as 'throat' Dürr finds in expressions for killing. The generally acknowledged translation of *parû* resp. *purru'u napišta* by "das Leben jemandes abschneiden" does not satisfy him. He takes instances such as

Sanherib Prisma (I R 37—42) V 60: šiltahu pari' napšāte

and

¹ '.. Ritualtafeln..,' p. 164, Nr. 52. — English translation by Thompson, 'Semitic Magic..,' p. 26.

² '.. Arabia Deserta II' p. 190.

³ Bodenschatz, 'Kirchliche Verfassung der heutigen Juden.., IV,' p. 174.

⁴ Frazer, JAI XV, p. 71.

 $^{^5}$ Bertholet, 'Die israelitischen Vorstellungen vom Zustande nach dem Tode,' p. 3 and n. 3.

⁶ vide supra p. 52.

⁷ ZATW, 1925, N.F. 2, p. 264.

V R 9,85:

ina ussišu zaqti uparri' napištim

and he is of the opinion that "damit kann nur die Gurgel oder der Hals gemeint sein."

As a proof of this interpretation of the mentioned passages he refers to the pictures in Meissner's work (Bd. I Taf. Abb. 55) where the spear or arrow according to him always seems to be in the throat. "Always," however, is exaggerated, for only one of the men in the picture Dürr refers to seems to have a spear in his throat.

A most peculiar way of trying to convince the reader of the meaning 'throat' in such cases as this is his dealing with Enūma eliš IV 31, where Marduk in the assembly of gods "bei seiner Belehnung mit dem Schwerte den Auftrag erhält: a-lik-ma napšá-tu-uš pu-ru-'-ma d.h. Geh, der Tiamat schlag den Hals ab! Dagegen spricht nicht, dass Marduk nachher tatsächlich den Leib der Tiamat mit dem gewaltigen Speere zerteilte." ¹

Against this it may be remarked that in the Old Testament are found instances of killing by thrusting of a sword through the abdomen. ²

Without doubt the expression mentioned by Dürr must be compared with the Hebrew הכה פ' נפש 3.

The expression *kunuk napišti* (KB VI(1)46 Rev. 3.6.) is not "Halssiegel." The other suggestion Holma offers is more in accordance with what has been said above: "Talisman, Amulett." ⁴ The expression did not originate, as has been supposed, from the wearing of the seal around the neck. ⁵

The comparison with kunuk kišādi or aban kišādi 6 is no evidence for napištu meaning 'throat.' Dürr remarks that

¹ Heidel, 'The Babylonian Genesis,' p. 37, translates correctly: "Go and cut off the life of Ti'amat."

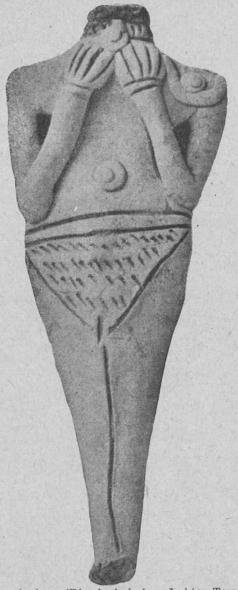
² II Sam. II: 23; III: 27; XX: 10.

³ vide supra, p. 27.

⁴ 'Die Namen der Körperteile..,' p. 41.

⁵ Holma, op. cit., p. 41, suggests a comparison with kunuk kišādi, "Halssiegel."

⁶ Dürr, ZATW, 1925, N.F. 2, p. 263, suggests the comparison with aban kišādi.



Clay figurine. Andrae, 'Die Archaischen Ischtar-Tempel in Assur,' picture 42, p. 55.

everybody knows how the Akkadians carried the seal and says that the circumstance of its being hung on the neck is enough to justify the interpretation of napištu in this connection by

'throat,' 'neck.' ¹ But, although 'kunukku' is a seal, usually an inscribed stone, not every stone is a 'kunukku.' Hence, if 'abnu' (stone) cannot take the sense of 'kunukku' still less can napištu take the sense of kišādu (throat).

The ancient Assyrians believed in a countless number of demons and evil spirits, and they ascribed the origin of all accidents to them. Therefore everybody had to guard against them. One of the ways of protecting oneself against these dangerous potencies was the wearing of amulets, which seems to have been common in all layers of Assyrian society. And apparently kunuk napišti was among these protective charms.

— "Zauberzeichen" are signs and pictures carved into things or other surfaces, and supposed to have power to inflict harm or good upon a certain person or animal or even upon a thing.

Fossey describes the 'seals' as being engraved in hard stone and he is of the opinion that if these cylinders were used as seals this was a secondary and derived usage.⁴

The above explains the differing expressions for apparently the same thing.

aban kišādi: a stone on the neck used as a phylactery.

kunuk kišādi: a stone furnished with some inscription worn round the neck and used as an amulet.

kunuk napišti: an inscription to ward off evil spirits.5

It must also be mentioned that napištu is not met with in the XV:th Tablet of the Series HAR-ra = hubullu where the parts of the body are enumerated. This fact shows that the Akkadians did not conceive of napištu as a part of the body.

Neither can the suggested translation of the Ugaritic $np\check{s}$ by 'throat' be considered correct.

67:I:7

6lyrt
 7 bnpš bn ilm mt.

¹ ZATW, 1925, N.F. 2, p. 263.

² Tallqvist, 'Maqlû,' pp. 19—20.

³ Haltsonen, KA II, 'Suomalaisista taikamerkeistä,' p. 2, and Referate, p. 1.

^{4 &#}x27;La magie Assyrienne..,' p. 108 sqq.

⁵ cf. infra, p. 66.

Gordon translates this sentence: "thou shalt indeed go down into the throat of the god Môt." 1

This is again an instance where npš must be referred to one of the groups into which the activities of NPŠ in the body can be divided. npš is here the willing and deciding element in the body; one of the qualities ascribed to the soul. The translation of the passage, as will be suggested here, runs: 'Thou shalt be at the mercy of the god Môt.'

— Anat was threatened by death 'Because thou didst smite Lôtân, the writhing serpent Didst destroy the crooked serpent

Verily thou shalt go down to the mercy of the God Môt.' (thou shalt depend on his will.) 2

cf. the corresponding use of was in Hebrew:

Gen. XXIII: 8

If it be

If it be your mind

Deut. XXI: 14

ושלחתה לנפשה

.. then thou shalt let her go whither

she will

II Kings IX: 15

אם־יש נפשכם

If it be your mind

Jer. XXXIV: 16

אשר־שלחתם חפשים

.. whom ye had set at liberty at their

pleasure לנפשם

Ps. XXVII: 12

אל־תתנני בנפש צרי

Deliver me not over unto the will of

mine enemies.

¹ 'A comprehensive Translation..,' p. 38. — Albright, BASOR 83, 1941, p. 41, translates the same passage: "Verily I have (already) gone down into the throat of Death, son of the Gods."

^{2 67:} I: 1-7.

"Water encompassed me up to the neck (ער־נפש)
The deep surrounded me.
Reeds were entwined about my head."

He compares this verse to

Ps. LXIX: 2

Save me, O God; for the waters are עד־נפש מים ער־נפש

At the same time Johnson expresses his doubt whether a similar interpretation is warranted in the case of

Ps. CXXIV: 4, 52

v. 4

אזי המים שמפוני נחלה עבר על־נפשנו

Then the waters had overwhelmed us, the stream had gone over נפשנו

v. 5

אזי עבר על־נפשנו המים הזירונים Then the proud waters had gone over

Regarding Jonah, if well is to be supposed to refer to a part of the body it is hard to see why it should be 'throat' or 'neck.' This interpretation can only have originated in the translations of the Akkadian texts mentioned. When the water encompasses someone up to the throat it is not as dangerous as when the water reaches the mouth; then life is in danger. In verse 8 well is used in the sense of soul. The translation of well in v. 6 by 'neck' and in v. 8 by soul seems awkward.

Jonah tells how his life was in danger by the encompassing water and how the reeds were entwined about his head. And when his soul () was pining away he thought of God.

^{1 &#}x27;L'emploi métaphorique des noms..,' p. 19.

² 'The Vitality of the Individual..,' p. 10 and n. 3.

Thus by well the reference is not to the 'mouth' either, but to the soul, which was in danger. Water encompassed Jonah up to his soul since he was near drowning.

The same can be said about Ps. LXIX: 2. It is somewhat hard to see why Johnson hesitates to understand vi in Ps. CXXIV: 4, 5 in the same way as in the passages already mentioned. Ps. CXXIV: 4, 5 are similar to the other instances where Johnson considers 'throat' to be the correct translation. It seems as if they ought all to be interpreted in the same way. vi, however, takes the sense of soul in them all.

The same sense 'throat' Johnson accepts also for

Isa. V: 14

לכן הרחיבה שאול נפשה ופערה פיה לכלי־חק

Sheol hath widened its throat and opened its mouth without limit. 1

cf. Hab. II: 5

אשר הרחיב כשאול נפשו והוא כמות ולא ישבע -

In these two examples well must be understood neither as 'mouth' nor as 'throat.' It is taken in the sense of the carrier of physical instincts and emotions and refers to the soul as the feeler of the appetite. The soul (as the feeling potency) makes room for more food; the soul makes itself wider in order to be able to swallow 'without limit.'

In this connection it is advisable to suggest a comparison with the Ugaritic

127:11

npšh . llhm . tpth

"His appetite she opens to eat." 2

npš is here used in the same way as נפש in Hab. II: 5

In addition to the examples mentioned above Johnson accepts the translation of wb by 'throat' or 'neck' in Job XLI: 13; Ps. CV: 18; Prov. XXIII: 7 a; Jer. IV: 10 and ("with some hesitation") Ezek. XXIV: 21, 25.

¹ ibid. p. 10.

² 'A Comprehensive Translation,' p. 81. — tpth probably here in the sense of 'prepare.'

It can be of interest to glance at these instances.

Job XLI: 12-13

מנחיריו יצא עשן כדוד

נפוח ואגמן

Out of his nostrils cometh smoke, like a pot that is heated and 'aboil'

נפשו נחלים תלהמ ולהב מפיו יצא His well setteth coals ablaze, and a flame cometh out of his mouth.

The accepted rendering of was in this context is 'breath.'

Johnson, however, considers that "the reference to 'mouth' in the parallel stichos (as in Isa. V. 14, above) suggests that will may well have the meaning 'throat.' "1 As for this suggestion it can only be said that it constitutes a problem as to how 'the throat' could 'set coals ablaze.' Briggs renders this passage: "his passion or fury kindleth coals," classing the use of will in the group where will is considered to be the subject of the emotions and passions. Briggs' remark that "we should hardly look for a primitive meaning of a word in such a passage" is superfluous. The interpretation he gives seems to come nearest the original thought. His will kindles the coals through the wind which arises by his passionated breathing. Nota bene, the soul (will) is the factor which causes the breathing.

Ps. CV: 18

ענו בכבל רגליו ברזל באה נפשו

Whatever Joseph might have wished to do, the fulfilment of his desire was held in constraint, since he was bound with iron fetters. Thus his body and his *soul* were chained.³

Prov. XXIII: 7 a

כי כמו־שער בנפשו כן הוא

For this example Johnson refers to Weill without giving any comment of his own. Apparently he is ready to accept the interpretation given by this scholar.⁴ Weill, very much im-

^{1 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individuel . . ,' p. 11, n. 2.

² JBL, 1897, XVI, p. 30.

³ Schmidt (HbAT) comments that **WD** in this passage is taken in its original sense of 'throat.'

^{4 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individual . . ,' p. 10, n. 3.

pressed by the result Dürr has obtained, adds this instance to the list advanced by the latter. He condemns the general translation as a "pis-aller" and in changing שָׁעֵּר ("hair") ¹ he suggests: "la ladrerie de l'avare, c'est comme un cheveu dans la gorge." ²

The text seems to be corrupt, making it difficult to give an accurate translation. Weill's interpretation, based on the Egyptian Hieratic Papyri (the 'Doctrine of Amen-em-ope'), is not convincing. Ges.-B. accepts the reading \Box (Syr. $k\bar{a}m$) and renders it: "selbstsüchtig u. berechnend ist er." In HEL it is written

כמודשער בנפשו כן הוא

and translated: "as he has calculated in his soul, so is he." It is, however, considered dubious in the dictionary. 5

Gressmann⁶ gives the Hebrew and the translation of the Egyptian text side by side.

c. 11

23₆ אל תלחם את־לחם רע עין a Sei nicht gierig nach der Habe eines geringen Mannes

של תתאו למטעמתיו b und sei nicht hungrig nach seinem Brote.

23ז כן־הוא כן־הוא כן Die Habe eines Geringen, die ist ein Unwetter für die Kehle,

(יוכמו מר בצואר) d und sie ist bitter (?) für den Hals.

שתה יאמר לך e Wenn er sie auch mit falschen Eiden erwirbt (?)

¹ cf. BH, note ad locum.

² ZATW, 1926, N.F. 3, p. 63.

³ cf. BH, note ad locum.

⁴ sub II שער.

⁵ sub II TVW.

⁶ ZATW, 1924, N.F. 1, p. 277.

⁷ In point of fact the Hebrew text in 'd' above was added by Gressmann. No such text existed in the original. (op. cit., note ad locum).

There is no reason to believe that שבו here means 'throat.' In XXIII:6 רמעמריו corresponds to "geringer Mann," and למעמריו to "seinem Brote." Nobody, however, would think of translating the Hebrew expressions by the corresponding ones in the Egyptian context. Apparently שער כופש corresponds to "ein Unwetter für die Kehle." It must be admitted that the present author is unfamiliar with the Egyptian language, and hence cannot dispute whether "Kehle" is the correct rendering of the Egyptian word. But even if this be the case, it constitutes no reason for translating שבו by 'throat.' The reading שבו (storm) makes sense. Thus the translation of the expression would be: 'a storm in his שבו.' This agrees very well with the Hebrew conception that שבו was the carrier of emotions.

For as '(with) a storm in his wil,' so is he; Eat and drink, saith he to thee; But his heart is not with thee.

Gressmann omits the suffix of the third person, because he takes we as referring to the person addressed. But it seems to be correct to conceive of we as belonging to the person spoken of. Translating the passage in the way suggested, no change of the Hebrew text is called for.

In a note, ad locum, Gressmann understands the expression as "wie ein Unwetter in deiner Gier, so ist es (scil. DT)."

Jer. IV: 10

ונגעה חרב עד־הנפש

The meaning again is that life is endangered. 'The sword reached to the way' which means: the sword almost made an end of life.

Ezek. XXIV: 21, 25 in v. 21 מחמל נפשכם and in v. 25 משא נפשכם

Johnson hesitates to accept 'throat' as the interpretation for up in these passages. Dürr has here taken up the explanation

¹ Possibly to be read TANA; cf. BH, note ad locum.

advanced by Dhorme. Dhorme is of the opinion that since these two words are synonyms amust be connected with the Arabic hamala (Nun from the verb Nun 'carry;' hamala means 'carry.') He comes to the conclusion that these two words mean simply: 'what you wear on your neck' i.e. ornamets. He compares it to the Akkadian hurāṣu ša pāni napšāti (the gold which is in front of the throat) and kunuk napišti (the seal on the throat). But as has been shown 'throat' was not an adequate translation for napištu here.¹ The Hebrew expression is to be understood: 'what is carried upon upon taking the same sense that has been given for the Akkadian expression Dhorme takes as a comparison.²

There is little doubt that בתי הנפש in Isa. III: 20 can be interpreted in the same way. Dhorme's explanation is that the breath of flowers was enclosed in the box; 3 so also Marti. 4

Pedersen, too, seems to have come to the conclusion that "ובש" refers to a kind of amulet, but wrongly assumes that a "little box or case could be filled with soul, from the strength of which the owner draws." The difference is very minute but nevertheless exists. The thing was carried because it added security to its wearer since it was a protection for his בש", but it was not a thing which added to the strength. It can be mentioned that Dürr wants שבו to mean "Häuschen am Halse." He too, understands it as a kind of amulet, but wants שבו in this expression to mean 'neck.' 8

As regards שם — in this same verse — which has been translated by 'amulet' it does not exclude the same translation for HEL gives the former the meaning 'charms,' 'amulets worn by women. ⁹ The verb שם means 'whisper,' 'charm,'

¹ vide supra, p. 49 sqq. and 56.

² 'L'emploi métaphorique des noms...,' p. 19; Dürr, ZATW, 1925, N.F. 2, p. 268.

^{3 &#}x27;L'emploi métaphorique des noms..,' p. 19.

^{4 &#}x27;Das Buch Jesaja'; vide Orelli, KKHS IV.

⁵ 'Israel.., I,' p. 515 note to p. 170.

⁶ op. cit., p. 170.

⁷ cf. infra, p. 66, 'evil eye.'

⁸ ZATW, 1925, N.F. 2, p. 268.

⁹ sub voce.

and has the same sense in Ethiopic. ¹ Ges.-B. explains the word: "Amulete, als Bestandteil des Frauenputzes; entw. im allg. Zaubermittel od. . . . summende Muscheln." The question here is one of different kinds of amulets. All the ornaments the daughters of Zion were threatened with being deprived of (v. 18—21) had originally been amulets. ²

For Isa, XXIX. 8

והיה כאשר יחלם הרעב והנה אוכל והקיץ וריקה נפשו וכאשר יחלם הצמא והנה שתה והקיץ והנה עיף ונפשו שוקקה

cf. Num. XI: 6

ועתה נפשנו יבשה

Dhorme is certain that well is implied in the sense of 'throat,' the throat of the hungry one is 'empty' and of the thirsty man it is 'choked.' 3

¹ LLAe, sub voce.

² cf. supra p. 49, The gold on napištu — as has been mentioned — was not originally an ornament but an amulet protecting a certain part of the body where napištu is especially vulnerable.

³ 'L'emploi métaphorique des noms..,' p. 19.

⁴ ZATW, 1925, N.F. 2, p. 265,

⁵ Gen. XLII: 21.

⁶ TIN is also the fem. form of the adjective N which means 'narrow.' (vide dictionaries) But this sense of the adjective has nothing to do with the 'throat being choked.' "As the happy soul is wide, so the anguished soul is narrow." (Pedersen, "Israel.., I,' p. 149)

It has been shown that we has always been used in the sense of soul, vis vitalis. Whenever it has seemed to stand for a part of the body, its real sense has been traced. Taken as a part of the human being it was not the name for a part of the body, which was already provided with a name of its own.

Why must new senses be invented for a word which has a given meaning! It has been pointed out above that was in the sense of soul does not refer to an abstract idea. It was an invisible 'soulstuff' which was the bearer of instincts and emotions in the body. Familiarization is necessary with the thought that, in the mind of these peoples, was the abode of was and the acting of was depended on the will of was governed the body. It was the word for the mysterious incomprehensible potency in man he could not grasp and explain.

Being a word common to all Semitic languages NPS must in every interpretation allow its real meaning to be traced.

The translation of NPS by 'throat' or 'neck,' as has already been mentioned, has been found in Hebrew and Ugaritic after having allegedly been discovered in Akkadian. It has besides been shown that this translation of NPS does not hold good even in this language.

As for the sense of 'breath' for well, Johnson mentions that there is "no certain example of its use in this way." 2

Though the translation of NPS by 'breath' is in opposition to the ideas brought forward in this work it must, however, be admitted that 'breath' could make sense in many cases. It seems absurd to think that 'breath' can be accepted in no case, while the far-fetched 'throat' is tolerated. ³

מבש"ם) as the vis vitalis in the being is thus a part of the living creature. But it is not a part of the body (בשר), which is very clear from the expression 'בשר' and בשר' This discrimination is very important and all suggestions of interpreting NPS by a part of the body must be considered wrong.

¹ vide supra, p. 23.

^{2 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individual . . ,' p. 11.

³ contra Johnson, op. cit., p. 11.

⁴ Deut. XII: 23; Isa. X: 18.

WD) - a 'potency' not only in the body.

The realm of well, however was not confined to the body in which it had its abode. It could exercise its power through the eye, by the glance. The 'evil eye' is in Arabic nafsun. Thus the word referring to unlucky happenings is used in a malevolent sense. In this way it is still used by the Arabs. Doughty tells of a young man who "was 'fascinated!' He lamented, 'It is nefs, a spirit, which besets me;' and added, this was common in their parts — the work of the hareem, with their sly philters and maleficent drinks. — 'There, there,' he cries, 'I see her wiggle-wiggling! and she is ever before mine eyes. The woman was my wife, but last year I put her away; and am in dread, she has given me a thing to drink; whereof I shall every day fare the worse, whilst I live. The phantom is always in my head, even when I walk abroad, — wellah as we sit here I see her winding and wiggling!' 1

Canaan mentions <u>harazat en-nafs</u> as a special kind of amulet worn against the influence of 'evil-minded potencies' ("Böse Seele"). ²

The only things to be afraid of and for which a charm is allowed are *nimlatun*, *humatun*, and *nafsun*; ³ *nafsun* here obviously taken in the sense of 'something evil-minded,' an 'evil spirit' or the 'evil eye.'

The same holds good for the Ethiopic. According to Dillmann nafes is used in the sense of "spiritus coelestes vel daemones." 4 manfas means "natura incorporalis, angeli, daemones, genii." 5

It is not impossible that *napištu* in the expression *kunuk napišti* refers to this same idea. Thus the amulet was a stone furnished with some inscription against the 'evil eye.' ⁶

The same can be said of בתי הנפש. Furthermore Prov. XXIII: 2 can be mentioned. The accepted rendering of בעל נפש

^{1 &#}x27;. . Arabia Deserta II,' p. 384.

² 'Aberglaube und Volksmedizin im Lande der Bibel,' p. 127.

³ AEL, sub 'nafsun.'

⁴ LLAe, sub voce 4d

⁵ ibid., sub voce 5

⁶ vide supra, p. 56.

⁷ vide supra, p. 63.

in this context is "given to greed." ¹ As a matter of fact this may be the simpliest way to translate the expression into a European language. בעל נפש might conceivably be explained in the following way:

ששט, as the word for anything mysterious and the cause of astonishing phenomena, here stands for an enigmatic 'potency.' This can be understood if a short excursion to Morocco is allowed. Westermarck describes the belief in "spiritual beings" among the Moors who conceive "that if a person eats much without getting satisfied, there are $jn\bar{u}n^2$ in his body sharing the food with him." ³ — Thus בעל נפש would literally mean 'possessor of a ששט.'

vi, in the sense of a potency able to exercise influence outside the body to which it belongs, need not always inflict harm.

Gen. XLIV: 30

ונפשו קשורה בנפשו

I Sam. XVIII: 1

ונפש יהונתן נקשרה בנפש דוד ויאהבו יהונתן כנפשו

In the first passage the verb שבו is taken in Kal part. pass., and in the other in Niphal which is a passive form too. Nöldeke refers to the Arabic qasara = 'to force,' 4 and Ges.-B. allows יוס in Kal to mean "1) binden, 2) sich verschwören." 5 Considering these interpretations of יוס nothing prevents understanding the passages mentioned to mean that the שבו of the one was 'charmed,' 'fascinated' by the שבו of his friend.

cf. also Gen. XXXIV: 3

ותדכק נפשו כדינה.... ויאהב את־הנער

In this same connection attention can also be drawn to the Arabic word for serpent, *habibun*. Nöldeke seems to be puzzled

י vide e.g. LVTL sub בעל

² The word (in plur.) in Morocco for those "spiritual beings." Westermarck, 'Ritual and Belief in Morocco I,' p. 262.

³ ibid. p. 270.

⁴ ZDMG, 40, 735.

⁵ sub voce.

by the fact that the word for this false animal is of the same root as the verb which expresses 'love.' ¹ What was mentioned above, however, explains this. Not by chance was the serpent selected among all animals to tempt Eve and cause the fall of man. Among many people the serpent, owing to its shape, lacking arms and feet, is taken for the embodiment of an evil spirit. So folklore has given rise to the story of the fallen angel who, by a spell, was turned into a serpent. habībun and hubābun for 'beloved' and 'serpent' mean in fact the same thing. The beloved is charmed, fascinated, i.e. subject to a spell. The serpent also was supposed to be subject to a spell.

"Throughout the Near East, from prehistoric times down to the present day, the inhabitants have been firmly convinced that supernatural beings, to use a general expression, are capable of inflicting grievous hurt upon them and that the maladies and bodily ills to which they are subject are directly due to this baneful power." ²

But not only "maladies and bodily ills" were supposed to be caused by those "supernatural beings." Any incomprehensible phenomenon, be it the life in a living creature or be it anything deviating from the normal in man or animal, or in nature, was thought the result of a 'mysterious potency,' a vis. Different Semitic languages call these 'spirits' by different names. But the word used for this 'potency' in early Semitic times must be one found in all Semitic languages. NPS seems to be this word.

Seligmann is of the opinion that the conception of the 'evil eye' was transferred from man and animal to supernatural beings such as deities, demons, and ghosts inclined to inflict harm upon man. 3 Canaan, on the other hand, makes a distinction between the 'evil eye' and the 'evil soul.' 4 The present investigation leads to a view deviating from both these theories. The translation of the word NPS by 'evil eye' must originate in the conception that some people were supposed to be

¹ 'Neue Beiträge zur Semitischen Sprachwissenschaft,' p. 89.

² Thompson, 'Semitic Magic..,' p. 1.

³ 'Der böse Blick..,' p. 149.

^{4 &#}x27;Aberglaube und Volksmedizin im Lande der Bibel,' p. 32.

possessed by a NPS which, being evil-minded, could exercise its influence through the eyes, by the glance. Thus NPS was a 'universal potency,' if the expression may be allowed.

Rossini gives in his dictionary mnp/fs: "instrumentum vel structura ad aquam distribuendam per agros (cf. tanaffasa diffidit aquam unda.)" which shows a conception of NPS in nature, notably, in water.

¹ ChAG, sub 'np/fs.'

CHAPTER IV

רוח

Now the question may arise: why should wo be a 'potency' in the sense of a kind of 'spirit,' since the Old Testament mentions different kinds of spirits either possessing a proper name or expressed in connection with Ti, such as

Ex. XXVIII: 3	רוח חכמה
Num. V: 14	רוח־קנאה
I Kings XXII: 22, 23	רוח שקר
Isa. XIX: 14	רוח עועים
Isa. XXIX: 10	רוח תרדמה
Hos. IV: 12; V: 4	רוח זנונים
Zech. XII: 10	רוח חן ותחנונים
Zech. XIII: 2	רוח הממאה

As for the spirits with a definite name, it can easily be shown that such names are not common to all Semitic languages, and thus cannot descend from the most remote times. ¹

The combinations with need somewhat more detailed study.

The word RWH is found in all Semitic languages except Akkadian, 2 which leads to the theory that it did perhaps exist in this language at one time, but has been dropped very early on. As a substitute for RWH Akkadian has \tilde{suru} (wind).

'Siegfried und Stade' indicate the difference between and and as being that the former signifies the breathing through

¹ cf. Baudissin, PRE VI, p. 6, Thompson, 'Semitic Magic..,' p. 1 and supra p. 68.

² cf. different dictionaries mentioned, p. 21 n. 2.

the nose whereas the latter stands for the same function through the mouth. Another definition of min given by Snaith runs as follows: "The root r-w-ch, from which the noun is derived, means primarily 'to breathe out through the nose with violence.' It is an onomatopoetic word, similar to *puach* and *naphach*, both of which mean 'to breathe out through the mouth with a certain account of violence,' or even 'to blow out...'" ²

If 'the breathing out through the nose' is to be differentiated from 'the breathing out through the mouth' and if the word was originally onomatopoeic, the translation which gives it the sense of 'breathing through the mouth' must be correct. But, on the other hand, in addition to כוח פה (Ps. XXXIII: 6), נשמת רוח (Isa. XI: 4) expressions such as נשמת רוח (חיים) כאפיו (Gen. VII: 22; II Sam. XXII: 16, Ps. XVIII: 16), רוח אר, (Job. IV: 9) are found in the Old Testament, which allows the presumption that the action has taken place through the nose too. Since in Ethiopic the only sense of the word is 'wind' and also in several places in the Old Testament it is found to have been used in this sense, 4 it can be presumed that this was the original sense of the word. It is most probable, therefore, that NPS has the sense already given above, and that the transferred sense in which הוה has been taken is the gentle wind which arises from breathing.

Relationship between שבו, הוח and השטו.

A greatly favoured theory regarding the relationship of the three terms בוח and השמה, is that God's רוח produces נשמה causes.⁶

¹ HW, sub WD).

² 'The Distinctive Ideas of the Old Testament,' p. 143.

³ LLAe, sub voce.

⁴ e.g. Ex. X:13; Isa. XXVII:8; Ps. XI:6; CVII:25; Prov. XXV: 23; Job. I:19.

⁵ Grüneisen, 'Der Ahnenkultus..,' p. 35.

⁶ Aurelius, 'Föreställningar i Israel om de döda..,' p. 78.

This conclusion has been drawn from the Creation Story. God formed man, עפר מן האדמה, and from God's breathing into his nostrils man became a נפט ביי Stade is of the opinion that since this passage is of foreign origin and of more recent date it is no valid proof of the Old Hebrew conception. But—once incorporated in the legends of the Old Testament the conception put forward there has been accepted, and is also referred to in other places such as

Isa. XLII: 5

... האל יהוה ...נתן נשמה לעם ... ורוח להלכים בה

Zech. XII: 1

יהוה ... ויצר רוח־אדם בקרבו

Job XXVII: 3

כיכליעוד נשמתי כי ורוח אלוה באפי

Cf. also Ezek XXXVII: 1—14 how by רוח from God the dead bones became alive. The same thought that man's life depended on God's רוח is expressed in

Gen. VI: 3

ויאמר יהוה לא ידון רוחי באדם לעלם

As was already mentioned נשמה has been supposed to be the result of which was caused by God's הוה. According to Grüneisen נשמה in its sense approaches רוח and שמה. 4

occurs rarely in the Old Testament. ⁵ It is not met with in Ethiopic, in Akkadian or South-Arabic. ⁶ Though in its sense it comes near משם and און it cannot originally have been considered a synonym for any of them. Moreover the combi-

¹ Gen. II: 7.

² 'Geschichte des Volkes Israel I,' p. 416 n. 1.

³ cf. Grüneisen, 'Ahnenkultus..,' p. 35, and Gunkel, 'Schöpfung und Chaos..,' p. 150 sqq.

^{4 &#}x27;Ahnenkultus..,' p. 25 n. 2.

⁵ Only a Canaanite, Aramaic and Arabic isogloss.

⁶ cf. dictionaries.

nation נשמת is found in several places. ¹ It can hardly be a misprint occurring in different authors.

Though instances such as

Jos. XI: 14

וכל שלל הערים האלה וחבהמה בזזו להם בני ישראל רק את־כל־האדם הכו לפידחרב עד־השמדם אותם לא השאירו כל־נשמה And all the spoil of these cities and the cattle, the children of Israel took for a prey unto themselves; but every man they smote with the edge of the sword, until they had destroyed them, neither left they any breath.

are found, there are also passages where שמה is ascribed to animals too; e.g. in the story of the Great Flood all that had died, including animals. ² — If the above-mentioned relationship between the three terms is to be accepted, surely משמה cannot be a privilege of human beings. The sense given to שמה in this explanation is that of 'breath;' and animals also have breath.

Another theory on the relationship between the terms mentioned will be suggested here.

was: as explained above.

רוֹם: originally 'wind,' then 'breathing:' the inhalation and exhalation, by which a wind is caused.

נשמה: what is exhaled: 'breath.'

These intermediary meanings of the terms have not prevented them from developing their sense so that משמה to mean 'spirit' and שמה soul, referring sometimes only to human beings.

This comes very near the theory accepted by Aurelius. A careful study of the Story of the Creation leads to the following result: God blew (אם breathed out through his mouth) the breath of life (שמת היים) into the nostrils (באפין) of man (through his nostrils man received the from God. It was not enough for God to breathe out this man had also to breathe it in. Hence, man breathed in

¹ Gen. VII: 22; II Sam. XXII: 16; Ps. XVIII: 16.

² Gen. VII: 22.

משם לו לושם הארטה. By means of the qualities now obtained man continued this respiratory function. He inhaled המם and exhaled המש since he had become a המש האולה. which gave him the power to act thus. This leads to an unending circle. Since man was הים without הוה and exhaled משם without הוה and exhaled השם without הים and exhaled משם without הים without הים God himself must be a שם; Nature's most supreme and most mysterious שם. This conclusion is not as fantastic as it appears considering that God created man in his own image. 3

Now when man, by the היים (רוח) סל God, possesses לפש of God, possesses he lives as long as it pleases God to allow this הוה to stay in his body. 4

It has already been mentioned that יצא פנכ., means 'to die.' Likewise יצא רוח במש can mean the same. But though 'killing' is expressed by במש הכה פי נפש הכה שי cannot be replaced here by and retain the same meaning. This would mean to 'ruin the mind of somebody.' The fact is, as Grüneisen emphasizes, cannot die because it is not a personal being. ⁵ It depends on somebody's breathing, originally on God's breathing. ⁶

To prophets was given more of this divine מוח and thus they

¹ Gen. II: 7.

² Man was in possession of אות שבו:

³ Gen. I: 26, 27; V: 1; IX: 6. — God, on several occasions, speaks of his WDJ, e.g. Jer. V: 9, 29; VI: 8; IX: 8; XIII: 17. In Prov. VI: 16 there is a question of an 'abomination unto' God's WDJ. In Jer. LI: 14 and Amos VI: 8 God swears by his WDJ. In Isa. XLVI: 2 WDJ is mentioned with reference to foreign gods. In Ex. XXXI: 17 God is said to WDJT-Furthermore Tallqvist, in his 'Akkadische Götterepitheta,' SO VII, p. 142, mentions "nap-šat naphar ilāni die Seele aller Götter," and he compares it with "Sol = anima totius mundi. na-piš-ti um-ma-ni Leben des Volkes." (Marduk)

⁴ Gen. VI: 3; cf. Job XXVII: 3; X: 12; Ps. CIV: 29, 30.

⁵ 'Ahnenkultus..,' pp. 26-27

⁶ Cf. modern medical language: on breathing, air containing oxygen (רוד) is drawn into the lungs. It is absorbed by the blood through the finest tissues in the lung. This gives well to the blood. The fact must be kept in mind that the idea of Gen. II:7 is not an effort to solve inexplicable riddles in the world. This is an answer to the question: since man had — and thus was — רוד שבו, where did this well come from?

were better able than other people to proclaim God's will and intention, i.e. to prophesy. 1

Mood and mental dispositions could also be indicated by such as anger, pride, bitterness of mind, and so on. ²

In many cases these same expressions were indicated by in some passages both הוח and משטור used side by side

Isa. XXVI: 9

נפשי אויתך כלילה אף־רוחי בקרבי אשחרך

Job VII: 11

ייי אדברה כצר רוחי אשיחה במר נפשי

Stade is of the opinion that The implied the expression of stronger emotions than There is no point in searching for an intricate difference in sense in such expressions. The simplest explanation is that where this parallellism has occurred the older implication of the language can be traced, and this may be due to the fact that the original modes of speech had not dropped out of use and were especially useful in poetry.

¬ = secondary implication: different kinds of spirits.

The meanings of minhave been traced above: originally 'wind,' later 'that which is breathed in (or out),' particularly God's then it was used to indicate mental disposition, and the power that drives its possessor, something superhuman. 4

It was gradually personified, thought of as ruling the being it had entered into. An exemple of the complete personification of ווו is to be found in I Kings XXII: 21—24; the spirit of lying, קום

¹ Num. XXIV: 2; I Sam. X: 6, 10; XIX: 20, 23; Isa. XLII: 1; LIX: 21.

² Isa. LXV: 14; Gen. XXVI: 35; I Kings XXI: 5; Ps. XXXIV: 19; Prov. XXV: 28.

^{3 &#}x27;Geschichte des Volkes Israel I,' p. 416.

⁴ In the prophets, and e.g. Judges III: 10; VI: 34; XI: 29; XIV: 6, 19; XV: 14.

As regards I Sam. XVI: 15, 16, 23; XVIII: 10; XIX: 20, 23, Snaith gives a somewhat puzzling explanation for the use of in connection with יהום and אלהים In his argument concerning the development of the meaning of no he says it originally started by having the significance of something superhuman, something abnormal, developing in time to a personified sense. But further development still revealed its being taken in the ethical sense 'evil,' while keeping its former significance of something 'good.' But once nothing evil could be supposed to come from יהוה the spirit which beset Saul was called רות אלהים, in opposition to רוח יהוה, which was of positive qualities. He motivates רוח אלהים instead of רוח by the chroniclers intending אלהים to be understood in the profane sense, and he refers to Gen. XXXI: 53. This would merely evidence the fact that the רוח רעה did not come from the God acknowledged at that time. 1

Ringgren, referring to

Judges IX: 23

וישלח אלהים רוח רעה בין אבימלך ובין בעלי שכם

I Sam. XVI: 14

ורוח יהוה מרה מעם שאול ובעתתו רוח־רעה מאת יהוה

I Sam. XVIII: 10

... ותצלח רוח אלהים רעה אל־שאול ...

I Sam. XIX: 9

ותהי רוח יהוה רעה אל־שאול

draws attention to the fact that רוח יהוה is not always 'good' and 'benevolent.' 2

Linder takes מוֹם as a predicative: 'God's Spirit came evil over him.' ⁸

Traces exist in the רוה רעה of an old conception in a newer cosmology. In older days a mental disturbance such as over-

¹ 'The Distinctive Ideas of the Old Testament,' p. 156 sqq.

^{2 &#}x27;Word and Wisdom,' p. 168.

³ 'Studier till Gamla Testamentets föreställningar om Anden,' p. 14.

whelmed Saul would have been expressed by נומש ¹ This term is still used among modern bedouins for such abnormal occurrences. ² But when הוה became the one acknowledged God, such states were presumed to have their origin in his will, which is why the הוה said to be sent from him. It seems, however, as if the author either uses different expressions in order to achieve variation in the vocabulary or makes use of a terminology according with his time, when the old expression still existed and the new one had not entirely replaced it.

When David, by playing on his lyre, drives away the העה העה. he acts in accordance with the customary practice employed against evil spirits. This medicine is evidence showing that (אלהים) (אלהים) was a new way of expressing old ideas.

This short survey of in shows that the use of the word for different kinds of spirits is secondary.

¹ cf. supra p. 66 sqq.

² cf. supra, p. 66, the story told by Doughty.

³ I Sam. XVI: 23, XVIII: 10; XIX: 9.

⁴ cf. I Sam. XVI: 16, and Kolari, 'Musikinstrumente..,' pp. 11 and 26 sqq.

CHAPTER V

נפש מת

The translation of מש מא 'one corpse' ו can be declared wrong without the slightest hesitation.

The suggestion 'somebody dead,' a 'deceased person' 2 must equally be refused. well can stand for 'somebody,' aliquis, but only when the question is one of living beings. 3 Apart from the impossibility of such a translation as regards grammatical construction (well fem., he masc.), it is somewhat difficult to imagine the literal sense of such an interpretation: somebody living (= in possession of the principle of life) who is dead. The same can be said of Charles's suggestion 'a dead soul.' 4

Johnson's explanation of no well is worthy of a quotation and a discussion. From the "use of the term well to denote a living person it is no far step to its use with reference to a dead one, i.e. a 'corpse;' and indeed this step is actually taken. ———— Accordingly, while one may speak of a ne, i.e. 'the well of one that is dead' (in short 'a dead body'), such a definition is usually found unnecessary, and it is sufficient to speak quite simply of a well when one wishes to refer to a 'corpse.' ———— What is more, well thus offers an excellent example of the semantic polarization which is so interesting a feature of the Semitic languages; for ———— at one extreme it may

 $^{^1}$ Aurelius, 'Föreställningar i Israel om de döda..,' p. 69. — cf supra p. 39.

² e.g. Ges.-B., HEL, sub WDJ.

³ vide supra, p. 38—39.

^{4 &#}x27;A Critical History of the Doctrine of a Future Life,' pp. 38-39.

denote that vital principle in man which animates the human body and reveals itself in the form of conscious life, and at the other extreme it may denote the corpse from which such conscious life had departed." ¹

To prove the possibility of giving w_{Σ} these two contrary meanings Johnson refers to Nöldeke, from whom he takes some instances of this phenomenon, called $A\dot{q}d\bar{q}d$. — He has, however, made a rather unfortunate choice of examples:

ğaunun refers in fact neither to 'black' nor 'white.' Nöldeke shows in express terms that its real sense is no colour at all, but the coloration (....nur die (stark hervorstechende) Färbung..."). 2

Arabic ' $ab\overline{a}$ 'to refuse' — Hebrew אבה 'to be willing.' Ges.-B. says of אבה.

Kal. "willig sein, wollen"

"Es ist m. Ausnahme v. Jes. I: 19, Hi. XXXIX: 9 (Sir VI: 33) immer m. einer Negation verbunden." 3

This shows that the word is used in a refusing sense. wataba 'to leap' — ישב'to sit.'

It was a most unfortunate lapse to give this example. De Landberg presumes that the sense 'to sit' must be the original one, while that of 'jumping' could be a very ancient dialectal amplification of $\check{s}abba$ and $\check{s}ab\bar{a}$. A study of the Arabic word and the derivations from the root shows that the original meaning 'to sit' can be traced. ⁵

In spite of the fact that a common origin for the 'opposite senses' of the word in different Semitic languages can be traced, Johnson seems to have paid no attention to Nöldeke's remark that he takes into consideration only those words which have opposite meanings in one and the same language. ⁶

^{1 &#}x27;The Vitality of the Individual..,' p. 25-26.

² 'Neue Beiträge zur Semitischen Sprachwissenschaft,' p. 94.

³ sub voce. cf. LVTL sub voce: "always accompanied by a negative, even Hi 39,9, Js I, 19".

^{4 &#}x27;Etudes sur les dialectes de l'Arabie Méridionale I,' p. 341.

⁵ cf. AEL, sub voce.

^{6 &#}x27;Neue Beiträge zur Semitischen Sprachwissenschaft,' p. 69. (p. 69 n. 3: "So führe ich also nicht auf, dass nur im Arabischen wataba nicht die, im Sabäischen und noch in heutigen südarabischen Dialekten erhaltene — — gemeinsemitische Bedeutung 'sitzen' hat, sondern da 'aufspringen' bedeutet.")

In fact most of the words which seem to be $Add\bar{a}d$ can be explained by tracing the way of thinking among ancient Semites. "That which interests the Israelite is not the strict limitation of the idea, but the determination of its peculiarity. This manifests itself in his language, and makes it practically impossible to translate a Hebrew account into any modern language. For us each word in its context has its definitely limited sense; but even though a special shade of meaning predominates, the Hebrew constantly feels the idea of totality acting through it. When the word b^erith is to be translated, now by right, now by duty, and now by law, etc., then in every one of these various connections it imparts to us a new sense. For the Israelite there is always the same idea underlying it; it only presents itself in various forms." 1

This ought to be enough to show that the word indicating the vital principle cannot be used for something lacking this principle.

Regarding the suggestion: 'the soul of the dead,' 2 no objections as to the words or the grammatical construction can be made. An examination, however, will show that another interpretation may be sought. Schwally understands not as the soul of the deceased still living after death. Only he does not know whether the soul is inside the body or hovering in its neighbourhood. It finally dies anyway when the body has fallen into decay.³

This conception is not in accordance with the interpretation which will be given below. Neither does Grüneisen accept it, but in proving the error in Schwally's idea he makes mistakes himself.

According to Grüneisen whi in the expression dealt with here cannot refer to the soul of the deceased. He wants to show that whi is only "das nackte Leben," "das pulsierende Leben," which takes its force from and when are leaves the body consequently there can be no more whi, having been taken to stand for the individual only refers to this individual,

¹ Pedersen, 'Israel.., I,' pp. 111—112.

² Schwally, 'Das Leben nach dem Tode . . .' p. 7.

³ ibid., p. 7.

now dead, "irgend ein Leichnam." ¹ As Charles puts it: "the soul is the result of the indwelling of the spirit in the material body, and has no independent existence of its own. It is really a function of the material body when quickened by the spirit. As long as the spirit is present, so long is the soul 'a living soul' (מכש הוא) but when the spirit is withdrawn, the vitality of the soul is destroyed, and it becomes a dead soul (מכש בוה), or corpse (Num. VI: 6; Lev. XXI: 11) — — — According to this view the annihilation of the soul ensues inevitably at death, that is, when the spirit is withdrawn." ² This, however, cannot be considered correct.

was not the word for 'life,' 'vitality,' but for the potency in 'vitality' [ממונה). ³ If there was an inclination to understand everything as caused by some kind of power, שש was this power. The later conception according to which שם drew its force from God's מון only gave an answer to the question: where did שם come from? ⁴ מון און stood for vis vitalis and was considered an invisible ghostly creature. The 'soulstuff' was understood to be material, and could not be supposed to disappear, to be dissolved into nothing at death. As explained by Grüneisen and Charles, the body (משר) can be compared to an engine driven by steam (משר), the function (שב) of which ceases when the steam (משר) is withdrawn. This, however, is not in accordance with primitive mentality. שם always stands for the potency in some kind of action or energy.

König's 'corpse of a dead man' ("Leichnam eines Toten"), which he explains as a pleonasm, must equally be refused.

Regarding the expression at it must be repeated that we always took the sense of an inexplicable force, vis. The scope of us is here other than in the previous passages. There it was the power in life, vitality; here it is the power in the dead.

The attention may for a while be drawn to the theory put forward by Karsten. He says that the rites and customs in

¹ 'Ahnenkultus..,' pp. 27, 45 sqq.

² 'A Critical History of the Doctrine of a Future Life,' pp. 42-43.

³ vide supra, p. 40 and 42.

⁴ vide supra, p. 73-74.

⁶ HAW, sub WD1.

connection with death do not primarily concern the dead man or his ghost; they are directed against the "disease demon who caused death by entering into the body of the patient." ¹ Elhorst, too, has declared that the behaviour of the mourners in the Old Testament is dictated by fear of the power which has invaded the environment. ²

According to the Hebrew text it is not literally the power which has caused death that is feared. Were that so the expression would be המות נפש המות.

It is the power in the dead (body), no. It is the mysterious potency raging in it, the visible result of which is noticed in the lack of motion and in the decay of the corpse. As a matter of fact it is the disease and death demon which is still supposed to hover around the body but which now is called 'the potency in the dead.'

The same system is followed here in the mode of expression as with המש בש. The thought is expressed either by נפש מח alone or the fuller form מו is used. A still longer form with the same sense is מור אדם אדם אדם אדם בשר These expressions occur in commands and restrictions and never refer to a particular person; this is why זם in the passages mentioned never takes the definite article.

Thus מש מח and נפש חוד are used in quite analogous ways: vis letalis and vis vitalis.

Num. IX: 6

ויהי אנשים אשר היו ממאים לנפש אדם ולאדיכלו לעשת־הפסח ביום ההוא

Num. IX: 7

... אנחנו ממאים לנפש אדם

Num. IX: 10

... איש כיריהיה ממא לנפש...

¹ 'The Civilization of the South American Indians,' p. 183.

² SSPhR, p. 126 sqq.

³ vide supra, p. 40.

⁴ Num. XIX: 13.

The usual way of understanding whi in this context is that the men had become unclean through contact with a dead person. It is not certain here whether whi stands for the longer of whether whi is the factor in any other mysterious phenomenon. The possibility, however, is not to be excluded that whi is to be understood here as the demon in a dead body.

Uncleanness is contagious. It is not only dead bodies that defile. Certain other defiling conditions are enumerated in Leviticus. It cannot be indisputably stated, therefore, that the men have become unclean through contact with a dead body. If we is considered the potency that causes strange phenomena, in this context the word can refer to any defiling state — a state of defilement being a deviation from the normal.

The blood is called well and thus the context may refer to contact with blood. Bodily issues are defiling. ¹ Leprosy has a name of its own. But if it adheres to some material thing, this is freed from its pollution in the same way as defilement is washed off from man. ² The potency in a leper is a well (a disease demon).

Num. VI: 11

וכפר עליו מאשר חמא על־הנפש

Here it is a question of the well in a dead person. The nazir had to make atonement for the sin that had come upon him when somebody had unexpectedly died in his presence and defiled his head; his hair being consecrated to God. 3

Ezek. XLIV: 25

ואל־מת אדם לא יבוא לממאה

In this passage no stands for the full expression which excludes every thought of another kind of demon.

Num. XIX: 11

הנגע במת לכל־נפש אדם וממא שבעת ימים

In this passage, and still better in

¹ Lev. XII and. XV.

² Lev. XIII and XIV.

³ cf. v. 5.

Num.XIX: 13

כל-הנגע במת כנפש האדם אשר ימות

the principal thought in the restrictions about corpses is most clearly conceived. 'He who toucheth 'one dead', who is possessed of any potency of a man, he will be unclean for seven days,' (and v. 13), and 'everybody that toucheth 'one dead', a potency in the man...' Here the thought of any other potency than the death demon is excluded.

In v. 13 ממת also be understood by 'is dying' (imperf.). A man was considered already to be possessed of the disease and death demon while he was dying, or to be dying because he was possessed of this demon.

Lev. XIX: 28

ושרט לנפש לא תתנו בבשרכם

This prohibition can hardly be limited to death demons only. The lacerations were a sort of covenant with, ¹ or purification from, ² mysterious and feared potencies and were also used on occasions other than those of mourning. ³ The same rite is in question in

Deut. XIV: 1

מנים אתם ליהוה אלהיכם לא תתנדדו ולא־תשימו קרחה בין עיניכם למת and there the prohibition as regards death is clear. The intention in Lev. XIX: 28 can be taken as the same, but it can also have been meant in a broader sense.

Lev. XXI: 1

... אמר אל־הכהנים ... לנפש לא־ישמא בעמיו

'He shall not through a wan become unclean among his people.'
The question in this case can be of a wan in a dead man. It can,
again, be of any other wan. The former is the more probable
since in verse 2 are enumerated those persons, the nearest

¹ Robertson Smith, '.. the Religion of the Semites,' p. 321 sqq.

² Karsten, 'The Civilization of the South American Indians,' p. 156.

³ I Kings XVIII: 28.

blood relatives, by whom he was allowed to be defiled, whereas high priests were forbidden to become unclean even through 'contact' with their deceased father or mother. ¹

Lev. XXII: 4

והנגע בכל־ממא־נפש

There is no reason here why well must be the well in a dead man. It was forbidden to eat of the holy things also to those who had come into contact with anybody (or maybe: anything) defiled by a well.²

Num. V: 2

וישלחו מן־המחנה כל־צרוע וכל־זב וכל ממא לנפש

It is very unlikely that well here refers to the death demon. There were certain rites to be performed at the death of somebody, but nowhere is it mentioned that mourning people must be segregated.

Hag. II: 13

ויאמר חגי אסדיגע ממאדנפש בכל־אלה היממא

It is almost certain that whi here does not refer to a death demon. None of the things Haggai mentions in v. 12 are unclean. But the sentence shows that everything becomes unclean when it comes into contact with anything that is defiled by a way.

In Num. VI: 6

כל-ימי הזירו ליהוה על-נפש מת לא יבא

Lev. XXI: 11

ועל כל־נפשת מת לא יבא

the full expression is used. 3

¹ Lev. XXI: 10-11.

² cf. p. 83 and Lev. XV: 2 sqq.

³ This passage is a clear proof of the correctness of the translation suggested in this work. Any NWDI of a dead man. The passage needs no further comment.

Deut. XXVI: 14

ולאדנתתי ממנו למת

in this passage is obviously the shorter form for של in this passage is obviously the shorter form for ולמח It is to be understood neither as "for the dead" nor as "to the dead." — 'I have not given thereof to the death demon' — understood as a sacrifice or a covenant.²

The same can be said of Deut. XIV: 1.3 and of

Ps. CVI: 28

ויאכלו זבחי מתים

¹ cf. Driver, '. . Deuteronomy,' I.C.C.

² cf. infra p. 88.

³ vide supra, p. 84.

CHAPTER VI

The psychological background to the suggested translation of

In order to show that ancestral worship prevailed among the Israelites Lods has evidenced in a brilliant way that the mourning customs, which were the same rites as were performed on occasions of calamity or in the sanctuary, were a token of retionship to the superhuman. Thus these rites have constituted an important link in his demonstration of the prevalence of ancestral worship in biblical times.1 Elhorst, on the other hand, claims that the mourning rites were due to the potency which had invaded the place and caused death.2 It would lead too far from the main subject to examine each rite here. Whether it be the ghost of the dead or the potency in death, the behaviour towards it remains the same. Even if it is proved that mourning rites show an attitude towards something supernatural, this will not establish the suggested interpretation of the expression in question. It must be demonstated that this supernatural being towards whom the rites were directed was not the ghost of the dead.

It must be left out of consideration that behaviour in mourning has been claimed to originate in real natural sorrow, ³ the manifestation of which had gradually become a tradition. ⁴

Of course man in the dawn of mankind must have been capable of human feelings as much as now. But fear most

¹ 'La croyance à la vie future et le culte des morts dans l'antiquité Israélite,' passim.

² SSPhR, p. 126 sqq.

³ Kamphausen, HBA II, p. 1712a.

⁴ Aurelius, 'Föreställningar i Israel om de döda..,' p. 87.

certainly was a stronger emotion than sorrow. Death, without doubt, was considered mysterious and threatening.

Grüneisen insists that each rite at mourning is to be explained according to one principle, and, following Frazer, he interprets the mourner's change of outward aspect as being a means of disguise from the ghost of the dead, the loud wailing having the purpose of driving away this evil-minded spirit. ¹

The mourning rites cannot, however, be considered to follow one principle. Customs, especially at mourning, have a tendency to persist even after the original intention has fallen into oblivion. Though new ones appear the old customs are not dropped. Thus mourning rites among one and the same people can be explained according to different principles. ²

The different rites in mourning have been interpreted in various ways, such as a sign of submission and humility, ³ a disguise from the dead, ⁴ a covenant with the ghost of the dead, ⁵ or a sacrifice to the dead. ⁶

These explanations all have one feature in common. The intention is in every case to safeguard against the ghost of the dead. Whether it is a sacrifice or a covenant, a disguise or a banishing of the spirit, it still shows the uttermost fear of the 'dead.' But why should the ghost of the deceased be feared? Why should some one who when alive had been loved and befriended be considered malevolent to the living?

According to Lippert primitive man was incapable of conceiving of death as a natural end to life. Since no outward apparent reason was conceivable to account for death, he believed in the existence of some hostile potency which entered the body to take away its life. The dead were taken to be death itself. Primitive man's belief, therefore, was that his soul always succumbed to the force of this potency's will, thus

¹ 'Ahnenkultus..,' pp. 100, 115 sqq.; Frazer, JAI XV, p. 98 sqq.

² Bertholet, 'Die israelitischen Vorstellungen vom Zustand nach dem Tode,' p. 10; Elhorst, SSPhR, p. 118; Lods, 'La croyance à la vie future.., p. 80.

³ Schwally, 'Das Leben nach dem Tode..,' p. 11 sqq.

⁴ vide note 1.

⁵ Robertson Smith, '.. the Religion of the Semites,' p. 321—323.

⁶ Schwally, 'Das Leben nach dem Tode..,' p. 21 sqq.

placing his soul in an evil frame of mind and bringing on the desire to do evil. Even infirm persons and those falling ill of a sickness were believed to be possessed of this 'ghost creature.' $^{\rm 1}$

Another theory advanced by Jastrow is related to the above. but at the same time exhibits a difference. Primitive man, regarding life an active force, could understand its being assigned to something material. Material shapes were an essential embodiment of a power which could not be conceived of as a mere idea. This was illustrated in Jastrow's view of the struggle against disease. Illness, to primitive man, was an evil spirit that entered the body to struggle with the spirit or force of life. If the spirit of life won the fight, the malevolent spirit was expelled — and vice versa. Thus, if the evil force won, the spirit of life was expelled from the body. It was pictured, then, in the case of death, as hovering around the corpse, trying to regain entry. Unable to do so it was uncontrolled and so a source of danger to the living. From this the conflicting feelings towards the dead could readily be explained. On the one hand there was a natural sympathy for the helpless, the dead, the desire to care for those who were loved when alive, and against this the other feeling of a necessity to protect those still living from the evil spirits of the dead.2

Though theoretically both explanations show certain differences, in practice they result in the same conclusion — the spirit around the dead body is feared. But although the soul or spirit of life has been forcibly expelled from its abode, no explanation is offered as to why it should suddenly develop a feeling of malevolence. Why should the spirit suddenly turn against those it had befriended in life? Was it reason enough that it had been unwilling to leave the body?

As has been mentioned, Elhorst has emphasized that not the ghost of the dead but the power which had caused death was feared. ³ But he says nothing of what happened to the *soul* at death. Karsten's theory on the disease and death demon gives

^{1 &#}x27;Die Religionen der Europäischen Culturvölker..,' p. 7.

² 'Hebrew and Babylonian Traditions,' p. 198-200.

³ vide supra p. 82.

a good explanation of the supposedly evil intentions of the spirit in or near the corpse.

He distinguishes between the ghost of the dead and the disease demon which causes death. The latter absorbs the *soul* of the deceased and becomes more powerful in proportion to the spiritual power attained by the deceased in his lifetime. Thus it is not the ghost of the dead which is dreaded but the pernicious demon which, having got hold of its victim, is looking around for other prey. This theory gives an acceptable explanation of the sudden horror in the presence of a person loved and respected a few minutes earlier, now lifeless. ¹ It also gives an answer to why the same rites as in mourning are performed on occasions where there is no question of death. It was the attitude towards anything enigmatic and supernatural.

Of course the explanation advanced by Karsten of what happened at death, as he says himself, holds good only for 'natural death.' In other instances the departure of life constituted no problem. Then the cause of death was obvious, and no one wondered that the *soul* was supposed to be turned into a malevolent demon wanting to take vengeance on the living for being deprived of the pleasures of life, so that these survivors had to take precautions against it.

When the killing involved bloodshed the outpouring blood contained the soul of the slain. The vapour rising from a big pool of blood may be noticed only in a cold climate, but the smell is the more intense in warm regions. This circumstance gives rise to the thought of a living factor in the blood, even when it is outside the body. The man's value is still there and in its evil frame of mind wants to inflict harm upon those who have deprived him of his life.

^{1 &}quot;The Civilization of the South American Indians,' pp. 183, 477; cf. Karsten, 'The Origins of Religion,' p. 289. — In 'Civilization..,' the author adds: "Only by keeping this distinction in view can we understand fully the funeral and mourning customs which otherwise would, in many cases, seem hopelessly contradictory. Partly they seem to be expressions of a loving care of the departed relative, partly inspired by abject fear of the same spirit." (p. 477)

Grüneisen is of the opinion that there is life in the blood only as long as it streams out, but that this is extinguished as soon as the blood is covered with earth. 1 Almost the same is maintained by Lippert when he says that the soul is in the warm red blood.2 Lods raises objections against this. contained in the outflowing blood remains there. It cries as long as it is not covered by earth. "Il n'y a plus aucune trace de vie dans les taches de sang qui marquent les rochers de Jerusalem; et cependant elles appellent vengeance (Ez. 24: 7, 8). De même, dans le sang que la terre mettra à nu au dernier jour (Es. 26:21) toute la vie aura cessé depuis longtemps; la nefeš qu'il contenait devrait donc, d'après M. Grüneisen, en avoir disparu, volatilisée, depuis des siècles. L'idée est autre: c'est que lorsque le sang est couvert, l'âme est fixée; elle est rendue inoffensive; mais elle y subsiste, puisque dès que le sang réapparaît, la vengeance est à redouter (Es. 26)."3

Among modern Jews the custom that a murdered man must be buried in his bloody clothes still prevails; if a woman dies in childbirth all the blood which streams out after death is considered and must follow her to the grave. 4

The *soul* of the killed, contained in the blood and turned into an evil spirit must be appeased by a sacrifice. This is known as a vengeance wreaked by the family of the killed on those who belonged to the murderer's family. The latter again, in order to satisfy the ghost of the newly murdered, continued *etc*. "C'est donc la crainte des âmes qui, dès une haute antiquité, peut-être même dès l'origine, inspirait la vengeance du sang chez les Sémites. ⁵

When Cain had slain Abel the blood of the murdered brother cried for vengeance and God cursed Cain saying that the ground which had opened its mouth to receive the blood of his brother

^{&#}x27;Der Ahnencultus..,' p. 48.

² 'Der Seelencult in seinen Beziehungen zur Althebräischen Religion,' p. 60.

^{3 &#}x27;La croyance à la vie future..,' p. 69.

^{4 &#}x27;Jore Dea,' כְּבוֹר בּהֹל and מור' והב comment on § 375. Granzfrid, 'קצור שלחן ערוך', § 197,9 and 11; Danzig, 'Chochmath Adam seu Compendium libri Jore Dea,' § 157, 10 and 11.

from his hand, would be barren for him and he should find no resting place upon earth. 1

Only a couple of the instances of this kind of revenge in the Old Testament will be mentioned: Abner killed Asahel, and ² therefore Joab avenged the blood of his brother on him. Then ³ the dying David urged his son Solomon to take vengeance on Joab for having killed Abner and Amasa.⁴

The blood revenge did not exclude the usual mourning rites. When David heard that Joab had slain Abner he asked Joab and all the people around him to rend their garments, gird themselves with sackcloth and mourn Abner.⁵

As Buttenwieser remarks, the *soul* of the animals was also taken into consideration. ⁶ Unless sacrificed, their blood must be poured out and covered with earth. ⁷ The prohibition against eating animals with their blood (which contained their *souls*) ⁸ has been considered a mere fear of absorbing their *souls*. The interpretation, however, is near at hand that to eat such an animal was the easiest way to swallow the dreaded demon into which the *soul* of the killed animal had changed; or, if the animal had died a 'natural' death,' the demon which had taken its *soul* in possession.

Animals not slaughtered in the required way were not only forbidden to be eaten, their carcasses were to be considered unclean. Anybody who touched them became unclean. ⁹ This evidently because of the dangerous demon into which their way had turned.

When in the Old Testament somebody was condemned to death because of a trespass, this penalty was never prescribed as execution by bloodshedding; the sinner was either to be hanged, stoned or burnt by fire. 10

¹ Gen. IV: 8 sqq.

² II Sam. II: 23.

³ II Sam. III: 27.

⁴ I Kings II: 5.

⁵ II Sam. III: 30, 31.

⁶ JAOS 38-39, p. 313.

⁷ Lev. XVII: 13.

⁸ Ex. XXII: 30; Lev. XVII: 14; Ezek. IV: 14; XLIV: 31.

⁹ Lev. XI: 39.

¹⁰ Lev. XX: 14, 16, 27; Deut. XVII: 5; XXI: 21, 22; XXII: 24.

In this same connection it must be mentioned that also animals were made responsible for their doings. If a bull had been the cause of a man's death, it had to be killed. The execution, however, was to be performed by lapidation. ¹

It was a common habit to bury the dead. This, as everywhere where burial in the earth is parctised, was in order to confine the dangerous powers in or around the body to a certain place. The earth upon the body was the same as the earth upon the blood of the killed. ²

A hanged man must be taken down and buried before sunset, for a hanged man brings down the curse of God. ³ The expression that the hanged man brings down the curse of God is of course a recent intrepretation of an old conception. Of old the demon in the hanged man was feared.

At night evil-minded spirits enjoyed their most favourable time for activity. ⁴ This was, without doubt, the reason why, when the penalty of death had been inflicted upon a man, the living were in a hurry to get rid of his body before sunset. To be safe from the demon, after the hanged body had been taken down it was covered with a pile of stones, ⁵ or it was thrown into a cave the entrance of which was closed with large stones. ⁶

As has already been mentioned several times, all this was because the *soul* of the dead had turned into a malevolent spirit. The *soul* of the killed, now a disease and death demon, was looking for victims to deprive the survivors of the pleasure of life.

It can be mentioned that the animosity of the ghost of a man about to be killed was supposed to arise as soon as he was told his fate. His 'evil eye' was therefore feared and his face was veiled. The custom of covering the eyes of a prisoner condemned to death before his execution may originate in this

¹ Ex. XXI: 28-32.

² Schwally, 'Das Leben nach dem Tode . . ,' p. 53.

³ Deut. XXI: 23; cf. Jos. VIII: 29; X: 26, 27.

⁴ Tallqvist, 'Maqlû,' p. 16.

⁵ Jos. VII: 25, 26; VIII: 29; II Sam. XVIII: 17.

⁶ Jos. X: 26, 27.

⁷ cf. Seligmann, 'Der böse Blick.., II,' p. 283—296.

conception; not, as has been declared, to save the prisoner from knowing the exact moment when he must die.

According to Jewish religion a suicide's family does not perform mourning rites. ¹ This may be because the deceased obviously sought death himself and therefore no disease demon or death demon is to be feared, nor can it be supposed that his own *soul* turned into such. — Of course, according to later conceptions in the Old Testament suicide may have been considered a crime against God because, according to the Creation Story, God gave man his spirit and this was supposed to remain in man as long as it pleased God. ² Therefore, suicide ran counter to God's will. This may be the reason why suicides are buried separately.

Catholics and protestants, at least in former times, did not ring church bells for the funeral of a suicide. Bell ringing was originally intended to drive away evil spirits. In the case of suicides, therefore, it would appear to indicate that there was no evil spirit to drive away. More recent times, however, consider that the ringing of church bells is performed in honour of the defunct and forbid this sign of reverence for those who have acted against God's will and intention.

*

Finally a way of using the word NPŠ must be mentioned. In Syriac, South-Arabic, and Aramaic this word has been employed in the sense of 'funeral monument.' This provides a very clear instance of how a word, in the course of time, comes to get a transferred meaning. The sense 'funeral monument' cannot be taken as derived from the supposed meaning of NPŠ = 'corpse.' When NPŠ is used for a tomb, this is to indicate that the place is haunted by a NPŠ, NPŠ being the vis letalis which has been confined to the tomb.

^{1 &#}x27;Jore Dea,' § 345.

² vide supra, pp. 73—74.

³ vide dictionaries, sub voce.

Schwally says that the covering of the blood is the same as the covering of the *soul*. Following on from this, he maintains, the Aramaic NULL meaning *soul* must have come to be used in the sense of 'tombstone.' He comes very near the explanation advanced in the present work. The difference is, however, that Schwally speaks of 'die Seele' and here NPS is understood in the way explained above.

The same scholar mentions that the tombs are chalked on certain occasions and he understands this as decoration of the graves. ² The reason for this is, however, that, at critical times, the place can thus be seen at a distance and can be avoided.

*

The above explains how שבו has come to mean 'disease and death demon.' Wellhausen mentions nafs as "Totengeister," meaning the ghost of the dead, without any remark on how death had come about. ³ Spencer declares that demons have taken their origin from the ghosts of dead people, ⁴ but, to this must be added: from those who have not died a 'natural death;' if this be the real origin. Tallqvist, too, gives the same declaration as Spencer. ⁵

¹ 'Das Leben nach dem Tode...' p. 52 n. 1.

² op. cit., pp. 44-45, 51 sqq.

³ 'Reste Arabischen Heidentums,' p. 185 n. 3.

^{4 &#}x27;Principles of Sociology I,' p. 215 sqq., esp. p. 217.

⁵ 'Baabelin Manalassa,' p. 34.

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