THE INTERNATIONAL CRITICAL COMMENTARY

A CRITICAL AND EXEGETICAL COMMENTARY

ON

GENESIS

BY

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CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS
1910
TO MY WIFE
It is a little over six years since I was entrusted by the Editors of "The International Critical Commentary" with the preparation of the volume on Genesis. During that time there has been no important addition to the number of commentaries either in English or in German. The English reader still finds his best guidance in Spurrell's valuable Notes on the text, Bennett's compressed but suggestive exposition in the Century Bible, and Driver's thorough and masterly work in the first volume of the Westminster Commentaries; all of which were in existence when I commenced my task. While no one of these books will be superseded by the present publication, there was still room for a commentary on the more elaborate scale of the "International" series; and it has been my aim, in accordance with the programme of that series, to supply the fuller treatment of critical, exegetical, literary, and archaeological questions, which the present state of scholarship demands.

The most recent German commentaries, those of Holzinger and Gunkel, had both appeared before 1904; and I need not say that to both, but especially to the latter, I have been greatly indebted. Every student must have felt that Gunkel's work, with its aesthetic appreciation of the genius of the narratives, its wider historical horizons, and its illuminating use of mythological and folklore parallels, has breathed a new spirit into the investigation of Genesis, whose influence no writer on the subject can hope or wish to escape. The last-mentioned feature is
considerably emphasised in the third edition, the first part of which (1909) was published just too late to be utilised for this volume. That I have not neglected the older standard commentaries of Tuch, Delitzsch, and Dillmann, or less comprehensive expositions like that of Strack, will be apparent from the frequent acknowledgments in the notes. The same remark applies to many books of a more general kind (mostly cited in the list of "Abbreviations"), which have helped to elucidate special points of exegesis.

The problems which invest the interpretation of Genesis are, indeed, too varied and far-reaching to be satisfactorily treated within the compass of a single volume. The old controversies as to the compatibility of the earlier chapters with the conclusions of modern science are no longer, to my mind, a living issue; and I have not thought it necessary to occupy much space with their discussion. Those who are of a different opinion may be referred to the pages of Dr. Driver, where they will find these matters handled with convincing force and clearness. Rather more attention has been given to the recent reaction against the critical analysis of the Pentateuch, although I am very far from thinking that that movement, either in its conservative or its more radical manifestation, is likely to undo the scholarly work of the last hundred and fifty years. At all events, my own belief in the essential soundness of the prevalent hypothesis has been confirmed by the renewed examination of the text of Genesis which my present undertaking required. It will probably appear to some that the analysis is pushed further than is warranted, and that duplicates are discovered where common sense would have suggested an easy reconciliation. That is a perfectly fair line of criticism, provided the whole problem be kept in view. It has to be remembered that the analytic process is a chain which is a good deal stronger than its weakest link, that it starts from cases where diversity of authorship is almost incontrovertible, and moves on to others where it is less certain; and it is surely evident that when the composition of sources is once established, the slightest
differences of representation or language assume a significance which they might not have apart from that presumption. That the analysis is frequently tentative and precarious is fully acknowledged; and the danger of basing conclusions on insufficient data of this kind is one that I have sought to avoid. On the more momentous question of the historical or legendary character of the book, or the relation of the one element to the other, opinion is likely to be divided for some time to come. Several competent Assyriologists appear to cherish the conviction that we are on the eve of fresh discoveries which will vindicate the accuracy of at least the patriarchal traditions in a way that will cause the utmost astonishment to some who pay too little heed to the findings of archaeological experts. It is naturally difficult to estimate the worth of such an anticipation; and it is advisable to keep an open mind. Yet even here it is possible to adopt a position which will not be readily undermined. Whatever triumphs may be in store for the archaeologist,—though he should prove that Noah and Abraham and Jacob and Joseph are all real historical personages,—he will hardly succeed in dispelling the atmosphere of mythical imagination, of legend, of poetic idealisation, which are the life and soul of the narratives of Genesis. It will still be necessary, if we are to retain our faith in the inspiration of this part of Scripture, to recognise that the Divine Spirit has enshrined a part of His Revelation to men in such forms as these. It is only by a frank acceptance of this truth that the Book of Genesis can be made a means of religious edification to the educated mind of our age.

As regards the form of the commentary, I have endeavoured to include in the large print enough to enable the reader to pick up rapidly the general sense of a passage; although the exigencies of space have compelled me to employ small type to a much larger extent than was ideally desirable. In the arrangement of footnotes I have reverted to the plan adopted in the earliest volume of the series (Driver's Deuteronomy), by putting all the textual, grammatical, and philological material bearing on a parti-
cular verse in consecutive notes running concurrently with the main text. It is possible that in some cases a slight embarrassment may result from the presence of a double set of footnotes; but I think that this disadvantage will be more than compensated to the reader by the convenience of having the whole explanation of a verse under his eye at one place, instead of having to perform the difficult operation of keeping two or three pages open at once.

In conclusion, I have to express my thanks, first of all, to two friends by whose generous assistance my labour has been considerably lightened: to Miss E. I. M. Boyd, M.A., who has rendered me the greatest service in collecting material from books, and to the Rev. J. G. Morton, M.A., who has corrected the proofs, verified all the scriptural references, and compiled the Index. My last word of all must be an acknowledgment of profound and grateful obligation to Dr. Driver, the English Editor of the series, for his unfailing interest and encouragement during the progress of the work, and for numerous criticisms and suggestions, especially on points of philology and archaeology, to which in nearly every instance I have been able to give effect.

JOHN SKINNER.

CAMBRIDGE,
April 1910.
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## Abbreviations

1. **Sources (see pp. xxxiv ff.), Texts, and Versions.**

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<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Elohist, or Elohistic Narrative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Yahwist, or Yahwistic Narrative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JE</td>
<td>Jehovist, or the combined narrative of J and E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P or PC</td>
<td>The Priestly Code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG</td>
<td>The historical kernel or framework of P (see p. lvii).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>Redactors within the schools of E, J, and P, respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RJ</td>
<td>The Compiler of the composite work JE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RP</td>
<td>The Final Redactor of the Pentateuch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV[V]</td>
<td>English Version[s] (Authorised or Revised).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The Book of Jubilees</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>Massoretic Text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OT</td>
<td>Old Testament.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aq</td>
<td>Greek Translation of Aquila.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Θ</td>
<td>&quot;&quot; &quot;&quot; &quot;&quot; Theodotion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Σ</td>
<td>&quot;&quot; &quot;&quot; &quot;&quot; Symmachus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gr.-Ven.</td>
<td>Codex 'Græcus Venetus' (14th or 15th cent.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G*</td>
<td>Lucianic recension of the LXX, edited by Lagarde, <em>Librorum Veteris Testamenti canonicorum pars prior Graec</em> , etc. (1883).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA, B, E, M, etc.</td>
<td>Codices of G (see Brooke and M'Lean, p. v).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Old Latin Version.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>The Syriac Version (Peshîtê).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μ</td>
<td>The Samaritan Recension of the Pent. (Walton's 'London Polyglott').</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>The Vulgate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. COMMENTARIES.

Ayles • • • . H. H. B. Ayles, A critical Commentary on Genesis ii. 4–iii. 25 (1904).
Ben[nett] • • • . W. H. Bennett, Genesis (Century Bible).
De[litzsch] • • • . F. Delitzsch, Neuer Commentar über die Genesis (5th ed. 1887).
Di[llmann] • • • . Die Genesis. Von der dritten Auflage an erklärt von A. Dillmann (6th ed. 1892). The work embodies frequent extracts from earlier eds. by Knobel: these are referred to below as "Kn.-Di."
Gu[nkel] • • • . Genesis übersetzt und erklärt, von H. Gunkel (2nd ed. 1902).
Ho[lzinger] • • • . Genesis erklärt, von H. Holzinger (1898).
IEz. • • • . Abraham Ibn Ezra († c. 1167).
Jer[ome], Qu. • • • . Jerome († 420), Quæstiones sive Traditiones hebraicæ in Genesim.
Kn[obel] • • • . A. Knobel.
Kn.-Di. • • • . See Di[llmann].
Ra[shi] • • • . Rabbi Shelomoh Yizhaki († 1105).
Spurrell • • • . G. J. Spurrell, Notes on the Text of the Book of Genesis (2nd ed. 1896).
Str[ack] • • • . Die Genesis übersetzt und ausgelegt, von H. L. Strack (2nd ed. 1905).
Tu[ch] • • • . Fr. Tuch, Commentar über die Genesis (2nd ed. 1871).

3. WORKS OF REFERENCE AND GENERAL LITERATURE.

Barth, ES • • • . J. Barth, Etymologische Studien zum sem. insbesondere zum hebr. Lexicon (1893).
" NB • • • . Die Nominalbildung in den sem. Sprachen (1889–91).
Barton, SO • • • . G. A. Barton, A Sketch of Semitic Origins (1902).
B.-D. • • • . S. Baer and F. Delitzsch, Liber Genesis (1869). The Massoretic Text, with Appendices.
BDB • • • . F. Brown, S. R. Driver, and C. A. Briggs, A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the OT (1891–).
Benz[inger], Arch.² I. Benzinger, Hebräische Archäologie (2nd ed. 1907).
Ber. R • • • . The Midrash Bereshith Rabba (tr. into German by A. Wünsche, 1881).
Bochart, Hieroz. • • • . S. Bochartus, Hierozoicon, sive bipetitum opus de animalibus Sacrae Scripturae (ed. Rosenmüller, 1793–96).
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
<th>Author</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bu[dde], Urg.</td>
<td>K. Budde, Die biblische Urgeschichte (1883).</td>
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<td>Buhl, GP</td>
<td>Fr. Buhl, Geographie des alten Palaestina (1896).</td>
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<td>Che[yne], TB[A]1</td>
<td>T. K. Cheyne, Traditions and Beliefs of Ancient Israel (1907).</td>
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<td>CIS</td>
<td>Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum (1881- ).</td>
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<td>Cook, Gl.</td>
<td>S. A. Cook, A Glossary of the Aramaic Inscriptions (1898).</td>
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<td>Co[rnill], Einl.</td>
<td>C. H. Cornill, Einleitung in das AT (see p. xl, note).</td>
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<td>Curtiss, PSR</td>
<td>S. I. Curtiss, Primitive Semitic Religion to-day (1902).</td>
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<td>DB</td>
<td>A Dictionary of the Bible, ed. by J. Hastings (1898-1902).</td>
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<td>Del[itzsch], Hwb.</td>
<td>Friedrich Delitzsch, Assyrisches Handwörterbuch (1896).</td>
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<td>Del[itzsch], Par.</td>
<td>Wo lag das Paradies? Eine biblisch-assyriologische Studie (1881).</td>
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<td>Del[itzsch], Prol.</td>
<td>Prolegomena eines neuen hebräisch-aramäischen Wörterbuchs zum AT (1886).</td>
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<td>Doughty, AD</td>
<td>C. M. Doughty, Travels in Arabia Deserta (1888).</td>
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<td>Dri[ver], LOT</td>
<td>S. R. Driver, An Introduction to the Literature of the OT (Revised ed. 1910).</td>
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<td>EB</td>
<td>Encyclopaedia Biblica, ed. by T. K. Cheyne and J. Sutherland Black (1899-1903).</td>
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<td>EBL</td>
<td>See Hilprecht.</td>
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<td>Erman, LAE</td>
<td>Ad. Erman, Life in Ancient Egypt (tr. by H. M. Tirard, 1894).</td>
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<td>HI</td>
<td>History of Israel [Eng. tr. 1871].</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ant.</td>
<td>Antiquities of Israel [Eng. tr. 1876].</td>
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<td>Field</td>
<td>F. Field, Origenis Hexaplorum quae supersunt; sive Veterum Interpretum Graecorum in totum V.T. Fragmenta (1875).</td>
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"  GB  .  The Golden Bough ; a Study in Magic and Religion (2nd ed. 1900).

"  Folklore in the OT (1907).

v. Gall, CST  .  A. Freiherr von Gall, Altisraelitische Kultstätten (1898).

G.-B.  .  gesenius' Hebräisches und aramäisches Handwörterbuch über das AT (14th ed. by Buhl, 1905).


Gu[ntel], Schöpf.  .  H. Gunkel, Schöpfung und Chaos in Urzeit und Endzeit (1895).

Guthe, GI  .  H. Guthe, Geschichte des Volkes Israel (1899).

Harrison, Pro!.  .  Jane E. Harrison, Prolegomena to the study of Greek Religion (2nd ed. 1908).

Hilprecht, EBL  .  H. V. Hilprecht, Explorations in Bible Lands during the 19th cent. [with the co-operation of Benzing-er, Hommel, Jensen, and Steindorff] (1903).

Ho[lzinger], Einl.  .  H. Holzinger, Einleitung in den Hexateuch (1893).

Hom[mel], AA  .  F. Hommel, Aufsätze und Abhandlungen arabisch-semitologischen Inhalts (i—iii, 1892— ).

"  AHT.  .  The Ancient Hebrew Tradition as illustrated by the Monuments (1897).

"  AOD.  .  Die altorientalischen Denkmäler und das AT (1902).


"  SACHrest.  .  Süd-arabische Chrestomathie (1893).

Hupfeld, Qu.  .  H. Hupfeld, Die Quellen der Genesis und die Art ihrer Zusammensetzung (1853).


JE  .  .  The Jewish Encyclopedia.

Je[remias], ATLO²  .  A. Jeremias, Das Alte Testament im Lichte des alten Orients (2nd ed. 1906).

Jen[sen], Kosm.  .  P. Jensen, Die Kosmologie der Babylonier (1890).

KAT².  .  Die Keilinschriften und das AT, by Schrader (2nd ed. 1883).


Kittel, BH . R. Kittel, Biblia Hebraica (Genesis) (1905).


" Orientalia, 1 . . Orientalia, 1, 2 (1879–80).

" Semitica, 1 . Semitica, 1, 2 (1878).

" Symmicta, 2 pts. (1877–80).

" Onomastica Sacra (1870).

Lane, Lex. . . E. W. Lane, An Arabic-English Lexicon (1863–93).

" ME . . . An Account of the Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians (5th ed. 1860).

Lenormant, Or. F. Lenormant, Les Origines de l'histoire, (i–iii, 1880–84).


Lidzbarski, Hb. M. Lidzbarski, Handbuch der nordsemitischen Epigraphik (1898).

Luther, INS . . See Meyer, INS.


" GA1 . . Geschichte des Alterthums (Bd. i. 1884).


Müller, AE . . W. Max Müller, Asien und Europa nach altägyptischen Denkmälern (1893).


Nöldeke, Beitr. Th. Nöldeke, Beiträge zur semitischen Sprachwissenschaft (1904).

" Unters. Untersuchungen zur Kritik des AT (1869).


Ols. . . J. Olshausen.
ABBREVIATIONS

OS . . . See Lagarde.


" HCM . . The Higher Criticism and the Verdict of the Monu-
m ents (2nd ed. 1894).
SBOT . . . The Sacred Books of the OT, a crit. ed. of the Heb. Text printed in Colours, under the editorial direc-
tion of P. Haupt.

Schenkel, BL . . D. Schenkel, Bibel-Lexicon (1869–75).
Schr[ader], KGF. Eb. Schrader, Keilinschriften und Geschichts-
forschung (1878).

See KAT and KIB above.
Schultz, OTTh . . H. Schultz, Old Testament Theology (Eng. tr. 1892).
Schürer, GJV . . E. Schürer, Geschichte des jüdischen Volkes im Zeitalter Jesu Christi (3rd and 4th ed. 1898–
1901).


" Smend, ATRG . . R. Smend, Lehrbuch der alttestamentlichen Religi-
ons-geschichte (2nd ed. 1899).
GASm[ieth], HG . . G. A. Smith, Historical Geography of the Holy Land
(1895).
Rob. Smith, KM² . . W. Robertson Smith, Kinship and Marriage in
Early Arabia (2nd ed. 1903).

" OT/C² . . . The Old Testament in the Jewish Church (2nd ed.
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" Pr² . . The Prophets of Israel (2nd ed. 1895).

" RS² . . . Lectures on the Religion of the Semites (2nd ed. 1894).
Spiegelberg . . W. Spiegelberg, Aegyptologische Randglossen zum
AT (1904).

" Der Aufenthalt Israels in Aegypten im Lichte der aeg. Monumente (3rd ed. 1904).

Sta[de] . . B. Stade, Ausgewählte akademische Reden und
Abhandlungen (1899).

" BTh . . Biblische Theologie des AT, i. (1905).
" GVI . . Geschichte des Volkes Israel (1887–89).
Steuern[agel], Einw. . . C. Steuernagel, Die Einwanderung der israelitischen
Stämme in Kanaan (1901).
TA . . Tel-Amarna Tablets [KIB, v.; Knudtzon, Die el-
Amarna Tafeln (1908– )].
ABBREVIATIONS

Tiele, Gesch. . C. P. Tiele, Geschichte der Religion im Altertum, i. (German ed. 1896).
We[llhausen], Comp. . J. Wellhausen, Die Composition des Hexateuchs und der historischen Bücher des AT (2nd ed. 1889).

" De gent. De gentibus et familiae Judæis qua 1 Chr. 2. 4 enumerantur (1870).
" Heid. . Reste arabischen Heidentums (2nd ed. 1897).
" . . Skizzen und Vorarbeiten.
" TBS. . Der Text der Bücher Samuels (1871).

Wi[ckler], AOF . H. Winckler, Altorientalische Forschungen (1893- ).
" ATU. . Alttestamentliche Untersuchungen (1892).
" GBA. . Geschichte Babyloniens und Assyriens (1892).
" GI . Geschichte Israels in Einzeldarstellungen (i. ii., 1895, 1900).
" . . See KAT3 above.

Zunz, GdV . Zunz, Die gottesdienstlichen Vorträge der Juden (2nd ed. 1892).

4. PERIODICALS, ETC.

AJSL . American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures (continuing Hebraica).
AJTh . American Journal of Theology (1897- ).
ARW . Archiv für Religionswissenschaft.
BA . Beiträge zur Assyriologie und semitischen Sprachwissenschaft, herausgegeben von F. Delitzsch und P. Haupt (1890- ).
Deutsche Litteraturzeitung (1880- ).
Exp. . The Expositor.
ET . The Expository Times.
GGA . Göttingische gelehrte Anzeigen (1753- ).
Hebr. . Hebräica (1884-95). See AJSL.
JQR . The Jewish Quarterly Review.
### Abbreviations

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JTS</td>
<td>The Journal of Theological Studies (1900– ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVAG</td>
<td>Mittheilungen der vorderasiatischen Gesellschaft (1896– ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NKZ</td>
<td>Neue kirchliche Zeitschrift (1890– ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OLz</td>
<td>Orientalische Litteraturzeitung (1898– ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFS</td>
<td>Palestine Exploration Fund: Quarterly Statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBBA</td>
<td>See MBBA above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SK</td>
<td>Theologische Studien und Kritiken (1828– ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ThLS</td>
<td>Theologische Litteraturzeitung (1876– ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ThT</td>
<td>Theologisch Tijdschrift (1867– ).</td>
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<tr>
<td>TSBA</td>
<td>Transactions of the Society of Biblical Archaeology.</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZA</td>
<td>Zeitschrift für Assyriologie (1886– ).</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZATW</td>
<td>Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft (1881– ).</td>
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<td>ZDMG</td>
<td>Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft (1845– ).</td>
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<td>ZDPV</td>
<td>Zeitschrift des deutschen Palästina-Vereins (1878– ).</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZKF</td>
<td>Zeitschrift für Keilschriftsforschung (1884–85).</td>
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5. **Other Signs and Contractions.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sign</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NH</td>
<td>'New Hebrew': the language of the Mishnah, Midrashim, and parts of the Talmud.</td>
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<tr>
<td>v.i.</td>
<td>vide infra Used in references from commentary</td>
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<tr>
<td>v.s.</td>
<td>vide supra to footnotes, and vice versa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>Frequently used to indicate that a section is of composite authorship.</td>
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<tr>
<td>†</td>
<td>After OT references means that all occurrences of the word or usage in question are cited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>√</td>
<td>Root or stem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>′</td>
<td>Sign of abbreviation in Heb. words.</td>
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<tr>
<td>'m</td>
<td>= נָדָּה = 'and so on': used when a Heb. citation is incomplete.</td>
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INTRODUCTION.

§ 1. Introductory: Canonical position of the book—it's general scope—and title.

The Book of Genesis (on the title see at the end of this §) forms the opening section of a comprehensive historical work which, in the Hebrew Bible, extends from the creation of the world to the middle of the Babylonian Exile (2 Ki. 25:30). The tripartite division of the Jewish Canon has severed the later portion of this work (Jos.–Kings), under the title of the "Former Prophets" (הובאותו הרומיאונים), from the earlier portion (Gen.–Deut.), which constitutes the Law (הוראה),—a seemingly artificial bisection which results from the Тורâh having attained canonical authority soon after its completion in the time of Ezra and Nehemiah, while the canonicity of the Prophetical scriptures was not recognised till some centuries later.* How soon the division of the Торâh into its five books (המשה והמשי החора: 'the five fifths of the Law') was introduced we do not know for certain; but it is undoubtedly ancient, and in all probability is due to the final redactors of the Pent.† In the case of Genesis, at all events, * See Ryle, Canon of the OT, chs. iv. v.; Wildeboer, Origin of the Canon of the OT, 27 ff., 101 ff.; Buhl, Kanon und Text des AT, 8 f.; Budde, art. 'Canon,' in EB, and Woods, 'OT Canon,' in DB.
† Kuenen, Onderzoek, i. pp. 7, 331. The earliest external evidence of the fivefold division is Philo, De Abrah., init. (Των λεπν νόμων ἐν πέντε βιβλίοις ἀναγραφέτων, ἡ πρώτῃ καλεῖται καὶ ἐπιγράφεται Γένεσις, ἀπὸ τῆς τοῦ κόσμου γενέσεως, ἐν ἐν ἀρχῇ περιέχει, λαβοῦσα τὴν πρόαρχην καὶ τοῖς κτλ.); Jos. c. Ap. i. 39. It is found, however, in μι and Ε, and seems to have served as a model for the similar division of the Psalter. That it

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the division is obviously appropriate. Four centuries of complete silence lie between its close and the beginning of Exodus, where we enter on the history of a nation as contrasted with that of a family; and its prevailing character of individual biography suggests that its traditions are of a different quality, and have a different origin, from the national traditions preserved in Exodus and the succeeding books. Be that as it may, Genesis is a unique and well-rounded whole; and there is no book of the Pent., except Deut., which so readily lends itself to monographic treatment.

Genesis may thus be described as the Book of Hebrew Origins. It is a peculiarity of the Pent. that it is Law-book and history in one: while its main purpose is legislative, the laws are set in a framework of narrative, and so, as it were, are woven into the texture of the nation's life. Genesis contains a minimum of legislation; but its narrative is the indispensable prelude to that account of Israel's formative period in which the fundamental institutions of the theocracy are embedded. It is a collection of traditions regarding the immediate ancestors of the Hebrew nation (chs. 12-50), showing how they were gradually isolated from other nations and became a separate people; and at the same time how they were related to those tribes and races most nearly connected with them. But this is preceded (in chs. 1-11) by an account of the origin of the world, the beginnings of human history and civilisation, and the distribution of the various races of mankind. The whole thus converges steadily on the line of descent from which Israel sprang, and which determined its providential position among the nations of the world. It is significant, as already observed, that the narrative stops short just at the point where family history ceases with the death of Joseph, to give place after a long interval to the history of the nation.

The Title.—The name 'Genesis' comes to us through the Vulg. from the LXX, where the usual superscription is simply Γένεσις (C^{EM}, most curs.), rarely ἡ γένεσις (C²), a contraction of Γένεσις κόσμου (C^{A}, 121). An
interesting variation in one curs. (129)—ἡ βιβλίον γενεσεων (cf. 2:5)*—might tempt one to fancy that the scribe had in view the series of Τὰ ἱστορία (see p. xxxiv), and regarded the book as the book of origins in the wide sense expressed above. But there is no doubt that the current Greek title is derived from the opening theme of the book, the creation of the world.†—So also in Syriac (sephrā dabrithā), Theod. Mopsu. (ἡ κτίσις), and occasionally among the Rabb. (בראשית, ותא查看详情).—The common Jewish designation is יeshayahu, after the first word of the book (Origen, in Euseb. HE, vi. 25; Jerome, Prol. gal., and Quaest. in Gen.); less usual is קַנִיוֹן, ‘the first fifth.’—Only a curious interest attaches to the unofficial appellation ישָׁהְיָא (based on 2 Sa. 18) or מַטְשָׁט (the patriarchs) see Carpzov, Introtd. p. 55; Delitzsch, 10.

A. Nature of the Tradition.

§ 2. History or Legend?

The first question that arises with regard to these ‘origins’ is whether they are in the main of the nature of history or of legend,—whether (to use the expressive German terms) they are Geschichtte, things that happened, or Sage, things said. There are certain broad differences between these two kinds of narrative which may assist us to determine to which class the traditions of Genesis belong.

History in the technical sense is an authentic record of actual events based on documents contemporary, or nearly contemporary, with the facts narrated. It concerns itself with affairs of state and of public interest,—with the actions of kings and statesmen, civil and foreign wars, national disasters and successes, and such like. If it deals with contemporary incidents, it consciously aims at transmitting to posterity as accurate a reflexion as possible of the real course of events, in their causal sequence, and their relations to time and place. If written at a distance from the events, it seeks to recover from contemporary authorities an exact knowledge of these circumstances, and of the character and motives of the leading personages of the action.—That the Israelites, from a very early period, knew how to write

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† See the quotation from Philo on p. i above; and cf. Pseudepigrapha Athanasius De synop. script. sac. 5.
history in this sense, we see from the story of David's court in 2 Sa. and the beginning of 1 Kings. There we have a graphic and circumstantial narrative of the struggles for the succession to the throne, free from bias or exaggeration, and told with a convincing realism which conveys the impression of first-hand information derived from the evidence of eye-witnesses. As a specimen of pure historical literature (as distinguished from mere annals or chronicles) there is nothing equal to it in antiquity, till we come down to the works of Herodotus and Thucydides in Greece.

Quite different from historical writing of this kind is the Volkssage,—the mass of popular narrative talk about the past, which exists in more or less profusion amongst all races in the world. Every nation, as it emerges into historical consciousness, finds itself in possession of a store of traditional material of this kind, either circulating among the common people, or woven by poets and singers into a picture of a legendary heroic age. Such legends, though they survive the dawn of authentic history, belong essentially to a pre-literary and uncritical stage of society, when the popular imagination works freely on dim reminiscences of the great events and personalities of the past, producing an amalgam in which tradition and phantasy are inseparably mingled. Ultimately they are themselves reduced to writing, and give rise to a species of literature which is frequently mistaken for history, but whose true character will usually disclose itself to a patient and sympathetic examination. While legend is not history, it has in some respects a value greater than history. For it reveals the soul of a people, its instinctive selection of the types of character which represent its moral aspirations, its conception of its own place and mission in the world; and also, to some indeterminate extent, the impact on its inner life of the momentous historic experiences in which it first woke up to the consciousness of a national existence and destiny.*

* Comp. Gordon, Early Traditions, 84: "As a real expression of the living spirit of the nation, a people's myths are the mirror of its religious and moral ideals, aspirations, and imaginations."
INTRODUCTION

In raising the question to which department of literature the narratives of Genesis are to be referred, we approach a subject beset by difficulty, but one which cannot be avoided. We are not entitled to assume *a priori* that Israel is an exception to the general rule that a legendary age forms the ideal background of history: whether it be so or not must be determined on the evidence of its records. Should it prove to be no exception, we shall not assign to its legends a lower significance as an expression of the national spirit than to the heroic legends of the Greek or Teutonic races. It is no question of the truth or religious value of the book that we are called to discuss, but only of the kind of truth and the particular mode of revelation which we are to find in it. One of the strangest theological prepossessions is that which identifies revealed truth with matter-of-fact accuracy either in science or in history. Legend is after all a species of poetry, and it is hard to see why a revelation which has freely availed itself of so many other kinds of poetry—fable, allegory, parable—should disdain that form of it which is the most influential of all in the life of a primitive people. As a vehicle of religious ideas, poetic narrative possesses obvious advantages over literal history; and the spirit of religion, deeply implanted in the heart of a people, will so permeate and fashion its legendary lore as to make it a plastic expression of the imperishable truths which have come to it through its experience of God.

The legendary aspect of the Genesis traditions appears in such characteristics as these: (1) The narratives are the literary deposit of an oral tradition which, if it rests on any substratum of historic fact, must have been carried down through many centuries. Few will seriously maintain that the patriarchs prepared written memoranda for the information of their descendants; and the narrators nowhere profess their indebtedness to such records. Hebrew historians freely refer to written authorities where they used them (Kings, Chronicles); but no instance of this practice occurs in Genesis. Now oral tradition is the natural vehicle of popular legend, as writing is of history. And all experience shows that apart from written records there is no exact knowledge of a remote past. Making every allowance for the superior retentiveness of the Oriental memory, it is still impossible to suppose that an accurate recollection of bygone incidents should have survived twenty generations or more of oral transmission. Nöldeke, indeed, has
shown that the historical memory of the pre-Islamic Arabs was so
defective that all knowledge of great nations like the Nabataeans and
Thamudites had been lost within two or three centuries.* (2) The
literary quality of the narratives stamps them as products of the
artistic imagination. The very picturesqueness and truth to life which
are sometimes appealed to in proof of their historicity are, on the
contrary, characteristic marks of legend (Di. 218). We may assume
that the scene at the well of Harran (ch. 24) actually took place; but
that the description owes its graphic power to a reproduction of the
exact words spoken and the precise actions performed on the occasion
cannot be supposed; it is due to the revivifying work of the imagination
of successive narrators. But imagination, uncontrolled by the critical
faculty, does not confine itself to restoring the original colours of a
faded picture; it introduces new colours, insensibly modifying the
picture till it becomes impossible to tell how much belongs to the real
situation and how much to later fancy. The clearest proof of this is
the existence of parallel narratives of an event which can only have
happened once, but which emerges in tradition in forms so diverse that
they may even pass for separate incidents (1210ff. || 201ff. || 266ff.; 16. || 211ff.;
15. || 17, etc.).—(3) The subject-matter of the tradition is of the kind con-
genial to the folk-tale all the world over, and altogether different from
transactions on the stage of history. The proper theme of history, as
has been said, is great public and political events; but legend delights in
genre pictures, private and personal affairs, trivial anecdotes of domestic
and everyday life, and so forth,—matters which interest the common
people and come home to their daily experience. That most of the stories
of Genesis are of this description needs no proof; and the fact is very
instructive.† A real history of the patriarchal period would have to tell
of migrations of peoples, of religious movements, probably of wars of
invasion and conquest; and accordingly most modern attempts to
vindicate the historicity of Genesis proceed by way of translating the
narratives into such terms as these. But this is to confess that the
narratives themselves are not history.‡ They have been simplified and
idealised to suit the taste of an unsophisticated audience; and in the
process the strictly historic element, down to a bare residuum, has
evaporated. The single passage which preserves the ostensible appear-
ance of history in this respect is ch. 14; and that chapter, which in any
case stands outside the circle of patriarchal tradition, has difficulties of
its own which cannot be dealt with here (see p. 271 ff.).—(4) The final test
—though to any one who has learned to appreciate the spirit of the
narratives it must seem almost brutal to apply it—is the hard matter-of-
fact test of self-consistency and credibility. It is not difficult to show
that Genesis relates incredibilities which no reasonable appeal to miracle
will suffice to remove. [With respect to the origin of the world, the
antiquity of man on the earth, the distribution and relations of peoples,
the beginnings of civilisation, etc., its statements are at variance with

* Amalekiter, p. 25f.
† Cf. Wi. Abraham als Babylonier, 7.
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the scientific knowledge of our time;* and no person of educated intelligence accepts them in their plain natural sense. We know that angels do not cohabit with mortal women, that the Flood did not cover the highest mountains of the world, that the ark could not have accommodated all the species of animals then existing, that the Euphrates and Tigris have not a common source, that the Dead Sea was not first formed in the time of Abraham, etc. There is admittedly a great difference in respect of credibility between the primæval (chs. 1-11) and the patriarchal (12-50) traditions. But even the latter, when taken as a whole, yields many impossible situations. Sarah was more than sixty-five years old when Abraham feared that her beauty might endanger his life in Egypt; she was over ninety when the same fear seized him in Gerar. Abraham at the age of ninety-nine laughs at the idea of having a son; yet forty years later he marries and begets children. Both Midian and Ishmael were grand-uncles of Joseph; but their descendants appear as tribes trading with Egypt in his boyhood. Amalek was a grandson of Esau; yet the Amalekites are settled in the Negeb in the time of Abraham.†—It is a thankless task to multiply such examples. The contradictions and violations of probability and scientific possibility are intelligible, and not at all disquieting, in a collection of legends; but they preclude the supposition that Genesis is literal history.

It is not implied in what has been said that the tradition is destitute of historical value. History, legendary history, legend, myth, form a descending scale, with decreasing emphasis on the historical element, and the lines between the first three are vague and fluctuating. In what proportions they are combined in Genesis it may be impossible to determine with certainty. But there are three ways in which a tradition mainly legendary may yield solid historical results. In the first place, a legend may embody a more or less exact recollection of the fact in which it originated. In the second place, a legend, though unhistorical in form, may furnish material from which history can be extracted. Thirdly, the collateral evidence of archaeology may bring to light a correspondence which gives a historical significance to the legend. How far any of these lines can be followed to a successful issue in the case of Genesis, we shall consider later (§ 4), after we have examined the obviously legendary motives which enter into the tradition. Meanwhile the previous discussion will have served its purpose

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* See Dri. XXXI ff. 19 ff.
† See Reuss, Gesch. d. heil. Schr. AT², 167 ff.
if any readers have been led to perceive that the religious teaching of Genesis lies precisely in that legendary element whose existence is here maintained. Our chief task is to discover the meaning of the legends as they stand, being assured that from the nature of the case these religious ideas were operative forces in the life of ancient Israel. It is a suicidal error in exegesis to suppose that the permanent value of the book lies in the residuum of historic fact that underlies the poetic and imaginative form of the narratives.*

§ 3. Myth and legend—Foreign myths—Types of mythical motive.

I. Are there myths in Genesis, as well as legends? On this question there has been all the variety of opinion that might be expected. Some writers, starting with the theory that mythology is a necessary phase of primitive thinking, have found in the OT abundant confirmation of their thesis.† The more prevalent view has been that the mythopoeic tendency was suppressed in Israel by the genius of its religion, and that mythology in the true sense is unknown in its literature. Others have taken up an intermediate position, denying that the Hebrew mind produced myths of its own, but admitting that it borrowed and adapted those of other peoples. For all practical purposes, the last view seems to be very near the truth.

For attempts to discriminate between myth and legend, see Tuch, pp. i-xv; Gu. p. xvii; Höfdding, Phil. of Rel. (Eng. tr.), 199 ff.; Gordon, 77 ff.; Procksch, Nordhebr. Sagenbuch, i. etc.—The practically important distinction is that the legend does, and the myth does not, start from the plane of historic fact. The myth is properly a story of the gods, originating in an impression produced on the primitive mind by the more imposing phenomena of nature, while legend attaches itself to the personages and movements of real history. Thus the Flood-story is a legend if Noah be a historical figure, and the kernel of the narrative an actual event; it is a myth if it be based on observation of a

* On various points dealt with in this paragraph, see the admirable statement of A. R. Gordon, Early Traditions of Genesis, pp. 76–92.
† Goldziher, Der Mythos bei den Hebräern (1876).
INTRODUCTION ix

solar phenomenon, and Noah a representative of the sun-god (see p. 180 ff.). But the utility of this distinction is largely neutralised by a universal tendency to transfer mythical traits from gods to real men (Sargon of Agade, Moses, Alexander, Charlemagne, etc.) so that the most indubitable traces of mythology will not of themselves warrant the conclusion that the hero is not a historical personage. — Gordon differentiates between spontaneous (nature) myths and reflective (aetiological) myths; and, while recognising the existence of the latter in Genesis, considers that the former type is hardly represented in the OT at all. The distinction is important, though it may be doubted if aetiology is ever a primary impulse to the formation of myths, and as a parasitic development it appears to attach itself indifferently to myth and legend. Hence there is a large class of narratives which it is difficult to label either as mythical or as legendary, but in which the aetiological or some similar motive is prominent (see p. xi ff.).

2. The influence of foreign mythology is most apparent in the primitive traditions of chs. i–11. The discovery of the Babylonian versions of the Creation- and Deluge-traditions has put it beyond reasonable doubt that these are the originals from which the biblical accounts have been derived (pp. 45 ff., 177 f.). A similar relation obtains between the antediluvian genealogy of ch. 5 and Berossus’s list of the ten Babylonian kings who reigned before the Flood (p. 137 f.). The story of Paradise has its nearest analogies in Iranian mythology; but there are faint Babylonian echoes which suggest that it belonged to the common mythological heritage of the East (p. 90 ff.). Both here and in ch. 4 a few isolated coincidences with Phœnician tradition may point to the Canaanite civilisation as the medium through which such myths came to the knowledge of the Israelites. — All these (as well as the story of the Tower of Babel) were originally genuine myths—stories of the gods; and if they no longer deserve that appellation, it is because the spirit of Hebrew monotheism has exorcised the polytheistic notions of deity, apart from which true mythology cannot survive. The few passages where the old heathen conception of godhead still appears (1:28 3:22 24 6:1 ff. 11:1 ff.), only serve to show how completely the religious beliefs of Israel have transformed and purified the crude speculations of pagan theology, and adapted them to the ideas of an ethical and monotheistic faith.
The naturalisation of Babylonian myths in Israel is conceivable in a variety of ways; and the question is perhaps more interesting as an illustration of two rival tendencies in criticism than for its possibilities of actual solution. The tendency of the literary school of critics has been to explain the process by the direct use of Babylonian documents, and to bring it down to near the dates of our written Pent. sources.* Largely through the influence of Gunkel, a different view has come to prevail, viz., that we are to think rather of a gradual process of assimilation to the religious ideas of Israel in the course of oral transmission, the myths having first passed into Canaanite tradition as the result (immediate or remote) of the Babylonian supremacy prior to the Tell-Amarna period, and thence to the Israelites.† The strongest argument for this theory is that the biblical versions, both of the Creation and the Flood, give evidence of having passed through several stages in Hebrew tradition. Apart from that, the considerations urged in support of either theory do not seem to me conclusive. There are no recognisable traces of a specifically Canaanite medium having been interposed between the Bab. originals and the Hebrew accounts of the Creation and the Flood, such as we may surmise in the case of the Paradise myth. It is open to argue against Gu. that if the process had been as protracted as he says, the divergence would be much greater than it actually is. Again, we cannot well set limits to the deliberate manipulation of Bab. material by a Hebrew writer; and the assumption that such a writer in the later period would have been repelled by the gross polytheism of the Bab. legends, and refused to have anything to do with them, is a little gratuitous. On the other hand, it is unsafe to assert with Stade that the myths could not have been assimilated by Israelite theology before the belief in Yahwe's sole deity had been firmly established by the teaching of the prophets. Monotheism had roots in Heb. antiquity extending much further back than the age of written prophecy, and the present form of the legends is more intelligible as the product of an earlier phase of religion than that of the literary prophets. But when we consider the innumerable channels through which myths may wander from one centre to another, we shall hardly expect to be able to determine the precise channel, or the approximate date, of this infusion of Bab. elements into the religious tradition of Israel.

It is remarkable that while the patriarchal legends exhibit no traces of Bab. mythology, they contain a few examples of mythical narrative to which analogies are found in other quarters. The visit of the angels to Abraham (see p. 302 f.), and the destruction of Sodom (p. 311 f.), are incidents of obviously mythical origin (stories of the gods); and to both, classical and other parallels exist. The account of the births of Esau

* See Bu. Urg. (1883), 515 f.; Kuenen, ThT, xvi. (1884), 167 ff.; Kosters, ib. xix. (1885), 325 ff., 344; Sta. ZATW (1895), 159 f., (1903), 175 ff.
† Schöpfung und Chaos (1895), 143 ff.; Gen.² (1902), 64 f. Cf. Dri. 31.
INTRODUCTION

and Jacob embodies a mythological motive (p. 359), which is repeated in the case of Zerah and Perez (ch. 38). The whole story of Jacob and Esau presents several points of contact with that of the brothers Hypsouranios (Samem-rum) and Usōs in the Phœnician mythology (Usōs = Esau; see pp. 360, 124). There appears also to be a Homeric variant of the incest of Reuben (p. 427). These phenomena are among the most perplexing which we encounter in the study of Hebrew tradition.* We can as yet scarcely conjecture the hidden source from which such widely ramified traditions have sprung, though we may not on that account ignore the existence of the problem. It would be at all events a groundless anticipation that the facts will lead us to resolve the patriarchs into mythological abstractions. They are rather to be explained by the tendency already referred to (p. ix), to mingle myth with legend by transferring mythical incidents to historic personages.

3. It remains, before we go on to consider the historical elements of the tradition, to classify the leading types of mythical, or semi-mythical (p. ix), motive which appear in the narratives of Genesis. It will be seen that while they undoubtedly detract from the literal historicity of the records, they represent points of view which are of the greatest historical interest, and are absolutely essential to the right interpretation of the legends.†

(a) The most comprehensive category is that of **aetiological** or **explanatory** myths; *i.e.*, those which explain some familiar fact of experience by a story of the olden time. Both the questions asked and the answers returned are frequently of the most naïve and childlike description: they have, as Gu. has said, all the charm which belongs to the artless but profound reasoning of an intelligent child. The classical example is the story of Paradise and the Fall in chs. 2, 3, which contains one explicit instance of _aetiology_ (2a: why a man cleaves to his wife), and implicitly a great many more: why we wear clothes and detest snakes, why the serpent crawls on his belly, why the peasant has to drudge in the fields, and the woman to endure the pangs of travail, etc. (p. 95). Similarly, the account of creation explains why there are so many kinds of plants and animals, why man is lord of them all, why the sun shines by day and the moon by night, etc.; why the Sabbath is kept. The Flood-story tells us the meaning of the rainbow, and of the regular recurrence of the seasons: the Babel-myth accounts for the existing diversities of language amongst men. Pure examples of _aetiology_ are practically confined to the first eleven chapters; but the same general idea pervades the patriarchal history, specialised under the headings which follow.

* See Gu. p. lvi.
† The enumeration, which is not quite exhaustive, is taken, with some simplification, from Gu. p. xviii ff.
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(b) The commonest class of all, especially in the patriarchal narratives, is what may be called ethnographic legends. It is an obvious feature of the narratives that the heroes of them are frequently personifications of tribes and peoples, whose character and history and mutual relationships are exhibited under the guise of individual biography. Thus the pre-natal struggle of Jacob and Esau prefigures the rivalry of 'two nations' (25\(^{23}\)); the monuments set up by Jacob and Laban mark the frontier between Israelites and Aramæans (31\(^{14ff.}\); Ishmael is the prototype of the wild Bedouin (16\(^{24}\)), and Cain of some ferocious nomad-tribe; Jacob and his twelve sons represent the unity of Israel and its division into twelve tribes; and so on. This mode of thinking was not peculiar to Israel (cf. the Hellen, Dorus, Xuthus, Aeolus, Achæus, Ion, of the Greeks); * but it is one'specially natural to the Semites from their habit of speaking of peoples as sons (i.e. members) of the collective entity denoted by the tribal or national name (sons of Israel, of Ammon, of Ishmael, etc.), whence arose the notion that these entities were the real progenitors of the peoples so designated. That in some cases the representation was correct need not be doubted; for there are known examples, both among the Arabs and other races in a similar stage of social development, of tribes named after a famous ancestor or leader of real historic memory. But that this is the case with all eponymous persons—e.g. that there were really such men as Jerahmeel, Midian, Aram, Sheba, Amalek, and the rest—is quite incredible; and, moreover, it is never true that the fortunes of a tribe are an exact copy of the personal experiences of its reputed ancestor, even if he existed. We must therefore treat these legends as symbolic representations of the ethnological affinities between different tribes or peoples, and (to a less extent) of the historic experiences of these peoples. There is a great danger of driving this interpretation too far, by assigning an ethnological value to details of the legend which never had any such significance; but to this matter we shall have occasion to return at a later point (see p. xix ff.).

(c) Next in importance to these ethnographic legends are the cult-legends. A considerable proportion of the patriarchal narratives are designed to explain the sacredness of the principal national sanctuaries, while a few contain notices of the origin of particular ritual customs (circumcision, ch. 17 [but cf. Ex. 4\(^{24ff.}\)]; the abstinence from eating the sciatic nerve, 32\(^{38}\)). To the former class belong such incidents as Hagar at Lahairoi (16), Abraham at the oak of Mamre (18), his planting of the tamarisk at Beersheba (21\(^{37}\)), Jacob at Bethel—with the reason for anointing the sacred stone, and the institution of the tithe—(28\(^{10ff.}\)), and at Peniel (32\(^{24ff.}\)); and many more. The general idea is that the places were hallowed by an appearance of the deity in the patriarchal period, or at least by the performance of an act of worship (erection of an altar, etc.) by one of the ancestors of Israel. In reality the sanctity of these spots was in many cases of immemorial antiquity, being rooted in the most primitive forms of Semitic religion; and at times the narrative

* See Dri. 112; Gordon, ETG, 88.
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suffers it to appear that the place was holy before the visit of the patriarch (see on 126). It is probable that inauguration-legends had grown up at the chief sanctuaries while they were still in the possession of the Canaanites. We cannot tell how far such legends were transferred to the Hebrew ancestors, and how far the traditions are of native Israelite growth.

(d) Of much less interest to us is the etymological motive which so frequently appears as a side issue in legends of wider scope. Speculation on the meaning and origin of names is fascinating to all primitive peoples; and in default of a scientific philology the most fantastic explanations are readily accepted. That it was so in ancient Israel could be easily shown from the etymologies of Genesis. Here, again, it is just conceivable that the explanation given may occasionally be correct (though there is hardly a case in which it is plausible); but in the majority of cases the real meaning of the name stands out in palpable contradiction to the alleged account of its origin. Moreover, it is not uncommon to find the same name explained in two different ways (many of Jacob’s sons, ch. 30), or to have as many as three suggestions of its historic origin (Ishmael, 1611 1720 2117; Isaac, 1717 1813 2119). To claim literal accuracy for incidents of this kind is manifestly futile.

(e) There is yet another element which, though not mythical or legendary, belongs to the imaginative side of the legends, and has to be taken account of in interpreting them. This is the element of poetic idealisation. Whenever a character enters the world of legend, whether through the gate of history or through that of ethnographic personification, it is apt to be conceived as a type; and as the story passes from mouth to mouth the typical features are emphasised, while those which have no such significance tend to be effaced or forgotten. Then the dramatic instinct comes into play—the artistic desire to perfect the story as a lifelike picture of human nature in interesting situations and action. To see how far this process may be carried, we have but to compare the conception of Jacob’s sons in the Blessing of Jacob (ch. 49) with their appearance in the younger narratives of Joseph and his brethren. In the former case the sons are tribal personifications, and the characters attributed to them are those of the tribes they represent. In the latter, these characteristics have almost entirely disappeared, and the central interest is now the pathos and tragedy of Hebrew family life. Most of the brothers are without character or individuality; but the accursed Reuben and Simeon are respected members of the family, and the ‘wolf’ Benjamin has become a helpless child whom the father will hardly let go from his side. This, no doubt, is the supreme instance of romantic or ‘novelistic’ treatment which the book contains; but the same idealising tendency is at work elsewhere, and must constantly be allowed for in endeavouring to reach the historic or ethnographic basis from which the legends start.

§ 4. Historical value of the tradition.

It has already been remarked (p. vii) that there are three chief ways in which an oral, and therefore legendary, tradi-
tion may yield solid historical results: *first*, through the retention in the popular memory of the impression caused by real events and personalities; *secondly*, by the recovery of historic (mainly ethnographic) material from the biographic form of the tradition; and *thirdly*, through the confirmation of contemporary 'archæological' evidence. It will be convenient to start with the last of these, and consider what is known about—

1. *The historical background of the patriarchal traditions.*

—The period covered by the patriarchal narratives* may be defined very roughly as the first half of the second millennium (2000–1500) B.C. The upper limit depends on the generally accepted assumption, based (somewhat insecurely, as it seems to us) on ch. 14, that Abraham was contemporary with Hammurabi, the 6th king of the first Babylonian dynasty. The date of Hammurabi is probably c. 2100 B.C.†

* The discussion in this section is confined to the patriarchal tradition, because it is only with regard to it that the question of essential historicity arises. Every one admits that the pre-historic chapters (i–vi) stand on a different footing, and there are few who would claim for them the authority of a continuous tradition.

† The date here assigned to Hammurabi is based on the recent investigations of Thureau-Dangin (*Journal des Savants* [1908], 190 ff.; *ZA*, xxi. [1908], 176 ff.), and Ungnad (*OLZ*. [1908], 13 ff.); with whom Poebel (ZA, xxi. 162 ff.) is in substantial agreement. The higher estimates which formerly prevailed depended on the natural assumption that the first three dynasties of the Royal Lists (first published in 1880 and 1884) reigned consecutively in Babylon. But in 1907, L. W. King (*Chronicles concerning early Bab. Kings*) published new material, which showed conclusively that the Second dynasty, ruling over the 'Country of the Sea,' was at least partly, if not wholly, contemporaneous with the First and Third dynasties in Babylon. King himself and Meyer (*GA*², i. ii. 339 ff. [1909]) hold that the Third (Kaššite) dynasty followed immediately on the First; and that consequently the previous estimates of the chronology of the First dynasty have to be reduced by the total duration of the Second dynasty (368 years according to List A). The scholars cited at the head of this note consider, on the other hand, that the contemporaneousness was only partial, and that there was an interval of 176 years between the close of the First dynasty and the accession of the Third. The chief data are these: King's new chronicle has proved beyond dispute (1) that Ilima-ili, the founder of the Second dynasty, was contemporary with Samsu-iluna and Abi-čišu, the 7th and 8th kings of the First dynasty; and (2) that Ea-gâmil, the last king of
The lower limit is determined by the Exodus, which is usually assigned (as it must be if Ex. 111 is genuine) to the reign of Merneptah of the Nineteenth Egyptian dynasty (c. 1234-1214 B.C.). Allowing a sufficient period for the sojourn of Israel in Egypt, we come back to about the middle of the millennium as the approximate time when the family left Palestine for that country. The Hebrew chronology assigns nearly the same date as above to Abraham, but a much earlier one for the Exodus (c. 1490), and reduces the residence of the patriarchs in Canaan to 215 years; since, however, the chronological system rests on artificial calculations (see pp. 135f., 234), we cannot restrict our survey to the narrow limits which it assigns to the patriarchal period in Palestine. Indeed, the chronological uncertainties are so numerous that it is desirable to embrace an even wider field than the five centuries mentioned above.*

In the opinion of a growing and influential school of writers, this period of history has been so illumined by the Second dynasty, was an older contemporary of a certain Kaššite (king?), Kaššilaš. Now, Kaššilaš is the name of the 3rd king of the Kaššite dynasty; and the question is whether this Kaššilaš is to be identified with the contemporary of Ea-gâmil. Th.-Dangin, etc., answer in the affirmative, with the result stated above. King opposes the identification, and thinks the close of the Second dynasty coincides with a gap in the list of Kaššite kings (8th to 15th), where the name of Kaššilaš may have stood. Meyer accepts the synchronism of Ea-gâmil with the third Kaššite king; but gets rid of the interregnum by a somewhat arbitrary reduction of the duration of the Second dynasty to about 200 years. For fuller information, the reader is referred to the lucid note in Dri. Gen.7 xxvii. ff. (with lists).—King believes that his date for Hammurabi (c. 1958-1916) facilitates the identification of that monarch with the Amraphel of Gn. 14 (see p. 257 f. below), by bringing the interval between Abraham and the Exodus into nearer accord with the biblical data; but in view of the artificial character of the biblical chronology (v.s.), it is doubtful if any weight whatever can be allowed to this consideration.

* Thus the Exodus is sometimes (in defiance of Ex. 111) put back to c. 1450 B.C. (Hommel, ET, x. [1899], 210ff. ; Orr, POT, 422ff.); while Eerdmans would bring it down to c. 1125 B.C. (Vorgeschichte Israels, 74; Exp. 1908, Sept. 204). Joseph is by some (Marquart, Wi. al.) identified with a minister of Amenophis IV. (c. 1380-1360), by Eerdmans with a Semitic ruler at the very end of the Nineteenth dynasty (c. 1205). See p. 501 f.
recent discoveries that it is no longer possible to doubt the essential historicity of the patriarchal tradition.* It is admitted that no externa evidence has come to light of the existence of such persons as Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, and Joseph, or even (with the partial exception of Joseph) of men playing parts at all corresponding to theirs. But it is maintained that contemporary documents reveal a set of conditions into which the patriarchal narratives fit perfectly, and which are so different from those prevailing under the monarchy that the situation could not possibly have been imagined by an Israelite of that later age. Now, that recent archaeology has thrown a flood of light on the period in question, is beyond all doubt. It has proved that Palestinian culture and religion were saturated by Babylonian influences long before the supposed date of Abraham; that from that date downwards intercourse with Egypt was frequent and easy; and that the country was more than once subjected to Egyptian conquest and authority. It has given us a most interesting glimpse from about 2000 B.C. of the natural products of Canaan, and the manner of life of its inhabitants (Tale of Sinuhe). At a later time (Tell-Amarna letters) it shows the Egyptian dominion threatened by the advance of Hittites from the north, and by the incursion of a body of nomadic marauders called Ḫabiri (see p. 218). It tells us that Jakob-el (and Joseph-el?) was the name of a place in Canaan in the first half of the 15th cent. (pp. 360, 389 f.), and that Israel was a tribe living in Palestine about 1200 B.C.; also that Hebrews (‘Apriw) were a foreign population in Egypt from the time of Ramses II. to that of Ramses IV. (Heyes, Bib. u. Aeg. 146 ff.; Eerdmans, l.c. 52 ff.; Exp. l.c. 197). All this is of the utmost value; and if the patriarchs lived in this age, then this is the background against which we have to set their biographies. But the real question is whether there is such a correspondence between the bio-

* Jeremias, ATLOC, 365: "Wir haben gezeigt, dass das Milieu der Vätergeschichten in allen Einzelheiten zu den altorientalischen Kulturverhältnissen stimmt, die uns die Denkmäler für die in Betracht kommenden Zeit bezeugen."
graphies and their background that the former would be unintelligible if transplanted to other and later surroundings. We should gladly welcome any evidence that this is the case; but it seems to us that the remarkable thing about these narratives is just the absence of background and their general compatibility with the universal conditions of ancient Eastern life.* The case for the historicity of the tradition, based on correspondences with contemporary evidence from the period in question, appears to us to be greatly overstated.

The line of argument that claims most careful attention is to the following effect: Certain legal customs presupposed by the patriarchal stories are now known to have prevailed (in Babylon) in the age of Hammurabi; these customs had entirely ceased in Israel under the monarchy; consequently the narratives could not have been invented by legend-writers of that period (Je. ATLO2, 355 ff.). The strongest case is the truly remarkable parallel supplied by Cod. Hamm. 146 to the position of Hagar as concubine-slave in ch. 16 (below, p. 285). Here everything turns on the probability that this usage was unknown in Israel in the regal period; and it is surely pressing the argumentum ex silentio too far to assert confidently that if it had been known it would certainly have been mentioned in the later literature. We must remember that Genesis contains almost the only pictures of intimate family life in the OT, and that it refers to many things not mentioned later simply because there was no occasion to speak of them. Were twin-births peculiar to the patriarchal period because two are mentioned in Gen. and none at all in the rest of the OT? The fact that the custom of the concubine-slave has persisted in Mohammedan countries down to modern times, should warn us against such sweeping negations.—Again, we learn (ib. 358) that the simultaneous marriage with two sisters was permitted by ancient Babylonian law, but was proscribed in Hebrew legislation as incestuous. Yes, but the law in

* A striking illustration of this washing out of historical background is the contrast between the Genesis narratives and the Egyptian Tale of Sinuhe, from which Je. (ATLO2, 298 ff.) quotes at length in demonstration of their verisimilitude. While the latter is full of detailed information about the people among whom the writer lived, the former (except in chs. 14. 34. 38) have hardly any allusions (249 3716e) to the aboriginal population of Palestine proper. Luther (INS, 156 f.) even maintains that the original Yahwist conceived Canaan as at this time an uninhabited country! Without going so far as that, we cannot but regard the fact as an indication of the process of abstraction which the narratives have undergone in the course of oral transmission. Would they appeal to the heart of the world as they do if they retained, to the extent sometimes alleged, the signature of an obsolete civilisation?
question (Lv. 18:18) is late; and does not its enactment in the PC rather imply that the practice against which it is directed survived in Israel till the close of the monarchy?—The distinction between the mōhar, or purchase price of a wife, and the gift to the bride (ib.), should not be cited: the mōhar is an institution everywhere prevailing in early pastoral societies; it is known to Hebrew jurisprudence (Ex. 22:16); its name is not old Babylonian; and even its transmutation into personal service is in accordance with Arab practice (p. 383 below). '—In short, it does not appear that the examples given differ from another class of usages, "die nicht spezifisch altbabylonisch sind, sondern auch spätern bez. intergentilen Rechtszuständen entsprechen, die aber . . . wenigstens teilweise eine interessante Beleuchtung durch den Cod. Ḥamm. erfahren." The "'interessante Beleuchtung." will be freely admitted.

Still less has the new knowledge of the political circumstances of Palestine contributed to the direct elucidation of the patriarchal tradition, although it has brought to light certain facts which have to be taken into account in interpreting that tradition. The complete silence of the narratives as to the protracted Egyptian dominion over the country is very remarkable, and only to be explained by a fading of the actual situation from the popular memory during the course of oral transmission. The existence of Philistines in the time of Abraham is, so far as archaeology can inform us, a positive anachronism. On the whole it must be said that archaeology has in this region created more problems than it has solved. The occurrence of the name Yaḳob-el in the time of Thothmes III., of Asher under Seti I. and Ramses II., and of Israel under Merneptah; the appearance of Hebrews (Ḥabiri?) in Palestine in the 15th cent., and in Egypt (Ḥor) from Ramses II. to Ramses IV., present so many difficulties to the adjustment of the patriarchal figures to their original background. We do not seem as yet to be in sight of a historical construction which shall enable us to bring these conflicting data into line with an intelligible rendering of the Hebrew tradition.

It is considerations such as these that give so keen an edge to the controversy about the genuineness of ch. 14. That is the only section of Genesis which seems to set the figure of Abraham in the framework of world history. If it be a historical document, then we have a fixed centre round which the Abrahamic traditions, and possibly those of the other patriarchs as well, will group themselves; if it be but a late imitation of history, we are cast adrift, with nothing to guide us except an uncertain and artificial scheme of chronology. For an attempt to estimate the force of the arguments on either side we must refer to the commentary below (p. 271 ff.). Here, however, it is in point to observe that even if the complete historicity of ch. 14 were established, it would take us but a little way towards the authentication of the patriarchal traditions as a whole. For that episode confessedly occupies a place entirely unique in the records of the patriarchs; and all the marks of contemporary authorship which it is held to present are so many proofs

that the remaining narratives are of a different character, and lack that particular kind of attestation. The coexistence of oral traditions and historic notices relating to the same individual proves that the former rest on a basis of fact; but it does not warrant the inference that the oral tradition is accurate in detail, or even that it faithfully reflects the circumstances of the period with which it deals. And to us the Abraham of oral tradition is a far more important religious personality than Abram the Hebrew, the hero of the exploit recorded in ch. 14.

2. Ethnological theories.—The negative conclusion expressed above (p. xvii f.) as to the value of ancient Babylonian analogies to the patriarchal tradition, depends partly on the assumption of the school of writers whose views were under consideration: viz., that the narratives are a transcript of actual family life in that remote age, and therefore susceptible of illustration from private law as we find it embodied in the Cod. Ḥamm. It makes, however, little difference if for family relations we substitute those of clans and peoples to one another, and treat the individuals as representatives of the tribes to which Israel traced its origin. We shall then find the real historic content of the legends in migratory movements, tribal divisions and fusions, and general ethnological phenomena, which popular tradition has disguised as personal biographies. This is the line of interpretation which has mostly prevailed in critical circles since Ewald;* and it has given rise to an extraordinary variety of theories. In itself (as in the hands of Ewald) it is not necessarily inconsistent with belief in the individual existence of the patriarchs; though its more extreme exponents do not recognise this as credible. The theories in question fall into two groups: those which regard the narratives as ideal projections into the past of relations subsisting, or conceptions formed, after the final settlement in Canaan; † and those which try to extract from them a real history of the period before the Exodus. Since the former class deny a solid tradition of any kind behind the patriarchal story, we may here pass them over, and confine our atten-

* Hist. of Isr. i. 363, 382, etc.
† So We. Prol. 6 319 ff. [Eng. tr. 318 ff.], Isr. und jüd. Gesch. 11 ff.; Sta. GVI, i. 145 ff., ZAT W, i. 112 ff., 347 ff.
tion to those which do allow a certain substratum of truth in the pictures of the pre-Exodus period.

As a specimen of this class of theories, neither better nor worse than others that might be chosen, we may take that of Cornill. According to him, Abraham was a real person, who headed a migration from Mesopotamia to Canaan about 1500 B.C. Through the successive separations of Moab, Ammon, and Edom, the main body of immigrants was so reduced that it might have been submerged, but for the arrival of a fresh contingent from Mesopotamia under the name Jacob (the names, except Abraham's, are all tribal or national). This reinforcement consisted of four groups, of which the Eeah-group was the oldest and strongest. The tribe of Joseph then aimed at the hegemony, but was overpowered by the other tribes, and forced to retire to Egypt. The Bilhah-group, thus deprived of its natural support, was assailed by the Leah-tribes led by Reuben; but the attempt was foiled, and Reuben lost his birthright. Subsequently the whole of the tribes were driven to seek shelter in Egypt, when Joseph took a noble revenge by allowing them to settle by its side in the frontier province of Egypt (Hist. of Israel, 29 ff.).

It will be seen that the construction hangs mainly on two leading ideas: tribal affinities typified by various phases of the marriage relation; and migrations. As regards the first, we have seen (p. xii) that there is a true principle at the root of the method. It springs from the personification of a tribe under the name of an individual, male or female; and we have admitted that many names in Genesis have this significance, and probably no other. If, then, two eponymous ancestors (Jacob and Esau) are represented as twin brothers, we may be sure that the peoples in question were conscious of an extremely close affinity. If a male eponym is married to a female, we may presume (though with less confidence) that the two tribes were amalgamated. Or, if one clan is spoken of as a wife and another as a concubine, we may reasonably conclude that the latter was somehow inferior to the former. But beyond a few simple analogies of this kind (each of which, moreover, requires to be tested by the inherent probabilities of the case) the method ceases to be reliable; and the attempt to apply it to all the complex family relationships of the patriarchs only lands us in confusion.*—The

* Guthe (GVI, 1–6) has formulated a set of five rules which he thinks can be used (with tact!) in retranslating the genealogical phraseology
idea of migration is still less trustworthy. Certainly not every journey recorded in Genesis (e.g. that of Joseph from Hebron to Shechem and Dothan, 37:14ff.: pace Steuernagel) can be explained as a migratory movement. Even when the ethnological background is apparent, the movements of tribes may be necessary corollaries of the assumed relationships between them (e.g. Jacob's journey to Harran: p. 357); and it will be difficult to draw the line between these and real migrations. The case of Abraham is no doubt a strong one; for if his figure has any ethnological significance at all, his exodus from Harran (or Ur) can hardly be interpreted otherwise than as a migration of Hebrew tribes from that region. We cannot feel the same certainty with regard to Joseph's being carried down to Egypt; it seems to us altogether doubtful if this be rightly understood as an enforced movement of the tribe of Joseph to Egypt in advance of the rest (see p. 441).

But it is when we pass from genealogies and marriages and journeys to pictorial narrative that the breakdown of the ethnological method becomes complete. The obvious truth is that no tribal relationship can supply an adequate motive for the wealth of detail that meets us in the richly coloured patriarchal legends; and the theory stultifies itself by assigning ethnological significance to incidents which originally had no such meaning. It will have been noticed that Cornill utilises a few biographical touches to fill in his scheme (the youthful ambition of Joseph; his sale into Egypt, etc.), and every other theorist does the same. Each writer selects those incidents which fit into his own system, and neglects those which would embarrass it. Each system has some plausible and attractive features; but each, to avoid absurdity, has to exercise a judicious restraint on the consistent extension of its principles. The consequence is endless into historical terms. There is probably not one of them which is capable of rigorous and universal application. Thus, the marriage of Jacob to Leah and Rachel does not necessarily imply that Jacob was a tribe which successively absorbed the two clans so named: it is just as likely that the union of Leah and Rachel with one another produced the entity called Jacob.
diversity in detail, and no agreement even in general outline.*

It is evident that such constructions will never reach any satisfactory result unless they find some point of support in the history of the period as gathered from contemporary sources. The second millennium B.C. is thought to have witnessed one great movement of Semitic tribes to the north, viz., the Aramaeans. About the middle of the millennium we find the first notices of the Aramaeans as nomads in what is now the Syro-Arabian desert. Shortly afterwards the Habiri make their appearance in Palestine. It is a natural conjecture that these were branches of the same migration, and it has been surmised that we have here the explanation of the tradition which affirms the common descent of Hebrews and Aramaeans. The question then arises whether we can connect this fact with the patriarchal tradition, and if so with what stratum of that tradition. Isaac and Joseph are out of the reckoning; because neither is ever brought into contact with the Aramaeans; Rebekah is too insignificant. Abraham is excluded by the chronology, unless (with Corn.) we bring down his date to c. 1500, or (with Steuer.) regard his migration as a traditional duplicate of Jacob's return from Laban. But if Jacob is suggested, we encounter the difficulty that Jacob must have been settled in Canaan some generations before the age of the Habiri. In the case of Abraham there may be a conflation of two traditions,—one tracing his nativity to Harran and the other to Ur; and it is conceivable that he is the symbol of two migrations, one of which might be identified with the arrival of the Habiri, and the other might have taken place as early as the age of Hammurabi. But these are speculations no whit more reliable than any of those dealt with above; and it has to be confessed that as yet archaeology has furnished no sure basis for the reconstruction of the patriarchal history. It is permissible to hope that further discoveries may bring to light facts which shall enable us to decide more definitely than is possible at present how far that history can be explained on ethnological lines.†

* Luther (ZATW, 1901, 36 ff.) gives a conspectus of four leading theories (We. Sta. Gu. Corn.), with the purpose of showing that the consistent application of the method would speedily lead to absurd results (46). He would undoubtedly have passed no different verdict on later combinations, such as those of Steuernagel, Einwanderung der Isr. Stämme; Peters, Early Hebrew Story, 45 ff.; Procksch, Nordhebr. Sagenbuch, 330 ff. etc.—What Grote has written about the allegorical interpretation of the Greek legends might be applied word for word to these theories: "The theorist who adopts this course of explanation finds that after one or two simple and obvious steps, the way is no longer open, and he is forced to clear a way for himself by gratuitous refinements and conjectures" (Hist. of Greece, ed. 1888, p. 2).

† To the whole class of theories considered above (those which try to go behind the Exodus), Luther (l.c. 44 f.) objects that they demand a continuous occupation of Palestine from the time when the legends were
3. The patriarchs as individuals.—We come, in the last place, to consider the probability that the oral tradition, through its own inherent tenacity of recollection, may have retained some true impression of the events to which it refers. After what has been said, it is vain to expect that a picture true in every detail will be recoverable from popular tales current in the earliest ages of the monarchy. The course of oral tradition has been too long, the disturbing influences to which it has been exposed have been too numerous and varied, and the subsidiary motives which have grafted themselves on to it too clearly discernible, to admit of the supposition that more than a substantial nucleus of historic fact can have been preserved in the national memory of Israel. It is not, however, unreasonable to believe that such a historical nucleus exists; and that with care we may disentangle from the mass of legendary accretions some elements of actual reminiscence of the prehistoric movements which determined the subsequent development of the national life.* It is true that in this region we have as a rule only subjective impressions to guide us; but in the absence of external criteria a subjective

formed. He hints at a solution, which has been adopted in principle by Meyer (INT, 127 ff., 415, 433), and which if verified would relieve some difficulties, archaeological and other. It is that two independent accounts of the origin of the nation are preserved: the Genesis-tradition, carrying the ancestry of the people back to the Aramaeans, and the Exodus-tradition, which traces the origin of the nation no further than Moses and the Exodus. There are indications that in an earlier phase of the patriarchal tradition the definitive conquest of Canaan was carried back to Jacob and his sons (chs. 34. 38. 48ff.); on Meyer’s view this does not necessarily imply that the narratives refer to a time subsequent to Joshua. A kernel of history may be recognised in both strands of tradition, on the assumption (not in itself a violent one) that only a section of Israel was in Egypt, and came out under Moses, while the rest remained in Palestine. The extension of the Exodus-tradition to the whole people was a natural effect of the consolidation of the nation; and this again might give rise to the story of Jacob’s migration to Egypt, with all his sons.

* Cf. Winckler, KAT, 204: “Es ist nämlich immer wahrscheinlicher, dass ein grosses für die Entwicklung des Volkes massgebend gewordenes Ereigniss in seiner Geschlossenheit dem Gedächtniss besser erhalten bleibt als die Einzelheiten seines Herganges.”
judgement has its value, and one in favour of the historic origin of the tradition is at least as valid as another to the contrary effect.—The two points on which attention now falls to be concentrated are: (a) the personalities of the patriarchs; and (b) the religious significance of the tradition.

(a) It is a tolerably safe general maxim that tradition does not invent names, or persons. We have on any view to account for the entrance of such figures as Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, and Joseph into the imagination of the Israelites; and amongst possible avenues of entrance we must certainly count it as one, that they were real men, who lived and were remembered. What other explanations can be given? The idea that they were native creations of Hebrew mythology (Goldziher) has, for the present at least, fallen into disrepute; and there remain but two theories as alternatives to the historic reality of the patriarchs: viz., that they were originally personified tribes, or that they were originally Canaanite deities.

The conception of the patriarchs as tribal eponyms, we have already seen to be admissible, though not proved. The idea that they were Canaanite deities is not perhaps one that can be dismissed as transparently absurd. If the Israelites, on entering Canaan, found Abraham worshipped at Hebron, Isaac at Beersheba, Jacob at Bethel, and Joseph at Shechem, and if they adopted the cult of these deities, they might come to regard themselves as their children; and in course of time the gods might be transformed into human ancestors around whom the national legend might crystallise. At the same time the theory is destitute of proof; and the burden of proof lies on those who maintain it. Neither the fact (if it be a fact) that the patriarchs were objects of worship at the shrines where their graves were shown, nor the presence of mythical traits in their biographies, proves them to have been superhuman beings.—The discussion turns largely on the evidence of the patriarchal names; but this, too, is indecisive. The name Israel is national, and in so far as it is applied to an individual it is a case of eponymous personification. Isaac, Jacob, and Joseph (assuming these to be contractions of Yizhak-el, etc.) are also most naturally explained as tribal designations. Meyer, after long vacillation, has come to the conclusion that they are divine names (JNS, 249 ff.); but the arguments which formerly convinced him that they are tribal seem to us more cogent than those to which he now gives the preference. That names of this type frequently denote tribes is a fact; that they may denote deities is only a hypothesis. That they may also denote individuals
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(Yaḥub-īlu, Yaṣṣūr-īlu) is true; but that only establishes a possibility, hardly a probability; for it is more likely that the individual was named after his tribe than that the tribe got its name from an individual.—The name Abram stands by itself. It represents no ethnological entity, and occurs historically only as the name of an individual; and though it is capable of being interpreted in a sense appropriate to deity, all analogy is in favour of explaining it as a theophorous human name. The solitary allusion to the biblical Abram in the monuments—the mention of the ‘Field of Abram’ in Shishak’s inscription (see p. 244)—is entirely consistent with this acceptation.—It is probably a mistake to insist on carrying through any exclusive theory of the patriarchal personalities. If we have proved that Abram was a historical individual, we have not thereby proved that Isaac and Jacob were so also; and if we succeed in resolving the latter into tribal eponyms, it will not follow that Abraham falls under the same category.

There is thus a justification for the tendency of many writers to put Abraham on a different plane from the other patriarchs, and to concentrate the discussion of the historicity of the tradition mainly on his person. An important element in the case is the clearly conceived type of character which he represents. No doubt the character has been idealised in accordance with the conceptions of a later age; but the impression remains that there must have been something in the actual Abraham which gave a direction to the idealisation. It is this perception more than anything else which invests the figure of Abraham with the significance which it has possessed for devout minds in all ages, and which still resists the attempt to dissolve him into a creation of religious phantasy. If there be any truth in the description of legend as a form of narrative conserving the impression of a great personality on his age, we may venture, in spite of the lack of decisive evidence, to regard him as a historic personage, however dim the surroundings of his life may be.*

* Cf. Höffding, Phil. of Rel. 199 ff.: “Its essence [that of legend] consists in the idea of a wonderful personality who has made a deep impression on human life—who excited admiration, furnished an example, and opened new paths. Under the influence of memory, a strong expansion of feeling takes place: this in turn gives rise to a need for intuition and explanation, to satisfy which a process of picture-making is set in motion. . . . In legends . . . the central interest is in the subject-matter, in the centripetal power, which depends on an intensification of memory rather than on any naïve personification and colouring. . . .”
(b) It is of little consequence to know whether a man called Abraham lived about 2000 B.C., and led a caravan from Ur or Harran to Palestine, and defeated a great army from the east. One of the evil effects of the controversial treatment of such questions is to diffuse the impression that a great religious value attaches to discussions of this kind. What it really concerns us to know is the spiritual significance of the events, and of the mission of Abraham in particular. And it is only when we take this point of view that we do justice to the spirit of the Hebrew tradition. It is obvious that the central idea of the patriarchal tradition is the conviction in the mind of Israel that as a nation it originated in a great religious movement, that the divine call which summoned Abraham from his home and kindred, and made him a stranger and sojourner on the earth, imported a new era in God's dealings with mankind, and gave Israel its mission in the world (Is. 41\textsuperscript{st}). Is this conception historically credible?

Some attempts to find historic points of contact for this view of Abraham's significance for religion will be looked at presently; but their contribution to the elucidation of the biblical narrative seems to us disappointing in the extreme. Nor can we unreservedly assent to the common argument that the mission of Moses would be unintelligible apart from that of Abraham. It is true, Moses is said to have appealed to the God of the fathers; and if that be a literally exact statement, Moses built on the foundation laid by Abraham. But that the distinctive institutions and ideas of the Yahwe-religion could not have originated with Moses just as well as with Abraham, is more than we have a right to affirm. In short, positive proof, such as would satisfy the canons of historical criticism, of the work of Abraham is not available. What we can say is, in the first place, that if he had the importance assigned to him, the fact is just of the kind that might be expected to impress itself indelibly on a tradition dating from the time of the event. We have in it the influence of a great personality, giving birth to the collective consciousness of a nation; and this fact is of a
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nature to evoke that centripetal "intensification of memory" which Hössding emphasises as the distinguishing mark and the preserving salt of legend as contrasted with myth. In the second place, the appearance of a prophetic personality, such as Abraham is represented to have been, is a phenomenon with many analogies in the history of religion. The ethical and spiritual idea of God which is at the foundation of the religion of Israel could only enter the world through a personal organ of divine revelation; and nothing forbids us to see in Abraham the first of that long series of prophets through whom God has communicated to mankind a saving knowledge of Himself. The keynote of Abraham's piety is faith in the unseen,—faith in the divine impulse which drove him forth to a land which he was never to possess; and faith in the future of the religion which he thus founded. He moves before us on the page of Scripture as the man through whom faith, the living principle of true religion, first became a force in human affairs. It is difficult to think that so powerful a conception has grown out of nothing. As we read the story, we may well trust the instinct which tells us that here we are face to face with a decisive act of the living God in history, and an act whose essential significance was never lost in Israelite tradition.

The significance of the Abrahamic migration in relation to the general movements of religious thought in the East is the theme of Winckler's interesting pamphlet, Abraham als Babylonier, Joseph als Aegypter (1903). The elevation of Babylon, in the reign of Hammurabi, to be the first city of the empire, and the centre of Babylonian culture, meant, we are told, a revolution in religion, inasmuch as it involved the deposition of Sin, the old moon-god, from the supreme place in the pantheon in favour of the 'Deliverer Marduk,' the tutelary deity of Babylon. Abraham, a contemporary, and an adherent of the older faith, opposed the reformation; and, after vainly seeking support for his protest at Ur and Harran, the two great centres of the worship of Sin, migrated to Canaan, beyond the limits of Hammurabi's empire, to worship God after his fashion. How much truth is contained in these brilliant generalisations it is difficult for an ordinary man to say. In spite of the ingenuity and breadth of conception with which the theory is worked out, it is not unfair to suggest that it rests mostly on a combination of things that are not in the Bible with things that are not in the monuments. Indeed, the only positive point of contact between the two data of the problem is the certainly remarkable fact that tradi-
tion does connect Abraham with two chief centres of the Babylonian moon-worship. But what we chiefly desiderate is some evidence that the worship of the moon-god had greater affinities with monotheism than the worship of Marduk, the god of the vernal sun. [The attempt to connect Joseph with the abortive monotheistic reform of Chuenaten (Amenophis IV.) is destitute of plausibility.]—To a similar effect Jeremias, ATLO, 327 ff. : "A reform movement of protest against the religious degeneration of the ruling classes" was the motive of the migration (333), perhaps connected with the introduction of a new astronomical era, the Taurus-epoch (which, by the way, had commenced nearly 1000 years before! cf. 66). The movement assumed the form of a migration—a Hegira—under Abraham as Mahdi, who preached his doctrine as he went, made converts in Ḥarran, Egypt, Gerar, Damascus, and elsewhere, finally establishing the worship of Yahwe at the sanctuaries of Palestine. This is to write a new Abrahamic legend, considerably different from the old.

§ 5. Preservation and collection of the traditions.

In all popular narration the natural unit is the short story, which does not too severely tax the attention of a simple audience, and which retains its outline and features unchanged as it passes from mouth to mouth.* A large part of the Book of Genesis consists of narratives of this description,—single tales, of varying length but mostly very short, each complete in itself, with a clear beginning and a satisfying conclusion. As we read the book, unities of this kind detach themselves from their context, and round themselves into independent wholes; and it is only by studying them in their isolation, and each in its own light, that we can fully appreciate their charm and understand, in some measure, the circumstances of their origin. The older stratum of the primæval history, and of the history of Abraham, is almost entirely composed of single incidents of this kind: think of the story of the Fall, of Cain and Abel, of Noah's drunkenness, of the Tower of Babel; and again of Abraham in Egypt, of the flight or expulsion of Hagar, of the sacrifice of Isaac, etc., etc. When we pass the middle of the book, the mode of narra-

* Cf. Gu. p. XXXII, to whose fine appreciation of the "Kunstform der Sagen" this § is greatly indebted.
tion begins to change. The biography of Jacob is much more a consecutive narrative than that of Abraham; but even here the separate scenes stand out in their original distinctness of outline (e.g. the transference of the birthright, Jacob at Bethel, the meeting with Rachel at the well, the wrestling at Peniel, the outrage on Dinah, etc.). It is not till we come to the history of Joseph that the principle of biographical continuity gains the upper hand. Joseph's story is, indeed, made up of a number of incidents; but they are made to merge into one another, so that each derives its interest from its relation to the whole, and ends (except the last) on a note of suspense and expectation rather than of rest. This no doubt is due to the greater popularity and more frequent repetition of the stories of Jacob and Joseph; but at the same time it bears witness to a considerable development of the art of story-telling, and one in which we cannot but detect some degree of professional aptitude and activity.

The short stories of Genesis, even those of the most elementary type, are exquisite works of art, almost as unique and perfect in their own kind as the parables of our Lord are in theirs. They are certainly not random productions of fireside gossip, but bear the unmistakable stamp of individual genius (Gu. p. xxx). Now, between the inception of the legends (which is already at some distance from the traditional facts) and the written form in which they lie before us, there stretches an interval which is perhaps in some instances to be measured by centuries. Hence two questions arise: (1) What was the fate of the stories during this interval? Were they cast adrift on the stream of popular talk,—with nothing to secure their preservation save the perfection of their original form,—and afterwards collected from the lips of the people? Or were they taken in hand from the first by a special class of men who made it their business to conserve the integrity of the narratives, and under whose auspices the mass of traditional material was gradually welded into its present shape? And (2), how is this whole
process of transmission and consolidation related to the use of writing? Was the work of collecting and systematising the traditions primarily a literary one, or had it already commenced at the stage of oral narration?

To such questions, of course, no final answers can be given. (1) It is not possible to discriminate accurately between the modifications which a narrative would undergo through constant repetition, and changes deliberately made by responsible persons. On the whole, the balance of presumption seems to us to incline towards the hypothesis of professional oversight of some sort, exercised from a very early time. On this assumption, too, we can best understand the formation of legendary cycles; for it is evident that no effective grouping of tradition could take place in the course of promiscuous popular recital. (2) As to the use of writing, it is natural to suppose that it came in first of all as an aid to the memory of the narrator, and that as a knowledge of literature extended the practice of oral recitation gradually died out, and left the written record in sole possession of the field. In this way we may imagine that books would be formed, which would be handed down from father to son, annotated, expanded, revised, and copied; and so collections resembling our oldest pentateuchal documents might come into existence.*

Here we come upon one important fact which affords some guidance in the midst of these speculations. The bulk of the Genesis-tradition lies before us in two closely parallel and practically contemporaneous recensions (see p. xliii ff. below). Since there is every reason to believe that these recensions were made independently of each other, it follows that the early traditions had been codified, and a sort of national epos had taken shape, prior to the compilation of these documents. When we find, further, that each of them contains evidence of earlier collections and older strata of tradition, we must assume a very considerable period of time to have elapsed between the formation

of a fixed corpus of tradition and the composition of J and E. Beyond this, however, we are in the region of vaguest conjecture. We cannot tell for certain what kind of authority had presided over the combination of the legends, nor whether it was first done in the oral or the literary stage of translation. We may think of the priesthoods of the leading sanctuaries as the natural custodians of the tradition: * the sanctuaries were at least the obvious repositories of the cult-legends pertaining to them. But we cannot indicate any sanctuary of such outstanding national importance as to be plausibly regarded as the centre of a national epic.† Or we may assign a conspicuous share in the work to the prophetic guilds which, in the time of Samuel, were foci of enthusiasm for the national cause, and might conceivably have devoted themselves to the propagation of the national tradition. Or, finally, we may assume, with Gu., that there existed in Israel, as among the Arabs, guilds of professional story-tellers, exercising their vocation at public festivals and such like gatherings, for the entertainment and instruction of the people. The one certainty is that a considerable time must be allowed for the complex mental activities which lie behind our earliest literary sources. It is true that the rise of a national epos presupposes a strongly developed consciousness of national unity; but in Israel the national ideal was much older than its realisation in the form of a state, and therefore we have no reason for placing the unification of the traditions later than the founding of the monarchy. From the age of Samuel at least all the essential conditions were present; and a lower limit than that will hardly meet the requirements of the case.

We may here refer to a matter of great importance in its bearing on the possibility of accurate oral transmission of the legends: viz. the recent effort of Sievers (Metrische Studien, ii., 1904-5) to resolve the whole of Genesis into verse. If his theory should be established,

* Cf. Sta. ZATW, i. 347 ff.
† Pro., however (392 f.), suggests Shiloh as the place where the national legend was developed.
it would not merely furnish the most potent instrument of literary analysis conceivable, but it would render credible a very high degree of verbal exactitude during the period of unwritten tradition. The work of Sievers is viewed with qualified approval both by Gu. (p. xxix.f.) and Pro. (210 ff.), and it is certain to evoke interesting discussion. The present writer, who is anything but a 'Metriker von Fach,' does not feel competent to pronounce an opinion on its merits. Neither reading aloud, nor counting of syllables, has convinced him that the scansion holds, or that Hebrew rhythm in general is so rigorously exact as the system demands. The prejudice against divorcing poetic form from poetic feeling and diction (of the latter there is no trace in what have been considered the prose parts of Genesis) is not lightly to be overcome; and the frequent want of coincidence between breaks in sense and pauses in rhythm disturbs the mind, besides violating what used to be thought a fundamental feature of Hebrew poetry. Grave misgivings are also raised by the question whether the Massoretic theory of the syllable is (as Sievers assumes) a reliable guide to the pronunciation and rhythm of the early Hebrew language. It seems therefore hazardous to apply the method to the solution of literary problems, whether by emendation of the text, or by disentanglement of sources.

B. Structure and Composition of the Book.

§ 6. Plan and Divisions.

That the Book of Genesis forms a literary unity has been a commonplace of criticism since the maiden work of Ewald* put an end to the Fragmentary Hypothesis of

*Die Komposition der Genesis, kritisch untersucht (1823).—In that essay Ewald fell into the natural error of confusing unity of plan with unity of authorship,—an error, however, which he retracted eight years later (SK, 1831, 595 ff.), in favour of a theory (virtually identical with the so-called Supplementary Hypothesis) which did full justice to the unity and skilful disposition of the book, while recognising it to be the result of an amalgamation of several documents. The distinction has never since been lost sight of; and all subsequent theories of the composition of Genesis have endeavoured to reconcile the assumption of a diversity of sources with the indisputable fact of a clearly designed arrangement of the material. The view which is generally held does so in this way: three main documents, following substantially the same historical order, are held to have been combined by one or more redactors; one of these documents, being little more than an epitome of the history, was specially fitted to supply a framework into which the rest of the narrative could be fitted, and was selected by the redactor for this purpose; hence the plan which we discover in the
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Geddes and Vater. The ruling idea of the book, as has already been briefly indicated (p. ii), is to show how Israel, the people of God, attained its historical position among the nations of the world; in particular, how its peculiar relation to God was rooted in the moral greatness and piety of its three common ancestors, Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; and how through God's promise to them it had secured an exclusive right to the soil of Canaan.* This purpose, however, appears less in the details of the history (which are obviously governed by a variety of interests) than in the scope and arrangement of the work as a whole, especially in the 'framework' which knits it together, and reveals the plan to which the entire narrative is accommodated. The method consistently followed is the progressive isolation of the main line of Israel's descent by brief genealogical summaries of the collateral branches of the human family which diverge from it at successive points.

A clue to the main divisions of the book is thus furnished by the editor's practice of inserting the collateral genealogies (Tōleōdōth) at the close of the principal sections (1110-30; 2512-18; 36).† This yields a natural and convenient division into four approximately equal parts, namely:

I. The Primæval History of mankind : i.--xi.‡
II. The History of Abraham : xii. i--xxv. 18.
III. The History of Jacob : xxv. 19--xxxvi. 43.
IV. The Story of Joseph and his brethren : xxxvii.--l

book is really the design of one particular writer. It is obvious that such a conception quite adequately explains all the literary unity which the Book of Genesis exhibits.

* See Tuch, XVI ff.
† The genealogies of 417-24, 25f. and 2220-24 do not count: these are not Tōleōdōth, and do not belong to the document used as a framework. Ch. 10 (the Table of peoples) would naturally stand at the close of a section; but it had to be displaced from its proper position before 1110 to find room for the story of the Dispersion (111-9). It may be said, however, that the Tōleōdōth of Adam (ch. 5) should mark a main division; and that is probably correct, though for practical purposes it is better to ignore the subdivision and treat the primæval history as one section.
‡ Strictly speaking, the first part ends perhaps at 1127 or 30; but the actual division of chapters has its recommendation, and it is not worth while to depart from it.
A detailed analysis of the contents is given at the commencement of the various sections.

It is commonly held by writers on Genesis that the editor has marked the headings of the various sections by the formula נַתַּנְיָא אֶלְּקֹנָא [n'n^ in n';«", which occurs eleven times in the book: 2:5 5 6^ 10 11^ 12^ 17^ 2:2 25 19 36^ 36^ 37^2. Transposing 2:5 to the beginning, and disregarding 36^ (both arbitrary proceedings), we obtain ten parts; and these are actually adopted by De. as the divisions of his commentary. But the scheme is of no practical utility,—for it is idle to speak of 11^ -26 or 25^2-18 a^g sections of Genesis on the same footing as 25^2-35^ or 37^2-50^; and theoretically it is open to serious objection. Here it will suffice to point out the incongruity that, while the histories of Noah and Isaac fall under their own Tôlédôth; those of Abraham, Jacob, and Joseph fall under the Tôlédôth of their respective fathers. See, further, p. 40 f.

§ 7. The Sources of Genesis.

The Book of Genesis has always been the strategic position of Pentateuchal literary criticism. It was the examination of this book that led Astruc, in 1753,† to the important discovery which was the first positive achievement in this department of research. Having noticed the significant alternation of the divine names in different sections of the book, and having convinced himself that the phenomenon could not be explained otherwise than as due to the literary habit of two writers, Astruc proceeded to divide the bulk of Genesis into two documents, one distinguished by the use of the name מְאֹם, and the other by the use of אָהָב; while a series of fragmentary passages where this criterion failed him brought the total number of his mémoires up to twelve. Subsequent investigations served to emphasise the magnitude of this discovery, which Eichhorn‡ speedily put on a broader basis by a characterisation of the style, contents, and spirit of the two documents. Neither Astruc nor Eichhorn carried the analysis further than Ex. 2,—partly because they were influenced by the traditional opinion (afterwards abandoned by Eichhorn) of Mosaic authorship,
and did not expect to find traces of composition in the history contemporaneous with Moses. We shall see presently that there is a deeper reason why this particular clue to the analysis could not at first be traced beyond the early chapters of Exodus.

While the earlier attempts to discredit Astruc’s discovery took the direction of showing that the use of the two divine names is determined by a difference of meaning which made the one or the other more suitable in a particular connexion, the more recent opposition entrenches itself mostly behind the uncertainties of the text, and maintains that the Vns. (especially $G$) show the MT to be so unreliable that no analysis of documents can be based on its data: see Klostermann, *Der Pentateuch* (1893), p. 20 ff.; Dahse, *ARW*, vi. (1903), 305 ff.; Redpath, *AJTh*, viii. (1904), 286 ff.; Eerdmans, *Comp. d. Gen.* (1908), 34 ff.; Wiener, *BS* (1909), 119 ff.—It cannot be denied that the facts adduced by these writers import an element of uncertainty into the analysis, *so far as it depends on the criterion of the divine names*; but the significance of the facts is greatly overrated, and the alternative theories propounded to account for the textual phenomena are improbable in the extreme. (1)

So far as I have observed, no attention is paid to what is surely a very important factor of the problem, the *proportion* of divergences to agreements as between $G$ and MT. In Genesis the divine name occurs in one or other form about 340 times (in MT, מַיִם 143 t. + וֹתֵל 177 t. + ‘ר 20 t.). The total deviations registered by Redpath (296 ff.) number 50; according to Eerdmans (34 f.) they are 49; *i.e.* little more than one-seventh of the whole. Is it so certain that that degree of divergence invalidates a documentary analysis founded on so much larger a field of undisputed readings? (2) In spite of the confident assertions of Dahse (309) and Wiener (131 f.) there is not a single instance in which $G$ is ‘demonstrably’ right against MT. It is readily conceded that it is probably right in a few cases; but there are two general presumptions in favour of the superior fidelity of the Massoretic tradition. Not only (a) is the chance of purely clerical confusion between מַיִים and וֹתֵל greater than between מַיִם and וֹתֵל, or even between מַיִם and ‘ת, and (b) a change of divine names more apt to occur in *translation* than in *transcription*, but (c) the distinction between a proper name מַיִים and a generic וֹתֵל is much less likely to have been overlooked in copying than that between two appellatives וֹתֵל and וֹתֵל. An instructive example is 426, where $G$ וֹתֵל o וֹתֵל is ‘demonstrably’ wrong. (3) In the present state of textual criticism it is impossible to determine in particular cases what is the original reading. We can only proceed by the imperfect method of averages. Now it is significant that while in Gen. $G$ substitutes וֹתֵל for מַיִים 21 times, and וֹתֵל o וֹתֵל 19 times (40 in all), there are only 4 cases of וֹתֵל and 6 of וֹתֵל o וֹתֵל for וֹתֵל (10 in all: the proportions being very much the same for the whole Pent.). $G$ thus reveals a decided (and very natural) preference for the ordinary Greek וֹתֵל over the less familiar וֹתֵל.
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Dahse urges (p. 308) that MT betrays an equally marked preference for יהי, and has frequently substituted it for.getSimpleName; but that is much less intelligible. For although the pronunciation of יהי as יִיהֵי might have removed the fear of the Tetragrammaton,—and that would be a very good reason for leaving יהי where it was,—it suggests no motive at all for inserting it where it was not. There is force, however, in Gray’s remark on a particular case (Num. p. 311), that “wherever [5] קָב appears in 3 it deserves attention as a possible indication of the original text.” (4) The documentary theory furnishes a better explanation of the alternation of the names than any other that has been propounded. Redpath’s hypothesis of a double recension of the Pent., one mainly Yahwistic and the other wholly (?) Elohistic, of which one was used only where the other was illegible, would explain anything, and therefore explains nothing; least of all does it explain the frequent coincidence of hypothetical illegibility with actual changes of style, phraseology, and standpoint. Dahse (following out a hint of Klostermann) accounts for the phenomena of MT (and מ) by the desire to preserve uniformity within the limits of each several pericope of the Synagogue lectionary; but why some pericopes should be Yahwistic and others Elohistic, it is not easy to conceive. He admits that his view cannot be carried through in detail; yet it is just of the kind which, if true, ought to be verifiable in detail. One has but to read consecutively the first three chapters of Genesis, and observe how the sudden change in the divine name coincides with a new vocabulary, representation, and spiritual atmosphere, in order to feel how paltry all such artificial explanations are in comparison with the hypothesis that the names are distinctive of different documents. The experience repeats itself, not perhaps quite so convincingly, again and again throughout the book; and though there are cases where the change of manner is not obvious, still the theory is vindicated in a sufficient number of instances to be worth carrying through, even at the expense of a somewhat complicated analysis, and a very few demands (see p. xlviii f.) on the services of a redactor to resolve isolated problems. (5) It was frankly admitted by Kuenen long ago (see Ond. i. pp. 59, 62) that the test of the divine names is not by itself a sufficient criterion of source or authorship, and that critics might sometimes err through a too exclusive reliance on this one phenomenon.* Nevertheless the opinion can be maintained that the MT is far superior to the Vns., and that its use of the names is a valuable clue to the separation of documents. Truth is sometimes stranger than fiction; and, however surprising it may appear to some, we can reconcile our minds to the belief that the

* It should be clearly understood that as regards P and J the distinction of divine names is but one of many marks of diverse authorship (see Dri. LOT^, 131 ff., where more than fifty such distinguishing criteria are given), and that after Ex. 6, where this particular criterion disappears, the difference is quite as obvious as before. As regards J and E, the analysis, though sometimes dependent on the divine names alone, is generally based on other differences as well.
MT does reproduce with substantial accuracy the characteristics of the original autographs. At present that assumption can only be tested by the success or failure of the analysis based on it. It is idle to speculate on what would have happened if Astruc and his successors had been compelled to operate with E instead of MT; but it is a rational surmise that in that case criticism would still have arrived, by a more laborious route, at very much the positions it occupies to-day.

The next great step towards the modern documentary theory of the Pent. was Hupfeld's* demonstration that יהוה is not peculiar to one document, but to two; so that under the name Elohist two different writers had previously been confused. It is obvious, of course, that in this inquiry the divine names afford no guidance; yet by observing finer marks of style, and the connexion of the narrative, Hupfeld succeeded in proving to the ultimate satisfaction of all critics that there was a second Elohistic source (now called E), closely parallel and akin to the Yahwistic (J), and that both J and E had once been independent consecutive narratives. An important part of the work was a more accurate delimitation of the first Elohist (now called the Priestly Code: P), whose outlines were then first drawn with a clearness to which later investigation has had little to add.†

Though Hupfeld's work was confined to Genesis, it had results of the utmost consequence for the criticism of the Pent. as a whole. In par-

* _Die Quellen der Genesis und die Art ihrer Zusammensetzung_ (1853). Hupfeld's discovery had partly been anticipated by Ilgen (Urkunden des ersten Buchs von Moses [1798]). Between Eichhorn and Hupfeld, criticism had passed through two well-defined phases: the Fragmentary Hypothesis (see p. xxxii f. above) and the Supplementary Hypothesis, of which the classical exposition is Tuch's fine commentary on Genesis (1858; reissued by Arnold in 1871). The latter theory rested partly on a prejudice—that the framework of the Pent. was necessarily supplied by its oldest source; partly on the misapprehension which Hupfeld dispelled; and partly on the truth that Yahwistic sections are so interlaced with Elohistic that the former could plausibly be regarded as on the whole supplementary to the latter. Though Tuch's commentary did not appear till 1858, the theory had really received its death-blow from Hupfeld five years before.

† See Noldeke, _Untersuchungen zur Kritik des AT_, 1869, pp. 1-144. It is worthy of mention here that this great scholar, after long resisting the theory of the late origin of P, has at last declared his acceptance of the position of We. (see _ZA_, 1908, 203).
ticular, it brought to light a fact which at once explains why Genesis presents a simpler problem to analysis than the rest of the Pent., and furnishes a final proof that the avoidance of אֱלֹהִים by two of the sources was not accidental, but arose from a theory of religious development held and expressed by both writers. For both P (Ex. 6:3ff.) and E (Ex. 3:14ff.) connect the revelation of the Tetragrammaton with the mission of Moses; while the former states emphatically that God was not known by that name to the patriarchs.* Consistency demanded that these writers should use the generic name for Deity up to this point; while J, who was bound by no such theory, could use האל from the first.† From Ex. 6 onwards P regularly uses אֱלֹהִים; E's usage fluctuates between 'א and 'א (perhaps a sign of different strata within the document), so that the criterion no longer yields a sure clue to the analysis.

It does not lie within the scope of this Introduction to trace the extension of these lines of cleavage through the other books of the Hexateuch; and of the reflex results of the criticism of the later books on that of Genesis only two can here be mentioned. One is the recognition of the unique position and character of Deuteronomy in the Pent., and the dating of its promulgation in the eighteenth year of Josiah.‡ Although this has hardly any direct influence on the criticism of Genesis, it is an important landmark in the Pentateuch problem, as furnishing a fixed date by reference to which the age of the other documents can partly be determined. The other point is the question of the date of P. The preconception in favour of the antiquity of this document (based for the most part on the fact that it really forms the framework of the Pent.) was nearly universal among scholars down to the publication of We.'s Geschichte Israels, i., in 1878; but it had already been shown to be groundless by Graf § and Kuenen in 1866-69.

* A curious attempt to turn the edge of this argument will be found in the art. of H. M. Wiener referred to above (BS, 1909, 158 ff.).
† For a partial exception, see on §28.
‡ De Wette, Beiträge zur Einleitung in das AT (1806-7); Riehm, Gesetzgebung Mose's im Lande Moab (1854); al.
§ Die geschichtliche Bücher des AT’s (1866). Graf did not at first see it necessary to abandon the earlier date of the narratives of P; for an account of his subsequent change of opinion in correspondence with Kuenen, as well as the anticipations of his final theory by Vatke, Reuss, and others, we must refer to Kue. Hex. xix ff., or Ho.'s Einleitung, especially p. 64 ff.
This revolutionary change was brought about by a comparison of the layers of legislation in the later Pent. books with one another, and with the stages of Israel's religious history as revealed in the earlier historical books; from which it appeared that the laws belonging to P were later than Deut., and that their codification took place during and after, and their promulgation after, the Exile. There was hesitation at first in extending this conclusion to the narratives of P, especially those of them in Genesis and Ex. i–ii. But when the problem was fairly faced, it was perceived, not only that P in Genesis presented no obstacle to the theory, but that in many respects its narrative was more intelligible as the latest than as the oldest stratum of the book.

The chief positions at which literary criticism has arrived with regard to Genesis are, therefore, briefly these: (1) The oldest sources are J and E, closely parallel documents, both dating from the best period of Hebrew literature, but distinguished from each other by their use of the divine name, by slight idiosyncrasies of style, and by quite perceptible differences of representation. (2) These sources were combined into a composite narrative (JE) by a redactor (R^{JE}), whose hand can be detected in several patches of a literary complexion differing from either of his authorities. He has done his work so deftly that it is frequently difficult, and sometimes impossible, to sunder the documents. It is generally held that this redaction took place before the composition of Deut., so that a third stage in the history of the Pent. would be represented by the symbols JE + D. (3) The remaining source P is a product of the Exilic or post-Exilic age, though it embodies older material. Originally an independent work, its formal and schematic character fitted it to be the framework of the Pentateuchal narrative; and this has determined the procedure of the final redactor (R^{JEP}), by whom excerpts from JE have been used to fill up the skeleton outline which P gave of the primitive and patriarchal history.

The above statement will, it is hoped, suffice to put the reader in possession of the main points of the critical position occupied in the Commentary. The evidence by which they are supported will partly be given in the next four §§; but, for a full discussion of the numerous questions involved,
we must here refer to works specially devoted to the subject.*

Some idea of the extent to which conservative opinion has been modified by criticism, may be gathered from the concessions made by Professor Orr, whose book, The Problem of the Old Testament, deservedly ranks as the ablest assault on the critical theory of the Pent. that has recently appeared in English. Dr. Orr admits (a) that Astruc was right in dividing a considerable part of Genesis into Elohist and Yahwistic sections; (b) that Eichhorn's characterisation of the style of the two documents has, in the main, 'stood the test of time'; (c) that Hupfeld's observation of a difference in the Elohist sections of Genesis 'in substance corresponds with facts'; and (d) that even Graf and We. 'mark an advance,' in making P a relatively later stratum of Genesis than JE (pp. 196-201). When we see so many defences evacuated one after another, we begin to wonder what is left to fight about, and how a theory which was cradled in infidelity, and has the vice of its origin clinging to all its subsequent developments (Orr, 195 f.), is going to be prevented 'from doing its deadly work of spreading havoc over the 'believing view' of the OT. Dr. Orr thinks to stem the torrent by adopting two relatively conservative positions from Klostermann. (1) The first is the denial of the distinction between J and E (216 ff.). As soon as Hupf. had effected the separation of E from P, it ought to have been perceived, he seems to suggest, that the sections thus disentangled are really parts of J (217). And yet, even to Dr. Orr, the matter is not quite so simple as this, and he makes another concession. The distinction in the divine names remains; and so he is driven to admit that J and E were, not indeed independent works, but different literary recensions of one and the same old work (229). What is meant by two versions in circulation alongside of each other, which never had currency as separate documents, is a point on which Dr. Orr owes his readers some explanation; if there were two recensions they certainly existed separately; and he cannot possibly know how far their agreement extended. The issue between him and his critical opponents is, nevertheless, perfectly clear: they hold that J and E are independent recensions of a common body of tradition, while he maintains that they

* The following may be mentioned: Kuenen, Historisch-critisch onderzoek naar het ontstaan en de verzameling van de boeken des Ouden Verbands, i. (1885) [Eng. tr., The Hexateuch (1886)]; and Gesammelte Abhandlungen (transl. into German by Budde); Wellhausen, Composition des Hexateuchs, etc. (1889); and Prolegomena zur Geschichte Israels (1905) [Eng. tr. 1885]; Westphal, Les Sources du Pent. (1888, 1892); Reuss, Geschichte der heiligen Schriften. des ATs (1899); Robertson Smith, The Old Testament in the Jewish Church (1892); Driver, Introduction to the Literature of the OT (1899); Holzinger, Einleitung in den Hex. (1893); Cornill, Einleitung (1908); König, Einl. (1893); Carpenter and Harford-Battersby, Comp. of the Hex. (1902) [=vol. i. of The Hexateuch (1900)].
were recensions of a single document, differing in nothing but the use of אָבִי or אֹבִי. What reasons, then, hinder us from deserting the critical view, and coming over to the side of Dr. Orr? In the first place, the difference between J and E is not confined to the divine names. The linguistic evidence is very much clearer than Dr. Orr represents; and differences of conception, though slight, are real. It is all very well to quote from candid and truth-loving opponents admissions of the close resemblance of the narratives, and the difficulty and uncertainty of the analysis, in particular instances, and to suggest that these admissions amount to a throwing up of the case; but no man with an independent grasp of the subject will be imposed on by so cheap a device. In the second place, J and E consist largely of duplicate narratives of the same event. It is true, this argument is lost on Dr. Orr, who has no difficulty in conceiving that Abraham twice told the same lie about his wife, and that his son Isaac followed his example, with very similar results in the three cases. But he will hardly affect to be surprised that other men take a more natural view, and regard the stories as traditional variations of the same theme.—(2) The second position is that P was never a distinct or self-subsisting document, but only a "framework" enclosing the contents of JE (341-377). Again we have to ask what Dr. Orr means by a "framework," which, in his own words, "has also, at certain points, its original, and, in parts, considerable contributions to bring to the history" (272); and how he can possibly tell that these original and considerable contributions did not come from an independent work. The facts that it is now closely interwoven with JE, and that there are gaps in its narrative (even if these gaps were more considerable than there is any reason to suppose), prove nothing except that it has passed through the hands of a redactor. That its history presupposes a knowledge of JE, and is too meagre to be intelligible apart from it, is amply explained by the critical view that the author wished to concentrate attention on the great religious turning-points in the history (the Creation, the Flood, the Covenant with Abraham, the Blessing of Jacob by Isaac, the origin of the name Israel, the Settlement in Egypt, etc.), and dismissed the rest with a bare chronological epitome. When we add that on all these points, as well as others, the "original and considerable contributions" are (Dr. Orr's protestations notwithstanding) radically divergent from the older tradition, we have every proof that could be desired that P was an independent document, and not a mere supplementary expansion of an earlier compilation (see, further, p. Ivii ff. below). But now, supposing Dr. Orr to have made good his contentions, what advantage has he gained? So far as we can see, none whatever! He does indeed go on to assert a preference for the term "collaboration" as expressing the "kind and manner of the activity which brought the Pentateuchal books into their present shape" (375). But that preference might just as easily have

* So even Sayce, Early History of the Hebrews (1897), 62 f., 64 f.
† It is a grave injustice to Di. to associate his name, however remotely, with this theory of "collaboration" (527). What Di. is speaking
been exercised on the full literary results of the critical theory. And Dr. Orr deceives himself if he imagines that that flimsy hypothesis will either neutralise the force of the arguments that have carried criticism past the barren eccentricities of Klostermann, or save what he chooses to consider the 'essential Mosaicity' of the Pent

Professor Eerdmans of Leiden, in a series of recent publications, has announced his secession from the Graf-Wellhausen school, and commenced to lay down the programme of a new era in OT criticism (Hibb. Journ. vii. [1909], 813 ff.). His Komposition der Genesis (1908) gives a foretaste of his literary method; and certainly the procedure is drastic enough. The divine names are absolutely misleading as a criterion of authorship; and the distinction between P and JE goes overboard along with that between J and E. Criticism is thus thrown back into its original chaos, out of which Ee. proceeds to evoke a new kosmos. His one positive principle is the recognition of a polytheistic background behind the traditions, which has been obscured in various degrees by the later monotheistic interpretation. By the help of this principle, he distinguishes four stages in the development of the tradition. (1) The first is represented by remnants of the original undiluted polytheism, where Yahwe does not appear at all; e.g. 35^1-7; the Israel-recension of the Joseph-stories; the groundwork of chs. 1. 20. 28^1-9 6^9-9^17. (2) Legends which recognise Yahwe as one among many gods; 4. 9^18-27 22. 27. 28^1-22 29. 30. 31. 39. (3) In the third stage, polytheistic legends are transferred to Yahwe as the only God: 2. 3. 6^1-8 7^1-5 8^20-22 11^1-9 16. 18. 19 24. 25^19-24 26. (4) Late additions of purely monotheistic complexion: 15^1-6 17. 35^9-15 48^3-8. Now, we are quite prepared to find traces of all these stages of religion in the Genesis-narratives, if they can be proved; and, indeed, all of them except the second are recognised by recent critics. But while any serious attempt to determine the age of the legends from their contents rather than from their literary features is to be welcomed, it is difficult to perceive the distinctions on which Ee.'s classification is based, or to admit that, for example, ch. 17 is one whit more monotheistic than 20 or 27, or 24. In any case, on Ee.'s own showing, the classification affords no clue to the composition and history of the book. In order to get a start, he has to fall back on the acknowledged literary distinction between a Jacob-recension and an Israel-recension of the Joseph-narratives (on this see p. 439 below). Since the former begins ענל הなし נוק, it is considered to have formed part of a comprehensive history of the patriarchs, commencing with Adam (5^1), set in a framework of תלדד. This is the groundwork of Genesis. It is destitute of monotheistic colouring (it contains,

of in the words cited is simply the question whether the three documents, P, E, and J, were combined by a single redaction, or whether two of them were first put together and afterwards united with the third. Dr. Orr, on the other hand, is thinking of "the labours of original composers, working with a common aim and towards a common end" (375). If everything beyond this is conjectural (376), there is nothing but conjecture in the whole construction.
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however, legends of all the first three classes!), Yahwe being to the compiler simply one of the gods; and must therefore have originated before the Exile: a lower limit is 700 B.C. This collection was soon enlarged by the addition of legends not less ancient than its own; and by the insertion of the Israel-recension, which is as polytheistic in character as the Télédôth-collection! The monotheistic manipulation of the work set in after Deuteronomy; but how many editions it went through we cannot tell for certain. The last thorough-going reviser was the author of ch. 17; but additions were made even later than that, etc. etc. A more bewildering hypothesis it has never been our lot to examine; and we cannot pretend to believe that it contains the rudiments of a successful analysis. There is much to be learned from Ee.'s work, which is full of acute observations and sound reasoning in detail; but as a theory of the composition of Genesis it seems to us utterly at fault. What with Wi. and Jer., and Che., and now Ee., OT scholars have a good many new eras dawning on them just now. Whether any of them will shine unto the perfect day, time will show.

§ 8. The collective authorship of J and E.

In J and E we have, according to what has been said above, the two oldest written recensions of a tradition which had at one time existed in the oral form. When we compare the two documents, the first thing that strikes us is their close correspondence in outline and contents. The only important difference is that E's narrative does not seem to have embraced the primitive period, but to have commenced with Abraham. But from the point where E strikes into the current of the history (at ch. 20, with a few earlier traces in ch. 15), there are few incidents in the one document to which the other does not contain a parallel.* What is

* The precise extent to which this is true depends, of course, on the validity of the finer processes of analysis, with regard to which there is room for difference of opinion. On the analysis followed in the commentary, the only episodes in E to which there is no trace of a parallel in J, after ch. 15, are: the sacrifice of Isaac, 22; Esau's selling of his birthright, 25:29-34 (7); the theophany of Mahanaim, 32:1-3; the purchase of land at Shechem, 33:18-20; and the various incidents in 35:1-8, 14-20. Those peculiar to J are: the theophany at Mamre, 18; the destruction of Sodom, 19:1-28; Lot and his daughters, 19:30-38; the birth of Jacob and Esau, 25:21-28; the Isaac-narratives, 26; Jacob's meeting with Rachel, 29:4-14; Reuben and the love-apples, 30:14ff.; the incest of Reuben, 35:21, 22a; Judah and Tamar, 38; Joseph's temptation, 39:2-20; the cup in Benjamin's sack, 44; Joseph's agrarian policy, 47:19-28 (7); and the genealogies of 22:20-24 25:1-6.
much more remarkable, and indeed surprising, is that the *manner* of narration changes in the two documents *pari passu*. Thus the transition from the loose connexion of the Abraham legends to the more consecutive biography of Jacob, and then to the artistic unity of the Joseph-stories (see p. xxviii f.), is equally noticeable in J and in E. It is this extraordinarily close parallelism, both in matter and form, which proves that both documents drew from a common body of tradition, and even suggests that that tradition had already been partly reduced to writing.*

Here we come back, from the side of analysis, to a question which was left unsettled in § 5; the question, namely, of the process by which the oral tradition was consolidated and reduced to writing. It has been shown with great probability that both J and E are composite documents, in which minor legendary cycles have been incorporated, and different strata of tradition are embedded. This presupposes a development of the tradition within the circle represented by each document, and leads eventually to the theory advocated by most recent critics, that the symbols J and E must be taken to express, not two individual writers but two *schools*, i.e., two series of narrators, animated by common conceptions, following a common literary method, and transmitting a common form of the tradition from one generation to another.

The phenomena which suggest this hypothesis are fully described in the body of the commentary, and need only be recapitulated here. In J, composite structure has been most clearly made out in the Primæval History (chs. i–xi), where at least two, and probably more, strands of narrative can be distinguished (pp. 1–4). Gu. seems to have shown that in 12–25 two cycles of Abraham-legends have been interwoven (p. 240); also that in 25 ff. the Jacob-Esau and the Jacob-Laban legends were originally independent of each other: this last, however, applies to J and E alike, so that the fusion had probably taken place in the common tradition which lies behind both. Further, chs. 34 and 38

* One is almost tempted to go further, and say that the facts can be best explained by the hypothesis of literary dependence of one document on the other (so Lu. *INS*, 169: "E steht völlig in seinem [J's] Banne"). But the present writer is convinced from repeated examination, that the differences are not of a kind that can be accounted for in this way (see Procksch, 305 f.).
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(pp. 418, 450) belong to an older stratum of tradition than the main narrative; and the same might be said of ch. 49 (p. 512), which may very plausibly be regarded as a traditional poem of the 'school' of J, and the oldest extant specimen of its *repertoire*.—With regard to E, the proof of composite authorship lies chiefly in the Books of Exodus, Numbers, and Joshua; in Genesis, however, we have imperfectly assimilated fragments of a more ancient tradition in 34 (? if E be a component there), 3517 4822 and perhaps some other passages.—The important fact is that these passages exhibit all the literary peculiarities of the main source to which they are assigned; at least, no linguistic *differentia* of any consequence have yet been discovered.* The problem is to frame a theory which shall do justice at once to their material incongruities and their literary homogeneity.

While the fact of collective authorship of some kind is now generally recognised, there is no agreement as to the interpretation which best explains all the phenomena. Some scholars are impressed (and the impression is certainly very intelligible) by the unity of conception and standpoint and mode of treatment which characterise the two collections, and maintain that (in the case of J especially) the stamp of a powerful and original personality is too obvious to leave much play for the activity of a 'school.' † It is very difficult

* The only exception would be Sievers' metrical analysis, which leads to results far more complicated than can be justified by other indications (see p. xxxi f.).

† See the lengthy excursus of Luther in *INS*, 107-170, where the thesis is upheld that the Yahwist (*i.e.* J¹) is not a stage in the natural process of remodelling the tradition; that he does not mean merely to retain the old stories as he found them, but writes his book with the conscious purpose of enforcing certain ideas and convictions which often run contrary to the prevailing tendencies of his age (108). Lu. seems to simplify the problem too much by excluding the primæval tradition from consideration (108), and ignoring the distribution of the Yahwistic material over the various stages of the redaction (155). It makes a considerable difference to the theory if (as seems to be the case) the sections which Lu. assigns to J² (*e.g.* chs. 34, 38, 19) really represent older phases of tradition than the main document; for if they existed in their Yahwistic colouring prior to the compilation of J¹, there must have been a Yahwistic circle of some kind to preserve them; and even if they received their literary stamp at a later time, there must still have been something of the nature of a school to impress the Yahwistic character so strongly upon them. His conception of the Yahwist as an Ephraimite, a detached and sympathetic adherent of the prophetic and Rechabite movement of the 9th cent., an opponent of the cultus, and an upholder of the nomadic ideal against the drift of the old tradition,
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to hold the balance even between the claims of unity and complexity in the documents; but the theory of single authorship may easily be pressed too far. If we could get through with only a J¹ and J², E¹, E² etc.,—i.e., with the theory of one main document supplemented by a few later additions,—it would be absurd to speak of 'schools.' And even if the case were considerably more complicated, it might still be possible to rest satisfied (as a majority of critics do) with the idea of literary schools, manipulating written documents under the influence of tendencies and principles which had become traditional within special circles. Gu. goes, however, much further with his conception of J and E as first of all guilds of oral narrators, whose stories gradually took written shape within their respective circles, and were ultimately put together in the collections as we now have them. The theory, while not necessarily excluding the action of an outstanding personality in shaping either the oral or the literary phase of the tradition, has the advantage of suggesting a medium in which the traditional material might have assumed its specifically Yahwistic or Elohistic form before being incorporated in the main document of the school. It is at all events a satisfactory working hypothesis; and that is all that can be looked for in so obscure a region of investigation. Whether it is altogether so artificial and unnatural as Professor Orr would have us believe, the reader must judge for himself.

seems to go far beyond the evidence adduced, and, indeed, to be hardly reconcilable with the religious tone and spirit of the narratives.—To a similar effect writes Procksch, Sagenbuch, 284–308; although he does justice to the composite structure of the document J, and describes it in terms which throw a shade of uncertainty on the alleged unity of authorship. When we read of an "einetlichen Grundstock, auf den wie in einen Stamm Geschichtén ganz anderer Herkunft gewissermassen aufgepropft sind, jetzt eng damit verwachsen durch die massgebenden Ideen" (294 f.), we cannot help asking where these branches grew before they were engrafted on their present stem. If we are right in distinguishing a strand of narrative in which Yahwe was used from the beginning, and another in which it was introduced in the time of Enosh, it is not easy to account for their fusion on any theory which does not allow a relative independence to the two conceptions.

It is not the purpose of this section to give an exhaustive characterisation of the literary or general features of the two older documents of Genesis. If J and E are to be regarded as, in the main, recensions of a common body of oral tradition, and if they are the work of schools rather than of individuals, it is obvious that the search for characteristic differences loses much of its interest; and in point of fact the attempt to delineate two well-defined literary types is apt to be defeated by the widely contrasted features which have to find a place in one and the same picture. Our object here is simply to specify some outstanding differences which justify the separation of sources, and which may assist us later to determine the relative ages of the two documents.

J presents, on the whole, a more uniform literary texture than E. It is generally allowed to contain the best examples of pure narrative style in the OT; and in Genesis it rarely, if ever, falls below the highest level. But while E hardly attains the same perfection of form, there are whole passages, especially in the more ample narratives, in which it is difficult to assign to the one a superiority over the other. J excels in picturesque 'objectivity' of description,—in the power to paint a scene with few strokes, and in the delineation of life and character: his dialogues, in particular, are inimitable "for the delicacy and truthfulness with which character and emotions find expression in them" (cf. Gn. 44\textsuperscript{18ff.}).* E, on the other hand, frequently strikes a deeper vein of subjective feeling, especially of pathos; as in the account of Isaac's sacrifice (22), of the expulsion of Hagar (21\textsuperscript{8ff.}), the dismay of Isaac and the tears of Esau on the discovery of Jacob's fraud (27\textsuperscript{35ff.}), Jacob's lifelong grief for Rachel (48\textsuperscript{7}), or his tenderness towards Joseph's children (48\textsuperscript{14}).† But here again no absolute distinction can be drawn; in the history of Joseph, e.g., the vein of pathos is perhaps more marked in J than

* Driver, LOT, p. 119.  
† Cf. Gunkel, p LXXVII.
in E. Where parallels are sufficiently distinct to show a tendency, it is found in several instances that J’s objectivity of treatment has succeeded in preserving the archaic spirit of a legend which in E is transformed by the more refined sentiment of a later age. The best example is J’s picture of Hagar, the intractable, indomitable Bedawi woman (ch. 16), as contrasted with E’s modernised version of the incident (21ff.), with its affecting picture of the mother and child all but perishing in the desert. So again, E (ch. 20) introduces an extenuation of Abraham’s falsehood about his wife which is absent from the older narrative of J (1210ff.).

It is not surprising, considering the immense variety of material comprised in both documents, that the palpable literary differences reduce themselves for the most part to a preference for particular phrases and turns of expression in the one recension or the other. The most important case is, of course, the distinctive use (in the pre-Mosaic period) of Yahwe in J and Elohim in E.* But round this are grouped a number of smaller linguistic differences which, when they occur in any degree of profusion in a consecutive passage, enable us to assign it with confidence to one or other of the sources.

The divine names.—While the possibility of error in the Massoretic textual tradition is fully recognised, cases of inadvertence in the use of

* This, it is true, is more than a mere matter of phraseology; in the case of E, it is the application of a theory of religious development which connected the revelation of the name Yahwe with the mission of Moses (Ex. 313-18). It is now generally held that the original E continued to use Elohim after the revelation to Moses, and that the occurrences of Yahwe in the later history belong to secondary strata of the document. On either view the choice of the general name of deity is difficult to account for. Procksch regards it as due to the influence of the great monotheistic movement headed by Elijah; but that is not probable. The inspiring motive of Elijah’s crusade was precisely jealousy for Yahwe, the national God of Israel. Gu., on the other hand, thinks it arose from the fact that the legends were largely of Canaanite and polytheistic origin; and it is certainly the case that in the patriarchal history E contains several strong traces of a polytheistic basis of the narratives (2810ff. 322, 3 357 etc.). But that Elohim had a monotheistic sense to the mind of the Elohistic writers is not to be doubted (against Eerdmans).
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The religious and theological conceptions of the two documents are in the main identical, though a certain difference of standpoint appears in one or two features. Both

* The cross (+) means that the usage is continued in the other books of the Hex.

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evence towards the popular cultus an attitude of friendly toleration, with a disposition to ignore its cruder aspects; and this tendency is carried somewhat further in J than in E. Thus, while neither countenances the Asherah, or sacred pole, E alludes, without offence, to the Mazzebah, or sacred pillar (28:18. 22 31:13. 45ff. 35:20); whereas J nowhere allows to the mazzebah a legitimate function in the worship of Yahwe. A very singular circumstance is that while both frequently record the erection of altars by the patriarchs, they are remarkably reticent as to the actual offering of sacrifice: E refers to it only twice (22. 46:1), and J never at all in the patriarchal history (ct. 4:ff. 2:20ff.). It is difficult to imagine that the omission is other than accidental: the idea that it indicates an indifference (Gu.), or a conscious opposition (Lu.), to the cultus, can hardly be entertained; for after all the altar had no use or significance except as a means of sacrifice.—The most striking diversity appears in the representation of the Deity, and especially of the manner of His revelation to men. The antique form of the theophany, in which Yahwe (or the Angel of Yahwe) appears visibly in human form, and in broad daylight, is peculiar to J (chs. 16. 18. 19), and corresponds to the highly anthropomorphic language which is observed in other parts of the document (chs. 2. 3. 7. 8. 11:5. 7). E, on the contrary, records no daylight theophanies, but prefers the least sensible forms of revelation,—the dream or night-vision (15:1 20:3 21:12 [cf. 14] 22:ff. 28:ff. 31:11. 24 46:2),* or the voice of the angel from heaven (21:17). In this respect E undoubtedly represents a more advanced stage of theological reflection than J.—The national feeling in both sources is buoyant and hopeful: the 'scheue heidnische Stimmung,' the sombre and melancholy view of life which marks the primaeval history of J disappears absolutely when the history of the immediate ancestors of Israel is reached. The strongly pessimistic strain which some

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* We do not include the dreams of the Joseph-stories, which seem to stand on a somewhat different footing (p. 345). Nocturnal revelations occur, however, in J (26:ff. 28:18), but whether in the oldest parts of the document is not quite certain.
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writers note as characteristic of E finds no expression whatever in Genesis; and so far as it exists at all (Jos. 24), it belongs to secondary strata of the document, with which we are not here concerned.

Here we touch on a question of great importance, and one fortunately capable of being brought to a definite issue: viz., the relation of J and E to the literary prophecy of the 8th and following centuries. It is usual to speak of the combined JE as the Prophetical narrative of the Pent., in distinction from P, the Priestly narrative; and in so far as the name is employed (as, e.g., by Dri. LOT⁸, 117) to emphasise that contrast, it is sufficiently appropriate. As used, however, by many writers, it carries the implication that the documents—or that one to which the epithet is applied—show unmistakable traces of the influence of the later prophets from Amos downwards. That view seems to us entirely erroneous. It is undoubtedly the case that both J and E are pervaded by ideas and convictions which they share in common with the writing prophets: such as, the monotheistic conception of God, the ethical view of His providential government, and perhaps a conscious opposition to certain emblems of popular cultus (asheras, mazzebas, teraphim, etc.). But that these and similar principles were first enunciated by the prophets of the 8th cent., we have no reason to suppose. Nor does the fact that Abraham, as a man of God, is called Nābī' (20, cf. Dt. 34¹⁰) necessarily imply that the figure of an Amos or an Isaiah was before the mind of the writers. We must bear in mind that the 9th century witnessed a powerful prophetic movement which, commencing in N Israel, extended into Judah; and that any prophetic influences discoverable in Genesis are as likely to have come from the impulse of that movement as from the later development which is so much better known to us. But in truth it is questionable if any prophetic impulse at all, other than those inherent in the religion from its foundation by Moses, is necessary to account for the religious tone of the narratives of Genesis. The decisive fact is that the really distinctive ideas of written prophecy find no echo in
those parts of J and E with which we have to do. These are: the presentiment of the impending overthrow of the Israelitish nationality, together with the perception of its moral necessity, the polemic against foreign deities, the denunciation of prevalent oppression and social wrong, and the absolute repudiation of cultus as a means of recovering Yahwe's favour. Not only are these conceptions absent from our documents, but it is difficult to conceive that they should have been in the air in the age when the documents were composed. For, though it is true that very different religious ideas may exist side by side in the same community, it is scarcely credible that J and E could have maintained their confident hope for the future of the nation intact against the tremendous arraignment of prophecy. This consideration gains in force from the fact that the secondary strata of E, and the redactional additions to JE, which do come within the sweep of the later prophetic movement, clearly show that the circles from which these writings emanated were sensitively responsive to the sterner message of the prophets.

§ 10. Date and place of origin—Redaction of JE.

On the relative age of J and E, there exists at present no consensus of critical opinion. Down to the appearance of Wellhausen's Geschichte Israels in 1878, scholars were practically unanimous in assigning the priority to E.* Since then, the opposite view has been strongly maintained by the leading exponents of the Grafian theory,† although a number of critics still adhere to the older position.‡ The reason for this divergence of opinion lies not in the paucity of points of comparison, but partly in the subjective nature of the evidence, and partly in the fact that such indications as exist point in opposite directions.

To take a few examples from Genesis: Ch. 16:14 (J) produces an impression of greater antiquity than the parallel 21:19 (E); J's explana-
tion of the name Issachar, with its story of the love-apples (30:14-16), is more primitive than that of E (30:17); J (30:28-29) attributes the increase of Jacob’s flocks to his own cunning, whereas E (31:4-12) attributes it to the divine blessing: On the other hand, E’s recension of the Bethel-theophany (28:11-17f.) is obviously more antique than J’s (13-16); and in the Joseph narratives the leadership of Reuben (E) is an element of the original tradition which J has altered in favour of Judah. A peculiarly instructive case is 12:10f. (J) || 20 (E) || 26ff. (J), where it seems to us (though Kuenen and others take a different view) that Gunkel is clearly right in holding that J has preserved both the oldest and the youngest form of the legend, and that E represents an intermediate stage.

This result is not surprising when we understand that J and E are not individual writers, but guilds or schools, whose literary activity may have extended over several generations, and who drew on a store of unwritten tradition which had been in process of codification for generations before that. This consideration forbids us also to argue too confidently from observed differences of theological standpoint between the two documents. It is beyond doubt that E, with its comparative freedom from anthropomorphisms and sensible theophanies, with its more spiritual conception of revelation, and its greater sensitiveness to ethical blemishes on the character of the patriarchs (p. xlviii), occupies, on the whole, a higher level of reflexion than J; but we cannot tell how far such differences are due to the general social milieu in which the writers lived, and how far to esoteric tendencies of the circles to which they belonged. All that can safely be affirmed is that, while E has occasionally preserved the more ancient form of the tradition, there is a strong presumption that J as a whole is the earlier document.

In attempting to determine the absolute dates of J and E, we have a fixed point of departure in the fact that both are earlier than the age of written prophecy (p. li f.); in other words, 750 B.C. is the terminus ad quem for the composition of either. If it be the case that 375 in E presupposes the monarchy of the house of Joseph, the terminus a quo for that document would be the disruption of the kingdom, c. 930 (cf. Dt. 33:7); and indeed no one proposes to fix it higher.
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Between these limits, there is little to guide us to a more precise determination. General considerations, such as the tone of political feeling, the advanced conception of God, and traces of the influence of 9th-century prophecy, seem to us to point to the later part of the period, and in particular to the brilliant reign of Jeroboam II. (785–745), as the most likely time of composition.* In J there is no unequivocal allusion to the divided kingdom; and nothing absolutely prevents us from putting its date as early as the reign of Solomon. The sense of national solidarity and of confidence in Israel’s destiny is even more marked than in E; and it has been questioned, not without reason, whether such feelings could have animated the breast of a Judæan in the dark days that followed the dissolution of Solomon’s empire.† That argument is not greatly to be trusted: although the loss of the northern provinces was keenly felt in Judah (Is. 7:17), yet the writings of Isaiah show that there was plenty of flamboyant patriotism there in the 8th cent., and we cannot tell how far in the intervening period religious idealism was able to overcome the depression natural to a feeble and dependent state, and keep alive the sense of unity and the hope of reunion with the larger Israel of the north. In any case, it is improbable that J and E are separated by an interval of two centuries; if E belongs to the first half of the 8th cent., J will hardly be earlier than the 9th.‡

Specific historical allusions which have been thought to indicate a more definite date for J (or E) prove on examination to be unreliable. If 31:4ff. 49:3ff. contained references to the wars between Israel and Aram under Omri and his successors, it would be necessary to bring the date of both documents down to that time; but Gunkel has shown that interpretation to be improbable.—27:40b presupposes the revolt of Edom from Judah (c. 840); but that prosaic half-verse is probably an addition to the poetic passage in which it occurs, and therefore goes to show that the blessing itself is earlier, instead of later, than the middle of the 9th cent.—The curse on Canaan (9:25ff.) does not necessarily assume the definite subjugation of the Canaanites by Israel; and if it did, would

* So Procksch (178 ff.), who points out a number of indications that appear to converge on that period of history. We. Kue. Sta. Ho. agree; Reuss. Di. Ki. place it in the 9th cent.
† Procksch, 286 ff.
‡ So We. Kue. Sta. Kit. Gu. al.
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only prove a date not earlier than Solomon.—Other arguments, such as the omission of Asshur and the inclusion of Kelah and Nineveh in the list of Assyrian cities in 1011 etc., are still less conclusive.

While it is thus impossible to assign a definite date to J and E, there are fairly solid grounds for the now generally accepted view that the former is of Judæan and the latter of Ephraimite origin. Only, it must be premised that the body of patriarchal tradition which lies behind both documents is native to northern, or rather central, Israel, and must have taken shape there.* The favourite wife of Jacob is not Leah but Rachel, the mother of Joseph (Ephraim-Manasseh) and Benjamin; and Joseph himself is the brightest figure in all the patriarchal gallery. The sacred places common to both recensions—Shechem, Bethel, Mahanaim, Peniel, Beersheba—are, except the last, all in Israelite territory; and Beersheba, though belonging geographically to Judah, was for some unknown reason a favourite resort of pilgrims from the northern kingdom (Am. 55 814, 1 Ki. 193).—It is when we look at the divergence between the two sources that the evidence of the Ephraimite origin of E and the Judæan of J becomes consistent and clear. Whereas E never evinces the slightest interest in any sanctuary except those mentioned above, J makes Hebron the scene of his most remarkable theophany, and thus indelibly associates its sanctity with the name of Abraham. It is true that he also ascribes to Abraham the founding of the northern sanctuaries, Shechem and Bethel (127.8); but we can hardly fail to detect something perfunctory in his description, as compared with E's impressive narrative of Jacob's dream at Bethel (2810-12, 17-22), or his own twofold account of the founding of Beersheba (chs. 21. 26). It is E alone who records the place of Rachel's grave (3519), of those of Rebekah's nurse Deborah (8), of Joseph (Jos. 2432), and Joshua (30),—all in the northern territory. The sections peculiar to J (p. xliii) are nearly all of local

* We. Prol. 317. It is the neglect of this fact that has mainly led to the belief that J, like E, is of Ephraimite origin (Kue. Reuss, Schr. Fripp, Luther, al.).
Judæan interest: in 18 the scene is Hebron; 19\(^1-28\) is a legend of the Dead Sea basin; 19\(^{30}\text{ff.}\) deals with the origin of the neighbouring peoples of Moab and Ammon; 38 is based on the internal tribal history of Judah (and is not, as has been supposed, charged with animosity towards that tribe: see p. 455). Finally, while Joseph’s place of honour was too firmly established to be challenged, it is J who, in defiance of the older tradition, transfers the birthright and the hegemony from Reuben to Judah (49\(^{8}\text{ff.}\) 35\(^{22}\text{ff.}\), the Joseph narratives).—These indications make it at least relatively probable that in J we have a Judæan recension of the patriarchal tradition, while E took its shape in the northern kingdom.

The composite work JE is the result of a redactional operation, which was completed before the other components (D and P) were incorporated in the Pent.* The redactors (R\(^{JE}\)) have done their work (in Genesis) with consummate skill and care, and have produced a consecutive narrative whose strands it is often difficult to unravel. They have left traces of their hand in a few harmonising touches, designed to remove a discrepancy between J and E (16\(^{9}\text{ff.}\) 28\(^{21}\text{b}\) ? 31\(^{49}\text{ff.}\) (\textit{pass.}) 39\(^1\) 41\(^{50}\text{?}\) 46\(^1\) 50\(^{10}\text{ff.}\)): some of these, however, may be later glosses. Of greater interest are a number of short additions, of similar import and complexion but occurring both in J and E, which may, not with certainty but with great probability, be assigned to these editors (13\(^{14-17}\) 18\(^{17-19}\) 22\(^{15-18}\) 26\(^{3}\text{b}-6\) 28\(^{14}\) 32\(^{10-13}\) 46\(^{3}\text{b}\)): to this redaction we are disposed also to attribute a thorough revision of ch. 15. In these passages we seem to detect a note of tremulous anxiety regarding the national future of Israel and its tenure of the land of Canaan, which is at variance with the optimistic outlook of the original sources, and suggests that the writers are living under the shadow of impending exile. A slight trace of Deuteronomistic phraseology in 18\(^{17}\text{ff.}\) and 26\(^{3}\text{b}\text{ff.}\) confirms the impression that the redaction took place at some time between the publication of Deuteronomy and the Exile.

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* So Nö. We. and most; against Hupf. Di. al.

It is fortunately not necessary to discuss in this place all the intricate questions connected with the history and structure of the Priests’ Code. The Code as a whole is, even more obviously than J or E, the production of a school, —in this case a school of juristic writers, whose main task was to systematise the mass of ritual regulations which had accumulated in the hands of the Jerusalem priesthood, and to develop a theory of religion which grew out of them. Evidence of stratification appears chiefly in the legislative portions of the middle Pent., where several minor codes are amalgamated, and overlaid with considerable accretions of later material. Here, however, we have to do only with the great historical work which forms at once the kernel of the Code and the framework of the Pent., the document distinguished by We. as Q (*Quatuor foederum liber*), by Kue. as P², by others as P*. Although this groundwork shows traces of compilation from pre-existing material (see pp. 8, 35, 40, 130, 169, 428 f., etc.), it nevertheless bears the impress of a single mind, and must be treated as a unity.

No critical operation is easier or more certain than the separation of this work, down even to very small fragments, from the context in which it is embedded. When this is done, and the fragments pieced together, we have before us, almost in its original integrity, an independent document, which is a *source*, as well as the framework, of Genesis. We have seen (p. xii) that the opposite opinion is maintained by Klostermann and Orr, who hold that P is merely a supplementing reductor of, or ‘collaborator’ with, JE. But two facts combine to render this hypothesis absolutely untenable. (1) The fragments form a consecutive history, in which the *lacunae* are very few and unimportant, and those which occur are easily explicable as the result of the redactional process. The precise state of the case is as follows: In the primaeval history no *hiatus* whatever can be detected. Dr. Orr’s assertion (*POT*, 348 f.) that P’s account of the Flood *must* have contained the episodes of the birds and the sacrifice, because both are in the Babylonian version, will be worth considering when he has made it probable either that P had ever read the Babylonian story, or that, if he had, he would have wished to reproduce it intact. As matter of

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*Kue.’s P¹ is the so-called Law of Holiness (Pᵇ), which is older than the date usually assigned to P*. 
fact, neither is in the least degree probable; and, as we shall see presently, Noah's sacrifice is an incident which P would certainly have suppressed if he had known of it.—In the history of Abraham there is again no reason to suspect any omission. Here is a literal translation of the *disjecta membra* of P's epitome of the biography of Abraham, with no connexions supplied, and only one verse transposed (19): 12 "Now Abram was 75 years old when he went out from Harran. 5 And Abram took Sarai his wife, and Lot his brother's son, and all their possessions which they had acquired, and all the souls whom they had procured; and they went out to go to the land of Canaan, and they came to the land of Canaan. 13 And the land could not bear them so that they might dwell together, for their possessions were great, and they were not able to dwell together. 11 So they separated from one another: 12 Abram dwelt in the land of Canaan, and Lot dwelt in the cities of the Oval. 19 And when God destroyed the cities of the Oval, God remembered Abraham, and sent Lot away from the midst of the overthrow, when he overthrew the cities in which Lot dwelt.—16 Now Sarai, Abram's wife, had borne him no children. 8 So Sarai, Abram's wife, took Hagar the Egyptian, her maid, after Abram had dwelt ten years in the land of Canaan, and gave her to Abram her husband for a wife to him. 18 And Hagar bore to Abram a son, and Abram called the name of his son whom Hagar bore to him Ishmael. 16 And Abram was 86 years old when Hagar bore Ishmael to Abram. —17 And when Abram was 99 years old, Yahwe appeared to Abram, and said to him," etc. Here follows the account of the covenant with Abraham, the change of his name and that of Sarai, the institution of circumcision, and the announcement of the birth of Isaac to Sarah (ch. 17).—The narrative is resumed in 21 "And Yahwe did to Sarah as he had spoken," at the appointed time which God had mentioned. 3 And Abraham called the name of his son who was born to him, whom Sarah bore to him, Isaac. 4 And Abraham circumcised Isaac his son when he was 8 days old, as God had commanded him. 5 And Abraham was 100 years old when Isaac his son was born to him.—23 And the life of Sarah was 127 years; 2 and Sarah died in Kiryah Arba, that is Hebron, in the land of Canaan." This introduces the story of the purchase of Machpelah as a burying-place (ch. 23), and this brings us to—25 "And these are the days of the years of the life of Abraham which he lived: 175 years; 8 and he expired. And Abraham died in a good old age, an old man and full of years, and was gathered to his father's kin. 8 And his sons Isaac and Ishmael buried him in the cave of Machpelah, in the field of Ephron the son of Zohar, the Hittite, which is opposite Mamre: 10 the field which Abraham bought from the sons of Heth: there was Abraham buried, and Sarah his wife.—11 And after the death of Abraham, God blessed Isaac his son." The reader can judge for himself whether a narrative so continuous as this, every isolated sentence of which has been detached from its context by unmistakable criteria of the style of P, is likely to have been produced by the casual additions of a mere supplementer of an older work. And if he objects to the transposition of 19, let him
note at the same time how utterly meaningless in its present position that verse is, considered as a supplement to 19:1-28. — In the sections on Isaac, Jacob, and Joseph, there are undoubtedly omissions which we can only supply from JE; and if we were to judge from these parts alone, the supplementary theory would be more plausible than it is. We miss, e.g., accounts of the birth of Jacob and Esau, of Jacob's arrival in Paddan Aram, of his marriage to Leah and Rachel, of the birth of Joseph, of his slavery and elevation in Egypt, his reconciliation with his brethren, and perhaps some other particulars. Even here, however, the theory is absolutely negativied by the contradictions to JE which will be specified immediately. Dr. Orr's argument on this point (POT, 343 ff.) really assumes that the account of JE is the only way in which the gaps of P could be filled up; but the examination of the story of Abraham has shown that that is not the case. The facts are fully explained by the supposition that a short epitome of the history, similar to that of the history of Abraham, has been abridged in the redaction, by the excision of a very few sentences, in favour of the fuller narrative of JE. — (2) The second fact which makes Dr. Orr's hypothesis untenable is this, that in almost every instance where P expands into circumstantial narration it gives a representation of the events which is distinctly at variance with the older documents. The difference between P's cosmogony and J's account of the Creation is such that it is ludicrous to speak of the one as a supplement or a 'framework' to the other; and the two Flood stories are hardly less irreconcilable (see p. 148). In the life of Abraham, we have two parallel accounts of the covenant with Abraham in ch. 15 (JE) and 17 (P); and it is evident that the one supersedes and excludes the other. Again, P's reason for Jacob's journey to Mesopotamia (28:1-9) is quite inconsistent with that given by JE in ch. 27 (p. 374 f.); and his conception of Isaac's blessing as a transmission of the blessing originally bestowed on Abraham (28:4) is far removed from the idea which forms the motive of ch. 27. In JE, Esau takes up his abode in Seir before Jacob's return from Mesopotamia (32:3); in P he does not leave Canaan till after the burial of Isaac (35:9). P's account of the enmity between Joseph and his brethren is unfortunately truncated, but enough is preserved to show that it differed essentially from that of JE (see p. 444). It is difficult to make out where Jacob was buried according to J and E, but it certainly was not at Machpelah, as in P (see p. 538 f.). And so on. Everywhere we see a tendency in P to suppress or minimise discords in the patriarchal households. It is inconceivable that a supplementer should thus contradict his original at every turn, and at the same time leave it to tell its own story. When we find that the passages of an opposite tenor to JE form parts of a practically complete narrative, we cannot avoid the conclusion that P is an independent document, which has been preserved almost entire in our present Book of Genesis. The question then arises whether these discrepancies spring from a divergent tradition followed by P or from a deliberate re-writing of the history as told by JE, under the influence of certain theological ideals and principles, which we now proceed to consider.
The central theme and objective of \( P^x \) is the institution of the Israelitish theocracy, whose symbol is the Tabernacle, erected, after its heavenly antitype, by Moses at Mount Sinai. For this event the whole previous history of mankind is a preparation. The Mosaic dispensation is the last of four world-ages: from the Creation to the Flood, from Noah to Abraham, from Abraham to Moses, and from Moses onwards. Each period is inaugurated by a divine revelation, and the last two by the disclosure of a new name of God: El Shaddai to Abraham (17\(^1\)), and Yahwe to Moses (Ex. 6\(^3\)). Each period, also, is marked by the institution of some permanent element of the theocratic constitution, the Levitical system being conceived as a pyramid rising in four stages: the Sabbath (2\(^2\)\(^\text{ff.}\)); permission of the slaughter of animals, coupled with a restriction on the use of the blood (9\(^1\)\(^\text{ff.}\)); circumcision (17); and, lastly, the fully developed Mosaic ritual. Not till the last stage is reached is sacrificial worship of the Deity authorised. Accordingly neither altars nor sacrifices are ever mentioned in the pre-Mosaic history; and even the distinction between clean and unclean animals is supposed to be unknown at the time of the Flood. It is particularly noteworthy that the profane, as distinct from the sacrificial, slaughter of animals, which even the Deuteronomistic law treats as an innovation, is here carried back to the covenant with Noah.

Beneath this imposing historical scheme, with its ruling idea of a progressive unfolding of God's will to men, we discover a theory of religion which, more than anything else, expresses the spirit of the Priestly school to which the author of \( P^x \) belonged. The exclusive emphasis on the formal or institutional aspect of religion, which is the natural proclivity of a sacerdotal caste, appears in \( P^x \) in a very pronounced fashion. Religion is resolved into a series of positive enactments on the part of God, and observance of these on the part of man. The old cult-legends (p. xii f.), which traced the origin of existing ritual usages to historic incidents in the lives of the fathers, are swept away; and every practice to which a religious value is attached is referred to a direct
command of God. In the deeper problems of religion, on the other hand, such as the origin of evil, the writer evinces no interest; and of personal piety—the disposition of the heart towards God—his narrative hardly furnishes an illustration. In both respects he represents a theology at once more abstract and shallower than that of J or E, whose more imaginative treatment of religious questions shows a true apprehension of the deeper aspects of the spiritual life (chs. 3. 6. 8. 18. 22ff. 45. etc.), and succeeds in depicting the personal religion of the patriarchs as a genuine experience of inward fellowship with God (cf. 22. 24. 26ff. 32. 39ff. 48. etc.). It would be unfair to charge the author of P with indifference to the need for vital godliness, for he lacks the power of delineating character and emotion in any relation of life; but his defects are none the less characteristic of the type of mind that produced the colourless digest of history, which suffices to set forth the dominant ideas of the Priestly theology.

Another characteristic distinction between JE and P is seen in the enhanced transcendentalism of the latter's conception of Deity. Anthropomorphic, and still more anthropopathic, expressions are studiously avoided (an exception is Gn. 2ff.: cf. Ex. 31. 7); revelation takes the form of simple speech; angels, dreams, and visions are never alluded to. Theophanies are mentioned, but not described; God is said to 'appear' to men, and to 'go up from them' (Gn. 17. 22ff. 35. 13. 48. Ex. 6), but the manner of His appearance is nowhere indicated save in the supreme manifestation at Sinai (Ex. 24. 34. 40. 34ff.). It is true that a similar inconcreteness often characterises the theophanies of J and E, and the later strata of these documents exhibit a decided approximation to the abstract conceptions of P. But a comparison of the parallels ch. 17 with 15, or 35. 9ff. with 28ff., makes it clear that P's departure from the older tradition springs from a deliberate intention to exclude sensuous imagery from the representation of Godhead.

It remains to consider, in the light of these facts, P's attitude to the traditional history of the patriarchs. In the first place, it is clear that
he accepts the main outline of the history as fixed in tradition. But whether he knew that tradition from other sources than J and E, is a question not so easily answered. For the primitive period, direct dependence on J is improbable, because of the marked diversity in the accounts of the Creation and the Flood: here P seems to have followed a tradition closely akin to, but not identical with, that of J. In the history of the patriarchs there seems no reason to suppose that he had any other authorities than J and E. The general course of events is the same, and differences of detail are all explicable from the known tendencies of the Code. But the important facts are that nearly the whole of the history, both primitive and patriarchal, is reduced to a meagre summary, with little save a chronological significance, and that the points where the narrative becomes diffuse and circumstantial are (with one exception) precisely those which introduce a new religious dispensation: viz. the Creation, the Flood, the Abrahamic covenant, and the Exodus. The single exception is the purchase of Machpelah (ch. 23), an event which doubtless owes its prominence to its connexion with the promise of the land to Abraham and his seed. For the rest, a certain emphasis naturally lies on outstanding events, like the origin of the name Israel (35\textsuperscript{st}), or the settlement of Jacob's family in Egypt (47\textsuperscript{st}-\textsuperscript{11}); and the author lingers with interest on the transmission of the patriarchal blessing and promise from Isaac to Jacob (28\textsuperscript{st} 33\textsuperscript{rd}), and from Jacob to his sons (48\textsuperscript{st}). But these are practically all the incidents to which P\textsuperscript{8} attaches any sort of significance of their own; and even these derive much of their importance from their relation to the chronological scheme into which they are fitted.—Hence to say that P's epitome would be 'unintelligible' apart from JE, is to confuse his point of view with our own. It is perfectly true that from P alone we should know very little of the characters of the patriarchs, of the motives which governed their actions, or of the connexion between one event and another. But these are matters which P had no interest in making 'intelligible.' He is concerned solely with events, not with causes or motives. The individual is sufficiently described when we are told whose son he was, how long he lived, what children he begot, and such like. He is but a link in the generations that fill up the history; and even where he is the recipient of a divine revelation, his selection for that privilege depends on his place in the divine scheme of chronology, rather than on any personal endowment or providential training.

The style of P\textsuperscript{8} can be characterised without the reserves and qualifications which were necessary in speaking of the difference between J and E (p. xlvi\textsuperscript{f.}); there is no better illustration of the dictum le style c'est l'homme than in this remarkable document. Speaking broadly, the style reflects the qualities of the legal mind, in its stereotyped terminology, its aim at precise and exhaustive statement, its monotonous repetitions, and its general determination to
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leave no loophole for misinterpretation or misunderstanding. The jurist's love of order and method appears in a great facility in the construction of schemes and schedules—genealogical tables, systematic enumerations, etc.—as well as in the carefully planned disposition of the narrative as a whole. It is necessary to read the whole work consecutively in order to realise the full effect of the laboured diffuseness, the dry lucidity and prosaic monotony of this characteristic product of the Priestly school of writers. On the other hand, the style is markedly deficient in the higher elements of literature. Though capable at times of rising to an impressive dignity (as in Gn. 1. 47-11), it is apt to degenerate into a tedious and meaningless iteration of set phrases and rigid formulae (see Nu. 7). The power of picturesque description, or dramatic delineation of life and character, is absent: the writer's imagination is of the mechanical type, which cannot realise an object without the help of exact quantitative specification or measurement. Even in ch. 23, which is perhaps the most lifelike narrative in the Code, the characteristic formalism asserts itself in the measured periodic movement of the action, and the recurrent use of standing expressions from the opening to the close. That such a style might become the property of a school we see from the case of Ezekiel, whose writings show strong affinities with P; but of all the Priestly documents, \( P^2 \) is the one in which the literary bent of the school is best exemplified, and (it may be added) is seen to most advantage.

The following selection (from Driver, \( L O T^6 \), 131 ff.) of distinctive expressions of \( P \), occurring in Genesis, will give a sufficient idea of the stylistic peculiarity of the book, and also of its linguistic affinities with the later literature, but especially with the Book of Ezekiel.

\( \text{דנה} \) as the name of God, uniformly in Gen., except 17\(^1\) 21\(^{10} \).—\( \text{יָד} \), 'kind': 11\(^{1} \), 21, 24, 25 630 714 (Lxx. 11, Dt. 14; only again Ezek. 47\(^{10} \)).—\( \text{בִּזְצ} \), 'to swarm': 130, 21 721 817 97* (outside of \( P \) only Ps. 105\(^{30} \), Ezek. 47\(^{8} \)).

* As on p. xlix, the cross (+) indicates that further examples are found in the rest of the Pent. It should be expressly said, however, that the + frequently covers a considerable number of cases; and that a \( \text{selection} \) of phrases, such as is here given, does not fully represent the strength of the linguistic argument, as set forth in the more exhaustive lists of Dri. (\( i.e. \)) or the \( Oxf. \ Hex. \) (vol. i. pp. 208-221).
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—םחל, 'swarming things': 120 7 21 + (only in P and Dt. 1419).—הנער יוסי: 122 28 817 941 7 120 283 351 477 48 4 (Ex. 17, Lv. 26); elsewhere only Jer. 316 [inverted], 232, Ezk. 3611. אֶלְכֹּל אַלִּים: 129, 30 621 96+ (elsewhere only in Ezk. 10 times, and as inf. Jer. 129).—ה Marlins: 102 253 + (elsewhere 1 Ch. 57 7 24 9 28 9 24 2631). The phrase מִלָּהָה לְאָיִן occurs in P 10 times in Gen. (see p. xxxiv), and in Nu. 3; elsewhere only Ru. 418, 1 Ch. 129.

— nu: 617 7 25 261 17 35 29 493 + (elsewhere poietical: Zec. 138, Ps. 8510 1029, La. 119, and 8 times in Jb.).—םחל, etc. (appended to enumerations): 618 7 128 18 9 284 466 7+.—םכייתא, etc. (after 'seed'): 99 178 8 1020. 19 352 + 48+.—ה מצא חן: 715, 1722, 29+. only in P and Ezk. 29 24 40 (Jos. 1027 redactional).—םחל—םאתמש: 810 15 20 31 460 + (very often in P: elsewhere only Nu. 110 [JE], 1 Sa. 1021, 1 Ch. 57 647 43).—םשל היום: 916 177, 13, 19,. only in P.—הנה ליצמ: 172, 29 29 6 4 1 1 17 318 36 669 +; elsewhere only Ezk. 99 1639. שָׁנַר: 129 138 318 36 669 +; elsewhere Gn. 1411, 12, 16, 21 1514; and 15 times in Ch. Ezr. Dn.—םשל: 128 318 36 669 +.—שם (= 'person'): 128 36 4615, 18, 22, 29, 26, 27 +; "much more frequent in P than elsewhere."—םחל—םחרה: 177, 19 + 36 times (only in P).—םיעםנ: 178 284 36 37 479 6 +; elsewhere Ezk. 2088, Ps. 5516 1194, Jb. 1810+.—ם VAN: 138 294, 9, 20 3643 4711 484 49 5013+. Often in Ezk. (44 45 8 7 8 4616, 48 4917, 21, 22); elsewhere Ps. 23, 1 Ch. 789 (= Neh. 113), 2 Ch. 1114 31+.—םsetState: 1712, 13, 23, 27 2318 + (confined to P except Jer. 3211, 12, 14, 15).—םשל (= 'father's kin'): 1714 258, 17 359 493 + (also Ezk. 1318; elsewhere Ju. 514?; Ho. 1014+).—םשל: 23, 10 times (also 1 Ki. 171, 1 Ch. 2915, Ps. 3918).—םשל: 3118 [3423] 36 + (outside of P, only Ezk. 3812; Pr. 47, Ps. 10424 10521).

In the choice of synonymous expressions, P exhibits an exclusive preference for יִלָּה in the sense of 'begetter' over הילו (in the genealogies of J), and for the form יִלָּה of the 1st pers. pron. ('ם only in Gn. 23).

Geographical designations peculiar to P are: Kiryah-'Arbá (for Hebron) 232 3527 +; Machpelah, 239, 17, 19 259 490 5013 +; Paddan-Aram, 2528 5, 7, 3418 3335 39 26 669+.—To these may be added יָּעֵר יָּמ, 1312 13 16 16 178 2319 3118 338 374 +; the expression is found in JE only in the Joseph-section (chs. 42, 44, 45, 47). P has יָּעֵר without יָּמ only in יָּעֵר יָּמ (281 369).

In view of all these and similar peculiarities (for the list is by no means exhaustive), the attempt to obliterate the linguistic and stylistic distinction between P and JE (Eerdmans) is surely a retrograde step in criticism.

The date of the composition of P lies between the promulgation of the Deuteronomistic law (621 B.C.), and the post-Exilic reformation under Ezra and Nehemiah (444). It is later than Deut., because it assumes without question the centralisation of worship at one sanctuary, which in Dt. is only held up as an ideal to be realised by a radical reform of established usage. A nearer determination of date depends on questions of the internal analysis of P which are too complex to be entered on here. That the
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Code as a whole is later than Ezekiel is proved by the fact that the division between priests and Levites, which is unknown to the writer of Deut., and of which we find the origin and justification in Ezk. 44:6-16, is presupposed as already established (Nu. 3. 4. 8, etc.). It is possible, however, that that distinction belongs to a stratum of the legislation not included in Pג; in which case Pג might very well be earlier than Ezk., or even than the Exile. The question does not greatly concern us here. For the understanding of Genesis, it is enough to know that Pג, both in its theological conceptions and its attitude towards the national tradition, represents a phase of thought much later than J and E.

The view that Pג was written before the Exile (in the end of the 7th cent.) is advocated by Procksch (I.c. 319 ff.), who reduces this part of P to narrower limits than most critics have done. He regards it as an essentially historical work, of considerable literary merit, embracing hardly any direct legislation except perhaps the Law of Holiness (Pח), and recognising the priestly status of the entire tribe of Levi, just as in Dt. (Nu. 17:16-24 and Pח in its original form). If that fact could be established, it would go far to show that the document is older than Ezk. It is admitted both by Kuenen and Wellhausen (Prol. 9 116) that the disparity of priests and Levites is accentuated in the later strata of P as compared with Pג, but that it is not recognised in Pג is not clear. As to pre-Exilic origin, the positive arguments advanced by Pro. are not very cogent; and it is doubtful whether, even on his own ground, he has demonstrated more than the possibility of so early a date. In Genesis, the only fact which points in that direction is one not mentioned by Pro. : viz. that the priestly Table of Nations in ch. 10 bears internal evidence of having been drawn up some considerable time before the 5th century B.C. (p. 191 below); but that may be sufficiently explained by the assumption that the author of Pג made use of pre-existing documents in the preparation of his work.

The last distinguishable stage in the formation of the Pent. is the amalgamation of P with the older documents,—in Genesis the amalgamation of Pג with JE. That this process has left traces in the present text is quite certain a priori; though it is naturally difficult to distinguish redactional changes of this kind from later explanatory glosses and modifications (cf. 67 77. 22, 23 1024 2746 etc.). The aim of the redactor was, in general, to preserve the ipsissima
verba of his sources as far as was consistent with the production of a complete and harmonious narrative; but he appears to have made it a rule to find a place for every fragment of P that could possibly be retained. It is not improbable that this rule was uniformly observed by him, and that the slight lacunae which occur in P after ch. 25 are due to the activity of later scribes in smoothing away redundancies and unevennesses from the narrative. That such changes might take place after the completion of the Pent. we see from 47⁶th, where C has preserved a text in which the dovetailing of sources is much more obvious than in MT.—If the lawbook read by Ezra before the congregation as the basis of the covenant (Neh. 8th) was the entire Pent. (excepting late additions),* the redaction must have been effected before 444 B.C., and in all probability the redactor was Ezra himself. On the other hand, if (as seems to the present writer more probable) Ezra's lawbook was only the Priestly Code, or part of it (P⁺ + Pʰ),† then the final redaction is brought down to a later period, the terminus ad quem being the borrowing of the Jewish Pent. by the Samaritan community. That event is usually assigned, though on somewhat precarious grounds, to Nehemiah's second term of office in Judæa (c. 432 B.C.).

Of far greater interest and significance than the date or manner of this final redaction, is the fact that it was called for by the religious feeling of post-Exilic Judaism. Nothing else would have brought about the combination of elements so discordant as the naïve legendary narratives of JE and the systematised history of the Priestly Code. We can hardly doubt that the spirit of the Priestly theology is antipathetic to the older recension of the tradition, or that, if the tendencies represented by the Code had prevailed, the stories which are to us the most precious and edifying parts of the Book of Genesis would have found no place in an authoritative record of God's revelation of Himself to the fathers. But this is not the only instance

* So We. Di. Kit. al.
† So Corn. Ho. al.
in which the spiritual insight of the Church has judged more wisely than the learning of the schools. We know that deeper influences than the legalism and institutionalism of P’s manifesto—necessary as these were in their place—were at work in the post-Exilic community: the individualism of Jeremiah, the universalism of the second Isaiah, the devotion and lyric fervour of the psalmists, and the daring reflexion of the writer of Job. And to these we may surely add the vein of childlike piety which turned aside from the abstractions and formulas of the Priestly document, to find its nutriment in the immortal stories through which God spoke to the heart then, as He speaks to ours to-day.
COMMENTARY.

THE PRIMÆVAL HISTORY.

Chs. I-XI.

It has been shown in the Introduction (p. xxxiii) that the most obvious division of the book of Genesis is into four nearly equal parts, of which the first (chs. 1-11) deals with the Creation of the world, and the history of primitive mankind prior to the call of Abraham. These chapters are composed of excerpts from two of the main sources of the Pent., the Priestly Code, and the Yahwistic document. Attempts have been made from time to time (e.g. by Schrader, Dillmann, and more recently Winckler) to trace the hand of the Elohist in chs. I-11; but the closest examination has failed to produce any substantial evidence that E is represented in the Primitive History at all. By the great majority of critics the non-Priestly traditions in this part of Genesis are assigned to the Yahwistic cycle: that is to say, they are held to have been collected and arranged by the school of rhapsodists to whose literary activity we owe the document known as J.

To the Priests' Code, whose constituents can here be isolated with great certainty and precision, belong: 1. The Cosmogony (1:1-26); 2. The List of Patriarchs from Adam to Noah (5); 3. An account of the Flood (6:9-9:29); 4. A Table of Peoples (10*); 5. The Genealogies of Shem (11:10-26), and Terah (11:27-32*), ending with Abraham. There is no reason to suppose either that the original P contained more than this, or, on the other hand, that P was written to supplement the older tradition, and to be read along with it. It is in accordance with the purpose and tendency of the document that the only events recorded in detail—the Creation and the Flood—are those which inaugurate two successive World-ages or Dispensations, and are associated with the origin of two fundamental observances of Judaism—the Sabbath (2:3), and the sanctity of the blood (9:4f).

In marked contrast to the formalism of this meagre epitome is the

* The asterisk denotes that the passages so marked are interspersed with extracts from another source. The detailed analysis will be found in the commentary on the various sections.

I
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rich variety of life and incident which characterises the Yahwistic sections, viz.: 1. The Creation and Fall of Man (24:3); 2. Cain and Abel (4:16); 3. The Genealogy of Cain (4:17-24); 4. A fragmentary Sethite Genealogy (4:25ff. . . . 5:29 . . . ); 5. The marriages with divine beings (6:14); 6. An account of the Flood (6:5-8:22); 7. Noah’s Curse and Blessing (9:20-27); 8. A Table of Peoples (10:1); 9. The Tower of Babel (11:9); 10. A fragment of the Genealogy of Terah (11:20-30). Here we have a whole gallery of varied and graphic pictures, each complete in itself and essentially independent of the rest, arranged in a loosely chronological order, and with perhaps a certain unity of conception, in so far as they illustrate the increasing wickedness that accompanied the progress of mankind in civilisation. Even the genealogies are not (like those of P) bare lists of names and figures, but preserve incidental notices of new social or religious developments associated with particular personages (4:17, 20-22, 26 5:29), besides other allusions to a more ancient mythology from which the names have been drawn (4:19, 22, 23ff.).

Composition of J.—That a narrative composed of so many separate and originally independent legends should present discrepancies and discontinuities is not surprising, and is certainly by itself no proof of literary diversity. At the same time there are many indications that J is a composite work, based on older collections of Hebrew traditions, whose outlines can still be dimly traced. (1) The existence of two parallel genealogies (Cainite and Sethite) at once suggests a conflate tradition. The impression is raised almost to certainty when we find that both are derived from a common original (p. 138 f.). (2) The Cainite genealogy is incompatible with the Deluge tradition. The shepherds, musicians, and smiths, whose origin is traced to the last three members of the genealogy, are obviously not those of a bygone race which perished in the Flood, but those known to the author and his contemporaries (p. 115 f.). (3) Similarly, the Table of Nations and the story of the Confusion of Tongues imply mutually exclusive explanations of the diversities of language and nationality: in one case the division proceeds slowly and naturally on genealogical lines, in the other it takes place by a sudden interposition of almighty power. (4) There is evidence that the story of the Fall was transmitted in two recensions (p. 52 f.). If Gunkel be right, the same is true of J’s Table of Peoples, and of the account of the Dispersion; but there the analysis is less convincing. (5) In 4:26 we read that Enosh introduced the worship of Yahwe. The analogy of Ex. 6:1f. (P) affords a certain presumption that the author of such a statement will have avoided the name מַנְאִס up to this point; and as a matter of fact מַנְאִס occurs immediately before in v. 26. It is true that the usage is observed in no earlier Yahwistic passage except 3:1-3, where other explanations might be thought of. But throughout chs. 2 and 3 we find the very unusual compound name מַנְאִס מַנְאִס, and it is a plausible conjecture that one recension of the Paradise story was distinguished by the use of Elohim, and that Yahwe was inserted by a harmonising Yahwistic editor (so Bu. Gu. al.: see p. 53).

To what precise extent these phenomena are due to documentary differences is a question that requires to be handled with the utmost caution and discrimination. It is conceivable that a single author
should have compiled a narrative from a number of detached legends which he reported just as he found them, regardless of their internal consistency. Nevertheless, there seems sufficient evidence to warrant the conclusion that (as Wellhausen has said) we have to do not merely with aggregates but with sequences; although to unravel perfectly the various strands of narrative may be a task for ever beyond the resources of literary criticism. Here it will suffice to indicate the principal theories. — (a) We. (Comp.² 9–14) seems to have been the first to perceive that 4¹-16a is a late expansion based (as he supposed) on 4¹6-24 and on chs. 2, 3; that originally chs. 2–4 existed not only without 4¹1-16a, but also without 4²sf. and 5²9; and that chs. 2, 3. 4¹6-24 1¹1-9 form a connexion to which the story of the Flood is entirely foreign and irrelevant. — (b) The analysis was pushed many steps further by Budde (Biblische Urgeschichte, pass.), who, after a most exhaustive and elaborate examination, arrived at the following theory: the primary document (J¹) consisted of 4¹bb-9 16-25 3¹1-19. 2¹ 6² 5²3 4¹. 2b.². 16b. 17-24 6¹.²-4 10² 1¹1-9 9²0-27. This was recast by J² (substituting 2ênN for 5m down to 4²3), whose narrative contained a Cosmogony (but no Paradise story), the Sethite genealogy, the Flood-legend, the Table of Nations, and a seven-membered Shemitic genealogy. These two recensions were then amalgamated by J³, who inserted dislocated passages of J¹ in the connexion of J³, and added 4¹1-15 5²9 etc. J³ attained the dignity of a standard official document, and is the authority followed by P at a later time. The astonishing acumen and thoroughness which characterise Budde's work have had a great influence on critical opinion, yet his ingenious transpositions and reconstructions of the text seem too subtle and arbitrary to satisfy any but a slavish disciple. One feels that he has worked on too narrow a basis by confining his attention to successive overworkings of the same literary tradition, and not making sufficient allowance for the simultaneous existence of relatively independent forms. — (c) Stade (ZATW, xiv. 274 ff. [= Ak. Reden u. Abb. 244–251]) distinguishes three main strata: (1) chs. 2, 3. 1¹1-9; (2) 4²sf. 17-22 9²0-27 10² 6¹.²-²; (3) the Flood-legend, added later to the other two, by a redactor who also compiled a Sethite genealogy (4²sf. . . . 5²9 . . . ) and inserted the story of Cain and Abel, and the Song of Lamech (4²²). — (d) Gunkel (Gen.² 1 ff.) proceeds on somewhat different lines from his predecessors. He refuses in principle to admit incongruity as a criterion of source, and relies on certain verses which bear the character of connecting links between different sections. The most important is 5²9 (belonging to the Sethite genealogy), where we read: "This (Noah) shall comfort us from our labour and from the toil of our hands on account of the ground which Yahwe has cursed." Here there is an unmistakable reference backward to 3²7, and forward to 9²0sf. Thus we obtain a faultless sequence, forming the core of a document where 5m was not used till 4²6, and hence called J⁵, consisting of: one recension of the Paradise story; the (complete) Sethite genealogy; and Noah's discovery of wine. From this sequence are excluded obviously: the second recension of the Paradise story; the Cainite genealogy; and (as Gu. thinks) the Flood-legend, where Noah appears in quite a different character: these belong to a second docu-
ment (J). Again, 9^18f. form a connecting link between the Flood and the Table of Nations; but Gu. distinguishes two Yahwistic strata in the Table of Nations and assigns one to each of his documents: similarly with the section on the Tower of Babel. The legend of Cain and Abel is regarded (with We. Bu. Sta. al.) as an editorial expansion.

In this commentary the analysis of Gu. is adopted in the main; but with the following reservations: (1) The account of the Flood cannot be naturally assigned to J, because of its admitted incompatibility with the assumption of the Cainite genealogy (see above). Gu., indeed, refuses to take such inconsistencies into account; but in that case there is no reason for giving the Flood to J rather than to J'. There is no presumption whatever that only two documents are in evidence; and the chapters in question show peculiarities of language which justify the assumption of a separate source (Sta.), say J'. (2) With the Flood passage goes the Yahwistic Table of Peoples (9^18f.). The arguments for two Yahwists in ch. 10 are hardly decisive; and J at all events had no apparent motive for attaching an ethnographic survey to the name of Noah. (3) Gunkel's analysis of 11^1-9 appears on the whole to be sound; but even so there is no ground for identifying the two components with J and J' respectively. On the contrary, the tone of both recensions has a striking affinity with that of J; note especially (with We.) the close resemblance in form and substance between 11^6 and 3^22. Thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
J &= \frac{3}{10-22} \cdot 24 \cdot 17-24 \cdot 61-4 \cdot 11^1-9; \\
J &= 2^4b-3^1^2^9^4^2^6^2 \cdot 4^9^5^2^3^4 \cdot 5^3^2^8 \cdot 9^3^0^2^7; \\
J &= 65^2^2^2^3^9^1^8^f. \cdot 10^*; \\
J &= 4^1^1^8^*.
\end{align*}
\]

Such constructions, it need hardly be added, are in the highest degree precarious and uncertain; and can only be regarded as tentative explanations of problems for which it is probable that no final solution will be found.


A short Introduction describing the primæval chaos (1^1. 2) is followed by an account of the creation of the world in six days, by a series of eight divine fiats, viz.: (1) the creation of light, and the separation of light from darkness, 3^5; (2) the division of the chaotic waters into two masses, one above and the other below the 'firmament,' 6–8; (3) the separation of land and sea through the collecting of the lower waters into "one place," 9. 10; (4) the clothing of the earth with its mantle of vegetation, 11–13; (5) the formation of the heavenly bodies, 14–19; (6) the peopling of earth with air with fishes and birds, 20–23; (7)
the production of land animals, \(^24, 25\); and (8) the creation of man, \(^26-31\). Finally, the Creator is represented as resting from His works on the seventh day; and this becomes the sanction of the Jewish ordinance of the weekly Sabbath rest \((2^1-3)\).

**Character of the Record.**—It is evident even from this bare outline of its contents that the opening section of Genesis is not a scientific account of the actual process through which the universe originated. It is a world unknown to science whose origin is here described,—the world of antique imagination, composed of a solid expanse of earth, surrounded by and resting on a world-ocean, and surmounted by a vault called the ‘firmament,’ above which again are the waters of a heavenly ocean from which the rain descends on the earth (see on vv.\(^6-8\)).\(^*\) That the writer believed this to be the true view of the universe, and that the narrative expresses his conception of how it actually came into being, we have, indeed, no reason to doubt (Wellhausen, *Prol.*\(^6\) 296). But the fundamental difference of standpoint just indicated shows that whatever the significance of the record may be, it is not a revelation of

\[\text{\* The fact referred to above seems to me to impose an absolute veto on the attempt to harmonise the teaching of the chapter with scientific theory. It may be useful, however, to specify one or two outstanding difficulties of detail. (1) It is recognised by all recent harmonists that the definition of ‘day’ as ‘geological period’ is essential to their theory: it is exegetically indefensible. (2) The creation of sun and moon after the earth, after the alternation of day and night, and even after the appearance of plant-life, are so many scientific impossibilities. (3) Palæontology shows that the origin of vegetable life, if it did not actually follow that of animal life, certainly did not precede it by an interval corresponding to two ‘days.’ (4) The order in which the various living forms are created, the manner in which they are grouped, and their whole development compressed into special periods, are all opposed to geological evidence. For a thorough and impartial discussion of these questions see Driver, *Genesis*, 19-26. It is there shown conclusively, not only that the modern attempts at reconciliation fail, but (what is more important) that the point at issue is not one of science, but simply of exegesis. The facts of science are not in dispute; the only question is whether the language of Genesis will bear the construction which the harmonising scientists find it necessary to put upon it.}\]
physical fact which can be brought into line with the results of modern science. The key to its interpretation must be found elsewhere.

In order to understand the true character of the narrative, we must compare it with the *cosmogonies* which form an integral part of all the higher religions of antiquity. The demand for some rational theory of the origin of the world as known or conceived is one that emerges at a very early stage of culture; and the efforts of the human mind in this direction are observed to follow certain common lines of thought, which point to the existence of a cosmological tradition exerting a widespread influence over ancient speculation on the structure of the universe. There is ample evidence, as will be shown later (below, p. 45 ff.), that the Hebrew thinkers were influenced by such a tradition; and in this fact we find a clue to the inner meaning of the narrative before us. The tradition was plastic, and therefore capable of being moulded in accordance with the genius of a particular religion; at the same time, being a tradition, it retained a residuum of unassimilated material derived from the common stock of cosmological speculation current in the East. What happened in the case of the biblical cosmogony is this: that during a long development within the sphere of Hebrew religion it was gradually stripped of its cruder mythological elements, and transformed into a vehicle for the spiritual ideas which were the peculiar heritage of Israel. It is to the depth and purity of these ideas that the narrative mainly owes that character of sobriety and sublimity which has led many to regard it as the primitive revealed cosmogony, of which all others are grotesque and fantastic variations (Dillmann, p. 10).

The religious significance of this cosmogony lies, therefore, in the fact that in it the monotheistic principle of the Old Testament has obtained classical expression. The great idea of God, first proclaimed in all its breadth and fulness by the second Isaiah during the Exile, is here embodied in a detailed account of the genesis of the universe, which lays
hold of the imagination as no abstract statement of the principle could ever do. The central doctrine is that the world is created,—that it originates in the will of God, a personal Being transcending the universe and existing independently of it. The pagan notion of a Theogony—a generation of the gods from the elementary world-matter—is entirely banished. It is, indeed, doubtful if the representation goes so far as a creatio ex nihilo, or whether a pre-existent chaotic material is postulated (see on v.1); it is certain at least that the kosmos, the ordered world with which alone man has to do, is wholly the product of divine intelligence and volition. The spirituality of the First Cause of all things, and His absolute sovereignty over the material He employs, are further emphasised in the idea of the word of God—the effortless expression of His thought and purpose—as the agency through which each successive effect is produced; and also in the recurrent refrain which affirms that the original creation in each of its parts was 'good,' and as a whole 'very good' (v.31), i.e. that it perfectly reflected the divine thought which called it into existence. The traces of mythology and anthropomorphism which occur in the body of the narrative belong to the traditional material on which the author operated, and do not affect his own theological standpoint, which is defined by the doctrines just enumerated. When to these we add the doctrine of man, as made in the likeness of God, and marked out as the crown and goal of creation, we have a body of religious truth which distinguishes the cosmogony of Genesis from all similar compositions, and entitles it to rank among the most important documents of revealed religion.

The Framework.—The most noteworthy literary feature of the record is the use of a set of stereotyped formulae, by which the separate acts of creation are reduced as far as possible to a common expression. The structure of this 'framework' (as it may be called) is less uniform than might be expected, and is much more regular in 2 than in MT. It is impossible to decide how far the irregularities are due to the original writer, and how far to errors of transmission. Besides the possibility of accident, we have to allow on the one hand for the natural tendency
of copyists to rectify apparent anomalies, and on the other hand for deliberate omissions, intended to bring out sacred numbers in the occurrences of the several formulæ.*

The facts are of some importance, and may be summarised here: (a) The fiat (And God said, Let . . .) introduces (both in MT and Gr) each of the eight works of creation (vv. 5, 6, 8, 11, 14, 20, 24, 28). (b) And it was so occurs literally 6 times in MT, but virtually 7 times: i.e. in connection with all the works except the sixth (vv. 8, 9, 11, 15, 24, 26); in Gr also in v. 20. (c) The execution of the fiat (And God made . . .—with variations) is likewise recorded 6 times in MT and 7 times in Gr (vv. 7. [9], 12. 16. 21. 26. 27). (d) The sentence of divine approval (And God saw that it was good) is pronounced over each work—except the second (in Gr there also), though in the last instance with a significant variation: see vv. 4. [5]. 10. 12. 18. 21. 24. 31. (e) The naming of the objects created (And God called . . .) is peculiar to the three acts of separation (vv. 5. 8. 10). (f) And God blessed . . . (3 times) is said of the sixth and eighth works and of the Sabbath day (vv. 22. 26 29). (g) The division into days is marked by the closing formula, And it was evening, etc., which, of course, occurs 6 times (vv. 5. 8. 12. 19. 28. 31), being omitted after the third and seventh works.

The occurrence of the יזanh before the execution of the fiat produces a redundancy which may be concealed but is not removed by substituting so for and in the translation (So God made, etc.). When we observe further that in 5 cases out of the 6 (in Gr 5 out of 7) the execution is described as a work, that the correspondence between fiat and fulfilment is often far from complete, and finally that 2nd seems a duplicate of 2, the question arises whether all these circumstances do not point to a literary manipulation, in which the conception of creation as a series of fiats has been superimposed on another conception of it as a series of works. The observation does not carry us very far, since no analysis of sources can be founded on it; but it is perhaps a slight indication of what is otherwise probable, viz. that the cosmogony was not the free composition of a single mind, but reached its final form through the successive efforts of many writers (see below).†

The Seven Days' Scheme.—The distribution of the eight works over six days has appeared to many critics (Ilgen, Ewald, Schrader, We. Di. Bu. Gu. al.) a modification introduced in the interest of the Sabbath law, and at variance with the original intention of the cosmogony. Before entering on that question, it must be pointed out that

* A familiar instance is the 'ten sayings' of Pirke Aboth, 5, 1: "כְּגוּלָה יָדוֹת אָבָּהּ", where the number 10 is arrived at by adding to the 8 fiats the two other occurrences of רָאוּפִּי in MT (vv. 28, 29).

† See, now, Sta. BTh. i. 349 and Schwally in ARW, ix. 159-175, which have appeared since the above paragraph was written. Both writers point out the twofold conception of the creation which runs through the chapter; and Schwally makes out a strong case for the composition of the passage from two distinct recensions of the cosmogony.
the adjustment of days to works proceeds upon a clear principle, and results in a symmetrical arrangement. Its effect is to divide the creative process into two stages, each embracing four works and occupying three days, the last day of each series having two works assigned to it. There is, moreover, a remarkable, though not perfect, parallelism between the two great divisions. Thus the first day is marked by the creation of light, and the fourth by the creation of the heavenly bodies, which are expressly designated ‘light-bearers’; on the second day the waters which afterwards formed the seas are isolated and the space between heaven and earth is formed, and so the fifth day witnesses the peopling of these regions with their living denizens (fishes and fowls); on the third day the dry land emerges, and on the sixth terrestrial animals and man are created. And it is hardly accidental that the second work of the third day (trees and grasses) corresponds to the last appointment of the sixth day, by which these products are assigned as the food of men and animals. Broadly speaking, therefore, we may say that “the first three days are days of preparation, the next three are days of accomplishment” (Dri. Gen. 2). Now whether this arrangement belongs to the original conception of the cosmogony, or at what stage it was introduced, are questions very difficult to answer. Nothing at all resembling it has as yet been found in Babylonian documents; for the division into seven tablets of the Enuma elis series has no relation to the seven days of the biblical account.* If therefore a Babylonian origin is assumed, it seems reasonable to hold that the scheme of days is a Hebrew addition; and in that case it is hard to believe that it can have been introduced without a primary reference to the distinctively Israelitish institution of the weekly Sabbath. It then only remains to inquire whether we can go behind the present seven days’ scheme, and discover in the narrative evidence of an earlier arrangement which either ignored the seven days altogether, or had them in a form different from what we now find.

The latter position is maintained by We. (Comp. 2 187 ff.), who holds that the scheme of days is a secondary addition to the framework as it came from the hand of its Priestly author (Q). In the original cosmogony of Q a division into seven days was recognised, but in a different form from what now obtains; it was moreover not carried through in detail, but merely indicated by the statement of 2 that God finished His work on the seventh day. The key to the primary arrangement he finds in the formula of approval, the absence of which after the second work he explains by the consideration that the separation of the upper waters from the lower and of the lower from the dry land form really but one work, and were so regarded by Q. Thus the seven works of creation were (1) separation of light from darkness; (2) separation of waters (vv. 6-10); (3) creation of plants; (4) luminaries; (5) fish and fowl; (6) land animals; (7) man. The statement that God finished His work on the seventh day We. considers

* See below, p. 43 ff. On the other hand there are Persian and Etruscan analogies; see p. 50.
to be inconsistent with a six days’ creation, and also with the view that
the seventh was a day of rest; hence in ch. 2, he deletes 2b and 3b,
and reads simply: “and God finished His work which He made on the
seventh day, and God blessed the seventh day and sanctified it.”—
This theory has been subjected to a searching criticism by Bu.
(Urgesch. 487 ff.; cf. also Di. 15), who rightly protests against the
subsuming of the creation of heaven and that of land and sea under
one rubric as a ‘separation of waters,’ and gets rid of the difficulty
presented by 2a by reading sixth instead of seventh (see on the verse).
Bu. urges further that the idea of the Sabbath as a day on which
work might be done is one not likely to have been entertained in the
circles from which the Priestly Code emanated,* and also (on the
ground of Ex. 2011) that the conception of a creation in six days followed
by a divine Sabbath rest must have existed in Israel long before the
age of that document.—It is to be observed that part of Bu.’s argument
(which as a whole seems to me valid against the specific form of the
theory advanced by We.) only pushes the real question a step further
back; and Bu. himself, while denying that the seven days’ scheme
is secondary to P, agrees with Ew. Di. and many others in thinking
that there was an earlier Hebrew version of the cosmogony in which that
scheme did not exist.

The improbability that a disposition of the cosmogony in eight
works should have obtained currency in Hebrew circles without an
attempt to bring it into some relation with a sacred number has been
urged in favour of the originality of the present setting (Holzinger, 23 f.).
That argument might be turned the other way; for the very fact that
the number 8 has been retained in spite of its apparent arbitrariness
suggests that it had some traditional authority behind it. Other
objections to the originality of the present scheme are: (a) the juxta-
position of two entirely dissimilar works under the third day; (b) the
separation of two closely related works on the second and third days;
(c) the alternation of day and night introduced before the existence of
the planets by which their sequence is regulated (thus far Di. 15), and
(d) the unnatural order of the fourth and fifth works (plants before
heavenly bodies). These objections are not all of equal weight; and
explanations more or less plausible have been given of all of them.
But on the whole the evidence seems to warrant the conclusions: that
the series of works and the series of days are fundamentally incon-
gruous, that the latter has been superimposed on the former during the
Heb. development of the cosmogony, that this change is responsible for
some of the irregularities of the disposition, and that it was introduced
certainly not later than P, and in all probability long before his time.

Source and Style.—As has been already hinted, the section belongs
to the Priestly Code (P). This is the unanimous opinion of all critics
who accept the documentary analysis of the Hexateuch, and it is
abundantly proved both by characteristic words and phrases, and
general features of style. Expressions characteristic of P are (be-
sides the divine name אלוהים (see on v.1), היות משועשע דב רוח הקב”ה

* See Jerome’s polemical note, in Quæst., ad loc.
I. 1—II. 3

["ת"技术研发] 24. 25. 30, "ת"技术研发 29. 30, "ת"技术研发 11. 12. 21. 24. 25, ות"技术研发 10, "ת"技术研发 22. 25, "ת"技术研发 21. 24. 25. 28. 28. 30, ות"技术研发 20. 21, and ות"技术研发 24a.—Comp. the lists in Di. p. 1; Gu. p. 107, and OH, i. 208-220; and for details see the Commentary below.—Of even greater value as a criterion of authorship is the unmistakable literary manner of the Priestly historian. The orderly disposition of material, the strict adherence to a carefully thought out plan, the monotonous repetition of set phraseology, the aim at exact classification and definition, and generally the subordination of the concrete to the formal elements of composition: these are all features of the ‘juristic’ style cultivated by this school of writers,—"it is the same spirit that has shaped Gn. 1 and Gn. 5" (Gu.).—On the artistic merits of the passage very diverse judgments have been pronounced. Gu., whose estimate is on the whole disparaging, complains of a lack of poetic enthusiasm and picturesqueoness of conception, poorly compensated for by a marked predilection for method and order. It is hardly fair to judge a prose writer by the requirements of poetry; and even a critic so little partial to P as We. is impressed by "the majestic repose and sustained grandeur" of the narrative, especially of its incomparable exordium (Prol. 6 297). To deny to a writer capable of producing this impression all sense of literary effect is unreasonable; and it is perhaps near the truth to say that though the style of P may, in technical descriptions or enumerations, degenerate into a pedantic mannerism (see an extreme case in Nu. 7), he has found here a subject suited to his genius, and one which he handles with consummate skill. It is a bold thing to desiderate a treatment more worthy of the theme, or more impressive in effect, than we find in the severely chiselled outlines and stately cadences of the first chapter of Genesis.

In speaking of the style of P it has to be borne in mind that we are dealing with the literary tradition of a school rather than with the idiosyncrasy of an individual. It has, indeed, often been asserted that this particular passage is obviously the composition 'at one heat' of a single writer; but that is improbable. If the cosmogony rests ultimately on a Babylonian model, it "must have passed through a long period of naturalisation in Israel, and of gradual assimilation to the spirit of Israel's religion before it could have reached its present form" (Dri. Gen. 31). All, therefore, that is necessarily implied in what has just been said is that the later stages of that process must have taken place under the auspices of the school of P, and that its work has entered very deeply into the substance of the composition.—Of the earlier stages we can say little except that traces of them remain in those elements which do not agree with the ruling ideas of the last editors. Bu. has sought to prove that the story had passed through the school of J before being adopted by that of P; that it was in fact the form into which the cosmogony had been thrown by the writer called J². Of direct evidence for that hypothesis (such as would be supplied by allusions to Gn. 1 in other parts of J²) there is none: it is an inference deduced mainly from these premises: (1) that the creation story shows traces of overworking which presuppose the existence of an older Heb. recension; (2) that in all other sections of the prehistoric
tradition P betrays his dependence on J²; and (3) that J² in turn is markedly dependent on Babylonian sources (see Urgesch. 463-496, and the summary on p. 491 f.). Even if all these observations be well founded, it is obvious that they fall far short of a demonstration of Bu.'s thesis. It is a plausible conjecture so long as we assume that little was written beyond what we have direct or indirect evidence of (cf. 463²); but when we realise how little is known of the diffusion of literary activity in ancient Israel, the presumption that J² was the particular writer who threw the Hebrew cosmogony into shape becomes very slender indeed.

I. We are confronted at the outset by a troublesome question of syntax which affects the sense of every member of v.¹. While all ancient Vns. and many moderns take the verse as a complete sentence, others (following Rashi and Ibn Ezra) treat it as a temporal clause, subordinate either to v.³ (Rashi, and so most) or v.² (Ibn Ezra, apparently). On the latter view the verse will read: In the beginning of God's creating the heavens and the earth: נְשַׁנָּה being in the const. state, followed by a clause as gen. (cf. Is. 29¹, Hos. 1² etc.; and see G–K. § 130 d; Dav. § 25). In a note below reasons are given for preferring this construction to the other; but a decision is difficult, and in dealing with

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¹—נְשַׁנָּה The form is probably contracted from נְשַׁנָה (cf. נְשַׁנָּת), and therefore not derived directly from נְשַׁנָּה. It signifies primarily the first (or best) part of a thing: Gn. 10¹⁰ ('nucleus'), 49⁴ ('first product'), Dt. 33²³, Am. 6⁶ etc. (On its ritual sense as the first part of crops, etc., see Gray's note, Num. 226 ff.). From this it easily glides into a temporal sense, as the first stage of a process or series of events: Ho. 9¹⁰ ('in its first stage'), Dt. 11¹² (of the year), Jb. 8⁷ 46¹⁹ (a man's life), Is. 46¹⁰ (starting point of a series), etc. We. (Prov. 8 386) has said that Dt. 11¹² is the earliest instance of the temporal sense; but the distinction between 'first part' and 'temporal beginning' is so impalpable that not much importance can be attached to the remark. It is of more consequence to observe that at no period of the language does the temporal sense go beyond the definition already given, viz. the first stage of a process, either explicitly indicated or clearly implied. That being so, the prevalent determinate construction becomes intelligible. That in its ceremonial sense the word should be used absolutely was to be expected (so Lv. 2¹² [Nu. 18¹²] Neh. 15⁴⁴; with these may be taken also Dt. 33²³). In its temporal applications it is always defined by gén. or suff. except in Is. 46¹⁰, where the antithesis to נְשַׁנָּה inevitably suggests the intervening series of which 'ת is the initial phase. It is therefore doubtful if נְשַׁנָּה could be used of an absolute beginning detached from its sequel, or of an indefinite past, like נְשַׁנָּה or נְשַׁנָּה (see Is. 1²⁸, Gn. 1³).—This brings us to the question of
v.¹ it is necessary to leave the alternative open.—In the beginning] If the clause be subordinate the reference of ἡ ἀρχή is defined by what immediately follows, and no further question arises. But if it be an independent statement beginning is used absolutely (as in Jn. ¹), and two interpretations become possible: (a) that the verse asserts the creation (ex nihilo) of the primæval chaos described in v.²; or (b) that it summarises the whole creative process narrated in the chapter. The former view has prevailed in Jewish and Christian theology, and is still supported by the weighty authority of We. But (i) it is not in accordance with the usage of ἡ ἀρχή (see below); (ii) it is not required by the word 'create,—a created chaos is perhaps a contradiction (Is. ⁴⁵ 18 ἡ ἀρχή γέγονεν), and We. himself

syntax. Three constructions have been proposed: (a) v.¹ an independent sentence (all Vns. and the great majority of comm., including Calv. De. Tu. We. Dri.). In sense this construction (taking the verse as superscription) is entirely free from objection: it yields an easy syntax, and a simple and majestic opening. The absence of the art. tells against it, but is by no means decisive. At most it is a matter of pointing, and the sporadic Greek transliterations Βαρνση (Field, Hexap.), and Βαρνση (Lagarde, Ankünd. 5), alongside of Βαρνση, may show that in ancient times the first word was sometimes read 'ה. Even the Mass. pointing does not necessarily imply that the word was meant as const.; 'ה is never found with art., and De. has well pointed out that the stereotyped use or omission of art. with certain words is governed by a subtle linguistic sense which eludes our analysis (e.g. וֹּאֶה, וֹּא, וֹּאֶה: cf. Kön. S. § 294 g). The construction seems to me, however, opposed to the essentially relative idea of 'ה,—its express reference to that of which it is the beginning (see above). (b) v.¹ protasis: v.² parenthesis: v.³ apodosis;—When God began to create . . .—now the earth was . . .—God said, Let there be light. So Ra. Ew. Di.* Ho. Gu. al.—practically all who reject (a). Although first appearing explicitly in Ra. († ¹), it has been argued that this represents the old Jewish tradition, and that (a) came in under

* Who, however, considers the present text to be the result of a redactional operation. Originally the place of v.¹ was occupied by ²a in its correct form: לא ולא הוא והשנית והאותי קרפיון אד אולם. When this was transposed it was necessary to frame a new introduction, and in the hands of the editor it assumed the form of v.¹ (similarly, Sta. BTh. i. 349). I am unable to adopt this widely accepted view of the original position of ²a (see on the verse), and Di.'s intricate hypothesis would seem to me an additional argument against it.
admits that it is a remarkable conception; and (3) it is excluded by the object of that verb: the heavens and the earth. For though that phrase is a Hebrew designation of the universe as a whole, it is only the organised universe, not the chaotic material out of which it was formed, that can naturally be so designated. The appropriate name for chaos is 'the earth' (v.²); the representation being a chaotic earth from which the heavens were afterwards made (cfr.). The verse therefore (if an independent sentence at all) must be taken as an introductory heading to the rest of the chapter. *—God created.] The verb סְבוּע contains the central idea of the passage. It is partly synonymous with סִבְעַי (cf. vv.²¹, ²⁷ with ²⁵), but ²³ shows that it had a specific shade of meaning. The idea cannot be defined with precision, but the influence of Εδ from a desire to exclude the idea of an eternal chaos preceding the creation.† But the fact that Εδ agrees with Εδ militates against that opinion. The one objection to (b) is the 'verzweifelt geschmacklose Construction' (We.) which it involves. It is replied (Gu. al) that such openings may have been a traditional feature of creation stories, being found in several Bab. accounts, as well as in Gn. ²⁴b-⁶. In any case a lengthy parenthesis is quite admissible in good prose style (see ¹ Sa. ³²a-b ³, with Dri. Notes, ad loc.), and may be safely assumed here if there be otherwise sufficient grounds for adopting it. The clause as gen. is perfectly regular, though it would be easy to substitute inf. סְבוּע (mentioned but not recommended by Ra.).

(c) A third view, which perhaps deserves more consideration than it has received, is to take v.¹ as protasis and v.² as apodosis, 'When God began to create the heavens and the earth, the earth was, etc.' (¹Ez. ? but see Cheyne, in Hebr. ii. 50). So far as sense goes the sequence is eminently satisfactory; the רָצוֹן of v.³ is more natural as a continuation of v.² than of v.¹. The question is whether the form of v.² permits its being construed as apod. The order of words (subj. before pred.) is undoubtedly that proper to the circumst. cl. (Dri. T. § 157; Dav. § 138 (c)); but there is no absolute rule against an apod, assuming this form after a time-determination (see Dri. T. § 78).

* The view that v.¹ describes an earlier creation of heaven and earth, which were reduced to chaos and then re-fashioned, needs no refutation.

† See Geiger, Urschr. 344, 439, 444. The Mechilta (on Ex. ¹z ⁴⁰: Winter and Wünsche's Germ. transl. p. 48) gives v.¹ as one of thirteen instances of things 'written for King Ptolemy'; and Gei. infers that the change was deliberately made for the reason mentioned. The reading alleged by Mech. is וַיְהִי בָּאָרָם מִצְבָּא, which gives the sense but not the order of Εδ. The other variations given are only partly verified by our texts of Εδ; see on ¹²⁶f. ²² ¹¹ ¹³ ⁴⁹⁵.
the following points are to be noted: (a) The most important fact is that it is used exclusively of divine activity—a restriction to which perhaps no parallel can be found in other languages (see We. ProL 304). (b) The idea of novelty (Is. 486, 4120 65171, Jer. 3121) or extraordinariness (Ex. 3410, Nu. 1630 [J]) of result is frequently implied, and it is noteworthy that this is the case in the only two passages of certainly early date where the word occurs. (c) It is probable also that it contains the idea of effortless production (such as befits the Almighty) by word or volition* (Ps. 339). (d) It is obvious (from this chapter and many passages) that the sense stops short of creatio ex nihilo, an idea first explicitly occurring in 2 Mac. 28.) At the same time the facts just stated, and the further circumstance that the word is always used with acc. of product and never of material, constitute a long advance towards the full theological doctrine, and make the word 'create' a suitable vehicle for it.

Close parallels (for it is hard to see that the ' makes any essential difference) are Gn. 710 (J), 221 (E), or (with impf.), Lv. 716b (P). The construction is not appreciably harsher than in the analogous case of 2, where it has been freely adopted.— enters fully into OT usage only on the eve of the Exile. Apart from three critically dubious passages (Am. 419, Is. 45, Jer. 3121), its first emergence in prophecy is in Ezk. (3 times); it is specially characteristic of II Is. (20 times), in P 10 times, and in other late passages 8 times. The proof of pre-exilic use rests on Ex. 3410, Nu. 1630 (J), Dt. 429. There is no reason to doubt that it belongs to the early language; what can be fairly said is that at the Exile the thought of the divine creation of the world became prominent in the prophetic theology, and that for this reason the term which expressed it technically obtained a currency it had not previously enjoyed. The primary idea is uncertain. It is commonly regarded as the root of a Piel meaning 'cut,' hence 'form by cutting,' 'carve,' 'fashion,' (Ar. bare), Phoen. ' [CIS, i. 347*]: see BDB, s.v.; Lane, Lex. 107 b; Lidzbarski, NS Epigr. 244 (with ?); but the evidence of the connexion is very slight. The only place where could mean 'carve' is Ezk. 2124 bis; and there the text is almost certainly corrupt (see Corn., Toy, Kraetschmar, ad loc.). Elsewhere it means 'cut

* The same thought was associated by the Babylonians with their word banâ (see phil. note); but the association seems accidental; and its significance is exaggerated by Gu. when he says 'the idea of creation is that man may form with his hands, the god brings to pass through his word' (Schöpf. 23). Banâ is quite synonymous with épîsh (make), and is not restricted to the divine activity.
2. Description of Chaos.—It is perhaps impossible to unite the features of the description in a single picture, but the constitutive elements of the notion of chaos appear to be Confusion (חָוָס), Darkness, and Water (מֵי). The weird effect of the language is very impressive. On the syntax, see above. —[waste and void] The exact meaning of this alliterative phrase—תֹּהוּ וּבֹהוּ—is difficult to make out. The words are nouns; the connotation of הָוָה ranges from the concrete ‘desert’ to the abstract ‘nonentity’; while הָוָה possibly means ‘emptiness’ (v.i.). The exegetical tendency has been to emphasise the latter aspect, and approximate to the Greek notion of chaos as empty

down’ (Ezk. 23:47) or ‘clear ground by hewing down trees’ (Jos. 17:15. 18 [J])—a sense as remote as possible from fashion or make (Di., G-B. s.v.; We. Prol. 6 387). The Ar. bara’a (used chiefly of creation of animate beings) is possibly borrowed from Heb. Native philologists connect it, very unnaturally, with bar’a, ‘be free’; so that ‘create’ means to liberate (from the clay, etc.) (Lane, 178 b, c): Di.’s view is similar. Barth (ZA, iii. 58) has proposed to identify הָוָה (through mutation of liquids) with the Ass. vb. for ‘create,’ banû; but rejects the opinion that the latter is the common Semitic הָוָה ‘build’ (KAT 3, 498), with which הָוָה alternates in Sabæan (Müller in ZDMG, xxxvii. 413, 415).

2. הָוָה הָוָה] θῦ ὀίρωσο καὶ ὄφατος ὀφαῖτος; Αχ. κένωμα κ. οὐδέν; Σ. ἀργὸν κ. ἀδιάκριτον; Θ. θεόν (οὐδὲν) καὶ οὐδέν; Φ. ἐναίνεις καὶ μακάμα; Ε ἀσκία τις ἀνία ('desolate and empty'); Σ ἄραμα ἀνόμα. The fragmentary Jer. Tg. has a double trans.: ‘And the earth was אֶפֶם אֲרָם אָרֶם, and (cf. Ε) desolate from the sons of men, and empty of work.’ הָוָה occurs along with הָוָה in Jer. 4:28, Is. 34:11; הָוָה alone in 17 pass. besides. The meaning varies between two extremes: (a) a (trackless) desert (Jb. 12:24 [=Ps. 107:40] 618, Dt. 32:10), and (b) unsubstanciality (ἔως ἄραν, IEz.) or ‘nonentity,’ a sense all but peculiar to II Is. (also 1 Sa. 12:21, and perhaps Is. 29:21), but very frequent there. The primary idea is uncertain. It is perhaps easier on the whole to suppose that the abstract sense of ‘formlessness,’ or the like, gave rise to a poetic name for desert, than that the concrete ‘desert’ passed over into the abstract ‘formlessness’; but we have no assurance that either represents the actual development of the idea. It seems not improbable that the OT usage is entirely based on the traditional description of the primæval chaos, and that the word had no definite connotation in Heb., but was used to express any conception naturally associated with the idea of chaos—‘formlessness,’ ‘confusion, ‘unreality,’ etc.—וֹדֶה (never found apart from הָוָה) may be connected with בָּהִיָּה = ‘be empty’; though Ar. is hardly a safe guide in the case of a word with a long history behind it. The identification with Baav, the mother of the first man in Phœn. mythology (see p. 49 f.), is
space (Gu.). But our safest guide is perhaps Jeremiah's vision of Chaos-come-again (4:23–26), which is simply that of a darkened and devastated earth, from which life and order have fled. The idea here is probably similar, with this difference, that the distinction of land and sea is effaced, and the earth, which is the subj. of the sentence, must be understood as the amorphous watery mass in which the elements of the future land and sea were commingled.—**Darkness** (an almost invariable feature of ancient conceptions of chaos) was upon the face of the Deep]. The Deep (תֵּהָם) is the subterranean ocean on which the earth rests (Gn. 7:11 8:2 49:25, Am. 7:4 etc.); which, therefore, before the earth was formed, lay bare and open to the superincumbent darkness. In the Babylonian Creation-myth the primal chaos is personified under the name Ti'amat. The Heb. narrative is free from mythological associations, and it is doubtful if even a trace of personification lingers in the name **דֹּם**. In Babylonian, *ti'amatu* or *tāmtu* is a generic term for 'ocean'; and it is conceivable that this literal sense may be the origin of the Heb. conception of the Deep (see p. 47).—**The Spirit of God was brooding**] not, as has sometimes been supposed, a wind sent from God to dry probable.—**דֹּם**] is undoubtedly the philological equivalent of Bab. Ti'amat: a connexion with Ar. Tihāmat, the Red Sea littoral province (Hoffmann in ZATW, iii. 118), is more dubious (see Lane, 320b, c; Jensen, *KIB*, vi. 1, 560). In early Heb. the word is rare, and always (with poss. exception of Ex. 15:8) denotes the subterranean ocean, which is the source from which earthly springs and fountains are fed (Gn. 49:25, Dt. 33:18, Am. 7:4, and so Dt. 8:7, Gn. 7:11 8:2 (P); cf. Hom. II. xxxi. 195), and is a remnant of the primal chaos (Gn. 1:2, Ps. 104:6, Pr. 8:27). In later writings it is used of the sea (pl. seas), and even of torrents of water (Ps. 42:8); but, the passages being poetic, there is probably always to be detected a reference to the world-ocean, either as source of springs, or as specialised in earthly oceans (see Ezk. 26:9). Though the word is almost confined to poetry (except Gn. 1:2 7:11 8:3, Dt. 8:7, Am. 7:4), the only clear cases of personification are Gn. 49:25, Dt. 33:18 (Tēhôm that coucheth beneath). The invariable absence of the art. (except with pl. in Ps. 106:9, Is. 63:13) proves that it is a proper name, but not that it is a personification (cf. the case of הִים). On the other hand, it is noteworthy that **דֹּם**, unlike most Heb. names of fluids, is fem., becoming occasionally masc. only in later times when its primary sense had been forgotten (cf. Albrecht, ZATW, xvi. 62): this might be
up the waters (<User:AI-generated-text>), but the divine Spirit, figured as a bird brooding over its nest (and perhaps symbolising an immanent principle of life and order in the as yet undeveloped chaos.) Comp. Milton, Paradise Lost, i. 19 ff., vii. 233 ff. It is remarkable, however, if this be the idea, that no further effect is given to it in the sequel. (1) The idea of the Spirit as formative principle of the kosmos, while in the line of the OT doctrine that he is the source of life (Ps. 33:10, 104:25), yet goes much beyond the ordinary representation, and occurs only here (possibly Is. 40:13). (2) The image conveyed by the word brooding (תּוָּלָד) is generally considered to rest on the widespread cosmogonic speculation of the world-egg (so even De. and Di.), in which the organised world was as it were hatched from the fluid chaos. (If so, we have here a fragment of mythology not vitally connected with the main idea of the narrative, but introduced for the sake of its religious suggestiveness.) In the source from which this myth was borrowed the brooding power might be a bird-like deity* (Gu.), or an abstract principle like the Greek ἐρως, the Phoen. IIóθος, etc.: for this the Heb. writer, true to his monotheistic faith, substitutes the Spirit of God, and thereby transforms a "crude material representation ... into a beautiful and suggestive figure" (Dri. Gen. 5).

due to an original female personification.—תּוָּלָד Gk. Vns. and א express merely the idea of motion (ἐπεφέρετο, ἐπιφέρεκεν, ferebatur); תּוָּלָד (‘blow’ or ‘breathe’); ס לָמוּד. Jerome (Quest.): “incubabat sive confovebat in similitudinem volucris ova calore animantis.” It is impossible to say whether ‘brood’ or ‘hover’ is the exact image here, or in Dt. 32:11,—the only other place where the Pi. occurs (the Qal in Jer. 23:9 may be a separate root). The Syriac vb. has great latitude of meaning; it describes, e.g., the action of Elisha in laying himself on the body of the dead child (2 Ki. 4:24); and is used of angels hovering over the dying Virgin. It is also applied to a waving of the hands (or of fans) in certain ecclesiastical functions, etc. (see Payne Smith, Thes. 3886).

* In Polynesian mythology the supreme god Tangaloa is often represented as a bird hovering over the waters (Waitz- Gerland, Anthrop. vi. 241).
The conceptions of chaos in antiquity fluctuate between that of empty space (Hesiod, Arist. Lucr., etc.) and the 'rudis indigestaque moles' of Ovid (Met. i. 7). The Babylonian representation embraces the elements of darkness and water, and there is no doubt that this is the central idea of the Genesis narrative. It is singular, however, that of the three clauses of v. only the second (which includes the two elements mentioned) exercises any influence on the subsequent description (for on any view the 'waters' of the third must be identical with the Tēhôm of the second). It is possible, therefore, that the verse combines ideas drawn from diverse sources which are not capable of complete synthesis. Only on this supposition would it be possible to accept Gu.'s interpretation of the first clause as a description of empty space. In that case the earth is probably not inclusive of, but contrasted with, Tēhôm: it denotes the space now occupied by the earth, which being empty leaves nothing but the deep and the darkness.

3-5. First work: Creation of light. — [And] God said] On the connexion, see above, pp. 13 ff.; and on the significance of the fiat, p. 7. — Let there be light] The thought of light as the first creation, naturally suggested by the phenomenon of the dawn, appears in several cosmogonies; but is not expressed in any known form of the Babylonian legend. There the creator, being the sun-god, is in a manner identified with the primal element of the kosmos; and the antithesis of light and darkness is dramatised as a conflict between the god and the Chaos monster. In Persian cosmogony also, light, (as the sphere in which Mazda dwells,) is uncreated and eternal (Tiele, Gesch. d. Rel. ii. 295 f.). In Is. 45 both light and darkness are creations of Yahwe, but that is certainly not the idea here. Comp. Milton’s Parad. Lost, iii. 1 ff.:

“Hail, holy Light! offspring of heaven first-born;
Or, of the Eternal co-eternal beam,” etc.

4. saw that the light was good] The formula of approval does not extend to the darkness, nor even to the coexistence of light and darkness, but is restricted to the light. “‘Good’ expresses the contrast of God’s work to the chaos of which darkness is an element. Gu. goes too far in suggesting that the expression covers a ‘strong anthropomorphism’

3. הָאָדוֹן הָיָה הָיָה אָדָם corresponds to the יִתְרוֹ הָיָה of subsequent acts.—4. דִּבְרֵי עוֹד
(the possibility of failure, happily overcome). But he rightly calls attention to the bright view of the world implied in the series of approving verdicts, as opposed to the pessimistic estimate which became common in later Judaism.—And God divided, etc.] To us these words merely suggest alternation in time; but Heb. conceives of a spatial distinction of light and darkness, each in its own 'place' or abode (Jb. 38:19). Even the separate days and nights of the year seem thought of as having independent and continuous existence (Jb. 3:6).

The Heb. mind had thus no difficulty in thinking of the existence of light before the heavenly bodies. The sun and moon rule the day and night, but light and darkness exist independently of them. It is a mistake, however, to compare this with the scientific hypothesis of a cosmical light diffused through the nebula from which the solar system was evolved. It is not merely light and darkness, but day and night, and even the alternation of evening and morning (v. 8), that are represented as existing before the creation of the sun.

5. And God called, etc.] The name—that by which the thing is summoned into the field of thought—belongs to the full existence of the thing itself. So in the first line of the Babylonian account, "the heaven was not yet named" means that it did not yet exist.—And it became evening, etc.] Simple as the words are, the sentence presents some difficulty, which is not removed by the supposition that the writer follows the Jewish custom of reckoning the day from

with attracted obj.; see G-K. § 117k; Dav. § 146.—5. 61 in popular parlance denotes the period between dawn and dark, and is so used in 6a. When it became necessary to deal with the 24-hours' day, it was most natural to connect the night with the preceding period of light, reckoning, i.e., from sunrise to sunrise; and this is the prevailing usage of OT (ונָּבִית). In post-exilic times we find traces of the reckoning from sunset to sunset in the phrase וֹנָּבִית (ωράθμερον), Is. 27:8, 34:10, Est. 4:14. P regularly employs the form 'day and night'; and if Lv. 23:28 can be cited as a case of the later reckoning, Ex. 12:18 is as clearly in favour of the older (see Marti, EB, 1036; König, ZDMG, 1x. 605 ff.). There is therefore no presumption in favour of the less natural method in this passage.—בְּכָל [Mil'el] to avoid concurrence of two accented syll.—בְּכָל (also Mil'el) a reduplicated form (מִלְּא; cf. Aram. מִלְּא); see Noëdeke, Mand. Gr. § 109; Prätorius, ZATW, iii. 218; Kön. ii. § 52 c.—כֹּל לִי 'a first day,' or perhaps better 'one day.' On כֹּל as ord. see G-K. §§ 98 a, 134 p; Dav. § 38, R. 1; but cf. Wellh. Proh. 387.
sunrise to sunset (Tu. Gu. Ben. etc.). The Jewish day may have begun at sunset, but it did not end at sunrise; and it is impossible to take the words as meaning that the evening and morning *formed* the first (second, etc.) day. Moreover, there could be no evening before the day on which light was created. The sentence must refer to the *close* of the first day with the first evening and the night that followed, leading the mind forward to the advent of a new day, and a new display of creative power (De. Di. Ho. al.). One must not overlook the majestic simplicity of the statement.

The interpretation of מ as *eon*, a favourite resource of harmonists of science and revelation, is opposed to the plain sense of the passage, and has no warrant in Heb. usage (not even Ps. 90^4). It is true that the conception of successive creative periods, extending over vast spaces of time, is found in other cosmogonies (De. 55); but it springs in part from views of the world which are foreign to the OT. To introduce that idea here not only destroys the analogy on which the sanction of the sabbath rests, but misconceives the character of the Priestly Code. If the writer had had aeons in his mind, he would hardly have missed the opportunity of stating how many millenniums each embraced.

6–8. Second work: The firmament.—The second fiat calls into existence a *firmament*, whose function is to divide the primæval waters into an upper and lower ocean, leaving a space between as the theatre of further creative developments. The "firmament" is the dome of heaven, which to the ancients was no optical illusion, but a material structure, sometimes compared to an "upper chamber" (Ps. 104^13, Am. 9^6) supported by "pillars" (Jb. 26^11), and resembling in its surface a "molten mirror" (Jb. 37^18). Above this are the heavenly waters, from which the rain descends through "windows" or "doors" (Gn. 7^11 8^, 2 Ki. 7^2.19) opened and shut by God at His pleasure (Ps. 78^23). The general idea of a forcible separation of heaven and earth

6. מץ] (Gr. στρέψαμα, L firmamentum) a word found only in Ezek., P, Ps. 19^2 150^1, Dn. 12^3. The absence of art. shows that it is a descriptive term, though the only parallels to such a use would be Ezk. 1^22f. 28^10 (cf. Phœn. מץ = 'dish' [Bleichschale]: CIS, i. 90^1; see Lidzb. 370, 421). The idea is 'solidity', not thinness or extension: the sense 'beat thin' belongs to the Pti. (Ex. 39^8 etc.); and this noun is formed from the Qal, which means 'stamp with the foot' (Ezk. 6^11), or
is widely diffused; (it is perhaps embodied in our word ‘heaven’ (from heave?) and O.E. ‘lift.’) A graphic illustration of it is found in Egyptian pictures, where the god Shu is seen holding aloft, with outstretched arms, the dark star-spangled figure of the heaven-goddess, while the earth-god lies prostrate beneath (see Je. ATLO², 7).* But the special form in which it appears here is perhaps not fully intelligible apart from the Bab. creation-myth, and the climatic phenomena on which it is based (see below, p. 46).

Another interpretation of the firmament has recently been propounded (Winckler, Himmels- u. Weltenbild, 25 ff.; ATLO², 164, 174) which identifies it with the Bab. šupuk šamē, and explains both of the Zodiac. The view seems based on the highly artificial Bab. theory of a point-for-point correspondence between heaven and earth, according to which the Zodiac represents a heavenly earth, the northern heavens a heavenly heaven (atmospheric), and the southern a heavenly ocean. But whatever be the truth about šupuk šamē, such a restriction of the meaning of עון is inadmissible in Heb. In Ps. 19³, Dn. 12⁹ it might be possible; but even there it is unnecessary, and in almost every other case it is absolutely excluded. It is so emphatically in this chapter, where the firmament is named heaven, and birds (whose flight is not restricted to 10° on either side of the ecliptic) are said to fly ‘in front of the firmament.’

9. 10. Third work: Dry land and sea.—The shoreless lower ocean, which remained at the close of the second

(trans.), ‘stamp firm,’ ‘consolidate’ (Is. 42⁵ etc.). It is curious that the vb. is used of the creation of the earth, never of heaven, except Jb. 37⁸⁻¹⁰. [ם緣 מץ ית] on ptcp. expressing permanence, see Dri. T. § 135, 5. [ןביכ]: Kön. S. § 319 n.—[ןביכ] כ supplies as subj. ד theôs.—7. [ץ ית] transposed in כ to end of v.⁶, its normal position,—if indeed it be not a gloss in both places (We.).—8. כ also inserts here the formula of approval: on its omission in Heb., see above, pp. 8, 9.

9. [ץ ית] in this sense, only Jer. 3³⁷. For [ץ ית read with כ לקפ = ‘gathering-place,’ as in v.¹⁰. Nestle (MM, 3) needlessly suggests for the latter [ץ ית, and for [ץ ית—not [ץ ית] not ‘from under’ but simply ‘under’ (see v.¹⁰); G-K. § 119 a.—[ץ ית] juss. unapocopated, as often near the principal pause; G-K. § 109 a.—At the end of the v. כ adds: כתקפנ[ץ ית] to [ץ ית טפוקא[ץ ית] טפוקא[ץ ית] εις τας συναργας αυτων και αυτης τη ξυρα i.e. το άτο τον και τον οπου τους τον διακονειν τον διακονειν τον διακονειν. The addition is adopted by Ball, and the pl. αυτου proves at least that it rests on a Heb. original, [ץ ית being sing. in Greek (We.).—10. ב: the pl. (cf.

* Comp. also the Maori myth reported in Waitz, Anthrop. vi. 245 ff.; Lang, Custom and Myth, 45 ff.
day, is now replaced by land and sea in their present configuration. The expressions used: gathered together ... appear—seem to imply that the earth already existed as a solid mass covered with water, as in Ps. 104:5,6; but Di. thinks the language not inconsistent with the idea of a muddy mixture of earth and water, as is most naturally suggested by v.2. Henceforth the only remains of the original chaos are the subterranean waters (commonly called Tēhôm, but in Ps. 24:2 ‘sea’ and ‘streams’), and the circumfluent ocean on which the heaven rests (Jb. 26:10, Ps. 139:9, Pr. 8:27), of which, however, earthly seas are parts.

We.'s argument, that vv.6-10 are the account of a single work (above, p. 9 f.), is partly anticipated by IEz., who points out that what is here described is no true creation, but only a manifestation of what was before hidden and a gathering of what was dispersed. On the ground that earth and heaven were made on one day (24), he is driven to take והנה as plup., and assign vv.8-10 to the second day. Some such idea may have dictated the omission of the formula of approval at the close of the second day's work.

II-I3. Fourth work: Creation of plants. —The appearing of the earth is followed on the same day, not inappropriately, by the origination of vegetable life. The earth itself is conceived as endowed with productive powers—a recognition of the principle of development not to be explained as a mere imparting of the power of annual renewal (Di.); see to the contrary v.12 compared with v.24.

II. Let the earth produce verdure.] יָנֵם means 'fresh young herbage,' and appears here to include all plants in

Gn. 49:13, Dt. 33:19, Ps. 46:8 [where it is construed as sing.] 24:2 etc.) is mostly poetic and late prose; it is probably not numerical, but pl. of extension like יָנֵם, יָנֵה, and therefore to be rendered as sg.

II. יָנֵם יָנֵח] lit. 'vegetate vegetation,' the noun being acc. cognate with the vb.—פ is דע.לע. ; on the pointing with Metheg (Baer-De. p. 74)

see Kön. i. § 42, 7. ס (םככ) must have read והנה as v.12.—יָנֵם יָנֵח] ג (בַּדְקָנִים χρόνον) and B treat the words as in annexion, contrary to the accents and the usage of the terms. It is impossible to define them with scientific precision; and the twofold classification given above—herb and tree—is more or less precarious. It recurs, however, in Ex. 9:5, 10:15 (all J), and the reasons for rejecting the other are, first,
the earliest stages of their growth; hence the classification of flora is not threelfold—grass, herbs, trees (Di. Dri. al.)—but, threefold, the generic נַחַל including the two kinds כֶּבֶשׁ and יָנְא (De. Gu. Ho. etc.). The distinction is based on the methods of reproduction; the one kind producing seed merely, the other fruit which contains the seed.—The v. continues (amending with the help of כֹּל): grass producing seed after its kind, and fruit-tree producing fruit in which (i.e. the fruit) is its (the tree’s) seed after its (the tree’s) kind.—after its kind] v.i.—upon the earth] comes in very awkwardly; it is difficult to find any suitable point of attachment except with the principal verb, which, however, is too remote.

I4–I9. Fifth work: The heavenly luminaries.—On the parallelism with the first day’s work see above, p. 8f. The vv. describe only the creation of sun and moon; the clause and the stars in v. 16 appears to be an

the absence of § before בַּשָּׁר; and, second, the syntactic consideration that נַחַל as cognate acc. may be presumed to define completely the action of the vb.—נַחַל denotes especially fresh juicy herbage* (Pr. 2780) and those grasses which never to appearance get beyond that stage. בַּשָּׁר, on the other hand (unlike נ), is used of human food, and therefore includes cultivated plants (the cereals, etc.) (Ps. 10414).—נַחַל read נַחַל with מְבָרֶץ, and 3 Heb. MSS (Ball).—בַּשָּׁר, וְצִוְּרוּל On form of suff. see G-K. § 91 d. כֹּל in v. 11 inserts the word after נַחַל (rendering strangely קָרָדַב גְּבָדָו, καὶ καθ’ οὐρανότητα,—and so v. 12), and later in the v. (קָרָדַב גְּבָדָו, καὶ καθ’ οὐρανότητα) transposes as indicated in the translation above.—נַחַל a characteristic word of P, found elsewhere only in Dt. 1413, 14, 15, 18 (from Lv. 11), and (dubiously) Ezek. 4710,—everywhere with suff. The etymology is uncertain. If connected with נַחַל (form, likeness), the meaning would be ‘form’ (Lat. species); but in usage it seems to mean simply ‘kind,’ the sg. suff. here being distributive: “according to its several kinds.” In Syr. the corresponding word denotes a family or tribe. For another view, see Frd. Delitzsch, Prol. 143 f.—12. נַחַל] One is tempted to substitute the rare נַחַל as in v. 11 (so Ball).—After נַחַל כֹּל adds יָנְא: Ball deletes the יָנְא in v. 11.

14. נַחַל יָנְא ] ([ נַחַל יָנְא in v. 8].) On the breach of concord, see G-K. § 145 9; Dav. § 113 3. נַחַל a late word, is used of heavenly bodies in Ezek. 329, Ps. 7418; it never means ‘lamp’ exactly, but is often applied collectively to the seven-armed lampstand of the tabernacle; once it is

* In Ar. this sense is said to belong to מָלֶשׁ, but Heb. בַּשָּׁר has no such restriction.
addition (v. i.). The whole conception is as unscientific (in the modern sense) as it could be—(a) in its geocentric standpoint, (b) in making the distinction of day and night prior to the sun, (c) in putting the creation of the vegetable world before that of the heavenly bodies. Its religious significance, however, is very great, inasmuch as it marks the advance of Hebrew thought from the heathen notion of the stars to a pure monotheism. To the ancient world, and the Babylonians in particular, the heavenly bodies were animated beings, and the more conspicuous of them were associated or identified with the gods. The idea of them as an animated host occurs in Hebrew poetry (Ju. 5: 29, Is. 40: 26, Jb. 38: etc.); but here it is entirely eliminated, the heavenly bodies being reduced to mere luminaries, i.e. either embodiments of light or perhaps simply 'lamps' (v. i.). It is possible, as Gu. thinks, that a remnant of the old astrology lurks in the word dominion; but whereas in Babylonia the stars ruled over human affairs in general, their influence here is restricted to that which obviously depends on them, viz. the alternation of day and night, the festivals, etc. Comp. Jb. 38: 33, Ps. 136:7-9 (Jer. 31: 25). It is noteworthy that this is the only work of creation of which the purpose is elaborately specified. —luminaries (יהא[א]נפ) i.e. bearers or embodiments of light. The word is used most frequently of the sevenfold light of the tabernacle

used of the eyes (Pr. 15:30), and once of the divine countenance (Ps. 96:2). —‘ץק י’גע] the gen. is not partitive but explicative: Dav. § 24 (a). —ק inserts at this point: els φαινω τῆς γῆς, καὶ δρέαυ τῆς ημέρας κ. τ. νυκτός, καὶ.—ירמ[י] In Jer. 10: 4 ונרש פְּנֵי are astrological portents such as the heathen fear, and that is commonly taken as the meaning here, though it is not quite easy to believe the writer would have said the sun and moon were made for this purpose.* If we take נַק in its ordinary sense of 'token' or 'indication,' we might suppose it defined by the words which follow. Tuch obtains a connexion by making the double נ יג both . . . and ("as signs, both for [sacred] seasons and for days and years"): others by a hendiadys ("signs of seasons"). It would be less

* The prophetic passages cited by Dri. (Gen. 10:1) all contemplate a reversal of the order of nature, and cannot safely be appealed to as illustrations of its normal functions.
(Ex. 25\textsuperscript{6} etc.); and to speak of it as expressing a markedly prosaic view of the subject (Gu.) is misleading.—in the firmament, etc.] moving in prescribed paths on its lower surface. This, however, does not justify the interpretation of ישיב as the Zodiac (above, p. 22).—to separate between the day, etc.]. Day and night are independent entities; but they are now put under the rule of the heavenly bodies, as their respective spheres of influence (Ps. 121\textsuperscript{6}).—for signs and for seasons, etc.] הסדרות (seasons) appears never (certainly not in P) to be used of the natural seasons of the year (Ho. 2\textsuperscript{11}, Jer. 8\textsuperscript{7} are figurative), but always of a time conventionally agreed upon (see Ex. 9\textsuperscript{6}), or fixed by some circumstance. The commonest application is to the sacrae seasons of the ecclesiastical year, which are fixed by the moon (cf. Ps. 104\textsuperscript{19}). If the natural seasons are excluded, this seems the only possible sense here; and P's predilection for matters of cultus makes the explanation plausible.—יהָּ בָּּסְּ (signs) is more difficult, and none of the explanations given is entirely satisfactory (v.i.).—16. for dominion over the day . . . night] in the sense explained above; and so v.18. —and the stars] Since the writer seems to avoid on principle the everyday names of the objects, and to describe them by their nature and the functions they serve, the clause is probably a gloss (but v.i.). On the other hand, it would be too bold an expedient to supply an express naming of the planets after the analogy of the first three works (Tu.).

The laboured explanation of the purposes of the heavenly bodies is confused, and suggests overworking (Ho.). The clauses which most excite suspicion are the two beginning with יהָּ בָּּסְּ (the difficult \textsuperscript{16b} and \textsuperscript{16a}) ;—note in particular the awkward repetition of יהָּ בָּּסְּ. The

violent to render the first \textit{1 und swar} (videlicet): "as signs, and that for seasons," etc.; see BDB, s. v \textit{i} b, where some of the examples come, at any rate, very near the sense proposed. Olshausen arrives at the same sense by reading לָּּ בָּּסְּ simply (MBA, 1870, 380).—16. 'הָּ בָּּסְּ] Dri. (Hebr. ii, 33) renders "and the lesser light, as also the stars, to rule," etc. The construction is not abnormal; but would the writer have said that the stars rule the night?—18. מִּיָּ בָּּסְּ] On the comp. sheva see Kön. i. § 10, 6 e.
functions are stated with perfect clearness in 16-18: (a) to give light upon the earth, (b) to rule day and night, and (c) to separate light from darkness. I am disposed to think that 14b was introduced as an exposition of the idea of the vb. הב, and that 15as was then added to restore the connexion. Not much importance can be attached to the insertions of ג (v.t.), which may be borrowed from v.17s.

20-23. Sixth work: Aquatic and aërial animals.—Let the waters swarm with swarming things—living creatures, and let fowl fly, etc.] The conjunction of two distinct forms of life under one creative act has led Gu. to surmise that two originally separate works have been combined in order to bring the whole within the scheme of six days. Ben. (rendering and fowl that may fly) thinks the author was probably influenced by some ancient tradition that birds as well as fishes were produced by the water (so Ra. and IEez. on 219). The conjecture is attractive, and the construction has the support of all Gk. Vns. and י; but it is not certain that the verb can mean “produce a swarm.” More probably (in connexions like the present: see Ex. 728 [י] [EV 83], Ps. 10530) the sense is simply teem with, indicating the place or element in which the swarming creatures abound, in which case it cannot possibly govern י as obj.—י has a sense something like ‘vermin’: i.e. it never denotes ‘a swarm,’ but is always used of the creatures that

20. י... י From synt. see Dav. § 73, R. 2. The root has in Aram, the sense of ‘creep,’ and there are many passages in OT where that idea would be appropriate (Lv. 1129. 41-43 etc.); hence Rob. Smith (RS, 293), ‘creeping vermin generally.’ But here and Gn. 817 9, Ex. 17 78, Ps. 10530 it can only mean ‘teem’ or ‘swarm;’ and Dri. (Gen. 12) is probably right in extending that meaning to all the pass. in Heb. Gn. 126, Ex. 728, Ps. 10530 are the only places where the constr. with cog. acc. appears; elsewhere the animals themselves are subj. of the vb. The words, except in three passages, are peculiar to the vocabulary of P.—But for the fact that י never means ‘swarm,’ but always ‘swarming thing,’ it would be tempting to take it as st. constr. before י י (ג, Aq. י). As it is, ‘n’s has all the awkwardness of a gloss (see 219). The phrase is applied once to man, 27 (י); elsewhere to animals,—mostly in P (Gn. 131. 34. 30 912. 15. 16, Lv. 1110. 46 etc.).—י י The order of words as in v.22 (ב י י), due to emphasis on the new subj. The use of descriptive impf. (ג, Aq. ט) is mostly poetic, and for reasons given above must here be refused.—ו י= ‘in
appear in swarms (v.i.)—שֵׁם הַנֶּשֶׁר] lit. ‘living soul’; used here collectively, and with the sense of שֵׁם weakened, as often, to ‘individual’ or ‘being’ (ct. v.30 and see on 27). The creation of the aquatic animals marks, according to OT ideas, the first appearance of life on the earth, for life is nowhere predicated of the vegetable kingdom.—over the earth in front of the firmament] i.e. in the atmosphere, for which Heb. has no special name.—21. created] indistinguishable from made in v.25.—the great sea monsters] The introduction of this new detail in the execution of the fiat is remarkable. יִתְנַהֵן here denotes actual marine animals; but this is almost the only passage where it certainly bears that sense (Ps. 1487). There are strong traces of mythology in the usage of the word: Is. 271 519 (Gu. Schöpf. 30–33), Ps. 7413 (?) ; and it may have been originally the name of a class of legendary monsters like Ti‘amat. (The mythological interpretation lingered in Jewish exegetical tradition) (see below).—22. And God blessed them, etc.] In contrast with the plants, whose reproductive powers are included in their creation (v.11ff.), these living beings are endowed with the right of self-propagation by a separate act—a benediction (see v.28). The distinction is natural.—be fruitful, etc.] ‘There is nothing to indicate that only a

front of’; see BDB, s. תֶּנֵנִים, II. 7, a,—Cr inserts תֶּנֵנִים at the end of the v.—21. תֶּנֵנִים It is naturally difficult to determine exactly how far the Heb. usage of the word is coloured by mythology. The important point is that it represents a power hostile to God, not only in the pass. cited above, but also in Job 712. There are resemblances in the Ar. תֶּנֵנִים, a fabulous amphibious monster, appearing now on land and now in the sea (personification of the waterspout? RS2, 176), concerning which the Arabian cosmo-graphers have many wonderful tales to relate (Mas‘ūdī, i. 263, 266 ff.; Kazwini, Ethê’s tr. i. 270 ff.). Ra., after explaining literally, adds by way of Haggada that these are ‘Leviathan and his consort,’ who were created male and female, but the female was killed and salted for the righteous in the coming age, because if they had multiplied the world would not have stood before them (comp. En. 667–9, 4 Esd. 619–22, Ber. R. c. 7).—הַנֶּשֶׁר יִתְנַהֵן] Cf. 910.

* In Bab. tanninu is said to be a mythological designation of the earth (Jen. Kosm. 161; Jer. ATLO5, 1367; King, Cr. Tab. 1093); but that throws no light on Heb.
single pair of each kind was originally produced" (Ben.); 
the language rather suggests that whole species, in some-
things like their present multitude, were created.

24, 25. Seventh work: Terrestrial animals.—
24. Let the earth bring forth living creatures] תַּחַת שָׁם (again 
coll.) is here a generic name for land animals, being re-
stricted by what precedes—'living animals that spring 
from the earth.' Like the plants (v. 12), they are boldly said 
to be produced by the earth, their bodies being part of the 
earth's substance (27. 19); this could not be said of fishes in 
relation to the water, and hence a different form of ex-
pression had to be employed in v. 20.—The classification of 
animals (best arranged in v. 25) is threefold: (1) wild 
animals, בַּעַנֵי חֲרוֹצֶה (roughly, carnivora); (2) domesticated 
animals, נָחֵרַה (herbivora); (3) reptiles, חֲרוֹצֶה צֶבָּה, including 
perhaps creeping insects and very small quadrupeds (see 
Dri. DB, i. 518). A somewhat similar threefold division 
appears in a Babylonian tablet—'cattle of the field, beasts of 
the field and creatures of the city' (Jen. KIB, vi. 1, 
42 f.; King, Cr. Tab. 112 f.).—25. God saw that it was 
good] The formula distinctly marks the separation of this 
work from the creation of man, which follows on the same 
day. The absence of a benediction corresponding to

Lv. 11; 'though without art. is really determined by בּ (but see Dri. 
T. § 209 (1)).—הָגָהוּ שָׁם] מ, acc. of definition, as נֶפֶשׁ in v. 20.—22. וַיִּלְלֶם שָׁם 
highly characteristic of P (only 3 times elsewhere).

24. The distinctions noted above are not strictly observed throughout 
the OT. הבנָה (from a root signifying 'be dumb'—Ar. and Eth.) denotes 
collectively, first, animals as distinguished from man (Ex. 9 etc.), but 
chiefly the larger mammals; then, domestic animals (the dumb creatures 
with which man has most to do), (Gn. 3423 36 etc.). Of wild animals 
speciality it is seldom used alone (Dt. 3224, Hab. 217), but sometimes with 
an addition (נֶפֶשׁ, נֶפֶשׁ, נֶפֶשׁ) which marks the unusual reference. As a 
noun of unity, Neh. 212. 14. See BDB, s.v.—נֶפֶשׁ שָׁם] an archaic phrase 
in which נ represents the old case ending of the nom., u or um (G-K. 
§ 90 n). So Ps. 799; שָׁם in other combinations Is. 569, Zeph. 214, 
Ps. 10411; Ps. 5010 10430. In sense it is exactly the same as the 
commoner נֶפֶשׁ שָׁם (128, 30 95. 10 etc.), and usually denotes wild animals, 
though sometimes animals in general (קֻנָּה).—נֶפֶשׁ and נֶפֶשׁ naturally 
overlap; but the first name is derived from the manner of movement, 
and the second from the tendency to swarm (Dri. L.c.).
vv. 22–28 is surprising, but it is idle to speculate on the reason.

26–28. Eighth work: Creation of man. — As the narrative approaches its climax, the style loses something of its terse rigidity, and reveals a strain of poetic feeling which suggests that the passage is moulded on an ancient creation hymn (Gu.). The distinctive features of this last work are: (a) instead of the simple jussive we have the cohortative of either self-deliberation or consultation with other divine beings; (b) in contrast to the lower animals, which are made each after its kind or type, man is made in the image of God; (c) man is designated as the head of creation by being charged with the rule of the earth and all the living creatures hitherto made.—26. Let us make man] The difficulty of the 1st pers. pl. has always been felt.

Amongst the Jews an attempt was made to get rid of it by reading בצלם us ptp. Niph.—a view the absurd grammatical consequences of which are trenchantly exposed by IEz. The older Christian comm. generally find in the expression an allusion to the Trinity (so even Calvin); but that doctrine is entirely unknown to the OT, and cannot be implied here. In modern times it has sometimes been explained as pl. of self-deliberation (Tu.), or after the analogy of the 'we' of royal edicts; but Di. has shown that neither is consistent with native Heb. idiom. Di. himself regards it as based on the idea of God expressed by the pl. בצלם, as 'the living personal synthesis of a fulness of powers and forces' (so Dri.); but that philosophic rendering of the concept of deity appears to be foreign to the theology of the OT.

26. בצלם, כָּת‎ בֵּלֵדָתָנָה הָמַגְּרָפְנ‎ כָּל כָּתְבַ‎ בְּמֶלֶס. Mechilla (see above, p. 14), gives as Gr's reading בצלם כָּת‎ בֵּלֵדָתָנָה. —On the א 'of a model,' cf. Ex. 25:40; BDB, s.v. III. 8. — בצלם, the technical expression for the statue of a god (KAT, 476); Aram. and Syr. כִּיָּד, = 'image'; the root is not שלמה, 'be dark,' but possibly שלמה, 'cut off' (Nöldeke, ZATW, xvii. 185 f.). The idea of 'pattern' or 'model' is confined to the P pass. cited above; it stands intermediate between the concrete sense just noted (an artificial material reproduction: 1 Sa. 6 etc.) and another still more abstract, viz. 'an unreal semblance' (Ps. 39:7, 72:20). כִּיָּד is the abstr. noun resemblance; but also used concretely (2 Ch. 4:8, like Syr. לָאָדִים); Ar. דUMMYAT = 'effigy.' The א is radical (form איד, cf. Ar.); hence the ending מ is no proof of Aramaic influence (We. ProL, 388); see Dri. JPh. xi. 216.—כִּיָּד יְבָכָנָה] Ins. יב with ס (v.s.). Other Vns. agree with MT.
The most natural and most widely accepted explanation is that God is here represented as taking counsel with divine beings other than Himself, viz. the angels or host of heaven: cf. 3\(^{22}\) 11\(^{7}\), Is. 6\(^{8}\), 1 Ki. 22\(^{19-22}\) (so Philo, Ra. IEz. De. Ho. Gu. Ben. al.). Di. objects to this interpretation, first, that it ascribes to angels some share in the creation of man, which is contrary to scriptural doctrine; * and, second, that the very existence of angels is nowhere alluded to by P at all. There is force in these considerations; and probably the ultimate explanation has to be sought in a pre-Israelite stage of the tradition (such as is represented by the Babylonian account; see below, p. 46), where a polytheistic view of man's origin found expression. This would naturally be replaced in a Heb. recension by the idea of a heavenly council of angels, as in 1 Ki. 22, Jb. 1, 38\(^{7}\), Dn. 4\(^{14}\) 7\(^{10}\) etc. That P retained the idea in spite of his silence as to the existence of angels is due to the fact that it was decidedly less anthropomorphic than the statement that man was made in the image of the one incomparable Deity.—in our image, according to our likeness] The general idea of likeness between God and man frequently occurs in classical literature, and sometimes the very term of this v. (\(\epsilon\lambda\kappa\omicron\omega\nu\, \alpha\delta\ i\alpha\gamma\mu\rho\alpha\nu\nu\nu\rho\iota\mu\nu\varepsilon\nu\gamma\nu\nu\nu\) is employed. To speak of it, therefore, as "the distinctive feature of the Bible doctrine concerning man" is an exaggeration; although it is true that such expressions on the plane of heathenism import much less than in the religion of Israel (Di.). The idea in this precise form is in the OT peculiar to P (5\(^{1-3}\) 9\(^{6}\)); the conception, but not the expression, appears in Ps. 8\(^{6}\): later biblical examples are Sir. 17\(^{39}\), WS. 2\(^{23}\) (where the 'image' is equivalent to immortality), 1 Co. 11\(^{7}\), Col. 3\(^{10}\), Eph. 4\(^{24}\), Ja. 3\(^{9}\).

The origin of the conception is probably to be found in the Babylonian mythology. Before proceeding to the creation of Ea-bani, Aruru forms a mental image (\(\zeta\iota\kappa\gamma\omega\mu\nu\) : see Jen. KIB, vi. 1, 401 f.) of the God Anu (ib. 120, 1. 33); and similarly, in the Descent of Istar,

* Comp. Calvin: "Minimam vero tam præclari operis partem Angelis adscribere abominandum sacrilegium est."
Ea forms a sīkru in his wise heart before creating Aṣūsunamir (ib. 86. l. 11). In both cases the reference is obviously to the bodily form of the created being. See, further, KATb, 506; ATLOb, 167.

The patristic and other theological developments of the doctrine lie beyond the scope of this commentary; * and it is sufficient to observe with regard to them—(1) that the ‘image’ is not something peculiar to man’s original state, and lost by the Fall; because P, who alone uses the expression, knows nothing of a Fall, and in 9q employs the term, without any restriction, of post-diluvian mankind. (2) The distinction between elkhw (imago) and ἴμαλος (similitudo)—the former referring to the essence of human nature and the latter to its accidents or its endowments by grace—has an apparent justification in Gr, which inserts ραλ between the two phrases (see below), and never mentions the ‘likeness’ after 188; so that it was possible to regard the latter as something belonging to the divine idea of man, but not actually conferred at his creation. The Heb. affords no basis for such speculations: cf. 518 9q. —(3) The view that the divine image consists in dominion over the creatures (Greg. Nyss., Chrysostom, Socinians, etc.) is still defended by Ho.; but it cannot be held without an almost inconceivable weakening of the figure, and is inconsistent with the sequel, where the rule over the creatures is, by a separate benediction, conferred on man, already made in the image of God. The truth is that the image marks the distinction between man and the animals, and so qualifies him for dominion: the latter is the consequence, not the essence, of the divine image (cf. Ps. 80, Sir. 17-24).—(4) Does the image refer primarily to the spiritual nature or to the bodily form (upright attitude, etc.) of man? The idea of a corporeal resemblance seems free from objection on the level of OT theology; and it is certainly strongly suggested by a comparison of 5q with 5l. God is expressly said to have a ‘form’ which can be seen (Nich, Nu. 128, Ps. 1715); the OT writers constantly attribute to Him bodily parts; and that they ever advanced to the conception of God as formless spirit would be difficult to prove. On the other hand, it may well be questioned if the idea of a spiritual image was within the compass of Heb. thought. Di., while holding that the central idea is man’s spiritual nature, admits a reference to the bodily form in so far as it is the expression and organ of mind, and inseparable from spiritual qualities.† It might be truer to say that it denotes primarily the bodily form, but includes those spiritual attributes of which the former is the natural and self-evident symbol.‡—Note the striking parallel in Ovid, Met. i. 76 ff.

Man (ὑμῖν) is here generic (the human race), not the

* A good summary is given by Zapletal, Altestamentliches, 1-15.
† So Augustine, De Gen. cont. Man. i. 17: “Ita intelligitur per animum maxime, attestante etiam erecta corporis forma, homo factus ad imaginem et similitudinem Dei.”
‡ Cf. Engert, Die Weitschöpfung, 33.
proper name of an individual, as 53. Although the great majority of comm. take it for granted that a single pair is contemplated, there is nothing in the narrative to bear out that view; and the analogy of the marine and land animals is against it on the whole. (Tu. and Ben.)—fish of the sea, etc.] The enumeration coincides with the classification of animals already given, except that the earth occurs where we should expect wild beast of the earth.  should undoubtedly be restored to the text on the authority of Σ.—

27. in his image, in the image of God, etc.] The repetition imparts a rhythmic movement to the language, which may be a faint echo of an old hymn on the glory of man, like Ps. 8 (Gu.).—male and female] The persistent idea that man as first created was bi-sexual and the sexes separated afterwards (mentioned by Ra. as a piece of Haggada, and recently revived by Schwally, ARW, ix. 172 ff.), is far from the thought of the passage. —28. A benediction is here again the source of fertility, but this time also of dominion: Gu. regards this as another fragment of a hymn.

29–31. The record of creation closes with another (tenth)

27. μοιος] Σ om. The curious paraphrase of Σ appears to reflect the Ebionite tendency of that translator: ἐν ἐλέυθεροις διαφόροις δρόμοις ὁ θεὸς ἐκποίησεν αὐτὸν (Geiger, Jud. Ztschr. f. Wiss. u. Leben, i. 40 f.). See, however, Nestle, MM, 3 f., who calls attention to the δρόμος in Σ of 1 Sa. 2814, and considers this word the source of the idea that the upright form of man is part of the divine image. But Σ in 1 Sa. probably misread μι as μοι.—τόκον] constructio ad formam: ἡ̑ν constr. ad sensum, ἐστὶν being collective: see G–K. § 132 g.—παρακάτω τοι] The phrase confined to P except Dt. 416; 'alone in Jer. 3121 (a gloss?). Although the application to a single pair of individuals predominates in the Law, the coll. sense is established by Gn. 716, and is to be assumed in some other cases (Nu. 5 etc.). On its etymology see Ges. Th., s.v., and (for a different view) Schwally, ZATW, xi. 181 f.—28. ἄνω θησαυροῦ] Σ λέγων; perhaps original.—τοῦς] The only instance of a verbal suff. in this chapter: a strong preference for expression of acc. by περι with suff. is characteristic of the style of P (We. Prol. 6389).—σύνεργῇ] plcp. with art. = relative cl.: see Dav. § 99, R. 1. The previous noun is defined by ἐμ, as in v. 31 (μι inserts the art.).—After μάτως Σ read μαθόμεθα (so Ball). Σ has for the end of the v.: καὶ πάντων τῶν κτητῶν καὶ πάσης τῆς γῆς καὶ πάντων [τῶν ἐρημών] τῶν ἐρημών ἐπὶ τῆς γῆς.

29. τὴν] = 'I give'; Dav. § 40 b; Dri. T. § 13.—γῆς (over Athnach)]
divine utterance, which regulates in broad and general terms
the relation of men and animals to the vegetable world.
The plants are destined for food to man and beast. (The
passage is not wholly intelligible apart from 92ff., from
which we see that its point is the restriction on the use
of animal food, particularly on the part of man.) In other
words, the first stage of the world's history—that state of
things which the Creator pronounced very good—is a state
of peace and harmony in the animal world. This is P's
substitute for the garden of Eden.

A distinction is made between the food of man and that
of animals: to the former (a) seeding plants (probably
because the seed is important in cultivation, and in cereals
is the part eaten), and (b) fruit-bearing trees; to the latter
all the greenness of herbage, i.e. the succulent leafy parts.
The statement is not exhaustive: no provision is made for
fishes, nor is there any mention of the use of such victuals
as milk, honey, etc. Observe the difference from chs. 2.
3, where man is made to live on fruit alone, and only as
part of the curse has herbs (בָּשַׁל) assigned to him. —31. The
account closes with the divine verdict of approval, which

wrongly omitted by ג. —נַלְכָּד] found only in P and Ezk., and always
preceded by י. It is strictly fem. inf., and perhaps always retains
verbal force (see Dri. JPh. xi. 217). The ordinary cognate words for
food are עָק and עֵקֶּפֶג. —30. מִי צִלְצָל The construction is obscure. The
natural interpretation is that 30 expresses a contrast to 30—the one
specifying the food of man, the other that of animals. To bring out
this sense clearly it is necessary (with Ew. al.) to insert מִי before
עָקָלמָא. The text requires us to treat וַיִּלָּב in 29 as a paren-
thesis (Di.) and עָקָלמָא as still under the regimen of the distant מִי. —
 pesso] ג יִסְטֵהְי תְּוַיָּפְו עָקונִי—as assimilating. —סְפִּי] here used in its primary
sense of the soul or animating principle (see later on 27), with a marked
difference from vv. 20f., 24. —בָּשַׁל פְּרִי so 9 = שָׁלָל Ps. 37. פְּרִי (verdure)
alone may include the foliage of trees (Ex. 1018); הַעֵרָה ' = 'grass' (Nu.
22f.). The word is rare (6 t.); a still rarer form פֶּפ may sometimes be
confounded with it (Is. 3729 = 2 Ki. 1728?). —31. 'בָּשַׁל וָי The art. with
the num. appears here for the first time in the chap. On the construc-
tion, see Dri. T. § 209 (1), where it is treated as the beginning of a usage
prevalent in post-biblical Heb., which often in a definite expression uses
the art. with the adj. alone (תַּלַיְדוּתָה וָנָסְר, etc.). Cf. G-K. § 126 ו (with
footnote); Ho. Hex. 465; Dri. JPh. xi. 229 f.
here covers a survey of all that has been made, and rises to the superlative 'very good.'

Vv. 20ff. differ significantly in their phraseology from the preceding sections: thus הנע instead of הנע (11, 12); הנע instead of הנע ארש בו ועי ועי; the classification into beasts, birds, and reptiles (ct. 24. 25); הנע instead of the inner principle of life instead of the living being as in 20ff. 24; הנע instead of ארש. These linguistic differences are sufficient to prove literary discontinuity of some kind. They have been pointed out by Kraetschmar (Bundesvorstg. 103 f.), who adds the doubtful material argument that the prohibition of animal food to man nullifies the dominion promised to him in vv. 26. 28. But his inference (partly endorsed by Ho.) that the vv. are a later addition to P does not commend itself; they are vitally connected with 9ff., and must have formed part of the theory of the Priestly writer. The facts point rather to a distinction in the sources with which P worked,—perhaps (as Gu. thinks) the enrichment of the creation-story by the independent and widespread myth of the Golden Age when animals lived peaceably with one another and with men. The motives of this belief lie deep in the human heart—horror of bloodshed, sympathy with the lower animals, the longing for harmony in the world, and the conviction that on the whole the course of things has been from good to worse—all have contributed their share, and no scientific teaching can rob the idea of its poetic and ethical value.

II. 1–3. The rest of God.—The section contains but one idea, expressed with unusual solemnity and copiousness of language,—the institution of the Sabbath. It supplies an answer to the question, Why is no work done on the last day of the week? (Gu.). The answer lies in the fact that God Himself rested on that day from the work of creation, and bestowed on it a special blessing and sanctity.—The writer's idea of the Sabbath and its sanctity is almost too realistic for the modern mind to grasp: it is not an institution which exists or ceases with its observance by man; the divine rest is a fact as much as the divine working, and so the sanctity of the day is a fact whether man secures the benefit or not. There is little trace of the idea that the Sabbath was made for man and not man for the Sabbath; it is an ordinance of the kosmos like any other part of the creative operations, and is for the good of man in precisely the same sense as the whole creation is subservient to his welfare.
1. And all their host] The 'host of heaven' (אכברא) is frequently mentioned in the OT, and denotes sometimes the heavenly bodies, especially as objects of worship (Dt. 4:19 etc.), sometimes the angels considered as an organised army (1 Ki. 22:19 etc.). The expression 'host of the earth' nowhere occurs; and it is a question whether the pl. suff. here is not to be explained as a denominatio a potiori (Ho.), or as a species of attraction (Dri.). If it has any special meaning as applied to the earth, it would be equivalent to what is elsewhere called נмя נמי (Is. 6:3 34:1, Dt. 33:16 etc.)—the contents of the earth, and is most naturally limited to those things whose creation has just been described.* In any case the verse yields little support to the view of Smend and We., that in the name 'Yahwe of Hosts' the word denotes the complex of cosmical forces (Smand, AT Rel.-gesch. 201 ff.), or the demons in which these forces were personified (We. KL. Proph. 77).—2. And God finished, etc.] The duplication of v.1 is harsh, and

* Cf. Neh. 6:8 "the heavens, the heavens of the heavens, and all their host, the earth and all that is upon it, the seas and all that is in them."
strongly suggests a composition of sources.—**on the seventh day**] m[G S read sixth day (so also Jubilees, ii. 16, and Jerome, *Quaest.*), which is accepted as the original text by many comm. (Ilg. Ols. Bu. al.).* But sixth is so much the easier reading that one must hesitate to give it the preference. To take the vb. as plup. (Calv. al.) is grammatically impossible. On We.'s explanation, see above, p. 9f. The only remaining course is to give a purely negative sense to the vb. *finish*: i.e. 'desisted from,' 'did not continue' (IEz. De. Di. Dri. al.). The last view may be accepted, in spite of the absence of convincing parallels.—**and he rested**] The idea of ἡσυχία is essentially negative: cessation of work, not relaxation (Dri.): see below. Even so, the expression is strongly anthropomorphic, and warns us against exaggerating P's aversion to such representations.†—3. blessed ...
sanctified] The day is blessed and sacred in itself and from the beginning; to say that the remark is made in view of the future institution of the Sabbath (Dri.), does not quite bring out the sense. Both verbs contain the idea of selection and distinction (cf. Sir. 36 [33] 7-9), but they are not synonymous (Gu.). A blessing is the effective utterance of a good wish; applied to things, it means their endowment with permanently beneficial qualities (Gn. 2727, Ex. 2325, Dt. 2812). This is the case here: the Sabbath is a constant source of well-being to the man who recognises its true nature and purpose. To sanctify is to set apart from common things to holy uses, or to put in a special relation to God.—which God creatively made] see the footnote.—Although no closing formula for the seventh day is given, it is contrary to the intention of the passage to think that the rest of God means His work of providence as distinct from creation: it is plainly a rest of one day that is thought of. It is, of course, a still greater absurdity to suppose an interval of twenty-four hours between the two modes of divine activity. The author did not think in our dogmatic categories at all.

The origin of the Hebrew Sabbath, and its relation to Babylonian usages, raise questions too intricate to be fully discussed here (see Lotz, Quast. de hist. Sabbati [1883]; Jastrow, AJTh. ii. [1898], 312 ff.; KAT8, 592 ff.; Dri. DB, s.v., and Gen. 34; Sta. BTh. § 88, 2). The main facts, however, are these: (1) The name šab[p]attu occurs some five or six times in cuneiform records; but of these only two are of material importance for the Sabbath problem. (a) In a syllabary (II R. 32, 16 a, b) šabattu is equated with ūm nīḫ libbi, which has been conclusively shown to mean 'day of the appeasement of the heart (of the deity),'—in the first instance, therefore, a day of propitiation or atonement (Jen. ZA, iv. 274 ff.; Jast. 1c. 316 f.). (b) In a tablet discovered by Pinches in 1904, the name šapattu is applied to the fifteenth day of the month (as full-moon-day?) (Pin. PSBA, xxvi. 51 ff.; Zimmern, ZDMG, livii. 199 ff., 458 ff.). (2) The only trace of a Babylonian institution at all resembling the Heb. Sabbath is the fact that in certain months of the year (Elul, Marchešvan, but possibly the rest as well) the 7th, 14th, 21st and 28th days, and also the 19th (probably as the 7 × 7th from the beginning of the previous month), had the character of dies nefasti ('lucky day, un-
lucky day’), on which certain actions had to be avoided by important personages (king, priest, physician) (IV R. 32 ff., 33). Now, no evidence has ever been produced that these dies nefasti bore the name sabattu; and the likelihood is that this was the case is distinctly lessened by the Pinches fragment, where the name is applied to the 15th day, but not to the 7th, although it also is mentioned on the tablet. The question, therefore, has assumed a new aspect; and Meinhold (Sabbath u. Woche im AT [1905], and more recently [1909], ZATW, xxxix. 81 ff.), developing a hint of Zim., has constructed an ingenious hypothesis on the assumption that in Bab. sabattu denotes the day of the full moon. He points to the close association of new-moon and Sabbath in nearly all the pre-exilic references (Am. 8, Hos. 2, Is. 1, 2 Ki. 422); and concludes that in early Israel, as in Bab., the Sabbath was the full-moon festival and nothing else. The institution of the weekly Sabbath he traces to a desire to compensate for the loss of the old lunar festivals, when these were abrogated by the Deuteronomical reformation. This innovation he attributes to Ezekiel; but steps towards it are found in the introduction of a weekly day of rest during harvest only (on the ground of Dt. 16; cf. Ex. 3421), and in the establishment of the sabbatical year (Lv. 25), which he considers to be older than the weekly Sabbath. The theory involves great improbabilities, and its net result seems to be to leave the actual Jewish Sabbath as we know it without any point of contact in Bab. institutions. It is hard to suppose that there is no historical connexion between the Heb. Sabbath and the dies nefasti of the Bab. calendar; and if such a connexion exists, the chief difficulties remain where they have long been felt to lie, viz., (a) in the substitution of a weekly cycle running continuously through the calendar for a division of each month into seven-day periods, probably regulated by the phases of the moon; and (b) in the transformation of a day of superstitious restrictions into a day of joy and rest. Of these changes, it must be confessed, no convincing explanation has yet been found. The established sanctity of the number seven, and the decay or suppression of the lunar feasts, might be contributory causes; but when the change took place, and whether it was directly due to Babylonian influence, or was a parallel development from a lunar observance more primitive than either, cannot at present be determined. See Hehn, Siebensahl u. Sabbath, 91 ff., esp. 114 ff.; cf. Gordon, ETG, 216 ff.

4a. These are the generations, etc.] The best sense that can be given to the expression is to refer the pronoun to

4a. הת菏נ] only in pl. const. or with suff.; and confined to P, Ch. and Ru. 418. Formed from Hiph. of נ ה, it means properly ‘begettings’; not, however, as noun of action, but concretely (= ‘progeny’); and this is certainly the prevalent sense. The phrase נ ה (only P [all in Gn. except Nu. 31], 1 Ch. 10, Ru. 418) means primarily “These are the descendants”; but since a list of descendants is a genealogy, it is practically the same thing if we render, “This is the genealogical register.” In the great majority of instances (Gn. 51) 101110 1127 2513
what precedes, and render the noun by ‘origin’: ‘This is the origin of,’ etc. But it is doubtful if מָהִילָה can bear any such meaning, and altogether the half-verse is in the last degree perplexing. It is in all probability a redactional insertion.

The formula (and indeed the whole phraseology) is characteristic of P; and in that document it invariably stands as introduction to the section following. But in this case the next section (24^th-49^th) belongs to J; and if we pass over the J passages to the next portion of P (ch. 5), the formula would collide with 31^st, which is evidently the proper heading to what follows. Unless, therefore, we adopt the improbable hypothesis of Strack, that a part of P’s narrative has been dropped, the attempt to treat 24^st in its present position as a superscription must be abandoned. On this ground most critics have embraced a view propounded by Ilgen, that the clause stood originally before 1^st, as the heading of P’s account

36^1-9, 1 Ch. 2^9, Ru. 4^3) this sense is entirely suitable; the addition of a few historical notices is not inconsistent with the idea of a genealogy, nor is the general character of these sections affected by it. There are just three cases where this meaning is inapplicable: Gn. 6^9 25^27 37^3. But it is noteworthy that, except in the last case, at least a fragment of a genealogy follows; and it is fair to inquire whether 37^3 may not have been originally followed by a genealogy (such as 35^24b-26 or 46^8-27 see Hupfeld, Quellen, 102-109, 213-216) which was afterwards displaced in the course of redaction (see p. 423, below). With that assumption we could explain every occurrence of the formula without having recourse to the unnatural view that the word may mean a “family history” (G-B. s.v.), or “an account of a man and his descendants” (BDB). The natural hypothesis would then be that a series of מָהִילָה formed one of the sources employed by P in compiling his work: the introduction of this genealogical document is preserved in 31^st (so Ho.); the recurrent formula represents successive sections of it, and 24^st is a redactional imitation. When it came to be amalgamated with the narrative material, some dislocations took place: hence the curious anomaly that a man’s history sometimes appears under his own Tōlēdōth, sometimes under those of his father; and it is difficult otherwise to account for the omission of the formula before 12^st or for its insertion in 36^9. On the whole, this theory seems to explain the facts better than the ordinary view that the formula was devised by P to mark the divisions of the principal work.—םָהִילָה [‘in their creation’ or ‘when they were created.’ If the lit. minusc. has critical significance (Tu. Di.) the primary reading was inf. Qal בַּקַּשָּׁת; and this requires to be supplemented by מָהִילָה as subj. It is in this form that Di. thinks the clause originally stood at the beginning of Gen. (see on 1^st). But the omission of מָהִילָה and the insertion of the n minusc. are no necessary consequences of the transposition of the sentence; and the small n may be merely an error in the archetypal MS, which has been mechanically repeated in all copies.
of the creation.* But this theory also is open to serious objection. It involves a meaning of ἀρχή which is contrary both to its etymology and the usage of P (see footnote). Whatever latitude of meaning be assigned to the word, it is the fact that in this formula it is always followed by gen. of the progenitor, never of the progeny: hence by analogy the phrase must describe that which is generated by the heavens and the earth, not the process by which they themselves are generated (so Lagarde, Or. ii. 38 ff., and Ho.). And even if that difficulty could be overcome (see Lagarde), generation is a most unsuitable description of the process of creation as conceived by P. In short, neither as superscription nor as subscription can the sentence be accounted for as an integral part of the Priestly Code. There seems no way out of the difficulty but to assume with Ho. that the formula in this place owes its origin to a mechanical imitation of the manner of P by a later hand. The insertion would be suggested by the observation that the formula divides the book of Gen. into definite sections; while the advantage of beginning a new section at this point would naturally occur to an editor who felt the need of sharply separating the two accounts of the creation, and regarded the second as in some way the continuation of the first. If that be so, he probably took 'in the sense of 'history' and referred to what follows. The analogy of 51, Nu. 31 would suffice to justify the use of the formula before the סק of 40.—It has been thought that Σ has preserved the original form of the text: viz. 'ז יְסַק יָסָק (cf. 51); the redactor having, "before inserting a section from the other document, accidentally copied in the opening words of 51, which were afterwards adapted to their present position" (Ben.). That is improbable. It is more likely that Σ deliberately altered the text to correspond with 51. See Field, Hex., ad loc.; Nestle, MM, 4.

Babylonian and other Cosmogonies.

1. The outlines of Bab. cosmogony have long been known from two brief notices in Greek writers: (1) an extract from Berossus (3rd cent. B.C.) made by Alexander Polyhistor, and preserved by Syncellus from the lost Chronicle of Eusebius (lib. i.); and (2) a passage from the Neo-Platonic writer Damascius (6th cent. A.D.). From these it was apparent that the biblical account of creation is in its main conceptions Babylonian. The interest of the fragments has been partly enhanced, but partly superseded, since the discovery of the closely parallel ' Chaldaean Genesis,' unearthed from the debris of Asshurbanipal's library at Nineveh by George Smith in 1873. It is therefore unnecessary to examine them in detail; but since the originals are not very accessible to English readers, they are here reprinted in full (with emendations after KAT3, 488 ff.):


* On Dillmann's modification of this theory, see above on 1.
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The sections commencing with [A] and [B] stand in the reverse order in the text. The transposition is due to von Gutschmid, and seems quite necessary to bring out any connected meaning, though there may remain a suspicion that the two accounts of the creation of man are variants, and that the second is interpolated. Je. ATLO², 134, plausibly assigns the section from ἀλληγορικῶς to φθαρῆναι to another recension (restoring [B] to its place in the text).

† The Greek text of Berossus will be found in Müller, Fragm. Hist. Græc. ii. 497 f.; that of Damascius in Damascii philos. de prim. princ. (ed. Kopp, 1826), cap. 125. For translations of both fragments, see
2. The only cuneiform document which admits of close and continuous comparison with Gn. 1 is the great Creation Epos just referred to. Since the publication, in 1876, of the first fragments, many lacunae have been filled up from subsequent discoveries, and several duplicates have been brought to light; and the series is seen to have consisted of seven Tablets, entitled, from the opening phrase, Enuma eliš (= 'When above').* The actual tablets discovered are not of earlier date than the 7th cent. B.C., but there are strong reasons to believe that the originals of which these are copies are of much greater antiquity, and may go back to 2000 B.C., while the myth itself probably existed in writing in other forms centuries before that. Moreover, they represent the theory of creation on which the statements of Berossus and Damascius are based, and they have every claim to be regarded as the authorised version of the Babylonian cosmogony. It is here, therefore, if anywhere, that we must look for traces of Babylonian influences on the Hebrew conception of the origin of the world. The following outline of the contents of the tablets is based on King's analysis of the epic into five originally distinct parts (C7, p. lxvii).

i. The Theogony.—The first twenty-one lines of Tab. I. contain a description of the primæval chaos and the evolution of successive generations of deities:

When in the height heaven was not named,
And the earth beneath did not bear a name,
And the primæval Apsu,¹ who begat them,
And chaos, Ti'amat,² the mother of them both,—
Their waters were mingled together,

Then were created the gods in the midst of (heaven), etc.

First Lahmu and Lahamu,³ then Ansar and Kisar,⁴ and lastly (as we learn from Damascius, whose report is in accord with this part of the tablet, and may safely be used to make up a slight defect) the supreme triad of the Bab. pantheon, Anu, Bel, and Ea.⁵

¹ Damascius, 'Απασών. ² Dam. Taudhe, Ber. Θαμυτ (em., see above). ³ Dam. Λαχη and Λαχος (em.). ⁴ 'Ασωφρος and Κισσαρη. ⁵ 'Ανος, Τλαυρος (In-lil = Bel), and Τλας.


* The best collection and translation of the relevant texts in English is given in L. W. King's Seven Tablets of Creation, vol. i. (1902); with which should be compared Jen. Mythen und Epen, in KIB, vi. i (1900), and now (1909) Greßmann, Altorient. Texte und Bilder z. AT., i. 4 ff. See also Jen. Kosmologie (1890), 268–301; Gu. Schöpf. (1894) 401–420, and the summaries in KAT³, 492 ff.; Lukas, Grundbegriffe in d. Kosm. d. alt. Völker (1893), 2 ff.; Jast. Rel. of Bab. and Ass. (1898) 410 ff.; Jer. ATLO³, 132 ff.; EB, art. CREATION.
ii. The Subjugation of Apsu by Ea.—The powers of chaos, Apsu, Tiamat, and a third being called Mummu (Dam. Movus), take counsel together to ‘destroy the way’ of the heavenly deities. An illegible portion of Tab. I. must have told how Apsu and Mummu were vanquished by Ea, leaving Tiamat still unsubdued. In the latter part of the tablet the female monster is again incited to rebellion by a god called Kingu, whom she chooses as her consort, laying on his breast the ‘Tables of Destiny’ which the heavenly gods seek to recover. She draws to her side many of the old gods, and brings forth eleven kinds of monstrous beings to aid her in the fight.

iii. The conflict between Marduk and Tiamat.—Tabs. II. and III. are occupied with the consultations of the gods in view of this new peril, resulting in the choice of Marduk as their champion; and Tab. IV. gives a graphic description of the conflict that ensues. On the approach of the sun-god, mounted on his chariot andformidably armed, attended by a host of winds, Tiamat’s helpers flee in terror, and she alone confronts the angry deity. Marduk entangles her in his net, sends a hurricane into her distended jaws, and finally despatches her by an arrow shot into her body.

iv. The account of creation commences near the end of Tab. IV. After subduing the helpers of Tiamat and taking the Tables of Destiny from Kingu, Marduk surveys the carcase, and ‘devised a cunning plan’:

He split her up like a flat fish into two halves;
One half of her he stablished as a covering for the heaven.
He fixed a bolt, he stationed a watchman,
And bade them not to let her waters come forth.
He passed through the heavens, he surveyed the regions (thereof),
And over against the Deep he set the dwelling of Nudimmud.¹
And the lord measured the structure of the Deep
And he founded E-sara, a mansion like unto it.
The mansion E-sara which he created as heaven,
He caused Anu, Bel, and Ea in their districts to inhabit.

Berossus says, what is no doubt implied here, that of the other half of Tiamat he made the earth; but whether this is meant by the founding of E-sara, or is to be looked for in a lost part of Tab. V., is a point in dispute (see Jen. Kosm. 185 ff., 195 ff.; and KIB, vi. 1, 344 f.). Tab. V. opens with the creation of the heavenly bodies:

He made the stations for the great gods;
The stars, their images, as the stars of the Zodiac, he fixed.
He ordained the year and into sections he divided it;
For the twelve months he fixed three stars.

The Moon-god he caused to shine forth, the night he entrusted to him.
He appointed him, a being of the night, to determine the days;

¹ Ea.
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Every month without ceasing with the crown he covered (?) him, (saying,) 

"At the beginning of the month, when thou shinest upon the land, Thou commandest the horns to determine six days, And on the seventh day," etc. etc.

The rest of Tab. V., where legible, contains nothing bearing on the present subject; but in Tab. VI. we come to the creation of man, which is recorded in a form corresponding to the account of Berossus:

When Marduk heard the word of the gods, His heart prompted him, and he devised (a cunning plan). He opened his mouth and unto Ea (he spake), (That which) he had conceived in his heart he imparted (unto him):

"My blood will I take and bone will I (fashion), I will make man, that man may . . . (. . .) I will create man, who shall inhabit (the earth), That the service of the gods may be established," etc. etc.

At the end of the tablet the gods assemble to sing the praises of Marduk; and the last tablet is filled with a

v. Hymn in honour of Marduk.—From this we learn that to Marduk was ascribed the creation of vegetation and of the 'firm earth,' as well as those works which are described in the legible portions of Tabs. IV.—VI.

How far, now, does this conception correspond with the cosmogony of Gn. 1? (1) In both we find the general notion of a watery chaos, and an etymological equivalence in the names (Ti'amat, Têhôm) by which it is called. It is true that the Bab. chaos is the subject of a double personification, Apsu representing the male, and Tiamat the female principle by whose union the gods are generated. According to Jen. (KLB, 559 f.), Apsu is the fresh, life-giving water which descends from heaven in the rain, while Tiamat is the 'stinking,' salt water of the ocean: in the beginning these were mingled (Tab. I. 5), and by the mixture the gods were produced. But in the subsequent narrative the rôle of Apsu is insignificant; and in the central episode, the conflict with Marduk, Tiamat alone represents the power of chaos, as in Heb. Têhôm.—(2) In Enuma eliš the description of chaos is followed by a theogony, of which there is no trace in Gen. The Bab. theory is essentially monistic, the gods being conceived as emanating from a material chaos. Lukas, indeed (l.c. 14 ff., 24 ff.), has tried to show that they are represented as proceeding from a supreme spiritual principle, Anu. But while an independent origin of deity may be consistent with the opening lines of Tab. I., it is in direct opposition to the statement of Damascius, and is irreconcilable with the later parts of the series, where the gods are repeatedly spoken of as children of Apsu and Tiamat. The biblical conception, on the contrary, is probably dualistic (above, pp. 7, 15), and at all events the supremacy of the spiritual principle (Elohim) is absolute. That a
theogony must have originally stood between vv.2 and 3 of Gn. 1 (Gu.) is more than can be safely affirmed. Gu. thinks it is the necessary sequel to the idea of the world-egg in the end of v.3. But he himself regards that idea as foreign to the main narrative; and if in the original source something must have come out of the egg, it is more likely to have been the world itself (as in the Phœnician and Indian cosmogonies) than a series of divine emanations.—(3) Both accounts assume, but in very different ways, the existence of light before the creation of the heavenly bodies. In the Bab. legend the assumption is disguised by the imagery of the myth: the fact that Marduk, the god of light, is himself the demiurge, explains the omission of light from the category of created things. In the biblical account that motive no longer operates, and accordingly light takes its place as the first creation of the Almighty.—(4) A very important parallel is the conception of heaven as formed by a separation of the waters of the primæval chaos. In Enuma eliš the septum is formed from the body of Tiamat; in Gen. it is simply a ráki'a—a solid structure fashioned for the purpose. But the common idea is one that could hardly have been suggested except by the climatic conditions under which the Bab. myth is thought to have originated. Jen. has shown, to the satisfaction of a great many writers, how the imagery of the Bab. myth can be explained from the changes that pass over the face of nature in the lower Euphrates valley about the time of the vernal equinox (see Kosm. 307 ff.; cf. Gu. Schöpf. 24 ff.; Gordon). Chaos is an idealisation of the Babylonian winter, when the heavy rains and the overflow of the rivers have made the vast plain like a sea, when thick mists obscure the light, and the distinction between heaven and sea seems to be effaced. Marduk represents the spring sun, whose rays pierce the darkness and divide the waters, sending them partly upwards as clouds, and partly downwards to the sea, so that the dry land appears. The 'hurricane,' which plays so important a part in the destruction of the chaos-monster, is the spring winds that roll away the dense masses of vapour from the surface of the earth. If this be the natural basis of the myth of Marduk and Tiamat, it is evident that it must have originated in a marshy alluvial region, subject to annual inundations; like the Euphrates valley.—(5) There is, again, a close correspondence between the accounts of the creation of the heavenly bodies (see p. 21 f.). The Babylonian is much fuller, and more saturated with mythology: it mentions not only the moon but the signs of the Zodiac, the planet Jupiter, and the stars. But in the idea that the function of the luminaries is to regulate time, and in the destination of the moon to rule the night, we must recognise a striking resemblance between the two cosmogonies.—(6) The last definite point of contact is the creation of man (p. 30 f.). Here, however, the resemblance is slight, though the deliberative 1st pers. pl. in Gn. 126 is probably a reminiscence of a dialogue like that between Marduk and Ea in the Enuma eliš narrative.—(7) With regard to the order of the works, it is evident that there cannot have been complete parallelism between the two accounts. In the tablets the creation of heaven is followed
naturally by that of the stars. The arrangement of the remaining works, which must have been mentioned in lost parts of Tabs. V. and VI., is, of course, uncertain; but the statement of Berossus suggests that the creation of land animals followed instead of preceding that of man. At the same time it is very significant that the separate works themselves, apart from their order: Firmament, Luminaries, Earth, Plants, Animals, Men,—are practically identical in the two documents: there is even a fragment (possibly belonging to the series) which alludes to the creation of marine animals as a distinct class (King, CT, lix, lxxxvi). Gordon (Early Traditions of Gen.) holds that the differences of arrangement can be reduced to the single transposition of heavenly bodies and plants (see his table, p. 51).

In view of these parallels, it seems impossible to doubt that the cosmogony of Gn. 1 rests on a conception of the process of creation fundamentally identical with that of the Enuma eliš tablets.

3. There is, however, another recension of the Babylonian creation story from which the fight of the sun-god with chaos is absent, and which for that reason possesses a certain importance for our present purpose. It occurs as the introduction to a bilingual magical text, first published by Pinches in 1891.* Once upon a time, it tells us, there were no temples for the gods, no plants, no houses or cities, no human inhabitants:

The Deep had not been created, Eridu had not been built;
Of the holy house, the house of the gods, the habitation had not been made.
All lands were sea (tāmtu).

Then arose a ‘movement in the sea’; the most ancient shrines and cities of Babylonia were made, and divine beings created to inhabit them. Then

Marduk laid a reed† on the face of the waters;
He formed dust and poured it out beside the reed,
That he might cause the gods to dwell in the habitation of their heart’s desire.
He formed mankind; the goddess Aruru together with him created the seed of mankind.

Next he formed beasts, the rivers, grasses, various kinds of animals, etc.; then, having ‘laid in a dam by the side of the sea,’ he made reeds and trees, houses and cities, and the great Babylonian sanctuaries. The whole description is extremely obscure, and the translations vary widely.

* JRAS, 1891, 393 ff.; translated in King, CT, 131 ff.; KIB, 39 ff.; ATLO², 129 ff.; Texte u. Bilder, i. 27 f.; Sayce, Early Israel, 336 f. Cf. the summary in KAT³, 498.
† So King; but Je. ‘a reed-hurdle’ (Rohrgeflecht); while Jen. renders: ‘Marduk placed a canopy in front of the waters, He created earth and heaped it up against the canopy’ — a reference to the firmament (so KAT³).
The main interest of the fragment lies in its non-legendary, matter-of-fact representation of the primæval condition of things, and of the process of world-building. Of special correspondences with Gn. 1 there are perhaps but two: (a) the impersonal conception of chaos implied in the appellative sense of ṭāmu (Tēhôm) for the sea; (b) the comparison of the firmament to a canopy, if that be the right interpretation of the phrase. In the order of the creation of living beings it resembles more the account in Gn. 2; but from that account it is sharply distinguished by its assumption of a watery chaos in contrast to the arid waste of Gn. 2. It is therefore inadmissible to regard this text as a more illuminating parallel to Gn. 1 than the Enuma eliš tablets. The most that can be said is that it suggests the possibility that in Babylonia there may have existed recensions of the creation story in which the mythical motive of a conflict between the creator and the chaos-monster played no part, and that the biblical narrative goes back directly to one of these. But when we consider that the Tiamat myth appears in both the Greek accounts of Babylonian cosmogony, that echoes of it are found in other ancient cosmogonies, and that in these cases its imagery is modified in accordance with the religious ideas of the various races, the greater probability is that the cosmogony of Gn. 1 is directly derived from it, and that the elimination of its mythical and polytheistic elements is due to the influence of the pure ethical monotheism of the OT.—

Gu. in his Schöpfung und Chaos was the first to call attention to possible survivals of the creation myth in Hebrew poetry. We find allusions to a conflict between Yahwe and a monster personified under various names (Rahab, the Dragon, Leviathan, etc.—but never Tēhôm); and no explanation of them is so natural as that which traces them to the idea of a struggle between Yahwe and the power of chaos, preceding (as in the Babylonian myth) the creation of the world. The passages, however, are late; and we cannot be sure that they do not express a literary interest in foreign mythology rather than a survival of a native Hebrew myth.*

4. The Phœnician cosmogony, of which the three extant recensions are given below,† hardly presents any instructive points of comparison.

* The chief texts are Is. 5118, Ps. 8010, Jb. 2612 (Rahab); Ps. 7418, Is. 271 (Leviathan); Jb. 712 (the Dragon), etc. See the discussion in Schöpf. 30—111; and the criticisms of Che. EB, i. 950f., and Nikel, pp. 90—99.

† Eus. Prap. Evang. i. 10 (ed. Heinichen, p. 37ff.; cf. Orelli, Sanch. Berytii Fragm. [1826]), gives the following account of the cosmogony of Sanchuniathon (a Phœnician writer of unknown date, and even of uncertain historicity) taken from Philo Byblius:

'Τὴν τῶν διὸν ἀρχὴν ὑποτιθεῖται ἀέρα ζωόν τάκαν καὶ πνευματῶδη, ἢ πνυχ οίρος ζυόλωδος, καὶ χῶν πολεκρῶν, ἐρεβώδες. Ταῦτα δὲ εἶναι ἄσευρα, καὶ διὰ πολὺν αὐῶν μὴ ἔχειν πέρας. Ὡσε δὲ, φησιν, ἡράσθητο τὸ πνεῦμα τῶν ἱδὼν ἀρχῶν, καὶ ἐγένετο σύγκρασις, ή πλοκὴ ἐκείνῃ ἐκλήθη Πλῶς. Αὕτη δὲ ἀρχὴ κτίσεως ἀπάντων' αὐτῷ δὲ οὖν ἐγίνωσκε τὴν αὐτὸς κτίσιν, καὶ ἐκ τῆς αὐτοῦ συμπλοκῆς τοῦ πνεύματος, ἐγένετο Μωτ. Τοῦτο τινὸς φασιν ἱλαν, οἶ δὲ, ὑπατάμων μίζεως
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With Gn. 1. It contains, however, in each of its recensions, the idea of the world-egg—a very widespread cosmological speculation to which no Babylonian analogies have been found, but which is supposed to underlie the last clause of Gn. 1. In Sanchuniathon, the union of 'gloomy, breath-like Air' with 'turbid dark Chaos' produces a miry watery mixture called Mu, in which all things originate, and first of all certain living beings named 'watchers of heaven' (παρ' τῶν ἔθνων'). These appear to be the constellations, and it is said that they are 'shaped like the form of an egg,' i.e., probably, are arranged in the sky in that form. In Eudemos, the first principles are Χρόνος, Πόθος, and 'Ομίχλη: the two latter give birth to 'Αήρ and 'Αέρα, and from the union of these again

There are versions from Eudemos (a pupil of Aristotle) and a native writer Mochos: they are preserved in the following passage of Damascius (cap. 125; ed. Kopp, p. 385):

Σιδήνιοι δὲ κατὰ τὸν αὐτὸν συγγραφέα (i.e. Eudemos) πρὸ πάντων Χρόνων ὑποθέτει ταὶ Πόθον καὶ 'Ομίχλην. Πόθον δὲ καὶ 'Ομίχλης μιγέντων ὡς δυὸν ἄρχων 'Αέρα γενέσθαι καὶ 'Αέραν, 'Αέρα μὲν ἄκρατον τοῦ νοστότου παραδηλώνεται, Ἀέραν δὲ τοῦ τούτος ἀκροβόλου τοῦ νοστότου ὅσιτικον προτύπωμα. Πάλιν δὲ τοῦ τούτου ἀκροβόλου ὅσιτον [rd. ὅν] γεννηθήκατο κατὰ τὸν νοστόν ομία τὸν νοστόν. Ο' δὲ ἔξωθεν Εὐδόμινον τὴν Φοινίκην εὐκράσιαν κατὰ Μύκων μυθολογίαν, Ἀδήρ ἢ τὸν πάρον καὶ 'Αήρ αὐτὸ δαίμονα τοῦ, εἶ μὲν γεννηθήαι Οὐλωμὸς, ὁ νοστὸς θεός, αὐτὸ ομία τὸ ἄκρον τοῦ νοστοῦ εἰς οὖ ἀκτητοῦ συνελθόντος γεννηθῆκαι φίλη Χουσώρ, ἀνοιγή πρῶτον, εἰτα ὅνων τούτον ὅμια τὸν νοστόν νοστόν λεγόντες, τοῦ δὲ σοφίας Χουσώρως, τὴν νοστὴν δύναμιν ἀτε πρώτῃ διακρίνασαν τὴν ἀδιάκριτον φύσιν, εἰ μὲν ἄρα μετὰ τὰς δύο ἄρχας τὸ μὲν ἄκρον ἄνεμον ὁ εἶς, τὸ δὲ μέσον οὖς δύο ἄνεμου Λύπ τε καὶ Νόητως' ποιοῦν γὰρ πως καὶ τούτου πρὸ τοῦ Οὐλωμοῦ' ὁ δὲ Οὐλωμὸς αὐτὸς ὁ νοστὸς εὑρίσκεται, ὁ δὲ αὐτοὶς, Χουσώρως, ἢ μετὰ τὸ νοστὸν πρῶτῃ τάξει, τὸ δὲ ὅνων ὁ οὐρανὸς λεγέται γὰρ εἰς αὐτοῦ παραγέντος εἰς δύο, γενέσθαι οὐρανὸς καὶ γῆ, τῶν διεστομημάτων ἐκάτερον.
proceeds 'an egg.' More striking is the expression of the idea in Mochos. Here the union of Ἀδὴρ and Ἀθρ produces θύλωμας (ἴν). from which proceed Χονωρός, 'the first opener,' and then 'an egg.' It is afterwards explained that the egg is the heaven, and that when it is split in two (? by Χονωρός) the one half forms the heaven and the other the earth. It may introduce consistency into these representations if we suppose that in the process of evolution the primæval chaos (which is coextensive with the future heaven and earth) assumes the shape of an egg, and that this is afterwards divided into two parts, corresponding to the heaven and the earth. The function of Χονωρός is thus analogous to the act of Marduk in cleaving the body of Tiamat in two. But obviously all this throws remarkably little light on Gn. 1. — Another supposed point of contact is the resemblance between the name Baav and the Heb. בָּאוּ. In Sanchuniathon Baav is explained as night, and is said to be the wife of the Kolpia-wind, and mother of Αἰδων and Πρωτόγυνος, the first pair of mortals. It is evident that there is much confusion in this part of the extract; and it is not unreasonably conjectured that Αἰδων and Πρωτόγυνος were really the first pair of emanations, and Kolpia and Baav the chaotic principles from which they spring; so that they may be the cosmological equivalents of Tōhû and Bōhû in Gn. There is a strong probability that the name Baav is connected with Bau, a Babylonian mother-goddess (see ATLO, 161); but the evidence is too slight to enable us to say that specifically Phœnician influences are traceable in Gn. 1.

5. A division of creation into six stages, in an order similar to that of Gn. 1, appears in the late book of the Bundehesh (the Parsee Genesis), where the periods are connected with the six annual festivals called Gahanbars, so as to form a creative year, parallel to the week of Gn. 1. The order is: 1. Heaven; 2. Water; 3. Earth; 4. Plants; 5. Animals; 6. Men. We miss from the enumeration: Light, which in Zoroastrianism is an uncreated element; and the Heavenly bodies, which are said to belong to an earlier creation (Tiele, Gesch. d. Rel. im Altert. ii. 296). The late date of the Bundehesh leaves room, of course, for the suspicion of biblical influence; but it is thought by some that the same order can be traced in a passage of the younger Avesta, and that it may belong to ancient Iranian tradition (Tiele, l.c., and ARW, vi. 244 ff.; Caland, Thir, xxii. 179 ff.). — The most remarkable of all known parallels to the six days' scheme of Gn. is found in a cosmogony attributed to the ancient Etruscans by Suidas (Lexicon, s.v. Τύρρηνος). Here the creation is said to have been accomplished in six periods of 1000 years, in the following order: 1. Heaven and Earth; 2. the Firmament; 3. Sea and Water; 4. Sun and Moon; 5. Souls of Animals; 6. Man (see K. O. Müller, Die Etrusker, ii. 38; ATLO, 154 f.). Suidas, however, lived not earlier than the 10th cent. A.D., and though his information may have been derived from ancient sources, we cannot be sure that his account is not coloured by knowledge of the Hebrew cosmogony.
II. 4b–III. 24.—The Creation and Fall of Man (J).

The passage forms a complete and closely articulated narrative,* of which the leading motive is man's loss of his original innocence and happiness through eating forbidden fruit, and his consequent expulsion from the garden of Eden. The account of creation in 2:4b ff. had primarily, perhaps, an independent interest; yet it contains little that is not directly subservient to the main theme developed in ch. 3. It is scarcely to be called a cosmogony, for the making of 'earth and heaven' (2:4b) is assumed without being described; the narrative springs from an early phase of thought which was interested in the beginnings of human life and history, but had not advanced to speculation on the origin of heaven and earth (cf. Frankenberg in Gu. 2 24). From ch. 1 it differs fundamentally both in its conception of the primal condition of the world as an arid, waterless waste (2:5 f.; ct. 1:2), and in the order of creative works: viz. Man (7), Trees (9), Animals (18–20), Woman (21–23). Alike in this arrangement and in the supplementary features—the garden (8–10 ff.), the miraculous trees (9b), the appointments regarding man's position in the world (15–17), and the remarkable omissions (plants, fishes, etc.)—it is governed by the main episode to which it leads up (ch. 3), with its account of the temptation by the serpent (1–5), the transgression (6.7), the inquest (8–13), the sentences (14–19), and the expulsion from Eden (22–24).

The story thus summarised is one of the most charming idylls in literature: ch. 3 is justly described by Gu. as the 'pearl of Genesis.' Its literary and aesthetic character is best appreciated by comparison with ch. 1. Instead of the formal precision, the schematic disposition, the stereotyped diction, the aim at scientific classification, which distinguish the great cosmogony, we have here a narrative marked by childlike simplicity of conception, exuberant though pure imagination, and a captivating freedom of style. Instead of lifting God far above man and nature, this writer revels in the most exquisite anthropomorphisms; he does not shrink from speaking of God as walking in His garden in the cool of the day (3), or making experiments for the welfare of His first creature (218ff.), or arriving at a knowledge of man's sin by a searching

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examination (305), etc. While the purely mythological phase of thought has long been outgrown, a mythical background everywhere appears; the happy garden of God, the magic trees, the speaking serpent, the Cherubim and Flaming Sword, are all emblems derived from a more ancient religious tradition. Yet in depth of moral and religious insight the passage is unsurpassed in the OT. We have but to think of its delicate handling of the question of sex, its profound psychology of temptation and conscience, and its serious view of sin, in order to realise the educative influence of revealed religion in the life of ancient Israel. It has to be added that we detect here the first note of that sombre, almost melancholy, outlook on human life which pervades the older stratum of Gn. 1-11. Cf. the characterisation in We. Prol. 6 302 ff.; Gu. p. 22 ff.

Source.—The features just noted, together with the use of the divine name מַלְאָךְ, show beyond doubt that the passage belongs to the Yahwistic cycle of narratives (J). Expressions characteristic of this document are found in Gn. 214, Ez 23, 2 Esdr 3:18, 3:14, 3:17, and (contrast to Ps) יָשַׁב, instead of יָשָׁב, יָשָׁב יְהָדָה instead of יָשֵׁב יָדָה (see on 723); and the constant use of acc. suff. to the verb.

Traces of Composition.—That the literary unity of the narrative is not perfect there are several indications, more or less decisive. (1) The geographical section 210-14 is regarded by most critics (since Ewald) as a later insertion, on the grounds that it is out of keeping with the simplicity of the main narrative, and seriously interrupts its sequence. The question is whether it be merely an isolated interpolation, or an extract from a parallel recension. If the latter be in evidence, we know too little of its character to say that 210-14 could not have belonged to it. At all events the objections urged would apply only to 11-14; and there is much to be said, on this assumption, for retaining 10 (or at least 10a) as a parallel to v. 6 (Ho.).—(2) A more difficult problem is the confusion regarding the two trees on which the fate of man depends, a point to which attention was first directed by Bu. According to 22b the tree of life and the tree of the knowledge of good and evil grew together in the midst of the garden, and in 217 the second alone is made the test of the man's obedience. But ch. 3 (down to v. 21) knows of only one tree in the midst of the garden, and that obviously (though it is never so named) the tree of knowledge. The tree of life plays no part in the story except in 322-24, and its sudden introduction there only creates fresh embarrassment; for if this tree also was forbidden, the writer's silence about it in 217 36 is inexplicable; and if it was not forbidden, can we suppose that in the author's intention the boon of immortality was placed freely within man's reach during the period of his probation? So far as the main narrative is concerned, the tree of life is an irrelevance; and we shall see immediately that the part where it does enter into the story is precisely the part where signs of redaction or dual authorship accumulate.—(3) The clearest indication of a double recension is found in the twofold account of the expulsion from Eden: 223, 24. Here 22 and 24 clearly hang together; 20 and 21 are as clearly out of their proper
position; hence 23 may have been the original continuation of 10, to which it forms a natural sequel. There is thus some reason to believe that in this instance, at any rate, the ‘tree of life’ is not from the hand of the chief narrator.—(4) Other and less certain duplicates are: 25||210 (11-14) (see above), 8a||8a (the planting of the garden); and 8b: 18a (the placing of man in it); 220||230 (the naming of the woman).—(5) Bu. (Urg. 232 ff.) was the first to suggest that the double name ידכלא אתו (which is all but peculiar to this section) has arisen through amalgamation of sources. His theory in its broader aspects has been stated on p. 3, above; it is enough here to point out its bearing on the compound name in Gn. 2 f. It is assumed that two closely parallel accounts existed, one of which (J°) employed only ידכלא, the other (J) only אתו. When these were combined the editor harmonised them by adding ידכלא to אתו everywhere in Jl, and prefixing אתו to ידכלא everywhere in J° except in the collocation between the serpent and the woman (31-3 5), where the general name was felt to be more appropriate.* The reasoning is precarious; but if it be sound, it follows that 31-3 5 must be assigned to J°; and since these vv. are part of the main narrative (that which speaks only of the tree of knowledge), there remain for J only 322-24, and possibly some variants and glosses in the earlier part of the narrative.—On the whole, the facts seem to warrant these conclusions: of the Paradise story two recensions existed; in one, the only tree mentioned was the tree of the knowledge of good and evil, while the other certainly contained the tree of life (so v. Doorninck, ThT, xxxix. 225 f.) and possibly both trees; † the former supplied the basis of our present narrative, and is practically complete, while the second is so fragmentary that all attempt to reconstruct even its main outlines must be abandoned as hopeless.

* So Gu. A still more complete explanation of this particular point would be afforded by the somewhat intricate original hypothesis of Bu. He suggested that the primary narrative (J°) in which אתו was regularly used, except in 31-3 5, was re-written and supplemented by J° who substituted ידכלא for אתו; the two narratives were subsequently amalgamated in rather mechanical fashion by J°, with the result that wherever the divine names differed both were retained, and where the documents agreed ידכלא alone appears (Urg. 233 f.). Later in the volume (471 ff.) the hypothesis is withdrawn in favour of the view that J° contained no Paradise story at all.—A similar explanation is given by v. Doorninck (l.c. 239), who thinks the retention of ידכלא in 31-3 5 was due to the redactor’s desire to avoid the imputation of falsehood to Yahwe!

† The point here depends on the degree of similarity assumed to have obtained between the two recensions. Gu., who assumes that the resemblance was very close, holds that in Jl probably both trees were concerned in the fall of man. But the text gives no indication that in Jl the knowledge of good and evil was attained by eating the fruit of a tree: other ways of procuring unlawful knowledge are conceivable; and it is therefore possible that in this version the tree of life alone occupied a position analogous to that of the tree of knowledge in the other (see, further, Gressmann, ARW, x. 355 f.).
4b-7. The creation of man.—On the somewhat involved construction of the section, see the footnote.—4b. *At the time when Yahwe Elohim made, etc.*] The double name מִלְכָּא אָדָם, which is all but peculiar to Gn. 2 f., is probably to be explained as a result of redactional operations (v.i.), rather than (with Reuss, Ayles, al.) as a feature of the isolated source from which these two chapters were taken.—*earth and heaven*] The unusual order (which is reversed by מִלְכָּא אָדָם) appears again only in Ps. 148:13.—5. *there was as yet no bush, etc.*] Or (on Di.’s construction) *while as yet there was no, etc.* The rare word נְשָר denotes elsewhere (21:15 [E], Jb. 30:4-7) a desert shrub (so Syr., Arab.); but a wider sense is attested by Ass. and Phœn. It is difficult to say whether here it means wild as opposed

4b-7. The sudden change of style and language shows that the transition to the Yahwistic document takes place at the middle of v.4. The construction presents the same syntactic ambiguity as 1:3 (see the note there); except, of course, that there can be no question of taking 4b as an independent sentence. We may also set aside the conjecture (We. Prol.6 297 f.; KS, al.) that the clause is the conclusion of a lost sentence of J, as inconsistent with the natural position of the time determination in Heb. 4b must therefore be joined as prot. to what follows; and the question is whether the apod. commences at 5 (Tu. Str. Dri. al.), or (with 4a as a parenthesis) at 7 (Di. Gu. al.). In syntax either view is admissible; but the first yields the better sense. The state of things described in 4a evidently lasted some time; hence it is not correct to say that Yahwe made man at the time when He made heaven and earth: to connect 7 directly with 4b is “to identify a period (v.6) with a point (v.7) of time” (Spurrell).—On the form of apod., see again Dri. T. § 78.—4. מַעְנֶשׁ always emphasises contemporaneousness of two events (cf. 2:17 3:6); the indefiniteness lies in the subst., which often covers a space of time (= ‘when’: Ex. 6:28 32:31, Jer. 11:4 etc.).—טַחְלָא הָאָדָם] in Hex. only Ex. 9:30; elsewhere 2 Sa. 7:22-25, Jon. 4:6, Ps. 72:18 84:12, 1 Ch. 17:16, 2 Ch. 6:41. כָּל uses the expression frequently up to 9:12, but its usage is not uniform even in chs. 2-3. The double name has sometimes been explained by the supposition that an editor added מִלְכָּא to the original מַעְנֶשׁ in order to smooth the transition from P to J, or as a hint to the Synagogue reader to substitute מַעְנֶשׁ for מַעֳנֶשׂ; but that is scarcely satisfactory. A more adequate solution is afforded by the theory of Bu. and Gu., on which see p. 53. Barton and Che. (TBAI, 99 f.) take it as a compound of the same type as מֶלֶךָא-אָדָּ֣֔ט, etc., an utterly improbable suggestion.—5. מַעְנֶשׂ is probably the same as Ass. שִׁיתו, from י = ‘grow high’ (Del. ḫadab.), and hence might include trees, as rendered by אֲרָבָא.—On מַעְנֶשׂ, see on 11. The gen. מַעְנֶשׂ, common
to cultivated plants (Hupf. Gu.), or perennials as opposed to annuals (Ho.).—For the earth’s barrenness two reasons are assigned: (1) the absence of rain, and (2) the lack of cultivation. In the East, however, the essence of husbandry is irrigation; hence the two conditions of fertility correspond broadly to the Arabian (and Talmudic) contrast between land watered by the Baal and that watered by human labour (Rob. Sm. RS², 96 ff.).—*to till the ground*

This, therefore, is man’s original destiny, though afterwards it is imposed on him as a curse,—an indication of the fusion of variant traditions. נֶסֶר (v. 6), has probably the restricted sense of ‘soil,’ ‘arable land’ (cf. 4:14).

—6. *but a flood (or mist, v.i.) used to come up (periodically)*

“The idea of the author appears to be that the ground was rendered capable of cultivation by the overflow of some great river” (Ayles).

It is certainly difficult to imagine any other purpose to be served by the ‘flood’ than to induce fertility, for we can hardly attribute to the writer the trivial idea that it had simply the effect of moistening the soil for the formation of man, etc. (Ra. al., cf. Gu. Che. TBAI, 87). But this appears to neutralise גָּזֹר, since rain is no longer an indispensable condition of vegetation. Ho., accordingly, proposes to remove  and to treat it as a variant of 10-14. The meaning might be, however, that the flood, when supplemented by human labour, was sufficient to fertilise the רַעֲדָהּ, but had, of course, no effect on the steppes, which were dependent on rain. The difficulty is not removed if we render ‘mist’; and the brevity of the narrative leaves other questions unanswered; such as, When was rain first sent on the earth? At what stage are we to place the creation of the cereals? etc.

to both, denotes open country, as opposed sometimes to cities or houses, sometimes to enclosed cultivated land (De. 96).—On רַעֲדָה with impf. see G-K. § 107 c; Dri. T. § 27 β. The rendering ‘before’ (ז [one of the deviations mentioned in Mechilta—see on 1:1] י) would imply רַעֲדָה, and is wrong.—6. רַעֲדָה יי עָבְרוּ, Aq. אֲבֵדָתָו,  י דְוָס, § 1נָהָס, י מָי. Che. conj. ו, others יִּו (after Vns.). The word has no etymol. in Heb., and the only other occurrence (Jb. 36:27) is even more obscure than this. ‘Cloud’ (ז) or ‘mist’ is a natural guess, and it is doubtful if it be anything better. The meaning ‘flood’ comes from Ass. ⁵א, applied to the annual overflow of a river (Del. Hdw.),—note the freq. impf. Gu. thinks it a technical semi-mythological term of the same order as Tēhôm, with which Ra. seems to connect it; while IEz. interprets ‘cloud,’ but confounds the word with יָב, ‘calamity’ (Zeph. 1:5); so Aq., who renders the latter by אֲבֵדָתָו in Pr. 1:26, Jb. 36:12 (see Ber. R. § 13).—On the tenses,
If the above explanation be correct, there is a confusion of two points of view which throws an interesting light on the origin of the story. The rain is suggested by experience of a dry country, like Palestine. The flood, on the other hand, is a reminiscence of the entirely different state of things in an alluvial country like the Euphrates valley, where husbandry depends on artificial irrigation assisted by periodic inundations. While, therefore, there may be a Babylonian basis to the myth, it must have taken its present shape in some drier region, presumably in Palestine. To say that it "describes . . . the phenomena witnessed by the first colonists of Babylonia," involves more than 'mythic exaggeration' (Che. EB, 949).

7. Yahwe Elohim moulded man] The verb יִצְלָח (avoided by P) is used, in the ptcpl., of the potter; and that figure underlies the representation. An Egyptian picture shows the god Chnum forming human beings on the potter's disc (ATLO², 146).—The idea of man as made of clay or earth appears in Babylonian; but is indeed universal, and pervades the whole OT.—breath of life] Omit the art. The phrase recurs only 7²² (J), where it denotes the animal life, and there is no reason for supposing another meaning here. "Subscribe eorum sententiae non dubito qui de animali hominis vita locum hunc exponunt" (Calvin).—man became a living being] לְהָקַם here is not a constituent of human nature, but denotes the personality as a whole.

The v. has commonly been treated as a locus classicus of OT anthropology, and as determining the relations of the three elements of human nature—flesh, soul, spirit—to one another. It is supposed to

see G-K. § 112 e; Dri. T. § 113, 4 (β).—7. בָּרֶךְ . . . בָּרֶךְ Both words are of uncertain etymology. The old derivation from the vb. 'be red' (πυρόν ἐπειδῆερ ἀπὸ τῆς πυρῆς γῆς φυσαλθην ἐγένετε: Jos. Ant. i. 34) is generally abandoned, but none better has been found to replace it (recent theories in Di. 53 f.). According to Nöeldeke (ZDMG, xl. 722), בָּרֶךְ appears in Arab. as 'ānām (cf. Haupt, ib. lxi. 194). Frd. Del.'s view, that both words embody the idea of tillage, seems (as Di. says) to rest on the ambiguity of the German bauen; but it is very near the thought of this passage: man is made from the soil, lives by its cultivation, and returns to it at death.—ותע] Acc. of material, G-K. § 117 hh. Gu. regards it as a variant to בָּרֶךְ from Jl.—הָנָה יִצְלָח] This appears to be the only place where the phrase is applied to man; elsewhere to animals (120, 24 etc.). '1, primarily 'breath,' denotes usually the vital principle (with various mental connotations), and ultimately the whole being thus animated—the person. The last is the only sense consistent with the structure of the sentence here.
teach that the soul ($\psi\nu\tau$) arises through the union of the universal life-principle ($\sigma\tau\tau\iota\tau$) with the material frame ($\psi\tau\rho\varsigma$): cf. e.g. Grüneisen, Ahnenkultus, 34 f. No such ideas are expressed: neither וָּ]?. nor הָּ]ו is mentioned, while $\psi\tau\rho\varsigma$ is not applied to a separate element of man's being, but to the whole man in possession of vital powers. "All that seems in question here is just the giving of vitality to man. There seems no allusion to man's immaterial being, to his spiritual element. . . Vitality is communicated by God, and he is here represented as communicating it by breathing into man's nostrils that breath which is the sign of life" (Davidson, OTTh. 194). At the same time, the fact that God imparts his own breath to man, marks the dignity of man above the animals: it is J's equivalent for the 'image of God.'

8-17. The garden of Eden.—That the planting of the garden was subsequent to the creation of man is the undoubted meaning of the writer; the rendering plantaverat ($\mathfrak{Y}$: so IEz.) is grammatically impossible, and is connected with a misconception of וָּ]ו below.—a garden in Eden] This is perhaps the only place where Eden (as a geographical designation) is distinguished from the garden (cf. 2.10.15 3.23.24 4.16, Is. 51, Ezek. 28.13 31.9.16.18 36.55, Jl. 2, Sir. 40.37). The common phrase יָ]ו would suggest to a Hebrew the idea 'garden of delight,' as it is rendered by $\mathfrak{C}$ (often) and $\mathfrak{Y}$ (v. i.). There is no probability that the proper name was actually coined in this sense. It is derived by the younger Del. and Schrader from Bab. edinu, 'plain,' 'steppe,' or 'desert' (Del. Par. 80; KAT 2, 26 f.; KAT 3, 539); but it is a somewhat precarious inference that the garden was conceived as an oasis in the midst of a desert (Ho.).— יָ]ו 'in the (far) East'; i.e. from the Palestinian standpoint of the author; not, of course, to be identified with any other יָ]ו within the geographical horizon of the Israelites (see 2 Ki. 19.12 [Is. 37.12], Ezek. 27.23, Am. 1).

Besides the passages cited above, the idea of a divine garden appears also in Gn. 13.10, Ezek. 3.8. Usually it is a mere symbol of
luxuriant fertility, especially in respect of its lordly trees (Ezk. 31:16, 18); but in Ezk. 28:11 it is mentioned as the residence of a semi-divine being. Most of the allusions are explicable as based on Gn. 2 f.; but the imagery of Ezk. 28 reveals a highly mythological conception of which few traces remain in the present narrative. If the idea be primitive Semitic (and 3 is common to all the leading dialects), it may originate in the sacred grove (Hima) "where water and verdure are united, where the fruits of the sacred trees are taboo, and the wild animals are 'ants, i.e. on good terms with man, because they may not be frightened away" (We. ProL p. 303; cf. Heid. 141; Barton, SO^1, 96). In early times such spots of natural fertility were the haunts of the gods or supernaturally beings (RS^3, 102 ff.). But from the wide diffusion of the myth, and the facts pointed out on p. 93 f. below, it is plain that the conception has been enriched by material from different quarters, and had passed through a mythological phase before it came into the hands of the biblical writers. Such sacred groves were common in Babylonia, and mythological idealisations of them enter largely into the religious literature (see ATLO^2, 195 ff.).

9. all sorts of trees . . . food] The primitive vegetation is conceived as consisting solely of trees, on whose fruit man was to subsist; the appearance of herbs is a result of the curse pronounced on the ground (3:17).—and the tree of life (was) in the midst] On Bu.'s strictures on the form of the sentence, v.i. The intricate question of the two trees must be reserved for separate discussion (pp. 52 f., 94); for the present form of the story both are indispensables. The tree

stood here by all Vns. except G (E in principio, etc.).—9. גזר] G–K, § 127 b.—הכר] The use of a rt. with inf. const. is very rare (Dav. § 19), but is explained by the frequent use of הכר as abstr. noun. Otherwise the construction is regular, הכר being acc., not gen. of obj.—Budde (Urg. 51 f.) objects to the splitting up of the compound obj. by the secondary pred. הכר, and thinks the original text must have been כרכ רבי הכר; thus finding a confirmation of the theory that the primary narrative knew of only one tree, and that the tree of knowledge (p. 52; so Ba. Ho. Gu. al.). In view of the instances examined by Dri. in Hebraica, ii. 33, it is doubtful if the grammatical argument can be sustained; but if it had any force it ought certainly to lead to the excision of the second member rather than of the first (Kuen, ThT, 1884, 136; v. Doorninck, ib., 1905, 225 f.; Eerdmans, ib. 494 f.). A more important point is the absence of הכר before the def. obj. The writer's use of this part. is very discriminating; and its omission suggests that 9b is really a nominal clause, as rendered above. If we were to indulge in analysis of sources, we might put 9b (in whole or in part) after 8a, and assign it to that secondary stratum of narrative which undoubtedly spoke of a tree of life (3^2).
of life, whose fruit confers immortality (322; cf. Pr. 318 1130
1312 154; further, Ezek. 4712, Rev. 222), is a widely diffused
idea (see Di. 49; Wünsche, Die Sagen vom Lebensbaum u.
Lebenswasser). The tree of knowledge is a more refined
conception; its property of communicating knowledge of
good and evil is, however, magical, like that of the other;
a connexion with oracular trees (Lenormant, Or. i. 85 f.;
Baudissin, Stud. ii. 227) is not so probable. As to what is
meant by ‘knowing good and evil,’ see p. 95 ff.

The primitive Semitic tree of life is plausibly supposed by Barton
(SO1, 92 f.) to have been the date-palm; and this corresponds to the
sacred palm in the sanctuary of Ea at Eridu (IV R. 15*), and also to
the conventionalised sacred tree of the seals and palace-reliefs,
which is considered to be a palm combined with some species of conifer. Cf.
also the sacred cedar in the cedar forest of Gilg., Tabs. IV. V. For
these and other Bab. parallels, see ATLo2, 195 ff.

II. 9–11

10. a river issued (or issues) from Eden] The language
does not necessarily imply that the fountain-head was outside
the garden (Dri. Ben.); the vb. נָּ֔הַר is used of the rise of a
stream at its source (Ex. 176, Nu. 2011, Ju. 1519, Ezek. 471,
Zec. 148, Jl. 418). Whether the ptcp. expresses past or
present time cannot be determined.—from thence it divides
itself] The river issues from the garden as a single stream,
then divides into four branches, which are the four great
rivers of the world. The site of Paradise, therefore, is at
the common source of the four rivers in question (pp. 62–66 below).
That is the plain meaning of the verse, however inconsistent
it may be with physical geography.—II. Pišôn] The name
occurs (along with Tigris, Euphrates, Jordan, and Gihon)

10. יָד] Freq. impf.? So Dri. T. §§ 30 a, 113, 4 β; G–K. § 107 d
(‘always taking -place afresh’), Dav. § 54 (b). That seems hardly
natural. Is it possible that for once יָד could have the effect of יָד
in transporting the mind to a point whence a new development takes
-place? (Dav. § 45, R. 2).—פֶּהוּר] Not ‘sources’ but ‘branches’; as
Arab. ٱ’s en-nahr (as distinct from ٱ’s el-ain) means the point of
divergence of two streams (Wetzstein, quoted by De., p. 82). So Ass.
rist nārī or rīṣ nār, of the point of divergence (Ausgangsort) of a canal
(Del. Par. 98, 191).—II. יָד] See on יָד.—נִיִּים יָד] On the determina-
tion of pred., Dav. § 19, R. 3; cf. G–K. § 126 b (so v. 18c).—נִיִּים יָד] If
the art. be genuine, it shows that the name was significant (‘sandland,’
in Sir. 24:25, but nowhere else in OT. That it was not a
familiar name to the Hebrews is shown by the topo-
graphical description which follows. On the various
speculative identifications, see De. and Di., and p. 64 f.
below.—the whole land of Hāvīlāh] The phraseology
indicates that the name is used with some vagueness,
and considerable latitude. In 10:29 25:18 etc., Hāvīlāh
seems to be a district of Arabia (see p. 202); but we cannot
be sure that it bears the same meaning in the mythically
coloured geography of this passage.—12. Two other pro-
ducts of the region are specified; but neither helps to an
identification of the locality.—bēdōlah] a substance well
known to the Israelites (Nu. 11:7), is undoubtedly the
fragrant but bitter gum called by the Greeks βδέλλαυον or
βδέλλα. Pliny (NH, xii. 35 f.) says the best kind grew in
Bactriana, but adds that it was found also in Arabia, India,
Media, and Babylonia.—the šōham stone] A highly esteemed

from ḥan ḫ?); but everywhere else it is wanting, and Ṣu omits it here.—12.
271] On meheg and hat.-pathach, see G-K. §§ 10 g, 16 e, f; Kön. i. § 10,
6 ᵇ ᵃ (cf. 118).—𝛼ν] The first instance of this ἥρ η περεταμ of the
Pent., where the regular 𝛼ν is found only Gn. 14:2 26:5 38:25, Lv. 2:15 11:29
modern scholars still holds to the opinion that the epicene consonantal
form is genuinely archaic; but the verdict of philology and of Hex.
criticism seems decisive against that view. It must be a graphic error
of some scribe or school of scribes: whether proceeding from the original
scrip. def. ἥι or not does not much matter (see Dri. and White’s note
& alone has misunderstood the word, rendering here ḥ νθηαξ (red
garnet), and in Nu. 11:7 (the only other occurrence) κρυσταλλος. §
does can only be a clerical error. That it is not a gem is
proved by the absence of ḥ. —י יבג] Ṣu ḥ λνο δ ὀ πράωνος (lea-
green stone); other Gk. Vns. ὅνυς, and so ḥ (onychineus); § ṣ א כ.,
ט ᵃ נב. Philology has as yet thrown no light on the word, though
a connexion with Bab. šāmtu is probable. Myres (EB, 4808 f.) makes
the interesting suggestion that it originally denoted malachite, which
is at once striped and green, and that after malachite came to be
valued tradition wavered between the onyx (striped) and the beryl
(green). Petrie, on the other hand (DB, iv. 620), thinks that in early
times it was green felspar, afterwards confused with the beryl.
It is at least noteworthy that Jen. (KIB, vi. 1, 405) is led on independent
grounds to identify šāmtu with malachite. But is malachite found in any
gem (Jb. 28:16), suitable for engraving (Ex. 28:9 etc.), one of the precious stones of Eden (Ezk. 28:13), and apparently used in architecture (1 Ch. 29:9). From the Greek equivalents it is generally supposed to be either the onyx or the beryl (v.i.). According to Pliny, the latter was obtained from India, the former from India and Arabia. (NH, xxxvii. 76, 86).—13. Gihôn] The name of a well on the E of Jerusalem (the Virgin's spring: 1 Ki. 1:33 etc.), which IEz. strangely takes to be meant here. In Jewish and Christian tradition it was persistently identified with the Nile (Si. 24:27; 1 of Jer. 2:16 [where הֵיהָנָה is translated Γηόν]; Jos. Ant. i. 39, and the Fathers generally). The great difficulty of that view is that the Nile was as well known to the Hebrews as the Euphrates, and no reason appears either for the mysterious designation, or for the vague description appended to the name.—land of Καίσ] Usually Ethiopia; but see on 106.—14. Hiddekel] is certainly the Tigris, though the name occurs only once again (Dn. 10:4).—in front of ʿAṣṣūr] Either between it and the spectator, or to the east of it: the latter view is adopted by nearly all comm.; but the parallels are indecisive, and the point is not absolutely settled. Geographically the former would be more correct, since the centre of the Assyrian Empire lay E of the Tigris. The second view can be maintained only if הַוָּדֶד be the city

region that could be plausibly identified with Ḥavilah?—13. מִתָּק] Probably from מְתָר (Jb. 38:40) = 'bursting forth.'—14. פִּי] Gr. om.—לַחֹן

Bab. Idigla, Diglat, Aram. אֵידֶגָּל and אֵידֶגָּל, Arab.Diglat; then Old Pers. Tigrâ, Pehlevi Digrat, Gr. Τίγρας and Τιγρης. The Pers. Tigrâ was explained by a popular etymology as 'arrow-swift' (Strabo) and similarly it was believed that the Hebrews saw in their name a compound of מ, 'sharp,' and פ, 'swift,' —a view given by Ra., and mentioned with some scorn by IEz. Hommel's derivation (AHT, 315) from ḫadd, 'wādi,' and פֶּדֶת (= 'wādi of Dīkhā, Gn. 10:37), is of interest only in connexion with his peculiar theory of the site of Paradise.—מטַת] Rendered 'in front' by Gr (κατέπαντι), X (אֲדוֹמָא) and Ec (contra); as 'eastward' by Q. (אֶפְּרַדָּא) and Zo (אֲדוֹמָא). This last is also the view of Ra. IEz. and of most moderns. But see No. ZDMG, xxxiii. 532, where the sense 'eastward' is decisively rejected. The other examples are 418, 1 Sa. 15:8, Ezek. 39:14.—מד] Bab. Purātu, Old Pers. Ufrātu, whence Gr. Εὐφράτης.
which was the ancient capital of the Empire, now Kal'at Sherkāt on the W bank of the river. But that city was replaced as capital by Kalḥi as early as 1300 B.C., and is never mentioned in OT. It is at least premature to find in this circumstance a conclusive proof that the Paradise legend had wandered to Palestine before 1300 B.C. (Gressmann, ARW, x. 347).—Euphrates] The name (נהר) needed no explanation to a Hebrew reader: it is the נָחַר par excellence of the OT (Is. 8' and often).

The site of Eden.—If the explanation given above of v. 10 be correct, —and it is the only sense which the words will naturally bear,—it is obvious that a real locality answering to the description of Eden exists and has existed nowhere on the face of the earth. The Euphrates and Tigris are not and never were branches of a single stream; and the idea that two other great rivers sprang from the same source places the whole representation outside the sphere of real geographical knowledge. In 10-14, in short, we have to do with a semi-mythical geography, which the Hebrews no doubt believed to correspond with fact, but which is based neither on accurate knowledge of the region in question, nor on authentic tradition handed down from the ancestors of the human race. Nevertheless, the question where the Hebrew imagination located Paradise is one of great interest; and many of the proposed solutions are of value, not only for the light they have thrown on the details of 10-14, but also for the questions they raise as to the origin and character of the Paradise-myth. This is true both of those which deny, and of those which admit, the presence of a mythical element in the geography of 10-14.

1. Several recent theories seek an exact determination of the locality of Paradise, and of all the data of 10-14, at the cost of a somewhat unnatural exegesis of v. 10. That of Frd. Del. (Wo lag das Paradies?, 1881) is based partly on the fact that N of Babylon (in the vicinity of Bagdad) the Euphrates and Tigris approach within some twenty miles of each other, the Euphrates from its higher level discharging water through canals into the Tigris, which might thus be regarded as an offshoot of it. The land of Eden is the plain (edīnu) between the two rivers from Tekrit (on the Tigris: nearly a hundred miles N of Bagdad) and 'Ana (on the Euphrates) to the Persian Gulf; the garden being one specially favoured region from the so-called 'isthmus' to a little S of Babylon. The river of v. 10 is the Euphrates; Pishon is the Pallakopas canal, branching off from the Euphrates on the right a little above Babylon and running nearly parallel with it to the Persian Gulf; Gihon is the Shatt en-Nil, another canal running E of the Euphrates from near Babylon and rejoining the parent river opposite Ur; Hiddekel and Euphrates are, of course, the lower courses of the Tigris and Euphrates respectively, the former regarded as replenished through the canal system from the latter. Havilah is part of the great Syrian
desert lying W and S of the Euphrates; and Kush is a name for northern and middle Babylonia, derived from the Kaššite dynasty that once ruled there. In spite of the learning and ingenuity with which this theory has been worked out, it cannot clear itself of an air of artificiality at variance with the simplicity of the passage it seeks to explain. That the Euphrates should be at once the undivided Paradise-stream and one of the ‘heads’ into which it breaks up is a glaring anomaly; while v. 14 shows that the narrator had distinctly before his mind the upper course of the Tigris opposite Assur, and is therefore not likely to have spoken of it as an effluent of the Euphrates. The objection that the theory confuses rivers and canals is fairly met by the argument that the Bab. equivalent of 𐎳 is used of canals, and also by the consideration that both the canals mentioned were probably ancient river-beds; but the order in which the rivers are named tells heavily against the identifications. Moreover, the expression ‘the whole land of Ḥavīlāh’ seems to imply a much larger tract of the earth’s surface than the small section of desert enclosed by the Pallakopas; and to speak of the whole of northern Babylonia as ‘surrounded’ by the Shatt en-Nil is an abuse of language.—According to Sayce (HCM, 95 ff.; DB, i. 643 f.), the garden of Eden is the sacred garden of Ea at Eridu; and the river which waters it is the Persian Gulf, on the shore of which Eridu formerly stood. The four branches are, in addition to Euphrates and Tigris (which in ancient times entered the Gulf separately), the Pallakopas and the Choaspes (now the Kerkha), the sacred river of the Persians, from whose waters alone their kings were allowed to drink (Her. i. 188). Besides the difficulty of supposing that the writer of v. 10 meant to trace the streams upwards towards their source above the garden, the theory does not account for the order in which the rivers are given; for the Pallakopas is W of Euphrates, while the Choaspes is E of the Tigris.* Further, although the description of the Persian Gulf as a ‘river’ is fully justified by its Bab. designation as Nār Marratum (‘Bitter River’), it has yet to be made probable that either Babylonians or Israelites would have thought of a garden as watered by ‘bitter’ (i.e. salt) water.—These objections apply with equal force to the theory of Hommel (AA, iii. i, p. 281 ff., etc., AHT, 314 ff.), who agrees with Sayce in placing Paradise at Eridu, in making the single stream the Persian Gulf, and one of the four branches the Euphrates. But the three other branches, Pishon, Gibon, and Ḥidekel, he identifies with three N Arabian wadis,—W. Dawāṣir, W. Rumuḵa, and W. Sirhān (the last the ‘wādi of Ḏiklah’ = Ḥad-Debeḵl [see on v. 14 above], the name having been afterwards transferred to the Tigris).

2. Since none of the above theories furnishes a satisfactory solution of the problem, we may as well go back to what appears the natural

* This objection is avoided by the modified theory of Dawson, who identifies Pishon with the Karūn, still further E than the Kerkha. But that removes it from all connexion with Ḥavīlāh, which is one of the recommendations of Sayce’s view.
interpretation of v.\textsuperscript{10}, and take along with it the utopian conception of
four great rivers issuing from a single source. The site of Paradise
is then determined by the imaginary common source of the two known
rivers, Euphrates and Tigris. As a matter of fact, the western arm of
the Euphrates and the eastern arm of the Tigris do rise sufficiently
near each other to make the supposition of a common source possible
to ancient cosmography; and there is no difficulty in believing that
the passage locates the garden in the unexplored mountains of Armenia.
The difficulty is to find the Pishon and the Gihon. To seek them
amongst the smaller rivers of Armenia and Trans-Caucasia is a
hopeless quest; for a knowledge of these rivers would imply a know-
ledge of the country, which must have dispelled the notion of a common
source. Van Doorninck has suggested the Leontes and Orontes
(Th\textsuperscript{T}, xxxix. 236), but a Hebrew writer must surely have known that
these rivers rose much nearer home than the Euphrates and Tigris.
There is more to be said for the opinion that they represent the two
great Indian rivers, Ganges and Indus, whose sources must have been
even more mysterious than those of the Euphrates and Tigris, and
might very well be supposed to lie in the unknown region from Armenia
to Turkestan.* The attraction of this view is that it embraces all
rivers of the first magnitude that can have been known in western
Asia (for, as we shall see, even the Nile is not absolutely excluded);
and it is no valid objection to say that the Indian rivers were beyond
the horizon of the Israelites, since we do not know from what quarter
the myth had travelled before it reached Palestine. Yet I find no
modern writer of note who accepts the theory in its completeness.
De. and Di. identify the Pishon with the Indus, but follow the tradi-
tional identification of Gihon with the Nile (see p. 61 above). But if
the biblical narrator believed the Nile to rise with Euphrates and
Tigris, it is extremely likely that he regarded its upper waters as the
Indus, as Alexander the Great did in his time;† and we might then
fall back on the old identification of Pishon with the Ganges.‡ But it
must be admitted that the names \textit{Havilah and Kush are a serious

* Strabo reports the belief of the ancients that all Indian rivers
rise in the Caucasus (xv. 1. 13). The fact that in mediæval Arabian
geographers \textit{Geiλun} is a proper name of the Oxus and the Cilician
Pyramus, and an appellative of the Araxes and the Ganges, might
seem at first sight to have a bearing on the question at issue; but its
importance is discounted by the possibility that the usage is based on
this passage, due to Jewish and Christian influences in the Middle
Ages.

† From the presence in both of crocodiles: Arrian, \textit{Anab.} vi. 1, 2 f.;
cf. Strabo, xv. 1. 25, and the similar notion about the Nile and
Euphrates in Pausanias, ii. 5. 2.

‡ Josephus and most of the Fathers. Strangely enough, there
seems to be no suggestion of the Indus earlier than Kosmas Indico-
pleustes (ii. 131). Is this because the identity of Nile and Indus was
a fixed idea?
difficulty to this class of theories. The latter, indeed, may retain its usual OT meaning if Gihon be the upper Nile, either as a continuation of the Indus or a separate river; but if it be the Indus alone, Kush must be the country of the Kaśšîtes, conceived as extending indefinitely E of Babylonia. Ḥavilah has to be taken as a name for India considered as an extension of NE Arabia, an interpretation which finds no support in the OT. At the same time, as Di. observes, the language employed (‘the whole land of Ḥ.’) suggests some more spacious region than a limited district of Arabia; and from the nature of the passage we can have no certainty that the word is connected with the Ḥavilah of Gn. 10.—An interesting and independent theory, based on ancient Babylonian geographical documents, has been propounded by Haupt. The common source of the four rivers is supposed to have been a large (imaginary) basin of water in N Mesopotamia: the Euphrates and Tigris lose themselves in marshes; the Pishon (suggested by the Kerkha) is conceived as continued in the Nār Marratum (Persian Gulf) and the Red Sea, and so ‘encompasses’ the whole of Ḥavilah (Arabia); beyond this there was supposed to be land, through which the Giĥon (suggested by the Karun) was supposed to reach Kush (Ethiopia), whence it flowed northwards as the Nile. The theory perhaps combines more of the biblical data in an intelligible way than any other that has been proposed; and it seems to agree with those just considered in placing the site of Eden at the common source of the rivers, to the N of Mesopotamia.*

3. It seems probable that the resources of philology and scientific geography are well-nigh exhausted by theories such as have been described above, and that further advance towards a solution of the problem of Paradise will be along the line of comparative mythology. Discussions precisely similar to those we have examined are maintained with regard to the Iranian cosmography—whether, e.g., the stream Ranha be the Oxus or the Yaxartes or the Indus; the truth being that Ranha is a mythical celestial stream, for which various earthly equivalents might be named (see Tiele, Gesch. d. Rel. ii. 291 f.). If we knew more of the diffusion and history of cosmological ideas in ancient religions, we should probably find additional reason to believe that Gn. 2:10-14 is but one of many attempts to localise on earth a representation which is essentially mythical. Gu. (1 33, 2 31), adopting a suggestion of Stucken, supposes the original Paradise to have been at the North pole of the heavens (the summit of the mountain of the gods: cf. Ezk. 28:4), and the river to be the Milky Way, branching out—but does it?—into four arms (there is some indication that the two arms between Scorpio and Capricornus were regarded in Babylonia as the heavenly counterparts of Euphrates and Tigris: see KAT 3, 528). It is not meant, of course, that this was the idea in the mind of the biblical writer, but only that the conception of the mysterious river of Paradise with its four branches originated in mythological speculation of this kind. If this be the case, we need not

* The summary is taken from Dri. p. 59 f.; the original article, in Ueber Land und Meer, 1894-95, I have not been able to consult.
be surprised if it should prove impossible to identify Pishon and Gihon with any known rivers; on the other hand, the mention of the well-known Tigris and Euphrates clearly shows that the form of the myth preserved in Gn. 2:10-14 located the earthly Paradise in the unknown northerly region whence these rivers flowed. And the conclusion is almost inevitable that the myth took shape in a land watered by these two rivers,—in Babylonia or Mesopotamia (see Gressmann, ARW, x. 346 ff.).

15. to till it and to guard it] To reject this clause (Bu.), or the second member (Di.), as inconsistent with 3:17ff. are arbitrary expedients. The ideal existence for man is not idle enjoyment, but easy and pleasant work; “the highest aspiration of the Eastern peasant” (Gu.) being to keep a garden. The question from what the garden had to be protected is one that should not be pressed.—16 f. The belief that man lived originally on the natural fruit of trees (observe the difference from 1:29) was widespread in antiquity, and appears in Phoenician mythology.* Here, however, the point lies rather in the restriction than the permission,—in the imposition of a taboo on one particular tree.—For the words of the knowledge of good and evil it has been proposed to substitute “which is in the midst of the garden” (as 3:5), on the ground that the revelation of the mysterious property of the tree was the essence of the serpent’s temptation and must not be anticipated (3:5) (Bu. Ho. Gu. al.). But the narrative ought not to be subjected to such rigorous logical

15. The v. is either a resumption of 3:8 after the insertion of 10-14, or a duplicate from a parallel document. It is too original to be a gloss; and since there was no motive for making an interpolation at 3:8, the excision of 10-14 seems to lead necessarily to the conclusion that two sources have been combined.—παράκολοθος] Τὶς δὲ εκλαθεν (as v. 8).—βοήθησα] On the two Hiphils of μα and their distinction in meaning, see G-K. § 72 ee, and the Lexx.—[ου] ΚΛ and most cursive render τῆς τροφῆς; ΚΑ and uncial omit the word.—‘ωρία προμήθειας] Since 2 is nowhere fem., it is better to point τῆς προμήθειας (see Albrecht, ZATW, xvi. 53).—16. ἀδήμοι] Τὸ άδημος, έπι εἰ. Except in v. 18, the word is regularly, but wrongly, treated as nom. pr. by these two Vns. from this point onwards.—17. τίσιν κατα] Σ. εὐθύς ἐσώ. In Κ the vbs. of this v. are all pl. (as 3:4).

* Eus. Praep. Ev. i. 10 (from Philo Byblius): εὐρεῖν δὲ τῶν Αλώνα τῆς ἀπὸ τῶν δενδρών τροφῆν.
tests; and, after all, there still remained something for the serpent to disclose, viz. that such knowledge put man on an equality with God.—in the day . . . die] The threat was not fulfilled; but its force is not to be weakened by such considerations as that man from that time became mortal (Jer. al.), or that he entered on the experience of miseries and hardships which are the prelude of dissolution (Calv. al.). The simple explanation is that God, having regard to the circumstances of the temptation, changed His purpose and modified the penalty.

18-25. Creation of animals and woman.—The Creator, taking pity on the solitude of the man, resolves to provide him with a suitable companion. The naïveté of the conception is extraordinary. Not only did man exist before the beasts, but the whole animal creation is the result of an unsuccessful experiment to find a mate for him. Of the revolving idea that man lived for a time in sexual intercourse with the beasts (see p. 91), there is not a trace.—

18. a helper] The writer seems to be thinking (as in 25), not of the original, but of the present familiar conditions of human life.—יְהוָה (only here) lit. 'as in front of him,' i.e. corresponding to him.—19. The meaning cannot be that the animals had already been created, and are now brought to be named (Calv. al. and recently De. Str.): such a sense is excluded by grammar (see Dri. T. § 76, Obs.), and misses the point of the passage.—to see what he would call it] To watch its effect on him, and (eventually) to see if he would recognise in it the associate he needed,—as one watches

18. יָעַשְׁנָה] May be cohort. (G-K. § 75 l); GE render as 1st p. pl. (as 18).—יָעַשְׁנָה] (usually 'succour') = 'helper' (abstr. pro concr.) is used elsewhere chiefly of God (Dt. 33:28, Ps. 33:20 115:9, etc.); possible exceptions are Ezk. 12:14 (if text right), Ho. 13:9 (if em. with We.): see BDB.—יָעַשְׁנָה] כָּאָר אֶתְוּ (but v.20 שְׁמַעְתִּי אֶתְוָה); Aq. וְשָׁמַעְתִּ֣י אֶתְוָה; Σ. αντικρός ετού; E similis sibi (ejus, v.20); זָאָלעַן; Κ' ἡμᾶςκακιν.—19. מָעָנָה ins. יָעַשְׁנָה after יָעַשְׁנָה.—Omission of יָעַשְׁנָה before יָעַשְׁנָה is remarkable in this ch. (see on v.8), and is rectified by מָעָנָה יָעַשְׁנָה] The only construction possible would be to take יָעַשְׁנָה as dat. eth., and יָעַשְׁנָה as direct obj. to יָעַשְׁנָה; but that is contrary to the writer’s usage, and yields a jejunæ sense. Even if (with Ra.) we transpose and read 'every living thing which the man called [by a name], that was its name,’ the discord of gender would
the effect of a new experience on a little child.—*whatever the man should call it, that (was to be) its name*] The spontaneous ejaculation of the first man becomes to his posterity a name: such is the origin of (Hebrew) names.—*The words נַחַל שֵׁם are incapable of construction, and are to be omitted as an explanatory gloss (Ew. al.).—20. The classification of animals is carried a step further than in 10 (domestic and wild animals being distinguished), but is still simpler than in ch. 1. Fishes and ‘creeping things’ are frankly omitted as inappropriate to the situation.—21. It has appeared that no fresh creation ‘from the ground’ can provide a fit companion for man: from his own body, therefore, must his future associate be taken.—*הָעֹדוֹת* is a hypnotic trance, induced by supernatural agency (cf. Duhm on Is. 2910). The purpose here is to produce anaesthesia, with perhaps the additional idea that the divine working cannot take place under human observation (Di. Gu.).—*one of his ribs* A part of his frame that (it was thought) could easily be spared. There is doubtless a deeper significance in the representation: it suggests “the moral and social relation of the sexes to each other, the dependence of woman upon man, her close relationship to him, and the foundation existing in nature for . . . the feelings with which each should naturally regard the other” (Dri.). The Arabs use similarly a word for ‘rib,’ saying ħāa lisḵi or ħāa bilisḵi for ‘he is my bosom companion.’ On the other hand, the notion that the first human being was androgynous, and afterwards separated into man and woman (see Schw. ARW, ix. 172 ff.), finds no countenance in the passage.—22. *built up the rib*
... into a woman] So in the Egyptian "Tale of the two brothers," the god Chnum 'built' a wife for his favourite Batau, the hieroglyphic determinative showing that the operation was actually likened to the building of a wall (see Wiedemann, DB, Sup. 180).—23. By a flash of intuition the man divines that the fair creature now brought to him is part of himself, and names her accordingly. There is a poetic ring and rhythm in the exclamation that breaks from him.—This at last] Lit. 'This, this time' (v.i.): note the thrice repeated ḫn/.—bone of my bones, etc.] The expressions originate in the primitive notion of kinship as resting on "participation in a common mass of flesh, blood, and bones" (Rob. Sm. RS², 273 f.: cf. KM², 175 f.), so that all the members of a kindred group are parts of the same substance, whether acquired by heredity or assimilated in the processes of nourishment (cf. 29¹⁴ 37²⁷, Ju. 9², 2 Sa. 5¹ 19¹⁸). The case before us, where the material identity is expressed in the manner of woman's creation, is unique.—shall be called Woman] English is fortunate in being able to reproduce this assonance ('Īš, 'Īšā) without straining language: other translations are driven to tours de force

Duhm's view that hypnotic sleep is indicated. It is true that in the vb. (Niph.) that sense is less marked.—23. ḫn? ḫn?] The construction rendered above takes ḫn as subj. of the sent. and ḫn? = 'this time,' the art. having full demonstrative force, as in 29²⁴ 30³⁰ 46').' Ex. 9² (so G ΣΘΥ; De. Di. Gu. al.). The accents, however, unite the words in one phrase 'this time,' after the rather important analogy of ḫn ḫn (27³⁶ 43¹⁰), leaving the subj. unexpressed. This sense is followed by ZT², and advocated by Sta. (ZATW, xvi. 210ff.); but it seems less acceptable than the other.—ṣʾn, ḫn?] The old derivation of these words from a common ʾ in is generally abandoned, ḫn being assigned to a hypothetical ʾ in = 'be strong' (Ges. Th.). Ar. and Aram., indeed, show quite clearly that the ʾ in seen in the pl. ḫn (and in ḫn) and that of ḫn (ṣʾn) are only apparently identical, the one having ʾ where the other has ḫ. The masc. and fem. are therefore etymologically distinct, and nothing remains but a very strong assonance. The question whether we are to postulate a third ʾ for the sing. ḫn does not greatly concern us here; the arguments will be found in BDB, s.v. See Nö. ZDMG, xl. 740 ("Aber ḫn möchte ich doch bei ḫn lassen"). In imitation of the assonance, S. has ḫn, E Virago. Th. ḫn, represents ḫn, 'I will take': a curious blunder which is fully elucidated by
(e.g. Jer. Virago; Luther, Männin). Whether even in Heb. it is more than an assonance is doubtful (v.i.).—24. An aetiological observation of the narrator: This is why a man leaves . . . and cleaves . . . and they become, etc.] It is not a prophecy from the standpoint of the narrative; nor a recommendation of monogamic marriage (as applied in Mt. 19ff., Mk. 10ff., 1 Co. 616, Eph. 531); it is an answer to the question, What is the meaning of that universal instinct which impels a man to separate from his parents and cling to his wife? It is strange that the man’s attachment to the woman is explained here, and the woman’s to the man only in 316.

It has been imagined that the v. presupposes the primitive custom called beena marriage, or that modification of it in which the husband parts from his own kindred for good, and goes to live with his wife’s kin (so Gu.: cf. KM1, 87, 207); and other instances are alleged in the patriarchal history. But this would imply an almost incredible antiquity for the present form of the narrative; and, moreover, the dominion of the man over the wife assumed in 316b is inconsistent with the conditions of beena marriage. Cf. Benz. EB, 2675: “The phrase . . . may be an old saying dating from remote times when the husband went to the house (tent) of the wife and joined her clan. Still the passage may be merely the narrator’s remark; and even if it should be an old proverb we cannot be sure that it really carries us so far back in antiquity.”—See, however, Gressmann, ARW, x. 3531; van Doorninck, ThT, xxxix. 238 (who assigns 24 and 316 to different recensions).

one flesh] If the view just mentioned could be maintained, this phrase might be equivalent to ‘one clan’ (Lv. 2549); for ‘both in Hebrew and Arabic ‘flesh’ is synonymous with ‘clan’ or kindred group” (RS3, 274). More probably it refers simply to the connubium.—25. naked . . . not ashamed] The remark is not merely an anticipation of the

the quotation from Origen given in Field, p. 1550.—For שמא, מ Geological read שמא, which is by no means an improvement.—[See G-K. §§ 10 h, 20 c.—24. והו] Add כי with גזסטף and NT citations. מ has מרושן יי, referring to the offspring.—25. מודך] מודע ‘naked,’ to be carefully distinguished from מודע (מימע) ‘crafty,’ in 3, is either a by-form of מודע (מימע = ‘be bare’) in 314, or (more probably) a different formation from מימע (‘be bare’). See BDB, s.vv.—ושמא] The Hithpal. (only here) probably expresses reciprocity (‘ashamed before one another’); the impf. is frequentative.
account given later of the origin of clothing (37, cf. 21). It calls attention to the difference between the original and the actual condition of man as conceived by the writer. The consciousness of sex is the result of eating the tree: before then our first parents had the innocence of children, who are often seen naked in the East (Doughty, AD, ii. 475).

V.20 is a transition verse, leading over to the main theme to which all that goes before is but the prelude. How long the state of primitive innocence lasted, the writer is at no pains to inform us. This indifference to the non-essential is as characteristic of the popular tale as its graphic wealth of detail in features of real interest. The omission afforded an opportunity for the exercise of later Midrashic ingenuity; jub. iii. 15 fixes the period at seven years, while R. Eliezer (Ber. R.) finds that it did not last six hours.

III. I-7. The temptation. — Attention is at once directed to the quarter where the possibility of evil already lurked amidst the happiness of Eden—the preternatural subtlety of the serpent: But the serpent was wily] The wisdom of the serpent was proverbial in antiquity (Mt. 1016: see Bochart, Hieros. iii. 246 ff.), a belief probably founded less on observation of the creature's actual qualities than on the general idea of its divine or demonic nature: πνεύματι-κωτατον γὰρ τὸ ξῶν πάντων τῶν ἐρπετῶν (Sanchuniathon, in Eus. Prep. Ev. i. 10). Hence the epithet ὕπτι might be used of it sensu dono (φρόνιμος), though the context here makes it certain that the bad sense (πανοργίς) is intended (see below).—beyond any beast, etc.] The serpent, therefore, belongs to the category of 'beasts of the field,' and is a creature of Yahwe; and an effort seems to be made to maintain this view throughout the narrative (v.14). At the same time it is a being possessing supernatural knowledge, with the power of speech, and animated by hostility towards God. It is this last feature which causes some perplexity. To say that the thoughts which it instils into the mind of the woman were on the serpent's part not evil, but only extremely sagacious, and became sin first in the human consciousness (so Merx, Di. al.), is hardly in accordance with the spirit of the narrative. It is more probable that behind the sober description of the serpent as a mere creature of Yahwe,
there was an earlier form of the legend in which he figured as a god or a demon.

The ascription of supernatural characters to the serpent presents little difficulty even to the modern mind. The marvellous agility of the snake, in spite of the absence of visible motor organs, its stealthy movements, its rapid death-dealing stroke, and its mysterious power of fascinating other animals and even men, sufficiently account for the superstitious regard of which it has been the object amongst all peoples.* Accordingly, among the Arabs every snake is the abode of a spirit, sometimes bad and sometimes good, so that ġānīn and ġul and even Shaitān are given as designations of the serpent (We. Heid. 152 f.; cf. Rob. Sm. RS 3, 120 f., 129 f., 442).† What is more surprising to us is the fact that in the sphere of religion the serpent was usually worshipped as a good demon. Traces of this conception can be detected in the narrative before us. The demonic character of the serpent appears in his possession of occult divine knowledge of the properties of the tree in the middle of the garden, and in his use of that knowledge to seduce man from his allegiance to his Creator. The enmity between the race of men and the race of serpents is explained as a punishment for his successful temptation; originally he must have been represented as a being hostile, indeed, to God, but friendly to the woman, who tells her the truth which the Deity withheld from man (see Gres. L.c. 357). All this belongs to the background of heathen mythology from which the materials of the narrative were drawn; and it is the incomplete elimination of the mythological element, under the influence of a monotheistic and ethical religion, which makes the function of the serpent in Gn. 3 so difficult to understand. In later Jewish theology the difficulty was

* Comp. the interesting sequel to the sentence from Sanchuniathon quoted above: ... καὶ πυρῶδες ὡς 'αὐτὸν παρεδόθη παρ' ἐν καὶ τάχος ἀνυπέρβητον διὰ τοῦ πνεύματος παράτησιν, κχωρί ποδῶν τοι και χειρῶν, ἡ ἄλλω νυόσ τῶν ἔξωθεν, εἰ ὡν τὰ λουτὰ ἥ ἄν κνηὺς ποιεῖται καὶ ποικίλων σχημάτων τόπους ἀποτελεί, καὶ κατὰ τὴν πορείαν έλκουσείς ἐχει τάς ὁμᾶς, εἴδ' ἀν βούλεται τάχος· καὶ πολυχρωνιστάτων δὲ ἑστιν, οὐ μόνον τῷ ἐκδύομενον τῷ γάρας νεάξιν, ἀλλὰ καὶ ἀδέξιον ἐπίδεχεται μείζονα πέφυκε ... Διὸ καὶ ὣς λεοὶ τοῦτο τὸ ἥων καὶ ἐν μυστηρίοις συμπεριληπται κτλ. (Orelli, p. 44).

† Cf. Nö. ZVP, i. 413: "Das geheimnissvolle, dämonische Wesen der Schlange, das sie vor allen grösseren Thieren auszeichnet, die tückische, verderbenbringende Natur vieler Arten, konnte in dem einfachen semitischen Hirten leicht den Glauben erzeugen, in ihr wohne etwas Göttliches, den Menschen Bannendes und Bezauberndes. So finden wir die Schlange im Eingang des alten Testaments, so ist sie im Alterthum, wie noch jetzt, ein Hauptgegenstand orientalischer Zauberei. So glaubte auch der Araber, die Schlange (wie einige andere schädliche Thiere) sei kein gewöhnliches Geschöpf, sondern ein Dschinn, ein Geist. Schon die Sprache drückt dies dadurch aus, dass sie mit Dżänn, einem Worte welches mit Dżinn eng verwandt ist, eine Schlangenart bezeichnet, etc."
solved, as is well known, by the doctrine that the serpent of Eden was the mouthpiece or impersonation of the devil. The idea appears first in Alexandrian Judaism in Wisd. 2:24 ('by the envy of the devil, death entered into the world'); possibly earlier is the allusion in En. lxix. 6, where the seduction of Eve is ascribed to a Satan called Gadreel. Cf. Secrets of En. xxxi. 3 ff., Ps. Sol. 4:1; also Ber. R. 29, the name יִנַּר יִנַּר (Sifré 138 b), and in the NT Jn. 8:44, 2 Co. 11:18, Ro. 16:20, Ap. 12:20 (see Whitehouse, DB, iv. 408 ff.). Similarly in Persian mythology the serpent Dahāka, to whose power Yima, the ruler of the golden age, succumbs, is a creature and incarnation of the evil spirit Angro-Mainyo (Vend. i. 8, xxii. 5, 6, 24; Yaṣna ix. 27; cf. Di. 70). The Jewish and Christian doctrine is a natural and legitimate extension of the teaching of Gn. 3, when the problem of evil came to be apprehended in its real magnitude; but it is foreign to the thought of the writer, although it cannot be denied that it may have some affinity with the mythological background of his narrative. The religious teaching of the passage knows nothing of an evil principle external to the serpent, but regards himself as the subject of whatever occult powers he displays: he is simply a creature of Yahwe distinguished from the rest by his superior subtlety. The Yahwistic author does not speculate on the ultimate origin of evil; it was enough for his purpose to have so analysed the process of temptation that the beginning of sin could be assigned to a source which is neither in the nature of man nor in God. The personality of the Satan (the Adversary) does not appear in the OT till after the Exile (Zec. Jb. Ch.).

The serpent shows his subtlety by addressing his first temptation to the more mobile temperament of the woman (Ra. al.), and by the skilful innuendo with which he at once invites conversation and masks his ultimate design.—Ay, and so God has said, etc.!] Something like this seems to be the force of יִנַּר יִנַּר (v.i.). It is a half-interrogative, half-reflective exclamation, as if the serpent had brooded long over the paradox, and had been driven to an unwelcome conclusion.—Ye shall not eat of any tree] The range of the prohibition is purposely exaggerated in order to provoke inquiry and criticism. The use of the name יִנַּר יִנַּר is

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1. יִנַּר יִנַּר] The usual order of words when a new subject is introduced, G-K. § 142 a; Dav. § 105.—σῶν] Ἐφρονιμόσατος, Aq. Θ. πανοιρός, Σ. πανορύγιερος, Ἔρ callidior. The good sense (which appears to be secondary, cf. Ar. 'arama=a 'be ill-natured') is confined to Prov.; elsewhere (Jb. 5:4 158) it means 'crafty,' 'wily.' The same distinction is observed in all forms of the just except that in Jb. 5:19 יִנַּר has the good sense. The resemblance to בּר יִנַּר in 2:26 is perhaps accidental.—אֵל יִנַּר] as a compound part. generally means 'much more
commonly explained by the analogy of other passages of J, where the name נֹּ֖שֶׁ֑ר is avoided in conversation with heathen (39\textsuperscript{3} etc.), or when the contrast between the divine and the human is reflected upon (32\textsuperscript{29}). But J’s usage in such cases is not uniform, and it is doubtful what is the true explanation here (see p. 53).—2, 3. The woman’s first experience of falsehood leads to an eager repudiation of the serpent’s intentional calumny, in which she emphasises the generosity of the divine rule, but unconsciously intensifies the stringency of the prohibition by adding the words: nor shall ye touch it] A Jewish legend says that the serpent took advantage of this innocent and immaterial variation by forcing her to touch the fruit, and then arguing that as death had not followed the touch, so it would not follow the eating (Ber. R., Ra.). Equally futile inferences have been drawn by modern comm., and the surmise that the clause is redactional (Bu. Urg. 241) is hypercritical.—the tree . . . midst] See p. 66 f.—4. Ye shall assuredly not die] On the syntax, v.i. The serpent thus advances to an open challenge of the divine veracity, and thence to the imputation of an unworthy motive for the command, viz. a jealous fear on God’s part lest they should become His equals.—

(or less), ‘not to mention,’ etc., as in 1 Sa. 14\textsuperscript{30}, 1 Ki. 8\textsuperscript{37}, Pr. 11\textsuperscript{41} etc. In some cases the simple מ has this sense, and the י (‘when,’ ‘if’) introduces the following clause (1 Sa. 23\textsuperscript{3}, 2 Sa. 4\textsuperscript{10th} etc.). It would be easy to retain this sense in v.\textsuperscript{1} (‘How much more when God has said,’ etc.), if we might assume with many comm. that some previous conversation had taken place; but that is an unwarrantable assumption. The rendering on which Dri. (BDB) bases the ordinary meaning of מ מ—‘Tis indeed that’—requires but a slight interrogative inflexion of the voice to yield the shade of meaning given above: ‘So it is the case that God’s, etc.? The Vns. all express a question: את מלי, אק. ממתי, ז. πρός מלי, ἡ ἀτερ, ב Δ[μ,] א[חרב (= ‘really’?)].—בכט . . . מ[= ‘not of any’: G-K. § 152 b.—2. ימ[את מלי, ב ייימכ. מ[= ‘not concerning the tree.’ There is an anakolouthon at וָהֵלֶ֑נַך, and the emphatically placed ימ[ется is resumed by וַעֲנָבֵ֑ס,—ןָעֲנָבֵ֑ס] מ[= ‘not repeated. More probably its effect is to concentrate the emphasis on the neg. part, rather than on
5. But God knoweth, etc.] And therefore has falsely threatened you with death. The gratuitous insinuation reveals the main purpose of the tempter, to sow the seeds of distrust towards God in the mind of the woman.—your eyes shall be opened] The expression denotes a sudden acquisition of new powers of perception through supernatural influence (2119, Nu. 2231, 2 Ki. 617).—as gods] or ‘divine beings,’ rather than ‘as God’: the rendering ‘as angels’ (IEz.) expresses the idea with substantial accuracy. The likeness to divinity actually acquired is not equality with Yahwe (see Gu. on v.22).—knowing good and evil] See p. 95 ff.—’The facts are all, in the view of the narrator, correctly stated by the serpent; he has truly represented the mysterious virtue of the tree; knowledge really confers equality with God (322); and it is also true that death does not immediately follow the act of eating. But at the same time the serpent insinuates a certain construction of these facts: God is envious, inasmuch as He grudges the highest good to man:—πονερόν τὸ θείον, an antique sentiment familiar to us from the Greeks” (Gu.).—6. The spiritual part of the temptation is now accomplished, and the serpent is silent, leaving the fascination of sense to do the rest. The woman looks on the tree with new eyes; she observes how attractive to taste and sight its fruit seems, and how desirable for obtaining insight (so most) or to contemplate (GVS; so Tu. Ges. De. Gu. al.). The second translation is the more suitable—for how could she tell by sight that the fruit would impart wisdom?—although the vb. is not elsewhere used in Heb. for mere looking (v.i.).—gave also to her husband] “The process in the man’s case was no doubt the same as that just described, the woman taking the place of the serpent” (Ben.). That Adam sinned with his eyes open in order not to be separated from his wife has

the verbal idea (cf. Am. 98, Ps. 498).—5. γνωρίζει] Εἰ θεός, ΣΟ τετελεσμένη.—6. γυναῖκα] G IV om.—κατανοάξει] κατανοία, άδαπτούχα, and άδαρκεία: all take the vb. as vb. of sight; ΤΟ νῦν ἀποκαθάριζε is indeterminate (see Levy, Chald. Wb. 163 a). In OT the word is used of mental vision (insight, or attentive consideration: Dt. 3220, Ps. 413, Pr. 2112 etc.); in NH and
been a common idea both among Jews and Christians (Ber. R., Ra. IEz. Milton, etc.), but is not true to the intention of the narrative.—7. the eyes . . . opened] The prediction of the serpent is so far fulfilled; but the change fills them with guilty fear and shame.—they knew that they were naked] The new sense of shame is spoken of as a sort of Werthur-theil passed by the awakened intelligence on the empirical fact of being unclothed. A connexion between sexual shame and sin (Di.) is not suggested by the passage, and is besides not true to experience. But to infer from this single effect that the forbidden fruit had aphrodisiac properties (see Barton, SO 1, 93 ff.; Gressmann, p. 356) is a still greater perversion of the author’s meaning; he merely gives this as an example of the new range of knowledge acquired by eating of the tree. It is the kind of knowledge which comes with maturity to all,—the transition “from the innocence of childhood into the knowledge which belongs to adult age” (Dri.).—foliage of the fig-tree] To the question, Why fig-leaves in particular? the natural answer is that these, if not very suitable for the purpose, were yet the most suitable that the flora of Palestine could suggest (Di. Dri. Ben. al.). An allusion to the so-called fig-tree of Paradise, a native of India (probably the plantain), is on every ground improbable;—“ein geradezu philisterhafter Einfall” (Bu.). For allegorical interpretations of the fig-leaves, see Lagarde, Milth. i. 73 ff., who adds a very original and fantastic one of his own.

8–13. The inquest.—Thus far the narrative has dealt with what may be called the natural (magical) effects of the eating of the tree—the access of enlightenment, and the disturbance thus introduced into the relations of the guilty pair to each other. The ethical aspect of the offence comes

Aram. it means ‘to look at,’ but only in Hithp. (Ithp.). On the other view the Hiph. is intrans. (= ‘for acquiring wisdom’: Ps. 94 8 9 8) rather than caus. (= ‘to impart wisdom’: Ps. 3 2 8 8 etc.).—Gu. considers the clause הָלַי וַעֲשַׁר a variant from another source—ֶּזֶד בְּנָה] וְּבֵית לֶאָרָּם. —בְּרָמָה] מַעֲלָה לוֹלָאָר. —7. מְשִׁיעַ] See on 265.—הפֵּא] coll.; but some MSS and מ have לֶאָרָּם.
to light in their first interview with Yahwe; and this is delineated with a skill hardly surpassed in the account of the temptation itself.—8. they heard the sound] ἵππ used of footsteps, as 2 Sa. 5:24, 1 Ki. 14:6, 2 Ki. 6:28: cf. Ezek. 3:22, Jl. 2:6.—of Yahwe God as He walked] The verb is used (Lv. 26:12, Dt. 23:15, 2 Sa. 7:6) of Yahwe’s majestic marching in the midst of Israel; but it mars the simplicity of the representation if (with De.) we introduce that idea here.—in the cool (lit. ‘at the breeze’) of the day] i.e. towards evening, when in Eastern lands a refreshing wind springs up (cf. Ca. 2:17 4:6: but v.i.), and the master, who has kept his house or tent during the ‘heat of the day’ (18:1), can walk abroad with comfort (24:63). Such, we are led to understand, was Yahwe’s daily practice; and the man and woman had been wont to meet Him with the glad confidence of innocence. But on this occasion they hid themselves, etc.—9. Where art thou?] (cf. 4:9). The question expresses ignorance; it is not omniscience that the writer wishes to illustrate, but the more impressive attribute of sagacity.—10. I feared . . . naked] With the instinctive cunning of a bad conscience, the man hopes to escape complete exposure by acknowledging part of the truth; he alleges nakedness as the ground of his fear, putting fear and shame in a false causal connexion (Ho.).—II. Hast thou eaten, etc.?] All unwittingly he has disclosed his guilty secret: he has shown himself possessed of a knowledge which could only have been acquired in one way.—12. The man cannot even yet bring himself to make a clean breast of it; but with a quaint mixture of cowardice and effrontery he throws the blame

8. ἵππ] acc. of condition: Dav. § 70 (a).—םית וחלי] G ῥ ὅδελον, ἦ ad auram post meridiem, § 100 490, ὦ ὅδελον. On this use of ἤ (=‘towards’), see BDB, s.v. 6 a.; and cf. 8:11 17:21, Is. 7:17, Jb. 24:14. With ἄν cf. Ar. ῥαβᾶς = tempus vespertinum. Jewish exegesis (Ber. R.) and Calv. suppose the morning (sea) breeze to be meant, as is probably the case in Ca. 2:17 4:6, and would seem more in accordance with Palestinian conditions. But it is manifestly improbable here.—γ] coll., as often. G om.—9. נימי] G-K. § 100 o. G supplies ‘Adam’ before, and § after, the interrog.—10. ῥαβᾶς] G + περιτατόντες (as v.9).—II. וחלי] See G-K. § 114 s.—Before μὴ φαγεῖν G has τούτου
directly on the woman, and indirectly on God who gave her to him.—13. The woman in like manner exculpates herself by pleading (truly enough) that she had been deceived by the serpent.—The whole situation is now laid bare, and nothing remains but to pronounce sentence. No question is put to the serpent, because his evil motive is understood: he has acted just as might have been expected of him. Calv. says, "the beast had no sense of sin, and the devil no hope of pardon."

14–19. This section contains the key to the significance of the story of the Fall. It is the first example of a frequently recurring motive of the Genesis narratives, the idea, viz., that the more perplexing facts in the history of men and peoples are the working out of a doom or 'weird' pronounced of old under divine inspiration, or (as in this case) by the Almighty Himself: see 4:15 8:21ff. 9:25ff. 16:12 27:27ff. 39f. 48:19ff., ch. 49; cf. Nu. 23 f., Dt. 33. Here certain fixed adverse conditions of the universal human lot are traced back to a primæval curse uttered by Yahwe in consequence of man's first transgression. See, further, p. 95 below.—The form of the oracles is poetic; but the structure is irregular, and no definite metrical scheme can be made out.

14, 15. The curse on the serpent is legible, partly in its degraded form and habits (14), and partly in the deadly feud between it and the human race (15).—14. on thy belly, etc.] The assumption undoubtedly is that originally the serpent moved erect, but not necessarily that its organism was changed (e.g. by cutting off its legs, etc. Rabb.). As a matter of fact most snakes have the power of erecting a considerable part of their bodies; and in mytho-

μῆνον.—13. ἀνάθεμα] So commonly with ἐσθήνει; with other vbs. ἀνάθεμα (G–K. § 136 ε.; Dav. § 7 (c)).

14. ἔπαν] On this use of ἐ (=e numero), see G–K. § 119 w, and cf. Ex. 19:5, Dt. 14:2324, Ju. 5:24 etc. Sta.'s argument (ZATW, xvii. 209) for deleting 1 ממהם למות, on the ground that the serpent belongs to the category of רתיי נון but not to ממהם, is logical, but hardly convincing.—ןונ] Probably from ־ין (Aram.) = 'curve' or 'bend' (De., BDB), occurs again only Lv. 11:42, of reptiles. W renders pectus, G combines σηθος
logical representations the serpent often appears in the upright position (Ben.). The idea probably is that this was its original posture: how it was maintained was perhaps not reflected upon.—*dust shalt thou eat* Cf. Mic. 717, Is. 6525. It is a prosaic explanation to say that the serpent, crawling on the ground, inadvertently swallows a good deal of dust (Boch. *Hieros.* iii. 245; Di. al.); and a mere metaphor for humiliation (like Ass. *ti-ka-lu ip-ra*; *KIB*, v. 232 f.) is too weak a sense for this passage. Probably it is a piece of ancient superstition, like the Arabian notion that the *qinn* eat dirt (*We. Heid.* 150).—*all the days of thy life* i.e. *each* serpent as long as it lives, and the *race* of serpents as long as it lasts. It is not so certain as most comm. seem to think that these words exclude the demonic character of the serpent. It is true that the punishment of a morally irresponsible agent was recognised in Hebrew jurisprudence (*g*5, Ex. 2128f., Lv. 2015f.). But it is quite possible that here (as in v.15) the archetypal serpent is conceived as re-embodied in all his progeny, as acting and suffering in each member of the species.—15. The serpent’s attempt to establish unholy fellowship with the woman is punished by implacable and undying enmity between them.*—*thy seed and her seed* The whole brood of

and *κοιλα.*—15. *יוו* in the sense of ‘offspring,’ is nearly always collective. In a few cases where it is used of an individual child (427, 2113, i Sa. 11) it denotes the immediate offspring as the pledge of posterity, never a remote descendant (see Nö. *ARW*, viii. 164 ff.). The Messianic application therefore is not justified in grammar.—*κοιλα* the rendering *ipsa* (Υ) is said not to be found in the Fathers before Ambrose and Augustine (Zapletal, *ATliches*, 19). Jer. at all events knew that *ipsa* should be read.—*מְשָׁנָה ... מְשָׁנָה* The form מְשָׁנָה recurs only *Jb.* 917, Ps. 13911, and, in both, text and meaning are doubtful. In Aram. and NH the √ (ייו or ייו) has the primary sense of ‘rub,’ hence ‘wear down by rubbing’ = ‘crush’; in Syr. it also means to crawl. There are a few exx. of a tendency of ייו vbs. to strengthen themselves by insertion of נ (Kön. i. 439), and it is often supposed that in certain pass.

* "Fit enim arcano naturæ sensu ut ab ipsis abhorreat homo" (Calv.). Cf. (with Boch. *Hieros.* iii. 250) "quam dudum dixerat te odisse æque atque angues" (Plaut. *Merc.* 4); and *ἐκ παιδός τὸν ψυχρὸν δόντι τὰ μάλιστα δέδωκα* (Theoc. *Id.* 15).
paradise, or insidiaberis, appears of pant and serpent.

The current reading of פ (ipsa) may have been prompted by a feeling that the proper antithesis to the serpent is the woman herself. The general meaning of the sentence is clear: in the war between men and serpents the former will crush the head of the foe, while the latter can only wound in the heel. The difficulty is in the vb. פ, which in the sense 'bruise' is inappropriate to the serpent's mode of attack. We may speak of a serpent striking a man (as in Lat. feriri a serpente), but hardly of bruising. Hence many comm. (following G al.) take the vb. as a by-form of פ (strictly 'pant'), in the sense of 'be eager for,' 'aim at' (Ges. Ew. Di. al.); while others (Gu. al.) suppose that by paronomasia the word means 'bruise' in the first clause, and 'aim at' in the second. But it may be questioned whether this idea is not even less suitable than the other (Dri.). A perfectly satisfactory interpretation cannot be given (v. i.).

The Messianic interpretation of the 'seed of the woman' appears in T and Targ. Jer., where the v. is explained of the Jewish com-

(Ezk. 36, Am. 27 8, Ps. 56 8 57) פ is disguised under the by-form פ. But the only places where the assumption is at all necessary are Am. 27 8, where the נ may be simply mater lectionis for the a of the ptcp. (cf. נפנפ, Ho. 10); in the other cases the proper sense of פ ('pant' or metaph. 'long for') suffices. The reverse process (substitution of פ for פ) is much less likely; and the only possible instance would be Jb. 97, which is too uncertain to count for anything. There is thus not much ground for supposing a confusion in this v.; and De. points out that vbs. of hostile endeavour, as distinct from hostile achievement (נה, נת, etc.), are never construed with double acc. The gain in sense is so doubtful that it is better to adhere to the meaning 'crush.' The old Vns. felt the difficulty and ambiguity. The idea of crushing is represented by Ag. προτρίφει, Σ. θλίφει, Τ. Col. mg. τρίφει (see Field) and Jer. (Quaest.) conterere; 'pant after' by CA al. τρηθεῖ [if not a mistake for τρήθει [or τρηθεῖ]]. A double sense is given by B conteret ... insidiaberis, and perhaps פ ... מ. ... ב; while T paraphrases: איה איה רכית עם השיברתה לו מלקדיסוס והו והו נור עלי, איה איה.
munity and its victory over the devil "in the days of King Messiah." The reference to the person of Christ was taught by Irenæus, but was never so generally accepted in the Church as the kindred idea that the serpent is the instrument of Satan. Mediaeval exegetes, relying on the ipsa of the Vulg., applied the expression directly to the Virgin Mary; and even Luther, while rejecting this reference, recognised an allusion to the virgin birth of Christ. In Protestant theology this view gave way to the more reasonable view of Calvin, that the passage is a promise of victory over the devil to mankind, united in Christ its divine Head. That even this goes beyond the original meaning of the v. is admitted by most modern expositors; and indeed it is doubtful if, from the standpoint of strict historical exegesis, the passage can be regarded as in any sense a Protevangelium. Di. (with whom Dri. substantially agrees) finds in the words the idea of man's vocation to ceaseless moral warfare with the 'serpent-brood' of sinful thoughts, and an implicit promise of the ultimate destruction of the evil power. That interpretation, however, is open to several objections. (1) A message of hope and encouragement in the midst of a series of curses and punishments is not to be assumed unless it be clearly implied in the language. It would be out of harmony with the tone not only of the Paradise story, but of the Yahwistic sections of chs. i-ii as a whole: it is not till we come to the patriarchal history that the "note of promise and of hope" is firmly struck. (2) To the mind of the narrator, the serpent is no more a symbol of the power of evil or of temptation than he is an incarnation of the devil. He is himself an evil creature, perhaps a demonic creature transmitting his demonic character to his progeny, but there is no hint that he represents a principle of evil apart from himself. (3) No victory is promised to either party, but only perpetual warfare between them: the order of the clauses making it specially hard to suppose that the victory of man was contemplated. Di. admits that no such assurance is expressed; but finds it in the general tenor of the passage: "a conflict ordained by God cannot be without prospect of success." But that is really to beg the whole question in dispute. If it be said that the words, being part of the sentence on the serpent, must mean that he is ultimately to be defeated, it may be answered that the curse on the serpent is the enmity established between him and the human race, and that the feud between them is simply the manifestation and proof of that antagonism.---It is thus possible that in its primary intention the oracle reflects the protest of ethical religion against the unnatural fascination of snake-worship. It is psychologically true that the instinctive feelings which lie at the root of the worship of serpents are closely akin to the hatred and loathing which the repulsive reptile excites in the healthy human mind; and the transformation of a once sacred animal into an object of aversion is a not infrequent phenomenon in the history of religion (see Gres. Lc. 360). The essence of the temptation is that the serpent-demon has tampered with the religious instinct in man by posing as his good genius, and insinuating distrust of the goodness of God; and his punishment is to find himself at eternal war with the race whom he has seduced from
their allegiance to their Creator. And that is very much the light in which serpent-worship must have appeared to a believer in the holy and righteous God of the OT.—The conjecture of Gu., that originally the 'seed of the woman' and the 'seed of the serpent' may have been mythological personages (cf. ATLO, 217 f.), even if confirmed by Assyriology, would have little bearing on the thought of the biblical narrator.

16. The doom of the woman: consisting in the hardships incident to her sex, and social position in the East. The pains of childbirth, and the desire which makes her the willing slave of the man, impressed the ancient mind as at once mysterious and unnatural; therefore to be accounted for by a curse imposed on woman from the beginning.—I will multiply, etc.] More strictly, 'I will cause thee to have much suffering and pregnancy' (see Dav. § 3, R. (2)). It is, of course, not an intensification of pain to which she is already subject that is meant.—For פִּיָּהּ, ו read some word meaning 'groaning' (v.t.); but to prefer this reading on the ground that Hebrew women esteemed frequent pregnancy a blessing (Gu.) makes a too general statement. It is better (with Ho.) to assume a hendiadys: 'the pain of thy conception' (as in the explanatory clause which follows).—in pain . . . children] The pangs of childbirth are proverbial in OT for the extremity of human anguish (Is. 218 138, Mic. 49, Ps. 486, and oft.: Ex. 119 cannot be cited to the contrary).—to thy
**husband . . desire**] It is quite unnecessary to give up the rare but expressive חיה of the Heb. for the weaker הנווש of גר, etc. (v.i.). It is not, however, implied that the woman's sexual desire is stronger than the man's (Kn. Gu.); the point rather is that by the instincts of her nature she shall be bound to the hard conditions of her lot, both the ever-recurring pains of child-bearing, and subjection to the man.—while he (on his part) shall rule over thee

The idea of tyrannous exercise of power does not lie in the vb. ; but it means that the woman is wholly subject to the man, and so liable to the arbitrary treatment sanctioned by the marriage customs of the East. It is noteworthy that to the writer this is not the ideal relation of the sexes (cf. 218. 23). There is here certainly no trace of the matriarchate or of polyandry (see on 224).

17-19. The man's sentence. —The hard, unremitting toil of the husbandman, wringing a bare subsistence from the grudging and intractable ground, is the standing evidence of a divine curse, resting, not, indeed, on man himself, but on the earth for his sake. Originally, it had provided him with all kinds of fruit good for food,—and this is the ideal state of things; now it yields nothing spontaneously but thorns and briars; bread to eat can only be extorted in the sweat of the brow,—and this is a curse: formerly man had been a gardener, now he is a fellah. It does not appear that death itself is part of the curse. The name death is avoided; and the fact is referred to as part of the natural order of things,—the inevitable 'return' of man to the ground whence he was taken. The question whether man would have lived for ever if he had not sinned is one to which the narrative furnishes no answer (Gu.).

17. And to the man] v.i. The sentence is introduced by a formal recital of the offence.—Cursed is the ground] As

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17. Point זאונא; there is no conceivable reason why זא should be a proper name here (cf. 20 32).—נאמ . . . זאא ] גר reads רותוע מְנָנְו (see v.11) מָה פָּאוֹגְנֶה, אָפַּי אֵלֶּוֹ פָּאוֹגֶן.—[בַּעֲבוּר] גר (עַנ תַּעַרְתָּאָהוֹ), צ. י. read קְעֵפָא, צ. אַנ תַעֲרָתָאָהוֹ (קְעֵפָא). The phrase is characteristic of ג; out of 22 instances in the Hex., only about 3 can be assigned
exceptional fertility was ascribed to a divine blessing (27\textsuperscript{28} etc.), and exceptional barrenness to a curse (Is. 24\textsuperscript{6}, Jer. 23\textsuperscript{10}), so the relative unproductiveness of the whole earth in comparison with man's expectations and ideals is here regarded as the permanent effect of a curse.—\textit{in suffering} (bodily fatigue and mental anxiety) \textit{shall thou eat} [of] \textit{it}] See 5\textsuperscript{20}. The 'laborious work' of the husbandman is referred to in Sir. 7\textsuperscript{15}; but this is not the prevailing feeling of the OT; and the remark of Kno., that "agriculture was to the Hebrew a divine institution, but at the same time a heavy burden," needs qualification. It is well to be reminded that "ancient Israel did not live constantly in the joy of the harvest festival" (Gu.); but none the less it would be a mistake to suppose that it lived habitually in the mood of this passage.—\textbf{18. the herb of the field} See on r\textsuperscript{11}. The creation of this order of vegetation has not been recorded by J. Are we to suppose that it comes into existence simply in consequence of the earth's diminished productivity caused by the curse? It seems implied at all events that the earth will not yield even this, except under the compulsion of human labour (see 2\textsuperscript{5}).—\textbf{19. in the sweat of thy brow, etc.} A more expressive repetition of the thought of 17\textsuperscript{b8}. The phrase \textit{eat bread} may mean 'earn a livelihood' (Am. 7\textsuperscript{12}), but here it must be understood literally as the immediate reward of man's toil.—\textit{till thou return, etc.} hardly means more than 'all the days of thy life' (in v.1\textsuperscript{7}). It is not a threat of death as the punishment of sin, and we have no right to say (with Di.) that vv.1\textsuperscript{6}-1\textsuperscript{9} are simply an expansion of the sentence of 2\textsuperscript{17}. That man was by nature immortal is not taught in this passage; and since the Tree of Life in v.2\textsuperscript{2} belongs to another recension, there is no evidence that the main narrative regarded even endless life as within man's

to E (none to P).—\textit{נַעֲשָׂה} The government of direct acc. seems harsh, but is not unexampled: see Jer. 3\textsuperscript{616}.—\textbf{18.} Gr omits initial ˙; so \textit{Jub.}—\textit{יִדְרַע} Hos. 1\textsuperscript{0}; \textit{יִדְרַע} occurs nowhere else in OT. It is still used in Syria (\textit{dardār}) as a general name for thistles.—\textbf{19.} \textit{יִדְרַע} (\textit{v'v}, \textit{wadj'a} a) is \textit{אָיָן} \textit{אָֽנָּה}.; cf. \textit{יִדְרַע}, Ezek. 4\textsuperscript{4\textsuperscript{18}}.—\textit{דָּבָר} \textit{Jub.} 3\textsuperscript{911}.
reach. The connexion of the closing words is rather with 27: man was taken from the ground, and in the natural course will return to it again.—and to dust, etc.] Cf. Jb. 108 3415, Ps. 908 1464, Ec. 320 127 etc.: ἐκ γαίας βλαστῶν γαῖα πάλιν γέγονα.

The arrangement of the clauses in 17–19 is not very natural, and the repeated variations of the same idea have suggested the hypothesis of textual corruption or fusion of sources. In Jub. iii. 25 the passage is quoted in an abridged form, the line 'Cursed . . . sake' being immediately followed by 'Thorns . . . to thee,' and 18b being omitted. This is, of course, a much smoother reading, and leaves out nothing essential; but 17b is guaranteed by 529. Ho. rejects 18b, and to avoid the repetition of הַנִּפְלָל אֶל instead of נִפְלָל אֶת in 17. Gu. is satisfied with v. 17b as they stand, but assigns 18a (to אֶת) and 19b to another source (J), as doublets respectively of 17b and 19b. This is perhaps on the whole the most satisfactory analysis.—The poetic structure of the vv., which might be expected to clear up a question of this kind, is too obscure to afford any guidance. Sievers, e.g. (II. 10 f.) finds nothing, except in v. 19, to distinguish the rhythm from that of the narrative in which it is embedded, and all attempts at strophic arrangement are only tentative.

20–24. The expulsion from Eden.—20. The naming of the woman can hardly have come between the sentence and its execution, or before there was any experience of motherhood to suggest it. The attempts to connect the notice with the mention of child-bearing in 16f. (De. al.), or

20. מְנַ נִי] גַּיָּ ה [Eva] (in 41), Aq. Ada, Ἡ Ἥβα, Jer. Eva (Eng. Eve); in this v. גַּיָּ ה translates Ἰωνή, Σ. Ζωογόνος. The similarity of the name to the Aram. word for 'serpent' (37, κατόπτρα, Syr. לֶשֶׁם, Syro-Pal. לֶשֶׁם [Mt. 110]); cf. Ar. ēywet from ēywet [Nö.] has always been noticed, and is accepted by several modern scholars as a real etymological equivalence (Nö. ZDMG, xlxi. 487; Sta. GVI, i. 633; We. Heid. 154). The ancient idea was that Eve was so named because she had done the serpent's work in tempting Adam (Ber. R.; Philo, De agr. Noe, 21; Clem. Alex. Protrept. ii. 12. 1). Quite recently the philological equation has acquired fresh significance from the discovery of the name מְנַ Ni on a leaden Punic tabella devotionis (described by Lidz. Ephemeris, i. 26ff; see Cooke, NSI, 135), of which the first line reads: 'O Lady Ἥβε, goddess, queen . . . !' Lidz. sees in this mythological personage a goddess of the under-world, and as such a serpent-deity; and identifies her with the biblical Ἡβε. Ἡβε would thus be a 'depotentiated' deity, whose prototype was a Phoenician goddess of the Under-world, worshipped in the form of a serpent, and bearing the
with the thought of mortality in 19 (Kn.), are forced. The most suitable position in the present text would be before (so Jub. iii. 33) or after 41; and accordingly some regard it as a misplaced gloss in explanation of that v. But when we consider (a) that the name Ḥavvāḥ must in any case be traditional, (b) that it is a proper name, whereas דָּרָאת remains appellative throughout, and (c) that in the following vv. there are unambiguous traces of a second recension of the Paradise story, it is reasonable to suppose that v.20 comes from that recension, and is a parallel to the naming of the woman in 223, whether it stands here in the original order or not. The fact that the name Eve has been preserved, while there is no distinctive name for the man, suggests that מָאָס is a survival from a more primitive theory of human origins in which the first mother represented the unity of the race.—the mother of every living thing] According to this derivation, מָאָס would seem to denote first the idea of life, and then the source of life—the mother.* But

title of 'Mother of all living' (see Gres. l.c. 359 f.). Precarious as such combinations may seem, there is no objection in principle to an explanation of the name Ḥavvah on these lines. Besides the Hivvites of the OT (who were probably a serpent-tribe), We. cites examples of Semitic princely families that traced their genealogy back to a serpent. The substitution of human for animal ancestry, and the transference of the animal name to the human ancestor, are phenomena frequently observed in the transition from a lower to a higher stage of religion. If the change took place while a law of female descent still prevailed, the ancestry would naturally be traced to a woman (or goddess); and when the law of male kinship was introduced she would as naturally be identified with the wife of the first man. It need hardly be said that all this, while possibly throwing some light on the mythical background of the biblical narrative, is quite apart from the religious significance of the story of the Fall in itself.—מָאָס v.] Rob. Sm. renders 'mother of every Ḥayy,'—Ḥayy being the Arab. word which originally denoted a group of female kinship. Thus "Eve is the personification of the bond of kinship (conceived as exclusively mother-kinship), just as Adam is simply 'man,' i.e. the personification of mankind" (KM9, 208). The interpretation has found no support.

* So Baethgen, Beitr. 148, who appends the note: "Im holsteinischen Plattdeutsch ist 'Dat Leben' euphemistischer Ausdruck für das pudendum muliebre"—a meaning by the way which also attaches to Ar. Ḥayy (Lane, Lex. 681 b).
the form  הטל is not Heb., and the real meaning of the word is not settled by the etymology here given (v.l.).—.instance commonly includes all animals (821 etc.), but is here restricted to mankind (as Ps. 1432, Jb. 3023). Cf. however, πότνια θηρών, 'Lady of wild things,' a Greek epithet of the Earth-mother (Miss Harrison, Prol. 264).—21. Another detached notice describing the origin of clothing. It is, of course, not inconsistent with v.7, but neither can it be said to be the necessary sequel to that v.; most probably it is a parallel from another source.—coats of skin] 'The simplest and most primitive kind of clothing in practical use' (Dri.).

An interesting question arises as to the connexion between this method of clothing and the loss of pristine innocence. That it exhibits God's continued care for man even after the Fall (Di. al.) may be true as regards the present form of the legend; but that is hardly the original conception. In the Phoen. legend of Usōos, the invention is connected with the hunting of wild animals, and this again with the institution of sacrifice: ... δι σκέπης του σώματι πρώτος εκ δερμάτων δω λαυχει συλλαβείν θηρίων είπε ... ἀμα τε σπέντειν αὐταίς εξ δω ἤγερεν θηρίων (Prap. Ev. i. 10; Orelli, p. 17 f.). Since sacrifice and the use of animal food were inseparably associated in Semitic antiquity, it may be assumed that this is conceived as the first departure from the Golden Age, when men lived on the spontaneous fruits of the earth. Similarly, Rob. Sm. (RS2, 306 ff.) found in the v. the Yahwistic theory of the introduction of the sacrifice of domestic animals, which thus coincided, as in Greek legend, with the transition from the state of innocence to the life of agriculture.

22-24. The actual expulsion.—22. Behold ... one of us] This is no 'ironica exprobatio' (Calv. al.), but a serious admission that man has snatched a divine prerogative not meant for him. The feeling expressed (cf. 116) is akin to what the Greeks called the 'envy of the gods,' and more remotely to the OT attribute of the zeal or jealousy of Yahwe, —His resentment of all action that encroaches on His

21. Point וק, as in v.17.—22. וק] Constr. before prep., G-K. § 130 a.—וק] The so-called oriental punctuation (which distinguishes 1st pl. from 3rd sg. masc. suffix) has וק, 'from us' (B-D. p. 81).  צו (טיו אֶלְעַרְיָה) and Σ (ὁμοῦ ἀφ’ ἑαυτοῦ) treat the form as 3rd sing.: cf. Ra.'s paraphrase: "alone below, as I am alone above."—רַבָּד] 'in [respect of] knowing': gerundial inf.; Dav. § 93; G-K. § 114 σ; Dri.
divinity (see p. 97). In v.⁵ the same words are put in the mouth of the serpent with a distinct imputation of envy to God; and it is perhaps improbable that the writer of that v. would have justified the serpent’s insinuation, even in form, by a divine utterance. There are several indications (e.g. the phrase ‘like one of us’) that the secondary recension to which v.²² belongs represents a cruder form of the legend than does the main narrative; and it is possible that it retains more of the characteristically pagan feeling of the envy of the gods.—in respect of knowing, etc.] Man has not attained complete equality with God, but only God-likeness in this one respect. Gres.’s contention that the v. is self-contradictory (man has become like a god, and yet lacks the immortality of a god) is therefore unfounded.—And now, etc.] There remains another divine attribute which man will be prompt to seize, viz. immortality: to prevent his thus attaining complete likeness to God he must be debarred from the Tree of Life. The expression put forth his hand suggests that a single partaking of the fruit would have conferred eternal life (Bu. Urg. 52); and at least implies that it would have been an easy thing to do. The question why man had not as yet done so is not impertinent (De.), but inevitable; so momentous an issue could not have been left to chance in a continuous narrative. The obvious solution is that in this recension the Tree of Life was a (or the) forbidden tree, that man in his first innocence had respected the injunction, but that now when he knows the virtue of the tree he will not refrain from eating. It is to be observed that it is only in this part of the story that the idea of immortality is introduced, and that not as an essential endowment of human nature, but as contingent on an act which would be as efficacious after the Fall as before it.—On the aposiosis at the end of the v., v.i.—23 is clearly a doublet of ²⁴; and the latter is the natural continuation of ²². V.²³ is

T. § 205.—The pregnant use of ἵνα (‘I fear lest’) is common (Gn. 19¹⁹ 26⁹ 38¹¹ 44⁴⁴, Ex. 13¹⁷ etc.). Here it is more natural to assume an anakolouthon, the clause depending on a cohortative, converted in v.²³
a fitting conclusion to the main narrative, in which it probably followed immediately on v.\textsuperscript{19}.—24. He drove out the man and made [him] dwell on the east of . . . [and stationed] the Cherubim, etc.] This is the reading of Κατ (v.i.), and it gives a more natural construction than MT, which omits the words in brackets. On either view the assumption is that the first abode of mankind was east of the garden. There is no reason to suppose that the v. represents a different tradition as to the site of Eden from 2\textsuperscript{8} or 2\textsuperscript{10ff.}. It is not said in 2\textsuperscript{8} that it was in the extreme east, or in 2\textsuperscript{10} that it was in the extreme north; nor is it here implied that it was further west than Palestine. The account of the early migration of the race in 11\textsuperscript{2} is quite consistent with the supposition that mankind entered the Euphrates valley from a region still further east.—the Cherubim and the revolving sword-flame] Lit. ‘the flame of the whirling sword.’ It has usually been assumed that the sword was in the hand of one of the cherubim; but probably it was an independent symbol, and a representation of the lightning. Some light may be thrown on it by an inscription of Tiglath-pileser I. (ΚΙΒ, i. 36 f.), where the king says that when he destroyed the fortress of Ηuñusa he made ‘a lightning of bronze.’ The emblem appears to be otherwise unknown, but the allusion suggests a parallel to the ‘flaming sword’ of this passage.

The Cherubim.—See the notes of Di. Gu. Dri.; ΚΑΤ\textsuperscript{9}, 529 ff., 631 ff.; Che. in EB, 741 ff.; Je. ATLO\textsuperscript{3}, 218; Haupt, SBAT, Numbers, 46; Polychrome Bible, 181 ff.; Furtwängler, in Roscher’s Lex. art. Gryps. —The derivation of the word is uncertain. The old theory of a connexion with γρφς (Greif; griffin, etc.) is not devoid of plausibility, but lacks proof. The often quoted statement of Lenormant (Orig. i. 118), that κιρυβα occurs on an amulet in the de Clercq collection as a name

into a historic tense.—δι] Κακ όμ.—24. Κα κατάκισεν αὐτοίν αὐτένατι τοι παραδείσου τῆς τρυφῆς, καὶ ἔταξεν τὰ χερουβίν καλ. = μεγάλας ἁρδαζόμενος κεφαλῆς κοπαί ἀπὸ τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἀντίφατον. Ball rightly adopts this text, inserting ἑκάτερον ἀπὸ τῆς, against J’s usage. There is no need to supply any pron. obj. whatever: see 2\textsuperscript{10} 18\textsuperscript{7} 38\textsuperscript{18}, i Sa. 19\textsuperscript{13} etc. For the first three words Σ has simply ὁμόθετον, and for ὁμόθετον (with the cherubim, etc., as obj.)—ὑπερβολικά] Hithpa. in the sense of ‘revolve,’ Ju. 7\textsuperscript{13}, Jb. 37\textsuperscript{12}; in Jb. 38\textsuperscript{14} it means ‘be transformed.’
of the winged bulls of Assyrian palaces, seems to be definitely disproved (see Je. 218).—A great part of the OT symbolism could be explained from the hypothesis that the Cherubim were originally wind-demons, like the Harpies of Greek mythology (Harrison, Prol. 178 ff.). The most suggestive analogy to this verse is perhaps to be found in the winged genii often depicted by the side of the tree of life in Babylonian art. These figures are usually human in form with human heads, but sometimes combine the human form with an eagle’s head, and occasionally the human head with an animal body. They are shown in the act of fecundating the date-palm by transferring the pollen of the male tree to the flower of the female; and hence it has been conjectured that they are personifications of the winds, by whose agency the fertilisation of the palm is effected in nature (Tylor, PSBA, xii. 383 ff.). Starting with this clue, we can readily explain (1) the function of the Cherub as the living chariot of Yahwe, or bearer of the Theophany, in Ps. 1811 (2 Sa. 2211). It is a personification of the storm-wind on which Yahwe rides, just as the Babylonian storm-god Zû was figured as a bird-deity. The theory that it was a personification of the thunder-cloud is a mere conjecture based on Ps. 1811, and has no more intrinsic probability than that here suggested. (2) The association of the winged figures with the Tree of Life in Babylonian art would naturally lead to the belief that the Cherubim were denizens of Paradise (Ezk. 2814-18), and guardians of the Tree (as in this passage). (3) Thence they came to be viewed as guardians of sacred things and places generally, like the composite figures placed at the entrances of Assyrian temples and palaces to prevent the approach of evil spirits. To this category belong probably in the first instance the colossal Cherubim of Solomon’s temple (1 Ki. 623 ff. 8 ff.), and the miniatures on the lid of the ark in the Tabernacle (Ex. 2516 ff. etc.) but a trace of the primary conception appears in the alternation of cherubim and palm-trees in the temple decoration (1 Ki. 629 ff., Ezk. 4118 ff.; see, further, 1 Ki. 729 ff., Ex. 251-31). (4) The most difficult embodiment of the idea is found in the Cherubim of Ezekiel’s visions—four composite creatures combining the features of the ox, the lion, the man, and the eagle (Ezk. 110 ff.). These may represent primarily the ‘four winds of heaven’; but the complex symbolism of the Merkabah shows that they have some deeper cosmic significance. Gu. (p. 20) thinks that an older form of the representation is preserved in Apoc. 46 ff., where the four animal types are kept distinct. These he connects with the four constellations of the Zodiac which mark the four quarters of the heavens: Taurus, Leo, Scorpio (in the earliest astronomy a scorpion-man), and Aquila (near Aquarius). See KAT8, 631 ff.

The Origin and Significance of the Paradise Legend.

1. Ethnic parallels.—The Babylonian version of the Fall of man (if any such existed) has not yet been discovered. There is in the British Museum a much-debated seal-cylinder which is often cited as evidence that a legend very similar to the biblical narrative was current in Babylonia. It shows two completely clothed figures seated on either
side of a tree, and each stretching out a hand toward its fruit, while a
crooked line on the left of the picture is supposed to exhibit the serpent.*
The engraving no doubt represents some legend connected with the tree
of life; but even if we knew that it illustrates the first temptation, the
story is still wanting; and the details of the picture show that it can
have had very little resemblance to Gn. 3.—The most that can be
claimed is that there are certain remote parallels to particular features
or ideas of Gn. 2:1-3:24, which are yet sufficiently close to suggest that
the ultimate source of the biblical narrative is to be sought in the
Babylonian mythology. Attention should be directed to the following:—

(a) The account of Creation in 2:1-3:24 has undoubted resemblances
to the Babylonian document described on p. 47 f., though they are
hardly such as to prove dependence. Each starts with a vision of
chaos, and in both the prior existence of heaven and earth seems to be
assumed; although the Babylonian chaos is a waste of waters, while
that of Gn. 2:1 is based rather on the idea of a waterless desert (see
p. 56 above). The order of creation, though not the same, is alike
in its promiscuous and unscientific character: in the Babylonian we
have a hopeless medley—mankind, beasts of the field, living things of
the field, Tigris and Euphrates, verdure of the field, grass, marshes,
reeds, wild-cow, ewe, sheep of the fold, orchards, forests, houses, and
cities, etc. etc.—but no separate creation of woman.—The creation of
man from earth moistened by the blood of a god, in another document,
may be instanced as a distant parallel to 2:7 (pp. 42, 45).

(b) The legend of Eabani, embedded in the Gilgamesh-Epic (Tab. I
Col. ii. l. 33 ff.: KIB, vi. 1, p. 120 ff.), seems to present us (it has been
thought) with a ‘type of primitive man.’ Eabani, created as a rival
to Gilgamesh by the goddess Aruru from a lump of clay, is a being
of gigantic strength who is found associating with the wild animals, living
their life, and foiling all the devices of the huntsman. Eager to capture
him, Gilgamesh sends with the huntsman a harlot, by whose attractions
he hopes to lure Eabani from his savagery. Eabani yields to her
charms, and is led, a willing captive, to the life of civilisation:

When she speaks to him, her speech pleases him,
One who knows his heart he seeks, a friend.

But later in the epic, the harlot appears as the cause of his sorrows,
and Eabani curses her with all his heart. Apart from its present
setting, and considered as an independent bit of folk-lore, it cannot
be denied that the story has a certain resemblance to Gn. 2:18-24. Only,
we may be sure that if the idea of sexual intercourse with the beasts be
implied in the picture of Eabani, the moral purity of the Hebrew writer
never stooped so low (see Jastrow, AJSL, xv. 198 ff.; Stade, ZATW,
xxiii. 174 f.).

(c) Far more instructive affinities with the inner motive of the story

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* Reproduced in Smith’s Chaldean Genesis, 88; Del. Babel und Bibel
(M‘Cormack’s trans. p. 48); ATLO, 203, etc. Je. has satisfied himself
that the zigzag line is a snake, but is equally convinced that the snake
cannot be tempting a man and a woman to eat the fruit.
of the Fall are found in the myth of Adapa and the South-wind, discovered amongst the Tel-Amarna Tablets, and therefore known in Palestine in the 15th cent. B.C. (KIB, vi. 1, 92-101). Adapa, the son of the god Ea, is endowed by him with the fulness of divine wisdom, but denied the gift of immortality:

"Wisdom I gave him, immortality I gave him not."

While plying the trade of a fisherman on the Persian Gulf, the south-wind overpowers his bark, and in revenge Adapa breaks the wings of the south-wind. For this offence he is summoned by Anu to appear before the assembly of the gods in heaven; and Ea instructs him how to appease the anger of Anu. Then the gods, disconcerted by finding a mortal in possession of their secrets, resolve to make the best of it, and to admit him fully into their society, by conferring on him immortality. They offer him food of life that he may eat, and water of life that he may drink. But Adapa had previously been deceived by Ea, who did not wish him to become immortal. Ea had said that what would be offered to him would be food and water of death, and had strictly cautioned him to refuse. He did refuse, and so missed immortal life. Anu laments over his infatuated refusal:

"Why, Adapa! Wherefore hast thou not eaten, not drunken, so that Thou wilt not live . . . ?" "'Ea, my lord, Commanded, 'Eat not and drink not!'

"Take him and bring him back to his earth!"

This looks almost like a travesty of the leading ideas of Gn. 3; yet the common features are very striking. In both we have the idea that wisdom and immortality combined constitute equality with deity; in both we have a man securing the first and missing the second; and in both the man is counselled in opposite directions by supernatural voices, and acts on that advice which is contrary to his interest. There is, of course, the vital difference that while Yahwe forbids both wisdom and immortality to man, Ea confers the first (and thus far plays the part of the biblical serpent) but withholds the second, and Anu is ready to bestow both. Still, it is not too much to expect that a story like this will throw light on the mythological antecedents of the Genesis narrative, if not directly on that narrative itself (see below, p. 94).

What is true of Babylonian affinities holds good in a lesser degree of the ancient mythologies as a whole: everywhere we find echoes of the Paradise myth, but nowhere a story which forms an exact parallel to Gn. 2. 3. The Graeco-Roman traditions told of a 'golden age,' lost through the increasing sinfulness of the race,—an age when the earth freely yielded its fruits, and men lived in a happiness undisturbed by toil or care or sin (Hesiod, Op. et Dies, 90-92, 109-120; Ovid, Met. i. 89-112, etc.); but they knew nothing of a sudden fall. Indian and Persian mythologies told, in addition, of sacred mountains where the gods dwelt, with bright gold and flashing gems, and miraculous trees conferring immortality, and every imaginable blessing; and we have seen that similar representations were current in Babylonia. The nearest approach to definite counterparts of the biblical narrative
are found in Iranian legends, where we read of Meshia and Meshiane, who lived at first on fruits, but who, tempted by Ahriman, denied the good god, lost their innocence, and practised all kinds of wickedness; or of Yima, the ruler of the golden age, under whom there was neither sickness nor death, nor hunger nor thirst, until (in one tradition) he gave way to pride, and fell under the dominion of the evil serpent Dahaka (see Di. p. 47ff.). But these echoes are too faint and distant to enable us to determine the quarter whence the original impulse proceeded, or where the myth assumed the form in which it appears in Genesis. For answers to these questions we are dependent mainly on the uncertain indications of the biblical narrative itself. Some features (the name Ḥavaḥ [p. 85f.], and elements of ch. 4) seem to point to Phœnicia as the quarter whence this stratum of myth entered the religion of Israel; others (the Paradise-geography) point rather to Babylonia, or at least Mesopotamia. In the present state of our knowledge it is a plausible conjecture that the myth has travelled from Babylonia, and reached Israel through the Phœnicians or the Canaanites (We. Prot. 6 307; Gres. ARW, x. 345ff.; cf. Bevan, JTS, iv. 500f.). A similar conclusion might be drawn from the contradiction in the idea of chaos, if the explanation given above of 26 be correct: it looks as if the cosmogony of an alluvial region had been modified through transference to a dry climate (see p. 56). The fig-leaves of 37 are certainly not Babylonian; though a single detail of that kind cannot settle the question of origin. But until further light comes from the monuments, all speculations on this subject are very much in the air.

2. The mythical substratum of the narrative.—The strongest evidence of the non-Israelite origin of the story of the Fall is furnished by the biblical account itself, in the many mythological conceptions, of which traces still remain in Genesis. "The narrative," as Dri. says, "contains features which have unmistakable counterparts in the religious traditions of other nations; and some of these, though they have been accommodated to the spirit of Israel's religion, carry indications that they are not native to it" (Gen. 51). Amongst the features which are at variance with the standpoint of Hebrew religion we may put first of all the fact that the abode of Yahwe is placed, not in Canaan or at Mount Sinai, but in the far East. The strictly mythological background of the story emerges chiefly in the conceptions of the garden of the gods (see p. 57f.), the trees of life and of knowledge (p. 59), the serpent (p. 72f.), Eve (p. 85f.), and the Cherubim (p. 89f.). It is true, as has been shown, that each of these conceptions is rooted in the most primitive ideas of Semitic religion; but it is equally true that they have passed through a mythological development for which the religion of Israel gave no opportunity. Thus the association of trees and serpents in Semitic folk-lore is illustrated by an Arabian story, which tells how, when an untrodden thicket was burned down, the spirits of the trees made their escape in the shape of white serpents (RS², 133); but it is quite clear that a long interval separates that primitive superstition from the ideas that invest the serpent and the tree in this passage. If proof were needed, it would be found in the suggestive combinations of the serpent and the tree in
Babylonian and Phœnician art; or in the fabled garden of the Hesperides, with its golden fruit guarded by a dragon, always figured in artistic representations as a huge snake coiled round the trunk of the tree (cf. Lenormant, *Origines*, i. 93 f.: see the illustrations in Roscher, *Lex.* 2599 f.). How the various elements were combined in the particular myth which lies immediately behind the biblical narrative, it is impossible to say; but the myth of Adapa suggests at least some elements of a possible construction, which cannot be very far from the truth. Obviously we have to do with a polytheistic legend, in which rivalries and jealousies between the different deities are almost a matter of course. The serpent is himself a demon; and his readiness to initiate man in the knowledge of the mysterious virtue of the forbidden tree means that he is at variance with the other gods, or at least with the particular god who had imposed the prohibition. The intention of the command was to prevent man from sharing the life of the gods; and the serpent-demon, posing as the good genius of man, defeats that intention by revealing to man the truth (similarly Gu. 30). To the original heathen myth we may also attribute the idea of the envy of the gods, which the biblical narrator hardly avoids, and the note of weariness and melancholy, the sombre view of life,—the 'scheue heidnische Stimmung,'—which is the ground-tone of the passage.

It is impossible to determine what, in the original myth, was the nature of the tree (or trees) which man was forbidden to eat. Gres. *(l.c. 351 ff.*) finds in the passage traces of three primitive conceptions: (1) the tree of the knowledge of good and evil, whose fruit imparts the knowledge of magic,—the only knowledge of which it can be said that it makes man at once the equal and the rival of the deity; (2) the tree of knowledge, whose fruit excites the sexual appetite and destroys child-like innocence *(37)*; (3) the tree of life, whose fruit confers immortality *(32)*. The question is immensely complicated by the existence of two recensions, which do not seem so hopelessly inseparable as Gres. thinks. In the main recension we have the tree of knowledge, of which man eats to his hurt, but not hint of a tree of life. In the secondary recension there is the tree of life (of which man does not eat), and *apparently* the tree of knowledge of which he had eaten; but this depends on the word *(32)* in *(32)*, which is wanting in *G*, and may be an interpolation. Again, the statement that knowledge of good and evil really amounts to equality with God, is found only in the second recension; in the other it is doubtful if the actual effect of eating the fruit was not a cruel disappointment of the hope held out by the serpent. How far we are entitled to read the ideas of the one into the other is a question we cannot answer. Eerdmans' ingenious but improbable theory *(ThT, xxxix. 504 ff.*) need not here be discussed. What is meant by knowledge of good and evil in the final form of the narrative will be considered under the next head.

3. The religious ideas of the passage.—Out of such crude and seemingly unpromising material the religion of revelation has fashioned the immortal allegory before us. We have now to inquire what are the religious and moral truths under the influence of which the narrative assumed its present form, distinguishing as far as possible the ideas
which it originally conveyed from those which it suggested to more advanced theological speculation.

(1) We observe, in the first place, that the etiological motive is strongly marked throughout. The story gives an explanation of many of the facts of universal experience,—the bond between man and wife (224), the sense of shame which accompanies adolescence (37), the use of clothing (321), the instinctive antipathy to serpents (318). But chiefly it seeks the key to the darker side of human existence as seen in a simple agricultural state of society,—the hard toil of the husbandman, the birth-pangs of the woman, and her subjection to the man. These are evils which the author feels to be contrary to the ideal of human nature, and to the intention of a good God. They are results of a curse justly incurred by transgression, a curse pronounced before history began, and shadowing, rather than crushing, human life always and everywhere. It is doubtful if death be included in the effects of the curse. In v.19 it is spoken of as the natural fate of a being made from the earth; in v.22 it follows from being excluded from the tree of life. Man was capable of immortality, but not by nature immortal; and God did not mean that he should attain immortality. The death threatened in 217 is immediate death; and to assume that the death which actually ensues is the exact action of that deferred penalty, is perhaps to go beyond the intention of the writer. Nor does it appear that the narrative seeks to account for the origin of sin. It describes what was, no doubt, the first sin; but it describes it as something intelligible, not needing explanation, not a mystery like the instinct of shame or the possession of knowledge, which are produced by eating the fruit of the tree.

(2) Amongst other things which distinguish man's present from his original state, is the possession of a certain kind of knowledge which was acquired by eating the forbidden fruit. This brings us to the most difficult question which the narrative presents: what is meant by the knowledge of good and evil?* Keeping in mind the possibility that the two recensions may represent different conceptions, our data are these: In 322 knowledge of good and evil is an attainment which (a)

* In OT usage, knowledge of good and evil marks the difference between adulthood and childhood (Dt. 190, Is. 716), or second childhood (2 Sa. 1996); it also denotes (with different verbs) judicial discernment of right and wrong (2 Sa. 1417, 1 Ki. 39), which is an intellectual function, quite distinct from the working of the conscience. The antithesis of good and evil may, of course, be ethical (Am. 5141, Is. 520 etc.); but it may also be merely the contrast of pleasant and painful, or wholesome and hurtful (2 Sa. 1996). Hence the phrase comes to stand for the whole range of experience,—"a comprehensive designation of things by their two polar attributes, according to which they interest man for his weal or hurt": cf. 2 Sa. 1417 with 20 'all things that are in earth' (Gn. 2429, 3124). We. maintains that the non-ethical sense is fundamental, the expressions being transferred to virtue and vice only in so far as their consequences are advantageous or the reverse. Knowledge of good and evil may thus mean knowledge in general,—knowing one thing from another.
implies equality with God, (b) was forbidden to man, (c) is actually secured by man. In the leading narrative (b) certainly holds good (2:17), but (a) and (c) are doubtful. Did the serpent speak truth when he said that knowledge of good and evil would make man like God? Did man actually attain such knowledge? Was the perception of nakedness a first flash of the new divine insight which man had coveted, or was it a bitter disenchantment and mockery of the hopes inspired by the serpent’s words? It is only the habit of reading the ideas of 3:22 into the story of the temptation which makes these questions seem superfluous. Let us consider how far the various interpretations enable us to answer them.—

i. The suggestion that magical knowledge is meant may be set aside as inadequate to either form of the biblical narrative: magic is not god-like knowledge, nor is it the universal property of humanity.—ii. The usual explanation identifies the knowledge of good and evil with the moral sense, the faculty of discerning between right and wrong. This view is ably defended by Bu. (Urg. 69 ff.), and is not to be lightly dismissed, but yet raises serious difficulties. Could it be said that God meant to withhold from man the power of moral discernment? Does not the prohibition itself presuppose that man already knew that obedience was right and disobedience sinful? We have no right to say that the restriction was only temporary, and that God would in other ways have bestowed on man the gift of conscience; the narrative suggests nothing of the sort.—iii. We. (Prol. 6:299 ff.) holds that the knowledge in question is insight into the secrets of nature, and intelligence to manipulate them for human ends; and this as a quality not so much of the individual as of the race,—the knowledge which is the principle of human civilisation. It is the faculty which we see at work in the invention of clothing (3:21?), in the founding of cities (4:17), in the discovery of the arts and crafts (4:18ff.), and in the building of the tower (11:1ff.). The undertone of condemnation of the cultural achievements of humanity which runs through the Yahwistic sections of chs. 1–11 makes it probable that the writer traced their root to the knowledge acquired by the first transgression; and of such knowledge it might be said that it made man like God, and that God willed to withhold it permanently from His creatures.—iv. Against this view Gu. (11 f., 25 f.) urges somewhat ineptly that the myth does not speak of arts and aptitudes which are learned by education, but of a kind of knowledge which comes by nature, of which the instinct of sex is a typical illustration. Knowledge of good and evil is simply the enlargement of capacity and experience which belongs to mature age,—ripeness of judgment, reason,—including moral discernment, but not identical with it.—The difference between the last two explanations is not great; and possibly both are true. We.’s seems to me the only view that does justice to the thought of 3:22; and if 4:16ff. and 11:1–9 be the continuation of this version of the Fall, the theory has much to recommend it. On the other hand, Gu.’s acceptance may be truer to the teaching of 3:15. Man’s primitive state was one of childlike innocence and purity; and the knowledge which he obtained by disobedience is the knowledge of life and of the world which distinguishes the grown man from the child. If it be objected that such
knowledge is a good thing; which God could not have forbidden to man, we may be content to fall back on the paradox of Christ’s idea of childhood: “Except ye turn, and become as little children, ye shall in no wise enter into the kingdom of heaven.”

(3) The next point that claims attention is the author’s conception of sin. Formally, sin is represented as an act of disobedience to a positive command, imposed as a test of fidelity; an act, therefore, which implies disloyalty to God, and a want of the trust and confidence due from man to his Maker. But the essence of the transgression lies deeper: God had a reason for imposing the command, and man had a motive for disobeying it; and the reason and motive are unambiguously indicated. Man was tempted by the desire to be as God, and Yahwe does not will that man should be as God. Sin is thus in the last instance presumption,—an overstepping of the limits of creaturehood, and an encroachment on the prerogatives of Deity. It is true that the offence is invested with every circumstance of extenuation,—inexperience, the absence of evil intention, the suddenness of the temptation, and the superior subtlety of the serpent; but sin it was nevertheless, and was justly followed by punishment.—How far the passage foreshadows a doctrine of hereditary sin, it is impossible to say. The consequences of the transgression, both privative and positive, are undoubtedly transmitted from the first pair to their posterity; but whether the sinful tendency itself is regarded as having become hereditary in the race, there is not evidence to show.

(4) Lastly, what view of God does the narrative present? It has already been pointed out that 322 borders hard on the pagan notion of the ‘envy’ of the godhead, a notion difficult to reconcile with the conceptions of OT religion. But of that idea there is no trace in the main narrative of the temptation and the Fall, except in the lying insinuation of the serpent: the writer himself does not thus ‘charge God foolishly.’ His religious attitude is one of reverent submission to the limitations imposed on human life by a sovereign Will, which is determined to maintain inviolate the distinction between the divine and the human. The attribute most conspicuously displayed is closely akin to what the prophets called the ‘holiness’ of God, as illustrated, e.g., in Is. 22ar. After all, the world is God’s world and not man’s, and the Almighty is just, as well as holy, when He frustrates the impious aspiration of humanity after an independent footing and sphere of action in the universe. The God of Gn. 3 is no arbitrary heathen deity, dreadling lest the sceptre of the universe should be snatched from his hand by the soaring ambition of the race of men; but a Being infinitely exalted above the world, stern in His displeasure at sin, and terrible in His justice; yet benignant and compassionate, slow to anger, and ‘repenting Him of the evil.’ Through an intensely anthropomorphic medium we discern the features of the God of the prophets and the Old Testament; nay, in the analogy of human fatherhood which underlies the description, we can trace the lineaments of the God and Father of Jesus Christ. That is the real Protevangelium which lies in the passage: the fact that God tempers judgment with mercy, the faith that man, though he has forfeited innocence and happiness, is not cut off from fellowship with his Creator.
Critical Analysis.—Ch. 4 consists of three easily separable sections: (a) the story of Cain and Abel (1-18), (b) a Cainite genealogy (17-24), and (c) a fragment of a Sethite genealogy (25-26). As they lie before us, these are woven into a consecutive history of antediluvian mankind, with a semblance of unity sufficient to satisfy the older generation of critics.† Closer examination seems to show that the chapter is composite, and that the superficial continuity conceals a series of critical problems of great intricacy.

1. We have first to determine the character and extent of the Cainite genealogy. It is probable that the first link occurs in v. 10, and has to be disentangled from the Cain legend (so We. Bu.); whether it can have included the whole of that legend is a point to be considered later (p. 100). We have thus a list of Adam's descendants through Cain, continued in a single line for seven generations, after which it branches into three, and then ceases. It has no explicit sequel in Genesis; the sacred number 7 marks it as complete in itself; and the attempts of some scholars to remodel it in accordance with its supposed original place in the history are to be distrusted. Its main purpose is to record the origin of various arts and industries of civilised life; and apart from the history of Cain there is nothing whatever to indicate that it deals with a race of sinners, as distinct from the godly line of Seth. That this genealogy belongs to J has hardly been questioned except by Di., who argues with some hesitation for assigning it to E, chiefly on the ground of its discordance with vv. 25-26. Bu. (p. 220 ff.) has shown that the stylistic criteria point decidedly (if not quite unequivocally) to J;† and in the absence of any certain trace of E in chs. 1-11, the strong presumption is that the genealogy represents a stratum of the former document. The question then arises whether it be the original continuation of ch. 3. An essential connexion cannot, from the nature of the case, be affirmed. The primitive genealogies are composed of desiccated legends, in which each member is originally independent of the rest; and we are not entitled to assume that an account of the Fall necessarily attached itself to the person of the first man. If it were certain that 320 is an integral part of one recension of the Paradise story, it might reasonably be concluded that that recension was continued in 41, and then in 417-24. In the absence of complete certainty on that point the larger question must be left in suspense; there is, however, no difficulty in supposing that in the earliest written collection of Hebrew traditions the genealogy was preceded by a history of the Fall in a version partly preserved in ch. 3. The presumption that this was the case would, of course, be immensely strengthened if we could suppose it to be the intention of the original writer to describe not merely the progress of culture, but also the rapid development of sin (so We.).

* We. unites v. 16 with 17-24.
† e.g. Hupfeld, Quellen, 126 ff.
‡ וָבָה: 'beget,' 18; אֶפֶל 22 (in genealogies, confined to J, 1021 1926 2220-24 426); יְמַח אֶשֶּׁר, 21 (cf. 1023); cf. 19 with 1025 etc. (Bu. l.c.).
2. The fragmentary genealogy of vv. 25, 26 corresponds, so far as it goes, with the Sethite genealogy of P in ch. 5. It will be shown later (p. 138 f.) that the lists of 4:17-24 and 5 go back to a common original; and if the discrepancy had been merely between J and P, the obvious conclusion would be that these two documents had followed different traditional variants of the ancient genealogy. But how are we to account for the fact that the first three names of P’s list occur also in the connexion of J? There are four possible solutions. (1) It is conceivable that J, not perceiving the ultimate identity of the two genealogies, incorporated both in his document (cf. Ew. JBBW, vi. p. 4); and that the final redactor (R²) then curtailed the second list in view of ch. 5. This hypothesis is on various grounds improbable. It assumes (see 26b) the murder of Abel by Cain as an original constituent of J’s narrative; now that story takes for granted that the worship of Yahwe was practised from the beginning, whereas 26b explicitly states that it was only introduced in the third generation. (2) It has not unnaturally been conjectured that v. 25f. are entirely redactional (Ew. Schr. al.); i.e., that they were inserted by an editor (R³) to establish a connexion between the genealogy of J and that of P. In favour of this view the use of דַּנְיוֹ (as a proper name) and of דַּנְיָה has been cited; but again the statement of 26b presents an insurmountable difficulty. P has his own definite theory of the introduction of the name דַּנְיוֹ (see Ex. 6:26f.), and it is incredible that any editor influenced by him should have invented the gratuitous statement that the name was in use from the time of Enosh. (3) A third view is that vv. 25, 26 stood originally before v. 1 (or before v. 17), so that the father of Cain and Abel (or of Cain alone) was not Adam but Enosh; and that the redactor who made the transposition is responsible also for some changes on v. 25 to adapt it to its new setting (so Sta.) (see on the v.). That is, no doubt, a plausible solution (admitted as possible by Di.), although it involves operations on the structure of the genealogy too drastic and precarious to be readily assented to. It is difficult also to imagine any sufficient motive for the supposed transposition. That it was made to find a connexion for the (secondary) story of Cain and Abel is a forced suggestion. The tendency of a redactor must have been to keep that story as far from the beginning as possible, and that the traditional data should have been deliberately altered so as to make it the opening scene of human history is hardly intelligible. (4) There remains the hypothesis that the two genealogies belong to separate strata within the Yahwistic tradition, which had been amalgamated by a redactor of that school (RJ) prior to the incorporation of P; and that the second list was curtailed by R² because of its substantial identity with that of the Priestly Code in ch. 5. The harmonistic glossing of v. 25 is an inevitable assumption of any theory except (1) and (2); it must have taken place after the insertion of the Cain and Abel episode; and on the view we are now considering it must be attributed to RJ. In other respects the solution is free from difficulty. The recognition of the complex character of the source called J is forced on us by many lines of proof; and it will probably be found that this view of the genealogies yields a valuable clue to the structure
of the non-Priestly sections of chs. 2–11 (see pp. 3, 134). One important consequence may here be noted. Eve’s use of the name יִהְוֵה, and the subsequent notice of the introduction of the name מֵאָדָם, suggest that this writer had previously avoided the latter title of God (as E and P previously to Ex. 3:14, and Ex. 6:26). Hence, if it be the case that one recension of the Paradise story was characterised by the exclusive use of יהוה (see p. 53), 4:25–26 will naturally be regarded as the sequel to that recension.

3. There remains the Cain and Abel narrative of vv.1–16. That it belongs to J in the wider sense is undisputed, * but its precise affinities within the Yahwistic cycle are exceedingly perplexing. If the theory mentioned at the end of the last paragraph is correct, the consistent use of the name מֵאֶדֶם † would show that it was unknown to the author of vv.25–26 and of that form of the Paradise story presupposed by these vv. Is it, then, a primary element of the genealogy in which it is embedded? It certainly contains notices—such as the introduction of agriculture and (perhaps) the origin of sacrifice—in keeping with the idea of the genealogy; but the length and amplitude of the narration would be without parallel in a genealogy; and (what is more decisive) there is an obvious incongruity between the Cain of the legend, doomed to a fugitive unsettled existence, and the Cain of the genealogy (v.17), who as the first city-builder inaugurates the highest type of stable civilised life.‡ Still more complicated are the relations of the passage to the history of the Fall in ch. 3. On the one hand, a series of material incongruities seem to show that the two narratives are unconnected: the assumption of an already existing population on the earth could hardly have been made by the author of ch. 3; the free choice of occupation by the two brothers, and Yahwe’s preference for the shepherd’s sacrifice, ignore the representation (3:19) that husbandry is the destined lot of the race; and the curse on Cain is recorded in terms which betray no consciousness of a primal curse resting on the ground. It is true, on the other hand, that the literary form of 4:1–16 contains striking reminiscences of that of ch. 3. The most surprising of these (4:7b || 3:16b) may be set down to textual corruption (see the note on the v.); but there are several other turns of expression which recall the language of the earlier narrative: cf. 4:9, 10, 11 with 3:8, 12, 17. In both we have the same sequence of sin, investigation and punishment (in the form of a curse), the same dramatic dialogue, and the same power of psychological analysis. But whether these resemblances are such as to prove identity of authorship is a question that cannot be confidently answered. There is an indistinct-

* Cf. יִהְוֵה, 1–2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 15, 16; יִהְוָא, 11; יִתְכֹּלֶב, 15; and obs. the resemblances to ch. 3 noted below: the naming of the child by the mother.
† This uniformity of usage is not, however, observed in Ge. In Ge אָדָם occurs twice (3:13), δ θέας 5 times (1:4, 9, 10, 16), and Κύριος δ θέας 3 times (6, 12, 15) (for variants, see Cambridge LXX).
‡ Even if we adopt Bu.’s emendation of v.17, and make Enoch the city-founder (see on the v.), it still remains improbable that that rôle should be assigned to the son of a wandering nomad.
ness of conception in 4:1-18 which contrasts unfavourably with the convincing lucidity of ch. 3, as if the writer’s touch were less delicate, or his gift of imaginative delineation more restricted. Such impressions are too subjective to be greatly trusted; but, taken along with the material differences already enumerated, they confirm the opinion that the literary connexion between ch. 3 and 4 is due to conscious or unconscious imitation of one writer by another.—On the whole, the evidence points to the following conclusion: The story of Cain and Abel existed as a popular legend entirely independent of the traditions regarding the infancy of the race, and having no vital relation to any part of its present literary environment. It was incorporated in the Yahwistic document by a writer familiar with the narrative of the Fall, who identified the Cain of the legend with the son of the first man, and linked the story to his name in the genealogy. How much of the original genealogy has been preserved it is impossible to say: any notices that belonged to it have certainly been rewritten, and cannot now be isolated; but v. 1 (birth of Cain) may with reasonable probability be assigned to it (so Bu.), possibly also 2b (Cain’s occupation), and 3b (Cain’s sacrifice).—Other important questions will be best considered in connexion with the original significance of the legend (p. 111 ff.).

IV. 1–16.—Cain and Abel.

Eve bears to her husband two sons, Cain and Abel; the first becomes a tiller of the ground, and the second a keeper of sheep (1-2). Each offers to Yahwe the sacrifice appropriate to his calling; but only the shepherd’s offering is accepted, and Cain is filled with morose jealousy and hatred of Abel (3-5). Though warned by Yahwe (6ff.), he yields to his evil passion and slays his brother (8). Yahwe pronounces him accursed from the fertile ground, which will no longer yield its substance to him, and he is condemned to the wandering life of the desert (10-12). As a mitigation of his lot, Yahwe appoints him a sign which protects him from indiscriminate vengeance (14ff.); and he departs into the land of Nod, east of Eden (16).

1-5. Birth of Cain and Abel: their occupation, and sacrifice.—1. On the naming of the child by the

1. יַעֲנַי שָׁם | A plup. sense (Ra.) being unsuitable, the peculiar order of words is difficult to explain; see on 3, and cf. 21. Sta. (Ak. Red. 239) regards it as a proof of editorial manipulation. The euphemistic use of יַעֲנַי is peculiar to J in the Hex. (7 times): Nu. 3117. 18. 85 (P: cf. Ju. 2111. 13) are somewhat different. Elsewhere Ju. 1899 1927.28, 1 Sa. 19, 1 Ki. 14,—all in the older historiography, and some perhaps from the
mother, see Benzinger, Archael. II. It is peculiar to the oldest strata (J and E) of the Hex., and is not quite consistently observed even there (4:26 5:29 25:28f, Ex. 2:22): it may therefore be a relic of the matriarchate which was giving place to the later custom of naming by the father (P) at the time when these traditions were taking shape.—The difficult sentence נקנ אסינא הירז'ג'ג connects the name נק with the verb נק. But נק has two meanings in Heb.: (a) to (create, or) produce, and (b) to acquire; and it is not easy to determine which is intended here.

The second idea would seem more suitable in the present connexion, but it leads to a forced and doubtful construction of the last two words. (a) To render נק 'with the help of' (Di. and most) is against all analogy. It is admitted that נק itself nowhere has this sense (in 45 the true reading is נק, and Mic 3 is at least doubtful); and the few cases in which the synonym נק can be so translated are not really parallel. Both in 1 Sa. 14 and Dn. 11, the נק denotes association in the same act, and therefore does not go beyond the sense 'along with.' The analogy does not hold in this v. if the vb. means 'acquire'; Eve could not say that she had acquired a man along with Yahwe. (b) We may, of course, assume an error in the text and read נק = 'from' (Bu, al. after ס). (c) The idea that נק is the sign of acc. (ש, al.), and that Eve imagined she had given birth to the divine 'seed' promised in 3 (Luther, al.) may be disregarded as a piece of antiquated dogmatic exegesis.—If we adopt the other meaning of נק, the construction is perfectly natural: I have created (or produced) a man with (the cooperation of) Yahwe (cf. Ra.: "When he created me and my husband he created us alone, but in this case we are associated with him"). A strikingly similar phrase in the bilingual Babylonian account of Creation (above, p. 47) suggests that the language here may be more deeply tinged with mythology than has been generally suspected. We read that "Auru, together with him [Marduk], created (the) seed of mankind": Aruru zi-ir a-mi-lu-ti it-ti-su ib-ta-nu (KIB, vi. 1, 40f.; King, Cr. Tab. i. 134 f.). Aruru, a form of Istar, is a mother-goddess of the Babylonians (see Kat, 430), i.e., a deified ancestress, and therefore so far the counterpart of the Heb. נק (see on 3). The exclamation certainly gains in significance if we suppose it to have survived from a more mythological phase of tradition, in which

literary school of J. — נק (Ar. קנה). In Ar. קain means 'smith'; נק = Syr. ܢܟܢܐ, 'worker in metal' (see 4:28 5:8). Noldeke's remark, that in Ar. קain several words are combined, is perhaps equally true of Heb. נק (EB, 130). Many critics (We. Bu. Sta. Ho. al.) take the name as eponym of the Kenites (נ) : see p. 113 below.— נק All Vns. express the idea of 'acquiring' (קנ), possessed, etc.). The sense 'create' or 'originate,' though apparently confined to Heb. and subordinate
Hawwah was not a mortal wife and mother, but a creative deity taking part with the supreme god in the production of man. See Cheyne, *TBI*, 104, who thinks it "psychologically probable that Eve congratulated herself on having 'created' a man."—That שָׁנָה is not elsewhere used of a man-child is not a serious objection to any interpretation (cf. יַעֲנָה in Jb. 35); though the thought readily occurs that the etymology would be more appropriate to the name שָׁנָה (4:28) than to יַעֲנָה.

2. *And again she bare, etc.*] The omission of the verb נַפֶּחֶת is not to be pressed as implying that the brothers were twins, although that may very well be the meaning. The OT contains no certain trace of the widespread superstitions regarding twin-births.—The sons betake themselves to the two fundamental pursuits of settled life: the elder to agriculture, the younger to the rearing of small cattle (sheep and goats). The previous story of the Fall, in which Adam, as representing the race, is condemned to husbandry, seems to be ignored (Gu.).

The absence of an etymology of יַעֲנָה is remarkable (but cf. v.17), and hardly to be accounted for by the supposition that the name was only coined afterwards in token of his brief, fleeting existence (Di.). The word (= 'breath') might suggest that to a Heb. reader, but the original sense is unknown. Gu. regards it as the proper name of an extinct tribe or people; Ew. We. al. take it to be a variant of יַעֲנָה, the father of nomadic shepherds (4:28); and Cheyne has ingeniously combined both names with a group of Semitic words denoting domestic animals and those who take charge of them (e.g. Syr. יַבָּטֶה = 'herd'; Ar. 'abdāl = 'camel-herd,' etc.): the meaning would then be 'herdsman' (*EB*, i. 6). The conjecture is retracted in *TBI*, in the interests of *Yerâhme'el*.

3. *An offering*] נַפֶּח, lit. a present or tribute (32:14ff. 33:10 43:1ff., i Sa. 10:27 etc.): see below. The use of this word even there, is established by Dt. 32:8, Pr. 8:29, Ps. 139:13, Gn. 14:19, 22.—The Vns. C alone can be thought to have read נַפֶּח (נַפֶּח), one anonymous Gr. tr. (see Field) took the word as not. acc. (אַֽדְמַרְוַן כִּבּוּרָן); the rest vary greatly in rendering (as was to be expected from the difficulty of the phrase), but there is no reason to suppose they had a different text: G dia τοῦ θ., Σ. σφ. κ., 'O 'Εβρ. καὶ ο Σὺπ.: ἐν θ., F per Deum, L ἀλλοίως. Conjectures: Marti (*Lit. Centralbl.*, 1897, xx. 641) and Zeydner (*ZATW*, xviii. 120): נפֶּח נַפֶּחֶת = 'the man of the Jahwe sign' (v.10); Gu. נַפּוּךְ נַפּוּךְ = 'a man whom I desire.'

3. נַפּוּךְ נַפּוּךְ After some time, which may be longer (i Sa. 29:8) or shorter (24:25). To take נַפּוּךְ in the definite sense of 'year' (i Sa. 21:21 29:8)
shows that the 'gift-theory' of sacrifice (RS², 392 ff.) was fully established in the age when the narrative originated.—of the fruit of the ground] "Fruit in its natural state was offered at Carthage, and was probably admitted by the Hebrews in ancient times." "The Carthaginian fruit-offering consisted of a branch bearing fruit, ... it seems to be clear that the fruit was offered at the altar, ... and this, no doubt, is the original sense of the Hebrew rite also" (RS², 221 and n. 3). Cain's offering is thus analogous to the first-fruits (םירב שהיא: Ex. 23:16. 19 34:22. 26, Nu. 15:20 etc.) of Heb. ritual; and it is arbitrary to suppose that his fault lay in not selecting the best of what he had for God.—4. Abel's offering consisted of the firstlings of his flock, namely (see G-K. § 154 a, N. 1 (b)) of their fat-pieces] cf. Nu. 18:17. Certain fat portions of the victim were in ancient ritual reserved for the deity, and might not be eaten (1 Sa. 2:16 etc.: for Levitical details, see Dri.-White, Lev., Polychr. Bible, pp. 4, 65).—4b, 5a. How did Yahwe signify His acceptance of the one offering and rejection of the other? It is 26 etc.) is unnecessary, though not altogether unnatural (IEz. al.).—ןמע the ritual use is well established: Lv. 2:4, 8, Is. 1:13, Jer. 17:5 etc. —ןמע: Ar. minhat = 'gift,' 'loan': נמנה. On the uses of the word, see Dri. DB, iii. 587b. In sacrificial terminology there are perhaps three senses to be distinguished: (1) Sacrifice in general, conceived as a substitute or propitiatory present to the deity, Nu. 16:18, Ju. 6:8, 1 Sa. 2:17. 29 26:19, Is. 1:13, Zeph. 3:10, Ps. 96:8 etc. (2) The conjunction of הנמא and ננ (1 Sa. 2:29 3:14, Is. 19:21, Am. 5:25 etc.) may show that it denotes vegetable as distinct from animal oblations (see RS³, 217, 236). (3) In P and late writings generally it is restricted to cereal offerings: Ex. 30:9, Nu. 18 etc. Whether the wider or the more restricted meaning be the older it is difficult to say.—4. לֶחֱבֶב: On Meth., see G-K. § 16 d. We might point as sing. of the noun (לֶחֱבֶב, Lv. 8:16. 25; G-K. § 91 e); but מ has scriptio plena of the pl. [Hebrew].—שנה] כָּלַק וְכָלַד (in v. 5 προδίκης); Α. ἐπεκλήθη; Σ. ἐτέρφη; Θ. ἐνετύμησεν (see above); δ Σµρ. εὐδόκησεν; וָעָנָא; And to' idle words).—5. הנה in Heb. always of mental heat (anger); כ Some, however, derive it from הנה = 'direct'; and Hommel (AHT, 322) cites a Sabæan inscr. where tanahhayat (V conj.) is used of offering a sacrifice (see Lagrange, Études, 250). If this be correct, what was said above about the 'gift theory' would fall to the ground.
commonly answered (in accordance with Lv. 9:24, 1 Ki. 18:38 etc.), that fire descended from heaven and consumed Abel’s offering (Θ. Ra. IEz. De. al.). Others (Di. Gu.) think more vaguely of some technical sign, e.g. the manner in which the smoke ascended (Ew. Str.); while Calv. supposes that Cain inferred the truth from the subsequent course of God’s providence. But these conjectures overlook the strong anthropomorphism of the description: one might as well ask how Adam knew that he was expelled from the garden (3:24). Perhaps the likeliest analogy is the acceptance of Gideon’s sacrifice by the Angel of Yahwe (Ju. 6:21).—Why was the one sacrifice accepted and not the other? The distinction must lie either (a) in the disposition of the brothers (so nearly all comm.), or (b) in the material of the sacrifice (Tu.). In favour of (a) it is pointed out that in each case the personality of the worshipper is mentioned before the gift. But since the reason is not stated, it must be presumed to be one which the first hearers would understand for themselves; and they could hardly understand that Cain, apart from his occupation and sacrifice, was less acceptable to God than Abel. On the other hand, they would readily perceive that the material of Cain’s offering was not in accordance with primitive Semitic ideas of sacrifice (see RS⁸, Lect. VIII.).

From the fact that the altar is not expressly mentioned, it has been inferred that sacrifice is here regarded as belonging to the established order of things (Sta. al.). But the whole manner of the narration suggests rather that the incident is conceived as the initiation of sacrifice,—the first spontaneous expression of religious feeling in cultus.* If that impression be sound, it follows also that the narrative proceeds on a theory of sacrifice: the idea, viz., that animal sacrifice alone is acceptable to Yahwe. It is true that we cannot go back to

wrongly Ελυπησεν; so 修养. On impers. const., see G-K. § 144 6; cf. 1830, 31 34, 36, 37, Nu. 16:15 etc. The word is not used by P.—For ὅσων, Ὁ has ὅποιος (lit. ‘became black’).

* It may be a mere coincidence that in Philo Byblius the institution of animal sacrifice occurs in a legend of two brothers who quarrelled (Pr. Ev. i. 10). Kittel (Studien zur hebr. Archäol. 103) suggests that our narrative may go back to a time prior to the introduction of the fire-offering and the altar.
a stage of Heb. ritual when vegetable offerings were excluded; but such sacrifices must have been introduced after the adoption of agricultural life; and it is quite conceivable that in the early days of the settlement in Canaan the view was maintained among the Israelites that the animal offerings of their nomadic religion were superior to the vegetable offerings made to the Canaanite Baals. Behind this may lie (as Gu. thinks) the idea that pastoral life as a whole is more pleasing to Yahwe than husbandry.

5b. Cain's feeling is a mixture of anger (it became very hot to him) and dejection (his face fell: cf. Jb. 2924, Jer. 312). This does not imply that his previous state of mind had been bad (Di. al.). In tracing Cain's sin to a disturbance of his religious relation to God, the narrator shows his profound knowledge of the human heart.

6-12. Warning, murder, and sentence.—7. The point of the remonstrance obviously is that the cause of Cain's dissatisfaction lies in himself, but whether in his general temper or in his defective sacrifice can no longer be made

7. The difficulties of the present text are "the curt and ambiguous expression πώς; further, the use of πώς as masc., then the whole tenor of the sentence, If thou dost not well...; finally, the exact and yet incongruous parallelism of the second half-verse with 316" (Ols. MBBA, 1870, 380).—As regards 78, the main lines of interpretation are these: (1) The inf. πώς may be complementary to μάρασι as a relative vb. (G-K. § 120, 1), in which case "must have the sense of 'offer' sacrifice (cf. 4324, Ezek. 2081). So (a) ζῶν δίαν θραύσεις προσεβίγχις, θραύσεις δὲ μὴ διέλθος, ἡματες; θοιχασόν (reading πώς for πώς, and pointing the next two words ζων πώς) = 'Is it not so—if thou offerest rightly, but dost not cut in pieces rightly, thou hast sinned? Be still!' Ball strangely follows this fantastic rendering, seemingly oblivious of the fact that πώς (cf. Ex. 2919, Lv. 1812, 1 Ki. 1823. 28 etc.)—for which he needlessly substitutes ϐᾶξ (1510)—has no sense as applied to a fruit-offering. (b) Somewhat similar is a view approved by Bu. as "völlig befriedigend" (Urg. 204 f.): 'Whether thou make thine offering costly or not, at the door,' etc. ['Whether thou offerest correctly or not,' would be the safer rendering].—(2) The inf. may be taken as compressed apod., and 'as an independent vb. = 'do well' (as often). 'πώς might then express the idea of (a) elevation of countenance (=μάρασι 'θα: cf. Jb. 1115. 2258: 'If thou dost well, shall there not be lifting up?' etc. (so Tu. Ew. De. Di. Dri. al.); or (b) acceptance ('πώς as Gn. 1921, 2 Ki. 314, Mal. 18. 9): so Aq. (ἀφέσεως), Θ. (ἀκροτόν), Σ (Δικαστῆς), V (recipies); or (c) forgiveness (as Gn. 5017, Ex. 3252): so Σ. (ἀφέσω), Θ.Jer. and recently Ho. Of these renderings 2 (a) or 1 (b) are perhaps the most
out. Every attempt to extract a meaning from the v. is more or less of a tour de force, and it is nearly certain that the obscurity is due to deep-seated textual corruption (\v.i.). 8. And Cain said] νὸοι never being quite synonymous with ἄφιξαν, the sentence is incomplete: the missing words, Let us go to the field, must be supplied from Vns.; see below (so Ew. Di. Dri. al.). That Cain, as a first step towards reconciliation, communicated to Abel the warning he had just received (Tu. al.), is perhaps possible grammatically, but psychologically is altogether improbable.—the field the open country (see on 26), where they were safe from observation satisfying, though both are cumbered with the unnatural metaphor of sin as a wild beast couching at the door (of what?), and the harsh discord of gender. The latter is not fairly to be got rid of by taking ἄφιξαν as a noun (‘sin is at the door, a lurker’: Ew. al.), though no doubt it might be removed by a change of text. Of the image itself the best explanation would be that of Ho., who regards ἄφιξαν as a technical expression for unforgiven sin (cf. Dt. 2919). Jewish interpreters explain it of the evil impulse in man (ἔφιξαν ἄφιξαν), and most Christians similarly of the overmastering or seductive power of sin; 7b being regarded as a summons to Cain to subdue his evil passions.—7b reads smoothly enough by itself, but connects badly with what precedes. The antecedent to the pron. suff. is usually taken to be Sin personified as a wild beast, or less commonly (Calv. al.) Abel, the object of Cain's envy. The word ἄφιξαν is equally unsuitable, whether it be understood of the wild beast's eagerness for its prey or the deference due from a younger brother to an older; and the alternative ἄφιξαν of Ec and S (see on 316) is no better. The verbal resemblance to 316b is itself suspicious; a facetious parody of the language of a predecessor is not to be attributed to any early writer. It is more likely that the eye of a copyist had wandered to 316 in the adjacent column, and that the erroneous words were, afterwards adjusted to their present context: in S the suff. are actually reversed (μολὼν ἄφιξαν ἅπαν ἄφιξαν ἅπαν ἄφιξαν ἅπαν ἄφιξαν ἅπαν ἄφιξαν ἅπαν). The paraphrase of Ec affords no help, and the textual confusion is probably irremediable; tentative emendations like those of Gu. (p. 38) are of no avail. Che. TBI, 105, would remove v. 7 as a gloss, and make 8a (reading ἄφιξαν) Cain's answer to v. 6.

8. τεχνη, in the sense of 'speak,' 'converse' (2 Ch. 3224), is excessively rare and late: the only instance in early Heb. is apparently Ex. 109, where the context has been broken by a change of document. It might mean 'mention' (as 4327 etc.), but in that case the obj. must be indicated. Usually it is followed, like Eng. 'say,' by the actual words spoken. Hence ἄφιξαν ἄφιξαν is to be supplied with ἄφιξαν ἄφιξαν, but not Aqu. (Tu. De.: see the scholia in Field); a Pisga in some Heb. MSS, though
(1 Ki. 11:29).—9. Yahwe opens the inquisition, as in 39, with a question, which Cain, unlike Adam, answers with a defiant repudiation of responsibility. It is impossible to doubt that here the writer has the earlier scene before his mind, and consciously depicts a terrible advance in the power of sin.—10. Hark! Thy brother’s blood is crying to me, etc.] ἔτοιμος denotes strictly the cry for help, and specially for redress or vengeance (Ex. 22:22, 28; Ju. 4:3, Ps. 107:6, 28 etc.). The idea that blood exposed on the ground thus clamours for vengeance is persistently vivid in the OT (Jb. 16:18, Is. 26:21, Ezek. 24:7, 8, 2 Ki. 9:26): see RS2, 4175. In this passage we have more than a mere metaphor, for it is the blood which is represented as drawing Yahwe’s attention to the crime of Cain.—II. And now cursed art thou from (off) the ground] i.e., not the earth’s surface, but the cultivated ground (cf. v.14, and see on 25). To restrict it to the soil of Palestine (We. Sta. Ho.) goes beyond the necessities of the case.—which has opened her mouth, etc.] a personification of the ground similar to that of Sheol in Is. 5:14 (cf. Nu. 16:32). The idea cannot be that the earth is a monster greedy of blood; it seems rather akin to the primitive superstition of a physical infection or poisoning of the soil, and through it of the murderer, by the shed blood (see Miss Harrison, Prolegomena, 219 ff.). The ordinary OT conception is that the blood remains uncovered (cf. Eurip. Electra, 318 f.). The relation of the two notions is obscure.—12. The curse ‘from off the ground’ has two sides: (1) The ground will no longer yield its strength (Jb. 31:30) to the murderer, so that even if he wished he will be unable to resume his husbandry; and

not recognised by the Mass., supports this view of the text. To emend ἐξόρισθη (Ols. al.) or ἐξορίσα, ἐξορίσα (Gk.) is less satisfactory.—9. ἔτοιμος] ὠν ἐτοίμος.—10. On the interjectional use of ἔτοιμος, see G-K. § 146 b; Nö. Mand. Gr. p. 482. ἔτοιμος] ὠν ἐτοίμος, agreeing with ἔτοιμος (?).—11. ἔτοιμος ... ἐτοίμος] pregnant constr., G-K. § 119 x, y, ff. This sense of ἔτοιμος is more accurately expressed by ἔτοιμος in v.14, but is quite common (cf. esp. 27:39). Other renderings, as from (indicating the direction from which the curse comes) or ἔτοιμος, are less appropriate; and the compar. more than is impossible.—12. ἔτοιμος] juss. form with ἔτοιμος (G-K. § 109 d, h; Dav. §§ 63, R. 3, 66, R. 6); fol-
(2) he is to be a vagrant and wanderer in the earth. The second is the negative consequence of the first, and need not be regarded as a separate curse, or a symbol of the inward unrest which springs from a guilty conscience.

**13-16. Mitigation of Cain's punishment. — 13. My punishment is too great to be borne**] So the plea of Cain is understood by all modern authorities. The older rendering: my guilt is too great to be forgiven (which is in some ways preferable), is abandoned because the sequel shows that Cain's reflexions run on the thought of suffering and not of sin; see below.—**14. from Thy face I shall be hidden**] This anguished cry of Cain has received scant sympathy at the hands of comm. (except Gu.). Like that of Esau in 2734, it reveals him as one who had blindly striven for a spiritual good,—as a man not wholly bad who had sought the favour of God with the passionate determination of an ill-regulated nature and missed it: one to whom banishment from the divine presence is a distinct ingredient in his cup of misery. —**every one that findeth me, etc.**] The object of Cain's dread is hardly the vengeance of the slain man's kinsmen (so nearly all comm.); but rather the lawless state of things in the desert, where any one's life may be taken with impunity (Gu.). That the words imply a diffusion of the human race is an incongruity on either view, and is one of many indications that the Cain of the original story was not the son of the first man.

This expostulation of Cain, with its rapid grasp of the situation, lights up some aspects of the historic background of the legend. (1) It

lowed by inf. without b (G-K. § 114 m).— Yapı an alliteration, as in 12. Best rendered in anon. Gr. Vns. (Field): ἠλευθέρως καὶ ἀκαταστάτων; E vagus et profugus; G (incorrectly) στένων καὶ τρέμων.

13. On ἐξαθανάτωσαν = 'go astray': Dri. Sam. 134 f.) in the sense of punishment of sin, see the passages cited in BDB, s.v. 3. י וָאֵל, in the sense of 'bear guilt,' seems peculiar to P and Ezk.; elsewhere it means to 'pardon iniquity' (Ex. 347, Nu. 14:18, Ho. 14:5, Mic. 7:18, Ps. 32:2). This consideration is not decisive; but there is something to be said for the consensus of anc. Vns. (G ἀφεθήρα; E veniam merear, etc.) in favour of the second interpretation, which might be retained without detriment to the sense if the sentence could be read as a question.—

14. וַֽיַּק instead of suff. is unlike J. In the next v. וַֽיַּק after inf. was
is assumed that Yahwe's presence is confined to the cultivated land; in other words, that He is the God of settled life, agricultural and pastoral. To conclude, however, that He is the God of Canaan in particular (cf. 1 Sa. 26:19), is perhaps an over-hasty inference. (2) The reign of right is coextensive with Yahwe's sphere of influence: the outer desert is the abode of lawlessness; justice does not exist, and human life is cheap. That Cain, the convicted murderer, should use this plea will not appear strange if we remember the conditions under which such narratives arose.

15. What follows must be understood as a divinely appointed amelioration of Cain's lot: although he is not restored to the amenities of civilised life, Yahwe grants him a special protection, suited to his vagrant existence, against indiscriminate homicide.— Who so kills Kayin (or ' whenever any one kills K'), it (the murderer) shall be avenged sevenfold] by the slaughter of seven members of the murderer's clan. See below.— appointed a sign for Kayin] or set a mark on K. The former is the more obvious rendering of the words; but the latter has analogies, and is demanded by the context.

The idea that the sign is a pledge given once for all of the truth of Yahwe's promise, after the analogy of the prophetic níx, is certainly consistent with the phrase ἥ... τῆς : cf. e.g. Ex. 15:28, Jos. 24:28 with Ex. 10:9 etc. So some authorities in Ber. R., IEz. Tu. al. But Ex. 4:11a proves that it may also be something attached to the person of Cain (Calv. Ber. R., De. and most); and that níx may denote a mark appears from Ex. 13:16 etc. Since the sign is to serve as a warning to all and sundry who might attempt the life of Cain, it is obvious that the second view alone meets the requirements of the case: we must think of something about Cain, visible to all the world, marking him out as one whose death would be avenged sevenfold. Its purpose is protective and not penal: that it brands him as a murderer is a natural but mistaken idea.— It is to be observed that in this part of the narrative Kayin is no longer a personal but a collective name. The clause ἃ Ἰησὴν ἑξὶ (not Ἰησὸς ὑπέρ, or Ἰησὸς ἑξὶ) has frequentative force (exx. below), implying that the act might be repeated many times on members of the tribe Kayin: similarly the sevenfold vengeance assumes a kin-circle to which the murderer belongs. See, further, p. 112.

necessary to avoid confusion between subj. and obj.— 15. [p7] οὐχ οὔτως (ὁ Ἐρήμω) implies πάντα: so Ἐθύ; but this would require to be followed by ὑπερ... [p Ἰησὸς ἑξὶ] see G-K. § 116 u; cf. Ex. 12:18, Nu. 35:31; 1 Sa. 21:31 etc.— [p] The subj. might be Ἰησὸς (as v. 28b) or (more probably) imper. (Ex. 21:23), certainly not the murderer of Cain.— [ἀπὸ τῆς] = '7 times': G-K. § 134 v. Vns.: Εἴπτα ἐκδικοῦμαι παραλύους; Αἰγ. ἐπιπλασίως
16. and dwell in the land of Nod] The vb. בָּנָה, is not necessarily inconsistent with nomadic life, as Sta. alleges (see Gn. 13\textsuperscript{12}, 1 Ch. 5\textsuperscript{10} etc.). It is uncertain whether the name נָדָה is traditional (We. Gu.), or was coined from the participle נַבָּה = ‘land of wandering’ (so most); at all events it cannot be geographically identified. If the last words תֹּמֵד belong to the original narrative, it would be natural to regard Kayin as representative of the nomads of Central Asia (Knob. al.); but the phrase may have been added by a redactor to bring the episode into connexion with the account of the Fall.

The Origin of the Cain Legend.—The exposition of 4\textsuperscript{1-18} would be incomplete without some account of recent speculations regarding the historical or ethnological situation out of which the legend arose. The tendency of opinion has been to affirm with increasing distinctness the view that the narrative “embodies the old Hebrew conception of the lawless nomad life, where only the blood-feud prevents the wanderer in the desert from falling a victim to the first man who meets him.” * A subordinate point, on which undue stress is commonly laid, is the identity of Cain with the nomadic tribe of the Kenites. These ideas, first propounded by Ew.,† adopted by We.,‡ and (in part) by Rob. Sm.,§ have been worked up by Sta., in his instructive essay on ‘The sign of Cain,’ || into a complete theory, in which what may be called the nomadic motive is treated as the clue to the significance of every characteristic feature of the popular legend lying at the basis of the narrative. Although the questions involved are too numerous to be fully dealt with here, it is necessary to consider those points in the argument which bear more directly on the original meaning of vv.4\textsuperscript{1-18}.

1. That the figure of Cain represents some phase of nomadic life may be regarded as certain. We have seen (p. 110) that in v.13\textsuperscript{bb} the name Cain has a collective sense; and every descriptive touch in these closing vv. is characteristic of desert life. His expulsion from the נָדָה and the phrase וְלָא וּ־, express (though not by any means necessarily,—

* Smith, KM\textsuperscript{2}, 251. † JBBW, vi. 5 ff. ‡ Comp.\textsuperscript{2} 10 f.
§ l.c. Ak. Reden, 229-73.
see below) the fundamental fact that his descendants are doomed to wander in the uncultivated regions beyond the pale of civilisation. The vengeance which protects him is the self-acting law of blood-revenge,—that 'salutary institution' which, in the opinion of Burckhardt, has done more than anything else to preserve the Bedouin tribes from mutual extermination.* The sign which Yahwe puts on him is most naturally explained as the "sharif or tribal mark which every man bore in his person, and without which the ancient form of blood-feud, as the affair of a whole stock and not of near relations alone, could hardly have been worked."† And the fact that this kind of existence is traced to the operation of a hereditary curse embodies the feeling of a settled agricultural or pastoral community with regard to the turbulent and poverty-stricken life of the desert.

2. While this is true, the narrative cannot be regarded as expressing reprobation of every form of nomadism known to the Hebrews. A disparaging estimate of Bedouin life as a whole is, no doubt, conceivable on the part of the settled Israelites (cf. Gn. 16[13]); but Cain is hardly the symbol of that estimate. (1) The ordinary Bedouin could not be described as 'fugitives and vagabonds in the earth': their movements are restricted to definite areas of the desert, and are hardly less monotonous than the routine of husbandry.§ (2) The full Bedouin are breeders of camels, the half-nomads of sheep and goats; and both live mainly on the produce of their flocks and herds (see Meyer, JNS, 303 ff.). But to suppose Cain to exemplify the latter mode of life is inconsistent with the narrative, for sheep-rearing is the distinctive profession of Abel; and it is hardly conceivable that Hebrew legend was so ignorant of the proud spirit of the full Bedouin as to describe them as degraded agriculturists. If Cain be the type of any permanent occupation at all, it must be one lower than agriculture and pasturage; i.e. he must stand for some of those rude tribes which subsist by hunting or robbery. (3) It is unlikely that a rule of sevenfold revenge was generally observed amongst Semitic nomads in OT times. Among the modern Arabs the law of the blood-feud is a life for a life: it is only under circumstances of extreme provocation that a twofold revenge is permissible. We are, therefore, led to think of Cain as the impersonation of an inferior race of nomads, maintaining a miserable existence by the chase, and practising a peculiarly ferocious form of blood-feud.—The view thus suggested of the fate of Cain finds a partial illustration in the picture

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* Bedouins and Wahabys, 148.—The meaning is that the certainty of retaliation acts as a check on the warlike tribesmen, and renders their fiercest conflicts nearly bloodless.

† Smith, l.c.—It may be explained that at present the kindred group for the purpose of the blood-feud consists of all those whose lineage goes back to a common ancestor in the fifth generation. There are still certain tribes, however, who are greatly feared because they are said to 'strike sideways': i.e. they retaliate upon any member of the murderer's tribe whether innocent or guilty. See Burck. 149 ff., 320 f.

‡ No. EB, 130.
given by Burck. and Doughty of a group of low-caste tribes called Solubba or Sleyb. These people live partly by hunting, partly by coarse smith-work and other gipsy labour in the Arab encampments; they are forbidden by their patriarch to be cattle-keepers, and have no property save a few asses; they are excluded from fellowship and intermarriage with the regular Bedouin, though on friendly terms with them; and they are the only tribes that are free of the Arabian deserts to travel where they will, ranging practically over the whole peninsula from Syria to Yemen. It is, perhaps, of less significance that they sometimes speak of themselves as decayed Bedouin, and point out the ruins of the villages where their ancestors dwelt as owners of camels and flocks.* The name גֶּרֶם, signifying ‘smith’ (p. 102), would be a suitable eponym for such degraded nomads. The one point in which the analogy absolutely fails is that tribes so circumstanced could not afford to practise the stringent rule of blood-revenge indicated by v.15.—It thus appears that the known conditions of Arabian nomadism present no exact parallel to the figure of Cain. To carry back the origin of the legend to pre-historic times would destroy the raison d’être of Sta.’s hypothesis, which seeks to deduce everything from definite historical relations: at the same time it may be the only course by which the theory can be freed from certain inconsistencies with which it is encumbered.†

3. The kernel of Sta.’s argument is the attractive combination of Cain the fratricide with the eponymous ancestor of the Ėnites.‡ In historical times the Ėnites appear to have been pastoral nomads (Ex. 120ff. 3’) frequenting the deserts south of Judah (1 Sa. 2710 30(9)), and (in some of their branches) clinging tenaciously to their ancestral manner of life (Ju. 411. 17 544. Jer. 357 cpd. with 1 Ch. 205). From the fact that they are found associated now with Israel (Ju. 16 etc.), now with Amalek (Nu. 242ff., 1 Sa. 159), and now with Midian (Nu. 1039), Sta. infers that they were a numerically weak tribe of the second rank; and from the name, that they were smiths. The latter character, however, would imply that they were pariahs, and of that there is no evidence whatever. Nor is there any indication that the Ėnites exercised a more rigorous blood-feud than other Semites: indeed, it seems an inconsistency in Sta.’s position that he regards the Ėnites as at once distinguished by reckless bravery in the vindication of the tribal honour, and at the same time too feeble to maintain their independence without the aid of stronger tribes. There is, in short, nothing to show that the Ėnites were anything but typical Bedouin; and all the objections to

* Burck. 14f.; Doughty, Arabia Deserta, i. 280ff.
† An interesting parallel might be found in the account given by Merker (Die Masai, p. 306ff.) of the smiths (ol kononi) among the Masai of East Africa. Apart from the question of the origin of the Masai, it is quite possible that these African nomads present a truer picture of the conditions of primitive Semitic life than the Arabs of the present day. See also Andree, Ethnogr. Parall. u. Vergl. (1878), 156ff.
‡ The tribe is called גֶּרֶם in Nu. 2422, Ju. 411; elsewhere the gentilic גֶּרֶם is used (in 1 Ch. 255 דַּעַר).
associating Cain with the higher levels of nomadism apply with full force to his identification with this particular tribe. When we consider, further, that the  Kenites  are nearly everywhere on friendly terms with Israel, and that they seem to have cherished the most ardent attachment to Yahwism, it becomes almost incredible that they should have been conceived as resting under a special curse.

4. It is very doubtful if any form of the nomadic or  Kenite theory can account for the rise of the legend as a whole. The evidence on which it rests is drawn almost exclusively from vv.13-16. Sta. justifies his extension of the theory to the incident of the murder by the analogy of those temporary alliances between Bedouin and peasants in which the settled society purchases immunity from extortion by the payment of a fixed tribute to the nomads (cf. 1 Sa. 25:5ff.). This relation is spoken of as a brotherhood, the tributary party figuring as the sister of the Bedouin tribe. The murder of Abel is thus resolved into the massacre of a settled pastoral people by a Bedouin tribe which had been on terms of formal friendship with it. But the analogy is hardly convincing: It would amount to this: that certain nomads were punished for a crime by being transformed into nomads: the fact that Cain was previously a husbandman is left unexplained.—Gu., with more consistency, finds in the narrative a vague reminiscence of an actual (prehistoric) event,—the extermination of a pastoral tribe by a neighbouring agricultural tribe, in consequence of which the latter were driven from their settlements and lived as outlaws in the wilderness. Such changes of fortune must have been common in early times on the border-land between civilisation and savagery;* and Gu.'s view has the advantage over Sta.'s that it makes a difference of sacrificial ritual an intelligible factor in the quarrel (see p. 105 f.). But the process of extracting history from legend is always precarious; and in this case the motive of individual blood-guilt appears too prominent to be regarded as a secondary interest of the narrative. The truth is that in the present form of the story the figure of Cain represents a fusion of several distinct types, of which it is difficult to single out any one as the central idea of the legend. (1) He is the originator of agriculture (v.2). (2) He is the founder of sacrifice, and (as the foil to his brother Abel) exhibits the idea that vegetable offerings alone are not acceptable to Yahwe (see on v.3). (3) He is the individual murderer (or rather shedder of kindred blood) pursued by the curse, like the Orestes, Alcmaeon, Bellerophon, etc., of Greek legend (v.8ff.). Up to v.12 that motive not only is sufficient, but is the only one naturally suggested to the mind: the expression ụ ụ being merely the negative aspect of the curse which drives him from the ground.†

* Instances in Merker, Die Masai, pp. 3, 7, 8, 14, 328, etc.
† For a Semitic parallel to this conception of Cain, comp. Doughty's description of the wretched Harb Bedouin who had accidentally slain his antagonist in a wrestling match: "None accused Aly; nevertheless the mesquin fled for his life; and he has gone ever since thus armed, lest the kindred of the deceased finding him should kill him" (Ar. Des. ii. 293, cited by Stade).
(4) Lastly, in vv.13-16 he is the representative of the nomad tribes of the desert, as viewed from the standpoint of settled and orderly civilisation. Ewald pointed out the significant circumstance, that at the beginning of the 'second age' of the world's history we find the counterparts of Abel and Cain in the shepherd Jabal and the smith Tubal-Cain (v.20ff.). It seems probable that some connexion exists between the two pairs of brothers: in other words, that the story of Cain and Abel embodies a variation of the tradition which assigned the origin of cattle-breeding and metal-working to two sons of Lamech. But to resolve the composite legend into its primary elements, and assign each to its original source, is a task obviously beyond the resources of criticism.

IV. 17–24.—The line of Cain.

This genealogy, unlike that of P in ch. 5, is not a mere list of names, but is compiled with the view of showing the origin of the principal arts and institutions of civilised life.* These are: Husbandry (v.2; see above), city-life (17), [polygamy (19)?], pastoral nomadism, music and metal-working (20–22). The Song of Lamech (23ff.) may signalise an appalling development of the spirit of blood-revenge, which could hardly be considered an advance in culture; but the connexion of these vv. with the genealogy is doubtful.—It has commonly been held that the passage involves a pessimistic estimate of human civilisation, as a record of progressive degeneracy and increasing alienation from God. That is probably true of the compiler who placed the section after the account of the Fall, and incorporated the Song of Lamech, which could hardly fail to strike the Hebrew mind as an exhibition of human depravity. In itself, however, the genealogy contains no moral judgment on the facts recorded. The names have no sinister significance; polygamy (though a declension from the ideal of 24) is not generally condemned in the OT (Dt. 2118); and even the song of Lamech (which is older than the genealogy) implies no condemnation of the reckless and bloodthirsty valour which it celebrates.—The institutions enumerated are clearly

* Gu., however (p. 47), considers the archaeological notices to be insertions in the genealogy, and treats them as of a piece with the similar notices in 215 37. 21. 28.
those existing in the writer's own day; hence the passage does not contemplate a rupture of the continuity of development by a cataclysm like the Flood. That the representation involves a series of anachronisms, and is not historical, requires no proof (see Dri. Gen. 68).—On the relation of the section to other parts of the ch., see p. 98 above: on some further critical questions, see the concluding Note (p. 122 ff.).

17. Enoch and the building of the first city.—The question where Cain got his wife is duly answered in Jub. iv. 1, 9: she was his sister, and her name was 'Āwān. For other traditions, see Marmorstein, 'Die Namen der Schwestern Kains u. Abels,' etc., ZATW, xxv. 141 ff.—and he became a city-builder] So the clause is rightly rendered by De. Bu. Ho. Gu. al. (cf. 21²⁰b, Ju. 16²¹, 2 Ki. 15⁵). The idea that he happened to be engaged in the building of a city when his son was born would probably have been expressed otherwise, and is itself a little unnatural.

That 1² is the subj. of 1⁵ only appears from the phrase 1² Ṣeph towards the end. Bu. (120 ff.) conjectures that the original text was Ṣeph, making Enoch himself the builder of the city called after him (so Ho.). The emendation is plausible: it avoids the ascription to Cain of two steps in civilisation—agriculture and city-building; and it satisfies a natural expectation that after the mention of Enoch we should hear what he became, not what his father became after his birth,—especially when the subj. of the immediately preceding vbs. is Cain's wife. But the difficulty of accounting for the present text is a serious objection, the motive suggested by Bu. (123) being far-fetched and improbable.—The incongruity between this notice and vv.¹¹⁻¹⁸ has already been mentioned (p. 100). Lenormant's examples of the mythical connexion of city-building with fratricide (Origines², i. 141 ff.) are not to the point; the difficulty is not that the first city was founded by a murderer, but by a nomad. More relevant would be the instances of cities originating in hordes of outlaws, collected by Frazer, as parallels to the peopling of Rome (Fort. Rev. 1899, Apr., 650-4). But the anomaly is wholly due to composition of sources: the Cain of the genealogy was neither a nomad nor a fratricide. It has been proposed (Ho. Gu.) to remove 1⁷b as an addition to the genealogy, on the ground that no intelligent writer would put

17. On v⁷b, see on v.¹.—The vb. Ṣeph appears from Ar. ḥanaka to be a denom. from ḥanak (Heb. ḥn), and means to rub the palate of a new-born child with chewed dates: hence trop. 'to initiate' (Lane, s.v. ; We. Heid. 173). In Heb. it means to 'dedicate' or 'inaugurate' a house, etc. (Dt. 20⁶, 1 Ki. 8⁸⁸: cf. נַעֲנָה, Nu. 7¹¹, Neh. 12²⁷ etc.); and also to 'teach' (Pr. 22⁶). See, further, on ⁵¹⁸.
city-building before cattle-rearing; but the Phcenician tradition is full of such anachronisms, and shows how little they influenced the reasoning of ancient genealogists.——The name หญ is given (besides מיר, 1 Ch. 1⁵) as that of a Midianite tribe in 25¹ (1 Ch. 1²), and of a Reubenite clan in 4⁶ (Ex. 6⁴, Nu. 2⁶, 1 Ch. 5⁹). It is also said that หญ is a Sabæan tribal name (G—B.¹² s.v.),* which has some importance in view of the fact that หญ (5⁸) is the name of a Sabæan deity. As the name of a city, the word would suggest to the Heb. mind the thought of ‘initiation’ (ע.ע.). The city หญ cannot be identified. The older conjectures are given by Di. (p. 99); Sayce (ZKF, ii. 404; Hib. Lect. 185) and Cheyne (EB, 6²⁴; but see now TBI, 106) connect it with Unuk, the ideographic name of the ancient Babylonian city of Erech.

18. The next four generations are a blank so far as any advance in civilisation is concerned. The only question of general interest is the relation of the names to those of ch. 5.

On the first three names, see esp. Lagarde, Orientalia, ii. 3³—3⁸; Bu. Urg. 1²—9. —ין] Ge. פאדו (ין) יין (the latter supported by Philo), corresponds to יין in מיר. The initial guttural, and the want of a Heb. etymology, would seem to indicate יין as the older form which has been Hebraized in יין; but the conclusion is not certain. If the root be connected with Ar. ‘arada (which is doubtful in view of Ge.'s Γ), the idea might be either ‘fugitive’ (Di. al.), or ‘strength, hardness, courage’ (Bu.). Sayce (ZKF, ii. 404) suggests an identification with the Chaldean city Eridu; Ho. with יין in the Negeb (Ju. 1⁶ etc.).—The next two names are probably (but not certainly: see Gray, HPN, 1⁶⁴ f.) compounds with יין. The first is given by MT in two forms, ינן and ינן. The variants of Ge. are reducible to three types, מנה (ן), Maων, Malακων (ן). Lag. considers the last original, though the first is the best attested. Adopting this form, we may (with Bu.) point the Heb. ינן or ינן = ‘God makes me live’: so virtually Philo ανδ γόης θεοῦ, and Jer. ex vita Deus (cited by Lag.). Both Mass. forms undoubtedly imply a bad sense: ‘destroyed (or smitten) of God’ (though the form is absolutely un-Hebraic, see Dri. Sam. 1⁴).—נן is now commonly explained by Ass. mutu-ša-ili, ‘Man of God,’† though the relative ša presents a difficulty (Gray, l.c.). The true Ge. reading is מנותאלא (=ינונן, מנותא); מנותא occurs as a correction in some MSS—ין again inexplicable from Heb. or even Arabic. Sayce (Hib. Lect. 186) and Hommel connect it with Lamga, a Babylonian name of the moon-god, naturalised in S. Arabia.‡

18. On acc. ינן with pass. see G—K. § 1¹⁶ a, b.—נן in the sense of ‘beget’ is a sure mark of the style of J (see Ho. Einl. 9⁹).—נן archaic

† Lenorm. Orig. ² i. 2⁶² f., Di. Bu. al. Che. EB, 6²⁵. It does not appear that mutu-ša-ili occurs as an actual name.
‡ Hommel, Altisrael. Überl. 117 n.: “Lamga ist ein babylonischer
19. The two wives of Lamech.—No judgment is passed on Lamech's bigamy, and probably none was intended. The notice may be due simply to the fact that the names of the wives happened to be preserved in the song afterwards quoted.

Of the two female names by far the most attractive explanation is that of Ew. (JBBW, vi. 17), that דֵּנָה means Dawn (Ar. gādān, but ḫ has 'ādā), and דְּנָה (fem. of דָּנָה) Shadow,—a relic of some nature-myth (cf. Lenorm. Orig. 2 183 ff.). Others (Ho.) take them as actual proper names of inferior stocks incorporated in the tribe Lamech; pointing out that דֵּנָה recurs in 3613 as a Canaanite clan amalgamated with Esau. This ethnographic theory, however, has very little foothold in the passage. For other explanations, see Di. p. 100.

20–22. The sons of Lamech and their occupations.—At this point the genealogy breaks up into three branches, introducing (as Ew. thinks) a second age of the world. But since it is nowhere continued, all we can say is that the three sons represent three permanent social divisions, and (we must suppose) three modes of life that had some special interest for the authors of the genealogy. On the significance of this division, see at the close.—20. Yāḇāl, son of 'Adah, became the father (i.e. originator: †ח^ו) of tent- and cattle-dwellers (v.i.); i.e. of nomadic shepherds. נִנְפִּי, however, is a wider term than נַעַר (v.2), including all kinds of cattle, and even camels and asses (Ex. 93). The whole Bedouin life is thus assigned to Jabal as its progenitor.—21. Yāḇāl, also a

nom. case (G–K. § 90 d) of an old Sem. word (also Egypt. according to Erman) נִנְפִּי = 'man' (male, husband, etc.): cf. G–B. s.v.

20. נִנְפִּי לַיְּבֵר שְׁבָי יָא בֶּן olkόντων ἐν σκυρᾶς κτηνοτρόφων, perhaps reading נִנְפִּי as in 2 Ch. 1415 (so Ball). ἦ (atque pastorum) takes נִנְפִּי as a

ptcp.; § inserts נֵבָי, and ἦ to, before 'cattle'; similarly Kuenen proposed נִנְפִּי נֵבָי. The zeugma is somewhat hard, but is retained by most. for the sake of conformity with v.21; G–K. § 117 bb, 118 g.—21. נִנְפִּי שְׁבָי] cf. 1025 (J) (1 Ch. 716).—נִנְפִּי שְׁבָי] כְּדָא- דָאָה יָא קְטֶנְתֶּרֶם קאָל קַיָּאָרָא.—בּוּנְי נֵבָי] ἦ cithara et organo; § 13 דָיְ[כָּאנְוְו אֱמוֹנַנְו; ἦ אַבְרַמָא אֱמוֹנַנְו] (אָבְרַמָא). See Benzinger, Archæol. 3, 237–246; We. Psalms (Polychr. Bible), 219 f., 222 f.; Riehm, Hdb. 1043 ff. The מְכָני is

Beiname des Sin; daraus machten die Sabäer, mit volksetymologischer Anlehnung an ihr Verbum lamaka (wahrsch. glänzen), einen Plural Almâku."
son of 'Adah, is the father of all who handle lyre and pipe; the oldest and simplest musical instruments. These two occupations, representing the bright side of human existence, have 'Adah (the Dawn?) as their mother; recalling the classical association of shepherds with music (see Lenorm. i. 207).—

22. Equally suggestive is the combination of Tūbal-kāyin, the smith, and Naʿāmāh (‘pleasant’), as children of the dark Zillah; cf. the union of Hephaestos and Aphrodite in Greek mythology (Di. al.).—The opening words of אֵש are corrupt. We should expect: he became the father of every artificer in brass and iron (see footnote). The persistent idea that Tubal-cain was the inventor of weapons, Ber. R., Ra. and most, which has led to a questionable interpretation of the Song, has no foundation. He is simply the metal-worker,
an occupation regarded by primitive peoples as a species of black-art,* and by Semitic nomads held in contempt.

On the names in these vv. see the interesting discussion of Lenorm. Orig. i. 192 ff.—The alliterations, Yabál—Yubál—Tubál, are a feature of legendary genealogies: cf. Arab. Habil and Kábil, Shiddíd and Shaddád, Málík and Milkán, etc. (Lenorm. 192). בָּי (כँ 'וָבֶל -ן ל) and בָּנִי ('וָבֶל) both suggest בְּי (Heb. and Phœn.), which means primarily 'ram', then 'ram's horn' as a musical instrument (Ex. 19:8), and finally 'joyous music' (in the designation of the year of Jubilee). On a supposed connexion of בָּי with בְּנִי in the sense of 'herdsman,' see above, p. 193. בְּנִי is a Japhetic people famous in antiquity for metal-working (see on 16); and it is generally held that their heros eponymus supplies the name of the founder of metallurgy here; but the equation is doubtful. A still more precarious combination with a word for smith (tumáí, dubalanza, etc.) in Somali and other East African dialects, has been propounded by Merker (Die Masai, 306). The compound בָּי (written in Oriental MSS as one word) may mean either ' Tubal [the] smith' (in which case יב is probably a gloss), or 'Tubal of (the family of) Cain.' ב is has simply יבֶל; but see the footnote. Tuch and others adduce the analogy of the ἡλίκια, the first workers in iron and brass, and the makers of Saturn's scythe (Strabo, xiv. ii. 7); and the pair of brothers who, in the Phœnician legend, were σιδήρων εὐρετάς καὶ τῆς τούτων ἀργᾶς. — בְּנִי (ב נֵוֶה) seems to have been a mythological personage of some importance. A goddess of that name is known to have been worshipped by the Phœnicians.† In Jewish tradition she figures as the wife of Noah (Ber. R.), as a demon, and also as a sort of St. Cecilia, a patroness of vocal music (ם): cf. Lag. OS, 180, 56: נֵוֶה יִנְלּוֹן יִפְנִי וֹנֵי וּנְלָנִי [Nestle, MM, 10].

23, 24. The song of Lamech.—A complete poem in three distichs, breathing the fierce implacable spirit of revenge that forms the chief part of the Bedouin's code of honour. It is almost universally assumed (since Herder) that it commemorates the invention of weapons by Tubal-cain, and is accordingly spoken of as Lamech's 'Sword Song.' But the

† So Ew., who thinks the יב belongs to each of the three names.
‡ Lenorm. 200 f.; Tiele, Gesch. i. 265; Baethgen, Beitr. 150.
contents of the song furnish no hint of such an occasion (We.); and the position in which it stands makes its connexion with the genealogy dubious. On that point see, further, below. It is necessary to study it independently, as a part of the ancient legend of Lamech which may have supplied some of the material that has been worked into the genealogy.—The vv. may be rendered:

23 Adah and Zillah, hear my voice! 
Wives of Lamech, attend to my word! 
For I kill a man for a wound to me, 
And a boy for a scar.

24 For Cain takes vengeance seven times, 
But Lamech seventy times and seven!

23a. Ho. raises the question whether the words 'Adah and Zillah' belong to the song or the prose introduction; and decides (with 'Y) for the latter view, on the ground that in the remaining vv. the second member is shorter than the first (which is not the case). The exordium of the song might then read:

Hear my voice, ye women of Lamech! 
Attend to my word!—

the address being not to the wives of an individual chieftain, but to the females of the tribe collectively. It appears to me that the alteration destroys the balance of clauses, and mars the metrical effect: besides, strict syntax would require the repetition of the ¿.—23b. The meaning is that (the tribe?) Lamech habitually avenges the slightest personal injury by the death of man or child of the tribe to which the assailant belongs. According to the principle of the blood-feud, 'zvN and '7' (' is not a fighting 'youth,'—a sense it rarely bears: 1 Ki. 12stl., Dn. 1stl.,—but an innocent man-child [Bu. Ho.]) are not the actual perpetrators of the outrage, but any members of the same clan. The parallelism therefore is not to be taken literally, as if Lamech selected a victim proportionate to the hurt he had received. —24. Cain is mentioned as a tribe noted for the fierceness
of its vendetta (7 times); but the vengeance of Lamech knows no limit (70 and 7 times).

The Song has two points of connexion with the genealogy: the names of the two wives, and the allusion to Cain. The first would disappear if Ho.'s division of \( ^{292} \) were accepted; but since the ordinary view seems preferable, the coincidence in the names goes to show that the song was known to the authors of the genealogy and utilised in its construction. With regard to the second, Gu. rightly observes that glorying over an ancestor is utterly opposed to the spirit of antiquity; the Cain referred to must be a rival contemporary tribe, whose grim vengeance was proverbial. The comparison, therefore, tells decidedly against the unity of the passage, and perhaps points (as Sta. thinks) to a connection between the song and the legendary cycle from which the Cain story of \( ^{138} \) emanated. —The temper of the song is not the primitive ferocity of "a savage of the stone-age dancing over the corpse of his victim, brandishing his flint tomahawk," etc. (Lenorm.); its real character was first divined by We., who, after pointing out the baselessness of the notion that it has to do with the invention of weapons, describes it as "eine gar keiner besonderen Veranlassung bedürftige Prahlerei eines Stammes (Stammvaters) gegen den anderen. Und wie die Araber sich besonders gern ihren Weibern gegenüber als grosse Eisenfresser rühmen, so macht es hier auch Lamech" (Comp. \(^{3} \) 305). On this view the question whether it be a song of triumph or of menace does not arise; as expressing the permanent temper and habitual practice of a tribe, it refers alike to the past and the future. The sense of the passage was strangely misconceived by some early Fathers (perhaps by \( ^{29} \)), who regarded it as an utterance of remorse for an isolated murder committed by Lamech. The rendering of \( ^{30} \) is based on the idea (maintained by Kalisch) that Lamech's purpose was to represent his homicide as justifiable and himself as guiltless: 'I have not slain a man on whose account I bear guilt, nor wounded a youth for whose sake my seed shall be cut off. When 7 generations were suspended for Cain, shall there not be for Lamech his son 70 and 7?' Hence arose the fantastic Jewish legend that the persons killed by Lamech were his ancestor Cain and his own son Tubal-cain (Ra. al.; cf. Jer. \( ^{16} \) Ep. ad Damasum, 125). —The metrical structure of the poem is investigated by Sievers in Metrische Studien, i. 404 f., and ii. 12 f., 247 f. According to the earlier and more successful analysis, the song consists of a double tetrameter, followed by two double trimeters. Sievers' later view is vitiated by an attempt to fit the poem into the supposed metrical scheme of the genealogy, and necessitates the excision of \( \text{Nonnull} \) as a gloss.

Apart from \( ^{292} \), the most remarkable feature of the genealogy is

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second part of the sentence" (BDB, s.v. 3, c): cf. Dt. 18\(^{14} \), Jer. 30\(^{11} \).—\( ^{29} \) on acc., see G–K. § 29 g. The Niph. \( ^{29} \) would yield a better sense: 'avenges himself' (Bu. Di. Ho.).

* See, further, Lenorm. Orig. i. 186 ff.
the division of classes represented by the three sons of Lamech. It is
difficult to understand the prominence given to this classification of
mankind into herdsmen, musicians, and smiths, or to imagine a point of
view from which it would appear the natural climax of human develop-
ment. Several recent scholars have sought a clue in the social con-
ditions of the Arabian desert, where the three occupations may be said
to cover the whole area of ordinary life. Jabal, the first-born son,
stands for the full-blooded Bedouin with their flocks and herds,*—the
delite of all nomadic-living men, and the 'flower of human culture'
(Bu. 146). The two younger sons symbolise the two avocations to which
the pure nomad will not condescend, but which are yet indispensable
to his existence or enjoyment—smith-work and music (Sta. 232). The
obvious inference is that the genealogy originated among a nomadic
people, presumably the Hebrews before the settlement in Canaan (Bu.);
though Ho. considers that it embodies a specifically Kenite tradition in
which the eponymous hero Cain appears as the ancestor of the race (so
Gordon, ETG, 188 ff.).—Plausible as this theory is at first sight, it is
burdened with many improbabilities. If the early Semitic nomads
traced their ancestry to (peasants and) city-dwellers, they must have
had very different ideas from their successors the Bedouin of the present
day.† Moreover, the circumstances of the Arabian peninsula present a
very incomplete parallel to the classes of vv. 20-22. Though the smiths
form a distinct caste, there is no evidence that a caste of musicians ever
existed among the Arabs; and the Bedouin contempt for professional
musicians is altogether foreign to the sense of the vv., which certainly
imply no disparaging estimate of Jubal's art. And once more, as Sta.
himself insists, the outlook of the genealogy is world-wide. Jabal is the
prototype of all nomadic herdsmen everywhere, Jubal of all musicians,
and Tubal (the Tibareni?) of all metallurgists.—It is much more
probable that the genealogy is projected from the standpoint of a settled,
civilised, and mainly agricultural community. If (with Bu.) we include
vv. 2 and 17b, and regard it as a record of human progress, the order
of development is natural: husbandmen, city-dwellers, wanderers [?] (shepherds, musicians, and smiths). The three sons of Lamech represent
not the highest stage of social evolution, but three picturesque modes of
life, which strike the peasant as interesting and ornamental, but by no
means essential to the framework of society.—This conclusion is on the
whole confirmed by the striking family likeness between the Cainite
genealogy and the legendary Phœnecian history preserved by Eusebius
from Philo Byblius, and said to be based on an ancient native work by
Sanchuniathon. Philo's confused and often inconsistent account is
naturally much richer in mythical detail than the Heb. tradition; but
the general idea is the same: in each case we have a genealogical list

* But against this view, see p. 112 above, and Meyer, INS, 303 ff.
† Ho. evades this objection by deleting v. 17b, and reducing the
genealogy to a bare list of names; but why should the Kenites have
interposed a whole series of generations between their eponymous
ancestor and the origin of their own nomadic life?
of the legendary heroes to whom the discovery of the various arts and occupations is attributed. Whether the biblical or the Phœnician tradition is the more original may be doubtful; in any case "it is difficult," as Dri. says, "not to think that the Heb. and Phœn. representations spring from a common Canaanite cycle of tradition, which in its turn may have derived at least some of its elements from Babylonia" (Gen. p. 74).*

* Cf. Eus. Præp. Ev. i. 10 (ed. Heinichen, p. 39 ff.). The Greek text is printed in Müller's Fragm. Hist. Græc. iii. 566 f. French translations are given by Lenorm. Orig. i. 536 ff., and Lagrange, Études sur les Religions Semitiques¹, 362 ff. (the latter with a copious commentary and critical introduction).—The passage in Eusebius is much too long to be quoted in full, but the following extracts will give some idea of its contents and its points of similarity with Gen.: Of the two protoplasts Αἰών and Πρωτόγονος, it is recorded εὑρεθήν ἔσον τὸν Αἰώνα τὴν ἀπὸ τῶν δάνῳ ὑπόψιν.—The second pair, Γένος and Γενέα, dwelt in Phœnicia, and inaugurated the worship of the sun.—Of the race of Αἰών and Πρωτόγονος were born three mortal children, Φώς, Πόρ, and Φλῶς: οὗτοι ἐκ παρατριβής εὕλων εὗρον πῦρ, καὶ τὴν χρήσαν εὕλαξαν.—Then followed a race of giants, of whom was born [Σάμημοροβής (=οὐς ζῶν) ὁ καὶ Τῆσιοναῖων, who founded Tyre. Of him we read: καλύβασα τε ἐπωνύμησα ἀπὸ καλῆμαν, καὶ θρόνον, καὶ πατρίδαν· στασιάσας δὲ πρὸς τὸν ἀδελφὸν Ὑσσών, διεκέπτη τὸν αὑματί πρῶτος ἐκ δερμάτων ἣν ἱσχύος συλλαβεῖν ἅψιν εὗρε... Δάνῳ δὲ λαβόμενον τὸν Ὀδυσσῶν καὶ ἀποκλαδέβουντα, πρῶτον τοινὶσαι εἰς τὸν ἀλασαν ἑμβίωσαι· ἀνερώσας δὲ δόο κείμενα... αἱμα τε σπένδευεν αὐταῖς εἴς τον ἥψεν χρήσιν.—The further history of invention names (a) Ἀγρεῦς and Ἀλέιων, τοῖς ἄλειας καὶ ἄγρας εὗρετάς; (b) ἄλεος ἀδελφοῖς σιδήρου εὐρετᾶς, καὶ τῆς τούτων ἑργασίας· ἀν θάτερον τὸν Χρυσᾶρ λόγους ἀσκήσας, καὶ ἐφωδάς καὶ μακελάς; (c) Τεχνίτης καὶ Γρήγορος Δυτικχώρων: οὗτοι ἐπενόησαν τῷ πηλῷ τῆς πλυνθὲν συμμυγνέων φορτών, καὶ τῷ ἥλιῳ αὐτὰς τερασάνες, ἀλλὰ καὶ στέγας ἐξεύρον; (d) Ἀγρός καὶ Ἀγροῦσης (οὐ τὸν Ἀγρότης): ἐπενόησαν δὲ οὗτοι αὖλᾶ προσπιθέναι τοις οἴκοις σαλ περιβάλλαν καὶ στήλας· ἐκ τούτων ἀγρόις καὶ κυνηγοι; (e) Ἀμνός καὶ Μάγος: οἱ κατεύθενταν κόμιας καὶ τοιμασίας; (f) Μισσώρ (ψαρ) καὶ Σύνδηκ (πτερ)· οὗτοι τοὺς τὸν ἄλλους χρήσαν εὗρον. (g) Οἱ Μισσώρ ἦσαν τὰς Ναμίτος, ψαριὰς τῶν πρῶτων στοιχείων γραφήν; καὶ (h) οἱ Σύνδηκ, τὸ Διδάκους· οὗτοι, φηνικιοί, πρῶτοι πλοίου ἑπτάν εὗρον. After them came others of καὶ βοτάνας εὗρον, καὶ τὴν τῶν δακτῆων λασκιν, καὶ ἐφωδάς.—It is impossible to doubt that some traditional elements have been preserved in this extraordinary medley of euhemerism and archaeology, however unfavourably it may contrast with the simplicity of the biblical record.

IV. 25, 26.—Fragmentary Sethite Genealogy.

The vv. are the beginning of a Yahwistic genealogy (see above, p. 99), of which another fragment has fortunately been preserved in 5²⁹ (Noah). Since it is thus seen to have
contained the three names (Seth, Enos, Noah) peculiar to the genealogy of P, it may be assumed that the two lists were in substantial agreement, each consisting of ten generations. That that of J was not a dry list of names and numbers appears, however, from every item of it that has survived. The preservation of 4:25 is no doubt due to the important notice of the introduction of Yahwe-worship (26b), the redactor having judged it more expedient in this instance to retain J's statement intact. The circumstance shows on how slight a matter far-reaching critical speculations may hang. But for this apparently arbitrary decision of the redactor, the existence of a Sethite genealogy in J would hardly have been suspected; and the whole analysis of the J document into its component strata might have run a different course.

25. And Adam knew, etc.] see on v.1 That יבּו denotes properly the initiation of the conjugal relation (Bu.) is very doubtful: see 3:23, 1 Sa. 19.—And she called] see again on v.1. —God has appointed me seed] (the remainder of the v. is probably an interpolation). Cf. 3:15. Eve's use of יִרְוָא is not 'surprising' (Di.); it only proves that the section is not from the same source as v.1. On the other hand, it harmonises with the fact that in 3:16, ירונא is used in dialogue. It is at least a plausible inference that both passages come from one narrator, who systematically avoided the name יהי up to 4:26 (see p. 100).

The v. in its present form undoubtedly presupposes a knowledge of the Cain and Abel narrative of 4:1-16; but it is doubtful if the allusions to the two older brothers can be accepted as original (see Bu. 154-159). Some of Bu.'s arguments are strained; but it is important to observe that the word יֵשְׁנָה is wanting in Ge, and that the addition of לוּבְנָה תְּתִי רָאִים destroys the sense of the preceding utterance, the idea of substitution being quite foreign to the connotation of the vb. יֵשְׁנָה. The following clause יִהְיֶשׁ עַד יִנְּחֵי יִנְּה reads awkwardly in the mouth of Eve (who would naturally have said 'פ 'ה יֵשְׁנָה), and is entirely superfluous on the part of

25. יֵשְׁנָה] here for the first time unambiguously a prop. name. There is no reason to suspect the text: the transition from the generic to the individual sense is made by P only in 5:3, and is just as likely to have been made by J.—Ge reads [Ehap in place of יֵשְׁנָה; L has both words.—Before יהי Ge insert יִנְּחֵי —הַשְּׁנִית] אַשְּׁנִית. —יִנְּחֵי Ge לֶגוּוֹשָׁה; so F and
the narrator. The excision of these suspicious elements leaves a sentence complete in itself, and exactly corresponding in form to the naming of Cain in v.\(^1\): ונִו מִשְׁתְּאֵל יִלֶּשֶׁר, 'God has appointed me seed' (i.e. posterity). There is an obvious reference to 3\(^{18}\), where both the significant words נַשֶּׁר and בָּשֶׁר occur. But this explanation really implies that Seth was the first-born son (according to this writer), and is unintelligible of one who was regarded as a substitute for another. How completely the mind of the glossator is preoccupied by the thought of substitution is further shown by the fact that he does not indicate in what sense Cain has ceased to be the 'seed' of Eve. —As a Heb. word (with equivalents in Phœn. Arab. Syr. Jew.-Aram.: cf. Nö. Mand. Gr. p. 98) נַשֶּׁר would mean 'foundation' (not Setzling, still less Ersatz); but its real etymology is, of course, unknown. Hommel's attempt (AOD, p. 26 ff.) to establish a connexion with the second name in the list of Berossus (below, p. 137) involves too many doubtful equations, and even if successful would throw no light on the name. In Nu. 24\(^{27}\) נַשֶּׁר appears to be a synonym for Moab; but the text is doubtful (Meyer, I. N. S., 219). The late Gnostic identification of Seth with the Messiah may be based on the Messianic interpretation of 3\(^{18}\), and does not necessarily imply a Babylonian parallel.

26. On the name זָרִים (= Man, and therefore in all probability the first member of an older genealogy), see below. —Then men began to call, etc.] Better (with Гр., etc., v.i.): He was the first to call on the name of Yahwe (cf. 9\(^{20}\) 10\(^{8}\)), i.e. he was the founder of the worship of Yahwe; cf. 12\(^{8}\) 13\(^{4}\) 21\(^{33}\) 26\(^{25}\) (all J). What historic reminiscence (if any) lies behind this remarkable statement we cannot conjecture; but its significance is not correctly expressed when

even ט'—26, זָרִים סֶל] (G-K. § 135 \(b\)) Гр. om.—זרים] like זָרִים, properly a coll.: Enosh is a personification of mankind. The word is rare and mostly poetic in Heb. (esp. Jb. Ps.); but is common in other Sem. dialects (Ar. Aram. Nab. Palm. Sab. Ass.). Nestle's opinion (MM, 6ff.), that it is in Heb. an artificial formation from זָרִים, and that the genealogy is consequently late, has no sort of probability; the only 'artificiality' in Heb. is the occasional individual use. There is a presumption, however, that the genealogy originated among a people to whom זָרִים or its equivalent was the ordinary name for mankind (Aramaean or Arabian).—זָרִים סֶל] so Ag. ס.; מזז זָרִים סֶל; Greco video מַזְרִים (from מַזְרִים) implies either מזז מַזְרִים or מזז מַזְרִים; so δικαίον (isic coopit) and Jub. iv. 12; ס has זָרִים סֶל. The true text is that read by Гр., etc.; and if the alteration of MT was intentional (which is possible), we may safely restore מַזְרִים מַזְרִים after 10\(^{8}\). The Jewish exegesis takes מַזְרִים in the sense 'was profaned,' and finds in the v. a notice of the introduction of idolatry (Jer. Qr., ט'\(^{1}\), Ra. al.)—although the construction is absolutely ungrammatical (I. Ez.).—After מַזְרִים Гр. adds carelessly ראו בָּשֶׁר.
it is limited to the institution of formal public worship on the part of a religious community (De.); and the idea that it is connected with a growing sense of the distinction between the human and the divine (Ew. De. al.) is a baseless fancy. It means that 'Enōš was the first to invoke the Deity under this name; and it is interesting chiefly as a reflexion, emanating from the school of J, on the origin of the specifically Israelite name of God. The conception is more ingenuous than that of E (Ex. 3:13-15) or P (63), who base the name on express revelation, and connect it with the foundation of the Hebrew nationality.

The expression 'םה "ם (lit. 'call by [means of] the name of Y.') denotes the essential act in worship, the invocation (or rather evocation) of the Deity by the solemn utterance of His name. It rests on the widespread primitive idea that a real bond exists between the person and his name, such that the pronunciation of the latter exerts a mystic influence on the former.* The best illustration is 1 Ki. 18:36ff., where the test proposed by Elijah is which name—Baal or Yahwe—will evoke a manifestation of divine energy.—The cosmopolitan diffusion of the name מ from the Babylonian or Egyptian pantheon, though often asserted,† and in itself not incredible, has not been proved. The association with the name of Enoš might be explained by the supposition that the old genealogy of which Enoš was the first link had been preserved in some ancient centre of Yahwe-worship (Sinai? or Kadesh?).

CH. V.—The Ante-Diluvian Patriarchs (P).

In the Priestly Code the interval between the Creation (1:1-2:10) and the Flood (6:5ff.) is bridged by this list of ten patriarchs, with its chronological scheme fixing the duration of the period (in MT) at 1656 years. The names are traditional, as is shown by a comparison of the first three with 4:25ff., and of Nos. 4-9 with 4:17ff. It has, indeed, been held that the names of the Cainite genealogy were intentionally modified by the author of P, in order to suggest certain

* See Giesebrecht, Die ATliche Schätzung des Gottesnamens, esp. p. 25ff., 98ff.
views as to the character of the patriarchs. But that is at best a doubtful hypothesis, and could only apply to three or four of the number. It is quite probable that if we had the continuation of J's Sethite genealogy, its names would be found to correspond closely with those of ch. 5.—The chronology, on the other hand, is based on an artificial system, the invention of which may be assigned either to P or to some later chronologist (see p. 136 below).—What is thoroughly characteristic of P is the framework in which the details are set. It consists of (a) the age of each patriarch at the birth of his first-born, (b) the length of his remaining life (with the statement that he begat other children), and (c) his age at death.* The stiff precision and severity of the style, the strict adherence to set formulae, and the monotonous iteration of them, constitute a somewhat pronounced example of the literary tendencies of the Priestly school of writers.

The distinctive phraseology of P (יַחֵל, יָעָר, יָשֵׁר, יֶרְפָּהּ רַע) is seen most clearly in vv. 1b–3, which, however, may be partly composed of glosses based on 1:26ff. (see on the vv.). Note also יָעָר (1a), יָעָר, יָשֵׁר (3), יָעָר (throughout), יַחֵל יָעָר יֶרְפָּהּ (22, 24, cf. 6); the syntax of the numerals (which, though not peculiar to P, is a mark of late style: see G–K. § 134 i; Dav. § 37, R. 3); the naming of the child by the father (9).—The one verse which stands out in marked contrast to its environment is 29, which is shown by the occurrence of the name נֶרְפָּה and the allusion to 37 to be an extract from J, and in all probability a fragment of the genealogy whose first links are preserved in 4:25, 26.

“The aim of the writer is by means of these particulars to give a picture of the increasing population of the earth, as also of the duration of the first period of its history, as conceived by him, and of the longevity which was a current element in the Heb. conception of primitive times” (Dri. Gen. p. 75). With regard to the extreme longevity attributed to the early patriarchs, it must be frankly recognised that the statements are meant to be understood literally, and that the author had in his view actual individuals. The

* Only in the cases of Adam (v. 8), Enoch (22, 24) and Lamech (28, 29) are slight and easily explicable deviations from the stereotyped form admitted. The section on Noah is, of course, incomplete.
attempts to save the historicity of the record by supposing
(a) that the names are those of peoples or dynasties, or
(b) that many links of the genealogy have been omitted, or
(c) that the word מַעָלֶה denotes a space of time much shorter
than twelve months (see Di. 107), are now universally
discredited. The text admits of no such interpretation. It
is true that "the study of science precludes the possibility
of such figures being literally correct"; but "the com-
parative study of literature leads us to expect exaggerated
statements in any work incorporating the primitive traditions
of a people" (Ryle, quoted by Dri. p. 75).

The author of P knows nothing of the Fall, and offers
no explanation of the 'violence' and 'corruption' with
which the earth is filled when the narrative is resumed (612). It
is doubtful whether he assumes a progressive deterioration
of the race, or a sudden outbreak of wickedness on the
eve of the Flood; in either case he thinks it unnecessary to
propound any theory to account for it. The fact reminds
us how little dogmatic importance was attached to the story
of the Fall in OT times. The Priestly writers may have
been repelled by the anthropomorphism, and indifferent to
the human pathos and profound moral psychology, of
Gen. 3; they may also have thought that the presence of
sin needs no explanation, being sufficiently accounted for by
the known tendencies of human nature.

Budde (Urgesch. 93-103) has endeavoured to show that the genealogy
itself contains a cryptic theory of degeneration, according to which the
first five generations were righteous, and the last five (commencing with
Jered [= 'descent'], but excepting Enoch and Noah) were wicked.
His chief arguments are (a) that the names have been manipulated by
P in the interest of such a theory, and (b) that the Samaritan chronology
(which Bu. takes to be the original: see below, p. 135 f.) admits of the
conclusion that Jered, Methuselah, and Lamech perished in the Flood.*
Budde supports his thesis with close and acute reasoning; but the facts
are susceptible of different interpretations, and it is not probable that a
writer with so definite a theory to inculcate should have been at such
pains to conceal it. At all events it remains true that no explanation is
given of the introduction of evil into the world.

* The more rapid decrease of life (in מ) after Mahalalel ought not
to be counted as an additional argument; because it is a necessary
corollary from the date fixed for the Flood.
1. 2.—Introduction: consisting of a superscription (1a), followed by an account of the creation and naming of Adam (1b. 2).—1a. This is the book of the generations of Adam] See the crit. note below; and on the meaning of הָלוֹא, see on 24a.—1b. When God created Man (or Adam) he made him in the likeness of God] a statement introduced in view of the transmission of the divine image from Adam to Seth (v. 3). On this and the following clauses see, further, 126ff.

2. And called their name Adam] v.i.

The vv. show signs of editorial manipulation. In 1a שֹׁם is presumably a proper name (as in 36ff.), in 2 it is certainly generic (note the pl. suff.), while in 1b it is impossible to say which sense is intended. The confusion seems due to an attempt to describe the creation of the first man in terms borrowed almost literally from 426ff., where שֹׁם is generic. Since the only new statement is and he called their name Adam, we may suppose the writer’s aim to have been to explain how שֹׁם, from being a generic term, came to be a proper name. But he has no clear perception of the relation; and so, instead of starting with the generic sense and leading up to the individual, he resolves the individual into the generic, and awkwardly resumes the proper name in v. 3. An original author would hardly have expressed himself so clumsily. Ho. observes that the heading שֹׁם הָלוֹא רָאָה הָיוּ reads like the title of a book, suggesting that the chapter is the opening section of an older genealogical work used by P as the skeleton of his history; and the fuller formula, as compared with the usual הָלוֹא הָיוּ, at least justifies the assumption that this is the first occurrence of the heading. Di.’s opinion, that it is a combination of the superscription of J’s Sethite genealogy with that of P, is utterly improbable. On the whole, the facts point to an amalgamation of two sources, the first using שֹׁם as a designation of the race, and the other as the name of the first man.

3-5. Adam.—began [a son] in his likeness, etc.] (see on 126): implying, no doubt, a transmission of the divine image (v. 1) from Adam to all his posterity.—6–20. The sections on Seth, Enosh, Kenan, Mahalalel, and Yered rigidly

1. For שֹׁם ג has 10 וֹאֵרְבֶּיתָנָו, 20 'אֲדָם; י conversely 10 Adam, 20 hominem. —2. שֹׁם] גL שֹׁם:—3. הָלוֹא] ins. ל as obj. (Ols. al.). הָלוֹא confined to P in Pent.; J, and older writers generally, using ג; both for 'begat' and 'bear.'—יָבוּלָק הָּמְכֵרָה] בָּלָק יִתְבָּחֵן אִישׁ וּלְוָא kal. ר.’ elókwa a. —avoiding ωμολογία (see the note on 126).—4. שֹׁם יִשְׂרָאֵל] גL ins. ל שֹׁמוּר, as in v. 5. ג reads שֹׁם יִשְׂרָאֵל (but see Ball’s note) as in vv. 7. 10 etc. But vv. 3–5 contain several deviations from the regular formula: note יִשְׂרָאֵל in v. 5, and the order of numerals (hundreds before tens). The reverse order is observed elsewhere in the chapter.
observe the prescribed form, and call for no detailed com-
ment, except as regards the names.

6-8. Seth: cf. 4<sup>26</sup>. For the Jewish, Gnostic, and Mohammedan legends about this patriarch, see Lenorm. Orig.<sup>2</sup> 217–220, and Charles, Book of Jubilees, 33 ff. — 9–11. 'Enôs: see on 4<sup>26</sup>. — 12–14. Kênân is obviously a fuller form of Kadîyn in the parallel genealogy of 4<sup>17</sup>; and possibly, like it, means 'smith' or 'artificer' (cf. Syr. contracts: see on 4<sup>i</sup>). Whether the longer or the shorter form is the more ancient, we have no means of judging. It is important to note that pîp or pp is the name of a Sabaean deity, occurring several times in inscriptions; see Mordtmann, ZDMG, xxxi. 86; Baethgen, Beitr. 127 f., 152.—15–17. Mahûla'îl (= 'Praise of God') is a compound with the Ï. ley. 4<sup>17</sup> (Pr. 27<sup>21</sup>). But there the Vss. read the participle; and so IG must have done here: Maylēyîl = rîyînî, i.e. 'Praising God.' Proper names com-
pounded with a ptcp. are rare and late in OT (see Dri. Sam. 14<sup>2</sup>; Gray, HPN, 201), but are common in Assyrian. Nestle's inference that the genealogy must be late (MM, 7 f.) is not certain, because the word might have been borrowed, or first borrowed and then hebraized: Hommel conjectures (not very plausibly) that it is a corruption of Amil-
Arûrû in the list of Berossus (see AOD, 29). 'b is found as a personal or family name in Neh. 11<sup>4</sup>—18–20. Yêred (1 Ch. 4<sup>18</sup>) would signify in Heb. 'Descent'; hence the Jewish legend that in his days the angels descended to the earth (Gen. 6<sup>1</sup>); cf. Jub. iv. 15; En. vi. 6, cvi. 13. On Bu.'s interpretation, see p. 129 above. The question whether rî or rû, be the older form must be left open. Hommel (30) traces both to an original Babylonian 'I-yarad = 'descent of fire.'

21–24. The account of Enoch contains three extraordinary features: (a) The twice repeated 22. ùta^lita*n—*lenttay] Or evêrhoia*on 75 76 (Erh- adds kal elyoa'benh 'Ewoh), 23. ^a^etp^etxeta, X [S] cut-y —, CO 'w aîthnêdâ 76: Aq. and F render literally. The art. before 'k is unusual in P (see 60. 11). The phrase must have been taken from a traditional source, and may retain an unobserved trace of the original polytheism ('with the gods').—23. Yîh] Rd Ya'âh (MSS, MG, etc.)—24. ìmâa] indicating mysterious disappearance (37<sup>22</sup> 42<sup>18</sup> 82; 86 [E] 1 Ki. 20<sup>40</sup>); see G-K. § 152 m.—nî] Or metêdêkun,
mysteriously translated 'so as not to see death' (He. 11). Though the influence of this narrative on the idea of immortality in later ages is not to be denied (cf. Ps. 4910 7324), it is hardly correct to speak of it as containing a presentiment of that idea. The immortality of exceptional men of God like Enoch and Elijah suggested no inference as to the destiny of ordinary mortals, any more than did similar beliefs among other nations (Gu.). (c) His life is much the shortest of the ante-diluvian patriarchs. It has long been surmised that the duration of his life (365 years) is connected with the number of days in the solar year; and the conjecture has been remarkably verified by the Babylonian parallel mentioned below.

The extraordinary developments of the Enoch-legend in later Judaism (see below) could never have grown out of this passage alone; everything goes to show that the record has a mythological basis, which must have continued to be a living tradition in Jewish circles in the time of the Apocalyptic writers. A clue to the mystery that invests the figure of Enoch has been discovered in Babylonian literature. The 7th name in the list of Berossus is Evedoranchus (see KAT7, 532),—a corruption (it seems certain) of Enmeduranki, who is mentioned in a ritual tablet from the library of Asshurbanipal (K 2486 + K 4364: translated in KAT7, 533 f.) as king of Sippar (city of Šamaš, the sun-god), and founder of a hereditary guild of priestly diviners. This mythical personage is described as a 'favourite of Anu, Bel [and Ea],' and is said to have been received into the fellowship of Šamaš and Ramman, to have been initiated into the mysteries of heaven and earth, and instructed in certain arts of divination which he handed down to his son. The points of contact with the notice in Gen. are (1) the special relation of Enmeduranki to the sun-god (cf. the 365 of v.22); and (2) his peculiar intimacy with the gods ('walked with God'); there is, however, no mention of a translation. His initiation into the secrets of heaven and earth is the germ of the later view of Enoch as the patron of esoteric knowledge, and the author of Apocalyptic books. In Sir. 4418 he is already spoken of as רתיירל ים. Comp. Jub. iv. 17 ff. (with Charles's note ad loc.); and see Lenorm. Orig.2 223; Charles, Book of Enoch (1893), pass.

25-27. Methuselah.—והות commonly explained as 'man of the dart (or weapon),' hence tropically 'man of violence,' which Budde (99)

*U tilit, but תולית. The vb. became, as Duhm (on Ps. 4910) thinks, a technical expression for translation to a higher existence; cf. 2 Ki. 210, Ps. 4910 7324. The Rabbinical exegesis (תלית, Ber. R., Ra.) understood it of removal by death, implying an unfavourable judgment on Enoch which may be due in part to the reaction of legalism against the Apocalyptic influence.
regards as a deliberate variation of ḫanāh (418) intended to suggest the wickedness of the later generations before the Flood (see above, p. 129). Lenormant (247) took it as a designation of Saggittarius, the 9th sign of the Zodiac; according to Hommel, it means ‘sein Mann ist das Geschoss’ (!), and is connected with the planet Mars. If the 8th name in the list of Berossus be rightly rendered ‘man of Sin (the moon-god),’ a more probable view would be that ḫānâ is a divine proper name. Hommel, indeed, at one time regarded it as a corruption of ṣarrâhû, said to be an ancient name of the moon-god (cf. Cheyne, *EB*, 625, 4412).—28–31. Lamech.—The scheme is here interrupted by the insertion of v.

29. An extract from J, preserving an oracle uttered by Lamech on the birth of Noah.—*This (Hî; cf. ḫâ in 228) shall bring us comfort from our labour, and from the toil of our hands [proceeding] from the ground, etc.* The utterance seems to breathe the same melancholy and sombre view of life which we recognise in the Paradise narrative; and Di. rightly calls attention to the contrast in character between the Lamech of this v. and the truculent bravo of 423f.

There is an obvious reference backwards to 317 (cf. הֲנַעְנָא, הַעֲנָא—הַעֲנָא). The forward reference cannot be to the Flood (which certainly brought no comfort to the generation for whom Lamech spoke), but to Noah’s discovery of vine-culture: 920ff. (Bu. 306ff. al.). This is true even if the hero of the Flood and the discoverer of wine were traditionally

27. After гласי נגמֶכֶסֶה נ. as הֲנַעְנָא (cf. v. 5).—29. והֶנֶּנֶּנְּנַהוֹוֹת] נ. diαναπάωνος ἡμᾶς: hence Ball, Ki. ῶημᾶς. The emendation is attractive on two grounds: (a) it yields an easier construction with the following ṣ; and (b) a more correct etymology of the name ṣ. The harshness of the etymology was felt by Jewish authorities (Ber. R. § 25; cf. Ra.); and We. (*Degen. 38*) boldly suggested that ṣ in this v. is a contracted writing of פcdn = ‘comforter.’—Whether פcdn (always written defectively) be really connected with פcdn = ‘rest’ is very uncertain. If a Heb. name, it will naturally signify ‘rest,’ but we cannot assume that a name presumably so ancient is to be explained from the Heb. lexicon. The views mentioned by Di. (p. 116) are very questionable. Goldziher (*ZDMG*, xxv. 207ff.) shows that in medieaval times it was explained by Arab writers from Ar. nakhâ, ‘to wail’; but that is utterly improbable.—*网约* Some MSS and י. have יָנִו (pl.); so נ, etc.

* AOD [1902], 29. Here Amemphsinus is resolved into Amel-Nisin: formerly (*PSBA*, xv. [1892-3] 245) Hommel propounded the view now advocated by Zimmern (see next note).
† Zimmern, *KA* 74, 532.
‡ Aufs. u. Abh. ii [1900] 222. Cheyne (l.c.) relies on the fact that šârû (‘all-powerful’) is an epithet of various gods (De. *Hdbw*. 690 a).
one person; but the connexion becomes doubly significant in view of
the evidence that the two figures were distinct, and belong to different
strata of the J document. Di.'s objection, that a biblical writer would
not speak of wine as a comfort under the divine curse, has little force:
see Ju. 9, Ps. 104. — In virtue of its threefold connexion with the
story of the Fall, the Sethite genealogy of J, and the incident of 9, the
v. has considerable critical importance. It furnishes a clue to the dis-
entanglement of a strand of Yahwistic narrative in which these sections
formed successive stages.—The fragment is undoubtedly rhymic, and
has assonances which suggest rhyme; but nothing definite can be said
of its metrical structure (perhaps 3 short lines of 3 pulses each).

32. The abnormal age of Noah at the birth of his first-
born is explained by the consideration that his age at the
Flood was a fixed datum (7-11), as was also the fact that
no grandchildren of Noah were saved in the ark. The
chronologist, therefore, had to assign an excessive lateness
either to the birth of Shem, or to the birth of Shem's
first-born.

I. The Chronology of Ch. 5.—In this chapter we have the first instance
of systematic divergence between the three chief recensions, the Heb., the
Samaritan, and the LXX. The differences are best exhibited in tabular form as follows (after Holzinger):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MT.</th>
<th>Sam. (Jub.)</th>
<th>LXX.</th>
<th>Year (A.M.) of Death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Adam</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Seth</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>807</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Enos</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>905</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Kenan</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mahalalel</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Jered</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>962</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Enoch</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Methuselah</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>782</td>
<td>969</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Lamech</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>777</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Noah</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>....</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Till the Flood</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>....</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of the Flood</td>
<td>1656</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>....</td>
<td>1307</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* So Gr. G and other MSS have 187:782; but this is a later correction.
These differences are certainly not accidental. They are due to carefully constructed artificial systems of chronology; and the business of criticism is first to ascertain the principles on which the various schemes are based, and then to determine which of them represents the original chronology of the Priestly Code. That problem has never been satisfactorily solved; and all that can be done here is to indicate the more important lines of investigation along which the solution has been sought.

1. Commencing with the MT, we may notice (a) the remarkable relation discovered by Oppert* between the figures of the biblical account and those of the list of Berossus (see the next note). The Chaldean chronology reckons from the Creation to the Flood 432,000 years, the MT 1656 years. These are in the ratio (as nearly as possible) of 5 solar years (of 365 4 days) to 1 week. We might, therefore, suppose the Heb. chronologist to have started from the Babylonian system, and to have reduced it by treating each *lustrum* (5 years) as the equivalent of a Heb. week. Whether this result be more than a very striking coincidence it is perhaps impossible to say. (b) A widely accepted hypothesis is that of von Gutschmid,† who pointed out that, according to the Masoretic chronology, the period from the Creation to the Exodus is 2666 years:‡ i.e. 26 3/4 generations of 100 years, or 3 of a world-cycle of 4000 years. The subdivisions of the period also show signs of calculation: the duration of the Egyptian sojourn was probably traditional; half as long (215 years) is assigned to the sojourn of the patriarchs in Canaan: from the Flood to the birth of Abraham, and from the latter event to the descent into Egypt are two equal periods of 290 years each, leaving 1666 years from the Creation to the Flood.

(c) A more intricate theory has been propounded by Bousset (*ZATW*, xx. 136–147). Working on lines marked out by Kuenen (*Abhandlungen*, tr. by Budde, 108 ff.), he shows, from a comparison of 4 Esd. 5:30ff. 10:45ff., *Jos. Ant.* viii. 61 f., x. 147 f., and *Ass. Mosis*, 1:10 ff., that a chronological computation current in Jewish circles placed the establishment of the Temple ritual in A.M. 3001, the Exodus in 2501, the migration of Abraham in 2071; and divided this last interval into an Ante-diluvian and Post-diluvian period in the ratio of 4 : 1 (1656 : 414 years). Further, that this system differed from MT only in the following particulars:

For the birth year of Terah (Gn. 11:26) it substituted (with G and m) 79 for 29; with the same authorities it assumed 215 (instead of 430) years as the duration of the Egyptian sojourn (Ex. 12:40); and, finally, it dated the dedication of the Temple 20 years after its foundation (as 1 Ki. 6:1). For the details of the scheme, see the art. cited above.

* GGN, 1877, 201–223; also his art. in *Jewish Enc.* iv. 66 f.
† See *Nö. Unters.* 111 ff.; *We. Prol.* 6, 308.
‡ Made up as follows:—1656 + 290 (Flood to birth of Abraham: see the Table on p. 233) + 100 (birth of Isaac: Gn. 21:5) + 60 (birth of Jacob: 25°) + 130 (age of Jacob at Descent to Egypt: 47°:28) + 430 (sojourn in Egypt: Ex. 12:40) = 2666.—The number of generations from Adam to Aaron is actually 26, the odd 3/4 stands for Eleazar, who was of mature age at the time of the Exodus.
These results, impressive as they are, really settle nothing as to the priority of the MT. It would obviously be illegitimate to conclude that of $b$ and $c$ one must be right and the other wrong, or that that which is preferred must be the original system of P. The natural inference is that both were actually in use in the first cent. A.D., and that consequently the text was in a fluid condition at that time. A presumption in favour of MT would be established only if it could be shown that the numbers of $\mu$ and $\xi$ are either dependent on MT, or involve no chronological scheme at all.

2. The Sam. Vn. has 1307 years from the Creation to the Flood. It has been pointed out that if we add the 2 years of Gn. 11\(^{10}\), we obtain from the Creation to the birth of Arpachshad 187\(\times\)7 years; and it is pretty obvious that this reckoning by year-weeks was in the mind of the writer of Jub. (see p. 233 f.). It is worth noting also that if we assume MT of Ex. 12\(^{40}\) to be the original reading (as the form of the sentence renders almost certain), we find that $\mu$ counts from the Creation to the entrance into Canaan 3007 years.\(^*\) The odd 7 is embarrassing; but if we neglect it (see Bousset, 146) we obtain a series of round numbers whose relations can hardly be accidental. The entire period was to be divided into three decreasing parts (1300 + 940 + 760 = 3000) by the Flood and the birth of Abraham; and of these the second exceeds the third by 180 years, and the first exceeds the second by (2\(\times\)180 =) 360. Shem was born in 1200 A.M., and Jacob in 2400. Since the work of P closed with the settlement in Canaan, is it not possible that this was his original chronological period; and that the systems of MT (as explained by von Gutschmid and Bousset) are due to redactional changes intended to adapt the figures to a wider historical survey? A somewhat important objection to the originality of $\mu$ is, however, the disparity between ch. 5 and 11\(^{10}\)\textsuperscript{ff.} with regard to the ages at the birth of the first-born.

3. A connexion between $\xi$ and $\mu$ is suggested by the fact that the first period of $\xi$ (2242) is practically equivalent to the first two of $\mu$ (1300 + 940 = 2240), though it does not appear on which side the dependence is. Most critics have been content to say that the $\xi$ figures are enhancements of those of MT in order to bring the biblical chronology somewhat nearer to the stupendous systems of Egypt or Chaldaea. That is not probable; though it does not seem possible to discover any distinctive principle of calculation in $\xi$. Klostermann (NKZ, v. 208-247 [=Pent. (1907) 1-41]), who defends the priority of $\xi$, finds in it a reckoning by jubilee periods of 49 years; but his results, which are sufficiently ingenious, are attained by rather violent and arbitrary handling of the data. Thus, in order to adjust the ante-diluvian list to his theory, he has to reject the 600 years from the birth of Noah to the Flood, and substitute the 120 years of Gn. 6\(^{31}\) This reduces the reckoning of $\xi$ to 1762 years, and, adding 2 years for the Flood, we obtain 1764 = 3\(\times\)12\(\times\)49.

See, further, on 11\(^{10}\)\textsuperscript{ff.} (p. 234 f.).

\(^*\) 1307 + 940 (see p. 233) + 290 (as before) + 430 + 40 = 3007.
II. The Ten Ante-diluvian Kings of Berossus.—The number ten occurs with singular persistency in the traditions of many peoples* as that of the kings or patriarchs who reigned or lived in the mythical age which preceded the dawn of history. The Babylonian form of this tradition is as yet known only from a passage of Berossus extracted by Apollodorus and Abydenus; † although there are allusions to it in the inscriptions which encourage the hope that the cuneiform original may yet be discovered.‡ Meanwhile, the general reliability of Berossus is such, that scholars are naturally disposed to attach considerable importance to any correspondence that can be made out between his list and the names in Gn. 5. A detailed analysis was first published by Hommel in 1893,§ another was given by Sayce in 1899.|| The first-named writer has subsequently abandoned some of his earlier proposals,¶ substituting others which are equally tentative; and while some of his combinations are regarded as highly problematical, others have been widely approved.**

The names of the Kings before the Flood in Berossus are: 1. Ἀλώρος, 2. Ἀλάπαρος, 3. Ἀμήλων [Ἀμίλλαρος], 4. Ἀμέλεων, 5. Μεγάλαρος [Μεγάλανος], 6. Δάνων [Δάνος], 7. Εὐδεδώραχος, 8. Αμέρσιφων, 9. Ητιάργης [Ρδ. Ωτάργης], 10. Εἰσούθρος. Of the suggested Bab. equivalents put forward by Hommel, the following are accepted as fairly well established by Je. and (with the exception of No. 1) by Zimmern: 1. Aruru (see p. 102), 2. Adapa (p. 126), 3. Amelu (= Man), 4. Ummansu (= 'workman'), 7. Enmeduranki (p. 132), 8. Amel-Sin (p. 133), 9. Ubar-Tutu (named as father of Ut-Napištim), and 10. Ḥasisatra, or Atraḫasis (= 'the superlatively Wise,'—a title applied to Ut-Napištim, the hero of the Deluge). On comparing this selected list with the Heb. genealogy, it is evident that, as Zimmern remarks, the Heb. name is in no case borrowed directly from the Bab. In two cases, however, there seems to be a connexion which must be explained by a translation from the one language into the other: viz. 3. Ἄρος (= Man), and 4. Ὄρος (= 'workman'); while 8 is in both series a compound of which the first element means 'Man.' The parallel between 7. Ἐνμεδουράκι and Enmeduranki, has already been noted (p. 132); and the 10th name is in both cases that of the hero of the Flood. Slight as these coincidences are, it is a mistake to minimise their significance. When we have two parallel lists of equal length, each terminating with the hero of the Flood, each having the name for 'man' in the 3rd place and a special favourite of the gods in the 7th, it is too much to ask us to dismiss the correspondence as fortuitous. The historical connexion between the two traditions is still

* Babylonians, Persians, Indians, Phœnicians, Egyptians, Chinese, etc. See Lüken, Traditionen, 146 ff.; Lenorm. Orig. i. 224 ff.
‡ See Je. ATLO, 221 ff.
§ PSBA, xv. 243–246.
¶ AOD [1902], 23 ff.
obscure, and is complicated by the double genealogy of ch. 4; but that a connexion exists it seems unreasonable to deny.

III. Relation of the Sethite and Cainite Genealogies.—The substantial identity of the names in Gn. 4[1-7]18 with Nos. 3-9 of ch. 5 seems to have been first pointed out by Buttmann (Mythologus, i. 170 ff.) in 1828, and is now universally recognised by scholars. A glance at the following table shows that each name in the Cainite series corresponds to a name in the other, which is either absolutely the same, or is the same in meaning, or varies but slightly in form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sethite</th>
<th>Cainite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 'Ādām</td>
<td>'Ādām (Man)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Šēth</td>
<td>Kāyīn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 'Ēnōš (Man)</td>
<td>Hānōkh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Kēnān</td>
<td>'Īrād</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mahālāqēl</td>
<td>Mēḥûyā'ēl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Yēred</td>
<td>Mēthū-ša-ēl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Hānōkh</td>
<td>Lēmekh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Méthū-šālaḥ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Lēmekh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Nōāḥ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While these resemblances undoubtedly point to some common original, the variations are not such as can be naturally accounted for by direct borrowing of the one list from the other. The facts that each list is composed of a perfect number, and that with the last member the single stem divides into three branches, rather imply that both forms were firmly established in tradition before being incorporated in the biblical documents. If we had to do merely with the Hebrew tradition, the easiest supposition would perhaps be that the Cainite genealogy and the kernel of the Sethite are variants of a single original which might have reached Israel through different channels; * that the latter had been expanded by the addition of two names at the beginning and one at the end, so as to bring it into line with the story of the Flood, and the Babylonian genealogy with which it was linked. The difficulty of this hypothesis arises from the curious circumstance that in the Berossian list of kings, just as in the Sethite list of patriarchs, the name for 'Man' occupies the third place. It is extremely unlikely

* Hommel's view (AOD, 29 f.) is that the primary list was Chaldean, that the Sethite list most nearly represents this original, and that the Cainite springs from a modification of it under Babylonian influence. It would be quite as plausible to suggest that the Cainite form came through Phoenicia (see the notes on Jabal, Tubal, and Na'amah), and the Sethite from Arabia (Enos, Kenan, Hanokh [?], Methuselah).
that such a coincidence should be accidental; and the question comes to be whether the Assyriologists or the biblical critics can produce the most convincing explanation of it. Now Hommel (AOD, 26 ff.) argues that if the word for Man is preceded by two others, these others must have been names of superhuman beings; and he thinks that his interpretation of the Bab. names bears out this anticipation. The first, Aruru, is the creative earth-goddess, and the second, Adapa (=Marduk) is a sort of Logos or Demiurge—a being intermediate between gods and men, who bears elsewhere the title sir amiluti ('seed of mankind') but is not himself a man.* And the same thing must, he considers, hold good of Adam and Seth: Adam should be read Qf, a personification of the earth, and Seth is a mysterious semi-divine personality who was regarded even in Jewish tradition as an incarnation of the Messiah. If these somewhat hazardous combinations be sound, then, of course, the inference must be accepted that the Sethite genealogy is dependent on the Bab. original of Berossus, and the Cainite can be nothing but a mutilated version of it. It is just conceivable, however, that the Bab. list is itself a secondary modification of a more primitive genealogy, which passed independently into Heb. tradition.†

VI. 1-4.—The Origin of the Nêphilim.

This obscure and obviously fragmentary narrative relates how in the infancy of the human race marriage alliances were believed to have been formed by supernatural beings with mortal women (vv.1, 2); and how from these unnatural unions there arose a race of heroes or demi-gods (v.4), who must have figured largely in Hebrew folklore. It is implied, though not expressly said, that the existence of such beings, intermediate between the divine and the human, introduced

* But against this interpretation of the phrase, see Jen. KIB, vi. 1, 362.
† Thus, it might be conjectured that the original equivalent of Aruru was not Adam but Havvah, as earth and mother-goddess (see pp. 85 f., 102), and that this name stood at the head of the list. That in the process of eliminating the mythological element Havvah should in one version become the wife, in another remain the mother, of the first man (Adam or Enoš), is perfectly intelligible; and an amalgamation of these views would account for the duplication of Adam-Enos in 4smf. 5. The insertion of a link (Seth-Adapa) between the divine ancestress and the first man is a difficulty; but it might be due to a survival of the old Semitic conception of mother and son as associated deities (Rob. Sm. KM3, 298 ff.). It is obvious that no great importance can be attached to such guesses, which necessarily carry us back far beyond the range of authentic tradition.
an element of disorder into the Creation which had to be checked by the special interposition of Yahwe (v. 3).

The fragment belongs to the class of ætiological myths. The belief in Nephilim is proved only by Nu. 13 (E 3); but it is there seen to have been associated with a more widely attested tradition of a race of giants surviving into historic times, especially among the aboriginal populations of Canaan (Dt. 2; 10. 11. 21 9, Jos. 15 14, Am. 2 9 etc.). The question was naturally asked how such beings came to exist, and the passage before us supplied the answer. But while the ætiological motive may explain the retention of the fragment in Gn., it is not to be supposed that the myth originated solely in this reflection. Its pagan colouring is too pronounced to permit of its being dissociated from two notions prevalent in antiquity and familiar to us from Greek and Latin literature: viz. (1) that among the early inhabitants of the earth were men of gigantic stature; * and (2) that marriages of the gods with mortals were not only possible but common in the heroic age. † Similar ideas were current among other peoples. The Koran has frequent references to the peoples of 'Ad and Thamûd, primæval races noted for their giant stature and their daring impiety, to whom were attributed the erection of lofty buildings and the excavation of rock-dwellings, and who were believed to have been destroyed by a divine judgment. ‡ The legend appears also in the Phœnician traditions of Sanchuniathon, where it is followed by an obscure allusion to promiscuous sexual intercourse which appears to have some remote connexion with Gn. 6 8.

That the source is J is not disputed. || Di., indeed, following Schrader (Einl. 276), thinks it an extract from E which had passed through the hands of J; but borrowing by the original J from the other source is impossible, and the only positive trace of E would be the word אבוש, which in Nu. 13 is by some critics assigned to E. That argument would at most prove overworking, and it is too slight to be considered.

—The precise position of the fragment among the Yahwistic traditions.

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* Hom. II. v. 302 f.; Herod. i. 68; Paus. i. 35. 5 f., viii. 29. 3; 32. 4; Lucret. ii. 1151; Virg. Aen. xii. 900; Pliny, HV, vii. 73 ff. etc. Cf. Lenorm. Orig. 2 i. 350 ff.
† Hom. II. xii. 23: ἡμιθέων γένος ἄνδρων; Plato, Cratylus, 33: πάντες [sc. οἱ ἄθροι] δήπου γεγυμένων ἔρασθέντος ἦ θεὸς θνητὴς ἦ θνητοῦ θεᾶς (text uncertain); see Jowett, i. 341.
§ Euseb. Præp. Ev. i. 10 (see p. 124 above): ἀπὸ γένους Ἀλὼνος καὶ Πρωτογένους γεννηθῆναι αὖθις πάιδας θνητοὶ, οίς εἶναι ὀνόματα Φῶς καὶ Πῦρ καὶ Φάτ . . . υἱὸς δὲ ἐγένεται οὖσιν μεγέθει τε καὶ ὑπεροχῇ κρείσσονας . . . ἐκ τούτων, φησιν, ἐγεννηθῆ Σαμμυροῖος ὁ καὶ 'Τυψαράνιος' ἀπὸ μητέρων δὲ, φησιν, ἐχθριατίζον τῶν τύπων γυναικῶν ἀνέθην μισογομένων οἷς ἐν ἐννιάχουαν.
|| The literary indications are not absolutely decisive (except נָשִׁי, v. 6); but the following expressions, as well as the structure of the sentences (in v. 14), are, on the whole, characteristic of J: יְהֻוֹ, יְהֻנָּם יַעֲשֶׂה (1), יִירָגָר, יַעֲשֶׂה (4): see Bu. Urgesch. 6 ff., 39 A.
cannot be determined. The introductory clause "when mankind began to multiply," etc., suggests that it was closely preceded by an account of the creation of man. There is, however, no reason why it should not have followed a genealogy like that of 417-21 or 428f. (against Ho.), though certainly not that of P in ch. 5. The idea that it is a parallel to the story of the Fall in ch. 3 (Schr. Di. We. Schultz) has little plausibility, though it would be equally rash to affirm that it presupposes such an account.—The disconnectedness of the narrative is probably due to drastic abridgment either by the original writer or later editors, to whom its crudely mythological character was objectionable, and who were interested in retaining no more than was needful to account for the origin of the giants.

There remains the question whether the passage was from the first an introduction to the story of the Deluge. That it has been so regarded from a very early time is a natural result of its present position. But careful examination fails to confirm that impression. The passage contains nothing to suggest the Flood as its sequel, except on the supposition (which we shall see to be improbable) that the 120 years of v.5 refer to an impending judgment on the whole human race. Even if that view were more plausible than it is, it would still be remarkable that the story of the Flood makes no reference to the expiry of the allotted term; nor to any such incident as is here recorded. The critical probability, therefore, is that 6-14 belongs to a stratum of J which knows nothing of a flood (p. 2 ff.). The Babylonian Flood-legend also is free from any allusion to giants, or mingling of gods and men. O. Gruppe, however (Philologus, Neue Folge, i. 93 ff.; ZATW, ix. 134 ff.), claims to have recovered from Greek sources a Phoenician legend of intermarriages between deities and mortals, which presents some striking affinities with Gn. 6-4, and which leads up to an account of the Flood. Of the soundness of Gruppe's combinations I am unable to judge; but he himself admits that the Flood is a late importation into Greek mythology, and indeed he instances the passage before us as the earliest literary trace of the hypothetical Phoenician legend. Even, therefore, if his speculations be valid, it would have to be considered whether the later form of the myth may not have been determined partly by Jewish influence, and whether the connexion between the divine intermarriages and the Flood does not simply reproduce the sequence of events given in Gn. That this is not inconceivable is shown by the fact that on late Phrygian coins the biblical name נ kull appears as that of the hero of the Deluge (see p. 180 below).

I, 2. The sense of these vv. is perfectly clear. The sons of God (הנושאים) are everywhere in OT members (but probably inferior members) of the divine order, or (using the word with some freedom) angels (v.i.).
"The angels are not called 'sons of God' as if they had actually derived their nature from Him as a child from its father; nor in a less exact way, because though created they have received a nature similar to God's, being spirits; nor yet as if on account of their steadfast holiness they had been adopted into the family of God. These ideas are not found here. The name Elohim or sons (i.e. members of the race) of the Elohim is a name given directly to angels in contrast with men... the name is given to God and angels in common; He is Elohim pre-eminently, they are Elohim in an inferior sense" (Davidson, Job, Camb. Bible, p. 6).

In an earlier polytheistic recension of the myth, they were perhaps called נֵפְיָלִים simply. It is only a desire to save the credibility of the record as literal history, that has prompted the untenable interpretations mentioned in the note below.—2. These superhuman beings, attracted by the beauty of the daughters of men (i.e. mortal women) took to themselves as wives (strictly implying permanent marriages, but this must not be pressed) whomsoever they chose. No sin is imputed to mankind or to their daughters

Ho. Eiml. 97.—השערים יתעלמו] see Oxf. Hex. i. 187.—2. נֵפְיָלִים[ת] יתעלמו] Jb. 1^ \(2^1\ 36^1, [Dn. 3^2]; \) cf. נֵפְיָלִים, Ps. 29\(^1\ 89^f\). In all these places the superhuman character of the beings denoted is evident,—'belonging to the category of the gods.' On this Semitic use of \(2\), see Rob. Sm. KM\(^3\), 17; Pr.\(^3\ 85, 389f.\) (i) The phrase is so understood by \(\xi\) (οι γεγελοι [also νολ] οὺ ϑεῶν), \(\Theta\), Jud. v. 1, En. vi. 2\(\text{ff.} \) (Jude 8, 2 Pe. 2), Jos. Ant. i. 73; Fathers down to Cyprian and Lactantius, and nearly all moderns. [\(\xi\) transliterates נפליים as in Jb. 1\(^{2,1}\).] (2) Amongst the Jews this view was early displaced by another, according to which the 'sons of the gods' are members of aristocratic families in distinction from women of humble rank: \(\xi\) (ἁγγελοι νεκροί), \(\Sigma\) (τὸ διαστημονωτέρω), Ber. R., Ra. IEz. [Aqu. (οι τὸ δὲων) is explained by Jer. as 'deos intelligens sanctos sive angelos']. So Spinoza, Herder, al. (3) The prevalent Christian interpretation (on the rise of which see Charles's valuable Note, B. of Jud. 33\(\text{ff.}\)) has been to take the phrase in an ethical sense as denoting pious men of the line of Seth:Jul. Afr., most Fathers, Luth., Calv. al.: still maintained by Strack. Against both these last explanations it is decisive that נֵפְיָלִים cannot have a narrower reference in v.\(^2\) than in v.\(^1\); and that consequently נב cannot denote a section of mankind. For other arguments, see Lenormant, Orig.\(^2\ 291\text{ff.}; \) the Comm. of De. (146\text{ff.}), Di. (119\text{ff.}), or Dri. (82\text{ff.}). On the eccentric theory of Stuart Poole, that the sons of God were a wicked pre-Adamite race, see Lenorm. 304\(\text{ff.} \) בֵּן אָדָם ... רֹאשֶׁת = 'marry': 4\(^1\ 11^2\ 25^1\ 36^2\) etc.—בֵּן אָדָם 'consisting of all whom;'—the rare יד of explication; BDB, s.v. 3b (e); cf. G-K. § 119 \(\text{w}^\text{4}\): Gn. 7\(^2\) 9\(^3\).
in these relations. The guilt is wholly on the side of the angels; and consists partly, perhaps, in sensuality, partly in high-handed disregard of the rights of God's lower creatures.—It is to be noted, in contrast with analogous heathen myths, that the divine element is exclusively masculine.

3. A divine sentence on the human race, imposing a limit on the term of man's life.—My spirit shall not

3. ἔτι [G] Kόρος ὀ θεός.—[ἵν] There are two traditional interpretations: (a) 'abide': so G (καταμείνα), ἹΣΕΤ; (b) 'judge' (Σ. κριεῖν: so τῇ). The former is perhaps nothing more than a plausible guess at the meaning, though a variant text has been suspected (ἵν' ἔρν', ἵν', etc.). The latter traces the form to the √ἵν'; but the etymology is doubtful, since that shows no trace of med. in Heb. (Nö. ZDMG, xxxvii. 533 f.) and to call it a juss. or intrans. form is an abuse of grammatical language (see G–K. § 71 r). A Jewish derivation, mentioned by IEZ. and Calv., connects the vb. with ἵν', 'sheath' (1 Ch. 21:27),—the body being compared to the sheath of the spirit. The Ar. dāna (med. w)= 'be humbled' or 'degraded,' yields but a tolerable sense (Tu. Ew. al.); the Egypt. Ar. dāna, which means 'to do a thing continually' (Socin; see G–B. s.v.), would suit the context well, but can hardly be the same word. Volland (ZA, xiv. 349 ff.) derives it from √ἵν, Ass. dandānu= 'be powerful'; the idea being that the life-giving spirit shall no longer have the same force as formerly, etc. It would be still better if the vb. could be taken as a denominative from Ass. dinānu, 'bodily appearance,' with the sense 'shall not be embodied in man for ever.'—ἔτι [G] ἐν τοῖς ἀνθρώποις τοῦτοι σώματα, whence Klostermann restores άνθρώπους σώματα, 'this humanity,' as distinguished from that originally created,—an impossible exegesis, whose sole advantage is that it gives a meaning to the ω in ευσάλεον (v.i.).—ἔτι (thus separated) here = 'not ... for ever,' as Jer. 3:19, La. 3:31; elsewhere (Ps. 15:5 etc.) the phrase means 'never.'—ἔτι so pointed in the majority of MSS, is inf. const. of ἔστι, 'err,' with suff. This sense is adopted by many (Tu. Ew. Bu. Ho. al.), but it can hardly be right. If we refer the suff. to ευσάλεον, the enallage numeri ('through their erring he is flesh') would be harsh, and the idea expressed unsuitable. If we refer it to the angels, we can avoid an absurdity only by disregarding the accents and joining the word with what precedes: 'shall not (abide?) in man for ever on account of their (the angels') erring; he is flesh, and,' etc. The sentence is doubly bad in point of style: the first member is overloaded at the end by the emphatic word; and the second opens awkwardly without a connecting part. Moreover, it is questionable if the idea of ἔστι (inadvertent transgression) is appropriate in the connexion. Margoliouth (Expositor, 1898, ii. 33 ff.) explains the obscure

* Already proposed by Egli (cited by Bu.).
[...] man for ever; [...] he is flesh, and his days shall be 120 years.

A complete exegesis of these words is impossible, owing first to the obscurity of certain leading expressions (see the footnote), and second to the want of explicit connexion with what precedes. The record has evidently undergone serious mutilation. The original narrative must have contained a statement of the effects on human life produced by the superhuman alliances,—and that opens up a wide field of speculation;*—and possibly also an account of the judgment on the sons of God, the really guilty parties in the transaction. In default of this guidance, all that can be done is to determine as nearly as possible the general sense of the v., assuming the text to be fairly complete, and a real connexion to exist with vv.1,2,—(i.) Everything turns on the meaning of the word נני, of which four interpretations have been given: (1) That נני is the Spirit of Yahwe as an ethical principle, striving against and 'judging' the prevalent corruption of men (as in Is. 6318); so ΣΤ, Luther, al. There is nothing to suggest that view except the particular acceptance of the vb. נני associated with it, and it is now practically abandoned. (2) Even less admissible is the conception of Klostermann, who understands נני subjectively of the divine feeling (Gemüt) excited by human sin† (similarly Ra.). (3) The commonest view in modern times (see Di.) has been that נני is the divine principle

word by Aeth. shegâ = 'body'; but the proposed rendering, 'inasmuch as their body (or substance) is flesh,' is not grammatically admissible. The correct Mass. reading is דַּוִּפְצ (i.e. דַ+ו+ז) = inasmuch as he too. The objections to this are (a) that the rel. ו is never found in Pent., and is very rare in the older literature (Ju. 57 6177 128), while compounds like ז do not appear before Eccl. (e.g. 216); and (b) that the ז has no force, there being nothing which serves as a contrast to נני. We. observes that ז must represent a causal particle and possibly nothing more. The old translators, ג (דַּוִּפְצ תד וּלְיָלָא אַדְרוֹבָה) שבַּוִּנ seen to have been of the same opinion; and it is noticeable that none of them attempt to reproduce the ז. The conjectures of Ols. (דַּוִּפְצ), Cheyne (ףַּדְלָא מְלֶפֶשְפֶא), and others are all beside the mark. נני יִם יִם The only natural reference is to the (maximum) term of human life (so Jos. Tu. Ew. and most since), a man's ז; being a standing expression for his lifetime, reckoning from his birth (see ch. 5. 3538 Is. 6520 etc.). The older view (שבַּוִּנ), Jer. Ra. IEz. Calv. al.: so 'De. Klost.,' that the clause indicates the interval that was to elapse before the Flood, was naturally suggested by the present position of the passage, and was supported by the consideration that greater ages were subsequently attained by many of the patriarchs. But these statements belong to P, and decide nothing as to the meaning of the words in J.

* Comp. Cheyne's imaginary restoration in EB, 3391, with the reconstructed Phœnician myth of Gruppe in Philologus, 1889, i. 100ff.
† Reading נני נני יִם, 'shall not restrain itself' (lit. 'be silent'). See NKZ, 1894, 234ff. (= Pent. [1907] 28ff.).
of life implanted in man at creation, the tenor of the decree being that this shall not 'abide' * in man eternally or indefinitely, but only in such measure as to admit a maximum life of 120 years. There are two difficulties in this interpretation: (a) It has no connexion with what precedes, for everything the v. contains would be quite as intelligible apart from the marriages with the angels as in relation to them.† (b) The following words  נָ֣זְר מָנָּה have no meaning: as a reason for the withdrawal of the animating spirit they involve a hyster{on proteron}; and as an independent statement they are (on the supposition) not true, man as actually constituted being both flesh and spirit (2'). (4) The most probable sense is that given by We, (Comp. 305 ff.), viz. that מָנָה is the divine substance common to Yahwe and the angels, in contrast to נַשֵּׁפָה, which is the element proper to human nature (cf. Is. 31'): so Ho. Gu. The idea will then be that the mingling of the divine and human substances brought about by illicit sexual unions has introduced a disorder into the creation which Yahwe cannot suffer to 'abide' permanently, but resolves to end by an exercise of His supreme power. —(ii.) We have next to consider whether the 120 years, taken in its natural sense of the duration of individual life (v.i.), be consistent with the conclusion just reached. We, himself thinks that it is not: the fusion of the divine and human elements would be propagated in the race, and could not be checked by a shortening of the lives of individuals. The context requires an announcement of the annihilation of the race, and the last clause of the v. must be a mistaken gloss on the first. If this argument were sound it would certainly supply a strong reason either for revising We.'s acceptation of 38, or for understanding 39 as an announcement of the Flood. But a shortening of the term of life, though not a logical corollary from the sin of the angels, might nevertheless be a judicial sentence upon it. It would ensure the extinction of the giants within a measurable time; and indirectly impose a limit on the new intellectual powers which we may suppose to have accrued to mankind at large through union with angelic beings.‡ In view of the defective character of the narrative, it would be unwise to press the antagonism of the two clauses so as to put a strain on the interpretation of either.

4. The Nephilim were (or arose) in the earth in those days
Who were the דָּבְּכֹּים? The name recurs only in Nu. 13,13.

4. דָּבְּכֹּים [Gr. γλυκύνες; Aq. ol ἐκκυκτονεσ; Σ. ol βλαοῦ; £ [רְבָּכָא]; תּ0 וַּיִּתּר. The etymology is uncertain (see Di. 123). There is no

* On this traditional rendering of יִתְנָה, see the footnote, p. 143.
† Bu.'s argument that the v. is detachable from its present context is, therefore, perfectly sound; although his attempt to find a place for it after 31 is not so successful (see p. 3 above).
‡ Just as in 31, 14 man is allowed to retain the gift of illicitly obtained knowledge, but is foiled by being denied the boon of immortality. The
where we learn that they were conceived as beings of gigantic stature, whose descendants survived till the days of Moses and Joshua. The circumstantial form of the sentence here (cf. 12:1 13:7) is misleading; for the writer cannot have meant that the 'α existed in those days apart from the alliances with the angels, and that the result of the latter were the מיו (Lenormant, al.). The idea undoubtedly is that this race arose at that time in consequence of the union of the divine 'spirit' with human 'flesh.'—and also after-

allusion to a 'fall' (נ) of angels from heaven (ו, Jer. R. Ra.), or to a 'fall' of the world through their action (Ben. R. Ra.). A connexion with נ, 'abortive birth' (from נ, 'fall dead'), is not improbable (Schwally, ZATW, xviii. 144 ff.). An attractive emendation of Co. (נים בנים) in Ezk. 32:7 not only yields a striking resemblance to this v., but supports the idea that the 'α (like the מיות) were associated with the notion of Sheol.—נ cannot mean 'after' (as conj.), which would require a perf. to follow, but only 'afterwards, when.' On any view, גב; and מיות are frequent. tenses.—ב (as euphemism) is characteristic of JE (esp. J) in Hex. (Bu. 39, Anm.). Cf. Rob. Sm. KM, 198 ff.—נ מיה ת sû lit. 'mighty ones' (Aq. בזרת; V potentes; Ge סי do not distinguish from כ). The word is thoroughly naturalised in Heb. speech, and nearly always in a good sense. But pass. like Ezk. 32:28 show that it had another aspect, akin to Ar. קב (proud, audacious, tyrannical). The Ar. and Syr. equivalents are used as names of the constellation Orion (Lane, Lex. i. 375 a; P. Sm. Th. 646).—נ מיה cf. רז, Ezk. 26:20, probably an allusion to a wicked ancient race thrust down to Sheol.—The whole v. has the appearance of a series of antiquarian glosses; and all that can be strictly inferred from it is that there was some traditional association of the Nephilim with the incident recorded in v.14. At the same time we may reasonably hold that the kernel of the v. reproduces in a hesitating and broken fashion the essential thought of the original myth. The writer apparently shrinks from the direct statement that the Nephilim were the offspring of the marriages of vv.1-2, and tantalises the curiosity of his readers with the cautious affirmation that such beings then existed. A later hand then introduced a reminder that they existed 'afterwards' as well.—Bu., who omits v.8, restores the original connexion with v.14 as follows: מיה생 וינב וליאבליים ישבה יב ענ ... מיה יכו. Some such excellent sentence may very well have stood in the original; but it was precisely this perspicuity of narration which the editor wished to avoid.

same point of view appears in 11:1-9: in each case the ruling motive is the divine jealousy of human greatness; and man's pride is humbled by a subtle and indirect exercise of the power of God.

* "Et angelis et sanctorum liberis, conventit nomen cadentium."
wards whenever (אֲנָ hdc) the sons of the gods came in . . . and they (the women) bore unto them] That is to say, the production of Nephilim was not confined to the remote period indicated by v.14, but was continued in after ages through visits of angels to mortal wives,—a conception which certainly betrays the hand of a glossator. It is perhaps enough to remove [םייחי]ו as an interpolation, and connect the רָבָּשָׁיָה with סָנָה יִסְמָּכַה; though even then the phrasing is odd (v.i.).—Those are the heroes (םייחי) that were of old, the men of fame] (םייחי יִסְמָּכַה, cf. Nu. 16:2). הַיָּם has for its antecedent not רָבָּשָׁיָה as obj. to קָרַב (We.), but יִסְמָּכַה. There is a touch of euhemerism in the notice (We.), the archaic and mythological יִסְמָּכַה being identified with the more human יִסְמָּכַה who were renowned in Hebrew story.

It is probable that the legend of the Nephilim had a wider circulation in Heb. tradition than could be gathered from its curt handling by the editors of the Hex. In Ezk. 32 we meet with the weird conception of a mighty antique race who are the original denizens of Sheol, where they lie in state with their swords under their heads, and are roused to a transient interest in the newcomers who disturb their majestic repose. If Cornill’s correction of v.27 (ים תַּכְבִּד הַנְּכָרִים יִסְמָּכַה) be sound, these are to be identified with the Nephilim of our passage; and the picture throws light on two points left obscure in Gen.: viz., the character of the primæval giants, and the punishment meted out to them. Ezekiel dwells on their haughty violence and warlike prowess, and plainly intimates that for their crimes they were consigned to Sheol, where, however, they enjoy a kind of aristocratic dignity among the Shades. It would almost seem as if the whole conception had been suggested by the supposed discoveries of prehistoric skeletons of great stature, buried with their arms beside them, like those recorded by Pausanias (i. 35. 5 f., viii. 29. 3, 32. 4) and other ancient writers (see Rob. Sm. in Dri. Deut. 40f.).

VI. 5–IX. 29.—Noah and the Flood.

Analysis of the Flood-Narrative.—The section on the Flood (6:9–4:17) is, as has often been observed, the first example in Gen. of a truly composite narrative; i.e., one in which the compiler “instead of excerpting the entire account from a single source, has interwoven it out of excerpts taken alternatively from J and P, preserving in the process many duplicates, as well as leaving unaltered many striking differences of representation and phraseology” (Dri. 85). The resolution of the compound narrative into its constituent elements in this case is justly reckoned amongst the most brilliant achievements of purely literary criticism, and affords a particularly instructive lesson in the art of
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documentary analysis (comp. the interesting exposition by Gu. 121 ff.). Here it must suffice to give the results of the process, along with a summary of the criteria by which the critical operation is guided and justified. The division generally accepted by recent critics is as follows:

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The minutiae of glosses, transpositions, etc., are left to be dealt with in the Notes. Neglecting these, the scheme as given above represents the results of Bu. (to whom the finishing touches are due: Urgesch. 248 ff.) Gu. and Ho. Dillmann agrees absolutely, except that he assigns 717 wholly to J, and 722b to P; and We., except with regard to 717 (J) 81, 13, which are both assigned entirely to P. The divergences of Kue. and Co. are almost equally slight; and indeed the main results of the analysis were fixed by the researches of Hupfeld, Nödeke, and Schrader.—This remarkable consensus of critical opinion has been arrived at by four chief lines of evidence: (1) Linguistic. The key to the whole process is, of course, the distinction between the divine names הָוָא (6a. 6. 7. 8 7 5. 16b 80a. 21) and בִּיר הָוָא (6b. 11. 12. 13. 22 7b 8a 81. 15 9b. 1. 6. 8. 12. 16. 17). Besides this, a number of characteristic expressions differentiate the two sources. Thus J’s הָוָא (72) answers to P’s הָוָא רַע אֲלָה (619 76); בָּרָא (67 74 23) to הָוָא and וַיְשָׁרְתוּ (613. 17 911. 15); הָוָא (722) to וַיְשָׁרְתוּ (617 72); הָוָא (722) to וַיְשָׁרְתוּ (612. 13. 17 721 and oft.); לְפָת (83. 11) and בָּרָא (73a) to הָוָא (81); בָּרָא (83b) to שִׁירוּ (814) [but see on 812]; בָּרָא (813) to בָּרָא (82g); הָוָא (73) to הָוָא (617); הָוָא (73) to הָוָא (618. 20); הָוָא (71) to the specific enumerations of 618 770. 13 818. 18. (Comp. the list in Ho. Gen. p. 68.)—(2) Diversity of representation. In J clean and unclean animals are distinguished, the former entering the ark by sevens and the latter in pairs (74; cf. 82a); in P one pair of every kind without distinction is admitted (618f. 715f.). According to J, the cause of the Flood is a forty-days’ rain which is to commence seven days after the command to enter the ark (73–10. 12 522b. 6)—the latter passage showing that the waters began to subside after the 40 days. In P we have (711 82a) a different conception of the cause of the Flood; and, in 6b. 11. 12. 24 83b. 4. 5. 13a. 14, a chronological scheme according to which the waters increase for 150 days, and the entire duration of the Flood is one year (see p. 167 ff.).—(3) Duplicates. The following are obviously parallels from the two documents: 68-8 || 611-13 (occasion of the Flood); 71-5 || 617-22 (command to enter the ark, and announcement of the Flood); 71 || 718 (entering of the ark); 710 || 711 (coming of the Flood); 717b || 718 (increase of the waters: floating of the ark); 722f. || 721 (destruction of terrestrial life); 82b. 2a || 81f. (abatement of the Flood); 813b || 814. 14 (drying of the earth); 820-22 || 96f. (promise that the Flood shall not recur).—(4) The final confirmation of the theory is that the two series of passages form two all but continuous narratives, which

* Phrases characteristic of the style of P generally.
VI. 5–IX. 29

exhibit the distinctive features of the two great sources of the primitive history, J and P. The J sections are a graphic popular tale, appealing to the imagination rather than to the reasoning faculties. The aim of the writer, one would say, was to bring the cosmopolitan (Babylonian) Flood-legend within the comprehension of a native of Palestine. The Deluge is ascribed to a familiar cause, the rain; only, the rain lasts for an unusual time, 40 days. The picturesque incident of the dove (see 8h) reveals the touch of descriptive genius which so often breaks forth from this document. The boldest anthropomorphisms are freely introduced into the conception of God (6th. 716th. 821); and the religious institutions of the author’s time are unhesitatingly assumed for the age of Noah.—Still more pronounced are the characteristics of P in the other account. The vivid details which are the life and charm of the older narrative have all disappeared; and if the sign of the rainbow (915–17) is retained, its aesthetic beauty has evaporated. For the rest, everything is formal, precise, and calculated,—the size of the ark, the number of the persons and the classification of the animals in it, the exact duration of the Flood in its various stages, etc.: if these mathematical determinations are removed, there is little story left. The real interest of the writer is in the new departure in God’s dealings with the world, of which the Flood was the occasion,—the modification of the original constitution of nature, 91–7, and the establishment of the first of the three great covenants, 98–17. The connexion of the former passage with Gn. 1 is unmistakably evident. Very significant are the omission of Noah’s sacrifice, and the ignoring of the laws of cleanness and uncleanness amongst animals.*

The success of the critical process is due to the care and skill with which the Redactor (R1P) has performed his task. His object evidently was to produce a synthetic history of the Flood without sacrificing a scrap of information that could with any plausibility be utilised for his narrative. The sequence of P he appears to have preserved intact, allowing neither omissions nor transpositions. Of J he has preserved quite enough to show that it was originally a complete and independent narrative; but it was naturally impracticable to handle it as carefully as the main document. Yet it is doubtful if there are any actual lacunae except (a) the account of the building of the ark (between 68 and 71), and (b) the notice of the exit from it (between 8126th and 29). The middle part of the document, however, has been broken up into minute fragments,

* Traces of P’s general vocabulary are very numerous. Besides some of those (marked by *) already enumerated in contrast to J, we have אָלֶף (6h); הָעַרְבּ (69 g12); הָעַרְבּ (610); הָעַרְבּ הָעַרְבּ (618 96. 11. 17) and בְּזַה (g12); הָעַרְבּ in enumerations (618 718 816 etc.); מַק (620 714); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (620 788. 14. 21 817. 19 98. 3); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (721 817 97); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (621 97); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (712); רָאָה רָאָה (719); הוֹוֹז מִצְק מִצְק (712); רָאָה רָאָה (719); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (916).—Of the style of J the positive indications are fewer: מָלַמְל (6h); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (74. 23 88 [18 LXX]); הָעַרְבּ, הָעַרְבּ (821). See the comm. of Di. Ho. Gu. etc.
and these have been placed in position where they would least disturb the flow of narration. Some slight transpositions have been made, and a number of glosses have been introduced; but how far these last are due to the Redactor himself and how far to subsequent editors, we cannot tell (for details see the notes). Duplicates are freely admitted, and small discrepancies are disregarded; the only serious discrepancy (that of the chronology) is ingeniously surmounted by making J's 40 days count twice, once as a stage of the increase of the Flood (7^2) and once as a phase of its decrease (8^2). This compound narrative is not destitute of interest; but for the understanding of the ideas underlying the literature the primary documents are obviously of first importance. We shall therefore treat them separately.

The Flood according to J.

VI. 5–8. The occasion of the Flood:—Yahwe's experience of the deep-seated and incurable sinfulness of human nature. It is unnecessary to suppose that a description of the deterioration of the race has been omitted, or displaced by 6^1–4 (Ho.). The ground of the pessimistic estimate of human nature so forcibly expressed in v.5 is rather the whole course of man's development as hitherto related, which is the working out of the sinful knowledge acquired by the Fall. The fratricide of Cain, the song of Lamech, the marriages with the angels, are incidents which, if not all before the mind of the writer of the Flood-story, at least reveal the gloomy view of the early history which characterises the Yahwistic tradition.—5. the whole bent (lit. 'formation') of the thoughts of his heart] It is difficult to say whether יֶנֶשׁ is more properly the 'form' impressed on the mind (the disposition or character), or 'that which is formed' by the mind (imagination and purpose—Sinnen und Trachten):

5. יֶנֶשׁ] Gr. Kupos o theos (so v.8).—יֶנֶשׁ יִשְׁרָאֵל] Gr. loosely: kai πᾶς τοὺς διανοητὰς (τοῦ ματricula) ἐν τῇ καρδιᾷ αὐτοῦ ἐπιμέλεια ἔπτα τὰ πονηρά; Εἰ cuncta cogitatio. Another Gr. rendering (ὁ ἔβρυ, see Field, ad loc.) is φυσικῶ τοῦ ἀνθρώπου; but in 8^2 the same translator has τὸ πλάσμα τῆς καρδ. ἀνθρώπου. On the later Jewish theologoumenon of the ἡμερόμενον (the evil impulse in man, also called ὁ ἀνθρώπου simply) which is based on this passage, and by Jewish comm. (Ra. on 8^2) is found here; see Taylor, Sayings of Jews, Fathers, 37, 148 ff.; Porter, Bibl. and Sem. Studies by members . . . of Yale

* The supposition of Hupfeld and Lenormant (Orig. i. 415), that the double period occurred in the original J, has no foundation.
cf. 821, Dt. 3121, Is. 262 (Ps. 10314?), I Ch. 289 2918; v. 6.—6. The anthropopathy which attributes to Yahwe regret (אָכַלמֶנ) and vexation (נָעָבֲנִים) because He had created man is unusually strong. Although in the sense of mere change of purpose, the former is often ascribed to God (Ex 3214, Jer. 1878, 26318, Jl. 218, Jon. 310 etc.), the cases are few where divine regret for accomplished action is expressed (1 Sa. 1511). The whole representation was felt to be inadequate (Nu. 2319, 1 Sa. 1511); yet it continued to be used as inseparable from the religious view of history as the personal agency of Yahwe.—7. God’s resolve to blot out (יִים) the race: not as yet communicated to Noah, but expressed in monologue.—8. But Noah had found favour, etc.] doubtless on account of his piety; but see on 71. The Yahwistic narrative must have contained some previous notice of Noah, probably at the end of a genealogy.

VII. 1–5. Announcement of the Flood.—The section is an almost exact parallel to 617–22 (P). V.1 presupposes in J a description of the building of the ark, which the redactor has omitted in favour of the elaborate account of P. Not till the work is finished does Yahwe reveal to Noah the purpose it is to serve: v.4 is obviously the first intimation that has been given of the approaching deluge. The building of the ark in implicit obedience to the divine command is thus a great test and proof of Noah’s faith; cf. Heb. 117.—1. Thou and all thy house] J’s brevity is here far
more expressive than the formal enumerations of P (618 713 816, 18). The principle involved is the religious solidarity of the family; its members are saved for the righteousness of its head (cf. 1912).—thee have I seen (to be) righteous (דילע, see on 60) Bu. and others take this to be a judgement based on Noah’s obedience in building the ark; but that is hardly correct. The verb is not מאטר but נצר, which has precisely the same force as the מרים of 65. Comp. also 68.—

2. clean (דילע) means, practically, fit for sacrifice and human food; the technical antithesis is טוח, which, however, is here avoided, whether purposely (De. 174) or not it is impossible to say. The distinction is not, as was once supposed (see Tu.), a proof of J’s interest in Levitical matters, but, on the contrary, of the naïveté of his religious conceptions. He regards it as rooted in the nature of things, and cannot imagine a time when it was not observed. His view is nearer the historical truth than the theory of P, who traces the distinction to the positive enactments of the Sinaitic legislation (Lv. 11, Dt. 14), and consequently ignores it here. The same difference of standpoint appears with regard to sacrifice, altars, etc.: see 48f. 820 127 etc.—

נ�藏ו by sevens (G–K. § 134q); i.e. ‘7 (individuals) of each kind’ (De. Str. al.), rather than ‘7 pairs’ (Ber. R. IEz. Di. Gu. al.),—in spite of the following רזא יש. It is a plausible conjecture (Ra. De. Str.) that the odd individual was a male destined for sacrifice (820).—3a presents an impure text (v. i.), and must either be removed as a gloss (Kue. Bu. Ho. Gu. al.) or supplemented with ג (Ba. Ben.).—

3b. to keep seed alive, etc.] reads better as the continuation of

2. For סינ, מךְּילָּה read סינ סינ,—probably correctly.—רצח שאר (בש) מךְּהיה רבי, assimilating J to P.—3a. The distinction to be expected between clean and unclean birds is made imperfectly by ס and ס, which insert רחסה after סינ; and fully by ג, which goes further and adds the words כל לע תאו נתנ תוע פטננ ו under μה קדארכ ו도ו דים ברכנ ק. שן. Ball accepts this, thinking the omission in MT due to homoioteleuton. But the phrase רחסה רבי shows that 3a has been manipulated; and it is on the whole more likely that it is entirely redactional. Birds may be included in the enumeration of v.2; though Bu.’s parallels (Ex. 818f. 920, 22, 25, Jer. 3243 3310, 12 3620, Ps. 367) are not quite convincing.—3b. מיה] P uses
2 than of 3a.—4. With great rhetorical effect, the reason for all these preparations—the coming of the Flood—is reserved to the end. J knows no other physical cause of the Deluge than the 40 days’ rain (cf. v. 12).—5. Comp. 622 (P).

7-10, 12, 16b, 17b, 22, 23.—Entrance into the ark and description of the Flood. — J’s narrative has here been taken to pieces by the Redactor, who has fitted the fragments into a new connexion supplied by the combined accounts of J and P. The operation has been performed with such care and skill that it is still possible to restore the original order and recover a succinct and consecutive narrative, of which little if anything appears to be lost. The sequence of events is as follows: At the end of the seven days, the Flood comes (v. 10); Noah enters the ark (7) and Yahwe shuts him in (16b). Forty days’ rain ensues (12), and the waters rise and float the ark (17b). All life on the earth’s surface is extinguished; only Noah and those in the ark survive (22f.).

The rearrangement here adopted (10, 7, 16b, 12, 17b, 22, 23) is due mainly to the acute criticism of Bu. (Urg. 258 ff.), who has probably added the last refinements to a protracted process of literary investigation. Some points (e.g. the transposition of vv. 7 and 10) are, of course, more or less doubtful; others (e.g. 16b) are seen to be necessary as soon as the components of J have been isolated. The most difficult thing is to clear the text of the glosses which inevitably accompanied the work of redaction; but this also has been accomplished with a considerable degree of certainty and agreement amongst recent comm. The most extensive interpolations are part of v. 7, the whole of vv. 8 and 9, and part of 23. For details see the footnote.

10. At the end of the 7 days (cf. v. 4)] The interval (we may suppose) was occupied in assembling the animals and provisioning the ark.—the waters of the Flood; a technical name for the Deluge, common to both sources (v. i.).

7. Noah enters the ark on account of the . . . Flood:

Hiph. (610b.)—בנה as Jer. 3127. —4. יבש On 7 as denoting the close of a term (cf. v. 10), see BDB, s.v. 6b.—קרנ[a] a rare word (only 733, Dt. 11b), meaning ‘that which subsists’ (קָרָנ). ־קרנαρμ (other exx. in Field, ἀνάστρωμα), ־סנ substantia, סַנְדָּב לֶס. On the form see Barth, Nom.-bild. 181; Kön. ii. 146; G-K. § 85 d.

7. יבש—בנה The enumeration is in the manner of P (obs. also 13a);
hence v.\textsuperscript{7} presupposes v.\textsuperscript{10}. The same order of events is found in P (\textsuperscript{11,18}) and in the Babylonian legend: “when the lords of the darkness send at evening a (grimy?) rain, enter into the ship and close thy door” (l. 88 f.).—16b (which must in any case follow immediately on v.\textsuperscript{7}) contains a fine anthropomorphism, which (in spite of the Bab. parallel just cited) it is a pity to spoil by deleting והוה and making Noah the implicit subject (Klost. NKZ, i. 717).—12. forty days and forty nights\textsuperscript{1} This determination, which in J expresses the entire duration of the Flood, seems to have been treated by R as merely a stage in the increase of the waters (cf. 8\textsuperscript{6}). It obviously breaks the connexion of P. The Babylonian deluge lasted only six days and nights (l. 128).—17b. Parallel to 18 (P).—22, 23. A singularly effective description of the

the words either replace והוהנ (as v.\textsuperscript{1}), or are a pure insertion;—in either case redactional. —בְּהַיָּהוּ טָעַי so 7\textsuperscript{10} (J), 9\textsuperscript{11} (P) (cf. יָכַס יָפָה, 6\textsuperscript{17} 7\textsuperscript{6}). —הָזָמַע] G κατάκλυσμα; F diluvium; S and ג" ד מֹאָשִׁי (נו"א מֹאָשׁ). The word has usually been derived from בָּרָ', 'streaming' (see Ges. Th. D.); but is more probably a foreign word without Heb. etymology (see Nö. ZDMG, xl. 732). Del. (Parad. 156) proposed the derivation from Ass. nab slugg, 'destroy,' which is accepted by König (ii. 153), Ball (p. 53), and others. The Bab. technical equivalent is abūbū, which denotes both a 'light-flood' and a 'water-flood': the double sense has been thought to explain P's addition of יָפָה to the word (see on 6\textsuperscript{17}). A transformation of the one name into the other is, however, difficult to understand (see KAT\textsuperscript{3} 495\textsuperscript{5}, 546\textsuperscript{6}). In Ps. 29\textsuperscript{10} יָנָא appears to be used in a general sense without a historic reference to the Noachic Deluge (see Duhm, \textit{ad loc.}).—8, 9 present a mixed text. The distinction of clean and un-clean points to J; but all other features (יָנָא) [though a reading והוה seems attested by מ" ג, and MSS of G] and הָזָמַע ד"א; the indiscriminately יָנָא יָפָה; the categorical enumeration [to which G adds the birds at the beginning of v.\textsuperscript{9}] to P. In P the vv. are not wanted, because they are a duplicate of 13-18: they must therefore be assigned to an interpolator (Bu. al.).—10. On the construction of the sentence, see G-K. § 164 a, and on v.\textsuperscript{6} below.—12. יָפָה (צ" ו= 'be massive') commonly used of the heavy winter rain (Ezr. 10\textsuperscript{9}, Ca. 2\textsuperscript{11}): see GASm. HG, 64.—16b. והוה] G Kópios ὅ theós + τὴν κύματον. —17b. Since 18 belongs to P (הָזָמַע), its duplicate 17b must be from J, where it forms a natural continuation of 12. 17b, on the other hand (in spite of the 40 days), must be assigned to P (see p. 164).—22. יָנָא יָפָה יָרָש] is an unexampled combination, arising from confusion of a phrase of J (מ" יָנָא יָפָה, 27) with one of P (מ" יָנָא יָפָה, 6\textsuperscript{17} 7\textsuperscript{15}). The v. being from J (cf. יָנָא instead of יָנָא; יָנָא instead of יָנָא, 21), והוה is naturally the word to be deleted.—23a as a whole is J (הוה, יָנָא, יָפָה, יָנָא יָרָש) but the clause יָנָא יָרָש seems again (cf. 6\textsuperscript{7})
effect of the Flood, which is evidently conceived as universal.

VIII. (1b ?), 2b, 3a, (4?), 6–12, 13b. Subsidence of the waters.—The rain from heaven having ceased, the Flood gradually abates. [The ark settles on some high mountain; and] Noah, ignorant of his whereabouts and unable to see around, sends out first a raven and then a dove to ascertain the condition of the earth.

The continuity of J’s narrative has again been disturbed by the redaction. V.6a, which in its present position has no point of attachment in J, probably stood originally before 2b, where it refers to the 40 days’ duration of the Flood (We. Comp. § 5). It was removed by R so as to make up part of the interval between the emergence of the mountain-tops and the drying of the ground.—There are two small points in which a modification of the generally accepted division of sources might be suggested. (1) 2b (the wind causing the abatement of the waters) is, on account of מַלְיִנָה, assigned to P. But the order 1b 2a is unnatural, and transpositions in P do not seem to have been admitted. The idea is more in accord with J’s conception of the Flood than with P’s; and but for the name מַלְיִנָה the half-verse might very well be assigned to J, and inserted between 2b and 3a. (2) V.4 is also almost universally regarded as P’s (see Bu. 269 f.). But this leaves a lacuna in J between 3a and 6b, where a notice of the landing of the ark must have stood: on the other hand, 5b makes it extremely doubtful if P thought of the ark as stranded on a mountain at all. The only objection to assigning 4 to J is the chronology: if we may suppose the chronological scheme to have been added or retouched by a later hand (see p. 168), there is a great deal to be said for the view of Hupfeld and Reuss that the remainder of the v. belongs to J.*—The opening passage would then read as follows:

6a. At the end of 40 days, 2b. the rain from heaven was restrained; 1b. and Yahwe (?) caused a wind to pass over the earth, and the waters abated. 3a. And the waters went

to be redactional, and the three words following must disappear with it. 22b might be assigned with almost equal propriety to J or to P.—מַלְיִנָה] (apoc. impf. Qal) is a better attested Massor. reading than מַלְיִנָה (Niph.). It is easier, however, to change the pointing (to Niph.) than to supply מַלְיִנָה as subj., and the sense is at least as good.—Gu.’s rearrangement (22a. 22. 22b) is a distinct improvement: of the two homologous sentences, that without ] naturally stands second.

3a. בָשַׁת יָם] G–K. § 113 u. G] has misunderstood the idiom both

* It may be noted that in Jub. v. 28 no date is given for the landing of the ark.
on decreasing from off the earth, 4. and the ark rested on the mountains of Ararat.—On the landing-place of the ark, see p. 166 below.

6b–12. The episode of the sending out of the birds appears in many forms of the Deluge-tradition; notably in the Babylonian. It is here related as an illustration of Noah's wisdom (Gu.). Tuch quotes from Pliny, vi. 83 (on the Indians): "siderum in navigando nulla observatio; septentrio non cernitur; sed volucres secum vehunt, emittentes saepius, meatumque earum terram petentium contantur."—7. *He sent out a raven*] The purpose of the action is not stated till v.8; partly for this reason, partly because the threefold experiment with the dove is complete and more natural, the genuineness of the v. has been questioned (We. Ho. Gu. al.). Dahse, *ZATW*, xxviii. 5 f., calls attention to the fact that in C the v. is marked with the obelus. The Bab. account has three experiments, but with different birds (dove, swallow, raven).—8. *And he sent out a dove*] perhaps immediately; see C below. But if v.7 be a later insertion, we must supply *and he waited 7 days* (see v.10).—9. The description of the return and admission of the dove is unsurpassed even in the Yahwistic document for tenderness and beauty of imagination.—10. *Seven other days*] implying a similar statement before either v.7 or v.8.—11. *a freshly plucked olive leaf*] The olive does not grow at great altitudes, and was said to flourish even under water (Tu.). But it is probable that some forgotten mythological significance attaches to the symbol in the Flood-legend (see Gu. p. 60). Cf. the classical notices of the olive branch as an emblem of peace: Virg. *Aen*. viii. 116 (*Pacificeræque manum prætendit olivæ*); Livy, xxiv. 30, xxix. 16.—12. The third time the dove returns no more; and then at last—

here and in v.7.—7. *וּלָדוּ*] on the art. see G-K. § 126 r; but cf. Smith's note, *RS*, 126.—א here supplies הוּלַדָא el kekopetaν τὸ ὑδάτω, as in v.8. —וּלָדוּ נֵנוּ] א כָּל ְעֶלְכָּנַן עַל הַנֵּלָטָרֵפִּים ; so 6ً7 (accepted by Ball): see on 8a.—8. *אֶלַדָא*] א בְּלָו אוֹתֶל אוֹתֶל ; assuming that both birds were sent forth on the same day.—10. *בָּלַדָא*] cf. בָּלַד, v.12 (a has בָּלַד both times). Both forms are incorrect: read in each case בָּלַד (Bu. Di. al.).
13b. Noah ventures to remove the covering of the ark, and sees that the earth is dry.

20-22. Noah's sacrifice.—J's account of the leaving of the ark has been suppressed. Noah's first act is to offer a sacrifice, not of thanksgiving but (as v.21 shows) of propitiation: its effect is to move the Deity to gracious thoughts towards the new humanity. The resemblance to the Babylonian parallel is here particularly close and instructive (see p. 177): the incident appears also in the Greek and Indian legends.—20. an altar] Lit. 'slaughtering-place.' The sacrificial institution is carried back by J to the remotest antiquity (see on 4:7. 7:2), but this is the first mention of the altar, and also of sacrifice by fire: see p. 105 above.—牯廾 holocausts,—that form of sacrifice which was wholly consumed on the altar, and which was naturally resorted to on occasions of peculiar solemnity (e.g. 2 Sa. 24:25).

—21. smelled the soothing odour] מִדְּמַר נֵיזָר (κυίαρη, nidor) * becomes a technical term of the Levitical ritual, and is never mentioned elsewhere except in P and Ezek. This, Gu. points out, is the only place where Yahwe is actually described as smelling the sacrifice; but cf. 1 Sa. 26:19. It is probably a refinement of the crude eudaemonism of the Bab. story (see p. 177 below); and it is doubtful how far it elucidates primitive Heb. ideas of the effect of sacrifice. That "the pleasing odour is not the motive but merely the occasion of this gracious purpose" (Knobel), may be

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13b. מִדְּמַר possibly described in J's account of the building of the ark. Elsewhere only of the covering of the Tabernacle (P); but cf. דָּמַר, Ezk. 27:—ם"כ] ins. תב יָסִיף וָגָר. 20. מִדְּמַר]エ贴 ueba.——21. מִדְּמַר]エ贴 K. בKr (bis).—חכינח חֵי] אד

—conflate?—חֵל] a different vb. from that used in 3:7.4:1 5:29 (וַיֶּל). Ho. points out that Pi. of חל is never used with God as subj. (cf. Gn. 12:5); and for this and other reasons regards 21a as an unskilful attempt to link the Noah of the Flood with the prophecy of 5:29. But 21a can only refer to the Flood, while the curse of 5:29 belongs to the past: moreover, an interpolator would have been careful to use the same verb. The sense given to חל is fully justified by the usage

sound theology, but it hardly expresses the idea of the passage. — 21b is a monologue (אֶלְהָיוֹן). — 21a (see on 6β) may be understood either as epxexegetical of בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה (a reason why Yahwe might be moved to curse the ground, though he will not [Ho.]), or as the ground of the promise not to visit the earth with a flood any more. The latter is by far the more probable. The emphasis is on מָקוֹם, from his youth; the innate sinfulness of man constitutes an appeal to the divine clemency, since it cannot be cured by an undiscriminating judgement like the Flood, which arrests all progress toward better things (cf. Is. 549). — 22. The pledge of Yahwe's patience with humanity is the regularity of the course of nature, in which good and bad men are treated alike (Mt. 545). A division of the year into six seasons (Ra.), or even into two halves (De.), is not intended; the order of nature is simply indicated by a series of contrasts, whose alternation is never more to be interrupted by a catastrophe like the Flood. This assurance closes J's account of the Deluge. It rests on an interior resolve of Yahwe; whereas in P it assumes the form of a 'covenant' (911), — a striking instance of the development of religious ideas in the direction of legalism: cf. Jer. 3185f. 3320f. 25f.

The Flood according to P.

VI. 9–12. Noah's piety; The corruption of the earth. — 9. This is the genealogy of Noah] The formula is usually taken as the heading of the section of P dealing with the Flood; but see on 928f. — Noah is characterised as

of Pual (Ps. 3722, Jb. 2418, Is. 6520). — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317. — רֹעַ בַּעֲרֵי הָאָדָמָה, as 317.

9. יש חכם פירש (so Jb. 12'). The asyndeton is harsh; but it is hardly safe to remedy it on the authority of מִי (פִּים) and פִּים, against גר. To remove פִּים as a gloss from J (7') (Ball) is too bold. Perhaps the sentence should be broken up into two clauses, one nominal and the other verbal: 'Noah was a righteous man; perfect was he,' etc. — The forensic sense of פִּים given above may not be the original: see S. A. Cook, JTS, ix. 6321, who adduces some evidence that it meant what was 'due' among a definite social group, and between it and its gods.
righteous (ἵππος) and faultless (φιλόσοφος): on the construction
v.i. There is perhaps a correspondence between these two
epithets and the description of the state of the world which
follows; καὶ ἡμεῖς being opposed to the ‘violence,’ and to
the ‘corruption’ of v. 116. καὶ ἥνεκα, a forensic term, denotes
one whose conduct is unimpeachable before a judge; ἡμεῖς
is sacerdotal in its associations (Ex. 125, Lv. 18 etc.),
meaning ‘free from defect,’ integer (cf. 171).—in his gene-
nerations (v.i.) i.e. alone among his contemporaries (cf. 71).
That Noah’s righteousness was only relative to the standard
of his age is not implied.*—walked with God] see on 522.
The expression receives a fuller significance from the Baby-
lonian legend, where Ut-napištim, like the Biblical Enoch,
is translated to the society of the gods (p. 177 below).—
II f. נסהו דרשה is the intentional antithesis to the דרשה
of 181 (De.).—All flesh had corrupted its way] had
violated the divinely-appointed order of creation. The
result is violence (ὕστατος, δικαία)—ruthless outrage
perpetrated by the strong on the weak. A ‘nature red in
tooth and claw with ravin’ is the picture which rises before
the mind of the writer; although, as has been already
remarked (p. 129), the narrative of P contains no explana-
tion of the change which had thus passed over the face of
the world.

The fundamental idea of v. 116 is the disappearance of the Golden
Age, or the rupture of the concord of the animal world established by
the decree of 1291. The lower animals contribute their share to the
general ‘corruption’ by transgressing the regulation of 130, and
commencing to prey upon each other and to attack man (see 96): so Ra.
To restrict ἃναλήθια to mankind (ΤΟ, Tu. Str. Dri. Ben. al.) is therefore

—הוזר] שטנ התשנ הבית: The f. pl. is highly characteristic of P
(Ho. Einl. 341); but apparently always as a real pl. (series of genera-
tions): ct. the solitary use of sg. in P, Ex. 18. Here, accordingly, it
seems fair to understand it, not of the individual contemporaries of
Noah (Tu, We. Ho. al.), but of the successive generations covered by
his lifetime. The resemblance to הוזר רברב is adduced by We.
(Prol. 6 390) as a proof of P’s dependence on J.—II. מונא] One of
the few instances of P’s use of the art. with מ.—12. מונא] כוכבים ל Theodore.

* So Jerome: “ut ostenderet non juxta justitiam consummatam, sed
juxta generationis suae eum justum fuisset justitiam.”
unnecessary and unwarranted. The phrase properly denotes ‘all living beings,’ and is so used in 8 out of the 13 occurrences in P’s account of the Flood (Dri. ad loc.). In 619 715.18 817 it means animals apart from man; but that in the same connexion it should also mean mankind apart from animals is not to be expected, and could only be allowed on clear evidence.—The difference of standpoint between P and J (69) on this matter is characteristic.

13-16. Directions for building the ark.—13. Announcement in general terms of some vast impending catastrophe, involving the end of all flesh (all living beings, as v.12).—14-16. Description of the Ark.—An Ark (chest) of gopher wood] probably some resinous wood. In Heb. וֹּבֵן is used only of Noah’s ark and the vessel in which Moses was saved (Ex. 23.5); the name ark comes to us through ג (arca), where, however, it is also applied to the ark of the testimony (Ex. 2510 etc.). The Bab. Flood-narrative has the ordinary word for ship (elippu).—The vessel is to consist internally of cells (lit. ‘nests’), and is to be coated inside and out with bitumen (cf. Ex. 23).

13. וֹּבֵן not (as Est. 911) ‘has come to my knowledge,’ but ‘has entered into my purpose.’ This is better than (with Di.) to take וֹּבֵן absolutely (as Am. 83), and render as ‘according to my purpose.’—לֹּשֶׁנַּה through them; Ex. 80911, Ju. 68 etc.—וֹּשֶׁנַּה וֹּבֵן וֹּבֵן; גָּלְּפָּל terra; so ש של. As Ols. says, we should expect ‘נַּה (no ש [Graetz] is unsuitable). But the error probably lies deeper. Ball emends ‘ורֹאשׁ נָבָנֵן; בּ. וֹּבֵנִי מִסְּפַּד; ג. מִסְּפַּד מִסְּפַּד; ג. מִסְּפַּד מִסְּפַּד. Eerdmans (AT Studien, i. 29) finds a proof of original polytheism. He reads וֹּכְּשֶׁנַּה וֹּכְּשֶׁנַּה: ‘we [the gods] are about to destroy the earth.”—14. יָבָנֵן גְּשִׁיתָם; ג. חָבְּשֵׁם. The word is the Egyptian ṭeb(t) = ‘chest,’ ‘sarcophagus’ (ἴβίς, ἱθή, in ג. of Ex. 28.5); see Ges. Th. ; Erman, ZDMG, xlii. 123. Jensen (ZA, iv. 272 f.), while admitting the Egypt. etymology, suggests a connexion with the Ass. ilippu ti-bitum (a kind of ship). I am informed by Dr. C. H. W. Johns that while the word is written as the determinative for ‘ship,’ it is not certain that it was pronounced elippu. He thinks it possible that it covers the word tabīd, found in the phrase ta-bī-e Bēl ilāni Marduk (Del. Hwub. 699 a), which he is inclined to explain of the processional barques of the gods. If this conjecture be correct, we may have here the Bab. original of Heb. י_bag. See Camb. Bibl. Essays (1909), p. 37 ff.—ץָוֹרֶש. The old trans. were evidently at a loss: ג. (ἐκ) ἔξω σαραγώνων; ג. (δε) δίνης λαυγίατις; Jer. digna bituminata: the word being δι. λεγ. Lagarde (Sem. i. 64 f.; Symm. ii. 93 f.) considered it a mistaken contraction from תּוֹרֶש (brimstone), or rather a foreign word of the same form which meant originally ‘pine-wood.’ Others (Bochart,
Somewhat similar details are given of the ship of Ut-napištim (p. 176). Asphalt is still lavishly applied in the construction of the rude boats used for the transport of naphtha on the Euphrates (see Cernik, quoted by Suess, *The Face of the Earth,* 27).—15. Assuming that the cubit is the ordinary Heb. cubit of six handbreadths (about 18 in.: see Kennedy, *DB,* iv. 909), the dimensions of the ark are such as modern shipbuilding has only recently exceeded (see Ben. 140); though it is probably to be assumed that it was rectangular in plan and sections. That a vessel of these proportions would float, and hold a great deal (though it would not carry cannon!), it hardly needed the famous experiment of the Dutchman Peter Janson in 1609–21 to prove (see Michaelis, *Oriental. und Exeget. Bibliot.* xviii. 27 f.).—16. The details here are very confused and mostly obscure. The word נַנֶּשׁ (אָמ. וְגָם.) is generally rendered 'light' or 'opening for light,'—either a single (square) aperture (Tu.), or "a kind of casement running round the al.) suppose it to contain the root of κυπάρισσος, 'cypress,' a wood used by the Phen. in shipbuilding, and by the Egypt. for sarcophagi (De.).—נַנֶּשׁ Lagarde's conjecture, נַנֶּשׁ (OS1, ii. 95), has been happily confirmed from Philo, *Quaest. in Gen.* ii. 3 (loculos loculos: see Bu. 255), and from a Palest. Syr. Lectionary (Nestle, cited by Ho.). On the idiom, see G-K. § 123 e.—נַנֶּשׁ also אָמ. וְגָמ., = 'bitumen' (דְּשׁוֹטֲו), Ar. בָּשָׁר, Aram. בֹּשֶה, Ass. בָּשָׁר (used in the Bab. Flood-story). The native Heb. word for 'bitumen' is נַנֶּשׁ (118 1410, Ex. 28).—15. נַנֶּשׁ גָּרֶם נַנֶּשׁ.—16. נַנֶּשׁ גָּרֶם נַנֶּשׁ. The suffix כָּנַנְנָא (rdg. כָּנַנְנָא?) all other Vns. express the idea of light (Ag. μεσομήβρανυν, Σ. διαφανείς, ἡ fenestram, ἧ ἐφεστοι, 'windows,' ἐφεστοι, 'windows'). They connected it (as Ag. shows) with מָעֹ, 'noon-day'; but if מָעֹ means properly 'summit' (see G-B.; BDB, s.v.), there seems nothing in Heb. to connect the root with the idea of light. The meaning 'back' is supported by Ar. ظاهر. The suffix may refer either to the קָסֶר (whose gender is unknown: cf. Kön. S. p. 163) or to the קָסֶר: the latter is certainly most natural after קָסֶר. The prevalent explanation—that the cubit indicates either the breadth of the light-opening, or its distance below the roof (see Di.)—is mere guess-work. Bu. (following We.) removes the first three words to the end of the v., rendering: "and according to the cubit thou shalt finish it (the ark)"); Di. objects that this would require קָסֶר. Ball reads "ם קָסֶרֶן קָסֶרֶן נַנֶּשׁ, "and for its (the ark's) whole length thou shalt cover it above"; Gu.: קָסֶרֶן קָסֶרֶן, "and on a pivot (see Is. 64) thou shalt make it (the roof) revolve,"—a doubtful suggestion.
sides of the ark (except where interrupted by the beams supporting the roof) a little below the roof" (Dri., so De. Di. al.). Exegetical tradition is in favour of this view; but the material arguments for it (see Di. 141) are weak, and its etymological basis is doubtful (v. i.). Others (Ew. Gu. G-B. al.) take it to mean the roof (lit. 'back': Ar. ẓahr).* The clause and to a cubit thou shalt finish it above is unintelligible as it stands: some suggestions are given in the footnote.—The door of the ark is to be in its (longer?) side; and the cells inside are to be arranged in three stories. The ship of Ut-napištim appears to have had six decks, divided into nine compartments (ll. 61-63).

17-22. The purpose of the ark.—Gunkel thinks that v. 17 commences a second communication to Noah; and that in the source from which P drew, the construction of the ark was recorded before its purpose was revealed (as in the parallel account of J: see on 71). That, of course, is possible; but that P slurred over the proof of Noah's faith because he had no interest in personal religion can hardly be supposed. There is really nothing to suggest that 17ff. are not the continuation of 13-16.—17. Behold I am about to bring the Flood[73:7]: see above on 77 (J), and in the Note below.
—18. I will establish my covenant, etc.] anticipating 9ff. De. and Gu. distinguish the two covenants, taking that here referred to as a special pledge to Noah of safety in the coming judgement; but that is contrary to the usage of P,

17. ענה רשא] cf. Dri. JPh. xi. 226.—ה泝ות (cf. 76) The ש is certainly superfluous grammatically, but נְמָהָלע is necessary to the completeness of the sentence. 63 omits ש in 76, and inserts it in 911b (P). Whether it be an explanatory gloss of the unfamiliar בם (so most), or a peculiar case of nominal apposition (see Dri. 7. § 188), it is difficult to decide: on the idea that it is meant to distinguish the water-flood from the light-flood, see above, p. 154. The pointing בם (JDMich. al.) is objectionable on various grounds: for one thing, P never speaks of the Flood as coming 'from the sea.' J's phrase is נָהֲלַע: 77. 10; cf. 91la (P).
—7 vows] אֶ, מַחְסָל; but elision of n in Hiph. is unusual: some Sam. MSS have מַחְסָל (Ball).— אין ] 'expire,'—peculiar to P in Hex. (cf. 72 25). 17

* According to Jensen (KIB, vi. 1, 487), the Bab. ark had a dome-shaped roof (muhū).
to whom the הַיּ is always a solemn and permanent embodiment of the divine will, and never a mere occasional provision (Kraetzschmar, Bundesvorstg. 197 f.). The entering of the ark is therefore not the condition to be fulfilled by Noah under the covenant, but the condition which makes the establishment of the promised covenant possible (Ho.).—Thou and thy sons, etc.] The enumeration is never omitted by P except in 81; cf. 718 816. 18: ct. J in 71.—19 f. One pair of each species of animals (fishes naturally excepted) is to be taken into the ark. The distinction of clean and unclean kinds belongs on the theory of P to a later dispensation—20. The classification (which is repeated with slight variations in 714. 21 819 922. 10) here omits wild beasts (יִבְרִים: v.i. on v.19.—יִבְרִים does not necessarily imply that the animals came of themselves (Ra. IEz. al.), any more than יִבְרִים (v.19) necessarily means that Noah had to catch them.—21. all food which is (or may be) eaten] according to the prescriptions of 120f.—22. so did he] the pleonastic sentence is peculiar to P; cf. esp. Ex. 4016 (also Ex. 76 1223. 50 3932. 42f., Nu. 154, and often).

VII. 6, 11, 13-17a. Commencement of the Flood.—These vv. (omitting 16b [J]) appear to form an uninterrupted section of the Priestly narrative, following immediately on 622.—6. Date of the Flood by the year of Noah's life. The number 600 is a Babylonian ner; and it has been thought that the statement rests ultimately on a Bab. tradition.—11. This remarkably precise date introduces a sort of diary

3529 4933,—12 t. in all); elsewhere only in poetry (Holz. Einl. 341).—19. מִקָּשְׁתָּן] (on anomalous pointing of or art. see G-K. § 35.f (i)). וֹ reads מִקָּשְׁתָּן as in 817; and so מִקָּשְׁתָּן, which takes the word in the limited sense of wild animals, reading [kal aדָּה פַּרְטָנִים תֵּעֲשָנִים kal a. ת. פַּרְטָנִים] מִקָּשְׁתָּן (see 714. 21 818).—מִקָּשְׁתָּן] מִקָּשְׁתָּן as in 7a15. So also v.20.—20. שְׁדִּידֵבָשׁ] Ins. 1 with מִקָּשְׁתָּן; the 1 is necessary to the sense.—כֵּחֶב before each class, but MT rightly confines it to the heterogeneous שְׁדִּידֵבָשׁ (Ho.). For the Hebrew сыр, מִקָּשְׁתָּן have מִקָּשְׁתָּן; cf. בְּלָא פָּדוּת בָּשָׁם.—21. מִקְּדָשְׁתָּן] see on 128.—22. מִקְּדָשְׁתָּן] מִקְּדָשְׁתָּן 66.

6. On the syntax of the time-relation, see G-K. § 164.a.—כָּש] see 617. —11. כָּש—כָּש] 'in the year of 600 years'; cf. G-K. § 134.a.—For '17th day' מ has '27th'; see p. 167 below.—משת בְּרֵכָה] 82, Mal. 310,=משת בְּרֵכָה, 2 Ki. 7a. 2a=טעם 'ק, Is. 2418. Apart from these phrases the
of the Flood, which is carried through to the end: see below, p. 167 f. V.8, though consistent with 11, is certainly rendered superfluous by it; and it is not improbable that we have here to do with a fusion of authorities within the Priestly tradition (p. 168).—*the fountains of the Great Deep* (חֵן וְחֵיתָה: see on 12). Outbursts of subterranean water are a frequent accompaniment of seismic disturbances in the alluvial districts of great rivers (Suess, 31–33); and a knowledge of this physical fact must have suggested the feature here expressed. In accordance with ancient ideas, however, it is conceived as an eruption of the subterranean ocean on which the earth was believed to rest (see p. 17). At the same time *the windows of heaven were opened* allowing the waters of the heavenly ocean to mingle with the lower. The Flood is thus a partial undoing of the work of creation; although we cannot be certain that the Heb. writer looked on it from that point of view. Contrast this grandiose cosmological conception with the simple representation of J, who sees nothing in the Flood but the result of excessive rain.

Gunkel was the first to point out the poetic character and structure of 11b: note the phrase יַעַרְתָּה (Am. 7, Is. 5110, Ps. 367), and the *parallelismus membrorum*. He considers the words a fragment of an older version of the legend which (like the Babylonian) was written in poetry. A similar fragment is found in 83.

**13. On that very day**] continuing v. 11. The idea that all the animals entered the ark on one day (J allows a week) has been instanced as an example of P's love of the marvellous (Ho. Gu.).—**14–16. See on 619f.**—**17a. the Flood**

word *א* is rare, and denotes a latticed opening, Hos. 139, Is. 609, Ec. 129. Here it can only mean 'sluices'; the *καταράκται* of Ἵ "unites the senses of waterfalls, trap-doors, and sluices" (De.).—13. וַיִּשָּׁבֶץ הָאָרֶץ וְלָהֶנֶּו] 1728 26, Ex. 1217, 41, 61, Lv. 2314, 21, 28, 29, 30, Dt. 3243, Jos. 511 (all P); Ho. Einl. 346.—נְפִיעִיר] irregular gender: G-K. § 97 c.—בָּשָׂא] Better as אֶּרֶץ חָשָׁי (816. 18).—14. יִנְחֵש] distinguishing wild beasts from domestic (cf. v. 21); see on 619.—וַאֲהַלָּהֶנֶּו [בַּיּוֹ] Ἵ om. Cf. Ezk. 1723 394.—17a. מְעַבֵּר רָאִי הָאָרֶץ] Bu. (264) ingeniously suggests that the last three consonants of the gloss (מְעַבֵּר רָאִי) represent the genuine מַעַּה of P (617 79). Ἵ adds מָלֵלִי וְיַעֲבֹרָא. The half-verse cannot be assigned to J, because it would be a mere repetition of v. 12.
came upon the earth] as a result of the upheaval, v. 11.—The words forty days are a gloss based on 74. 12 (v. i.); the Redactor treating J’s forty days as an episode in the longer chronology: see on v. 12 (J).

18—21, 24. Magnitude and effect of the Flood.—While J confines himself to what is essential—the extinction of life—and leaves the universality of the Flood to be inferred, P not only asserts its universality, but so to speak proves it, by giving the exact height of the waters above the highest mountains.—18, 19. prevailed] λέγει, lit. ‘be strong’ (Gr επεκράτει, Aq. ενεδυμάωθη). The Flood is conceived as a contest between the water and the dry land.—20. fifteen cubits] is just half the depth of the ark. The statement is commonly explained in the light of 84: when the Flood was at its height the ark (immersed to half its depth, and therefore drawing fifteen cubits of water) was just over one of the highest mountains; so that on the very slightest abatements of the water it grounded! The explanation is plausible enough (on the assumption that 84 belongs to P); but it is quite as likely that the choice of the number is purely arbitrary.—24. 150 days] the period of ‘prevalence’ of the Flood, reckoned from the outbreak (v. 11): see p. 168.

VIII. 1, 2a, 3b—5, 13a, 14. Abatement of the Flood.—The judgement being complete, God remembers the survivors in mercy. The Flood has no sooner reached its maximum than it begins to abate (3b), and the successive stages of the subsidence are chronicled with the precision of a calendar.—1. remembered] in mercy, as 1920 3022 etc. The inclusion of the animals in the kindly thought of the Almighty is a touch of nature in P which should not be overlooked.—1b. The mention of the wind ought certainly to follow the arrest of the cause of the Deluge (2a). It is said in defence of the present order that the sending of the wind and the stopping


1. The addition of Gr καὶ πάντων τῶν πεπετύων κ. π. τ. ἑρπετῶν is here very much in place.—19. The ἅ is rare and late: Nu. 1720 (P),
of the elemental waters are regarded as simultaneous (Di.); but that does not quite meet the difficulty. See, further, p. 155 above.—3b. at the end of the 150 days] (724). See the footnote.—4. The resting of the ark.—on (one of) the mountains of 'Ararat] which are probably named as the highest known to the Hebrews at the time of writing; just as one form of the Indian legend names the Himalayas, and the Greek, Parnassus. Araraɫ (Ass. Urartu) is the NE part of Armenia; cf. 2 Ki. 1927 = Is. 3728, Jer. 5127. The name Mount Araraɫ, traditionally applied to the highest peak (Massis, Agridagh: c. 17,000 ft.) of the Armenian mountains, rests on a misunderstanding of this passage.

The traditions regarding the landing-place of the ark are fully discussed by Lenorm. Or.2 ii. 1 ff.: cf. Tu. 132-136; Nö. Unters. 145 ff.—The district called Araraɫ or Urartu is properly that named in Armenian Ayararat, and is probably identical with the country of the Alarodians of Herod. iii. 94, vii. 79. It is the province of Armenia lying NE of Lake Van, including the fertile plain watered by the Araxes, on the right (SW) side of which river Mt. Massis rises.* Another tradition, represented by Berossus (p. 177 below) and ῬΟ S (ίτπα)†, locates the mountain in Kurdistan, viz. at Gebel Ǧudīt, which is a striking mountain SW of Lake Van, commanding a wide view over the Mesopotamian plain. This view is adopted in the Koran (Sur. xi. 46), and has become traditional among the Moslems.—The ‘mountain of Nišir’ of the cuneiform legends lies still further south, probably in one of the ranges between the Lower Zab and the next tributary to the S, the Adhem (Radānu) (Streck, ZA, xv. 272). Tiele and Kosters, however (EB, 289), identify it with Elburz, the sacred mountain of the Iranians (S of the Caspian Sea); and find a trace of this name in the μέγα δροσ κατὰ τὴν Ἀμωνίαν Βάρης λεγόμενον indicated as the mountain of the ark by Nicolaus Damascenus (Jos. Ant. i. 95).—What the original Heb. tradition was, it is impossible to say. The writers just named conjecture that it was identical with the Bab., Araraɫ being here a corruption of Hara haraiti (the ancient Iranian name of Elburz), which was afterwards confused with the land of Urartu. Nö. and Ho. think it probable that ῬΟ and Σ preserve the oldest name (Kardu), and that Araraɫ is a correction made when it was

Jer. 528, Est. 21710.—3b. ἱσσάκ ηράκ] Rd. ἱσσάκτης ἱσσάκ (Str. Ho. Gk.). μ᾽ ηράκ.—4. For 17th ᾲ has 27th (711).

* "‘Ararat regio in Armenia campestris est, per quam Araxes fluit, incredibilis ubertatis, ad radices Tauri montis, qui usque illuc extenditur." Jerome on Is. 3728.
† ῬΟ has both ἑωροῦρον and ἑωροῦρον, as has Berossus.
discovered that the northern mountains are in reality higher than those of Kurdistan.

5. the tops of the mountains] i.e. (as usually explained) the other (lower) mountains. The natural interpretation would be that the statement is made absolutely, from the viewpoint of an imaginary spectator; in which case it is irreconcilable with v.4 (cf. Hupf. Qu. 16 f.).—13a, 14. On New Year's day the earth's surface was uncovered, though still moist; but not till the 27th of the 2nd month was it dry (arefacta: cf. Jer. 50:8).

15-19. Exit from the ark: blessing on the animals.—17b. A renewal of the benediction of 122, which had been forfeited by the excesses before the Flood. The corresponding blessing on man is reserved for 9ff.—19. The animals leave the ark according to their families,—an example of P's love of order.

The Chronology of the Flood presents a number of intricate though unimportant problems.—The Dates, according to MT and Gr,* are as follows:

1. Commencement of Flood . 600th year, 2nd mo., 17th day (Gr 27th)
2. Climax (resting of ark) . " 7th " 17th " (Gr 27th)
3. Mountain tops visible . " 10th (Gr 11th), 1st "
4. Waters dried up . 601st year, 1st mo., 1st "
5. Earth dry. " 2nd " 27th "

The chief points are these: (a) In Gr the duration of the Flood is exactly 12 months; and since the 5 months between (1) and (2) amount to 150 days (724-88), the basis of reckoning is presumably the Egyptian solar year (12 mo. of 30 days + 5 intercalated days). The 2 months' interval between (3) and (4) also agrees, to a day, with the 40+21 days

5. "went on decreasing" (G-K. § 113 u); less idiomatic than * (J).—Tenth] Gr eleventh.—13a. After וָיְדַע יָדַע וֹיְנָה (71).

15. יָדַע יָדַע] Gr Kópos õ õ.—17. מָכַר read וָהַתְּבוּת; so v.19. — אֵלְכַר Why Gr substitutes in this solitary instance אֵלְכַר is not clear: see Kön. i. p. 641.—19. יָדַע יָדַע] Gr וָיְדַע וֹיְנָה (Impv.), omitting the previous וָיְדַע. This is perhaps the better text: see on 9ff. It reads the whole as Impv.

* Jub. v. 23-32 (cf. vi. 25 f.) adds several dates, but otherwise agrees with MT, except that it makes the Flood commence on the 27th, gives no date for the resting of the ark, and puts the drying of the earth on the 17th, and the opening of the ark on the 27th day of the 2nd month.
of 85-12 (J). In MT the total duration is 12 mo. + 10 days; hence the reckoning appears to be by lunar months of c. 29½ days, making up a solar year of 364 days.—(b) The Massoretic scheme, however, produces a discrepancy with the 150 days; for 5 lunar months fall short of that period by two or three days. Either the original reckoning was by solar months (as in Gr), or (what is more probable) the 150 days belong to an older computation independent of the Calendar.† It has been surmised that this points to a 10 months' duration of the Flood (150 days' increase + 150 days' subsidence); and (Ew. Di.) that a trace of this system remains in the 74 days' interval between (2) and (3), which amounts to about one-half of the period of subsidence.—(c) Of the separate data of the Calendar no satisfactory explanation has yet been given. The only date that bears its significance on its face is the disappearance of the waters on the 1st day of the year; and even this is confused by the trivial and irrelevant distinction between the drying up of the waters and the drying of the earth. Why the Flood began and ended in the 2nd month, and on the 17th or 27th day, remains, in spite of all conjectures, a mystery.‡ (d) The question whether the months are counted from the old Heb. New Year in the autumn, or, according to the post-Exilic (Babylonian) calendar, from the spring, has been discussed from the earliest times, and generally decided in favour of the former view (Jub., Jos. Ant. i. 80, T, R, and most).§ The arguments on one side or the other have little weight. If the second autumn month (Marchešwan) is a suitable time for the commencement of the Flood, because it inaugurates the rainy season in Palestine and Babylonia, it is for the same reason eminently unsuitable for its close. P elsewhere follows the Babylonian calendar, and there is no reason to suppose he departs from his usual procedure here (so Tu. Gu. al.).—(e) The only issue of real interest is how much of the chronology is to be attributed to the original Priestly Code. If there be two discordant systems in the record, the 150 days might be the reckoning of P, and the Calendar a later adjustment (Di.); or, again, the 150 days might be traditional, and the Calendar the work of P himself (Gu). On the former (the more probable) assumption the further question arises whether the additions were made before or after the amalgamation of J and P. The evidence is not decisive; but the divergences of Gr from MT seem to prove that the chronology was still in process of development after the formation of the Canon.—See Dahse, ZATW, xxviii. 7 ff., where it is shewn that a group of Greek MSS

* So Jub. vi. 32. Cf. Charles’s Notes, pp. 54 f. and 56 f.
† That it is a later redactional addition (Ho.) is much less likely.
‡ King (JTS, v. 204 f.) points out the probability that in the triennial cycle of Synagogue readings the Parasha containing the Flood-story fell to be read about the 17th Iyyar. This might conceivably have suggested the starting-point of the Calendar (but if so it would bring down the latter to a somewhat late period), or a modification of an original 27th (Gr), which, however, would itself require explanation.
§ See De. 175 f., 183, 184; Di. 129 f.
IX.

I–7. The new world-order.—The religious significance of the Flood to the mind of the Priestly writers appears in this and the following sections. It marks the introduction of a new and less ideal age of history, which is that under which mankind now lives. The original harmonious order of nature, in which all forms of slaughter were prohibited, had been violated by both men and animals before the Flood (see on 611f.). This is now replaced by a new constitution, in which the slaughter of animals for human food is legalised; and only two restrictions are imposed on the bloodthirsty instincts of the degenerate creatures: (1) Man may not eat the ‘life’ of an animal, and (2) human blood may not be shed with impunity either by man or beast.

The Rabbinical theologians were true to the spirit of the passage when they formulated the idea of the ‘Noachic commandments,’ binding on men generally, and therefore required of the ‘proselytes of the gate’; though they increased their number. See Schürer, iii. 128f.

Vv. 1–7, both in substance and expression (cf. הָרְשָׁעַת מִתַּנְתָּא, מִתַּנְתָּא לְגַשְּׁפָה, וּמִתַּנְתָּא לְגַשְׁפָּה אָדָם, and esp. בֵּשָׂ בִּדְרֵי), form a pendant to 129א. We have seen (p. 35) that these vv. are supplementary to the cosmogony; and the same is true of the present section in relation to the story of the Flood. It does not appear to be an integral part of the Deluge tradition; and has no parallel (as vv. 8–16 have) in J or the Bab. narrative (Gu.). But that neither this nor 129א is a secondary addition to P is clear from the phraseology here, which is moulded as obviously on 128א. as on 129א. To treat 9א as a later insertion (Ho.) is arbitrary. On the contrary, the two passages represent the characteristic contribution of P to the ancient traditions.

I. An almost verbal repetition of 128א. The wives of Noah and his sons are not mentioned, women having no religious standing in the OT (so v. 8). It is perhaps also significant that here (in contrast to 129א) the animals are excluded from the blessing (though not from the covenant—

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1. ᾑ adds at end καὶ κατακυριεύσατε αὐτήν, as 128א. —2. הָרְשָׁעַת הָרְשָׁעַת אָדָם ] ᾑ חָרְשָׁעַת (bhe). The 7 cannot be that of specification (7בא 8בג 9בג, 16 etc.), since no comprehensive category precedes; yet it is harsh to take it as continuing the sense of בַּי (ᾑ), and not altogether natural to render
vv. 10, 12, 15ff.).—2. Man's 'dominion' over the animals is re-established, but now in the form of fear and dread (cf. Dt. 11) towards him on their part.—into your hand they are given] conveying the power of life and death (Lev. 26, Dt. 19 etc.).—3. The central injunction: removal of the prohibition of animal food.—moving thing that is alive] an unusually vague definition of animal life.—Observe P's resolute ignoring of the distinction between clean and unclean animals.—4. The first restriction. Abstention from eating blood, or flesh from which the blood has not been drained, is a fundamental principle of the Levitical legislation (Lev. 7 17 10, 14); and though to our minds a purely ceremonial precept, is constantly classed with moral laws (Ezk. 33 etc.). The theory on which the prohibition rests is repeatedly stated (Lev. 17, Dt. 12): the blood is the life, and the life is sacred, and must be restored to God before the flesh can be eaten. Such mystic views of the blood are primitive and widespread; and amongst some races formed a motive not for abstinence, but for drinking it.* All the same it is unnecessary to go deeper in search of a reason for the ancient Heb. horror of eating with the blood (1 Sa. 14).—5, 6. The second restriction: sanctity of human life. 'Life' is expressed alternately by ב and שפ. On מזיחמלו, v.i.—I will require] exact an account of, or equivalent for (42, Ezek. 33, Ps. 9 etc.). That God is

* See RS², 234f.; Frazer, GB², i. 133f., 352f.; Kennedy, EB, 1544.
† It has been thought that the offence warned against is the barbarous African custom of eating portions of animals still alive (λ, Ra. De. al.); but that is a mistake.
the avenger of blood is to J (ch. 4) a truth of nature; to P it rests on a positive enactment.—from the hand of every beast] see Ex. 21st. 6a is remarkable for its assonances and the perfect symmetry of the two members: יִקְרָא הָאָדָם | הבוֹשָׁהוּ. It is possibly an ancient judicial formula which had become proverbial (Gu.). The כְּכָל (v.i.) read into the text the idea of judicial procedure; others (Tu. al.) suppose the law of blood-revenge to be contemplated. In reality the manner of execution is left quite indefinite.—6b. The reason for the higher value set on the life of man. On the image of God see on 1st.—7. The section closes, as it began, with the note of benediction.

8-17. The Covenant and its Sign.—In P as in J (820-22) the story of the Flood closes with an assurance that the world shall never again be visited by such a catastrophe; and in both the promise is absolute, not contingent on the behaviour of the creatures. In P it takes the form of a covenant between God and all flesh,—the first of two covenants by which (according to this writer) the relations of the Almighty to His creatures are regulated. On the content and scope of this Noachic covenant, see the concluding note, p. 173 f.—9. establish my covenant] in fulfilment of 618. P’s formula for the inauguration of the covenant is always וַיִּקְרָא or בִּנְהֵנָם (172, Nu. 2512) instead of the more ancient and technical בִּנְהֵנָו. —II. The essence of the covenant is that the earth shall never be devastated by a Flood. Whether its idea be exhausted by this assurance

one man that of another.’ The full expression would be שְׁמַעֲנַּא שֵׁאָנָא (Ols.); but all languages use breviloquence in the expression of reciprocity. The construction is hardly more difficult than in 1510 4225.35; and an exact parallel occurs in Zec. 710. See G-K. § 139 c; Bu. 283 ff. The וַיִּקְרָא of וַיְקַיְּמֶנָּם makes nonsense;遄 omits the previous וּתְנַחָא רִיץ. It would be better to move the Attnach so as to commence a new clause with וַיִּקְרָא. —6. וַיִּקְרָא] וַיִּקְרָא om. ; גו וַיִּקְרָא עַלְעָה דִּישָׁנָא: טול is still more explicit.—7. כָּל לְהָרָה] וַיִּקֵּם הָאָרֶץ (as v. 1). Read מַלְאָכָה וְרָתָא after 128 (Nestle in Ball).

10, 11] ‘as many as’; see on 62.-רֹאַים וְתָעָשֵׂה וְתִלְלוּ] וּרְאַתָּא om.—הֶלְלוּ] perhaps = ‘in short’: cf. 2310, see G-K. § 143 c. The sense of ‘רֹאַים = ‘animals’ in general, immediately after the same expression in the sense of ‘wild animals,’ makes the phrase suspicious (Ho.).—II. מִמְשָׁה] וּשָׁם וַיַּעֲשֵׂה
The Flood According to P

is a difficult question, on which see p. 173 below.—12-17. The sign of the covenant. "In times when contracts were not reduced to writing, it was customary, on the occasion of solemn vows, promises, and other ‘covenant’ transactions, to appoint a sign, that the parties might at the proper time be reminded of the covenant, and a breach of its observance be averted. Exx. in common life: Gn. 21:30, cf. 38:27." (Gu.)* Here the sign is a natural phenomenon—the rainbow; and the question is naturally asked whether the rainbow is conceived as not having existed before (so IEz. Tu.). That is the most obvious assumption, though not perhaps inevitable. That the laws of the refraction and reflection of light on which the rainbow depends actually existed before the time of Noah is a matter of which the writer may very well have been ignorant.—For the rest, the image hardly appears here in its original form. The brilliant spectacle of the upturned bow against the dark background of the retreating storm naturally appeals to man as a token of peace and good-will from the god who has placed it there; but of this thought the passage contains no trace: the bow is set in the cloud by God to remind Himself of the promise He has given. It would seem as if P, while retaining the anthropomorphism of the primitive conception, has sacrificed its primary significance to his abstract theory of the covenant with its accompanying sign. On the mythological origin of the symbol, see below.—14-16. Explanation of the sign. —14b continues 14a: and (when) the bow appears in the cloud; the apodosis commencing with 15 (against De.).—The bow seems conceived as lodged once for all in the cloud (so IEz.), to appear at

* Hence both of P's covenants are confirmed by a sign: the Abrahamic covenant by circumcision, and this by the rainbow.
the right moment for recalling the covenant to the mind of God.—16. an everlasting covenant] so 17, 18, 19, Ex. 31, Lv. 24, Nu. 18, 31 (all P).

The idealisation of the rainbow occurs in many mythologies. To the Indians it was the battle-bow of Indra, laid aside after his contest with the demons; among the Arabs "Kuzah shoots arrows from his bow, and then hangs it up in the clouds" (We. Prot. 311); by Homer it was personified as 'Iphoi, the radiant messenger of the Olympians (II. ii. 786, iii. 121; cf. Ov. Met. i. 270 f.), but also regarded as a portent of war and storm (xi. 27 f., xvii. 547 f.). In the Icelandic Eddas it is the bridge between heaven and earth. A further stage of idealisation is perhaps found in the Bab. Creation-myth, where Marduk's bow, which he had used against Tiamat, is set in the heavens as a constellation. 

These examples go far to prove a mythological origin of the symbolism of this passage. It springs from the imagery of the thunderstorm; the lightnings are Yahwe's arrows; when the storm is over, His bow (cf. Hab. 3:11, Ps. 74) is laid aside and appears in the sky as a sign that His anger is pacified. The connexion with the Flood-legend (of which there are several examples, though no Babylonian parallel has yet been discovered) would thus be a later, though still ancient, adaptation. The rainbow is only once again mentioned in OT (Ezk. 128 Ṣapp Ṣapp הַחַבָּלָה יִתְנָא וְגוֹיָנִים וּבִלְתָה יִתְנָא וְגוֹיָנִים: but see Sir. 43 50), and it is pointed out (by We. al.) that elsewhere Ṣapp always denotes the bow as a weapon, never an arc of a circle.

With regard to the covenant itself, the most important question theologically is whether it includes the regulations of vv. 1-8, or is confined to the unconditional promise that there shall no more be a flood. For the latter view there is undoubtedly much to be said (see Valeton, ZATW, xiiii. 3 f.). Vv. 1-7 and 8-17 are certainly distinct addresses, and possibly of different origin (p. 169); and while the first says nothing of a covenant, the second makes no reference to the preceding stipulations. Then, the sign of the covenant is a fact independent of human action; and it is undoubtedly the meaning of the author that the promise stands sure whether the precepts of 1-7 be observed or not. On the other hand, it is difficult to believe that P, to whom the Ṣapp means so much, should have dignified by that name the negative assurance of v. 11. In the case of the Abrahamic covenant, the Ṣapp marks a new ordering of the relations between God and the world, and is capable of being observed or violated by those with whom it is established. Analogy, therefore, is so far in favour of including the ordinances of 1-7 in the terms of the covenant (so Is. 24 31F). Kraetzschmar (Bundesvortstg. 192 ff.) solves the difficulty by the supposition that the idea of vv. 8-17 is borrowed by P from J, and represents the notion of the covenant characteristic of that document. It is much simpler to recognise the existence of different tendencies within the priestly school;
and we have seen that there are independent reasons for regarding vv.1-7 as supplementary to the Deluge tradition followed by P. If that be the case, it is probable that these vv. were inserted by the priestly author with the intention of bringing under the Noachic הָרֵם those elementary religious obligations which he regarded as universally binding on mankind.—On the conception of the הָרֵם in J and P, see chs. 15 and 17.

28, 29. The death of Noah.

The form of these vv. is exactly that of the genealogy, ch. 5; while they are at the same time the conclusion of the בְּרֵאשִׁים (6). How much was included under that rubric? Does it cover the whole of P's narrative of the Flood (so that ברֵאשִׁים is practically equivalent to 'biography'), or does it refer merely to the account of his immediate descendants in 6? The conjecture may be hazarded that 6.10 7.9-28.29 formed a section of the original book of ברֵאשִׁים, and that into this skeleton the full narrative of the Flood was inserted by one of the priestly writers (see the notes on 29). The relation of the assumed genealogy to that of ch. 5 would be precisely that of the ברֵאשִׁים of Terah (11.7-26) to the ברֵאשִׁים of Shem (11.10-26). In each case the second genealogy is extremely short; further, it opens by repeating the last link of the previous genealogy (in each case the birth of three sons, 5.10 6.10); and, finally, the second genealogy is interspersed with brief historical notices. It may, of course, be held that the whole history of Abraham belongs to the ברֵאשִׁים of Terah; that is the accepted view, and the reasons for disputing it are those mentioned on p. 40 f. Fortunately the question is of no great importance.

The Deluge Tradition.

1. Next to cosmogonies, flood-legends present perhaps the most interesting and perplexing problem in comparative mythology. The wide, though curiously unequal, distribution of these stories, and the frequent occurrence of detailed resemblances to the biblical narrative, have long attracted attention, and were not unnaturally accepted as independent evidence of the strictly historical character of the latter.*

29. הָרֵם, Heb. MSS (London Polyglott) and מָיָם וּרְאָם.

* Andree (Die Flutsagen ethnographisch betrachtet, 1891), who has collected between eighty and ninety such stories (of which he recognises forty-three as original and genuine, and twenty-six as influenced by the Bab.) points out, e.g., that they are absent in Arabia, in northern and central Asia, in China and Japan, are hardly found anywhere in Europe (except Greece) or Africa, while the most numerous and remarkable instances come from the American continent (p. 125 f.). The enumeration, however, must not be considered as closed: Naville (PSBA, 1904, 251-257, 287-294) claims to have found fresh proof of an Egyptian
On the question of the universality of the Deluge* they have, of course, no immediate bearing, though they frequently assert it; for it could never be supposed that the mere occurrence of a legend in a remote part of the globe proved that the Flood had been there. The utmost that could be claimed is that there had been a deluge coextensive with the primitive seat of mankind; and that the memory of the cataclysm was carried with them by the various branches of the race in their dispersion. But even that position, which is still maintained by some competent writers, is attended by difficulties which are almost insuperable. The scientific evidence for the antiquity of man all over the world shows that such an event (if it ever occurred) must have taken place many thousands of years before the date assigned to Noah; and that the tradition should have been preserved for so long a time among savage peoples without the aid of writing is incredible. The most reasonable line of explanation (though it cannot here be followed out in detail) is that the great majority of the legends preserve the recollection of local catastrophes, such as inundations, tidal waves, seismic floods accompanied by cyclones, etc., of which many historical examples are on record; while in a considerable number of cases these local legends have been combined with features due either to the diffusion of Babylonian culture or to the direct influence of the Bible through Christian missionaries.† In this note we shall confine our attention to the group of legends most closely affiliated to the Babylonian tradition.

2. Of the Babylonian story the most complete version is contained in the eleventh Tablet of the Gilgamesh Epic.‡ Gilgamesh has arrived at the Isles of the Blessed to inquire of his ancestor Utu-napištim how he had been received into the society of the gods. The answer is the long and exceedingly graphic description of the Flood which occupies the bulk of the Tablet. The hero relates how, while he dwelt at Surippak on tradition in a text of the Book of the Dead, containing the following words: "And further I (the god Tum) am going to deface all I have done; this earth will become water (or an ocean) through an inundation, as it was at the beginning" (I.c. p. 289).

* On the overwhelming geological and other difficulties of such a hypothesis, see Dri. 99 f.

† See Andree, I.c. 143 ff.; Suess, The Face of the Earth, i. 18-72 pass. Cf. the discussion by Woods in DB, ii. 17 ff.; and Dri. Gen. 101 ff.—Lenormant, who once maintained the independence of the legends as witnesses to a primitive tradition, afterwards expressed himself with more reserve, and conceded the possibility that the Mexican and Polynesian myths might be distant echoes of a central legend, emanating ultimately from Babylonia (Orig. i. 471 f., 488 ff.).

‡ Discovered by G. Smith, in 1872, among the ruins of Assur-urbanipal’s library; published 1873-4; and often translated since. See KAT², 55 ff.; Jen. Kosmologie, 368 ff.; Zimmern in Gu.’s Schöpf. u. Chaos, 423 ff.; Jen. KIB, vi. 1, 116 ff. (the translation followed below); Ba. Light from the East, 35 ff.; Je. ATLO², 228 ff.; and the abridgments in Jast. RBA¹, 493 ff.; KAT², 545 ff.; Texte u. Bilder, i. 50 ff.
the Euphrates, it was resolved by the gods in council to send the Flood (*abûbu*) on the earth. Ea, who had been present at the council, resolved to save his favourite Utnapištim; and contrived without overt breach of confidence to convey to him a warning of the impending danger, commanding him to build a ship (*ellippu*) of definite dimensions for the saving of his life. The 'superlatively clever one' (*Atra-ḫasis*, a name of Utnapištim) understood the message and promised to obey; and was furnished with a misleading pretext to offer his fellow-citizens for his extraordinary proceedings. The account of the building of the ship (l. 48 ff.) is even more obscure than Gn. 6:14-32: it is enough to say that it was divided into compartments and was freely smeared with bitumen. The lading of the vessel, and the embarking of the family and dependants of Utnapištim (including artizans), with domestic and wild animals, are then described (l. 81 ff.); and last of all, in the evening, on the appearance of a sign predicted by Šamaš the sun-god, Utnapištim himself enters the ship, shuts his door, and hands over the command to the steersman, Puzur-Bel (90 ff.). On the following morning the storm (magnificently described in ll. 97 ff.) broke; and it raged for six days and nights, till all mankind were destroyed, and the very gods fled to the heaven of Anu and "cowered in terror like a dog."

"When the seventh day came, the hurricane, the Flood, the battle-storm was stilled,  
Which had fought like a (host?) of men.  
The sea became calm, the tempest was still, the Flood ceased.  
When I saw the day, no voice was heard,  
And the whole of mankind was turned to clay.  
When the daylight came, I prayed,  
I opened a window and the light fell on my face,  
I knelt, I sat, and wept,  
On my nostrils my tears ran down.  
I looked on the spaces in the realm of the sea;  
After twelve double-hours an island stood out.  
At Nišir* the ship had arrived.  
The mountain of Nišir stayed the ship . . . ." (ll. 130-142).

This brings us to the incident of the birds (146-155):  
"When the seventh day † came  
I brought out a dove and let it go.  
The dove went forth and came back:  
Because it had not whereon to stand it returned.  
I brought forth a swallow and let it go.  
The swallow went forth and came back:  
Because it had not whereon to stand it returned.  
I brought forth a raven and let it go.  
The raven went forth and saw the decrease of the waters,  
It ate, it . . . it croaked, but returned not again."

* See p. 166.  † From the landing.
On this Utnapištim released all the animals; and, leaving the ship, offered a sacrifice:

"The gods smelt the savour,
The gods smelt the goodly savour
The gods gathered like flies over the sacrifcer" (160 ff.).

The deities then begin to quarrel, Ištar and Ea reproaching Bel for his thoughtlessness in destroying mankind indiscriminately, and Bel accusing Ea of having connived at the escape of Utnapištim. Finally, Bel is appeased; and entering the ship blesses the hero and his wife:

"Formerly Utnapištim was a man;
But now shall Utnapištim and his wife be like to us the gods:
Utnapištim shall dwell far hence at the mouth of the streams.'
Then they took me, and far away at the mouth of the streams they made me dwell" (202 ff.).

3. The dependence of the biblical narrative on this ancient Babylonian legend hardly requires detailed proof. It is somewhat more obvious in the Yahwistic recension than in the Priestly; but there is enough in the common substratum of the two accounts to show that the Heb. tradition as a whole was derived from Babylonia. Thus both J and P agree with the Bab. story in the general conception of the Flood as a divine visitation, its universality (so far as the human race is concerned), the warnings conveyed to a favoured individual, and the final pacification of the deity who had caused the Deluge. J agrees with Bab. in the following particulars: the entry of the hero into the ark after the premonitory rain; the shutting of the door; the prominence of the number 7; the episode of the birds; the sacrifice; and the effect of its 'savour' on the gods. P has also its peculiar correspondences (though some of these may have been in J originally): e.g. the precise instructions for building the ark; the mention of bitumen (a distinctively Bab. touch); the grounding of the ark on a mountain; the blessing on the survivors.† By the side of this close and marked parallelism, the material differences on which Nickel (p. 185) lays stress—viz. as to (a) the chronology, (b) the landing-place of the ark, (c) the details of the

* Two fragments of another recension of the Flood-legend, in which the hero is regularly named Atra-šasis, have also been deciphered. One of them, being dated in the reign of Ammizaduga (c. 1980 B.C.), is important as proving that this recension had been reduced to writing at so early a time; but it is too mutilated to add anything substantial to our knowledge of the history of the tradition (see KIB, 288–291). The other is a mere scrap of twelve lines, containing Ea's instructions to Atra-šasis regarding the building and entering of the ark, and the latter's promise to comply (KIB, 256–259). See Kat*, 551 f.—The extracts from Berossus preserved by Eus. present the Babylonian story in a form substantially agreeing with that of the Gilgamesh Tablets, though with some important variations in detail. See Euseb. Chron. i. (ed. Schoene, cols. 19–24, 32–34: cf. Müller, Fr. Hist. Gr. ii. 501 ff.).

† See more fully Driver, p. 106.
sending out of the birds, (d) the sign of the rainbow (absent in Bab.), and (e) the name of the hero—sink into insignificance. They are, indeed, sufficient to disprove immediate literary contact between the Heb. writers and the Gilgameş Tablets; but they do not weaken the presumption that the story had taken the shape known to us in Babylonia before it passed into the possession of the Israelites. And since we have seen (p. 177) that the Babylonian legend was already reduced to writing about the time usually assigned to the Abrahamic migration, it is impossible to suppose that the Heb. oral tradition had preserved an independent recollection of the historical occurrence which may be assumed as the basis of fact underlying the Deluge tradition.—The differences between the two narratives are on this account all the more instructive. While the Genesis narratives are written in prose, and reveal at most occasional traces of a poetic original (82 in J, 711b 8 in P), the Babylonian epic is genuine poetry, which appeals to a modern reader in spite of the strangeness of its antique sentiment and imagery. Reflecting the feelings of the principal actor in the scene, it possesses a human interest and pathos of which only a few touches appear in J, and none at all in P. The difference here is not wholly due to the elimination of the mythological element by the biblical writers: it is characteristic of the Heb. popular tale that it shuns the ‘fine frenzy’ of the poet, and finds its appropriate vehicle in the unaffected simplicity of prose recitation. In this we have an additional indication that the story was not drawn directly from a Babylonian source, but was taken from the lips of the common people; although in P it has been elaborated under the influence of the religious theory of history peculiar to that document (p. lx f.). The most important divergences are naturally those which spring from the religion of the OT—its ethical spirit, and its monotheistic conception of God. The ethical motive, which is but feebly developed in the Babylonian account, obtains clear recognition in the hands of the Heb. writers; the Flood is a divine judgement on human corruption; and the one family saved is saved on account of the righteousness of its head. More pervasive still is the influence of the monotheistic idea. The gods of the Babylonian version are vindictive, capricious, divided in counsel, false to each other and to men; the writer speaks of them with little reverence, and appears to indulge in flashes of Homeric satire at their expense. Over against this picturesque variety of deities we have in Genesis the one almighty and righteous God,—a Being capable of anger and pity, and even change of purpose, but holy and just in His dealings with men. It is possible that this transformation supplies the key to some subtle affinities between the two streams of tradition. Thus in the Bab. version the fact that the command to build the ark precedes the announcement of the Flood, is explained by the consideration that Ea cannot explicitly divulge the purpose of the gods; whereas in J it becomes a test of the obedience of Noah (Gu, p. 66). Which representation is older can scarcely be doubted. It is true, at all events, that the Bab. parallel serves as a "measure of the unique grandeur of the idea of God in Israel, which was powerful enough to purify
and transform in such a manner the most uncongenial and repugnant features" of the pagan myth (ib.); and, further, that "the Flood-story of Genesis retains to this day the power to waken the conscience of the world, and was written by the biblical narrator with this paedagogic and ethical purpose" (ATLO, p. 252).

4. Of other ancient legends in which some traces of the Chaldean influence may be suspected, only a very brief account can here be given. The Indian story, to which there is a single allusion in the Vedas, is first fully recorded in the Çatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8. 1-10.* It relates how Manu, the first man, found one day in the water with which he performed his morning ablution a small fish, which begged him to take care of it till it should attain its full growth, and then put it in the sea. Manu did so, and in gratitude for its deliverance the fish warned him of the year in which the Flood would come, promising; if he would build a ship, to return at the appointed time and save him. When the Flood came the fish appeared with it; Manu attached the cable of his ship to the fish's horn, and was thus towed to the mountain of the north, where he landed, and whence he gradually descended as the waters fell. In a year's time a woman came to him, announcing herself as his daughter, produced from the offerings he had cast into the water; and from this pair the human race sprang. In a later form of the tradition (Mahābhārata, iii. 187. 2ff.),† the Babylonian affinities are somewhat more obvious; but even in the oldest version they are not altogether negligible, especially when we remember that the fish (which in the Mahābhārata is an incarnation of Brahma) was the symbol of the god Ea.‡—The Greeks had several Flood-legends, of which the most widely diffused was that of Deukalion, best known from the account of Apollodorus (i. 7. 2ff.).§ Zeus, resolved to destroy the brazen race, sends a heavy rain, which floods the greater part of Greece, and drowns all men except a few who escape to the mountain tops. But Deukalion, on the advice of his father Prometheus, had prepared a chest, loaded it with provisions, and taken refuge in it with his wife Pyrrha. After 9 days and nights they land on Parnassus; Deukalion sacrifices to Zeus and prays for a new race of men: these are produced from stones which he and his wife, at the command of the god, throw over their shoulders. The incident of the ark seems here incongruous, since other human beings were saved without it. It is perhaps an

* Translated by Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, xii. 216 ff. See Usener, Die Sinsfluthsagen (Religionsgeschichtliche Untersuchungen, iii.), 25 ff.
† Translated by Protap Chandra Roy (Calcutta, 1884), iii. 552 ff. See Usener, 29 ff.
‡ Usener, however (240 ff.), maintains the entire independence of the Indian and Semitic legends.
§ The earliest allusion is Pindar, Ol. 9. 41 ff. Cf. Ovid, Met. i. 244-415; Paus. i. 40. 1, x. 6. 2, etc. The incident of the dove (in a peculiar modification) appears only in Plut. De sollert. an. 13.—Usener, 31 ff., 244 ff.
indication of the amalgamation of a foreign element with local Deluge traditions.—A Syrian tradition, with some surprising resemblances to P in Gen., has been preserved by the Pseudo-Lucian (De dea Syra, 12, 13). The wickedness of men had become so great that they had to be destroyed. The fountains of the earth and the flood-gates of heaven were opened simultaneously; the whole world was submerged, and all men perished. Only the pious Deukalion-Sisuthros * was saved with his family in a great chest, into which as he entered all sorts of animals crowded. When the water had disappeared, Deukalion opened the ark, erected altars, and founded the sanctuary of Derketo at Hierapolis. The hole in the earth which swallowed up the Flood was shown under the temple, and was seen by the writer, who thought it not quite big enough for the purpose. In Usener’s opinion we have here the Chaldean legend localised at a Syrian sanctuary, there being nothing Greek about it except the name Deukalion.—A Phrygian localisation of the Semitic tradition is attested by the epithet ὀμήρως applied to the Phrygian Apameia (Kelainai) from the time of Augustus (Strabo, xii. 8, 13, etc.); and still more remarkably by bronze coins of that city dating from the reign of Septimius Severus. On these an open chest is represented, bearing the inscription ΝΟΕ, in which are seen the figures of the hero and his wife; a dove is perched on the lid of the ark, and another is flying with a twig in its claws. To the left the same two human figures are seen standing in the attitude of prayer,† The late date of these coins makes the hypothesis of direct Jewish, or even Christian, influence extremely probable.—The existence of a Phoenician tradition is inferred by Usener (248 ff.) from the discovery in Etruria and Sardinia of bronze models of ships with various kinds of animals standing in them: one of them is said to date from the 7th cent. B.C. There is no extant written record of the Phoenician legend: on Gruppe’s reconstruction from the statements of Greek mythographers see above, p. 141.

5. There remains the question of the origin of this widespread and evidently very popular conception of a universal Deluge. That it embodies a common primitive tradition of an historic event we have already seen to be improbable. If we suppose the original story to have been elaborated in Babylonia, and to have spread thence to other peoples, it may still be doubtful whether we have to do “with a legend based upon facts” or “with a myth which has assumed the form of a history.” The mythical theory has been most fully worked out by Usener, who finds the germ of the story in the favourite mythological image of “the god in the chest,” representing the voyage of the sun-god across the heavenly ocean: similar explanations were independently propounded by Cheyne (EB, 1063 f.) and Zimmerm (ib. 1058 f.; KAT, 555). Of a somewhat different order is the astrological theory advocated by Jeremias (249 ff.). The Babylonian astronomers were aware that

* Text Δευκάλιωνα τὸν Σκόθεα, which Buttmann (Mythologus, i. 192) ingeniously emended to Δ. τ. Σκόθεα—a modification of the Σκόθρος of Abydenus.
† See the reproductions in Usener, 45, and Je. ATLO, 131, 2235.
in the course of ages the spring equinox must traverse the watery (southern) region of the Zodiac: this, on their system, signified a submergence of the whole universe in water; and the Deluge-myth symbolises the safe passage of the vernal sun-god through that part of the ecliptic.—Whatever truth there may be in these theories, it is certain that they do not account for the concrete features of the Chaldean legend; and if (as can hardly be denied) mythical motives are present, it seems just as likely that they were grafted on to a historic tradition as that the history is merely the garb in which a solar or astral myth arrayed itself. The most natural explanation of the Babylonian narrative is after all that it is based on the vague reminiscence of some memorable and devastating flood in the Euphrates valley, as to the physical possibility of which, it may suffice to quote the (perhaps too literal) description of an eminent geologist: "In the course of a seismic period of some duration the water of the Persian Gulf was repeatedly driven by earthquake shocks over the plain at the mouth of the Euphrates. Warned by these floods, a prudent man, Ḥasīs-adra, i.e. the god-fearing philosopher, builds a ship for the rescue of his family, and caulks it with pitch, as is still the custom on the Euphrates. The movements of the earth increase; he flees with his family to the ship; the subterranean water bursts forth from the fissured plain; a great diminution in atmospheric pressure, indicated by fearful storm and rain, probably a true cyclone, approaches from the Persian Gulf, and accompanies the most violent manifestations of the seismic force. The sea sweeps in a devastating flood over the plain, raises the rescuing vessel, washes it far inland, and leaves it stranded on one of those Miocene foot-hills which bound the plain of the Tigris on the north and north-east below the confluence of the Little Zab" (Eduard Suess, The Face of the Earth, i. 72). See, however, the criticism of Sollas, The Age of the Earth, 316.

IX. 18—27.—Noah as Vine-grower: His Curse and Blessing (J).

Noah is here introduced in an entirely new character, as the discoverer of the culture of the vine; and the first victim to immoderate indulgence in its fruit. This leads on to an account of the shameless behaviour of his youngest son, and the modesty and filial feeling of the two elder; in consequence of which Noah pronounces a curse on Canaan and blessings on Shem and Japheth.—The Noah of vv. 20—27 almost certainly comes from a different cycle of tradition from the righteous and blameless patriarch who is the hero of the Flood. The incident, indeed, cannot, without violating all probability, be harmonised with the Flood-
narrative at all. In the latter, Noah’s sons are married men who take their wives into the ark (so expressly in P, but the same must be presumed for J); here, on the contrary, they are represented as minors living in the ‘tent’ with their father; and the conduct of the youngest is obviously conceived as an exhibition of juvenile depravity (so Di. Bu. al.). The presumption, therefore, is that vv. 20-27 belong to a stratum of J which knew nothing of the Flood; and this conclusion is confirmed by an examination of the structure of the passage.

First of all, we observe that in v. 24 the offender is the youngest son of Noah, and in v. 25 is named Canaan; while Shem and Japheth are referred to as his brothers. True, in v. 22 the misdeed is attributed to ‘Ham the father of Canaan’; but the words יִבְשָׂל have all the appearance of a gloss intended to cover the transition from 18b to 20b; and the clause יִבְשָׂל יַעֲשֵׂה in 18b can have no other purpose. Now 18a is the close of J’s account of the Flood; and 19 points forward either to J’s list of Nations (ch. 10), or to the dispersion of the Tower of Babel. Vv. 20-27 interrupt this connexion, and must accordingly be assigned to a separate source. That that source is, however, still Yahwistic, is shown partly by the language (יִבְשָׂל, v. 26 [in spite of same in v. 27]; and יַעֲשֵׂה, v. 20); and more especially by the connexion with 5:29 (see pp. 3, 133 f.). It is clear, therefore, that a redactor (RJ) has here combined two Yahwistic documents, and sought to reduce the contradiction by the glosses in 18b and 22.

18, 19. Connecting verses (see above).—Noah’s sons are here for the first time named in J, in harmony, however, with the repeated notices of P (5:28 6:10 7:18). On the names see on ch. 10 (p. 195 f.).—20. Noah the husbandman was the first who planted a vineyard]—a fresh advance in human civilisation. The allusion to Noah as the husbandman is

19. יָשְׁבָל יָבָשָׂל יַעֲשֵׂה] ‘the whole (population of the) earth was scattered.’ For the construction cf. 10:6. יָשְׁבָל hardly contracted Niph. from יָשְׁבָל (=Yahw.) (G-K. § 67 dd); but from יָשְׁבָל, whether this be a secondary formation from יָשְׁבָל (G-B. 465 f.), or an independent word (BDB, 659). Cf. 1 Sa. 13:11, Is. 11:12 33:3.—20. יִבְשָׂל יַעֲשֵׂה] cf. 4:26 6:4 10:8 11:4 44:12 (J) 41:24 (E). The rendering ‘Noah commenced as a husbandman’ (Dav. § 83, R. 2) is impossible on account of the art. (ct. 1 Sa. 3:4): to insert יָשְׁבָל (Ball) does not get rid of the difficulty. The construction with י cons., instead of inf., is very unusual (Ezr. 3:8); hence Che. (EB, 3426).*

* Comp. יָשָׁב with 10:8 11:4, 8, 9; and יָבָשָׂל (=the population of the earth) with 11:9 (Bu.); יָשְׁבָל יָבָשָׂל יַעֲשֵׂה with 10:8 22:28 25:1 (Ho.).
perplexing. If the text be right (v. i.), it implies a previous account of him as addicted to (perhaps the inventor of) agriculture, which now in his hands advances to the more refined stage of vine-growing. See the note on p. 185.

Amongst other peoples this discovery was frequently attributed to a god (Dionysus among the Greeks, Osiris among the Egyptians), intoxication being regarded as a divine inspiration. The orgiastic character of the religion of the Canaanites makes it probable that the same view prevailed amongst them; and it has even been suggested that the Noah of this passage was originally a Canaanitish wine-god (see Niebuhr, Geschicte d. Ebräischen Zeitalters, 36 ff.). The native religion of Israel (like that of Mohammed) viewed this form of indulgence with abhorrence; and under strong religious enthusiasm the use of fermented drinks was entirely avoided (the Nazirites, Samson, the Rechabites). This feeling is reflected in the narrative before us, where Noah is represented as experiencing in his own person the full degradation to which his discovery had opened the way. It exhibits the repugnance of a healthy-minded race towards the excesses of a debased civilisation.—Since the vine is said to be indigenous to Armenia and Pontus (see De. Di.), it has naturally been proposed to connect the story with the landing of the ark in Ararat. But we have seen that the passage has nothing to do with the Deluge-tradition; and it is more probable that it is an independent legend, originating amidst Palestinian surroundings.

21. uncovered himself] the same result of drunkenness in Hab. 215, La. 421.—22. There is no reason to think (with Ho. and Gu.) that Canaan was guilty of any worse sin than the Schadenfreude implied in the words. Heb. morality called for the utmost delicacy in such matters, like that evinced by Shem and Japheth in v. 23—24. רכיבית cannot mean 'his younger son' (א) (i.e. as compared with

following Kue. (ThT, xviii. 147), proposes ויהי for ויה: 'Noah was the first to plough the ground.' That reading would be fatal to any connexion of the section with Gn. 3, unless we suppose a distinction between יד (manual tillage) and יי. Strangely enough, Ra. (on 529) repeats the Haggadic tradition that Noah invented the ploughshare; but this is probably a conjecture based on a comparison of 317 with 529.* —22. יא] G pref. kal eilathov.—23. יא] On the art., see G-K. § 126 r. That it was the 'v which Canaan had previously taken away, and that this notice was deliberately omitted by J (Gu.), is certainly not to be inferred. The 'v is the upper garment, which was also used for sleeping in (Ex. 2226 etc.).—24. יא on the irreg. seghol, see G-K.

* So Mr. Abrahams, in a private communication.
Shem); still less 'his contemptible son' (Ra.); or Ham's youngest (IEz.). The conclusion is not to be evaded that the writer follows a peculiar genealogical scheme in which Canaan is the youngest son of Noah.——25–27. Noah's curse and blessings must be presumed to have been legible in the destinies of his reputed descendants at the time when the legend took shape (cf. 2731\textsuperscript{st}. 80\textsuperscript{th}. 49) (on the fulfilment see the concluding note, p. 186 f.). The dominant feature is the curse on Canaan, which not only stands first, but is repeated in the blessings on the two brothers.——25. The descendants of Canaan are doomed to perpetual enslavement to the other two branches of the human family.—a servant of servants] means 'the meanest slave' (G–K. § 133 i).—to his brethren] not the other members of the Hamitic race, but (as is clear from the following vv.) to Shem and Japheth.—26. Blessed be Yahwe the God of Shem] The idea thus expressed is not satisfactory. To 'bless' Yahwe means no more than to praise Him; and an ascription of praise to Yahwe is only in an oblique sense a blessing on Shem, inasmuch as it assumes a religious primacy of the Shemites in having Yahwe for their God. Bu. (294 f.) proposed to omit וֹ and read בָּנָי נַרְבּ חָדַשׁ: Blessed of Yahwe be Shem (cf. 2431 2629 [both J]). Di.'s objection, that this does not express wherein the blessing consists, applies with quite as much force to the received text. Perhaps a better emendation is that of Graetz وبאר יִנָחֵי חָדַשׁ (where would be still more acceptable): [May] Yahwe bless the tents of Shem; see the next v.—27. May God expand (פֹּלְשׁ) Yepheth: a play on the name (פֹּלְשׁ). The use of the generic וֹλְשׁ implies that the proper name

§ 70 n.—26. וֹל may stand either for וֹל (coll.) or לָב: see Note 3 in G–K. § 103 f. The latter is the more natural here. Ols. (MBBA, June 1870, 382) proposed to omit וֹל, substituting וֹל (גֵּר–לְפִיה), and retain וֹל with ref. of pl. suff. to וֹל. G has וֹל in וֹל and וֹל in וֹל.—27. וֹל] G וֹלָהֲלוּיָ, וֹל dialate, etc. The וֹל in the sense 'be spacious' is extremely rare in Heb. (Pr. 2019 [2428]), and the accepted rendering not beyond challenge. Nö. (BL, iii. 191) denies the geographical sense, and explains the word from the frequent Semitic figure of spaciousness for prosperity. This would almost require us to take the subject of the following clause to be God (v.s.).
was the peculiar property of the Shemites.—*and may he dwell*] or *that he may dwell*. The subject can hardly be God (*Jub. τ*, *Ber. R. Ra. IEz. Nö. al.*), which would convey no blessing to Japheth; the wish refers most naturally to Japheth, though it is impossible to decide whether the expression 'dwell in the tents of' denotes friendly intercourse (so most) or forcible dispossessio (Gu.). For the latter sense cf. Ps 78^5^, 1 Ch. 5^10^.—A Messianic reference to the ingathering of the Gentiles into the Jewish or Christian fold (*τ*, Fathers, De. al.) is foreign to the thought of the passage: see further below.

The question of the origin and significance of this remarkable narrative has to be approached from two distinct points of view.—I. In one aspect it is a culture-myth, of which the central motive is the discovery of wine. Here, however, it is necessary to distinguish between the original idea of the story and its significance in the connexion of the Yahwistic document. Read in its own light, as an independent fragment of tradition, the incident signalises the transition from nomadic to agricultural life. Noah, the first husbandman and vine-grower, is a tent-dweller (v.21); and this mode of life is continued by his oldest and favoured son Shem (27). Further, the identification of husbandry and vine culture points to a situation in which the simpler forms of agriculture had been supplemented by the cultivation of the grape. Such a situation existed in Palestine when it was occupied by the Hebrews. The sons of the desert who then served themselves heirs by conquest to the Canaanitish civilisation escaped the protracted evolution of vine-growing from primitive tillage, and stepped into the possession of the farm and the vineyard at once. From this point of view the story of Noah's drunkenness expresses the healthy recoil of primitive Semitic morality from the licentious habits engendered by a civilisation of which a salient feature was the enjoyment and abuse of wine. Canaan is the prototype of the population which had succumbed to these enervating influences, and is doomed by its vices to enslavement at the hands of hardier and more virtuous races.—In the setting in which it is placed by the Yahwist the incident acquires a profounder and more tragic significance. The key to this secondary interpretation is the prophecy of Lamech in 5^20^, which brings it into close connexion with the account of the Fall in ch. 3 (p. 133). Noah's discovery is there represented as an advance or refinement on the tillage of the ground to which man was sentenced in consequence of his first transgression. And the oracle of Lamech appears to show that the invention of wine is conceived as a relief from the curse. How far it is looked on as a divinely approved mode of alleviating the monotony of toil is hard to decide. The moderate use of wine is certainly not condemned in the OT: on the other hand, it is impossible to doubt that the light in which Noah is
exhibited, and the subsequent behaviour of his youngest son, are meant to convey an emphatic warning against the moral dangers attending this new step in human development, and the degeneration to which it may lead.

II. In the narrative, however, the cultural motive is crossed by an ethnographic problem, which is still more difficult to unravel. Who are the peoples represented by the names Shem, Japheth, and Canaan? Three points may be regarded as settled: that Shem is that family to which the Hebrews reckoned themselves; that Canaan stands for the pre-Israelitish inhabitants of Palestine; and that the servitude of Canaan to Shem at least includes the subjugation of the Canaanites by Israel in the early days of the monarchy. Beyond this everything is uncertain. The older view, which explains Shem and Japheth in terms of the Table of Nations (ch. 10),—i.e. as corresponding roughly to what we call the Semitic and Aryan races,—has always had difficulty in discovering a historic situation combining Japhetic dominion over the Canaanites with a dwelling of Japheth in the tents of Shem.* To understand the latter of an ideal brotherhood or religious bond between the two races brings us no nearer a solution, unless we take the passage as a prophecy of the diffusion of Christianity; and even then it fails to satisfy the expressions of the text (Di., who explains the figure as expressing the more kindly feeling of the Heb. towards these races, as compared with the Canaanites).—A number of critics, starting from the assumption that the oracles reflect the circumstances and aspirations of the age when the Yahwistic document originated, take Shem as simply a name for Israel, and identify Japheth either with the Philistines (We. Mey,) or the Phœnicians (Bu. Sta. Ho.). But that the Hebrews should have wished for an enlargement of the Philistines at their own expense is incredible; and as for the Phœnicians, though their colonial expansion might have been viewed with complacency in Israel, there is no proof that an occupation of Israelitish territory on their part either took place, or would have been approved by the national sentiment under the monarchy. The alienation of a portion of Galilee to the Tyrians (i Ki. 9:11-15) (Bu.) is an event little likely to have been idealised in Heb. legend. The difficulties of this theory are so great that Bertholet has proposed to recast the narrative with the omission of Japheth, leaving Shem and Canaan as types of the racial antipathy between the Hebrews and Canaanites: the figure of Japheth, and the blessing on him, he supposes to have been introduced

* As regards the former, the expulsion of Phœnician colonists from the Mediterranean coasts and Asia Minor by the Greeks (Di.) could never have been described as enslavement (see Mey. GA 1311 f.); and the capture of Tyrre by Alexander, the Roman conquest of Carthage, etc. (De.), are events certainly beyond the horizon of the writer,—unless, indeed, we adopt Berth.'s suggestion (see above), that v. 27 is very late. For the latter, Di. hints at an absorption of Japhetic peoples in the Semitic world-empires; but that would rather be a dwelling of Shem in the tents of Japheth.
after the time of Alexander the Great, as an expression of the friendly feeling of the Jews for their Hellenic conquerors.*—Gu.'s explanation, which is put forward with all reserve, breaks ground in an opposite direction. Canaan, he suggests, may here represent the great wave of Semitic migration which (according to some recent theories) had swept over the whole of Western Asia (c. 2250 B.C.), leaving its traces in Babylonia, in Phoenicia, perhaps even in Asia Minor,† and of which the later Canaanites of Palestine were the sediment. Shem is the Hebrew-Aramaic family, which appears on the stage of history after 1500 B.C., and no doubt took possession of territory previously occupied by Canaanites. It is here represented as still in the nomadic condition. Japheth stands for the Hittites, who in that age were moving down from the north, and establishing their power partly at the cost of both Canaanites and Arameans. This theory hardly explains the peculiar contempt and hatred expressed towards Canaan; and it is a somewhat serious objection to it that in 1615 (which Gu. assigns to the same source as 5375) Heth is the son of Canaan. A better defined background would be the struggle for the mastery of Syria in the 14th cent. B.C.‡ If, as many Assyriologists think probable, the Ḥabiri of the Tel-Amarna Letters be the דַּתִּי of the OT,—i.e. the original Hebrew stock to which Israel belonged,—it would be natural to find in Shem the representative of these invaders; for in 1621 (J) Shem is described as 'the father of all the sons of Eber.' Japheth would then be one or other of the peoples who, in concert with the Ḥabiri, were then seeking a foothold in the country, possibly the Suti or the Amurri, less probably (for the reason mentioned above) the Hittites.—These surmises must be taken for what they are worth. Further light on that remote period of history may yet clear up the circumstances in which the story of Noah and his sons originated; but unless the names Shem and Japheth should be actually discovered in some historic connexion, the happiest conjectures can never effect a solution of the problem.

**CH. X.—The Table of Peoples (P and J).**

In its present form, the chapter is a redactional composition, in which are interwoven two (if not three) successive attempts to classify the known peoples of the world, and to

* See We. *Comp.* 14 f. ; Bu. *Urg.* 325 ff. ; Sta. *GVI*, i. 109 ; Mey. *GA*₁, i. p. 214 ; Bertholet, *Stellung d. Isr. zu. d. Fremden*, 76 f. Meyer's later theory (*INS*, 220 f.), that Japheth (= Eg. *Kefi?*) stands for the whole body of northern invaders in the 12th cent. to whom the Philistines belonged, does not diminish the improbability that such a prophecy should have originated under the monarchy.

† See Mey. *GA*₁, i. p. 212 ff. ; Wi. *GI*, i. 37, 130, 134; Peiser, *KIB*, iv. p. viii.

‡ Already suggested by Ben. (p. 158), who, however, is inclined to identify the Ḥabiri with Japheth.
exhibit their origin and mutual relationships in the form of a genealogical tree.

Analysis.—The separation of the two main sources is due to the lucid and convincing analysis of We. (Comp. 2 6ff.). The hand of P is easily recognised in the superscription (1b ḫāṯān Ḥāya), and the methodical uniformity of the tripartite scheme, with its recurrent opening and closing formulae. The headings of the three sections are: ḥāṯ; ḥāṯ (2), ḥāṯ ḫūṣ (6), and ḥāṯ ḫūṣ (22); the respective conclusions are found in 5. (mutilated) 20. 31, v. 32 being a final summary. This framework, however, contains several continuous sections which obviously belong to J. (a) 8-12; the account of Nimrod (who is not even mentioned by P among the sons of Kush) stands out both in character and style in strong contrast to P: note also ḥāṯ instead of ḥāṯ (6), ḥāṯ (6). (b) 13ff.: the sons of Mizraim (v. ḥāṯ). (c) 15-19: the Canaanites ( getSupportActionBar! ¡). (d) 21. 25-30: the Shemites (খা; 21. 25-30; খা; 26).—Duplication of sources is further proved by the twofold introduction to Shem (21): and the discrepancy between 7 and 26 regarding Ḥāya and ḫāṯ. The documents, therefore, assort themselves as follows:

P: 1a; 2-5; 6. 20; 22. 31; 32
J: 1b (2); 8-12; 13ff.; 15-19; 21. 25-30.

Vv. 16-18a and 24 are regarded by We. and most subsequent writers as interpolations: see the notes. The framework of P is made the basis of the Table; and so far as appears that document has been preserved in its original order. In J the genealogy of Shem (21. 25-30) is probably complete; that of Ham (13ff. 15ff.) is certainly curtailed; while every trace of Japheth has been obliterated (see, however, p. 208). Whether the Yahwistic fragments stand in their original order, we have no means of determining.

The analysis has been carried a step further by Gu. (2 74 f.), who first raised the question of the unity of the Yahwistic Table, and its connexion with the two recensions of J which appear in ch. 9. He agrees with We. Di. al. that 9. 15 forms the transition from the story of the Flood to a list of nations which is partly represented in ch. 10; 10 being the immediate continuation of 9 in that recension of J (Jl). But he tries to show that 9. 20-27 was also followed by a Table of Nations, and that to it most of the Yahwistic fragments in ch. 10 belong (8. 12-12.

15. 21. 25-29 = J 6). This conclusion is reached by a somewhat subtle examination of v. 21 and vv. 15-19. In v. 21 Shem is the 'elder brother of Japheth,' which seems to imply that Japheth was the second son of Noah as in 9. 2; hence we may surmise that the third son was not Ham but Canaan. This is confirmed by the apparent contradiction between 18 and 18b. 19. In 19 the northern limit of the Canaanites is Zidon, whereas in 15 Canaan includes the Hittites, and has therefore the wider geographical sense which Gu. postulates for 9. 20-27 (see p. 186 above). He also calls attention to the difference in language between the eponymous ḫāṯ in 15 and the gentilic ḫūṣ in 18b. 19, and considers that this was a characteristic distinction of the two documents. From these premises the further dissection of the Table follows easily enough. Vv. 8-12 may be
assigned to J* because of the peculiar use of 305 in 8 (cf. 30 4 25). V.18t. must in any case be Ji, because it is inconceivable that Egypt should ever have been thought of as a son of Canaan; 25-29 follow 21 (J*). V.30 is assigned to Ji solely on account of its resemblance to 19. It cannot be denied that these arguments (which are put forward with reserve) have considerable cumulative force; and the theory may be correct. At the same time it must be remembered (i) that the distinction between a wider and a narrower geographical conception of Canaan remains a brilliant speculation, which is not absolutely required either by 3005 or 1019; and (2) that there is nothing to show that the story of Noah, the vine-grower, was followed by a Table of Nations at all. A genealogy connecting Shem with Abraham was no doubt included in that document; but a writer who knows nothing of the Flood, and to whom Noah was not the head of a new humanity, had no obvious motive for attaching an ethnographic survey to the name of that patriarch. Further criticism may be reserved for the notes.

The names in the Table are throughout eponymous: that is to say, each nation is represented by an imaginary personage bearing its name, who is called into existence for the purpose of expressing its unity, but is at the same time conceived as its real progenitor. From this it was an easy step to translate the supposed affinities of the various peoples into the family relations of father, son, brother, etc., between the eponymous ancestors; while the origin of the existing ethnic groups was held to be accounted for by the expansion and partition of the family. This vivid and concrete mode of representation, though it was prevalent in antiquity, was inevitably suggested by one of the commonest idioms of Semitic speech, according to which the individual members of a tribe or people were spoken of as ‘sons’ or ‘daughters’ of the collective entity to which they belonged. It may be added that (as in the case of the Arabian tribal genealogies) the usage could only have sprung up in an age when the patriarchal type of the family and the rule of male descent were firmly established (see Rob. Sm. KM 2, 3 ff.).

That this is the principle on which the Tables are constructed appears from a slight examination of the names, and is universally admitted. With the exception of Nimrod, all the names that can be identified are those of peoples and tribes (Madai, Sheba, Dedan, etc.) or countries (Miîrîaim, Hâvîlah, etc.—in most cases it is impossible to say whether land or people is meant) or cities (Zidon); some are gentilicia (Jebusite, Hîvvite, etc.); and some are actually retained in
the pl. (Rodanim, Ludim, etc.). Where the distinctions between national and geographical designations, between singular, plural, and collective names, are thus effaced, the only common denominator to which the terms can be reduced is that of the eponymous ancestor. It was the universal custom of antiquity in such matters to invent a legendary founder of a city or state;* and it is idle to imagine any other explanation of the names before us.—It is, of course, another question how far the Hebrew ethnographers believed in the analogy on which their system rested, and how far they used it simply as a convenient method of expressing racial or political relations. When a writer speaks of Lydians, Lybians, Philistines, etc., as 'sons' of Egypt, or 'the Jebusite,' 'the Amorite,' 'the Arvadite' as 'sons' of Canaan, it is difficult to think, e.g., that he believed the Lydians to be descended from a man named 'Lydians' (πυδί), or the Amorites from one called 'the Amorite' (αμώρας); and we may begin to suspect that the whole system of eponyms is a conventional symbolism which was as transparent to its authors as it is to us.† That, however, would be a hasty and probably mistaken inference. The instances cited are exceptional,—they occur mostly in two groups, of which one (164) is interpolated, and the other (165) may very well be secondary too; and over against them we have to set not only the names of Noah, Shem, etc., but also Nimrod, who is certainly an individual hero, and yet is said to have been 'begotten' by the eponymous Kush (Gu.). The bulk of the names lend themselves to the one view as readily as to the other; but on the whole it is safer to assume that, in the mind of the genealogist, they stand for real individuals, from whom the different nations were believed to be descended.

The geographical horizon of the Table is very restricted; but is considerably wider in P than in J.‡ J's survey extends from the Hittites and Phoenicians in the N to Egypt and southern Arabia in the S; on the E he knows Babylonia and Assyria and perhaps the Kašši, and on the W the Libyans and the south coast of Asia Minor.§ P includes in addition Asia Minor, Armenia, and Media on the N and NE, Elam on the E, Nubia in the S, and the whole

* "An exactly parallel instance . . . is afforded by the ancient Greeks. The general name of the Greeks was Hellenes; the principal subdivisions were the Doriacs, the Æolian, the Ionians, and the Achæans; and accordingly the Greeks traced their descent from a supposed eponymous ancestor Hellen, who had three sons, Dorus and Aeolus, the supposed ancestors of the Doriacs and Æolians, and Xuthus, from whose two sons, Ion and Achæus, the Ionians and Achæans were respectively supposed to be descended" (Dri. 112).

† See Guthe, GI, 1 ff.

‡ Judging, that is, from the extracts of J that are preserved.

§ Kaphtorim (v.16): according to others the island of Crete.
Mediterranean coast on the W. The world outside these limits is ignored, for the simple reason that the writers were not aware of its existence. But even within the area thus circumscribed there are remarkable omissions, some of which defy reasonable explanation.

The nearer neighbours and kinsmen of Israel (Moabites, Ishmaelites, Edomites, etc.) are naturally reserved for the times when they broke off from the parent stem. It would appear, further, that as a rule only contemporary peoples are included in the lists; extinct races and nationalities like the Rephaim, Zuzim, etc., and possibly the Amalekites, being deliberately passed over; while, of course, peoples that had not yet played any important part in history are ignored. None of these considerations, however, accounts for the apparent omission of the Babylonians in P,—a fact which has perhaps never been thoroughly explained (see p. 205).

From what has just been said it ought to be possible to form some conclusion as to the age in which the lists were drawn up. For P the terminus a quo is the 8th cent., when the Cimmerian and Scythian hordes (22) first make their appearance south of the Caucasus: the absence of the Minæans among the Arabian peoples, if it has any significance, would point to the same period (see p. 203). A lower limit may with less certainty be found in the circumstance that the names בָּנָי and בַּעַר, (Persians and Arabs, first mentioned in Jer. and Ezek.) do not occur. It would follow that the Priestly List is pre-exilic, and represents, not the viewpoint of the PC (5th cent.), but one perhaps two centuries earlier (so Gu.). Hommel's opinion (Aufs. u. Abh. 314 ff.), that the Table contains the earliest ethnological ideas of the Hebrews fresh from Arabia, and that its "Grundstock" goes back to Mosaic times and even the 3rd millennium B.C., is reached by arbitrary excisions and alterations of the names, and by unwarranted inferences from those which are left* (see Je. ATLO2, 252). —The lists of J, on the other hand, yield no definite indications of date. The S Arabian tribes (23-30) might have been known as early as the age of Solomon (Brown, EB, ii. 1699),—they might even have been

* It has often been pointed out that there is a remarkable agreement between the geographical horizon of P in Gn. 10 and that of Jer. and Ezek. Of the 34 names of nations in P's Table, 22 occur in Ezek. and 14 in the book of Jer.; it has to be remembered, however, that a large part of the book of Jer. is later than that prophet. Ezek. has perhaps 6 names which might have been expected in P if they had been known (גָּלְגָּלָה, מֵדָעָה, בַּעַר, בַּנָּי, רָעָה), and Jer. (book) has 5 (אֲרָעָה, צַרְעָה, בַּעַר, רָעָה, נֶסֶף). The statistics certainly do not bear out the assertion that P compiled his list from these two books between 538 and 526 B.C. (see Di. p. 166); they rather suggest that while the general outlook was similar, the knowledge of the outer world was in some directions more precise in the time of Ezek. than in the Table.
known earlier,—but that does not tell us when they were systematically tabulated. The (interpolated) list of Canaanites (18-18) is assigned by Jeremias (l.c. 256) to the age of Tiglath-pileser III.; but since a con-
siderable percentage of the names occurs in the Tel-Amarna letters (v.i.), the grounds of that determination are not apparent. With regard to the section on Nimrod (8-12), all that can fairly be said is that it is probably later than the Kassite conquest of Babylonia: how much later, we cannot tell. On the attempt to deduce a date from the
description of the Assyrian cities, see p. 212.—There are, besides, two
special sources of error which import an element of uncertainty into all these investigations. (a) Since only two names (ג'ג and מ'ג) are
really duplicated in P and J,* we may suppose that the redactor has
as a general practice omitted names from one source which he gives
in the other; and we cannot be quite sure whether the omission has
been made in P or in J. (b) According to Jewish tradition, the total
number of names is 70; and again the suspicion arises that names
may have been added or deleted so as to bring out that result.†

The threefold division of mankind is a feature common
to P and J, and to both recensions of J if there were two
(above, p. 188 f.). It is probable, also, though not certain,
that each of the Tables placed the groups in the reverse
order of birth: Japheth—Ham—Shem; or Canaan—Japheth—
Shem (see v.21). The basis of the classification may not
have been ethnological in any sense; it may have been
originally suggested by the tradition that Noah had just
three sons, in accordance with a frequently observed
tendency to close a genealogy with three names (410ff. 528
1126 etc.). Still, the classification must follow some
ethnographic principle, and we have to consider what that
principle is. The more obvious distinctions of colour,
language, and race are easily seen to be inapplicable.

The ancient Egyptian division of foreigners into Negroes (black),
Asiatics (light brown), and Libyans (white) is as much geographical
as chromatic (Erman, LAE, 32); but in any case the survey of Gn. 10
excludes the true negroes, and differences of colour amongst the
peoples included could not have been sufficiently marked to form a
basis of classification. It is certainly noteworthy that the Egyptian
monuments represent the Egyptians, Kős, Punt, and Phœnicians

* דֶּשֶּנ, שֶהוּ, מְדֶשֶנ and מְפִים do not count, because they are so introduced
that the two documents supplement one another.
† For the official enumeration see Zunz, GdV4, 207; Steinschneider,
ZDMG, iv. 150 f.; Krauss, ZATW, 1899, 6 (1900, 38 ff.); cf. Poznański,
ib. 1904, 302.
(P's Hamites) as dark brown (Di. 167); but the characteristic was not shared by the offshoots of Kush in Arabia; and a colour line between Shem and Japheth could never have been drawn.—The test of language also breaks down. The perception of linguistic affinities on a wide scale is a modern scientific attainment, beyond the apprehension of an antique people, to whom as a rule all foreign tongues were alike 'barbarous.' So we find that the most of P's Hamites (the Canaanites and nearly all the Kushites) are Semitic-speaking peoples, while the language of Elam among the sons of Shem belongs to an entirely different family; and Greek was certainly not spoken in the regions assigned to sons of Javan.—Of race, except in so far as it is evidenced by language, modern science knows very little; and attempts have been made to show that where the linguistic criterion fails the Table follows authentic ethnological traditions: e.g. that the Canaanites came from the Red Sea coast and were really related to the Cushites; or that Babylonia was actually colonised from central Africa, etc. But none of these speculations can be substantiated; and the theory that true racial affinity is the main principle of the Table has to be abandoned. Thus, while most of the Japhetic peoples are Indo-European, and nearly all the Semitic are Semites in the modern sense, the correspondence is no closer than follows necessarily from the geographic arrangement to be described presently. The Hamitic group, on the other hand, is destitute alike of linguistic and ethnological unity.—Similarly, when J assigns Phœnicians and Hittites (perhaps also Egyptians) to one ethnic group, it is plain that he is not guided by a sound ethnological tradition. His Semites are, indeed, all of Semitic speech; what his Japhetic peoples may have been we cannot conjecture (see p. 188).

So far as P is concerned, the main principle is undoubtedly geographical: Japheth representing the North and West, Ham the South, and Shem the East. Canaan is the solitary exception, which proves the rule (see p. 201 f.). The same law appears (so far as can be ascertained) to govern the distribution of the subordinate groups; although too many of the names are uncertain to make this absolutely clear. There is very little ground for the statement that the geographical idea is disturbed here and there by considerations of a historical or political order.

The exact delimitation of the three regions is, of course, more or less arbitrary: Media might have been reckoned to the Eastern group, or Elam to the Southern; but the actual arrangement is just as natural, and there is no need to postulate the influence of ethnology in the one case or of political relations in the other. Lîd would be a glaring exception if the Lydians of Asia Minor were meant, but that is probably not the case (p. 206). The Mediterranean coasts and islands are ap-
proprietarily enough assigned to Javan, the most westerly of the sons of Japheth. It can only be the assumption that Shem represents a middle zone between N and S that makes the position of Kittim appear anomalous to Di. Even if the island of Cyprus be meant (which, however, is doubtful; p. 199), it must, on the view here taken, be assigned to Japheth. It is true that in J traces of politico-historical grouping do appear (נֹפֶל and תַּמָּן in 8:9; דַּעַת, בֵּית כַּפָּר in 194).—As to the order within the principal groups (of P), it is impossible to lay down any strict rule. Jen. (ZA, x. 326) holds that it always proceeds from the remoter to the nearer nations; but though that may be true in the main, it cannot be rigorously carried through, nor can it be safely used as an argument for or against a particular identification.

The defects of the Table, from the standpoint of modern ethnology, are now sufficiently apparent. As a scientific account of the origin of the races of mankind, it is disqualified by its assumption that nations are formed through the expansion and genealogical division of families; and still more by the erroneous idea that the historic peoples of the old world were fixed within three or at most four generations from the common ancestor of the race. History shows that nationalities are for the most part political units, formed by the dissolution and re-combination of older peoples and tribes; and it is known that the great nations of antiquity were preceded by a long succession of social aggregates, whose very names have perished. Whether a single family has ever, under any circumstances, increased until it became a tribe and then a nation, is an abstract question which it is idle to discuss: it is enough that the nations here enumerated did not arise in that way, but through a process analogous to that by which the English nation was welded together out of the heterogeneous elements of which it is known to be composed.—As a historical document, on the other hand, the chapter is of the highest importance: first, as the most systematic record of the political geography of the Hebrews at different stages of their history; and second, as expressing the profound consciousness of the unity of mankind, and the religious primacy of Israel, by which the OT writers were animated. Its insertion at this point, where it forms the transition from primitive tradition to the history of the chosen people, has
a significance, as well as a literary propriety, which cannot be mistaken (Di. 164; Gu. 77; Dri. 114).

The Table is repeated in 1 Ch. 14-23 with various omissions and textual variations. The list is still further abridged in G of 1 Chr., which omits 13-18a and all names after Arpachshad in 22.—On the extensive literature on the chapter, see especially the commentaries of Tu. (159 f.) and Di. (170 f.). See also the map at the end of ATLO.

The Table of P.

ia. Superscription. —Shêm, Ham, and Yepheth] cf. 532 (P), 918 (J).

On the original sense of the names only vague conjectures can be reported. ה is supposed by some to be the Heb. word for ‘name,’ applied by the Israelites to themselves in the first instance as ה ה = ‘men of name’ or ‘distinction’—the titled or noble race (cf. הומאוסτα): “perhaps nothing more than the ruling caste in opposition to the aborigines.” So We. (Comp. 14), who compares the name ‘Aryan,’ and contrasts ה יב (Jb. 308); cf. Bu. Úrg. 328 f.; al. Gu. (73) mentions a speculation of Jen. that ה is the Babylonian šumu, in the sense of ‘eldest son,’ who perpetuates the father’s name.

H must, at a certain stage of tradition, have supplanted the earlier ה as the name of Noah’s third son (p. 182). The change is easily explicable from the extension of geographical knowledge, which made it impossible any longer to regard the father of the Canaanites as the ancestor of one-third of the human race; but the origin of the name has still to be accounted for. As a Heb. word it might mean ‘hot’ (Jos. 912, Jb. 37): hence it has been taken to denote the hot lands of the south (Lepsius, al.; cf. Jüd. viii. 30: ‘the land of Ham is hot’). Again, since in some late Pss. (781 1055-27 10622) ה is a poetic designation of Egypt, it has been plausibly connected with the native keme or chemi=‘black,’ with reference to the black soil of the Nile valley (Bochart, Ebers, Bu. 323 ff.).* A less probable theory is that of Glaser, cited by Hommel (AHT, 48), who identifies it with Eg. ‘amhu, a collective name for the neighbouring Semitic nomads, derived by Müller (AE, 123 ff.) from their distinctive primitive weapon, the boomerang.

H is connected in 27 with ה ה, and no better etymology has been proposed. Che. (EB, ii. 2330) compares the theophorous personal name יאֵפִי-אֵד in TA Tab., and thinks it a modification of יָנֵב, ‘God opens.’ But the form ה (pitu) with the probable sense of ‘open’ also occurs in the Tab. (KIB, v. 290 [last line]). The derivation from ה (beautiful), favoured by Bu. (358 ff.), in allusion to the beauty of the Phoenician cities, is very improbable. The resemblance to the Greek ἰαπέτως was pointed out by Buttman, and is undoubtedly striking. ἰαπέτως was the father of Prometheus, and therefore (through Deu-

* Cf. the rare word ה ה, ‘black,’ 30292ff.
kalion) of post-diluvian mankind. The identification is approved by Weizsäcker (Roscher’s *Lex.* ii. 55 ff.), who holds that Ἰάκτερος, having no Greek etymology, may be borrowed from the Semites (cf. Lenorm. ii. 173-193). See, further, Mey. *INS*, 221.

A curiously complicated astro-mythical solution is advanced by Wi. in *MVAG*, vi. 170 ff.

2-5. The Japhetic or Northern Peoples: fourteen in number, chiefly concentrated in Asia Minor and Armenia, but extending on either side to the Caspian and the shores of the Atlantic. It will be seen that though the enumeration is not ethnological in principle, yet most of the peoples named do belong to the same great Indo-Germanic family.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Japheth.</th>
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(1) Ψώλ (Γάμερ): named along with Togarmah as a confederate of Gog in Ezk. 38, is identified with the Galatians by Jos., but is really the *Gamir* of the Ass. inscr., the Cimmerians of the Greeks. The earliest reference to the Κυμάριος (*Od.* xi. 13 ff.) reveals them as a northern people, dwelling on the shores of the Northern Sea. Their irruption into Asia Minor, by way of the Caucasus, is circumstantially narrated by Herodotus (i. 15, 103, iv. 11 f.), whose account is in its main features confirmed by the Ass. monuments. There the Gimirrai first appear towards the end of the reign of Sargon, attacking the old kingdom of Urartu (see Johns, *PSBA*, xvii. 223 f., 226). Thence they seem to have moved westwards into Asia Minor, where (in the reign of Sennacherib) they overthrew the Phrygian Empire, and later (under Asshur-bani-pal, c. 657) the Lydian Empire of Gyges (*KIB*, ii. 173-7). This last effort seems to have exhausted their strength, and soon afterwards they vanish from history.* A trace of their shortlived ascendency remained in Gamir, the Armenian name for Cappadocia; † but the probability is that the land was named after the people, and not *vice versa*; and it is not safe to assume that by Ψώλ P meant Cappadocia. It is more likely that the name is primarily ethnic, and denotes the common stock of which the three following peoples were branches.

† Cf. Eus. *Chron. Arm.* (ed. Aucher) i. p. 95 (Gimmeri=Cappadocians), and ii. p. 12 (Γάμερ, ἐξ ὑπὸ Καππαδόκεως).
(2) Ἄστρα (Ἀσχαναῖ): Jer. 5127, after Ararat and Minni.* It has been usual (Bochart, al.) to connect the name with the Ascania of II. ii. 863, xiii. 793; and to suppose this was a region of Phrygia and Bithynia indicated by a river, two lakes, and other localities bearing the old name.† Recent Assyriologists, however, find in it the Aśguza‡ of the monn., — a branch of the Indo-Germanic invaders who settled in the vicinity of lake Urumia, and are probably identical with the Scythians of Herod. i. 103, 106. Since they are first mentioned by Esarhaddon, they might readily appear to a Heb. writer to be a younger people than the Cimmerians. See Wi. ii.cc.; ATLO3, 259 f.

(3) Ἄσγα (Ῥηφαθ, Ἐρμαθ): but i Ch. i. Ἄσγα: otherwise unknown. According to Josephus, it denotes the Paphlagonians. Bochart and Lagarde (Ges. Abh. 255) put it further west, near the Bosphorus, on the ground of a remote resemblance in name to the river Ῥηφας and the district Ῥηφαβία. Che. (EB, 4114) favours the transposition of Halevy (ארֵם), and compares Bit Burutaš, mentioned by Sargon along with the Muski and Tabali (Schr. KGF, 176).

(4) Ἄσγαρ (Θηργαμα, Θεργαμα)=�ןרכמה שרי, Ezk. 385 2714: in the latter passage as a region exporting horses and mules. Jos. identifies with the Phrygians. The name is traditionally associated with Armenia, Thorgom being regarded as the mythical ancestor of the Armenians; but that legend is probably derived from Κρ of this passage (Lag. Ges. Abh. 255 ff.; Symm. i. 105). The suggested Assyriological equivalent Til-Garimmu (Del. Par. 246; ATLO, 260; al.), a city on the frontier of the Tabali mentioned by Sargon and Sennacherib, is not convincing; even though the Til- should be a fictitious Ass. etymology (Lenorm. Orig.2 ii. 410).

(5) Ἄμαρ (Μαγορ): Ezk. 389 399. The generally accepted identification with the Scythians dates from Jos. and Jer., but perhaps reflects only a vague impression that the name is a comprehensive designation of the barbarous races of the north, somewhat like the Umman-manda of the Assyrians. In one of the Tel-Amarna letters (KlB, v. 5), a land Ga-ga is alluded to in a similar manner. But how the author differentiated Magog from the Cimmerians and Medes, etc., does not appear. The name Ἄμαρ is altogether obscure. That it is derived from Ἄμαρ = Gyges, king of Lydia (Mey. GA1, i. p. 558), is most improbable; and the suggestion that it is a corruption of Ass. Māṭ Gāg (Māṭ Gagai),§ must also be received with some caution.

(6) Ἄμα (Μαα): the common Heb. name for Media and the Medes; 2 Ki. 179 1811, Is. 1317 212, Jer. 2525 5111.28, Est. 15.14.18t. 10, Dn. 830 91 [111]

* Ass. Mannai, between lakes Van and Urumia, mentioned along with Ašguza in KIB, ii. 129, 147.
† Lag. (Ges. Abh. 254) instances Ashken as an Armenian proper name; and the inscription Ἀσκενος on Graeco-Phrygian coins.
‡ Whether the Heb. word is a clerical error for Ἁσγα (Wi. Jer.), or the Ass. a modification of Ašguza, the Assyriologists may decide (see Schmidt, EB, iv. 4330 f.).
§ Del. Par. 246 f.; Streck, ZA, 321; Sayce, HCM², 125.
TABLE OF PEOPLES (P)

(1) The formation of the Median Empire must have taken place about the middle of the 7th cent., but the existence of the people in their later seats (E of the Zagros mountains and S of the Caspian Sea) appears to be traceable in the monuments back to the 9th cent. They are thus the earliest branch of the Aryan family to make their mark in Asiatic history. See Mey. GA¹, i. § 422 ff.; KAT², 100 ff.; ATLO², 254.

(7) 'Iωναν) is the Greek 'IadFou-ves, and denotes primarily the Greek settlements in Asia Minor, which were mainly Ionian: Ezk. 27², Is. 66². After Alexander the Great it was extended to the Hellenes generally: Jl. 4¹, Zech. 9¹, Dn. 8² 16² 11². In Ass. Yamanai is said to be used but once (by Sargon, KIB, ii. 43); but the Persian Yauna occurs, with the same double reference, from the time of Darius (cf. AEsch. Pers. 176, 562). Whether the word here includes the European Greeks cannot be positively determined.*—The 'sons' of Javan are (v.4) to be sought along the Mediterranean, and probably at spots known to the Heb. as commercial colonies of the Phœnicians (on which see Mey. EB, 3736 f.). Very few of them, however, can be confidently identified.

(8) Π 판단 (Ελίσσα, 'Ελισσα) is mentioned only in Ezk. 27² (ϝ υξ) as a place supplying Tyre with purple. The older verbal identifications with the Διολείς (Jos. Jer.; so De.), 'Ελλάς (Τ), 'Ηλᾶς, etc., are value-less; and modern opinion is greatly divided. Some favour Carthage, because of Elissa, the name of the legendary foundress of the city (Sta. Wi. Je. al.); others (Di. al.) southern Italy with Sicily.† The most attractive solution is that first proposed by Conder (PEFS, 1892, 45; cf. 1904, 170), and widely accepted, that the Alasia of the TA Tablets is meant (see KIB, v. 80–92). This is now generally recognised as the name of Cyprus, of which the Tyrian purple was a product:‡ see below on Σάρσ. Jensen now (KIB, vi. 1, 507) places 판단 beyond the Pillars of Hercules on the African coast, and connects it with the Elysium of the Greeks.

(9) 'Διορέτος (Oares) is identified (since Bochart) with Ταρρηνόσδ (Tartesos), the Phœnician mining and trading station in the S of Spain;§ and no other theory is nearly so plausible. The OT Tarshish was rich in minerals (Jer. 10, Ezk. 27²), was a Tyrian colony (Is. 23¹–6, 10), and a remote coast-land reached by sea (Is. 66¹, Jn. 1² 4², Ps. 7¹); and to distinguish the Tarshish of these pass. from that of Gn. 10 (De. Jast. al.), or to consider the latter a doublet of Յָתָן (Che. Mü.), are but counsels of despair. The chief rival theory is Tarsus in Cilicia (Jos.

* Against the theory of a second 판단 in Arabia (which in any case would not affect the interpretation of this pass.), see Sta. Akad. Red. 125–142. Cf., further, ATLO², 255.
† Cf. Τ on Ezk. 27² υξιναί υξιναί; and Eus. Chr. Arm. ii. p. 13: 'Ελισσά, εξ υ Σικελόο + et Athenienses [Arm.].
‡ See Müller, ZA, x. 257 ff.; OLs, iii. 288 ff.; Jen. ZA, 379 f.; Jast. DB, v. 80 b.
§ Her. i. 163, iv. 152; Strabo, iii. 151; Plin. HN, iii. 7, iv. 120, etc.
Jer. al.) but this in Semitic is ʿArāšī (Tarzi). Cf. Wi. AOF, i. 445 f.; Müller, OLs. iii. 291.

(10) Ṣarna (Kirtov, Kirtai) cf. Jer. 210, Ezek. 278, Is. 231-12, Dn. 1130, 1 Mac. 185, Nu. 2424. Against the prevalent view that it denotes primarily the island of Cyprus, so called from its chief city Kirtov (Larnaka), Wi. (AOF, ii. 4221; cf. KAT), 128 argues that neither the island nor its capital is so named in any ancient document, and that the older biblical references demand a site further W. The application to the Macedonians (1 Mac.) he describes as one of those false identifications common in the Egypt of the Ptolemaic period. His argument is endorsed by Müller (OLs. iii. 288) and Je. (ATLO, 261): they suggest S Italy, mainly on the authority of Dn. 1130. The question is obviously bound up with the identity of Ṣarna—Alasia (v.s.).

(11) Ṣarna or Ṣarna (μός ᾒ ᾔ [Podiai] and 1 Ch. 17) a name omitted by Jos. If G be right, the Rhodians are doubtless meant (cf. II. ii. 654 f.): the sing. is perhaps disguised in the corrupt Ṣarna of Ezek. 2718 (cf. G). The MT has been explained of the Dardanians (EJ, De. al.), "properly a people of Asia Minor, not far from the Lycians" (Che. EB, 1123). Wi. (l.c.) proposes Ṣarna, the Dorians; and Müller Ṣuna(n)5, Eg. Da-nb-na=TA, Da-nu-na (KIB, v. 277), on the W coast of Asia Minor.

(12) Ṣarna (Thapsel) and Ṣarna (Mocox) are mentioned together in Ezek. 2713 (as exporting slaves and copper), 3228 (as warlike people of antiquity), 3819, 391 (in the army of Gog), Is. 6619 (G); Ṣarna alone in Ps. 1204. Jos. arbitrarily identifies them with the Iberians and Cappadocians respectively; but since Bochart no one has questioned their identity with the Tibaruvoi and Morcox, first mentioned in Her. iii. 94 as belonging to the 19th satrapy of Darius, and again (vii. 78) as furnishing a contingent to the host of Xerxes (cf. Strabo, XI. ii. 14, 16). Equally obvious is their identity with the Tabali and Muski of the Ass. Monn., where the latter appear as early as Tiggloth-pileser i. (c. 1100), and the former under Shalmaneser ii. (c. 838),—both as formidable military states. In Sargon's inscrs. they appear together; and during this whole period their territory evidently extended much further S and W than in Graeco-Roman times. These stubborn little nationalities, which so tenaciously maintained their identity, are regarded by Wi. and Je. as remnants of the old Hittite population which were gradually driven (probably by the Cimmerian invasion) to the mountainous district SE of the Black Sea.

(14) Ṣarna (Thuirai) not mentioned elsewhere, was almost unanimously taken by the ancients (Jos. TJ, Jer. etc.; and so Boch. al.) to be the Thracians (Θρακες); but the superficial resemblance vanishes when the nominative ending is removed. Tu. was the first to suggest the Туpα-νιβολ, a race of Pelasgian pirates, who left many traces of their ancient prowess in the islands and coasts of the Αιγεαν, and who were

* The city, however, is called Ṣarna in Phcen. inscrs. and coins from the 4th cent. B.C. downwards; see Cooke, NSI, pp. 56, 66?, 78, 352.
† See KIB, i. 18 f., 64 f., 142 f., ii. 40 f., 56 f.; and Del. Par. 250 f.
doubtless identical with the E-trus-cans of Italy.* This brilliant conjecture has since been confirmed by the discovery of the name Turuša amongst the seafaring peoples who invaded Egypt in the reign of Merneptah (Mey. GA, i. § 260; W. M. Müller, AE, 356 ff.).

6, 7, 20. The Hamitic or Southern Group: in Africa and S Arabia, but including the Canaanites of Palestine.

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<td>10. Sheba.</td>
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(1) Ḫwś (.Middle, but elsewhere Alblōw-es, -la) the land and people S of Egypt (Nubia),—the Ethiopians of the Greeks, the Kōs of the Eg. monuments:† cf. Is. 183, Jer. 1328, Ezek. 2910, Zeph. 310 etc. Ass. Kusi occurs repeatedly in the same sense on inscrs. of Esarhaddon and Assurbanipal; and only four passages of Esarhaddon are claimed by Wi. for the hypothesis of a south Arabian Kusi (KA73, 144). There is no reason to doubt that in this v. the African Kush is meant. That the

5. The subscription to the first division of the Table is not quite in order. We miss the formula ṣən unsubscribe (cf. vv.30-31), which is here necessary to the sense, and must be inserted, not (with We.) at the beginning of the v., but immediately before מְנָעֵב. The clause מְנָעֵב is then seen to belong to v.4, and to mean that the Mediterranean coasts were peopled from the four centres just named as occupied by sons of Javan. Although these places were probably all at one time Phoenician colonies, it is not to be inferred that the writer confused the Ionians with Phoenicians. He may be thinking of the native population of regions known to Israel through the Phoenicians, or of the Mycenean Greeks, whose colonising enterprise is now believed to be of earlier date than the Phoenician (Mey. EB, 3736 ff.).—דֶּרֶש] construed like נַעֲשֵׁי in 920 (J); cf. 1052.—םִנְה ויָנ only again Zeph. 211. Should we read יָנ ויָנ (Is. 1111 2419, Est. 101)? מָל (for מ, perhaps from ג' 'awâv, "betake oneself") seems to be a seafarer’s word denoting the place one makes for (for shelter, etc.); hence both "coast" and "island" (the latter also in Phœn.). In Heb. the pl. came to be used of distant lands in general (Is. 4116, 424, 515 etc., Jer. 3110 etc.)

* Thuc. iv. 109; Her. i. 57, 94; Strabo, v. ii. 2, iii. 5: other reff. in Tu. ad loc.
† See Steindorff, BA, i. 593 f.
sons' of Kush include Arabian peoples is quite naturally explained by the assumption that the writer believed these Arabs to be of African descent. As a matter of fact, intercourse, involving intermixture of blood, has at all times been common between the two shores of the Red Sea; and indeed the opinion that Africa was the original cradle of the Semites has still a measure of scientific support (see Barton, OS¹, 6ff., 24).—See, further, on v. 8 (p. 207 f.).

(2) מָשְׂרִי (Mešāri) the Heb. form of the common Semitic name of Egypt (TA, Miṣṣari, Miṣrī, Maṣrī, Misirri; Ass. [from 8th and 7th cent.] Muṣur; Bab. Miṣir; Syr. میشور; Ar. Miṣr). Etymology and meaning are uncertain: Hommel's suggestion (Gesch. 530; cf. Wi. AOF, i. 25) that it is an Ass. appellative = 'frontier,' is little probable. The dual form of Heb. is usually explained by the constant distinction in the native inscrs. between Upper and Lower Egypt, though מָשְׂרִי is found in connexion (Is. 111, Jer. 44¹⁸) which limit it to Lower Eg.; and many scholars now deny that the termination is a real dual (Mey. GA, i. § 42, An.; Jen. ZDMG, xlviii. 439).—On the vexed question of a N Arabian Muṣrī, it is unnecessary to enter here. There may be passages of OT where that view is plausible, but this is not one of them; and the idea of a wholesale confusion between Eg. and Arabia on the part of OT writers is a nightmare which it is high time to be quit of.

(3) פֹּד (Pōd, but elsewhere לֹּד) mentioned 6 times (incl. G of Is. 66¹⁹) in OT, as a warlike people furnishing auxiliaries to Egypt (Nah. 3⁹, Jer. 46⁹, Ezk. 30⁶) or Tyre (Ezk. 27¹⁰) or the host of Gog (38⁷), and frequently associated with פּוּד and פֹּד. The prevalent view has been that the Lybians, on the N coast of Africa W of Egypt, are meant (G, Jos. al.), although Nah. 3⁹ and probably Ezk. 30⁶ (G) show that the two peoples were distinguished. Another identification, first proposed by Ebers, has recently been strongly advocated: viz. with the Pwnt of Eg. monuments, comprising 'the whole African coast of the Red Sea' (W. M. Müller, AE, 114 ff., and DB, iv. 176 f.; Je. 263 f.). The only serious objection to this theory is the order in which the name occurs, which suggests a place further north than Egypt (Jen. ZA, x. 325 ff.).

(4) פַּעַחַנ (Xavan) the eponym of the pre-Israelitish inhabitants of Palestine, is primarily a geographical designation. The etymology is doubtful; but the sense 'lowland' has still the best claim to acceptance (see, however, Moore, PAOS, 1890, lxvii ff.). In Eg. monuments the name, in the form pa-Ka-n'-na (pa is the art.) is applied to the strip of coast from Phoenicia to the neighbourhood of Gaza; but the ethnographic derivative extends to the inhabitants of all Western Syria (Müller, AE, 205 ff.). Similarly in TA Tablets Kinaḥī, Kinaḥnā, etc., stand for Palestine proper (KAT³, 181), or (according to Jast. EB, 641) the northern part of the seacoast.—The fact that Canaan, in spite of its geographical situation and the close affinity of its language with Heb., is reckoned to the Hamites is not to be explained by the tradition (Her. i. 1, vii. 89, etc.) that the Phoenicians came originally from the Red Sea; for that probably implies no more than that they were connected with
the Babylonians (Ἐρυθρά Ὑδάσσα = the Persian Gulf). Neither is it altogether natural to suppose that Canaan is thus placed because it had for a long time been a political dependency of Egr.: in that case, as Di. observes, we should have expected Canaan to figure as a son of Mizraim. The belief that Canaan and Israel belonged to entirely different branches of the human family is rooted in the circumstances that gave rise to the blessing and curse of Noah in ch. 9. When, with the extension of geographical knowledge, it became necessary to assign the Canaanites to a larger group (p. 187 above), it was inevitable that they should find their place as remote from the Hebrews as possible.

Of the descendants of Kush (v. 7) a large proportion—all, indeed, that can be safely identified—are found in Arabia. Whether this means that Kushites had crossed the Red Sea, or that Arabia and Africa were supposed to be a continuous continent, in which the Red Sea formed an inland lake (KAT, 137, 144), it is perhaps impossible to decide.

(5) כָּפָא (Σαβά) Is. 43: 45; Ps. 7: 10; usually taken to be Meröe* (between Berber and Khartoum). The tall stature attributed to the people in Is. 45: (but cf. 18: 7) is in favour of this view; but it has nothing else to recommend it. Di. al. prefer the Saba referred to by Strabo (xvi. iv. 8, 10; cf. Ptolemy, iv. 7, 7 f.) on the African side of the Red Sea (S of Suakim). Je. (ATLO, 265) considers the word as the more correct variant to כָּפָא (see below).

(6) נָפַד (Ἐφασάτ] is often (since Bochart) explained as 'sand-land' (fr. בַּנ); named in v. 29 (J) as a Joktanite people, and in 25: (also J) as the eastern limit of the Ishmaelite Arabs. It seems impossible to harmonise these indications. The last is probably the most ancient, and points to a district in N Arabia, not too far to the E. We may conjecture that the name is derived from the large tract of loose red sand (נָפַד) which stretches N of Teima and S of el-Ǧof. This is precisely where we should look for Χαλδαιοι whom Eratosthenes (Strabo, xvi. iv. 2) mentions (next to the Nabateans) as the second of three tribes on the route from Egypt to Babylon; and Pliny (vi. 157) gives Domata (= Dūmah = el-Ǧof: see p. 353) as a town of the Avalita. The name might easily be extended to other sandy regions of Arabia, (perhaps especially to the great sand desert in the southern interior): of some more southerly district it must be used both here and v. 29 (see Mey. INS, 325 f.). To distinguish further the Cushite from the Joktanite 'n, and to identify the former with the 'Abaሌאראא, etc., on the African coast near Bab-el-mandeb, is quite unnecessary. On the other hand, it is impossible to place either of these so far N as the head of the Persian Gulf (Glaser) or the ENE part of the Syrian desert (Frd. Del.). Nothing can be made of Gn. 2: 11; and in 1 Sa. 15: 7 (the only other occurrence) the text is probably corrupt.

(7) נָפַד (Zabba) not identified. Possibly סָבָא, Sabota, the capital of Ḥaḍramaut (see on v. 26) (Strabo, xvi. iv. 2; Pliny, HN, vi. 155, xii. 63)—though in Sabæan this is written נָפַד (see Osiander, ZDMG*.

* Jos. Ant. ii. 249. In i. 134 f. he seems to confuse נָפַד and נָפַד.
xix. 253; Homm. SA Chrest. 119); or the Σάφθα of Ptol. vi. 7. 30, an inland town lying (according to Glaser, 252) W of El-Κατίφ.

(8) ἰγὴ (‘Περγάμος or ‘Περγάμος) coupled with κατά (and) in Ezk. 2728 as a tribe trading in spices, precious stones, and gold. It is doubtless the Ψάφθα (Ραχμαν) of a Minean inscr.,* which speaks of an attack by the hosts of Saba and Ḥuulān on a Minean caravan en route between Maʿān and Raʾmat. This again may be connected with the Υάμανιρα of Strabo (xvi. iv. 24) N of Ḥadramaut. The identification with the Ἱγάματα πόλεις (a seaport on the Persian Gulf) of Ptol. vi. 7. 14 (Boch. al.; so Glaser) is difficult because of its remoteness from Sheba and Dedan (v. f.), and also because this appears on the inscr. as Ῥοῦμτ (Glaser, 252).

(9) Σάβακαθα (Σαβακαθα) unknown. Σαμουδάκη in Carmania † (Ptol. vi. 8. 7 f., 11) is unsuitable both geographically and phonetically. Je. suggests that the word is a duplicate of Σάβα.

(10) Σάβα (Σαβα) (properly, as inscrs. show, Κατά; see No. 5 above) is assigned in v. 29 to the Joktanites, and in 25 to the Ketureans. It is the OT name of the people known to the classical geographers as Sabaeans, the founders of a great commercial state in SW Arabia, with its metropolis at Mariab (Mariaba), some 45 miles E of Sanʿa, the present capital of Yemen (Strabo, xvi. iv. 2, 19; Pliny, HN, vi. 154 f., etc.). “They were the centre of an old S Arabian civilisation, regarding the former existence of which the Sabæan inscriptions and architectural monuments supply ample evidence” (Di. 182). Their history is still obscure. The native inscrs. commence about 700 b.c.; and, a little earlier, Sabæan princes (not kings)‡ appear on Ass. monuments as paying tribute to Tiglath-pileser IV. (b.c. 738) and Sargon (b.c. 715).§ It would seem that about that time (probably with the help of the Assyrians) they overthrew the older Minean Empire, and established themselves on its ruins. Unlike their precursors, however, they do not appear to have consolidated their power in N Arabia, though their inscrs. have been found as far N as el-Guf. To the Hebrews, Sheba was a ‘far country’ (Jer. 620, Jl. 4), famous for gold, frankincense, and precious stones (1 Ki. 1016, Is. 606, Jer. 620, Ezk. 2729, Ps. 7219): in all these passages, as well as Ps. 7210, Jb. 619, the reference to the southern Sabaeans is clear. On the other hand, the association with Dedan (25, Ezk. 3818 and here) favours a more northern locality; in Jb. 18 they appear as Bedouin of the northern desert; and the Ass. references appear to imply a northerly situation. Since it is undesirable to assume the existence of two separate peoples, it is tempting to suppose that the pass. last quoted preserve the tradition of an earlier time, before the

† Boch.: so Glaser, ii. 252; but see his virtual withdrawal on p. 404.
‡ It is important that neither in their own nor in the Ass. inscrs. are the earliest rulers spoken of as kings.
§ Cf. KIB, ii. 21, 55.
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conquest of the Minæans had led to a settlement in Yemen. V.38 (J), however, presupposes the southern settlement.*

(11) [177 (Δαδαν, Δαδαν; but elsewhere Δαδαν, etc.)] a merchant tribe mentioned along with Sheba in 252 (= 1 Ch. 192) and Ezek. 3818; with Tema (the modern Teima, c. 230 miles N of Medina) in Is. 21, Jer. 2523, and of Gn. 253; and in Jer. 49, Ezek. 2513 as a neighbour of Edom. All this points to a region in the N of Arabia; and as the only other reference (Ezk. 2720)—in 2715 the text is corrupt—is consistent with this, there is no need to postulate another Dedan on the Persian Gulf (Boch. al.) or anywhere else. Glaser (397) very suitably locates the Dedanites "in the neighbourhood of Khaibar, el-Ola, El-Higr, extending perhaps beyond Teima," —a region intersected by the trade-routes from all parts of Arabia (see the map in EB, iv. 5160); and where the name is probably perpetuated in the ruins of Daidan, W of Teima (Di.). The name occurs both in Minæan and Sabaean inscrs. (Glaser, 397 ff.; Müller, ZDMG, xxx. 122), but not in the Greek or Roman geographers.—The older tradition of J (253) recognises a closer kinship of the Israelites with Sheba and Dedan, by making them sons of Jokshan and descendants of Abraham through Keturah (v. ad loc.). (An intermediate stage seems represented by 1028–29, where § Arabia is assigned to the descendants of 'Eber). P follows the steps of 253 by bracketing the two tribes as sons of Ra'mah: whether he knew them as comparatively recent offshoots of the Kushite stock is not so certain.

22, 23, 31. The Shemitic or Eastern Group.—With the doubtful exception of נב (see below) the nations here mentioned all lie on the E. of Palestine, and are probably arranged in geographical order from SE to NW, till they join hands with the Japhethites.

Shem.


(1) אדו (ΔΔμ) Ass. Elamtu,† the name of "the great plain E of the lower Tigris and N of the Persian Gulf, together with the mountainous region enclosing it on the N and E" (Del. Par. 320), corresponding to the later Elymaïs or Susiana. The district round Susa was in very

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* See Mey. GA1, i. § 403; Glaser, ii. 399 ff.; Sprenger, ZDMG, xliv. 501 ff.; Margoliouth, DB, i. 133, iv. 479 ff.; Hom. AHT, 77 ff., and in EBL, 728 ff.; KAT, 148 ff.; ATLO, 265.

† Commonly explained as 'highland' (Schr. Del. Hwb. etc.), but according to Jen. (ZA, vi. 170, xi. 351) = 'front-land,' i.e. 'East land.'
early times (after 3000 B.C.) inhabited by Semitic settlers ruled by viceroy s of the Babylonian kings; about 2280 the Anzantine element (of a different race and speaking a different language) gained the upper hand, and even established a suzerainty over Babylonia. From that time onwards Elam was a powerful monarchy, playing an important part in the politics of the Euphrates valley, till it was finally destroyed by Assurbanipal.* The reason for including this non-Semitic race among the sons of Shem is no doubt geographical or political. The other OT ref. are Gn. 14:9, Is. 11:11 21:² 22:8, Jer. 25:25 49:14ff., Ezek. 32:24, Dt. 8:5.

(2) Assyria. See below on v.11 (p. 211).

(3) Ἀρφαζάδος] identified by Boch. with the Ἀδραφαζάσις which Ptol. (vi. 1. 2) describes as the province of Assyria next to Armenia,—the mountainous region round the sources of the Upper Zab, between lakes Van and Urumia, still called in Kurdish Ālībāk. This name appears in Ass. as Arapha (Arbaḥa, etc.),* and on Eg. monuments of the 18th dynasty as 'Ararpha (Müller, AE, 278 f.). Geographically nothing could be more suitable than this identification: the difficulty is that the last syllable -ha is left unaccounted for. Jos. recognised in the last three letters the name of the Chaldeans (יְבֵרַה),† and several attempts have been made to explain the first element of the word in accordance with this hint. (a) The best is perhaps that of Cheyne (EB, 316),§ resolving the word into two proper names: כֹּזָא or כֹּזָא (= Ass. Arbaḥa) and יְבֵר,—the latter here introducing a second trio of sons of Shem. On this view the Arpakṣād of v. 24 110ff. must be an error (for יְבֵר) caused by the textual corruption here. (b) An older conjecture, approved by Ges. (Th.), Knobel, al., compares the יבֵר with Ar. 'urfat (= 'boundary'), || Eth. 'urfat (= 'wall'); יְבֵר כזא would thus be the 'wall (or boundary) of Kesed.' (c) Hommel (AHT, 212, 294–8) takes the middle syllable pa to be the Egyptian art., reading 'Ur-pa-Kesed = Ur of the Chaldees (11:28).—an improbable suggestion. (d) Del. (Par. 255 f.) and Jen. (ZA, xv. 256) interpret the word as arba-kišādu = ['Land of the'] four quarters (or shores),' after the analogy of a common designation of Babylonia in royal titles.—These theories are partly prompted by the observation that otherwise Chaldea is passed over in the Table of P,—a surprising omission, no doubt, but perhaps susceptible of other explanations. The question is complicated by the mention of an Aramean Kesed in 22:2. The difficulty of identifying that tribe with the Chaldeans in the S of Babylonia is admitted by Dri. (p. 223); and if there was another Kesed near Harran, the fact must be taken account of in speculating about the meaning of Arpakṣād.

* See the interesting historical sketch by Schel, Textes elamites-semitiques (1900), pp. ix-xv [= vol. ii. of de Morgan, Delegation en Perse : Mémoires]. Cf. Sayce, ET, xiii. 65.
† KIB, i. 177, 213, ii. 13, 89; cf. Del. Par. 124 f.
‡ 'Ἀρφαζάδος δὲ τοὺς νῦν Χαλδαίους καλομένους 'Αρφαζάδαλους ψηφιμασθὲν ἄρκας αὐτῶν : Ant. i. 144.
§ A different conjecture in EB, 3644; TBI, 178.
|| Note Tu.'s objections, p. 205.
(4) ἄθ (mt ḥb, Ge Λούδα) usually understood of the Lydians (Jos. Boch. al.), but it has never been satisfactorily explained how a people in the extreme W of Asia Minor comes to be numbered among the Semites. An African people, such as appears to be contemplated in v. 13, would be equally outside of place here. A suggestion of Jen.’s deserves consideration: that ἄθ is the Li∆dву,—a province lying “between the upper Tigris and the Euphrates, N of Mt. Masius and its western extension,”—mentioned in KIB, i. 4 (l. 9 fr. below, rd. Lu-ud-di), 177 (along with Arrapha), 199. See Wi. AOF, ii. 47; Streck, ZA, xiv. 168; Je. 276. In the remaining refs. (Is. 6619, Jer. 468, Ezek. 2710 309), the Lydians of Asia Minor might be meant,—in the last three as mercenaries in the service of Eg. or Tyre.

(5) ἀρα成就感 ('Arama, 'Aramaw) a collective designation of the Semitic peoples speaking ‘Aramaic’ dialects,* so far as known to the Hebrews (Nö. EB, 276 ff.). The actual diffusion of that family of Semites was wider than appears from OT, which uses the name only of the districts to the NE of Palestine (Damascus especially) and Mesopotamia (Aram-Naharaim, Paddan-Aram): these, however, were really the chief centres of Aramaean culture and influence. In Ass. the Armaiu (Aramu, Arimu, Arumu) are first named by Tiglath-pileser I. (c. 1100) as dwelling in the steppes of Mesopotamia (KIB, i. 33); and Shalmaneser II. (c. 857) encountered them in the same region (ib. 165). But if Wi. be right (KAT, 28 f., 36), they are referred to under the name Aḫšāmi from a much earlier date (TA Tab.; Ramman-nirari I. [c. 1325]; Ašur-rīššī [c. 1150]; see KIB, v. 387, i. 5, 13). Hence Wi. regards the second half of the 2nd millennium B.C. as the period during which the Aramaean nomads became settled and civilised peoples in Mesopotamia and Syria.

In 1 Ch. 17 the words גרא ינ (v. 28) are omitted, the four following names being treated as sons of Shem:

(6) גָע (Õs, Ōy) is doubtless the same tribe which in 222 (Õs, Ôy) is classed as the firstborn of Naḥor: therefore presumably somewhere NE of Palestine in the direction of Ḥarran. The conjectural identifications are hardly worth repeating. The other Biblical occurrences of the name are difficult to harmonise. The Uz of Je. 1v (Aḇoriš), and the Ḥorite tribe mentioned in Gn. 3620, point to a SE situation, bordering on or comprised in Edom; and this would also suit La. 421, Je. 2520 (גֵּע !), though in both these passages the reading is doubtful. It is suggested by Rob. Sm. (KM, 61) and We. (Heid. 146) that the name is identical with that of the Arabian god ‘Aduq; and by the former scholar that the OT גע denotes a number of scattered tribes worshiping that deity (similarly Bu. Hiob. ix.—xi.; but, on the other side, see Nö. ZDMG, xl. 183 f.).

(7) יא (Oλα) Del. (Par. 259) identifies with a district in the neighbourhood of Mt. Masius mentioned by Asshur-nasir-pal. The word (ḫu-li-īu), however, is there read by Peiser as an appellative=‘desert’ (KIB, i. 86 f., 110 f.); and no other conjecture is even plausible.

(8) יס is quite unknown.

* OBS "Ελληνες Σύρους προσαγωρεύουσιν—as Jos. correctly explains.
(9) מ (מִנְוַד, מִשְׁמוּי, in accord with 1 Ch. 17 MT וַדַּי) perhaps connected with Mons Masius,—τὸ Μάσιον ἔρος of Ptol. (v. 18. 2) and Strabo (xi. xiv. 2),—a mountain range N of Nisibis now called Ṭūr-Abdīn or Ḫeraḡa Dagh (Bo. Del. Par. 259, Di. al.). The uncertainty of the text and the fact that the Ass. monuments use a different name render the identification precarious. Jen. (KIB, vi. 1, 567) suggests the mountain Μάσιον of Gilgameš ix. ii. r.f., which he supposes to be Lebanon and Anti-Libanus. The Māt Maš of KIB, ii. 221, which has been adduced as a parallel, ought, it now appears, to be read mad-bar (KAT, 1915; cf. Jen. ZA, x. 364).

31, 32. P’s closing formula for the Shemites (31); and his subscription to the whole Table (32).

The Table of J.

IX. 18a, X. 1b. Introduction. See pp. 182, 188.

A slight discontinuity in v. makes it probable that is inserted from J. If so, it would stand most naturally after 9 (Di.), not after 19. It seems to me that 19 is rather the Yahwistic parallel to (P), and formed originally the conclusion of J’s Table (cf. the closing formulae, 19 22 25).

8–12. Nimrod and his empire.—The section deals with the foundation of the Babylonio-Assyrian Empire, whose legendary hero, Nimrod, is described as a son of Kush (see below). Unlike the other names in the chapter, Nimrod is not a people, but an individual,—a Gibbor or despot, famous as the originator of the idea of the military state, based on arbitrary force.—8. The statement that was the first to become a Gibbor on the earth implies a different conception from 64. There, the Gibbôrîm are identified with the semi-divine Nephîlîm: here, the Gibbor is a man, whose personal prowess and energy raise him above the common level of humanity. The word expresses the idea of violent, tyrannical power, like Ar. ǧabbār.

If the מ of v. be Ethiopia (see p. 200 f.), it follows that in the view of the redactor the earliest dynasty in the Euphrates valley was founded by immigrants from Africa. That interpretation was accepted even by Tuch; but it is opposed to all we know of the early history of Baby-

8. הָּמב (Nebp̄wōδ) The Heb. naturally connects the name with the √ דמ = ‘rebel’ (TJ, Ra. al.): see below, p. 209.—יִבְּנָה בֵּית יָהּ] he was the
lonia, and it is extremely improbable that it represents a Heb. tradition. The assumption of a S Arabian Kūsh would relieve the difficulty; for it is generally agreed that the Semitic population of Babylonia—which goes back as far as monumental evidence carries us—actually came from Arabia; but it is entirely opposed to the ethnography of J, who peoples S Arabia with descendants of Shem (Gen. 10). It is therefore not unlikely that, as many Assyriologists think, J's יִסְוֹנְיָה is quite independent of the Hamitic Kūsh of P, and denotes the Kaš or Kaššu, a people who conquered Babylonia in the 18th cent., and set up a dynasty (the 3rd) which reigned there for 600 years (KAT, 21). It is conceivable that in consequence of so prolonged a supremacy, Kaš might have become a name for Babylonia, and that J's knowledge of its history did not extend farther back than the Kaššite dynasty. Since there is no reason to suppose that J regarded Kaš as Hamitic, it is quite possible that the name belonged to his list of Japhetic peoples.

9. Nimrod was not only a great tyrant and ruler of men, but a hero of the chase (יוֹרֵד סְגוֹן). The v. breaks the connexion between 8 and 10, and is probably an interpolation (Di. al.); although, as De. remarks, the union of a passion for the chase with warlike prowess makes Nimrod a true prototype of the Assyrian monarchs,—an observation amply illustrated by the many hunting scenes sculptured on the monuments.—Therefore it is said] introducing a current proverb; cf. 1 Sa. 19 with 10; Gn. 22 etc. "When the Hebrews

first to become; see on 4-20. 9. While Di. regards the v. as an interpolation from oral tradition, Bu. (Urg. 390 ff.) assigns it to his J, and finds a place for it between 6 and 11,—a precarious suggestion. —רָגַנְו יִנְנ אֶת יִתְכְּהוּ. —רָגַנְו יִנְנ 'before Yahwe.' The phrase is variously explained: (1) ‘unique,’ like דַּנְנָּב in Jn 3 (Di. al.); (2) ‘in the estimation of Y.’ (cf. 2 Ki. 5 etc.); (3) ‘in spite of Y.’ (Bu.); (4) ‘with the assistance of Y.’—the name of some god of the chase having stood in the original myth (Gu.); (5) ‘in the constant presence of Y.’—an allusion to the constellation Orion (Ho.). The last view is possible in 8, but hardly in 9, because of the רָגַנְו. A sober exegesis will prefer (1) or (2).

* See Del. Par. 51-55; Schr. KAT, 87 f.; Wi. ATU, 146 ff.; Jen. ZA, vi. 34-2; Sayce, HCM, 148 ff., etc.
† Remnants of this conquering race are mentioned by Sennacherib (KIB, ii. 87). They are thought to be identical with the Κοσσάιων of the Greeks (Strabo, xi. xiii. 6, xvi. 1. 17 f.; Arrian, Anab. vii. 15; Diodorus, xvii. 111, xix. 19, etc.); and probably also with the Κροσσίων of Her. vii. 62, 86, etc. (cf. v. 49, 52, vi. 119). Cf. Del. Par. 31, 124, 127 ff.; Mey. GA, § 129; Wi. GBA, 78 ff.; Schr. KGF, 176 f.; Oppert, ZA, iii. 421 f.; Jen. ZDMG, l. 244 f., etc.
wished to describe a man as being a great hunter, they spoke of him as 'like Nimrod'" (Dri.).—The expression

"belong doubtless belongs to the proverb: the precise

meaning is obscure (v.f.).

A perfectly convincing Assyriological prototype of the figure of Nimrod has not as yet been discovered. The derivation of the name from Marduk, the tutelary deity of the city of Babylon, first propounded by Sayce, and adopted with modifications by We.,* still commends itself to some Assyriologists (Pinches, DB, iii. 552f.; cf. KAT³, 581); but the material points of contact between the two personages seem too vague to establish an instructive parallel. The identification with Nazi-Maruttaš, a late (c. 1350) and apparently not very successful king of the Kaššite dynasty (Haupt, Hilprecht, Sayce, al.), is also unsatisfying: the supposition that that particular king was so well known in Palestine as to eclipse all his predecessors, and take rank as the founder of Babylonian civilisation, is improbable. The nearest analogy is that of Gilgameš;† the legendary tyrant of Erech (see v.¹⁰), whose adventures are recorded in the famous series of Tablets of which the Deluge story occupies the eleventh (see p. 175 above, and KAT³, 566ff.). Gilgameš is a true Gibbôr—"two parts deity and one part humanity"—he builds the walls of Erech with forced labour, and his subjects groan under his tyranny, until they cry to Aruru to create a rival who might draw off some of his superabundant energy (KIB, vi. 1, 117, 119). Among his exploits, and those of his companion Ea-bani, contests with beasts and monsters figure prominently; and he is supposed to be the hero so often represented on seals and palace-reliefs in victorious combat with a lion (see ATLO², 266f.). It is true that the parallel is incomplete; and (what is more important) that the name Nimrod remains unexplained. The expectation that the phonetic reading of the ideographic GIŠ. TU. BAR might prove to be the Bab. equivalent of the Heb. Nimrod, would seem to have been finally dispelled by the discovery (in 1890) of the correct pronunciation as Gilgameš (but see Je. l.c.). Still, enough general resemblance remains to warrant the belief that the original of the biblical Nimrod belongs to the sphere of Babylonian mythology. A striking parallel to the visit of Gilgameš to his father Ut-napištim occurs in a late Nimrod legend, preserved in the Syrian Schatzhöhle (see Gu. Schöpf. 146²; Lidz. ZA, vii. 15). On the theory which connects Nimrod with the constellation Orion, see Tu. ad loc.; Bu. Urg. 395f.; KAT³, 581²; and on the late Jewish and Mohammedan legends generally, Seligsohn, JE, ix. 309ff.

* Sayce (TSBA, ii. 243ff.) derived it from the Akkadian equivalent of Marduk, Amaru-ad, from which he thought Nimrudu would be a regular (Ass.) Niphal form. We. (Comp.² 309f.) explains the i as an Aram. impf. preformative of the √ ṯ值得注意, a corruption from Mard-uk which took place among the Syrians of Mesopotamia, through whom the myth reached the Hebrews.

10. The nucleus of his empire was Babylon ... in the land of Shin'ar] It is not said that Nimrod founded these four cities (ct. v.11). The rise of the great cities of Babylon was not only much older than the Kaššite dynasty, but probably preceded the establishment of any central government; and the peculiar form of the expression here may be due to a recollection of that fact. Of the four cities, two can be absolutely identified; the third is known by name, but cannot be located; and the last is altogether uncertain.

בֶּאֵר (Babylon) the Heb. form of the native Babylonian 'Gate of God' or 'the gods' (though this may be only a popular etymology). The political supremacy of the city, whose origin is unknown, dates from the expulsion of the Elamites by Hammurabi, the sixth king of its first dynasty (c. 2100 B.C.); and for 2000 years it remained the chief centre of ancient Oriental civilisation. Its ruins lie on the left bank of the Euphrates, about fifty miles due S. of Baghdad.

אֶקַּד (Akkad: cf. אֶקַּד and אֶקַּד) The name (Akkad) frequently occurs in the inscriptions, especially in the phrase 'SUMER and AKKAD,' =South and North Babylonia. But a city of Akkad is also mentioned by Nebuchadnezzar i. (KIB, iii. 170ff.), though its site is uncertain. Its identity with the Agade of Sargon i. (c. 3800 B.C.), which was formerly suspected, is said to be confirmed by a recent decipherment. Del. and Zim. suppose that it was close to Sippur on the Euphrates, in the latitude of Baghdad (see Par. 209 ff.; KAT8, 4228, 4238; ATLO8, 270).

יאַד (Xalawny) Not to be confused with the nilu of Am. 62 (=הָיָה, Is. 109), which was in N Syria. The Bab. Kalne has not yet been discovered. Del. (Par. 225) takes it to be the ideogram Kul-unu (pronounced Zirlahu), of a city in the vicinity of Babylon. But Jen. (ThLz. 1895, 510) asserts that the real pronunciation was Kullab(a), and proposes to read so here (יָד).

בְּאִר (בְּאִיר) apparently the old Heb. name for Babylonia proper (11. 14. 8, Jos. 721, Is. 1111, Zec. 511, Dn. 12), afterwards בְּאִיר or simply בְּאִיר. That it is the same as SUMER (south Babylonia: v.s.) is improbable. More plausible is the identification with the Sandhar of TA Tab. (KIB, v. 83) = Eg. Sangara (Miller, AE, 279); though Wi. (AOF, i. 240, 399; KAT8, 31) puts it N of the Taurus. Gebel Singar (οι Συγγενεσ δησ: Ptol. v. 18. 2), W of Nineveh, is much too far north for the biblical Shin'ar, unless the name had wandered.

II, 12. The colonisation of Assyria from Babylonia.—

II. בְּאִיר (בְּאִיר) 'he went out to Asshur' (so T, Cal. and all moderns). The rendering 'Asshur went out' (מַסְיֵס, Jer. al.) is grammatically
From that land he (Nimrod, v.i.) went out to Assyria]—where he built four new cities. That the great Assyrian cities were not really built by one king or at one period is certain; nevertheless the statement has a certain historic value, inasmuch as the whole religion, culture, and political organisation of Assyria were derived from the southern state. It is also noteworthy that the rise of the Assyrian power dates from the decline of Babylonia under the Kaššite kings (KAT, 21). In Mic. 5 Assyria is described as the 'land of Nimrod.'

That נַכְשׁ is here the name of the land (along the Tigris, N of the Lower Zab), and not the ancient capital (now Kaššat Šerkâš, about halfway between the mouths of the two Zabs), is plain from the context, and the contrast to נַכְשׁ in ν.19.

נַכְשׁ (Ass. Ninua, Ninâ, Ἐ Núven) the foremost city of Assyria, was a royal residence from at latest the time of Assur-bel-kalu, son of Tiglath-pileser I. (11th cent.); but did not apparently become the political capital till the reign of Sennacherib (Wi. GBA, 146). Its site is now marked by the ruined mounds of Nebî Yûnus (with a village named Nûnîa) and Kuyunjîk, both on the E side of the Tigris opposite Mosul (see Hilp. EBL, ii, 88-138).

 Assyria has in Heb. appellative significance = 'broad places of a city' (ב plateas civitatis). A similar phrase on Ass monuments, rēbit Ninâ, is understood to mean 'suburb of Nineveh'; and it has been supposed that ʿr is a translation of this designation into Heb. As to the position of this 'suburb' authorities differ. Del. (Par. 260 f.) thinks it certain that it was on the N or NE side of Nineveh, towards Dûr-Sargôn (the modern Khorsabad); and Johns (EB, iv. 4039) even identifies it with the latter (cf. KIB, ii. 47). Billerbeck, on the other hand, places it at Mosul on the opposite side of the Tigris, as a sort of tête du pont (see ATLO, 273). No proper name at all resembling this is known in the neighbourhood of Nineveh.

נַכְשׁ (Ἀλαχ, Καλαχ) is the Ass. Kalâu or Kalâh, which excavations have proved to be the modern Nimrud, at the mouth of the Upper Zab, 20 miles S of Nineveh (Hilp. l.c. i11 f.). Built by Shalmaneser I. (c. 1300), it replaced Assur as the capital, but afterwards fell into decay, and was restored by Assur-nasir-pal (883-59) (KIB, i. 117). From that time till Sargon, it seems to have continued the royal residence.

[77 (Δασεμ, Δαση, etc.)] Perhaps = Riš-îni ('fountain-head'), an extremely common place-name in Semitic countries; but its site is unknown. A Syrian tradition placed it at the ruins of Khorsabad, 'a parasang above Nineveh,' where a Râs 'ul-Ain is said still to be found correct, and gives a good sense (cf. Is. 2312). But (1) נַכְשׁ (v.19) requires an antithesis (see on 11); and (2) in Mic. 5 Nimrod is the hero of Assyria.
(G. Hoffmann in Nestle, ZDMG, liviii. 158 ff.). This is doubtless the Riš-ini of Sennacherib (KIB, ii. 117); but its identity with מיל is phonetically questionable, and topographically impossible, on account of the definition 'between Nineveh and Kelah.'

The clause הָרַע הָרַע מָיְם is almost universally, but very improbably, taken to imply that the four places just enumerated had come to be regarded as a single city. Schr. (KAT 3, 99 ff.) is responsible for the statement that from the time of Sennacherib the name Nineveh was extended to include the whole complex of cities between the Zab and the Tigris; but more recent authorities assure us that the monuments contain no trace of such an idea (KAT 3, 754; Gu2 78; cf. Johns, EB, 3420). The fabulous dimensions given by Diodorus (ii. 3; cf. Jon. 3rd.) must proceed on some such notion; and it is possible that that might have induced a late interpolator to insert the sentence here. But if the words be a gloss, it is more probable that it springs from the מַעְרָע of Jn. 13, which was put in the margin opposite מַעֲרָע, and crept into the text in the wrong place (ATLO 3, 273).*

13, 14.—The sons of Mizraim.—These doubtless all represent parts or (supposed) dependencies of Egypt; although of the eight names not more than two can be certainly identified.—On מִצְרַיִם = Egypt, see v. 6.—Since Mizraim could hardly have been reckoned a son of Canaan, the section (if documentary) must be an extract from that Yahwistic source to which ג 18th: belong (see p. 188 f.).

(1) מַעְרָע (Aovdieuμ : 1 Ch. 11 מַעְרָע) Not the Lydians of Asia Minor (ATLO 3, 274), who can hardly be thought of in this connexion; but (if the text be correct) some unknown people of NE Africa (see on v. 22, p. 206). The prevalent view of recent scholars is that the word is a mistake for מְרֵא, the Lyrians. See Sta. AK. Red. 141; Müller, AE, 115 f.; OLs, v. 475; al.

(2) מַעְרָע (מַעְרָע; G Alv-[Ev.]μετερεμφ[ν]) Müller reads מַעְרָע or (after G) מַעְרָע; i.e. the inhabitants of the Great Oasis of Knmî in the Libyan desert (Wāhät el-Khāriγah).† For older conjectures see Di.

* With the above hypothesis, Schr.'s argument that, since Nineveh is here used in the restricted sense, the passage must be of earlier date than Sennacherib, falls to the ground. From the writer's silence regarding Assur, the ancient capital, it may safely be inferred that he lived after 1300; and from the omission of Sargon's new residence Đür-Sargon, it is probable that he wrote before 722. But the latter argument is not decisive, since Kelah and Nineveh (the only names that can be positively identified) were both flourishing cities down to the fall of the Empire.

† OLs. v. 471 ff.—It should be explained that this dissertation, frequently cited above, proceeds on the bold assumption that almost the best known name in the section (מַעְרָע, 14) is an interpolation.
(3) סינק (Lambda) commonly supposed to be the Lyrians, the (יו) של של of Nah. 3, Dn. 1148, 2 Ch. 128168, [Ezk. 302]. Muller thinks it a variant of שולק (3).

(4) נַיבּ (Neftalem) Muller proposes יָהֶּ = P-to-n-he, 'cow-
land,'—the name of the Oasis of Farâfrâ. But there is a strong pre-
sumption that, as the next name stands for Upper Egypt, this will be a
designation of Lower Egypt. So Erman (ZATW, x. 118 f.), who reads
סנַּ = p-maḥi, 'the north-land,'—at all periods the native name of
Lower Egypt. More recently Spiegelberg (OLz. ix. 276 ff.) recognises
in it an old name of the Delta, and reads without textual change
Na-patth = 'the people of the Delta.'

(5) פאַרנָּ (Paronowem) the inhabitants of פאַרנָּ (Is. 1111, Jer. 44315,
Ezk. 3014), i.e. Upper Egypt: P-to-reši = 'south-land' (Ass. paturisi):
see Erman, L.C.

(6) פאַרֶנָּ (Parunem) Doubtful conjectures in Di. Muller restores
with help of כְּ הַ נַּ, which he identifies with the Naasaumɔnes of Her. ii.
32, iv. 172, 182, 190,—a powerful tribe of nomad Lyrians, near the
Oasis of Amôn. Sayce has read the name Kasłuhat on the inscr. of
Ombos (see on Kaphtorim, below); Man, 1903, No. 77.

(7) פאַרֶנָּ (Furniemi) The Philistines are here spoken of as an
offshoot of the Kaslūhîm,—a statement scarcely intelligible in the
light of other passages (Jer. 474, Am. 97; cf. Dt. 228), according to which the
Ph. came from Kaphtor. The clause 'ב פאַרֶנָּ' פאַרֶנָּ is therefore in
all probability a marginal gloss meant to come after פאַרֶנָּ. The Ph.
are mentioned in the Eg. monuments, under the name Purašati, as the
leading people in a great invasion of Syria in the reign of Ramses III.
(c. 1175 B.C.). The invaders came both by land and sea from the coasts
of Asia Minor and the islands of the AegEan; and the Philistines
established themselves on the S coast of Palestine so firmly that, though
nearly all traces of their language and civilisation have disappeared,
their name has clung to the country ever since. See Muller, AE, 38790, and MVAG, v. 2 ff.; Moore, EB, iii. 3713 ff.

(8) פאַרֶנָּ (Xaphoremi) Kaphtor (Dt. 228, Am. 97, Jer. 474) has usually
been taken for the island of Crete (see Di.), mainly because of the
repeated association of פאַרֶנָּ (Cretans ?) with the Philistines and the
Philistine territory (1 Sa. 3014, 18, Ezk. 2518, Zeph. 29). There are
convincing reasons for connecting it with Kephîu (properly 'the country
behind'), an old Eg. name for the 'lands of the Great Ring' (the
Eastern Mediterranean), or the 'isles of the Great Green,' i.e. SW Asia
Minor, Rhodes, Crete, and the Mycenaean lands beyond, to the NW of
Egypt (see Muller, AE, 337, 344–53, 387 ff.; and more fully H. R. Hall
in Annual of the British School at Athens, 1901–2, pp. 162–6). The pre-
cise phonetic equivalent Kpîar has been found on a late mural de-
coration at Ombos (Sayce, HCM6, 173; EHH, 291; Muller, MVAG, 1900.

When this 'cuckoo's egg' is ejected, the author finds that the 'sons' of
Egypt are all dependencies or foreign possessions, and are to be sought
outside the Nile valley. The theory does not seem to have found much
favour from Egyptologists or others.
15-19. The Canaanites.—The peoples assigned to the Canaanitish group are (1) the Phœnicians (תִּיו), (2) the Hittites (תִּיו), and (3) a number of petty communities perhaps summed up in the phrase יִשְׂרָאֵל־לָאֵיֶלִי in 18b. It is surprising to find the great northern nation of the Hittites classed as a subdivision of the Canaanites. The writer may be supposed to have in view offshoots of that empire, which survived as small enclaves in Palestine proper; but that explanation does not account for the marked prominence given to Heth over the little Canaanite kingships. On the other hand, one hesitates to adopt Gu.’s theory that ישע is here used in a wide geographical sense as embracing the main seats of the Hittite empire (p. 187). There is evidence, however, of a strong settlement of Hittites near Hermon (see below), and it is conceivable that these were classed as Canaanites and so inserted here.

Critically, the vv. are difficult. We. (Comp. 15) and others remove 18-18a as a gloss: because (α) the boundaries laid down in 15 are exceeded in 17-18a, and (β) the mention of a subsequent dispersion of Canaanites (18b) has no meaning after 18-18a. That is perhaps the most reasonable view to take; but even so 18b does not read quite naturally after 15; and what could have induced a glossator to insert four of the most northerly Phœnician cities, passing by those best known to the Hebrews? Is it

15. מַדְרֹז] cf. 22 (J).—18. חָזְק] adv. of time, as 18s 24-30, etc. = יְרִאָה; see BDB, 29 f.—18b] Niph. fr. 3 19; see on 9b: cf. 11h. 8;—זֶעַךְ, הָנָשֵׁף] can hardly, even if the clause be a gloss, denote the Phœnician colonies on the Mediterranean (Brown, EB, ii. 1698 f.).—19. יִשְׂרָאֵל] ‘as one comes’ (see G-K. § 144h) might be taken as ‘in the direction of’ (so Di. Dri. al.); but there does not appear to be any clear case in which the expression differs from יִשְׂרָאֵל־לָאֵיֶלִי. —קָל לְדָּגָרַע.

* V. 18b. present so many peculiar features—the regular use of the pl., the great preponderance of quadriliteral names, all vocalised alike—that we can hardly help suspecting that they are a secondary addition to the Table, written from specially intimate acquaintance with the (later?) Egyptian geography.
possible that the last five names were originally given as sons of Heth, and the previous four as sons of Zidon? 18b might mean that the Canaanite clans emanated from Phœnicia, and were afterwards 'dispersed' over the region defined by 19.—The change from תונ in 18 to הנ in 18b-19 is hardly sufficient to prove diversity of authorship (Gu.)

The oldest of the Phœnician cities; now Saida, nearly 30 miles S of the promontory of Beirut. Here, however, the name is the eponym of the Zidonians (מַדְי), as the Phœnicians were frequently called, not only in OT (Ju. 18:7-8, 1 Ki. 5:20-261 etc.) and Homer (II. vii. 290 f., etc.), but on the Ass. monuments, and even by the Phœnicians themselves (Mey. EB, iv. 4504).

ננ (τῶν Χερταίων) elsewhere only in the phrases 'נ ננ, 'נ ננ (ch. 23 pass. 2510 2746b 4932 [all P]); other writers speak of [ננ]. The Hittites (Eg. Ḫeta, Ass. Ḫatti) were a northern non-Semitic people, who under unknown circumstances established themselves in Cappadocia. They appear to have invaded Babylonia at the close of the First dynasty (c. 1930 B.C.) (King, Chronicles conc. early Bab. Kings, p. 72 f.). Not long after the time of Thothmes III. (1501-1447), they are found in N Syria. With the weakening of the Eg. supremacy in the Tel-Amarna period, they pressed further S, occupying the Orontes valley, and threatening the Phœnician coast-cities. The indecisive campaigns of Ramesses II. seem to have checked their southward movement. In Ass. records they do not appear till the reign of Tiglath-pileser I. (c. 1100), when they seem to have held the country from the Taurus and Orontes to the Euphrates, with Car-chemash as one of their chief strongholds. After centuries of intermittent warfare, they were finally incorporated in the Ass. Empire by Sargon II. (c. 717). See Paton, Syr. and Pal. 104 ff.—The OT allusions to the Hittites are extremely confusing, and cannot be fully discussed here: see on 1518-21 23. Besides the Palestinian Hittites (whose connexion with the people just spoken of may be doubtful), there is mention of an extensive Hittite country to the N of Palestine (2 Sa. 24:6 [יִל], 1 Ki. 10:30, 2 Ki. 7:6 al.). The most important fact for the present purpose is the definite location of Hittites in the Lebanon region, or at the foot of Hermon (Jos. 11:8 [יִל] and Ju. 3:8 [as amended by Mey. al.], cf. Ju. 1:26 ?). It does not appear that these Hittites were Semitic. There is certainly no justification for treating (with Jast. EB, 2094) ננ in this v. as a gloss.

The four names which follow are names of Canaanitish clans which constantly recur in enumerations of the aborigines of Palestine, and seldom elsewhere.

(1) תונ The clan settled in and around Jerusalem: Jos. 15:8 18:8, Ju. 19:9-10, 2 Sa. 5:6-9 etc.

(2) ינ An important politico-geographical name in the Egyptian and cuneiform documents (Eg. Amor, etc., Ass. Amurr). In the TA Tablets the 'land of Amurr' denotes the Lebanon region behind the Phœnician coast-territory. Its princes Abd-Ašı́ra and Aziru were then the most active enemies of the Egyptian authority in the north, conducting successful operations against several of the Phœnician cities. It has been supposed that subsequently to these events the
Amorites pressed southwards, and founded kingdoms in Palestine both E and W of the Jordan (Nu. 21\18ff., Jos. 24\ etc.) ; though Müller has pointed out some difficulties in the way of that hypothesis (AE, 230 f.).

In the OT there appears an occasional tendency to restrict the name to 'highlanders' (Nu. 13\29, Dt. 1\7), but this is more than neutralised by other passages (Ju. 1\34). The most significant fact is that E (followed by D) employs the term to designate the pre-Israelite inhabitants of Palestine generally (cf. Am. 2\9), whom J describes as Canaanites. Apart from the assumption of an actual Amorite domination, it is almost impossible to suggest an explanation of E's usage, unless we can take it as a survival of the old Bab. name Amurr u (or at least its ideographic equivalent MAR. TU) for Palestine, Phoenicia and Cæle-Syria.—See, further, Müller, AE, 218 ff., 229 ff.; Wi. GI, i. 51-54, KAT\3, 178 ff.; Mey. ZATW, i. 122 ff.; We. Comp.\3 341; Bu. Urg. 344 ff.; Dri. Deut. 11 f.; Gen. 125 f.; Sayce, DB, i. 84 f.; Paton, Syr. and Pal. 25-46, 115 ff., 147 f.; Mey. GA\2, i. ii. § 396.

(3) ψηθ[π] only mentioned in enumerations (15\21, Dt. 7\1, Jos. 3\9 24\11, Neh. 9\6) without indication of locality. שְׁנֶרֶג, שָׁנֶרֶג, שָׁנָר occur as prop. names on Punic inscrs. (Lidzbarski, Nord-sem. Epigr. 405, 622\4, 673\3; Ephem. i. 36, 308). Ewald conjectured a connexion with NT Θεργεσσα.

(4) ἠἰδων (ἐν. Εβαίων) a tribe of central Palestine, in the neighbourhood of Shechem (34\9) and Gibeon (Jos. 9\7); in Ju. 2\8, where they are spoken of in the N, ηἰδω should be read, and in Jos. 11\8 Hittites and Hivvites should be transposed in accordance with Εβ. The name has been explained by Ges. (Th.) and others as meaning 'dwellers in ηἰδω' (Bedouin encampments: cf. Nu. 32\41); but that is improbable in the case of a people long settled in Palestine (Moore). We. (Heid. 154) more plausibly connects it with ηἰδω = 'serpent' (see on 3\8), surmising that the Hivvites were a snake-clan. Cf. Lagarde, OS, 187, 174, i. 97 (Εβαίων οἰκολογιών ὡς ἐπὶ βοηθεῖς).

The 5 remaining names are formed from names of cities, 4 in the extreme N of Phoenicia, and the last in Cæle-Syria.

(5) χαταρί (μι. χαταρί, Ετ. τ. Ἀρουκαίων) is from the city Ἀρκα ἐν τῷ Δισάνῳ (Jos. Anti. i. 138), the ruins of which, still bearing the name Tell 'Arka, are found on the coast about 12 miles NE of Tripolis. It is mentioned by Thothmes III. (in the form 'r-κα-ν-τῳ: see AE, 247 f.), and in TA letters (Irkata: KIB, v. 171, etc.); also by Shalmaneser II. (KIB, i. 173; along with Arpad and Sianu, below), and Tiglath-pilesar IV. (ib. ii. 29; along with Simirra and Sianu).

(6) χαταρί (τ. Ασσυραίων) inhabitants of χαταρί, Ass. Sianu (KIB, II.cc.). Jer. (Quast.) says it was not far from 'Arka, but adds that only the name remained in his day. The site is unknown: see Cooke, EB, iv. 4644 f.

(7) χαταρί (τ. 'Αράδιών) 'Arwad (Ezk. 27\8. 11) was the most northerly of the Phoenician cities, built on a small island (Strabo, xvi. ii. 13; KIB, i. 109) about 35 miles N of Tripolis (now Ruad). It is named frequently, in connexions which show its great importance in ancient times, in Eg. inscrs. (AE, 186 f.), on TA Tab., and by Ass. kings from Tiglath-pilesar I. to Assurbanipal (KAT\3, 104 f.; Del. Par. 281); see also Her. vii. 98.
Six miles S of Ruad, the modern village of Sumra preserves the name of this city: Eg. Samar; TA, Sumur; Ass. Simirra; Gr. Σουμαρα. See Strabo, xvi. ii. 12; AE, 187; KAT, 105; Del. Par, 281 f.

(9) יִשְׂרָאֵל עָמֶר (r. 'Aμαθο) from the well-known Ḥamath on the Orontes; now Ḥama.

The delimitation of the Canaanite boundary in v. 19 is very obscure. It describes two sides of a triangle, from Zidon on the N to Gaza or Gerar in the SW; and from thence to a point near the S end of the Dead Sea. The terminus הֵרְכָּס (Ε Δασα) is, however, unknown. The traditional identification (chluss, Jer.) with Καλλυφόη, near the N end of the Dead Sea, is obviously unsuitable. Kittel, BH (very improbably), suggests הַרְכָּס (145). We. (Comp. 15) reads הַרְכָּס or הַרְכָּס (Jos. 19:7 hefl) = 'to Dan' (אַל), the conventional northern limit of Canaan,—thus completing the E side of the triangle.—Gerar were certainly further S. than Gaza (see on 20); hence we cannot read 'as far as (v. i.) Gerar, up to Gaza,' while the rendering 'in the direction of Gerar, as far as Gaza,' would only be intelligible if Gerar were a better known locality than Gaza. Most probably הַרְכָּס is a gloss (Gu. al.).—On the situation of Sodom, etc., see on ch. 19.—On any construction of the v. the northern cities of 17, 18 are excluded.—מָוָא has an entirely different text: מַמְרְרָא וַעֲנָה נַעֲנוּ, וַתֶּאנֶה הָשָׁם וָאֶרֶר, an amalgam of 15 and Dt. 11.

21, 24, 25–30. The Shemites.—The genealogy of Shem in J resolves itself entirely into a classification of the peoples whose origin was traced to 'Eber. These fall into two main branches: the descendants of Peleg (who are not here enumerated), and the Yokṭanites or S Arabian tribes. Shem is thus nothing more than the representative of the unity of the widely scattered Hebraic stock: Shemite and 'Hebrew' are convertible terms. This recognition of the ethnological affinity of the northern and southern Semites is a remarkable contrast to P, who assigns the S Arabians to Hām,—the family with which Israel had least desire to be associated.

ירֵעָם is the eponym of ירֵעָם (Hebrews), the name by which the Israelites are often designated in distinction from other peoples, down to the time of Saul* (see G–K, § 2b: the pass. are cited in BDB, s.v.). It is strange at first sight that while the יִרְעָם of v. 21 include all Shemites known to J, the gentilic word is historically restricted to Israelites. The difficulty is perhaps removed by the still disputed, but now widely

* After 1 Sa. it occurs only Dt. 15, Jer. 34.14, Jon. 19. But see the cogent criticisms of Weinheimer in ZATW, 1909, 275 ff., who propounds the view that Hebrews and Israelites were distinct strata of the population.
accepted, theory that Ḥabiri in the TA letters is the cuneiform equivalent of the OT "ןֵן בִּירָי. The equation presents no philological difficulty: Ass. ❣ often represents a foreign (ST Studien, ii. 64), that the sign ❣ never stands for ⁰ (if true) is worthless, for Ḥa-la-la-ya-ya-un = עֲשֵּׂנֵי shows that Ass. a may become in OT i, and this is all that it is necessary to prove. The historical objections vanish if the Ḥabiri be identified, not with the Israelitish invaders after the Exodus, but with an earlier immigration of Semitic nomads into Palestine, amongst whom the ancestors of Israel were included. The chief uncertainty arises from the fact that the phonetic writing Ha-bi-ri occurs only in a limited group of letters,—those of 'Abd-_quad of Jerusalem (179, 180 [182], 183, 185). The ideogram SA. GAS ('robbers') in other letters is conjectured to have the same value, but this is not absolutely demonstrated. Assuming that Wi. and others are right in equating the two, the Ḥabiri are in evidence over the whole country, occasionally as auxiliaries of the Egyptian government, but chiefly as its foes. The inference is very plausible that they were the roving Bedouin element of the population, as opposed to the settled inhabitants,—presumably a branch of the great Aramaean invasion which was then overflowing Mesopotamia and Syria (see above, p. 206; cf. Wi. AOF, iii. 90 ff., KA T, 196 ff.; Paton, Syr. and Pal. 111 ff.). There is thus a strong probability that בּיָרָי was originally the name of a group of tribes which invaded Palestine in the 15th cent. B.C., and that it was afterwards applied to the Israelites as the sole historic survivors of the immigrants.—Etymologically, the word has usually been interpreted as meaning 'those from beyond' the river (cf. יְבָּרִי יְבָּרִי, Jos. 24 conf. 146); and on that assumption, the river is certainly not the Tigris (De.), and almost certainly not the Jordan (We. Kau. Sta.), but (in accordance with prevailing tradition) the Ḥ of the OT, the Euphrates, 'beyond' which lay Harran, the city whence Abraham set out. Hommel's view (AHT, 252 ff.) has no probability (cf. Dri. 139). The vb. יְבָּרִי, however, does not necessarily mean to 'cross' (a stream); it sometimes means simply to 'traverse' a region (Jer. 2); and in this sense Spiegelberg has recently (1907) revived an attractive conjecture of Goldziher (Mythos, p. 66), that יְבָּרִי signifies 'wanderers'—nomads (OLs. x. 618 ff.).

**21. The father of all the sons of 'Eber** The writer has apparently borrowed a genealogical list of the descendants

* In Egyptian texts from Thothmes III. to Ramses IV., the word 'Apriu ('AAPruiu) occurs as the name of a foreign population in Egypt; and had been identified by Chabas with the Hebrews of OT. The identification has been generally discarded, on grounds which seemed cogent; but has recently been revived by Hommel (AHT, 259), and
of Eber which he was at a loss to connect with the name of Shem. Hence he avoids the direct assertion that Shem begat Eber, and bridges over the gap by the vague hint that Shem and Eber stand for the same ethnological abstraction.—the elder brother of Yepeth] The Heb. can mean nothing else (v.i.). The difficulty is to account for the selection of Japheth for comparison with Shem, the oldest member of the family. Unless the clause be a gloss, the most obvious inference is that the genealogy of Japheth had immediately preceded; whether because in the Table of J the sequence of age was broken (Bu. 305 f.), or because Japheth was really counted the second son of Noah (Di.). The most satisfactory solution is undoubtedly that of Gu., who finds in the remark an indication that this Table followed the order: Canaan—Japheth—Shem (see p. 188).—

24 is an interpolation (based on 1112-14) intended to harmonise J with P. It cannot be the continuation of 21 as it stands (since we have not been informed who Arpakšad was), and still less in the form suggested below. It is also obviously inconsistent with the plan of P’s Table, which deals with

with the subj. nor does the Hoph. ; the Niph. does so once (Gn. 1717 [P]) ; but there the ellipsis is explained by the emphasis which lies on the fact of birth. Further, a אָדָם is required as subj. of the cl. ' הנה רַאָה. The impression is produced that originally רַאָה was expressly named as the son of Shem, and that the words ' הנה אָדָם אָדָם referred to him (perhaps ' הנה לְשׁוֹן שֵׁם). Considering the importance of the name, the tautology is not too harsh. It would then be hardly possible to retain the clause ' הנה רַאָה ; and to delete it as a gloss (although it has been proposed by others: see OH) I admit to be difficult, just because of the obscurity of the expression.—אָדָם [cf. 426.—] B מָוֹ וְכֵן יִשְׂרָאֵל] כִּי correctly fratre J. majore. The Mass. accentuation perhaps favours the grammatically impossible rendering of אֵלֶּףָא (אֱלֶףָא 'I. τού μελισσόνος), Σ, al. ; which implies that Japheth was the oldest of Noah’s sons,—a notion extorted from the chronology of 1110 cpd. with 529 711 (see Ra. IEz.). It is equally inadmissible (with IEz.) to take מְבָנָה absolutely (=Japheth the great). See Bu. 304 ff.—24. בְּשֵׁם [Gr pref. לְיִשְׂרָאֵל מְבָנָה.

(with arguments which seem very convincing) by Heyes (Bib. u. Aeg., 1904, 146 ff.). In view of the striking resemblance to Habiri, and the new facts brought to light by the TA Tablets, the hypothesis certainly deserves to be reconsidered (cf. Eerdmans, l.c. 52 ff., or Expos., 1909, ii. 197 ff.).
nations and not with individual genealogies (note also יְהַ֣ודִּים instead of יְהוּדִּים).

25. The two sons of Eber represent the Northern and Southern Semites respectively, corresponding roughly to Aramaeans and Arabs: we may compare with Jast. (DB, v. 82 a) the customary division of Arabia into Ṣām (Syria) and Yemen. The older branch, to which the Israelites belonged, is not traced in detail: we may assume that a Yahwistic genealogy (|| to 11.16ff. [P]) existed, showing the descent of Abraham from Peleg; and from scattered notices (19.20ff. 22.25ff. 25ff. etc.) we can form an idea of the way in which the northern and central districts were peopled by that family of 'Hebrews.'—On יאֵב, see below.—*For in his days the earth was divided* (נַפַלְשִׁים) a popular etymology naturally suggested by the root, which in Heb. (as in Aram. Arab. etc.) expresses the idea of 'division' (cf. the vb. in Ps. 55.10, Jb. 38.28). There is no very strong reason to suppose that the dispersion (נַפַלְשִׁים, יָאִיל etc.) of the Tower of Babel is referred to; it is possible that some other tradition regarding the distribution of nations is followed (e.g. Jub. viii. 8 ff.), or that the allusion is merely to the separation of the Ṭoqṭanites from their northern kinsmen.

יָאִיל (פַּאַלְגָּא, פַּאַלְגָּא, פַּאַלְגָּא) as a common noun means 'watercourse' or artificial canal (Ass. pālgu): Is. 30.5, Ps. 1.8 65.10, Jb. 26.6 etc. Hence it has been thought that the name originally denoted some region intersected by irrigating channels or canals, such as Babylonia itself. Of geographical identifications there are several which are sufficiently plausible: Phalga in Mesopotamia, at the junction of the Chaboras and the Euphrates (Knob.); 'el-Falṭ, a district in NE Arabia near the head of the Persian Gulf (Lag. Or. ii. 50); 'el-Aflṭ, S of Ḥevel Tuwaik in central Arabia (Homm. AA, 222.2).

יָאִיל (יָאֵד) otherwise unknown, is derived by Fleischer (Goldz. Mythos, p. 67) from אֵד 'be settled.' The Arab genealogists identified him with Kahtān, the legendary ancestor of a real tribe, who was (or came to be) regarded as the founder of the Yemenite Arabs (Margoliouh, DB, ii. 743). On the modern stock of 'el-Ḳaḥṭan, and its sinister reputation in the more northerly parts of the Peninsula, see Doughty, Arab. Des. i. 129, 229, 282, 343, 389, 418, ii. 39 ff., 437.

26–30. The sons of Yokṭān number 13, but in Ḳ (see on

25. יְהוּדִים; but וּסְתָּן is possibly acc. after pass. as מַקְרָא etc. (G-K. § 121 a, b)—הוֹוָא—הוֹוָא] similarly 22.1 (J).—26. Some MSS have מַקְרָא, as if = 'court of death.'
X. 25–28

only 12, which may be the original number. The few names that can be satisfactorily identified (Sheleph, Hāsaraweth, Sheba, Hāvilah) point to S Arabia as the home of these tribes.

(1) דָּבָדָא (‘Elm additionally) unknown. The ה is variously explained as the Ar. art. (but this is not Sabæan), as ‘EZ=‘God,’ and as ‘al=‘family’; and ה is a derivative of the vb. for ‘love’ (wadda), equivalent to Heb. יָדָא (Wi. MVAG, vi. 169); cf. Glaser, Skizzen, ii. 425; DB, i. 67.

(2) חָלֵף (Σαλέφ) A Yemenite tribe or district named on Sabæan inscrs., and also by Arab. geographers: see Homm. SA Chrest. 70; Osiander in ZDMG, xi. 153 ff., perhaps identical with the Salapeni of Roman writers. Cognate place-names are said to be still common in S Arabia (Glaser).

(3) אֶסְאָרָה (‘Asaraw) The modern province of Hadramaut, on the S coast, E of Yemen. The name appears in Sabæan inscrs. of 5th and 6th cent. A.D., and is slightly disguised in the Χατραμωτίται of Strabo (xvi. iv. 2), the Chatramotites of Pliny, vi. 154 (Atramites, vi. 155, xii. 52?).

(4) טו (‘Iraa) uncertain. The attempts at identification proceed on the appellative sense of the word (=‘moon’), but are devoid of plausibility (see Di.).

(5) אָסָרָה (מ תְּורָא, גז 'Odorra) likewise unknown. A place called Dauram close to Şan‘a has been suggested: the name is found in Sabæan (Glaser, 426, 435).

(6) חָלֵף (מ וֹרָא, גז אֵרְבָה) mentioned by Ezk. (27: rd. הָזָה) as a place whence iron and spices were procured. It is commonly taken to be the same as ‘Asāl, which Arab. tradition declares to be the old name of Şan‘a, now the capital of Yemen. Glaser (310, 427, 434, etc.) disputes the tradition, and locates ‘Uzāl in the neighbourhood of Medina.*

(7) טו (דכָא) Probably the Ar. and Aram. word (daqal, הָלֶע, לָע) for ‘date-palm,’ and therefore the name of some noted palm-bearing oasis of Arabia. Glaser (MVAG, 1897, 438) and Hommel (AA, 282 ff.) identify it with the Φοινικῶν of Procopius, and the modern ġatif es-Sirhān, 30° NL (as far N as the head of the Red Sea).

(8) הָלֶע (מ ז and 1 Ch. i21 אָלֶע, גז לְאָבָה) supposed to be the word ‘Abil, a frequent geographical name in Yemen (Glaser, 427). The name is omitted by many MSS of ג, also by ג in 1 Ch. i22 (see Nestle, MM, 10), where some Heb. MSS and ג have הַלֶע.

(9) אָסָרָה (‘Asaraw) apparently a tribal name (=‘father is God’), of genuine Sabæan formation (cf. אָסָרָה, ZDMG, xxxvii. 18), not hitherto identified.

* In view of the uncertainty of the last three names, it is worthy of attention that the account of Assurbanipal’s expedition against the Nabataeans (KIB, ii. 221) mentions, in close conjunction, three places, Hurarina, Yarki, and Asalla, which could not, of course, be as far S as Yemen, but might be as far as the region of Medina. In spite of the phonetic differences, the resemblance to Hadoram, Yerâh, and ‘Uzāl is noteworthy. See, however, Glaser, 273 ff., 309 ff.
(10) χρυσ] see on v. 7 (p. 203). The general connexion suggests that the Sabæans are already established in Yemen; although, if ’Uzāl be as far N as Medina, the inference is perhaps not quite certain.

(11) χρΥρ (Oφελρ)] known to the Israelites as a gold-producing country (Is. 132, Ps. 4510, Jv. 2254 2818, 1 Ch. 291 [Sir. 718]), visited by the ships of Solomon and Hiram, which brought home not only gold and silver and precious stones, but almug-wood, ivory, apes and (?) peacocks (1 Ki. 928 1011-22; cf. 2228). Whether this familiarity with the name implies a clear notion of its geographical position may be questioned; but it can hardly be doubted that the author of the Yahwistic Table believed it to be in Arabia; and although no name at all resembling Ophir has as yet been discovered in Arabia, that remains the most probable view (see Glaser, Skizze, ii. 357-83). Of other identifications the most important are: Abhira in India, E of the mouths of the Indus (Lassen); (2) the Sofala coast (opposite Madagascar), behind which remains of extensive gold-diggings were discovered around Zimbabwe in 1871: the ruins, however, have now been proved to be of native African origin, and not older than the 14th or 15th cent. A.D. (see D. Randall-Maciver, Medieaval Rhodesia [1906]); (3) ἀπίρ(originally Ἰαπίρ), an old name for the ruling race in Elam, and for the coast of the Persian Gulf around Bushire (see Homm. AHT, 236; Hüsing, OLz, vi. 367 ff.; Jen. ZDMG, l. 246). If we could suppose the name transferred to the opposite (Arabian) coast of the gulf, this hypothesis would satisfy the condition required by this passage, and would agree in particular with Glaser’s localisation. For a discussion of the various theories, see the excellent summary by Che. in EB, iii. 3513 ff.; Price, DB, iii. 626 ff.; and Dri. Gen.2 xxvi. f., 131.


(13) γυν.] unknown. Halevy and Glaser (ii. 303) compare the Sabæan name Yuhaibab.

The limits (probably from N to S) of the Yqknitime territory are specified in v. 30; but a satisfactory explanation is impossible owing to the uncertainty of the three names mentioned in it (Dist.)—κρΥρ (Μαοςη) has been supposed to be Mesene (Μαιση, Μαισαίαν), within the Delta of the Euphrates-Tigris (Ges. Th. 823; Tu.); but the antiquity of this name is not established. Di., following Er, reads κρυρ (see on 234) in N Arabia. This as northern limit would just include Dīkhā, if Glaser’s identification, given above, be correct.—γυν.] (Σωφρα) is generally acknowledged to be Zafār in the S of Arabia. There were two places of the name: one in the interior of Yemen, N of Aden; the other (now pronounced lṣār or lṣafār) on the coast of Mahra, near Mīrbāt. The latter was the capital of the Himyarite kings (Ges. Th. 968; DB, iv. 437; EB, iv. 4370). Which of the two is here meant is a matter of little consequence.—γυν.] It is difficult to say whether this is an apposition to κρυρ (Tu. al.), or a definition of γυν., or is a continuation of the line beyond γυν. On the first view the ‘mountain’ might be the highlands of central Arabia (Negd); the second is recommended by the fact that the eastern Zafār lies at the foot of a high mountain, well adapted to serve as a landmark. The third view is not
assisted by rendering 'in the direction of' (see on v. 19); for in any case Zafar must have been the terminus in a southern direction. The commonly received opinion is that Ḥadramaut is the name of the Frankincense Mountain between Ḥadramaut and Mahra (see Di.).

XI. 1-9.—The Tower of Babel (J).

A mythical or legendary account of the breaking up of the primitive unity of mankind into separate communities, distinguished and isolated by differences of language. The story reflects at the same time the impression made on Semitic nomads by the imposing monuments of Babylonian civilisation. To such stupendous undertakings only an undivided humanity could have addressed itself; and the existing disunitedness of the race is a divine judgement on the presumptuous impiety which inspired these early manifestations of human genius and enterprise.

Gu. has apparently succeeded in disentangling two distinct but kindred legends, which are both Yahwistic (cf. הויי, vv. 5, 6, 8, 9, 9), and have been blended with remarkable skill. One has crystallised round the name 'Babel,' and its leading motive is the "confusion" of tongues; the other around the memory of some ruined tower, which tradition connected with the "dispersion" of the race. Gu.'s division will be best exhibited by the following continuous translations:

A. The Babel-Recension: (!) And it was, when all the earth had one speech and one vocabulary, (2a) that they said to one another, Come! Let us make bricks and burn them thoroughly. (4a, γ) And they said, Come! Let us build us a city, and make ourselves a name. (6a,γ) And Yahwe said, Behold it is one people, and all of one language. (7) Come! Let us go down and confound there their language, so that they may not understand one another's speech, (8b) and that they may cease to build the city. (8a) Therefore is its name called 'Babel' (Confusion), for there Yahwe confused the speech of the whole earth

B. The Tower-Recension: . . .

(3) And when they broke up from the East, they found a plain in the land of Shin'ar, and settled there. [And they said, Let us build] (4a,γb) a tower, with its top reaching to heaven, lest we disperse over the face of the whole earth. (3b) And they had brick for stone and asphalt for mortar. (5) And Yahwe came down to see the tower which the sons of men had built. [And He said . . . ] (4a,γb) and this is but the beginning of their enterprise; and now nothing will be impracticable to them which they purpose to do. (8b) So Yahwe scattered them over the face of the whole earth. [Therefore the name of the tower was called 'Piz' (Dispersion), for] (9b) from thence Yahwe dispersed them over the face of the whole earth.
It is extremely difficult to arrive at a final verdict on the soundness of this acute analysis; but on the whole it justifies itself by the readiness with which the various motives assert themselves in two parallel series. Its weak point is no doubt the awkward duplicate (8a || 8b) with which B closes. Gu.'s bold conjecture that between the two there was an etymological play on the name of the tower (א"כ or א"ב) certainly removes the objection; but the omission of so important an item of the tradition is itself a thing not easily accounted for.* Against this, however, we have to set the following considerations: the absence of demonstrable lacunae in Λ, and their infrequency even in B; the facts that only a single phrase (יִרְעְבַּיֶג in v.5) requires to be deleted as redactional, and there is only one transposition (8b); and the facility with which nearly all the numerous doublets (8a || 8b; 8c || 8d; יִרְעְבַּיֶג (5) || יִרְעְבַּיֶג (7); 6α, β || 6α, γβ; 8α || 8α, δ) can be definitely assigned to the one recension or the other. In particular, it resolves the difficulty presented by the twofold descent of Yahwe in 5 and 7, from which far-reaching critical consequences had already been deduced (see the notes). There are perhaps some points of style, and some general differences of conception between the two strata, which go to confirm the hypothesis; but these also may be reserved for the notes.

The section, whether simple or composite, is independent of the Ethnographic Table of ch. 10, and is indeed fundamentally irreconcilable with it. There the origin of peoples is conceived as the result of the natural increase and partition of the family, and variety of speech as its inevitable concomitant (cf. אֶתָֹל, etc., in P, 10.5-20.31). Here, on the contrary, the division is caused by a sudden interposition of Yahwe; and it is almost impossible to think that either a confusion of tongues or a violent dispersion should follow genealogical lines of cleavage. It is plausible, therefore, to assign the passage to that section of J (if there be one) which has neither a Flood-tradition nor a Table of Nations (so We. Bu. Sta. al.); although it must be said that the idea here is little less at variance with the classification by professions of 420-22 than with ch. 10. The truth is that the inconsistency is not of such a kind as would necessarily hinder a collector of traditions from putting the two in historical sequence.

**I-4. The Building of the City and the Tower.—**
(Compare the translation given above.) I, 2. The expres-

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*I. יִרְעְבַּיֶג is not verbal pred. to יִרְעְבַּיֶג, but merely introduces the circumstantial sent., as in 1517 4235 etc. (Dav. § 141 and R.1). Such a sent. is usually followed by יִרְעְבַּיֶג, but see 1 Ki. 1319. It may certainly be doubted if it could be followed by another יִרְעְבַּיֶג with inf. cl. (v.5); and this may be reckoned a point in favour of Gu.'s analysis.—If there be any distinction between יִרְעְבַּיֶג and יִרְעְבַּיֶג, the former may refer to the

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* In Jub. x. 26, the name of the tower, as distinct from the city, is "Overthrow" (καταστροφή).
sion suggests that in A mankind is already spread far and wide over the earth, though forming one great nation (Ὡς, v.6), united by a common language. In B, on the other hand, it is still a body of nomads, moving all together in search of a habitation (v.2; cf. ἡμῶν ἰό, v.5).—broke up from the East] v.i.—a plain] the Euphrates-Tigris valley; where Babylon κέκτηκε ἐν πεδίῳ μεγάλῳ (Her. i. 178).—the land of Shin'ar see on 1030.—3a. With great naïveté, the (city-) legend describes first the invention of bricks, and then (v.4) as an afterthought the project of building with them. The bilingual Babylonian account of creation (see p. 47 above) speaks of a time when "no brick was laid, no brick-mould (nalbantu) formed": see KIB, vi. 1, 38 f., 360.—3b shows that the legend has taken shape amongst a people familiar with stone-masonry. Comp. the construction of the walls of Babylon as described by Her. (i. 179).* The accuracy pronunciation and the latter to the vocabulary (Di.), or (Gu.) ἐν to language as a whole, and Ἐ to its individual elements.—موافقة الموافق] a single set of vocables'; Ἐπιδήμη μία (+παντὸς=περιήλητος, as v.). Elsewhere (2744 298 [with νόμῳ]) νομικός means 'single' in the sense of 'few'; in Ezk. 3717 the text is uncertain (see Co.).—On the juxtaposition of subj. and pred. in the nom. sent., see Dav. § 29 (e).—2. ἡπείρον ὑπομνήματι rendered as above by Ἐς ἀκόλουθος. Nearly all moderns prefer 'as they wandered in the east' or 'eastward'; justifying the translation by 1311, which is the only place where ἡπείρον means 'eastward' with a vb. of motion. That ἐπέλει ρέου means 'from the east' is at least a hazardous assertion in view of Is. 28 911, ἐπέλει (cf. Ass. nistā, 'remove,' 'depart,' etc.) is a nomadic term, meaning 'pluck up [tent-pegs]' (Is. 3320); hence 'break up the camp' or 'start on a journey' (Gn. 3319 356.18.31 3717 etc.); and, with the possible exception of Jer. 3128 (but not Gn. 128), there is no case where this primary idea is lost sight of. Being essentially a vb. of departure, it is more naturally followed by a determination of the starting-point than of the direction or the goal (but see 3317); and there is no difficulty whatever in the assumption that the cradle of the race was further E than Babylonia (see 28; and cf. Sta. Ak. Red. 246, and n. 43).—ὕπατος] (Syr. ἐπιλείποντας, Ar. ἐπιλείποντας) in usage, a wide, open valley, or plain (Dt. 348, Zech. 121, Is. 404, etc.). The derivation from ἐπιλαμβάνω, 'split,' is questioned by Barth (ES, 2), but is probable nevertheless.—3. ἐπιστρεπτέον] impv. of ἐπιστρέφω, used interjectionally (G-K. § 69 o), as in vv.5. 584, Ex. 110 (all J), is given by Gu. as a stylistic mark of the recension A (10). Contr. the

* Cf. Jos. c. Ap. i. 139, 149; Diod. ii. 9; Pliny, HN, xxxv. 51.
of the notice is confirmed by the excavated remains of Bab. houses and temples (ATLO², 279)—4. With its top reaching to heaven] The expression is not hyperbolical (as Dt. 1⁴),
but represents the serious purpose of the builders to raise their work to the height of the dwelling-place of the gods (Jub. x. 19, etc.).

The most conspicuous feature of a Bab. sanctuary was its sikkurat, —a huge pyramidal tower rising, often in 7 terraces, from the centre of the temple-area, and crowned with a shrine at the top (Her. i. 181 f.: see Jast. RBA, 615—22). These structures appear to have embodied a half-cosmical, half-religious symbolism: the 7 stories represented the 7 planetary deities as mediators between heaven and earth; the ascent of the tower was a meritorious approach to the gods; and the summit was regarded as the entrance to heaven (KAT³, 616 f.; ATLO⁵, 52 f., 281 f.). Hence it is probably something more than mere hyperbole when it is said of these sikkurats that the top was made to reach heaven (see p. 228 f. below); and, on the other hand, the resemblance between the language of the inscrs. and that of Genesis is too striking to be dismissed as accidental. That the tower of Gn. 11 is a Bab. sikkurat is obvious on every ground; and we may readily suppose that a faint echo of the religious ideas just spoken of is preserved in the legend; although to the purer faith of the Hebrews it savoured only of human pride and presumption.—The idea of storming heaven and making war on the gods, which is suggested by some late forms of the legend (cf. Hom. Od. xi. 313 ff.), is no doubt foreign to the passage.

4b. Lest we disperse] The tower was to be at once a symbol of the unity of the race, and a centre and rallying-point, visible all over the earth (IEz.). The idea is missed by כל and ב, which render ‘ere we be dispersed.’

verbal use 29²⁰ 30¹ (both E), 47¹⁵, and pl. (בז) 47¹⁶, Dt. 1³⁸ 3²⁸, Jos. 1³⁴. On the whole, the two uses are characteristic of J and E respectively; see Holz. Einl. 98 f.—יִנֶּרֶּר יִנֶּרֶּר] Ex. 5¹. ¹⁴. So in Ass. labânu libittu (KIB, ii. 48, etc.), although libittu is used only of the unburned, sun-dried brick. See Nö. ZDMG, xxxvi. 181; Hoffmann, ZATW, ii. 70.—יִנֶּרֶּר] dat. of product (Di.); ינ = ‘burnt mass’ (cf. Dt. 29²⁰, Jer. 5¹ ²⁰)—יִנְּרְר (14⁴⁰, Ex. 2³) the native Heb. name for bitumen (see on 6²⁴.—יִנְּרְר (note the play on words) is strictly ‘clay,’ used in Palestine as mortar.—4. כֵּן יֵשֶׁן ] of contact, as in יֵשׁ (De.).—כֵּן יֵשֶׁה] ‘acquire lasting renown’; cf. 2 Sa. 8³⁵, Jer. 3²², Neh. 9³⁰. The suggestion that יֵשֶׁה here has the sense of ‘monument,’ though defended by De. Bud. (Urg. 3⁷³⁵), al. (cf. Sieg.-St. s.v.), has no sufficient justification in usage. In Is. 5⁵ ⁵³ (cf. 2 Sa. 1⁸¹⁸), as well as the amended text of 2 Sa 8³⁸
5-9. Yahwe's Interposition.—The turning-point in the development of the story occurs at vv.5, 6, where the descent of Yahwe is *twice* mentioned, in a way which shows some discontinuity of narration.—On heaven as the dwelling-place of Yahwe, cf. 2812f., Ex. 1911, 20 346 2410, 1 Ki. 2219, 2 Ki. 211; and with v.5 cf. 1821, Ex. 38.

On the assumption of the unity of the passage, the conclusion of Sta. (Ak. Red. 274 ff.) seems unavoidable: that a highly dramatic polytheistic recension has here been toned down by the omission of some of its most characteristic incidents. In v.5 the name Yahwe has been substituted for that of some envoy of the gods sent down to inspect the latest human enterprise; v.6 is his report to the heavenly council on his return; and v.7 the plan of action he recommends to his fellow immortals. The main objection to this ingenious solution is that it involves, almost necessarily, a process of conscious literary manipulation, such as no Heb. writer is likely to have bestowed on a document so saturated with pagan theology as the supposed Bab. original must have been. It is more natural to believe that the elimination of polytheistic representations was effected in the course of oral transmission, through the spontaneous action of the Hebrew mind controlled by its spiritual faith.—On Gu.‘s theory the difficulty disappears.

6. This is but the beginning, etc.] The reference is not merely to the completion of the tower, but to other enterprises which might be undertaken in the future.—9. Babel]

(see Dri. Sam. 217 f.), the ordinary sense suffices.—[אָרָק] the word, acc. to Gu., is distinctive of the recension B: cf. vv.8a-9b.—6, 10 אֶת יָדְתֶךָ וְאֶת יָדֶנָּךְ] incomplete interjectional sent. (G-K. § 147 d).—[אֶת נַחֲלָתֶךָ] lit. ‘this is their beginning to act.’ On the pointing ‘אֶת, see G-K. § 67 w.—[אֶת נַחֲלָתֶךָ] imitated in Jb. 42.7-8. lit. ‘be inaccessible’ (cf. Is. 22; Jer. 5118); hence ‘impracticable.’—[אֶת] contr. for אֶת; (G-K. § 67 dd).—7. ‘וַיִּבְרֹא] כִּי retains the pl. in spite of the alleged reading in Mechilla נְבָאָה הָרָע (see p. 14 above).—[אֶת נַחֲלָתֶךָ] (see last note): fr. אֶת הֵבָא = ‘mix’ (not ‘divide,’ as § [אָלְלַע]).—אֶת נַחֲלָתֶךָ G-K. § 165 b.—[אָרָק] ‘understand’: 4228, Dt. 2848, Is. 3318, Jer. 515 etc.—8. It is perhaps better, if a distinction of sources is recognised, to point [אָרָק] (juss. of purpose: G-K. § 109 f), continuing the direct address of 7b—[וַיִּבְרֹא] מִי pr. ֽו, and (with כִּי) adds מַעַשְׂרָנָּה.—9. [אֶת נַחֲלָתֶךָ] ‘one called’ (G-K. § 144 c).—[אָרָק] ‘mixture’ or ‘confusion.’ The name is obviously treated as a contraction from [אָרָק], a form not found in Heb., but occurring in Aram. (cf. § v.6, and כִּי v.7) and Arab. On the Bab. etymology of the name, see 1010.—9b.—[וַיִּבְרֹא] כִּי + בָּרָא.
Origin and Diffusion of the Legends.

1. The double legend is a product of naïve reflexion on such facts of experience as the disunity of mankind, its want of a common language, and its consequent inability to bend its united energies to the accomplishment of some enduring memorial of human greatness. The contrast between this condition of things and the ideal unity of the race at its origin haunted the mind with a sense of fate and discomfiture, and prompted the questions, When, and where, and for what reason, was this doom imposed on men? The answer naturally assumed the legendary form, the concrete features of the representation being supplied by two vivid impressions produced by the achievements of civilisation in its most ancient centre in Babylonia. On one hand the city of Babylon itself, with its mixture of languages, its cosmopolitan population, and its proud boast of antiquity, suggested the idea that here was the very fountainhead of the confusion of tongues; and this idea, wrapped up in a popular etymology of the name of the city, formed the nucleus of the first of the two legends contained in the passage. On the other hand, the spectacle of some ruined or unfinished Temple-tower (zikkurat), built by a vast expenditure of human toil, and reported to symbolise the ascent to heaven (p. 226), appealed to the imagination of the nomads as a god-defying work, obviously intended to serve as a landmark and rallying-point for the whole human race. In each case mankind had measured its strength against the decree of the gods above; and the gods had taken their revenge by reducing mankind to the condition of impotent disunion in which it now is.

It is evident that ideas of this order did not emanate from the official religion of Babylonia. They originated rather in the unsophisticated reasoning of nomadic Semites who had penetrated into the country, and formed their own notions about the wonders they beheld there: the etymology of the name Babel (= Balbēl) suggests an Aramaean origin (Ch. Gu.). The stories travelled from land to land, till they reached Israel, where, divested of their cruder polytheistic elements, they became the vehicle of an impressive lesson on the folly of human pride, and the supremacy of Yahwe in the affairs of men.

It is of quite secondary interest to determine which of the numerous Babylonian zikkurats gave rise to the legend of the Dispersion. The most famous of these edifices were those of E-sagil, the temple of Marduk in Babylon,* and of E-zida, the temple of Nebo at Borsippa on the opposite bank of the river (see Tiele, ZA, ii. 179–190). The former bore the (Sumerian) name E-temen-an-ki (= 'house of the foundations of heaven and earth'). It was restored by Nabopolassar, who says that before him it had become "dilapidated and ruined," and that he was commanded by Marduk to "lay its foundations firm in the breast of the underworld, and make its top equal to heaven" (KIB, iii. 2. 5).

* On its recently discovered site, see Langdon, Expos., 1909, ii. p. 91 ff.
latter expression recurs in an inscr. of Nebuchadnezzar (BA, iii. 548) with reference to the same sikkurat, and is thought by Gu. (² 86) to have been characteristic of E-temen-an-ki; but that is doubtful, since similar language is used by Tiglath-pileser i. of the towers of the temple of Anu and Ramman, which had been allowed to fall gradually into disrepair for 641 years before his time (KIB, i. 43). The sikkurat of E-zida was called E-ur-imin-an-ki ('house of the seven stages (?) of heaven and earth'); its restorer Nebuchadnezzar tells us, in an inscr. found at its four corners, that it had been built by a former king, and raised to a height of 42 cubits; its top, however, had not been set up, and it had fallen into disrepair (KIB, iii. 2. 53, 55). The temple of Borsippa is entombed in *Birs Nimrud*—a huge ruined mound still rising 153 feet above the plain (see Hil. EBL, 13, 30 f.)—which local (and Jewish) tradition identifies with the tower of Gn. 11. This view has been accepted by many modern scholars (see EB, i. 412), by others it is rejected in favour of E-temen-an-ki, chiefly because E-zida was not *in* but only near Babylon. But if the two narratives are separated, there is nothing to connect the tower specially with the city of Babylon; and it would seem to be mainly a question which of the two was the more imposing ruin at the time when the legend originated. It is possible that neither was meant. At Uru (Ur of the Chaldees) there was a smaller sikkurat (about 70 feet high) of the moon-god Sin, dating from the time of Ur-bau (c. 2700 B.C.) and his son Dungi, which Nabu-na'id tells us he rebuilt on the old foundation "with asphalt and bricks" (KIB, iii. 2. 95; EBL, 173 ff.). The notice is interesting, because, according to one tradition, which is no doubt ancient, though it cannot be proved to be Yahwistic, this city was the starting-point of the Hebrew migration (see below, p. 239). If it was believed that the ancestors of the Hebrews came from Ur, it may very well have been the sikkurat of that place which figured in their tradition as the Tower of the Dispersion.

2. In regard to its *religious content*, the narrative occupies the same standpoint as ² 26, ² 22 and 6-3. Its central idea is the effort of the restless, scheming, soaring human mind to transcend its divinely appointed limitations: it "emphasises Yahwe's supremacy over the world; it teaches how the self-exaltation of man is checked by God; and it shows how the distribution of mankind into nations, and diversity of language, are elements in His providential plan for the development and progress of humanity" (Dri.). The pagan notion of the envy of the gods,—their fear lest human greatness should subvert the order of the world,—no doubt emerges in a more pronounced form than in any other passage. Yet the essential conception is not mere paganism, but finds an obvious point of contact in one aspect of the prophetic theology: see Is. ² 18-17. To say that the narrative is totally devoid of religious significance for us is therefore to depreciate the value for modern life of the OT thought of God, as well as to evince a lack of sympathy with one of the profoundest instincts of early religion. Crude in form as the legend is, it embodies a truth of permanent validity—the futility and emptiness of human effort divorced from the acknowledgment and service of God:
hæc perpetua mundi dementia est, neglecto ccelo immortalitatem quererere in terra, ubi nihil est non caducum et evanidum (Calv.).

3. Parallels.—No Babylonian version of the story has been discovered; and for the reason given above (p. 226) it is extremely unlikely that anything resembling the biblical form of it will ever be found there.* In Greek mythology there are dim traces of a legend ascribing the diversities of language to an act of the gods, whether as a punishment on the creatures for demanding the gift of immortality (Philo, De Conf. ling.), or without ethical motive, as in the 143rd fable of Hyginus.† But while these myths are no doubt independent of Jewish influence, their resemblance to the Genesis narrative is too slight to suggest a common origin. It is only in the literature of the Hellenistic period that we find real parallels to the story of the Tower of Babel; and these agree so closely with the biblical account that it is extremely doubtful if they embody any separate tradition.‡ The difference to which most importance is attached is naturally the polytheistic phraseology (‘the gods’) employed by some of the writers named (Polyhistor, Abyd.); but the polytheism is only in the language, and is probably nothing more than conscious or unconscious Hellenising of the scriptural narrative. Other differences—such as the identification of the tower-builders with the race of giants (the Nephilim of 6,?) and the destruction of the tower by a storm—are easily explicable as accretions to the legend of Genesis.§ The remarkable Mexican legend of the pyramid of Cholula, cited by Jeremias from von Humboldt,|| has a special interest on account of the unmistakable resemblance between the Mexican pyramids and the Babylonian sikkurats. If this fact could be accepted

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* The fragment (K 3657) translated in Smith-Sayce, Chald. Gen. 163 ff. (cf. HCM², 153 f.), and supposed to contain obscure allusions to the building of a tower in Babylon, its overthrow by a god during the night, and a confusion of speech, has since been shown to contain nothing of the sort: see King, Creation Tablets, i. 219 f.; Je. ATLO², 286.

† “‘Sed postquam Mercurius sermones hominum interpretatus est . . . id est nationes distribuit, tum discordia inter mortales esse coepit, quod Jovi placitum non est.”

‡ Cf. Orac. Sibyll. iii. 98 ff. (Kautzsch, Pseudepigraphen, 187); Alexander Polyhistor (Eus. Chron. i. 23 [ed. Schoene]); Abydenus (ib. i. 33); Jos. Ant. i. 118; Euplemos (Eus. Præp. Ev. ix. 17); and Book of Jub. x. 18–27. The lines of the Sibyl (iii. 99 f.) may be quoted as a typical example of this class of legends:

\[
\text{oμόφωνοι δ' ἧσαν ἄπαινες} \\
\text{kai βοόλοντ' ἀναβήναι εἰς οὐρανόν ἀστερέωνα.} \\
\text{αὐτίκα δ' ἀθάνατος μεγάλην ἐπέθηκεν ἀνάγκην} \\
\text{πνεύμασιν' αὐτάρ ἐπετ' ἄνεμοι μέγαν ὑφαίθω πύργῳ} \\
\text{βίγαν, καὶ θυτοῖσιν ἐπ' ἄλληλοις ἐρων ἄραν} \\
\text{τοθενκά τοι Βαβυλῶνα βροτοί πόλει οὖνοι ἐθεντο'}.
\]

§ So Gu.² 88 f. On the other side, cf. Gruppe, Griechische Culte und Mythen, i. 677 ff.; Sta. Ak. Red. 277 f.; Je. ATLO², 383 ff.

|| Vues des Cordilleres (Paris, 1810), 24, 32 ff.
as proof of direct Babylonian influence, then no doubt the question of a Babylonian origin of the legend and its transmission through non-biblical channels would assume a new complexion. But the inference, however tempting, is not quite certain.

XI. 10—26.—The Genealogy of Shem (P).

Another section of the Tölédóth, spanning the interval between the Flood and the birth of Abraham. It is the most carefully planned of P’s genealogies next to ch. 5; with which it agrees in form, except that in MT the framework is lightened by omitting the total duration of each patriarch’s life. In μ this is consistently supplied; while X merely adds to MT the statement καὶ διέθεσεν. The number of generations in MT is 9, but in X 10, corresponding with ch. 5. Few of the names can be plausibly identified; these few are mostly geographical, and point on the whole to NW Mesopotamia as the original home of the Hebrew race.

In X the number 10 is made up by the addition of Kēnān between Arpakšad and Shelah (so 1024). That this is a secondary alteration is almost certain, because (a) it is wanting in 1 Ch. 118. 24 X; (b) Kēnān already occurs in the former genealogy (5th); and (c) the figures simply duplicate those of Shelah. It has been proposed to count Noah as the first name (Bu. 412 f.), or Abraham as the 10th (Tu. De.); but neither expedient brings about the desired formal correspondence between the lists of ch. 5 and 1115th. An indication of the artificial character of these genealogies is found in the repetition of the name Nāĥôr, once as the father, and again as the son, of Teraḥ (see Bosse, Chron. Systeme, 7 ff.). It is not improbable that here, as in ch. 5 (corresponding with 426th.), P has worked up an earlier Yahwistic genealogy, of which a fragment may have been preserved in vv. 28–30. We. (Comp. 9, Prol. 8 313) has conjectured that it consisted of the 7 names left of P’s list when Arpakšad and Shelah (see on 10th. 24) and the first Nāĥôr are omitted (Abraham counting as the 7th). But there is no proof that the Yahwistic genealogy lying behind ch. 5 was 7-membered; and J’s parallel to 1115th. could not in any case be the continuation of 415–22.

10. שֵׁם יִשְׂרָאֵל see on 1024. He is here obviously the oldest son of Shem; which does not necessarily involve a contradiction with ch. 10, the arrangement there being dictated by geographical considerations. Hommel (AA, 222f.), maintaining his theory that Arp. = Ur-Kasdim, comes to the absurd conclusion that in the original list it was not the name of Shem’s son, but of his birthplace: ‘Shem from Arpakshad!’—השם יִשָּׂרָאֵל The discrepancy between this statement and the chron-
ology of $5^27^11^92^6f.$ is not to be got rid of either by wire-drawn arith-
metical calculations (Ra. al.), or by the assumption that in the other
passages round numbers are used (Tu. De.). The clause is evidently a
gloss, introduced apparently for the purpose of making the birth of
Arpakšād, rather than the Flood, the commencement of a new era.
It fits in admirably with the scheme of the B. of Jub., which gives an
integral number of year-weeks from the Creation to the birth of Arp.,
and from the latter event to the birth of Abraham (see p. 234 below).—
12. $\nu^\gamma\rho$ (Σαλαχ) probably the same word which forms a component of
$\nu^\gamma\rho\upsilon\pi\upsilon\nu$ ($5^21^9f.$), and therefore originally a divine name. This need not
exclude a tribal or geographical sense, the name of a deity being fre-
quently transferred to his worshippers or their territory. A place Σαλαχ
or Σαλαχ in Mesopotamia is instanced by Knobel (Di.). Others regard
it as a descriptive name—'offshoot' or 'dismissal'; but very improb-
ably.—14. $\nu^\gamma\rho$ [see on 16$^21$.—16. $\nu^\gamma\rho\pi$] 10$^28$. Hommel (L.C.) combines the
two names and takes the compound as a notice of Shelah's birthplace:
'Selah from Eber-peleg' = Eber-hannāhār, the region W of the lower
Euphrates (see pp. 218, 220 above).—18. Βγ (Παγαν) unknown; certainly
not $\nu^\gamma\rho\upsilon\nu\phi\upsilon\nu\lambda$ (Edessa). It is possibly abbreviated from $\nu^\gamma\rho\upsilon\nu$ (36$^f.$, Ex. 2$^18$
etc.; so Homm.); and Mez considers it a divine name. An Aramaean
tribe Ρε'να is frequently mentioned in Assy. inscrs. as dwellers on the
banks of the Euphrates and Tigris, in or near Babylonia (Del. Par.
238 ff.).—20. $\nu^\gamma\rho\pi$ (Σερουρί) a well-known city and district about half-way
between Carchemish and Harran, mentioned by Syr. and Arab. writers
under the name Saruḡ. The name (Saruḡi) also occurs several times in
the census of the district round Harran (7th cent. B.C.), published by
Johns under the title of An Assyrian Domestay Book: see pp. 29, 30,
43, 48, 68.—22. $\nu^\gamma\rho$ (Ναχαιω) is in J the brother of Abraham (22$^29$; cf.
Jos. 24$^2$); in P he is both the grandfather and the brother (11$^26$).
The name must have been that of an important Aramaean tribe settled in or
around Harran (27$^43$ 28$^13$ 29$^4$). Johns compares the place-name Til-
Naḥiri in the neighbourhood of Saruḡi; also the personal names Naḥiri
and Naḥarāw found in Assyrian Deeds (L.C. 71; Ass. Deeds, iii. 127; cf.
KAT$^3$, 477 f.). As a divine name Naχωρ is mentioned along with other
Aramaean deities on a Greek inscription from Carthage (KAT$^3$, 477); and
Jen. (ZA, xi. 300) has called attention to the theophorous name
Naχωρ. —24. $\nu^\gamma\rho$ (Θαφα) is instanced by Rob. Sm.* as a totem
clan-name; $\nu^\gamma\rho\upsilon\nu\phi\upsilon\nu\lambda$ (? being the Syr. and ταρδηθ the Ass. word for 'wild
goat.' Similarly Del. (Prol. 80), who also refers tentatively to Til-σα-
ταρδηθ, the name of a Mesopotamian town in the neighbourhood of
Harran. Knobel compares a place Θαρρανα, S of Edessa (Di.); Jen.
(ZA, vi. 70; Hittiter und Armenier, 150 ff. [esp. 154]) is inclined to
identify Teraḥ with the Hittite and N Syrian god (or goddess) Ταρήθ,
Ταρκο, etc. (cf. KAT$^3$, 484).—26. § reads 75 instead of 70.

167 f.: "sicher unmöglich."
The Chronology.—The following Table shows the variations of the three chief recensions (MT, μ, and Σ), together with the chronology of the Book of Jubilees, which for this period parts company with the Sam., and follows a system peculiar to itself (see p. 134 ff. above):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MT.</th>
<th>Sam.</th>
<th>LXX.</th>
<th>Jub.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Shem</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Arpakšad</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavev</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Shełah</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Eber</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Peleg</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Reu</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Serug</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Naḥor</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Terah</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Flood (or birth of Arp.) to b. of Abr.</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1040</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three versions plainly rest on a common basis, and it is not easy to decide in favour of the priority of any one of them. On the application to this period of the general chronological theories described on p. 135 f. it is unnecessary to add much. Klostermann maintains his scheme of Jubilee-periods on the basis of Σ, (a) by allowing a year for the Flood; (b) by adopting the reading of Σ, 75 instead of 70, in the case of Terah; and (c) by following certain MSS which give 179 for 79 as the age of Naḥor at the birth of Terah. This makes from the Flood to the birth of Abraham 1176 years = 2 × 12 × 49. By an equally arbitrary combination of data of MT and Σ, a similar period of 1176 years is then made out from the birth of Abraham to the Dedication of the Temple.—The seemingly eccentric scheme of Jub. shows clear indications of a reckoning by year-weeks. Since the birth of Arpakšad is said (vii. 18) to have occurred two years after the Flood, we may conclude that it was assigned to A.M. 1309, the 102nd year of Shem. This
gives a period of 187 year-weeks from the Creation to the birth of Arp., followed by another of 81 (567 ÷ 7) to the birth of Abraham. We observe further that the earlier period embraces 11 generations with an average of exactly 17 year-weeks, and the later 9 generations with an average of exactly 9: i.e., as nearly as possible one-half: the author accordingly must have proceeded on the theory that after the Flood the age of paternity suddenly dropped to one-half of what it had formerly been.

[It is possible that the key to the various systems has been discovered by A. Bosse, whose paper * became known to me only while these sheets were passing through the press. His main results are as follows: (1) In MT he finds two distinct chronological systems. (a) One reckons by generations of 40 years, its termini being the birth of Shem and the end of the Exile. In the Shemite table, Terah is excluded entirely, and the two years between the Flood and the birth of Arp. are ignored. This gives: from the birth of Shem to that of Abraham 320 (8 x 40) years; thence to b. of Jacob 160 (4 x 40); to Exodus 560 (14 x 40); to founding of Temple 480 (12 x 40); to end of Exile 480: in all 2000 (50 x 40). This system is, of course, later than the Exile; but Bo. concedes the probability that its middle section, with 1200 (30 x 40) years from the b. of Abr. to the founding of the Temple, may be of earlier origin.—(b) The other scheme, with which we are more immediately concerned, operates with a Great Month of 260 years (260 = the number of weeks in a five-years' lustrum). Its period is a Great Year from the Creation to the dedication of the Temple, and its reckoning includes Terah in the Shemite table, but excludes the 2 years of Arpakšad. This gives 1556 years to b. of Shem + 390 (b. of Abr.) + 75 (migration of Abr.) + 215 (descent to Egypt) + 430 (Exodus) + 480 (founding of Temple) + 20 (dedication of do.) = 3166. Now 3166 = 12 x 260 + 46. The odd 46 years are thus accounted for: the chronologist was accustomed to the Egyptian reckoning by months of 30 days, and a solar year of 365 1/4 days, requiring the interposition of 5 1/4 days each year; and the 46 years are the equivalent of these 5 1/4 days in the system here followed. (For, if 30 days = 260 years, then 5 1/4 days \[ \frac{21}{4} \times 26 = \frac{7 \times 13}{2} = 45 \frac{1}{2} \) years.) The first third of this Great Year ends with the b. of Noah 1056 = 4 x 260 + 16 (1/4 of 46). The second third nearly coincides with the b. of Jacob; but here there is a discrepancy of 5 years, which Bo. accounts for by the assumption that the figure of the older reckoning by generations has in the case of Jacob been allowed to remain in the text.—(2) Ḥ reckons with a Great Month of 355 years (the number of days in the lunar year), and a Great Year of 12 x 355 = 4260 years from the Creation to the founding of the Temple, made up as follows: 2142 + 1173 + 75 + 215 + 215 + 440 = 4260.

* Die Chronologischen Systeme im AT und bei Josephus (MVAG, 1908, 2).
† Allowing a year for the Flood, and two years between it and the b. of Arpakšad.
‡ See 1 Ki. 6 (Ḥ).
Significant subdivisions cannot be traced.—(3) με returns to the earlier Heb. reckoning by generations, its terminus ad quem being the measuring out of Gerizim, which, according to the Sam. Chronicle published by Neubauer, took place 13 years after the Conquest of Canaan. Thus we obtain 1207 + 1040 + 75 + 215 + 215 + 42 (desert wandering)* + 13 measurement of Gerizim = 2807 = 70 x 40 + 7.†—(4) The Book of Jubilees counts by Jubilee-periods of 49 years from the Creation to the Conquest of Palestine: 1309 + 567 + 75 + 459 (Exodus) + 40 (entrance to Canaan) = 2450 = 50 x 49.

 XI. 27–32.—The Genealogy of Terah (P and J).

The vv. are of mixed authorship; and form, both in P and J, an introduction to the Patriarchal History. In P (27. 31. 32), the genealogical framework encloses a notice of the migration of the Terahites from Ur-Kasdim to Harran, to which 12\textsuperscript{4} may be the immediate sequel. The insertion from J (28–30) finds an equally suitable continuation in 12\textsuperscript{11}, and is very probably the conclusion of J’s lost Shemite genealogy. The suppression of the preceding context of J is peculiarly tantalising because of the uncertainty of the tradition which makes Ur-Kasdim the home of the ancestors of the Hebrews (see concluding note, p. 239)

On the analysis, cf. esp. Bu. Urg. 414 ff.—Vv. 27 and 32 belong quite obviously to P; and 31, from its diffuse style and close resemblance to P’s regular manner in recording the patriarchal migrations (12\textsuperscript{6} 31\textsuperscript{18} 36\textsuperscript{6} 46\textsuperscript{6}; see Hupf. Qu. 19 f.), may be confidently assigned to the same source. 28\textsuperscript{a} presents nothing distinctive of either document; but in 28b נֵּרָשׁ יְדִי is peculiar to JE (see the footnote on the v.). 29 is J because presupposed in 22\textsuperscript{20} ff.; and its continuation (30) brings as an additional criterion the word פֵּרָשׂ (cf. 25\textsuperscript{21} 29\textsuperscript{31}), which is never used by P.—The extract from J is supplementary to P, and it might be argued that at least 28\textsuperscript{a} was necessary in the latter source to explain why Lot and not Haran went with Terah. Bu. points out in answer (p. 420) that with still greater urgency we desiderate an explanation of the fact that Nahor was left behind; if the one fact is left unexplained, so a fortiori might the other.

The formula נֵּרָשׁ יְדִי does not occur again till 25\textsuperscript{19}; and it is very widely held that in v. 27 it stands as the heading of the section of P

* After Jos. 5\textsuperscript{6} (ב).  
† The odd 7 years still remain perplexing (see p. 136). One cannot help surmising that the final 13 was originally intended to get rid of it, though the textual data do not enable us now to bring out a round number.
dealing with the life of Abraham. That is wholly improbable. It is likely enough that a heading (םורא 'n 'x) has been somewhere omitted (so We. Bu. Ho. al.); but the truth is that from this point onwards no consistent principle can be discovered in the use of the formula. The hypothesis that an originally independent book of Tōledōth has been broken up and dislocated by the redaction, is as plausible a solution as any that can be thought of. See, further, on 2518.

27. On the name Abram, see on 175; on Naḥor, v.23 above.—Haran begat Lot] A statement to the same effect must have been found in J (see 1246). Haran has no significance in the tradition except as expressing the relationship of Lōt, Milkah, and Yīškāh within the Hebraic group.

That מ is formed from מ (v.i.) by a softening of the initial guttural (We. Pr.6 313) is an improbable conjecture (see Bu. 443). The name occurs elsewhere only in 'avā (Nu. 3238; cf. סורה, Jos. 1347)* in the tribe of Gad: this has suggested the view that מ was the name of a deity worshipped among the peoples represented by Lot (Mez.: cf. Wi. AOF, ii. 499).—The name מ is also etymologically obscure (? Ar. lāt = 'cleave to'). A connexion with the Horite clan מ in Gn. 3620, 22, 29 is probable.

28. The premature death of Haran (which became the nucleus of some fantastic Jewish legends) took place in the land of his nativity; i.e., according to the present text, Ur of the Chaldees, where his grave was shown down to the time of Josephus (Ant. i. 151; Eus. OS, 285, 50 ff.).

ם ישע תוק (v.81 157, Neh. 97: כף ירפה תור חאלאו) is now almost universally identified with the ancient S Babylonian city of Uru, whose remains have been discovered in the mounds of 'el-Muṣəyyar, on the right bank of the Euphrates, about 25 miles SE from Erech and 125 from Babylon (see 'Ilimp. EBL, 172 ff.). The evidence for this view is

28. מ is coram (ב' ולערב), rather than ante (ב: so Tu.), or 'in the lifetime of' (ב ומעד); cf. Nu. 34: see BDB and G-B. s.v. מפ. —לפי מ מ [ cravings] so 247 (J), 3118 (E); cf. Jer. 224 4616, Ezk. 2318, Ru. 211. A commoner phrase in Pent. is 'ו נ 'נ, 121 244 313 3218, Nu 1030 (all J). From the way in which the two expressions alternate, it is probable that they are equivalent; and since 'ב alone certainly means 'kindred' (432 [J], cf. Est. 216, 50 89), it is better to render 'land of one's parentage' than 'land in which one was born' (ב here and 121) (cf. Bu. 419). P has the word, but only in the sense of 'progeny' (486, Lv. 189 [H]).

* Though Wi. (AOF, ii. 499) contends that both names are corruptions of מורה.
very strong. Uru is the only city of the name known from Assyriology (although the addition of the gen. 𒈪𒈪 suggests that others were known to the Israelites: G-K. § 125 k): it was situated in the properly Chaldaean territory, was a city of great importance and vast antiquity, and (like Harran, with which it is here connected) was a chief centre of the worship of the moon-god Sin (KAT, 129 ff.). The only circumstance that creates serious misgiving is that the prevalent tradition of Gen. points to the NE as the direction whence the patriarchs migrated to Canaan (see below); and this has led to attempts to find a northern Ur connected probably with the Mesopotamian Chaldaeans of 22 (see Kittel, Gesch. i. 163 ff.). Syrian tradition identifies it with Edessa (Urhai, Urfa). It is generally recognised, however, that these considerations are insufficient to invalidate the arguments in favour of Uru.—𒈺𒈪 = Bab. Kašdu, Ass. Kaldú (Kalád-alu), is the name of a group of Semitic tribes, distinguished from the Arabs and Aramaeans, who are found settled to the SE of Babylonia, round the shore of the Persian Gulf. In the 11th cent. or earlier they are believed to have penetrated Babylonia, at first as roving, pastoral nomads (KAT, 22 ff.), but ultimately giving their name to the country, and founding the dynasty of Nabopolassar.

—By the ancients 𒈺𒈪 was rightly understood of Babylonia (Nikolaos Damasc. in Jos. Ant. i. 152; Eupolemos in Eus. Præp. Ev. ix. 17; Jer. al.); but amongst the Jews 𒈺𒈪 came to be regarded as an appellative = 'fire' (in igne Chaldeorum, which Jer. accepts, though he rejects the legends that were spun out of the etymology). This is the germ of the later Haggadic fables about the 'fire' in which Haran met an untimely fate, and the furnace into which Abraham was cast by order of Nimrod (Jub. xii. 12-14; Jer. Quæst., ad loc. ; TJ, Ber. R. § 38, Ra.).

29. While we are told that Nāḥōr’s wife was his brother’s daughter, it is surprising that nothing is said of the parentage of Sarai. According to E (2012), she was Abraham’s half-sister; but this does not entitle us to suppose that words expressing this relationship have been omitted from the text of J (Ewald). It would seem, however, that tradition represented marriage between near relations as the rule among the Teraḥites (2012 243ff. 2919).

With regard to the names, 𒆜 seems to be an archaic form of 𒆜 = ‘princess’ (see on 1719), while 𒆕𒆕 means ‘queen.’ In Bab. the relations are reversed, Šarratu being the queen and Malkatu the princess. It cannot be a mere coincidence that these two names correspond to two personages belonging to the pantheon of Harran, where Šarratu was a title of the moon-goddess, the consort of Sin, and Malkatu a title

29. 𒆕𒆕 sing., according to G-K. § 146 f.—30. 𒆕𒆕 as 2521 2921 (J); not in P (see 1618).—𒆕城市建设。 Only again as Kethib of Or. MSS in 2 Sa. 623. It is possibly here a scribal error, which eventually influenced the other pass.
of Ištar, also worshipped there (Jen. ZA, xi. 299f.; KAT, 364f.). It is needless to say that these associations, if they existed, are forgotten in the Hebrew legend.—If, as is not improbable, the tradition contains ethnographic reminiscences, v. express (i) the dissolution of an older tribal group, Haran; (2) the survival of one of its subdivisions (Lot) through the protection of a stronger tribe; and (3) the absorption of another (Milkah) in a kindred stock.—Of nothing is known. The Rabbinical fiction that she is Sarah under another name (implied in Jos. Ant. i. 151; Ass. Jer. Ra. Ez. al.) is worthless. Ewald’s conjecture that she was the wife of Lot is plausible, but baseless.

31, 32. The migration from Ur-Kasdim to Canaan is accomplished in two stages. Terah, as patriarchal head of the family, conducts the expedition as far as Harran, where he dies. The obvious implication is that after his death the journey is resumed by Abram (129); although alone gives a chronology consistent with this view (v. supra). Nahor, we are left to infer, remained behind in Ur-Kasdim; and in the subsequent narratives P (in opposition to J) seems carefully to avoid any suggestion of a connexion between Nahor and the city of Harran.

775 (with virtually doubled 7: cf. Xappav; Gr. Kadphai; Lat. Carra, Charra; Ass. Harrānu; Syr. and Arab. Harrān) was an important centre of the caravan trade in NW Mesopotamia, 60 miles E of Carchemish, situated near the Balīj, 70 miles due N from its confluence with the Euphrates. Though seldom mentioned in OT (124 [P], 274 2810 294 [J], 2 Ki. 193, Ezek. 2724), and now ruined, it was a city of great antiquity, and retained its commercial importance in classical and mediæval times. The name in Ass. appears to be susceptible of several interpretations—‘way,’ ‘caravan’ (TA Tab.), ‘joint-stock enterprise’ (Del. Hdw. s.v. KAT, 29)—any one of which might denote its commercially advantageous position at the parting of the route to Damascus from the main highway between Nineveh and Carchemish. Harran was also (along with Ur) a chief seat of the worship of Sin, who had there a temple, E-hul-hul, described by Nabuna'id as “from remote days” a “dwelling of the joy of his (Sin’s) heart” (KIB, iii. 2. 97), and who was known in NW Asia as the “Lord of Harran” (Zinjirli inscr. : cf. Lidzbarski, Hb. 444, An.). See, further, Mez, Gesch. d. St. Harran; Tomkins, Times of Abraham, 55 ff. etc. This double connexion of Abraham with centres of lunar religion is the most

31. הָבָה הָבָה (Syr. Դալ, Ar. kannat) means both ‘spouse’ and ‘daughter-in-law’: in Syr. and Ar. also ‘sister-in-law,’—a fact adduced by Rob. Sm. as a relic of Baal polyandry (KM, 161, 200).—which gives no sense. Read with με (καλ ἔχουσαν αὐτούς) Ἔ, ἡπχ μνη, or Ἔ, ἡπχ μνή.—32. ματιάτικα Ἐ + ἐν Χαράν.
plausible argument advanced by those who hold the mythical view of his figure as an impersonation of the moon-god.

It will be observed that while both P and J (in the present text) make Ur-Kasdim the starting-point of the Abrahamic migration, J has no allusion to a journey from Ur to Harran. His language is perfectly consistent either (a) with a march directly from Ur to Canaan, or (b) with the view that the real starting-point was Harran, and that בֵּית הָעָלָמי is here a gloss intended to harmonise J and P. Now, there is a group of passages in J which, taken together, unmistakably imply that Abraham was a native of Harran, and therefore started from thence to seek the promised land. In 24:7-10, the place of A.'s nativity is Aram-Naharaim, and specially the 'city of Nāḥôr'; while a comparison with 27:4, 28:10, 29:4 leaves no doubt that the 'city of Nāḥôr' was Harran. P, on the other hand, nowhere deviates from his theory of a double migration with a halt at Harran; and the persistence with which he dissociates Laban and Rebecca from Nāḥôr (25:20, 28:5ff.) is a proof that the omission of Nāḥôr from the party that left Ur was intentional (Bu. 421 ff.). It is evident, then, that we have to do with a divergence in the patriarchal tradition; and the only uncertainty is with regard to the precise point where it comes in. The theory of P, though consistently maintained, is not natural; for (1) all the antecedents (1:10-30) point to Mesopotamia as the home of the patriarchs; and (2) the twofold migration, first from Ur and then from Harran, has itself the appearance of a compromise between two conflicting traditions. The simplest solution would be to suppose that both the references to Ur-Kasdim in J (11:38, 15:7) are interpolations, and that P had another tradition which he harmonised with that of J by the expedient just mentioned (so We. Di. Gu. Dri. al.). Bu. holds that both traditions were represented in different strata of J (J¹ Harran, J² Ur), and tries to show that the latter is a probable concomitant of the Yahwistic account of the Flood. In that he can hardly be said to be successful; and he is influenced by the consideration that apart from such a discrepancy in his sources P could never have thought of the circuitous route from Ur to Canaan by way of Harran. That argument has little weight with those who are prepared to believe that P had other traditions at his disposal than those we happen to know from J and E. * In itself, the hypothesis of a dual tradition within the school of J is perfectly reasonable; but in this case, in spite of Bu.'s close reasoning, it appears insufficiently supported by other indications. The view of We. is on the whole the more acceptable.

* The suggestion has, of course, been made (Wi. AOF. i. 98 ff.; Paton, Syr. and Pal. 42) that E is the source of the Ur-Kasdim tradition; but in view of Jos. 24:3 that is not probable.
THE PATRIARCHAL HISTORY.

ABRAHAM.

Chs. XII—XXV. 18.

Critical Note.—In this section of Genesis the broad lines of demarcation between J, E, and P are so clear that there is seldom a serious diversity of opinion among critics. The real difficulties of the analysis concern the composition of the Yahwistic narrative, and the relation of its component parts to E and P respectively. These questions have been brought to the front by the commentary of Gu., who has made it probable that the Yahwistic document contains two main strata, one (J^b) fixing Abraham's residence at Hebron, and the other (J^b) regarding him as a denizen of the Negeb.

1. The kernel of J^b is a cycle of legends in which the fortunes of Abraham and Lot are interlinked: viz. 12\textsuperscript{1-8}; 13\textsuperscript{2-5-18}; 18; 19\textsuperscript{1-38}; 19\textsuperscript{30-38}. If these passages are read continuously, they form an orderly narrative, tracing the march of Abraham and Lot from Harran through Shechem to Bethel, where they separate; thence Abraham proceeds to Hebron, but is again brought into ideal contact with Lot by visits of angels to each in turn; this leads up to the salvation of Lot from the fate of Sodom, his flight to the mountains, and the origin of the two peoples supposed to be descended from him. In this sequence 12\textsuperscript{9-13} is (as will be more fully shown later) an interruption. Earlier critics had attempted to get rid of the discontinuity either by seeking a suitable connexion for 12\textsuperscript{9-13} at a subsequent stage of J's narrative, or by treating it as a redactional expansion. But neither expedient is satisfactory, and the suggestion that it comes from a separate source is preferable on several grounds. Now 12\textsuperscript{9-13} is distinguished from J^b, not only by the absence of Lot, but by the implication that Abraham's home was in the Negeb, and perhaps by a less idealised conception of the patriarch's character. These characteristics reappear in ch. 16, which, as breaking the connexion of ch. 18 with 13, is plausibly assigned to J^b. (To this source Gu. also assigns the Yahwistic component of ch. 15; but that chapter shows so many signs of later elaboration that it can hardly have belonged to either of the primary sources.)—After ch. 19, the hand of J appears in the accounts of Isaac's birth (21\textsuperscript{1-7*}) and Abraham's treaty with Abimelech (21\textsuperscript{22-34*}); the latter is probably J^b (on account of the Negeb), while the former shows slight discrepancies with the prediction of ch. 18, which lead us (though with less confidence) to assign
it also to Jb. With regard to ch. 24, it is impossible to say whether it belongs to Jb or Jb: we assign it provisionally to the latter.* The bulk of the Yahwistic material may therefore be disposed in two parallel series as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
J^b &: 12^1-8^*; 13^3-18^*; 18^1-16, 20-22^a. 33b; 19^1-28; 19^9-38; \\
J^b &: 12^2-13^2; 16; 21^1-7^*; 21^22-34^*; 24^*.
\end{align*}
\]

The Yahwistic sections not yet dealt with are ch. 15* (see above); and the two genealogies, 22^20-24 and 25^1-6, both inserted by a Yahwistic editor from unknown sources. Other passages (13^14-17 18^17-19. 220-33a 22^35-16) which appear to have been added during the redaction (RJ or RJ*J) will be examined in special notes ad locc.

2. The hand of E is recognised in the following sections: 15*; 20; 21^1-7*; 21^8-21; 21^22-34*; 22^1-19 (24*?). Gu. has pointed out that where J and E run parallel to one another, E's affinities are always with Jb and never with J^b (cf. the variants 12^9-21; 16 21^1-21; and the compositions in 21^1-7 and 21^22-34). This, of course, might be merely a consequence of the fact that E, like Jb, makes the Negeb (Beersheba) the scene of Abraham's history. But it is remarkable that in ch. 26 we find unquestionable Yahwistic parallels to E and Jb, with Isaac as hero instead of Abraham. These are probably to be attributed to the writer whom we have called Jb, who thus succeeded in preserving the Negeb traditions, while at the same time maintaining the theory that Abraham was the patron of Hebron, and Isaac of Beersheba.

Putting all the indications together, we are led to a tentative hypothesis regarding the formation of the Abrahamic legend, which has some value for the clearing of our ideas, though it must be held with great reserve. The tradition crystallised mainly at two great religious centres, Beersheba and Hebron. The Beersheba narratives took shape in two recensions, a Yahwistic and an Elohist, of which (it may be

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* Gu. analyses 24 into two narratives, assigning one to each source. The question is discussed in the Note, pp. 340 f., where the opinion is hazarded that the subordinate source may be E, in which case the other naturally would be Jb.

† It is interesting to compare this result with the analysis of the Yahwistic portions of chs. 1-11 (pp. 2-4). In each case J appears as a complex document, formed by the amalgamation of prior collections of traditions; and the question naturally arises whether any of the component narratives can be traced from the one period into the other. It is impossible to prove that this is the case; but certain affinities of thought and expression suggest that Jb in the biography of Abraham may be the continuation of Jc in the primitive history. Both use the phrase 'call by the name of Yahwe' (4^26 12^8 [13^1], [but cf. 21^23 (Jb)]); and the optimistic religious outlook expressed in the blessing of Noah (26^39) is shared in a marked degree by the writer of Jb. Have we here fragments of a work whose theme was the history of the Yahwe-religion, from its commencement with Enosh to its establishment in the leading sanctuaries of Palestine by Abraham and Isaac? See 12^7 (Shechem), 12^8 (Bethel), 13^18 (Hebron), 26^20 (Beersheba).
added) the second is ethically and religiously on a higher level than the first. These were partly amalgamated, probably before the union of $J^h$ and $J^p$ (see on ch. 26). The Hebron tradition was naturally indifferent to the narratives which connected Abraham with the Negeb, or with its sanctuary Beersheba; hence the writer of $J^h$, who attaches himself to this tradition, excludes the Beersheba stories from his biography of Abraham, but finds a place for some of them in the history of Isaac.

3. The account of $P$ (12$^4b$. 5 13$^6$. 11b. 12aba; 15$^1a$. 3. 15; 17; 19$^2$; 21$^{1b}$. 2b-5; 23; 25$^7$-11a; 25$^{12a-17}$) consists mostly of a skeleton biography based on the older documents, and presupposing a knowledge of them. The sole raison d'être of such an outline is the chronological scheme into which the various incidents are fitted: that it fills some gaps in the history (birth of Ishmael, death of Abraham) is merely an accident of the redaction. $P$'s affinities are chiefly with $J^h$, with whom he shares the idea that Hebron was the permanent residence of Abraham. Of the sections peculiar to $P$, ch. 17 is parallel to 15, and 25$^{12a-17}$ has probably replaced a lost Yahwistic genealogy of Ishmael. Ch. 23 stands alone as presumably an instance where $P$ has preserved an altogether independent tradition.

Ch. 14 cannot with any show of reason be assigned to any of the recognised sources of the Pent., and has accordingly been omitted from the above survey. The question of its origin is discussed on pp. 271 ff. below.

Chs. XII. XIII.—The migrations of Abram (J and P).

Leaving his home at the command of Yahwe, Abram enters Canaan and erects altars at Shechem and Bethel (12$^1$-8). From Bethel he migrates to the Negeb, and thence, under stress of famine, to Egypt; where by a false representation he enriches himself, but imperils his wife's honour (12$^9$-13$^1$). Laden with wealth, he returns to Bethel, where an amicable separation from his nephew Lot leaves him in sole possession of the promise of the land (13$^2$-17). Abram journeys southward and settles in Hebron (18).

Analysis.—The slender thread of $P$'s narrative is represented by 12$^4b$. 5 13$^6$. 11b. 12aba; note the date in 12$^4b$; the form of 12$^5$; $\text{שֶׁרֶת}$, $\text{שֶׁרֶת}$, 12$^6$ 13$^6$; $\text{שָׁם}$, 'person,' 12$^5$; $\text{שָׁמְתָה}$, 12$^5$ 13$^{12}$; $\text{שַׁמַּיְתָה}$, 13$^6$; $\text{שַׁמְתָּה}$, 13$^{12}$; and see on the vv. below. These fragments form a continuous epitome of the events between the exodus from Harran and the parting of Abram and Lot. With a slight and inherently plausible transposition (12$^5$. 4b; Bu. p. 432) they might pass for the immediate continuation of 11$^2$, if we can suppose that the call of Abram was entirely omitted by $P$ (see Gu. 231).

—The rest of the passage is Yahwistic throughout: obs. the consistent use of $\text{מִן}$; the reference to Paradise, 13$^{10}$; the anticipation of ch. 19 in 13$^{10}$. 13; and the following expressions: $\text{נָכָא}$, 12$^1$; $\text{נָכָא}$, 12$^5$; $\text{נָכָא}$ 13$^8$.
II. 1-3

The journey to Canaan and the promise of the Land.—1. The opening v. strikes a note peculiarly characteristic of the story of Abram—the trial of faith. There is intentional pathos in the lingering description of the things he is to leave: *thy land, thy kindred, and thy father’s house*; and a corresponding significance in the vagueness with which the goal is indicated: *to a land which I will show thee.* Obedience under such conditions marks Abram as the hero of faith, and the ideal of Hebrew piety (Heb. 11:8f.).—2, 3. The blessings here promised express the aspirations of the age in which the narrative originated, and reveal the people’s consciousness of its exceptional destiny among the nations of the world. They breathe the spirit of optimism which is on the whole characteristic of the Yahwistic treatment of the national legends, as contrasted with the primitive and cosmopolitan mythology of chs. 2-11, whose sombre tone is only once (920f.) relieved by a similar gleam of hope.—*and will make thy name great*] It has been noticed that the order in which the names of the patriarchs emerge in the prophetic literature is the reverse of that in Genesis, and that Abraham is first mentioned in Ezek. 33:24. The inference has been drawn that the figure of

1. ἀγαθός (22f. [E]; cf. Ca. 2[10].13) see G-K. § 119f. — On κακῶς (G σοργῳδων) see 11:28. — 2. ἡελικον ἠκούα] Impv. expressing consequence (G-K. § 110 f.) is here questionable, because the preceding vbs. are simple futures. The pointing as consec. pf. (ἡελικον) was suggested by Giesebrecht

* So Di, Ho, Gu.
Abraham represents a late development of the patriarchal legends (cf. We. ProL. 317 f.). But from this promise we may fairly conclude that even in the pre-prophetic period the name of Abraham was famous in Israel, and that in this particular the religious ideas of the people are not fully reflected in prophecy (1 Ki. 18:36 has also to be considered).

—The antiquity of the name is now placed beyond doubt by an archaeological discovery made by Erman in 1888, but first published by Breasted in 1904. In the Karnak list of places conquered by Sheshonk I., the contemporary of Rehoboam, there is mentioned pa-hu-q-ru-'a 'a-ba-ra-m=םברע הֲכָה, 'Field of Abram.' It has not been identified; but from its place in the list it must have been in the S of Palestine (see Breasted, AJSL, xxi. 35 f.; and cf. Meyer, INS, 266).* — and be thou a blessing (cf. Zec. 8:18) Rather: and it (the name) shall be a blessing (point נִירָל, v.i.) i.e. 'a name to bless by,' in the sense explained by 3b.—3b has generally been rendered through thee shall all the families of the earth be blessed] i.e. the blessings of true religion shall be mediated to the world through Abram and his descendants (so all Vns.; cf. Sir. 44:21, Ac. 3:25, Gal. 3:8).

The better translation, however, is that of Ra., adopted by most modern comm.: by thee shall all . . . bless themselves] the idea being that in invoking blessings on themselves or others they will use such words as 'God make thee like Abram,' etc. (see 48:20, Is. 65:16, Ps. 72:17; and the opposite, 72:18).

(ATTiche Schätzung d. Gottesnamens, 15); see Gu. ad v.—3. הָיִיתָ sing.; but the pl. of some MSS, מְכֹּל שְׂנֵי (נָע), is more probable; cf. 27:28, Nu. 24:8.—טָנַךְ יְרָמָּן] כָּל אֶלֶּה נְיָרָנָּהּ in soi, and so all Vns. The rendering depends on the grammatical question whether the Niph. has pass. or refl. sense. This form of the vb. does not occur except in the parallels 18:18 (with י) and 28:14 (יְרָמָּן—יָרָמָה). In 22:18 264 it is replaced by Hithp., which is, of course, refl., and must be translated 'bless themselves'; the renderings 'feel themselves blessed' (Tu. KS. Str.), or 'wish themselves blessed' (De.) are doubtful compromises. These passages, however, belong to secondary strata of J (as does also 18:18, and perhaps 28:14), and are not necessarily decisive of the sense of ירָמָה. But it is significant that the Pu., which is the proper pass. of יָרָמָה, is consistently avoided; and the presumption appears to be distinctly in favour of the

* See, further, pp. 292 f. below.
Jer. 2922). “So the ancient mind expressed its admiration of a man’s prosperity” (Gu.). The clause is thus an expansion of 2b: the name of Abram will pass into a formula of benediction, because he himself and his seed will be as it were blessedness incarnate. The exegetical question is discussed below.—4a. The mention of Lot (see on 1127) establishes a literary connexion with the Lot narratives of chs. 13. 19.—5 is P’s parallel to 4a (v. i.); the last sentence supplying an obvious gap in J’s narrative.—and they came, etc.]. This time (ct. 1131) the goal is actually reached. On the probable route from Harran to Canaan, see Dri. 146, 300 ff.—6, 7. Arrived at Shechem, Abram receives, through a theophany, the first intimation that he has reached the goal of his pilgrimage, and proceeds to take possession of sense given in the text above. The idea is well expressed by Ra.: והיה שמש-el that the sun will rise, etc. [Gn. 4820].—4. והיה ] ס ViewModel (= יי), adopted by Ba.—5. The parallel to 4a in the distinctive form (see on 1131) and phraseology of P. The vb. שֵׁלֵש is peculiar to P (318 366 466); והיה is a word of the later language, found in P (7 t.), in Gn. 14 (5 t.) and as a gloss in 1514; in Ch. Ezr. Dn. (15 t.): see Ho. Einl. 347. It is supposed to denote primarily ‘riding beasts,’ like Heb. שִׁלְשָׁמ, Aram. וַיֵּשֶׁב, Ass. rukušu (Haupt, Hebraica, iii. 110); then property in general.—שֵׁלֵש in the sense of ‘person’ is also practically confined to P in Hex. (Ho. 345).—שֵׁלֵש = ‘acquired,’ as 31, Dt. 81, Jer. 1711 etc. The idea of ‘ proselytising’ ( eğ) is rightly characterised by Ra. as Haggada.—שֵׁלֵש “ein fast sicheres Kennzeichen für P” (Ho. 340). In JE שֵׁלֵש appears never to be used in its geographical sense except in the story of Joseph (42. 44–47. 506) and Jos. 249.—שֵׁלֵש—אֱוֹבֵנָם] 픦 om., probably from homoioteleuton.—6. שֵׁלֵש¹] so 픦, but 픦A, al., read שֵׁלֵש² (13:1).—For הָרִיס, ס and 픦 read מַלְכָּם. The convallem illustrem of 픦 is an amalgamation of 픦 (רֹעַ וְאוֹבֵן יִשְׂרָאֵל [שֵׁלֵש]) and 픦 (רֹעַ) (רֹעַ יִשְׂרָאֵל = ‘plains of M.’); the latter is probably accounted for by aversion to the idolatrous associations of the sacred tree. 픦 has never been used as such; on which see Levy, Chalde. Wb. 33. The absence of the art. (ct. שֵׁלֵש, Ju. 71) seems to show that the word is used as nom. pr.—שֵׁלֵש Unlike its Aram. equivalents (שֵׁלֵש, שֵׁלָם), which mean tree in general, is never used generically, but always of particular (probably sacred) trees. In the Vns. ‘oak’ and ‘terebinth’ are used somewhat indiscriminately (see v. Gall, CST. 24 ff.) for four Heb. words: שֵׁלָם, שֵׁלָם, שֵׁלָם, שֵׁל (only Jos. 2428). The theory has been advanced that the forms with ש are alone correct; that they are derivatives from הב, ‘god,’ and denote
the land in the name of Yahwe by erecting altars for His worship. It is, however, a singular fact, that in J there is no record of actual sacrifice by the patriarchs on such altars: see p. 1.

The original motive of this and similar legends is to explain the sacredness of the principal centres of cultus by definite manifestations of God to the patriarchs, or definite acts of worship on their part. The rule is that the legitimacy of a sanctuary for Israel is established by a theophany (Ex. 20:24 [E]). The historic truth is that the sanctuaries were far older than the Hebrew immigration, and inherited their sanctity from lower forms of religion. That fact appears in v.6 in the use of the word סֵפָּר, which has there the technical sense of 'sacred place,' as in 22:28-33 (G), Ex. 3:1, 1 Sa. 7:16 (G ἁγιασμένος), Jer. 7:12 (cf. Ar. םֹּקַמ).—Shechem is the first and most northerly of four sanctuaries—the others being Bethel, Hebron (Jacob's), and Beersheba (E), and connected with the name of Abraham. The name (Skmm, with pl. termination)* occurs in an Eg. inscr. as early as the 12th dynasty. It was an important place in the Tel-Amarna period (see Steuernagel, Einwanderung, 120 f.; Knudtzon, BA, iv. 127), and figures prominently in OT legend and history. On its situation (the modern Nābulūs) between Mts. Ebal and Gerizim, see EB, iv. 4437 f.—The נָרָבָן נָרָבָּן (= 'oracle-giving terebinth') was evidently an ancient sacred tree from which oracles were obtained, and therefore a survival of primitive tree-worship.† Besides Dt. 11:29 (a difficult pass., originally the 'sacred tree' without distinction of species.‡ The נֹרְבָּן of Gn. 35:8 is called a palm in Ju. 4:5, and נָרְבָּן (pl. of נָרָבָּן?) (Ex. 15:27 etc.) derived its name from 70 palm-trees. But though the Mass. tradition may not be uniformly reliable, נָרְבָּן and נָרְבָּן appear to be distinguished in Hos. 4:15, Is. 6:13 (Di.); and the existence of a form נָרְבָּן is confirmed by allānu, which is said to be an Ass. tree-name (G-B. 36b). It is probable from Zec. 11:2, Ezek. 27:6 etc., that נָרְבָּן is the oak. With regard to the other names no convincing theory can be formed, but a connexion with נָרְבָּן (litu) is at best precarious. —6b is probably a gloss: cf. 13b.

—7. נָרְבָּן). We. טֵפֹּס add הַ בָּרְבָּן נָרְבָּן) so 35 (E).

* It is possible that this (טפּס) is the oldest form in Heb. also; since ט often has the pl. סְקִימוּ (33:4 35:5 etc.).

† "Where a tree is connected with a Welt it was probably the original object of honour" (Curtiss, Prim. Sem. Rel. 1 91). On the obtaining of oracles from trees, see Rob. Sm. RS, 195. Comp. Ju. 4:5, 2 Sa. 5:24; and the oak of Zeus at Dodona.—Duhm's brilliant generalisation (Isaiah, 13 f.), that Abraham was traditionally associated with sacred trees, Isaac and Ishmael with sacred wells, and Jacob with sacred stones, though not literally accurate, has sufficient truth to be suggestive; and may possibly correspond to some vague impression of the popular mind in Israel.

‡ We. Pr. 6:234; Sta. GVI, i. 455; v. Gall, L.c.; cf. Schwally, ThLsg., 1899, 356.
see Dri. *ad loc.*, and v. Gall, *Cult-St.* 107 ff.), it seems to be mentioned as one of the sacra of Shechem under other names: הַּרְמַּס, הַרְמַּס (a mere difference of pointing, *v. i.*), Gn. 35; Jos. 24:28; וָבָּשֶׁה נִבָּה (*'terebinth of soothsayers'), Ju. 9:7; and בַּלֵּלעַ (t. of the pillar [נַבְּלָל]) Ju. 9:6. The tree is not said to have been planted by Abram (like the tamarisk of Beersheba, 21:33),—an additional indication that Abram was not originally the patron or *welf* of the shrine. The sacred stone under the tree (the בַּלֵּלע of Ju. 9:6?) was believed to have been set up by Joshua (Jos. 24:29). The sanctuary of Shechem was also associated with Jacob (33:18 35:4), and especially with Joseph, who was buried there (Jos. 24:32), and whose grave is still shown near the village of Balâṭa (*balâṭ* = 'oak'): see v. Gall, 117.

8. Abram moved on, nomadic fashion, and *spread his tent* (26:25 33:10 33:21) near Bethel, about 20 m. from Shechem; there he built a second altar, and *called by the name of Yahwe*; see on 4:26. Luther's rendering: 'predigite den Namen des Herrn,' is absolutely without exegetical warrant; and the whole notion of a monotheistic propaganda, of which Abram was the Mahdi (*Je. ATLO*, 328), is a modern invention unsupported by a particle of historical evidence. It is noticeable that no theophany is recorded here, perhaps because the definite consecration of Bethel was ascribed to Jacob (ch. 28).—Here the parting from Lot took place (ch. 13).

On Bethel (*Beitn*), see on 28:10ff. 35:7; cf. Jos. 7:3. D. distinguishes the site of Abram's altar (E of Bethel and W of 'Ai) from that of Jacob's pillar, which he takes to have been at Bethel itself. The more natural view is that the local sanctuary lay E of the city (so Gu.), perhaps at *Burq Beïtun*, the traditional scene of Abram's encampment (GASM, *EB*, i. 552).—On the somewhat uncertain situation of בַּלֵּלע (always with art. = הַרְמַּס, Neh. 11:31, 1 Ch. 7:28; and הַרְמַס, Is. 10:28), see Buhl, *GP*, 177.

**XII. 9—XIII. 1.**—Abram in Egypt.—The first of three variants of what must have been a very popular story in ancient Israel (cf. 20. 26:1ff.). Whether the original hero was Abraham or Isaac we cannot tell; but a comparison of the three parallels shows that certain primitive features of the legend are most faithfully preserved in the passage before us: note the entire absence of the extenuating circumstances introduced into the other accounts,—the whole subject being treated with a frank realism which
seems to take us down to the bed-rock of Hebrew folklore. —9. to the Negeb] The 'dry' region between the Judæan highland and the wilderness of el-Tīh, extending from 10 or 12 m. N of Beersheba to the neighbourhood of Kadesh (v.i.). It is still a suitable pasture ground for camel-breeding Bedouin, and the remains of buildings and irrigation works prove that it was once much more extensively cultivated than at present.—10. the famine was severe [lit. 'heavy'] emphasising the fact that the visit to Egypt was compulsory. The Nile valley, on account of its great fertility and its independence of the annual rainfall, was the natural resort of Asiatics in times of scarcity; and this under primitive conditions involved an actual sojourn in the country. The admission of Semites to the rich pastures of Egypt is both described and depicted in the monuments (see Guthe, GI, 16).* The purchase of corn for home consumption (42nd.) was possible as a temporary expedient at a somewhat more advanced stage of culture.—11-13. The speech of Abram to his wife is an instructive revelation of social and moral sentiment in early Israel. The Hebrew women are fairer than all others, and are sure to be coveted by foreigners; but the marriage bond is so sacred that even a foreigner, in order to possess the wife, will kill the husband...

9.  יִשְׂרָאֵל יִרְבָּה] Dav. § 86, R. 4; G-K. § 113 u. The idea of continuous journeying lies not in לָוֶה (see on 112), but in לָוֶה (cf. Ju. 14).—נּוֹהַּיִם] עַיְיָיָיָיָיָיָי אָנָה. The word, from a / meaning 'dry,' occurs as a proper name of S Palestine (נָבֹד) in a document of the reign of Thothmes III. (Müller, AE, 148; Mey. ZATW, vi. 1). Its use to denote the S direction is rare in JE, and apparently confined to later additions (134 2814, Jos. 18). The geographical limits of the region can, of course, only be roughly determined, chiefly from the list of its cities in Jos. 1521-32: on this, and its physical characteristics, see Che. EB, 3374 ff.; Palmer, Desert of the Exodus, ii. 351 f. (1871).—10. שׁוֹאָל (Jer. 421857) properly 'dwell as a client or protected guest' (שׁוֹאָל Ar. פָּרֵשׁ: cf. OT/JE, 342). The words, however, are often used in the wider sense of temporary sojourn (1519, Jer. 14), and this may be the case here.—11. נְחָלַת] 162 1827-31 192.8.19 272 (all J). The free use of נַחֲלַת (c. 40 t. in Gen.) is very characteristic of J (Ho. Einl. 110).—13. פָּרֵשׁ פָּרֵשׁ] oratio obliqua without פָּרֵשׁ, G-K. § 157 a. !, on the contrary, 871

* Cf. Authority and Archaeology, p. 59; DB, ii. 531b (note 2), 774b.
first. Hence the dilemma with which Abram is confronted: if Sarai is known as his wife, her life will be safe, but he will probably be slain; if she passes as his sister, her honour will be endangered, but his advantage will be served. In such a case the true Hebrew wife will not hesitate to sacrifice herself for her husband: at the same time she is a free moral agent: Abram's proposal is not a command but a deferential request. Lastly, it is assumed that in the circumstances lying is excusable. There is no suggestion that either the untruthfulness or the selfish cowardice of the request was severely reproputed by the ethical code to which the narrative appealed.—

The stratagem succeeds beyond expectation. Sarai attracts the notice of the courtiers, and is brought into Pharaoh's harem. The incident is characteristic of Oriental despotisms generally: Ebers (Aeg. u. d. B. Mosis, 262 f.) cites from the d'Orbiney papyrus an example of the zeal of Egyptian officials in matters of this kind.—

This feature of the reward is a standing element of the tradition; but in ch. 20 it is only bestowed after the misunderstanding has been cleared up, and in 26^12ff. its connexion with the incident is loosened.

The gifts enumerated constituted the riches of the patriarchs: 20^14 24^35 30^48 32^51. (cf. Jb. 1^8 42^15), and were perhaps regarded by this narrator as the foundation of Abram's subsequent wealth. The animals mentioned were all known in ancient Egypt (Ebers, 265 ff.), except the

ΔΔ. aβρωδ eιπει.—\( \text{τίτιω} \) In Hex. only 30^27 39^5 (J) and 3 t. in Dt.: elsewhere 4 t.—15. υιογρ[ The title of all Egyptian kings mentioned in OT except Shishak (1 Ki. 14^29) and Sevé (2 Ki. 17^4). It corresponds exactly to Eg. Per'ō ('Great House'.), denoting originally the palace or court, and is not applied to the person of the king earlier than the 18th dynasty (Erman, LÆ, 58; Griffith, DB, iii. 819; Mü. EB, iii. 3687). It is needless to go further in search of an etymology, though Renouf, PSBA, xv. 421, may be consulted. A confusion of the name here with the "Pir'ū king of Mušuri" mentioned by Sargon (KIB, ii. 55, etc.), is too readily suspected by Cheyne (EB, 3164, and TBAI, 223; cf. Wi. MVAG, iii. 2 ff.). Even supposing it proved that this is the proper name of a N Arabian prince, the narrative here must be much older than the time of Sargon; and it is inconceivable that the Heb. designation for the kings of Egypt should have been determined by an isolated and accidental resemblance to a native word.—16. After ντάπλα αμ inserts δρα κα μα σκρ, and puts παρ' ης λουσκηνοισιν.
camel, which is neither represented nor named in the monuments before the Greek period.* This, Müller supposes, was due to a religious scruple; but, of course, the difficulty remains of thinking that a religiously unclean animal should have been bred in Egypt, or have been gifted by Pharaoh to Abram. The order also—slaves between he-asses and she-asses—is strange; the explanation (Ho. Gu.) that the slaves were intermediate in value between these animals is jejune, and is, besides, contradicted by 2435 3043. It is possible that יָאָפָה נִֽיַּשֵּׁשֶׁנּ has been added at the end by a glossator; but see 2435 3043, and cf. м. below.

17. The story reaches its climax. Yahwe interposes at the extreme moment to save Sarai and avert calamity from the patriarchal house. It is noteworthy that Yahwe's intervention is here purely providential: in 20мо́н it takes the form of a personal communication, while in the attenuated version of 26мо́н. it has become superfluous and is omitted.—smote with great plagues] severe bodily maladies; cf. 2017, Ex. 111, Ps. 3911 etc. How Pharaoh discovered the cause of his sickness we are left to conjecture; Jos. (Ant. i. 164 f.) pretty nearly exhausts the possibilities of the case when he mentions sacrifice, inquiry at the priests, and interrogation of Sarai. Gu. is probably right in suggesting that something has been omitted between 17 and 18.—18, 19. To the vigorous exposition of the Pharaoh, Abram is unable to reply. The narrator evidently feels that morally the heathen king is in the right; and the zest with which the story was related was not quite so unalloyed by ethical reflexions as Gu. (151) would have us believe. The idea of God, however, is imperfectly moralised; Yahwe's providence puts in the wrong the man who is justified at the bar of human conscience; He is not here the absolutely righteous Being proclaimed by the prophets (Am. 30).—20. Pharaoh gave men charge concerning

before הַעֲשַׂר. 17. בָּעָה] The Pi. only of smiting with disease: 2 Ki. 158, 2 Ch. 2620 (Pu. Ps. 759).—בָּעָה] ὁ καὶ τοιοῦτος. — הַעֲשַׂר] possibly a gloss from 20meno (KS. al.); see on 29.—19. הַעֲשַׂר] 'so that I took'; Dri. T. § 74 a, § 116, Obs. 2.—הַעֲשַׂר] ὁ καὶ τοιοῦτος.—20. מֶּה add at the end ובש יְלִי, as in MT of 131: the phrase is interpolated in both places.

* Cf. Ex. 98 (J); and see Sayce, EHH, 169 (the notice unhistorical); Erman, LAE, 493. Ebers' statement as to the name is corrected by Müller, AE, 142, EB, i. 634.
Abram] i.e. provided him with an escort (יִבְדַּל as 1816 3127). The thought of ignominious expulsion is far from the writer's mind; the purpose of the escort is to see that no further injury is done to the patriarch or his wife (1Ez.), bringing fresh judgements on the realm.—XIII. i. The narrative closes with the return of Abram to his home in the Negeb (cf. 129).

Source of 1210–20.—It has already been pointed out (p. 242 f.) that, though the section breaks the connexion of the main narrative, it is Yahwistic in style; and the question of its origin relates only to its place within the general cycle of Yahwistic tradition. Three views are possible: that it is (1) a secondary expansion of J by a later hand (We.); (2) a misplaced chapter of J's main narrative belonging properly to a subsequent stage of the history; or (3) an excerpt from a separate Yahwistic collection (Gu. [Jb]). To (1) and (2) there are distinct objections: (a) the style and moral tone of the narrative, which are those of racy popular legend, and produce the impression of great antiquity; (b) the absence from the character of Abram of those ideal features which are prominent in the main narrative, and which later ages tended to exaggerate (e.g. ch. 14); especially (c) the fact that the home of Abram is not at Hebron but in the Negeb. Gu.'s theory, which is not open to these objections, seems, therefore, to mark an advance in the analysis of J.

2–18. Separation of Abram and Lot.—2, 5, 7. The great wealth of the two patriarchs leads to bickering among their retainers. The situation reflects the relations of tribes rather than of private families, quarrels about pastures and watering-places being a common feature of nomadic life and a frequent cause of separation: cf. 2125 2630ff.—2. Silver and gold] 2435 2016 2316.—5. Lot's substance, on the other hand, is purely nomadic: flocks, herds, and tents. The last word appears to have the sense of 'people,' 'families'; cf. Ar. 'ahl, Sab. אנה (Müller, ZDMG, xxxvii. 341; Homm. SA Chrest. 121).—3, 4. A redactional addition (p. 243), bringing the narrative back to Bethel, the traditional scene of the separation.—6. P's account of the parting: cf. 367. It has often been noticed that he makes no mention of a quarrel; just as J says nothing of the straitness of the land (v. i.).—

3. רִבּוֹנָי simply 'by stages'; not by the same stages by which he had come (GEB Ra.): cf. Ex. 171 4038.38 etc.—5. רֹאֵל (G-K. §§ 93 7, 23 4), Gk. κρήνη, prob. Gr. corruption of הַשָּׁם (so many MSS).—6. קָרָא || הָנֵשָׁב—better. Cf. 367 (P).—6בב is by some (KS. Ho.) assigned to J,
8, 9. The thought of strife between relatives ([מֵרָעָה]) is intolerable to Abram, who, though the older man, renounces his rights for the sake of an amicable settlement. The narrator has finely conceived the magnanimity which springs from fellowship with God. The peaceable disposition ascribed to the patriarchs is characteristic of the old narratives. Jacob substitutes guile for force, but Abraham and Isaac conquer by sheer reasonableness and conciliation.—10, 11a, 12bβ. Lot’s choice.—lifted up his eyes and saw, etc.] The Burg Beüinh (p. 247), a few minutes SE from the village, is described as “one of the great view-points of Palestine” (GASm. EB, 552), from which the Jordan valley and the N end of the Dead Sea are clearly visible.—the whole Oval of the Jordan] cf. Dri. Deut. 421 f.

but on insufficient grounds (cf. Hupl. Qv. 21 f.).—7b. [םה] ים [תבש].—יִפְתי The name is coupled with [ינָבָק] in 34, ju. 14, 8 (j), and often appears in enumerations of the pre-Israelite inhabitants (15 etc.). If, as is probable, it be connected with [יְנַיָּה] (Dt. 3, 1 Sa. 618, Est. 9, 1, 9), [והַנָּב] (Ezk. 3811, Zec. 28, Est. 9, 19), it would mean ‘hamlet-dwellers’ as distinguished from Canaanites, occupying fortified cities (see on יָנָב, 10). That the P. were remnants of a pre-Canaanite population is hardly to be inferred from the omission of the name in 10, from or its association with the Rephaim in Jos. 17:5; this last notice is wanting in [גA] and is perhaps a gloss (Moore, Jud. 17).—9. [טו] [גS] גָּשָׁן.—[כָּפִים.—[לָשׁוֹנָה] Ball suggests the pointing [לָשֹׁנָה, לָשָׁנָה (infns. abs.)]. [ם reads] [וָנָב] הָנָבָק הָנָבָק הָנָבָק הָנָבָק הָנָבָק הָנָבָק הָנָבָק H. om.—[לָשׁוֹנָה] in the sense of ‘watered region’ only again Ezek. 45 (where
like the land of Egypt] coming after like the garden of Jehovah (210-14; cf. Is. 51^) it is an anti-climax, which might be excused (as Di. thinks) because the first comparison was pitched too high. But the last half of the v. seems greatly overloaded, and it is not improbable that both יְהֹוָה and 'ם are to be removed as glosses.—On the luxuriant fertility and abundant water-supply of the district, see HG, 483 f.; Buhl, 39; Seetzen, Reisen, i. 417.—IIa. Lot departed eastward] see on 112 and the footnote infra.—12β. The immediate continuation (in J) of 11a: and moved his tent up to Sodom] the intervening words being from P (cf. יִשַּׁב instead of יִשַׁבְתֶּם).—13. This notice of the sinfulness of Sodom is another anticipation of ch. 19; but it is introduced here with great effect as showing how Lot had over-reached himself by his selfish conduct.—14-17. The promise of the land is now confirmed to Abram.—14. Lift up thine eyes, etc.] the contrast to Lot's self-interested glance (v.10), while Abram, by his magnanimous surrender of his claims, had unconsciously chosen the good part.—15. It is very doubtful if the דַּעְתְעִי דַּעְתִיס can be considered (with Di.) a new element of the promise as compared with 12'.—16. the dust of the earth] 2814.

This solemn assurance of the possession of the land (14-17) is somewhat of a contrast to the simple promises of 12-17; and has affinities with a series of passages which appear to represent a later phase of religious reflexion (see on ch. 15, p. 284). Other reasons are adduced for thinking that 14-17 are the work of a younger hand than the original J. (a) It is not the habit of J to cite divine oracles without a specification of the circumstances under which the theophany takes place (but see 1215). (b) The conception of Abram as wandering over the land is not that of J, who fixes his permanent dwelling-place at Hebron. (c) While Bethel commands a view of the Jordan valley, it affords no

the text is corrupt) and Sir. 3921. Should we read יָנֵפָר?—ירָנֵפָר] see 108.—ךָגִנְו = Tanis (ךָגִנְו) in Egypt (Nu. 1321, Is. 1911.13 etc.), which is preferred by Ball, but is rather an error caused by the preceding יִנֵפָר.—II. יִנֵפָר (cf. 112) גָּדְרָא וְאוֹטָר, אָבָאֹרֶו. But the only possible sense here is 'eastward'; hence Sta. (Ak. Reden, 292) and Gu. emend to יָנֵפָר.—IIb, in spite of its resemblance to יָנֵפָר, must be assigned to P, being necessary to the completeness of that account, and because it disturbs the connexion of 11a with יָנֵפָר.—

16. יָנֵפָר= 'so that' (G-K. § 166 b).—17. גָּדְרָא adds at end קַיָּהּ שְׁפַרְנָר
wide prospect of the land as a whole. We. (Comp. 2 25 f.) admits that these 'general impressions' are not such as to procure universal assent. In point of fact they are rather overstated; and Di.'s answers may satisfy those who refuse to carry critical operations further than is absolutely necessary. Nevertheless, We.'s impression is probably correct, and has commended itself to KS. Ho. Gu. al.* The vv. may be omitted not only without injury to the context, but with the obvious advantage of bringing out the reference of 18 to 12f. The redactor has rightly seized the point of the story, which is that by his selfish choice Lot left Abram the sole heir of Canaan.

18. Abram moves his tent to the terebinth(s) of Mamre, in Hebron, and inaugurates the local sanctuary there. In the main narrative of J the statement was immediately followed by ch. 18; and it is possible that the theophany recorded at the beginning of that chapter is that which marked the place as holy (see on 12f).

The site of the tree (or trees, v.i.) is not known. There was a Terebinth of Abraham about 15 stadia from Hebron, which was the scene of mixed heathen and Christian worship, suppressed by order of Constantine (Sozomen, HE, ii. 4). Josephus (BJ, iv. 533) mentions a very large terebinth said to have existed ἀπὸ τῆς κτίσεως μέχρι νῦν, 6 stadia from the city. In spite of the discrepancy as to distance, it is probable that these are to be identified; and that the site was the Ἠαρὰμ Ῥάμετ Ἐλ-Ḫαλὶ, 2 m. N of Hebron. The difficulty in accepting this, the oldest accessible, tradition is that the distance is inconsistent with the statement that the sanctuary was in Hebron. And if we suppose the ancient Hebron to have been at er-Rāme in the vicinity of the Ḥārām, this conflicts with the tradition as to the cave of

σου εἰς τὸν αἵωνα,—approved by Ball.—18. Ἅγιος Ἰωάννης (1.14 15 18f)] see on 12f. Ὁ τῆς ὀρού τῆς Μαμβρῆ. S also reads the sing., which may be right, though 18f cannot be cited in support of it. In J, Mamre is said to be in Hebron, in P (where the tree is never mentioned) it is a name of Hebron, and in 14f-24 it becomes the name of an Amorite chief, the owner of the trees. So S here, as shown by the addition of Ἰ.3361.

* The only point on which it is impossible to follow We. is his assumption that Hebron is the fixed residence of Abram in all strata of J, and that the notion of his migratory life arose from the amalgamation of E (which puts Beersheba in the place of Hebron) with J. There was probably a whole cycle of Yahwistic legends, in which he is represented as living in the Negeb (see already on 12f). So far as mere literary criticism goes, there is no reason why the addition should not be prior to RJE.
Machpelah, which has as good claims to be considered authentic. The present 'Oak of Abraham,' about 2 m. NW, is as old as the 16th cent. See Robinson, BR, i. 216; Buhl, GP, 160, 162; Baedeker, Pal. and Syr. 138, 142; Dri. DB, iii. 224 f.; v. Gall, CST. 52.

Ch. XIV.—Abram's Victory over Four Kings.

While Abram was at Hebron, a revolt of five petty kings in the Jordan valley against their over-lord Chedorlaomer of Elam brought from the East a great punitive expedition, in which no fewer than four powerful monarchs took part. A successful campaign—the course of which is traced in detail—ended in the complete defeat of the rebels in a pitched battle in what is now the Dead Sea basin, followed by the sack of Sodom, and the capture of Lot (1-12). Abram, with a handful of slaves, pursues the victorious allies to Dan, routs them in a night attack, and rescues the captives, including Lot (13-16). On his homeward journey he is met by Melchizedek, king of Salem, who blesses him in the name of God Most High, and to whom he pays tithes (18-20); and by the king of Sodom, whose offer of the spoil Abram rejects with proud and almost disdainful magnanimity (17. 21-24).—Such is in brief the content of this strange and perplexing chapter, in its present form and setting. It is obvious that the first half is merely introductory, and that the purpose of the whole is to illustrate the singular dignity of Abram's position among the potentates of the earth. Essentially peaceful, yet ready on the call of duty to take the field against overwhelming odds, disinterested and considerate of others in the hour of victory, reverential towards the name and representative of the true God, he moves as a 'great prince' amongst his contemporaries, combining the highest earthly success with a certain detachment and unworldliness of character.—Whether the picture be historically true or not—a question reserved for a concluding note—it is unfair to deny to it nobility of conception; and it is perhaps an exaggeration to assert that it stands in absolute and unrelieved opposition to all we elsewhere read of Abram. The story does not give the
impression that Abram forfeits the character of 'Muslim and prophet' (We.) even when he assumes the rôle of a warrior.

_Literary character._—Many features of the chapter show that it has had a peculiar literary history. (a) The _vocabulary_, though exhibiting sporadic affinities with P (אָנָה, 11, 12, 16, 21; וַיַּעַל, 14; ובֶן [= 'person'], 21) or E (אֶלֶת, 7, 18; יָנִיהו, 24), contains several expressions which are either unique or rare (see the footnotes): וַיַּעַל, 14 (אָנָה, הַנָּגָף); וַיַּעַל, 14; וַיִּלַּיך, 13 וַיַּעַל, יָנִיהו, 18-20; יָנִיהו, 20; וַיַּעֲשֶׂה, 4.—(b) The numerous antiquarian _glosses_ and _archaic_ names, suggesting the use of an ancient document, have no parallel except in Dt. 21-12. 20-23 38, 11. 13b. 14; and even these are not quite of the same character. (c) The _annalistic_ official style, specially noticeable in the introduction, may be genuine or simulated; in either case it marks the passage sharply off from the narratives by which it is surrounded.—That the chapter as it stands cannot be assigned to any of the three sources of Gen. is now universally acknowledged, and need not be further argued here. Some writers postulate the existence of a literary kernel which may either (1) have originated in one of the schools J or E,† or (2) have passed through their hands.‡ In neither form can the theory be made at all plausible. The treatment of documentary material supposed by (1) is unexamined in Gen, and those who suggest it have to produce some sufficient reason why a narrative of (say) E required to be so heavily glossed. As for (2), we have, to be sure, no experience of how E or J would have edited an old cuneiform document if it had fallen into their hands,—they were collectors of oral tradition, not manipulators of official records,—but we may presume that if the story would not bear telling in the vivid style that went to the hearts of the people, these writers would have left it alone. The objections to P's authorship are equally strong, the style and subject being alike foreign to the well-marked character of the Priestly narration. Ch. xiv. is therefore an isolated boulder in the stratification of the Pent., a fact which certainly invites examination of its origin, but is not in itself an evidence of high antiquity.

_I.—4. The revolt of the five kings._—I. The four names

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* The singularity of the passage appears to be reflected even in the translation of Ἐ, which has some unusual renderings: ἵππος for ψέλι, 11, 16, 21 (nowhere else in OT); φάραγγι for πραγματές, 6 (not again in Pent.: twice in Jos. and 4 t. in Book of Isa.); περατής (μακρὰς λέγ.) for ἔννοια, 13,—though this might be explained by the unexpected occurrence of the gentilic in this connexion (Aq. περατής).

† So Di. Kittel (GH, i. 124, 158 ff.), and (with reserve) Ho., all of whom think of E as the most likely source.

‡ So Wi. GI, ii. 26-48, who holds that the original was a cuneiform document of legendary and mythical character, which was worked over first by E and then by J (see below, p. 272).
(see below) do double duty,—as gen. after יָבִּין and as subj. to יְבִּין—a faulty syntax which a good writer would have avoided (v.i.). The suggestion that the first two names are gen. and the last two subj.,* has the advantage of putting Kēdōrlāʾomer, the head of the expedition (4.5.9.17), in the place of honour; but it is without warrant in the Heb. text; and besides, by excluding the first two kings from participation in the campaign (against 5.9.17), it necessitates a series of changes too radical to be safely undertaken.—

2. The group of five cities (Pentapolis, Wis. 106) is thought to be the result of an amalgamation of originally independent traditions.

In ch. 19, only Sodom and Gomorrah are mentioned as destroyed (19.4.28 [18.28]; so 13.10, Is. 1.19, Jer. 23.14 etc.) and Zoar (19.17ff.) as spared. Admah and Zeboim are named alone in Hos. 11.6, in a manner hardly consistent with the idea that they were involved in the same catastrophe as S. and G. The only passages besides this where the four are associated are 10.19 and Dt. 20.23, although ‘neighbour cities’ of S. and G. are referred to in Jer. 49.18 50.9, Ezek. 16.48ff. If, as seems probable, there were two distinct legends, we cannot assume that in the original tradition Admah and Zeboim were connected with the Dead Sea (see Che. EB, 66 f.).—The old name of Zoar, יְבִּין (Destruction?), appears nowhere else.

The four names in v.1 are undoubtedly historical, although the monumental evidence is less conclusive than is often represented. (i) יָבִּין ('Amarpal) is thought to be a faulty transcription of Hammurabi (Ammurabi[p]), the name of the 6th king of the first Bab. dynasty, who put an end to the Elamite domination and united the whole country under his own sway (c. 2100 B.C.).† The final י presents a difficulty which has never been satisfactorily explained; but the equivalence is

kal between the second and third. The reading of the Sixtine ed. (first two names in gen. coupled by kal), which is appealed to in support of Wi.'s construction, has very little MS authority. “I have little doubt that both in H. and P. 19 (which is a rather carelessly written MS) and in 135 the reading is due to a scribe’s mistake, probably arising from misreading of a contracted termination and induced by the immediately preceding βασιλέως. How it came into the Roman edition, I do not feel sure.” ‡—2. יְבִּין [Gr Balía, etc. — יְבִּין] Gr Σενναρ. — יְבִּין] Gr Συμόβαρ, Συμόρ, μι τὰνκν (‘name has perished’), § הָיָה־לָהו—הָיָה] the first of the 11 instances of this Kethib in Pent. (see on 218).

* Wi. GI, ii. 27, 30; Peiser, MVAG, 1897, 308 ff.; approved by Gu.
† See Introd. pp. xiv ff.
‡ Private communication from Mr. M’Lean.
widely recognised by Assyriologists.* It is, however, questioned by Jen.†, absolutely rejected by Bezold,‡ and pronounced ‘problematical’ by Mey. GA³, i. ii. 551.—(On ṭēṣ, see io¹⁰.)—(2) ṭēḵ (cf. Dn. 2¹⁴, Jth. 1⁶), it seems, is now satisfactorily identified with Eri-ahu, the Sumerian equivalent of Arad-Sin, a king of Larsa, who was succeeded by his more famous brother, Rim-Sin, the ruler who was conquered by Hammurabi in the 31st year of the latter’s reign (KAT⁸, 16, 19). The two brothers, sons of the Elamite Kudur-Ninshubur, were first distinguished by Thureau-Dangin in 1907 (Sumer. und Akkad. Königsinschr. 210 ff.; cf. King, Chronicles concerning early Bab. Kings, vol. i. 6⁸; Mey. GA³, i. ii. p. 550 f.). Formerly the two names and persons were confused; and Schrader’s attempt to identify Rim-Sin with Arioch,§ though accepted by many, was reasonably contested by the more cautious Assyriologists, e.g. Jen. (ZDMG, 1896, 247 ff.), Bezold (op. cit. 27, 56), and Zimmern (KAT⁸, 367). The objections do not hold against the equation Arioch = Eri-ahu = Arad-Sin, provided Arad-Sin be kept distinct from Rim-Sin. The discovery by Pinches || in 1892 of the name Eri-[E]aku or Eri-Ekua stands on a somewhat different footing. The tablets on which these names occur are admittedly late (not earlier than the 4th cent. B.C.); the identity of the names with Eri-Aku is called in question by King; ¶ who further points out that this Eri-Ekua is not styled a king, that there is nothing to connect him with Larsa, and that consequently we have no reason to suppose him the same as either of the well-known contemporaries of Hammurabi. The real significance of the discovery lies in the coincidence that on these same late fragments (and nowhere else) the two remaining names of the v. are supposed to occur.—(3) ṭēḵ ṭēḵ ṭēḵ (Ḫoḏoḷḷoγoμoρ) unquestionably stands for Kudur-lagamar, a genuine Elamite proper name, containing the name of a known Elamite divinity Lagamar (KAT⁸, 485), preceded by a word which appears as a component of theophorous Elamite names (Kudur-mabug, Kudur-Nanḫundi, etc.). It is extremely doubtful, however, if the actual name has yet been found outside of this chapter. The “sensational” announcement of Scheil (1896), that he had read it (Ku-dur-nu-ūḫ-ga-mar) in a letter of Hammurabi to Sinid-innam, king of Larsa, has been disposed of by the brilliant refutation of King (op. cit. xxv–xxxix. Cf. also Del. BA, iv. 90). There remains the prior discovery of the Pinches fragments, on which there is mentioned thrice a king of Elam whose name, it was thought, might be read Kudur-lāḥ-mal or Kudur-lāḥ-gu-mal.** The first element (Kudur)

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* See Schr. SBBA, 1887, xxxi. 600 ff. † ZDMG, 1896, 252.
§ SBBA, 1894, xv. 279 ff.
¶ Letters and Inscr. of Hammurabi, i. p. liii. Jen., Peiser, and Bezold also pronounce against the identification.
** This reading is questioned by King; see liv–lvi, or the extract in Dri. Gen., Addenda on p. 157 n. Sayce now (l.c. p. 194 ff.) proposes to
is no doubt right, but the second is very widely questioned by Assyriologists. There is, moreover, nothing to show that the king in question, whatever his name, belonged to the age of Hammurabi.†

(4) 273 (עמשמ, אכרצל, § 233) was identified by Pinches with a "Tu-ud-hil-a, son of Gaz...", who is named once on the tablets already spoken of (see Schr. SBBA, 1895, xli. 961 ff.). The resemblance to Tid'al is very close, and is naturally convincing to those who find 'Ariok and Kedora'omer in the same document; there is, however, no indication that Tudyula was a king, or that he was contemporary with Hammurabi and Rim-Sin (King, op. cit.). — כֶּל can hardly be the usual word for 'nations' (GftT), either as an indefinite expression (Tu.) or as a "verschämtes et cetera" (Ho.). We seem to require a proper name (§ has כֶּל כֶל); and many accept the suggestion of Rawlinson, that Guti (a people N of the Upper Zab) should be read. Peiser (309) thinks that כֶּל כֶל is an attempt to render the common Babylonian title שָׁר קִיקָשִׁי.

The royal names in v.² are of a different character from those of v.¹. Several circumstances suggest that they are fictitious. Jewish exegesis gives a sinister interpretation to all four (H, Ber. R. § 42, Ra.); and even modern scholars like Tu. and Nó. recognise in the first two a play on the words יִנ (evil) and יִנָּה (wickedness). And can it be accidental that they fall into two alliterative pairs, or that each king's name contains exactly as many letters as that of his city? On the other side, it may be urged (a) that the textual tradition is too uncertain to justify any conclusions based on the Heb. (see the footnote); (b) the namelessness of the fifth king shows that the writer must have had traditional authority for the other four; and (c) Sanibu occurs as the name of an Ammonite king in an inscr. of Tiglath-pileser IV. (Del. Par. 294, KIB, ii. 21). These considerations do not remove the impression of artificiality which the list produces. Since the names are not repeated in v.², it is quite possible they are late insertions in the text, and, of course (on that view), unhistorical. — כֶּל² is elsewhere a royal name (36²).

— read Kudur-lakhkha-mal; but the reading appears to be purely conjectural; and, unless it should be corroborated, nothing can be built upon it.

* e.g. by King, Zimmern (KAT³, 486¹), Peiser (who reads it Kudur-tur-bii, l.c. 310), Jen., Bezold, al.

† There is no doubt some difficulty in finding room for a king Kudur-lagamar alongside of Kudur-mabug (who, if not actually king of Elam, was certainly the over-lord of Arad-Sin and Rim-Sin) in the time of Hammurabi; but in our ignorance of the situation that difficulty must not be pressed. It has, however, induced Langdon (Dri., Gen⁷, Add. xxxii.) to revive a conjecture of G. Smith, that Kudur-mabug and the Kudur-lagamar of this chapter are one and the same person. It does not appear that any fresh facts have come to light to make the guess more convincing than it was when first propounded.
3. *all these* not the kings from the East (Di. Dri.), but (see v. 4) those of the Pentapolis. That there should be any doubt on the point is an indication of the weak style of the chapter. What exactly the v. means to say is not clear. The most probable sense is that the five cities formed a league] of the Vale of Siddim, and therefore acted in concert. This is more natural than to suppose the statement a premature mention of the preparations for battle in v. 8.—*the Vale of Siddim*] The name is peculiar to this narrative, and its meaning is unknown (v. i.). 1 ... writer manifestly shares the belief (1310) that what is now the Dead Sea was once dry land (see p. 273 f. below).—*The Sea of Salt*] one of the OT names for the Dead Sea (Nu. 345, Dt. 317, Jos. 16 15 etc.): see PEFS, 1904, 64. Wi.'s attempt to identify it with Lake Huleh is something of a tour de force (GI, ii. 36 f.; cf. 108 f.).—4. *they rebelled* by refusal of tribute (2 Ki. 187 241, 20 etc.). An Elamite dominion over Palestine in the earlier part of Hammurabi's reign is perfectly credible in the light of the monumental evidence (p. 272). But the importance attributed in this connexion to the petty kings of the Pentapolis is one of the features which excite suspicion of the historicity of the narrative. To say that this is due to the writer's interest in Lot and Sodom is to concede that his conception of the situation is determined by other influences than authentic historical information.

5-7. The preliminary campaign.—One of the sur-
prising things in the narrative is the circuitous route by which the Eastern kings march against the rebels. We may assume that they had followed the usual track by Carchemish and Damascus: thence they advanced southwards on the E of the Jordan; but then, instead of attacking the Pentapolis, they pass it on their right, proceeding southward to the head of the Gulf of Aḵaba. Then they turn NW to Kadesh, thence NE to the Dead Sea depression; and only at the end of this long and difficult journey do they join issue with their enemies in the vale of Siddim.

In explanation, it has been suggested that the real object of the expedition was to secure command of the caravan routes in W Arabia, especially that leading through the Arabah from Syria to the Red Sea (see Tu. 257ff.). It must be remembered, however, that this is the account, not of the first assertion of Elamite supremacy over these regions, but of the suppression of a revolt of not more than a few months' standing: hence it would be necessary to assume that all the peoples named were implicated in the rebellion. This is to go behind the plain meaning of the Heb. narrator; and the verisimilitude of the description is certainly not enhanced by Hommel's wholly improbable speculation that the Pentapolis was the centre of an empire embracing the whole region E of the Jordan and the land of Edom (AHT, 149). If there were any truth in theories of this kind, we should still have to conclude that the writer, for the sake of literary effect, had given a fictitious importance to the part played by the cities of the Jordan valley, and had so arranged the incidents as to make their defeat seem the climax of the campaign. (See Nödeke, 163 f.)

The general course of the campaign can be traced with sufficient

The reading of the Sixtine and Aldine edd. of Gr, 'Αστραπός καὶ Καρναύ, which even Di. adduces in favour of a distinction between the two cities, has, amongst the MSS used by the Cambridge editors, the support of only one late cursive, which Nestle maintains was copied from the Aldine ed. It is doubtless a conflation of Karvnv and the καὶ Ναῦ (Καρναυ) of Gr. al. (Nestle, ZDPV, xx. 256; cf. Moore, JBL, xvi. 155 f.).—Συνῆ] Gr ἤτοι ταχυράτε ϊαν; so ST01. Σ. has Ζωιζομεν=μυστήριοι. —ς] Gr read γη (μαύρος, etc.). Some MSS of μ have ὄνο, which Jerome expressly says is the real reading of the Heb. text.—6. οὐκέτι] μαζί Σ. Τ. ὑπό. Duplication of τ is rare and doubtful (Ps. 30, Jer. 17?) in sing. of this word, but common in const. pl. Buhl strikes out ὑπὸ as an explanatory gloss, retaining ὑπό. —οιος οἰς] Gr render 'terebinth of Paran,' and so virtually ST01, which have 'plain' (see on 12 f). If the ordinary theory, as given above, be correct, ὑπὸ is used collectively in the sense of 'great tree' (here 'palms').—7. For υπὸ, ST01 (also Saadya) have ὑπό, apparently identifying it with Petra: see Tuch's Note, p. 271 f.—οιος] Gr ὑπὸ, 'princes.'
certainly from the geographical names of 8-7; although it does not appear quite clearly whether these are conceived as the centres of the various nationalities or the battlefields in which they were defeated.—

A city 'Astaroth in Bashan, the capital of Og's kingdom, is mentioned in Dt. 4, Jos. 17, 12; 13; 1 Ch. 6.26 (= נַעֲרָא, Jos. 21:27). Karnaim is named (according to a probable emendation) in Am. 6:13, and in 1 Mac. 5:2643ff., 2 Mac. 1221. It is uncertain whether these are two names for one place, or two adjacent places of which one was named after the other ('Astaroth of [i.e. near] Karnaim); and the confusing statements of the OS (8:4ff.; 3:32; 10:87; 209:21; 26:2828) throw little light on the question. The various sites that have been suggested—Sheikh Sa'd, Tell 'Astarah, Tell el-Aš'ari, and El-Muzerib—lie near the great road from Damascus to Mecca, about 20 m. E of the Lake of Tiberias (see Buhl, GAP, 248ff.; Dri. DB, i. 166ff.; GASm. in EB, 335ff.). Wetzstein's identification with Bozrah (regarded as a corruption of Bostra, and this of נַעֲרָא, Jos. 21:27), the capital of the Haurān, has been shown by Nö. (ZDMG, xxix. 431) to be philologically untenable.—Of a place נו nothing is known. It is a natural conjecture (Tu. al.) that it is the archaic name of Rabbath, the capital of Ammon; and Sayce (HCM, 160ff.) thinks it must be explained as a retranscription from a cuneiform source of the word עַל. On the text v.i.—נַעֲרָא נו is doubtless the Moabite or Reubenite city 'ר, mentioned in Jer. 4:28; Ezk. 25:9, Nu. 32:27, Jos. 13:19 (OS, קַּרְאָהא, קַרְאָה), the modern Kurayiat, E of the Dead Sea, a little S of the Wádi Zerka Ma'in. נו (only here and v.17) is supposed to mean 'plain' (Syr. 1244;4; but that is somewhat problematical.—On the phrase נו עַל, see the foot-note. While עַל alone may include the plateau to the W of the Arabah, the commoner עַל נו appears to be restricted to the mountainous region E of that gorge, now called es-Sera (see Buhl, Gesch. d. Edomiter, 28ff.)—נַעֲרָא נו (v.i.) is usually identified with נו (Dt. 28, 2 Ki. 14:22; 16:9) or נו (1 Ki. 9:28; 2 Ki. 16:9), at the head of the E arm of the Red Sea, which is supposed to derive its name from the groves of date-palms for which it was and is famous (see esp. Tu. 264ff.). The grounds of the identification seem slender; and the evidence does not carry us further than Tu.'s earlier view (251), that some oasis in the N of the desert is meant (see Che. EB, 3584). The 'wilderness' is the often mentioned 'Wilderness of Paran' (21:21, Nu. 10:13 etc.), i.e. the desolate plateau of et-Tih, stretching from the Arabah to the isthmus of Suez. There is obviously nothing in that definition to support the theory that 'El-Pārān is the original name of the later Elath.—נָו (16:14; 201 etc.), or נו (Nu. 34, Dt. 12:19 214). The controversy as to the

* See Müller, AE, 313; Macalister, PEFS, 1904, 15.
† Moore, JBL, xvi. 156ff.
‡ Trumbull places it at the oasis of Kalat'at Naḥl, in the middle of et-Tih, on the Ḥagg route halfway between 'Akaba and Suez (Kadesh-Barnea, p. 37).
situation of this important place has been practically settled since the appearance of Trumbull’s *Kadesh-Barnea* in 1884 (see Guthe, *ZDPV*, viii. 183 ff.). It is the spring now known as ‘Ain Kadis, at the head of the Wadi of the same name, “northward of the desert proper,” and about 50 m. S of Beersheba (see the description by Trumbull, *op. cit.* 272-275). The distance in a straight line from Elath would be about 80 m., with a difficult ascent of 1500 ft. The alternative name נֶפֶשׁ מִי (*‘Well of Judgement’*) is found only here. Since נֶפֶשׁ means ‘holy’ and נֶפֶשׁ ‘judicial decision,’ it is a plausible conjecture of Rob. Sm. that the name refers to an ordeal involving the use of ‘holy water’ (Nu. 5:7) from the sacred well (*RS* 181). The sanctuary at Kadesh seems to have occupied a prominent place in the earliest Exodus tradition (We. *Prol.* 341 ff.); but there is no reason why the institution just alluded to should not be of much greater antiquity than the Mosaic age.—ֹּפֶשׁ מִי is, according to 2 Ch. 20:2, *En-gedi (Ain Gidi)*, about the middle of the W shore of the Dead Sea. A more unsuitable approach for an army to any part of the Dead Sea basin than the precipitous descent of nearly 2000 feet at this point, could hardly be imagined: see Robinson, *BR*, i. 503. It is not actually said that the army made the descent there: it might again have made a detour and reached its goal by a more practicable route. But certainly the conditions of this narrative would be better satisfied by *Kurnub*, on the road from Hebron to Elath, about 20 m. WSW of the S end of the Dead Sea. The identification, however, requires three steps, all of which involve uncertainties: (1) that נֶפֶשׁ מִי = the נֶפֶשׁ of Ezk. 47:19 48:8; (2) that this is the *Thamara of OS* (8:3, 210*); the *Θαμαρ* of Ptol. xvi. 8; and (3) that the ruins of this are found at *Kurnub*. Cf. *EB*, 4890; Buhl, *GP*, 184.

The six peoples named in vv. 5-7 are the primitive races which, according to Heb. tradition, formerly occupied the regions traversed by Chedorlaomer. (1) The נִפֶשׁ מִי are spoken of as a giant race dwelling partly on the W (15:20, *Jos.* 17:15, 2 Sa. 21:18, Is. 17:5), partly on the E, of the Jordan, especially in Bashan, where Og reigned as the last of the Rephaim (Dt. 3:11, *Jos.* 12:4 etc.).—(2) The נִפֶשׁ, only mentioned here, are probably the same as the Zamzummim of Dt. 2:20, the aborigines of the Ammonite country. The equivalence of the two forms is considered by Sayce (*ZA*, iv. 393) and others to be explicable only by the Babylonian confusion of נ and ו, and thus a proof that the narrative came ultimately from a cuneiform source.—(3) נִפֶשׁ מִי] a kind of Rephaim, aborigines of Moab (Dt. 20:1).—(4) נִפֶשׁ] the race extirpated by the Edomites (36:20ff., Dt. 2:12, 22). The name has usually been understood to mean ‘trogloodytes’ (see Dri. *Deut.* 38); but this is questioned by Jen. (*ZA*, x. 332 f., 346 f.) and Homm. (*AHT*, 264*), who identify the word with *Haru*, the Eg. name for SW Palestine.—(5) נִפֶשׁ מִי] the Amalekite territory (*נִפֶשׁ מִי*), was in the Negeb, extending towards Egypt (Nu. 13:29 14:45, 1 Sa. 2:7). In ancient tradition, Amalek was ‘the firstling of peoples’ (Nu. 24:20), although, according to Gn. 36:12 its ancestor was a grandson of Esau.—(6) נִפֶשׁ מִי] see on 10:18; and cf. *Dt.* 14:4, Ju. 138—

While there can be no question of the absolute historicity of the last
three names, the first three undoubtedly provoke speculation. Rephaim
is the name for shades or ghosts; 'Emim probably means 'terrible ones,'
and Zamzummim (if this be the same word as Zuẓîm), 'murmurers.'
Schwally (Leben nach d. Tode, 64 ff., and more fully ZATW, xviii. 127 ff.)
has given reasons to show that all three names originally denoted
spirits of the dead, and afterwards came to be applied to an imaginary
race of extinct giants, the supposed original inhabitants of the country
(see also Rob. Sm. in Dri. Deut. 40). The tradition with regard to the
Rephaim is too persistent to make this ingenious hypothesis altogether
easy of acceptance. It is unfortunate that on a matter bearing so
closely on the historicity of Gn. 14 the evidence is not more decisive.

8–12. The final battle, and capture of Lot.—9. four kings against the five] That the four Eastern kings
should have been all present in person (which is the obvious
meaning of the narrator) is improbable enough; that they
should count heads with the petty kinglets of the Pentapolis
is an unreal and misleading estimate of the opposing forces,
due to a desire to magnify Abram's subsequent achievement.
—10. The vale of Siddim was at that time wells upon wells of
bitumen] The notice is a proof of intelligent popular reasoning
rather than of authentic information regarding actual facts. The Dead Sea was noted in antiquity for the pro-
duction of bitumen, masses of which were found floating on
the surface (Strabo, xvi. ii. 42; Diod. ii. 48, xix. 98; Pliny, vii. 65), as, indeed, they still are after earthquakes,
but "only in the southern part of the sea" (Robinson,
BR, i. 518, ii. 189, 191). It was a natural inference that
the bottom of the sea was covered with asphalt wells, like
those of Hit in Babylonia. Seetzen (i. 417) says that the
bitumen oozes from rocks round the sea, "and that (und
swar) under the surface of the water, as swimmers have felt
and seen"; and Strabo says it rose in bubbles like boiling
water from the middle of the deepest part.—11, 12. Sodom
and Gomorrah are sacked, and Lot is taken captive. The

10. נַהֲלָה נַהֲלָה] On the nominal appos. and duplication, see Dav. § 29,
R. 8; G–K. § 123 e (cf. § 130 e). L has the word but once.—נַהֲלָה] better
as מִכְּלָה יָנהֲלָה. נַהֲלָה] On the peculiar יָנהֲלָה, see G–K. §§ 279, 90 i.—11.
ינָרְאִים מִכְּלָה (i.e. יָנהֲלָה); the confusion appears in 16. 21, but nowhere else
in OT.—12. יָנהֲלָה נַהֲלָה] inserts the words immediately after בָּיָם—an
indication that they have been introduced from the margin. It is to be
account leaves much to be supplied by the imagination. The repetition of אָכְלָה and יְבַשָּׁה in two consecutive sentences is a mark of inferior style; but the phrase אַחֲרֵי יְמֵי, which anticipates the introduction of Abram in v. 18, is probably a gloss (v.i.).

13-16. Abram’s pursuit and victory.—The homeward march of the victorious army must have taken it very near Hebron,—Engedi itself is only about 17 m. off,—but Abram had ‘let the legions thunder past,’ until the intelligence reached him of his nephew’s danger.—13. Abram the Hebrew is obviously meant as the first introduction of Abram in this narrative. The epithet is not necessarily an anachronism, if we accept the view that Habiru of the Tel Amarna period were the nomadic ancestors of the Israelites (see on 10:21); though it is difficult to believe that there were Habiru in Palestine more than 600 years earlier, in the time of Hammurabi (against Sellin, NKZ, xvi. 936; cf. Paton, Syria and Pal. 39 ff.). That, however, is the only sense in which Abram could be naturally described as a Hebrew in a contemporary document; and the probability is that the term is used by an anachronistic extension of the later distinction between Israelites and foreigners.—Mamre the Amorite see on 13:18. In J (whose phraseology is here followed) אָרְם is the name of the sacred tree or grove; in P it is a synonym of Hebron; here it is the personal name of the owner of the grove. In like manner ’Esköl is a personal name derived from the valley of Eshcol (‘grape-cluster,’ Nu. 13:23f.); and ’Anër may have a similar origin. The first two, at all events, are ‘heroes eponymi of the most unequivocal character’ (Nö. Unters. 166)—a misconception of which no contemporary would have been capable.*—

noted also that Lot is elsewhere called simply the ‘brother’ of Abram (14:10).—The last clause is awkwardly placed; but considering the style of the chapter, we are not justified in treating it as an interpolation.

13. נִשְׂרָה] Ezk. 24:9 33:21 (cf. יְפִיקו, 2 Sa. 15:18). For the idiom, see G-K. § 126 r.—נִשְׂרָה] כְּרֹפֶּה נֵשְׂרָתָה (only here), Aq. תָּפֹר נֵשְׂרָתָה.—ןִשְׂרָתָה

* Di.’s remark (p. 235), that “it makes no difference whether Mamre or the (lord) of Mamre helped Abram,” is hard to understand. If
the confederates of Abram (אברם). The expression רָעִי does not recur; cf. נָעִית, Neh. 6:18. Kraetzschmar’s view (Bundesvorstg. 23 f.), that it denotes the relation of patrons to client, is inherently improbable. That these men joined Abram in his pursuit is not stated, but is presupposed in v. 24,—another example of the writer’s laxity in narration.

—14. As soon as Abram learns the fate of his brother (i.e. ‘relative’), he called up his trained men (? on בַּעַל and בָּעֶל, v.i.) and gave chase.—three hundred and eighteen] The number cannot be an arbitrary invention, and is not likely to be historical. It is commonly explained as a piece of Jewish 

Gematria, 318 being the numerical value of the letters of נְבָעֵל (152) (Ber. R. § 43: see Nestle, ET, xvii. 44 f. [cf. 139 f.]). A modern Gematria finds in it the number of the days of the moon’s visibility during the lunar year (Wi. GI, ii. 27).—to Dan] Now Tell el-Ḳāḍī, at the foot of Hermon.

םֹע, אֲבָרָם.—14. בַּעַל Lit. ‘emptied out,’ used of the unsheathing of a sword (Ex. 15:8, Lv. 26:28, Ezek. 5:12 etc.), but never with pers. obj. as here. Tu. cites the Ar. ġarradā, which means both ‘unsheathe a sword’ and ‘detach a company from an army’ (see Lane); but this is no real analogy. מ has בָּעֶל = ‘scrutinize’ (Aram.). אֲבָרָם הָלַעַשָּׁה (so בא) and חָרוּ (‘equip’: so ס and צ) settle nothing, as they may be conjectural. Wi. (AOF, i. 102) derives from Ass. ḏīku = ‘call up troops’; so Sellin, 937. Ball changes to הרֵעָם—רוּעָן] בְּרֶש. יְבֵן. בְּרֶש. וְנַוְיווֹבוֹס, וְנַוְיווֹבוֹס, וַּנַוְיווֹבוֹס, וַּנַוְיווֹבוֹס ‘young men.’ The יְבֵן suggests the meaning ‘initiated’ (see on 47), hence ‘trained,’ ‘experienced,’ etc. Sellin (937) compares the word יָנוֹעַקְו = ‘thy men,’ found in one of the Ta’anek tablets. If it comes direct from the ceremony of rubbing the palate of a new-born child (see p. 116), it may have nothing to do with war, but denote simply those belonging to the household, the precise equivalent of נַעַל. The latter phrase is found only in P (17:12f. 30:27, Lv. 22:11)

Mamre and Eshcol were really names of places, and the writer took them for names of individual men, the fact has the most important bearing on the question of the historicity of the record. The alternative theory, that the names were originally those of persons, and were afterwards transferred to the places owned or inhabited by them, will hardly bear examination. ‘Grape-cluster’ is a suitable name for a valley, but not for a man. And does any one suppose that J would have recorded Abram’s settlement at Hebron in the terms of 13:18, if he had been aware that Mamre was an individual living at the time? Yet the Yahwist’s historical knowledge is far less open to suspicion than that of the writer of ch. 14.
This name originated in the period of the Judges (Jos. 19^7, Ju. 18^29); and it is singular that such a prolepsis should occur in a document elsewhere so careful of the appearance of antiquity.—15. He divided himself] i.e. (as usually understood) into three bands,—the favourite tactical manœuvre in Hebrew warfare (Ju. 7^16, i Sa. 11^11 13^17, Jb. 1^17, i Mac. 5^33): but see the footnote.—smote them, and pursued them as far as Hobah] Hobah (cf. Jth. 15^5) has been identified by Wetzstein with Hoba, c. 20 hours' journey N of Damascus. Sellin (934) takes it to be the Ubi of the TA Tablets, the district in which Damascus was situated (KIB, v. 139, 63; 146, 12). The pursuit must in any case have been a long one, since Damascus itself is about 15 hours from Dan. It is idle to pretend that Abram's victory was merely a surprise attack on the rearguard, and the recovery of part of the booty. A pursuit carried so far implies the rout of the main body of the enemy.

17, 18-20. Abram and Melki^zedek.—"The scene between Abram and Melki^zedek is not without poetic charm: the two ideals (Grösse) which were afterwards to be so intimately united, the holy people and the holy city, are here brought together for the first time: here for the first time Israel receives the gift of its sanctuary" (Gu. 253)

17. The scene of the meeting is בְּנֵי יָפְתָּה interpreted as the king's vale. A place of this name is mentioned in 2 Sa. 18^18 as the site of Absalom's pillar, which, according to Josephus (Ant. vii. 243), was two stadia from Jerusalem. The situation harmonises with the common view that Šalem is Jerusalem (see below); and other information does not exist.—18. Melki^zedek, king of Šālēm, etc.] The primitive and Jer. 2^14.—15. בְּנֵי יָפְתָּה (cf. 1 Ki. 16^21). The sense given above is not altogether natural. Ball emends בְּנֵי. Wi. (GI, ii. 27^2) suggests a precarious Ass. etymology, pointing as Piel, and rendering 'and he fell upon them by night': so Sellin.—בְּנֵי יָפְתָּה Lit. 'on the left.' The sense 'north' is rare: Jos. 19^7 (P), Ezek. 16^48, Jb. 23^9.

17. בְּנֵי יָפְתָּה (without art.) must apparently be a different word from that in v.5. Hommel and Wi. emend בְּנֵי (bārē, the Ass. word for 'king').—18. בְּנֵי יָפְתָּה] usually explained as 'King of Righteousness' (Heb. 7^2), with י as old gen. ending retained by the annexion; but more probably = 'My king is Žīḏk,' Žīḏk being the name of a S
combination of the kingly and priestly offices has been abundantly illustrated by Frazer from many quarters.*

The existence of such priest-kings in Canaan in very early times is perfectly credible, though not historically attested (comp. the patesis of Babylonia). Šālēm is usually understood to be an archaic name for Jerusalem (Jos. Ant. i. 180; T[O], Jer. [Qu.], IEz. al.), as in Ps. 76, the only other place where it occurs. The chief argument in favour of this view is the typical significance attached to Melkiżedek in Ps. 110, which is hardly intelligible except on the supposition that he was in a sense the ideal ancestor of the dynasty or hierarchy of Jerusalem.

Whether the name was actually in use in ancient times, we do not know. The Tel Amarna Tablets have certainly proved that the name Uru-Salim is of much greater antiquity than might have been gathered from the biblical statements (Ju. 19; 1 Ch. 11); but the shortened form Salem is as yet unattested. It has been suggested that the cuneiform uru was misread as the determinative for ‘city’ (see Sellin, 941).—

The identifications with other places of the name which have been discovered—e.g. the Salim 8 R. m. from Scythopolis (where, according to Je. [Ep. ad Evagr.], the ruins of Melkiżedek’s palace were to be seen)—have no claim to acceptance.

On the name יִלּוֹ הַ^גָּ (God Most High), see below, p. 270 f. —bread and wine] comp. ‘food and drink’ (akali šikari) provided for an army, etc., in the TA Tablets: KIB, 50, 207, 209, 242 (Sellin, 938).—19, 20. The blessing of

Arabian and Phoenician deity (Baudissin, Stud. i. 15; Baethgen, Beitr. 128). That Zedek was an ancient name for Jerusalem (see Is. 121, Jer. 31, 50, Ps. 118) there is no reason to believe.—19. יִלּוֹ has two senses in the OT (if, indeed, there be not two distinct roots: see G-B.1 s.v.): (a) ‘create’ or ‘produce’ (Ps. 139, Pr. 8, Dt. 32 [? Gn. 4]); (b) ‘purchase’ or ‘acquire by purchase’ (frequent). The idea of bare possession apart from purchase is hardly represented (Is. 1); and since the suggestion of purchase is here inadmissible, the sense ‘create’ must be accepted. That this meaning can be established only by late examples is certainly no objection so far as the present passage is concerned: see on 4.—20. After יִלּוֹ, חֶלֶם ins.

* Studies in the Kingship, 29 ff. “The classical evidence points to the conclusion that in prehistoric ages, before the rise of the republican form of government, the various tribes or cities were ruled by kings, who discharged priestly duties and probably enjoyed a sacred character as descendants of deities” (p. 31).
Melkizedek is poetic in form and partly in language; but in meaning it is a liturgical formula rather than a 'blessing' in the proper sense. It lacks entirely the prophetic interpretation of concrete experiences which is the note of the antique blessing and curse, (cf. 3:14ff. 4:11f. 9:25ff. 27:27ff. 39:4.)—

*Creator of heaven and earth*] so וַיֹּשֵׁב. There is no reason to tone down the idea to that of mere possession (הָזֹרֶם, al.); v. infra.—By payment of the tithe, Abram acknowledges the legitimacy of Melkizedek's priesthood (Heb. 7:4), and the religious bond of a common monotheism uniting them; at the same time the action was probably regarded as a precedent for the payment of tithes to the Jerusalem sanctuary for all time coming (so already in Jub. xiii. 25-27: comp. Gn. 28:22).

The excision of the Melkizedek episode (see Wi. GI, ii. 29), which seems to break the connexion of v. 21 with v. 17, is a temptingly facile operation; but it is doubtful if it be justified. The designation of Yahwe as 'God Most High' in the mouth of Abram (v. 22) is unintelligible apart from 18ff. It may rather have been the writer's object to bring the three actors on one stage together in order to illustrate Abram's contrasted attitude to the sacred (Melkizedek) and the secular (king of Sodom) authority.—Hommel's ingenious and confident solution (AHT, 158 ff.), which gets rid of the king of Sodom altogether and resolves 17-24 wholly into an interview between Abram and Melkizedek, is an extremely arbitrary piece of criticism. Sellin's view (p. 939 f.), that vv. 18-20 are original and 17, 21-24 are 'Israelitische Wucherung,' is simpler and more plausible; but it has no more justification than any of the numerous other expedients which are necessary to save the essential historicity of the narrative.

The mystery which invests the figure of Melkizedek has given rise to a great deal of speculation both in ancient and modern times. The Jewish idea that he was the patriarch Shem (שֵּׁם, Talm. al.) is thought to be a reaction against mystical interpretations prevalent in the school of Alexandria (where Philo identified him with the Logos), which, through Heb. 11ff., exercised a certain influence on Christian theology (see Jerome, Ep. ad Evagrium; cf. JE, viii. 450). From a critical point of view the question of interest is whether M. belongs to the sphere of ancient tradition or is a fictitious personage, created to represent the claims of the post-Exilic priesthood in Jerusalem (Well. Comp. 312). In opposition to the latter view, Gu. rightly points out that Judaism is not likely to have invented as the prototype

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mn.—[32] only Hos. 11:8, Is. 66:6 (םֵּשֶׁג, etc.), Pr. 4:9. The etymology is uncertain, but the view that it is a denom. fr. מִשֶּׁב, 'shield' (מֵסֶב, BDB) is hardly correct (see Barth. ES, 4).
of the High Priesthood a Canaanitish priest-king, and that all possible pretensions of the Jerusalem hierarchy were covered by the figure of Aaron (253). It is more probable that M. is, if not a historical figure, at least a traditional figure of great antiquity, on whom the monarchy and hierarchy of Jerusalem based their dynastic and priestly rights.*

To the writer of Ps. 110, M. was "a type, consecrated by antiquity, to which the ideal king of Israel, ruling on the same spot, must conform" (Dri. 167); and even if that Ps. be not pre-Exilic (as Gu. supposes), but as late as the Maccabean period, it is difficult to conceive that the type could have originated without some traditional basis. — Some writers have sought a proof of the historical character of Melkizedek in a supposed parallel between the ἀπάτωρ, ἁμηρω, ἄγενεαλόγητος of Heb. 7 and a formula several times repeated in letters (Tel Amarna) of Abdjhiba of Jerusalem to Amenophis IV.: "Neither my father nor my mother set me in this place; the mighty arm of the king established me in my father's house." † Abdjhiba might have been a successor of Melkizedek; and it is just conceivable that Hommel is right in his conjecture that a religious formula, associated with the head of the Jerusalem sanctuary, receives from Abdjhiba a political turn, and is made use of to express his absolute dependence on the Egyptian king. But it must be observed that Abdjhiba's language is perfectly intelligible in its diplomatic sense; its agreement with the words of the NT is only partial, and may be accidental; and it is free from the air of mystery which excites interest in the latter. This, however, is not to deny the probability that the writer to the Hebrews drew his conception partly from other sources than the vv. in Gen.

†El 'Elyôn. — 'El, the oldest Semitic appellative for God, was frequently differentiated according to particular aspects of the divine nature, or particular local or other relations entered into by the deity: hence arose compound names like יְהֹוָה (17), יְהֹוָה (2133), יְהוָה יִתְנַהַנְיָה (3320), יְהוָה יִתְנַהַנְיָה (357), and יְהוָה יִתְנַהַנְיָה (here and Ps. 7833). ‡ יְהוָה יִתְנַהַנְיָה (= 'upper,' 'highest') is not uncommonly used of God in OT, either alone (Nu. 2416, Dt. 328, Ps. 1814 etc.) or in combinations with יִתְנַהַנְיָה or יִתְנַהַנְיָה (Ps. 718 (?), 473 573 etc.). That it was in actual use among the Canaanites is by no means incredible: the Phœnicians had a god 'Eliou kalômenos ἄγενιτος (Eus. Præp. Ev. i. 10, 11, 12); and there is nothing to forbid the supposition that the deity of the sanctuary of Jerusalem was worshipped under that name. On the other hand, there is nothing to prove it; and it is perhaps a more significant fact

* Gu. instances as a historical parallel the legal fiction by which the imperial prestige of the Caesars was transferred to Charlemagne and his successors.—Josephus had the same view when he spoke of M. as ἦλ Χαπαναλου τῆς καταστάσεις, and the first founder of Jerusalem (BJ, vi. 438).


‡ See Baethgen, Beitr. 291 f.—Comp., in classical religion, Zeus Meilichios, Xenoios, Jupiter Terminus, Latiaris, etc.
that the Maccabees were called ἀρχιερεῖς θεοῦ ὕψιστον (Jos. Ant. xvi. 163; Ass. Mosis, 61). This title, the frequent recurrence of θεός as a divine name in late Pss., the name Salem in one such Ps., and Melkizedek in (probably) another, make a group of coincidences which go to show that the Melkizedek legend was much in vogue about the time of the Maccabees.

17, 21-24. Abram and the king of Sodom.—The request of the king of Sodom presupposes as the usual custom of war that Abram was entitled to the whole of the booty. Abram’s lofty reply is the climax to which the whole narrative leads up.—22. I lift up my hand] the gesture accompanying an oath (Ex. 68, Nu. 1430, Dt. 3240, Ezek. 2028, Dn. 127 etc.).—to Yahwe, ‘El ‘Elyon] A recognition of religious affinity with Melkizedek, as a fellow-worshipper of the one true God. The הוהי, however, is probably an addition to the text, wanting in ג and ס, while מ has הוהי.—23. lest thou shouldst say, etc.] An earlier writer (cf. 1218) would perhaps not have understood this scruple: he would have attributed the enrichment of Abram to God, even if the medium was a heathen king.—24. The condescending allowance for the weakness of inferior natures is mentioned to enhance the impression of Abram’s generosity (Gu.).

The Historic Value of Ch. 14. — There are obvious reasons why this chapter should have come to be regarded in some quarters as a ‘shibboleth’ between two opposite schools of OT criticism (Homm. AHT, 165). The narrative is unique in this respect, that it sets the figure of Abraham in the framework of world-history. It is the case that certain features of this framework have been confirmed, or rendered credible, by recent Assyriological discoveries; and by those who look to archaeological research to correct the aberrations of literary criticism, this fact is represented as not only demonstrating the historicity of the narrative as a whole, but as proving that the criticism which resolved it into a late Jewish romance must be vitiated

22. יָשַׁרְתִּי] On the pf., G-K. § 106 i.—23. On the והב of negative asseveration, § 149 a, c. The second והב, which adds force to the negation, is not rendered by ג or ב. 24. יָשַׁרְתִּי] lit. ‘not unto me!’ (in Hex. only 4116.44 [E], Jos. 2219 [late]). גֵּשְׁנַה seem to have read יָשַׁרְתִּי as a compound prepositional phrase (= ‘except’).

* Siegfried, ThLx., 1895, 304. On the late prevalence of the title, see also DB, iii. 450, EB, i. 70 (in and near Byblus), and Schürer, SBB/4, 1897, p. 200 ff.
by some radical fault of method. How far that sweeping conclusion is justified we have now to consider. The question raised is one of extreme difficulty, and is perhaps not yet ripe for final settlement. The attempt must be made, however, to review once more the chief points of the evidence, and to ascertain as fairly as possible the results to which it leads.

The case for the historic trustworthiness of the story (or the antiquity of the source on which it is founded) rests on the following facts: (1) The occurrence of prehistoric names of places and peoples, some of which had become unintelligible to later readers, and required identification by explanatory glosses. Now the mere use of ancient and obsolete names is not in itself inconsistent with the fictitious character of the narrative. A writer who was projecting himself into a remote past would naturally introduce as many archaic names as he could find; and the substitution of such terms as Rephaim, Emim, Horim, etc., for the younger populations which occupied these regions, is no more than might be expected. Moreover, the force of the argument is weakened by the undoubted anachronism involved in the use of the name Dan (see on v.14). The presence of archaeological glosses, however, cannot be disposed of in this way. To suppose that a writer deliberately introduced obsolete or fictitious names and glossed them, merely for the purpose of casting an air of antiquity over his narrative, is certainly a somewhat extreme hypothesis. It is fair to admit the presumption that he had really before him some traditional (perhaps documentary) material, though of what nature that material was it is impossible to determine.—(2) The general verisimilitude of the background of the story. It is proved beyond question that an Elamite supremacy over the West and Palestine existed before the year 2000 B.C.; consequently an expedition such as is here described is (broadly speaking) within the bounds of historic probability. Further, the state of things in Palestine presupposed by the record—a number of petty kingships striving to maintain their independence, and entering into temporary alliances for that purpose—harmonises with all we know of the political condition of the country before the Israelitish occupation, though it might be difficult to show that the writer’s knowledge of the situation exceeds what would be acquired by the most cursory perusal of the story of the Conquest in the Book of Joshua.—(3) The consideration most relied upon by apologetic writers is the proof obtained from Assyriology that the names in v.1 are historical. The evidence on this question has been given on p. 257 ff., and need not be here recapitulated.

* It is to be observed that in no single case is the correctness of the gloss attested by independent evidence (see vv. 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 17). Those who maintain the existence of a cuneiform original have still to reckon with the theory of Wi., who holds that the basis of the narrative is a Babylonian legend, which was brought into connexion with the story of Abraham by arbitrary identification of names whose primary significance was perhaps mythological. See GI, ii. 28 ff. The question cannot be further discussed here.
We have seen that every one of the identifications is disputed by
more than one competent Assyriologist (see, further, Mey. GA\(^3\), i. ii.
p. 551 f.); and since only an expert is fully qualified to judge of the
probabilities of the case, it is perhaps premature to regard the confirma-
tion as assured. At the same time, it is quite clear that the names
are not invented; and it is highly probable that they are those of
contemporary kings who actually reigned over the countries assigned
to them in this chapter. Their exact relations to one another are still
undetermined, and in some respects difficult to imagine; but there is
nothing in the situation which we may not expect to be cleared up by
further discoveries. It would seem to follow that the author's informa-
tion is derived ultimately either from a Babylonian source, or from
records preserved amongst the Canaanites in Palestine. The presence
of an element of authentic history in v.\(^1\) being thus admitted, we have to
inquire how far this enters into the substance of the narrative.

Before answering that question, we must look at the arguments
advanced in favour of the late origin and fictitious character of the
chapter. These are of two kinds: (i) The inherent improbability or
incredibility of many of the incidents recorded. This line of criticism was
most fully elaborated by Nölderke in 1869 (Untersuchungen, 156-172):
the following points may be selected as illustrations of the difficulties
which the narrative presents. (a) The route said to have been
traversed is, if not absolutely impracticable for a regular army, at least
quite irreconcilable with the alleged object of the campaign,—the
chastisement of the Pentapolis. That the four kings should have
passed the Dead Sea valley, leaving their principal enemies in their
rear, and postponing a decisive engagement till the end of a circuitous
and exhausting march, is a proceeding which would be impossible in real
warfare, and could only have been imagined by a writer out of touch
with the actualities of the situation (see the Notes on p. 261). (b) It is
difficult to resist the impression that some of the personal names—
especially Bêra' and Birsha' (see on v.\(^2\)), and Mamre and Eschol (v.\(^3\))
—are artificial formations, which reveal either the animus of the writer,
or else (in the last two instances) a misapprehension of traditional data
into which only a very late and ill-informed writer could have been
betrayed. (c) The rout of Chedorlaomer's army by 318 untrained men
is generally admitted to be incredible. It is no sufficient explanation to
say that only a rearguard action may have taken place; the writer
does not mean that; and if his meaning misrepresents what actually
took place, his account is at any rate not historical (see p. 267). (d) It
appears to be assumed in v.\(^3\) that the Dead Sea was formed subsequently
to the events narrated. This idea seems to have been traditional in
Israel (cf. 13\(^10\)), but it is nevertheless quite erroneous. Geological
evidence proves that that amazing depression in the earth's surface had
existed for ages before the advent of man on the earth, and formed,
from the first, part of a great inland lake whose waters stood originally
several hundred feet higher than the present level of the Dead Sea. It
may, indeed, be urged that the vale of Siddim was not coextensive
with the Dead Sea basin, but only with its shallow southern 'Lagoon'
HISTORICITY OF

(S of el-Lisān), which by a partial subsidence of the ground might have been formed within historic times.* But even if that were the true explanation, the manner of the statement is not that which would be used by a writer conversant with the facts.—The improbabilities of the passage are not confined to the four points just mentioned, but are spread over the entire surface of the narrative; and while their force may be differently estimated by different minds, it is at least safe to say that they more than neutralise the impression of trustworthiness which the precise dates, numbers, and localities may at first produce.—(a) The second class of considerations is derived from the spirit and tendency which characterise the representation, and reveal the standpoint of the writer. It would be easy to show that many of the improbabilities observed spring from a desire to enhance the greatness of Abraham’s achievement; and indeed the whole tendency of the chapter is to set the figure of the patriarch in an ideal light, corresponding not to the realities of history, but to the imagination of some later age. Now the idealisation of the patriarchs is, of course, common to all stages of tradition; the question is to what period this ideal picture of Abraham may be most plausibly referred. The answer given by a number of critics is that it belongs to the later Judaism, and has its affinities “with P and the midrashic elements in Chronicles rather than with the older Israelite historians” (Moore, EB, ii. 677). Criticism of this kind is necessarily subjective and speculative. At first sight it might appear that the conception of Abraham as a warlike hero is the mark of a warlike age, and therefore older than the more idyllic types delineated in the patriarchal legends. That judgement, however, fails to take account of the specific character of the narrative before us. It is a grandiose and lifeless description of military operations which are quite beyond the writer’s range of conception; it contains no trace of the martial ardour of ancient times, and betrays considerable ignorance of the conditions of actual warfare; it is essentially the account of a Bedouin razzia magnified into a systematic campaign for the consolidation of empire. It has been fitly characterised as the product of a time which “admires military glory all the more because it can conduct no wars itself; and, having no warlike exploits to boast of in the present, revels in the mighty deeds of its ancestors. Such narratives tend in imagination towards the grotesque; the lack of the political experience which is to be acquired only in the life of the independent state produces a condition of mind which can no longer distinguish between the possible and the impossible. Thus the passage belongs to an age in which, in spite of a certain historical erudition, the historic sense of Judaism had sunk almost to zero” (Gu. 255).

It remains to consider the extent and origin of the historic element whose existence in the chapter we have been led to admit. Does it proceed from an ancient Canaanite record, which passed into the Hebrew tradition, to be gradually moulded into the form in which we now find

* Cf. Dri.’s elaborate Note, p. 168 ff.; also Robinson, BR, ii. 187 f.; Gautier, EB, 1043 f., 1046; Hull, DB, i. 576 ff.
it? Or did it come directly from an external source into the hands of a late author, who used it as the basis of a sort of historical romance? The former alternative is difficult to maintain if (as seems to be the case) the narrative stands outside the recognised literary sources of the Pentateuch.* The most acceptable form of this theory is perhaps that presented by Sellin in the article to which reference has frequently been made in the preceding pages (NKZ, xvi. 929–951). The expedition, he thinks, may have taken place at any time between 2250 and 1750 B.C.; and he allows a long period of oral transmission to have elapsed before the preparation of a cuneiform record about 1500. This document he supposes to have been deposited in the Temple archives of Jerusalem, and to have come into the possession of the Israelites through David's conquest of that city. He thus leaves room for a certain distortion of events in the primary document, and even for traces of mythological influence. The theory would gain immensely in plausibility if the alleged Canaanite parallels to the obscure expressions of vv. 14f. (נָע, יְנָה, פְּנִי) should prove to be relevant. At present, however, they are not known to be specifically Canaanite; and whatever be their value it does not appear that they tell more in favour of a Palestinian origin than of a cuneiform basis in general. The assumption that the document was deposited in the Temple is, of course, a pure hypothesis, on which nothing as to the antiquity or credibility of the narrative can be based.

On the other hand, the second alternative has definite support in a fact not sufficiently regarded by those who defend the authenticity of the chapter. It is significant that the cuneiform document in which three of the four royal names in v. 1 are supposed to have been discovered is as late as the 4th or 3rd cent. B.C. Assuming the correctness of the identifications, we have here a positive proof that the period with which our story deals was a theme of poetic and legendary treatment in the age to which criticism is disposed approximately to assign the composition of Gn. 14. It shows that a cuneiform document is not necessarily a contemporary document, and need not contain an accurate transcript of fact. If we suppose such a document to have come into the possession of a Jew of the post-Exilic age, it would furnish just such a basis of quasi-historical material as would account for the blending of fact and fiction which the literary criticism of the chapter suggests. In any case the extent of the historical material remains undetermined. The names in v. 1 are historical; some such expedition to the West as is here spoken of is possibly so; but everything else belongs to the region of conjecture. The particulars in which we are most interested—the figures of Abram and Lot and Melkizedek, the importance, the revolt, and even the existence, of the Cities of the Kikkär, and, in short, all the details of the story—are as yet unattested by any allusion in secular history.

In conclusion, it should be noticed that there is no real antagonism between archaeology and literary criticism in this matter. They deal

* P. 256 above.
with quite distinct aspects of the problem; and the fallacy lies in treating the chapter as a homogeneous and indivisible unity: it is like discussing whether the climate of Asia is hot or cold on conflicting evidence drawn from opposite extremes of the continent. Criticism claims to have shown that the narrative is full of improbabilities in detail which make it impossible to accept it as a reliable contemporary record of fact. All that the archaeologist can pretend to have proved is that the general setting of the story is consistent with the political situation in the East as disclosed by the monuments; and that it contains data which cannot possibly be the fabrications of an unhistorical age. So much as this critics are perfectly prepared to admit. Nò., who has stated the case against the authenticity of the chapter as strongly as any man, expressly declined to build an argument on the fact that nothing was then known of an Elamite dominion in the West, and allowed that the names of the four kings might be traditional (op. cit. 159 f.).* Assyriology has hardly done more as yet than make good the possibilities thus conceded in advance. It is absurd to suppose that a theory can be overthrown by facts for which due allowance was made before they took rank as actual discoveries.

CH. XV.—God’s Covenant with Abram (JE).

In a prolonged interview with Yahwe, Abram’s misgivings regarding the fulfilment of the divine promises are removed by solemn and explicit assurances, and by a symbolic act in which the Almighty binds Himself by the inviolable ceremonial of the berith.† In the present form of the chapter there is a clear division between the promise of a son and heir (1-8) and the promise of the land (7-21), the latter alone being strictly embraced in the scope of the covenant.

Analysis.—See, besides the comm., We. Comp. 23 f.; Bu. Urg. 416; Bacon, Hebraica, vii. 75 ff.; Kraetzschmar, op. cit. 58 ff.—The chapter shows unmistakable signs of composition, but the analysis is beset with peculiar, and perhaps insurmountable, difficulties. We may begin by

* The same admission was made by We. as long ago as 1889 (Comp. 310). In view of the persistent misrepresentations of critical opinion, it is not unnecessary to repeat once more that the historicity of the names in v. has not been denied by any leading critic (e.g. Ew. Nö. Di. We.), even before the discoveries of later years.—For an exposure of Sayce’s extraordinary travesty of Nöldeke’s arguments, the reader should consult Dri. Gen. 7, Addenda to p. 173.

† “Die Berith ist diejenige kultische Handlung, durch die in feierlicher Weise Verpflichtungen oder Abmachungen irgend welcher Art absolut bindend und unverbrüchlich gemacht wurden” (Kraetzschmar, Bundesvorstellung, 40 ff.).
examining the solution proposed by Gu. He assigns \( \text{trans} \) to J; but cf. 1bab. 3a, \( \text{trans} \) (2b3) 5, 11; 12ab. 13a, 14 (to \( \text{trans} \)) to E; and 7, 8, 12b. 14b. 13. 18b. 19-21 to a redactor. On this analysis the J fragments form a consecutive and nearly complete narrative, the break at v.7 being caused by R’s insertion of \( \text{trans} \). But (1) it is not so easy to get rid of \( \text{trans} \). V. 8 is, and 6 is not, a suitable point of contact for \( \text{trans} \); and the omission of \( \text{trans} \) would make the covenant a confirmation of the promise of an heir, whereas 16 expressly restricts it to the possession of the land. And (2) the parts assigned to J contain no marks of the Yahwistic style except the name \( \text{trans} \); they present features not elsewhere observed in that document, and are coloured by ideas characteristic of the Deuteronomic age. The following points may be here noted: (a) the \text{prophetic} character of the divine communication to Abram (\( \text{trans} \)); (b) the address \( \text{trans} \) \( \text{trans} \) (\( \text{trans} \)); (c) the theological reflexion on the nature of Abram’s righteousness (\( \text{trans} \); cf. Dt. 6\( \text{trans} \) 24\( \text{trans} \)); (d) the idea of the Abrahamic covenant (found only in redactional expansions of JE, and common in Dt.); to which may be added (e) the ideal boundaries of the land and the enumeration of its inhabitants (\( \text{trans} \)), both of which are Deuteronomic (see on the vv. below). The ceremonial of 9f. 17 is no proof of antiquity (cf. Jer. 34\( \text{trans} \)), and the symbolic representation of Yahwe’s presence in 17 is certainly not decisive against the late authorship of the piece (against Gu.). It is difficult to escape the impression that the whole of this J narrative (including \( \text{trans} \)) is the composition of an editor who used the name \( \text{trans} \), but whose affinities otherwise are with the school of Deuteronomy rather than with the early Yahwistic writers.

This result, however, still leaves unsolved problems. (1) It fails to account for the obvious doublets in 2, 3, 21 and 3a are generally recognised as the first traces in the Hex. of the document E, and 6 (a \text{night} scene in contrast to 12-17) is naturally assigned to the same source. (2) With regard to 12-16, which most critics consider to be a redactional expansion of J, I incline to the opinion of Gu., that 11, 13-16 form part of the sequel to the E narrative recognised in 3a, 2b, 5 (note \text{trans}, v.16). (3) The renewed introduction of Yahwe in v.7 forms a hiatus barely consistent with unity of authorship. The difficulty would be partly met by Bacon’s suggestion that the proper position of the J material in 1-6 is intermediate between 15\( \text{trans} \) and 16\( \text{trans} \). But though this ingenious theory removes one difficulty it creates others, and it leaves untouched what seems to me the chief element of the problem, the marks of lateness both in 1-6 and 7-21. —The phenomena might be most fully explained by the assumption of an Elohistic basis, recast by a Jehovistic or Deuteronomic editor (probably RJE), and afterwards combined with extracts from its own original; but so complex a hypothesis cannot be put forward with any confidence.

1-6. The promise of an heir (J), and a numerous posterity (E). — 1. The v. presupposes a situation of
found occasionally in the older writings (1 Sa. 1510, 2 Sa. 2411), but chiefly in later prophets and superscriptions: specially common in Jer. and Ezk.— the word is common in the elevated style of prophecy (esp. Ezk.), but rare in the Pss. In the historical books it occurs only as a vocative (exc. 1 Ki. 226): Jos. 77, Ju. 622 1628, —Dt. 324 926, 2 Sa. 718. 19. 20. 28. 29, 1 Ki. 838. Of these the first three are possibly J; the rest are Deuteronomic.—νηράν—νηράν Ετ has ὁ δὲ Ἰακὼβ τῆς οἰκογένειας μου, οὗτος Δαμασκὸς Ἑλείηρ,—a meaningless sentence in the connexion, unless supplemented by κληρονομησέ με, as in some MSS of Philo (before ὁδός). Εκ paraphrases: Τοῦτος ὁ θεὸς Ἰσραήλ. ἡ ἑραίη ἡ ἑραίη, which appears not to have been understood by any of the Vns. Εκ treats it as the name of Eliezer’s mother, Aq. (πορίζωρος) as = ἡ ἑραίη; ΘΕΟΣ give it the sense
So all Vns., taking נָלַג in the sense of 'die' (Ps. 39:14; cf. Ar. halaka), though the other sense ('walk' = 'live') would be quite admissible. To die childless and leave no name on earth (Nu. 27:4) is a fate so melancholy that even the assurance of present fellowship with God brings no hope or joy.—2b is absolutely unintelligible (v.i.). The Vns. agree in reading the names Eliezer and Damascus, and also (with the partial exception of Гр) in the general understanding that the clause is a statement as to Abram's heir. This is probably correct; but the text is so corrupt that even the proper names are doubtful, and there is only a presumption that the sense agrees with 3b.—3. In the absence of children or near relatives, the slave, as a member of the family, might inherit (Sta. GVI, i. 391; Benzinger, Arch. 113). נַעֲרֵי is a member of the household, but not necessarily a home-born slave (נָכֹר).—5. The promise of a numerous 'seed' (cf. 3a. 13) is E's parallel to the announcement of the birth of a bodily heir in J (v.4).—the stars] a favourite image of the later editors and Deuteronomy (22:17)
of 'steward,' which may be a mere conjecture like the συντρεπής of Σ. Modern comm. generally regard the word as a modification of πᾶς (Jb. 28:18?) with the sense of 'possession'—πατὴρ = 'son of possession' = 'possessor' or 'inheritor' (so Ges. Tu. KS. Str. al.); but this has neither philological justification nor traditional support. A √ψω (in spite of ψως, Zeph. 2:9) is extremely dubious. The last clause cannot be rendered either 'This is Eliezer of Damascus,' or 'This is Damascus, namely Eliezer' (De.). Σ and ΣΟ adopt the summary expedient of turning the subst. into an adj., and reading 'Eliezer the Damascene' (similarly 'O ἔβριος in Field). It is difficult to imagine what Damascus can have to do here at all; and if a satisfactory sense for the previous words could be obtained, it would be plausible enough (with Hitz. Tu. KS. al.) to strike out πᾶς [κόσμον] as a stupid gloss on πᾶς. Ball's emendation, ψῶς πατὴρ παράμισος ἐστιν παρὰ σπήλαιον, 'and he who will possess my house is a Damascene—Eliezer,' is plausible, but the sing. 73 with the name of a city is contrary to Heb. idiom. Bewer (JBL, 1908, pt. 2, 160ff.) has proposed the reading—ingenious but not convincing—ψῶς ὁ πατήρ ψῶς μονοήμερος. 2a and 3a are parallels (note the double 'αν οικεῖ') of which the former obviously belongs to J, the latter consequently to E. Since 3b is J rather than E (cf. 3b with v.4), it follows that 3a. 3b must be transposed if the latter be E's parallel to 3b.—3. וַיהוָה] in the sense of 'be heir to': cf. 21:10 (E), 2 Sa. 14, Jer. 49, Pr. 30:28—4. נָבָא (C חַנָּא) of the father, 2 Sa. 15, 16, Is. 43:19 ; of the mother, 25:32 (J), Is. 49, Ru. 1, Ps. 71:5—5. נָבָא] in J, 19:17 24:29 39:12, 15, 18 (Jos. 2:19?); but also Dt. 24:11 25:5 etc.—
264, Ex. 3218, Dt. 1022 2862).—6. counted it (his implicit trust in the character of Yahwe) as righteousness] 1 Mac. 252. הָרִיא is here neither inherent moral character, nor piety in the subjective sense, but a right relation to God conferred by a divine sentence of approval (see We. Pss., SBOT, 174).

This remarkable anticipation of the Pauline doctrine of justification by faith (Ro. 43, 8, 23, Gal. 3; cf. Ja. 225) must, of course, be understood in the light of OT conceptions. The idea of righteousness as dependent on a divine judgment (יְשֵׁי) could only have arisen on the basis of legalism, while at the same time it points beyond it. It stands later in theological development than Dt. 626 2418, and has its nearest analogies in Ps. 10631 248. The reflexion is suggested by the question how Abram, who had no law to fulfil, was nevertheless ‘righteous’; and, finding the ground of his acceptance in an inward attitude towards God, it marks a real approximation to the Apostle’s standpoint. Gu. (161) well remarks that an early writer would have given, instead of this abstract proposition, a concrete illustration in which Abram’s faith came to light.

7–21. The covenant.—7, 8. The promise of the land, Abram’s request for a pledge (ct. v.6), and the self-introduction of Yahwe (which would be natural only at the commencement of an interview), are marks of discontinuity difficult to reconcile with the assumption of the unity of the narrative. Most critics accordingly recommend the excision of the vv. as an interpolation.

So Di. KS. Kraetzschmar, Gu. al. Their genuineness is maintained by Bu. De. Bacon, Ho.; We. thinks they have been at least worked over. The language certainly is hardly Yahwistic. The יָשֵׁי (7) is not a sufficient ground for rejection (see Bu. 439); and although וּרְשֵׁה רָאִים in a J-context may be suspicious, we have no right to assume that it did not occur in a stratum of Yahwistic tradition (see p. 239 above). But הָרִיא—הָרִיא is a decidedly Deuteronomic phrase (see OH, i. 205): on יָשֵׁי הָרִיא, see on v.2. On the theory of a late recension of the whole passage these linguistic difficulties would vanish; but the impression of a change of scene remains,—an impression, however, which the interpolation theory does not altogether remove, since the transition from 6 to 8 is very abrupt. Bacon’s transposition of the two sections of J is also unsatisfactory.

6. יָשֵׁי (on the tense, see Dri. T. §§ 133; G–K. §§ 112 ss): add שִׁמ. The construction with כ is usual when the obj. of faith is God (Ex. 1431, Nu. 1411 2012, Dt. 122, 2 Ki. 1714, 2 Ch. 2020, Ps. 7829, Jon. 35): § only Dt. 928, Is. 4319.—יהוה second obj. acc. The change to יָשֵׁי (Ps. 10631) is unnecessary.
9, 10. The preparations for the covenant ceremony; on which see below, p. 283. Although not strictly sacrificial,* the operation conforms to later Levitical usage in so far as the animals are all such as were allowed in sacrifice, and the birds are not divided (Lv. 17).—of three years old] This is obviously the meaning of שֵׂעִיכָה here (cf. 1 Sa. 24 [כ]: elsewhere = ‘threefold,’ Ezek. 42, Ec. 12).  צו, which renders ‘three’ (calves, etc.), is curiously enough the only Vn. that misses the sense; and it is followed by Ber. R., Ra. al. On the number three in the OT, see Stade, ZATW, xxvi. 124 ff. [esp. 127 f.].—II. The descent of the unclean birds of prey (עֵצ), and Abram’s driving them away, is a sacrificial omen of the kind familiar to antiquity.† The interpretation seems to follow in 13–16 (Di. Gu.).—12. נִבְּנָיָהוּ (כּכְּסָרָיוֹס) is the condition most favourable for the reception of visions (see on 22).—a great horror] caused by the approach of the deity (omit נבְּנָי as a gloss). The text is mixed (see below), and the two representations belong, the one to J, and the other to E (Gu.). The scene is a vivid transcript of primitive religious experience. The bloody ceremony just described was no perfunctory piece of symbolism; it touched the mind at the level of consciousness; and that impression (heightened by the growing darkness) induced a susceptibility to psychical influences readily culminating in ecstasy or vision.—13–16. An oracle in which is unfolded the destiny of Abram’s descendants to the 4th generation. It is to be noted that the prediction relates to the fortunes of Abram’s ‘seed,’ the mention of the land (16) being in-

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* So in the covenant between Ašur-nirari and Mati’ilu (MVAG, iii. 228 ff.), the victim is expressly said not to be a sacrifice.
† Comp. Virg. Aen. iii. 225 ff.
direct and incidental. The passage may therefore be the continuation of the E-sections of 1-6, on the understanding that in E the covenant had to do with the promise of a seed, and not with the possession of the land.—13. a sojourner] (coll.): see on 1210.—400 years] agreeing approximately with the 430 years of Ex. 1240 (P).—15 is a parenthesis, if not an interpolation, reassuring Abram as to his own personal lot (see on 258).—16. the fourth generation] e.g. Levi, Kohath, Amram, Aaron (or Moses) (Ex. 616ff.). To the reckoning of a generation as 100 years (cf. v.15) doubtful classical parallels are cited by Knobel (Varro, Ling. lat. 6, 11; Ovid, Met. xii. 188, etc.).*—the guilt of the Amorites] (the inhabitants of Palestine) is frequently dwelt upon in later writings (Dt. 95, 1 Ki. 1424, Lv. 1824f. etc. etc.); but the parallels from JE cited by Knobel (Gn. 1820ff. 19ff. 2011) are of quite a different character.

Vv.12-16 are obviously out of place in J, because they presuppose 18 (the promise of the land). They are generally assigned to a redactor, although it is difficult to conceive a motive for their insertion. Di.'s suggestion, that they were written to supply the interpretation of the omen of v.11, goes a certain distance; but fails to explain why the interpretation ever came to be omitted. Since 11 is intimately connected with 18-16, and at the same time has no influence on the account of J, the natural conclusion is that both 11 and 18-16 are documentary, but that the document is not J but E (so Gu.). It will be necessary, however, to delete the phrases וַיֵּשָּׁ֣ב יַּעֲשָׂ֣ב יֵנָּֽעַ and וַיִּקְּרָ֣א לֹֽא הָֽעִֽים הָֽעִם in 14 and הָֽעִֽים הָֽעִֽים הָֽעִֽים הָֽעִֽים הָֽעִֽים H in 18 as characteristic of the style of P; perhaps also הָֽעִֽים הָֽעִֽים H in 18. The whole of 18 may be removed with advantage to the sense.—The text of 12 is not homogenous, so that as a whole it cannot be linked either with 11 or with 15ff. וַיֵּשָּׁ֣ב יַּעֲשָׂ֣ב יֵנָּֽעַ and וַיִּקְּרָ֣א לֹֽא H are doublets (note the repetition of וַיֵּשָּׁ֣ב יַּעֲשָׂ֣ב Y); and the poetic הָֽעִֽים H (only here in Pent.) is doubtless a gloss to הָֽעִֽים H. The opening clause וַיְּהִֽי הָֽעִֽים H is presumably J (in E it is already night in v.9). E's partiality for the visionary mode of revelation may be sufficient justification for assigning the המָרָֽה to him and the המָרָֽה to J; but the choice is immaterial.


* Cf. We. Prol.6 308 (Eng. tr. p. 308), who cites these vv. as positive proof that the generation was reckoned as 100 years (see p. 135 above), —a view which, of course, cannot be held unless vv.15-16 are a unity.
17. *a smoking oven and a blazing torch*] the two together making an emblem of the theophany, akin to the pillar of cloud and fire of the Exodus and Sinai narratives (cf. Ex. 3:19; 13:21 etc.). The oven is therefore not a symbol of Gehenna reserved for the nations (Ra.).—On the appearance of the *torii*, see the descriptions and illustrations in Riehm, *HWb.* 178; Benzing, Arch. 2:65.—*passed between these pieces*] cf. Jer. 34:18f. (the only other allusion).

On this rite see Kraetzschar, *op. cit.* 44ff. Although attested by only one other OT reference, its prevalence in antiquity is proved by many analogies in classical and other writers. Its original significance is hardly exhausted by the well-known passage in Livy (i. 24), where a fate similar to that of the victim is invoked on the violators of the covenant.* This leaves unexplained the most characteristic feature,—the passing between the pieces. Rob. Sm. surmises that the divided victim was eaten by the contracting parties, and that afterwards "the parties stood between the pieces, as a symbol that they were taken within the mystical life of the victim" (*RS* 2, 480ff.).

18. This ceremony constitutes a *Berith*, of which the one provision is the possession of 'the land.' A Berith necessarily implies two or more parties; but it may happen that from the nature of the case its stipulations are binding only on one. So here: Yahwe alone passes (symbolically) between the pieces, because He alone contracts obligation. —The *land* is described according to its ideal limits; it is generally thought, however, that the closing words, along with 19–21, were added by a Deuteronomistic editor, and that in the original J the promise was restricted to Canaan proper.

The דיבר יתן (not, as elsewhere 'ד יתן=Wādi el-Arish) must be the Nile (cf. Jos. 13:3, 1 Ch. 13:3). On an old belief that the W. el-Arish was an arm of the Nile, see Tuch.—'ה נחל יתן'] cf. Dt. 11:24, Jos. 14. The boundary was never actually reached in the history of Israel (the notice

17. נחא—וית'] *with* sense of plup. (G–K. § 111g).—שָׂלֶש] only here and Ezk. 12:7, 18. כַּלְכֶל is certainly wrong (הָנֹכוּ ? שָׂלֶש ?).—שָׂלֶש read the ptcp., hence Ball emends שָׂלֶש. —וית'] the noun recurs only Ps. 136:18; but cf. the analogous use of the vb. 1 Ki. 3:26, 26.

* "... tum illo die, Juppiter, populum Romanum sic ferito, ut ego hunc porcum hic hodie feriam, tantoque magis ferito quanto magis potes pollesque." Cf. *II.* iii. 298ff. Precisely the same idea is expressed with great circumstantiality in an Assyrian covenant between Ašur-nîrâri and the Syrian prince Matî'îlu: see Peiser, *MVAG*, iii. 228ff.
in 1 Ki. 5th is late and unhistorical).—19-21. Such lists of pre-Israelite inhabitants are characteristic of Dt. and Dtnic. expansions of JE. They usually contain 5 or 6 or at most 7 names: here there are 10 (see Bu. 344 ff., and Dri.'s analysis, Deut. 97). The first three names appear in none of the other lists; and the same is true of the Rêphâîm in 20. The Kenites (see p. 113) and Kenizzites (3611) are tribes of the Negeb, both partly incorporated in Judah: the Kadmonites (only here) are possibly identical with the כדמונים (29), the inhabitants of the eastern desert.—The Hivvites, who regularly appear, are supplied here by μ (after Girgashites) and Ġ (after Canaanites).—On the Hittites, see p. 215; and, further, on ch. 23 below.

The idea of a covenant (or oath) of Yahwe to the patriarchs does not appear in the literature till the time of Jer. (115) and Deut. (431-432 818, 2 Ki. 1323 etc.): see Kraetzschmar, 61 ff. Of 31 passages in JE where Kr. finds the conception (the list might be reduced), all but three (15.18 127 247) are assigned to the Deuteronomic (Jehovistic) redaction (see Staerk, Studien, i. 37 ff.); and of these three 127 is a mere promise without an oath, while in 247 the words יִיַּעַנְי נֵבֶן have all the appearance of a gloss. It is, of course, quite possible that 15764 may be very ancient, and have formed the nucleus of the theological development of the covenant-idea in the age of Deut. But it is certainly not unreasonable to suppose that it emanates from the period when Israel's tenure of Canaan began to be precarious, and the popular religion sought to reassure itself by the inviolability of Yahwe's oath to the fathers. And that is hardly earlier than the 7th cent. (Staerk, 47).

CH. XVI.—The Flight of Hagar and Birth of Ishmael (J and P).

Sarai, having no hope of herself becoming a mother, persuades Abram to take her Egyptian maid Hagar as a concubine. Hagar, when she finds herself pregnant, becomes insolent towards her mistress, from whose harsh treatment she ultimately flees to the desert. There the Angel of Yahwe meets her, and comforts her with a disclosure of the destiny of the son she is to bear, at the same time commanding her to go back and submit to her mistress. In due course Ishmael is born.

In the carefully constructed biographical plan of the editors the episode finds an appropriate place between the promise of a bodily heir in 15 and the promise of a son through Sarai in 18 (J) or 17 (P). The narrative itself contains no hint of a trial of Abram's faith, or an attempt on his part to forestall the fulfilment of the promise. Its real interest lies in another direction: partly in the explanation of the sacredness of a certain famous well, and partly in the characterisation of the
Ishmaelite nomads and the explication of their relation to Israel. The point of the story is obscured by a redactional excrescence (9), obviously inserted in view of the expulsion of Hagar at a later stage. In reality ch. 16 (J) and 228-21 (E) are variants of one tradition; in the Yahwistic version Hagar never returned, but remained in the desert and bore her son by the well Lahai Roi (We. Comp. 2 22).—The chapter belongs to the oldest stratum of the Abrahamic legends (J9), and is plausibly assigned by Gu. to the same source as 1210-20. From the main narrative of J (J1) it is marked off by its somewhat unfavourable portraiture of Abram, and by the topography which suggests that Abram’s home was in the Negeb rather than in Hebron. The primitive character of the legend is best seen from a close comparison with the Elohistic parallel (see p. 324).

Analysis.—Vv. 14. 2. 15. 16 belong to P: note the chronological data in 3. 18; the naming of the child by the father 15 (et. 11); ḫw[b p], 3; and the stiff and formal precision of the style.—The rest is J: cf. מרג, 2. 5. 7. 10. 11. 13; סנפ, 1. 2. 5. 6. 8 (also 3 [P]); ל, מָּשָּׂא, 2.—The redactional addition in 60 (o.s.) betrays its origin by the threefold repetition of לֹא נָחַל נָחַל נָחַל ה, a fault of style which is in striking contrast to the exquisite artistic form of the original narrative, though otherwise the language shows no decided departure from Yahwistic usage (Di., but see on v. 10).

1-6. The flight of Hagar.—1. Hagar is not an ordinary household slave, but the peculiar property of Sarai, and therefore not at the free disposal of her master (cf. 219 2924. 29: see Benzinger, Arch. 2 104 f., 126 f.).—an Egyptian] so v. 3 (P), 219 (E); cf. 2121. This consistent tradition points to an admixture of Egyptian blood among the Ishmaelites, the reputed descendants of Hagar.†—2. peradventure I may

The instance is one of the most favourable in Gen. to Winckler’s theory that under סנפ we are frequently to understand the N Arabian land of Muṣri (Gu.; cf. Che. EB, 3164; KAT3, 146 f.). Yet even here the case is far from clear. An Egyptian strain among the Bedouin of Sinai would be easily accounted for by the early Egyptian occupation of the Peninsula; and Burton was struck by the Egyptian physiognomy of some of the Arabs of that region at the present day. (Dri. DB, ii. 504*).
be built up—or obtain children (v.i.)—from her] by adopting Hagar's son as her own; cf. 30\textsuperscript{3}.—3 is P's parallel to 2b. 4a. —4. and went in, etc. (see on 6\textsuperscript{i}) the immediate continuation of 2b in J.—was despised] a natural feeling, enhanced in antiquity by the universal conviction that the mysteries of conception and birth are peculiarly a sphere of divine action.—5. My wrong be upon thee] i.e. 'May my grievance be avenged on thee!'—her injured self-respect finding vent in a passionate and most unjust imprecation.—6. Thy maid is in thy hand] Is this a statement of fact, or does it mean that Abram now hands Hagar back to her mistress's authority? The latter is Gu.'s view, who thinks that as a concubine Hagar was no longer under the complete control of Sarai.—treated her harshly] The word (נָרָה) suggests excessive severity; Hagar's flight is justified by the indignities to which she was subjected (v.11).

7-14. The theophany at the well.—7. the Angel of Yahwe] (see below) is here introduced for the first time as the medium of the theophany. The scene is a fountain of water (as yet nameless: v.14) in the desert . . . on the way to Shûr. Shûr is an unknown locality on the NE frontier of Egypt (see Dri. DB, iv. 51\textsuperscript{o}), which gave its name to the adjacent desert: 20\textsuperscript{1} 25\textsuperscript{18}, Ex. 15\textsuperscript{22}, i Sa. 15\textsuperscript{7} 27\textsuperscript{8} (v.i.).

The נָשָׁה (or נָשׁוֹת) is "Yahwe Himself in self-manifestation," or, in other words, a personification of the theophany. This somewhat subtle definition is founded on the fact that in very many instances the Angel is at once identified with God and differentiated from Him; cp. e.g. vv.10,13 with 11. The ultimate explanation of the ambiguity is no doubt to be sought in the advance of religious thought to a more

whether the purpose of presenting a newly-married woman with a נָשָׁה may not have been to provide for the event of the marriage proving childless. In usage it is largely coextensive with נָשָׁה, and is characteristic of J against E, though not against P.—וֵן] The motive of Hagar's 'flight' may have been suggested by a supposed connexion with Ar. הָגָּרָה, 'flee.' For another etymology, see No. EB, 1933\textsuperscript{2}.—2. נָשָׁה] (so only 30\textsuperscript{3}) may be either a denom. from נָשָׁה (so apparently גָּרֶשׁ), or a metaphor from the family as a house (Ex. 12\textsuperscript{1}, i Sa. 28\textsuperscript{5}, Ru. 4\textsuperscript{11} etc.).—5. נָשָׁה] gen. of obj., G-K, § 128 b (cf. Ob. 10). נָשָׁה אֶל כָּלֹהַיָּהָה נָשָׁה. The point over 'indicates a clerical error: rd. (with אָז) נָשֶׁה.

7b seems a duplicate of 14b, and one or other may be a gloss. The words נָשֶׁה—נָשֶׁה הָיָה are omitted by ל entirely, and partly in several
spiritual apprehension of the divine nature. The oldest conception of the theophany is a visible personal appearance of the deity (ch. 2 f., Ex. 24, Nu. 12 etc.). A later, though still early, age took exception to this bold anthropomorphism, and reconciled the original narratives with the belief in the invisibility of God by substituting an 'angel' or 'messenger' of Yahwe as the agent of the theophany, without, however, effacing all traces of the primitive representation (Gu. 164 f.). That the idea underwent a remarkable development within the OT religion must, of course, be recognised (see esp. Ex. 23); but the subject cannot be further investigated here. See Oehler, ATTh. 203–211; Schultz, OTTh. ii. 218–223 [Eng. tr.]; Davidson, DB, i. 94; De. Gen. 282 ff.

8. The Angel's question reveals a mysterious knowledge of Hagar's circumstances, who on her part is as yet ignorant of the nature of her visitant (cf. 18f.).—9, 10 are interpolated (v.i.).—II, 12. The prophecy regarding Ishmael (not alone: Gu.) is in metrical form: two triplets with lines of 4 or 3 measures.—Behold, etc.] The form of announcement seems consecrated by usage; cf. Ju. 13, 7, Is. 14.—Yishma'el properly, 'May God hear,' is rendered 'God hears,' in token of Yahwe's regard for the mother's distress (טש or; cf. טש, 6).

—I2, a wild ass of a man] or perhaps the wild ass of humanity (אטי, IEz. De. al.)—Ishmael being among the families of mankind what the wild ass is amongst animals (Jb. 39, Jer. 24). It is a fine image of the free intractable Bedouin character which is to be manifested in Ishmael's descendants.—dwell in the face of all his brethren (cf. 25] hardly 'to the east of,' which is too weak a sense. יִשְׁמָעֵל seems to express the idea of defiance (as Jb. 11), though it is not easy to connect this with the vb. Possibly the
cursive: § omits יִשְׁמָעֵל.—ונֵּס] ('wall?') has been supposed (doubtfully) to be a line of fortifications guarding the NE frontier of Egypt. The וַיַּגָּד of טו] (if an Arabism) may express וַס in the sense of 'wall': § has יִשְׁמָעֵל (יִשְׁמָעֵל, 20).—9, 10 are a double interpolation. The command to return to Sarai was a necessary consequence of the amalgamation of J and E (22f.); and 10 was added to soften the return to slavery (Gu.). 10 is impossible before 11, and is besides made up of phrases characteristic of redactional additions to JE (cf. 22, 32).—הָנַד נָד Inf. abs.; G–K. § 75–5.—11. יִשְׁמָעֵל for יִשְׁמָעוּת so Ju. 13 (G–K. § 80 a).—12. יָדָה וּלָשָׁן see G–K. § 128 k, l. § has לַעֲבֻדָּה, and טו] אָבְרֶה הָוָה בָּרָבָּב and.
meaning is that Ishmael will be an inconvenient neighbour (יְשֶׁר) to his settled brethren.—13, 14. From this experience of Hagar the local deity and the well derive their names. 13. Thou art a God of vision] i.e. (if the following text can be trusted) both in an objective and a subjective sense,— a God who may be seen as well as one who sees.—Have I even here (?) v. i.) seen after him who sees me?] This is the only sense that can be extracted from the MT, which, however, is strongly suspected of being corrupt.—14. בֵּית לְחַי רְוֵי apparently means either ‘Well of the Living One who sees me,’ or ‘Well of “He that sees me lives”’. The name occurs again 24\(^2\) 25\(^1\).—between Kadesh and Bered] On Kadesh, see on 14\(^7\). Bered is unknown. In Arab tradition the well of Hagar is plausibly enough identified with ‘Ain-Muweileh, a caravan station about 12 miles to the W of Kadesh (Palmer, Des. of Exod. ii. 354 ff.). The well must have been a chief sanctuary of the Ishmaelites; hence the later Jews, to whom Ishmael was a name for all Arabs, identified it with the sacred well Zemzem at Mecca.—15, 16. The birth of Ishmael, recorded by P.

The general scope of 18\(^6\) is clear, though the details are very obscure. By a process of syncretism the original numen of the well had come to be regarded as a particular local manifestation of Yahwe; and the attempt is made to interpret the old names from the standpoint of the higher religion. יְשֶׁר and יְשֵׁר are traditional names of which the real meaning had been entirely forgotten, and the etymologies here given are as fanciful as in all similar cases. (1) In יְשֵׁר the Mass. punctuation recognises the roots ס, ‘live,’ and ס, ‘see,’ taking ס as circumscribed gen.; but that can hardly be correct. We. (Prol. 323 f.), following Mich. and Ges. (Th. 175), conjectures that in the first element

13. יָשָׁר לָתֵךְ] כּ הֲלֹא הָעֵדָה מַעְתָּה יָשִּׁיר (ptcp. with suff.).—For יָשָׁר, Ba. would substitute יָשָׁר, deleting הָעֵדָה.—The יָשָׁר of 12\(^b\), 14\(^a\) is not the pausal form of the preceding יָשָׁר (which would be יָשָׁר: 1 Sa. 16\(^12\), Nah. 3\(^6\), Jb. 33\(^21\)), but Qal ptcp. with suff. The authority of the accentuation may, of course, be questioned.—14. יָשָׁר] סָבָה סָבָה (see on v.7). יָשָׁר has שָׁדָה (Elusa), probably el-Halaqa, about 12 miles SW of Beersheba. It has been supposed that יָשָׁר may be identical with a place בַּרְדָּה in the Gerar district, mentioned by Eus. (OS, 145\(^d\) [Lag. 299\(^7b\)]), who explains the name as פְּלָרָה קְפָרֵא (= יָשֶׁר חָפֵץ): see v. Gall, CSF. 43.
we have the word יָפֵן, ‘jaw-bone’ (Ju. 15:17), and in the second an obsolete animal name: hence ‘Well of the antelope’s (?) jaw-bone.’ V. Gall (CSl. 40 ff.) goes a step further and distinguishes two wells, יָפֵן (יבן) יָפֵן, and יָפֵן יָפֵן, the former peculiar to J and the latter to E (cf. G of 24:24 25:11).—(2) יָפֵן יָפֵן, whatever its primary significance, is of a type common in the patriarchal narratives (see p. 291). Of the suggested restorations of יָפֵן, by far the most attractive is that of We. (Lc.), who changes יָפֵן יָפֵן, reads יָפֵן יָפֵן, inserts יָפֵן יָפֵן between יָפֵן יָפֵן, and renders, ‘Have I actually seen God and lived after my vision?’—an allusion to the prevalent belief that the sight of God is followed by death (Ex. 33:20, Ju. 6:29 13:20 etc.). The emendation has at least the advantage of giving a meaning to both elements in the name of the well. Gu.’s objection that the emphatic ‘here’ is indispensable, is of doubtful validity, for unfortunately יָפֵן does not mean ‘here’ but ‘hither.’

Ch. XVII.—The Covenant of Circumcision (P).

To Abram, who is henceforth to be called Abraham (5), God reveals Himself under a new name (1), entering into a covenant with him (2-8), of which the sign is the rite of circumcision (9-14). The heir of this covenant is to be a son born to Sarai (whose name is changed to Sarah) in the following year (15-22). Abraham immediately circumcises all the males of his household (23-27).—To the writer of the Priestly Code the incident is important (1) as an explanation of the origin of circumcision, which in his day had become a fundamental institution of Judaism; and (2) as marking a new stage in the revelation of the true God to the world. The Abrahamic covenant inaugurates the third of the four epochs (commencing respectively with Adam, Noah, Abraham and Moses) into which the Priestly theory divides the history of mankind. On the ethnic parallels to this scheme, Gu.’s note (p. 233 ff.) may be consulted.

Source.—The marks of P’s authorship appear in every line of the chapter. Besides the general qualities of style, which need not again be particularised, we may note the following expressions: יָפֵן יָפֵן (throughout, except v.1, where יָפֵן is either a redactional change or a scribal error); יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 1; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 2-7. 10. 21; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 6. 20; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 2, 6, 20; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 7. 8. 9. 10. 19; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 7. 9. 12; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 10. 12. 22; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 12, 15. 23. 27; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 12. 27; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 14; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 20; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 20; יָפֵן יָפֵן יָפֵן, 28-29; see Di. Ho. Gu. References to the passage in other parts of P are 21, 24, 28, 35, 12, Ex. 23:4 26: (Lv. 12:2).
The close parallelism with ch. 15 makes it probable that that chapter, in its present composite form, is the literary basis of P's account of the covenant. Common to the two narratives are (a) the self-introduction of the Deity (17^1 || 15^2); (b) the covenant (17 pass. || 15^3); (c) the promise of a numerous seed (17^4 pass. || 15^6); (d) of the land (17^8 || 15^13); (e) of a son (17^19.31 || 15^3); (f) Abraham's incredulity (17^17 || 15^8.3). The features peculiar to P, such as the sign of circumcision, the etymology of Psv: in v.12, the changes of names, etc., are obviously not of a kind to suggest the existence of a separate tradition independent of J and E.

1–8. The Covenant-promises. — These are three in number: (a) Abraham will be the father of a numerous posterity (2b. 4–6); (b) God will be a God to him and to his seed (7b. 8b); (c) his seed shall inherit the land of Canaan (8a). We recognise here a trace of the ancient religious conception according to which god, land, and people formed an indissoluble triad, the land being an indispensable pledge of fellowship between the god and his worshippers (see RS3, 92 f.). — I. appeared to Abram] i.e., in a theophany, as is clear from v.22. It is the only direct communication of God to Abram recorded in P. P is indeed very sparing in his use of the theophany, though Ex. 6:8 seems to imply that his narrative contained one to each of the three patriarchs. If that be so, the revelation to Isaac has been lost, while that to Jacob is twice referred to (35:483). — I am 'El Shaddai] The origin, etymology, and significance of this

1. נָשְׁנָה [For a summary of the views held regarding this divine name, the reader may be referred to Baethgen, Beitr. 293 ff., or Kautzsch in EB, iii. 3326 f. (cf. Che. ib. iv. 4419 f.); on the renderings of the ancient Vns., see the synopses of Di. (259), Dri. (404 f.), and Valeton (ZATW, xii. 11). — It is unfortunately impossible to ascertain whether נָשְׁנָה was originally an independent noun, or an attribute of נָשָׁה: Nöldke and Baethgen decide for the latter view. The traditional Jewish etymology resolves the word into נָשָׁה and נָשָׂא — 'the all-sufficient' or 'self-sufficient' (Ber. R. § 46: cf. Ra. נָשָׁה אֲפֵן אָבִי לְבָדָא וְרָאוּף)⁴. Though this theory can be traced as far back as the rendering of Aq. ס and Θ. (kavōs), it is an utterly groundless conjecture that P used the name in this sense (Valeton). On the other hand, it seems rash to conclude (with Nö. al.) that the Mass. punctuation has no better authority than this untenable interpretation, so that we are at liberty to vocalise as we please in accordance with any plausible etymological theory. The old derivation from נָשְׂנָה = 'destroy,' is still the best: it is grammatically unobjectionable, has at
title are alike obscure: see the footnote. In P it is the
signature of the patriarchal age (Ex. 63); or rather it
designates the true God as the patron of the Abrahamic
covenant, whose terms are explicitly referred to in every
passage where the name occurs in P (288 3511 483). That it
marks an advance in the revelation of the divine character
can hardly be shown, though the words immediately follow-
ing may suggest that the moral condition on which the
covenant is granted is not mere obedience to a positive
precept, but a life ruled by the ever-present sense of God's
as the ideal of ethical perfection.—Walk before me (cf. 2440
4815) i.e., 'Live consciously in My presence,' 1 Sa. 122;
Is. 383; cf. 1 Jn. 17.—perfect] or 'blameless'; see on 69.—
2. On the idea and scope of the covenant (סְדָם), see p.
297 f. below.—4. father of a multitude (lit. tumult) of nations]
In substance the promise is repeated in 288 484 (םֵיתֶל בֵּן
) and 3511 (םֵיתֶל 'ב); the peculiar expression here anticipates
the etymology of v. 5. While J (122 1818 463) restricts
the promise to Israel (םֵיתֶל 'י), P speaks of 'nations' in the
plural, including the Ishmaelites and Edomites amongst the

least some support in Is. 158, Jl. 185, and is free from difficulty if we
accept it as an ancient title appropriated by P without regard to its
real significance. The assumption of a by-form מֵית (Ew. Tu. al.) is
gratuitous, and would yield a form מֵית, not מֵית. Other proposed
etymologies are: from מֵית originally = 'lord' (Ar. sayyid), afterwards
= 'demon' (pointing מֵית or מֵית [pl. maj.]: No. ZDMG, xl. 735 f., xlii.
480 f.); from √ מֵית (Ar. ַּדָא) = 'be wet' ('the raingiver': OTJC3,
424); from Syr. מַט, 'hurl' (Schwally, ZDMG, lii. 136: "a dialectic
equivalent of מָט in the sense of lightning-thrower' [מַט]). Voller's
(ZA, xvii. 310) argues for an original מֵית (√ מֵית), afterwards, through
popular etymology and change of religious meaning, fathered on √ מֵית.
Several Assyriologists connect the word with ַדָא ְבָא, 'great
mountain,' a title of Bēl and other Bab. deities (Homm. AHT, 199 f.;
Zimmern, KAT8, 358): a view which would be more plausible if, as Frd.
Del. (Prol. 95 f.) has maintained, the Ass. √ meant 'lofty'; but this is
denied by other authorities (Halevy, ZKF, ii. 405 ff.; Jen. ZA, i. 251).
As to the origin of the name, there is a probability that מֵית בֵּן
was an old (cf. Gn. 4928) Canaanite deity, of the same class as 'El 'Elyôn (see on
148), whom the Israelites identified with Yahwe (so Gu. 235).—4. מֵית is
casus pendens (Dri. T. § 197 (4)), not emphatic anticipation of following
suff. (as G-K. § 135 f.).
descendants of Abraham. See, however, on z83.—5. Abram’s name is changed to Abraham, interpreted as ‘Father of multitude.’ Cf. Neh. 97.

The equation מְרָאָה = [םֵג] מְרָאָה is so forced that Di. al. doubt if a serious etymology was intended. The line between word-play and etymology is difficult to draw; and all that can safely be said is that the strained interpretation here given proves that מָרָאָה is no artificial formation, but a genuine element of tradition. (1) The form מָרָאָה is an abbreviation of מָרָאָה (Nu. 161 etc.: cf. מָרָאָה, 1 Sa. 1451 etc., with מְרָאָה, 1 Sa. 1450; מְרָאָה, 2 Ch. 1120, 21, with מְרָאָה, 1 Ki. 15510), which occurs as a personal name not only in Heb. but also as that of an Ass. official (Abî-râmû) under Esarhaddon, B.C. 677 (see KAT, 482). (2) Of מָרָאָה, on the other hand, no scientific etymology can be given. The nearest approach to P’s explanation would be found in the Ar. ruham = ‘copious number’ (from a descriptive of a fine drizzling rain: Lane, s.v.).† De. thinks this the best explanation; but the etymology is far-fetched, and apart from the probably accidental correspondence with P’s interpretation the sense has no claim to be correct.—With regard to the relation of the two forms, various theories are propounded. Hommel (AHT, 275 ff.; MVAG, ii. 271) regards the difference as merely orthographic, the נ being inserted, after the analogy of Minæan, to mark the long a (מראא), while a later misunderstanding is responsible for the pronunciation מְרָאָה. Strack and Stade (ZATW, i. 349) suppose a dialectic distinction: according to the latter, מָרָאָה is the original (Edomite) form, of which מָרָאָה is the Hebrew equivalent.‡ Wi. (GI, ii. 26) finds in them two distinct epithets of the moon-god Sin, one describing him as father of the gods (Sin abu ilâni), and the other (‘father of the strife of peoples’) as god of war (Sin karib ilâni). The possibility must also be considered that the difference is due to the fusion in tradition of two originally distinct figures (see Paton, Syr. and

5. מָרָאָה] G-K. § 121a, b; but כנ is omitted in some MSS and in ms.

* Hommel’s reading of Abî-râmû on a contract tablet of Abîl-Sin, the grandfather of Hammurabi (see AHT, 96), has proved to be incorrect, the true reading being Abî-Erâh (see Ranke, Personennamen in d. Urk. der Ham.-dynastie, 1902, p. 48). The name has, however, recently been discovered in several documents of the time of Ammi-zaduga, the 10th king of the same dynasty. See BA, vi. (1909), Heft 5, p. 60, where Ungnad shows that the name is not West Semitic, but Babylonian, that the pronunciation was Abaram, and that the first element is an accusative. He suggests that it may mean “he loves the father” (râma=ʾûm), the unnamed subject being probably a god. Comp. ET, xxi. (1909), 88 ff.

† The Ar. kunyā, ‘Abî-ruhm is only an accidental coincidence: Nö. ZDMG, xlii. 4844.

‡ Similarly v. Gall (CS, 53), who compares Ar. bht, appearing in Heb. as מָרָאָה.
Pal. 41). It is quite a plausible supposition, though the thoroughness of the redaction has effaced the proof of it, that רָבַיָּנָא was peculiar to J and בֵּית הָרַבִּים to E.—Outside of Gen. (with the exception of the citations I Ch. 15, Neh. 9) the form Abraham alone is found in OT.

6. The promise of kings among Abraham’s descendants is again peculiar to P (3511). The reference is to the Hebrew monarchy: the rulers of Ishmael are only ‘princes’ (עַצִּי, v. 20), and those of Edom (3640) are styled רִבָּנָא.—7. to be to thee a God] The essence of the covenant relation is expressed by this frequently recurring formula.* It is important for P’s notion of the covenant that the correlative ‘they (ye) shall be to me a people,’ which is always added in other writings (ex. Ezk. 3424), is usually omitted by P (ex. Ex. 67, Lv. 2612). The בֵּית הָרַבִּים is conceived as a self-determination of God to be to one particular race all that the word God implies, a reciprocal act of choice on man’s part being no essential feature of the relation.—8. land of thy sojourning] 284 367 371 479, Ex. 64 (all P).

9-14. The sign of the Covenant.—To the promises of vv. 2-8 there is attached a single command, with regard to which it is difficult to say whether it belongs to the content of the covenant (v. 10), or is merely an adjunct,—an external mark of the invisible bond which united every Jew to Yahwe (11): see p. 297. The theme at all events is the institution of circumcision. The legal style of the section is so pronounced that it reads like a stray leaf from the book of Leviticus (note the address in 2nd p. pl. from 10 onwards).

—9. And God said] marks a new section (cf. 15), הָיָה being the antithesis to הָיוּ in 4.—keep my covenant] רֹבֶץ is opposed to רֶפֶל, ‘break,’ in 14; hence it cannot mean ‘watch over’ (Valeton), but must be used in the extremely common sense of ‘observe’ or ‘act according to.’ The question would

6. רֹבֶץ] נַעֲמָה = רֹבֶץ; see on 154.—8. רֹבֶץ] a common word in P; elsewhere only Ps. 28, Ezk. 4428, 1 Ch. 728.

* The list of passages as given by Dri. (p. 186) is as follows: In P, Ex. 67 2949, Lv. 1148; in P lot, Lv. 2248 2548 2612, 48, Nu. 1541; elsewhere, Dt. 2516 (cf. 2617), Jer. 725 114 247 3022 311-33, Ezk. 1120 1411 3424 3628 3728, 27, 2 Sa. 724 (= 1 Ch. 1722), Zec. 88.
never have been raised but for a disinclination to admit anything of the nature of a stipulation into P's idea of the covenant. — 10. This is my covenant] Circumcision is both the covenant and the sign of the covenant: the writer's ideas are sufficiently vague and elastic to include both representations. It is therefore unnecessary (with Ols. and Ball) to read נְצֵרֵי נְתיָּנֵי (see v. 18). — 11. for a covenant-sign] i.e., after the analogy of גַּדָּל, a token by which God is reminded of the existence of the covenant. The conception rises out of the extraordinary importance of the rite when the visible fabric of Hebrew nationality was dissolved, and nothing remained but this corporal badge as a mark of the religious standing of the Jew before Yahwe. — 12a. at the age of eight days] connected with the period of the mother's uncleanness: Lv. 12: 1-3; cf. Gn. 21:4, Lk. 1:50, 2:21, Phil. 3:5; Jos. Ant. i. 214. — 12b, 13 go together (De.), extending the obligation to slaves, who as members of the household follow the religion of their master. — The penalty of disobedience is death or excommunication, according as one or the other is meant by the obscure formula: be cut off from its kindred (v. i.).

10. רְצֵרֵי נְתיָּנֵי [Gr. + els rês ryevas autw. The whole is possibly a gloss (KS. Ba. Gu.), due to confusion between the legislative standpoint of 10a. and its plural address, and the special communication to Abraham; see, however, vv. 12b. — נְתיָּנֵי inf. abs. used as juss.; G-K. § 113 cc, gg: cf. Ex. 12:48, Lev. 6:2, Nu. 6:21. — 11. נְתיָּנֵי] treated by TJO as active, from נִיָּנָש, but really abbreviated Niph. of נִיָּנַש (cf. G-K. § 67 dd), a rare by-form (Jos. 5:2) of נִיָּשַׁנ, adopted by Ba. — 12. נְתיָּנֵי] see 14:14. — נְתיָּנֵי only vv. 13, 22, 27 and Ex. 12:44. — נְתיָּנֵי is the individualising use of 2nd p. sing., frequently alternating with 2nd pl. in legal enactments. So v. 13. — 14. נְתיָּנֵי] Am. + יְשָׁנֵי יְשָׁיַשְׁנֵי (Ba.). — יְשָׁנֵי—נְתיָּנֵי So Ex. 30:33, 38 31:14, Lv. 7:10, 28, 27 17:9 19:23 23:9, Nu. 9:13, — all in P, who employs a number of similar phrases—'his people,' 'Israel,' 'the congregation of Israel,' 'the assembly,' etc.—to express the same idea (see Dri. 187). יְשָׁנֵי is here used in the sense of 'kin,' as occasionally in OT (see 10:38 25:5). It is the Ar. 'amm, which combines the two senses of 'people,' and 'relative on the father's side': see We. GGN, 1893, 480, and cf. Dri. on Dt. 32:50 (p. 384); Krenkel, ZATW, viii. 280 ff.; Nestle, ib. xvi. 322 f.; KAT?, 480 f. With regard to the sense of the formula there are two questions: (a) whether it embraces the death-penalty, or merely exclusion from the sacra of the clan and from burial in the family grave; and (b) whether the punishment is to be inflicted by the com-
15-22. The heir of the Covenant.—The promise of the birth of Isaac is brought into connexion with the main idea of the chapter by the assurance (10, 21) that the covenant is to be established with him and not with Ishmael.—15. Sarai’s name is changed to Sarah. The absence of an etymological motive is remarkable (v. i.).—16b. In $\text{G}$, Jub., $\mathfrak{B}$ and $\Sigma$, the blessing on Sarah is by slight changes of text turned into a blessing on the son whose birth has just been foretold (v. i.). The MT, however, is more likely to be correct.—17. Abraham’s demeanour is a strange mixture of reverence and incredulity: “partim gaudio exultans, partim admiratone extra se raptus, in risum prorumpit” is Calvin’s comment. It is P’s somewhat unnatural clothing of the traditional etymology of Isaac (תַּנִּי, v. 10); cf. 18, 12 (J), 216 (E).—18. The prayer, O that Ishmael might live before thee!—under Thy protection and with Thy blessing (Hos. 6)—is a fine touch of nature; but the writer’s interest lies rather in the ‘determinate counsel and foreknowledge of God,’ which overrides human feeling and irrevocably decrees the election

munity, or by God in His providence. The interpretation seems to have varied in different ages. Ex. 31181. clearly contemplates the death penalty at the hands of the community; while Lv. 17, 20, point as clearly to a divine interposition. The probability is that it is an archaic juridical formula for the punishment of death, which came to be used vaguely “as a strong affirmation of divine disapproval, rather than as prescribing a penalty to be actually enforced” (Dri.). See Sta. $\text{GVI}$, i. 421 f.; Ho. p. 127 f.—גָּנַּה] pausal form for גָּנַה (G-K. § 29 g).

15. יֵשׁ ($\text{G}$ Ἐδρα) and יֵשׁ ($\text{G}$ Ἐδρά) According to Nö. (ZDMG, xl. 183, xlii. 484), יֵשׁ is an an old fem. term. surviving in Syr. Arab. and Eth. On this view יֵשׁ may be either the same word as יֵשׁ, ‘princess’ (יֵשׁ), or (as the differentiation of $\text{G}$ suggests) from יֵשׁ, ‘strive,’ with which the name Israel was connected (Gn. 3229, Ho. 124: see Rob. Sm. $\text{KM}$, 34 f. [Nö. dissents]). On Lagarde’s (Mitth. ii. 185) attempt to connect the name with Ar. יֵשׁ ʿwild fertile spot,’ and so to identify Abraham (as ‘husband of Sarai’) with the Nabatean god Dusares (דָּעַ-שַּאֲרָא), see Mey. $\text{INS}$, 269 f., who thinks the conjecture raised beyond doubt by the discovery of the name Sarayat as consort of Dusares on an inscr. at Bosra in the Haurān. The identification remains highly problematical.—16. יֵשׁ (רֵבֵע) $\cong$ יֵשׁ. So $\text{G}$ Jub. $\mathfrak{F}$ $\Sigma$, which consistently maintain the masc. to the end of the v.—17. יֶשׁ—םנ] a combination of the disjunctive question with casus pendens; see G-K. § 150 g.
of Israel (19).—19a. Comp. the language with 1611, and observe that the naming of the child is assigned to the father.—20. הַגְּדוּלָתָּם a remote allusion to the popular explanation of המילה, 'May God hear' (cf. 1611 2117). Ishmael is to be endowed for Abraham's sake with every kind of blessing, except the religious privileges of the covenant.—twelve princes] (cf. 2516) as contrasted with the 'kings' of 6.16.—22. The close of the theophany.—גֹּזָה—גֹּזָה as 3518.

23-27. Circumcision of Abraham's household.—23. on that very day (cf. 713)] repeated in v.26. Throughout the section, P excels himself in pedantic and redundant circumstance of narration. The circumcision of Ishmael, however, is inconsistent with the theory that the rite is a sign of the covenant, from which Ishmael is excluded (Ho. Gu.).—25. thirteen years old] This was the age of circumcision among the ancient Arabs, according to Jos. Ant. i. 214. Origen (Eus. Prep. Ev. vi. 11:* cf. We. Heid.2 1753); and Ambrose (de Abrah. ii. 348) give a similar age (14 years) for the Egyptians. It is possible that the notice here is based on a knowledge of this custom. Among the modern Arabs there is no fixed rule, the age varying from three to fifteen years: see Di. 264; Dri. in DB, ii. 504b.

Circumcision is a widely diffused rite of primitive religion, of whose introduction among the Hebrews there is no authentic tradition. One account (Ex. 4241) suggests a Midianite origin, another (Jos. 524) an Egyptian: the mention of flint knives in both these passages is a proof of the extreme antiquity of the custom (the Stone Age).† The anthrop-
polological evidence shows that it was originally performed at puberty, as a preliminary to marriage, or, more generally, as a ceremony of initiation into the full religious and civil status of manhood. This primary idea was dissipated when it came to be performed in infancy; and its perpetuation in this form can only be explained by the inherited belief that it was an indispensable condition of participation in the common cultus of the clan or nation. Passages like Dt. 10:16 30:6, Ezk. 44:7-9, show that in Israel it came to be regarded as a token of allegiance to Yahwe; and in this fact we have the germ of the remarkable development which the rite underwent in post-Exilic Judaism. The new importance it then acquired was due to the experience of the Exile (partly continued in the Dispersion), when the suspension of public worship gave fresh emphasis to those rites which (like the Sabbath and circumcision) could be observed by the individual, and served to distinguish him from his heathen neighbours. In this way we can understand how, while the earlier legal codes have no law of circumcision, in P it becomes a prescription of the first magnitude, being placed above the Mosaic ritual, and second in dignity only to the Sabbath. The explicit formulating of the idea that circumcision is the sign of the national covenant with Yahwe was the work of the Priestly school of jurists; and very few legislative acts have exercised so tremendous an influence on the genius of a religion, or the character of a race, as this apparently trivial adjustment of a detail of ritual observance. For information on various aspects of the subject, see Ploss, Das Kind in Brauch und Sitte der Völker (1894), i. 342-372; We. Heid. 174 f., Prol. 338 ff.; Sta. ZATW, vi. 132-143; the arts. in DB (Macalister) and EB (Benzinger); and the notes in Di. 258; Ho. 129; Gu. 237; Dri. 189 ff.; Strack, 67; Matthes, ZATW, xxix. 70 ff.

* The Covenant-idea in P (see also p. 290 f. above). In P's scheme of four world-ages, the word מַטִ'ז is used only of the revelations associated with Noah and Abraham. In the Creation-narrative the term is avoided because the constitution of nature then appointed was afterwards annulled, whereas the בֵּרִית is a permanent and irreversible determination of the divine will. The conception of the Mosaic revelation as a covenant is Jehovistic (Ex. 24:3-8 34:10ff. etc.) and Deuteronomic (Dt. 4:10ff. 5:2ff. 9:2ff. etc.); and there are traces of it in secondary strata of P (Lv. 26:45 [Ph], Ex. 31:16ff. * [P]); but it is not found in the historical work which is the kernel of the Code (P8). Hence in trying to understand the religious significance of the בֵּרִית in P8, we have but two examples to guide us. And with regard to both, the question is keenly discussed whether it denotes a self-imposed obligation on the part of God, irrespective of any condition on the part of man (so Valeton, ZATW, xii. 1 ff.), or a bilateral engagement involving reciprocal obligations between God and men (so in the main Kraetzschmar, Bundesvorst. 183 ff.). The answer depends on the view taken of circumcision in this chapter. According to Valeton, it is merely a sign and nothing

* Could this, however, be taken to mean that the Sabbath was a 'sign' of the Adamic dispensation conceived as a covenant?
more; i.e., a means whereby God is reminded of the covenant. According to Kraetzschmar, it is both a sign and a constituent of the covenant, forming the condition on which the covenant is entered into. The truth seems to lie somewhere between two extremes. The Bērith is neither a simple divine promise to which no obligation on man's part is attached (as in 1518), nor is it a mutual contract in the sense that the failure of one party dissolves the relation. It is an immutable determination of God's purpose, which no unfaithfulness of man can invalidate; but it carries conditions, the neglect of which will exclude the individual from its benefits. It is perhaps an over-refinement when Kraetzschmar (l.c. 201) infers from the expressions דָּן and יְהֹוָה that for P there is only one eternal divine Bērith, immutably established by God and progressively revealed to man.

Ch. XVIII. The Theophany at Hebron: Abraham's Intercession for Sodom (J).

Under the terebinths of Mamre, Abraham hospitably entertains three mysterious visitors (1-8), and is rewarded by the promise of a son to be born to Sarah in her old age (9-15). The three 'men,' whose true nature had been disclosed by their supernatural knowledge of Sarah's thoughts, then turn towards Sodom, accompanied by Abraham (16), who, on learning Yahwe's purpose to destroy that city (17-21), intercedes eloquently on its behalf (22-33).

The first half of the chapter (1-15) shows at its best the picturesque, lucid, and flexible narrative style of J, and contains many expressions characteristic of that document: יהוה, 1, 13, 14; אָבִּי, 2 (only in J 2417 2913 334); לָכֶם, 3; יִפְגֹּשׁ (for 1st per.), 3-6; בָּאָשָׁנָה, 5; וַיַּעֲדוּ, 13; נְשָׁנַי, 18. The latter part (17-33) is also Yahwistic (ה' 20, 22, 26, 23; נְגֵרִים, 27, 30f.; נְשָׁנַי, 23; מַכֵּה, 32), but contains two expansions of later date than the primary narrative. We. (Comp. 27 f.) appears to have proved that the original connexion between 1815 and 19 consists of 16, 20-22a, 33b; and that 17-19, 22b-33a are editorial insertions reflecting theological ideas proper to a more advanced stage of thought (see below). A more comprehensive analysis is attempted by Kraetzschmar in ZATW, xvii. 81 ff., prompted by the perplexing alternation of the sing. (ןִּשְׂכַּנְתִּי) 1, 3, 10, 13, 14, 15, 17-21, 22b-33) and pl. (2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 16, 22a) * in the dialogue between Abraham and his guests. The theory will repay a closer examination than can be given to it here; but I agree with Gu. in thinking that the texture of 1-18 is too homogeneous to admit of decomposition, and that some other explana-

* It is important, however, to observe that in μ (if we except the introductory ιν) the sing. does not appear till 10, but after that regularly up to 15.
tion of the phenomenon in question must be sought than the assumption of an interweaving of a sing. and a pl. recension of the legend (see on v. 1 and p. 303 below).* With Gu. also, we may regard the chapter as the immediate sequel to 13\(^\text{18}\) in the legendary cycle which fixes the residence of Abraham at Hebron (J\(^\text{b}\)). The conception of Abraham's character is closely akin to what we meet throughout that section of J, and differs appreciably from the representation of him in 12\(^\text{10-30}\) and 16.

1-8. The entertainment of the three wayfarers.— The description "presents a perfect picture of the manner in which a modern Bedawee sheik receives travellers arriving at his encampment. He immediately orders his wife or women to make bread, slaughters a sheep or other animal, and dresses it in haste; and, bringing milk and any other provisions that he may have at hand, with the bread and the meat that he has dressed, sets them before his guests: if they are persons of high rank he also stands by them while they eat" (Lane, Mod. Eg.\(^\text{5}\) i. 364: from Dri.).—1. Yahwe appeared, etc.] This introductory clause simply means that the incident about to be related has the value of a theophany. In what way the narrator conceived that Yahwe was present in the three men—whether He was one of the three, or whether all three were Yahwe in self-manifestation (De.)—we can hardly tell. The common view that the visitors were Yahwe accompanied by two of His angels does not meet the difficulties of the exegesis; and it is more probable that to the original Yahwist the 'men' were emissaries and representatives of Yahwe, who was not visibly present (see p. 304 f.).

—םְהִי נִיְמָן [at the hottest (and drowsiest) time of the day (2 Sa. 4\(^\text{5}\)).—2. and behold] The mysteriously sudden advent of the strangers marks them as superhuman beings (Jos. 5\(^\text{13}\)), though this makes no impression on Abraham at the time. The interest of the story turns largely on his ignorance of the real character of his guests.—3. The Mass. pointing יִיָּנָי implies that Abraham recognised Yahwe as one of the three (Tu. De. al.); but this we have just seen to be

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1. יִיָּנָי] Χ ὅ θεός.—In יִיָּנ the suff. may refer back directly to 13\(^\text{18}\) (see on the v.).—םְהִי נִיְמָן יִיָּנָי] Χ πρὸς τῇ δύτῃ τῇ Μ.; see on 13\(^\text{18}\).—3. Read with

* The same solution had occurred to Ball (SBOT, 1896), but was rightly set aside by him as unproved.
a mistake. The correct form is either מְדָנ (as 23:6, 11, etc.;
so Di. Dri.), or (better, as 192) מְדָנ: Sirs!—restoring (with
מ) the pl. throughout the v.—The whole of Abraham's
speech is a fine example of the profuse, deferential, self-
depreciatory courtesy characteristic of Eastern manners.—
4. wash your feet] Cf. 192 24:2 43:24, Ju. 19:21, 2 Sa. 11:8,
Lk. 7:44, 1 Ti. 5:10.—recline yourselves] not at meat (Gu.), but
during the preparation of the meal. Even in the time of
Amos (6:4) reclining at table seems to have been a new-
fangled and luxurious habit introduced from abroad: ct.
the ancient custom 27:19, Ju. 19:6, 1 Sa. 20:5, 24, 1 Ki. 13:20.—
5. support your heart] with the food, Ju. 19:5, 8, 1 Ki. 13:7,
Ps. 104:15; cf. bread the 'staff' of life, Lv. 26:26, Is. 3:1.
—seeing that, etc.] Hospitality is, so to speak, the logical
corollary of passing Abraham's tent.—6-8. The preparation
of a genuine Bedouin repast, consisting of hastily baked
cakes of bread, flesh, and milk in two forms. On the items,
v.i.—8. and they ate] So 19:3—the only cases in OT where
the Deity is represented as eating (cf. Ju. 6:20f. 13:16). The
anthropomorphism is evaded by Jos. (Ant. i. 197: οὗ δὲ δοξα
αὐτῷ παρέσχεν ἑσθιόντων; cf. Tob. 12:19), Γ, Ra. al.
9-15. The promise of a son to Sarah.—The subject is
introduced with consummate skill. In the course of the
conversation which naturally follows the meal, an apparently
usual question leads to an announcement which shows

ユーザーサポート、アダム、アブラハム。—5. ルブسرائيل (םהצוי) (םהצוי) is the better reading, to
which י adds el גר סָדָנ שָׁם (cf. 19:7).—רָאִים is not to be resolved
into נ and רָאִים, denn eben desshalb (G-B, 308 a; De. al.); but is a
compound conjunction=quandoquidem, 'inasmuch as' (Tu. Di. Dri.),
as usage clearly shows; cf. 19:3 33:10 38:26 Nu. 10:31 14:43 (all J), Ju. 6:22,
2 Sa. 15:20, Jer. 29:28 38:4; see G-K. § 15:8 &; BDB, 475 b.—בעוֹתלע יִגָּר
בֵּאָלָתָא πρὸς הַלַּבָּנָה (19:26), which is too rashly accepted by Ba.
—רָאִים] י has the sing. wrongly.—6. Three seahs would be (according
to Kennedy's computation, DB, iv. 912) approximately equal to 4½
pecks.—לַבָּן יִגָּר] יִגָּרְנֵאלָוָא, [וָיִמֵּלֵב], which might stand either
for יִגָּר (1 Sa. 2:24) or לַבָּן (as in every other instance). The latter (the
finer variety) is here probably a gloss on יִגָּר.—נַפַּק (וָיִמֵּלֵב, יִגָּר
subcinericios panes) are thin round cakes baked on hot stones or in the
ashes (Benz. Arch. 2 64).—8. לַבָּן is the Ar. laban, milk slightly soured
by fermentation, which is greatly esteemed by the nomads of Syria and
Arabia as a refreshing and nourishing beverage (see EB, iii. 3089 f.).
superhuman knowledge of the great blank in Abraham’s life, and conveys a first intimation of the real nature of the visitors. See Gu.’s fine exposition, 172 f.; and contrast the far less delicate handling of an identical situation in 2 Ki. 4:13–16.—9. The question shows that Sarah had not been introduced to the strangers, in accordance probably with Hebrew custom (Gu.).—10. I will return] The definite transition to the sing. takes place here (see on v.3). In the original legend the pl. was no doubt kept up to the end; but the monotheistic habit of thought was too strong for Hebrew writers, when they came to words which could be properly ascribed only to Yahwe.—On נַחַת נָעַר, v.i.—Sarah was listening] with true feminine curiosity; cf. 27. The last two words should probably be rendered: she being behind it (the tent or the door); cf. the footnote.—II. A circumstantial sentence explaining Sarah’s incredulity (v.12). —after the manner of women (cf. 31\(^1\)) “quo genere loquendi verecundae menses notat qui mulieribus fluunt” (Calv.); קֵּרֵת נָעַרּ; יֵלְמִית בְּרִית.—12. Sarah laughed (ဗား宝玉း) within herself] obviously a proleptic explanation of

9. נֶאֶּם יֵלְמִית (wrongly).—ֶּּדְּנַים] The superlinear points (cf. 16\(^b\)) are thought to indicate a reading 17.—10. נַחַת נָעַר This peculiar phrase (recurring only v.14, 2 Ki. 4\(^16\)) is now almost invariably rendered ‘at the (this) time, when it revives,’ i.e., next year, or spring (so Ra. IEz.; cf. Ges. Th. 470; G-B.14, 202 a; BDB, 312 a; Ew. Gr. § 337 a; G-K. § 118 u; Kø. S. § 387 e); but the sense is extremely forced. It is surprising that no one seems to suspect a reference to the period of pregnancy. In NH נֶאֶם means a woman in child-birth (so perhaps נֶאֶם in Ex. 19 [Ho. ad u.]); and here we might point נַחַת נָעַר or נַחַת נָעַר, rendering ‘according to the time of a pregnant woman,’ or 9 months hence. נֶאֶם in v.14 is no obstacle, for נֶאֶם is simply the time determined by the previous promise, and there is no need to add נַחַת (צ after 17\(^2\)). 2 Ki. 4\(^16\) (נַחַת נָעַר) does present a difficulty; but that late passage is modelled on this, and the original phrase may have been already misunderstood, as it is by all Vns.: e.g. קַדְּרִית נְאָלַה וַיַּרְאָה נַחַת נָעַר נַחַת נָעַר וַיַּרְא; € ’at a time when you are living’; א ‘at this time, she being alive’; פ tempeo isto, vita comite. Ba. also points as constr., but thinks נַחַת an old name for spring.—נַחַת] בס read נַחַת.—יֵרָח נַחַת [m. נ נ; so גנ ונדב אֵבְרֹד. MT is perhaps a neglect of the Qere perpet (נַחַת).—11. ונַחַת] cf. 24, Jos. 13\(^2\); 23\(^9\); 1 Ki. 1. —מעonce מַנֶּק] Ba. Kit. more smoothly, מַנֶּק מַנֶּק. 12. נַחַת נָעַר] גנ ונדב וַיַּרְאָה נַחַת נָעַר presupposes an impossible text נַחַת נַחַת. The change is perhaps alluded to in
the name יִיָּע (see on 1717), although the sequel in this document has not been preserved.—waxed old] lit. 'worn away,' a strong word used, e.g., of worn out garments (Dt. 84 294 etc.).—מְשַׁיֵּר (only here), 'sensuous enjoyment' (Liebeswonne).
—13. This leads to a still more remarkable proof of divine insight: the speaker knows that Sarah has laughed, though he has neither seen nor heard her (נַעֲקַד, v.12). The insertion of Yahwe here was probably caused by the occurrence of the name in the next v.—14. Is anything too strange for Yahwe?] As the narrative stands, the sentence does not imply identity between the speaker and Yahwe, but rather a distinction analogous to that frequently drawn between Yahwe and the angel of Yahwe (see on 167).—15. Sarah denied it] startled by the unexpected exposure of her secret thoughts into fear of the mysterious guests.

From the religious-historical point of view, the passage just considered, with its sequel in ch. 19, is one of the most obscure in Genesis. According to Gu. (174 ff.), whose genial exposition has thrown a flood of light on the deeper aspects of the problem, the narrative is based on a widely diffused Oriental myth, which had been localised in Hebron in the pre-Yahwistic period, and was afterwards incorporated in the Abrahamic tradition. On this view, the three strangers were originally three deities, disguised as men, engaged in the function described in the lines of Homer (Od. xvii. 485 ff.):

Kaі nр р theb с уcоuоu аtnlulус, 
пαντού тελέθοντες, еνυπρωφόσι πόλησ, 
άνυβρώσων θρυρ τε καі ευνομήν εφορόντες.*

Dr. Rendel Harris goes a step further, and identifies the gods with the Dioscuri or Kabiri, finding in the prominence given to hospitality, and the renewal of sexual functions, characteristic features of a Dioscuric visitation (Cult of the Heavenly Twins, 37 ff.). Of the numerous parallels that are adduced, by far the most striking is the account of the birth of Orion in Ovid, Fasti, v. 495 ff.: Hyrieus, an aged peasant of Tanagra, is visited by Zeus, Poseidon, and Hermes, and shows hospitality to them; after the repast the gods invite him to

Mechilla on Ex. 1240 (see p. 14 above; Geiger, Urschr. 439, 442).—13ש
Aq. μετά το καταμυθήσαλ με; Σ. (less accurately) μ. τ. ταλαωθήναλ 
με.—14. נ על יה ר Jer. 3217. 27, Dt. 178 3011.

* The belief appears to be very ancient. Dr. Frazer cites several primitive rites in which strangers are treated as deities—not always to their advantage (Golden Bough, ii. 225, 232, 234 f., and especially 237; Adonis Attis Osiris, 21 ff.).
name a wish; and he, being widowed and childless, asks for a son. 'Pudor est uteriora loqui'; but at the end of ten months Orion is miraculously born. The resemblance to Gn. 18 is manifest; and since direct borrowing of the Bæotian legend from Jewish sources is improbable, there is a presumption that we have to do with variations of the same tale. The theory is rendered all the more plausible by the fact that a precisely similar origin is suggested by the leading motives of ch. 19 (see below).—Assuming that some such pagan original is the basis of the narrative before us, we find a clue to that confusion between the singular and plural, which has been already referred to as a perplexing feature of the chapter. It is most natural to suppose that the threefold manifestation is a remnant of the original polytheism, the heathen deities being reduced to the rank of Yahwe's envoys. The introduction of Yahwe Himself as one of them would thus be a later modification, due to progressive Hebraizing of the conception, but never consistently carried through. An opposite view is taken by Fripp (ZATW, xii. 23 ff.), who restores the singular throughout, and by Kraetzschmar, who, as we have seen, distinguishes between a sing. and a pl. recension, but regards the former as the older. The substitution of angels for Yahwe might seem a later refinement on the anthropomorphic representation of a bodily appearance of Yahwe; but the resolution of the one Yahwe into three angels would be unaccountable, especially in J, who appears never to speak of angels in the plural (see on 19'). See Gu. 171, and Che. EB, iv. 4667 f.

16-22a. The judgement of Sodom revealed.

The soliloquy of Yahwe in 17-19 breaks the connexion between 16 and 20, and is to all appearance a later addition (see p. 298). (a) The insertion assumes that Yahwe is one of the three strangers; but this is hardly the intention of the main narrative, which continues to speak of 'the men' in the pl. (22a). (b) In 17 Yahwe has resolved on the destruction of Sodom, whereas in 20f. He proposes to abide by the result of a personal investigation. (c) Both thought and language in 17-19 show signs of Deuteronomic influence (see Ho. and GuJ). Di.'s assertion (265), that 20f. have no motive apart from 17-19 and 22ff., is incomprehensible; the difficulty rather is to assign a reason for the addition of 17ff. The idea seems to be that Abraham (as a prophet; cf. Am. 3') must be initiated into the divine purpose, that he may instruct his descendants in the ways of Yahwe.

16. and looked out in view of Sodom (cf. 19^b)] The Dead Sea not being visible from Hebron, we must understand that a part of the journey has been accomplished. Tradition fixed the spot at a village over 3 m. E of Hebron, called by Jerome Caphar Baruch, now known as Beni Na'im, but
formerly *Kesr Barik*, from which the Sea is seen through
gaps in the mountains (see Robinson, *BR*, i. 490 f.; Buhl,
*GP*, 158 f.).—17. *But Yahwe had said* sc. ‘to Himself’;
the construction marking the introduction of a circumstance.

—18. *Seeing Abraham, etc.*] Yahwe reflects, as it were, on the
religious importance of the individual beside Him.—*and all
nations, etc.*] See the notes on 12^b^. \(\text{^b}\) possibly refers not to
Abraham but to הָּנָּי; cf. 22^18^ (We.).—19. Comp. Dt. 6^1^–3.

—For *I have known* (i.e. ‘entered into personal relations
with’: as Am. 3^2^, Hos. 13^5^) *him in order that, etc.*] There
is a certain incongruity between the two parts of the v.;
here the establishment of the true religion is the purpose
of Abraham’s election; in 19^b^ the end of the religion is the
fulfilment of the promises made to Abraham.—20. Resuming
v. 18. An earlier form of the story no doubt read
לאָנָּי instead of הָּנָּי רְמִאָנָּי.—On the peculiar construction,
v.i.—21. Restoring the pl. as before, the v. reads as a dis-
junctive question: *We will go down that we may see
whether . . . or not: we would know.*

22b–33. Abraham’s intercession.

The secondary character of 22b–33a (see p. 298) appears from the
following considerations: (a) In 22a ‘the men’ (i.e. all three) have moved
away to Sodom; in 22b Yahwe remains behind with Abraham. That

17. After הנְּנֵן יָאָז read יָאָז. —19. יָאָז]ucci omitted the suffix,
while גָּעָז treat what follows as an obj. cl. (guod, etc.), through a
misunderstanding of the sense of יָאָז.—20. הָּנָּי]ucci omitted as v. 21.—נְּנֵן (בֵּע) גָּעָז. The particle is ignored byucci; also by ס, which supplies
לְאָז.A

If the text be retained the נ is
either corroborative (G–K. §§ 148 d, 159 ee), or causal (BDB, 473 b); but
neither construction is natural. Moreover, the parallelism of clauses is
itself objectionable; for whether the ‘sin’ actually corresponds to the
‘cry’ is the very point to be investigated (v. 21). This material diffi-
culty is not removed by the addition of מְּנֵן (Ols.) or מְּנֵן (Kit.).
Its removal is the sole recommendation of We.’s proposal to omit \(\text{^n}\) before
מְּנֵן and render, ‘There is a rumour about S. and G. that their sin
is great, that it is very grievous.’—21. Read withucci מְּנֵן מְּנֵן. —On
מְּנֵן for מְּנֵן כָּז, see G–K. § 138 k.—נְּנֵן is difficult: cf. Ex. 11^b^, another
doubtful pass. We. here suggests מְּנֵן, Ols. מְּנֵן.

22b contains one of the 18 מְּנֵן מְּנֵן (corrections of the scribes).
The original reading ‘בַּא וַעֲלֵי רֹ必要があります’ is said to have been changed
Yahwe was one of the three is certainly the view of the later editors (see on 19); but if that had been the original conception, it must have been clearly expressed at this point. (b) In 20r we have seen that the fate of Sodom still hangs in the balance, while in 20v, its destruction is assumed as already decreed. (c) The whole tenor of the passage stamps it as the product of a more reflective age than that in which the ancient legends originated. It is inconceivable that the early Yahwist should have entirely overlooked the case of Lot, and substituted a discussion of abstract principles of the divine government. Gunkel points out that the most obvious solution of the actual problem raised by the presence of Lot in Sodom would have been a promise of deliverance for the few godly people in the city; that consequently the line of thought pursued does not arise naturally from the story itself, but must have been suggested by the theological tendencies of the age in which the section was composed. The precise point of view here represented appears most clearly in such passages as Jer. 15.1, Ezek. 14.14-15; and in general it was not till near the Exile that the allied problems of individual responsibility and vicarious righteousness began to press heavily on the religious conscience in Israel.

23. Wilt thou even sweep away, etc.] The question strikes the keynote of the section—a protest against the thought of an indiscriminate judgement (cf. Jb. 42:23).—24. Suppose there should be fifty, etc.] A small number in a city, but yet sufficient to produce misgiving if they should perish unjustly.—and not forgive the place] In OT, righteousness and clemency are closely allied: there is more injustice in the death of a few innocent persons than in the sparing of a guilty multitude. The problem is, to what limits is the application of this principle subject?—25. Shall not the Judge, etc.] Unrighteousness in the Supreme Ruler of the world would make piety impossible: cf. Ro. 3.6.—27. I have ventured] cf. Jer. 12.1. יָרָא expresses the overcoming of a certain inward reluctance (Jos. 7.7).—dust and ashes] an alliterative combination (Jb. 30.19 42.6, Sir. 40.8). As a descrip-

out of a feeling of reverence (Ginsburg, Introd. 352 f.). The worth of a tradition is disputed, the present text being supported by all Vns. as well as by 19; and the sense certainly does not demand the suggested restoration (Tu. Di. against KS. Ba. Gu. al.).—23, 24. יָרָא] א"כ י"ר, mistaking for יָרָא = 'anger': so א"כ. —23 end] ה"ה + ק"ל ל"ו א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"כ א"c
tion of human nature, the phrase recurs only Sir. 109 17—
28. הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה] lit. ‘on account of the 5’; a somewhat para-
doxical form of expression.—30—32. Emboldened by success, Abraham now ventures on a reduction by 10 instead of 5 (De.); this is continued till the limit of human charity is reached, and Abraham ceases to plead.—33. went] not to Sodom, but simply ‘departed.’—33b would be equally appro-
priate after 33a or 22a.

XIX. 1—29.—The Destruction of Sodom and Deliverance of Lot (J and P).

The three men (see on v.1) who have just left Abraham reach Sodom in the evening, are received as guests by Lot (1—3), but are threatened with outrage by the Sodomites (4—11). Thus convinced of the depravity of the inhabitants, they secure the safety of Lot’s household (12—22), after which the city is destroyed by fire and brimstone (23—28).

Thus far J : cf. נַחַל, 13, 14, 16, 24, 27; הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה, 2. 7. 8. 18, 19, 20; מַיִם, 4; הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה, 8; הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה, 1; רַע, 3, 9; הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה, 28. —The summary in 29 is from P: cf. מַיִם, 29, 11, גָּדוֹל הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה (cf. 617 911, 15).—The passage continues 1822a. 33b (J
), and forms an effective contrast to the scene in Abraham’s tent (181—19). The alternation of sing. and pl. is less confusing than in 18; and Kraetzschmar’s theory (see p. 298 f.) does less violence to the structure of the passage. Indeed, Gu. himself admits that the sing. section 17—22 (with 26) is an ‘intermezzo’ from another Yahwistic author (Gu. 181).

1—3. Lot’s hospitality.—Comp. Ju. 1915—21.—1α. the two angels] Read ‘the men,’ as 1916 [195, 8] 10, 12, 16; see the footnote.—in the gate] the place of rendezvous in Eastern cities for business or social intercourse; Ru. 41ff, 11, Jb. 297 etc.—1b. 2α. Cf. 182.—יִשְׂרָאֵל] Sirs! See on 183.

mistake the sense.—28. הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה] The regular use of the ending ה (G-K. § 47 m) from this point onwards is remarkable (Di.). The form, though etymologically archaic, is by no means a mark of antiquity in OT, and is peculiarly frequent in Deut. style (Dri. onDt. 117).—32. יְהֹוָה] see on 223.

1. יִשְׂרָאֵל הָשָׁם יְהֹוָה] This word has not been used before, and recurs only in v.18 (in also v.19; and in וֹתִי v.16). The phrase is, no doubt, a cor-
rection for יְהֹוָה, caused by the introduction of 22b—33a, and the con-
sequent identification of Yahwe with one of the original three, and the other two with His angels (We. Comp. 27 f.).—2. יְהֹוָה so pointed
De.'s inference that Lot's spiritual vision was less clear than Abraham's may be edifying, but is hardly sound. — 2b. The refusal of the invitation may be merely a piece of Oriental politeness, or it may contain a hint of the purpose of the visit (1821). In an ordinary city it would be no great hardship to spend the night in the street: Lot knows only too well what it would mean in Sodom.

4—II. The assault of the Sodomites.—4. They had not yet retired to rest when, etc.] That all the men of the city were involved in the attack is affirmed with emphasis (הָא יִלְּדָה: v.i.): an instance of the 'shamelessness' of Sodom (Is. 39).—5. The unnatural vice which derives its name from the incident was viewed in Israel as the lowest depth of moral corruption: cf. Lv. 1822ff. 2018, 23, Ezek. 1650, Ju. 1926.—6–8. Lot's readiness to sacrifice the honour of his daughters, though abhorrent to Hebrew morality (cf. Ju. 1925–30), shows him as a courageous champion of the obligations of hospitality in a situation of extreme embarrassment, and is recorded to his credit. Cf. 1236ff.

—8. inasmuch as they have come under the shadow (i.e. 'protection') of my roof-tree] וְנִלְּדָה, 'beam' (like μέλαθρα), for 'house.'—9. Lot is reminded of his solitary (הָא יִלְּדָה, der Eine) and defenceless position as a ger (see on 1210).—II. The divine beings smite the rabble with demonic blindness (שִׁמְרֹת: v.i.).

only here: G-K. § 20 d, 100 a.—3. מֵא] Only again 199 3311 (J), Ju. 197, 2 Ki. 217 516.

4. מָה יֵש] probably a gloss (Ols.).—הָא יִלְּדָה (ג נוֹא) an abbreviation of יֵלְדָה הָא יִלְּדָה (Gn. 4721, Ex. 2636, Dt. 138 etc.) = 'exhaustively': so Is. 5611, Jer. 5181, Ezek. 258.—6. יֵלְדָה om. by ג נוֹא.—8. וְנִלְּדָה = וְנִלְּדָה (only again 1926 264f., Lv. 1827, Dt. 462 729 1911, 1 Ch. 208) is an orthographic variant (not in מ), meant originally to be pronounced וְנִלְּדָה. See Dri. on Dt. 462.—וְנִלְּדָה as 188.—9. מֵא [מֵא מֵא] ג יִדָּה étel: 'stand back there'; cf. מֵא מֵא, Is. 4936.—מֵא מֵא] Conseq. impf. expressing 'paradoxical consequence' (De.); cf. 3231 4036, Jb. 28; see G-K. § 111 i, m. The inf. abs. after its vb. properly denotes continuance of the action; here its position seems due to the consec. 1, and its force as if it had stood first (G-K. § 113 r, p).—II. הָא יִלְּדָה (2 Ki. 6184) is related to ordinary blindness (יֵלְדָה, Dt. 2838, Zec. 124f.), somewhat as מֵא מֵא (221) is to ordinary sleep. If from נו ('shine'), it is either a
common oriental euphemism (Kön. ii. p. 404), or dazzling from excess of light (Ac. 6.) cf. Hoffmann, ZATW, ii. 681. ἡ ἀναποθέσεως means both ‘brightness’ and ‘blindness’; and in the Talmud Shabiri is a demon of blindness (JE, iv. 517 a). § 15. הָאֹדוֹת, ‘hallucinations.’

12. ‘וֹ תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי’ The stiff construction has led to various operations on the text. G intends to have read וֹ תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי; § has וֹ תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי. Di. suggests that the letters בַּן have been accidentally thrust into the word וֹ תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי; Ho. and Gu. omit בַּן in וֹ תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי (so μ) and commence a new sentence there; Ba. Kit. delete בַּן. The text may be retained if we take the first cl. as indirect qn.: ‘Whomsoever thou hast here as a son-in-law, and thy sons . . . bring forth,’ etc.—At end add כְּ with μ. G. 15. תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי] ‘rare and poetic’ (Di.). Here used as conj. (= ראש).—ה medidas] כְּ כָּל כָּל; כְּ קָדִיסָה. 16. תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי] f. inf. const.—16c is omitted by G, but is found in many cursive.

17. יֶּרֶשְׁי] כְּ כָּל כָּל; כְּ קָדִיסָה. 16. תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי] כְּ כָּל כָּל; כְּ קָדִיסָה. 16. תְרֵי מִּשְׁרֵי] f. inf. const.—16c is omitted by G, but is found in many cursive.

12-16. The deliverance of Lot.—12. On the construction, v.i.—13. Yahwe has sent us] i.e. the ‘three’ are agents of Yahwe, who is therefore not present in person.—14. Lot warns his (prospective) sons-in-law, who were to marry his daughters: so Jos. Ant. i. 202, Ἰ, Tu. Di. Dri. al. Others (G, IEz. De. al.) take מָלַג as referring to the past, which is possible (cf. 27A).—as one that jested] see on 21B. —15. as the dawn appeared] The judgement must be accomplished by sunrise (23B); hence the urgency of the summons.—the angels] ‘the men,’ as v. 1.—הָאָנָגָלִים] who are at hand (1 Sa. 21F).—16. he hesitated] reluctant, and only half-convinced.—through Yahwe’s compassion on him]. —left him without the city] rather suggests, as Gu. (186) holds, that there is he in safety.

17-22. The sparing of Zoar.—17. the mountain] the elevated Moabite plateau, which rises steeply to heights of 2500-3000 ft. from the E side of the Sea.—look not behind thee] Such prohibitions are frequent in legends and incantations; comp. the story of Orpheus and Eurydice (Ovid, Met. x. 51; Virg. Ge. iv. 491); cf. also Virg. Ecl. viii. 102; Ov. Fasti, v. 439.—20. is near enough to flee to]. —הָאָגָלִים] a trifle: repeated with a view to the etymology of 22B.
The city of Zo'ar (ג'עょう) was well known, not only in OT times (1310 1428, Dt. 34, Is. 15, Jer. 48), but also in the time of the Crusades, and to the Ar. geographers, who call the Dead Sea the Sea of Zugar. That this mediæval Zoar was at the S end of the lake is undisputed; and there is no good reason to question its identity with the biblical city (see Jos. BJ, iv. 482; OS 1, 261). Since Wetzstein, it is usually located at Ghôr ef-Sâfiye'h, about 5 m. SE from the present shore of the Sea (cf. Di. 273; Buhl, GP, 271; Smith, HG, 505 ff.; and esp. Dri. DB, iv. 985 b ff.). The situation of the city naturally gave birth to the secondary legend that it had been saved from the fate of the adjacent cities on account of the intercession of Lot; while the name in Heb. readily suggested the etymology of זגאר.

23–28. The catastrophe. — Brevity in the description of physical phenomena is in accord with the spirit of the Hebrew legend, whose main interest is the dramatic presentation of human character and action. — 23, 24. The clause when Lot entered Zoar, presupposes 17–22, and, if the latter be from a separate source, must be deleted as an interpolation (Gu.). The connexion is improved by the excision: just as the sun rose the catastrophe took place (G–K. § 164 b).— sulphur and fire (Ezk. 38, Ps. 116) a feature suggested by permanent physical phenomena of the region (see below).— Yahwe rained . . . from Yahwe] A distinction between Yahwe as present in the angels and Yahwe as seated in heaven (Di.) is improbable. We must either suppose that the original subject was ‘the men’ (so Gu.: cf. v. 18), or that וַיָּ֣רֵא יְהֹוָ֣ה is a doublet to וַיַּ֣עַן יְהֹוָ֣ה: the latter phrase, however, is generally considered to be a gloss (Ols. KS. Ho. Gu. Kit.).— 25, יִשְׁעַ֫יָּהוּ] see on 29. — 26. Lot’s wife transgresses the prohibition of 17, and is turned into a pillar of salt.

The literal interpretation of this notice, though still maintained by Strack, is clearly inadmissible. The pillar is mentioned as still existing in WS 18, Jos. Ant. i. 203; the reference obviously being to some curious resemblance to a female figure, round which the popular

21. יִשְׁעַ֫יָּהוּ יְהֹוָ֣ה ‘have accepted thee’ (lit. ‘lifted up thy face’: opp. וַיִּשְׁעַ֫יָּהוּ)— here in a good sense (as 32, 2 Ki. 3, Mal. 16), more frequent in the bad sense of partiality in judgement (Lv. 19, Dt. 10, Mal. 2, Jb. 13 etc.).

23. וַיֹּֽשַׁע — 25. יִשְׁעַ֫יָּהוּ (v. 8) כּ+דִּיֵּבַּֽי דָּבָּר; יִשְׁעַ֫יָּהוּ, as v. 20. — 26. The v. stands out of its proper position (note the consec., and the suffix.), and belongs to 17–22 rather than to the main narrative (Gu.).
imagery had woven a legend connecting it with the story of Lot. Whether it is identical with the huge cylindrical column, 40 ft. high, on the E side of Gebel Usdum, described by Lynch, is, of course, doubtful.* The fact that Gebel Usdum is on the SW side of the lake, while Zoar was on the SE, would not preclude the identification: it would simply mean that the whole region was haunted by the legend of Lot. But the disintegration of the rock-salt of which that remarkable ridge is mainly composed, proceeds so rapidly, and produces so many fantastic projections and pinnacles, that the tradition may be supposed to have attached itself to different objects at different periods. See Dri. DB, iii. 152.

27, 28. Abraham's morning visit to the spot where he had parted from his heavenly guests forms an impressive close to the narrative.—and he looked, etc.] an effective contrast to 1816.—the smoke of the land was afterwards believed to ascend permanently from the site of the guilty cities (Wisd. 10).—The idea may have been suggested by the cloud of vapour which generally hangs over the surface of the Dead Sea (see Di.).

29. (From P: see p. 306.) Gu. conjectures that the v. formed the introduction to a lost genealogy of Lot; and that its original position in P was after 1328a. The dependence of P on J is very manifest.—the cities in [one of] which Lot dwelt] as 84, Ju. 127.

The destruction of the Cities of the Plain.—The narrative of ch. 19 appears at first sight to be based on vague recollection of an actual occurrence,—the destruction of a group of cities situated in what is now the Dead Sea, under circumstances which suggested a direct inter-

27. הָר - יַשְּׁה] preg. constr.—27b. must have been interpolated after the expansion of ch. 18 by vv. 22b-33a.—28. רֶבֶץ וַיַּעַשֶּׁה does not occur elsewhere. The variations of גֵּרָס warrant the emendation יַעַשֶּׁהֱוֹנָה (Kit.). —ןְּשָׁרִש אֲשֶׁר] the same simile in Ex. 1918 (also J).—וֹי יַעַשֶּׁה] Ps. 1193 1484. —29. הָרְבָּה] 'the overthrow,' א. א. יָשָׁר. The usual verbal noun is הָרְבָּה (Dt. 2922, Is. 1* [rd. גֵּרָס for יָשָׁר], 1319, Jer. 4918 5040, Am. 4114), which is never used except in connexion with this particular judgement. The unhebraic form of inf. with the fact that where subj. is expressed it is always (even in Am.) גֵּרָס and not הָרְבָּה, justify the conclusion that the phraseology was stereotyped in a heathen version of the story (Kraetzschmar, ZATW, xvii. 87 f.). Comp. the use of the vb. 1921-25, 29, Dt. 2922, Jer. 2016, La. 46.—םְּשָׁרִי] as יָשָׁר is easier. גֵּרָס 'הָרְבָּה.

* I cannot find the proof of Gu.’s assertion that this pillar is now called 'the daughter of Lot.'
position of divine power. It seems unreasonable to suppose that a legend so firmly rooted in Hebrew tradition, so full of local colour, and preserving so tenaciously the names of the ruined cities, should be destitute of historic foundation; and to doubt whether any such cities as Sodom and Gomorrah ever existed in the Dead Sea basin appears an unduly sceptical exercise of critical judgement. It has been shown, moreover, that a catastrophe corresponding in its main features to the biblical description is an extremely probable result of volcanic and other forces, acting under the peculiar geological conditions which obtain in the Dead Sea depression. According to Sir J. W. Dawson, it might have been caused by an explosion of bitumen or petroleum, like those which so frequently prove destructive in Canada and the United States (see Exp. 1886, i. p. 74; Modern Science in Bible Lands, 486ff.). A similar theory has been worked out in elaborate and picturesque detail by Blanckenhorn in ZDPV, xix. 1-64, xxi. 65-83 (see Dri. p. 202 f.).* These theories are very plausible, and must be allowed their full weight in determining the question of historicity. At the same time it requires to be pointed out that they do not prove the incident to be historical; and several considerations show that a complete explanation of the legend cannot be reached on the lines of physical science. (a) It is impossible to dissociate the legend altogether from the current OT representation (13:10 14:3-10) that prior to this event the Dead Sea did not exist,—an idea which geology proves to be absolutely erroneous. It is true that the narrative does not state that the cities were submerged by the waters of the Dead Sea; and it is possible to suppose that they were situated either south of the present margin of the lake, or in its shallow southern bay (which might possibly have been formed within historic times). The fact, however, remains, that the Israelites had a mistaken notion of the origin of the Dead Sea; and this fact throws some suspicion on the whole legend of the 'cities of the Plain.' (b) It is remarkable that the legend contains no mention of the Dead Sea, either as the cause of the catastrophe, or as originating contemporaneously with it (Gu.). So important an omission suggests the possibility that the Sodom-legend may have arisen in a locality answering still more closely to the volcanic features of the description (such as the 'dismal Harras of Arabia' [Meyer]), and been transferred to the region of the Dead Sea valley. (c) The stereotyped term πᾶπον (see on v. 29), which seems to have been imported with the legend, points clearly to an earthquake, as the main cause of the overthrow; and there is no mention of an earthquake in any Hebrew version of the story (see Che. EB, 4668 f.)—another indication that it has been transplanted from its native environment. (d) The most important consideration is that the narrative seems to belong to a widely diffused class of popular tales,

* Physical explanations of the catastrophe were also current in ancient times. Strabo (xvi. ii. 44) says that it took place ὅτε σεισμῶν καὶ ἀναφυ-σμάτων πόρος καὶ θερμῶν ὀδάτων ἀσφαλτωδῶν τε καὶ θεωδῶν, in consequence of which the lake burst its bounds, the rocks took fire, and so on. Cf. Jos. BJ, iv. 484 f., Ant. i. 203; Tacitus, Hist. v. 7.
many interesting examples of which have been published by Cheyne in The New World, 1892, 239 ff. It is indeed obvious that no physical explanation of the cataclysm furnishes any clue to the significance of the angels’ visit to Lot; but a study of the folklore parallels shows that the connexion between that incident and the destruction of Sodom is not accidental, but rests on some mythological motive whose origin is not as yet explained. Thus in the story of Philemon and Baucis (Ovid, Met. viii. 625 ff.), an aged Phrygian couple give shelter in their humble dwelling to Zeus and Hermes in human guise, when every other door is closed against them. As a reward for their hospitality they are directed to flee to the mountain, and there, looking back, they see the whole district inundated by a flood, except their own wretched hut, which has been transformed into a temple, etc. The resemblance here is so great that Cheyne (I.c. 240) pronounces the tale a secondary version of Gn. 19; but other parallels, hardly less striking, present the same combination of kindness to divine beings rewarded by escape from a destructive visitation in which a whole neighbourhood perishes for its impious neglect of the duties of hospitality.—On these grounds some writers consider the narrative before us to be a Hebrew adaptation of a widespread legend, its special features being suggested by the weird scenery of the Dead Sea region,—its barren desolation, the cloud of vapour hanging over it, its salt rocks with their grotesque formations, its beds of sulphur and asphalt, with perhaps occasional conflagrations bursting out amongst them (see Gu. 188 ff.). Dr. Rendel Harris (Heavenly Twins, 39 ff.) takes it to be a form of the Dioscuric myth, and thus a natural sequel to 181-18 (see p. 302 above). Assyriologists have found in it a peculiar modification of the Deluge-legend (Jast. ZA, xiii. 291, 297; RBA1, 507), or of the World-conflagration which is the astronomical counterpart of that conception (ALTO3, 360 ff.): both forms of the theory are mentioned by Zimmern with reserve (KAT3, 559 f.).—Whatever truth there may be in these speculations, the religious value of the biblical narrative is not affected. Like the Deluge-story, it retains the power to touch the conscience of the world as a terrible example of divine vengeance on heinous wickedness and unnatural lust; and in this ethical purpose we have another testimony to the unique grandeur of the idea of God in ancient Israel.

XIX. 30-38.—Lot and his Daughters (J).

This account of the origin of the Moabites and Ammonites is a pendant to the destruction of Sodom, just as the story of Noah’s drunkenness (920ff.) is an appendix to the Deluge narrative. Although it has points of contact with 1-28, it is really an independent myth, as to the origin and motives of which see the concluding Note (p. 314).

Source.—Though the criteria of authorship are slight, there is no reason to doubt that the section belongs to J: note the two daughters,
and the mention of Zoa in 30; and cf. נֵּי הִכְנָא, 22. 24, with 7; and נֵּי הָאָרֶץ, יִנְסָרוֹ, 31. 33-35, 37. 38, with 29.

30a is a transition clause, connecting what follows with 1-28, esp. with 17-22.——in the mountain of Moab; cf. v. 17.——he was afraid to dwell in Z.] lest it should be consumed, though the motive involves a slight discrepancy with 21.——30b. in the cave] probably a particular cave which was named after Lot (cf. 1 Ki. 19). It is pointed out that נֵּי, a possible variant of נֵ, is named as a Hörite (Troglogyte?) in 36.20, 22, 29. The habit is said to have persisted till modern times in that region (Di. Dri. after Buckingham, Travels in Syria [1825]).——31. there is no man in the earth] ‘We are the survivors of a universal catastrophe.' So Gu., following Pietschmann, Gesch. der Phönizier, 115; Jastrow, ZA, xiii. 298 (see below). The usual explanations: ‘no man in the vicinity’ (Di. al.), or ‘all men will shrink from us’ (Dri.), hardly do justice to the language.—[הָאָרֶץ] So in the Jewish marriage formula נֵּלֵּה אָרֶץ נַחֲוָה לְגַלעַמה (De.).——32. The intoxication of Lot shows that the revolting nature of the proposal was felt by the Hebrew conscience. ‘When the existence of the race is at stake, the woman is more eager and unscrupulous than the man” (Gu. 192).——[הָנָּבָא] repeated in 34, 36, anticipating the etymology of 37.

33, 35. he knew not, etc.] still minimising Lot’s culpability (cf. 38).——37. יָבוֹא] as if יָבֹא, ‘from a (my?) father’ (v.i.).——38. יָלוֹנָה] not ‘son of my people,’ which would be

30 end] מַגְדִּים + וְשֵׁם.——31. יִצְרָה] in this sense only Dt. 25.——32. נָבָא] מַעַל.——33. תָּשׁוֹךְ] (so 35, 36); G-K. § 47 f.—Mais. מַעַל] (מַעַל). On omission of art. with demonstr., see G-K. § 126 y; cf. 30-32, 38, 38, 1 Sa. 19.—הָאָרֶץ] מַגְדִּים וּמַגְדִּים.——34. יָבוֹא] מַגְדִּים.——35. יָבוֹא] מַגְדִּים + מַגְדִּים, ‘Ex tomurpolos mou’ (]אֶפּוֹלָס). For the equivalence of יָבֹא and מַגְדִּים, cf. Nu. 11.——(דָּרֵשׁ = מַעַל, מַגְדִּים. מַגְדִּים); Jer. 4.8; (נַעַשֶּׁה, Or. = רַעַשֶּׁה, Kt.), etc.: see ZATW, xvi. 322 f. The real etymology is, of course, uncertain. Homm. ingeniously and plausibly explains the name as a contraction of יָבֹא, ‘his mother is the father,’ after the analogy of a few Assyrian proper names (Verhandl. d. XIII. Orient-Kong. 261). The view of Kn. and De. that יָבֹא is Aram. יָבֹא (= מַגְדִּים), ‘water,’ and that the word meant ‘water (i.e. semen) of a father,’ hardly deserves consideration.——38. יָבֹוא] מַגְדִּים, וְךָ דּוֹס רֹעֵר יָבֹוא מַגְדִּים, missing the significance of the מַגְדִּים (y.s.).
nothing distinctive of any child, but 'son of my (paternal) kinsman' (see 1714). Note the formal correspondence with יִבְנָי, which (and not יִבְנָי simply) is the invariable designation of the people in OT (exc. Ps. 838, and MT of 1 Sa. 1111 [מִשְׁמָּא יִבְנָי]). Both etymologies are obviously pointless except as expressing the thought of the mothers, who, as is usual in J, name the children.

Original idea of the legend.—It is very natural to regard this account of the origin of Moab and Ammon as an expression of intense national hatred and contempt towards these two peoples. It has further been surmised (though with little proof)* that incestuous marriages, such as are here spoken of, were customary in these lands, and gave an edge to this Hebrew taunt (so Di.). That the story was so understood by later readers is indeed probable; but how precarious it is to extend this feeling to ancient times appears from ch. 38, where the ancestry of the noble tribe of Judah (held in special honour by J) is represented as subject to a similar taint. The truth seems to be that while incest was held in abhorrence by Israel (as by the ancient Arabs; see We. GGN, 1893, 441), it was at one time regarded as justified by extreme necessity, so that deeds like those here related could be told without shame. Starting from this view of the spirit of the narrative, Gu. (190 f.) gives a suggestive interpretation of the legend. It is, he thinks, originally a Moabite legend tracing the common ancestry of Moab and Ammon to Lot, who was probably worshipped at the 'cave' referred to in v.30. V.81, however, presupposes a universal catastrophe, in which the whole human race had perished, except Lot and his two daughters. In the ordinary course the daughters would have been doomed to barrenness, and mankind would have become extinct; and it is to avert this calamity that the women resolve on the desperate expedient here described. That such an origin should have been a subject of national pride is conceivable, though one may fail to find that feeling reflected in the forced etymologies of 371. If Gu.'s theory is anywhere near the truth, we are here on the track of a Moabite parallel to the story of the Flood, which is probably of greater antiquity than the legend of 19th. Lot is the counterpart of the Hebrew Noah; and just as the Noah of 9th. steps into the place of the Babylonian Deluge-hero, so the Lot of 19th. was identified with the entertainer of deity in the heathen myth which probably lies at the basis of 19th†.

* Cf. the similar conjecture with regard to Reuben (p. 515 below). It is difficult to know what to make of Palmer's curious observation that in that region a wife is commonly spoken of as bint (daughter): Desert of the Exodus, ii. 478; see Dri. 205.

† The connexion with the Deluge-legend was anticipated by Jast. in the art. already cited, ZA, xiii. 197 f.—It is a flood of water which destroys the inhospitable people in the parallel from Ovid cited above (p. 312).
Ch. XX.—*Abraham and Sarah at the Court of Gerar (E).*

The chapter deals with an incident closely similar to that recorded in 12:10-20. It is indeed impossible to doubt that the two are variants of the same tradition; a view which is confirmed rather than shaken by Strack's enumeration of petty differences. A close comparison (see p. 364 f. below) appears to show that the passage before us is written from a more advanced ethical standpoint than that represented by ch. 12: note the tendency to soften the harsher features of the incident (4. 6. 16), and to minimise the extent of Abraham's departure from strict veracity.

**Source.**—The narrative is the first continuous excerpt from E; and contains several stylistic and other peculiarities of that document: esp. θεῖος (θειός), 2. 6, 11, 13, 17 (10 θειός is a gloss); ἡ πόλις (ἡ πόλις), 17; βασιλεία (βασιλεία), 5; see also the notes on τῆς θείας, 5; ἡ πόλις, 2. 18; ἡ φυλή, 6; ἡ πόλις, 12 (cf. Di. 279; Ho. 159; Gu. 193).—The appearing of God in a dream is characteristic of E; and the conception of Abraham as a prophet (?) is at least foreign to the original J (but see on 15:1). Another circumstance proving the use of a source distinct from J or P is that Sarah is here conceived as a young woman capable of inspiring passion in the king (ct. 18:13 17:17). Lastly, it is to be observed that ch. 20 is the beginning of a section (20-22) mainly Elohistic, representing a cycle of tradition belonging to the Negeb and, in particular, to Beersheba.

1, 2. Introductory notice.—The method of the narrator, Gu. points out, is to let the story unfold itself in the colloquies which follow, vv.11 containing just enough to make these intelligible.—I. the land of the Negeb] see on 12:9.—between Kādēsh (14') and Shār (16') would be in the extreme S of the Negeb, if not beyond its natural limits. The words ἡ πόλις ἡ φυλή (note the paronomasia) are not a nearer specification of the previous clause, but introduce a new fact,—a further stage of the patriarch's wanderings. There is therefore no reason to suppose that Gērār lay as far S as Kādēsh

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1. κατά] see 11:2.—ἐν ἡ πόλις ἡ φυλή] in πόλις only 24Jos. 1:19, Ju. 1:15 (J), Nu. 13:29 (E?).—ἡ πόλις] (10:9 26:16 17 [ἡ πόλις], 20:26, 2 Ch. 14:1f.†) Γεραρά, 5:5; commonly identified, on the authority of OS, 2402. (ἀπεξονεστώ

*Ελευθέροπολεσις σημειοεις κε προς νήσους with the modern Umm Gērār ('place of water-pots'), 6 miles SSE of Gaza (so Rowlands, Holy City, l. 464; Robinson [who did not find the name], BR, ii. 43 f. [cf. i. 189], Ho. Gu.
(v.i.).—2. The bareness of the narration is remarkable, and was felt by the Greek translators to be wanting in lucidity (v.i.).—Abimelech, king of Gerar] מילק = ‘Milk is [my] father,’ is a genuine Canaanite name, compounded with the name of the god Milk (see Baeth. Beitr. 37 ff.). It occurs as the name of the governor of Tyre (Ahi-milki) in the TA Tablets (149–156). There is no trace here of the anachronism which makes him a Philistine prince (ch. 26); Gerar is an independent Canaanite kingdom.—took Sarah] sc. as wife; the same ellipsis as 19\(^14\).

3–7. Abimelech’s dream.—This mode of revelation is peculiar to E (21\(^12\), 14 22\(^ff\). 28\(^12\) 31\(^11\), 24 37\(^5\) 45\(^2\), Nu. 12\(^8\) 22\(^9\), 20\(^0\)), and probably indicates a more spiritual idea of God than the theophanies of J. It must be remembered, however, that according to primitive ideas the ‘coming’ of God (so 31\(^24\), Nu. 22\(^20\)) would be as real an event in a dream as in waking experience.—4a. had not drawn near her] Not an explana-

This suits 26\(^1\) (according to which it was in Philistine territory), 10\(^9\) and 2 Ch. 14\(^13\); but hardly 26\(^18\), and it is certainly inconsistent with the notice מיהא קבין קבין קבין. There happens to be a Wadi Gerar, c. 13 miles SW of Kadesh, which exactly agrees with this description; and so Trumbull (Kad.-Bar. 62 f., 255) and others have decided that this must be the biblical Gerar, while others think there may have been two places of the name (Che. EB, ii. 1705 f.). The question really turns on 26\(^1\) 21\(^ff\).: so far as the present reference is concerned, we have seen that the argument rests on a misconception; and it is not even necessary to assume (with KS.) that 1\(^a\) is a redactional clause, or (with Ho. Gu.) that part of E’s narrative has been suppressed between 1\(^a\) and 1\(^b\). It is true that מיהא has no antecedent in E, and it is, of course, conceivable that it was written by R\(^E\) to connect the following with a previous section of E (Gu.), or by R\(^HE\) to mark the transition from Hebron (18\(^1\)) to the Negeb. A redactor, however, would not have been likely to insert the notice ‘between Kadesh and Shur’ unless he had meant it as a definition of the site of Gerar.—2. מיהא קבין [‘said regarding’] is rare: 2 Ki. 10\(^2\), Jer. 22\(^10\) 27\(^9\); cf. ות אל \(v.18\), Ju. 9\(^5\), Ps. 3\(^8\) 71\(^10\).—After Athnach, \(G\) inserts אפאביה אפי בסנס בתי ירי מיהא מיהא, מיהא תיוס פולואס די אפאה (from 26\(^9\)).

3. מיהא אפי בסנס חכ: cf. 21\(^11\), Ex. 18\(^8\), Nu. 12\(^1\) 13\(^2\) (E), Gn. 21\(^25\) 26\(^2\) (J), Jos. 14\(^4\) (R), Ju. 6\(^7\). מיהא a married woman, Dt. 22\(^3\).—4. To מיהא in the indefinite sense of ‘people’ (Leute) we may compare Ps. 43\(^1\), Dn. 11\(^23\); but the sense is doubtful, and the idea may be that the whole nation is involved in the punishment of the king (Str.). Eerdmans (Komp. der Genesis, 41) offers the incredible suggestion that מיהא here has
tion of Abimelech's good conscience (which depended solely on the purity of his motives), but of Yahwe's words in 4b. Why he had not come near her, we gather fully from 17.—

4b, 5. Abimelech protests his innocence.—innocent folk]—
such as I am' (v. i.).—5. יִֽהְבָּא יִתְנַהְנוּ "unsuspectingly"; cf. 2 Sa. 1511, 1 Ki. 2294; in the wider sense of moral integrity the phrase occurs 1 Ki. 94, Ps. 7872 1012.—6. have kept thee back from sinning (i.e. inexpiably) against me] The sin is not mere infringement of the rights of a privileged person (Di.), but the moral offence of violating the marriage bond. —suffered thee not] by sickness (v.17).—7. The situation is altered by this disclosure of the facts to Abimelech: if he now retains Sarah, he will be on every ground deserving of punishment.—he is a prophet] in a secondary sense, as a 'man of God,' whose person and property are inviolable: cf. Ps. 10515.—On intercession as a function of the prophet, Dt. 920, 1 Sa. 75 1219, 23, Jer. 710 etc.; but cf. Jb. 428.—that thou mayest live] or 'recover.'

The section (8-7) exhibits a vacillation which is characteristic of the conception of sin in antique religion. Sin is not wholly an affair of the conscience and inward motive, but an external fact—a violation of the objective moral order, which works out its consequences with the indifference of a law of nature to the mental condition of the transgressor (cf. the matricide of Orestes, etc.; and see Smend, ATRG2, 108 f.). At the same time God Himself recognises the relative validity of Abimelech's plea of ignorance (6). It is the first faint protest of the moral sense against the hereditary mechanical notion of guilt. But it is a long way from Abimelech's faltering protestation of innocence to Job's unflinching assertion of the right of the individual conscience against the decree of an unjust fate.

8-13. Abimelech and Abraham.—9. a great sin] i.e., a state of things which, though unwittingly brought about, involves heavy judgement from God (see on 8-7 above).—deeds

its late Jewish sense of an individual 'heathen.' Geiger, Graetz, al. regard the word as a gloss or a corrupt ditography. כ has δνως δύνατον καὶ δικαιον.—5. יarrass] only here in Hex.; E is addicted to rare expressions. For 53, cf. Ps. 269 7313.—6. שָׁפָט for שָׁפַט; G-K. § 7599. —7. יarrass] 'permit,' 31, Nu. 2621 2128 2218 (E), Ex. 1228 (J), 319 (R), Dt. 1814, Jos. 1018 (D): see OH, i. 192.

8. וַיְשָׁמָה] מִֽכָּלָ֑ן הַבָּ֣שׁ וַיְשָׁמָ֑ה הָ֣ה הַבָּ֣שׁ הַבּוֹל נֵ֣ל שָׁמְאָ֑ה. 9. יarrass הָ֣ה הַבָּ֣שׁ הַבּוֹל נֵ֣ל שָׁמְאָ֑ה הָ֣ה הַבָּ֣שׁ הַבּוֹל נֵ֣ל שָׁמְאָ֑ה.
that are not done] are not sanctioned by the conventional code of morals: cf. 347, 2 Sa. 1312 etc.—To this rebuke Abraham (as in 1235) has no reply, and Abimelech proceeds in—IO to inquire into his motive for so acting.—

II. What possessed thee? (v.i.).—II-13. Abraham’s self-exculpation, which is at the same time the writer’s apology for his conduct, consists of three excuses: (1) he was actuated by fear for his life; (2) he had not been guilty of direct falsehood, but only of mental reservation; (3) the deceit was not practised for the first time on Abimelech, but was a preconcerted scheme which (it is perhaps implied) had worked well enough in other places. Whether 2 and 3 had any foundation in the Elohist tradition, or were invented by the narrator ad hoc (Gu.), we cannot now determine.—

II. There is no piety (§ 324.13) in this place] Religion was the only sanction of international morality, the gér having no civil rights; cf. 4218: see Bertholet, Stellung d. Fremden, 15. Cf. 1212.—12. Besides, she really is my sister] Marriage with a half-sister on the father’s side was frequent among the Semites (Smith, KM2, 191 f.), and was allowed in ancient Israel (2 Sa. 1313), though prohibited by later legislation (Dt. 2722, Lv. 183. 11 2017).—13. When God caused me to stray] The expression is peculiar, as if God had driven him
forth an aimless wanderer (Di.). It proves that in E, as in J and P, Abraham was an immigrant in Canaan.

14-18. Abimelech makes reparation to Abraham.—

14. The present to Abraham in 12:16 was of the nature of mōhar or purchase-price of a wife; here it is a compensation for injury unwittingly inflicted. The restoration of Sarah is, of course, common to both accounts.—15. The invitation to dwell in the land is a contrast to the honourable but peremptory dismissal of 12:19f.—16. see, I give . . . to thy brother] For injury done to a woman compensation was due to her relatives if unmarried, to her husband if married or betrothed (Ex. 22:15f., Dt. 22:29f.): Abimelech, with a touch of sarcasm, puts Sarah in the former category.—1000 (shekels) of silver] not the money value of the gifts in v. 14 (Str.), but a special present as a solatium on behalf of Sarah. —a covering of the eyes] seemingly a forensic expression for the pretense by which an offence ceases to be seen, i.e., is condoned. The fig. is applied in various ways in OT; cf. Jb. 9:24, Gn. 32:21, Ex. 23:8, 1 Sa. 12:8.—The cl. ἡμῶν ὀφθαλμάς is obscure, and the text hardly correct (v.t.). The general sense is that Sarah's honour is completely rehabilitated.—
17. God healed Ab.] The first explicit intimation (see 4. 6) that Abimelech had been smitten with a bodily malady, whose nature is indicated by the last word רָדַּה. — 18. A superfluous and inadequate explanation of 17, universally recognised as a gloss; note also מַעַי. — רֹעַש] see on 16a.

XXI. 1-21.—Birth of Isaac and Expulsion of Ishmael (J, E, and P).

The birth, circumcision, and naming of Isaac are briefly recorded in a section pieced together from the three sources (1-7). Then follows a notice of the weaning festival (8), to which, by a finely descriptive touch (9), is linked the Elohist version of the origin of the Ishmaelites (10-21). A comparison with the Yahwistic parallel (ch. 16) will be found below (p. 324).

Analysis. — 2b-5 are from P (who by the way ignores altogether the expulsion of Ishmael [see on 25a]): obs. the naming by the father and the exact correspondence with 16a in 8, circumcision (4), the chronology (9); and the words שָנָה, 2b, 4; וֹשֶׁה, 2b (cf. 17a); בַּשָּׁר, 5. 2b is to be assigned to J (יִתְנָה, 5, v.t.); and also, for the same reason, 7. There remain the doublets 1a 1b and 6a 6b. Since the continuity of P is seldom sacrificed, 1b is usually assigned to that source (הָרָע, a scribal error), leaving 1a to J (הָרָע, וֹשֶׁה). 6b goes with 7 (therefore J: v.t.); and there remains for E the solitary half-verse 6a (בַּשָּׁר), which cannot belong to P because of the different etymology implied for בַּשָּׁר. So Ho. Gu.; Di. Str. differ only in assigning the whole of 6 to E.—The J fragments 1a, 2a, 7, 6b form a completely consecutive account of the birth of Isaac; which, however, is not the sequel to ch. 16 (see on 8a), and therefore
belongs to $J^b$ rather than $J^h$ (Gu.).—8-21 is wholly Elohistic: מֶלֶךְ, 12, 17, 18. 20; הָעָם, 18. 12; הָעָם, 18 (וֹיֵשׁ, 12$^2$; † $P'$ קְני, 17$^{20}$); and rare expressions like מְזֻהַב, 14. 15. 19; מִשְׁפַּטַּיִם, 16; תַּכְוֹת הָרָע, 20. Further characteristics are the revelation of God by night (12$^2$), and in a voice from heaven (17).

1-7. The birth of Isaac.—2. a son to his old age] so v.$^7$ 24$^{36}$ 37$^8$ 44$^{20}$ (all J). All the sources emphasise the fact that Isaac was a late-born child; but this section contains nothing implying a miracle (ct. chs. 17, 18).—3-5. The naming and circumcision of Isaac, in accordance with 17$^{10, 12}$ (P).—6a. God has made laughter for me] Both here and in 6$^b$ laughter is an expression of joy, whereas in 18$^{12ff.}$ 17$^7$ it expresses incredulity.—6b, 7 is the Yahwistic parallel. It has been pointed out by Bu. (Urg. 224: so Kit. KS. Ho.) that the transposition of 6$^b$ to the end of 7 greatly improves the sense, and brings out the metrical form of the original (in Heb. 4 trimeters):

Who would have said to Abraham,
"Sarah gives children suck"?
For I have borne him a son in his old age!

8-10. Sarah demands the ejection of Ishmael.—8. The occasion was the customary family feast of the weaning of Isaac (Benz. Arch.$^2$ 131). The age of weaning in modern Palestine is said to be 2 or 3 years (ib. 116); in ancient Israel also it must often have been late (1 Sa. 1$^{22ff.}$, 2 Mac. $^{1a.} \text{钏} \text{ix} \text{ix} \text{ix}$ never used by P sensu bono (Str.).—2. מֶלֶךְ] see $^{3.}$—3. מֶלֶךְ] pointed as pf. with art. (18$^{21}$).—6a. מְזֻהַב] The מְזֻהַב never occurs outside of Pent., except Ju. 16$^{26}$ (where מְזֻהַב should probably be read) and Ezk. 23$^{32}$ (but see Corn. and Toy), the Qal being used only in connexion with Isaac (17$^7$ 18$^{12}$. $^{15, 18}$ 21$^6$), while Pi. has a stronger sense (19$^{14}$ 21$^9$ 26$^8$ 39$^{14, 17}$, Ex. 32$^6$). The other form מְזֻהַב (not in Pent.) is mostly later than Jer. (except Ju 16$^{27}$, 1 Sa. 18$^7$, 2 Sa. 2$^{11}$ 6$^5, 31$): in four cases (Am. 7$^9, 16$, Jer. 33$^{26}$ Ps. 105$^9$) even the name מְזֻהַב appears as מְזֻהַב. It will be seen that in Gn. we have no fewer than 4 (17$^7$ 18$^{12}$ 21$^{6a.}$ 6$^b$) or 5 (21$^9$ 7) different suggestions of a connexion of מְזֻהַב with מְזֻהַב. Analogy would lead us to suppose that in reality it is a contraction of מְזֻהַב, in all probability the name of an extinct tribe (cf. מְזֻהַב, מְזֻהַב, etc.).—6b. מְזֻהַב] see G-K. § 10 g.—7. הָעָם] Aram.; in Heb. rare and poetical.—On the modal use of pf. ('would have said'), cf. G-K. § 106 p; Dri. T. § 19.—םָיָר pl. of species; cf. Ex. 21$^{28}$, 1 Sa. 17$^{44}$, Ca. 2$^9$ (Di.). $^{G}$ has sing.—יִשְׁפַּט] $^{G} \text{en} \ \text{ט} \ \text{יתֶפֶל} \ \text{מֹומ}$. 21
The last words are essential to the sense, and must be restored with συνη (see Jub. xvii. 4, with Charles's Note). It is the spectacle of the two young children playing together, innocent of social distinctions, that excites Sarah's maternal jealousy and prompts her cruel demand. The chronology of P, according to which Ishmael was some 17 years old, has for uncritical readers spoiled the effect; and given rise to the notion of Ishmael as a rude lad scoffing at the family joy, or to the still more fanciful explanations current in Jewish circles.*—10. with my son] If this presupposes an equal right of inheritance as between the sons of the wife and the concubine (Gu.), it also shows a certain opposition to that custom: cf. the case of Jephthah, Ju. ii. 11th. (see Benz. Arch. 2 296).—this slave girl (־ית) In E, Hagar is not Sarah's maid, but simply a household slave, who has become her master's concubine.

11–13. Abraham's misgivings removed.—11. on account of his son] whom he loves as his own flesh and blood; for the mother, as a slave, he has no particular affection.—12. It is revealed to him (by night): cf. 14) that Sarah's maternal instincts are in accord with the divine purpose.—shall a seed be called to thee] i.e., 'in the line of Isaac shall thy name be perpetuated' (Is. 41, cf. Ro. 9, Heb. 1118). The same idea otherwise expressed in P (1719, 21, 22).—13. Hagar's child (still unnamed) is also Abraham's seed, though his descendants are not to be known as such.—a great nation (μ.) cf. 1720.

9. πανή] Τα ταντα μετὰ Ἰσαὰκ τοῦ υἱοῦ δαυὶς; so Ἔ (cf. Zec. 8). The sense 'mock' ('play with' in a bad sense) would require a following π, but it is doubtful if it actually occurs. 39n, 17 may be explained after 26; in 19 it means simply 'play' as opposed to serious behaviour (cf. Pr. 2619). See above on ν.6.—On the pause ἀ, see G-K. § 52 n.—11 end] Τα Ἰσαὰκ (wrongly).—12. Ἰσαὰκ] 7ο πηκα. 13. μ. read θεὰν ἡμῖν τὴν βασιλείαν: ἡρί also in Μ. [1] ἤν—οὐ] so ν. 18 468 (E).

* St. Paul's allusion to Ishmael as persecuting Isaac (Gal. 419, διώκεῖν) is based on this πανή. For other Haggadic interpretations, see Ber. R. § liii; Dri. DB, ii. 501b, and Gen. 210. Unchastity (cf. 3917, idolatry (Ex. 32, 6), attempted murder (2 Sa. 14, Pr. 2619), etc., are among the crimes inferred from this unfortunate word.
14-16. Mother and child in the desert.—The sufferings and despair of the helpless outcasts are depicted with fine feeling and insight.—**14. a skin of water** נָמָם (v.i.), the usual Eastern water-bag, answering to the *gîrîm* of the modern Bedouin (Doughty, *Ar. Des.* i. 227, ii. 585).—*and the boy he placed on her shoulder* (v.i.)] cf. 15. **the wilderness of Beersheba** (see on 31) implying that Abraham dwelt near, but not necessarily at, Beersheba.—**15. she cast the boy** (whom, therefore, she must have been carrying) **under one of the bushes** for protection from the sun (1 Ki. 104). To save P's chronology, De. and Str. make *cast* = 'eîlends niederlegen'—with what advantage does not quite appear. —**16. a bowshot off** [out of sight of her child, but within hearing of his cry. —The last cl. should be read with א; and the boy lifted up his voice and wept* (v.17): the change of subject being due to the false impression that Ishmael was now a grown lad. Hagar's dry-eyed despair is a more effective picture than that given by MT.

17-19. The Divine succour comes in two forms: a voice from heaven (17.), and an opening of Hagar's eyes (19). —**17. God heard** (twice) preparing for an explanation of הָעַדְנוּ. While God Himself hears, the medium of His revelation is the *Angel of God* (as 2812 3111 320, *Ex. 14.19*), who by a refinement peculiar to E (2211) speaks from heaven. This goes beyond the primary conception of the Angel: see on 167. —**18. Hagar is encouraged by a disclosure of the future greatness of her son. —19. opened her eyes*] cf. 387.

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14. *תָּנָה* Only here (18 19) = Ar. *ḥamit* (♂ *hamita*, 'rancid'?). On the forms נֶנְתָה, נֶנְתָּה, or נֶנֶתָה, see G-K. § 95 l.—*וְנָתָהּ הָעַדְנוּ* The transposition הָעַדְנוּ הָעַדְנוּ was suggested by Ols., and is by far the best remedy for an awkward constr. In MT it would be necessary to take הָעַדְנוּ as second obj. to יָנָה, and הָעַדְנוּ הָעַדְנוּ as a parenthetic circumst. cl. (so Di. De. Str.). It is an effort to evade the absurdity of a youth of 17 being carried on his mother's back.—**15. *תָּנָה* 'desert shrubs'; see on 28-16. *תָּנָה* G-K. § 113 h.—*הָעַדְנוּ הָעַדְנוּ* lit. 'as (far as) bowmen do'; אַרְוְאֵל *רֹּץוּ בֹּלְשָׁב* [♀ 장생], hardly imply a different text. On יָנָה *[תָּנָה], only here*, see G-K. § 75 kk.—*וְנָתָהּ חַסְמָ חַסְמָ* כָּלְבָּא־לֶבֶן [רַבָּא לֶבֶן].—17b. *יָבִישָׁא* MSS and *אָבָא*—19. *שֵׁם רֵאָב* עַוְיָו—attractive (cf. 2619).
The tact of the narrator leaves us in doubt whether the well was now miraculously opened, or had been there all along though unseen. In any case it is henceforth a sacred well.

20, 21. Ishmael’s career. — Here we expect the naming of the child, based on v.17: this has been omitted by R in favour of J (16:11). — 20. The boy grew up, amidst the perils and hardships of the desert,—a proof that God was with him. — he became a bowman] (pt. יְשֵׁנָה נְבֵרָן: v.i.), the bow being the weapon of his descendants (Is. 21:17). — 21. The wilderness of Paran is et-Tih, bounding the Negeb on the S. — His mother took him a wife from the land of Egypt] her own country (v.9): see p. 285 above.

Comparison of ch. 16 with 21:1-21. — That these two narratives are variations of a common legendary theme is obvious from the identity of the leading motives they embody: viz. the significance of the name Ishmael (16:11 21:17); the mode of life characteristic of his descendants (16:12 21:20); their relation to Israel; and the sacredness of a certain well, consecrated by a theophany (16:14 21:19). Each tale is an exhaustive expression of these motives, and does not tolerate a supplementary anecdote alongside of it. Ch. 21, however, represents a conception of the incident further removed from primitive conditions than 16: contrast the sympathetic picture of nomadic life in 16:12 with the colourless notice of 21:20; in 16, moreover, Hagar is a high-spirited Bedawi woman who will not brook insult, and is at home in the desert; while in 21 she is a household slave who speedily succumbs to the hardships of the wilderness. In E the appeal is to universal human sympathies rather than to the peculiar susceptibilities of the nomad nature; his narrative has a touch of pathos which is absent from J; it is marked by a greater refinement of moral feeling, and by a less anthropomorphic idea of God.

—See the admirable characterisation of Gu. p. 203f.

20. יְשֵׁנָה יְהוָה יִתֶּה] ‘and he became, growing up, an archer’; יֹאֶנְיָנִיס יָגוֹר יָשָׁר. But יָנַי is א. יָני, the syntax is peculiar, and, besides, the growing up has already been mentioned. The true text is doubtless that given above and implied by גי אָנָי אָנָי יָאוֹרָית. יִיָּנַי אָנָי יִגְּרָי יִגְּרָי also implies יָנַי; but there are further divergences in that Vn. יָנַי = ‘shoot’ (not so elsewhere), might be a by-form of יָנַי (see on 49:23; and cf. יָנַי = ‘shooter,’ in Jer. 50:29, Jb. 16:13); but it may be a question whether in these three cases we should not substitute יָנַי for יָנַי, or whether in this pass. we should not read יָנַי יָנַי with Ba. (see esp. Jer. 4:29, Ps. 78:9). The rendering ‘a shooter, an archer’ (De.) is clumsy; and the idea that יָנַי is an explanatory gloss on יָנַי (KS.) is not probable.

* The well is not identified in E. Gu.’s view, that it was Beersheba, has little to commend it.
XXI. 22-34.—Abraham’s Covenant with Abimelech (E and J).

Two distinct narratives, each leading up to a covenant at Beersheba, are here combined. (A) In the first, Abraham, acceding to a request of Abimelech, enters into a covenant of permanent friendship with him, from which the place derives its name ‘Well of the Oath’ (22-24, 27. 31).—(B) In the other, the covenant closes a long-standing dispute about springs, and secures the claim of Abraham’s people to the wells of Beersheba, where Abraham subsequently plants a sacred tree (25, 26, 28-30, 32, 33).

Sources.—The passage, except some redactional touches in 22-24, has usually been assigned to E (We. Kue. Di. Ho. Str.). Its disjointed character has, however, been felt, and tentative solutions have been proposed by several critics (cf. KS. Anm. 92, 93; Kraetz. Bundvorstg. 14, 31; v. Gall, CST. 46 f.; OH. ii. 30 f.). The most successful is that of Gu., who assigns 25, 26, 28-30, 32-34 to J, the rest to E: the reasons will appear in the notes. The analysis rests on the duplicates (27a II 30a, 17b II 23a) and material discrepancies of the section; the linguistic criteria being indecisive as between J and E, though quite decisive against P (דב, דב, 22; תיירא ויקב, 27; ויבבב, 30). But the connexion with ch. 20, and שויה in 22-28, prove that the main account is from E; while הניה, 33, and ויבבב, 30, show the other to be J. Since the scene is Beersheba, the Yahwistic component must be J. 22-34 have been considerably modified by R. Procksch (10 ff.) holds that in the original E v. 22ff. preceded 1-20; his detailed analysis being almost identical with Gu.’s.

22-24. Abimelech proposes an oath of perpetual amity between his people and Abraham’s, and the latter consents (E)—22. Pikol (v.i.), his commander-in-chief, seems here merely a symbol of the military importance of Gerar: otherwise 2636ff., where P. is a party to the covenant.—23. Swear to me here] in the place afterwards known as Beersheba (31). Abraham’s departure from Gerar, and Abimelech’s visit to him in Beersheba, must have stood in E between 2017 and 2122 (cf. 2613, 26).—24. This unreserved consent is inconsistent with the expostulation of—25, 26 (J), which pre-

supposes strained relations between the parties, and repeated disputes about the ownership of wells. Note (1) the frequentative נְאָה, (2) the pl. 'wells' (retained by אֲשֶׁר), (3) the fuller parallel of 2615, which shows that the right to several wells had been contested.—*And as often as Abraham took Abimelech to task about the wells. . . Abimelech would answer*—that he knew nothing of the matter (so Gu.).—

27. Continuing 24 (E). Giving (or exchange?) of presents seems to have been customary when a covenant was made (1 Ki. 15, Is. 30, Ho. 12). The action would be no suitable answer to v. 26.—28–30 (J). *The seven ewe lambs are set apart for the purpose explained in 30; but the art. shows that they must have been mentioned in the previous context. It is clear from 30 that the lacuna is in J, not in E; while Abimelech's question 29 proves that the lambs were not an understood part of the ceremony (Di.).—30. *That it (the acceptance of the present) may be a witness, etc.* so that in future there may be no quarrel about Beersheba.—31 belongs to E: יֶשֶׁבִים, cf. 28. יֶשֶׁב֗וּת, cf. 27. יֶשֶׁבּוֹת = 'seven wells,' is here explained as 'Well of the Oath,' the oath being the central feature of the berith. The etymology is not altogether at fault, since יֶשֶׁבִים may mean lit. to 'put oneself under the influence of seven,' the sacred number (Her. iii. 8; Hom. II. xix. 243 ff.; Paus. iii. 20. 9).—32a. *J's parallel to 27b.*—33. The inauguration of the cult of Beersheba (J: cf.

MT is probably right, with freqv. sense of pf. given above. For the following רֵאשׁ (instead of רֵאשׁ), see Dri. T. § 114 b. —אֲשֶׁר] אֲשֶׁר fיִרְשׁוּב, ut sup. —28. [ם] מ (which also omits יֹם) וָמ. De. thinks this one of the few cases (G–K. § 107 c) where art. determines only its own word, and not the whole expression.—29. Rd. רְשֵׁבָה with מ (30).—ינַשַּבֶּל (מ ורָדְבִּי). On suff. cf. G–K. § 91 f. The form is chiefly pausal; and though the only other ex. in Pent. (Gn. 42) is E, 30d (נֵרָדְבִּי) is J, and the form cannot be considered distinctive of E.—31. יִשָּׂבֻּל רַמְנ] אֲשֶׁר fיִרְשָׁבְרוּ=oֹרָיָשָׁו, but in 32 f. soֹרָיָשָׁו. The constr. (num. in gen. after sing. noun) has been supposed by Sta. to be Canaanite idiom (cf. יִשָּׂבֻּל נִפְּלָט בְּפַת, 23).—33. יִשָּׂבֻּל Ar. *'atli*, Aram.

* 27b would be a natural conclusion to E's narrative (cf. 23), but for the fact that that source never speaks of a Philistine occupation of Gerar. The last three vv., however, seem to have been altered by a compiler.—It is probable that J gave an explanation of the name of the well, connecting it with the seven lambs; so ק (קֵינָבָה כָּבוֹצָה, 32).
Among the *sacra* of that famous shrine there must have been a sacred tamarisk believed to have been planted by Abraham (see on 118). The planting of a sacred tree is no more a *contradictio in adjecto* (Sta. in v. Gall, 47) than the erecting of a sacred stone, or the digging of a sacred well. The opinion (KS. Ho.) that the subj. is Isaac, and that the v. should stand after 2625, rests on the incorrect assumption that no stratum of J puts Abraham in connexion with Beersheba.—'ElʿOlam] presumably the pre-Israelite name of the local *numen*, here identified with Yahwe (Gu.: see 1613). Canaanite analogies are Ἡλος ὤ καὶ Κρόνος (Eus. *Presp. Ev.* i. 10, 13 ff.), and Χρόνος ἀγήρατος (Damasc. *Princ.* 123).—34. The assumption that Beersheba was in Philistine territory being incompatible with 32b, the v. must be an interpolation.—On the historical background of these legends, see after 2633.

Beersheba is the modern Biʿr-es-Sebaʿ, in the heart of the Negeb, some 28 miles SW from Hebron, and 25 SE from Umm el-ʿGerār. Its importance as a religious centre in OT appears not only from its frequent mention in the patriarchal history (2219 2623ff. *n.r. 2810 464ff*), but still more from the fact that in the 8th cent. its oracle (cf. 2522) was resorted to by pilgrims from the northern kingdom (Am. 58 814). V. Gall (44 ff.) questions the opinion that it was originally a group of 7 wells, holding that there was but one, whose name meant 'Well of the Oath.' But that "among the Semites a special sanctity was attached to groups of seven wells" is shown by Smith (RS3, 181 f.: cf. Nö. *ARW*, viii. 340 ff.); and the existence of a plurality of wells at Biʿr es-Sebaʿ has never been disputed. See Rob. *BR*, i. 204 ff.; Smith, *HG*, 284 f.; Robinson, *Bibl. World*, xvii. (1901), 247 ff.; Gautier, *ib.* xviii. 49 ff.; Dri. *ET*, vii. (1896), 567 f.; *Joel and Amos*3 (1901), p. 239 f.; Trumbull, *ET*, viii. 89.

**CH. XXII. The Sacrifice of Isaac (E and R18).**

The only incident in Abraham's life expressly characterised as a 'trial' of his faith is the one here narrated, where the patriarch proves his readiness to offer up his only son.

[[1] Ass. *ašlu*; 1 Sa. 228 3113 [in 1 Ch. 1018 7[8]] †, in both cases probably denoting a *sacred* tree. The word seems to have been strange to Vns.: Τ ἀποφάνσ̄̄, Αq. *ένδρων̄̄*, Σ. *φυλελαφ*, *ף* *נเมน*, etc. The substitution of *פ* for *י* proposed by Sta. (v.s.) is uncalled for, though see *EB*, 4892 f.—אִּיר| זוּמִּן.—34 is wanting in *ת* (ed. Ginsburger).]
as a sacrifice at the command of God. The story, which is the literary masterpiece of the Elohistic collection, is told with exquisite simplicity; every sentence vibrates with restrained emotion, which shows how fully the author realises the tragic horror of the situation.

Source.—The original narrative consists of vv.1-14. In spite of מִי in 14, this belongs to E: cf. וְיִשְׁתַּחַר[8], 13; מְךָ[9] מָלֶךְ; the revelation by night, 15; the Angel calling from heaven, 11.—On 15 see below. Comp. Di. Ho. Gu.

I-8. Abraham's willing preparation for the sacrifice.—I. God tempted Abraham] i.e., tested him, to "know what was in his heart" (Dt. 8),—an anthropomorphic representation: cf. Ex. 16 20, Dt. 8 33 etc. This sentence governs the narrative and prepares the reader for a good ending.—2. thy son—thine only one—whom thou lovest —Isaac] emphasising the greatness of the sacrifice, as if to say that God knows right well how much He asks.—the land of Mōriyyah (מֹרִיעָה) All attempts to explain the name and identify the place have been futile.

The prevalent Jewish and Christian tradition puts the scene on the Temple mount at Jerusalem (מֹרִיעָה יְרוּשָׁלַיִם, 2 Ch. 3 1; יְרוּשָׁלַיִם b'rōs, Jos. Ant. i. 224, cf. 226). But (a) the attestation of the name is so late and unreliable that it is a question whether the Chronicler's use of it rests on a traditional interpretation of this passage, or whether it was introduced here on the strength of his notice. (b) Even if מֹרִיעָה were a genuine ancient name for the Temple hill, it is not credible that it was extended to the land in which it was, and still less that the hill itself should be described as 'one of the mountains' in the region named after it. There is reason to suspect that the name of a land may have been modified (either in accordance with a fanciful etymology [v.14], or on the authority of 2 Ch. 3) in order that the chief sanctuary of later times

I. 'אמר '组织领导 15.—משנה על שם] The reluctance of grammarians to admit that this can be the main sent., and apod. after time determination, is intelligible (De. Di. Gu.), the order being that of the circumst. cl.; but it is difficult, without sophistical distinctions, to take it any other way. As cir. cl. it could only mean 'when God had tempted Α.,' which is nonsense; and to speak of it as a Verumstätigung of the fol. רָאָה (De.) is to deceive oneself with a word. The right explanation in Dri. T. § 78 (3)—םָהְבָּב] repeated in וְיִשְׁתַּחַר; cf. 11.—2. הָשוּבָב] The word was no doubt popularly connected with שְׁרוּב as used in 14 (cf. אִזְנָה רָאָה, אָרָה רָאָה, שְׁרוּבָב, אָרָה וְיָדָם, עְצָה אָרָה, הָסוּרָב), though a real derivation from that שְׁרוּב is impossible. שְׁרוּב (cf. 12). ש has לִשְׁרוּב.
might not be altogether ignored in the patriarchal history. The Samaritan tradition identified Moriah with Shechem.* This view has been revived in two forms: (1) that the name is a corruption or variant of רמה in 12 εποικοδομημαι etc. (Bleek, SK, 1831, 520 ff.; Tu., v. Gall [see Στυλαι]); and (2) that it is a corruption of מִי (‘land of the Hamorites’ [3319]) (We.). But both these names are too local and restricted to suit the context; and the distance is perhaps too great. Of the attempts to recover the original name, the simplest is רמה, which would be a natural designation of Palestine in E;† see on 1028. If the legend be very ancient, there is no certainty that the place was in the Holy Land at all. Any extensive mountainous region, well known at the time, and with a lingering tradition of human sacrifice, would satisfy the conditions. Hence, Che.’s suggestion that the land of ‘Musri’ is to be read (EB, 3200; Wi. GJ, ii. 44), is not devoid of plausibility. On Gu.’s solution, see below.

which I will name to thee] When this more precise direction was imparted, does not appear.—3. While the outward preparations are graphically described, no word is spared for the conflict in Abraham’s breast,—a striking illustration of the reticence of the legends with regard to mental states.—4. saw the place afar off] The spot, therefore, has already been indicated (v.2). We are left to imagine the pang that shot through the father’s heart when he caught sight of it.—5. Another touch, revealing the tense feeling with which the story is told: the servants are put off with a pretext whose hollowness the reader knows.—6. “The boy carries the heavier load, the father the more dangerous: knife and fire” (Gu.). It is curious that OT has no allusion to the method of producing fire.—7, 8. The pathos of this dialogue is inimitable: the artless curiosity of the child, the irrepressible

* See ZDPV, vi. 198, viii. 133.—V. Gall (CSSt. 112) seems in error when he says this was a Jewish tradition.

† But it is doubtful if the restoration can claim the authority of 3, for that Vn. reads ἅσαμον; σαμα in 2 Ch. 31 also.
affection of the father, and the stern ambiguity of his reply, can hardly be read without tears. Note the effect of the repetition: and they went both of them together (6.8).—God will provide] ἵνα, lit. ‘look out’; as 41 [Dt. 12:18 33:21], 1 Sa. 16:17. The word points forward to v.14.

9-14. The sacrifice averted.—9, 10. The vv. describe with great minuteness the preliminary ritual of the ἱερον in highly technical language (ἅπαξ, ἀπέκτησεν, τίνι); v.i. —II, 12. At the extreme moment Abraham’s hand is stayed by a voice from heaven.—II is certainly from E; ἱερον must therefore be a redactional accommodation to v.15 (cf. § inf.).—The repetition of Abraham expresses urgency; as 46, Ex. 3:4 (E), 1 Sa. 3:10.—12. The Angel speaks in the name of God, as 16:10, 21:18.—now I know, etc.] Thus early was the truth taught that the essence of sacrifice is the moral disposition (Ps. 51).—13. The substitution of the ram for the human victim takes place without express command, Abraham recognising by its mysterious presence that it was ‘provided’ by God for this purpose.—14a. The naming of the place is an essential feature of the legend, and must therefore be assigned to E.—ἐνώτιον, as it alludes to v.8; but that any sanctuary actually bore this name is scarcely probable. In truth, it seems to be given as the explanation, not of a name, but of a current proverbial saying (Sta. GVI, i. 450), which can hardly be the original intention (see below).—14b. The words ἐνώτιον, ἰνώτιον yield no sense appropriate to the context.

MT might be rendered: (a) ‘In the mount of Yahwe he (it) is seen’ (Str.), or (b) ‘In the mount of Y. men appear’ [for worship] (Dri. 220, cf. TO inf.), or (disregarding acc.) (c) ‘In the mount where Y. is
seen': in this case the saying would be יֶהְנָה הָאָרֶץ (148), and 14b would merely mean that it was used in the Temple mount. All these are obviously unsatisfactory. With a slight change (נַפְּרוּ for 'ן) the cl. would read 'In the mount Y. appears' (so ḡ), or (with רְפֵּי for רְפֵּי) 'In . . . Y. sees' (EŠ).—The text has probably been altered under the same tendency which gave rise to רְפֵּי in v. ²; and the recovery of the original is impossible. Gu., with brilliant ingenuity, conjectures that the name of the sanctuary was יָהֵזָה (2 Ch. 2018); this he inserts after יָהֵזָה; and restores the remainder of the v. as follows: רְפֵּי אֲדֹנָי רְפֵּי לָצֵּא יָהֵזָה יָהֵזָה רְפֵּי 'for he said, "To-day, in this mountain, God provideth."

The occasion seemed to a Jehovistic red. to demand an ampler reward than the sparing of Isaac; hence a supplementary revelation (יְהֵזָה) is appended.—16. By myself I swear] cf. Ex. 3218 (also R16), elsewhere Is. 4528, Jer. 225 4918.—יָהֵזָה [lit. 'murmur of Yahwe,' an expression for the prophetic inspiration, whose significance must have been forgotten before it could be put in the mouth of the Angel. Even P (Nu. 1428) is more discriminating in his use of the phrase.—17. occupy the gate of their enemies] i.e., take possession of their cities (ῗ πόλεις); cf. 2460.—18. by thy seed . . . bless themselves (Hithp.]) So 264; cf. Dt. 2918, Is. 6518, Jer. 49, Ps. 7217. See on 128.—19. The return to Beersheba is the close of E's narrative, continuing v. 14.

The secondary character of 15-18 is clear not only from its loose connexion with the primary narrative, but also from its combination of Elohist conceptions with Yahwistic phraseology, the absence of originality, the improper use of יַהְנָה, etc. Cf. We. Comp.² 20; Di. 291; Ho. 165.—The view of De. (324 f.) and Str. (82), that 14-18 are from a J parallel to 22-14, is untenable.

The difficult question of the meaning of this incident is approached from two sides. (1) Those who regard it as a literal occurrence in the life of a man of eminent piety, holding views of truth in advance of his age, are undoubtedly able to give it an interpretation charged with deep religious significance. Familiar with the rite of child-sacrifice amongst the surrounding heathen, the patriarch is conceived

(ךי for כ), in that place, saying before the Lord, Here shall generations worship. So it is said at this day, In this mountain A. worshipped before the Lord.'—יַהְנָה הָאָרֶץ] ḡ ֵי תְּפִלָה בְּרֵא קּוֹרֹים אָפֶּה, E in monte

Dominus videbit, § 2. 16 end] Add יִשְׂרָאֵל as v. 12: so G 추진.—18. יִשְׂרָאֵל] elsewhere only 268,

2 Sa. 128.
as arrested by the thought that even this terrible sacrifice might rightly be demanded by the Being to whom he owed all that he was; and as brooding over it till he seemed to hear the voice of God calling on him to offer up his own son as proof of devotion to Him. He is led on step by step to the very verge of accomplishing the act, when an inward monition stays his hand, and reveals to him that what God really requires is the surrender of the will—that being the truth in his previous impression; but that the sacrifice of a human life is not in accordance with the character of the true God whom Abraham worshipped. But it must be felt that this line of exposition is not altogether satisfying. The story contains no word in repudiation of human sacrifice, nor anything to enforce what must be supposed to be the main lesson, viz., that such sacrifices were to find no place in the religion of Abraham's descendants. (2) Having regard to the origin of many other Genesis narratives, we must admit the possibility that the one before us is a legend, explaining the substitution of animal for human sacrifices in some type of ancient worship. This view is worked out with remarkable skill by Gu. (211-214), who thinks he has recovered the lost name of the sanctuary from certain significant expressions which seem to prepare the mind for an etymological interpretation: viz. נָהּר, נָהָר, 8 (cf. 14); נָהָר ה', 12; and נָהָר [נָהָר] נָהָר, 19. From these indications he concludes that the original name in 14 was נָהָר; and he is disposed to identify the spot with a place of that name somewhere near Tekoa, mentioned in 2 Ch. 20:16 (נָהָר, in 1 Ch. 7:2 is excluded by geographical considerations). Here he conjectures that there was a sanctuary where the custom of child-sacrifice had been modified by the substitution of a ram for a human being. The basis of Gn. 22 would then be the local cultus-legend of this place. Apart from the philological speculations, which are certainly pushed to an extreme, it is not improbable that Gu.'s theory correctly expresses the character of the story; and that it originally belonged to the class of etiological legends which everywhere weave themselves round peculiarities of ritual whose real origin has been forgotten or obscured. — An older cultus-myth of the same kind is found in the Phoenician story in which Kronos actually sacrifices his only son 'Iēōdô (רֹאֲפָאָל) or 'Iēōdô ('סֶרֶד, ?) to his father Uranus (Eus. Prap. Ev. i. 10, 29). The sacrifice of Iphigeneia, and the later modification in which a hind is substituted for the maiden, readily suggests itself as a parallel (Eurip. Iph. Aul. 1540 ff.).

XXII. 20-24.—The Sons of Nāhôr (J, R).

In the singular form of a report brought to Abraham, there is here introduced a list of 12 tribes tracing their descent to Nāhôr. Very few of the names can be identified; but so far as the indications go, they point to the region E and NE of Palestine as the area peopled by the Nahorite family. The division into legitimate (20-23) and illegitimate
(24) sons expresses a distinction between the pure-blooded stock and hybrid, or perhaps alien and subjugated, clans (Guthe, GVI, 5).

The vv. bear the unmistakable signature of a Yahwistic genealogy: cf. 20-24, w. 20-22, 23 10-21 19-20; 21a w. 10-19; 23b w. 9 (10-25); 23 (see p. 98). Of P's style and manner there is no trace; and with regard to 'Og and 'Ārām, there is a material discrepancy between the two documents (v. 21 cpd. with 10-22). The introductory formula 'אֵלמִי רֹאשׁ is not exclusively Elohistic (see on 15), and in any case would be an insufficient reason for ascribing (We. Comp. 29 f.) the whole section to E. See Bu. Urg. 220 ff.—The genealogy appears to have been inserted with reference to ch. 24, from which it was afterwards separated by the amalgamation of P (ch. 23) with the older documents. Its adaptation to this context is, however, very imperfect. Here Abraham is informed of the birth of Nāḥōr's children, whereas in the present text of 24 the grandchildren (Laban and Rebekah) are grown up. Moreover, with the excision of the gloss 23a (v. i.), the only point of direct contact with ch. 24 disappears; and even the gloss does not agree with the view of Rebekah's parentage originally given by J (see on 24). Hence we must suppose that the basis of the passage is an ancient genealogy, which has been recast, annotated, and inserted by a Yahwistic writer at a stage later than the composition of ch. 24, but earlier than the final redaction of the Pent.

20. נֵסְתָּרֵךְ see on 112. — נֵסְתָּרֵךְ רְאוֹלֵל] 112. — 21. יִשְׂעִי] in 10-23 a subdivision of Aram, is here the principal (יִשְׂע) Naḥorite tribe (cf. 36-23). — נֵס (בָּאִית, בָּאֵי, etc.) mentioned in Jer. 25-23 after Dēdān and Tēmā, is probably the בָּאֵז of Esarhaddon's inscr. (KIB, ii. 130 f.), an unidentified district of N Arabia (so Jb. 32). — יִשְׂעִי unknown; see Praetorius, ZDMG, 1903, 780. — יִשְׂעִי הָעָבָדָה (עַטְרֶה סֹדְרֵי) is possibly a gloss (Gu.), but the classification of the powerful Amāreans (see on 10-23) as a minor branch of the Naḥorites is none the less surprising: see p. 334 below. 22. יִשְׂעִי The eponym of the יִשְׂעִי. But whether by these the well-known Chaldeans of S Babylonia are meant is a difficult question. Probability seems in favour of the theory that here, as in 2 Ki. 24, Jb. 17, an Arabian (or rather Amāran) nomadic tribe is to be understood, from which the Bab. יִשְׂעִי may have sprung (Wi. AOF, ii. 250 ff.; Gu.). The result has a bearing on the meaning of Arpāḵšad in 10-23 (see also on 11-29). — יִשְׂעִי (אָלָד) probably the הָעָבָד mentioned after בָּאֵז in Esarhaddon's inscr. (above). — יִשְׂעִי and יִשְׂעִי (עַטְרֶה סֹדְרֵי, עַטְרֶה סֹדְרֵי) are not known. With the former have been compared Palm. יֵשְׂעִי (Levy, ZDMG, xiv. 440) and Sin. יֵשְׂעִי (Cook, Gt. 98; Lidz. Hdb. 352), both personal names. — יִשְׂעִי as personal name 24-15f. (J), 25-20 28-2 (P).

— 23b. is a gloss (Di. Gu.) excluded by the general scheme of the genealogy and by the number 8 in 23b. The last consideration is decisive against Di.'s view that the original text was יִשְׂעִי יֵשְׂעִי יֵשְׂעִי. 24. יֵשְׂעִי cas. pend. : G-K. §§ 111 h, 147 e. יֵשְׂעִי = פָּאַלָּאָאָי (see Sta. GVI, i. 380): a Hitite origin is suggested by Jensen (ZDMG, xlviii. 468 ff., developing a hint of Ew.). — יֵשְׂעִי m. יֵשְׂעִי, כִּי קְרִים, כִּי קְרִים, פָּאַלָּאָאָי, etc.
genealogy of Nahor (J)

—Nic— rightly read by Ge in 2 Sa. 8 (MT נכ נכ, 1 Ch. 18), a city of 'Aram-Zobah, probably identical with the Tubbish of TA No. 127, and Pap. Anast., near Kadesh on the Orontes (but see Müller, AE, 173, 396).—מָכָה (Maaca, Maca, etc.) unknown.—נוה (Noom, Taa/t, etc.) probably Eg. Tehips, on the Orontes, N of Kadesh (AE, 258; Wi. MVAG, i. 207).—נָחוֹר (Maaxa, Maaxa, etc.) Dt. 34, Jos. 125 1318, 2 Sa. 165, 1 Ch. 194; an Aramaean tribe and state occupying the modern Golan, S of Hermon, and E of the Upper Jordan.

To the discrepancies already noted (p. 333) between the genealogy and ch. 24, Meyer (INS, 239 ff.) adds the important observation that the territorial distribution of the sons of Nahor fits in badly with the theory of J, which connects Nahor and Laban with the city of Harran. He points out that the full-blooded Nahorites, so far as identified, are tribes of the Syro-Arabian desert, while those described as hybrids belong to the settled regions of Syria, where nomadic immigrants would naturally amalgamate with the native population. Now the Syro-Arabian desert is in other parts of the OT the home of the Bnè Kedem; and according to E (see on 291) it was among the Bnè Kedem that Jacob found his uncle Laban. Meyer holds that this was the original tradition, and finds a confirmation of it in the geographical background of the list before us. In other words, the Israelites were historically related, not to the civilised Aramaeans about Harran, but to nomadic Aramaean tribes who had not crossed the Euphrates, but still roamed the deserts where Aramaeans first appear in history (see p. 206). J's representation is partly due to a misunderstanding of the name 'Aramaean,' which led him to transfer the kinsfolk of Abraham to the region round Harran, which was known as the chief seat of Aramaean culture. The genealogy is therefore an authentic document of great antiquity, which has fortunately been preserved by a Yahwistic editor in spite of its inconsistency with the main narrative. It may be added that the Palestinian view-point will explain the subordinate position assigned to the name Aram. It can hardly be denied that Meyer's reasoning is sufficiently cogent to outweigh the traces of the names Nahor and Milkah in the neighbourhood of Harran (pp. 232, 237 f.). Meyer's explanation of Nahor as a modification of Nahar (the Euphrates) is, however, not likely to commend itself.

Ch. XXIII. Purchase of the Cave of Machpelah (P).

On the death of Sarah at the age of 127 years (1, 2), Abraham becomes, through formal purchase from the Hittites, the owner of the field and cave of Machpelah (318), and there buries his dead (19, 20).—This is the second occasion (cf. ch. 17) on which the Priestly epitome of Abraham's life expands into circumstantial and even graphic narration. The transaction must therefore have had a special interest
for the writer of the Code; though it is not easy to determine of what nature that interest was (see the closing note).

Source.—That the chapter belongs to P is proved (a) by allusions in later parts of the Code (25:1ff., 49:20ff., 50:13); (b) by the juristic formalism and redundancy of the style; (c) by the names סנה ובע, הנכם כלכם, עזרא תירק, וענני ינין; and the expressions בשת, 4; הווש, 4; את, 6; ונק, 17; והנקס, 18 (see the notes; and cf. Di. Ho. Gu.). Against this we have to set the יניא of v. 4, which is never elsewhere used by P.—At the same time it is difficult to acquiesce in the opinion that we have to do with a ‘free composition’ of the writers of P. The passage has far more the appearance of a transcript from real life than any other section in the whole of P; and its markedly secular tone (the name of God is never once mentioned) is in strong contrast to the free introduction of the divine activity in human affairs which is characteristic of that document. It seems probable that the narrative is based on some local tradition by which the form of representation has been partly determined. A similar view is taken by Eerdmans (Komp. d. Gen. 88), who, however, assigns the chapter to the oldest stratum of Gen., dating at latest from 700 B.C. Steuernagel (SK, 1908, 628) agrees that ch. 23 is not in P’s manner; but thinks it a midrashic expansion of a brief notice in that document.*

I, 2. The death of Sarah.—2. Kiryath-'Arba'] an old name of Hebron, v.i.—גנ21] not ‘came,’ but went in—to where the body lay.—to wail . . . weep] with the customary loud demonstrations of grief (Schwally, Leben n. d. Tode, 20; DB, iii. 453 ff.).

1. After והה it is advisable to insert יש (Ba. Kit.: cf. 47b. 28). The omission may have caused the addition of the gloss יניא יש יש at the end (wanting in א).—2. וברא היה (א וברא ‘Ar68k]) The old name of Hebron (Jos. 14, Ju. 13), though seemingly in use after the Exile

* Sayce’s contention (EHK, 57 ff.), that the incident ‘belongs essentially to the early Babylonian and not to the Assyrian period,’ is not borne out by the cuneiform documents to which he refers; the correspondences adduced being quite as close with contracts of the later Ass. kings as with those of the age of Hammurabi. Thus, the expression ‘full silver’ (v. 9) is frequent under Sargon and subsequently (KTB, iv. 108 ff.); under the first Babylonian dynasty the phrase is ‘silver to the full price’ (ib. 7 ff.). The formula for ‘before’ (a witness) is, in the earlier tablets, Mahār; in the later, Pan,—neither the precise equivalent of those here used (Vjp and 2ח). There remains only the expression ‘weigh silver,’ which does appear to be characteristic of the older contracts; but since this phrase survived in Heb. till the latest times (Zec. 11, Est. 3), it is plain that nothing can be inferred from it. Sayce has not strengthened his case by the arguments in ET, 1907, 418 ff.; see Dri. 230, and Addenda’, xxxvii f.
3-7. The request for a burying-place.—The negotiations fall into three well-defined stages; and while they illustrate the leisurely courtesy of the East in such matters, they cover a real reluctance of the Hittites to give Abraham a legal title to land by purchase (Gu.). To his first request they respond with alacrity: the best of their sepulchres is at his disposal.—3. arose] from the sitting posture of the mourner (2 Sa. 1216, 20).—*the sons of Heth* see on 1015.

P is the only document in which Hittites are definitely located in the S of Canaan (cf. 2634 365); and the historic accuracy of the statement is widely questioned. It is conceivable that the Cappadocian Hittites (p. 215) had extended their empire over the whole country prior to the Heb. invasion. But taking into account that P appears to use *‘Heth’* interchangeably with *‘Canaan’* (cf. 2634 2736 362 w. 281. 8 365), it may be more reasonable to hold that with him *‘Hittite’* is a general designation of the pre-Israelite inhabitants, as *‘Canaanite’* with J and *‘Amorite’* with E (cf. Jos. 14, Ezk. 169). It may, of course, be urged that such an idea could not have arisen unless the Hittites had once been in actual occupation of the land, and that this assumption would best explain the all but constant occurrence of the name in the lists of conquered peoples (see p. 284). At present, however, we have no proof that this was the case; and a historic connexion between the northern Hittites and the natives of Hebron remains problematical. Another solution is propounded by Jastrow (*EB*, 2094 ff.), viz., that P’s Hittites are an entirely distinct stock, having nothing but the name in common with either the *‘conventional’* Hittites of the enumerations or the great empire of N Syria. See Dri. 228 ff.

4. *a sojourner and dweller* so Lv. 2535, 47, Nu. 3515, and (in a religious sense) Ps. 3913 (cf. 1 Pe. 211). The technical

(unless Neh. 1128 be an artificial archaism [Mey. *Entst.* 106]). The name means *‘Four cities’* (see on יָבְנֵי יֵבָנָי, p. 326). The personification of יָבְנֵי as *heros eponymus* (Jos. 1415 1513 2111) has no better authority (as כב shows) than the mistake of a copyst (see Moore, *Jud.* 25). Jewish Midrash gave several explanations of the numeral: amongst others from the 4 patriarchs buried there—Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, and Ad*am* (*Ber. R.*; P. R. *Eliezer*, 20, 36; Ra.)—the last being inferred from יָבְנֵי יֵבָנָי in Jos. 1415 (*Jer. OS*, 8412). The addition of וַנֵבֶן הָבָנָי (כֹל הָבָנָי הָבָנָי) seems a corruption of הנֵבֶן (Ba.) or (with כב) הָבָנָי in Jos. 1513 2111.—יָבְנֵי In Heb. usage, as in that of all the cognate languages, יָבְנֵי means *‘to wait’*; see Mic. 14. יָבְנֵי IEz. יָבְנֵי רֵעָה רֶעָה. According to Bertholet (*Stell. z. d. Fr.* 156-166), the יָבְנֵי is simply a Ġer (see on 1210) who resides fixedly in one place, without civil rights, and perhaps incapable of holding land; see *EB*, 4818.—5. יָבְנֵי (so v.14) is an abnormal combination, doubtfully supported by Lv. 111. The last word
distinction between רָע and בֵּשַׁיָּה is obscure (v. i.).—6. O if thou wouldst hear us [rd. יַיָּרְפֹּקָה, v. i.]]. The formula always introduces a suggestion preferable to that just advanced: cf. 11. 18. 15.—םֵיתָרֵנְיָא is more than 'a mighty prince' (as Ps. 367 6816 10416 etc.); it means one deriving his patent of nobility straight from Almighty God.—Not a man of us will withhold, etc.] therefore there is no need to buy. Behind their generosity there lurks an aversion to the idea of purchase.—7. The v. has almost the force of a refrain (cf. 12). The first stage of the negotiations is concluded.

8-12. The appeal to 'Ephrôn.—In his second speech Abraham shows his tact first by ignoring tacitly the suggestion of a free gift, and then by bringing the favourable public opinion just expressed to bear on the individual he wishes to reach.—9. On the cave of Makpêlah, see at the close.—in the end of his field] Abraham apparently does not contemplate the purchase of the whole field: that was thrust on him by 'Ephrôn's offer.—for full money] see p. 335 above (footnote). The same expression occurs in 1 Ch. 2122. 24.—10. entering the gate, etc.] i.e., his fellow-citizens, with the right of sitting in public assembly at the gate (cf. 'ו 'ש וְנָי', 3424).

13-16. The purchase of the field. —With the same tactful persistency, Abraham seizes on 'Ephrôn's expression of goodwill, while waving aside the idea of a gift.—13. If only thou—pray hear me!] The anankolouthon expresses the polite embarrassment of the speaker.—14, 15. 'Ephrôn's resistance being now broken down, he names his price with the affecta-

must be joined to v. 6, and read either מַע (as v. 11: so מַע(G), or מַע (as 18). The last is the only form suitable in all four cases (8. 11. 18. 15). On מַע with impre., cf. G-K. § 110 c.—6. מַע] מַע, G-K. § 75 gg.

8. מַע (ב) 'in accordance with your [inner] mind.' Cf. 2 Ki. 918, 1 Sa. 206: see BDB, 661 a.—9. מַע] Elsewhere only 259 4930 5018; always with art., showing that it retained an appellative sense. מַע (תֹּפֶלֲהוֹנִי תֹּפֶלֲהוֹנִי) are probably right in deriving it from לֹפֶלֲהוֹנִי, 'double' (see p. 339).—10. מַע] מַע = 'namely' (see on 910: cf. BDB, 514 b); in 18 it is replaced by מַע = 'among.'—11. For מַע pt. מַע: see on מַע. מַע is perf. of instant action: 'I give it'; G-K. § 106 m.

13. For מַע, מַע (?) read מַע, mistaking the idiom.—14. מַע (קְנָיָה, כְּפָר, אֲכָלָהוֹנִי יָדֵי) does not render יָדֵי, but the יָדֵי is odd.
tion of generosity still observed in the East.*—land [worth] 400 shekels . . . what is that . . . ?] The word for 'land' is better omitted with $G$; it is not the land but the money that Ephrôn pretends to disparage.—16. Abraham immediately pays the sum asked, and clenches the bargain.—current with the merchant] The precious metals circulated in ingots, whose weight was approximately known, without, however, superseding the necessity for 'weighing' in important transactions (Benzinger, Arch.\(^2\) 197; Kennedy, DB, iii. 420; ZA, iii. 391 f.).†

17-20. Summary and conclusion.—17, 18 are in the form of a legal contract. Specifications of the dimensions and boundaries of a piece of land, and of the buildings, trees, etc., upon it, are common in ancient contracts of sale at all periods; cf. e.g. \textit{KIB}, iv. 7, 17, 33 (1st Bab. dynasty), 101, and 161 (8th cent. B.C.), 223-5 (6th cent.); the Assuan Papyri (5th cent.); and especially the Petra Inscr. cited in Authority and Archæology, p. 135.

The traditional site of the Cave of Makpêlah is on the E side of the narrow valley in which Hebron lies, and just within the modern city (el-Haftîl). The place is marked by a sacred enclosure (the Harâm), within which Christians have seldom been admitted. The SE half is occupied by a mosque, and six cenotaphs are shown: those of Abraham and Sarah in the middle, of Isaac and Rebekah in the SE (within the mosque), and of Jacob and Leah in the NW: that of Joseph is just

—יוו[.] better מִנַּה (G).—16. רֹבֶעַל רָעָע[.] The only other instance of this use of רֹעַ (2 Ki. 12\(^5\)) is corrupt (rd. רֹעַת, G).—17. מָס[.] = 'pass into permanent possession,' as Lv. 25\(^25\) 27\(^14,17,19\) (P).—הַרְשָׁבָּה וַאֲנָשָׁא G as הָעַ הָעַ דְּיָ נַ כַּלַּ מַ נְוַ לָלָו is nonsense; but \(G\) in quo erat spelunca duplex suggests a reading "נָּ שָׁ הָ פָּ הָ פָּ[.] which (if it were better attested) would remove the difficulty of supposing that the name 'double cave' was applied to the district around.— שלהם ] מָן מָשָׁ יִבָּ as in 19 = 'in front of,' perhaps 'to the E of.'

* "The peasants will often say, when a person asks the price of any thing which they have for sale, 'Receive it as a present': this answer having become a common form of speech, they know that advantage will not be taken of it; and when desired again to name the price, they will do so, but generally name a sum that is exhorbitant." Lane, \textit{Mod. Eg.} ii. 13f.

† Cuneiform records recently discovered in Cappadocia seem to prove that shekels "stamped with a seal" were in use in the time of Hammurabi. See Sayce, \textit{Contemp. Rev.}, Aug. 1907, p. 259.
outside the Ḥarám on the NW. The cave below has never been examined in modern times, but is stated by its guardians to be double. There is no reason to doubt that the tradition as to the site has descended from biblical times; and it is quite probable that the name Makpelāh is derived from the feature just referred to. That the name included the field attached to the cave (v. 19 49 50) is natural; and even its extension to the adjacent district (see on 17) is perhaps not a decisive objection.—For further particulars, see Robinson, BR, ii. 75 ff.; Baedeker, P. and S. 1 141 f.; PEFS, 1882, 197-214; Warren, DB, iii. 197 ff.; Driver, Gen. 228.

Whatever assumption we make as to the origin of this narrative, P's peculiar interest in the transaction is a fact that has to be explained. The motive usually assigned is that the purchase was a pledge of the possession of the land by Abraham's descendants; that view is, indeed, supported by nothing in the passage (see Gu. 241), but it is difficult to imagine any other explanation. It is just conceivable that the elaboration of the narrative was due to a dispute as to the possession of the sacred place between Jews and Edomites in the age of P. It has been held probable on independent grounds that the Edomites had advanced as far north as Hebron during the Exile (see Mey. Entst. 106, 114), and from Neh. 11:25 we learn that a colony of Jews settled there after the return. We can at least imagine that a contest for the ownership of the holy place (like those which have so largely determined the later history of Palestine) would arise; and that such a situation would account for the emphasis with which the Priestly jurists asserted the legal claim of the Jewish community to the traditional burying-place of its ancestors. So Gu. 1 251; Students' OT, 99: otherwise Gu. 2 241 f.

CH. XXIV.—Procuring a Wife for Isaac (J, [E?]).

Abraham on his death-bed (see below) solemnly charges his house-steward with the duty of procuring a wife for Isaac amongst his Mesopotamian relatives (1-8). The servant is providentially guided to the house of Nāḥôr, in whose daughter (see on v. 15) Rebekah he is led to recognise the divinely appointed bride for Isaac (10-49). Having obtained the consent of the relatives, and of the maiden herself (50-61), he brings her to Canaan, where Isaac marries her (62-67).

The chapter is one of the most perfect specimens of descriptive writing that the Book of Gen. contains. It is marked by idyllic grace and simplicity, picturesque elaboration of scenes and incidents, and a certain 'epic' amplitude of treatment, seen in the repetition of the story in the form of a speech (see Dri. 230). These artistic elements so predominate that the primary ethnographic motive is completely submerged. It may be conjectured that the basis of the narrative was a
reinforcement of the Aramaean element in the Hebrew stock, as in the kindred story of Jacob and his wives (see Steuernagel, Einw. 39 f.). But if such a historical kernel existed, it is quite lost sight of in the graphic delineation of human character, and of ancient Eastern life, which is to us the main interest of the passage. We must also note the profoundly religious conception of Yahwe's providence as an unseen power, overruling events in answer to prayer. All these features seem to indicate a somewhat advanced phase in the development of the patriarchal tradition. The chapter belongs to the literary type most fully represented in the Joseph-narrative (cf. Gu. 220).

Source and Unity of the Narrative.—From the general character of the style, and the consistent use of the name מָרָּה, critical opinion has been practically unanimous in assigning the whole chapter to J. It is admitted, however, that certain 'unevennesses of representation' occur; and the question arises whether these are to be explained by accidental dislocations of the text, or by the interweaving of two parallel recensions. Thus, the servant's objection that the maiden may not be willing to follow him (5. 88), is met by Abraham in two ways: on the one hand by the confident assurance that this will not happen (7. 40), and on the other by absolving him from his oath if his mission should miscarry (3. 41). In 20f. Laban twice goes out to the man at the well (20b I 20b); 25 speaks of the mother's house, 23b of the father's: in 50 the servant negotiates with Laban and Bethuel, in 53 55 with the brother and mother of the bride; in 51 the request is at once agreed to by the relatives without regard to Rebekah's wish, whereas in 57 the decision is left to herself; in 59 Rebekah is sent away with her nurse, in 61a she takes her own maidens with her; her departure is twice recorded (61a I 61b). These doublets and variants are too numerous to be readily accounted for either by transpositions of the text (Di. al.) or by divergences in the oral tradition (SOT, 96); and although no complete analysis is here attempted, the presence of two narratives must be recognised. That one of these is J is quite certain; but it is to be observed that the characteristically Yahwistic expressions are somewhat sparsely distributed, and leave an ample margin of neutral ground for critical ingenuity to sift out the variants between the two recensions.* The problem has been attacked with great acuteness and skill by Gu. (215-221) and Procksch (14 f.), though with very discordant results. I agree with Procksch that the second component is in all probability E, mainly on the ground that a fusion of Jb and Jb (Gu.) is without parallel, whereas Jb and E are combined in ch. 21. The stylistic criteria are, indeed, too indecisive to permit of a definite conclusion; but the parallels instanced above can easily be arranged in two series, one of which is free from positive marks of J; while in the other,

* הָדוּ יִה שֶׁל תָּנִינָא, 10 (against P's תָּנִינָא); יִשְׁרֵאֵל, 4 (12); בֵּית נָטָה, 1 (see on 182); הָיוּ הַמִּצְכָּתוֹת, 16 (26f., cf. 121); עַדְיוֹן, 16 (see on 41); אֶד לְשׁוֹנָה וּלְשׁוֹנִים, 21 40. 42. 56 (39 3. 23); שָׁלוֹחַ, 12 (2720); חָיָה, 17 (see 182); אֲלֵיה, 2. 12. 14. 17. 23. 42. 45.
everything is consistent with the supposition that Abraham's residence is Beersheba (see p. 241 above).

The Death of Abraham.—It is impossible to escape the impression that in vv. 1-9 Abraham is very near his end, and that in 62-67 his death is presupposed. It follows that the account of the event in JE must have occurred in this chap., and been suppressed by the Red. in favour of that of P (25-111), according to which Abraham survived the marriage of Isaac by some 35 years (cf. 2520). The only question is whether it happened before or after the departure of the servant. Except in 141a, the servant invariably speaks as if his master were still alive (cf. 12. 14b; 27, 37, 42, 44b. 48. 51, 54. 55). In 65, on the other hand, he seems to be aware, before meeting Isaac, that Abraham is no more. There is here a slight diversity of representation, which may be due to the composition of sources. Gu. supposes that in the document to which 140a, 36b and 68 belong (Jb), the death was recorded after 9 (and related by the servant after 41); while in the other (Jh) it was first noticed in connexion with the servant's meeting with Isaac (before 66). Procksch thinks E's notice followed v.9, but doubts whether Abraham's death was presupposed by J's account of the servant's return.—V.36b is thought to point back to 255; and hence some critics (Hup. We. Di. al.) suppose that 251-8 (11b) originally preceded ch. 24; while others (KS. Ho. Gu.) find a more suitable place for 255 (with or without 11b) between 241 and 242. See, further, on 251-8 below.

1-9. The servant's commission—1. had blessed, etc.] His life as recorded is, indeed, one of unclouded prosperity. —2. the oldest (i.e. senior in rank) servant, etc.] who, in default of an heir, would have succeeded to the property (15ff.), and still acts as the trusted guardian of the family interests; comp. the position of Ziba in 2 Sa. 9ff. 16ff.—put thy hand, etc.] Only again 4720—another death-bed scene! It is, in fact, only the imminence of death that can account for the action here: had Abraham expected to live, a simple command would have sufficed (Gu.).

The reference is to an oath by the genital organs, as emblems of the life-giving power of deity,—a survival of primitive religion whose significance had probably been forgotten in the time of the narrator. Traces have been found in various parts of the world: see Ew. Ant. 198 [Eng. tr.]; Di. 301; ATLO9, 395; and especially the striking Australian parallel cited by Spurrell (218) from Sir G. Grey.* By Jewish writers

* "One native remains seated on the ground with his heels tucked under him . . .; the one who is about to narrate a death to him approaches . . . and seats himself cross-legged upon the thighs of the other . . . and the one who is seated uppermost places his hands under the thighs of his friend . . . an inviolable pledge to avenge the death has by this ceremony passed between the two."
it was considered an appeal to the covenant of circumcision (הָלָא, Jer. Qūr., Ra.; so Tu. Del.). I Ez. explains it as a symbol of subjection, (adding that it was still a custom in India); Ew. Di. Ho. al. as invoking posterity (עָרַב; יִנַע, 46$^{28}$, Ex. 1$^6$, Ju. 8$^{20}$) to maintain the sanctity of the oath.

3. God of heaven and of earth] an expression for the divine omnipresence in keeping with the spiritual idea of God's providence which pervades the narrative. The full phrase is not again found (see v.$^7$).—thou shalt not take, etc.] The motive is a natural concern for the purity of the stock: see Bertholet, Stellung, 67.—5–8. The servant's fear is not that he may fail to find a bride for Isaac, but that the woman may refuse to be separated so far from her kindred; would the oath bind him in that event to take Isaac back to Harran? The suggestion elicits from the dying patriarch a last utterance of his unclouded faith in God.—7. God of heaven] v.i.—send his Angel] cf. Ex. 23$^{20}$. 23 $^{33}$, Nu. 20$^{16}$. The Angel is here an invisible presence, almost a personification of God's providence; contr. the older conception in 16$^{11}$.

10–14. The servant at the well.—On the fidelity of the picture to Eastern life, see Thomson, LB, i. 261.—10. ten camels] to bring home the bride and her attendants ($^{61}$). But "such an expedition would not now be undertaken . . .

3. יִנַע] סָבְבָה (as v.$^4$); so v.$^7$.—4. יִנַע always with neg., exc. Is. 1$^{19}$, Jb. 39$^9$ (Sir. 6$^{23}$).—7. פִּנְטוּשׁ יָדוֹ] appears only in late books (Jon. 1$^8$, 2 Ch. 35$^{23}$=Ezr. 1$^2$, Neh. 1$^{14}$, 2$^{1–20}$: פָּן יָדוֹ is frequent in Aram. parts of Ezr. and Dn.). The words are wanting in one Heb. MS (see Kit.), and may be deleted as a gloss. Otherwise we must add with סְבָּה יָדוֹ יָדוֹ (cf. $^3$).—דַּלְיָשׁוּר שיִנְטוּשׁ] probably interpolated by a later hand (Di.); see p. 284 above.—8. יָנוּז] סָבְבָה יָנוּז נָôtel—בְּעַר אֵל (but בְּעַר יָנוּז)] juss. with אֵל; G-K. § 109 d.

10. Unless we admit a duality of sources, it will be necessary to omit the first יִנַע (with סָבְבָה).—לְבָה[ better יָנוּז (סָבְבָה)].—דְּלִיָשׁוּר נָтельный] Dt. 23$^{3}$, Ju. 3$^8$, Ps. 60$^3$, 1 Ch. 19$^8$. פִּנְטוּשׁ נָтельный. The identity of the second element with Eg. Naharin, TA. Nahrima (79$^{14}$ [rev.], 181$^{84}$, 119$^{23}$) is beyond dispute; but it is perhaps too readily assumed that geographically the expressions correspond. The Eg. Naharin extended from E of the Euphrates to the valley of the Orontes (A.E. 249 ff.); all that can be certainly affirmed about the biblical term is that it embraced both sides of the Euphrates (Harran on the E; Pethor on the W [Dt. 23]). Since there is no trace of a dual in the Eg. and Can. forms, it is doubtful if
with any other animals, nor with a less number."—goodly things] for presents to the bride and her relations (22, 53).

On 'Aram Naharaim, see the footnote.—the city of Nahor in J would be Harran (cf. 2748 2810 294): but the phrase is probably an Elohistic variant to 'Aram Naharaim, in which case a much less distant locality may be referred to (see on 293).—12-14. The servant's prayer. The request for a sign is illustrated by Ju. 630ff., 1 Sa. 148ff.: note [תא יבגנה] in all three cases. A spontaneous offer to draw for the camels would (if Thomson's experience be typical) be unusual,—in any case the mark of a kind and obliging disposition.—13. the daughters . . . to draw water] cf. 1 Sa. 911.

15-27. The servant and Rebekah.—15. who was born to Bethuel, etc.] cf. 24, 47.

The somewhat awkward phrasing has led Di. al. to surmise that all these vv. have been glossed, and that here the original text ran הַנֶּבֶךְ הַגָּדוֹלָה הַגָּדוֹלָה, Rebekah being the daughter of Milcah and Nahor. Comp. 298, where Laban is described as the son of Nahor. The redactional insertion of Bethú'el would be explained by the divergent tradition of P (2528 283, 8), in which Bethú'el is simply an 'Aramaean,' and not connected with Nahor at all (see Bu. 421 ff.). The question can hardly be decided (Ho. 168); but there is a considerable probability that the original J made Laban and Rebekah the children of Nahor. In that case, however, it will be necessary to assume that the tradition represented by P was known to the Yahwistic school before the final redaction, and caused a remodelling of the genealogy of 2220ff. (see p. 333). Cf., however, Bosse, MVAG, 1908, 2, p. 8f.

the Heb. ending be anything but a Mass. caprice (rd. הָנַּכֶּךְ?), or a locative term., to be read -ām (We. Comp. 431; Meyer, ZATW, iii. 307f.: cf. G-K. § 88 e, and Str. p. 135f. with reff.). There would in this last case be no need to find a second river (Tigris, Chaboras, Balih, Orontes, etc.) to go with Euphrates. The old identification with the Greek Mesopotamia must apparently be abandoned. See, further, Di. 302; Moore, Ju. 87, 89; KAT73, 28 f.—12. הָנַּכֶּךְ 'make it occur,' 2720 (J).—14. הָנַּכֶּךְ Krè. הָנַּכֶּךְ; so vv. 18, 28, 55, 57 34, 13, Dt. 2218, 2012, 29. הָנַּכֶּךְ is found as Ke. in Pent. only Dt. 2216, but in reads so throughout. It is hazardous to postulate an archaic epicene use of הָנַּכֶּךְ on such restricted evidence: see BDB, 655 a; G-K. § 17 c.—הָנַּכֶּךְ cái διότι αὖ παράδοτα πληνουσί.—הָנַּכֶּךְ decide, adjudicate, here = 'allot'; so only v. 44. Contr. 2018 2126 3157, 42 (E), Lv. 1917 (P).—הָנַּכֶּךְ 'and thereby'; G-K. § 135 p.

15. After רַע rd. הָנַּכֶּךְ (cf. 48); G-K. § 107 c.—מָכְרֵי ins. מָכְרֵי after
16. Taking no notice of the stranger, the maiden went down to the fountain (יָּרָה) ... and came up] In Eastern wells the water is frequently reached by steps: cf. Ex. 2:10 (مالكְתֶל), Jn. 4:11.—19. 20. The writer lingers over the scene, with evident delight in the alert and gracious actions of the damsel.—21. The servant meanwhile has stood gazing at her in silence, watching the ample fulfilment of the sign.—22. The nose-ring and bracelets are not the bridal gift (Gu.), but a reward for the service rendered, intended to excite interest in the stranger, and secure the goodwill of the maiden. See Lane, Mod. Eg. ii. 320, 323; cf. RS, 453a.—23–25. In the twofold question and answer, there is perhaps a trace of the composition of narratives; v.i.—24. See on 15. Read the daughter of Milkah whom she bore to Nahor (as 34).—26, 27. The servant’s act of worship marks the close of the scene.

28–32. Laban’s hospitality is inspired by the selfish greed for which that worthy was noted in tradition.—28. her mother’s house cannot mean merely the female side of the family (Di.), for Laban belongs to it, and 58, 55 imply that the father (whether Bethuel or Nahor) is not the head of the house. Some find in the notice a relic of matriarchy (Ho. Gu.); but the only necessary inference is that the father was dead.—31. seeing I have cleared the house] turning part of

16. taking no notice of the stranger, the maiden went down to the fountain (יָּרָה) ... and came up] in eastern wells the water is frequently reached by steps: cf. Ex. 2:10 (مالكְתֶל), Jn. 4:11. —19. 20. the writer lingers over the scene, with evident delight in the alert and gracious actions of the damsel. —21. the servant meanwhile has stood gazing at her in silence, watching the ample fulfilment of the sign. —22. the nose-ring and bracelets are not the bridal gift (Gu.), but a reward for the service rendered, intended to excite interest in the stranger, and secure the goodwill of the maiden. see lane, mod. eg. ii. 320, 323; cf. RS, 453a. —23–25. in the twofold question and answer, there is perhaps a trace of the composition of narratives; v.i. —24. see on 15. read the daughter of milkah whom she bore to nahor (as 34). —26, 27. the servant’s act of worship marks the close of the scene.

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it into a stable.—32. he (Laban) brought the man in (v.i.)... and ungirt the camels] without removing the pack-saddles.*—to wash his feet, etc.] cf. 184.

33-49. The servant's narrative. — A recapitulation of the story up to this point, with intentional variations of language, and with some abridgment. G frequently accommodates the text to what has gone before, but its readings need not be considered.—35. Cf. 1218. 122.—36b. has given him all that he had] This is the only material addition to the narrative. But the notice is identical with 25, and probably points back to it in some earlier context (see p. 341 above).—40. before whom I have walked] Cf. 171. Gu.'s suggested alteration: 'who has gone before me,' is an unauthorised and unnecessary addition to the Tikkune Sopherim (see 1882).—41. הָיָה (his) for הָיָה, v.3. On the connexion of oath and curse, see We. Heid.3 192 f.—45-47. Greatly abbreviated from 15—25.—the daughter of [Bethu'el the son of] Nāhôr, etc.] see on 15. 24.—48. daughter of my master's brother] 'Brother,' may, of course, stand for 'relative' or 'nephew' (2012.15); but if Bethuel be interpolated in 15. 24, 47, Rebekah was actually first cousin to Isaac, and such mar-

as Lv. 1426, Is. 469 etc.; cf. Ar. √ פָנָה IV. =effective ut dispararet.—32. וַיִּפְגַּם] (F) avoids an awkward change of subj., and is to be preferred (Ols. KS. Gu.). The objection (Di. al.) that this would require to be followed by וַיִּפְגַּם is answered by the very next cl. Irregularity in the use of וַיִּפְגַּם is a puzzling phenomenon in the chapter, which unfortunately fits in with no workable scheme of documentary analysis.

33. יִפְגַּם] Krê and μ παρέκμαν (Hoph. √ παρέκμαν), E S παρέκμαν. But Keth. recurs in MT of 5026 (ἐξαποθέασαν), again with pass. significance. The anomalous form may be pass. of Qal (G-K. § 73 f.), or metaplastic Niph. from παρέκμαν or παρέκμαν (Nö. Beitr. s. sem. Sprachw. 39 f.).—τοῦ τῆς] μς E S ρηπό, which is perhaps better.—36. ἡ] μς E G η. —38. ἡ εἰρήν] never has the sense of Aram. אִירָנ (spondem), and must be taken as the common form of adjuration (De.). μ (Lond. Pol.) has εἰρήν. —41. יִמְשַׂם] G-K. § 95 ἐ. —The v. contains a slight redundancy (a 1b8), but nothing is gained by interposing a cl. between ὧν and ὅν (KS.).—46. ἡ λύσιν] Ε ἐκλ τὴν βραχcolda αὐτῆς διά εἰρήνις (conflated ?); Ε de humero (cf. 18).

* "The camel is very delicate, and could easily catch a chill if the saddle were taken away imprudently; and on no account can the camel stay out of doors in bad weather. It is then taken into the house, part of which is turned into a stable" (Baldensperger, PEFS, 1904, 130).
riages were considered the most eligible by the Nahorites (29\textsuperscript{10}).—49. that I may turn, etc.] not to seek a bride elsewhere (Di.), but generally ‘that I may know how to act.’

50–61. Departure of Rebekah, with the consent and blessing of her relatives.—50. The relatives, recognising the hand of Providence in the servant’s experiences, decline to answer bad or good: i.e., anything whatever, as 31\textsuperscript{24}. 29, Nu. 24\textsuperscript{18} etc.

The v. as a whole yields a perfectly good sense: ‘we cannot speak, because Yahwe has decided’; and 51 is a natural sequel. It is a serious flaw in Gu.’s analysis of 50\textsuperscript{a}, that he has to break up 60, connecting יָ֣שָׁנָ֣ה יַכְּלָּנָ֣ה יִצְּכֵ֣ר with 51, and the rest of the v. with 67\textsuperscript{a}. (‘we cannot speak: let the maiden decide’).—On the other hand, בָּאֵ֣ת קָֽנָה in 80 is barely consistent with עָ֣שׂוּ בַּיִת in 83. 65. Since the mention of the father after the brother would in any case be surprising, Di. al. suppose that here again בָּאֵת קָֽנָה is an interpolation; Kit. reads וַחֲנֹן, and Ho. substitutes וַחֲנֹן. Gu. (219) considers that in this recension Bethuel is a younger brother of Laban.

51. Here, at all events, the matter is settled in accordance with custom, without consulting the bride.—53. The presents are given partly to the bride and partly to her relatives. In the latter we may have a survival of the בַּשְׂמַח (34\textsuperscript{19}, Ex. 22\textsuperscript{16}, I Sa. 18\textsuperscript{25} ) or purchase-price of a wife; but Gu. rightly observes that the narrative springs from a more refined idea of marriage, from which the notion of actual purchase has all but disappeared. So in Islam mahrs and sadāk (the gift to the wife) have come to be synonymous terms for dowry (KM\textsuperscript{2}, 93, 96): cf. Benzinger, Arch.\textsuperscript{2} 106.—

55. The reluctance to part with Rebekah is another indication of refined feeling (Gu.). On רַֽבּוּל וּרְצָֽה, v.i.—56. The servant's eagerness to be gone arises from the hope of finding his old master still alive.—57, 58. The question here put to Rebekah is not whether she will go now or wait a few days,

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53. מְרָנָה (Ezr. 1\textsuperscript{6}, 2 Ch. 21\textsuperscript{8} 32\textsuperscript{23} ) ‘costly gifts,’ fr. יָרָּנָה, Ar. mağada = ‘be noble.’—55. יָ֣שָׁנָ֣ה טַֽפָּל read יִשְׁנָ֜ה; and so שַֽפֶל and many Greek curs. in 83.—רַֽבּוּל וּרְצָֽה ‘a few days, say ten,’ is a fairly satisfying rendering (אֲרַֽבִּים וּרְצָֽה בָּאִֽקָּר;) ‘a year or ten months’ (MT Ra.) is hardly admissible. But the text seems uncertain: מַרְבִּים וּרְצָֽה בָּאִֽקָּר (cf. 29\textsuperscript{14}). In deference to מַרְבִּים we may insert יָּשָׁנָּה before יָרָּנָה: ‘a month or at least ten days’ (Ols. Ba.).—יָרָּנָה] probably 3rd fem. (so all Vns.).
but whether she will go at all. The reference to the wishes of the bride may be exceptional (owing to the distance, etc.); but a discrepancy with 51 cannot easily be got rid of. —59. their sister] cf. 'your daughter,' 34, the relation to the family being determined by that to the head of the house. But it is better to read סנה (pl.) in 53, 55 with JS and MSS of Gr.—her nurse] see on 35. —60. The blessing on the marriage (cf. Ru. 411ff.), rhythmic in form, is perhaps an ancient fragment of tribal poetry associated with the name of Rebekah.—possess the gate] as 2217. —61a and 61b seem to be variants. For another solution (KS.), see on 62.—her maidens] parallel to 'her nurse' in 59.

62–67. The home-bringing of Rebekah. —62. Now Isaac had come . . . ] What follows is hardly intelligible. The most probable sense is that during the servant's absence Isaac had removed to Beer-lahai-roi, and that near that well the meeting took place.

The difficulty lies partly in the corrupt נָסַּף (v. i.), partly in the circumstantial form of the sent., and partly in the unexplained disappearance of Abraham. Keeping these points in mind, the most conservative exegesis is that of De.: Isaac (supposed to be living with his father at Beersheba) 'was coming from a walk in the direction of B.', when he met the camels; this, however, makes נָסִף (6b) plup., which is hardly right. More recent writers proceed on the assumption that the death of Abraham had been explicitly recorded. Ho. suggests that Isaac had removed to Lahairoi during his father's life (transposing 25bb before 24a), and that now he comes from that place (reads רֵיתָה) on hearing of Abraham's death. Di. reads 62a תָּנָרָב לָא [ם]נָם[נ]וּ[וּ], and finds in these words the notice of Isaac's migration to B.—KS., reading as Di., but making the servant implicit subj. of נָסַף, puts the chief hiatus between 61a and 61b: the servant on his return learned that Abraham was dead;
then (61b) took Rebekah and went further; and (61a) came to Laḥairoi.—
Gu. (operating with two sources) considers 62 the immediate sequel to
61 in the document where Abraham's death preceded the servant's
departure, so that nothing remained to be chronicled but Isaac's removal
to Laḥairoi (reads מֹלֶא, 'to the entrance of'). This solution is attractive,
and could perhaps be carried through independently of his division of
sources. For even if the death followed the departure, it might very
well have been recorded in the early part of the ch. (after 10).

63. רָעַף] a word of uncertain meaning, possibly to roam
(v.i.).— toward the approach of evening] (Dt. 23\(^{12}\)), when the
Oriental walks abroad (cf. 3\(^{8}\)).—camels were coming] In the
distance he cannot discern them as his own.—64. At the sight
of a stranger Rebekah dismounts (בְּנֵי as 2 Ki. 5\(^{21}\)), a mark
of respect still observed in the East (LB, i. 762; Seetzen,
Reisen, iii. 190); cf. Jos. 15\(^{18}\), 1 Sa. 25\(^{28}\).—65. It is my master]
 Apparently the servant is aware, before meeting Isaac, that
Abraham is dead.—The putting on of the veil (cf. nubere
vivo), the survival of a primitive marriage taboo, is part of
the wedding ceremony (see Lane, ME\(^{5}\), i. 217 f.).—67. brought
her into the tent] The next phrase (הַנָּשָׁהוּ) violates a funda-
mental rule of syntax, and must be deleted as a gloss. Isaac's
own tent is referred to. This is the essential feature of the
marriage ceremony in the East (see Benz. Arch.\(^{2}\) 108 f.).—
comforted himself after [the death of] his mother] It is con-
j ectured (We. al.) that the real reading was 'his father,'
whose death had recently taken place. The change would

(Lag. Procksch) to substitute [:\טָשָׁה]נְכִד (from Beersheba to': Ba.).—
כֶּלֶת יָדָו] סֵד (here and 25\(^{11}\)) רָעַף רָעַף יִשָּׁה, omitting יִשָּׁה; refer to
p. 289 above.—63. רָעַף] a. v. commonly identified with רָעַף = 'muse,'
'talk, roam, etc. ; so סֵד (בּוֹלֶטֶס), cf. (בּוֹלֶטֶס), סֵד (בּוֹלֶטֶס), בּוֹלֶטֶס (ad meditandum: so Tu. De.), סֵד (בּוֹלֶטֶס) Ra.; Di. KS. al. think
the sense of 'mourning' (for his father) most probable; but? IEz. ('to
walk among the shrubs') and Böttcher ('to gather bushwood') derive
from רָעַף (21\(^{12}\)). ס אָדָסָבָא is thought to rest on a reading אָדָסָב (adopted by Ges. al.), but is rather a conjecture. Nö. (Beitr. s. sem. Spr.
43 f.) suggests a connexion with Ar. אָדָסָב = 'stroll' (point יִשָּׁה).—
פּוֹשְׁפִּךְ of vv. is wrong (v.s.).—65. רָעַף] 37\(^{14}\); עָבִי לִנְשָׁהוּ] 38\(^{14}–19\) (J). On
the art. cf. G-K. § 126 s. After Lagarde's brilliant note (Sem. 23 ff.),
it can scarcely be doubted that the word denotes a large double square
wrapper or shawl, of any material.—67. אָדָסָב] ס אָדָסָבָא יִשָּׁה.—רָעַף הָלָּהָה] art. with const. is violently ungrammatical; G–K. § 127 f.—For אָדָסָב
read יִשָּׁה יִשָּׁה (Kit.) v.s.
naturally suggest itself after J’s account of the death of Abraham had been suppressed in accordance with P’s chronology. The death of Sarah is likewise unrecorded by J or E.

**XXV. 1-6.—The Sons of Keturah (J? R?).**

The Arabian tribes with whom the Israelites acknowledged a looser kinship than with the Ishmaelites or Edomites are here represented as the offspring of Abraham by a second marriage (cf. 1 Ch. 1:32f.).

The names Midian, Sheba, Dedan (see below) show that these Keturanean peoples must be sought in N Arabia, and in the tract of country partly assigned to the Ishmaelites in v.18. The fact that in Ju. 8:24 Midianites are classed as Ishmaelites (cf. Gn. 37:28f.) points to some confusion between the two groups, which in the absence of a Yahwistic genealogy of Ishmael it is impossible altogether to clear up. We. (Comp. 2 29) has dropped a hint that Keturah may be but a traditional variant of Hagar; * Ho. conjectures that the names in 24-4 are taken from J’s lost Ishmaelite genealogy; and Kent (SOT, i. 101) thinks it not improbable that Keturah was originally the wife of Ishmael. Glaser (ii. 450) considers the Keturians remains of the ancient Minaean people, and not essentially different from the Ishmaelites and Edomites. See, further, on v. 18 below.

**Source.—(a)** The genealogy (1-4) contains slight traces of J in יִצְרָיֵל; שְׂכָם; מִדְיָנִית (cf. 10:29 9:19); P is excluded by יִשְׂרָאֵל, and the discrepancy with הָעָרָיִם as to Sheba and Dedan; while E appears not to have contained any genealogies at all. The vv. must therefore be assigned to some Yahwistic source, in spite of the different origin given for Sheba in 10:26.—

**(b)** The section as a whole cannot, however, belong to the primary Yahwistic document; because there the death of Abraham had already been recorded in ch. 24, and 24:38 refers back to 25:6.† We must conclude that 25:1-6 is the work of a compiler, who has incorporated the genealogy, and taken v. 8 from its original position (see on 24:38) to bring it into connexion with Abraham’s death. These changes may have been made in a revised edition of J (so Gu.); but in this case we must suppose that the account of Abraham’s death was also transferred from ch. 24, to be afterwards replaced by the notice of P. It seems to me easier (in view of 11b and 18) to hold that the adjustments were effected during the final redaction of the Pent., in accordance with the chronological scheme of P.

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* So Jewish interpreters: Ἰ, Ber. R., Jer. Qu., Ra. (but not IEz.).

† The mere transposition of 25:1-6 before ch. 24 (Hupf. We. al.) does not fully meet the difficulty, there being, in fact, no suitable place for a second marriage of Abraham anywhere in the original J (Ho.).
I. Kētūrah, called a 'concubine' in 1 Ch. 1:32 (cf. v.6 below), is here a wife, the death of Sarah being presupposed. The name occurs nowhere else, and is probably fictitious, though Arabian genealogists speak of a tribe Kātūra in the vicinity of Mecca (Kn.-Di.). There is no 'absurdity' (De.) in the suggestion that it may contain an allusion to the traffic in incense (נֶבֶל) which passed through these regions (see Mey. INS, 313).—2–4. The Kētūraean stock is divided into 6 (G 7) main branches, of which only one, Midian, attained historic importance. The minor groups number 10 (G 12), including the well-known names Sheba and Dedan.

2. נֶבֶל (Zeβrəd, Ζομβραν, etc.) has been connected with the Zaβrǎm [Zαβραμ?] of Ptol. vi. 7, 5, W of Mecca (Kn.); and with the Zamarieni of Pliny, HN, vi. 158, in the interior; but these are probably too far S. The name is probably derived from נבלי = 'wild goat,' the ending an (which is common in the Kētūraean and Horite lists and rare elsewhere) being apparently gentilic: cf. נבלי, Nu. 25:14, 1 Ch. 26:38, 9:2. A connexion with נבלי (אִנְבָּל), Jer. 25:35 is very doubtful. On נבלי, (Israel, 'Iṣerəf, etc.) see on v.5—נַבְלָי (Maβaμא) unknown. Wetzstein instances a Wādī Medān near the ruins of Daidan.—נַבְלָי (Maβaμא) The name appears as Maβlava = Maβaμא in Ptol. vi. 7, 27 (cf. Jos. Ant. ii. 257; Eus. OS, p. 276), the Maβyαn of Ar. geogr., a town on the E side of the Gulf of Akaba, opposite the S end of the Sinaitic peninsula (see No. EB, 3081). The chief seat of this great tribe or nation must therefore have been in the northern Hiqāz, whence roving bands ravaged the territory of Moab, Edom (Gn. 36:30, and Israel (Ju. 6–8). The mention of Midianites in the neighbourhood of Horeb may be due to a confusion between J and E (see Mey. INS, 3 f.); and after the time of the Judges they practically disappear from history. "As to their occupations, we sometimes find them described as peaceful shepherds, sometimes as merchants [Gn. 37:28, 36, Is. 60:6], sometimes as roving warriors, delighting to raid the more settled districts" (No.).—נַבְלָי and נבלי have been identified by Frd. Delitzsch (ZKF, ii. 91 f., Par. 297 f.) and Glaser (ii. 445 f.) with Yəsəbük and Səlūμ of Ass. monuments (KIB, i. 159, 33, 99, 101), both regions of northern Syria. Del. has since abandoned the latter identification (Hiob, 139) for phonetic reasons.—3. נבלי and נבלי see on 10:7. As they are there bracketed under נבלי, so here under נבלי, a name otherwise unknown. The equation with נבלי (10:38f.), proposed by Tu. and accepted by Mey. (318), is phonologically difficult. Since the Sabæans are here still in the N, it would seem that this genealogy goes farther back than that of the Yoktaneite Arabs in ch. 10. Between Sheba and Dedan, מִן ins. Θαμβάν (=נַבְלָי, v.18).—3b. The sons of Dedan are wanting in 1 Ch., and are probably interpolated here (note the pl.). מִן has in addition Pαγων (cf. 36:10) KaL Nαβαטא (cf. v.18)—נַבְלָי certainly not the Assyrians (נַבְלָי), but some obscure N Arabian tribe,—possibly the נבלי mentioned on two
Mi"aan inscrs. along with דש (Egypt), תִּירָשׁ, and Gaza (Homm. AHT, 248 f., 252 f., AA, 297 ff.; Glaser, ii. 455 ff.; Winckler, AOF, i. 28 f.; König, Fünf Landschaften, 9; cf., on the other side, Mey. ZA, xi. 327 ff., INS, 320 ff.).—כשַם] The personal name כנִּב (as also כנִים) has been found in Nabat. inscrs.; see Levy, ZDMG, xiv. 403 f., 447, 477 f., where attention is called to the prevalence of craftsmen's names in these inscrs., and a connexion of 'ן with כנִים in 42 is suggested.—4. Five sons of Midian.—כנִים is named along with Midian in Is. 60 as a trading tribe. It has been identified with the Hayapa (=כנים?) mentioned by Tiglath-pileser iv. and Sargon, along with some 6 rebellious Arab tribes (KIB, ii. 21, 43): see Del. Par. 304, KAT, 58.—With כנִים, Wetst. compares the modern 'Ofar (Di.); Glaser (449), Ass. Appar. (KIB, ii. 223).—כנים] Perhaps Hanâkiya near 'Ofar (Kn.-Di.).—It is noteworthy that these three names—כנים, 1 Ch. 2:46 ff.; וֶש, 1 Ch. 4:17 5:24; כננ, Gn. 46, Ex. 6:14, Nu. 26:9, 1 Ch. 5—are found in the Heb. tribes most exposed to contact with Midian (Judah, Manasseh, Reuben). Does this show an incorporation of Midianite clans in Israel? (Nö.).—בנִים ('Abi-yada'a) and כננים ('Il-yeda' and Yeda'-il) are personal names in Sabaean, the former being borne by several kings (ZDMG, xxvii. 648, xxxvii. 399; Glas. ii. 449).

5. See on 24:36.—6. The exodus of the Benê Kedem (composed by a redactor).—The concubines] apparently Hagar and Keturah, though neither bears that opprobrious epithet in Gen. : in 163 Hagar is even called כנים. Moreover, Ishmael and his mother, according to J and E, had long been separated from Abraham.—sent them away from off Isaac] so as not to be a burden upon him. Cf. Ju. 112.—eastward to the land of Kedem] the Syro-Arabian desert.

So we must render, unless (with Gu.) we are to take the two phrases כננים and כננים כננים as variants. But כננים in OT is often a definite geographical expression, denoting the region E and SE of the Dead Sea (cf. 29¹, Nu. 23¹, Ju. 6:3, 7:12 8:10, Is. 11:4, Jer. 49², Ezk. 25², 10, Jb. 18); and although its appellative significance could, of course, not be forgotten, it has almost the force of a proper name. It is so used in the Eg. romance of Sinuhe (c. 1900 B.C.): see Müller, AE, 46 f.; Wi. GI, 52 ff.; Mey. INS, 243 f.

XXV. 7-11.—The Death and Burial of Abraham (P).

7-11a are the continuation of 23:20 in P. Note the characteristic phrases: יִנְבֶז תִּשְׁנָה, 7; וְש, תִּנְבֶז וַתַּעַל, יַנְבֶז וַתִּשְׁנָה, 8; וַתַּעַל, 11a; the chronology 7, the reminiscences of ch. 23, and the backward reference in 49. 11b belongs to J.

5 end] מִלְּסָהוּ, נָבָה.—6. כִּי תִּשְׁנָה (see on 22:24) is used of a כִּי תִּשְׁנָה in 35:22.—

םָרָבָא תִּשְׁנָה] כִּי תִּשְׁנָה.
DEATH

8. gathered to his kindred (see on 17\textsuperscript{14}]) Originally, this and similar phrases (15\textsuperscript{15} 47\textsuperscript{30}, Dt. 31\textsuperscript{16} etc.) denoted burial in the family sepulchre; but the popular conception of Sheôl as a vast aggregate of graves in the under world enabled the language to be applied to men who (like Abraham) were buried far from their ancestors.—Isaac and Ishmael] The expulsion of Ishmael is consistently ignored by P.—IIa. Transition to the history of Isaac (25\textsuperscript{10ff.}).

11b (like v.\textsuperscript{5}) has been torn from its context in J, where it may have stood after 24\textsuperscript{1} 25\textsuperscript{5}, or (more probably) after the notice of Abraham's death (cf. 24\textsuperscript{62}). Meyer (INS, 253, 323) makes the improbable conjecture that the statement referred originally to Ishmael, and formed, along with v.\textsuperscript{18}, the conclusion of ch. 16.

XXV. 12–18.—The Genealogy and Death of Ishmael (P).

With the exception of v.\textsuperscript{18}, which is another isolated fragment of J, the passage is an excerpt from the Tôledôth of the Priestly Code.—The names of the genealogy (13–16) represent at once 'princes' (םָנְשֵׁי; cf. the promise of 17\textsuperscript{20}) and 'peoples' (ןָנָס, 18); that is to say, they are the assumed eponymous ancestors of 12 tribes which are here treated as forming a political confederacy under the name of Ishmael.

In the geography of P the Ishmaelites occupy a territory intermediate between the Arabian Cushites on the S (ro), the Edomites, Moabites, etc., on the W, and the Aramaeans on the N (10\textsuperscript{20th.}) i.e., roughly speaking, the Syro-Arabian desert north of Gebel Shammar. In J they extend W to the border of Egypt (v.\textsuperscript{18}).—The Ishmaelites have left very little mark in history. From the fact that they are not mentioned in Eg. or Ass. records, Meyer infers that their flourishing period was from the 12th to the 9th cent. B.C. (INS, 324). In OT the latest possible traces of Ishmael as a people are in the time of David (cf. 2 Sa. 17\textsuperscript{26}, 1 Ch. 2\textsuperscript{17} 27\textsuperscript{30}), though the name occurs sporadically as that of an individual or clan in much later times (Jer. 40\textsuperscript{68}, 2 Ki. 25\textsuperscript{23}, 1 Ch. 538 94, 2 Ch. 19\textsuperscript{11} 23, Ezr. 10\textsuperscript{22}). In Gn. 37\textsuperscript{388}, Ju. 8\textsuperscript{28}, it is possible that 'Ishmaelites' is synon-ymous with Bedouin in general (see Mey. 326).

13. יִּבְנֵי הָנַבַּעַט הָיִדְרִי are the Nabayati and Kidri of Ass. monuments (Assurbanipal: KIB, ii. 215 ff.; cf. Del. Par. 297, 299; KAT\textsuperscript{2}, 151), and possibly the Nabatei and Cedrei of Pliny, v. 65 (cf. vi. 157, etc.). The references do not enable us to locate them with precision, but they must

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8. see on 17\textsuperscript{3}, 35\textsuperscript{29}; see on 6\textsuperscript{17}.—תָּבוּר] Or better ולִבְנֵי, as 35\textsuperscript{29}.—'עָבַר יִּבְנֵי] so 25\textsuperscript{17} 35\textsuperscript{29} 49\textsuperscript{29}, 33, Nu. 20\textsuperscript{24}, 26 27\textsuperscript{18} 31\textsuperscript{2}, Dt. 32\textsuperscript{50}† (all P).—10. יִּבְנֵי] see on 24\textsuperscript{52}.
be put somewhere in the desert E of Palestine or Edom. The Nabateans of a later age (see Schürer, GJV 8,4, i. 728 ff.) were naturally identified with ρη by Jos. (Ant. i. 220 f.), Jer. (Qu.), Z [222], as they still are by Schr., Schürer, and some others. But since the native name of the Nabateans was ρη, the identification is doubtful, and is now mostly abandoned. The two tribes are mentioned together in Is. 60:7: ρη alone only Gn. 28° 35:7; but ρη is alluded to from the time of Jeremiah downwards as a typical nomadic tribe of the Eastern desert. In late Heb. the name was extended to the Arabs as a whole (so Z יבש).—נַגּוֹר (Naṣbagh: see on v.9) Perhaps an Arab tribe Idibi'il which Tiglath-pileser IV. (KIB, ii. 21) appointed to watch the Egyptian frontier (not necessarily the border of Egypt proper).—רַבִּי a Simeonite clan (1 Ch. 4:28), otherwise not known.—14. יָשָׂם follows יֵשָׂם in 1 Ch. 4:26. Di. compares a גֵּבֶל מישָׂמָה SE of Kaf, and another near Hajil E of Teima.—נַגּוֹר Several places bearing this name are known (Di.); but the one that best suits this passage is the Dūmah which Arabic writers place 4 days' journey N of Teima; viz. Dūmat el-Gendel, now called el-Gof, a great oasis in the S of the Syrian desert and on the border of the Neufād (Doughty, Ar. Des. ii. 607; cf. Burckhardt, Trav. in Syr. 602). It is probably the דואמה of Ptol. v. 18 (19). 7, the Domata of Plin. vi. 157.—נַגּוֹר See on 1080, and cf. Pr. 311. A tribe Maṣ'a is named by Tiglath-pileser IV. along with Teima (v.10). Saba', Hayapa (*), Idibi'il (*), and may be identical with the Maṣara of Ptol. v. 18 (19). 2, NE of דואמה. —15. יָשָׂם unknown.—נַגּוֹר (Is. 21:14, Jer. 25:28, Jb. 6:19) is the modern Teima, on the W border of the Negef, c. 250 miles SE of Aqabah, still an important caravan station on the route from Yemen to Syria, and (as local inscrs. show) in ancient times the seat of a highly developed civilisation: see the descriptions in Doughty, Ar. Des. i. 285 ff., 549 ff.—נַגּוֹר; and יָשָׂם are named together in 1 Ch. 5:19 among the East-Jordanic tribes defeated by the Reubenites in the time of Saul. יָשָׂם is no doubt the same people which emerges about 100 B.C. under the name 'Irōpaων, as a body of fierce and predatory mountaineers settled in the Anti-Lebanon (see Schürer, GJV, i. 707 ff.).—Of יָשָׂם nothing is known. Should we read יָשָׂם as 1 Ch. 5:19 (Ball, Kit.)?—16. יָשָׂם יָשָׂם] 'in their settlements' or 'villages'; cf. Is. 42:11 'the villages that Kedar doth inhabit.'—נַגּוֹר יָשָׂם (Nu. 31:10, Ezk. 25, Ps. 65:28, 1 Ch. 6:28) is apparently a technical term for the circular encampment of a nomadic tribe. According to Doughty (i. 261), the Arab. di̇rah denotes the Bedouin circuit, but also, in some cases, their town settlements.—נַגּוֹר יָשָׂם] 'according to their peoples.' יָשָׂם is the Ar. 'ummatt, rare in Heb. (Nu. 25:18, Ps. 117:1).—17. Cf. vv.7,8.

V. 18 is a strage verse of J, whose original setting it is impossible to determine. There is much plausibility in Ho.'s conjecture that it was the conclusion of J's lost genealogy of Ishmael (cf. 16:7, 8). Gu. thinks it was taken from the end of ch. 16: similarly Meyer, who makes 11b (p. 352 above) a connecting link. Di. suggests that the first half may have followed 25, the reference being not to the Ishmaelites but to the Keţureans; and that the second half is a gloss from 16:12. But even 18a is not consistent with 11b, for we have seen that the Keţureans are found E and SE of Palestine, and Shûr is certainly not 'eastward' from where
Abraham dwelt.—If Ḥavīlah has been rightly located on p. 202 above, J fixes the eastern limit of the Ishmaelites in the neighbourhood of the Ḥūf es-Sirhān, while the western limit is the frontier of Egypt (on Shūr, see on 167). This description is, of course, inapplicable to P's Ishmaelites; but it agrees sufficiently with the statement of E (21:1) that their home was the wilderness of Paran; and it includes Lahai-roi, which was presumably an Ishmaelite sanctuary. Since a reference to Assyria is here out of place, the words רֹאֲשָׁאַ אֲשֶׁר must be either deleted as a gloss (We. Di. Mey. al.), or else read רֹאֲשָׁא אֲשֶׁר; ראשא being the hypothetical N Arabian tribe supposed to be mentioned in 25:3 (so Gu.; cf. Homm. AHT, 240 f.; Kön. Fünf Landsch. 11 ff.), a view for which there is very little justification.—יִבְנֶה is an adaptation of יבנוה, but throws no light on that difficult sentence. Perhaps the best commentary is Ju. 7:18, where again the verb בֵּן has the sense of 'settle' (= בֵּן in 16:18). Hommel's restoration יִבְנֶה בֵּן, 'in front of Kelah' (a secondary gloss on ראשא), is a brilliant example of misplaced ingenuity.
THE HISTORY OF JACOB.

Chs. XXV. 19-XXXVI.

Setting aside ch. 26 (a misplaced appendix to the history of Abraham: see p. 363), and ch. 36 (Edomite genealogies), the third division of the Book of Genesis is devoted exclusively to the biography of Jacob. The legends which cluster round the name of this patriarch fall into four main groups (see Gu. 257 ff.).

A. Jacob and Esau:
1. The birth and youth of Esau and Jacob (25:19-36).
2. The transference of the birthright (25:27-31).
3. Jacob procures his father's blessing by a fraud (27).

B. Jacob and Laban:
1. Jacob's meeting with Rachel (29:1-14).
2. His marriage to Leah and Rachel (29:15-30).

C. Jacob's return to Canaan (loose and fragmentary):
1. Jacob's measures for appeasing Esau (32:4-29).
2. The meeting of the brothers (33:1-17).
3. The sack of Shechem (34).
4. The visit to Bethel, etc. (35:1-15).
5. The birth of Benjamin and death of Rachel (35:16-20).
6. Reuben's incest (35:21ff.).

D. Interspersed amongst these are several cult-legends, connected with sanctuaries of which Jacob was the reputed founder.
1. The dream at Bethel (28:10-22)—a transition from A to B.
2. The encounter with angels at Mahanaim—a fragment (32:24ff.).
3. The wrestling at Peniel (32:25-30).
4. The purchase of a lot at Shechem (33:18-20).
5. The second visit to Bethel—partly biographical (see below) (35:1-19).

The section on Jacob exhibits a much more intimate fusion of sources than that on Abraham. The disjecta membra of P's epitome can, indeed, be distinguished without much difficulty, viz. 25:19-20, 26b; 26:4ff. 28:1-9, 29:24.

* Gu. recognises a second series of Jacob-Esau stories in C. 1, 2; but these are entirely different in character from the group A. To all appearance they are conscious literary creations, composed in a biographical interest, and without historical or ethnographic significance.
uses in the earlier portions of Gn. Not only are there omissions in P's narrative to be supplied from the other sources, but transposition seems to have been resorted to in order to preserve the sequence of events in JE. — The rest of the material is taken from the composite JE, with the exception of ch. 34, which seems to belong to an older stage of tradition (see p. 418). But the component documents are no longer represented by homogeneous sections (like chs. 16. 18 ff. [J], 20. 22 [E]); they are so closely and continuously blended that their separation is always difficult and occasionally impossible, while no lengthy context can be wholly assigned to the one or to the other. — These phenomena are not due to a deliberate change of method on the part of the redactors, but rather to the material with which they had to deal. The J and E recensions of the life of Jacob were so much alike, and so complete, that they ran easily into a single compound narrative whose strands are naturally often hard to unravel; and of so closely knit a texture that P's skeleton narrative had to be broken up here and there in order to fit into the connexion.

To trace the growth of so complex a legend as that of Jacob is a tempting but perhaps hopeless undertaking. It may be surmised that the Jacob-Esau (A) and Jacob-Laban (B) stories arose independently and existed separately, the first in the south of Judah, and the second east of the Jordan. The amalgamation of the two cycles gave the idea of Jacob's flight to Aram and return to Canaan; and into this framework were fitted various cult-legends which had presumably been preserved at the sanctuaries to which they refer. As the story passed from mouth to mouth, it was enriched by romantic incidents like the meeting of Jacob and Rachel at the well, or the reconciliation of Jacob and Esau; and before it came to be written down by J and E, the history of Jacob as a whole must have assumed a fixed form in Israelite tradition. Its most remarkable feature is the strongly marked biographic motive which lends unity to the narrative, and of which the writers must have been conscious, — the development of Jacob's character from the unscrupulous roguery of chs. 25, 27 to the moral dignity of 32 ff. Whether tradition saw in him a type of the national character of Israel is more doubtful.

As regards the historicity of the narratives, it has to be observed in the first place that the ethnographic idea is much more prominent in the story of Jacob than in that of any other patriarch. It is obvious that the Jacob-Esau stories of chs. 25, 27 reflect the relations between the nations of Israel and Edom; and similarly at the end of ch. 31, Jacob and Laban appear as representatives of Israelites and Aramaeans. It has been supposed that the ethnographic motive, which comes to the surface in these passages, runs through the entire series of narratives (though disguised by the biographic form), and that by means of it we may extract from the legends a kernel of ancient tribal history. Thus, according to Steuernagel, Jacob (or Ya'áḳōb-ēl) was a Hebrew tribe which, being overpowered by the Edomites, sought refuge among the Aramaeans, and afterwards, reinforced by the absorption of an Aramaean clan (Rachel), returned and settled in Canaan: the events being placed
between the Exodus from Egypt and the conquest of Palestine (Einw. 38 ff., 56 ff.: cf. Ben. 286). There are indeed few parts of the patriarchal history where this kind of interpretation yields more plausible results; and it is quite possible that the above construction contains elements of truth. At the same time, the method is one that requires to be applied with very great caution. In the first place, it is not certain that Jacob, Esau, and Laban were originally personifications of Israel, Edom, and Aram respectively: they may be real historic individuals; or they may be mythical heroes round whose names a rich growth of legend had gathered before they were identified with particular peoples. In the second place, even if they were personified tribes, the narrative must necessarily contain many features which belong to the personifications, and have no ethnological significance whatever. If, e.g., one set of legends describes Israel's relations with Edom in the south and another its relations with the Aramaeans in the east, it was necessary that the ideal ancestor of Israel should be represented as journeying from the one place to the other; but we have no right to conclude that a similar migration was actually performed by the nation of Israel. And there are many incidents even in this group of narratives which cannot naturally be understood of dealings between one tribe and another. As a general rule, the ethnographic interpretation must be confined to those incidents where it is either indicated by the terms of the narrative, or else confirmed by external evidence.

XXV. 19–34.—The Birth of Esau and Jacob, and the Transference of the Birthright (P, JE).

In answer to Isaac's prayer, Rebekah conceives and bears twin children, Esau and Jacob. In the circumstances of their birth (21–26), and in their contrasted modes of life (27, 28), Hebrew legend saw prefigured the national characteristics, the close affinity, and the mutual rivalry of the two peoples, Edom and Israel; while the story of Esau selling his birthright (29–34) explains how Israel, the younger nation, obtained the ascendancy over the older, Edom.

Analysis.—Vv. 19–20 are taken from P; note הָיְתָתָה הָלֵא, רַעְל, ושָׁפָת (bis), ובָּהֵן הָלֵא. To P must also be referred the chronological notice 26b, which shows that an account of the birth of the twins in that source has been suppressed in favour of J. There is less reason to suspect a similar omission of the marriage of Isaac before v. 20.—The rest of the passage belongs to the composite work JE. The stylistic criteria (חֹמְתָה, 21 bis. 22, 23; רָעָה, 21 bis; יַעֲשֵׂה, 22; רֵעָה, 23) and the resemblance of 24–26 to 38ff. point to J as the leading source of 21–28; though Elohist variants may possibly be detected in 25, 27 (Di. Gu. Pro. al.). Less certainty obtains with regard to 29–34, which most critics are content to assign to J (so Di.
19, 20. Isaac's marriage.—P follows E (31\textsuperscript{20,24}) in describing Rebekah's Mesopotamian relatives as Aramaeans (cf. 28\textsuperscript{5}), though perhaps in a different sense. Here it naturally means descendants of ‘Arām, the fifth son of Shem (10\textsuperscript{23}). That this is a conscious divergence from the tradition of J is confirmed by 28\textsuperscript{2}: see Bu. Urg. 420 ff.—On Bēthlē'el, see p. 247 above.—Paddan 'Āram] (28\textsuperscript{2,6,7} 31\textsuperscript{18} 33\textsuperscript{18} 35\textsuperscript{9,26} 46\textsuperscript{15} [ ludicrous alone 48\textsuperscript{7}]: (ς Μεσοποτάμιας) is P's equivalent for ‘Āram Nahāraim in J (24\textsuperscript{10}); and in all probability denotes the region round Harran (v. l.).

21-23. The pre-natal oracle.—21. With the prolonged barrenness of Rebekah, compare the cases of Sarah, and Rachel (29\textsuperscript{81}), the mothers of Samson (Ju. 13\textsuperscript{2}), Samuel (1 Sa. 1\textsuperscript{8}), and John the Baptist (Lk. 1\textsuperscript{7}).—Isaac prayed to Yahwe] Cf. 1 Sa. 1\textsuperscript{10ff}. No miraculous intervention is

19. פֶּסֶר 'נ נְהָמ] commonly regarded as the heading of the section (of Gen. or) of P ending with the death of Isaac (35\textsuperscript{22}); but see the notes on pp. 40 ff., 235 f. The use of the formula is anomalous, inasmuch as the birth of Isaac, already recorded in P, is included in his own genealogy. It looks as if the editor had handled his document somewhat freely, inserting the words 'נ נְהָמ in the original heading פֶּסֶר הַנֶּהָמ (cf. v. 12).—20. לְבָנָה, Ar. faddān = 'yoke of oxen'; hence (in Ar.) a definite measure of land (jugerum: cf. Lane, 2353 b). A similar sense has been claimed for Ass. padānu on the authority of II R. 62, 33 a, b (Del. Par. 135). On this view וּב would be equivalent to הַנֶּהָמ = 'field of Aram' in Ho. 12\textsuperscript{18}. Ordinarily, padānu means 'way' (Del. Hwb, 515 f.); hence it has been thought that the word is another designation of Harran (see 11\textsuperscript{81}), in the neighbourhood of which a place Paddānā (vicus prope Harran : PSm. T. 3039) has been known from early Christian times: Nödeke, however, thinks this may be due to a Christian localisation of the biblical story (EB, i. 278). Others less plausibly connect the name with the kingdom of Pātin, with its centre N of the Lake of Antioch (Wi. KAT\textsuperscript{3}, 38).

21. נָהָמ peculiar to J in Hex.: Ex. 8\textsuperscript{4,8} 24\textsuperscript{5} 25\textsuperscript{6} 28\textsuperscript{6} 10\textsuperscript{17,18}. In Ar. 'at and'attribat mean animals slain in sacrifice; hence Heb. נָהָמ (Hiph. may everywhere be read instead of Qal) probably referred originally to sacrifice accompanied by prayer, though no trace of the former idea survives in Heb.: "Das Gebet ist der Zweck oder die Interpretation
suggested; and our only regret is that this glimpse of everyday family piety is so tantalisingly meagre.—22. During pregnancy the children *crushed one another* (v.i.) in a struggle for priority of birth.

Comp. the story of Akrissios and Proitlus (Apol. Bibl. ii. 2. 1 ff.), sons of Abas, king of Argos, who *καὶ γαστρός μὲν ἔτι ὄρες ἑστασίᾳ ὧν πρὸς ἀλλήλους*. The sequel presents a certain parallelism to the history of Esau and Jacob, which has a bearing on the question whether there is an element of mythology behind the ethnological interpretation of the biblical narrative (see pp. 455 f.). Another parallel is the Polynesian myth of the twins Tangaroa and Rongo (Che. *TBI*, 356).

Rebekah, regarding this as a portent, expresses her dismay in words not quite intelligible in the text: *If it [is to] be so, why then am I ... ?* v.i.—to inquire of Yahwe] to seek an oracle at the sanctuary.—23. The oracle is communicated through an inspired personality, like the Arab. *kāhin* (*We. Heid.* 134 ff.), and is rhythmic in form (*ib. 135*).—two nations] whose future rivalries are prefigured in the struggle of the infants.—The point of the prophecy is in the last line: *The elder shall serve the younger* (see on 27*20, 40*).

24-26. Birth and naming of the twins. —24. Cf. 38*27-30*, the only other description of a twin-birth in OT.—25. *טַשָּׁנָּה*—either *tawny* or *red-haired*—is a play on the name

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des Opfers, die Begriffe liegen nahe bei einander" (*We. 142*).—22. *יָשָׁרְנָה* *אֶדְסַיִּיר* (the same word as Lk. 14*1, 44*), perhaps confusing 'רֶנֶר', 'run,' with 'רֶנֶר', 'break.' More correctly, Ag. *συνεθάντησαν; Σ. διεπάλαιον.—

*עָבְרֵי נַחֲלָם*] *אֶלֶּבּוֹ נַפְלָּּוֹ מַכִּלּוֹ גֶּבֶנָּתָּהּ, וָה נִי מַתְוַּי;* But the *ני* merely emphasises the interr. (*G-K. § 136 c*), and the latter part of the sentence seems incomplete: *quia necesse fuerit concipere?* § 140

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24. *טַשָּׁנָּה* properly *טַשָּׁנָּה* (so *mi*), as 38*27—25. *טַשָּׁנָּה* used again only of David, *1 Sa. 16*12 *17*42. It is usually explained of the 'reddish brown' hue of the skin; but there is much to be said for the view that it means 'red-haired' (*אֶדְסַיִּיר, *אֶדְסַיִּיר*; so Ges. Tu. al.). The incongruity of the word with the name יָשָׁרְנָּה* creates a suspicion that it may be either a gloss or a variant from a parallel source (*Di.*): for various conjectures see *Bu. Urg. 217*; *Che. EB*, 1333; *Wi. AOF*, i. 344 f.—*יָשָׁרְנָּה* has no Heb. etymology. The nearest comparison is *Ar. 'aṭaḥ* (so most) = 'hirsute'
Edom (see on v. 30); similarly, all over like a mantle of hair (דלי) is a play on שֶׁלֶר, the country of the Edomites (36). It is singular that the name 'Esav itself (on which v.i.) finds no express etymology.—26a. with his hand holding Esau's heel] (Ho. 12) a last effort (v. 22) to secure the advantage of being born first. There are no solid grounds for thinking (with Gu. Luther [INS, 128], Nowack, al.) that Hos. 12 (יִבְנֶה יַעֲבֹד) presupposes a different version of the legend, in which Jacob actually wrested the priority from his brother (cf. 31). The clause is meant as an explanation of the name 'Jacob.'

27, 28. Their manner of life.—27. Esau becomes a man skilled in hunting, a man of the field] It is hardly necessary to suppose that the phrases are variants from (also 'stupid'), though that would require as strict Heb. equivalent יִבְנֶה (Dri.). A connexion with the Phen. אָבָו, brother of אֲבַרְמִי, and a hero of the chase, is probable, though not certain. There is also a goddess 'Ashî, figured on Eg. monuments, who has been thought to be a female form of Esau (Müller, AE, 316 f.).—אֲפֻיִיו | סָדָנָן as v. 26; but אֵל has pl. both times. In any case the subj. is indef.—26. יִבְנֶה is a contraction of אֲפֻיִיו (cf. יִבְנֶה, Jos. 15, Ju. 11 with שֶׁרֶנָּן, Jos. 19; 7; יִבְנֶה, 2 Ch. 26 with יִבְנֶה, Jos. 15) which occurs (a) as a place name in central Palestine on the list of Thothmes III. (No 102: יִבְנַבְרִי);* and (b) as a personal name (Yākūb-īlu)† in a Bab. contract tablet of the age of Ḥammurabi. (The most obvious interpretation of names of this type is to take them as verbal sentt.) with 'El as subj. : 'God overreaches,' or 'follows,' or 'rewards,' according to the sense given to the √ יִבְנֶה (see Gray, HPN, 218).* They may, however, be nominal sentt.: 'Yākob is God' (see Mey. 282); in which case the meaning of the name יִבְנֶה is pushed a step farther back. The question whether Jacob was originally a tribe, or an individual man, thus remains unsettled by etymology.—At end of v., כ adds 'Rëbēka, —an improvement in style.

* Mey. ZATW, vi. 8; INS, 251 f., 281 f.; Müller, AE, 162 f.; Luther, ZATW, xxi. 60 ff.—The name has since been read by Müller in a list of Ramses II., and (defectively written) in one of Ramses III.: see MVAG, 1907, i. 27.—Questioned by Langdon, ET, xxi. (1909), p. 90.
† Homm. AHT, 96, 112. According to H., the contracted form Yākūb also occurs in the Tablets (ib. 203†).
‡ In Heb. the vb. (a denom. from יבִּי, 'heal') is only used with allusion to the story or character of Jacob (27, Ho. 12; Jer. 9‡: in Jb. 37 the text is doubtful), and expresses the idea of insidiousness or treachery. So יבִי (Ps. 49), יבִי (Jer. 17), יבִי (2 Ki. 10): The meanings 'follow' and 'reward' are found in Arab. (BDB, 784 a).
different documents. Though this conception of Esau's occupation is not consistently maintained (see 33°), it has doubtless some ethnographic significance; and game is said to be plentiful in the Edomite country (Buhl, Edomiter, 43).—Jacob, on the other hand, chooses the half-nomadic pastoral life which was the patriarchal ideal. סם, elsewhere ‘an ethically blameless man’ (Jb. 18 etc.), here describes the orderly, well-disposed man (Scoticè, 'douce'), as contrasted with the undisciplined and irregular huntsman.

—28. A preparation for ch. 27, which perhaps followed immediately on these two verses. V. 27, however, is also presupposed by

29-34. Esau parts with the birthright.—The superiority of Israel to Edom is popularly explained by a typical incident, familiar to the pastoral tribes bordering on the desert, where the wild huntsman would come famishing to the shepherd's tent to beg for a morsel of food. At such times the ‘man of the field’ is at the mercy of the tent-dweller; and the ordinary Israelite would see nothing immoral in a transaction like this, where the advantage is pressed to the uttermost.—The legend takes no account of the fact that Edom, as a settled state older than Israel, must have been something more than a mere nation of hunters. The contrasted types of civilisation—Jacob the shepherd and Esau the hunter—were firmly fixed in the popular mind; and the supremacy of the former was an obvious corollary.—29. Jacob stewed something: an intentionally indefinite description, the nature of the dish being reserved as a surprise for v. 34.—30. Let me gulp some of the red—that red there!] With a slight vocalic change (v.i.), we

28. ורי ורי ורי A curious phrase, meaning 'venison was to his taste.' It would be easier to read (with Ba. al.) ורי; or an adj. (ורי?) may have fallen out. סנ appear to have read ורי.

29. ורי ורי only here in the lit. sense; elsewhere = 'act presumptuously.' The derivative ורי (2 Ki. 438, Hag. 212) with rare prefix נ (common in Ass.).—30. ימיע [

*] a coarse expression suggesting bestial voracity; used in NH of the feeding of cattle.—רוא אחרים The repetition of the same word is awkward, even in an expression of impatient greed. The emendation referred to above consists in reading
may render: some of that red seasoning (strictly ‘obsonium’). —'Edom] a play on the word for ‘red’ (דָּם). The name is “a memento of the never-to-be-forgotten greed and stupidity of the ancestor” (Gu.).—31. Jacob seizes the opportunity to secure the long-coveted ‘birthright,’ i.e. the superior status which properly belonged to the first-born son.

The rare term הָסֶד denotes the advantages and rights usually enjoyed by the eldest son, including such things as (a) natural vigour of body and character (Gn. 49, Dt. 21: || לְבָנָּה), creating a presumption of success in life, (b) a position of honour as head of the family (Gn. 27, 49), and (c) a double share of the inheritance (Dt. 21:16). By a legal fiction this status was conceived as transferable from the actual first-born to another son who had proved himself more worthy of the dignity (1 Ch. 5:16). When applied to tribes or nations, it expresses superiority in political might or material prosperity; and this is the whole content of the notion in the narrative before us. The idea of spiritual privilege, or a mystic connexion (such as is suggested in Heb. 12:18) between the birthright and the blessing of ch. 27, is foreign to the spirit of the ancient legends, which owe their origin to aetiological reflexion on the historic relations of Israel and Edom. The passage furnishes no support to the ingenious theory of Jacob’s (Bibl. Arch. 46 ff.), that an older custom of “junior right” is presupposed by the patriarchal tradition.

32. Esau’s answer reveals the sensual nature of the man: the remoter good is sacrificed to the passing necessity of the moment, which his ravenous appetite leads him to exaggerate— Kb לֹא הָסֶד does not mean ‘exposed to death sooner or later’ (IEz. Di. al.), but ‘at the point of death now.’—34. The climax of the story is Esau’s unconcern even when he discovers that he has bartered the birthright for such a trifle as a dish of lentil soup.— יְסִירֵי (2 Sa. 17:28, 23:11, Ezk. 4:9), still a common article of diet in Egypt and Syria, under the name ‘adas: the colour is said to be ‘a darkish brown’ (DB, iii. 95a).—The last clause implies a certain moral justification of the transaction: if Esau was defrauded, he was defrauded of that which he was incapable of appreciating.

the first קֶבֶשׁ after Ar. ‘idām = ‘seasoning or condiment for bread’ (cf. v. 84): so Boysen (cited in Schleusner, i. 969), T. D. Anderson (ap. Di.). This is better than (Dri. al.) to make the change in both places. ἐκτὸς ἑξηματος τού πυρροῦ τοῦτου and ἐκ (de coctione hac rufa) seem to differentiate the words.—31. הָסֶד = ‘first of all,’ as 38, 1 Sa. 2:16, 1 Ki. 1:51 22 (BDB, 400 b).
CH. XXVI.—Isaac and the Philistines (J, R, P).

The chapter comprises the entire cycle of Isaac-legends properly so called; consisting, as will be seen, almost exclusively of incidents already related of Abraham (cf. esp. ch. 20 f.). The introductory notice of his arrival in Gerar (1-6: cf. 20 ff.) is followed by his denial of his marriage with Rebekah (7-11 || 120ff. 202ff.), his success in agriculture (12-16, the only circumstance without an Abrahamic parallel), his quarrels with the Philistines about wells (17-22 || 2125ff.), and, lastly, the Covenant of Beersheba, with an account of the naming of the place (23-33 || 2422-24).—The notice of Esau’s wives (34 ff.) is an excerpt from P.

Source.—The style, except in 34f. and some easily recognised redactional patches (1889-2222. 23-24. 15. 16; see the notes), is unmistakably Yahwistic: cf. אתי (2. 12. 22. 25 [even in the mouth of Abimelech, 26. 29]) ; הנער החẩm, 7 (2416); הבנקה, 8; הבנת, 22 (129); רחיצת בון אב, 25; הנע, 28 (241); רחיצת בון יאפ, 29 (241). Some critics find traces of E in 16, but these are dubious.—The relation of the passage to other strata of the J document is very difficult to determine. On the one hand, the extremely close parallelism to ch. 20 f. suggests that it is a secondary compilation based on JE as a composite work, with the name of Isaac substituted for that of Abraham. But it is impossible to imagine a motive for such an operation; and several considerations favour the theory that ch. 26 is a continuation of the source distinguished as J in the history of Abraham. (1) The Abrahamic parallels all belong to the Negeb tradition (Jp and E); and it is natural to think that J, representing the Hebron tradition, would connect the Negeb narratives with the name of Isaac (whether Abraham or Isaac was the original hero of these legends we cannot well ascertain). (2) The language on the whole confirms this view (cf. ינשה, ינשה, יכ שָׂבַּה אֹיְבֵּֽים, יָרִים, and all the phrases of 25a). (3) The ideal of the patriarchal character agrees with that which we find in Jp (magnanimity, peaceableness, etc.).—In any case, it is to be observed that the ch. stands out of its proper order. The Rebekah of 7ff. is plainly not the mother of two grown-up sons, as she is at the close of ch. 25; and 27f. is the immediate continuation of 2524 or 26 (see We. Comp. 2 30).

1-6. Isaac migrates to Gerar.—Cleared of interpolations, the section reads: (1a) There was a famine in the land; (1b) and Isaac went to Abimelech, king of the Philistines, to Gerar. (2a) And Yahwe appeared to him and said, (3a) Sojourn in this land, and I will be with thee and bless thee. (6) So Isaac abode in Gerar.—1. Isaac comes probably from
Beer Lahai-roi, 25:11. On Abimelech and Gerar, see 20:14. The assumption that Gerar was a Philistine kingdom is an anachronism (see on 10:14), made also in Jb (21:32) but not in E.—3a. and bless thee] a promise fulfilled in Isaac's successful husbandry (12ff.), and other tokens of the divine favour (22. 24. 28f.), with no reference primarily to the blessing of Abraham.


18bγ (םַרְבָּא—רָכָם) is a redactional gloss (RJ or RJE), pointing back to 12:10. 20b (םַרְבָּא) is obviously inconsistent with 28a, and is best explained as a gloss from the same hand as 18bγ (KS. Ho.). Di. Gu. al. consider it a variant from a parallel narrative of E (cf. גְּנֵא קִנֵא רָאָה with 22:2), to which Di. quite unnecessarily assigns also 18a and 8; but the evidence is too weak to warrant the improbable hypothesis of a second E version of 20:1. —28b-5 an expansion in the manner of 22:15-18, emphasizing the immutability of the oath to Abraham (see on 15:18), and showing many traces of late composition.

7-II. Rebekah's honour compromised.—7, 8. Isaac's lie (as 12:13 20:9), and the king's accidental discovery of it.—looked out at a window] possibly into a court of the palace: cf. 2 Sa. 11:2. לְאֹסֵן מֵאָז] exchanging conjugal caresses (see on 21:6),—a play on the name Isaac. The vb. is nowhere else construed with לְאֹסֵן. —9, 10. Abimelech's rebuke of Isaac, and the latter's self-exculpation.—thou mightest have brought guilt] Cf. 20:9. It is an instance of the writer's timid handling of the theme (see below) that no actual complication arises.—II. So stern an injunction would have been in place in ch. 12 or ch. 20, but here it is unmotivated.

That the three narratives 12:10ff. 20, 26-11 are variations of a common theme, appears not only from their close material resemblance, but also

3. הוֹרָאָה] so v. 4; גָּבַר Jub. read sing. The nearest analogies to this use of pl. (which is rare and mostly late) are 1 Ch. 13:9, 2 Ch. 11:38= 'districts' (of Palestine). לְאֹסֵן] see 19:3. 4a. The comparison with the stars, as 15:5 22:17.—4b, 5 almost verbally identical with 22:18; note esp. the uncommon הָאָשֶׁר הָאָשֶׁר. 4b is made up of Priestly and Dnic. expressions: cf. Lv. 26:48, Dt. 6:28 28:40 etc. הָאָשֶׁר הָאָשֶׁר denotes chiefly the service of priests in the sanctuary, but is here used in a wider sense (cf. Lv. 18:30 22:9, Dt. 11:1, Jos. 22:4, 1 Ki. 2:5, Mal. 3:10). The expression is highly characteristic of P (Ho. Einl. 344).—הָאָשֶׁר [מִגָּר + וְרָפָא.

from particular phrases recurrent in each: e.g. מַאֲשֶׁר, נַגְּדָה, נַגְּדָה, וּלְכָּלַת יַעֲשֶׁה צְדוֹק, etc. (cf. Kuen. Onod. i. 228). Although many good scholars (We. Kue. Ho. al.) are of a different opinion, the present passage appears to be the most colourless and least original form of the tradition. In 12th. (J¹) the leading features—the beauty of the heroine, the patriarch's fear for his life, his stratagem, the plagues on the heathen monarch, his rebuke of the patriarch, and the rewards heaped on the latter—are combined in a strong and convincing situation, in which each element stands out in its full natural significance. In ch. 20 (E), the connexion of ideas is in the main preserved; though a tendency to soften the harsher aspects of the incident appears in God's communication to Abimelech, in the statement that no actual harm had come to Sarah, and in the recognition of the half-truth in Abraham's account of his relation to Sarah. In 26th. (J²) this tendency is carried so far as to obscure completely the dramatic significance of those features which are retained. Though Isaac is the guest of Abimelech (v.¹), it is only the 'men of the place' who display a languid interest in his beautiful wife: no one wants to marry Rebekah, least of all the king, who is introduced merely as the accidental discoverer of the true state of affairs, and is concerned only for the morality of his subjects. No critical situation arises; and the exemplary self-restraint manifested by the men of Gerar affords no adequate basis for the stern injunction of 11, which would have been appropriate enough in ch. 12 or ch. 20. It is, of course, impossible to assign absolute priority in every respect to any one of the three recensions; but it may reasonably be affirmed that in general their relative antiquity is represented by the order in which they happen to stand—J¹, E, J². The transference of the scene from Gerar to Egypt is perhaps the only point in which the first version is less faithful to tradition than the other two.—See the elaborate comparison in Gu. 197 ff.

12-16. Isaac's successful husbandry.—12. Cultivation on a small scale is still occasionally practised by the Bedouin (see Palmer, Des. of Ex. ii. 296). The only other allusions in the patriarchal history are 30 14 37.¹—13-16. Isaac's phenomenal prosperity excites the jealousy of the Philistines, which leads to his enforced departure.—15. See on 18 below.

13-16. Gu. thinks the vv. are a pendant to the Rebekah incident, corresponding to the gifts of the heathen king (12 20 24) and the expulsion of Abraham (12 30). It is more natural to consider 12th. the continuation of 6; indeed, it might fairly be questioned whether 7-11 is not a later insertion, interrupting the continuity of the main narrative.—12. מַעֲשֶׁה] G. S wrongly מַעֲשֶׁה, 'barley.' The word is מַעֲשֶׁה, meaning 'measure' or 'value' (cf. מַעֲשֶׁה = 'reckon,' in Pr. 23 7, with allied words in J. Aram. and NH; esp. NH מַעֲשֶׁה = 'measure').—13. לֹא יָבִא דַּלֶּה רֵלַת] G-K. § 113 u.
17-22. Isaac's wells.—See on 21:25. —17. Isaac retires to the Wādī of Gērār] probably the Ġurf el-Ǧērār, above (SE) Umm el-Ǧ. (201), into which several wādis converge, including W. er-Ruḥaibeh (v.22) and W. es-Seba'.—19, 20. The first well is named 'Eseḵ ('annoyance'); the name has not been found.—21. Siṯnāh ('hostility') is possibly to be sought in the W. Šūṭnet er-Ruḥaibeh, close to Ruḥaibeh, though v.22 seems to imply that the places were some distance apart.

—22. Rēḥōḇoth ('room') is plausibly identified with er-Ruḥaibeh, in the wādi of the same name, about 20 m. SW of Beersheba (a description in Palmer, ii. 382 f.).

In the narrative, Isaac himself was represented as the discoverer of these wells, though another tradition (partially preserved in 21:25) ascribed the discovery and naming of them to Abraham. Vv.15, 18 are an ancient gloss, inserted to harmonise the two views by the supposition that the wells had been stopped up by the Philistines,—a practice frequently resorted to in desert warfare (2 Ki. 3). 23-25. The theophany at Beersheba.—23. went up] though Bir es-Seba' lies considerably lower than er-Ruḥaibeh. —24. That an inaugural theophany (see on 127) is meant, is clear from v.25. According to this narrative, no patriarch had previously visited Beersheba (cf. 21:83).—my servant] כָּרֹת reads 'thy father.' Nowhere else in Gen. is Abraham spoken of as the servant of Yahwe.—25a. Note the correspondence of the phraseology with 12:7. 13.18.—25b. See v.32.

17. וֹאַמ so (of an individual) 33:18 (E).—18. וֹאַמֵּש פָּרֶשׁ, Jub. יָאָשָׁה. —פָּרֶשׁ used in the same sense 2 Ki. 3:10, 25, 2 Ch. 32:3, 4, 30. On the masc. suf. (so v.15), see G-K. §§ 60 a, 135 o.—19. יָאָשָׁה כְּרָפָדָן. —20. פָּרֶשֶׁל אֲד. ley. פָּרֶשׁ is common in NH, Tg. in the sense of 'be busy, occupied'; in Syr. it means durus, asper, molestus, fuit: hence in Ethpa. difficilem se praebuit.—21. כְּרָפָדָן פָּרֶשׁ פָּרֶשׁ פָּרֶשֶׁל] (with following vb. in sing.), as v.23: cf. 12:22.—22. יָאָשָׁה כְּרָפָדָן פָּרֶשֶׁל, cf. 28a.

24, 25aa are regarded by Gu. as an interpolation of the same character as 2b-5; but the linguistic marks of late authorship which abound in 2b-5 are scarcely to be detected here, and the mention of the altar before the tent is not sufficient to prove dislocation of the text. Nor is it quite correct to say that v.38 implies a different origin of the sacredness of Beersheba from 24t: the consecration of the sanctuary and the naming of the place are separate things which were evidently kept distinct in J (21:38).—25. יָאָשָׁה synonymous with פָּרֶשׁ in Nu. 21:18; elsewhere only used of a grave (50) or pit (Ex. 21:33 etc.).
26-33. The treaty with Abimelech.—26. 'Ahussath (v.i.) his friend] his confidential adviser, or 'vizier,'—an official title common in Egypt from an early period, and amongst the Ptolemies and Seleucids (1 Mac. 218 166; cf. 2 Sa. 1616; 1 Ki. 45; 1 Ch. 2733).—Pikol] see on 2122.—27. See vv.14-16.—28. The πίστις is properly the curse invoked on the violation of the covenant; ἡ δικαιοσύνη refers to the symbolic ceremony (not here described) by which it was ratified (see on 1571f.).—29. Abimelech dictates the terms of the covenant: cf. 2128.—30, 31. The common meal seems to be a feature of the covenant ceremony (cf. 3158f.), though here the essential transaction takes place on the morning of the following day.—32, 33. The naming of the well (25b). The peculiar form Sib'ah (v.i.) is perhaps chosen as a compromise between נִבְּשָׁ, 'oath' (as Gu. points), and נַבֶּשָׁ, the actual name of the place.

It is possible to recognise in these imperfectly preserved legends a reflexion of historic or pre-historic relations between nomadic tribes of the Negeb (afterwards incorporated in Israel) and the settled population of Gerar. The ownership of certain wells was disputed by the two parties; others were the acknowledged possession of the Hebrew ancestors. In the oldest tradition (Jb) the original purpose of the covenant of Beersheba still appears: it was to put a stop to these disputes, and secure the right of Israel at least to the important sanctuary of Beersheba (2130). In the later variations this connexion is lost sight

26. נحوا] (for the ending, see Dri. Sam. 107) has sometimes been mistaken for the noun meaning 'possession' (17f), taken in the sense of a body holding together (see Ra. ad loc.); so ἐν ἁγίᾳ ἡσυχία, 'company of his friends'; Jer. collegium amicorum ejus; Gr.-Ven. κατοχὴ τε τοῦ φιλου [Field].—Ὑστερ] a rare word for 'companion,' sodalis (Ju. 1411, 20 152, 6, 2 Sa. 38, Pr. 125 (?) 197), whose use in the story of Samson suggested the νυμφαγωγὸς of ΟΓ here.—28. πεστὶ] need not be deleted (ΟΓ, al.). The form πεστὶ (4228, Jos. 2234, Ju. 1110, 2 Sa. 217, Jer. 2518, Ezk. 10561f) is always two-sided, and is here resolved into the commone πεστὶ ... πεστὶ, exactly as 2 Sa. 217. Hence in the first case 'us' means all the parties to the covenant, in the second only the Philistine representatives.—29. נحوا] On the see G-K. § 75. הָה [הָה הָה] וּנֶה הָה נִּנֶה, ΟΓ 'נ 'נ, a more natural order.—32. יִּזֶר] ΟΓ strangely reads ὁθά [ἐπροερευν θορπο].—33. נרק] ΟΓ better προφ.,—προφ. (ἀπ. λεγ.) ΟΓ ὁρκος; but Ag. Σ. προφορα, Π Abundantiam, Λ [προφορα (προφ, Ezk. 1649). In spite of the interchange of sibilants, one is tempted to agree with these authorities: Jerome pertinently asks: 'Quae enim etymologia est, propterea vocari juris—mentum, quod aquam non (cf. ΟΓ) invenisset?'—אנה] ΟΓ pr. נרה.
of, and the covenant becomes a general treaty of peace and amity, which may also have had historic importance for a later period. In E there is no mention of contested wells at all, nor even a hint that Abraham had dug the well of Beersheba; while J* seems expressly to bar any connexion between the covenant and the discovery of the well.

34, 35. Esau’s Hittite wives (P).—In P, Esau is represented as still living with Isaac at Mamre (3529).—Hittite for ‘Canaanite’: see on 238. It is possible, however, that in the case of Basemath the true text was ‘Hivvite’ (so כז).—On the names, see on 362.

XXVII. 1-45.—How Jacob secured his Father’s Blessing (JE).

This vivid and circumstantial narrative, which is to be read immediately after 2534 (or 2528), gives yet another explanation of the historical fact that Israel, the younger people, had outstripped Edom in the race for power and prosperity. The clever but heartless stratagem by which Rebekah succeeds in thwarting the intention of Isaac, and diverting the blessing from Esau to Jacob, is related with great vivacity, and with an indifference to moral considerations which has been thought surprising in a writer with the fine ethical insight of J (Di.). It must be remembered, however, that ‘J’ is a collective symbol, and embraces many tales which sink to the level of ordinary popular morality. We may fairly conclude with Gu. (272) that narratives of this stamp were too firmly rooted in the mind of the people to be omitted from any collection of national traditions.

Sources.—The presence of a dual narrative is rendered probable by the following duplicates (see We. Comp. 34-36): *(a)* 33, 34 || 35-38. In 35 (ברוך) we are recalled to the same stage as the ברוך of 38; and 34 (Esau’s cry) carries us forward to the same point as 38.—*(b)* 21-23 || 24-27a: here again ברוך commences two sections which must be alternative, since both lead up to the blessing (ברוך).—*(c)* A less obvious doublet may be discovered in 11-13, 18 || 18: in the one case Jacob is disguised by the skin of the kids, in the other by wearing Esau’s clothes.—*(d)* 30a || 30b.—*(e)* 44b || 45a (to יְסוּד).—The language is predominantly that of J, with occasional traces of E; and that the incident was actually recorded in both these documents appears from chs. 32, 352-7. In the parallels just en-
umerated, however, the stylistic criteria are hard to trace; and in the attempt to disentangle them almost everything hangs on the word יְנִי in 27. As to (b), 24-27 is certainly J, and 21-28 consequently E; it will follow that in (c) 15 belongs to J and 11-13, 16 to E. With regard to (a), it is almost impossible to decide which is J's variant and which E's. Gu. assigns 35-38 to E, on the somewhat subtle ground that in J (35, 27) Isaac is ignorant who it is that has personated Esau, whereas in E (35, 28) he knows very well that it is Jacob (so OH, SOT). Most critics have taken the opposite view, but without any decisive positive reason. See Gu. p. 270 f.; Pro. 19 f.—It is not worth while to push the precarious analysis further: anything else of importance may be reserved for the notes.

1-5. Isaac's purpose to bless Esau: explained by his partiality for his first-born son, and (more naively) by his fondness for venison (25). It is quite contrary to the sense of the narrative to attribute to him the design of frustrating the decree of Providence expressed in the independent legend of 25.—I. Blindness is spoken of as a frequent concomitant of old age (cf. 4810, 1 Sa. 32, 1 Ki. 14, Ec. 12: cf. Dt. 347).

—3. thy quiver (v.i.) and thy bow] the latter, the hunter's weapon (Is. 724; cf. 2 Ki. 1315).—4. that my soul may bless thee] so 19, 25, 31. As if the expiring nephesh gathered up all its force in a single potent and prophetic wish. The universal belief in the efficacy of a dying utterance appears often in OT (4810ff. 5024ff., Dt. 33, Jos. 23, 2 Sa. 231ff., 1 Ki. 21ff., 2 Ki. 1314ff.).—5. But Rebekah was listening] cf. 1810.

The close connexion of the blessing and the eating, which is insisted on throughout the narrative, is hardly to be explained as a reward for the satisfaction of a sensuous appetite; it rests, no doubt, on some religious notion which we can no longer recover. Ho. compares the physical stimuli by which prophetic inspiration was induced (cf. 1 Sa.

I. יָנִי] On vav cons. in the subord. cl., cf. G-K. § 111 q.—The last cl. (תַּנָּה) contains a characteristic formula of E (cf. 2719. 3111: so v. 18), and is probably to be assigned to that source.—2. יָנִי] J; see on 1211.—3. יָנִי] (מ. יְנִי): only here, from יָנִי, 'hang,' is a more suitable designation of the 'quiver' (חֶלְּק I Ez.) than of the 'sword' (חֹלֶק Ra.).—יָנִי Keth. may here be noun of unity (G-K. § 122 f.) = 'piece of game' from יָנִי (Qērē) (so Tu. De. Di. Gu.). Elsewhere (4826 4521 etc.) it means 'provisions,' especially for a journey. This may be explained by the fact that game was practically the only kind of animal food used by the Semites (see RS3, 222 f.); but the identity of the יָנִי is doubted (BDdB, 845 a).—5. יָנִי יָנִי is better, unless both words should be read.
6-17. Rebekah's stratagem.—The mother's jealousy for her favourite son (2525) is aroused by what she has overheard; and she instantly devises a scheme whose daring and ingenuity illustrate the Hebrew notion of capable and quick-witted womanhood.—7. before Yahwe] in the solemn consciousness of Yahwe's presence: see on v.4.—II–I3 probably belong to E (see above), and may be omitted from the other narrative, with the effect of making Rebekah's initiative still more apparent: Jacob obeys her without a word.—II. a hairy man] see 2525. The objection shows just enough shrewdness on Jacob's part to throw his mother's resourcefulness into bolder relief.—13. On me be thy curse] cf. 165.—15. the choice clothes] the festal raiment: the fact that this would have been put on by Esau proves once more that the blessing was a religious ceremony. Since the clothes were in Rebekah's charge, Esau must (as Ho. points out) have been still an unmarried man (ct. P 2634f.).—16 goes with 11–18 (E), and may be removed without breach of continuity.—17. Rebekah's part being now ended, Jacob is left to his own resources.

18–29. Jacob obtains the blessing.—20. How very quickly thou hast found it, my son!—] an exclamation rather than a question: the answer being: Yes, for Yahwe, etc.—יִּתְנֶּה הָנַחְּנוּי caused the right thing to happen, as 2412 (J).—21–23 may be the direct continuation of 19a (E); the clause

6. וַהֲנֵא] cf. וַהֲנֵא, v.6; the addition of וַהֲנֵא (נ) is unnecessary.—8. חָרָם and וַהֲנֵא may be variants: acc. to Di. וַהֲנֵא is characteristic of E, and חָרָם of J.—12. וֹּסְעֲמָה (זֹּעַעַמָא]), properly 'a stammerer' (cf. Ar. tā'tā'a) then 'a mocker' (2 Ch. 3618); hence not a mere practical joker (Kn-Di.), but a profaner of religious solemnities (Ho. Gu.).—13. וַהֲנֵא is given by Di. as a mark of E, in distinction from J's וַהֲנֵא (193 249).—15. וַהֲנֵא being masc. (exc. Lv. 630), and וַהֲנֵא in usage a subst., it is best to suppose וַהֲנֵא repeated as nom. regens before the gen. (otherwise Dav. § 27).

18. 'וַהֲנֵא 1 is probably to be assigned to E for the same reason as 19, though something similar must have stood in the other source: Gu., however, makes 19 the direct sequel of (וַהֲנֵא) וַהֲנֵא in 19a (J), giving 19a to E.—another view in וַהֲנֵא (cf. 10, 14, 31).—23. וַהֲנֵא Another view of the con-
and so he blessed him must have been followed by the words of blessing.—24–27 bring the parallel narrative (J) up to the same point.—27a. The smelling of the garments seems to have a twofold significance: on the one hand it is a final test of Esau's identity (otherwise the disguise v.15 would have no meaning), on the other it supplies the sensuous impression which suggests the words of the blessing 27b (so Gu.).

The section, we have seen, is composite (perhaps 18. 19a. 21–23. 28 = E || 19b. 20. 24–27 = J); in the primary documents the interview was less complicated, and the movement quicker, than it now appears: but since neither has been preserved intact, we cannot tell how long Isaac's hesitation and Jacob's suspense lasted in each case. In J as it stands, it would seem that Isaac's suspicions are first aroused by the promptness of the supposed hunter's return, and perhaps only finally allayed by the smell of Esau's garments. In E it is the voice which almost betrays Jacob, and the feel of his arms which saves him from detection. For details, see the footnotes.

27b–29. The blessing is partly natural (27b. 28), partly political (29), and deals, of course, not with the personal history of Jacob, but with the future greatness of Israel. Its nearest analogies are the blessings on Joseph, Gn. 4922ff., Dt. 3313ff.; and it is not improbable that its Elohistic elements (v. i.) originated in N. Israel.—27b (J). the smell of a rich field] cf. struction, avoiding the division of documents, in Dri. T. § 75. The narrator is supposed to "hasten at once to state briefly the issue of the whole, and afterwards, as though forgetting that he had anticipated, proceed to annex the particulars by the same means" (1 cons.). Ew. and Hitz. applied the same principle to several other passages (see ib.); but the explanation seems to me not very natural.—24. ἔκ τῆς ἀναθ. 25. ἔκ τοῦ ἀντι. 26. ἐκ τῆς ἀναθ. ; but see v. 21.

27b–29. The critical analysis of the blessing, precarious at the best, depends on such considerations as these: ἔκ τῆς 27b points decisively to J; ἐκ τῆς ἀναθ. 28, less certainly, to E, which is confirmed by ἔκ τῆς ἀναθ. (cf. 37). 29a (to ἔκ τῆς ἀναθ.) is J because of the last word (2528); and 29b because of the resemblance to 128. 29b (from ἔκ τῆς) is E (cf. 37) (so Gu.). KS. and Ho. differ first in treating 29a,29b as wholly || 29a, thus assigning 29a to E and 29b to J (thus far Pro. agrees with them); then in the inference that 37 is J; and, lastly, in the reflex inference that 29b is E.—The metrical structure is irregular. Parallelistism appears in 29a and in 29 throughout. 27b falls into three trimeters; but 28 (also J) can only be scanned in tetrameters. In E trimeters and tetrameters are combined. See Sievers, i. 405, 577; ii. 79, 316.—27b. ἐκ (ungrammatically) ἀναθ. The ἐκ, how—
Dt. 33:23 (v. i.)—28 (E). *fat places of the earth* for the image cf. Is. 51 281, Nu. 13:20. "Heaven and earth conspire to give him of their best" (Gu.). —corn and must* often combined with *oil* in pictures of agricultural felicity (Dt. 7:13, Ho. 2:8, 22 etc.).—29aa (J). Peoples . . . nations] cf. 25:28. The reference is to the neighbouring nations subdued by David (2 Sa. 8).—29ab (E) resembles a *tribal blessing* (cf. 49:8). At all events the mention of brethren (pl.) shows that the immediate situation is forgotten.—29b (J). Cf. 12:8.

30–40. Esau sues in vain for a blessing.—30. Both J and E bring out how narrowly Jacob escaped being detected (v. i.). 31b. Esau’s address (jussives) is if anything a little more deferential than Jacob’s (v. 19).—33. Who, then, is he . . . ?] The words express but a momentary uncertainty; before the sentence is finished Isaac knows on whom the blessing has fallen. The clause is a real parallel to 35, but a difference of conception is scarcely to be thought of (Gu.: see above).—and blessed he shall be] Not that Isaac now acquiesces in the ruling of Providence, and refuses to withdraw the blessing; but that such an oracle once uttered is in its nature irrevocable.—34. bless me too] parallel to the same words in 33. Here J’s narrative breaks off, and 35 (E) resumes from the standpoint of 32.—36. Is it because he was named Overreacher]—that he must always be overreaching.

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ever, is rendered in CE, and should perhaps be retained.—28. עשתו] || ישה, and therefore ישה+ל (G-K. § 20 m), from ישה (30*).—29. הושנ] the final ה should be supplied with Qrè and µ (see next cl.).—ActionBar=ActionBar] מנה (מן) is the common Aram. and NH form of מנה (cf. Ph. ונה=מנה, קנה): in OT Heb. only here, Is. 16:1, Neh. 6:9, Jb. 37:6, Ec. 2:22 11:8, and (acc. to Ex. 3:14) in the name מנה. Its occurrence in early Heb., as here, is surprising:—יень] v.57. —ActionBar] CE ten, wrongly.—ActionBar] CE ליאנ ז after 49. —On the distributive sing. (ראה, דעת), see G-K. § 145 L.

30a. contains two variants, of which the second is connected syntactically with 30b. Since the form of *a resembles* 18:23 24:23 43:2 (all J), we may assign this to J, and the rest of the v. to E.—31. יא] Pt. rather יא (juss.).—33. יא] KS. conj. יא (emphatic inf. abs.).—יהיו רעים ו ח נ] The emendation of Hitz. (Ols. Ba.) יא: יא ו ח יא is hardly suitable: such a sentence would require to be preceded by another action, of which it was an aggravating or supplementary circumstance (cf. 31:16 46:1, Nu. 16:18). It is better (with µ) to read ו, and (with CE) to insert יא at the beginning of 34.—36. יא] cf. 29:18, 2 Sa. 9:1 (23:19 ?), Jb. 52:24. The
me?—Note the word-play "בָּלְתָה". 37. Cf. 29a-29b (E). All that makes a blessing—political supremacy, and material wealth—has been given away; what remains for Esau?—38. Is that the only blessing thou hast?] That the blessing can be revoked, Esau does not imagine; but he still hopes that a second (inferior) blessing may be his.—lifted up . . . wept] corresponding to 34a. "Those tears of Esau, the sensuous, wild, impulsive man,—almost like the cry of some 'trapped creature,' are among the most pathetic in the Bible" (Davidson, *Hebrews*, 242).—39, 40a. His importunity draws forth what is virtually a curse, though couched in terms similar to those of v. 29:

_Away from the fat places of the earth shall thy dwelling be;_

_And away from the dew of heaven above!_

The double entendre in the use of ḫ has misled ḫ and some comm. into thinking this a *replica* of the blessing of Jacob (cf. Nö. *EB*, 1184). Compare 40 with 40a. _live by thy sword_] by raids on neighbouring territory, plunder of caravans, etc.*—serve thy brother] fulfilled in the long sub-

jection of Edom to Israel, from the time of David to that of Joram (2 Ki. 820ff.), or even Ahaz (166).—40b. The prosaic form suggests that this may be a later addition dating from after the emancipation of Edom (Ho. Gu.).—break his yoke] a common figure: Jer. 20 5 28a. 11 30, Lv. 26, Is. 9 etc.

The territory of Edom is divided into two parts by the Arabah; that to the E is described by Strabo (xvi. 21) as "Israel καλ ἐπιστη
καὶ μαλακτα ἤ προς Ἰουδαλα." Modern travellers, however, speak of it as rendering above, 'is it that?' etc., satisfies every case (see BDB, 472 a), and is simpler than that given in G-K. § 150 e.—Ho. (so Gu.) thinks 36a a redactional expansion; but it has to be considered whether 36b (|| 36a) is not rather a fragment of J.—38. יִרְאָה הָאָזְרִים הֵ וְכָל יָפְנוּן כָּלְעַרְבִּים = 34b (J). On the syntax of 'א, see G-K. § 155 e.—"עָמְדָה נָחָלָי | הַגָּתָה | מַהֲרָלָי" . . . but MSS and daughter-Vns. retain, some with the addition κατανυχθέντος δέ Ἰσραήλ ((Dialog. ZDMG, 206).—40. יִרְאָה | מֵרָע | מֵרָע | מֵרָע [Jer. 231, Hos. 122, Ps. 553, Ju. 1187 [ἐρ. ᾧ]] probably connected with Ar. ῥάδα, 'go to and fro' (Nö. ZDMG, 357 f.): 'when thou comest restive.' . . . רַחַם, כָּפַלָה = וּרְקָה.

extremely fertile (Robinson, BR, ii. 154; Palmer, Des. of Ex. ii. 430 f.; cf. Buhl, Edomiter, 15 f.). Buhl accordingly thinks the curse refers only to the barren plateau W of the Arabah; and this is perhaps better than (with Nö. Dri.) to assimilate the terms of the blessing and the curse.

It is probable that J's narrative contained a form of the curse on Esau, but whether any part is preserved in LXX is doubtful. 38 is certainly from the same source as 28 (E); with regard to 40 the question stands open.—On the metre, see again Sievers, i. 404 f., ii. 78 f., 317. Ba.'s denial of metrical form is based wholly on the doubtful 40b.

41-45. Esau's purpose of revenge.—41. Esau cherished enmity (50\textsuperscript{15}) against Jacob.—the days of mourning (50\textsuperscript{10}) a period of seven days, within which Esau hoped to accomplish his revenge.—42. Thy brother is going to take satisfaction of thee (Is. 1\textsuperscript{24}, Ezek. 5\textsuperscript{13}) by killing thee.—44, 45. a few days. . . till he forget] reckoning on Esau's well-known instability, and at the same time making light of the trial of separation.—bereaved of you both] The writer has in view the custom of blood-revenge (cf. 2 Sa. 14'), though in the case supposed there would be no one to execute it.

XXVII. 46-XXVIII. 9.—Isaac's Charge to Jacob (P).

This short section records the only action attributed to Isaac in the Priestly Code. Two facts are taken over from the earlier tradition (JE): Isaac's blessing of Jacob, and Jacob's visit to Mesopotamia. But the unedifying stories of Jacob's treachery, which were the essential link of connexion between them, are here omitted; and a new motive is introduced, viz., the inadmissibility of intermarriage with the inhabitants of Canaan. By transgressing this unwritten law, Esau forfeits his title to the 'blessing of Abraham,' which is thus transferred to Jacob; and Jacob's flight is transformed into an honourable mission in search of a wife. The romantic interest of Jacob's love-story (ch. 29) is largely

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43. ἔλθειν εἰς τὴν Μεσοποταμίαν. —44. ἐν ἔως ἀνεραγτήν εἴη, as 29\textsuperscript{20}, Dn. 11\textsuperscript{20}; cf. Gn. 11\textsuperscript{1}. —βρέχεται ἡ ἄρα ἄρα ἡμέραι, καί ἄρα ἡ διαδοχή τοῦ πατρίδος. —45. ἕως τοῦ ἀποστρέψαι τοῦ θυμὸν καὶ τὴν ὄργην τ. ἀδ. σου.
discounted by this prosaic representation of the course of events (cf. Gu. 341).

Marks of P's style are abundant: יְּשַׁעֲלוֹן 8; יִשְׂרָאֵל 4; יִשְׂרָאֵל 6; יְשַׁעֲלוֹן 2. 8. 7; נֵבֶדֶה הַר 8; יִשְׂרָאֵל 4; יִשְׂרָאֵל 6. 1. 8 (יִשְׁעָשַׁע הַר, 24 27); יִשְׁעָשַׁע הַר, 8.

46 is an amplification of 2635 (תִּרְשֵׁי הָלָה), but attributes to Rebekah an initiative more in the spirit of JE than of P. It may have been supplied by R to facilitate the transition from ch. 27 to 28 (v.i.).—XXVIII. 1. The language seems modelled on 2435. 87.—2. thy mother's father] The earlier affinity between the two families is again ignored by P: see on 25197.—4. the blessing (יהוה 'blessings') of Abraham] Comp. 17 8. Whereas in JE, Isaac is the inspired author of an original blessing, which fixes the destiny of his descendants, in P he simply transmits the blessing attached to the covenant with Abraham.—9. went to Ishmael] Not to dwell with him permanently, but to procure a wife (see 3661). It is undoubtedly assumed that Ishmael was still alive (Di.), in spite of the chronological difficulties raised by De.

XXVIII. 10–22.—Jacob at Bethel (JE).

On his way to Harran, Jacob passes the night at Bethel, where the sacredness of the 'place' is revealed to him by a dream of a ladder leading from earth to heaven. Awaking, he consecrates the stone on which his head had lain, as a 'house of God,'—at the same time naming the place Bethel,—and vows to dedicate a tithe of all he has, in the event of his safe return.

46. The objections to assigning the v. to P (Kue. KS. Di. Ho. Gu. al.) are perhaps not decisive. If MT be right, מִצְלָי agrees in substance with 2634, though in 28197. P consistently uses בְּשָׁעֲלוֹן 'בְּשָׁעֲלוֹן. 2. the phrase (so 5 7) cf. G–K. § 90 i. —3. וַיִּפְקֵד 3511 48 (P), Ezk. 23 24 32 = אֶלָּלִי יָסָרֵי, 171. In spite of Dt. 33 (Di.), the phrase cannot well denote the tribes of Israel. It seems to correspond to J's 'In thee shall all nations,' etc. (12 3 etc.), and probably expresses some sort of Messianic outlook.—7. הָעִבְרִית] perhaps a gloss suggested by 2741. (Di. al.)—9. הָעִבְרִית] ma om.—הָעִבְרִית § אָסָּמָּה (cf. T); see on 368.
Analysis.—The section consists of a complete Elohistic narrative (111. 17-22), with a Yahwistic insertion (13-16). For E, cf. דֹּחֲלָה, 12. 17. 20; דָּהַר, 18. 22; the dream, 12; the tithe, 22; and the retrospective references in 3713 353. 7. For J, תּוּר 13 (בּוֹצָל). 1. 16. יִתְנָה 12, and the resemblances to 123. 7 13. 15. 1818 2218ff. 2624 3218. To J belong, further, 10 (נַחָל), and (if genuine) 21b, though the latter is more probably interpolated. 18a breaks the connexion of 18 and 20, and may be taken from J; 19b is an explanatory gloss. (So nearly all recent critics.) Kuenen (Onu. i. 145, 247) considers 15-16 a redactional addition to E, similar to 2214-18, etc., on the ground that J attributes the inauguration of the worship at Bethel to Abraham (12f), and nowhere alludes to the theophany here recorded (so Meyer, INS, 2363). But (to say nothing of 18a) the parallelism of 16 and 17 appears to prove a real amalgamation of primary sources (Di.). Gu. regards 14 as secondary, on account of its stereotyped phraseology.

10-12 (E). Jacob's dream.—11. he lighted upon the place] i.e., the 'holy place' of Bethel (see 12f), whose sanctity was revealed by what followed.—he took [at haphazard] one of the stones of the place] which proved itself to be the abode of a deity by inspiring the dream which came to Jacob that night.—12. a ladder] or 'stair' (the word only here). The origin of the idea is difficult to account for (see on v. 17). Its permanent religious significance is expressed with profound insight and truth in Jn. 15f.—angels of God] So (in pl.) only in E (cf. 32f) in the Hex. As always in OT, the angels are represented as wingless beings (cf. En. 1xi. 1).

In v. 11 the rendering 'a certain place' would be grammatically correct (G-K. § 126 f); but it destroys the point of the sentence, which is that night overtook the patriarch just at the sacred spot (see Ex. 3f). The idea expressed by the primitive form of the legend is that the inherent sanctity of the place, and in particular of the stone, was unknown till it was discovered by Jacob's dream. It is very probable, as Ho. suggests, that this points to an ancient custom of incubation at Bethel, in which dream-oracles were sought by sleeping with the head in contact with the sacred stone (see Sta. GVI, i. 475 f).

13-16 (J). The promise.

In place of the vision of the ladder, which in E constitutes the whole revelation, J records a personal appearance of Yahwe, and an articulate communication to the patriarch. That it was a nocturnal theophany (as in 2624) appears from 16a, as well as the word 24f in 15. The promise is partly addressed to Jacob's special circumstances (13. 15), partly a re-

11. דֹּחֲלָה] Acc. of place (lit. 'at his head-place'), as 1 Sa. 1918. 16 26. 11, 16, 1 Ki. 19f.—12. והֵמֶּה לְּלָהַר] The usual vivid formula in relating a
nual of the blessing of Abraham (14). The latter is not improbably a later amplification of the former (see above).

13. Yahwe stood by him (v.i.), and announced Himself as one with the God of his fathers. This unity of Yahwe amidst the multiplicity of His local manifestations is a standing paradox of the early religion of Israel: cf. v.16.—the land whereon thou liest] a description peculiarly appropriate to the solitary and homeless fugitive who had not where to lay his head.—14. Comp. 1314ff. 2217ff. 264. 24 3213.—On 14b see the note on 123.—16. Yahwe is in this place, etc.] The underlying feeling is not joy (Di.), but fear, because in ignorance he had treated the holy place as common ground (f03). The exclamation doubtless preserves an echo of the local tradition, more forcibly represented in E (v.17). It is the only case in Gen. where a theophany occasions surprise (cf. Ex. 33).

17–19. Consecration and naming of the place.—17 follows v.12 (E) without sensible breach of continuity; even the mention of Jacob's awaking (18) is not absolutely indispensable (see 18). The impression of fear is far more powerfully expressed than in J; the place is no ordinary haram, but one superlatively holy, the most sacred spot on earth. Only a N Israelite could have written thus of Bethel.—a house of God . . . the gate of heaven] The expressions rest on a materialisation of the conception of worship as spiritual intercourse between God and man.

The first designation naturally arises from the name Bethel, which (as we see from v.22) was first applied to the sacred stone, but was afterwards extended to the sanctuary as a whole. When to this was added the idea of God's dwelling in heaven, the earthly sanctuary became as it were the entrance to the true heavenly temple, with which it communicated by means of a ladder. We may compare the Babylonian theory of the temple-tower as the means of ascent to the dwelling-place

dream : 37 (G) 9 40a 411, Ju. 713, Is. 298.—13. יִשָּׁנָה 321 24 15 451 (all J). GES take כָּל as antecedent to the suff. ; but the idea would have been expressed otherwise (ב יִשָּׁנָה), and the translation loses all its plausibility when the composition of documents is recognised.—Before יֲשָּׁנָה, G ins. μὴ φοβοῦ.—14. קֵרָה יַעֲשֶׂה] G ὅσ ἐὰν μιμω τῆς θαλάσσης, after 3218 4149.—הנשנש] G ἀρχή: for the word—properly 'break through' [bounds],—cf. 3030. 43, Ex. 112, Is. 543 etc.—15. בָּכָי G + וַל.
of the gods in heaven (see p. 226 above). It is conceivable that the ‘ladder’ of Bethel may embody cosmological speculations of a similar character, which we cannot now trace to their origin. The Egyptian theology also knew of a ‘ladder’ by which the soul after death mounted up to ‘the gate of heaven’ (Erman, Hdbk. 96). Whether it has any connexion with the sīllum, or decorated arch over a palace gate, depicted in ATLO₂, r3, remains doubtful. That the image was suggested by physical features of the locality—a stony hillside rising up in terraces towards heaven—seems a fanciful explanation to one who has not visited the spot; but the descriptions given of the singular freak of nature which occurs near the summit of the slope to the north of Beittn (‘huge stones piled one upon another to make columns nine or ten feet or more in height...’) lend some plausibility to the conjecture (see Peters, Early Hebrew Story, 110ff.).

18. Jacob set up the stone, whose mystic properties he had discovered, as a massēbah, or sacred pillar (v.i.), and poured oil on the top of it (35¹⁴), in accordance with a custom widely attested in ancient and modern times (see p. 380).—19a gives J’s account of the naming of the place. If a similar notice occurred in E (as seems implied in 31¹³ 35³), it would naturally have stood later.—19b is usually considered a gloss. From Jos. 16² (18¹³) it appears that Lūz was really distinct from Bethel, but was overshadowed by the more famous sanctuary in the neighbourhood.

20–22 (E). Jacob’s vow. — The vow in OT ‘consists

18. नृश (‘thing set up,’ Ar. nusba, Ph. nošo) is the technical name of the sacred monolith which was apparently an adjunct of every fully equipped Canaanite (or Phœnician) and early Hebrew sanctuary (see Vincent, Canaan, 96, 102f., 140). Originally a fetish, the supposed abode of a spirit or deity,—a belief of which there are clear traces in this passage,—it came afterwards to be regarded as a vague symbol of Yahwe’s presence in the sanctuary, and eventually as the memorial of a theophany or other noteworthy occurrence. In this harmless sense the word is freely used by E (31¹³, 45, 51, 52 33²⁰ [em.] 35¹⁴, Ex. 24⁴); but not by J, who never mentions the object except in connexion with Canaanitish worship (Ex. 34¹³). But that the emblem retained its idolatrous associations in the popular religion is shown by the strenuous polemic of the prophets and the Dtnic. legislation against it (Hos. 10¹⁶, Mic. 3¹³, Dt. 12² etc., esp. 16²⁰ [cf. Lv. 26¹]); and J’s significant silence is probably an earlier indication of the same tendency. It is only at a very late period that we find the word used once more without offence (Is. 19¹⁹). See Dri. on Dt. 16²¹; RS², 204 ff., 456 f.; Moore in EB, 2974 ff.; Whitehouse in DB, iii. 879 ff.—प्रयत्] A strong adversative, found in Pent. only 48¹⁹,
essentially of a solemn promise to render God some service, in the event of some particular prayer or wish being granted” (Dri.); * hence it falls into two parts: a condition (20.), and a promise (22).—20, 21a. The conditions correspond with the divine promise in 16 (J)—(a) the presence of God; (b) protection; (c) safe return—except as regards the stipulation for bread to eat and raiment to wear. The separation of sources relieves Jacob from the suspicion of questioning the sincerity of an explicit divine promise. On 21b, v.i.—22. The promise. this stone . . . shall be (Gr adds to me) a house of God] i.e. (in the view of the writer), a place of worship. It is to be noted that this reverses the actual development: the stone was first the residence of the numen, and afterwards became a mazzēbah.—22b. He will pay a tithe of all his possessions. This and Am. 4 are the only pre-Deuteronomic references to the tithe (cf. 14).

In its present setting the above narrative forms the transition link between the Jacob-Esau and the Jacob-Laban cycle of legends. In substance it is, we can hardly doubt, a modification of the cultus-legend of Bethel (now Beittn, situated on an eminence about 10 miles N of Jerusalem, a little E of the road to Nābulius), the founding of which was ascribed to the patriarch Jacob. The concrete features which point to a local origin—the erection of the mazzēbah, the ladder, the gate of heaven, and the institution of the tithe—are all indeed peculiar to the account of E, which obviously stands nearer to the sources of the native tradition than the stereotyped form of the theophany given by J. From E we learn that the immemorial sanctity of Bethel was concentrated in the sacred stone which was itself the original Bēth-ēl, i.e. the residence of a god or spirit. This belief appears to go back to the primitive stone-

* But We. (Heid.190) remarks of the Arabian custom: “Die Araber geloben nicht in eventum: wenn der und der Fall eintritt, so will ich das tun; sondern sie übernehmen durch das Gelübde eine absolut bindende Pflicht.”
worship of which traces are very widely diffused over the surface of the globe.* The characteristic rite of anointing the stone, originally perhaps a sacrifice to the indwelling numen, was familiar to classical writers.† The most instructive parallel is the fact mentioned by Pausanias (x. 24, 6), that on a small stone in the sanctuary of Delphi oil was poured every day: we may conjecture that a similar practice was kept up at Bethel long after its original significance was forgotten. Though the monolith of Bethel is not elsewhere explicitly referred to in OT, we may assume that, stripped of its pagan associations and reduced to the rank of a mazzebah, it was still recognised in historic times as the chief religious symbol of that great centre of Hebrew worship.

XXIX. 1–30.—Jacob’s Marriage with Laban’s Daughters (JE, P).

Instead of spending a few days (2744) as Laban’s guest, Jacob was destined to pass 20 years of his life with his Aramaean kinsman. The circumstances which led to this protracted exile are recorded in the two episodes contained in this section; viz. Jacob’s meeting with Rachel at the well (1–14), and the peculiar conditions of his marriage to Leah.

* See Tylor, Prim. Cult. ii. 160 ff.; Frazer, Pausan. iv. 154 ff., Adonis, 21; RS3, 204 ff., 232 f. The wide distribution of these sacred objects seems fatal to the theory of Lagrange, that they were miniature reproductions of the Babylonian temple-towers, which again were miniature symbols of the earth conceived as a mountain,—a difficulty of which the author himself is conscious (Études, 192 ff.).

† On anointed stones (λθων λιπαροι, ἀληθμένοι, lapides uncti, lubricati, etc.), see Clem. Alex. Strom. vii. 4, 26; and the remarkable statements of Theophrastus, Char. 16; Lucian, Alexander, 30; and Arnobius, Adv. Gentes, i. 39,—quoted by Frazer, Pausan. v. 354.—For Assyriological parallels see KIB, i. 44 f., ii. 113, 151, 261.—A curious development of the ancient belief appears in the name Bārūdōs, Bārūlōn, Bētulus, applied to small stones (aerolites?), supposed to be self-moving and endowed with magical properties, which played a considerable part in the private superstitions of the beginning of the Christian era (Eus. Prep. Ev. i. 10, 18; Photius, Bibl. [Migne, ciii. 1292 f.]; Pliny, HN, xxxvii. 135, etc.). The existence of a Canaanitish deity Bait-ili (who can only be regarded as a personification of the temple or the sacred stone) is proved by unimpeachable Assyriological evidence (KA79, 437 f.; Lagrange, l.c. 196). Since Bārūdōs is also the name of a god in Philo-Byblius, it seems unreasonable to doubt the etymological and material connexion between the ancient Semitic בָּרְעָד and the portable betyl of the Graeco-Roman period, which was so named as the residence of a spirit; but see the important article of Moore, Journal of the Archaeological Institute of America, vii. (1903), No. 2, p. 198 ff.
and Rachel (15-30). The first, a purely idyllic scene reminding us of 24.31-33 and Ex. 215-22, forms a pleasing introduction to the cycle of Jacob-Laban narratives, without a trace of the petty chicanery which is the leading motive of that group of legends.* In the second, the true character of Laban is exposed by the unworthy trick which he practises on Jacob; and the reader's sympathies are enlisted on the side of Jacob in the trial of astuteness which is sure to ensue.

Analysis.—Fragments of P's narrative can be easily recognised in vv.24, 29, and probably also in 28b. The separation of J and E is uncertain on account of the close parallelism of the two documents and the absence of material differences of representation to support or correct the literary analysis. Most subsequent critics agree with Di. that v.1 belongs to E (see the notes), and 2-14 to J: cf. Anal. 13 (18 2417); 14 (23). In 16f. Rachel appears to be introduced for the first time; hence Di. regards E as the main source of 15 (or 15b) 29, excluding, however, v.26, where נני and נמי reveal the hand of J: characteristic expressions of E are חרב, 15 (317 41); מ"ל and מ"ה, 16, 17; So Gu. Pro. nearly. Ball and Corn. assign all from 19 onwards to J.

1-14. Jacob's meeting with Rachel.—1. the sons of the East] Since the goal of Jacob's journey is in J, Harran (2810 29) and in P, Paddan Aram (287), it is to be presumed that this third variation comes from E (Di.). Now the י"ס ר"א are everywhere else the tribes of the Syro-Arabian desert, and 3121ff. certainly suggests that Laban's home was not so distant from Canaan as Harran (see on 2410f. [city of Nahor]). It is possible, therefore, that in the tradition followed by E, Laban was the representative of the nomadic Aramaeans between Palestine and the Euphrates (see p. 334 above).—2. The well in the open country is evidently distinct, even in J, from the town-well of Harran (cf. 2413).—For . . . they used to water, etc.] To the end of v.8 is an explanatory parenthesis describing the ordinary procedure. The custom of covering the well with a heavy stone is referred to by

* Τ» thinks it necessary to introduce a hint of the coming rivalry into the conversation between Jacob and Rachel (v.13).
Robinson, *BR*, i. 490; Thomson, *LB*, 589; Palmer, *Des. of Ex.* ii. 319 f.; cf. also Diod. ii. 48, xix. 94.—4. Jacob accosts the shepherds, and learns that they come from Ḥarran. There is nothing else in the narrative to suggest the proximity of a great city; Laban is no city-dweller as in ch. 24, but a nomad sheikh; and the life depicted is everywhere that of the desert. All this confirms the impression that the topography of E (v.1) has been modified by J in accordance with the theory that Ḥarran was the city of Nahor.—5. *the son of Nāhōr* see on 2416.—7, 8. Jacob is puzzled by the leisurely ways of these Eastern herdsmen, whom he ironically supposes to have ceased work for the day. He is soon to show them an example of how things should be done, careless of the conventions which they plead as an excuse.—9. *a shepherdess* cf. Ex. 216. The trait is in accordance with the freedom still allowed to unmarried girls among the Bedouin. Burck. found it an established rule among the Arabs of Sinai that only girls should drive the cattle to pasture (*Bedouin*, i. 351).—10. The removal of the stone is a feat of strength which has been thought to belong to a more primitive legend, in which Jacob figured as a giant (Di. Gu. al.): cf. 3226.—11. *wept aloud* ‘after the demonstrative fashion of the Oriental’ (Ben.),—tears of joy at the happy termination of his journey.—12. *brother* as in v.15 138 1414 (2448?).—13. *kissed him repeatedly* (Piel)] The effusive display of affection, perhaps not wholly disinterested, is characteristic of Laban (cf. 2420ff.).—14. *my bone and my flesh* as 3727, Ju. 92, 2 Sa. 51 1913f. It is an absurd suggestion that the exclamation is called forth by the recital of Jacob’s dealings with Esau, in which Laban recognised a spiritual affinity to himself! The phrase denotes literal consanguinity and nothing more.

the art. (with mi).—3. *סְיָרָת* mi. סְיָרָת, needlessly substituted by Ba. So also v.8, where mi is supported by Ġt. —6. Before הָרָת, Ġt. ins. הָרָת אֲבָרוֹן λαλοῦντος (as v.9). An assimilating tendency reappears at the end of the v.; and the variations have no critical value.—9. מְדַא perf.; ct. the ptcp. מִדָּא in v.6.—מְדָא מַעֲבִי Ġt. + tà πρόβατα τοῦ πατρὸς αὐτῆς.—10. מְדַא with original i in impf. Qal (G-K. § 67 ff).—13. מַשָּׁה (מַשָּׁה) = ‘the report concerning,’ followed as always by gen. obj.—14. מִדָּא מַעֲבִי ‘a whole month’; see G-K. § 131 d.
15-30. Jacob's double marriage.—15. Laban's character begins to unfold itself as that of a man ostensibly actuated by the most honourable motives, but at heart a selfish schemer, always ready with some plausible pretense for his nefarious conduct (see vv. 19, 28). His apparently generous offer proves a well-laid trap for Jacob, whose love for Rachel has not escaped the notice of his shrewd kinsman. —16-18a. An explanatory parenthesis. The manner in which Rachel is introduced, as if for the first time, is thought to mark the transition to another source (Di. al.).—On the names Lē'āh and Rāhēl, v.i.—17. Leah's eyes were weak (ἡτον, Gr ἀσθενεῖς, Aq. Σ. ἀπαλολ): i.e. they lacked the lustrous brilliancy which is counted a feature of female beauty in the East.—18b. Jacob, not being in a position to pay the purchase price (mōhar) for so eligible a bride, offered seven years' service instead. The custom was recognised by the ancient Arabs, and is still met with (We. GGN, 1893, 433 f.; Burck. Syria, i. 297 f.).—19. The first cousin has still a prior (sometimes an exclusive) right to a girl's hand among the Bedouin and in Egypt (Burck. Bedouin, i. 113, 272; Lane, Mod. Eg. i. 199).—22. Laban proceeds to the execution of his long meditated coup. He himself arranges the marriage feast (ct. Ju. 14), inviting all the men of the place, with a view doubtless to his self-exculpation (v. 26).—23. The substitution of Leah for Rachel was rendered possible by the custom of bringing the bride to the bridegroom veiled (24). To have thus got rid of the unprepossessing Leah for a handsome price, and to retain his nephew's services for other seven years (v. 27), was a master-stroke of policy in the eyes of a man like Laban.—25. Jacob's surprise and indignation

15. יְהַּ שָׁעִי see on 27. —רָשָׁעִי [31:41 (E), Ru. 21; יְהַּ שָׁעִי is common to J (30, 28, 29.) and E (31, Ex. 26).—16. בּוּ, and וָשׂ are in such connexions characteristic of E (v. 18, 42, 19, 20, 22, 24); see Ho. Einl. 104.—בּוּ means 'ewe' (Ar. raḥīṣ=shē-lamb); hence by analogy נַּבִּי has been explained by Ar. la'āt, 'bovine antelope' (see Nö. ZDMG, xl. 167; Sta. ZATW, i. 112 ff.), and the names are cited as evidence of a primitive Heb. totemism (KMA, 254 f.). Others prefer the derivation from Ass. î'at, 'lady' (see Haupt, GGN, 1883, 100).—18. לָוִּי [3 pretii (G-K, § 119 p); so 20, 22.—20. לָוִּי—לָוִּי] עַּ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ עַ ע
are vividly depicted.—26. It is not so done] cf. 34, 2 Sa. 13. Laban no doubt correctly states the local usage: the objection to giving a younger daughter before an older is natural, and prevails in certain countries (Lane, i. 201; cf. Jub. xxviii., Ju. 15, 1 Sa. 18).—27, 28. Fulfil the week of this one] i.e., the usual seven days (Ju. 14, To. 11) of the wedding festival for Leah. For the bridegroom to break up the festivities would, of course, be a gross breach of decorum, and Jacob has no alternative but to fall in with Laban’s new proposal and accept Rachel on his terms.—30. Laban’s success is for the moment complete; but in the alienation of both his daughters, and their fidelity to Jacob at a critical time (31ff.), he suffered a just retribution for the unscrupulous assertion of his paternal rights.

In Jacob’s marriages it has been surmised that features survive of that primitive type of marriage (called beena marriage) in which the husband becomes a member of the wife’s kin (Rob. Sm. KM, 207). Taken as a whole the narrative hardly bears out that view. It is true that Jacob attaches himself to Laban’s family; but it does not follow that he did not set up a house of his own. His remaining with Laban was due to his inability to pay the mōhar otherwise than in the way of personal service. As soon as the contract expired he pleads his right to ‘provide for his own house’ (30). On the other hand, Laban certainly claimed the right to detain his daughters, and treated them as still members of his family (31, E); and it might be imagined that the Elohist tradition recognised the existence of beena marriage, at least among the Arameans. But it is doubtful if the claim is more than an extreme assertion of the right of a powerful family to protect its female relatives even after marriage.

XXIX. 31–XXX. 24.—The Birth of Jacob’s Children (JE).

A difficult section, in which the origin of the tribes of Israel is represented in the fictitious form of a family history. The popular etymologies attached to the names are here extremely forced, and sometimes unintelligible; it is remark-

"\( \psi \) (μετά); see v. 26. אִ֣בְּנָ֝נָּה] distinctive of J; see v. 16.—27. אִבְּנָ֝נָּה is rather 3rd f. s. pf. Niph., than 1st pl. cohort. Qal (as most). read אִבְּנָ֝נָּה. 28. אִבְּנָ֝נָּה] The double dative is characteristic of P, to whom the whole clause may be assigned along with 29.—30. The second א has no sense, and should probably be deleted (אֶבַּד)."
able that, with hardly an exception, they are based on the rivalry between Jacob's two wives. (The names are bestowed by the mothers, as is generally the case in JE.) How far genuine elements of tradition are embodied in such a narrative is a question which it is obviously impossible to answer with certainty. We cannot be wrong in attributing historical significance to the distinction between the tribes whose descent was traced to Jacob's wives and those regarded as sons of concubines; though we are ignorant of the actual circumstances on which the classification depends. It is also certain that there is a solid basis for the grouping of the chief tribes under the names of Leah and Rachel, representing perhaps an older and a later settlement of Hebrews in Palestine (Sta. ZATW, i. 112 f.). The fact that all the children except Benjamin are born in Mesopotamia may signify that the leading tribal divisions existed before the occupation of Canaan; but the principle certainly cannot be applied in detail, and the nature of the record forbids the attempt to discover in it reliable data for the history of the tribes. (For a conspectus of various theories, see Luther, ZATW, xxi. 36 ff.; cf. Mey. INS, 291 f., 509 ff.)

The sources are J and E, with occasional clauses from P.—29^31-35 is wholly from J (21. 22. 23. 25; ḫnλ, 31; מִשְׁפָּתָו, 29, 30), with the possible exception of 32^4.—30^5 is mainly E (יִבְנֵה, 2. 6. 8; הֹתֵם, 38); but 31^3 reminds us of J (16^1), 48 is assigned to P (닢ֶשׁ and cf. 16^3), and in 7annah must be either from J (KS. Ba. Gu.) or P (Ho.).—30^9-13 is again mostly from J (.stopPropagation, 10; 19; cf. 48 with 29^31 30^35). 2b is P.—30^14-24 presents a very mixed text, whose elements are difficult to disentangle; note the double etymologies in 18. (cf.16) 20. 22f. The hand of E clearly appears in 17a. 18. 20aβ. 22bα. (22a may be from P: cf. 8^1) 22. Hence the parallels 14-16. 20αγ. 24 must be assigned to J, who is further characterised, according to Gu., by the numeration of the sons (17b. 19. 20αγ). 21 is interpolated.

31-35. The sons of Leah.—31. hated] The rendering is too strong. הָאָבָב is almost a technical term for the less favoured of two wives (Dt. 21^15ff.); where the two are sisters the rivalry is naturally most acute, hence this practice is forbidden by the later law (Lv. 18^18). The belief that Yahwe takes the part of the unfortunate wife and rewards her with children, belongs to the strongly marked family religion of
32. Re'ūben] The only plausible explanation of the etymology is that it is based on the form בְּרֵעֶן, and that הן is substituted for the divine name בָּרֶן. Most comm. suppose that the writer resolves בנdataTable into [1^1\text{ת^1}] ת^1; but that is too extravagant for even a Heb. etymologist.—33. Šim'on] derived from שָמַע, 'hear,' expressing precisely the same idea as Re'ūben.  
34. Levi, as the third son, is explained by a verb for 'adhere' (Niph. √ חָל), on the principle that a threefold cord is not easily broken.—35. Yēhūdâh] connected with a word meaning 'praise' (יהודה; cf. impf. יהוה, Neh. 11\text{vii}). So in 49\text{vii}.

XXX. 1–8. Rachel’s adopted sons.—1, 2. A passionate scene, showing how Rachel was driven by jealousy of her sister to yield her place to her maid. Her petulant behaviour recalls that of Sarah (16\text{v}), but Jacob is less patient than Abraham.—Am I in God’s stead?] So 50\text{v}, cf. 2 Ki. 5\text{v}.

3. bear upon my knees] An allusion to a primitive ceremony of adoption, which here simply means that Bilhah’s children will be acknowledged by Rachel as her own.

On the ceremony referred to, see Sta. ZATW, vi. 143ff. ; Ho. 196; Dri. 274. Its origin is traced to a widespread custom, according to which, in lawful marriage, the child is actually brought forth on the father’s knees (cf. Jb. 3\text{v}; II. ix. 455f.; Od. xix. 401ff.); then it became a symbol of

32. בְּרֵעֶן] ג’ פָּוְשִׁר, etc.; ס’ פָּוְשָׁנָה; Jos. פָּוְשָׁנָא. The origin of the name has given rise to an extraordinary number of conjectures (see Hogg; EB, 4091 ff.). We seem driven to the conclusion that the original form (that on which the etymology is based: v.s.) was בָּרֶן. In that form the name has been connected with Ar. רִבְּדָל, ‘lion,’ or ‘wolf,’ in which case Reuben might have to be added to the possibly totemistic names of OT. Another plausible suggestion is that the word is softened from בְּרֶן a theophorous compound after the analogy of יהוה.—33. After יָד, ג’ ins. יָד, which may be correct (cf. 36\text{v}. 12, 17, 18, 24). —יָדָן] Another supposed animal name, from Ar. sim‘, a cross between the wolf and hyæna (see Rob. Sm. JPh. ix. 8o). Ewald regarded it as a diminutive of בְּרֶן, and similarly recently Cheyne (TBI, 375). —34. אָפָר] מָגַלְגְּלָל הָאָפָר; נִקְּדָם; נְקָדִים. We.’s conjecture that this is the gentilic of אָפָר is widely accepted (Sta. Rob.-Sm. No. Mey. al.) Homm., on the other hand, compares S Arab. lāw‘i‘u = ‘priest,’ Levi being the priestly tribe (AHT, 278 f.; cf. Benz. Arch. 2 56).

3. יָדָן] (of unknown etymology) is probably to be connected with
the legitimisation of a natural child, and finally a form of adoption generally (50). Gu., however, thinks the rite originated in cases like the present (the slave being delivered on the knees of her mistress), and was afterwards transferred to male adoption.

obtain children by her] see on 16².—6. The putative mother names the adopted child.—Dān] The etymology here given (√ תָּנָּי, ‘judge’) is very probably correct, the form being an abbreviated theophorous name (cf. Abi-dan, Ass. Asshur-dan, etc.).—8. wrestlings of God I have wrestled] The words are very obscure (see Che. 376 ff.). Either 'I have had "a veritable God's bout" (Ba.) with my sister,' or (less probably) 'I have wrestled with God (in prayer) like my sister.'—and have overcome] This seems to imply that Leah had only one son at the time (Gu.); and there is nothing to prevent the supposition that the concubinage of Bilhah followed immediately on the birth of Reuben.

9–13. Leah's adopted sons.—II. Gad is the name of an Aramean and Phoenician god of Luck (ṬwāṬ), mentioned in Is. 65¹¹ (see Camb. Bible, ad loc. ; cf. Baethgen, Beitr. 76 ff. 159 ff.). There is no difficulty in supposing that a hybrid tribe like Gad traced its ancestry to this deity, and was named after him; though, of course, no such idea is expressed in the text. In Leah's exclamation the word is used appallingly: With luck! (v.i.). It is probable, however, that at an earlier time it was current in the sense 'With Gad's help'

the Horite clan יָדָי (36²).—6. יָדָי] On the form, see G–K. § 26 g.—7a,b must be assigned to J, on account of נֵעָד and וּשׂ יָד (note also the expression of subj. after second vb.).—8. יָדָי] אָנָי. The vb. has nowhere else the sense of 'wrestle,' but means primarily to 'twist' (cf. Pr. 88, Jb. 5¹³, Ps. 13²⁷†); hence יָדָי might be the 'tortuous,' 'cunning' one (DBD). But a more plausible etymology derives it from a hypothetical Naphtal (from נַעך [Jos. 17¹¹], if correctly vocalised), usually taken to mean 'height': cf. נַעך fr. נַעך, denoting the northern highlands W of the Upper Jordan (Mey. INS, 539).—The Vns. render the v. more or less paraphrastically, and give no help to the elucidation of the sense.

10. Both here and v.¹² ג' gives a much fuller text.—II. יָדָי So Keth., ג' יִדָי, יִדָי. But Qrb יָדָי is ancient, being presupposed by S (בְּמֶלֶךְ) and תַּמָּלְךְ. These Vns. render 'Good fortune comes' (so Ra): another translation, suggested by 49¹⁹, is 'A troop (מַנָּה) comes' (1Ez.).
13. The name 'Ašer naturally suggested to Heb. writers a word for happiness; hence the two etymologies: יבשון, 'In my happiness,' and יבשנה '(women) count me happy.' It is possible that the name is historically related to the Canaanite goddess 'Ašérāh (Ba. Ho.), as Gad is to the Aramaean deity. Aser appears in Eg. monuments as the name of a district in NW Palestine as early as Seti and Ramses II. (Müller, AE, 236 ff.).

14–24. The later children.—14–16. The incident of the love-apples is a piece of folklore, adopted with reserve by the writer (J), and so curtailed as to be shorn of its original significance. The story must have gone on to tell how Rachel partook of the fruit and in consequence became pregnant, while Leah also conceived through the restoration of her marriage rights (see We. Comp. 2 38 f.). How much of this stood in J and has been suppressed in the history of the text we cannot say; we here read just what is necessary to explain the name of Leah's child.—14. יםור (v.i.) is the round, greenish-yellow, plum-like fruit of mandragora vernalis, which in Syria ripens in May—the days of wheat harvest—and is still eagerly sought in the East to promote conception (see Tuch's note, 385 ff.). Reuben is named, probably as the only child old enough to follow the reapers in the field (cf. 2 Ki. 4.18). The agricultural background shows that the episode is out of place in its present nomadic setting.—15. he shall lie with thee to-night] Jacob, therefore, had wrongly withheld from Leah her conjugal rights (נֵלָע, Ex. 21.10).—16. I have hired thee (נֵלָע לְךָ) Obviously an anticipation of

13. יבשון is אָת. לֶבֵנ.—יִבשנה] pf. of confidence (G–K. § 106 n). It is to be noted that pfs. greatly preponderate in E's etymologies, and impfs. in those of J; the two exceptions (292ff.) may be only apparent, and due to the absence of definite stylistic criteria.

14. יבשון (Ca. 14ff.) גְּר יבשון mandragor Кор, סארב, צוית קלתב
(= Ar. yabrūh, explained to be the root of the plant). The sing. is יבשון, from the same as רון, 'lover,' and שון, 'love'; and very probably associated with the love-god רון (Meša, 1. 12). Cheyne plausibly suggests (379) that this deity was worshipped by the Reubenites; hence Reuben is the finder of the apples.—15. יבשון] כָּל יבשון, סָלָמ נִבָּה.—יִבשנה[ (inf.)] Dri. T. § 204; but יבשנה (pf. f.) would be easier.—16. יבשון מִסְתּ + נָלָע.—נהו נָלָע see on 19. —17a is from E; but 17b probably from
J's lost etymology of Issachar.—18. E's interpretation of רֶבְשִׁין, which is, of course, independent of the story of the mandrakes. The name is resolved either into רֶבְשִׁיו, 'man of hire,' or into רֶבְשִׁין, 'there is a reward' (Tu. Di.); or else the 'and quiescent ש are simply dropped (Gu.): v.i.—20. Two etymologies of Zebâlûn; the first from E (סילוא), and the second, therefore, from J: both are somewhat obscure (v.i.).—21. Dinâh] The absence of an etymology, and the fact that Dinah is excluded from the enumeration of 3223, make it probable that the v. is interpolated with a view to ch. 34.—22-24. At last Rachel bears a son, long hoped for and therefore marked out for a brilliant destiny—Yôsèph.—23b, 24b. E derives the name from קָח, 'take away'; J more naturally from אֵש, 'add': May Yahwe add to me another son!

XXX. 25-43.—Jacob enriched at Laban's Expense (JE).

Jacob, having accomplished his 14 years of service for his wives, is now in a position to dictate terms to Laban,

J, on account of the numeral.—18aβ, while correctly expressing the idea of E, contains the word פָּקַשׁ, which E avoids; and is therefore probably redactional.—18b. פָּקַשׁ] So Ben Asher regularly, with גֵּרָהִים. פָּקַשׁ: B. Naphtali has פָּקַשׁ, or פָּקַשׁ (see Baer-Del. Gen. 84f. ; Ginsburg, Introd. 250ff.). The duplication of the v cannot be disposed of as a Massoretic caprice, and is most naturally explained by the assumption that two components were recognised, of which the first was פָּקַשׁ (We. TBS, p. v). For the second component We. refers to the פָּקַשׁ of 1 Ch. 1138 264; Ba. compares an Eg. deity Sokar; while Mey. (UNS, 536) is satisfied with the interpretation 'man of hire,' corresponding to the description of the tribe in Gn. 49144. —20. קָח, פָּקַשׁ] The √ (except in proper names) is not found in OT, but is explained by Aram. (cf. יָח, 'dowry'), and is common in Palm. prop. names (BDB, s.v.). The interchange of ב and י is probably dialectic (cf. dacrima =lacrima), and hardly justifies Cheyne's view that the name in the writer's mind was פָּקַשׁ (l.c. 380).—יעָנִי] Another אֵן. ley. apparently connected with יָנִי, poet. for 'abode': Vns. 'dwell with' (as EVV). This gives a good enough sense here, and is perhaps supported by 4918 (see on the v.); but יָנִי remains without any natural explanation. See Hogg, in EB, 5385 ff. Mey. (538) derives it from the personal name יָנִי (Ju. 928).—21 end] כ + תֶּלָל + יָנִי (as 2985).—24. קָח] Probably a contraction of הַרָּקָשׁ, though the יָנִי of the list of Thothmes III. (No. 78)
who, in his eagerness to keep him, invites him to name the price for which he will remain with him. It is interesting to contrast the relative attitudes of the two men with their bearing in 2915ff. Jacob here shows a decision of purpose which causes Laban to adopt an obsequious tone very unlike his former easy assurance. He is overjoyed to find his nephew’s demands so reasonable; and correspondingly mortified (312) when he discovers how completely he has been deceived by Jacob’s apparent moderation.—The story, as Gu. reminds us, was originally told to shepherds, who would follow with keen interest the various tricks of their craft which Jacob so successfully applies (and of which he was probably regarded as the inventor). To more refined readers these details were irksome; hence the abridged and somewhat unintelligible form in which the narrative stands.

Sources.—In the earlier vv. (20-31) several duplicates show the composition of J and E: 25 25a; 26b 26a; 28 31a; 26a in 27 and 28; रुद्रिं नाम, 26b and 30a. Here 25, 27, 29-31 are from J (मन्त, 27. 30; नर्र्वप, 27; जीता, 27), and 36. 28 from E,—each narrative being nearly complete (cf. Di. Gu. Pro.).—In 32-36 it is quite possible, in spite of the scepticism of Di. and others, to distinguish two conceptions of Jacob’s reward (We. Comp.2 40ff.). (a) In the first, Jacob is that very day to take out from Laban’s flock all abnormally coloured animals: that is to be his hire (32). On the morrow (or in time to come), Laban may inspect Jacob’s flock: if he find in it any normally coloured animals, Jacob is at once convicted of fraud (33). This account belongs to E (cf. र्वप, 32, with 28), though it is doubtful if to the same stratum of E as 31-32. (b) In the other, Laban himself separates the flocks, leaving the normally coloured sheep and goats in Jacob’s keeping, and removing the others to a distance of three days’ journey, under the charge of his sons (32b [from र्वप] 36). Thus Jacob receives for the present nothing at all (31 J). The narrative must have gone on to explain that his hire was to consist of any variegated animals appearing in the normally coloured flock now left in his charge (36b); Laban’s precautions aim at securing that these shall be few or none. Hence we obtain for J 32b 35, 36, and for E 32a 33. 34. 37-45 is the natural continuation of J’s account, but with numerous insertions, which may be either from variants or glosses.—The text here is very confused, and Gr has many variations.

is less confidently identified with Joseph than the companion Y’ IBOutlet with Jacob (cf. p. 360 above; Mey. JNS, 262; Spiegelberg, Randglossen, 13f.; Müller, MVAG, 1907, i. 23, and JBL, 1909, 31). But Yašupili has been found in contract tablets of the Hammurabi period along with Yakub-ili (Homm. AHT, 96 [from Sayce]).
25-31. Jacob proposes to provide for his own house.
—A preliminary parley, in which both parties feel their way to an understanding.—26 (E). *thou knowest with what kind of service, etc.*] E always lays stress on Jacob's rectitude (cf. 33).—27 (J). *If I have found favour, etc.*] followed by aposiopesis, as 183 2318.—Laban continues: *I have taken omens (יִנְשָׁמָה; cf. 44515, 1 Ki. 2033) and (found that) Yahwe has blessed me, etc.*]—an abject plea for Jacob's remaining with him.—28 (E). Laban surrenders at once (the answer is in v. 22), whereas— 29, 30 in J, Jacob presses for a discharge: his service has been of immense value to Laban, but he has a family to consider.—31. *anything at all*] See introd. note above.—this thing] which I am about to mention.—resume herding thy flock] G-K. § 120 g.

32-36. The new contract. —The point in both narratives is that parti-coloured animals form a very small proportion of a flock, the Syrian sheep being nearly all white (Ca. 468, Dn. 79) and the goats black or brown (Ca. 418b). In E, Jacob simply asks this small share as his payment.—32. and it shall be my hire] The rendering 'and of this sort shall be my hire' (in future), is merely a violent attempt to obliterate

26. יִנְשָׁמָה] Not necessarily a gloss; the children might fairly be considered included in Jacob's wages.—27. On שָׁעָה, v. 449. יִנְשָׁמָה] G 7 סּ יְנָב, Arm. in pede tuo—יִנְשָׁמָה (30).—28. בְּ. om. יְנָב, smoothing over the transition from J to E.—נַפּ] 'designate' (lit. 'prick [off]'); cf. the use of Niph. in Nu. 117, 1 Ch. 1641 etc.—29. יְנָב נָה] 'the manner in which' (G-K. § 157 c); but S reads as in v. 26.—30. יִנְשָׁמָה] contrasted with יְנָב above. Prosperity has followed Jacob 'wherever he went' (cf. Is. 419, Jb. 1811 etc.). It is unnecessary to emend הַנָּה (Sח, Che.).—31. יְנָב] (G'S pr. 1) must be deleted on account of its awkward position.

32. יְנָב, יְנָב] To get rid of the change of person (and the division of sources) many construe the latter as inf. abs. ('removing'); but the only natural rendering is impve. (cf. 38). G has impve. both times.—הוּנְשָׁמָה—הוּנְשָׁמָה] G פָּגוּנָו פֹּרְבָּתנָו פֹּדָנָו בֵּן תְּוִיָּו דָּרְפָּנָו קַל פָּגוּנָו דְּיָרָתָנָו קַל לַטְנָו בֵּן תְּוִיָּו תַּיְסָו אֱלִיוֹנָו, a smoother and therefore less original text. The Heb. seems overloaded; Gu. strikes out פֹּדָנָו דְּיָרָתָנָו קַל לַטְנָו בֵּן תְּוִיָּו תַּיְסָו אֱלִיוֹנָו, and the corresponding cll. in 33, 35. —יִנְשָׁמָה יִנְשָׁמָה] 'speckled and spotted,' 'parti-coloured.' The words are practically synonymous, both being distinct from יִנְשָׁמָה (33, 38, 40 31810,1212), which means 'striped.' If there be a difference, '3 (33, 39 318, 10, 1212) suggests smaller spots than '3 (cf. Ezk. 1698, Jos. 99, the only places where the / occurs outside this pass.).—יְנָב] only in this chap. := 'black'
the difference between J and E.—33. my righteousness shall testify against me] i.e., the proposal is so transparently fair that Jacob will be as it were automatically convicted of theft if he violates the compact. הָפַצַּמְנָה, ‘unimpeachable conduct,’ here means ‘fair dealing,’ ‘honesty.’—in time to come] whenever Laban chooses to make an investigation.—35, 36 (J). And he (Laban, see 32a§) removed that day, etc.] Laban’s motive in removing the variegated animals to a distance of three days’ journey is obvious; he wishes to reduce to a minimum the chance that any such animals should henceforth be born amongst those now entrusted to Jacob.—white] Heb. הָלבָּן, perhaps a play on Laban’s name.

37-43. Jacob’s stratagem.—The main account is from J, to whose narrative the artifice is essential, but there are many interpolations.—37-39. The first step is to work on the imagination of the females by rods of poplar, etc., peeled in such a way as to show patches of white, and placed in the drinking troughs.—38, 39. Removing glosses, J’s ac-
or ‘dark-brown.’—33. הָעַטַּמָּה] ‘testify against’ (see 1 Sa. 12, 2 Sa. 110, Is. 39). An easier sense would be obtained if we could translate ‘witness for,’ but there seem to be no examples of that usage. Dri.’s interpretation: ‘there will be nothing whatever to allege against my honesty,’ seems, on the other hand, too subtle.—Dri. nhân, קַיְמָה] ‘in time to come’ (Ex. 13, Dt. 60). If we could insist on the literal rendering ‘on the morrow,’ the proof of divergence between J and E would be strengthened, but the sense is less suitable.—35-36—רָכַת] הָרַכְתָּו בְּמֹעָדָה מֵבָּנַיְוָנֵם сov. —36. הָבָּב] המ. גַּלְבָּר.-м. follows 36 with a long addition based on 3111-13.

37. הָבָי (Ho 41] the ‘white’ tree; according to some, populus alba (Di. al.), but very probably styrex officinalis (Ar. lubnâr), so called from its exuding a milk-like gum, (Ges. De. Dri. al.)—הָבָי = Aram. הָבָי, ‘almond tree.’—יָכַר (Ezk. 31] platanus orientalis (Ass. irmelân).—Instead of the last three words חָסָנָו there is φαλαντερο δέ ἐπὶ ταῖς ῥάβδοις τῷ λευκῷ δ ἐξεπεκαλά 

The clause ‘(with) a laying bare (G–K. § 117 r) of the white on the rods,’ is superfluous, and certainly looks like a variant.—ןָתַמְנָה pl.; הָבָּב being coll. —38 ff. The text of J, as sifted by We., commends itself by its lucidity and continuity. It is impossible to tell whether the interpolated words are variants from another source (E?) or explanatory glosses.—38. הָבָּב (v. 41, Ex. 21] either ‘trough,’ fr. Ar. rahafa, ‘be collected,’ or ‘runnel,’ from Aram. הָבָּב = קֶה (see Nö. ZA, xii. 187).—הָבָּב] const. pl. of הָבָּב, 249. —The words הָבָּב—הָבָּב divorce man הָבָּב from its connexion, and must be omitted from the text of J. חָסָנָו appears to have changed
count reads: And he placed the rods which he had peeled in the runnels . . . in front of the flock, and they bred when they came to drink. . . . And the flock brought forth streaked, speckled, and spotted (young).

The physiological law involved is said to be well established (Dri.), and was acted on by ancient cattle breeders (see the list of authorities in Bochart, Hieroz. ii. c. 49; and cf. Jer. Quest, ad loc.). The full representation seems to be that the ewes saw the reflexion of the rams in the water, blended with the image of the parti-coloured rods, and were deceived into thinking they were coupled with parti-coloured males (Jer., We. Comp. 2 41).

40. And (these) lambs Jacob set apart . . . and made separate flocks for himself, and did not add them to Laban's stock (We.).—41, 42. A further refinement: Jacob employed his device only in the case of the sturdy animals, letting the weakly ones gender freely. The difference corresponds to a difference of breeding-time (v.i.). The consequence is that Jacob's stock is hardy and Laban's delicate.

XXXI. 1—XXXII. 1.—Jacob's Flight from Laban: their friendly Parting (J, E).

Jacob perceives from the altered demeanour of Laban and his sons that he has outstayed his welcome (1—2); and, after consultation with his wives, resolves on a secret flight (3—21). Laban pursues, and overtakes him at Mt. Gilead (22—25), where, after a fierce altercation (26—43), they enter into a treaty

\[\text{XXX. 33–42} \quad 393\]
of peace (from which Gilead receives its name), and separate with many demonstrations of goodwill (31:44–32:1).

Sources.—1–16 is an almost homogeneous (though perhaps not continuous) excerpt from E: מַזְיָה, 7:9, 11, 16; קְנֵי, 7 (cf. 41:29); וַיַּעֲבָד, 7 (41); וּלְכָל, 19; the revelation by dream, 106; the summons and answer, 11 (22:7–11); and the explanation of Jacob's wealth 116; cf. also the reference to 28:20–22. 1 and 3 are from a J parallel: בה, 8; וְקָנָה, 8; the 'sons' of Laban, 1 (cf. 30:25).—In 17–54 E still preponderates, though J is more largely represented than some critics (Di. Kue. KS. Dri. al.) allow. The detailed analysis is here very intricate, and will be best dealt with under the several sections.—18 (except the first four words) is the only extract from P.

I–16. Preparations for flight.—I, 3 (J). The jealousy of Laban's sons corresponds to the dark looks of Laban himself in E (v.2); the divine communication is a feature of both narratives (v.13).—4–13. Jacob vindicates his conduct towards Laban, and sets forth the reasons for his projected flight. The motive of the speech is not purely literary, affording the writer an opportunity to express his belief in Jacob's righteousness (Gu.); it is first of all an appeal to the wives to accompany him: comp. the question to Rebekah in 24:58. —6. Ye yourselves know, etc.] Cf. 30:26, 29. But to repeat the protestation after the work of the last six years implies great hardihood on Jacob's part; and rather suggests that the passage belongs to a stratum of E which said nothing about his tricks with the flock.—7. changed my wages ten times] Perhaps a round number, not to be taken literally.—8. A sample of Laban's tergiversations, and their frustration by God's providence.—9. And so God has taken away, etc.] The hand of God has been so manifest that Laban's displeasure is altogether unreasonable.—10–12. Jacob receives through a dream the explanation of the singular good fortune that has attended him.

In the text vv.10–12 form part of the same revelation as that in which Jacob is commanded to depart (19). But, as We. (Comp. 39) asks, "How
could two such dissimilar revelations be coupled together in this way?" V. 10 recalls an incident of the past, while 13 is in the sphere of the present: moreover, 'I am the God of Bethel' must surely open the communication. We solve the difficulty by removing 10 and 12 (assigning them to an unknown source), and leaving 11 as the introduction to 13: similarly Di. Ho. OH. al. Gu. supposes parts of Jacob's speech to have been omitted between 9 and 10 and between 12 and 13.—It is scarcely possible to recover the original sense of the fragment. If the dream had preceded the negotiations with Laban, it might have been a hint to Jacob of the kind of animals he was to ask as his hire (Str. Gu.); but that is excluded by 12b; and, besides, in v. 8 it is Laban who fixes the terms of the contract. We can only understand it vaguely as an assurance to Jacob that against all natural expectations the transaction will be overruled to his advantage.

13. I am the God of Bethel] links this theophany with that of 2810ff., and is (in E) the first assurance given to Jacob that his vow (2830-22) had been accepted.—14-16. Jacob's appeal has been addressed to willing ears: his wives are already alienated from their father, and eagerly espouse their husband's cause.—14b. Comp. 2 Sa. 201, 1 Ki. 1216.—15. has sold us] like slaves.—consumed our money] i.e., the price paid for us (cf. Ex. 2135). The complaint implies that it was considered a mark of meanness for a man to keep the mohar for himself instead of giving it to his daughters. A similar change in the destination of the mahr appears in Arabia before Islam (We. GGN, 1893, 434 f.).—16. is ours

G-K. § 135 o.—13. הַנָּא הָאָדָם] The art. with constr. violates a well known rule of syntax (G-K. § 127f.); and it is doubtful if the anomaly be rightly explained by supposing the ellipse of by or יֵלָו. The original text may have been הָאָבָּד הַנָּּא הָיֶלָו לְאֶתִּי (so [but without הָאָבָּד] G, adopted by Ba.); or הָאָב [בְּ] הָאָדָם (Esp), Kit.,—נַחֲלֹלִים יֶנָּא] see on 1128. It is the only occurrence of ב in E.—G adds kal ἐσόμαι μετὰ σοῦ.—15. מַשָּׁנֶן] מִכְּסֵד יִפְּרַה] הָיָה בָּנִי] see on 2738.—16. συμφέρει G + kal ἡν ὑπὲρ δόπεκαν.

17-25. A complete analysis of the vv. cannot be effected. The hand of E is recognised in 19b (2351, cf. 303527), 20 (2351, as 24), and especially 24 (יִשְׂרָאֵל, יִשְׂרָאֵל; cf. 29, 42). J betrays its presence chiefly by doublets: 21ab 117 (צָמַע), and 25a 25b (יָקָד, יָקָד). The assignment of 21b3 to J is warranted by the Euphrates: hence 17 is E. Further than this we cannot safely go. Gu.'s division (18a. 21-23, 25b = J; 17, 18ab, 19b, 20, 24, 25a = E) is open to the objection that it ignores the discrepancy between the seven days of 23a and the crossing of the Euphrates in 21a (see on 23 above); but is otherwise attractive. Mey. (235ff.) gets rid of the geographical difficulty by distinguishing two strata in E, of which the later had been accommodated to the representation of J.—18 (from
and our children's] E never mentions sons of Laban; and apparently looks on Leah and Rachel as the sole heiresses.

17-25. The flight and pursuit.—18. and drove away all his cattle] Hence the slowness of his march as compared with Laban's (33\textsuperscript{13b}).—The rest of the v. is from P (cf. 12\textsuperscript{6} 36\textsuperscript{8} 46\textsuperscript{8}).—to Isaac his father] 35\textsuperscript{27}.—19. Now Laban had gone to shear his flock] Sheep-shearing was the occasion of an important festival in ancient Israel (38\textsuperscript{12ff.}, 1 Sa. 25\textsuperscript{2ff.}, 2 Sa. 13\textsuperscript{33}).—With Rachel's theft of the i\textasteriskcenter{teraphim} (the household idol: v.i.), cf. Virg. Aen. ii. 293 f., iii. 148 f.—20. stole the heart] (36, 2 Sa. 15\textsuperscript{32}) 'deceived'; the heart being the seat of intelligence (Ho. 4\textsuperscript{11}): cf. ἐκλάψε νόον, II. xiv. 217.—the Aramaean (only here and 24) The emphasising of Laban's nationality at this point is hard to explain. That it is the correction (by E\textsuperscript{2}) of an older version (E\textsuperscript{1}), in which Laban was not an Aramaean (Mey. INS, 236), is not probable. Bu. (Urg. 422\textsuperscript{1}) regards it as a gloss, inserted with a view to v. 47—21. crossed the River (J) the Euphrates (Ex. 23\textsuperscript{31}, Jos. 24\textsuperscript{12} etc.).—23. his brethren] his fellow-clansmen. In the sequel Jacob also is surrounded by his clansmen (97. 46b. 54),—a proof that tribal relations are clothed in the guise of individual biography.—seven days' journey] The distance of Gilead from Harran

(ψηφισθήσθη) is obviously P.—17. sons and wives] μηδὲ 'wives and sons.'—18. Cf. om. the cl. μηδὲ—ψηφισθήσθη (so 5); and adds after τὰ, καὶ πάντα τὰ αὐτῶν. —19. οὐκ ἦσαν] A pl. of eminence, like μεγαλότης, etc.; hence it is doubtful whether one image or several is here referred to. The teraphim was a god (58), its form and size were those of a man (1 Sa. 19\textsuperscript{13} 18\textsuperscript{1b}), it was used in private houses as well as in temples (Ju. 17\textsuperscript{8} 18\textsuperscript{14ff.}, Ho. 3\textsuperscript{1}), and was an implement of divination (Ezk. 21\textsuperscript{29}, Zec. 10\textsuperscript{3}). The indications point to its being an emblem of ancestor-worship which survived in Israel as a private superstition, condemned by the enlightened conscience of the nation (35\textsuperscript{3}, 1 Sa. 15\textsuperscript{28}, 2 Ki. 23\textsuperscript{24}). It seems implied by the present narrative that the cult was borrowed from the Aramaeans, or perhaps rather that it had existed before the separation of Hebrews and Aramaeans. (See Moore, Jud. 379 ff.)—20. "νεφελὴν] οὐρα. λέγεται, is difficult. ὅπως for ὅπως ὅπως is rare and poet. (Ps. 119\textsuperscript{38}: BDB, 758 a); ὅπως (poet. for ὅπως) is also rare with fin. vb. (ib. 115 b). Since the following clause is a specification of the preceding, 'wegen Mangels davon dass' (Di.) is not a suitable rendering. We should expect μηδὲ ψηφισθή, 'in not telling him that,' etc.: μηδὲ has ὅπως. —22. [τῇ] ἀπὸ τοῦ Συρία.
(c. 350 miles as the crow flies) is much too great to be traversed in that time.

If the v. be from J (Gu. Pro.), we must assume (what is no doubt conceivable) that the writer's geographical knowledge was defective. But it is a strong reason for assigning the v. to E, that in that source nothing is said of Harran or the Euphrates, and Laban's home is placed somewhere in the eastern desert (see 29f).

24. God (not the Angel of God, as v. 11) warns Laban in a dream to take heed to his words when he encounters Jacob.—good or bad] 'anything whatever' (245, 2 S. 1322 etc.). Laban did not interpret the prohibition literally (29).—

25. in the mountain . . . ] The idea suggested being that Jacob and Laban encamped each on a different mountain, we must suppose the name to have been omitted. The insertion of Mispah (v. 49) is strongly recommended by Ju. 1017 (see Ball, 88).—On the situation of Mount Gilead, see p. 402 f.

26-43. The alteration.

The subjects of recrimination are: on Laban's part, (a) the secret flight, (b) the carrying off of his daughters, and (c) the theft of his god; on Jacob's part, (d) the hardships of his 20 years' service, and (e) the attempts to defraud him of his hire. Of these, b, c, and e certainly belong to E; a and d more probably to J.—In detail, the vv. that can be confidently assigned to E are: 26 (21 22; as 26), 29 (continuation of 26), 29 (cf. 24), 30, 32-35 (משרה), 41 ('ten times'), 42 (cf. 24, 29) and 43 (because of the connexion with 26, 28): note also מ italiano, 29, 42; מ italiano, 33. The sequence of E is interrupted by 27 (26). 31b (the natural answer to 27), 36b (the answer to 27). The analysis (which is due to Gu.) yields for E a complete narrative: 26, 28-31a, 32-35, 36b, 37, 41-43. The Yahwistic parallel is all but complete (27, 31a, b, 36a, 38-40); but we miss something after 31 to account for Jacob's exasperation in 36. We may suppose (with Gu.) that Laban had accused Jacob of stealing his flocks, and that 38-40 is a reply to this charge.—Procksch's division is slightly different.

26-28. Laban offers a sentimental pretext for his warlike demonstration: in E his slighted affection for his offspring (28); in J his desire to honour a parting guest (27).—27. with mirth and music] This manner of speeding the parting guest

25. והוה] Better י售后 (Ba.).—26, 27. כ om. יבראשכ נבמה, and transp. 27a. 26b. — 27. סד] כ סד, which is perhaps better than MT.—28. סד] usually 'reject' or 'abandon'; only here = 'allow.'—שכ] for סככ (G-K.
is not elsewhere mentioned in OT.—29. It is in my power (v.i.) to do you harm—but for the interposition of God.—30. Thou hast gone off forsooth, because forsooth, etc.] The insf. abs. express irony (Dav. § 86).—stolen my god(s)] This is a serious matter, and leads up to the chief scene of the dispute.—32. Jacob is so sure of the innocence of his household that he offers to give up the culprit to death if the theft can be proved: a similar enhancement of dramatic interest in 44ff.—33—35. The search for the teraphim is described with a touch of humour, pointed with sarcasm at a prevalent form of idolatry.—34. Rachel had hidden the idol in the camel’s litter or palanquin (Burck. Bed. ii. 85; Doughty, Ar. Des. i. 437, ii. 304; BDB, 1124), in which she was apparently resting within the tent, on account of her condition.—35. שׁוּנֶה יְבֵן יִרְאֵה = שׁוּנֶה יְבֵן וּרְאֵה (1811, J). Women in this condition were protected by a powerful taboo (cf. Lv. 1510 etc.).—36, 37. Jacob now turns on Laban, treating the accusation about the teraphim as mere pretext for searching his goods.—38—40 (J). A fine picture of the ideal shepherd, solicitous for his master’s interests, sensitive to the least suspicion of fraud, and careless of his personal comfort.—39. I brought not to thee] as a witness (Ex. 2218). Jacob had thus gone far beyond his legal obligation.—made it good] lit. ‘ counted it

§ 75 n.—29. יִהְיֶה יְבֵין יֶהָנָא] Mic. 21, Pr. 327, Sir. 51 (Dt. 2889, Neh. 5). The meaning is certain (‘be within one’s power’), but the expression is very obscure. The current explanations (both represented in the Vns.) are: (1) That יֶהָנָא is an abstract noun = ‘power,’ and יַהֲנָא gen. (2) That יַהֲנָא is subj. of the sent. and יֶהְיֶה the word for God: ‘my hand is for a God.’ The first depends on a singular sense of יִהְיֶה; and for the second יַהֲנָא יִי יַהֲנָא would have been more natural. A third view has recently been pronounced by Brockelmann (ZATW, xxvi. 29ff.), who renders it belongs to the God of my hand,’ a survival of a primitive belief in special deities or spirits animating different members of the body (cf. Tylor, Prim. Cult. ii. 127).—כלכלה, כלכלה] מֵג have sing. suff.—30. יִנְבֶא] גֵּכֶנֶה יַנִּבֶא kal. The 1 should probably be restored.—31. גֵּכֶנֶה יַנִּבֶא יַנִּבֶא. The opening words in גֵּכֶנֶה: יִנְבֶא may be original, introducing the duplicate from E.—32b is preceded in גֵּכֶנֶה the variant kal ovk τεθενα παρ’ αὐτός οὐδὲν. This 1 may be restored.—33. יִנְבֶא] מֵנַת (rd. מֵנַת); so גֵּכֶנֶה. The cl. מֵנַת disagrees with what follows, and may be a gloss. גֵּכֶנֶה reduces the discrepancy by omissions, and a complete rearrangement of clauses.—36. רֲכָך] Rd. רֲכָך with Heb. MSS מֵגְשָׁא.—39. On מֵנַת for מֵנַת, cf. G-K. § 74 k or
missing.'—40. heat by day and frost by night] Jer. 36:80. Under the clear skies of the East the extreme heat of the day is apt to be followed by intense cold at night (see Smith, HG, 69 ff.).—41, 42 (E). the Fear of Isaac] The deity feared and worshipped by Isaac (53f). That פַּרְעֹה פְּרָעֹה meant originally the terror inspired by Isaac, the local deity of Beersheba (Meyer, INS, 254 f.), is a hazardous speculation.—43. Laban maintains his right, but speedily adopts a more pathetic tone, leading on to the pacific proposal of 44.—The question what shall I do to . . . ? means 'what last kindness can I show them?' (Gu. Dri.); not 'how can I do them harm?' (Di. and most).

44-54. The treaty of Gilead.

Evidences of a double recension appear in every circumstance of the narrative. (a) Two names are explained: Gilead (48b), and Mizpah (48a); (b) two sacred monuments are erected, a cairn (46, 48, 51, 52), and a monolith (45, 51, 52); (c) the covenant feast is twice recorded (40b, 54); (d) the terms of the covenant are given in two forms: (1) Jacob will not ill-treat Laban's daughters (50), and (2) the cairn is to mark the boundary between two peoples (52); (e) God is twice called to witness (51, 53). To arrange these duplicates in two parallel series is difficult, because of the numerous glosses and dislocations of the text; but some connecting lines can be drawn. Since J always avoids the word מְרַפֶּה (p. 378), we assume first of all that the monolith (and consequently Mizpah) belongs to E, and the cairn to J. Now the cairn goes with the frontier treaty (51, 53 [removing glosses], J), and Mizpah with the family compact (49, E). To J we must obviously assign 45, 48, and also (if we may suppose that only the ה was spoken as an ה) 44; while E as naturally claims 45. At the end, 53b is E (פִּנְחֶה רְמָה, cf. 42), and likewise 54 (the feast, || 46, J).

53a is probably J: note the difference of divine names. Thus: 44, 46, 48, 51-53a = J; 45, 49, 50, 53b. 54 = E.—The analysis is due to Ho. and Gu.; Pro. practically agrees, with the important difference that the parts of J and E are (quite wrongly, as it seems to me) interchanged. It is superior to the schemes of We. Di. KS. al., which assign the cairn and the mazzebah to the same sources.—The principal glosses (many of which excite suspicion apart from the analysis) are לְעֹשׁ in 45 and 46;
J: 44 And now (the speaker is Laban), come, let us make a covenant, I and thou;... and it shall be for a witness between me and thee. 46 And 'he1 (i.e. Laban) [Jacob], said to his brethren, Gather stones; and they took stones, and made a cairn, and they ate there upon the cairn. 47 And Laban called it P'garSehadluhah, but Jacob called it Gal'ad. 48 And Laban said, This cairn is a witness between me and thee this day; therefore he called its name 'Gil'ad1 [48a and Mizpah, for he said]. 51 And Laban said to Jacob, Behold this cairn [and behold the pillar] which I have thrown up between me and thee—a witness is this cairn [and a witness is the pillar]: I will not pass this cairn to thee, and thou shalt not pass this cairn [and this pillar] to me, with evil intent. 53b The God of Abraham and the God of Nahor be Judge between us! [the God of their father].

E: 45 And 'he1 (i.e. Laban) [Jacob] took a stone and set it up as a pillar. 49a, b And he said, May the God of Abraham watch between me and thee, when we are hidden from one another. 50 If thou ill-treat my daughters, or take other wives besides my daughters, no man being with us, see, God is witness between me and thee. 53b And Jacob swore by the Fear of his father Isaac. 54 And Jacob offered a sacrifice on the mountain and called his brethren to eat bread; and they ate bread, and spent the night on the mountain.

44. Cf. 2123ff. 2623ff. — The subj. of הָיָה cannot be הָיוּ, which is fem., and is rather the fact to be witnessed to than a witness of something else. There must be a lacuna before הָיָה, where we must suppose that some material object (probably the cairn: cf. 48, J) was mentioned.—45 (E). And he took a stone] Since it is Laban who explains the meaning of the stone (49), it must have been he who set it up; hence בְּמִקְצִי is to be deleted as a false explication of the implicit

44b. The omitted words (v.s.) might be בֵּית פּוֹעֵל or some such expression (Ols. Di. Ba. Gu. al.). To the end of the v. Gr appends: εἰπεν δὲ ἀπετίμησε Ἰακ., 'Ιδοὺ οὐδεὶς μεθ' ἡμῶν ἔστιν. οἶδε οὗ θεὸς μάρτυς ἄνα μέσον ἐμοῦ καλ
subj.—set it on high as a massēbāh] see 28:18, 29. The monolith may have stood on an eminence and formed a conspicuous feature of the landscape (Di.).—46 (J). And he (Laban) said, etc.] Here הָעְלָה is certainly wrong; for Laban expressly says that the cairn was raised by him (51).—a cairn] חָעִיל means simply a heap of stones (v.i.), not a rampart (We. Di.). The idea that the חָעִיל was originally the mountain range of Gilead itself, Laban and Jacob being conceived as giants (We. Gu. Mey.), has certainly no support in the text.—they ate upon the cairn] The covenant feast, which may very well have preceded the covenant ceremony; see 26:30.—47. In spite of its interesting and philologically correct notice, the v. must unfortunately be assigned to a glossator, for the reasons given below.—48 (J). Laban explains the purpose of the cairn, and names it accordingly: cairn of witness.] The stone heap is personified, and was no doubt in ancient times regarded as animated by a deity (cf. Jos. 24:27). חָעִיל is, of course, an artificial formation, not the real or original pronunciation of חָעִיל.—49 (E). And [the] Mizpah, for he said] The text, if not absolutely ungrammatical, is a very

sūv (fr. v. 40).—46. חָעִיל | G  ואֵלָה יָרָא—גו From גְּלָה 'roll' (stones, 29:4, Jos. 10:18, 1 Sa. 14:38, Pr. 26:27). On sacred stone-heaps among the Arabs, see We. Heid. 111 f. (with which cf. Doughty, Ar. Des. i. 26, 81, 431); Curtiss, PSR, 8o (cairn as witness); on the eating upon the cairn, Frazer, Folklore in OT, 131 ff. —47. חָעִיל הָעְלָה is the precise Aramaic equivalent of Heb. יִהְעֲלָה, 'heap of witness.' The decisive reasons for rejecting the v. are: (1) It stands out of its proper place, anticipating 48b; (2) it contradicts 48b, where the Heb. name יִהְעֲלָה is given by Laban; (3) it assumes (contrary to the implication of all the patriarchal narratives) that the Nahorites spoke a different dialect from the ancestors of the Hebrews. It may be added that the Aram. phrase shows the glossator to have taken יִהְעֲלָה as const. and gen., whereas the latter in 48b is more probably a sent. 'the heap is witness' (see Nestle, MM, 19 f.). The actual name יִהְעֲלָה is usually, but dubiously, explained by Ar. גָּלָא 'hard,' 'firm.'—48. חָעִיל לְעַל יָרָא] so 11:9 19:21 29:46 (all J), 25:9 (?).—49. תַּנְפָּקָה] מִּכְמָה, which We. thinks the original name of the place, afterwards changed to מִכְמָה because of the evil associations of the word massēbāh. He instances the transcription of G מַכְמָה, as combining the consonants of the new name with the vowels of the old (Comp. 3:44'). The argument is precarious; but there seems to be a word-play between the names; and since the opening is evidently corrupt, it is possible that both stood in the text. Ball's restoration מַכְמָה is
uncouth continuation of 48b, with which in the primary documents it had nothing to do; see further inf.—May God (read so with Г watch] Mizpah means 'watch-post.' On its situation, see p. 403.—50. The purport of the covenant, according to E. Jacob swears (53b) that he will not maltreat Laban's daughters, nor even marry other wives besides them. The latter stipulation has a parallel in a late Babylonian marriage contract (KIB, iv. 187, No. XI.).—God is witness] The idea is less primitive than that of J, where the witness is an inanimate object.—We observe how the religious sanction is invoked where human protection fails (cf. 2011 4218, both E).—51–53a. The terms of the covenant in J: neither party (people) is to pass the cairn with hostile intent. All the ref. to the mazzebah (51h. 52a. b) are to be deleted as glosses. —The God of Abraham ... Nahor] Whether a polytheistic differentiation of two gods is attributed to Laban can hardly be determined. The pl. vb. would not necessarily imply this in E (see 2018), though in J it might.—53b, 54. The covenant oath and feast in E.—The Fear of ... Isaac] See on v.42.—54. his brethren] not Laban and his companions, but his own fellow-clansmen (v.87).—spent the night, etc.] Is this part of the religious ceremony? (Gu.).

The Scene of the Treaty.—The name Gil'ad (often with art.) in OT is sometimes applied to the whole region E of the Jordan (Jos. 239 etc.), but more properly denotes the mountain range (נַחֲלָה יְדֵי יְהוָה) extending from 

This page contains text from the document, which seems to be discussing a legal or religious treaty, referencing specific biblical names and events. The text is discussing the covenant and its terms, as well as the scene and location of the treaty. It also includes a note on the usage of the mazzebah and its significance in the narrative. The text is dense and technical, likely intended for an audience familiar with the biblical texts and their context. The page also contains a note on the usage of the term 'mazzebah' and its possible implications in the narrative. The text includes references to other biblical passages and scholars, indicating a scholarly discussion of the subject. The text is written in a professional and academic style, likely intended for a readership of scholars and theologians. The page also contains a note on the usage of the term 'mazzebah' and its possible implications in the narrative. The text includes references to other biblical passages and scholars, indicating a scholarly discussion of the subject. The text is written in a professional and academic style, likely intended for a readership of scholars and theologians.
the Yarmuk to the Arnon (2 Ki. 10, etc.), divided by the Jabbokh into two parts (Jos. 12), corresponding to the modern Gebel 'Aglun and el-Belka, N and S respectively of the Wadi ez-Zerka. The name Gebel Gil' ad still survives as that of a mountain, crowned by the lofty summit of Gebel Osha', N of es-Salt, where are found the ruined cities Gil' ad and Gal' au (Burckh. Syria, 348). It is therefore natural to look here in the first instance for the 'cairn of witness' from which the mountain and the whole region were supposed to have derived their names. The objections to this view are (1) that Jacob, coming from the N, has not yet crossed the Jabbokh, which is identified with the Zerka; and (2) that the frontier between Israel and the Aramaeans (of Damascus) could not have been so far S. These reasons have prevailed with most modern authorities, and led them to seek a site somewhere in the N or NE of Gil' aglun. But the assumption that Laban represents the Aramaeans of Damascus is gratuitous, and has no foundation in either J or E (see the next note). The argument from the direction of Jacob's march applies only to J, and must not be too rigorously pressed; because the treaty of Gilead and the crossing of the Jabbokh belong to different cycles of tradition, and the desire to finish off Jacob's dealings with Laban before proceeding to his encounter with Esau might very naturally occasion a departure from strict geographical consistency.*—The site of Mizpah has to be investigated separately, since we cannot be certain that J and E thought of the same locality. E of the Jordan there was a Mizpah (Ju. 10, 11, Ho. 5) which is thought to be the same as נמרודא (Ju. 11) and נמרודא (Jos. 13); but whether it lay S or N of the Jabbokh cannot be determined. The identification with Ramoth-Gillad, and of this with er-Rent, SW of the ancient Edrei, is precarious. The name ('watch-post') was a common one, and may readily be supposed to have occurred more than once E of the Jordan. See Smith, HG, 586; Buhl, GP, 262; Driver in smaller DB, s.v.; and on the whole of this note, cf. Smend, ZATW, 1902, 149 ff.

Historical Background of 3144-54.—The treaty of Gilead in J evidently embodies ethnographic reminiscences, in which Jacob and Laban were not private individuals, but represented Hebrews and Aramaeans respectively. The theory mostly favoured by critical historians is that the Aramaeans are those of Damascus, and that the

* It seems to me very doubtful how far Jacob's route, as described in chs. 32, 33, can be safely used as a clue to the identification of the localities mentioned (Gilead, Mizpah, Mahanaim, the Ford, Peniel, Succoth). The writers appear to have strung together a number of Transjordanic legends connected with the name of Jacob, but without much regard to topographical consistency or consequitiveness (see p. 408). The impossibility of the current identifications (e.g. those of Merrill and Conder), as stages of an actual itinerary, is clearly shown by Dri. in ET, xiii. (1902), 457 ff. It is only when that assumption is frankly abandoned that the identification of Gilead with Gil' ad, of Mahanaim with Mahne (p. 405), of the Ford with Muğadat en-Nusrāniyyeh (p. 408), becomes feasible.
situation reflected is that of the Syrian wars which raged from c. 860 to c. 770 B.C. (see We. Prol. 6 320 f.). Gu. (p. 312) has, however, pointed out objections to this assumption; and has given strong reasons for believing that the narratives refer to an earlier date than 860. The story reads more like the record of a loose understanding between neighbouring and on the whole friendly tribes, than of a formal treaty between two highly organised states like Israel and Damascus; and it exhibits no trace of the intense national animosity which was generated during the Syrian wars. In this connexion, Meyer's hypothesis that in the original tradition Laban represented the early unsettled nomads of the eastern desert (see p. 334), acquires a new interest. Considering the tenacity with which such legends cling to a locality, there is no difficulty in supposing that in this case the tradition goes back to some prehistoric settlement of territorial claims between Hebrews and migratory Aramaeans. It is true that Meyer's theory is based on notices peculiar to E, while the tribal compact belongs to J; and it may appear hazardous to go behind the documents and build speculations on a substratum of tradition common to both. But the only material point in which J differs from E is his identification of Laban with the Aramaeans of Harran; and this is not inconsistent with the interpretation here suggested. In any case, his narrative gives no support to the opinion that he has in view the contemporary political relations with the kingdom of Damascus.

XXXII. 2–33.—Jacob's Measures for propitiating Esau: His Wrestling with the Deity at Peniel (J, E).

After a vision of angels at Mahanaim (2-3), Jacob sends a humble message announcing his arrival to Esau, but learns to his consternation that his brother is advancing to meet him with 400 men (4-7). He divides his company into two bands, and invokes God's help in prayer (8-14a); then prepares a present for Esau, and sends it on in advance (14b-22). Having thus done all that human foresight could suggest, he passes a lonely night in the ravine of the Jabbok, wrestling with a mysterious antagonist, who at daybreak blesses him and changes his name to Israel (23-33).

Sources.—Vv. 2-3 are an isolated fragment of E (סנהא יבנאלמ, ל וספ [2811]); 4-14a and 14b-22 are parallels (cf. 14a with 22b), the former from J (זומ, 10; זאש, 6; דומע, 10; לג אמה, 6; ct. the implied etymology of מך in 8. 9. 11 with E's in 9); 14b-22 must therefore be E, though positive marks of that writer's style cannot be detected.—On the complicated structure of 23-33 (JE), see p. 407 below.
2, 3. The legend of Maḥanaim.—2. angels . . . met him] The verb for 'meet,' as here construed (v.i.), usually means to 'oppose.'—3. This is God's camp] or a camp of gods. The idea of divine armies appears elsewhere in OT (cf. Jos. 5:14), and perhaps underlies the expression 'Host of heaven' and the name Yahwe Zebāʾōth.—Maḥanaim is here apparently not regarded as a dual (cf. 8:9, 11). On its site, v.i.

The brief statement of the text seems to be a torso of a legend which had gathered round the name Maḥanaim, whose original meaning has been lost. The curtailment probably indicates that the sequel was objectionable to the religious feeling of later times; and it has been surmised that the complete story told of a conflict between Jacob and the angels (originally divine beings), somewhat similar to the wrestling of vv. 24ff. (Gu. Ben.). The word 'camp' (cf. the fuller text of ἔνθε), and the verbal phrase τυπα both suggest a warlike encounter.

4–14a. Jacob's precautionary measures (J).—4. Isaac's death and Esau's settlement in the country afterwards occupied by his descendants are here assumed to have already taken place: otherwise P (36b).—5, 6. We note the extreme servility of Jacob's language:—my lord . . . thy servant . . . find grace,—dictated by fear of his brother's vengeance (27f.1). In substance the message is

2. After ἐγένετο ᾄς ins. καὶ ἀναβλήθασι τοῖς ὀφθαλμοῖς ὑπεν παρεμβολήν ὑπὲρ παρεμβολῆσθαιναι, enhancing the vividness of the description.—τυπα = 'encounter with hostility,' Ju. 51 151 1625, 1 Sa. 22171, 2 Sa. 118, 1 Ki. 225ff, Ru. 22; ἐντεκεῖ, Ἰβ. 215, Jer. 716 2718, Ru. 116. The neutral sense 'meet,' with pers. obj., is doubtfully supported by Nu. 3510, 21, Jos. 116, where hostile intention is evidently implied: elsewhere this is expressed by acc. pers. (Ex. 520 234, 1 Sa. 102, Am. 510). Gn. 2511 is somewhat different, the obj. being impers. (cf. the use in Jos. 167 1710 etc.).—3. Μαχν] an important East Jordanic city and sanctuary, the capital of Ish-bosheth (2 Sa. 29), and David's headquarters during the revolt of Absalom (2 Sa. 1724–27), the centre of a fiscal district under Solomon (1 Ki. 414). The situation of Maḥne or Miḥne on W. el-Himār, some 14 m. N of the Jabbok (see Buhl, GP, 257), suits all the other references (cf. Jos. 1326, 30—the boundary of Gad and Manasseh), but is too far from the Jabbok for this narrative (v. 23). On the ending, which is probably no real dual, see on 2410.

nothing but an announcement of his arrival and his great wealth (cf. 33:22). The shepherd, with all his success, is at the mercy of the fierce marauder who was to ‘live by his sword’ (27:40).—7. The messengers return with the ominous news that Esau is already on the march with 400 men. How he was ready to strike so far north of his own territory is a difficulty (see p. 415).—8, 9. Jacob’s first resource is to divide his company into two camps, in the hope that one might escape while the other was being captured. The arrangement is perhaps adverted to in 33:8—10—13. Jacob’s prayer, consisting of an invocation (10), thanksgiving (11), petition (12), and appeal to the divine faithfulness (13), is a classic model of OT devotion (Gu.); though the element of confession, so prominent in later supplications, is significantly absent.—12. mother with (or on) children] Hos. 10:14; cf. Dt. 22:6. A popular saying,—the mother conceived as bending over the children to protect them (Tu.).—14a. spent that night there] i.e., at Mahanaim (v.29). We may suppose (with We. Gu.) that an explicit etymology, based on the ‘two camps’ (vv.8—11), preceded or followed this clause.

Vv.10—13 appear to be one of the later expansions of the Yahwistic narrative, akin to 13:14—17 22:15—18 26:3—5 28:14. They can be removed without loss of continuity, 14a being a natural continuation of 9. The insertion gives an interpretation to the ‘two camps’ at variance with the primary motive of the division (v.9); and its spirit is different from that of the narrative in which it is embedded. Comp. also מיהל רור with 22:17, שם עם with 16:10 22:17. See Gu. 316.

14b—22. The present for Esau (E).—14. a present] Not

§ 49 e.—8. ממהמ[ ] נינס intrans. = ‘be cramped’; on the form, cf. G—K.
§ 67 p.—1 דומדומד[ ] גא om. and transp. [אָבָבָב רֶפֶּת הַדָּוָא—תַּעֲנָה יַע] That this implies an etymology of Mahanaim, and that J located the incident there, cannot reasonably be doubted (as by Ho.). The name is obviously regarded as a dual (in contrast to v.9), showing that the current pronunciation is very ancient (Di.).—9. מקַבָּד מָן דְּרוֹמִי (masc.), which is demanded by the context, as well as by prevailing usage (Albrecht, ZATW, xvi. 52).—11. עם חיו[ ] ‘too insignificant for’; G—K.
§ 133 c.—תו הנ[ ] The writer apparently locates Mahanaim in the vicinity of the Jordan; but the allusion, in an editorial passage, has perhaps no great topographical importance.

14. וַיְָּשֶׁ֣ר[ ] Art. with ptcp. (not pf.) see G—K. § 138 k; Dri. Sam.
'tribute' (as often) in acknowledgment of vassalage, but (as 43\textsuperscript{11}, 2 Ki. 8\textsuperscript{st.}) a gift to win favour.—17-20. By arranging the cattle in successive droves following at considerable intervals, Jacob hopes to wear out Esau's resentment by a series of surprises. The plan has nothing in common with the two 'camps' of v. 8\textsuperscript{st.} in J. —21a. A repetition of 19b: Jacob lays stress on this point, because the effect would obviously be weakened if a garrulous servant were to let out the secret that other presents were to follow.—21b. Let me pacify him] lit. 'cover' (or 'wipe clean') his face,—the same figure, though in different language, as 20\textsuperscript{st}. On נִשְׁבֵּים, see OTJC\textsuperscript{2}, 381; DB, iv. 128f.—see his face] 'obtain access to his presence': cf. 43\textsuperscript{3,5} 44\textsuperscript{23,26}, Ex. 10\textsuperscript{28}, 2 Sa. 14\textsuperscript{24,28,32}, 2 Ki. 25\textsuperscript{19}, Est. 11\textsuperscript{4}. The phrase is thought to convey an allusion to Penu\textsuperscript{el} (Gu.); see on 33\textsuperscript{10}.—22. spent . . . camp ([נַנְנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּנְּn] cf. 14a. We. (Comp.\textsuperscript{2} 46) renders 'in Ma\textsuperscript{n}aneh' (i.e. Ma\textsuperscript{n}anaim), but the change is hardly justified.

23-33. The wrestling at Peniel (JE).—23, 24. The crossing of the Jabbo\textsuperscript{k}. The Yabbo\textsuperscript{k} is now almost univers-

57 f.—[מַק] see on 4\textsuperscript{3}.—17. מַשְׁבַּת (Est. 4\textsuperscript{14} t)] ) מַשְׁבַּת, 'be wide' (1 Sa. 16\textsuperscript{23}, Jb. 32\textsuperscript{20}).—18. On the forms מַשְׁבַּת (Ben Napht.), מַשְׁבַּת (Ben Asher), see G-K. §§ 9 v, 10 g (c), 60 b, [and B.-D., Gen. p. 85]; and on מַשְׁבַּת, § 64 f.—20. מַשְׁבַּת ] מַשְׁבַּת מַשְׁבַּת. כִּי בְּמַשְׁבַּת. cf. מַשְׁבַּת ] irreg. inf. for מַשְׁבַּת (G-K. §§ 74 h, 93 g).—21. מַשְׁבַּת ] מַשְׁבַּת מַשְׁבַּת. כִּי בְּמַשְׁבַּת. On J, see on 23 f. [v.s.]). 25-33 have generally been regarded as a unity, being assigned to J by We. Kue. Corn. KS. Dri. al.; but by Di. to E. In the view of more recent critics, both J and E are represented, though there is the utmost variety of opinion in regard to details. In the notes above, possible variants have been pointed out in 26a 1 26b (the laming of the thigh) and 28, 29 I 30 (the name and the blessing); to these may be added the still more doubtful case 31 I 32 (Peniel, Penuel). As showing traces of more primitive conceptions, 26a and 30 would naturally go together, and also 27 for the same reason. Since J prefers the name Israel in the subsequent history, there is a slight presumption that 28f. belong to him; and the מַשְׁבַּת of 31 points (though not decisively) to E. Thus we should obtain, for E: 26a 26b 27 30 31; leaving for J: 26a 26b 28 29 22; v. 28 may be a gloss. The result corresponds nearly, so far as it goes, with Gu.'s (318 f.). The reader may compare the investigations of Ho. (209 f.), Procksch (32), Meyer (INS, 57 f.).—23. מַשְׁבַּת (מענין) as 19\textsuperscript{33} 30\textsuperscript{16}.—מענין (מענין) (Nu. 21\textsuperscript{24}, Dt. 2\textsuperscript{27} 3\textsuperscript{18}, Jos. 12\textsuperscript{3}, Ju. 11\textsuperscript{13}, 23\textsuperscript{3}) is naturally explained as the 'gurgler,' from מַשְׁבַּת (Ar. bak\textsuperscript{4}), the resemblance to מַשְׁבַּת (v. 28) being, of course, a popular word-play.—24b. Insert מַשְׁבַּת before
ally, and no doubt correctly, identified with the Nahr es-Zerkā (Blue River), whose middle course separates Gebel 'Ağlān from el-Belḵā, and which flows into the Jordan about 25 m. N of the Dead Sea. See Smend, ZATW, 1902, 137 ff.; and the descriptions in Riehm, Hwb.2 665; Smith, HG, 583-5.— The ford referred to cannot be determined; that of Muḥādat en-Nuṣrānīyeh, where the road from Geras to es-Salt crosses the deep narrow gorge which cleaves the mountains of Gilead, as described by Thomson (LB, iii. 583 ff.) and Tristram (Land of Israel23, 549), supplies a more fitting background for the weird struggle about to be narrated than the one in the Jordan valley; but on the difficulties of this identification, see Dri. ET, xiii. 459.

The passage of the river seems to be twice described, 24a and 24b being apparently doublets. The former continues 25a, which belongs to J (תֵּשֶׁב). Following this clue, we may divide thus: 25a. 24a = J; 25b. 24b = E (so Gu.). While E implies that Jacob crossed with his company, the account of J is consistent with the statement of 25a, that after sending the others across he himself was 'left alone.' On any view the action is somewhat perplexing. To cross a ford by night, with flocks, etc., was a dangerous operation, only to be explained by apprehension of an attack from Esau (We.). But Esau is represented as advancing from the south; and Jacob is in haste to put his people and possessions on that side of the river on which they were exposed to attack. Either the narrative is defective at this point, or it is written without a clear conception of the actual circumstances.

25. a man wrestled with him till the appearing of the dawn] —Only later does Jacob discover that his unknown antagonist is a god in human form (cf. 182 195).—The rare word (v.i.) for 'wrestle' (פָּנָן) is chosen because of the assonance with פָּן.
—26a. he saw that he prevailed not] The ambiguity of the subject extends to the next clause, and leaves two interpretations open (v.i.).—struck the socket of his thigh] putting it out of joint.—26b. the socket of Jacob's thigh was dislocated as he wrestled with him.

The dislocation of the thigh seems to be twice recorded (see KS. An. 159), and it is highly probable that the two halves of the v. come from

פָּנָן (מָצֵּה).—25. פָּנָן] A vb. used only here and v.26, distinct from NH פָּנָן, 'make oneself dusty,' and very probably a modification of פָּן, 'clasp' (De. Di.).—26. יָפָנָן] √ יָפָנָן, lit. 'be rent away' (cf. Jer. 69):
different sources. In 26a it is a stratagem resorted to by a wrestler unable to gain the advantage by ordinary means (like the trick of Ulysses in H. xxiii. 725 ff.); in 26b it is an accident which happens to Jacob in the course of the struggle. It has even been suggested that in the original legend the subj. of 26a was Jacob—that it was he who disabled his antagonist in the manner described (Ho. Gu. Che.: see Müller, AE, 163); Luther, ZATW, xxi. 65 ff.; Meyer, LNS, 57). It is possible (though certainly not probable) that this was the view of the document (J or E) to which 26a belongs, and that it underlies Hos. 12b.

27. Let me go, for the dawn is breaking] Comp. Plautus, Amphitr. 532 f., where Jupiter says: “Cur me tenes? Tempus est: exire ex urbe priusquam lucescat volo.” It is a survival of the wide-spread belief in spirits of the night which must vanish at dawn (Hamlet, Act i. Sc. i.); and as such, a proof of the extreme antiquity of the legend.—But the request reveals to Jacob the superhuman character of his adversary, and he resolves to hold him fast till he has extorted a blessing from him.—28, 29. Here the blessing is imparted in the form of a new name conferred on Jacob in memory of this crowning struggle of his life.—thou hast striven with God] Yisrā‘el, probably = ‘God strives’ (v.i.), is interpreted as ‘Striver with God’; cf. a similar transformation of בֵּיתָא (‘Baal contends’) in Ju. 6:22. Such a name is a true ‘blessing,’ as a pledge of victory and success to the nation which bears it.—and with men] This can hardly refer merely to the contests with Laban and Esau; it points rather to the existence of a fuller body of legend, in which Jacob figured as the hero of many combats, culminating

CR ἐνάρξασθαι, ἔλεμαρχει, ἠμαρκμένοι, ἔκοψαν (‘gave way’),—all conjectural.—
29. יִשָּׁרֶל] A name of the same type as בָּשָׁרֶת, בָּשָׁר, etc., with some such meaning as ‘God strives’ or ‘Let God strive’; originally (it has been suggested) a war-cry which passed into a proper name (see Steuernagel, Einw. 61). The vb. יָשָׁר, however, only occurs in connexion with this incident (Ho. 12:5, where read יָשָׁנ), and in the personal name יָשָׁר; and its real meaning is uncertain. If it be the Heb. equivalent of Ar. ֶּסַרֶא, Dri. argues that it must mean ‘persist’ or ‘persevere’ rather than ‘strive’ (DB, ii. 530), which hardly yields a suitable idea. Some take it as a by-form of יָשָׁר, either in a denominative sense (‘rule,’ from יש, prince), or in its assumed primary significance ‘shine forth’ (Ass. atorio: see Volland, ARW, ix. 184). Some doubt has even been thrown on the traditional Heb. pronunciation by the form יִסְּרָאֵל, found on an inscr. of Merneptah (Steindorff, ZATW, xvi. 330 ff.), with which we may compare
in this successful struggle with deity. — 30. Jacob vainly endeavours to extort a disclosure of the name of his antagonist. This is possibly an older variant of גֵּד, belonging to a primitive phase of thought, where he who possesses the true name of a god can dispose of the power of its bearer (Che. TBI, 401; DB, v. 640). For the concealment of the name, cf. Ju. 13 (the same words). — Gu. thinks that in the original narrative the name of the wrestler was actually revealed.—31. פֶּנֶּלֶת 'Face of God' (v.i.). The name is derived from an incidental feature of the experience: that Jacob had seen "God face to face" (Ex. 33, Dt. 34), and yet lived (see on 16). — The site of Peniel is unknown: see Dri. ET, xiii. 457 ff., and Gen. 300 ff.—32. limping on his thigh] in consequence of the injury he had received (20b). That he bore the hurt to his death, as a memorial of the conflict, is a gratuitous addition to the narrative.—33. The food-taboo here mentioned is nowhere else referred to in OT; and the Mishnic prohibition (Hullin, 7) is probably dependent on this passage. Rob. Sm. explains it from the sacredness of the thigh as a seat of life (RS², 380);* and

Ass. Sirî-lai (= יָּזֶב וְזֶב) (see Kittel, SBOT Chronicles, p. 58). Comp. also Che. TBI, 404.—נָשִּי ג עַלָּעָם, Aq. הָּזָּה, ס. הָּזָּה, א. forte diligent, S לָּזָּה פָּה. חוּר יָּרִי עַל אֱלֹהֵי תְּהִלּוֹת see v.72. The formal difference arises from the old case-endings of gen. and nom. (G-K. § 90 o). Strabo (xvi. ii. 16, 18) mentions a Phœnician promontory near Tripolis called Θεοῦ προβοσ>Theoû προβοσ: it is not improbable that in both cases the name is derived from a fancied resemblance to a face. —33. נשִּיא סַעְּתַּי is to be explained by Ar. nasâm (for nasayân), which means the nervus ischiadicus, or the thigh in which it is found (Ges. Th. 921 f.). The question remains whether סַעְּתַּי denotes here a nerve, an artery, a sinew, or a muscle; the first seems by far the most probable. So it seems to have been understood by S לָּזָּה פָּה (ח”ג הָּזָּה פָּה

= tetanus-nerve), and by G and E, which appear to have connected סַעְּתַּי with the v. for ‘forget’ (Gr.-Venet, το νεύρον το ἐπιλακτημένον!). The modern Jewish restriction applies, according to De., to the "Spannader, d. h. die innere Ader des sogen. Hinterviertels mit Einschluss der äusseren und der Verästelungen beider."

* "The nature of the lameness produced by injury to the sinew of the thigh socket is explained by the Arabic lexx., s.v. ḫāfisatin; the man can only walk on the tips of his toes. This seems to have been a common affection, for poetical metaphors are taken from it."
We. (Heid. 1683) calls attention to a trace of it in ancient Arabia. For primitive parallels, see Frazer, Golden Bough, ii. 419 ff., Folklore in OT, 142 f. The precise meaning of הָיָה רֹעִי is uncertain (v. i.).

In its fundamental conception the struggle at Peniel is not a dream or vision like that which came to Jacob at Bethel; nor is it an allegory of the spiritual life, symbolising the inward travail of a soul helpless before some overhanging crisis of its destiny. It is a real physical encounter which is described, in which Jacob measures his strength and skill against a divine antagonist, and ‘prevails,’ though at the cost of a bodily injury. No more boldly anthropomorphic narrative is found in Genesis; and unless we shut our eyes to some of its salient features, we must resign the attempt to translate it wholly into terms of religious experience. We have to do with a legend, originating at a low level of religion, in process of accommodation to the purer ideas of revealed religion; and its history may have been somewhat as follows: (1) We begin with the fact of a hand-to-hand conflict between a god and a man. A similar idea appears in Ex. 424 ff., where we read that Yahwe met Moses and ‘sought to kill him.’ In the present passage the god was probably not Yahwe originally, but a local deity, a night-spirit who fears the dawn and refuses to disclose his name. Dr. Frazer has pointed out that such stories as this are associated with water-spirits, and cites many primitive customs (Folklore, 136 ff.) which seem to rest on the belief that a river resents being crossed, and drowns many who attempt it. He hazards the conjecture that the original deity of this passage was the spirit of the Jabbok; in which case the word-play between פֶּן and פֶּה may have greater significance than appears on the surface. (2) Like many patriarchal theophanies, the narrative accounts for the foundation of a sanctuary—that of Peniel. Of the cultus at Peniel we know nothing; and there is very little in the story that can be supposed to bear upon it, unless we assume, with Gu. and others, that the limping on the thigh refers to a ritual dance regularly observed there (cf. 1 Ki. 1828). *(3) By J and E the story was incorporated in the national epos as part of the history of Jacob. The God who wrestles with the patriarch is Yahwe; and how far the wrestling was understood as a literal fact remains uncertain. To these writers the main interest lies in the origin of the name Israel, and the blessing bestowed on the nation in the person of its ancestor. (4) A still more refined interpretation is found, it seems to me, in Ho. 124: ‘In the womb he overreached his brother; and in his prime he strove with God. He strove (נָשַׁל) with the Angel and prevailed; he wept and made supplication to him.’ The substitution of the Angel of Yahwe for the divine Being Himself shows increasing sensitivity to anthropomorphism; and the last line appears to mark an advance in the spiritualising of the incident, the subject being not the Angel (as Gu. and others hold), but Jacob, whose ‘prevailing’ thus becomes that of importunate prayer.—We may note in a word Steuernagel’s ethno-

* But see footnote on p. 410 above.
logical interpretation. He considers the wrestling to symbolise a victory of the invading Israelites over the inhabitants of N Gilead. The change of name reflects the fact that a new nation (Israel) arose from the fusion of the Jacob and Rachel tribes (Einw. 61 f.).

Ch. XXXIII.—The Meeting of the Brothers: Jacob's March to Shechem (JE, P).

The dreaded meeting at last takes place; the brothers are reconciled, and part in friendship; Esau returning to Seir, while Jacob moves on by slow stages first to Succoth and then to Shechem.—It is difficult to characterise the spirit in which the main incident is conceived. Was Esau's purpose friendly from the first, or was he turned from thoughts of vengeance by Jacob's submissive and flattering demeanour? Does the writer regard the reconciliation as equally honourable to both parties, or does he only admire the skill and knowledge of human nature with which Jacob tames his brother's ferocity? The truth probably lies between two extremes. That Esau's intention was hostile, and that Jacob gained a diplomatic victory over him, cannot reasonably be doubted. On the other hand, the narrator must be acquitted of a desire to humiliate Esau. If he was vanquished by generosity, the noblest qualities of manhood were released in him; and he displays a chivalrous magnanimity which no appreciative audience could ever have held in contempt. So far as any national feeling is reflected, it is one of genuine respect and goodwill towards the Edomites.

Sources.—Vv.1-17 are rightly assigned in the main to J, in spite of the fact that the only divine name which occurs is שֶׁלֶם, in 5b, 10, 11. In these vv. we must recognise the hand of E (cf. also 5b with 489, and 10b with 322); and, for all that appears, E's influence may extend further. The chief indications, however, both material and linguistic, point to J as the leading source: the 400 men (327), the 'camp' in v.8 (328), and the expressions: חַנֵּנַי, 1.2. 6; תַּחַר, 1. 4; וַתִּצְאֲנָה, 8.10. 18; יִתְהַלְּךָ, 10. The documents are so deftly interwoven that it is scarcely possible to detect a flaw in the continuity of the narrative.—18-20 are probably from E, except 18αβ, which is taken from P (see on the vv. below).

1-7. The meeting.—1, 2. Jacob's fears revive at sight
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of the 400 men (327). He marshals his children (not the whole company, as 328ff., though the motive is the same) under their mothers, and in the reverse order of his affection for them.—3. passed on before them] having previously been in the rear.—He approaches his brother with the reverence befitting a sovereign; the sevenfold prostration is a favourite formula of homage in the Tel Amarna tablets: "At the feet of my Lord, my Sun, I fall down seven and seven times" (38 ff. pass.). It does not follow, however, that Jacob acknowledged himself Esau’s vassal (Nestle, MM, 12; Che. TBI, 405); cf. 1 Sa. 2041.—4. fell on his neck] 4514 4629 (J); Lu. 1520.—5-7. An interesting picture: the mothers with their little ones come forward in groups to pay their respects to the grim-visaged warrior, whose name had caused such terror in the camp.

8–11. The present.—8. Esau remembers another great cavalcade—camp—which he had met. The ‘present’ of 324ff. (E) cannot be referred to, for Esau must have been told repeatedly what it was for (321st.). The word נְבִיָּם points rather to the arrangement of 32, (J). Gu. somewhat ingeniously explains thus: Esau had met the first division of Jacob’s company; and Jacob, ashamed to avow his original motive, by a happy inspiration now offers ‘this whole camp’ as a present to his brother.—9. Esau at first refuses, but, 10, II, Jacob insists on his accepting the gift.—as one sees the

Read accordingly סַר מַצֵּא for the first ‘n.—4. מַזִּיא] The puncta extra-ordinary mark some error in the text. Di. observes that elsewhere (4514 4629) ‘fell on his neck’ is immediately followed by ‘wept.’ The word should probably be inserted (with Gr) after וְהָקִיעָן (so 2019; cf. 4819).—בִּנְבֵי The sing. would be better, unless we add with Gr the קֹדֶס. The variantsنيיר יב עִבְדֵי אָבְרָהָם seem to be variants; of which one or other will be due to E.—5. מָנ] with double acc., lit. ‘has been gracious to me (with) them’ (G.-K. § 117 ff.) = ‘has graciously given’ (so v.11); cf. Ju. 2129, Ps. 11928.—7. שִׂיח נiph. for the previous Qal. Point שִׂיח?—עֵלָה נִשָּׁא] Gr transp. as v.2.

10. כָּלְעֹרְךָ] see on 181. This and the preceding יִנֶּאֶב mark the v. as J’s, in spite of the appellative use of יָרֵא.—11a is a doublet of 10b, and may be assigned to E.—11b] ‘blessing,’ hence the gift which is meant to procure a blessing: 1 Sa. 2527 3028, 2 Ki. 1821.—27] see G-K. § 74g; but מַאָרְצִים read better מַאָרְצָא.
face of God] with the feelings of joy and reverence with which one engages in the worship of God. For the flattering comparison of a superior to the Deity, cf. 1 Sa. 29:9, 2 Sa. 14:17 19:28. It is possible that the phrase here contains a reminiscence of the meaning of Peniel in 32:81 (We. Di. al.), the common idea being that "at Peniel the unfriendly God is found to be friendly" (Di.). The resemblance suggests a different form of the legend, in which the deity who wrestled with Jacob was Esau—the Usōus of Phoenician mythology (see on 25:25; cf. INS, 278).

12-17. The parting.—12. Esau, assuming that they are no more to be separated, proposes to march in front with his troop.—13. But Jacob has other objects in view, and invents a pretext for getting rid of his brother's company.—לע תולע] lit. are giving suck upon me: i.e. their condition imposes anxiety upon me.—14. I will proceed by stages (v. i.), gently, according to the pace of the cattle before me].—till I come . . . to Seir] It is, of course, implied that he is to follow in Esau's track; and the mention of Seir as a possible goal of Jacob's journey causes difficulty. Meyer (INS, 275 f.) advances the attractive theory that in J Jacob does not cross the Jordan at all, but goes round by Seir and the S of the Dead Sea to Hebron. The question has an important bearing on the criticism of ch. 34.—15-17. The offer of an armed escort having been courteously declined, Jacob proceeds but a short

13. לום] לום, of which only the ptp. is in use (1 Sa. 6:10, Is. 40:11, Ps. 78:1).—פאת] better with מִּךָ סָעַפְתָה. On the synt. see G-K. § 159 g.—14. ?מ נלע] כָּהוּ כְּלַע עַל תְּלַע לָעַב וְאַחַּה יָדָע. Why Cheyne (405 f.) finds it necessary to resolve the text into a series of geographical glosses is not apparent. הָעַע, Hithp. is אֵּךָ לֶה, but is a natural extension of the Pi. 'guide [to a watering-place?], 'Is. 40:11 49:10. וָצָה in the sense of 'gentleness' (2 Sa. 18:5, 1 Ki. 21:27, Is. 8:9, Jb. 15:11), and לְלָע in the sense of 'pace': are unexceptionable: the י of norm with both words (BDB, 516 b). For נלע in the sense of 'property,' we have examples in Ex. 22:10, 1 Sa. 15:8.—15. נלע[ ] lit. 'let me set.' The sense suggested by the context, 'leave behind,' is supported by Ex. 10:24 (Hoph.).—רָע מַלע The Heb. is peculiar. The obvious rendering would be, 'Why should I find favour, etc.?'; but as that is hardly possible, we must tr. 'Why so? May I find, etc.'—a very abrupt transition. We should at least expect מַלע מַלע.—17. יָעַע] The precedence of subj. indicates contrast, and shows that the v. continues 18 (J).—אַו]
distance, and takes up his quarters at Sukkoth (v. i.). The name is derived from the booths, or temporary shelters for cattle, which he erects there.—built himself a house] showing that he contemplated a lengthy sojourn.

Here Esau disappears from the histories of J and E. We have already remarked on the change of tone in this last episode, as compared with the earlier Jacob-Esau stories of chs. 25, 27. Esau is no longer the rude natural man, the easy victim of his brother's cunning, but a noble and princely character, whose bearing is evidently meant to inspire admiration. Jacob, too, is presented in a more favourable light: if he is still shrewd and calculating, and not perfectly truthful, he does not sink to the knavery of his earlier dealings with Esau and Laban, but exhibits the typical virtues of the patriarchal ideal. The contrast betrays a difference of spirit and origin in the two groups of legends. It is conceivable that the second group came from sanctuaries frequented by Israelites and Edomites in common (so Ho. 212); but it is also possible that the two sets reflect the relations of Israel and Edom at different periods of history. It is quite obvious that chs. 25 and 27 took shape after the decay of the Edomite empire, when the ascendancy of Israel over the older people was assured. If there be any ethnological basis to 32, 33, it must belong to an earlier period. Steuernagel (Einw. 105) suggests as a parallel Nu. 2034-21, where the Edomites resist the passage of Israel through their territory. Meyer (3871) is disposed to find a recollection of a time when Edom had a powerful empire extending far north on the E of the Jordan, where they may have rendered assistance to Israel in the Midianite war (ib. 382), though they were unable ultimately to maintain their position. If there be any truth in either of these speculations (which must remain extremely doubtful), it is evident that chronologically 32 f. precede 25, 27; and the attempt to interpret the series (as a whole) ethnographically must be abandoned.

18—20. Jacob at Shechem.—18. The crossing of the Jordan is not recorded; it is commonly supposed to have

see on 112.—נָּפָה was E of the Jordan, but nearer to it than Peniel (Jos. 1327, Ju. 84-8). The site is unknown (see Smith, HG, 585; Buhl, GP, 206, 260; Dri. ET, xiii. 458 a, n. 1). The modern Ain es-Sakah (9 m. S. of Beisan) is excluded on phonetic grounds, and is besides on the wrong side of the Jordan.

18. בִּשְׁנֵי [בָּשְׁנֵי] בִּשְׁנֵי] The rendering given above is pronounced by We, to be impossible, no doubt on the ground that בִּשְׁנֵי, meaning properly 'whole' (Dt. 279), is nowhere else used in the sense 'safe and sound' of a person. Still, in view of בִּשְׁנֵי (cf. 2821 4327), and בִּשְׁנֵי in Jb. 94, it may be reasonably supposed that it had that sense. Ge Jub. F.S take בִּשְׁנֵי as a nom. pr.; a view which though it derives some plausibility from the fact that there is still a village Salim about 4 m. E of Nablus (Robinson, BR, ii. 275, 279), implies a sense not consonant
taken place at the ford ed-Dāmiyeh, a little S of the Jabbok, on the road from es-Salt to Shechem.—in safety (אַמַּל) after his escape from Esau, E not having recorded the lengthened stay at Succoth. On the rendering of אַמַּל as a proper name, v.i.—encamped in front of the city] in the vale to the E of it, where Jacob’s well is still shown (Jn. 4:12).—19. The purchase of the ground is referred to in Jos. 24:32 in the account of Joseph’s burial. It is significant that Israel’s claim to the grave of Joseph is based on purchase, just as its right to that of Abraham (ch. 23).—The Buḥ Hāmōr were the dominant clan in Shechem (ch. 34, Ju. 9:38).—a hundred kēstāh] an unknown sum (v.i.).—20. he set up there an altar] or more probably (since בֵּן is never used of an altar) a mazzēbāh.—called it 'El, God of Israel] the stone being identified with the deity; cf. 28:22 35:7, Ex. 17:15, Ju. 6:24. For heathen parallels, see Mey. INSG, 295.

Israel is here the name of the nation: cf. Jos. 2:30, where Joshua builds an altar on Ebal (E of Shechem) to Yahwe, God of Israel. The stone and its name are undoubtedly historical, and go back to an early time when Shechem (or Ebal?) was the sacred centre of the confederacy of Israelitish tribes (cf. 1 Ki. 12:1). We cannot therefore conclude with Di. that the v. refers back to 32:28, and comes from the same document.

with usage; there being no case of a village described as a 'city' of the neighbouring town (De.). We. (Comp. 2 316) emends נִבָא: 'Shechem the city of (the man) Shechem.' Procksch accepts the emendation, but regards the words as a conflation of variants from two sources (p. 34). It distinguishes the name of the city (Σκίμων, see on 12) from that of the man (Συχέμ, v. 19 34ff.).—סִינָה] as 26:17.—19. פֶּרֶס (Jos. 24:32, Jb. 42:1) apparently a coin or weight; but the etymology is obscure. וּנְיַן render 'lamb'; and it was thought that light had been thrown on this traditional explanation by the Aramaic Assuan papyri, where פֶּרֶס (lamb) is used of a coin (of the value of 10 shekels?) (so Sayce-Cowley, Aram. Pap. disc. at Assouan, p. 23). But Lidzbarski (Deutsche Lsg., 1906, 3210 ff.) holds that the word there should be read פֶּרֶס (found on a Persian weight: PSBA, 1888, 464 ff.).—20. Read פֶּרֶס for פָּרֶס, and consequently לֹא for לֹא (We. al.).—וּנְיַן ksi render καὶ ἐπεκαλύπτο τὸν θεὸν Ἰσραήλ.—Except the clause פֶּרֶס פֶּרֶס בָּם 'כ' found in v.18, which is evidently from P, the whole section 18-20 may safely be assigned to E.
Two narratives are here combined:

I. Shechem, son of Hamor, the native princeling, falls in love with Dinah, the daughter of Leah, abducts her, and keeps her in his house (I. 3; cf. 26). He asks her in marriage from her father and brothers, offering to accept any conditions they may impose (II. 19). They raise an objection on the score of circumcision (14), but eventually consent on terms not expressed in this recension. Shechem complies with the condition, whatever it was (19). Simeon and Levi, however, decide that the insult can only be wiped out by blood; they gain access to Shechem's house, slay him, and depart with their sister (20-24). Their father, fearing an uprising of the country against him, reproves them for their rash act, which they proudly justify (20-21).—The conclusion is lost.

This rough analysis rests mainly on the material incongruities of the narrative, viz.: (a) In II., after the seduction Dinah is still in the hands of her relatives, 17; but in I. she is in Shechem's house and has to be rescued by force, 26. (b) The negotiations are conducted by Hamor alone, 6, 8-10 (II.); but in II. 12 (I.) Shechem is abruptly introduced pleading his own cause. (c) Shechem has already fulfilled the compact, 19 (I.), before the people of the city are consulted, 20-24 (II.). (d) Simeon and Levi alone avenge the outrage, and are alone held responsible for the

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* The parts left unresolved are vv. 1-3 and 5-7. In 1-3, 5a looks like a first mention of Dinah; and in 2b Hamor is perhaps Jeroboam; and with a transposition we might read thus: II. 1. And Dinah . . . and Shechem saw her, 2b and lay with her. 3b And he comforted the girl . . .: I. 5a And the soul [of Shechem . . . ] clave to Dinah . . . and he took her and violated her. 5b And he loved the girl . . .—5 and 7 seem to me to belong to II. rather than I.; but the indications are conflicting, and they are possibly redactional vv., inserted to explain the transition from the sing. in 6 to the pl. in 8.—Naturally the redactor has been busy smoothing over discrepancies; and to him may be attributed 1 ישננה in 18a, the whole of 18b, 19b, ו츠ב in 20a, לעו in 20b (cf. 24), וב in 21a, וב in 21b, and the removal of 22b from 27 (v.f.).
consequences, 281. 301. (I.) but all the sons of Jacob are implicated in the sack of the city, 27-29 (II.).

Sources.—If style alone were decisive, I. might safely be identified with J: note ג וק, 3 (234); יד וק, 8. 13; יב וק,在玩家, 11; הוב וק, 30. In II., Corn. has pointed out some linguistic affinities with E (see the notes on 3:1; יד וק, 3; hid וק, 10-21 etc.) but they are insignificant in comparison with the strongly marked Priestly phraseology of this recension: אבש, 2; אבש, 1-5. 13-27; יד וק, 10; הוב וק, 16-22; ב' וק, 23; lateral וק, 24; lateral וק, 24 (b). Comp. the list in Kue. Ges. Abh. 269 f. These are so striking that Di. and Dri. assign the narrative unhesitatingly to P, and all admit that it has undergone a Priestly redaction (Corn. calls attention to a very similar case in Nu. 31).

But there are grave material difficulties in assigning either recension to J or E. (1) In ch. 34, Jacob's children are grown up; and this implies a considerable lapse of time since ch. 33. (2) A bloody encounter with the natives of the land is contrary to the peaceful ideal of patriarchal life consistently maintained by J and (hardly less consistently) by E. (3) Against I. = J, in particular, (a) In J the patriarch is generally named Israel after 32:28; and here Jacob is used throughout. (b) We have seen reason to believe that in J, Jacob was not W of the Jordan at all at this time (p. 414). (c) The sons of Jacob would not be found quietly feeding their flocks at Shechem (37:12f.) if an incident like this had been of recent occurrence. (4) As regards II. = E, there is less difficulty; but on this hypothesis the amalgamation with J must be due to RJB; and how does it happen that the assumed Priestly redaction is confined to the one component? Moreover, the incident is irreconcilable with 48:22 (E). (5) Finally, if Horite be the true reading in v.2, we have here a tradition differing from any of the Pent. documents.

These objections are urged with great force by Meyer, who also shows that in Gen. there are sporadic traces of a divergent tradition which ignored the Exodus, and traced the conquest and division of the land directly to Jacob and his sons (chs. 38. 48:29). To this (older) tradition he assigns ch. 34. The first recension must have taken literary shape within the Yahwistic school, and the second may have been current in Elohistic circles; but neither found a place in the main document of the school to which it belonged, and its insertion here was an afterthought suggested by a supposed connexion with 33:19 (E). This seems to me the best solution, though it leaves the dual recension, the amalgamation, and the Priestly redaction unexplained riddles.—Calling the two narratives J² and E², we divide as follows:

E² (=II.): 1. 2a. 2b. 3b. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8-10. 13a. 15-18a. 20-24. 27. (35b. 28. 29.

Comp. We. Comp.² 45 ff., 314 ff.; Kue. ThT, 1880, 257 ff. (=Ges. Abhandl. 255 ff.), Ond. i. 315 ff.; Corn. ZATW, xi. 1-15; Mey. INS, 412 ff.; De. 413; Di. 368 ff.; Ho. 213 ff.; Gu. 326 ff.; Str. 126 f.; Pro. 35 f.

1-12. Dinah is seduced by Shechem, and afterwards sought in marriage.—2. the Hirvite] see on 1017; 1. the

1. פַּרְנָה תַּנוּכּ 27:46 (P or R).—2. פַּרְנָה [בַּר], 21:4. Confusion of 1 and 2 is
Horite (v.i.).—3. spoke to (lit. over) the heart] 5021 (E). The phrase means 'to comfort,' not 'to woo'; cf. Ho. 218, Is. 409, Ru. 213 etc. —4. Comp. 2121, 24 386, Ju. 142. —5. kept silence] took no steps to redress the injury (2 Sa. 1911). 7. wrought scandalous folly in Israel] a standing phrase for crimes of the kind here indicated (Dt. 2221, Ju. 206.10; cf. Ju. 1923f, 2 Sa. 1321ff.); though 'in Israel' is an anachronism. לָּשׁוּנֵי is never mere foolishness, but always disgraceful conduct or language.—such things are not done] 209 2926.—8-10. Hāmōr, as prince, takes a broad view: not content with arranging this particular marriage, he proposes an amalgamation of the two races; thinking apparently that the advantage to Jacob would be sufficient compensation for the offence.—9. Almost verbally identical with Dt. 73 (cf. Jos. 2319).—II, 12. Shechem's offer relates only to his own private affair.—Ask me ever so much] lit. 'Multiply upon me.' The Hebrew law of compensation for seduction is given in Ex. 2215f.—לְמִנָּה, the price paid to the parents (Ex. 2215f, 1 Sa. 1825), and לְמִנָּה (so only here), the gift to the bride, are virtually distinguished in 2458.

13-17. The answer.—13a. with duplicity] In this recension (Ex) the requirement of circumcision is merely a pretext to render the Shechemites incapable of self-defence.—14. Here, on the contrary (J), the family acts in good faith, and

common; but כָּל deserves consideration as the harder reading; and also because the only other place where כָּל has יָּטָר for MT יָּטָר is Jos. 9', a passage somewhat similar to this (see Mey. INS, 331). It is a slight confirmation of כָּל that animal names are frequent among the Horite clans (3620ff.), and Hāmōr means 'he-ass.'—בְּשָׁנָה a favourite word of P; cf. 1779 238 2516.—נַעַשׂ (v.7 3525 etc.)] The Mass. always point the נ in this phrase as not. acc.—3. יָּטָר see 2414.—5. יָּטָר in the sexual sense vv.13, 27, Ezk. 188, 11, 15 2211†; otherwise very frequent in P.—7. בְּשָׁנָה occupies an unusual position; and there are other small syntactic anomalies in 5, 7.—8. בְּשָׁנָה Dt. 77 1015 2111, Ps. 9114†; cf. פְּרִיר, v. 8.—On the casus pendens, G-K. § 143 6.—9. יָּניָה] 'enter into the relation of יָּטָר and יָּטָר' (1 Sa. 1829, 1 Ki. 3): and more generally 'form marriage alliance' (Dt. 77, Jos. 2318, Ezr. 911).—10. יָּטָר as 4224 (E); but cf. 2316 (P).—יָּניָה Niph. in this sense peculiar to P (4727, Nu. 3230, Jos. 228, 19).—12. יָּניָה יָּניָה] כָּל תִּאֶבֶן א֤בֶן.

13b occupies a syntactically impossible position, and must be deleted as a redactional gloss. יָּניָה joins on to 15.—14. כָּל אֵיתָנ אוּבָוıs
the compact is violated by Simeon and Levi alone.—*that were a reproach to us*] Jos. 5.9. Circumcision is regarded as a tribal custom, which it would be a disgrace to infringe. That the custom actually existed from the earliest time among the Hebrews is extremely probable (p. 296 f.); but the fact that both J (Ex. 4.25) and E (Jos. 5.8ff.) record its introduction in the age of the Exodus is an additional proof that this chapter follows an independent tradition.—15. Continuing 13a.—*Only on this condition will we consent* referring primarily to the connubium.—16. become one people] A result really desired by the Shechemites, but not seriously contemplated by the sons of Jacob.

18-24. The condition accepted.—19. the most honoured member of his family] emphasising the greatness of his sacrifice, and the strength of his attachment to Dinah.—21-23. Hāmōr naturally says nothing of the personal matter, but dwells on the advantages the clan will derive from union with the Israelites. The men are already on friendly terms with them; the land is spacious enough; and by adopting circumcision they will obtain a great accession to their wealth.

25-31. The vengeance of the Hebrews.—25. on the third day] when the inflammation is said, in the case of adults, to be at its height (De. Di.).—S. and L., the brothers of Dinah] cf. 495. In ch. 29 f., Leah had four other sons who were as much full brothers of Dinah as these two. Was there another tradition, according to which Simeon and Levi were the only sons of Leah (so Mey. INS, 2861, 426 f.)?—26. בֵּרוֹת דּוּנָה] according to the usage of war: without quarter

*Συμεών καὶ Λευὶ οἱ ἀδελφοί Δελωσ υἱὸι δὲ Δελως κτλ.—an intelligent anticipation of critical results (cf. 25)?—Or is this the original text?—ὁ Ἰαχυίς οὐδὲ Ῥαίας ἃν γενέσθαι γίνεται; for ‘uncircumcised’ does not recur.—15. מֹעֵד Either (BDB) impf. Niph., or (G-K. § 72 b) intrans. impf. Qal of יָהֹע, ‘consent’ (29. 22, 2 Ki. 12.9ff.)—הַמּוֹעֵד as 17.10.

19. בֵּרוֹת G-K. § 64 δ.—21. בֵּרוֹת דּוּנָה (G πλατεία) ‘broad on both sides’; Ju. 18.10, Is. 22.18 [33.21, 1 Ch. 4.10, Neh. 7.4, Ps. 104.23]f.—24. Between יָהֹע and רָבָא] G ins. τὴν σάρκα τῆς ἄκροβουτας αὐτῶν.—הַמּוֹעֵד] cf. 23.10.18. The repetition of the phrase is avoided by G.

27-29 are regarded by Di. as a late interpolation; and this is perhaps necessary if the second account is to be identified with P. The
(cf. 2 Sa. 11 28).—and went out] Evidently this is the close of the exploit.—27. came upon the slain] Cf. [V] Quibus egressis, irruerunt super occisos cæteri filii Jacob. That is perhaps the sense intended by the redactor. But, to say nothing of the improbability of two men being able to kill all the males of the city, the second narrative (E\textsuperscript{2}) must have given an independent account of the attack on Shechem. 28 must be transferred to this v.; and another word must be substituted for יִבַּל (v.i.).—28, 29. Cf. the similar phraseology of Nu. 31\textsuperscript{8, 11} (P).—30, 31 (continuing 28). Jacob rebukes Simeon and Levi, not for their treachery and cruelty, but for their recklessness in exposing the whole tribe to the vengeance of the Canaanites.—I am few in number] it is the tribal, not the individual, consciousness which finds expression here.

The legend at the basis of ch. 34 reflects, we can scarcely doubt, an incident of the Hebrew settlement in Canaan. Shechem is the eponymus of the ancient city of that name, and Hāmōr of the tribe dwelling there; Hāmōr is the father of Shechem, because the tribe is older than its possession of the city. Jacob, in like manner, stands for the Israelites, who are nomads ranging the country round Shechem, and on friendly terms with its inhabitants. Whether Dīnāh was a weak Hebrew clan threatened with absorption by the Hamorites is not so certain; it is more natural to suppose that a literal outrage of the kind described was the cause of the racial quarrel which ensued.\*—There are two historic events which seem to stand in some connexion with the narrative—the Hebrew conquest of Shechem, and the dissolution of Simeon and Levi as tribal entities. (1) The conquest of Shechem is presupposed in Jos. 24; but it is remarkable that it is never mentioned either among the cities captured by the Israelites, or among those which remained independent. The account of its destruction by Abimelech in Ju. 9 appears to imply possibility that the vv. have been glossed by some one who had Nu. 31 in mind is not to be denied.—27. יִבַּל] lit. 'pierced,' means either 'slain' (Nu. 19\textsuperscript{18, 31\textsuperscript{8, 19} etc.), or (rarely) 'fatally wounded' (La. 2\textsuperscript{12} etc.); neither sense being suitable here. Gu. suggests יִבַּל, 'sick' [יִבַּל, v. 28.—29. יִבַּל יָפְר] Remove aethnach to זָשִׁי (יָשִׁי) and omit 1 before וּ (cf. וּנְשֵׁי). —נְשֵׁי] coll.; but ס [תָּנֵס סוּכֶת] נּ יָקָשְׁנֶה קאָל דֹּאָה יָשִׁי נּ תָּאָס וּכָל] lit. 'be turbid, 'in Heb. lit. 'make turbid' = 'undo,' — a strong word; cf. Jos. 6\textsuperscript{18} 7\textsuperscript{25}, 1 Ki. 18\textsuperscript{17f.}—רַבָּם וְרַמָּה] lit. 'men of number,' numerable, and therefore few; Dt. 4\textsuperscript{27} 33\textsuperscript{5}, Jer. 44\textsuperscript{28} etc.

\* A singularly apposite and interesting modern parallel is quoted by Bennett (p. 318 f.) from Doughty, Arabia Deserta, ii. 114.
that it had been continuously in the possession of the Bnê Ḥāmōr down to that time. On the other hand, the poetic fragment Gn. 48:22 attributes the conquest to Jacob himself, but as an honourable feat of arms unstained by the treachery which is so prominent in ch. 34. How these conflicting data are to be reconciled, we can hardly conjecture. The differences are too great to justify the opinion that 48:22 and 34 are merely legendary reflexions of the historic fact recorded in Ju. 9. Yet it is scarcely credible that Shechem was thrice conquered, twice from the same people under circumstances of general similarity. One chief objection to identifying 34 with Ju. 9 is the prominence of Simeon and Levi in J. We may either (with Steuernagel) put back the incident (which may after all have been an unsuccessful attack on Shechem) to the early days of the Hebrew migration, while Simeon and Levi were independent and still migratory tribes; or (with Mey.) assume that the story of Dinah originated near the Simeonite territory in the S, and was afterwards transferred to Shechem because of certain points of affinity with the historic overthrow of that city under Abimelech.—(2) The dispersion of Simeon and Levi is referred to in the Blessing of Jacob (49:6-7), as the consequence of deeds of violence, disapproved by the conscience of the nation. It is universally assumed by critics that the two passages are variations of the same theme; hence it is held by many (We. Sta. Gu. Steuernagel, al.) that J went on to tell how the Canaanites actually retaliated by the slaughter of Simeon and Levi, while the other brothers escaped. That is just possible; but if so, the narrative departs very widely from the prevailing tradition, according to which S. and L. not only survived, but went down into Egypt with the rest of the family. And there is room for doubt whether the curse on S. and L. in ch. 49 is the result of any particular action of these two tribes (see pp. 516ff.).—The one point, indeed, which stands out with some degree of evidence from these discussions is that there was a form of the patriarchal tradition which knew nothing of the sojourn in Egypt, and connected the story of the conquest with the name of Jacob.

CH. XXXV.—Jacob in Canaan (E, J, P).

The compiler's interest in the story of Jacob would seem to have flagged after he had brought him safely back to Canaan; and he hurries to a close with a series of fragmentary excerpts from his sources: a second visit to Bethel, with the death and burial of Deborah, 1-15; the birth of Benjamin and death of Rachel, 16-20; Reuben's incest, 21. 22a; a list of Jacob's sons, 22b-26; the death and burial of Isaac, 27-29.

Sources.—The P sections are easily recognised by their phraseology, viz. 6a* 9-13. 15. 22b-26. 27-29. The last continuous extract from P was 28:1-9; and the connecting links are 29:24. 30b. 29 30a. 9b. 22a 31:18a/b. 39b 33:18a/b. The
natural position of 3522b-26 is between 3022a and 3118 (see v. 26); and this transposition is adopted by We. (Prol. 6 327); but perhaps a still better position would be in 372 (see p. 443). A more thorough readjustment is proposed by Gu.: 2813-3522a. 11-13a, 15 2624. 28b. 29 30a. 9b. 22a. 3522b-26 3118273b 3318a 35 a. 10. 27-29. This division of the Bethel-theophany into two, one on the way to Mesopotamia and the other after the return (as in E), is very attractive, and relieves some critical difficulties, as shown in the notes on bfr. —To E belong 1-5. 6b-8.14: cf. 3517, 1. 5. 7; 35, 3. 7; 35, 14; 3510, 4 (cf. Jos. 24.2, 22); and the reference in v. 1 to 2820ff. —16-20 are also from E in the main, though perhaps with J variants (22sa, 30; cf. the retrospective reference in 481). —The only purely Yahwistic section is 21-22a (בָּשָׂר בִּיס).

—1. Jacob is reminded of his vow at Bethel (2820ff.), and commanded to build an altar there.—go up] From Shechem to Bethel there is a continuous ascent of over 1000 ft.—and dwell there] It would almost seem that Bethel is to be Jacob's permanent residence; and this (though contradicted by v.16) would be in harmony with the tenor of the Elohistic tradition, which closely associates this patriarch with the chief Ephraimite sanctuary.—2. Jacob purifies his household for a solemn act of worship.—Put away the strange gods] The same words spoken under the same tree by Joshua (24 23 [E]), point, it would appear, to the memory of a great national renunciation of idolatry at Shechem in the early history of Israel (see v. 4). A reference to the Teraphim stolen by Rachel (31 19) does not exhaust the significance of the notice.—3. The use of the old name 5 here and v. 1 (cf. v.7) is noticeable.—4. the earrings (see on 24 23)] Objects of superstition, being used as amulets, and in false worship (Ho. 216, cf. Ju. 824ff.).—the terebinth near Shechem] See on 126. The burial of idolatrous emblems under this sacred tree has some traditional meaning which we cannot now explain.—5. a terror of God] a πανικὸν δὲμα (De.); cf. Ex. 23 27, 1 Sa. 14 15, 2 Ch. 14 18 etc.

V.5 presupposes an incident like that recorded in ch. 34. The intervening vv. 1-4 are not in keeping with this view of the situation; and the
change of subject from 'Jacob' to 'the sons of Jacob' makes it highly probable that v. 6 is either redactional (Kue.), or belongs to a different stratum of E.

6a (P). See below.—7. The designation of the place (i.e. the sanctuary: 128 2811) as 'El Beth'el is not confirmed by any other OT allusion. Partial analogies may be found in such place-names as Ashteroth-Karnaim, Nebi, Baal-Hazor, Baal-Gad, etc., where the name of the deity is extended to the sacred precincts (Gu. 248); but the text is not above suspicion.—there the gods had revealed themselves to him] The pl. vb. together with the use of the art. suggests that the sentence preserves a more polytheistic version of the Bethel-legend than 2818,—one in which the 'angels of God' were spoken of as simply פְּנֵי אֱלֹהִים. —8, 14. The death and burial of Deborah.—below Beth'el] means apparently 'to the S of Bethel.'—under the oak] or 'sacred tree' (see on 128).—tree of weeping] But v.i.—14. For the grounds on which this v. is connected with 8, see the footnote ad loc.—set up a mazz'ebah] So v.20 at the grave of Rachel. These monuments came to be regarded as simple grave-stones; but were doubtless originally objects of worship, as the next clause indicates.—poured out a libation on it] The libation was in the first instance an offering to the dead, according to a custom attested among many ancient peoples, * and found in Catholic countries at the present day.—poured oil] 2818.

6a. פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים] See on 2819. The cl. is an amalgam of P and E.—7. פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים [Er Ττ διόνυσος τοῦ τῆς του] פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים. —8. כֹּהֶן] Er om. — pours] see on 128.—פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים] 'weeping.' The text is perhaps confirmed by פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים (weepers), Ju. 28, which may be the same place. But though פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים might plausibly be regarded as a corruption of פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים (2 Sa. 288, Ps. 847), it is difficult to think that פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים is so: 'sacred tree of the baka-trees' is an improbable combination (see v. Gall, CSt. 103). —9. פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים] Er + εν Λαοῦτα. — 10. פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים] Er simplifies by omitting פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים and יִשְׁבָּתָן שֶׁאֲנָשִׁים לְאַרְכִּיו. —12. פִּנֵי אֱלֹהִים] So a schol. in Field. —14. The v. cannot possibly be from P, who recognises no mazz'ebabs,

* Egyptians (Erman, LAE, 307), Persians (Her. vii. 43), Greeks (Hom. II, xxiii. 196, Od. xi. 26 ff.), Arabs (We. Heid. 2 182 f.). It is not mentioned in OT, but food-offerings to the dead are referred to in Dt. 2614 (To. 418, Sir. 3618).
The notice of Deborah is in many ways perplexing. The nurse who accompanied Rebekah (24:59) is nameless, and there is nothing to lead us to expect that she was to be an important figure in Hebrew legend. How she could have come into Jacob’s family is quite inexplicable; and the conjectures that have been advanced on this point are all puerile. Moreover, the sacred tree referred to in all probability identical with the palm-tree of Deborah ‘between Ramah and Bethel’ in Ju. 4th. There seems to have been a confusion in the local tradition between the famous prophetess and the nurse; and the chief mystery is how the name of Rebekah got introduced in this connexion at all. If we could suppose with Cheyne (417 f.) that נַו should be נַמָּה and that this is an alternative form of נַמָּה, so that the real name of the tree was ‘Tree of Rebekah,’ we might be a step nearer a solution. The identity of the two trees would then have to be abandoned. It is, however, an unsafe argument to say that a ‘nurse’ could not have been conspicuous in legend: cf. the grave of the nurse of Dionysus at Scythopolis, in Pliny, HN, v. 74 (De. Gu.).

9, 10. Jacob’s name changed (P).—Comp. 3228f. (J).—when he came from Paddan ’Āram] On Gu.’s rearrangement (p. 423 above), there is nothing to suggest Bethel as the scene of the revelation. It is a faint echo of 3225ff. from which every element of local tradition, down to the name of the sanctuary, has been eliminated.

6a, II–13, 15. The blessing transmitted to Jacob: P’s parallel to 2810ff.—II, 12. ’Ēl Shaddai] see on 171.—For other expressions in the vv., cf. 176. 8. 16 283. 4 4626 484.—I3a. God went up from him] as 1722.—13b is an awkward continuation, and has probably arisen through dittography from v. 15.—I5. The naming of the place, as 2819.

That the section refers to Jacob’s outward journey, and that it describe a different theophany on his return, is probable from the following considerations: (1) The analogy of the older tradition (J.E. (2) אַלֹה

and no ritual worship of any kind before the Sinaitic legislation. As a part of the Bethel-narrative, it is unintelligible in E, who has already described the origin of the mazzēbah there (2818), and still more in J, who does not sanction mazzēbas at all. The impression that the scene is Bethel depends solely on the words נבַיָה—מְכַנֶּה, which can easily be excised, as a gloss from 15. The suggestion that the v. continues is due to Cornill (ZATW, xi. 15 ff.), and seems the most satisfactory solution of the problem.—נַנָי] 2 Ki. 1618. 18 is the only other instance of the word before Jeremiah, though the vb. appears in 2 Sa. 2316, Ho. 94. In Jer., Ezek. (2018), and II Isa. it is an accompaniment of heathenish worship; its legalisation for the worship of the temple appears in Ezek. 4517 and P. Its mention here is a proof of the great antiquity of the notice (Corn. L.C.).
16-20. Rachel dies in child-birth (E).—16. The event took place on the journey from Bethel to Ephrāth, an unknown locality in the later territory of Benjamin (see after v. 29).—17. This also is a son for thee] So the nurse cheers the dying woman by recalling her prayer at the birth of Joseph (30:24).—18. With her last breath Rachel names her son Ben-'ônî; but the father, to avert the omen, calls him Bin-yāmin. The pathos of the narrative flows in sympathy with the feelings of the mother: a notice of Jacob’s life-long grief for the loss of Rachel is reserved for 48:7.—19. on the way to Ephrāth] The next clause, that is Bethlehem, is a gloss (see Sta. ZATW, iii. 1 ff.).—20. See on v. 14.

The site of Rachel’s grave is determined by 1 Sa. 10:3 (on the border of Benjamin, between Ramah and Gibeah) and Jer. 31:14 (cf. 40:1). Christian tradition places it about a mile N of Bethlehem, in accordance with the gloss at the end of 18. This, however, rests on a confusion of Ephrāth and the better known clan-name כִּנְיָם, which is always connected with Bethlehem. It is unnecessary to assume a divergence of ancient tradition regarding the site. The beautiful verse of Jeremiah 31:14 shows how vivid and persistent was the hold of these legends on the popular mind.—The birth of Benjamin in Canaan is interpreted by many critics to mean that this tribe, unlike the rest, was formed after

16. בָּנֶסּוּי יָמִי] Gr. Ἀπάρας δὲ Ἰ., +ἐπηζέω τὴν σκηνὴν αὐτοῦ ἑπέκεινα τοῦ πόρφου Γαδερ (fr. 21), showing the influence of the theory that דִּיוּם was at Jerusalem, which Jacob would naturally pass on the way to Bethlehem.—גַּחֲנֵי חֲבָר [48:7], 2 Ki. 19:5 (without art.). Apparently a measure of distance (§ a parasang); but nothing is certain. Acc. to Hoffmann (GGA, 1890, 23 ff.), ‘as far as one can see.’—17. וְשִׁיטָב (Hi.) || שִׁמָּה (Pi.) in 16,—possibly variants from E and J.—Another trace of J is הָלָה, pointing back to 30:24.—18. וּלְאָד לְבֵי] ‘son of my sorrow,’ from לְבֵי, ‘trouble.’ Not improbably it is an obsolete proper name, having some connexion with לָא, a city and valley in Benjamin (Ben. 325; Che. 420).—לֵאָד] Usually understood as ‘son of good fortune,’ the right hand being in antiquity the lucky or fortunate side. The original meaning is probably ‘son of the south’ (cf. 1 Sa. 23:19, 24, Ps. 89:18 etc.), Benjamin being the most southerly of the Rachel tribes.
the conquest of the country (We. Sta. Guthe, al.): Steuern. goes further, and infers that the rise of Benjamin brought about the dissolution of the Rachel tribe. But all such speculations are precarious. The name Benjamin, however, does furnish evidence that this particular tribe was formed in Palestine (v. i. on 18).


Such towers would be numerous in any pastoral country; and the place here referred to is unknown. Mic. 48 proves nothing; and the tradition which locates it near Bethlehem rests on this passage. The order of J's narrative (see p. 414) would lead us to seek it E of the Jordan, where the tribe of Reuben was settled.—22a. and when Israel heard.

Probably a temporal clause, of which the apodosis has been intentionally omitted.

The story, no doubt, went on to tell of a curse pronounced on Reuben, which explained his loss of the birthright (so Gu.; otherwise Di.). The crime is referred to in 49a. The original motive is perhaps suggested by the striking parallel in II. ix. 449 ff. (Gu.):

δς μοι παλλακίδος περιχώσατο καλλικόμουο
τὴν αὐτὸς φιλέσκεται, ἀτιμᾶσθαι δ' ἰκοιτιν,
μητέρ' είμιήγ ή δ' αὐτῷ ἐμὲ λισσαέκετο γοῦνων,
παλλακίδι προμιγγήναι, ον' ἐξοθείει γέρωντά.

Note that in 3014ff. also, Reuben plays a part in the restoration of his mother's conjugal rights.—An ethnographic reading of the legend finds its historic basis in some humiliation inflicted by Reuben on the Bilhah-tribe, or one of its branches (Dan or Naphtali). See on 49a.

22b–26. A list of Jacob's sons (P).—In two points the list deviates from the tradition of JE (chs. 29. 30): The children are arranged according to their mothers; and the birth of Benjamin is placed in Mesopotamia. Otherwise the order of JE is preserved: Leah precedes Rachel; but Rachel's maid precedes Leah's.—On the position of the section in the original Code, see pp. 423, 443.

22a. The double accentuation means that 22a was treated by the Mass. sometimes as a whole v., sometimes as a half; the former for private, the latter for liturgical reading (Str. 129; Wickes, Prose Accents, 130). Note the 'gap in the middle of the verse,' which G fills up with καὶ πονηρὸν ἐφάνη ἐναντίον αὐτῶν.—בָּנָש] The name, instead of Jacob, is from this point onwards a fairly reliable criterion of the document J in Gen.—26. יִבְּ[ מ and Heb. MSS יַי.
27–29. The death of Isaac (P).—In JE Isaac was at the point of death when Jacob fled from Esau; whereas, according to the chronology of P, he survived for 80 years. An equally remarkable divergence from the earlier tradition is seen in Esau’s living on with his father in Hebron (see on 324), and the unbroken friendship between him and Jacob.—27. Mamrê, Kiryath-‘Arba’, Hebrôn. See 1318 232.—29. Cf. 238, 9.—Isaac is buried by Esau and Jacob his sons] as Abraham by Isaac and Ishmael (259). P always lays stress on the harmony of the patriarchal family life.

CH. XXXVI. Edomite Genealogies, etc. (partly P).

The chapter consists of seven (or eight) sections: I. Esau’s wives and children, 1–5; II. His migration to Mount Seir, 6–8; III. A list of Esau’s descendants, 9–14; IV. An enumeration of clans or clan-chiefs of Esau, 15–19; V. Two Horite lists: a genealogy, 20–28, and a list of clans, 29, 30; VI. The kings of Edom, 31–39; VII. A second list of clans of Esau, 40–43.—The lists are repeated with variations in I Ch. 135–54.

The chapter evidently embodies authentic information regarding the history and ethnology of Edom. Whether the statistics were compiled by Israelite writers from oral tradition, or are the scanty remains of a native Edomite literature, it is naturally impossible to determine; the early development of political institutions in Edom makes the latter hypothesis at least credible (see Meyer, INS, 329, 383 f.).

Analysis.—A section headed מַרְיָם יָם would, if homogeneous, be unhesitatingly ascribed to P; but the repetition of the formula (v.9) throws doubt on its unity, and betrays the hand of a redactor. The phraseology of P is most apparent in II. and VII., but can be detected occasionally elsewhere (21. 5b, 10a, 12b, 13b, 30b; i.e. in I., III., and V.). The crucial difficulty is the contradiction as to Esau’s wives between I. and

27. מַרְיָם יָם] Rd. perhaps מַרְיָם יָם (Kit.).—מַרְיָם] גֵּרָה + וּנְעֵן קְנָא—
28. קְרָאוּ] גֵּר + וּנְעֵן (as 257).—29 end] ס לְהָרָאשׁ |עִשֵּׂה |ס הָרָאשׁ | וּנְעֵן קְנָא—

In P’s chronology, Jacob at his father’s death had reached the age of 120 years (cf. 3528 with 2528); he was 40 years old when he set out for Paddan Aram. The interval of 80 years has to be divided between his sojourn with Laban and his subsequent residence with Isaac; but in what proportions we have no data to determine.
26^24 28^9 (see on vv.1-5). On this point I., III., and IV. hang together; and if these sections are excluded, there remains nothing that can be plausibly assigned to P except II. and VII. (so We, Kue. Ho. Gu. al.). The argument for reducing P's share in the chapter to this minimum rests, however, on the assumption that the Code is the compilation of a single writer, who cannot be supposed to lapse into self-contradiction. The facts seem to point to a redactional process and a divergence of tradition within the Priestly school; and I am inclined to think that in I. (?), III., and IV. we have excerpts from the book of Tôledôth incorporated in P, whose main narrative will have included 26^24 28^9, and in which 35^29 36^8-37^1 may have read continuously. VII. must then be rejected as a late compilation in which the style of the Tôledôth is successfully imitated (so Meyer).—As regards V. and VI. little can be said. The former might well have been part of the Tôledôth; the latter is unique in Gen.; and there are no positive reasons for assigning it to J (so most) or any other source.

1-5. Esau's wives and sons.—The scheme here projected supplies the common framework of the two Edomite genealogies, 9-14 and 15-19, except that in the following sections the second and third wives exchange places. These marriages and births are said to have taken place in the land of Canaan, before the migration to Se'ir; but the fact that 'Oholibamah is a Ḥorite (see below), indicates an absorption of Ḥorite clans in Edom which would naturally have followed the settlement in Se'ir.—Here we come on a difference of tradition regarding the names and parentage of Esau's wives.

According to 26^24 28^9 (P), the three wives are (a) Yêhdîth bath-Be'eri, the Ḥittite; (b) Bâš'math bath-'Elôn, the Ḥittite; (c) Mahàlath bath-Yîšmâ'âl, sister of Nêbayôth. Here they are (a) 'Adâ bath-'Elôn, the Ḥittite; (b) 'Ohôlibâmâh bath-'Ânâh, the Ḥorite; (c) Bâš'màth bath-Yîšmâ'âl, sister of Nêbâyôth. The confusion is too great to be accounted for naturally by textual corruption, though that may have played a part. We can only conjecture vaguely that vv.8-14

1. שָׂרִים אֵדֹם probably a gloss (cf. v.8.19); but the persistency with which the equivalent is asserted is itself instructive. Esau and Edom are really distinct names (see p. 359 f.), and P has no legendary identification of them, such as 25^80. Hence the connexion is established in two ways: Esau = Edom (1.8.19); and Esau the father of Edom (9.48).—2. נָתַן הָעָל] 'had taken,' as already recorded (26^24 28^9).—נְיָעָנ הָעָל] μας τῶν ῥωμάων; deleted by Ho. and Gu. as a gloss. But in clan names gender is not always carefully distinguished; and the writer probably took הָעָל as fem. In v.25 'Oholibamah is herself one of the sons of 'Anah.——ןֵבָא] R'd. הנֵב, v.s.—3. וּעָל] Keth. as v.14, 1 Ch. 7^10; Qedעָלק, as v.18, 1 Ch.
represent a different tradition from 26:21 28:9; and that in 2:8a a clumsy and half-hearted attempt has been made to establish some points of contact between them. If we accept the הָיוֹת of μμ, etc., in 26:21, the two traditions agree in the main ethnological point, that the Edomite people was composed of Hittite (? Canaanite), Hivvite (? Horite), and Ishmaelite elements.

On the Names.—(a) הָיוֹת is the name of one of Lamech's wives: see on 4:19.—(b) חֲנָבָה (חֲנָבָה, חֲנָבָה, etc.). Somewhat similar compounds with חֲנָבָה are found in Phoenician (חֲנָבָה, חֲנָבָה, etc.) and Sab. (חֲנָבָה, חֲנָבָה) as well as in Heb. (חֲנָבָה, Ex. 31:6; חֲנָבָה, Ezek. 23:48). (see Gray, HPN, 246). The first component is presumably Ar. and Sab. 'ahl, 'family'; the second ought by analogy to be a divine name, though none such is known. It is philologically probable that names of this type were originally clan-names; and 'מ is taken from the old list of Horite clans (v.26, cf. 41).—(c) חַבַּע (for which μμ always reads חַבַּע, 28:9), if from סַכָּע, 'smell sweetly,' is likely to have been a favourite woman's name, but recurs only 1 Ki. 4:15 of a daughter of Solomon. On הָיוֹת and חַבַּע, see on v.20: the obvious connexion with that v. makes it practically certain that סַכָּע in v.2 is a mistake for סַכָּע.—On the sons, see below.—It is pointed out by Ho. (187) that both in 9:14 and 15:19 the 'Oholibaham branch holds a somewhat exceptional position. This may mean that it represents hybrid clans, whereas the other two are of pure Edomite stock: that it is a later insertion in the lists is less likely.

6-8. Esau's migration to Se'ir.—6. Cf. 12:5 (34:23).—and his daughters] None are mentioned in 2-5.—to the land of Se'ir] So we must read with ס.—7. The motive for the separation is the same as that which led to the parting of Abraham and Lot (13:8a), implying that Esau had lived at Hebron after Jacob's return; contrast J, 32:4 33:14-16.—8. the mountain of Se'ir] the mountainous country E of the Arabah, the southern part of which is now called el-Shera' and the northern Gebel (Buhl, Edom. 28 ff.). The land Se'ir includes the whole Edomite territory as far W as Kadesh (Nu. 20:16). See on 14:6 27:30f., and below on v.20.

9-14. The genealogy of Esau.—9, 10. For the double heading רְאוּת נְחָל followed by רְאוּת נְחָל, cf. 25:12f.—Esau the father of Edom] see footnote on v.1. It is strange that except in these glosses Edom is never the eponymus of the

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1 26 8:29 23:10f., 2 Ch. 11:18f.—6. יַפְּרֹת יָמִי gives no sense, and to insert יָמִי (COE) is inadmissible without a change of text. μμ μμ μμ is possible; but it is simplest to follow ל יָמִי יַפְּרֹת.—233] 'on account of,' as 6:13 27:4 etc.
nation, although it appears to have been the name of a god (םַעֲרֹע, 2 Sa. 610).—II ff. The total number of the tribes, excluding the bastard 'Amālēḵ, is 12, as in the cases of Israel and Ishmael (2512-16). The sons of 'Oholibamah are, however, put on a level with the grandsons of the other two wives (so v. 18). The list may be tabulated thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a)</th>
<th>(b)</th>
<th>(c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adah.</td>
<td>Basemath.</td>
<td>'Oholibamah.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Žēphō. 4. Ga'tām.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Kēnāz.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

['Amālēḵ].

The Names.—(a) ʿםם[ם] Known otherwise only as the name of the oldest and wisest of Job's friends (Jb. 21 etc.), probably borrowed from this list.—(1) ʿםם (Qωμάρ) Frequently mentioned as a district of Edom (Jer. 497-20, Ezek. 2513, Am. 112, Ob. 9, Hab. 3), famous for its wisdom, the home of Eliphaz (Jb. 211) and of the third king of Edom (v. 61). A village bearing the Greek name, 15 Roman m. from Petra, is mentioned in OS, 260; but the site is now lost.—(2) ʿםם (Qωμάρ, 'Qωμάρ), (3) ʿםם (Σωφαρ, 1 Ch. 47), (4) ʿםם (Γωμός, etc.) are quite unknown, unless Σωφαρ be the original of Job's third friend.—(5) ʿםם the eponym of the Kenizzites, the group to which Kaleb (the 'dog' tribe, settled in Ḥebron) and Othniel belonged (Nu. 312, Jos. 146-141517, Ju. 133 9). The incorporation of these families in Judah is a typical example of the unstable political relations of the southern tribes between Israel and Edom, a fact abundantly illustrated from the lists before us.—The once powerful people of ṣבּוּר (see on 147) is here described as descended from ṣבּוּר, a Horite clan absorbed in Edom (vv. 22-40), of which nothing else is known. The reference may be to an offshoot of the old Amalekites who had found protection from the Edomites.—(6) ʿםם (Qαγωνῆ) 'Friend of God' (?) is one of the names of Moses' father-in-law (a Midianite) (Ex. 28, Nu. 1020), also that of a Gadite (Nu. 114 24) and of a Benjamite (1 Ch. 9).—(6) ʿםם (Nαξόθ, Nαξομ) cf. 2 Ch. 3112.—(7) ʿםם (Zαρέ) (cf. v. 28). Also a clan of Judah (386); cf. Nu. 2614 (Simeonite), 1 Ch. 663. (Levite).—(8) ʿםם (Σωμέ) cf. 1 Sa. 169 (David's brother), 2 Sa. 2311 (one of his heroes); also ʿם in Yerahmeel (1 Ch. 28,32) and Kaleb (244).—(9) ʿםם (Mοξ̄ε, 'Ομοξ̄ε, etc.,) only here. It is pointed out that the four names form a doggerel sentence: 'descent and rising; there and here' (KS. An. 178); but three of them are sufficiently authenticated; and the fact does not prove them to be inventions of an idle fancy.—(10) ʿםם (Iε[ξ][η], 'Ιεόν, etc.) v.v. on v. 5. As an Israelite name, 1 Ch. 710-328 (Benjamite), 23106 (Levite), 2 Ch. 1118 (son of Rehoboam). The
name is thought by some to be identical with that of an Arabian lion-
god *Ya'qūb* (though *G* must have pronounced *k* not *q*), meaning
‘helper,’ whose antiquity is vouched for by inscrs. of Thamud (Rob. Sm.
*KM*², 254; We. *Heid.*² 19, 146; Nö. *ZDMG*, xl. 168; Fischer, *ib.*
lviii. 869; Mey. *INS*, 351 f.; on the other side, Nö. *ZDMG*, xlv. 595; Di.
384; Buhl, *Edom*. 48 f.). (11) *Ṭuwar* (*Ṭeγalo*, etc.) possibly an animal name
fr. *y* = ‘ibex’; but see Gray, *HPN*, 90; cf. *y*, *Ju. 4* 17f. 524, and *τπν*,
Ezr. 2 56.—(12) *Naph* (*Kopete*) a son of Hebron, and therefore a Kalebite clan
in i Ch. 2 43. Meyer (352) traces to this Edomite-Kalebite family the
origin of the Ḫorājite singers and subordinate officials of the second
Temple, who were afterwards admitted to the ranks of the Levites, and
received an artificial genealogy (Ex. 6 21, 24, Nu. 26 58, 1 Ch. 6 7, 22 etc.).

15-19. The clan-chiefs of Edom.—15. On the word
*ηθησ*, v.t.—Since the list is all but identical with vv. 9-14, we
have here a clear proof of the artificial character of the family
trees used in OT to set forth ethnological relations. It is
not improbable that this is the original census of Edomite
‘thousands’ from which the genealogy of 9-14 was
constructed.—16. ‘Amālek is here placed on a level with the
other branches (ct. v. 12).

20-30. Ḥorite genealogies.—20. the inhabitants of the
land] (Ex. 23 31, Nu. 32 17, Ju. 1 33); cf. 14 6, Dt. 2 12. These
to the Horite, i.e., a section of the Ḥorite
population settled in Mt. Seʾir, Seʾir being personified as
the fictitious ancestor of the natives of the country.

15. *πηθησ* *G* ἀγεμών, *F* dux, whence EV ‘duke.’ The word means
properly ‘chiliarch,’ the chief of an *η* (= ‘thousand’ or ‘clan’): so
Ex. 13 15, Zec. 12 5, 6 97. Elsewhere it signifies ‘friend’; and since the
sense ‘clan’ would be suitable in all the passages cited, it has been
proposed to read in each case, as well as in this ch., *η* as the
original text (Rob. Sm. *JPh*. ix. 90; Mey. *INS*, 330). Practically it
makes no difference; for in any case the ‘chiefs’ are but personifications
of their clans.—16. *Πηθησ* *G* om., probably a gloss from v. 18.—
—20. *Ιππι*] *G* sing.—24b. *ηθησ*] The word is utterly obscure. *GTh.* ἱππι
‘hameleu;’ Aq. tovs *ημιν* [ημιμα] (see Field); *ΜΙΝΙΑ (Dt. 2 10: so *C* τηνια);
*G* ‘wild-asses’ and ‘mules’; *L* [ο*κο  cityName ( cityName) ?] *F* *aquae callidae.*
If *F* be right (and it is certainly the most plausible conjecture for sense),
24b is a fragment of an old well-legend, claiming the proprietorship of
these hot springs for the tribe of ‘Anah (cf. Ju. 14 6). See, further,
Haupt, in Ball, *SBOT*, 118.—30b is in the style of P.—*ηθησ* *G* ἀγεμών.
The name נ is now generally regarded as a geographical designation, identical with the Ḥaru of the Eg. monuments (Müller, AE, 137, 149 ff., 240; Jen. ZA, x. 332 f., 346 f.; Schw. ZATW, xviii. 126; Mey. INS, 330 f.). The older theory that the name is derived from מ and means 'cave-dwellers,' is not necessarily discredited by this identification. Even if the Horites were a stratum of population that once covered the region from the Egyptian frontier to the neighbourhood of Damascus, there still seems no reason why they should not have been largely an old troglodyte race, from whom the country derived its name.

The Classification.—According to 20f. 20f. there were seven main branches of the Horites in Se'ir, represented by Lōṭān, Ṣōbāl, Zib'ōn, 'Anāh, Dišōn, 'Ezer, and Rišān (see below). Of these, however, 'Anah and Dišōn reappear as subdivisions of Zib'on and 'Anah respectively. The duplication has been explained by supposing that parts of these tribes had amalgamated with kindred branches, and thus came to figure both as sons and grandsons of the original ancestor (Di. Gu. al.). It is more likely that 'Anah and Dišōn were at first subordinate septs of Zib'on (so Mey. 341); that they came into the list of 'allāphüm (20f.) as heads of clan groups; and, finally, obtained a primary position amongst the 'sons' of Se'ir. The relationship as thus reconstructed may be exhibited as follows:

(a) Lōṭān (Timna'). (b) Ṣōbāl. (c) Zib'on. (d) 'Ezer. (e) Rišān.

Horī, Hēmām.

'Alwān, 'Ayyāh, 'Ānāh, Bilhān, 'Ū, Mānāḥat.

Zā'āvān (Zū'ān), 'Ārān. "Ébal, Dišōn

Šēphō, (Oholībāmāh), 'Ūnām.

Hēmdān, 'Eṣbān, Yithrān, Kērān.

The Names.—(a) נ is plausibly connected with נ (also a cave-dweller, 19) who may have been originally an ancestral deity worshipped in these regions.—Philologically it is interesting to observe the frequency of the endings -ān, -ōn in this list, pointing to a primitive nunation, as constrained with sporadic cases of mimation in the Edomite names.—נ (v. 20) The occurrence of the national name (v. 20) as a subdivision of itself is surprising. Mey. (339) suspects confusion with another genealogy in which Lōṭān figured as ancestor of the whole Horite race.—נ (1 Ch. 10, 3 Ch. Ailmαν)] cf. נ (1 Ki. 3:11, 1 Ch. 2, 28, Ps. 89:).

-.n, strangely introduced as the 'sister' of Lōṭān, is the same as the concubine of Eliphaez (v. 19); probably interpolated in both places. (b) הַנ (n) also a Kalebite tribe settled in Kiryath-Ye'arim, incorporated in Judah (1 Ch. 2:40, 40). The name was connected by Rob. Sm. with Ar. šīlī, 'young lion.' Ar. ש ought to be ש in Heb.; but the objection is perhaps not final in a borrowed name (but see Nö. ZDMG, xl. 168; Gray, HPV, 109).—n (1 Ch. 1, 25, 3 Ch. 'n. etc.)] cf. ש, v. 40; otherwise unknown.—נ It cannot be accidental that in 28
1 Ch. 258 the 'half of Manahath' is again represented as descended from Sobal. These Manahathites are further connected with הָנָה (v. 334.), a notice which We. (Bleek, 197) has ingeniously combined with Ju. 132, where הָנָה, the father of Samson, is a native of Zor'ah. It seems to follow, not only that הָנָה is originally the eponymus of הָנָה, but that this Horite clan lived in early times in Zor'ah and was included in the mixed tribe of Dan (Mey. 340).—הָנָה (תָּנָּה) Mey. identifies with the well-known mountain E of Shechem, originally a Horite settlement (?).—ָּהא (1 Ch. 257, 2Sa. 251, 2Sa. 281, etc.) unknown.—תָּנָּה (תָּנָּה, תָּנָּה) A Yerahmeelite name, 1 Ch. 258. The name of Judah's son תָּנָּה (Gn. 384) may also be compared.—(א) תָּנָּה (תָּנָּה) Possibly a hyena-tribe (דַּבּ, לֶאֱ, NH, תָּנָּה) (Smith, KM2, 254; Gray, 95).—רָנָּה 'falcon' (Lv. 10, Dt. 121, Jb. 29); cf. the personal name, 2 Sa. 321 284. —רָנָּה unknown.—ירָנָּה, עַרְּנָּה (דַּאִנָּה, דַּאִנָּה) = 'mountain-goat' (Dt. 14).—רָנָּה (Ch. 286) and רָנָּה are not known.—רָנָּה Derived from a widely diffused personal name (Heb. Bab. Sab. Nabat.), best known in Ot as that of Moses's father-in-law (Ex. 31 etc.) also a son of Gideon (Ju. 820), and the Ishmaelite father of Amasa (2 Sa. 1725 etc.).—רָנָּה (חָרָנָּה) only here.—(ד) רָנָּה unknown.—רָנָּה can scarcely be dissociated from Rachel's handmaid תָּנָּה, whose Horite origin would be something more intelligible if Horite clans were amalgamated in one of her subdivisions (Dan; see on Manahath above).—וֹרָנָּה (וֹרָנָּה, סֵפִּד, סֵפִּד =וֹרָנָּה) unknown.—וֹרָנָּה (better וֹרָנָּה, as 1 ch. 142) The tribe is doubtless to be identified with the וֹרָנָּה וֹר mentioned in Nu. 334, Dt. 106 as the owners of some wells S of Kadesh.—(א) וֹר (סֵפִּיד, סֵפִּיד) Rd. וֹר or וֹר, to avoid concurrence with the וֹר of v. 281.—וֹר (וֹר) see on 1028 2221.—וֹר Perhaps connected with the Yerahmeelite וֹר, 1 Ch. 258. The reading וֹר (Heb. MSS, סֵפִּיד) is probably a mistake caused by the proximity of וֹר.

31-39. The kings of Edom.—31. before there reigned a king of the Israelites (v. i.)] This may mean either before the institution of the monarchy in Israel, or before any Israelitish sovereign ruled over Edom. The natural terminus ad quem is, of course, the overthrow of Edomite independence by David (p. 437 below).—The document bears every mark of authenticity, and may be presumed to give a complete list of Edomite kings. Unfortunately the chronology is wanting. An average reign of 20 years for the eight kings (Meyer) is perhaps a reasonable allowance in early un-

31. [םָע] Expression of gen. by b to prevent determination of the governing noun by the following determinate gen. (G-K. § 129 c), 'a king belonging to the I.' The second interpretation given above is the only natural one. סָעַיָּה, סָעַיָּה, סָעַיָּה, סָעַיָּה—the latter too readily approved by Ball.
settled times; and the foundation of the Edomite monarchy may be dated approximately from 150 to 200 years before the time of David.—The monarchy was obviously not hereditary, none of the kings being the son of his predecessor; that it was elective (Tu. Kn. Di. De. Dri. al.) is more than we have a right to assume. Frazer (AAO, 113) finds here an illustration of his theory of female succession, the crown passing to men of other families who married the hereditary princesses; but v. 89 is fatal to this view. The fact that the kings reigned in different cities supports an opinion (Winckler, GI, i. 192; Che. 429) that they were analogous to the Hebrew Judges, i.e. local chiefs who held supreme power during their life, but were unable to establish a dynasty. A beginning of the recognition of the hereditary principle may be traced in the story of Hadad 'of the seed royal' (1 Ki. 1114ff.), who is regarded as heir-presumptive to the throne (Meyer).

32. יָשֵׁרְבָּא נֵבָּא ([ר] בָּלָאק וּל. רְעֵב בָּאָר)] The name of the first king bears a striking resemblance to ישיבא נבל, the soothsayer whom the king of Moab hired to curse Israel (Nu. 22 ff.), and who afterwards died fighting for Midian (Nu. 318 [P]). The identity of the two personages is recognised by (amongst others) Kn-Di. Nö. (Unters. 87), Hommel (AHT, 153, 221), Sayce (EHH, 224, 229), Che. al., though the legend which places his home at Pethor on the Euphrates (E) is hardly consistent with this notice.—[difference] (Devarasha), his city, is not known; acc. to Jerome, OS, p. 115,1 it is Dannaia, between Ar Moab and the Arnon, or Dannaba near Heshbon (cf. Eus. OS, 114, [p. 249]); Hommel and Sayce suggest Dunip, somewhere in N Syria.—33. בֶּלְו ('Iw[a]b, 'Iwβ, etc.) identified by Ε (Jb. 4218) with the patriarch Job.—[Revised] A chief city of Edom (Is. 34663, Jer. 48244918, 22, Am. 112), now el-Busaireh, 20 m. SE of the Dead Sea.—34. [Aσφω, Λ ἀσφω=ἀσφό]—the land of the Temanite] see on v.11.—35. יָשָּׁר bears the well-known name of an Aramaean deity, whose worship must have prevailed widely in Edom (see v. 89, 1 Ki. 1114ff.).—who smote Midian, etc.] The solitary historical notice in the list. It is a tempting suggestion of Ewald (HI, ii. 336), that the battle was an incident of the great Midianite raid under which Israel suffered so severely, so that this king was contemporary with Gideon (cf. Meyer, 381 f.).—[Hebrew] ΕΓθαλυμα=אשת, on which reading Marquart (Fundamente, 11) bases an ingenious explanation of the mysterious name יפתmuşturות in Ju. 348. ( Público đenש אדני,—a confusion of the third and fourth kings in our list).—36. [Hebrew, perhaps the same name as Solomon.—[Revised] A place of this name (Maorikd) is mentioned in OS, 13710 (p. 277), in Gebalene, the northern
part of Mt. Seir.—37. הָאָשָׁא The name of the first king of Israel.—חֵנהוּ דַרְתִּי so called to distinguish it from other places of the same name (cf. 2622), is probably the ʼPwbnôth of OS, 14515 (p. 286), a military post in Gebalene. The river is, therefore, not the Euphrates (although a place Rahaba has been discovered on its W side), but some perennial stream in the N of Edom, defined by the city on its banks (cf. 2 Ki. 512).—38. מִיִּלְעִי] 'Baal is gracious.' The name of the seventh king is the only existing trace of Baal-worship in Edom.—יָרְבךָנֶר] 'jerboa' (Ar. 'akbar): see Rob. Sm. KIr2, 2351. Here it is probably a clan-name, but appears as personal in OT (2 Ki. 2214, Jer. 2622 3612).—39. דָּרָי] To be read דָּרָי (Heb. MSS, x.xג partly, and 1 Ch. 150).—For וַי־ (1 Ch. 5), ג has פֹּּֽיָּרֹֽפֶּר, i.e. יָרָֽחוּ, the mountain in Moab (Nu. 2338 etc.).—Why the wife of Hadad ii. is named we cannot tell. יְזִֽאָשָּׁא ('God does good') is a man's name in Neh. 619.—For וַי־ (1 Ch. 5) it would be better to read וַי־ (גָּרֶֽו). But וַי־ (gold-water) is more likely to be the name of a place than of a person; hence Marquart's emendation וַי־ (l.c. 10) is very plausible, as is his identification of וַי־ וַי־ with the miswritten וַי־ of Dt. 1

40–43. The chiefs of Esau. —This second list of יְרָםֵמוּח presents more features of P's style than any other section of the chapter, but is of doubtful antiquarian value. Of the eleven names, more than one half are found in the preceding lists (10–39); the new names, so far as they can be explained, are geographical. It is possible that the document preserves a statistical survey of administrative districts of Edom subsequent to the overthrow of its independence (Ew. Di. Dri. al.); but there is no evidence that this is the case.

40. וָלֵֽעֲד = וָלָֽעֵד, v. 28. —רָתִי (1הָֽבְּרִי, etc.)] probably וָלָֽעֵד, v. 28. —41. מב is supposed to be the seaport מב; see on 145. —וַיְעַמֶּר (פעֵֽר, פֶּלֶת[ъ]) = מב, Nu. 3382, the פָּאָיוֹן (Fenon) of OS, 1383 (p. 299; cf. p. 123), a village between Petra and Zoar, where were copper mines worked by convicts. The name (see Seetzen, iii. 17), and the ruins of the mines have been discovered at Fenán, 6 or 7 m. NNW of Šobek (Meyer, 353 f.).—42. יָדָּבֵֽא] Acc. to OS, 13711 (p. 277), מַבָּכאָרָאָה was a very large village in Gebalene, subject to Petra.—43. יְבָעָרָא and יָדָּבֵֽא are unknown. For the latter, ג has זָפַּוְּף[ъ] = דב, v. 11. It is probable that in the original text both names were contained, as in an anonymous chronicle edited by Lagarde (Sept-St. ii.; see Nestle, Marg. 12), making the number up to twelve.

It remains to state briefly the more important historical results yielded by study of these Edomite lists. (1) At the earliest period of which we have any knowledge, the country of Se'ir was peopled by a

40. חֵנהוּ דַרְתִּי] לִֽעַמָּנוּחַ,—כֶּלֶּבֶּסָּדָּפֶּהָג (1020. 31).—43. יִבְּשָּׁבָּכָּה] לִֽעַמָּנוּחַ (v. 40).—וַיְעַמֶּר] see on v. 1.
supposed aboriginal race called Ḥorites. Though remnants of this population survived only in Se'ir, there are a few traces of its former existence in Palestine; and it is possible that it had once been co-extensive with the wide region known to the Egyptians as Haru (p. 433).—(2) Within historic times the country was occupied by a body of nomads closely akin to the southern tribes of Judah, who amalgamated with the Ḥorites and formed the nation of Edom.—(3) The date of this invasion cannot be determined. Se'irites and Edomites appear almost contemporaneously in Egyptian documents, the former under Ramses III. as a nomadic people whom the king attacked and plundered; and the latter about 50 years earlier under Merneptah, as a band of Bedouin who were granted admission to the pastures of Wādī Ṣumilāt within the Egyptian frontier (Pop. Harris and Anastasi: see Müller, AE, 135 f.; cf. Mey. INS, 337 f.). Since both are described as Bedouin, it would seem that the Edomites were still an unsettled people at the beginning of the 12th cent. The land of Ṣeri, however, is mentioned in the TA Tablets (KA 79, 201) more than two centuries earlier.—(4) The list of kings shows that Edom attained a political organisation much sooner than Israel: hence in the legends Esau is the elder brother of Jacob. The interval between Ramses III. and David is sufficient for a line of eight kings; but the institution of the monarchy must have followed within a few decades the expedition of Ramses referred to above. It is probable (though not certain) that the last king Hadad II. was the one subdued by David, and that the Hadad who fled to Egypt and afterwards returned to trouble Solomon (1 Ki. 11(14ff.) was of his family.—(5) The genealogies furnish evidence of the consanguinity of Edomite and Judæan tribes. In several instances we have found the same name amongst the descendants of Esau or Se'ir and amongst those of Judah (see the notes pass.). This might be explained by assuming that a clan had been split up, one part adhering to Edom, and another attaching itself to Judah; but a consideration of the actual circumstances suggests a more comprehensive theory. The consolidation of the tribe of Judah was a process of political segregation: the desert tribes that had pushed their way northwards towards the Judæan highlands, were welded together by the strong hand of the Davidic monarchy, and were reckoned as constituents of the dominant southern tribe. Thus it would happen that a Ḥorite or Edomite clan which had belonged to the empire of Edom was drawn into Judah, and had to find a place in the artificial genealogies which expressed the political unity resulting from the incorporation of diverse ethnological groups in the tribal system. If Meyer be right in holding that the genealogies of the Chronicler reflect the conditions of the late post-Exilic age, when a wholesale conversion of Kalebite and Yerahmeelite families to Judaism had taken place (INS, 300 f.; Enist. d. Jud. 114 ff., 130 ff.), a comparison with Gn. 36 yields a striking testimony to the persistency of the minor clan-groups of the early Ḥorites through all vicissitudes of political and religious condition.
JOSEPH AND HIS BRETHREN.

Chs. XXXVII–L.

The last division of the Book of Genesis is occupied almost entirely with the history of Joseph,—at once the most artistic and the most fascinating of OT biographies. Its connexion is twice interrupted: (a) by the story of Judah and Tamar (ch. 38); and (b) by the so-called Blessing of Jacob (451–29): see the introductory notes on these chapters. Everywhere else the narrative follows the thread of Joseph’s fortunes; the plan and contents being as follows:

I. Chs. 37. 39–41. Joseph’s solitary career in Egypt:—1. Joseph betrayed by his brethren and carried down to Egypt (37). 2. How he maintained his virtue against the solicitation of his master’s wife, and was thrown into prison (39). 3. His skill in interpreting dreams discovered (40). 4. His interpretation of Pharaoh’s dreams, and his consequent elevation to the highest dignity in Egypt (41).

II. Chs. 42–45. The reunion of Joseph and his brethren:—5. The first meeting of the brethren with Joseph in Egypt (42). 6. The second meeting (43. 44). 7. Joseph reveals himself to his brethren (45).


The composition of documents is of the same general character as in the previous section of Genesis, though some peculiar features present themselves. The Priestly epitome (3712 4746a 425 6a 46b. [8–27] 4746b. 6a. 7–11. 27b. 28 483–6 491a. 282–83rb 5012. 13) is hardly less broken and fragmentary than in the history of Jacob, and produces at first sight the same impression as there, of being merely supplementary to the older narratives,—an impression, however, which a closer inspection easily dispels. Certain late words and constructions have led some critics to the conclusion that the JE passages have been worked over by an editor of the school of P (Giesebrecht, ZATW, i. 237, 266; Ho. 234). The cases in point have been examined by Kue. (Ona. i. p. 317 f.), who rightly concludes that they are too few in number to bear out the theory of systematic Priestly redaction.—With regard to the composition of J and E, the most important fact is that the clue to authorship supplied by the divine names almost entirely fails us, and is replaced by the distinction between Israel and Jacob which as names of the patriarch are character-
istic of J and E respectively (exceptions are 46\textsuperscript{2}, 48\textsuperscript{8}, 11\textsuperscript{21}, 50\textsuperscript{251}; 46\textsuperscript{5b}). מנה occurs only in ch. 39 (7 times); elsewhere מנה is invariably used, sometimes in contexts which would otherwise be naturally assigned to J, though no reason appears why J should depart from his ordinary usage (e.g. 42\textsuperscript{26}). It may not always be safe to rely on this characteristic when it is not supported by other indications. Eerdmans, who rejects in principle the theory of a Yahwistic and an Elohistic document, is obliged to admit the existence of an Israel-recension and a Jacob-recension, and makes this distinction the basis of an independent analysis. A comparison of his results with those commonly accepted by recent critics is instructive in more ways than one.* On the whole, it increases one's confidence in the ordinary critical method.

* The Israel-recension (I–R) consists, according to Eerdmans, of 37\textsuperscript{3–24}, (J + E), 28a (E), 29 (E), 30–33 (E + J), 36 (E); 43 (J); 44 (J); 42\textsuperscript{25} (J), 46\textsuperscript{1–2a} (JE), 28–34 (J); 47\textsuperscript{1–5} (J); 13–27a (J), 27b (P), 29–31 (J); 43\textsuperscript{3} (E), 21b (J), 8–22 (J + E); 50\textsuperscript{1–11} (J), 14–26 (E*). To the Jacob-recension (J–R) he assigns 37\textsuperscript{2} (P), 29–30 (J), 28b (J), 24 (JE), 45 (J); 40; 41; 42 (all E); 45\textsuperscript{1–27} (E*), 46\textsuperscript{4–5} (E*), 6, 7 (P); 47\textsuperscript{9–11} (P*), 12 (E), 26 (P); 49\textsuperscript{a} (P), 29–33 (P); 50\textsuperscript{12}, 13 (P) (Komp. d. Gen. 65–71): the usual analysis is roughly indicated by the symbols within brackets. How does this compare with the generally accepted critical results? 

1. No distinction is recognised between P and the other sources; the fragments are mostly assigned to the J–R, but 43\textsuperscript{8–4} is rejected as an interpolation (p. 27).  

2. Eerdmans regards ch. 39 (the incident of Potipher’s wife) as the addition of an unintelligent redactor; mainly on the ground that it contains the name מנה (the use of the divine names is thus after all a reliable criterion of authorship when it suits Eerdmans’ purpose!). A more arbitrary piece of criticism could hardly be found.  

3. Apart from these two eccentricities, and the finer shades of analysis which Eerdmans resists to acknowledge, it will be seen that except in ch. 37 his division agrees a potiori with that of the majority of critics; i.e., the I–R corresponds in the main with J and the J–R with E.  

4. In ch. 37, on the contrary, the relation is reversed: I–R=E, and J–R=J. But this divergence turns on a wholly arbitrary and indefensible selection of data. Since the J–R in 45\textsuperscript{5} speaks of a sale of Joseph (to the Ishmaelites), it is inferred that 37\textsuperscript{25–27}, 28b belonged to it. It is conveniently overlooked that 40\textsuperscript{15} (also J–R) refers back to 37\textsuperscript{28a, 29} (the stealing of Joseph), that 42\textsuperscript{22} (J–R) presupposes 37\textsuperscript{22} (I–R); to say nothing of the broad distinction that Judah’s leadership is as characteristic of one source as Reuben’s is of the other. If Eerdmans had duly considered the whole of the evidence, he would have seen first that it is absolutely necessary to carry the analysis further than he chooses to do, and next that the two recensions in ch. 37 must exchange places in order to find their proper connexions in the following chapters. With that readjustment, it is not unfair to claim him as an unwilling witness to the essential soundness of the prevalent theory. With the best will in the world, he has not been able to deviate very far from the beaten track; and where he does strike out a path of his own, he becomes entangled in difficulties which may yet cause him to retrace his steps.
The story of Joseph is the finest example in Genesis, or even in the OT, of what is sometimes called ‘novelistic’ narrative. From the other patriarchal biographies it is distinguished first of all by the dramatic unity of a clearly conceived ‘plot,’ the unfolding of which exhibits the conflict between character and circumstances, and the triumph of moral and personal forces amidst the chances and vicissitudes of human affairs. The ruling idea is expressed in the words of E, “Ye intended evil against me, but God intended it for good” (50:20; cf. 45:5-7): it is the sense of an overruling, yet immanent, divine Providence, realising its purpose through the complex interaction of human motives, working out a result which no single actor contemplated. To this higher unity everything is subordinated; the separate scenes and incidents merge naturally into the main stream of the narrative, each representing a step in the development of the theme. The style is ample and diffuse, but never tedious; the vivid human interest of the story, enhanced by a vein of pathos and sentiment rarely found in the patriarchal narratives, secures the attention and sympathy of the reader from the beginning to the close. We note, further, a certain freedom in the handling of traditional material, and subordination of the legendary to the ideal element in the composition. The comparatively faint traces of local colour, the absence of theophanies and cult-legends generally, the almost complete elimination of tribal relations, are to be explained in this way; and also perhaps some minute deviations from the dominant tradition, such as the conception of Jacob’s character, the disparity of age between Joseph and his older brothers, the extreme youth of Benjamin (suggesting that he had been born since Joseph left home), the allusions to the mother as if still alive, etc. Lastly, the hero himself is idealised as no other patriarchal personality is. Joseph is not (like Jacob) the embodiment of one particular virtue, but is conceived as an ideal character in all the relations in which he is placed: he is the ideal son, the ideal brother, the ideal servant, the ideal administrator.

The close parallelism of J and E, together with the fact that the literary features enumerated above are shared by both, show that it had taken shape before it came into the hands of these writers, and strongly suggest that it must have existed in written form. The hypothesis of B. Luther (INS, 141 ff.), that the original author was J, and that he composed it as a connecting link between the patriarchal legends and those of the Exodus, is destitute of probability. The motive suggested is inadequate to account for the conception of a narrative so rich in concrete detail as that before us. Moreover, there is no reason to think that E is dependent on J; and it is certain that in some points (the leadership of Reuben, e.g.) E follows the older tradition. Nor is there much foundation for Luther’s general impression that such a narrative must be the creation of a single mind. In any case the mastery of technique which is here displayed implies a long cultivation of this type of literature (ib. 143); and the matter of the Joseph-narratives must have passed through many successive hands before it reached its present perfection of form.

It is impossible to resolve such a composition completely into its traditional or legendary elements; but we may perhaps distinguish
broadly the three kinds of material which have been laid under contribu-
tion. (1) The element of tribal history or relationships, though slight and secondary, is clearly recognisable, and supplies a key which may be used with caution to explain some outstanding features of the narrative. That there was an ancient tribe named Joseph, afterwards subdivided into Ephraim and Manasseh, is an item of Hebrew tradition whose authenticity there seems no good reason to question (see p. 533); and the prestige and prowess of this tribe are doubtless reflected in the distinguished position held by Joseph as the hero of the story. Again, actual tribal relations are represented by the close kinship and strong affection between Joseph and Benjamin; and by the preference of Ephraim before Manasseh, and the elevation of both to the status of adopted sons of Jacob. The birthright and leadership of Reuben in E implies a hegemony of that tribe in very early times, just as the similar position accorded to Judah in J reflects the circumstances of a later age. These are perhaps all the features that can safely be interpreted of real tribal relations. Whether there was a migration of the tribe of Joseph to Egypt, whether this was followed by a temporary settlement of all the other tribes on the border of the Delta, etc., are questions which this history does not enable us to answer; and attempts to find a historical significance in the details of the narrative (such as the sleeved tunic of Joseph, the enmity of his brethren, his wandering from Hebron to Shechem and thence to Dothan, the deliverance of Joseph by Reuben or Judah, and so on) are an abuse of the ethnographic principle of inter-
pretation.—For (2) alongside of this there is an element of individual biography, which may very well preserve a reminiscence of actual events. There must have been current in ancient Israel a tradition of some powerful Hebrew minister in Egypt, who was the means of saving the country from the horrors of famine, and who used his power to re-
model the land-system of Egypt to the advantage of the crown. That such a tradition should be true in essentials is by no means improbable. There were ‘Hebrews’ in Palestine as early as the 14th cent. B.C. (p. 218), and that one of these should have been kidnapped and sold as a boy into slavery in Egypt, and afterwards have risen to the office of viceroy, is in accordance with many parallels referred to in the monuments (p. 469); while his promoting the immigration of his kinsfolk under stress of famine is an incident as likely to be real as invented. The figure of Yanḥamu, the Semitic minister of Amenhotep IV. (pp. 501 ff.), presents a partial counterpart to that of Joseph, though the identification of the two personages rests on too slender data to be plausible. The insoluble difficulty is to discover the point where this personal history passes into the stream of Israelite national tradition,—or where Joseph ceases to be an individual and becomes a tribe. The common view that he was the actual progenitor of the tribe afterwards known by his name is on many grounds incredible; and the theory that he was the leader of a body of Hebrew immigrants into Egypt does violence to the most distinctive fea-
tures of the representation. Steuernagel’s suggestion (Einw. 67), that the story is based on feuds between the tribe Joseph and the other tribes, in the course of which individual Josephides were sold as slaves to Egypt,
illustrates the futility of trying to explain the narrative from two points of view at once. The tribal and the personal conceptions must be kept distinct, each may contain a kernel of history of its own kind; but the union of the two was effected not on the plane of history in either sense, but during the process of artistic elaboration of the theme. (3) There is, lastly, an element of Egyptian folklore, which has been drawn on to some extent for the literary embellishment of the story. The incident of Joseph’s temptation (ch. 39) appears to be founded on an Egyptian popular tale (p. 459). The obscure allusions to Joseph as a potent magician are very probably surviving traces of a motive which was more boldly developed in an Egyptian source. The prominence of dreams and their interpretation perhaps hardly falls under this head; it may rather be part of that accurate acquaintance with Egyptian life which is one of the most striking features of the narrative. That in this legendary element there is an admixture of mythical material is very possible; but a direct influence of mythology on the story of Joseph is extremely speculative.—It has been argued with some force that the presence of this Egyptian colouring itself goes far to show that we have to do with genuine history, not with a legend ‘woven by popular fancy upon the hills of Ephraim’ (Dri. DB, ii. 771 b). At the same time it has to be considered that the material may have been largely woven in Egypt itself, and afterwards borrowed as drapery for the Israelite hero Joseph. Egyptian folklore might easily have been naturalised in Canaan during the long Egyptian domination, or have been imported later as a result of Egyptian influence at the court of Jeroboam I. It is not difficult to suppose that it was appropriated by the Hebrew rhapsodists, and incorporated in the native Joseph-legend, and gradually moulded into the exquisite story which we now proceed to examine.

Ch. XXXVII.—How Joseph was lost to his Father through his Brethren’s Hatred and Treachery (P, JE).

As the favoured child of the family, and because of dreams portending a brilliant future, Joseph becomes an object of hatred and envy to his brothers (2-11). A favourable opportunity presenting itself, they are scarcely restrained from murdering him by prudential and sentimental considerations urged by one or other of their number (Judah, Reuben); but eventually consent to dispose of him without actual bloodshed (18-50). With heartless cruelty they pretend that Joseph must have been devoured by a wild beast, and witness their father’s distress without being moved to confession (51-55).—The chapter is not only full of thrilling human interest, but lays the ‘plot’ for the highly dramatic story which is to follow. The sudden disappearance of the most interesting
member of the family, the inconsolable grief of the father, the guilty secret shared by the brothers, and, above all, the uncertainty which hangs over the fate of Joseph, appeal irresistibly to the romantic instinct of the reader, who feels that all this is the prelude to some signal manifestation of divine providence in the working out of Joseph’s destiny.

Sources.—Vv. 1-2 belong to P (v. i.).—The analysis of the rest of the chapter may start from 26-30, where evidences of a double recension are clearest. In one account, Joseph is sold to Ishmaelites on the advice of Judah; in the other, he is kidnapped by passing Midianites, unknown to the brethren, and to the dismay of Reuben, who had hoped to save him (see the notes). The former is J (cf. 45ff.), the latter E (40ff.). Another safe clue is found in the double motive assigned for the envy of the brethren: 8-4 (the sleeved tunic) || 5-21 (the dreams): the dream-motive is characteristic of E throughout the narrative, and 31. are from J because of לארשי (cf. 15, and cf. בקיע in 84). Smaller doublets can be detected in 12-14; in 18-20, in 21f., and in 34f. The analysis has been worked out with substantial agreement amongst critics; and, with some finishing touches from the hand of Gu. (353 ff.), the result is as follows: J = 3. 4. 12a. 14b. 15b. 21. 23. 25-27. 28a, b (וינש to חניך), 31. 32a, b, b, b, 33a, b, 34b. 35a.; E = 5-11. 13b. 14a. 15-17. 18a. 19. 20. 22. 24. 25a, b (to הָנָה) b. 29. 30. 32a, b. 33a. 34a. 35b. 36. This may be accepted as the basis of the exposition, though some points are open to question, particularly the assumption that all references to a tunic of any kind are to be ascribed to J.

I. The alienation between Joseph and his brethren.—I, 2. Three disjointed fragments of P, of which v.1 is the original continuation of 368-8 (see p. 429); and 2a3 is a heading from the Book of Tôledôth (see p. 40 f.), which ought to be followed by a genealogy,—perhaps 3522h-26, * which we have seen to stand out of its proper connexion (p. 423): 2a3b, then introduces P’s history of Joseph, which has been mostly suppressed by the redactor.—The clause רֵעַ אָדָם is difficult. As a parenthesis (Dri.) it is superfluous after the

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1. שִׁמְמוּס (17g) and הָעֵינָה (but see p. 474) are characteristic of P.—
2. יד הָעֵינָה ‘like verbs of governing’ (Str.) ; so 1 Sa. 1611 1734.—רֵעַ אָדָם]
Gu. suggests יד הָעֵינָה (Niph. יד; cf. Jer. 632 etc., and the Hithpal. in Jb. 17g), or הָעֵינָה (= ‘kept company with’),—neither proposal just convincing.—רֵעַ אָדָם (so Nu. 1435) lit. ‘brought the report of them evil,’ רֵעַ being second acc., or tertiary pred. (Da. § 76). A bad sense is inherent in הָעֵינָה, which is a late word, in Hex. confined to P (Nu. 1332 1436f.).

* Rather than 4636f., as suggested by Kurtz (quoted by Hupf. Qu. 216).
JOSEPH BROUGHT TO EGYPT (JE)

definite statement of Joseph's age in 2a, and leaves us with a wrong identification of the sons of the concubines with the previous זָה. If it be joined to what follows, Gu. has rightly seen that we want a word expressing something that Joseph was or did in relation to the sons of Bilhah and Zilpah. The meaning probably is that Joseph, while shepherding with (all) his brethren, fell out with the four sons of the concubines.

With this change, Di.'s objections to the unity of v.2 fall to the ground, and the whole may be safely ascribed to P (note the chronology, the supplementary זָה וַי, and the phrase וַיֶּלֶד).—Short as the fragment is, it shows that P's account was peculiar in two respects: (1) He restricts the hostility to the sons of Bilhah and Zilpah, and (2) he traces it to Joseph's reporting their misdeeds to Jacob. It is plain that P is no mere supplementer of the older history, but an independent author, though his account has been sacrificed to the more graphic narratives of J and E.

3, 4 (J). Now Israel loved Joseph...] These are evidently the opening words of J's Joseph-story, in which the sole motive of the brothers' hatred is the father's favouritism towards the son of his old age (168 4480 J).—בָּנָי הַנְָּתָנָה] a shirt or tunic reaching to the extremities (בָּנָי), i.e. the wrists and ankles, whereas the ordinary under-garment was sleeveless, and reached only to the knees. That it was an unusual habiliment appears also from 2 Sa. 1318.; but speculations as to its mythological significance (ATLO 384) have no support in either passage.—4. could not address him peace-
ably] or, 'salute him.' The text is doubtful (v.i.).—5-II. Joseph's dreams (E).—6, 7. The first dream—a harvest scene—represents Jacob's family as agriculturists (see on 26:12); in vv.2-13ff. 46:31ff. they are shepherds. There may be some hint of the immediate cause of its fulfilment, a failure of the harvest (Gu.), though this is questionable.—8a. Wilt thou, forsooth, be king over us?] The language points beyond the personal history of Joseph to the hegemony of the 'house of Joseph' in N Israel (Ju. 1:22).—9. The second dream presages Joseph's elevation not only over his brothers, but over his father (Ho.), i.e. Israel collectively.—eleven stars] Supposed by some to be an allusion to the signs of the Zodiac (De. Gu. al., cf. Je. ATLO 2, 383), the twelfth being either Joseph himself, or the constellation obscured by Joseph as the sun-god. The theory will stand or fall with the identification of Jacob's twelve sons with the Zodiacal signs (see pp. 534 f.); the absence of the art. here makes it, however, at least improbable that the theory was in the mind of the writer.—II. envied is the appropriate word for E's account, as 'hated' (v.4) is for J's (5b and 8b are redactional).—his father kept the matter (in mind)] ἔριπησεν. Cf. Lk. 2:19, 51.

While significant dreams bulk largely in E's Joseph-narrative (ch. 40 f.), it is characteristic of this section of the work that the dreams contain no oracular revelations (like 20:2ff. 31:11-24), but have a meaning in themselves which is open to human interpretation. The religious spirit of these chapters (as also of ch. 24), both in J and E, is a mature faith in God's providential ruling of human affairs, which is independent of theophanies, or visible interpositions of any kind. It can scarcely be doubted that such narratives took shape at a later period of OT religion than the bulk of the patriarchal legends.

12-17. Jacob sends Joseph to inquire after his brethren.—12, 13a, 14b J || 13b, 14a E (see the analysis see Ex. 2:8 etc.).—5b is out of place before the telling of the dream, and is om. by Gr.—7. Ins. וָהָנָה at the beginning, with Gr.—דִּבְרָי] אֵל. λέγετ; פִּזּות, Ps. 126:4.—5b. Another redactional addition, though found in Gr.; note the pl. 'dreams' when only one has been told.—10a. וָהָנָה—וָהָנָה is an interpolation intended to explain what immediately follows. Gr omits, and seeks to gain the same end by inserting וָהָנָה before וָהָנָה in 9.

12-14 is composite. וָהָנָה shows that 12, 13a belong to J; and וָהָנָה shows that 13b is from E (cf. 22:7, 11 27:1 31:11). Hence 14a is not a specifi-
below). In J, Jacob is dwelling in the vale of Hebron; the sons have gone to Shechem. If the incident of ch. 34 belonged to the same cycle of tradition, the brethren would perhaps hardly have ventured into the neighbourhood of Shechem so soon (see p. 418); though it has been argued that this very circumstance accounts for Jacob's solicitude. In E we find no indication of either the starting-point or the goal of the journey. **14a** suggests that the flocks were at some distance from Jacob's home: possibly the narrative is based on a stratum of E in which Jacob's permanent residence was at Bethel (see on 35).—**15-17.** The man who directs Joseph to Dothan is not necessarily a neighbour of the family who knew Joseph by sight (Gu.); nor is the incident a faded version of a theophany (Ho. Ben.): it is simply a vivid description of the uncertainty of Joseph's persistent search for his brethren.

—**Dōthān** (2 Ki. 6†††, Jth. 3⁹ 4⁶ 7¹⁸) is the modern Tell Dōthān, near Ğenin, about 15 miles N of Shechem. Some local legend may have connected it with the history of Joseph. **15-17** would be a sufficiently natural continuation of **14b** (J), and Gu.'s conjecture (above) establishes no presumption to the contrary. They may, however, be from E: in this case it is probable that E did not mention Shechem at all, nor J Dothan.

**18-30.** The plot to murder Joseph frustrated by Reuben (E), or Judah (J).—**18a, 19, 20 E || 18b J.** Common to both sources is the proposal to kill Joseph; E develops it most fully, revealing the motive of the crime and cation, but a variant, of 18a, continuing 18b. **14b** obviously follows 18a.—**12.** [with puncta extraordinaria] because for some reason the text was suspected.—**14.** [nuin pēsil (23² 19)] The words might be a gloss based on P (35⁷ 49⁵⁵⁵ 50¹⁸); but Steuernagel's proposal to remove them (Einw. 36) takes too little account of the fragmentariness of J's narrative in ch. 35; and Gu.'s argument that the journey was too long for a young lad is weak.—**17.** [nuin] māq ṭūnēv. —nuin, [nu] The form with is the older (cf. Eg. Tu-ī-t-ī-na, Müller, AE, 88), the other an accommodation to a common nominal termination. The ending ṭ— is not dual, but an old (Aram.?) locative corresponding to Heb. הַיָּב (see pp. 342 f.; Barth, NB, 319⁴; G-K, § 88 c).

**18a** and 18b are obviously doublets; the analysis adopted above gives the simplest arrangement.—[ḥaṣm] 'acted craftily,' only found in late writings (Nu. 25¹⁸, Mal. 1⁴, Ps. 105²⁵†), but the √ occurs in Aram.
the device by which it was to be concealed.—19. yon master-dreamer] a mocking epithet; cf. 20b.—20. and throw him (his dead body) into one of the pits] The idea would suit either narrative; and we cannot be sure that the indefinite ‘one of the pits’ does not come from J (see 22).—21 J || 22 E. In 21 we must read Judah for Reuben.—and delivered him out of their hand] is premature (v.23): the clause might stand more naturally in J between 23 and 25, though the rest of the v. must be left where it is (so Gu.).—we will not kill him outright] Judah has as yet no counter-proposal.—22. Reuben, on the other hand, has his scheme ready: he appeals to the antique horror of shed blood, which cries for vengeance on the murderer (4:11).—this pit] a particular cistern which Reuben knew to be empty of water (24b). It is probable that one of the numerous pits round Dothan was traditionally associated with the fate of Joseph (Gu.): cf. the Khan Ġubb Yāṣuf near Safed, incorrectly identified with the Dothan cistern (BR, ii. 418 f.)—24 (E).—25-27, 28a,β (J). The fate of Joseph is apparently still undecided, when Judah makes an appeal to the cupidity of his brothers (what profit, etc. ?), by proposing to sell him to some passing Ishmaelites.

—25. a caravan . . . from Gilead] The plain of Dothan is traversed by a regular trade route from Gilead through Beisan to Ramleh, and thence (by the coast) to Egypt (Buhl, GP, 127). Shechem also lies on several routes from the E of the Jordan to the coast.—The natural products mentioned (v.i.) were much in request in Egypt for embalming, as well as

and Ass.—On the accus., see G-K. § 117 w.—19. תְּדַבֵּר] The rendering above is a little too strong; for the use of שָׁוַא as ‘n. of relation,’ see BDB, 127 b.—21. שָׁוַא הָעֵד] Second acc. of respect, G-K. § 117 ll.—22. חַרְבּ הָרִים נַבִּיא] or el is ena tōn lákkōw, a false assimilation to v.20.—23. וַיְדַבֵּר] G om. It is impossible to say whether this and the following appositional phrase are variants from E and J respectively, or whether the second is a (correct) gloss on J. חַרְבּ combines both in the rendering tūnica talari et polymita.—25. חַרְבּ הָרִים נַבִּיא] Assigned by many critics (Di. al.) to E, and certainly not necessary in J. But we still miss a statement in E that the brothers had moved away from the pit.—נַבִּיא (43:11]) supposed to be ‘gum-tragacanth’; Ar. nākā‘at.—נַבִּיא is the resinous gum for which Gilead was famous (43:11, Jer. 8:22 46:11 51:8, Ezk. 27:17) ; possibly that exuded by the mastic-tree; but see EB, 465 f.
for medicinal and other purposes.—26. cover his blood] Ezk. 24\(^7\), Is. 26\(^21\), Jb. 16\(^18\).—28. twenty (shekels) of silver] cf. Lv. 27\(^5\) with Ex. 21\(^82\) (see Dri.).—28aabb, 29, 30 (E). Joseph is kidnapped by trading Midianites, who pass unobserved after the brothers have left the spot.—30. Only now does Reuben reveal his secret design of delivering Joseph. It is interesting to note his own later confusion of the intention with the act, in 42\(^22\).

That the last section is from another source than 35\(^27\) appears from (a) the different designation of the merchants, (b) the absence of the art. showing that they have not been mentioned before, (c) Reuben's surprise at finding the pit empty. The composite narrative requires us to assume that the brethren are the subj. of שלוש נפשו, against the natural construction of the sentence.

31–36. The deceiving of Jacob.—31, 32. Gu. remarks that the sending of a bloody token is a favourite motive in popular tales. Whether the incident is peculiar to J, or common to J and E, can hardly be determined (v. i.)—33. an evil beast has devoured him] Exactly as v. 20 (E). A slight change of text in 32 (v. i.) would enable us to take the words as spoken by the sons to Jacob (so Gu.). 34, 35. The grief of Jacob is depicted in both sources, but with a difference. E (34a, 35b) hardly goes beyond the conventional signs of mourning—'the trappings and the suits of woe'; but J (34b, 35a) dwells on the inconsolable and life-long sorrow of

—גס (43\(^11\) יכ] Gk. λαθανον, Lat. iadanum, the gum of a species of cistus-rose (EB, 2692 f.). Mentioned amongst objects of Syrian tribute (ladunu) by Tiglath-pileser IV. (KAT\(^3\), 151).—27. נאם ביקב | Cu + היל. The word is apparently used in the general sense of 'Bedouin,' as Ju. 8\(^34\) (cf. 6\(^1\) etc.): see on 16\(^12\).—נפתע | ME\(^3\)H\(^2\) prefix 1.—28b is assigned to E because of פנוי, J using רוח in this connexion (35 39\(^4\) 43\(^11\) etc.).—29. ישם | Cu oyx יופי.

31. The reason for assigning the v. to J (Gu.) is the precarious assumption that Joseph's coat plays no part at all in E. There is a good deal to be said for the view that it belongs to E (Di. Ho. al.).—32. ינתיר] Gu. ינתיר, 'and they came' (see on 33 above), which would be an excellent continuation of 31: in E they dip the coat in blood, come to their father, and say 'an evil beast,' etc.; in J they send the coat, unstained, and let Jacob form his own conclusion. —In any case 'נתיר is E's parallel to J's מנהל, —אמרה (cf. 38\(^28\)), and the disjunctive question (cf. 18\(^21\) 24\(^21\)) point distinctly to J (Di.).—נתברג] G-K. § 100 l.—33. After יב, ME\(^3\)F ins. אתי.
the bereaved father. This strain of pathos and subjectivity is very marked in J in the Joseph narratives. — *rent his clothes . . . put on sackcloth*] On these customs, the origin of which is still obscure, see Schw. Leben n. d. Tode, 11 ff.; Grüneisen, Ahnencultus, 61 ff.; Engert, Ehe- u. Familienrecht, 96 ff. — 34b. הָתַעַר, chiefly used in reference to the dead, includes the outward tokens of mourning: Ex. 334, 2 Sa. 14^2; cf. Is. 61^2, Ps. 35^14. — 35. *all his daughters*] There was really only one daughter in the family. A similar indifference to the prevalent tradition in details is seen in the disparity of age between Joseph and his brothers (v.3), and the assumption that Rachel was still alive (10). — *go down . . . as a mourner*] Jacob will wear the mourner's garb till his death, so that in the underworld his son may know how deep his grief had been (Gu.). The shade was believed to appear in She'ol in the condition in which it left the world (Schw. 63 f.). — 36 (E) resuming^28. See, further, on 39^1.

CH. XXXVIII. — Judah and Tamar (J).

Judah, separating himself from his brethren, marries a Canaanitish wife, who bears to him three sons, 'Er, 'Ônân and Shēlāh (1-5). 'Er and 'Onan become in succession the husbands of Tamar (under the levirate law), and die without issue; and Judah orders Tamar to remain a widow in her father's house till Shēlāh should reach manhood (6-11). Finding herself deceived, Tamar resorts to a desperate stratagem, by which she procures offspring from Judah himself (12-28). With the birth of her twin sons, Perez and Zerah, the narrative closes (27-30).

The story rests on a substratum of tribal history, being in the main a legendary account of the origin of the principal clans of Judah. To this historical nucleus we may reckon such facts as these: the isolation of Judah from the rest of the tribes (see on v.1); the mixed origin of its leading families; the extinction of the two oldest clans 'Er and 'Onan; the rivalry of the younger branches, Perez and Zerah, ending in the

supremacy of the former; and (possibly) the superiority of these two (as sons of Judah) to the more ancient Shelah (his grandson). See Steuer-
nagel, Einw. 79 f.; where, however, the ethnological explanation is
carried further than is reasonable.—It is obvious that the legend belongs
to a cycle of tradition quite independent of the story of Joseph. The
latter knows of no separation of Judah from his brethren, and this record
leaves no room for a reunion. Although P, who had both before him,
represents Judah and his sons as afterwards accompanying Jacob to
Egypt (461), there can be no doubt that the intention of this passage is
to relate the permanent settlement of Judah in Palestine. Where
precisely the break with the prevalent tradition occurs, we cannot
certainly determine. It is possible that the figure of Judah here is
simply a personification of the tribe, which has never been brought into
connexion with the family history of Jacob: in this case the events
reflected may be assigned to the period subsequent to the Exodus. It
seems a more natural supposition, however, that the legend ignores the
Exodus altogether, and belongs to a stratum of tradition in which the
occupation of Canaan is traced back to Jacob and his immediate descend-
ants (see pp. 418, 507).—On some touches of mythological colouring in
the story of Tamar, see below, pp. 452, 454.

Source.—The chapter is a pure specimen of Yahwistic narration, free
from redactional manipulation. The following characteristics of J may
be noted: יַיִרְיָמ, 7-10; יִנְּאָכָא בֵּית לָוֶת, 7-10; אֵין דָּבָר, 16; אֵין חָיָב, 25 (37-26); בֵּית יִדּוּדָר, 25; יַיִרְיָמ, 25; further, the naming of the children by the mother, 3-2; and the
resemblance of 271 to 25-251. Since the sequence of 391 on 37-26 would be
harsh, it is probable that ch. 38 was inserted here by RJE (Ho.).

1-5. Judah founds a separate family at Adullam.—I. went down from his brethren] Since the chapter has no con-
exion with the history of Joseph, we cannot tell when or
where the separation is conceived to have taken place. From
the situation of 'Adullām, it is clear that some place in the central highlands is indicated. Adullam is possibly 'Idā el-
Mīye (or 'Aid el-Mā), on the border of the Shephelah, 12 m.
SW of Bethlehem and 7 NE of Eleutheropolis (Buhl, GP,
193; Smith, HG, 229). It is marked on the Pal. Surv. map
as 1150 ft. above sea-level.

The isolation of the tribe of Judah was a fact of capital importance
in the early history of Israel. The separation is described in Ju. 1-25; in
the song of Deborah (Ju. 5) Judah is not mentioned either for praise
or blame; and his reunion with Israel is prayed for in Dt. 33. The
rupture of the Davidic kingdom, and the permanent cleavage between
south and north, are perhaps in part a consequence of the stronger

1. יַיִרְיָמ] Ε αφικέρο: the precise force here of יַיִרְיָמ, 'turn aside,' is doubt-
ful. The change of יַיִרְיָמ to יַוְּש (Ba.) is unnecessary (cf. 1 Sa. 9).
infusion of foreign blood in the southern tribe. The verse suggests that the first Judahite settlement was at 'Adullam, where the tribe gained a footing by alliance with a native clan named Ḥirāḥ; but Mey. (INS, 435 f.) thinks it presupposes a previous occupation of the region round Bethlehem, and deals merely with an extension towards the Shephelah. It is certainly difficult otherwise to account for the verb יָרָא (ct. בּוּזָה, Ju. 11); but were Judah's brethren ever settled at Bethlehem? Gu.'s emendation, יָרָא, 'freed himself' (see on 2716; cf. Hos. 121), would relieve the difficulty, but is too bold for a plain prose narrative.

2. A more permanent amalgamation with the Canaanites is represented by Judah's marriage with Bath-Shū'a or Bath-Sheva' (See on v.12). The freedom with which connubium with the Canaanites is acknowledged (ct. 34. 248) may be a proof of the antiquity of the source (Ho. Gu.).—5b. in Κέζιβ, etc. It is plausibly inferred that Κέζιβ (= 'Aksīb, an unknown locality in the Shephelah, Jos. 1544, Mic. 114) was the centre of the clan of Shelah; though G makes all three births happen there.

6-11. Tamar's wrong.—6. Tamar, the Heb. word for date-palm, occurs twice as a female name in David's family (2 Sa. 131 1427). There is therefore little probability that it is here a personification of the city of the same name on the S border of Palestine (Ezk. 4719) (so Steuernagel). A mythological origin is suggested on p. 452 below.—As head of the family, Judah chooses a wife for his first-born (243 344 2121), as he is also responsible for the carrying out of the levirate obligation (8.11).—7. No crime is alleged against 'Er, whose untimely death was probably the only evidence of Yahwe's displeasure with him (Pr. 1027).—8-10. 'Onān, on the other hand, is slain because of the revolving manner in which he

2. הָנְשָיִם] G וָנְשָיִים. See on v.22.—3. מְרִית] Better as vv.4-5 מְרִית (m. T. Heb. MSS).—5. הָנְשָיִים] G שֶׁלֵּשָׁוּ; comp. the gentilic בָּשָׁוּ, Nu. 2626.—בָּשָׁוּ is impossible, and מ. יָשִּׁית little better. Rd. with G מְרִית.—מְרִית] m. בָּשָׁוּ, cf. מְרִית, 1 Ch. 422.—מְרִית] G מְרִית.—Nothing can be made of the strange renderings of מ in ס and ס': סלָּכָה מִהָה תַּכּוּנָה; quo nato parere ultra cessavit (cf. 2535 306).—7. מְרִית] G בָּשָׁוּ.—8. מְרִית] Dt. 255. 1; denom. from בָּשָׁוּ, the term. techn. for 'husband's brother' in relation to the levirate institution.—9. מְרִית] 'as often as'; G-K. § 159 o.—מְרִית (sc. semen)) in the sense of 'spoil,' 'make ineffective' (BDB).—מְרִית for מ is] only again Nu. 2621; comp. בָּשָׁוּ, Ex. 319, Nu. 2212 14 18.—10. מְרִית הָשָׁו] G, pr. יָשִּׁית.
persistently evaded the sacred duty of raising up seed to his brother. It is not correct to say (with Gu.) that his \textit{only} offence was his selfish disregard of his deceased brother's interests.—\textbf{II.} Judah sends Tamar home to her family, on the pretext that his third son Shelah is too young to marry her. His real motive is fear lest his only surviving son should share the fate of 'Er and 'Onan, which he plainly attributes in some way to Tamar herself.—\textit{in thy father's house} according to the law for a childless widow (Lv. 22\textsuperscript{13}, Ru. 1\textsuperscript{8}).

The custom of levirate marriage here presupposed prevailed widely in primitive times, and is still observed in many parts of the world. In its Hebrew form it does not appear to have implied more than the duty of a surviving brother to procure male issue for the oldest member of a family, when he dies childless: the first-born son of the union is counted the son, and is the heir, to the deceased; and although in Dt. 25\textsuperscript{6ff.} the widow is said to become the wife of her brother-in-law, it may be questioned if in early times the union was more than temporary. It is most naturally explained as a survival, under patriarchal conditions, of some kind of polyandry, in which the wife was the common property of the kin-group (Smith, \textit{KM}\textsuperscript{3}, 146 ff.); and it naturally tended to be relaxed with the advance of civilisation. Hence the law of Dt. 25\textsuperscript{5-10} is essentially a concession to the prevalent reluctance to comply with the custom. This is also illustrated by the conduct of 'Onan: the sanctity of the obligation is so strong that he does not dare openly to defy it; yet his private family interest induces him to defeat its purpose. It is noteworthy that the only other historical example of the law—the analogous though not identical case of Boaz and Ruth—also reveals the tendency to escape its operation.—See Dri. \textit{Deut.} 280 ff. (with the authorities there cited); also Engert, \textit{Ehe- und Familienrecht}, 15 ff.; Barton, \textit{SO}\textsuperscript{1}, 66 ff.

Judah's belief that Tamar was the cause of the deaths of 'Er and 'Onan (\textit{v.s.}) may spring from an older form of the legend, in which she was actually credited with death-dealing power. Stucken and Je. recognise in this a common mythical motive,—the goddess who slays her lovers,—and point to the parallel case of Sara in the Book of Tobit (3\textsuperscript{8}). Tamar and Sara (\textit{sarratu}, a title of Ištar) were originally forms of Ištar (\textit{ATLO}\textsuperscript{2}, 381 f.). The connexion is possible; and if there be any truth in Barton's speculation that the date-palm was sacred to Ištar (\textit{SO}\textsuperscript{1}, 92, 98, 102 ff.), it might furnish an explanation of the name Tamar.


See the footnote.—\textit{was comforted} a conventional phrase for

\textbf{II.} [\textit{בַּת-יִשָּׁע}] Ba. al. propose \textit{בַת-יִשָּׁע}, after Lv. 22\textsuperscript{13}; but see Is. 47\textsuperscript{8}.

\textbf{12.} [\textit{בַּת-טָעַן}] Apparently a compound proper name, as in 1 Ch. 2\textsuperscript{8} =
the effect of the mourning ceremonies; see Jer. 161.—The death of Judah's wife is mentioned as a palliation of his subsequent behaviour: "even in early times it was consi-
dered not quite comme il faut for a married man to have intercourse with harlots" (Gu.).—On the sheep-shearing, see 319.—[Hirāh his associate] (see v.1) is mentioned here because of the part he has to play in the story (vv.20-23).—went up . . . to Timnah] This cannot be the Danite Timnah (Jos. 1510 1948, Ju. 141.2.5), which lies lower than 'Adullam. Another Timnah S of Hebron (Jos. 1557), but unidentified, might be meant; or it may be the modern Tibne, W of Bethlehem, though this is only 4 m. from 'Adullam, and room has to be found for 'Enaim between them (but v.i. on v.14).—14. her widow's garments] Cf. Jth. 86 108 168.—She assumes the garb of a common prostitute, and sits, covered by the veil (see below on v.21), by the wayside; cf. Jer. 32, Ezek. 1625, Ep. Jer. 43. —15. for she had covered her face] This explains, not Judah's failure to recognise her, but his mistaking her for a harlot (see v.16).—17. a kid of the goats] Cf. Ju. 153. The present of a kid on these occasions may be due to the fact that (as in classical antiquity) the goat was sacred to the goddess of love (Paus. vi. 25. 2 [with Frazer's Note, vol. iv. 106]; cf. Tac. Hist. 2, 3, and Lucian, Dial. meretr. 7. 1) (Kn-Di.).—18. The master-stroke of Tamar's plot is the securing of a pledge which rendered the identification of the owner

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absolutely certain. Seal, cord, and staff must have been the insignia of a man of rank amongst the Israelites, as seal and staff were among the Babylonians (Herod. i. 195) and Egyptians (Erman, LAE, 228 f.). The cord may have been used to suspend the seal, as amongst modern town Arabs (Robinson, BR, i. 36), or may have had magical properties like those occasionally worn by Arab men (We. Heid. 166). For illustrations of ancient Hebrew seals, see Benzinger, Arch. 2 82, 179 f., 228 ff.

20–23. Judah fails to recover his pledge.—20. It is significant that Judah employs his fidus Achates Hirah in this discreditable affair, and will rather lose his seal, etc., than run the risk of publicity (v. 23).—21. Where is that Kadeshah?'] strictly 'sacred prostitute,'—one 'dedicated' for this purpose to Istar-Astarte, or some other deity (Dt. 23 18, Hos. 4 14†).

This is the only place where נשים appears to be used of an ordinary harlot; and Luther (INS, 180) points out that it is confined to the conversation of Hirah with the natives, the writer using נשים. The code of Hammurabi (§ 110) seems to contemplate the case of a temple-votary (kadistu, KAT6, 423; ATLO3, 380) separating herself for private prostitution; and it is possible that this custom was familiar to the Canaanites, though not in Israel.—That the harlot's veil (vv. 14–19) was a symbol of dedication to Istar the veiled goddess (KAT6, 276, 432; ATLO2, 199) is possible, though it is perhaps more natural to suppose that the veiling of Istar is an idealisation of the veiling of her votaries, which rests on a primitive sexual taboo (cf. the bridal veil 24 23).

24–26. The vindication of Tamar.—24. As the widow of 'Er, or the betrothed of Shelah, Tamar is guilty of adultery, and it falls to Judah as head of the family to bring her to justice.—Lead her out] a forensic term, Dt. 22 21, 24.—let her be burnt] Death by burning is the punishment imposed in Hammurabi, § 157, for incest with a mother, and was doubt-

21. אפקש | מַמִּס שָׂפְתָה (v. 22). If this reading be accepted, there is no reason to hold that שָׂפָת (if a place-name at all) was Tamar's native village.—אפקש | מַמִּס שָׂפְתָה; but see 19 etc.—24. שָׂפָת | מַמִּס more correctly שָׂפָת.

* Σφρηγίδα δ' ἐκαστὸς ἐξει καὶ σκῆτρων χειροποιητῶν ἐπὶ ἐκάστῳ δὲ σκῆτρῳ ἐξεστὶ πεποιημένον ἡ μῆλον ἡ μόδον ἡ κρίνου ἡ ἀλετός ἢ ἄλλοις ἢν ἂν γὰρ ἐπισήμου ὡς φονέα τῷ ἐχειν σκῆτρων.—Similarly Strabo, XVI. i. 20.
less the common punishment for adultery on the part of a woman in ancient Israel. In later times the milder penalty of stoning was substituted (Lk. 20:10, Dt. 22:23ff., Ezek. 16:40, Jn. 8:5), the more cruel death being reserved for the prostitution of a priest's daughter (Lk. 21:9; cf. Hamm. § 110).—25. By waiting till the last moment, Tamar makes her justification as public and dramatically complete as possible. Addressing the crowd she says, To the man who owns these things, etc.; to Judah himself she flings out the challenge, Recognise to whom this seal, etc., belong!—26. She is in the right as against me (G-K. § 133 b3; cf. Jb. 4:17 329) i.e., her conduct is justified by the graver wrong done to her by Judah.

To suppose that incidents like that recorded in 12-26 were of frequent occurrence in ancient Israel, or that it was the duty of the father-in-law under any circumstances to marry his son's widow, is to miss entirely the point of the narrative. On the contrary, as Gu. well shows (365 f.), it is just the exceptional nature of the circumstances that explains the writer's obvious admiration for Tamar's heroic conduct. "Tamar shows her fortitude by her disregard of conventional prejudice, and her determination by any means in her power to secure her wifely rights within her husband's family. To obtain this right the intrepid woman dares the utmost that womanly honour could endure,—stoops to the level of an unfortunate girl, and does that which in ordinary cases would lead to the most cruel and shameful death, bravely risking honour and life on the issue. At the same time, like a true mother in Judah, she manages her part so cleverly that the dangerous path conducts her to a happy goal."—It follows that the episode is not meant to reflect discredit on the tribe of Judah. It presents Judah's behaviour in as favourable a light as possible, suggesting extenuating circumstances for what could not be altogether excused; and regards that of Tamar as a glory to the tribe (cf. Ru. 4:12).

27-30. Birth of Perez and Zerah.—The story closely resembles that of Rebekah in 2524-26 (38:27b = 25:24b), and is probably a variation of the same originally mythical theme (see p. 359).—28. The scarlet thread probably represents some feature of the original myth (note that in 2525 the first

25. On the syntax, see G-K. §§ 116 u, v, 142 e; Dri. T. § 166 ff.—נָּשָׁה] st. constr. with cl. as gen.; Ho. al. point נָּשָׁה.—נֵחַתָּו] fem. only here.—נַשָּׁה] אֶלֶף פֶּסֶטוּ הַבּוֹשַׁש (as v. 18).—26. נַשָּׁה] see on 188.—28. יִשָּׁה] sc. פֶּשֶׁה (G-K. § 144 e); כָּחַל עָלֵיהי.
came out red). The forced etymology of Zeraḥ (v. 30) could not have suggested it.—29. What a breach hast thou made for thyself! The name Perez expresses the violence with which he secured the priority.—30. Zeraḥ] An Edomite clan in 36\(^{13} \cdot 33\). On the etymology, v. i.

To the name Perez, Cheyne (TBI, 357) aptly compares Plutarch’s account of the birth of Typhon, brother of Osiris: “neither in due time, nor in the right place, but breaking through with a blow, he leaped out through his mother’s side” (de Isid. et Os. c. 12).—The ascendancy of the Perez clan has been explained by the incorporation of the powerful families of Caleb and Jeraḥmeel, 1 Ch. 29 (so Sta. GVI, i. 158 f.); but a more obvious reason is the fact that David’s ancestry was traced to this branch (Ru. 4\(^{18-22}\)).

CH. XXXIX.—Joseph is cast into Prison (J).

Joseph is sold by the Ishmaelites (37\(^{28} \cdot 36\)) to an Egyptian householder, who finds him so capable and successful that ere long he entrusts him with the whole administration of his estate (1\(^{-6}\)). But his master’s wife conceives a guilty passion for him, and when her advances are repelled, falsely accuses him of attempted outrage, with the result that he is thrown into prison (7\(^{-20}\)). Here again he wins the favour of his superior, and is soon charged with the oversight of the prison (21\(^{-23}\)).

Source.—With the exception of a harmonising gloss in 1ba, and a sprinkling of E variants (discussed in the notes), the whole passage is from J. It represents the chief divergence between the two recensions of the history of Joseph. In J, Joseph is first sold to a private Egyptian (יְהוָה לְאָדָם, v. 1), then cast into the state prison in the way here narrated, where he gains the confidence of the (unnamed) governor, so that when the butler and baker are sent thither they naturally fall under his

29. בֵּשֵׁק יִרְאוֹ] An ungrammatical use of the ptcp. Rd. with Ball בֵּשֵׁק לְאָדָם] cf. 19\(^{15}\).—מַרְדָּך—מַרְדָּךו] cogn. acc. The rendering as a question (אֶזֶר = why): De. Di. Dri.) is less natural than that given above; and to detach מַרְדָּך רָע [מַרְדָּך] as a separate exclamation (‘A breach upon thee!’) is worse. ג (תל διεκβολη δια σε φραγμος;) הָּֽאָֽס take the vb. in a pass. sense.—אָֽמֶנֶּשֶו] am גנֶּב גֶּבָּנֶשֶו (so v. 30).—30. מַרְדָּך] as a Heb. word would mean ‘rising’ (of the sun, Is 60\(^{9}\)) or ‘autochthonous’ (=מַרְדָּך). A connexion with the idea of ‘redness’ is difficult to establish. It is commonly supposed that there is a play on the Aram. מִרְדָּך (which is used here by גנֶּב, and is the equivalent of Heb. רָע), and Bab. saḥuritu (so De. Dri. Gu. al.); but this is not convincing.
charge. In E, Joseph is sold at once to Potiphar (37\textsuperscript{26}), the palace officer in whose house the butler and baker are afterwards confined (40\textsuperscript{36}); and Joseph, without being himself a prisoner, is told off to wait on these eminent persons (40\textsuperscript{4}). The imprisonment, therefore, is indispensable in J, and at least embarrassing in E.—This conclusion is partly confirmed by the literary phenomena: 

\textbf{1.} The words מַשֵּׁרִי, מַשְׁרֵי are a repetition by RJE from 37\textsuperscript{36} (E), in order to harmonise the two sources. But the contradiction appears (i) in the meaningless יִכְבֶּרֶתָּשָׁא after the specific designation (this is not to be got rid of by Ebers's observation that under a Hyksos dynasty a high official was not necessarily a native Egyptian), and (2) the improbability of a eunuch being married (though cases of this kind are known [Ebers, 299]).— יִכְבֶּרֶתָּשָׁא, an exact transcription of Eg. Pedephre⁠—'He whom the sun-god gives' (see DB, i. 665b; EB, 3814); but the long ə of the Heb. has not been explained. Cf. Heyes, 105-112.— יִכְבֶּרֶתָּשָׁא means 'eunuch' in NH. Aram. Arab. (as is shown by the denom. vbs. = 'be impotent'), and there is no case in OT where the strict sense is inapplicable (Ges. \textit{Th.} 973 b). That such a word should be extended to mean 'courtier' in general is more intelligible than the reverse process (so Heyes, 122), in spite of the opinion of several Assyriologists who derive it from אֹתָנְבִי = 'he who is the head' (Zimmern, \textit{ZDMG}, liii. 116; KAT\textsuperscript{3}, 649).— מַשְׁרֵי, a title like מַשְׁרֵי and מַשְׁרֵי in ch. 40 (E). Cf. 'ם שִׁבַּר, 2 Ki. 25\textsuperscript{8}, Jer. 39\textsuperscript{8}, 40\textsuperscript{18} etc., Dn. 2\textsuperscript{14}. The מַשְׁרֵי were apparently the royal cooks or butchers (i Sa. 9\textsuperscript{24}), who had come to be the bodyguard (Smith, \textit{OTJC}, 265).— הַמַּשְׁרֵי, The intrans. Hiph. is thought by Di. Gu. al. to be inconsistent with J's usage (vv. 32 24\textsuperscript{21}); therefore E.— יִכְבֶּרֶתָּשָׁא, מַשְׁרֵי inserts יִכְבֶּרֶתָּשָׁא as v. 6 \textsuperscript{5} שִׁבַּר. 4a is wholly assigned to E by
attendant.'—The phrase is a variant from E (cf. 404).—4b.
In J, Joseph's position is far higher, that, namely, of mer-per
(mer-pa, mer en peri-t, etc.), or superintendent of the house-
hold, frequently mentioned in the inscriptions (Ebers, Aeg.
303 ff.; Erman, LAE, 187 f.).—6a. knew not with him] (i.e.
with Joseph [v.8]): 'held no reckoning with him';—a
hyperbolical expression for absolute confidence.—6b is intro-
ductive to 7ff.

The first temptation. The solicitation of a young man by
a married woman is a frequent theme of warning in Pr.
1–9.—9a. does not mean 'there is none' (which would
require יָונית), but 'he is not.'—9b. sin against God] The
name Yahwe is naturally avoided in conversation with a
foreigner. All the more striking is the consciousness of
the divine presence which to the exiled Israelite is the
ultimate sanction of morality.—11, 12. The final tempta-
tion.—On the freedom of social intercourse between the
sexes, see Ebers, 306 f. But the difficulties raised about
Joseph's access to the harem do not really arise, when we
remember that J is depicting the life of a simple Egyptian
family, and not that of a high palace official (see Tu.).
13–20. The woman's revenge.—14. A covert appeal to the
jealousy of the men-servants against the hated Hebrew, and
to the fears of the women, whom she represents as unsafe
from insult (to mock us). An additional touch of venom
lurks in the contemptuous reference to her husband as 'he.'
—Hebrew may be here a general designation of the Asiatic

Gu; but יָונית pleads strongly for J.—8.网投 [מע תָּמוֹנ תָּמוֹנ (v.28).—יתבכ] מְלָאָה (v.10).—יהַת הָלַעַת הָלַעַת and הָלַעַת הָלַעַת look like variants; but one
swallow does not make a summer, and it would be rash to infer an
Elohistic recension.—11. הוֹתְמָה אָתֶנָה] A very obscure expression, see BDB,
400 b. Of the other occurrences (Dt. 624, Jer. 4424, Ezr. 9:18, Neh. 9:18) all
except the last are perfectly transparent: 'as [it is] this day,'—a sense
quite unsuitable here. One must suspect that the phrase, like the kindred
לַעַת, and מְלָאָה (cf. esp. 1 Sa. 22:19), had acquired some elusive idiomatic
meaning which we cannot recover. Neither 'on a certain day' (G-K.
§ 126 s) nor 'on this particular day' (BDB) can be easily justified.—13.
מות] MSS מְלָאָה + מְלָאָה (12:18).—14. ובו] see on 264.—15. הָלַעַת [m.ʃe] (pallium quod tenebam) read יָונית,—wrongly, since to have said this
Bedouin (ATLO\(^2\), 387); but see on 40\(^{15}\).—\(19\). Her distorted account of the facts has the desired effect on her husband. —his wrath was kindled] against Joseph, of course. There is no hint that he suspected his wife, and was angry with her also (De. Di.).—\(20\). Imprisonment would certainly not be the usual punishment for such a crime as Joseph was believed to have committed; but the sequel demanded it, Joseph’s further career depending on his being lodged in the place where the king’s prisoners were bound. That he became a king’s slave (according to Hamm. § 129) is not indicated (against Je. ATLO\(^3\), 388). The term for prison (v.i.) is peculiar, and recurs only 21. 22. 23 40\(^3\). 5.

To this episode in Joseph’s life there is an Egyptian parallel so close that we can hardly fail to recognise in it the original of the Hebrew story. It is the ‘Tale of the two brothers’ in the d’Orbiny Papyrus, assigned by Egyptologists to the 19th dynasty. Two brothers lived together, the older Anpu having a house and wife, and the younger Batu serving him in the field. One day Batu enters the house to fetch seed for the sowing, and is tempted by his brother’s wife, exactly as Joseph was by his mistress. Furiously indignant—‘like a panther for rage’—he rejects her advances, out of loyalty to the brother who has been like a father to him, and expresses horror of the ‘great sin’ which she had suggested. Promising silence, he returns to his brother in the field. In the evening Anpu comes home to find his wife covered with self-inflicted wounds, and listens to a tale which is a perfect parallel to the false accusation against Joseph. Anpu seeks to murder his brother; but being at last convinced of his innocence, he slays his wife instead. Here the human interest of the story ceases, the remainder being fairy lore of the most fantastic description, containing at least a reminiscence of the Osiris myth. (See Ebers, 311 ff.; Erman, LAE, 378 ff.; Petrie, Egypt. Tales, ii. 36 ff.; Völter, Aeg. u. die Bibel, 50 ff. [who takes the story as a whole to be founded on the myth of Set and Osiris].) It is true that the theme is not exclusively Egyptian (see the numerous parallels in Lang, Myth, Ritual, and Religion, ii, 303 ff.); but the fact that the scene of the biblical narrative is in Egypt, and the close resemblance to the Egyptian tale, make it extremely probable that there is a direct connexion between them.

\(21-23\). Joseph in prison.—His good fortune and con-

would have been to betray herself (De. Di.).—\(17\) end \(\text{Gr} + \text{kal εἰπέν μοι Κοιμηθήσομαι μετά σου [\text{Gr}^A \text{ Κοιμήθητι μετ' ἐμοῦ].—18.} \text{τινί Μέθυ} [\text{Gr} ὥς δὲ ήκοινεν δρι δύσωσαι.—στὶν [\text{Gr} S + μεν. —20.} \text{δύσγορος} \text{τιν} \text{] Only in } 20-23\) 40\(^3\). 5 (J). The name may be Egyptian (see Ebers, 317 ff.; Dri. DB, ii. 768 a, n.), but has not been satisfactorily explained.—\(23\) [\text{G-K.} § 130 c.—יווחנ] so μι (and also in v.\(^{22}\)); but rd. with \(\text{Gr} \text{υἱός} \text{τοῦ} \text{[22].} \text{—} 21\). בְּמֶשֶׁה [\text{as}}
sequent promotion are described in terms nearly identical with those of vv. 1–6.—In J, the governor of the prison is anonymous, and Joseph is made superintendent of the other prisoners.

CH. XL. — *Joseph proves his Gift of interpreting Dreams (E).*

Joseph is appointed to wait on two officers of the court who have been put under arrest in his master’s house (1–4), and finds them one morning troubled by dreams for which they have no interpreter (5–8). He interprets the dreams (9–19), which are speedily verified by the event (20–22). But his eager request that the chief butler would intercede for him with Pharaoh (14f.) remains unheeded (23).

**Source.** — The main narrative, as summarised above, obviously belongs to E (see p. 456 f.). Joseph is not a prisoner (as in J 39:20ff.), but the servant of the captain of the guard (cf. 37:36 41:13); the officers are not strictly imprisoned, but merely placed ‘in ward’ ( rášàh) in Potiphar’s house (9, 4–7); and Joseph was ‘stolen’ from his native land (15a; cf. 37:28a), not sold by his brethren as 37:28 (J). — Fragments of a parallel narrative in J can be detected in 14b (a duplicate of 9), 20b (from ‘ו תיבילא) b (Joseph a prisoner), 5b (the officers imprisoned), and 15b. — In the phraseology note J’s הנשה, הנשה, הנשה, 1b || E’s אֵלָה אֵלָה אֵלָה , 2, 9, 16, 20, 21, 22, 23; J E: הת pä1 ב, 20b, 5b || E וּשְׁמֹר, 8a. 4, 7; while מְשָׁרָה רַב, 8a, 4, and רַב, 2, 7, connect the main narrative with 37:36 (E). — That in J the turn of Joseph’s fortune depended on the successful interpretation of dreams does not explicitly appear, but may be presumed from the fact that he was afterwards brought from the dungeon to interpret them (41:14 of J).

1–8. Pharaoh’s officers in disgrace: their dreams.

—I. the butler . . . the baker] J writes as if the king had only one servant of each class: his notions of a royal establishment are perhaps simpler than E’s. In Babylonia the highest and oldest court offices are said to have been those of the baker and the butler (ATLO2, 54; cf. Zimmern, ZDMG, liii. 119 f.).—2. chief of the butlers . . . bakers (E)

The rise of household slaves to high civil dignity seems to have been characteristic of the Egyptian government under the 19th dynasty (Erman, *LAE*, 105). Titles corresponding to those here used are 'scribe of the sideboard,' 'superintendent of the bakehouse,' etc. (Erman, 187).—3a. The officers are not incarcerated, but merely detained in custody pending investigation (Gu.).—3b (J). *bound* i.e. 'confined'; cf. 39^25f.—4. Joseph is charged with the duty of waiting on them (יְהוָה as 39^4, 2 Sa. 13:17). 5-8 is a skilful piece of narration: the effect of the dreams is vividly depicted before their character is disclosed.—5. *each according to the interpretation of his dream*] a sort of *idem per idem* construction, meaning that the dreams had each a peculiar significance.—5b (J).—8. *no one to interpret it*] No professional interpreter, such as they would certainly have consulted had they been at liberty.—interpretations belong to God] The maxim is quite in accord with Egyptian sentiment (Herod. ii. 83), but in the mouth of Joseph it expresses the Hebrew idea that inspiration comes directly from God and is not a מְצוֹאָה אֲשֶׁר יַשְׁוָא (Is. 29^13). On the Egyptian belief in divinely inspired dreams, see Ebers, 321 ff.; Wiedemann, *Rel. of the Ancient Eg* 266 ff.; Heyes, 174 ff.: on the belief in classical antiquity, Hom. ii. ii. 5-34, *Od.* iv. 795 ff.; Cicero, *De divin.* i. § 39 ff. etc.; in modern Egypt, Lane, *ME*^3^, i. 330. While this idea was fully shared by the Israelites, the interpretation of dreams, as a distinct art or gift, is rarely referred to in OT (only in the case of Joseph, and that of Daniel, which is largely modelled on it). Elsewhere the dream either *contains* the revelation (20^23f. etc.), or carries its significance on its face (28^12f. 37^10). See Sta. *BTb*, § 63. 1.

9-19. The dreams interpreted.—9-II. The butler had seen a vine pass rapidly through the stages of its growth; had seemed to squeeze the ripe grapes into a cup and present

(30^ etc.).—3. רַבְשֶׁה יָבֹא] Better perhaps רַבְשֶׁה יָבֹא (cf. v.i.), with נַבַע as acc. of place. So v.7.—4. נִשָּׁה = 'for some time'; G-K. § 139 b.—6. מַעַר 'be fretful'; elsewhere late (Dn. 11^0, Pr. 19^8, 2 Ch. 26^19f.).—8. מָט וּמִלְכָּה] On the order, G-K. § 152 a.— יִתְנַכֵּד הָאָרֶץ] ה הָאָרֶץ.

10. התוֹמֶם מַהְמָה] Not 'when it budded' (*לְכֹל*), for such a use of ל with a ptcp. (G-K. § 164 g) is dubious even in the Mishnah (*JQR*, 1908, 607 f.). If the text be retained we must render 'as if budding' (Dri. T. p. 172).
it to Pharaoh,—a mixture of the 'realistic' and the 'fantastic' which belongs to the psychology of the dream (Gu.). It is disputed whether the drinking of the fresh juice is realism or phantasy. "The ordinary interpretation is that the king drank the fresh grape-juice; but as the butler sees the natural process of the growth of the grapes take place with dream-like swiftness, so probably it is taken for granted that the juice became wine in similar fashion" (Ben.; so Gu.).

On the other hand, Ebers (Durch Gosen s. Sinai², 492) cites two texts in which a beverage prepared by squeezing grapes into water is mentioned.—I2, I3. The interpretation: the butler will be restored to his office within three days.—*lift up thy head] Commonly understood of restoration to honour. But in view of the fact that the phrase is used of the baker also, it may be doubted if it be not a technical phrase for release from prison (as it is in 2 Ki. 25prev., Jer. 52sub.).—I4, I5. Joseph's petition.—*remember me] On the difficult construction, v.i.—*from this house] Not the prison (as Vns., below), but Potiphar's house, where he was kept as a slave.—I5a. *I was stolen] cf. 37supra (E).—*the land of the Hebrews] The ex-

Ball emends (after Г кай αυτή δαλλονσαί) συνιζη την (cf. Jb. 14, Ps. 92sub); Kit. συοπ.—συος] The masc. τι does not occur (in this sense) in bib. Heb., and a contraction of συετι to συε is doubtful (G-K. § 91 e); hence it is better to read συε as acc.: 'it (the vine) went up in blossom.' It is possible that here and ls. 18θυ συε means 'berry-cluster;' see Deringen, ZATW, v. 301 f.—*σωμα] lit. 'cooked'; Hiph. only here.—Note the asyndetous construction, expressing the rapidity of the process.—I3. ἔστασην—συος] Г μνησθησεαι ... της ἀρχης σου; similarly FSTO,—[2] lit. 'pedestal,' used metaphorically as here in 41, Dn. 117, 20, 21, 38, —I4. μνησασθησαι] Г δαλλα μνησισθη μου, Ε ταπτωμ memento mei; similarly S and ΤΟ. Something like this must be the meaning; the difficulty is (since a precative pf. is generally disallowed in Heb.) to fit the sense to any known use of the bare pf. (a) If it be pf. of certitude, the nearest analogy seems to me to be Ju. 15, where сαν σώ appears strong affirmative force, perhaps with a suppressed adjuration, as 2 Ki. 5supra (νατ σώ και νασιν την): 'thou wilt surely remember me.' To supply a negative sent. like 'I desire nothing [except that thou remember me]' (G-K. § 163 a; De. Str.), destroys the idea of pf. of certainty, and is a doubtful expedient for the additional reason that сαν σώ may mean 'except,' but hardly 'except that.' (b) It may be fut. pf., in which case the сαν must have its separate conditional sense; and then it is better (with We.) to change σώ to συε: 'only, if thou remember me.' The objection (De. Di.) that the remembrance is too
pression is an anachronism in the patriarchal history. It is barely possible that both here and in 39\textsuperscript{14}.\textsuperscript{17} (41\textsuperscript{12}) there is a faint reminiscence of the historical background of the legends, the early occupation of Palestine by Hebrew tribes.—\textbf{15b} (J) was probably followed in the original document by an explanation of the circumstances which led to his imprisonment.—\textbf{16–19}. The baker's dream contains sinister features which were absent from the first, the decisive difference being that while the butler dreamed that he actually performed the duties of his office, the baker only sought to do so, and was prevented (Gu.).—\textbf{16}. three baskets of white bread] The meaning of רֵץ, however, is doubtful (v.i.).—\textit{upon my head] See the picture of the court-bakery of Rameses III in Ebers, \textit{Aeg.} 332; Erman, \textit{LAE}, 191. According to Ebers, the custom of carrying on the head (Herod. ii. 35) was not usual in ancient Egypt except for bakers.—\textbf{17}. in the uppermost basket] Were the other two empty (Ho. Ben.)? or were they filled with inferior bread for the court (Gu.)?—\textit{all manner of bakemeats] The court-baker of Rameses III. “is not content with the usual shapes used for bread, but makes his cakes in all manner of forms. Some are of a spiral shape like the 'snails' of our confectioners; others are coloured dark-brown or red,” etc. (Erman, 192).—\textit{while the birds kept eating] In real life he would have driven off the birds (cf. 15\textsuperscript{11}); in the dream—and this is the ominous circumstance—he cannot.—\textbf{19}. lift thy head from off thee] In view of the fulfilment, it is perhaps better (with Ball) to remove רֵץ as a mistaken repetition of the last word of the v., and to understand the phrase of the baker's release from prison (see on v.\textsuperscript{13}). The verb hang may then refer to the mode of execution, and not merely (as generally supposed) essential an element of the request to be made a mere condition, has no great weight; and might be met by giving וְאָשִׁיר interrogative force (Ho.). See, further, Dri. \textit{T}. \textsection 119 (8).—םֵהְבּוּו] The only case of consec. pf. followed by וְאָשִׁיר (G–K. \textsection 105 \textit{b}).—まught in rubric \textit{G} פֶּסַר for \textit{S} פֶּסַר seem to have read וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר וְאָשִׁיר W. רֵץ אָשִׁי, commonly derived from יָוֹן, 'be white'; so virtually \textit{G} Aq. פֶּסַר; but \textit{E} 'of nobility' (רֵץ). Others (Ra. al.) understand it as a characteristic of the baskets: 'perforated' (from יָוֹן, 'hole'). The \textit{pāvād} (of palm-leaves) of \textit{S}. seems to
to the exposure of the decapitated corpse. Decapitation is said to have been a commoner punishment in Egypt than hanging, but the latter was not unknown (Ebers, 334). The destruction of the corpse by birds must have been specially abhorrent to Egyptians, from the importance they attached to the preservation of the body after death. For OT examples, see Dt. 21:22f, Jos. 10:26, 2 Sa. 4:12, and esp. 2 Sa. 21:9, 10.

20-23. The dreams fulfilled.—20. That it was customary for the Pharaoh to celebrate his birthday by court assemblies and granting of amnesties, is proved for the Ptolemaic period by the tables of Rosetta and Canopus.—*lifted the head* see on v.19.—23. The notice of the butler's ingratitude forms an effective close, leaving the reader expectant of further developments.

Ch. XLI. Joseph becomes Viceroy of Egypt (JE, P).

Two years after the events of ch. 40, the king of Egypt has a wonderful double dream, which none of his magicians is able to interpret (1-8). The chief butler is naturally reminded of his own experience, and mentions Joseph, who is forthwith summoned into the royal presence (9-14). Having interpreted the dreams as a prophecy of a great famine (15-32), Joseph adds some sage advice on the right way to cope with the emergency (33-36); and Pharaoh is so impressed by his sagacity that he entrusts him with the execution of the scheme, and makes him absolute ruler of Egypt (37-46). In pursuance of the policy he had foreshadowed, Joseph stores the surplus of seven years of plenty, and sells it during the subsequent famine (47-57).

Analysis.—The connexion of this chapter with the preceding appears from 18 and 9-19: note סָאֵש המַשְׁאֶה אֵש', סָאֵש, בֶּטְשׁ, בֶּטְשׁ, מַשְׁאֶה (40); Joseph

rest on Aramaic (Field).—19. יְבַשׁ] Om. by two MSS and 3 (Ba. Kit.).—20. רָאָא אָרְרָו] as Ezk. 16:6; cf. G-K. § 69 α, 121 b.—21. רָאָא] is never elsewhere used of the office of butler: perhaps 'over his [Pharaoh's] drink' (as we should say, 'his cellar'), as Lv. 11:41, 1 Ki. 10:31, Is. 32:8 (so Ges. Th., Di.).—23. יְבַשְׁוֹ] Expressing 'a logical or necessary consequence of that which immediately precedes' (G-K. § 111 l); cf. Dav. § 47.
the servant of the נָּחַר; the officers confined in his 'house'; Joseph 'with them' (18, cf. 40^b). 4; and comp. 11 with 40^a. In the first half of the chapter there is no sufficient reason to suspect a second source except in 14b (J); the repetitions and slight variations are not greater than can be readily explained by a desire for variety in the elaboration of detail. The whole of this section (1-29) may therefore be safely assigned to E (cf. סַּעַד, סַעַד, 8; וְאָבַג אֶל הָאָרֶץ; 15 with 40^c; 16 with 40^d).—In the second half, however, there are slight diversities of expression and representation which show that a parallel narrative (J) has been freely utilised. Thus, in 33 Joseph recommends the appointment of a single dictator, in 34 the appointment of 'overseers'; in 34 a fifth part is to be stored, in 33, 48 all the corn of the good years; in 33^a the collection is to be centralised under the royal authority, in 38 localised in the different cities; הִכָּנֵו alternates with לֵוֶת (33^a, 49 | 33a, 48). Further, 38 seems 139; 41 144; and 42b 46b; 45a (יִמְֲּּהָת יִשְׁתַּתְּ = יְשַׁתָּתְ) can hardly be from E, who has employed the name for another person (37^a). Some of these differences may, no doubt, prove to be illusory; but taken cumulatively they suffice to prove that the passage is composite, although a satisfactory analysis cannot be given. For details, see the notes below; and consult Ho. 234; Gu. 338 f.; Pro. 43 f.—40a is from P, and 50b is a gloss.

1-8. Pharaoh's dreams.—2. from the Nile (v. i.)] the source of Egypt's fertility (Erman, LAE, 425 ff.), worshipped as 'the father of the gods,' and at times identified with Osiris or Amon-re (Erman, Handbook, 14 f., 80 ff.).—seven cows, etc.] "According to Diod. Sic. i. 51, the male ox is the symbol of the Nile, and sacred to Osiris, the inventor of agriculture (ib. i. 21). . . . The Osiris-steer often appears accompanied by seven cows, e.g. on the vignettes of the old and new Book of the Dead" (ATLO^b, 389).—4. The devouring of one set of cows by the other is a fantastic but suggestive feature of the dream; the symbolism is almost transparent.

1. סַעַד נָמִּים] Participial cl. as apodosis; see Dri. T. § 78 (3).—טָנָך An Eg. loan-word ('iofr, io'r = 'stream'), used in OT of the Nile and its canals (except Is. 33^c, Jb. 28^a, Dn. 12^f.); found also in Ass. in the form ya'aru. See Ebers, 337 f.; Steindorff, BA, i. 612 (cf. 171).—2. יָנָך (41^b, Jb. 8^a] 'Nile-grass' = Eg. ahu, from aha, 'be green' (Ebers, 338). יָנָך occurs also vv. 19, 15, Is. 19^b, Sir. 40^b. = 3. הָנָךְ + הָנָךְ (so v. 4). It is naturally difficult to decide which is right; but Ba. pertinently points to the alliterations as determining the choice: read therefore 'י in 3, 4, 19. 20-27, but 'י in 6-23,—in other words, 'י always of the cows and 'י always of the ears.—לָא הָנָךְ] Gr. om., thus making all the 14 cows stand together.—4. סַעַד נָמִּים] סַעַד + סַעַד; so 17. 20-24. סַעַד has many similar variations (which need not be noted), revealing a tendency to introduce uniformity into the description.
The second dream is, if possible, more fantastic and at the same time more explicit.—6. blasted with the east-wind (ゲη ἀνεμοφθορον) the dreaded sirocco or Ḥamsin, which blows from the SE from February to June, destroying vegetation, and even killing the seed-corn in the clods (Ebers, 340; Erman, LAE, 9; Smith, HG, 67 ff.).—8. all the magicians and wise men of Egypt] The possessors of occult knowledge of all sorts, including the interpretation of dreams (see p. 461); comp. Tac. Hist. iv. 83: “Ptolemæus . . . sacerdotibus ΑEgyptiorum, quibus mos talia intellegere, nocturnos visus aperit”; see Ebers, 341–349. The motive—the confutation of heathen magic by a representative of the true religion—is repeated in the histories of Moses (Ex. 7–9) and Daniel (chs. 2. 5); cf. Is. 4712 etc.

9–14. Joseph summoned to interpret the dreams.—9. The butler’s ungrateful memory is stimulated by the opportunity of ingratiating himself with his royal master, though this requires him to make mention of his old offence.—12. according to each man’s dream he interpreted] Note the order of ideas as contrasted with v.11 (406): there is a pre-established harmony between the interpretation and the dream, and the office of the interpreter is to penetrate the imagery of the dream and reach the truth it was sent to convey.—13. I was restored . . . he was hanged] Lit. ‘Me one restored,’ etc., according to G–K. § 144 d, e. To suppose the omission of Pharaoh, or to make Joseph the subj., is barely admissible.—14. and they brought him hastily from the dungeon] is a clause inserted from J.—shaved himself] his head and beard,—a custom which seems to have been peculiar to the priests under the New Empire (Erman, LAE, 219; cf. Herod. ii. 37).

8. চিঠিপত্র ‘was perturbed’; as Dn. 28 (21 Hithp.), Ps. 77.9.সময়বাদ হইল] Only in this ch., in Ex. 7–9 (P), and (by imitation) in Dn. 2. The word is thus practically confined to Egyptian magicians, though no Eg. etymology has been found; and it may be plausibly derived from Heb. תמונה, stylus.—সন্তান] Read with ইন্দো, after ইন্দু; the dream is ‘one (vv. 23, 29).—9. অপরিণিষ্ঠ হইল] আ বেতাদ ‘of the’—সন্তান] ইন্দো (sing.). The resemblance of the cl. (9) to 40 does not prove it to be from J [Gu.].—10. বতন] যুবক, ইন্দো—11. প্রয়োগ] G–K. § 49 e.—12. রাজা—রাজিত] ইন্দো καί συνέκρινεν ἡμῖν.
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15-24. Pharaoh's recital of his dreams.—15. thou canst hear a dream to interpret it] i.e., ‘thou canst interpret a dream when thou hearest it’: Heb. subordinates the emphatic clause where we would subordinate the condition.—16. Comp. 408.—The answer (on the form, v. i.) exhibits a fine combination of religious sincerity and courtly deference.—17-21. The first dream.—The king gives a vivid subjective colouring to the recital by expressing the feelings which the dream excited. This is natural, and creates no presumption that a parallel narrative is drawn upon. Similarly, the slight differences in phraseology (אנה for והאר, והלב, etc.) are due to the literary instinct for variety.—22-24. The second dream.

25-32. The interpretation.—25-27a. The general outline of the interpretation: the dream is one; it is a prel since of what is to happen; the number seven refers to years. The methodical exposition is meant to be impressive.—27b brings the climax: There shall be seven years of famine (so Pro. v.i.).—28. It is uncertain whether ונה refers back to 25b (‘This is what [I meant when] I said to Pharaoh’), or to 27b

15. מנה] Oratio obliqua after ראה (without י, G-K. § 157 a; Dav. § 146, R. i.—16. יב cancelling] lit. ‘Apart from me’ (כז ומכה ינ מנה), used as 1424. רמא read ינ יא על ונה יב = ‘Apart from God, one will not be answered,’ etc.; cf. § ב לחר ינק רמא גל יג ‘Dost thou expect that apart from God one will answer?’ etc.). F Absque me Deus respondetibus, shifting the accent. There seems a double entendre in the use of ינה: ‘answer’ and ‘correspond’: ‘God will give an answer corresponding to the welfare,’ etc.—19. דבר] ‘flaccid’; G om.—21. יס当たり] On the suff. cf. G-K. § 91 f.—ןענ[ך] Sing. (ib. § 93 ss).—23. חוט הד] Aram. = ‘dried,’ ‘hardened.’ The word is א. ש. in OT, and is omitted by ג[ך]-ד[ך].—ד[ך] MSS and מ.ך—. The irregular gender of MT only here in this chapter.

26. יה] Om. of art. may be justified on the ground that the numeral is equivalent to a determinant (G-K. § 126 x); but מ.ך is much to be preferred.—27. יא[ך] ‘empty.’ The pointing is suggested partly by the contrast to נקב (נ etc.), partly by the fact that (in MT) פ has not been used of the ears. We ought undoubtedly to read יב[ך] (מ.ך).—יה מ.ך The translation above is not free from difficulty; it omits a prediction of unusual plenty preceding the famine, which is, nevertheless, presupposed by what follows. But the ordinary rendering is also weak: why should the seven thin ears alone be fully interpreted? Besides, פּוֹפִי is fem.—28-32. The critical difficulties of the ch. commence in this section. Pro. assigns 28-31 to J (|| מ.ך E), instancing פּוֹפִי (cf. 1823. 24, 19.
('This is the announcement I [now] make to Pharaoh'). In any case 29 looks like a new commencement, and may introduce a variant from J (v.i.).—31. הַנִּלָּה goes back to the מִלַּי of 21.—32. If the dream is one, why was it twice repeated? Because, says Joseph, the crisis is certain and urgent. So he rounds off his finished and masterly explanation of the dreams.

33–36. Joseph's advice to Pharaoh.—Here Joseph proves himself to be no mere expert in reading dreams, but a man with a large reserve of practical wisdom and statesmanship.—33–35. There is an apparent discrepancy between the appointment of a single official (33a) and that of a commission of 'overseers' (34a); and again between the fifth part (34b) and the whole (35a); we note also the transition from sing. (שהם) to pl. (שהם, etc.). For attempts at division of sources, see below.—34. The taxing of a fifth part of the crop seems to have been a permanent Egyptian institution (see on 4724), whose origin the Hebrews traced to the administration of Joseph.—35. under the hand (i.e. the authority) of Pharaoh] cf. Ex. 1810, 2 Ki. 135, Is. 36.

37–46. Joseph's elevation.—37, 39 (E) || 38 (J).—The thing that was pleasing to Pharaoh, etc., is not the interpreta-

2730 432 4412), and רָנָּה (1210 431 47412) as characteristic of J; but they are not decisive. Gu. limits J to 20, 20a, 20b (|| 27f, 29b, 31, 32ab E). This is on the whole more satisfying, since נשן and רָנָּה appear to be doublets (Di); but a positive conclusion will hardly be reached.

33–36. The passage is certainly composite, and can be resolved into two nearly complete sequences as follows: E = 33. 34b. 35a (to מִשְׁכָּב); 36a[n]; J = 34a. 35abβ (from בְּךָ). Characteristic of E are קָנָה, מְנַשְׁכָּב, רָנָּה, against J's מְנַשְׁכָּב (with נְבִיָּים), נְבִיָּים, מְנַשְׁכָּב; and the only necessary change is רָנָּה to מְנַשְׁכָּב. The result corresponds pretty closely with Gu.'s analysis; that of Procksch differs widely.—33. [3] see Baer-Del. p. 78; G-K. § 75p. Str., however, holds the true reading to be מְנַשְׁכָּב. 34. [78] מְנַשְׁכָּב. To the peculiar idiom, De. compares the Latin fac scribas; מְנַשְׁכָּב may, however, mean 'take action,' as 1 Ki. 882.—משנה] & pl.—35. מְנַשְׁכָּב] BALL prefixes טָנוֹךְ (as v. 43); some such expedient is necessary to make sense of the last word.—For מְנַשְׁכָּב, מָס have מְנַשְׁכָּב; & מְנַשְׁכָּב (רָנָּה?) —36. [78] Lv. 521. 33a; obviously suggested here by טָנוֹךְ in v. 34.

37–46. Analysis.—To E we may pretty confidently assign 37, 39 (ןוּב שָנָה as 33) 40; to J 38, 41. 42. Whether J's parallel to 40 commences with 41 (Pro.), or is delayed to 44 (Gu.), it is hard to decide. 41b reads like a
tion of the dreams, but the practical suggestion with which it was followed up, though it was the former which proved that Joseph was truly inspired. The statement that the policy commended itself comes from E; in J, Pharaoh improves upon it by entrusting the supervision to Joseph himself instead of to the 'overseers' he had proposed.—38. the spirit of God] here first mentioned in Gen. as the source of inward illumination and intellectual power. The idea that eminent mental gifts proceed from the indwelling of the divine spirit, which is implied in Pharaoh's exclamation, was probably ancient in Israel, although the proofs of it are comparatively late (cf. Ex. 31, Nu. 27, see Stade, BTh. § 43. i).—40. over my house] The dignity may be compared to that of "Mayor of the palace" under the Merovingian kings; cf. 1 Ki. 4, 16, Is. 22 etc.—41. over all the land of Egypt] The most coveted civic office in Egypt was that of the T'ate, the chief of the whole administration, "the second after the king in the court of the palace" (see Erman, LAE, 87 ff., 69). The elevation of Syrian slaves to such dignities is likewise attested for the age of the New Empire (ib. 106, 517 f.).—42. The form of investiture is specifically Egyptian.—his signet-ring] used in sealing documents (Est. 3, 8), and given as a token of authority (Est. 3, 8, 1 Mac. 6 etc.).—fine linen] the weaving of which was carried to extreme perfection in Egypt; Erman, 448 ff.—the golden collar] There is probably an allusion to 'the reward of the gold,' a decoration (including necklets of gold) often conferred in recognition of eminent service to the crown (Erman,

formula of investiture accompanying the action of 42a, of which 43b would be the explication. 40b would be a natural sequel to 43a (רֵעָי). Hence, if a division must be attempted, that of Procksch may be followed, viz., E = 40. 42b. 43a. 40b; J = 41. 42a. 43b. 44. 45.—38. ἀκερήθ] 1st. pl. impf. Qal.—40. רֵעָי רֵעָי הָאָרָא] כֵּלֵל רֵעָי כֵּלֵל םִּדָּרִי בִּנְבַּקְוֹלֵס. The meaning 'kiss' being obviously unsuitable, Tu. De. Di. render 'arrange themselves' (from Ar. nasaka); others point רָעָי, 'run'; but no explanation is quite satisfactory. רֵעָי may, of course, mean 'at thy command' (45, Ex. 17 etc.).—אֲנַכיִּךְ וָךַ] 'only as regards the throne'; G-K. § 118 a.—41. יִתְנָא] כֵּל + סִימָנֶה. 42. פִּי] Apparently an Egyptian word (Copt. ἱσσ); replaced in post-Exilic Heb. by רָע. It is disputed whether it means cotton alone, or linen alone, or both; see Di.'s exhaustive note
Horses and carriages first appear on monuments of the 18th dynasty, and must have been introduced "during the dark period between the Middle and the New Empire" (Erman, 490).—they cried before him 'Abrek] A very obscure word; for conjectures, v.i.—44. An almost exact parallel (J) to 41 (E).—45a. Joseph’s marriage.—The conferring of a new name naturally accompanied promotions like that of Joseph (Erman, 144).—the high priest of 'Ôn] was an important personage in the religion and politics of the New Empire (see Erman, LAE, 76, 83, 89, and pass.), and the priestly college there was reputed the greatest in the country for learning (Herod. ii. 3; Strabo, xvii. i. 29). 'Ôn (Eg. Anu) is Heliopolis, 7 m. NE of Cairo, an ancient seat of the

on Ex. 25, and EB, 2800 f.—modern] בֵּית הָאָדָם] G-K. § 85 h.—אַבֵּרֵק] מַעַּהַר כְּרִיטוּת. The word remains an enigma. The resemblance to Heb. וֶז has misled no anc. Vn. except Agq. (gôvarît ev) and _surf (ut genuflecterent). renders בָּאִיר לֹא; טו וַאֲנַיִוּיאַי לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא לֹא L and ḫ has ḫrav as subj. of vb. (E also has clamante pracone). The speculations of Egyptologists are too numerous to mention: see BDB, s.v., or Heyes, 254 ff. The best is that of Spiegelberg (Ola. vi. 317 ff.), who considers that it is a call to ‘Attention!’ (Eg. 'b r-k; lit. ‘Thy heart to thee!’). Frd. Del. (Parad. 225) suggested a connexion with Ass. abarakku (the title of a high official), which his father declared to be a “neckischer Zufall”! Radical emendations of the text have been proposed by Ball (י כץ) and Che. (י כץ יֶשׁ =‘Mighty one of Chuenaten’ [Amenophis iv.]: Ola. iii. 151 f.) these are wholly unsatisfying, and the latter has not survived the criticisms of Müller (ib. 325 ff.): see TBI, 467.—thus placing.' As continuation of י in 42a, the inf. abs. is grammatically correct (G-K. § 113 a); and though the idiom is infrequent, there is no reason to suspect the text.—45. יֵבָּא יֵבָּא] יִפְּנוּ לַחֲבָּרִית (transposing ל and ל) [see Nestle, ZATW, xxvi. 209 ff.]. The old interpretations follow two lines: (1) ‘Revealer of secrets’ (Jos. Ant. ii. 91; סלפיא, Patr.), connecting with Heb. יָבָא; and (2) ‘Saviour of the world’ (Copt. p-sot-om-ph-eneh, De. Ho.); so H Jer. Quast. Of modern Egyptological theories the one most in favour seems to be that propounded by Steindorff in Ztsch. f. Aeg. Spr. xxvii. 41 f.: that it represents Eg. De-pnute-eft-onh, and means ‘The god speaks and he lives.’ It is said (ib. 42) that personal names of this type (though with the proper name of a deity) are common from the beginning of the 22nd dynasty. See the discussion in Heyes, op. cit. 258 ff., who prefers the interpretation

* Comp. Heyes, Bib. u. Aeg. 248 ff.
worship of the sun-god Ra.—On the other names in the v., v.l.—45b and 46b are doublets.—46a (P). The chronology is altogether inconsistent with the assumptions of JE regarding the relative ages of Joseph and Benjamin (see Ben. 360).—stood before Pharaoh] cf. 477 (P).

47-57.—Joseph’s measures for relief of the famine. —47, 49 (E) || 48 (J). He stores corn during the seven years of plenty.—50-52 (E ?). Joseph’s two sons.—Menasseh] interpreted quite grammatically as ‘causing to forget.’ The etymology is not to be taken too literally, as if the narrator meant that Joseph had actually forgotten his father’s house (cf. Ps. 4511).—52. made me fruitful] The name of the tribe is generally thought to contain the idea of fruitfulness, from the fertility of the region in central Palestine which it occupied.—54-57. The beginning of the famine.—54, 55 contain a slight discrepancy. According to 54b the Egyptians

of Lieblein (PSBA, 1898, 202 ff.): defenti [or defenta]-pa-anb = “celui qui donne la nourriture de la vie.”—Explained, with some hesitation, as ‘belonging to’ (the goddess) Neith’ (Steindorff, Spiegelberg, al.).—[C.Ierpeph], etc.] is a fuller form of ḫmwb; see on 391. —It is worthy of remark that, except in the case of Asenath, the suggested Egyptian analogues of these names do not occur, save sporadically, earlier than the 22nd dynasty (that of Shishak).—45b. & om.—46. jiew hmr ḫmwb is an amplification in the style of P (Ex. 611. 12. 27. 29. 14).

47-57. Analysis.—Starting from the presumption that the storing of food in the cities and the direct appeal of the famishing people to Pharaoh are not from the same source, the best division seems the following: E = 47. 49. 54a. 55. 56b; J = 48. 53. 54b. 56a. 57 (comp. Gu. and Pro.). 50-52 are universally assigned to E (on account of ḫmwb) in spite of the fact that the children are named by the father. P’s authorship is perhaps excluded by the explicit etymologies, to which there are no real analogies in that document. The vv. in any case interrupt the context of JE, and may be a supplementary notice inserted by a late hand at what seemed the most suitable place.—47. ḫmwb] The  is elsewhere peculiar to P (Lv. 22. 31. 16. Nu. 524); and Ball assigns 46-48 to that source. But the sense ‘by handfuls’ is doubtful, and is represented by none of the old Vns. except the clumsy paraphrases of D and 4; so that the text is probably at fault. 2 has ḏpγματα; and 40 | ḫmwb and ḫmr (with  and ḫmr for ḫmwb).—48. ḫmr] Rd. with ḫmr. ḫmr  ḫmr. 50. ḫmr] P. & ḫmr. ḫmr. 51. ḫmr] Pi. only here; both the form and the irregular vocalisation (G-K. 52 m) are chosen for the sake of assonance with ḫmr.—54. ḫmr] ḫmr ḫmr; so 3—a natural mis-
had no lack of bread, and consequently no need to apply to Joseph, though they were indebted to his forethought. In
55 they are famishing, and have to buy their food from
Joseph: this view is connected with 47\textsuperscript{13ff}.—56. opened all
that was in them] Read with \textgreek{G} 'all the granaries,' though
the Hebrew text cannot be certainly restored (\textit{v.i.})—57
prepares for the next scene of the drama (ch. 42).

State granaries, for the sustenance of the army, the officials and the
serfs, were a standing feature of Egyptian administration (Erman, \textit{LAE},
107 f.; cf. 433 f.), and were naturally drawn upon for the relief of the
populace in times of scarcity (ib. 126). The 'superintendent of the
granaries' was a high officer of state, distinct, as a rule, from the vizier
or \textit{T\^ate} (p. 469); but a union of the two dignities was just as easy under
exceptional circumstances as the combination of the Premiership with
the Chancellorship of the Exchequer would be with us (see Erman, 89).
We can readily understand that such a wise and comprehensive pro-
vision impressed the imagination of the Israelites, and was attributed by
them to a divine inspiration of which one of their ancestors was the
medium (cf. Gu. 384).—Besides these general illustrations of the writer's
acquaintance with Egyptian conditions, two special parallels to this
aspect of Joseph's career are cited from the monuments: (1) Ameny, a
nomarch under Usertsen i. (12th dynasty), records on his grave at Beni-
Hasan that when years of famine came he ploughed all the fields of his
district, nourished the subjects of his sovereign and gave them food, so
that there was none hungry among them. (2) Similarly, on a grave of
the 17th dynasty at El-Kab: "When a famine arose, lasting many years,
I distributed corn to the city in each year of the famine" (see \textit{ATLO}²,
390; Dri. 346 f.). For the sale of grain to foreigners, we have the case of
Yan\^jamu, governor of Yarimutu, in the Amarna letters (see below on
47\textsuperscript{13ff}.)—It is impossible to desire a fuller demonstration of the Egyptian
background of the Joseph-stories than ch. 41 affords. The attempt to
minimise the coincidences, and show that "in a more original and shorter
form the story of Joseph had a N Arabian and not a Palestinian and
Egyptian background, and consequently that 'Pharaoh, king of Egypt,'
should be 'Pir\^u, king of Mi\^srin'" (\textit{TBI}, 454-473), tends to discredit
rather than confirm the seductive Mu\^sr\^i-theory, which is pushed to such
an extravagant length.

understanding.—56. \textit{םָּרָא} \textit{םָּרָא} \textit{םָּרָא}. The context imperatively
demands a noun (\textgreek{G} \textit{στοιβαλόνας}, \textit{Σ Ἀυτοί}). Lagarde (\textit{Sym. i. 57}) sug-
gested a Heb. equivalent of Talmud. \textit{אָמֶרֶא}; We. some derivative of \textit{러ש};
De. Ba. and Kit. (combining \textit{מו} and \textit{ס}) \textit{ךְָּּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּוָּو
Ch. XLII.—Joseph’s Brethren come to Egypt to buy Food (E, J)

One thing is still wanting to the dramatic completeness of the story of Joseph: the recognition of his greatness by his family, or (in E) the fulfilment of his youthful dreams. This is the theme of the second part of the history (chs. 42–45), where the writers tax their inventiveness to the utmost in retarding the dénouement of the plot. Two visits to Egypt, and not fewer than four interviews with Joseph, are needed to prepare for the final reconciliation; and the hearers’ attention is all the while kept on the stretch by the surprising expedients adopted by Joseph to protract the suspense and excite the compunction of his brethren.—In ch. 42 we are told how the ten brothers are brought to Egypt by stress of famine (1–4), are recognised by Joseph, and denounced and imprisoned as spies (5–17); and how after three days’ confinement they are sent home, leaving Simeon behind them as a hostage (18–28). Arrived in Canaan, they relate their adventure to Jacob, who bitterly complains of the loss of two children, and refuses to trust Benjamin to their charge (29–33). The incident of the money found in the sacks (25. 27f. 35) increases the dread with which they contemplate a return to Egypt.

Analysis.—Ch. 42 belongs a potiori to E, and 43. 44 to J (We. Comp. 2 58ff.). A distinct difference of representation appears from a comparison of 4228–37 (which, pace Procksch, is an undiluted excerpt from E) with 433–7 4419–23 (J). "In ch. 42, Joseph secures, by the detention of Simeon, that the brethren shall return under any circumstances, with Benjamin or without; in ch. 43 f., on the contrary, he forbids them to return unless Benjamin is with them" (We.). In J, moreover, the brethren do not volunteer the information that they have a younger brother, but it is drawn out of them by searching questions. It is certain (from doublets and phraseology) that both J and E are represented in 42124; though the former is so fragmentary that it is difficult to reconstruct a narrative consistent with 433ff. 4418ff. Apparently, the colloquy reproduced in 437 4440–29 435 must have followed the acknowledgment that they were all one man’s sons (11a [12a E]),—a view which seems to fit in with all the literary indications. E’s account can easily be traced with the help of 29–37: it includes the charge of espionage (9. 11. 14. 16. 20), the imprisonment (17. 20), the detention of Simeon (19. 24. 30f.), the command to bring down Benjamin (16. 20. 24), and the putting of the money in the sacks (23. 35).—In
VISIT OF THE BRETHREN TO EGYPT (E)

1-14, the more obvious doublets are 1a | 2a, 5a | 6b, 7a | 8, 11a | 13a; characteristic phrases of J: רדוי, 2a; והשתתת את הקדש, 2 (43b 47'9); פרק ארוך, 5 (42b 44b); הושע, 8; 12b. Possibly also ויאדו夫妇 התואלי, 9b. 12b, is J's variant for E's מטיר, 9b, etc. (cf. 30, 31, 34) (Gu.). Hence we may assign to J 2, 3a, 4b.

57 (except תושק הם לברוי, which should probably follow 6a in E [Di. KS. Gu.]), 8b, 10, 11a, 12; and to E all the rest (so Gu, nearly: Procksch, however, very plausibly assigns 5, 6a to P).—After 13 there is no trace of J till we come to 27, 28, a duplicate, an obvious duplicate of 35, containing J's peculiar word תנתמה.—29-37 are from E: note the name Jacob, 29, 36; Reuben's leadership, 37; and the words ויהי, 34; ויהיה, 34 (37b [342]). We also obtain some new expressions which may be employed as criteria of E: תושק, 20 (cf. 7); ויהי, 31, 32, 34 (cf. 11, 19); ויהיה, 33 (cf. 19); ויהי, 35 (cf. 25).—38 belongs to J, but its proper place is after 43 (see on the v.).—A peculiar feature of this and the following chs. is the name וק, which is elsewhere in Gen. characteristic of P (see p. 245). From this and some similar phenomena, Giesebrecht and others have inferred a Priestly redaction of Joseph pericope; but the usage may be due to the constant and unavoidable antithesis between Canaan and Egypt (see p. 438 above).

1-4. The journey to Egypt.—1, 2. Another effective change of scene (cf. 391 411), introducing the deliberations in Jacob's family regarding a supply of food; where the energy and resourcefulness of the father is set in striking contrast to the perplexity of the sons.—4. Benjamin has taken Joseph's place in his father's affection (4429); Jacob's unwillingness to let him out of his sight is a leading motive both in J and E.

5-17. The arrival in Egypt, and first interview with Joseph.—On 5, 6a, v.i.—6b. As suspicious strangers the brothers are brought before the viceroy.—bowed themselves, etc.] Reminding Joseph of his dreams (v. 9). The original connexion in E is broken by the insertion of v. 7 from J.
7 (J) || 8 (E). That Joseph was not recognised by his brethren is natural, and creates a situation of whose dramatic possibilities the narrators take full advantage. The strange mixture of harshness and magnanimity in Joseph’s treatment of his brothers, the skill with which he plays alternately on their fears and their hopes, the struggle in his mind between assumed severity and real affection, form the chief interest of the narratives up to the time of the final disclosure. It is unnecessary to suppose that the writers traced in all this the unfolding of a consistent ethical purpose on Joseph’s part, and it is certainly an exaggeration to speak of it as an exhibition of ‘seelsorgerische geistliche Weisheit’ (De.). On the other hand, to say that his object was merely to punish them (Gu.), is clearly inadequate. To the writers, as to the brethren, the official Joseph is an inscrutable person, whose motives defy analysis; and it is probably a mistake to try to read a moral meaning into all the devices by which his penetrating knowledge of the human heart is exemplified.—

9. Ye are spies] A charge that travellers in the East often encounter (see p. 484 below). The eastern frontier of Egypt was fortified and closely watched (Erman, LAE, 537 ff.), and a band of ten men seeking to cross it excited suspicion.—the nakedness of the land] Not its poverty, but its open and defenceless spots.—II (J) || 13 (E). sons of one man, etc.] Their eagerness to clear their character betrays them into a disclosure of their family circumstances, which in J is followed up by direct interrogation and a warning that they need not return without their youngest brother (p. 473 above); while in E, Joseph seizes on the reference to Benjamin as a test of their veracity, and threatens that they shall not leave Egypt until he is produced (15ff.).—one is not] It is a fine instance of

cont. Ap. i. 77, can hardly be other than accidental.—אומ[ע] מלק̂ נק[ע] קמח,—

9. בִּן lit. pudenda, is only here used of defencelessness. Ar. ‘aurat is similarly used of a ‘breach in the frontier of a hostile country’ (Lane, 2194 c); cf. Kor. S. 3312 “our houses are ‘aurat,”—a nakedness, i.e. unoccupied and undefended. G has רַח (163 a; מהלק̂ ס om. †—12. ועת] So Ex. 16:8; Nu. 3222, La. 3424 (G-K. § 32 d); מ. פֶּלֶג—םב[ב] lit. ‘right men,’ is used of persons only in this ch.—13. רוא הח[או] בֵּל (16) om., perhaps
literary tact that Joseph never presses the question as to the fate of the missing brother.—14. This is what I said] ‘It is as I have said’ (cf. 4128). Joseph maintains his opinion with well-feigned official obstinacy (Di.).—15, 16. By this shall ye be tested] The pretext covers a real desire to see Benjamin, which is explicitly avowed in J (4421b 4330).—By the life of Pharaoh] In Egypt the king was honoured as a god (Diod. i. 90; Erman, Handb. 36 f.); and the oath by his life is attested by an inscription of the 20th dynasty. The OT analogies cited by Kn. (1 Sa. 1758, 2 Sa. 1111) are not in point, since they do not differ from the same formula addressed to private persons (1 Sa. 208 2526).—17. The three days’ imprisonment is rather meaningless after v. 16 (see p. 477). Gu. remarks on the prominence of imprisonment in the Joseph narratives, and surmises that a good many Hebrews had known the inside of an Egyptian jail.

18–26. The second interview. —After three days Joseph appears to relent, and to entertain the idea that they may after all be telling the truth. He now proposes to retain only one of them as a hostage, and let the rest carry corn for their starving households.—18. I fear God] the guardian of ‘international religious morality’ (Gu.), which is presupposed throughout the patriarchal history; see on 208 399.—21. Nay, but we are guilty] The confession is wrung from them by the distress (זרע) which has overtaken them, reminding them of Joseph’s distress of soul (עשו יצרע) when they left him to die,—when he pleaded with us] This touch of pathos is not recorded in ch. 37.—22. Reuben had a right to dissociate himself from the confession of guilt, for he had meant to save Joseph; but like many another
man he claims credit for his good intention rather than for the temporising advice he had actually given (37\textsuperscript{22}).—*his very blood is required* in spite of the fact that the speaker had kept them from actual bloodshed.—23. *an interpreter* This is the only place in the patriarchal history where diversity of language appears as a bar to intercourse. —24. Joseph is moved to tears by this first proof of penitence.—*Simeon* is chosen as hostage as the oldest next to Reuben, of whose attempt to save him Joseph has just learned for the first time. The effect on the brothers would be the same as in 43\textsuperscript{33}.—25. The rest are treated with great generosity; though whether the restoration of the money is pure kindness or a trap, we can hardly say.—*provision for the way* Hence in E the sacks are not opened till the journey’s end (38).

Vv.35-34 show a disconnectedness which is unusual in the lucid and orderly Joseph story, and which cannot be explained by discrepancies between J and E. The first proposal—to send one man to fetch Benjamin—leads to no consequences, but is followed, most unnaturally, by the imprisonment of all the ten. This in like manner serves no purpose but to give Joseph time to change his mind. And the colloquy of the brothers (21\textsuperscript{1t}) could hardly find a less appropriate place than the moment when hope breaks in on their forebodings. The proper setting for the imprisonment would seem to be their first encounter with Joseph (as v. 30 (G)); and the confession of guilt would stand in a suitable connection there. It is possible that 11\textsuperscript{st} are a variant to 13\textsuperscript{st}, belonging to a somewhat different recension. If Gu. (p. 387) be right in thinking that the earliest form of the legend knew of only one visit to Egypt, it is easy to conceive that in the process of amplification several situations were successively invented, and that two of these have been preserved side by side by an editor, in spite of their imperfect consistency.

26–38. The return to Canaan.—27, 28. J’s parallel to 33 (E).—To leave room for the latter, the account is cut
short with the opening of the first sack. In J, each man
found his money at the 'inn' (43\textsuperscript{21}).—28. their heart went
out] 'their courage sank.' Partly from the anticipated
accusation of theft (43\textsuperscript{18}), but still more from the super-
stitious notion that God was bringing trouble upon them.—
ירמואו J's peculiar word for 'corn-sack' (v.i.).—The last
clause, however, What has God (םייח) done to us?] is
apparently taken from E, probably transposed from the end of
35 (KS.).—29—34. They recount their experiences to
Jacob.—30. treated us as spies] Better, as ג (v.i.), 'put us in
ward as spies.'—35. See on 27l. The incident explains
Jacob's foreboding (v.\textsuperscript{36}) that Simeon and Benjamin are as
good as lost.—36. Me have ye bereaved . . . upon me all
this has come] The point of the complaint is that it is his
children, not their own, that they are throwing away one
after another: to which Reuben's offer to sacrifice his two
sons is the apt rejoinder.—37 is E's variant to 43\textsuperscript{9}: here
Reuben, there Judah, becomes surety for Benjamin. In E
an immediate return to Egypt is contemplated, that Simeon
may be released; hence the discussion about sending
Benjamin takes place at once. In J the thought of returning
is put off to the last possible moment (43\textsuperscript{8}), and the difficulty
about Benjamin does not yet arise.—38 therefore has been
removed from its original context: see on 43\textsuperscript{1,2}.—bring
down . . . to She'ol] See on 37\textsuperscript{55}.

Chs. XLIII. XLIV.—The second Visit to Egypt (J).

The supply of food being exhausted, another family
council is held, at which Jacob's reluctance to part with
Benjamin is at last overcome by Judah becoming surety for
his safe return: the eleven brethren set out with a present

Ar.—28. הנה] add וה add unnecessarily.—יהי רעה] Pregn. const. ; G–K.
§ 119 gg.—30. מע [מע] ג ה פלנ Kiev (= יפליות).—32. הניך [מע] גס
transp.—33. יני] Rd. with גס ת "רעה, as v.19. —34. יניאו] גס י
pr. 1.—35. On the syntax, cf. G–K. § 111 g.—36. חס] for ח, as Pr
31\textsuperscript{20} (G–K. § 91 f). On E's preference for these lengthened suff., see
Di. on 41\textsuperscript{21}. 
for Joseph and double money in their hand (1-14). To their surprise they are received with every mark of honour as the guests of the viceroy; and their fears give place to convivial abandonment at his hospitable table (15-34). But Joseph has devised one more trial for them: his silver cup is secretly placed in Benjamin’s sack, and on their homeward journey they are overtaken with the accusation of theft. Brought back to Joseph’s presence, they offer to surrender their freedom in expiation of some hidden guilt which God has brought home to them (441-16). But when Joseph proposes to detain Benjamin alone, Judah comes forward and, in a speech of noble and touching eloquence, pleads that he may be allowed to redeem his pledge by bearing the punishment for his youngest brother (17-34).

The second journey “brings to light the disposition of the brethren to one another and to their father, thus marking an advance on the first, which only brought them to the point of self-accusation” (Di.). That is true of the narrative as it stands; but since the first journey is taken almost entirely from E and the second from J, the difference indicated is probably due to the different conceptions represented by the two writers, rather than to a conscious development of the plot.

Source.—That the chs. are not the continuation of 42 (E) appears (a) from the more reasonable attitude attributed to Joseph, (b) from the ignoring of Simeon’s confinement, and (c) the consequent postponement of the second journey to the last moment, and (d) the divergent account of the first meeting with Joseph (p. 473). Positive points of contact with J are (a) the discovery of the money at the first halting-place (4311), (b) Judah as spokesman and leader (4337, 4414, 15, 16), (c) the name Israel (436, 8, 11), and the expressions: הָאָרֶץ, 432, 4, 20, 29; 441-38; שִּׁנְחָה (of Joseph, without qualification), 433. 8. 6f. 11. 13f. 442; תָּמוּנָה אֲלֵי הַרְסוֹת, 438; מַסְיוֹהוֹ, 4310; רִי וּרְיָרָה, 4311. 15. 20. 29; הַנַּחַן, 4312. 18. 21ff. 4417. 8. 11f.; הָוָא, 4321; מַסְיוֹהוֹ, 4354; יָאָרָה הַדַּק, 4429. The only clear traces of E’s parallel narrative are the allusions to Simeon in 4314, 29b. Pro. makes 17a. (1 lobal) 18. 14. 15b28b. 165. 3b; a continuous sequence from E; but the evidence is conflicting (note ושנ, 14; וּרְיָר, 18b): see, however, on 12.

1-14. The journey resolved on.—2. Jacob speaks in evident ignorance of the stipulation regarding Benjamin; hence 4238 (J) stands out of its proper place. The motive of the transposition is obvious, viz., to account for the seeming rejection of Reuben’s sponsorship in 4237.

The original order in J can be recovered by the help of 4428ff. After v.2 there must have been an announcement, in terms similar to 4426, of
the necessity for taking Benjamin with them, to which Jacob replies with the resolute refusal of 4358 (cf. 4428). Then follows 26 the more emphatic declaration of Judah, and his explanation of the circumstances out of which the inexorable demand had arisen (see We. Comp. 2 59 f.).

3–5. Judah’s ultimatum. On the difference of representation from E, see p. 473 above.—6. The reproachful question is intelligible only on the understanding that Jacob has just heard for the first time that he must part with Benjamin.—

7. according to the tenor, etc.] In accordance with the governor’s leading questions.—8–10. Judah becomes responsible for Benjamin’s safety (as in E Reuben, 4227).—9. I shall be a sinner, etc.] For the idea, cf. 1 Ki. 121: guilt is measured not by the moral intention, but by the external consequences, of an action.—II–I4. Jacob yields to the inevitable; but with characteristic shrewdness suggests measures that may somewhat ease the situation.—II. the produce of the land] its rarer products, as a token of homage. On ἵνα v. i.—On γάντια, λίβανος, see 3725. —honey] may here mean grape-syrup, the dibs of modern Syria (see Robinson, BR, ii. 81, iii. 381); but there seems no reason to depart from the usual OT sense of the word, viz., the honey of the wild-bee (see Kennedy’s careful art. in EB, 2104 ff.).—pistachio-nuts (v. i.) are highly esteemed as a delicacy in Egypt and Syria, although the tree is said to be rarely found in Palestine (according to Rosen, ZDMG, xii. 502, not at all).—12.

3. ἵνα] followed by nom. sent., G-K. § 163 c.—Instead of ἵνα, G has ὁ νεωτέρος καταβαίνει πρὸς με[.—5. ἐπεί Εφραίμ] ἢ μου ἢ μεθ' ἡμῶν.—10. τοῦ νησίου] ‘in that case,’ as 3142; see G-K. § 159 ee.—II. ἔργα] ἐπ. λεγ. G καρποῖς, ἐπί ὁμίλαις fructibus, ἐπὶ μυριαὶ ἄγνωστον, ᾧ [ἔργα] ἐφοίτησε. The meaning is obscure. The derivation from ἀρομά ‘praise’ [in song] (Ἑτ., Tu. al.) is perhaps too poetic to be natural, though it yields a good sense; that from ἀρομά, ‘prune,’ is hardly suitable (see Di.).

DHMüller (in Ges. Hdb., p. 983) connects with Aram. מְדִרְבָּה, ‘admire’; ‘admirable products,’—practically the same idea as Tu. (On Ar. ḫmāra, ḫmār [agreeing phonetically with Aram. and Heb.], v. Lane, 977 f.)—שֶׁמֶר] ἐπ. λεγ. Almost certainly nuts of Pistoria vera, belonging to the terebinth family (hence G τερέβινθον, so ἤργα), for which the Syr. name is לַחֶם מֶדֹרְבָּה (Aram. מְדִרְבָּה, Ar. ḫmār, Ass. ḫmāru); see BDB, s. v.—12. מְדִרְבָּה] cf. מְדִרְבֶּת, v. 18; and see G–K. § 131 e, q.—בָּשַׁם] See Bā-Del.
double money . . . and the money, etc.] can hardly mean double money besides that which had been returned; unless (Prockensch) the first clause be a variant from E, we must take \( \text{as } \) 'namely.'—14. 'El Shaddai does not occur elsewhere in J or E (see on 17\(^1\)), and may be redactional. On the composition of the v., v.i.—as I am bereaved, etc.] An utterance of subdued resignation: cf. 42\(^{38}\), 2 Ki. 7\(^4\), Est. 4\(^{16}\).

15–25. In Joseph's house. —15. They first present themselves before Joseph at his official bureau, and are afterwards conducted by the steward to his private residence. The house of a wealthy Egyptian of the 18th dynasty will be found described in Erman, LAE, 153, 177 ff.—16. Joseph's desire to 'set his eyes on' Benjamin being now gratified, he rewards his brothers by a display of kindness which must have seemed excessive.—slay and make ready] In Egypt, accg. to Her: ii. 37, 77, Diod. i. 70, flesh was eaten daily by priests and kings, although the former had to abstain from certain kinds of animal food (Kn-Di.).—18. To the simple-minded peasants all this looks like an elaborate military stratagem to overwhelm them by main force and reduce them to slavery.—19–22. To forestall the suspicion of theft, they offer to return the money found in their sacks.—in its full weight] On the weighing of money, see 23\(^{16}\). —23. your money came to me] Therefore what you found has nothing to do with it. The steward has entered into Joseph's purpose, and encourages them to

p. 79 ('pathachatut uti expresse ait Masora'), G–K. §§ 72 bb, 93 pp.—
14. רחק] ux גא רוחק. The phrasing is peculiar, and suggests that רJE may have added to J the words ינשענמ רוחק, at the same time inserting גא (which גא om.), to bring about the desired allusion to Simeon.—
16. בקנפ] ux גא ברקע והיה (v.\(^{29}\)).—בשק] The only case of improve. in \( \delta \) with final gutt. (G–K. § 65 \( \delta \)).—18. מאריו] צא איהי.—שבה] ux צא בשיה (v.12).—בלוגחתב \( \text{at. ley.} \) סת\(^0\) read \( \text{סתי} \) (see Ba.). צא תדכ סוקוףנין הימין, \( \text{E ut devolvat in nos calumniam. The text is not to be questioned.—20. } \) \( \text{is always followed by } \text{ ClassNotFoundException(44,18, Ex. 4.10.18, Nu. 12.11, Jos. 7.8, Ju. 6.18.18 13.8, 1 Sa. 28, 1 Ki. 3.17.28 \text{.) It is commonly derived from당, 'ask, or (BDB) Ar. bayya, 'entreat': might it not rather be regarded as a shortening of당 (2 Ki. 5.18, Jb. 34.50) from당, 'be willing'.—23. ובאבר] ux גא ובאבר.
believe that it was a supernatural occurrence, but of auspicious omen, and not, as they had imagined, a calamity. —The notice of Simeon’s release is here inserted as the most convenient place, from E. —24. Cf. 24.32. —25. they had heard, etc.] In conversation with the steward (cf. v. 10).

26–34. At Joseph’s table.—27, 28. Joseph’s courteous inquiries as to their welfare and that of their father are a studied prelude to— 29–31, his profound emotion at the sight of Benjamin,—his (full) brother, the son of his mother. The disparity in age must have been great (؟؟): one wonders whether the narrative does not presuppose that Benjamin had been born since Joseph had been lost.—30, 31. For the second time (42.24) Joseph’s affection finds relief in tears, and again he restrains himself, that he may carry out his plan.—The interlude reveals, as Gu. remarks, a power of psychological observation which is absent from the oldest legends.—32–34. The feast brings two more surprises: the arrangement of the brothers in the order of seniority (see on 42.24); and the special favour shown to Benjamin.—32 affords an interesting glimpse of Egyptian manners. Joseph’s isolation at table was perhaps due to his having been admitted a member of the priestly caste (41.45), which kept itself apart from the laity (Kn-Di.). The Egyptian exclusiveness in intercourse with foreigners, which would have been perfectly intelligible to the later Jews, evidently struck the ancient Israelites as peculiar (Gu.). Cf. Her. ii. 41–34. The custom of honouring a guest by

portions from the table is illustrated by 2 Sa. 11; cf. Hom. 
Il. vii. 321 f., Od. iv. 65 f., xiv. 437.—five times].

It is hardly accidental that the number five occurs so often in 
reference to matters Egyptian (4154 4522 472. 24, Is. 1918). Whether 
there be an allusion to the five planets recognised by the Egyptians 
(Kn.), or to their ten days' week (Di.), it is impossible to say. Jeremias 
(ATLO3, 385) connects it with the five intercalary days by which the 
Egyptian calendar adjusted the difference between the conventionalised 
lunar year (12 months of 30 days) and the solar year (365 days)—these 
belonging to Benjamin as the representative of the 12th month! The 
explanation is too ingenious, and overlooks the occurrence of the 
numeral where Benjamin is not concerned.

XLIV. 1-17. The cup in Benjamin's sack.—1, 2. This 
final test of the brethren's disposition is evidently arranged 
between Joseph and the steward on the evening of the ban-
quet, to be carried out at daybreak (v.3).—1b. each man's 
money, etc.] Though this seems a useless repetition of 4225, 
with no consequences in the sequel, the clause ought scarcely 
to be omitted (with Gu.) before 2a.—2. the silver cup] Joseph's 
ordinary drinking-vessel, but at the same time an implement 
of divination (v.5): therefore his most precious possession. 
—3-5. The trap is skilfully laid: just when they have 
emerged from the city, and think all danger is left behind, 
exulting in the fresh morning air, and still unwearied by 
travel, they are arrested by the steward's challenge, and 
finally plunged in despair.—4. Why have ye . . . good? [G 
adds, 'Why have ye stolen my silver cup?' The addition 
seems necessary in view of the following n. —5. and, more-
over, he divines with (or in) it] See on v.15.

On the widely prevalent species of divination referred to (κυλακο-
39; Iamblichus, De myst. iii. 14. Various methods seem to have been

ייוו] Used of the golden cups of the candlestick (Ex. 252312, 37272); else-
where only Jer. 355, along with the ordinary word for 'cup' (v32), of the 
'bowl's' of wine set before the Rechabites.—3. 4. On the synt. of these 
vv. see G-K. §§ 142 e, 156 f; Dav. §§ 141, 41, R. 3. The addition in G 
runs: υπα τι ψηλαζατ μου το κουντυ τος ριγωνων.; —5. υψι] The derivation of 
this vb. from υψι, 'serpent,' first suggested by Boch. (Hieros. i. 3), is supported 
by (amongst others) No. (ZVP, i. 413) and Baudissin (Stud. i. 
287); on the other hand, see We. Skizzen, iii. 147; and Rob. Sm. JPh.
employed; e.g., amongst the Babylonians oil was poured into a vessel of water, and from its movements omens were deduced according to a set of fixed rules of interpretation; see Hunger, *Becherwahrsagung bei den Babylonern nach zwei Keilschriften aus der Hammurabi-zeit* (Leipsiger Semit. Stud., 1903, i. 1–80).—An interesting modern parallel is quoted by Dri. (358), and Hunger (4), from the Travels of Norden (c. 1750), where a Nubian sheikh says: ‘I have consulted my cup, and I find that you are Franks in disguise, who have come to spy out the land.’

6–9. The brethren appeal to their honesty in the matter of the money returned in their sacks, and propose the severest punishment—death to the thief, slavery for the rest—should the missing article be found with them.—10. The servant holds them to their pledge, but offers easier terms: the thief alone shall be Joseph’s slave.—11–13. To the dismay of the brethren the cup is found in Benjamin’s sack.—12. beginning . . . youngest] A calculated strain on the brethren’s suspense, and (on the part of the narrator) an enhancement of the reader’s interest: cf. 1 Sa. 160ff.—13. Their submissiveness shows that no suspicion of a trick crossed their minds; their sense of an adverse fate was quickened by the still unsolved mystery of the money in the sacks, to which they had so proudly appealed in proof of their innocence.—14–17. The brethren before Joseph.—14. he was still there] had not gone out to his place of business (see 4315,17), but was waiting for them.—15. that a man in my position (one of the wise men of Egypt) can divine.

It is difficult to say how much is implied in this claim of superhuman knowledge on Joseph’s part. No doubt it links itself on the one hand to the feeling in the brethren’s mind that a divine power was working against them, and on the other to the proofs they had had of the governor’s marvellous insight. But whether Joseph is conceived as really practising divination, or only as wishing his brothers to think so, does not appear. Not improbably, as Gu. surmises, the motive comes from an older story, in which the prototype of Joseph actually achieved his ends by means of occult knowledge.

16. God has found out, etc.] The exclamation does not
necessarily imply consciousness of particular guilt (see on 43\textsuperscript{9}), and is certainly not meant as a confession of the wrong done to Joseph: at the same time we may be sure that that is the crime to which their secret thoughts gravitate (42\textsuperscript{21ff.}). —17. Judah’s proposal that all should remain as slaves is rejected by Joseph, who insists on separating Benjamin’s fate from that of the rest. Did he purpose to retain him by his side, while sustaining the rest of the family in their homes?

18–34. Judah’s plea for Benjamin.—The speech, which is the finest specimen of dignified and persuasive eloquence in the OT, is perhaps modelled on the style of forensic oratory to which the Hebrews were accustomed in public assemblies at the city gates (ct. the stilted oration of Tertullus in Ac. 24). Sincerity and depth of feeling are not more remarkable than the skilful selection and disposition of the points most likely to appeal to the governor: (1) a recital of the interview in which Joseph had insisted on Benjamin being brought down (19–23); (2) a pathetic description of the father’s reluctance to part with him, overcome only by the harsh necessity of hunger (24–29); (3) a suggestion of the death-stroke which their return without Benjamin would inflict on their aged parent (30–31); and, lastly, (4) the speaker’s personal request to be allowed to redeem his honour by taking Benjamin’s punishment on himself (32–34). —The Massoretes commence a new Parashah with v.\textsuperscript{18}, rightly perceiving that Judah’s speech is the turning-point in the relations between Joseph and his brethren.—19–23. On the divergent representations of J and E, see on p. 473 above.—20. to his mother] See p. 449.—28. The words of Jacob enable Judah to draw a veil over the brothers’ share in the tragedy of Joseph.—and I have not seen him till now] Comp. the rugged pathos of Lowell’s

“No, not life-long—leave off awaitin’.”

The simple words, with their burden of suppressed emotion,
have a meaning for the governor of which the speaker is all unconscious.—29. in trouble to She’ol] Cf. 42\(^{38}\) 37\(^{35}\) 44\(^{31}\).—30. his soul (not ‘life’) is bound up, etc.] a figure for inalienable affection; as 1 Sa. 18\(^{1}\).

CH. XLV.—Joseph reveals himself to his Brethren (E, J).

The crisis so slowly matured and so skilfully led up to is at last reached, and in a scene of inimitable power and tenderness Joseph makes himself known to his brethren (1–8). In a message to his father he discloses his plans for the future, inviting the whole family to settle in Egypt while the famine lasted (9–15). The invitation is confirmed by the king (16–20); and the brethren depart laden with rich gifts and provision for the journey (21–24). Jacob, after a momentary incredulity, is cheered by the prospect of seeing Joseph before his death (25–28).

The sources, E and J, are here so intimately blended that a complete analysis is impossible. The main fact is the preponderance of E, which appears both from language (דָּלָם, 5. 7. 8. 9; בָּעִים, 26; בַּעִים וְעָשָׂר, \(^{5}31\times 65\); חָצָה, 21 \(^{42\times 25}\); דָּשָׂא, 23; perhaps also יוֹדָה, 23; and cf. J’s use of אַלָּא הַעַלְּשָׂה, 44\(^{13}\)), and representation: cf. v.\(^{8}\) with 43\(^{37\times 4}\), 17–20 with 46\(^{31–47}\), 5 (J), where Joseph’s kindred are apparently brought under Pharaoh’s notice for the first time. Indubitable traces of J are found in 4b. 58 (the selling of Joseph), 10 (Goshen,—see the notes), 28 (‘אַשָּׂא’); these are supported by the expressions, פָּאָמָה, 16 (as 43\(^{31}\)); פָּעַר, 58; דָּגַג, 13; וּמָעַרְאָה, 14. Thus far in the main We. and Di. More subtle and less reliable criteria are applied by Gu. (402 f., 406), and (with very different results) by Pro. (52 f.). It is probable that 8 (E) is || 4 (J), and (agt. Pro.) 9 (E) || 18 (J). But it is very doubtful if the dismissal of the attendants (1) be inconsistent with the overhearing of the weeping (2), or if the latter be necessarily connected with the Pharaoh’s invitation (165).—Some minor questions, such as the ‘waggons’ of 19, 21, 27 (cf. 46\(^{9}\)), and the authorship of vv. 19–21, must be reserved for the notes.

1–8. The disclosure.—1. 2. Joseph’s self-restraint gives way before Judah’s irresistible appeal.—It is pressing matters too far to say that the dismissal of the attendants is a device
to keep his relation to the strangers a secret from Pharaoh (see on the sources above).—3. is my father yet alive?] The question is slightly less natural in the context of J (see 43264. 44248) than in E, where the absence of any mention of Jacob since the first visit (4213) might leave room for uncertainty in Joseph’s mind. But since he does not wait for an answer, the doubt can hardly be real.—were troubled before him] Comp. 5015-21 (also E).—4. J’s parallel to v.3,—probably the immediate continuation of v.1 (cf. 4418).—5-8. With singular generosity Joseph reassures them by pointing out the providential purpose which had overruled their crime for good; cf. 5020. The profoundly religious conviction which recognises the hand of God, not merely in miraculous interventions, but in the working out of divine ends through human agency and what we call secondary causes, is characteristic of the Joseph-narrative amongst the legends of Genesis: see Gu. 404 (cf. ch. 24).—7. הַנִּיאֵם ] ‘remnant,’ perhaps in the sense of ‘descendants’ (2 Sa. 147, Jer. 447). But the use of הָמְלָכָּה (strictly ‘escaped remnant,’ cf. 329) is difficult, seeing the whole family was saved (v.1.).—8. a father to Pharaoh] Probably an honorific title of the chief minister (cf. 1 Mac. 1132, Add. Est. 313 812); see, further, inf.

9-15. Joseph’s message to his father.—That both J and E recorded the invitation may be regarded as certain, apart from nice questions of literary analysis: Eerdmans’ suggestion that, in J, Jacob conceived the project of going down to Egypt “auf eigene Faust” (Komp. 65, 70) being

Ho. Gu. The cl., however, is best regarded as a doublet of the preceding, in which case MT is preferable.—3. יִשָּׁי ] G + δ ἀδελφός ὑμῶν, δύν ἀπεδοοθε εἰς Ἀλγυνττόν (as v.).—יִשָּׁי ] G om.—4a. G+A om. entirely.—5. הָמְלָכָּה (cf. 31183) is E’s variant to חמרעַשֵּׁא (68 347 J).—יִשָּׁי In Ju. 6417 the word signifies ‘means of subsistence’; in 2 Ch. 1413 perhaps ‘preservation of life’; and so here if the pointing be right. Ba. plausibly emends יִשָּׁי, ‘preserver of life’ (1 Sa. 28).—6. בְּשׁוֹרֵי שִׁמְך Ex. 3421 (J ?).—7. יִשָּׁי The want of an obj. after יִשָּׁי is harsh (cf. 4725 5020). The omission of the 5 (いずれ Ols. Ba. al.) improves the grammar, but the sense remains unsatisfying (v.s.).—8. אֶנִי ] That the words are used in their Heb. sense (‘father’ . . . ‘lord’) is not to be questioned; in spite of the fact that Brugsch has compared two Egyptian titles, identical in form but altogether different in meaning (see Dri. DB, ii. 774; Str. p. 157 f.),
contrary to every natural view of the situation. We may therefore be prepared to find traces of the dual narrative in these vv.—10. On the land of Goshen, see the footnote.—be near to me] The clause is not inconsistent with the preceding; for, as compared with Canaan, Goshen was certainly 'near' to where Joseph dwelt. Nevertheless it is best regarded as a variant from E, continued in 11a. It is only in J that the Israelites are represented as dwelling in Goshen.—12–15. The close of Joseph's speech, followed by his affectionate embrace, and the free converse of the brethren.—13 and 14 (J) are respectively parallel to 9 and 15 (E).

16–20. Pharaoh's invitation.—This, as already explained, is peculiar to E. It is just possible (though hardly probable) that in this source Joseph's invitation (9–11) extended only to his father, while the idea of transplanting the whole family emanated from the king.—16a. Cf. v.².—18. the best

10. [v²] Gr Péreu 'Araβías (as 46ˡˡ). The name is peculiar to J (46²⁸. 29. 34 47. 4. 6. 27 50; Ex. 8¹⁸ 9²⁶'); P has 'land of Ramses' (47¹¹, cf. Ex. 1¹¹ 12²⁷, Nu. 3³'); while E uses no geographical designation. That P and J mean the same locality is intrinsically probable (though Naville considers that the land of Ramses was a larger area than Goshen), and is confirmed by recent excavations. The city of Pithom (see on 46²⁸) has been identified by Naville with the modern Tell el-Maskhuṭa, 12 m. W of Ismailia, in Wādī Ṭumilāt, a long and narrow valley leading 'straight from the heart of the Delta to a break in the chain of the Bitter Lakes,' and therefore marking a weak spot in the natural defences of Egypt (Erman, LAE, 525 f.). In the same region, though not quite so far E, excavations at the village of Saft el-Ḥennah have established its identity with Pa-soft (also called on local inscrs. Kes), which is stated to have been the capital of the 20th Nome of Lower Egypt. A rare name of this nme is Kesem; and it is at least a plausible conjecture that this is the same as the biblical γῇ (Péreu); and if so the situation of Goshen is fixed as a part of W. Ṭumilāt surrounding Saft el-Ḥennah. A confirmation of this may be found in the 'Araβía of Gr, for this in Græco-Roman times (Ptol. iv. 5, 53) was the name of one of the 23 nomes of the Delta, whose capital Φανώσεα (cf. Strabo, xvii. i. 26) has long been conjectured to be the ancient Kes, preceded by the art. pa.—See Naville, Land of Goshen, etc. (Fifth Memoir of EEF, 1887), 15 ff., 20; Store City of Pithom, etc. (1903), 4 ff.; Spiegelberg, Aufenth. etc. 52; Müller in EB, 1758 ff.; and Griffith in BD, ii. 232 f.—11. ἔλεσιν] cf. 50²⁸ (E).—ἀναπώλεται 'lest thou come to want' (lit. 'be dispossessed'); cf. Ju. 14²⁵, Pr. 20²³ 2³¹ 3⁰⁹.

17. [v²] dār. λεγ. (Aram.); ct. אֶלְקָה. 44¹² (J).—טָעַב] Ex. 2²², Nu. 2⁰⁴. ⁸. ¹¹ (E), Ps. 7³⁸. ¹⁸. [v²] = 'best things,' as vv. 2⁶. ²³ 2⁴¹⁰, 2 Ki. 8³; Gr
of the land (v.i.) . . . the fat of the land] The expressions are not altogether inapplicable to Goshen (W. Tumilát), which was rendered fertile by a canal, and is still spoken of as the best pasture-land in Egypt (Robinson, BR, i. 53 f.). But since E never mentions a separate location in Goshen, there is no need to force that sense upon them; the meaning is general: the best of everything that Egypt can afford (v.i.).—19. The opening words (v.i.) throw some doubt on the originality of the v.; and there certainly seems no more reason for ascribing it to J (Gu.) than to E.—The baggage-wagon (רָגְגִּום) is said to have been introduced into Egypt from Canaan, with its Semitic name (Eg. 'agolt): Erman, LAE, 491.—20. Let not your eye pity] The phrase is Deuteronomistic, and seems a very strong one for concern about household implements. According to J (10b. 11b 461. 32) they brought 'all they possessed,' which, if they were half-nomads, would be possible without waggons.

21–28. The brethren return to Canaan.—22. Presents of expensive clothes are a common mark of courtesy in the East: cf. Ju. 1412f. 19, 2 Ki. 5. 22f.—changes of raiment] such as were substituted for ordinary clothing on festal occasions (see on 2715).—Benjamin receives five such suits: see on 4334.—23. of the best (produce) of Egypt] A munificent return.

פַּדְרַנְוּ יֹוֹ שִׁמְאֹתִים.—For 'the best part,' P uses יָשֶׁב (47f. 11).—19. מָהְשָׁמֵי The pass. is awkward in itself, and has no syntactic connexion with the following מִיַּמְךָ (hence $ inserts מִיַּמְךָ). Di. Kit. emend מַיֶּשֶׁב מִיַּמְךָ; Ba. מַיֶּשֶׁב מִיַּמְךָ (after £ סֹלַ יֵדֵל תְּנֵרַל תַּבְרַת; cf. F); Gu. מַיֶּשֶׁב מִיַּמְךָ: the first is best. But it is still difficult to understand the extreme emphasis laid on this point: and a suspicion remains that either the whole v. (Di.), or the introduction, is due to a scribe who wished to make it clear that the waggons were not sent without Pharaoh's express authority: see on v. 21.

21. [טְנַשֶּׁה—שַׁלֹּשֶׁת] The statement is premature, and furnishes an additional indication that this part of the narrative has been worked over. The repeated מַיִּית also suggests a doublt or interpolation. In 18–21, Di. leaves to E only כָּלַר חָדָר הָאָרֶץ הָאָרֶץ הָאָרֶץ והָאָרֶץ הָאָרֶץ; KS. only the second of these clauses, the rest being redactional.—ודָּתִל הָאָרֶץ as 4226 (E).—23. [טַנָּכֵל] (so pointed only here): 'in like manner' (Ju. 89).—[טַנָּכֵל] (2 Ch. 1123 †) from an Aram. √ מִיַּמְךָ = 'feed.'—Of the three nouns, רָבָּה, שִׁמְאֹת, and מִיַּמְךָ, שִׁמְאֹת, שִׁמְאֹת.
for Jacob's modest complimentary present (43\(^{11}\)).—corn and bread and sustenance for the journey] cf. v.\(^{20}\).—24. Do not get excited by the way] sc., with mutual recriminations,—a caution suggested by 42\(^{22}\).—25—28. Jacob's reception of the tidings.—26. his heart became cold, or numb] unable to take in the startling intelligence, as too good to be true.—27. But gradually, as they rehearse the words of Joseph, and show him the waggons as a pledge of his power; his spirit revived] he recovered his wonted energy of thought and action.—28. From J.—It is enough] The father's heart is indifferent to Joseph's grandeur (9\(^{11}\)) and princely gifts; the fact that his son lives is sufficient consolation for all he has endured (cf. 46\(^{30}\)). The psychology of old age could not be more sympathetically or convincingly treated.

**XLVI. 1—XLVII. 12.—The Settlement of Jacob and his Family in Egypt (J, E, P).**

Jacob, encouraged by a night vision at Beersheba, takes his departure for Egypt (1—7): (here is inserted a list of the persons who were supposed to accompany him, 8—27). He sends Judah to announce his arrival to Joseph, who proceeds to Goshen and tenderly welcomes his father (28—30). Having instructed his brethren in the part he wishes them to play (31—34), Joseph presents five of them before Pharaoh, and obtains permission for them to settle for a time in Goshen (47\(^{1—6}\)). Jacob's interview with Pharaoh closes the account of the migration (7—12).

**Sources.**—The narrative of JE is several times interrupted by excerpts from P, whose peculiar style and viewpoint can be recognised in 46\(^{6—7}\) 47\(^{5—6} \). 7—11 (but see the notes below, p. 439 ff.).—Disregarding these vv., expresses only נב. \(S\) has מְדָא, 'wine,' for נב, but perhaps through dittog. of מַדָא, 'asses.'—24. וַיְכִא בֵּית גֹּזְהַן \(G\) μη ὄργυνθε, \(E\) Ne irascamini, \(S\) בָּא לְבֵית מַדָא, תּוֹ הֶזֶן מְדָא ('quarrel'). But the Heb. verb denotes simply agitation, by whatever emotion produced.—26. מַעְזָה] In Arab. and Syr. the \(\sqrt{\text{מַעַזָּה}}\) means to be or grow 'cold,' in Syr., also, and NH, fig. 'grow inactive,' 'fail,' 'vanish'; in OT the prevailing idea seems to be that of numbness (BDB); cf. Hab. 1\(^{4}\) (of \(טָרָהָק\)), Ps. 38\(^{3}\).—28. מֶלַל] As an exclamation = 'enough!'; cf. Ex. 9\(^{28}\), Nu. 16\(^{4—7}\), Dt. 1\(^{8}\) 2\(^{9}\) etc.
we have a continuous J narrative from 46:28-47:6: note §נשם, 29, 30; *Goshen*, 28, 29, 31, 1, 4, 6b; the leadership of Judah, 28; the ignoring of Pharaoh's invitation (45:17). E; נם here by §נשם, 29; §נשם, 30; נם now, רחבך, 34.—46:1-5 is in the main from E, as appears from the night vision, the form of address, 2; Jacob's implied hesitation, 3 (cf. 45:28); the name Jacob, 2, 5a; נלהב, 2; §נשם, 3.—18 (§נשם) and possibly 5b belong to J.—47:12 is doubtful,—probably E (§נשם, as 45:11).—See We, *Comp.* 30 f.; Di. Ho. Gu. Pro. 54 f. (who assigns 47:1 to E instead of P and 47:12 to J).

1-7. Jacob bids farewell to Canaan.—1. *came to Be'er-sheba*] There is in E no clear indication of where Jacob lived after his return from Laban (see on 35:1). If at Beersheba, the above clause is redactional, written on the assumption that he started from Hebron (37:14 J). The point would be determined if 5b were the original continuation of 5a, for it is absurd to suppose that the waggons were first put to use in the middle of the journey (We.). But even apart from that, the natural view undoubtedly is that Jacob would not start until his misgivings were removed in answer to his sacrifice, and that consequently his dwelling-place at this time was Beersheba. That he sacrificed at the last patriarchal sanctuary on the way is a much less plausible explanation.—the God of . . . Isaac] Isaac is apparently regarded as the founder of the sanctuary, as in ch. 26 (Jh); an Elohistic parallel to that tradition may have existed though in 21:31 (E with Jb) its consecration is attributed to Abraham.—2-4. The last of the patriarchal theophanies. *Comp.* 12:18, where the theophany sanctions the occupation of Canaan, as this sanctions the leaving of it (Di.); and 26:2, where, under circumstances similar to Jacob's, Isaac is forbidden to go down to Egypt.—3. *the God of thy father*] As elsewhere in Genesis, §נשם denotes the local numen, who here distinguishes himself from other divine beings,—a trace of the primitive polytheistic representation (cf. 31:13 35:1 33:20 21:38 16:3).—*Fear not, etc.*] The purpose of the revelation is to

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1. §נשם רמא] ס here and v.5 גלפרא גלוב גברון (see p. 236).—2. §נשם]} The word has crept in from v.1 through an inadvertence of the redactor or a later scribe: "God said to Israel, Jacob! Jacob!" is a sentence which no original writer would have penned" (We.).—On the form of the v., see on 22:11.—3. ננמע] From נמע, the rare form of inf. const. of §נשם
remove the misgiving natural to an old man called to leave his hearth and his altar. The thought is confined to E (ct. 45\textsuperscript{28} J).—for . . . nation] The words, if genuine, should follow the immediate grounds of comfort in v.\textsuperscript{4}. They are probably to be regarded (with KS. Gu. al.) as an expansion of the same character as 13\textsuperscript{14ff.} 22\textsuperscript{15ff.} 28\textsuperscript{14} etc.—4. I will go down with thee] So in 31\textsuperscript{18} the 'Et of Bethel is with Jacob in Mesopotamia.—bring thee up] The reference must be to the Exodus (Ex. 3\textsuperscript{8} 6\textsuperscript{8} etc.), not to Jacob’s burial in Canaan (47\textsuperscript{29ff.} 50\textsuperscript{6ff.}).—lay his hand upon thine eyes] i.e., close them after death; for classical parallels, cf. Hom. II. xi. 453, Od. xi. 426, xxiv. 296; Eurip. Phæn. 1451 f., Hec. 430; Virg. Aen. ix. 487, etc. (Kn–Di.).—6, 7. P’s summary of the migration (v.i.).

8–27. A list of Jacob’s immediate descendants.—The passage professes to give the names of those who went down with Jacob to Egypt, but is in reality a list of the leading clans of the Israelite tribes, closely corresponding to Nu. 26\textsuperscript{5ff.}. These traditionally numbered seventy (cf. the 70 elders, Ex. 24\textsuperscript{19}, Nu. 11\textsuperscript{16}). Closely connected with this was another tradition, that the number of the Israelites at the settlement in Egypt was 70 (Dt. 10\textsuperscript{22}). In the more careful statement of Ex. 1\textsuperscript{5} (P), this means all the descendants of Jacob at the time: i.e., it includes Joseph (and presumably his sons, though they were in Egypt already) and, of course, excludes Jacob himself. In the mind of the writer of the present passage these two traditional schemes appear to have got mixed up and confused. As it stands, it is neither an accurate enumeration of Jacob’s descendants (for the number 70 includes Jacob and excludes Er and Onan), nor a list of those who accompanied him to Egypt (for it embraces Joseph and his sons: see on 26\textsuperscript{ff.}). When cleared of certain obvious accretions (\textsuperscript{8} וּלְעֹאֹב בּוֹנִי), \textsuperscript{12ba} וּלְעֹאֹב נְתָנִי, \textsuperscript{15a} וּלְעֹאֹב בּוֹנִי, \textsuperscript{26} וּלְעֹאֹב נְתָנִי, and the whole of 27 except the last word (שֵׁבָּתל), we find as its nucleus

verbs, peculiar to E: see G–K. § 69 m\textsuperscript{2}; Ho. Hex. 190.—4. הָעַשׁ וְנָל] See on 27\textsuperscript{31} 31\textsuperscript{13}. \textsuperscript{5} וּלְעֹאֹב יָסֹרֵב. \textsuperscript{6} וּלְעֹאֹב יָסֹרֵב. \textsuperscript{6} וּלְעֹאֹב יָסֹרֵב. \textsuperscript{7} Cf. 12\textsuperscript{5} 31\textsuperscript{18} 36\textsuperscript{8} (P). Further marks of P: שֶׁבֶר, שֶׁבֶר, וַתְּאַסֵּר (17\textsuperscript{i} 35\textsuperscript{2}), and the redundant phraseology.
a list of Jacob’s sons and grandsons, originally compiled without reference to the migration to Egypt, on the basis of some such census-list as Nu. 26^ff.

That the section belongs in general to the Priestly strata of the Pent. is seen from its incompatibility with the narrative (and particularly the chronology) of JE; from its correspondence with Nu. 26^ff., Ex. 6^ff.; and from literary indications (וּלְךַּלְךָּה הַלֹּא, 8 [cf. 25^ff., 36^ff.]; יָמָה יָמָה, 10; שָׁתָה, 10, 13, 22. 25–27; יָמָה יָמָה, 26). As regards its relation to the main document of P, three views are possible: (1) That the list was originally drawn up by P, and afterwards accommodated to the tradition of JE by a later editor (Na. Di. al.). This implies the perfectly tenable assumption that P did not accept the tradition as to the death of Er and Onan, or that of Benjamin’s extreme youth at the time of the migration; but also the less probable view that he numbered the sons of Joseph amongst those who ‘went down’ to Egypt. (2) That the interpolations are due to P, who thus turned an older list of Jacob’s children into an enumeration of those who accompanied him to Egypt (Dri.). The only serious objection to this theory is that it makes P (in opposition to Ex. 1^) reckon Jacob as one of the 70. It is nevertheless the most acceptable solution. (3) That the whole section was inserted by a late editor of the school of P (We. Kue. Gu. al.). Even on this hypothesis, the original list will have had nothing to do with the migration to Egypt.—The discrepancy in the computation lies in the first section (8–15). The 33 of v. 15 was in the original list the true number of the sons of Leah. The interpolator, whoever he was, had to exclude Er and Onan; to make up for this he inserts Dinah (15a), and reckons Jacob amongst the sons of Leah! Another sign of artificial manipulation of the figures appears in the proportions between the number of children assigned to each wife: Leah 32, Zilpah 16, Rachel 14, Bilhah 7 (in all 69); each concubine-wife receiving just half as many children as her mistress. The text of G presents some important variations (v. i.).

8a. The heading is identical with Ex. 1^a, except the words יִנְנָה בָּרַע, which are obviously interpolated (see introductory note).—8b–15. The sons of Leah: viz. four sons of Reuben (v. 9), six of Simeon (10), three of Levi (11), five sons and two grandsons of Judah (12), four sons of Issachar (13), and three of Zebulun (14).—15. thirty-three is thus the correct number of sons, grandsons, and great-grandsons of Jacob by Leah. To preserve this number intact with the omission of Er and Onan, the interpolator was obliged to add Dinah, and to include Jacob himself (see below).

9. Exactly as Ex. 6^, Nu. 26^; —לֹא is also a Midianite tribe (25^); the Reubenites occupied Midianite territory (Jos. 13^). —לֹא and יִנְנָה also Judahite clans (see v. 12 and Jos. 7^).—10. (= Ex. 6^). Nu. 26^.

16–18. The sons of Zilpah (Leah's handmaid): seven sons of Gad (18), four sons, one daughter, and two grandsons of Asher (17): sixteen in all (18).

16. (As Nu. 26:26fr., with textual differences). —[זַיִד] בָּנָי, as Nu. 26:14. —[בָּנָי] מִי מְנָעָי, בָּנָי תַּמָּרָא, stands for רָבָּה in Nu. 26:16. —17. רָבָּה, a variant of the following זַיַד (?) does not appear in Nu. 26:26fr. —The two grandsons רָבָּה and בְּשָׁה have been connected with the Habiri and the (chief) Milkili of the Amarna Tablets (Jast. JBL, xi. 120).

19–22. The sons of Rachel: two of Joseph (20) and ten of Benjamin (21), in all fourteen.

20. רָבָּה] זַיִד + וָלָה. But the rel. cl. יָשָׁן was probably added by the glossator, in which case the נָעָי of זַיַד is superfluous. —זַיִד adds, in partial agreement with Nu. 26:26fr., five names as sons and grandsons of Manasseh and Ephraim. —21. In זַיִד only the first three names are sons of Benjamin, the next six being sons, and the last a grandson, of Bela. Still another grouping is found in Nu. 26:26fr–40. —בָּנָי] (זַיַד Xόβορ). —[בָּנָי] cf. Sheba the Bichrite in 2 Sa. 20:1; in Nu. 26 בָּנָי is an Ephraimitic. —[בָּנָי] omitted in Nu. 26, is the clan of Ehud (Ju. 3:13) and Shimei (2 Sa. 16). —For the two names שֶׁמֶנֶּה וּרֻפָּה, Nu. 26:26fr. has שֶׁמֶנֶּה, for ובש, ובש or ובש, and for ובש, ובש (see Gray, HPN, 35). —[בָּנָי] and דָּם are sons of בָּנָי in Nu. 26:40.

22. רָבָּה] MSS מִי מְנָעָי.

23–25. The sons of Bilhah (Rachel's maid): one of Dan (23, in spite of יָבָא), and four of Naphtali (24): seven in all.

23. יָבָא] So Nu. 26:43, where for יָבָא we find יָבָא. —24. (as Nu. 26:43fr.). —[יָבָא] מִי מְנָעָי (as 1 Ch. 7:13), זַיִד וָלָה.

26, 27. The final summations.

The original computation (70 = 33 + 16 + 14 + 7) included Er and Onan, but excluded Dinah and Jacob. The secondary figure 66 (= 32 + 16 + 11 + 7) excludes Er and Onan, and Joseph and his two sons, but includes Dinah. To make up the original 70 it was necessary to reckon not only the family of Joseph (3), but Jacob himself. —זַיִד, with its 5 additional
descendants of Joseph (see on v. 20), makes the total 75 (so Ac. 7:14), but inadvertently substitutes ἔνδεια, instead of ἔνδεια, for the ἐνδεια of MT 27, overlooking the fact that both Jacob and Joseph have to be reckoned in the 75.—26. יִשְׂרָאֵל׃ 35:1, Ex. 1:6.—27. יִשְׂרָאֵל׃ ἡμᾶς ἔφυγον.

28-30. The meeting of Jacob and Joseph.—28. to direct before him to Goshen] The Heb. here gives no tolerable sense. The meaning cannot be that Judah was to guide the travellers to Goshen, for he is sent straight to Joseph; and for the idea that Joseph was to give the needful instructions for their reception in Goshen (Di.), the expression would be extremely harsh. The only natural purpose of Judah’s mission was to bring Joseph to meet his father; and the least difficult course is to read (with Vns. v.i.): to appear before him in Goshen, which had already been indicated by Joseph as the goal of the journey (45:10).—29. went up] Goshen lying somewhat higher than the Nile-valley.—30. The v. prepares us for the death-bed scenes (47:20ff.), which in JE must have taken place soon after, not as in P at an interval of 17 years.

XLVI. 31–XLVII. 12.—Joseph obtains Pharaoh’s permission for his brethren to settle in Goshen.—31–34 (J). He prepares his brethren for an introduction to Pharaoh, in the expectation that by laying stress on their herdsmen’s calling they may have the desirable frontier dis-

28. יְהוָה] μὲν ἐστὶ, ἡμῶν] (We. τῶν ἡμῶν), which is confirmed by נֵבֶן in the next v. There is no need to take the νυα in a temporal sense. The construction is pregnant, but otherwise unobjectionable; the tone of superiority assumed by Jacob towards Joseph is hardly a serious difficulty. Ba. thinks that the συνάντησαι of Г implies a reading νικηπόλης (‘to meet’); but the Niph. of ννπ would rather mean ‘to come upon unexpectedly’ (Dt. 22:9, 2 Sa. 18:9).—γινώσκειν] Г καθ’ Ἡρώων πόλει εἰς γῆν Παμεσσάην. Heropolis has been shown by the excavations of Naville (Store City of Pithom, etc., 5 ff.; cf. Gillett in JSBL, Dec. 1886, p. 69 ff.) to be Pithom (Ex. 1:11), now Tell el-Maskhuta (see p. 488 above). The Bohairic Vn. substitutes Pethom for the Ἡρώων of Г. Г thus makes the meeting take place at the frontier town in the W. Tumilat towards the desert (so v. 20). The reading is noteworthy textually as containing P’s name for Goshen.—משם μὲν ἐστὶ, ἡμῶν (better).—29. ἐβαθμίζει] Г κλαυθμονῶ πλοὺς (var. πλεοῦν).—The ἔστι is strange; but cf. Ps. 84:6 (Ru. 1:14 is not in point).—30. οὕτω] Σ + οὖν.
trict of Goshen assigned to them. It is evident that in J the migration was resolved on without the invitation, or perhaps the knowledge, of the king.—32. for they were cattle-breeders] a more comprehensive category than shepherds. Gu. thinks that the representation made to Pharaoh cannot have been strictly true, or Joseph would not have made such a point of it; * and we must at least suppose that he advises them to emphasise that side of their life which was most likely to gain the end in view. Unfortunately, while he bids them say they are cattle-breeders, they actually describe themselves as shepherds (47\textsuperscript{3}), and yet Pharaoh would make them cattle-overseers (47\textsuperscript{6b}). Some confusion of the two terms may be suspected, but as the text stands, nothing can be made of the distinction.—34. that ye may dwell, etc.] What motive in the mind of the king is appealed to is not quite clear. If the last clause— for every shepherd, etc.— be genuine, it was the Egyptian abhorrence of the class to which they belonged. But such a feeling would be more likely to exclude them from Egypt altogether than to procure their admission to the best pasture-land in the country, where Pharaoh's herds were kept (47\textsuperscript{6b}). Moreover, while there is evidence that swine-herds (Her. ii. 47) and cow-herds (Erman, LAE, 439 f.) were looked down on by the Egyptians, the statement that shepherds were held in special abhorrence has not been confirmed; and the clause (34\textsuperscript{b}) is probably an interpolation suggested by 43\textsuperscript{32}. See, further, on 47\textsuperscript{3ff.}—XLVII. 1-5a, 6b (J). Pharaoh grants the request.—1. and behold . . . Goshen] It is evident that in this narrative Joseph relies on the fait accompli to procure a favourable response from Pharaoh. The idea that Pharaoh decided such matters in person may be naïve (Gu.); it is certainly a curious restriction of the absolute authority elsewhere assigned to Joseph.—2. he had taken five, etc.] On the

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32. יִתַּן—ר] regarded as a gloss by Di. KS. Ho. Gu. al.—34. [מ] צַּפַּדִּים אֶפָּדָתָם. יְּרְעָה] מִן (צַפַּדִּים) יִרְעָה. 2. יִתַּן] מִן (צַפַּדִּים) יִרְעָה. בְּכָל.] as

* So Eerdmans (Vorgeschichte Israels, 42; Exp., Aug. 1908, p. 124 f.), who draws the conclusion that, as the Israelites here represent themselves as nomads, they cannot have really been so!
significance of the number, see on 43^34.—3, 4. The anticipated question (46^33) is answered in accordance with Joseph's instructions, though the phraseology differs by the substitution of  וְיָפַיּו for  וְיָפַי. —It is possible that the repeated וְיָפַי is due to the omission between 3 and 4 of a further question by Pharaoh as to the reasons for their coming to Egypt (so Ba. Gu.). The whole leads up to a straightforward request for a temporary domicile in Goshen; and the point may be simply that as herdsmen they had brought their means of subsistence with them, and needed nothing but grazing land, which must have been obtainable in spite of the famine. There is no hint of any aversion to the strangers or their manner of life.—6b. Let them dwell, etc.] is the continuation of 5a in (v.i.), whose arrangement of these vv. is obviously more original than that of MT.—As an additional favour, Pharaoh offers to take any capable members of the family into his service as cattle superintendents (כָּלָּהּ יָפַי),—an office frequently mentioned in the monuments as one of high dignity (Erman, LAE, 94 f., 108, 143). The breeding of cattle was carried to great perfection in ancient Egypt (ib. 436 ff.).

The admission of pastoral tribes within the frontier of Egypt is an incident twice represented in Egyptian inscrs. of the period here supposed. Under Ḥor-em-heb of the 18th dynasty, some barbarians have a definite district assigned to them by a high officer; and reference has already been made (p. 437) to the Edomite nomads who in the time of Merenptah were allowed to pass the fortifications and feed their flocks in "the great pasture-land of Pharaoh"—probably this very Wadi Ṭumilat where Goshen was (see ATLO^4, 393; Dri. 372).

5, 6a, 7—11. Jacob before Pharaoh (P).—5. The text of (v.i.) supplies the following opening to P's account (continuing 46^1): And Jacob and his sons came to Egypt to Joseph; and Pharaoh king of Egypt heard it (5a), and Pharaoh said to Joseph, etc.—It is plain that 5b continues this conversation and not that between Pharaoh and the five brethren.—6a. Here Pharaoh himself selects the best [part] of the land for

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1 Ki. 12^31, Ezek. 33^2 (otherwise Gn. 19^6).—ניִבַּנ (plup.)  מ+י.ם. —3. ויִנַּב יִמְנַב הָרִים. —3. ויִנַּב יִמְנַב (as 46^54). —5, 6. The overlapping of J and P at this point can be proved and corrected from (v.i.). After 5a (omitting
the Hebrew family to dwell in (see v.11).—7. Joseph introduces his father to Pharaoh,—an impressive and dignified scene.—blessed], i.e. ‘saluted’ on entering (cf. i Sa. 13\(^1\), 2 Ki. 4\(^2\), 2 Sa. 13\(^2\) 19\(^4\)), but recorded, no doubt, with a sense that ‘the less is blessed of the better’ (Heb. 7\(^7\)).—9. few and evil] The expression shows that P must have recorded Jacob’s long exile with Laban and his protracted sorrow for the loss of Joseph; it is still more interesting as showing that that writer could conceive a good man’s life as spent in adversity and affliction.—11. the land of Ramses] The name only here and Κρ of 46\(^2\) (see on 45\(^1\)), so called from the city built by Ramses II. (Ex. 1\(^1\)) and named after him ‘the house of Ramses,’ in the E of the Delta (Erman, LAE, 48). The situation is still uncertain; Naville (Goshen, 20) was inclined to identify it with Safat el-Henneh (see p. 488); but Petrie now claims to have discovered its site at Tel er-Refatbeh, in the middle of W. Tumilat, 8 m. W of Pithom (Hyksos and Israelite Cities, 1906, p. 28 ff.)—12. Probably from E || 27\(^a\) (J).

XLVII. 13-27.—Joseph’s Agrarian Policy (J ?).

Joseph is here represented as taking advantage of the great famine to revolutionize the system of land-tenure in

rael: Κρ reads \(^6\); then ἱλθον δὲ έλς Αλγυπτου προς Ἰωσήφ Ιακώβ καλ οἱ ιολ αὐτοῦ· καὶ ἡκουσέν Φαραώ βασιλέως Αλγυπτου (ἐν τινι δύναται ω λασινα γινομεν εἰς οἱ πληρας ἔστημα καὶ εὐαγγέλλεις); then \(^m\) (repeated) \(^5b\). \(^6a\). \(^7f\). It will hardly be disputed that the text of Κρ is here the original, and that P’s narrative commences with the additional sentences quoted above. The editor of MT felt the doublet to be too glaring; he therefore omitted these two sentences; and then by transposition worked the two accounts into a single scene. A further phase is represented by Hex. Syr., where \(^5b\) and \(^6a\) are omitted. We have here an instructive example of the complex process by which the sources were gradually worked into a smooth narrative, and one which deserves the attention of those writers who ridicule the minute and intricate operations which the critical theory finds it necessary to attribute to the redactors.—6b. ως ὅτι τις επι τόν φαραώ. See G-K. \(§\) 120 \(ε\). The χρικ of \(ζ\) is certainly not preferable (Ba.).—11. ἡβραία v.\(^6\), Ex. 22\(^4\), i Sa. 15\(^6\) 18\(^4\). The identification of ο΄ πως κατὰ τον Λασινα (the ‘land of Ramses’ probably rests on a misunderstanding of E’s ησια υιος (see on 45\(^1\)), and a combination of it with J’s \[σι. —12. υπο] apparently including here the women: cf. 50\(^2\).
Egypt for the benefit of the crown. In one year the famishing people have exhausted their money and parted with their live-stock, in exchange for bread; in the next they forfeit their lands and their personal freedom. Thus by a bold stroke of statesmanship private property in land (except in the case of the priests) is abolished throughout Egypt, and the entire population reduced to the position of serfs, paying a land-tax of 20 per cent. per annum to the king.

Source.—The section 13-26, dealing as it does with matters purely Egyptian and without interest for the national history of Israel, occupies an anomalous position among the Joseph-narratives, and cannot be confidently assigned to either of the main documents (We. Comp. 2 61). Linguistic indications are on the whole in favour of J: רדב, 13; ותונכ אל החים, 19 (42 43); ותונכ, 24 (43 44); יתונכ אמ מוקט בדק; 17 (264); ינץך אמ, 20 (see Gu. and Di.). But there are also traces of E's diction: מיה, 20; מב, מב, 18f. (29 30),—differing from 18-7 (Di. Ho.); besides some peculiar expressions very unusual in Pent.: ההל, 13; צמ, 18f.; אלש (Qal), 18; מ, 23 (Di.). It is possible that Ho. (25 f.) and Pro. (54 f.) are right in thinking the passage composite; but no satisfactory analysis can be effected. That it is out of place in its present connexion is generally admitted, but that it finds a more suitable position between chs. 41 and 42 (Di. Gu. al.) is not at all obvious. It is not improbable that a piece of so peculiar a character is a later addition to the original cycle of Joseph-legends, and belongs neither to J nor E.—V. 27 appears to be from P, with glosses (see the notes).

13, 14. Joseph takes up all the money in Egypt and Canaan. Canaan is bracketed with Egypt as far as v. 15, after which the situation is purely Egyptian. It is natural to suppose that the references to Canaan are interpolated (Ho. Gu.); but considering the close political relations of the two countries, it would be rash to assume this too easily.—15-17. The live-stock is next exhausted.—horses] See on 12-16.—18-22. The people surrender their lands and persons for bread. This is the decisive stroke of Joseph's statecraft, making a return to the old conditions impossible;

13. הָלַח. The ד. איר. יָאָדכ. = יָאָדכ, 'languish.' It is one of several rare expressions which occur in this section.—14. יִדְרְבְּקָה| אֶלָּבְּכָה; אֶלָּבְּכָה (v. 18).—15. מָּשַׁב] The vb. only here (and v. 16) in Pent., elsewhere poetic (Is. 16 26; Ps. 77).—ןֶסֶךְ] אֶלָּבְּכָה, אֶלָּבְּכָה (so v. 16).—16. מִּבָּב] אֶלָּבְּכָה; אֶלָּבְּכָה.—17. יַחַד] Only here in the sense of 'sustain' [with food]; elsewhere, if the ַחַד be the same, it means 'lead' (to watering-
and it is noteworthy that (as if to relieve Joseph of the odium) the proposal is represented as coming from the people themselves.—18. that year . . . the second year] Not the first and second years of the famine (for we can hardly suppose that the money and cattle were exhausted in a single year), but simply two successive years.—19. buy us and our land] The only basis of personal independence in a state like ancient Egypt being the possession of land, the peasants know that in parting with their land they sacrifice their freedom as well.—give seed, etc.] A temporary provision (see v.24) for the time of famine, or perhaps for the first sowing after it was over (Ho.). It is in any case most natural to suppose that these drastic changes took place towards the end of the 7 years.—21. and the people he reduced to bondmen] Read so with Vns., v.i. (Kn. Di. De. al.). The MT: 'he brought them over to the cities' appears to mean that he brought the rural population to the cities where the corn-magazines were (4135,48); but the emphasis on the obj. leads us to expect a parallelism to the appropriation of the land in v.20 (Di.). A universal redistribution of the inhabitants (צ, Tu. al.) could not be expressed by the words, and would, moreover, be a senseless measure.—22. The priests' property was exempted, because they had a statutory provision of food, and did not need to sell their lands. So the writer explains a privilege which existed in his day (see p. 501 below). Comp. Erman, LAE, 129, where Ramses III. is said to have given 185,000 sacks of corn annually to the temples.—23-26. Institution of the land-tax.—23. Here is seed for you] The gift is not to be repeated; hence the incident naturally belongs to the end of the famine.—24. a fifth part] According to Oriental ideas,
and considering the fertility of Egypt, the impost is not excessive; a much higher percentage being frequently exacted under Eastern governments (cf. 1 Mac. 10:30, and the authorities cited by Di. p. 444). On the severities of taxation under the New Empire, see LAE, 122.—25. The people gratefully accept the terms.—26. The arrangement is fixed by administrative decree, and survives to the time of the writer. 27. (P, v.r.) is the conclusion of the settlement of Israel in Egypt (v.11).

The system of land-tenure reflected in vv.18-28 is supposed by Erman to have actually arisen through the extermination of the old landed aristocracy which followed the expulsion of the Hyksos and the founding of the New Empire (LAE, 102 f.). The same writer thus sums up what is known or surmised of social conditions under the New Empire: "The landed property was partly in the hands of the state, partly in those of the priesthood; it was tilled by peasant-serfs; there seem to have been no private estates belonging to the nobility, at any rate not under the 19th dynasty. The lower orders consisted mostly of serfs and foreign slaves; the higher, of officials in the service of the state and of the temples" (ib. 129). The peculiar privileges of the priests (and soldiers) are attested by Diod. i. 73 f.; Herod. ii. 168 (but cf. ii. 141); the latter says that every priest and warrior possessed 12 Δρουπάδ of land tax-free. Of the amount of the land-tax (one fifth) there appears to be no independent confirmation.—The interest of the biblical account is ætiological. The Hebrews were impressed by the vast difference between the land-tenure of Egypt and that under which they themselves lived; and sought an explanation of the 'abnormal agrarian conditions' (Erman) prevailing in the Nile-valley. Whether the explanation here given rests on any Egyptian tradition, or is due to the national imagination of Israel, working on material supplied by the story of Joseph, remains as yet uncertain (see Gu. 410 f.).

The close connexion between Egypt and Palestine in the matter of food-supply is illustrated by the Amarna letters, where a powerful minister named Yanḥamu is frequently mentioned as holding a position somewhat corresponding to that of Joseph. Yanḥamu, whose name suggests Semitic extraction, was governor of an unknown province

means 'increase' or 'produce.' To omit ל (with ק) does not yield a natural construction.—נְבֵית מְלָכָה[ ] Ba. happily emends נְבֵית קְנֹת.—בֶּן הָאֻלָּה[ ] Better omitted with ק. —26. שִׁבְּנָה[ ] שִׁבְּנָה. שִׁבְּנָה is not found, and the expression is very awkward. A good sense might be obtained by transposing נְבֵית שִׁבְּנָה (with קA,F,v); but whether that is the original text is very doubtful.—27. The v. is usually divided between J and P; but שָׁנָה is no sure sign of J, since it denotes the nation. The only characteristic of J is וָשָׁנָה, which may be very well excised as a gloss: the rest may then quite suitably be assigned to P (cf. והנה, הנהו והנה).
called Yarimuta, which some have tried (but on the slenderest grounds) to identify with the biblical Goshen (Wi. Forschungen, iii. 215; Je. ATLO, 391). The references imply that he had control of the state-granaries; and complaints are made of the difficulty of procuring supplies from the high-handed official; in particular, it is alleged that the people have had to part with their sons and their daughters, and the very woodwork of their houses, in return for corn (see Knudtzon, El-Amarna Tafeln, p. 407). That this historic figure is the original of some features in the portrait of Joseph (a combination first suggested by Marquart, and approved by Wi. Che. Je. al.) is conceivable enough; though definite points of contact are very restricted, and the historical background of Yanḥamu's activity has completely faded from the biography of Joseph.

An equally striking, and equally unconvincing, parallel is pointed out by Eerdmans (Vorgeschichte Israels, 68) from a much later period—the end of the 19th dynasty,—when, according to the Papyrus Harris, Arisu (‘I-ir-sw), a Syrian, “in years of scarcity” which followed “the abundant years of the past,” “made the whole land tributary to himself alone” (see Petrie, Hist. iii. 134). The resemblance vanishes on closer inspection. Arisu is simply a Syrian chief, who, in a time of anarchy, gets the upper hand in Egypt by the help of his companions, oppresses the people, and engages in a crusade against the native religion. To say that “the circumstances of this time correspond in all respects [ganz und gar] to the statements of the Joseph-stories,” is a manifest exaggeration.

XLVII. 28—XLVIII. 22.—Jacob's last Interview with Joseph (J, E, P).

The death-bed scenes of Jacob are described in great detail by all three narrators, because of the importance of the dying utterances of the last ancestor of all Israel. There are four main incidents: (1) Jacob's charge to Joseph with regard to his burial (28-31); (2) the blessing of Joseph and his two sons (48); (3) Jacob's oracles on the future of all the tribes (49-58); and (4) his instructions regarding his burial in Machpelah (59-33).—The first two may be conveniently treated together.

Sources.—The triple thread of narrative is shown by the three beginnings: 47 (P), 47 (J), and 48 (E). To P belong 48; 49; 48; 49; note the chronology and syntax of 47, the connexion of 48 with 35; 11. 12; 3. 3; 4. 4; 5. 5; 6. 6.—Equally decisive are the indications of J in 47-31; 48. 31; 49. 29; 50. 29; 51. 29; 24. 29; 24. 32. 11; 32. 11.—The analysis of 28. 28-29 is more doubtful; formerly the passage was treated as a unity and assigned to
E (Hupf., We. Comp. 261 f., Dri. al.), but the evidences of double recension are too numerous to be overlooked. (See Budde, ZATW, iii. 56 ff.) Thus, while קִּי, 2b, and בָּשֹׁמַ, 3.11. 20f., and נֶבֶזֶת, 22, point to E, נָאָשָׁה, 2b. 10f. 13f. 21, and רְבָּשָׁה, 14, point to J. A clue to the analysis is supplied by (a) the double presentation of Manasseh and Ephraim, 10b. 11 (ץ"ע) ; and (b) the obvious intrusion of 15.16 between 14 and 17. 13. 14. 17-19 hang together and are from J; 15 links on to 12, and 13f. presuppose 10a. Taking note of the finer criteria, the analysis works out somewhat as follows: \( E = 1. 2. 8. 9. 10b. 11. 12. 15. 16. 20a_{by}b. 21. 22. \) \( J = 2b. 10a. 13. 14. 17-19. 20a_{c} \) (to וָהַנְּדָה) ;—
deleting לְאֵשׁ in 2b (i). 8. 11. 21 as a redactional explication. So in general Di. KS. Ho. Gu.; also Pro., who, however, places 21. 22 before 7 in E’s narrative.—The source of ? is difficult to determine; usually it has been assigned to P or R, but by Gu. and Pro. to E (see the notes).

28–31. Joseph promises to bury Jacob in Canaan.—
28 (P). Jacob’s age at the time of his death; cf. 47. —29–31 (J). Comp. the parallel in P, 49. —29. On the form of oath, see on 24. —30. lie with my fathers] i.e., in She’ol (see on 25); cf. Dt. 31. 1 Ki. 2. etc.—in their burying-place] But in 50 (also J) Jacob speaks of “my grave which I have dugged for myself.” The latter is no doubt the original tradition, and the text here must have been modified in accordance with the theory of P 49. (We.). —31. bowed over the head of the bed] An act of worship, expressing gratitude to God for the fulfilment of his last wish (cf. 1 Ki. 147). Ho.’s conjecture (based on 1 Sa. 19) that there was an image at the top of the bed, is a possible, though precarious, explanation of the origin of the custom. The mistaken rendering of ג (v.i.) may have arisen from the fact that the oath over the staff was an Egyptian formality (Spiegelberg, Recueil des Travaux, xxv. 184 ff.; cf. EB, 4771; Sayce, Contemp. Rev., Aug. 1907, 260).

XLVIII. Adoption and blessing of Joseph’s two sons. —1. 2. The introduction to all that follows: from

29. תָּשֶׁב—מְדָמֶר] Cf. Dt. 31. 14 (J), 1 Ki. 21. —30. נֶבֶזֶת] must be taken as protasis to וָהַנְּדָה (Str. Ho. Gu. al.). —הָעְקַבָּה] Kit. וָהַנְּדָה, to resolve the contradiction spoken of supra. But where intentional manipulation of the text is to be suspected, small emendations are of little avail. —31. הָעְקַבָּה] ג נֶבֶזֶת הָדֹּבֶדֶעַ אדֶּרוֹ, ס שֹׁלֵַךְ (זִּירֵשׁ); cf. Heb. 11. 21. Other Vns. follow MT, which is undoubtedly right: see 48. 49. 32. 31. רֶשֶׁת] So 1 Sa. 16. 19. 22. The pl. רֶשֶׁת is more usual in such cases (G–K. § 144 2d): we might also point as Niph. רֶשֶׁת (Jos. 2). —At end of v. add with ג נֶבֶזֶת הָדֹּבֶדֶעַ אדֶּרוֹ. —2. רְצוּ] Better רְצוּ. —2b is usually assigned
E.—took his two sons.] It seems implied in v. 8 that Jacob had not yet seen the lads,—so soon did his last illness follow his arrival in Egypt.—3-6. P’s brief account of the adoption of Ephraim and Manasseh. Di. thinks the vv. have been transferred from their original connexion with 49\(^{28}\), where they were spoken in presence of all the brethren.—3, 4. The reference is to the revelation at Luz (35\(^{11}\)), where the promise of a numerous offspring was coupled with the possession of Canaan. On the phraseology, see above.—

5. And now] In view of these promises he elevates Ephraim and Manasseh to the status of full tribes, to share with his own sons in the future partition of the land.—Ephraim and Manasseh] The order is the only hint that Ephraim was the leading tribe (cf. v. \(^{20}\) E); but it is not that usually observed by P (see Nu. 26\(^{28}\)ff. 34\(^{28}\)ff.; Jos. 14\(^{4}\) 16\(^{4}\) 17\(^{1}\); otherwise Nu. 1\(^{10}\).—as Reuben and Simeon] The two oldest are chosen for comparison.—6. Later-born sons of Joseph (none such, however, are anywhere mentioned) are to be called by the name of their brethren, etc.] i.e., are to be counted as Ephraimites and Manassites.—7. The presence of Joseph reminds the dying patriarch of the dark day on which he buried Rachel on the way to Ephrath. The expressions reproduce those of 35\(^{16-20}\).—\(^{12}y\] to my sorrow; lit. (‘as a trouble) upon me’ (cf. 33\(^{15}\)).

The notice—one of the most pathetic things in Genesis—is very loosely connected with what precedes, and must in its original setting have led up to something which has been displaced in the redaction. But it is difficult to find a suitable connexion for the v. in the extant portions of any of the three sources. In P (to which the word הָעָשׁ at first sight seems to point), De. Di. al. would put it immediately before [יִהְוָה] יִשָּׁר עָשׂ in 49\(^{9}\); but that view relieves no difficulty, and leads nowhere. A more natural position in that document might be after the mention of the burial of Leah in 49\(^{8}\) (v. \(^{32}\) may be an interpolation); but the form of the v. is not favourable to that assumption, and no good reason can be.

to J because of הָעָשׂ. But the cl. comes very naturally after 28; and as there are three other cases of confusion between the two names in this ch. (8\(^{11}\) 21), the name is not decisive.—4. מָשַׁם לַנֵּר] 28\(^{3}\); cf. 35\(^{11}\).—ָהוּלְּבָךְ] כָּלַנְיָח לֹא.—כָּלַנְיָח הָנָּה] 17\(^{6}\).—7. לֹא לֵיתֶנָּה, as in every other case where the name occurs (see on 25\(^{20}\)). That the difference is documentary, and points to E rather than P, is a hazardous assumption (Gu.); and to substitute לֵיתֶנָּה, for the sake of accommodation to J (Bruston, Ba.), is quite
imagined for the transposition. (See Bu. ZATW, iii. 67 f.) Bruston (in ZATW, vii. 208) puts forward the attractive suggestion (adopted by KS. Ba. Gu. Pro. al.) that the v. introduced a request to be buried in the same grave as Rachel. Such a wish is evidently impossible in P; and Bruston (followed with some hesitation by Ba. KS.) accordingly found a place for it (with the necessary alterations of text) between 47\(^29\) and 30 (J): against this 56\(^{11}\) seem decisive. Gu. and Pro. assign it to E, the latter placing it after v. 32, which is certainly its most suitable position in E. But is the idea after all any more conceivable in E than in P? The writer who recorded the request, whoever he may have been, must have supposed that it was fulfilled; and it is not just likely that any writer should have believed that Jacob was buried in the grave traditionally known as Rachel's. No satisfactory solution can be given. Hupf. and Schr. consider the v. redactional; so Bu., who thinks it was inserted to correct P's original statement that Rachel was buried in Machpelah (see on 49\(^{31}\)).

8, 9. E's narrative is resumed.—Observe that Jacob sees the boys (who are quite young children [44\(^{50}\)], whereas in 10a (J) he could not see.—9b is usually assigned to J, but for no very convincing reason.—10b, 11 (E). I had not thought, etc.] The words are charged with deep religious feeling: gratitude to the God in whose name he is to bless the lads, and whose marvellous goodness had brought his clouded life to a happy end.—12 (E). from between his (Jacob's) knees] There must be a reference to some rite of adoption not described, which being completed, Joseph removes the children and prostrates himself to receive the blessing (continued in 15).

—10a, 13, 14 (J). Whether this is a second interview in J, or a continuation of that in 47\(^{29-31}\), does not appear; in either case something has been omitted.—10a. See on 27\(^{1}\).—13f. The crossing (v. i.) of Jacob's hands has a weird effect: the blind man is guided by a supernatural impulse, which moves unerringly in the line of destiny. The right hand conveys

arbitrary.—בּאשׁ] עַ+ הַ מָּתַטַּן סֶוֹן (so μι).—8. דַּצִּי ו] μ[+י+ו.—9. דָּשָׁא] עַ+אֲבָדַי[ (B-D. p. 80). On the pausal seghol, see G-K. §§ 29 q, 60 d.—11. רַק] G-K. § 75 n (cf. 31\(^{30}\)).—תקב[ Lit. 'had not judged'; only here = 'opine.'—12. בָּשָׁשְׂנִי] μ[+ לוֹ+ו] have the pl.—תַּזַּר hardly makes sense. Rd. with μ לֶא וַי] μ ins. ו,—לֶא] צו, וַי תִּצְבָּא, deriving from נְבָא, 'be prudent' (whose Piel does not occur); but μ וַלִּלָּדָא, צו commutans, ס לו, צו וַי. These Vns. may be guessing at the sense; but most moderns appeal to Ar. sakala, a secondary meaning of which is to 'plait two locks of hair together and bind them to the other
the richer blessing.—15, 16. The Blessing (E).—The threefold invocation of the Deity reminds us of the Aaronic benediction (Nu. 6:24ff.), which has some resemblance to a feature of Babylonian liturgies (see Je. Hölle und Paradies, 30): "in such cases the polytheist names all the gods he worships, the ancient monotheist all the names and attributes of the God he knows" (Gu.).—before whom . . . walked] cf. 171.—who shepherded me] Cf. 4924, Ps. 231 289, Is. 4011. The image is appropriate in the mouth of the master-shepherd Jacob (Di.).—16. the Angel . . . evil] The passages in Jacob’s life where an angel or angels intervene (2811ff. 3111 32ff.) all belong to the source E; they are not, however, specially connected with deliverances from evil; and the substitution of ‘angel’ for ‘God’ is not explained.—let my name be named in them] ‘Let them be known as sons of Jacob,’ and reckoned among the tribes of Israel.—17–19. Continuing 14 (J).—Joseph thinks his father had counted on the elder being on his left (Joseph’s right) hand, and will now correct his mistake.—19. But Jacob, speaking under inspiration, declares his action to be significant.—the fulness of the nations] A peculiar expression for populousness. Cf. Dt. 3317 (‘myriads of Ephraim’; ‘thousands of Manasseh’).—20. The clause And he blessed them that day] is (if not redactional) the conclusion of J’s account: the words of blessing are not given. The rest of the v. concludes the blessing of E (15a).—By thee (G you) shall Israel bless] The formula must have been in actual use, and is said to be still current amongst Jews (Str.).—he put E. before M.] If the words are original (E), they call attention to the fact that in the benediction Ephraim had been named first, and find in that slight

locks.’ In spite of the philological equivalence, Dri. is justly sceptical of so remote an analogy.—15. י下面是小 [G om.—15. ינ Creatures] G סנה wrongly, the original connexion being with 19b.—י small] (Nu. 2220ff.) ‘ever since I was.’ GSH ‘from my youth’ (שעון ?).—16. For נלמה, ms reads נלמה.—19. ינ Small] ‘but for all that’ (cf. 2819).—20. יג הובך.—For הובך] GSH יבך. (Niph.; see on 12a). The most natural form would be Hithpa.

22. רחא ובו G סיקמה ּקילתפת, Ag. ומעב יפה. For יפ instead of יפ, see G-K. § 130 g. On יפל in the sense of ‘mountain-slope’ (v.s.), see Nu. 3411, Jos. 158 [Is. 1114?], etc.
circumstance an augury of the future pre-eminence of Ephr. (Gu.).—21, 22. Closing words to Joseph (E).—21. A prediction of the return to Canaan, in terms very similar to 5024 (also E). The explicit anticipations of the Exodus are probably all from this document (1516 [?] 464 5024).—22. one shoulder] The word בְּנֵי may very well (like the synonymous נָּשִׁים) have had in common speech the secondary sense of 'mountain-slope,' though no instance occurs in OT. At all events there is no reasonable doubt that the reference is to the city of Shechem, standing on the 'slope' of Gerizim, the most important centre of Israelite power in early times (see p. 416), and consecrated by the possession of Joseph's tomb (Jos. 2432). The peculiar value of the gift in Jacob's eyes is that the conquest was a trophy of his warlike prowess,—a tradition which has left no trace whatever except in this v. (see below).—With my sword and with my bow] Contrast Jos. 2412.

Vv. 21, 22 stand in no organic connexion with each other, or with what precedes. V. 22, in particular, not only presupposes a version of the capture of Shechem different from any found elsewhere * (see p. 422 above), but is out of harmony with the situation in which the words are assumed to have been uttered. For it is scarcely credible that Jacob should have referred thus to a conquest which he had subsequently lost, and which would have to be recovered by force of arms before the bequest could take effect. But further, the expression 'above thy brethren' naturally implies that the portions of the other sons had been allotted by Jacob before his death. The verse, in short, seems to carry us back to a phase of the national tradition which ignored the sojourn in Egypt, and represented Jacob as a warlike hero who had effected permanent conquests in Palestine, and died there after dividing the land amongst his children. The situation would thus be parallel to the so-called 'Blessing of Jacob' in ch. 49, which is also independent of, though not quite incompatible with, the final recension of the patriarchal history and the migration to Egypt. For the first statement of this theory, see Meyer, INS, 227, 414 f.

XLIX. 1–28a.—The Blessing of Jacob.

This important and difficult section—one of the oldest pieces of Hebrew poetry which we possess—consists of a

* Attempts to bring the notice into line with the recorded history, by inserting נְלָי before נִבְרֹת and נְסֵפָה (as Jos. 2419) (Kue.), or by taking נְפַלּ as a fut.-pf. (Tu. De. Str. al.), are obviously unsatisfactory.
series of oracles describing the characters and fortunes of the twelve tribes of Israel, as unfolded during the age of the Judges and under the early monarchy. That it was composed from the first in the name of Jacob appears clearly from internal indications (vv. 8ff. 9. [18]. 28); but that it was actually uttered by the patriarch on his death-bed to his assembled sons is a hypothesis which several considerations combine to render incredible. In the first place, the outlook of the poem is bounded (as we shall afterwards see) by a particular historical situation, removed by many centuries from the supposed time of utterance. No reason can be imagined why the vista of the future disclosed to Jacob should open during the settlement of the tribes in Canaan, and suddenly close at the reign of David or Solomon; why trivial incidents like the maritime location of Zebulun (v. 13), or the 'royal dainties' produced by Asher (20), or even the loss of tribal independence by Issachar (15), etc., should be dwelt upon to the exclusion of events of far greater national and religious importance, such as the Exodus, the mission of Moses, the leadership of Joshua, or the spiritual prerogatives of the tribe of Levi. It is obvious that the document as a whole has historic significance only when regarded as a production of the age to which it refers. The analogy of OT prophecy, which has been appealed to, furnishes no instance of detailed prevision of a remote future, unrelated to the moral issues of the speaker's present. In the next place, the poem is animated by a strong national sentiment such as could not have existed in the lifetime of Jacob, while there is a complete absence of the family feeling which would naturally find expression in the circumstances to which it is assigned, and which, in fact, is very conspicuous in the prose accounts of Jacob's last days. The subjects of the oracles are not Jacob's sons as individuals, but the tribes called by their names (see 28a); nor is there any allusion to incidents in the personal history of Jacob and his sons except in the sections on Reuben and on Simeon and Levi, and even there a tribal interpretation is more natural. Finally, the speaker is not Jacob the individual patriarch, but (as is clear from vv. 6, 7b. 16)
XLIX. 1-28A

Jacob as representing the ideal unity of Israel (see Kohler, p. 8 f.). All these facts point to the following conclusion (which is that of the great majority of modern interpreters): the poem is a series of vaticinia ex eventu, reflecting the conditions and aspirations of the period that saw the consolidation of the Hebrew nationality. The examination of the separate oracles will show that some (e.g. those on Issachar and Dan) are certainly pre-monarchic; and that indeed all may be so except the blessing on Judah, which presupposes the establishment of the Davidic kingdom. The process of composition must therefore have been a protracted one; the poem may be supposed to have existed as a traditional document whose origin dates from the early days of the Israelite occupation of Palestine, and which underwent successive modifications and expansions before it took final shape in the hands of a Judæan poet of the age of David or Solomon. The conception of Jacob as the speaker belongs to the original intention of the poem; the oracles express the verdict of the collective consciousness of Israel on the conduct and destiny of the various tribes, an idea finely suggested by putting them in the mouth of the heroic ancestor of the nation. Ultimately the song was incorporated in the patriarchal tradition, probably by the Yahwist, who found a suitable setting for it amongst the dying utterances of Jacob.

Literary Parallels.—Before proceeding to consider the more intricate problems arising out of the passage, it will be useful to compare it with (1) the Song of Deborah (Ju. 5), and (2) the Blessing of Moses (Dt. 33).

1. The former is like an instantaneous photograph: it exhibits the attitude and disposition of the tribes in a single crisis of the national history. It resembles Gen. 49 in the strong feeling of national unity which pervades it, and in the mingling of blame and commendation. It reveals, however, a very different historical background. The chief differences are: the entire ignoring of the southern tribes Judah, Simeon, and Levi; the praise bestowed on Issachar; the substitution of Gilead for Gad; and the division of the unity of Joseph into its constituents Ephraim and Machir (= Manasseh). The importance of these and other divergences for the determination of the relative dates of the two documents is obvious, although the evidence is frequently of a kind which makes it very difficult to form a confident judgement.—2. The Blessing of Moses shows signs (especially in the section on Joseph) of
literary dependence on Gn. 49; it is therefore a later composition, written very probably in North Israel after the division of the kingdom (see Dri. Deut. 388). It is distinguished from the Blessing of Jacob by its uniform tone of benediction, and its strongly religious point of view as contrasted with the secular and warlike spirit of Gn. 49. Simeon is passed over in silence, while his 'brother' Levi is the subject of an enthusiastic eulogium; Judah is briefly commended in a prayer to Yahwe; the separation of Ephraim and Manasseh is recognised in an appendix to the blessing on Joseph. All these indications point more or less decisively to a situation considerably later than that presupposed by the oracles of Jacob.

Date and Unity of the Poem.—That the song is not a perfect literary unity is suggested first of all by the seemingly complex structure of the sections on Dan (two independent oracles) and Judah (with three exordiums in vv. 8, 9, 10). We find, further, that a double motive runs through the series, viz., (1) etymological play on the name of the tribe (Judah, Zebulun ?; Dan, Gad, Asher ?), and (2) tribal emblems (chiefly animal) (Judah, Issachar, Dan, Naphtali, Joseph, Benjamin): one or other of these can be detected in each oracle except those on Reuben and Simeon-Levi. It is, of course, not certain that these are characteristic of two independent groups of oracles; but the fact that both are represented in the sayings on Judah and Dan, while neither appears in those on Reuben and Simeon-Levi, does confirm the impression of composition and diversity of origin. The decisive consideration, however, is that no single period of history can be found which satisfies all the indications of date drawn from the several oracles. Those on Reuben, Simeon, and Levi refer to events which belong to a remote past, and were in all probability composed before the Song of Deborah, while these events were still fresh in the national memory; those on Issachar, Dan, and Benjamin could hardly have originated after the establishment of the monarchy; while the blessing of Judah clearly presupposes the existence of the Davidic kingdom, and must have been written not earlier than the time of David or Solomon. A still later date is assigned by most critics since We. (Comp. 3320) to the blessing on Joseph, which is generally considered to refer to the kingdom of North Israel and to the Aramaean wars under the dynasties of Omri and Jehu. It is argued in the notes below that the passage is susceptible of a different interpretation from that adopted by the majority of scholars, and may, in fact, be one of the oldest parts of the poem. As for the rest of the oracles, their character is such that it seems quite impossible to decide whether they originated before or after the founding of the kingdom. In any case we hardly get much beyond a broad chronological division into pre-Davidic and post-Davidic oracles; but at the same time that distinction is so clearly marked as to exclude absolutely the hypothesis of unity of authorship.—It has been supposed by some writers (Renan, Kue. al.) that the poem consists of a number of fugitive oracles which had circulated independently among the tribes, and were ultimately collected and put in the mouth of Jacob. But, apart from the general objection that characterisation of one tribe
by the rest already implies a central point of view, the inadequacy of the theory is seen when we observe that all the longer passages (Reuben, Simeon-Levi, Judah, Joseph) assume that Jacob is the speaker, while the shorter pieces are too slight in content to have any significance except in relation to the whole.—An intermediate position is represented by Land, who distinguished six stages in the growth of the song: (1) A primary poem, consisting of the two tristichs, vv.8 and 8, written at the time of David's victories over the Philistines, and celebrating the passing of the hegemony from Reuben to Judah: to this v.4 was afterwards added as an appendix. (2) A second poem on Judah, Dan, and Issachar (vv.9. 17. 14r: distichs), describing under animal figures the condition of these tribes during the peaceful interval of David's reign in Hebron: to which was appended later the v. on Benjamin (27). (3) The Shiloh oracle (vv.10-12), dating from the same period. (4) The decastich on Simeon and Levi (vv.5-7), from the time of the later Judges. (5) The blessing of Joseph (22-28), a northern poem from about the time of Deborah. (6) The five distichs on Zebulun, Dan, Gad, Asher, and Naphtali (in that order: vv.13. 16. 19. 20. 21), commemorating the victory of Deborah and Barak over the Canaanites. The theory rests on dubious interpretations, involves improbable historical combinations, and is altogether too intricate to command assent; but it is noteworthy nevertheless as perhaps the first elaborate attempt to solve the problem of the date and integrity of the poem, and to do justice to the finer lines of structure that can be discovered in it.—On the whole, however, the theory of the 'traditional document' (v.s.), altered and supplemented as it was handed down from one generation to another, while sufficiently elastic, seems the one that best satisfies all the requirements of the problem (so Gu. 420 f.).

The order in which the tribes are enumerated appears to be partly genealogical, partly geographical. The six Leah-tribes come first, and in the order of birth as given in chs. 29f., save that Zebulun and Issachar change places. Then follow the four concubine or hybrid tribes; but the order is that neither of birth nor of the mothers, the two Zilpah-tribes, Gad and Asher, coming between the Bilhah tribes, Dan and Naphtali. The Rachel-tribes, Joseph and Benjamin, stand last. Geographically, we may distinguish a southern group (Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Judah), a northern (Zebulun, Issachar, Dan?), Gad [trans-Jordanic], Asher, Naphtali), and a central group (Joseph, Benjamin). The general agreement of the two classifications shows that the genealogical scheme itself reflects the tribal affinities and historical antecedents by which the geographical distribution of the tribes in Palestine was in part determined. The suggestion of Peters (Early Heb. Story, 61 ff.), that the ages of Jacob's children represent approximately the order in which the respective tribes obtained a permanent footing in Canaan, is a plausible one, and probably contains an element of truth; although the attempt to reconstruct the history of the invasion and conquest on such precarious data can lead to no secure results. It is clear at all events that neither the genealogical nor the geographical principle furnishes a complete explanation of the arrangement in Gn.
49; and we have to bear in mind the possibility that this ancient document may have preserved an older tradition as to the grouping and relations of the tribes than that which is given in the prose legends (chs. 29. 30).—On the question whether a sojourn in Egypt is presupposed between the utterance and the fulfilment of the predictions, the poem naturally throws no direct light. It is not improbable that in this respect it stands on the same plane as 48\(^2\) (34. 38), and traces the conquest of Palestine back to Jacob himself.

Metrical Form.—See Sievers, Metrische Studien, i. 404 ff., ii. 152 ff., 361 ff. The poem (vv.\(^2-27\)) exhibits throughout a clearly marked metrical structure, the unit being the trimeter distich, with frequent parallelism between the two members. The lines which do not conform to this type (vv.\(^7b, 15b, 18\), and esp. \(^24b-26\)) are so few that interpolation or corruption of text may reasonably be suspected; although our knowledge of the laws of Hebrew poetry does not entitle us to say that an occasional variation of rhythm is in itself inadmissible.

Source.—Since the poem is older than any of the Pentateuchal documents, the only question that arises is the relatively unimportant one of the stage of compilation at which it was incorporated in the narrative of Gen. Of the primary sources, E and P are excluded; the former because of the degradation of Reuben, which is nowhere recognised by E; and the latter by the general tendency of that work, and its suppression of discreditable incidents in the story of the patriarchs. The passage is in perfect harmony with the representation of J, and may without difficulty be assigned to that document, as is done by the majority of critics. At the same time, the absence of literary connexion with the narrative leaves a considerable margin of uncertainty; and it is just as easy to suppose that the insertion took place in the combined narrative JE, perhaps by the same hand which inserted the Blessing of Moses in Deut. (see We. Comp.\(^3\) 62). That it was introduced during the final redaction of the Pent. is less probable, especially if \(^22b\) (\(\text{ןוֹמֵר}\)) was the original continuation of \(^1b\) in P (see on v.\(^1\)).

Monographs on the Song: Diestel, Der Segen Jakob's in Genes. xlix. historisch erläutert (1853); Land, Disputatio de carmine Jacobi (1858); Kohler, Der Segen Jakob's mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der alten Versionen und des Midrasch historisch-kritisch untersucht und erklärt (1867); cf. also Meier, Geschichte der poetischen National Literatur der Hebräer (1856), pp. 109-113; Peters, JSBL, 1886, pp. 99-116; and see the copious reff. in Tu. or Di.

I. 2. Introduction.—The poem begins with a preamble (v.\(^2\)) from the hand of the writer who composed or collected the oracles and put them in the mouth of Jacob. \(^1b\) is a prose introduction, supplied probably by the editor who incorporated the Song in the narrative of J or JE; while \(^1a\) appears to be a fragment of P divorced from its original
connexion with 23ab by R\textsuperscript{JEP}.—1b. that I may make known, etc.] The poem is expressly characterised as a prophecy (not, however, as a blessing [as 23b]), which it obviously is as ascribed to Jacob, though the singer’s real standpoint is contemporary or retrospective (p. 508 above).—in the after days] The furthest horizon of the speaker’s vision (v.i.).—

2. A trimeter distich, exhibiting the prevalent metrical scheme of the poem:

Assemble, ye sons of Jacob,
And hearken to Israel your father!

With the call to attention, cf. 428, Dt. 321, Is. 110 2814, etc.—Whether in the mind of the poet Israel is the literal or the ideal father of the nation may be doubtful: cf. v.7, and p. 509 above.

3, 4. Reuben.

Reuben! My first-born art thou:
My strength and best of my vigour.
Exceeding in pride and exceeding in fury,
Impetuous as water, thou may’st not excel.
For thou wentest up to thy father’s bed;
There thou profanedst [the1 couch. . . .

The original presents both obscurities and niceties not reflected in the translation; but the general sense is clear. As the first-born, Reuben is endowed with a superabundant vitality, which is the cause at once of his pre-eminence and of his undoing: his energy degenerates into licentious

The phrase occurs 13 times in Heb. OT (Nu. 2414, Dt. 303129, Is. 25, Jer. 2320 3024 4817 4939, Ezek. 3816, Hos. 35, Mic. 41, Dn. 10144), and its Aram. equivalent in Dn. 248. In the prophets it is used technically of the advent of the Messianic age; here and elsewhere (Nu. 2414 etc.) it has the general sense of the remote future (like Ass. \\textit{ahrat am}: \\textit{KAT}2, 143). That the eschatological sense is primary, and the other an imitation of prophetic style (Gu.), cannot be proved; and there is no justification for deleting either the phrase itself (Staerk, \\textit{ZATW}, xi. 247 fl.), or the whole clause in which it occurs (Land).—2. The repetition of affect is against the rules of parallelism. We may either omit the word in 2a (Gu. Sie.), or vary the expression (בֶּהשֶּׁךָ, גֶּשֶׁם) in 2b (בֶּה, Ba.). Metrically, either expedient would be admissible, but the former is much easier. In Gr. alt. ἀκούσατε is used thrice.
passion, which impels him to the crime that draws down the curse. As a characterisation of the tribe, this will mean that Reuben had a double share of the 'frenetic' Bedouin nature, and wore out his strength in fierce warfare with neighbouring tribes. If the outrage on his father's honour (v. 4) have historic significance (see below), it must denote some attack on the unity of Israel which the collective conscience of the nation condemned. It is to be noted that the recollection of the event has already assumed the legendary form, and must therefore reach back to a time considerably earlier than the date of the poem (Gu.).—3b, 4a. exceeding . . . excel] No English word brings out the precise force of the original, where the √ ἔνυ occurs three times in a sense hovering between 'exceed' and 'excel.' The idea of excess being native to the root, the renderings pride and fury are perhaps preferable to 'dignity' and 'power,' sc as well as 4 being understood sensu malo, as a censure of Reuben.—4b. Then . . . went up] A corrupt text:

3a. ἰν ῶνϊν (Dt. 21, cf. Ps. 78 105) Not ἄρχη τεκνῶν μου (.GetObject), still less principium doloris mei (F from ἡγ., 'trouble'; so Aq. Σ.); but 'best part of my virility' (ΣΤO). On ῶνϊν, see p. 12; ἰν as Hos. 12.—3b. Εἰ σκληρος φέρεσθαι καὶ σκληρος αθάνας; Εἰ prior in donis, major in imperio.—γι (abst. pro concr.) might mean 'excess' (Aq. Σ.), or 'superiority' (F), or 'remnant' (S; so Peters, p. 100): whether it is here used in a good sense or a bad (for the latter, cf. Pr. 17) depends on the meaning assigned to the next two words.—ὁνως] Lit. 'lifting' (Εἰ Aq. ΣΟΣ), several times means 'exaltation'; but in Hab. 1 it has distinctly the sense of 'arrogance,' the idea preferred above. To read ὠς, 'turbulence' (Gu.), is unnecessary, and ὠς, 'destruction' (Peters), gives a wrong turn to the thought.—ὑ] Pausal for υ, 'power,' but the sense of 'fury' is supported by v. 7, Is. 25—4. ῶνο—ὁνς] Εἰ ξυπήρωσας ὡς ὕδωρ, μὴ ξυπήρωσ; Aq. εὐάμμενως . . . περισσότερος; Σ. ὑπερήφανος . . . οὐκ ἔσῃ περισσότερος; E effusus es sicut aqua, non crescas; Σ ὑπερήφανος . . . μὴ οὐκ ἔσῃ περισσότερος.

The comparison to water is ambiguous; and it is doubtful if we may introduce the simile of water 'boiling over' (ΣΕρ and many moderns). The image may be that of a wild rushing torrent,—a fit emblem of the unbridled passion which was Reuben's characteristic (so ΣΤO).—ἵνα ΜΕ. Though the other Vns. have have 2nd pers. we cannot assume that they read so; and the analogy of v. 4 leads us to expect another abst. pro concr. The noun is ἰπ. λεγ., 'the ptcp. occurs Ju. 9, Zeph. 3,' with the sense 'reckless' or 'irresponsible' (cf. מֹּמַד, Jer. 23). In Arab. the √ means 'be insolent,' in Aram. 'be lascivious'; the common idea is
for various suggestions, *v.l.* Gu.’s trans. ‘Then I profaned the couch which he ascended,’ at least softens the harsh change from 2nd pers. to 3rd.

The ‘birthright’ of Reuben must rest on some early ascendency or prowess of the tribe which has left no traces in history. Its choice of a settlement E of the Jordan (Nu. 32, etc.), shows an attachment to nomadic habits, and perhaps an unfitness for the advance to civilised life which the majority of the tribes had to make. In the Song of Deborah, Reuben is still an important tribe, but one that had lost enthusiasm for the national cause (Ju. 3186). In the Blessing of Moses it still survives, but is apparently on the verge of extinction (Dt. 33). It was doubtless exhausted by struggles like those with the Hagarenes (1 Ch. 510, 186), but especially with the Moabites, who eventually occupied most of its territory (cf. Nu 3227, Jos. 1316, with Is. 15, Jer. 48 pass., and Moabite Stone).—The incident to which the downfall of Reuben is here traced (49b) is connected with the fragmentary notice of 3522, and is variously interpreted: (1) According to Rob. Sm. KM2, 109, Steuer. Einw. 16, Ho., it records the fact that Reuben had misused its power as the leading tribe to assail the independence of a weaker member of the confederation (Bilhah, or one of the Bilhah-tribes),—a rather hazardous speculation. (2) Another theory, not necessarily inconsistent with the former (see Rob. Sm. L. c.), finds a reference to the persistence in Reuben of an old Semitic custom of marriage with the wives or concubines of a (deceased!) father (Di., Sta. GVI, i. 151 f.), which the general moral sense of Israel had outgrown. In this case we must suppose that 49 contains the germ of the legend of which 3522, with its particular mention of Bilhah, is a later phase. (3) It is probable that the form of the legend has been partly determined by a mythological motive, to which a striking parallel is found in the story of Phoenix and Amyntor (II. ix. 447 ff.: quoted above, p. 427).—*Metrical Structure.* The oracle is better divided as above into three distichs, than (with MT) into two tristichs (so Land, who assigns each to a separate author). The trimeter measure is easily traced throughout (except l. 3) by following the Heb. accents, supplying Maqqeph after ‚ and ‚ in v. 4. Line 3 may be scanned ‚|u|‘ (Siev.).

perhaps ‘uncontrollableness’ (*ut s.*)—רְשֵׁנָה For the pausal a, see G–K. § 53 n, and cf. Ru. 214.—4b. No very acceptable rendering of this difficult clause has been proposed. If we follow the accentuation, ‚ is obj. of ‚, and ‚ a detached sentence: ‘Then thou actedst profanely. He went up to my bed’; but apart from the harsh change of person, this is inadmissible, because ‚ is never used intransitively. To read ‚ with ‚ is perhaps a too facile emendation; and to omit ‚ with ‚ is forbidden by rhythm. On the whole it is best (with Gu.) to point ‚, and take ‚ as a rel. cl. (*o.s.*) Other suggestions are: ‚ יִשְׁרֵנָה (Land); יִשְׁרֵנָה (Geig. Kit.); יִשְׁרֵנָה (Ba.); but all these are, for one reason or another, objectionable.
5-7. Simeon and Levi.

5 Simeon and Levi—brothers!
Weapons of ruth are their daggers (?).
6 Into their council my soul would not enter,
In their assembly my mind would not join:
For in their anger they slaughter men,
And in their gloating they disable oxen.
7 Accursed be their wrath for it is fierce,
And their rage for it is cruel!
I will divide them in Jacob,
And scatter them in Israel.

5a. brothers] Hardly ομώνυμοι (schol. in Field) = 'true brother-spirits' (Tu. al.), or 'associates' in a common enterprise. The epithet is probably a survival from an old tradition in which S. and L. were the only sons of Leah (see 34:25; cf. Mey. INS, 2861, 426). It is universally assumed that that incident—the treacherous attack on Shechem—is the ground of the curse here pronounced; but the terms of the oracle are perfectly general and in part unsuited to the supposed circumstances; and it seems to me to be the habitual character of the tribes which is denounced, and not any particular action.—5b. The transl. is doubtful,

5b. εὐσεβελέον νομίλων ἢ ἀλέσεως ᾧτόμων (OL. consummaverunt iniquitatem adinventionis suæ); Aq. σκευή νομίλων ἀνακαφαλ [αὐτῶν];

It seems likely that a ord. of the cons. text, that of Σ cannot be certainly restored; Kethib is supported by Aq. ΣΣΣ (עקרות; cf. Ezk. 16:21 25 29), by Τ (from √ ὁλο, see IEz.), and probably Ε. The textual tradition must therefore be accepted as fairly reliable. Of the many Heb. etymologies proposed (see Di. 459), the most plausible are those which derive from √ ὁλο, or (reading ὅλον) from √ ὁλο, 'to dig.' No √ ὁλο, 'dig,' is actually found, though it might perhaps be assumed as a by-form of ὁλο: this would give the meaning 'digging instrument' (cf. gladio confidere), which Vollers (ZA, xiv. 355) tries to support from Ass. The √ ὁλο means in Ar. 'to turn' or 'wheel round'; hence Di. conj. that ὇λον may be a curved knife or sabre. Some weapon suits the context, but what exactly it is must remain uncertain. How far the exegesis has been influenced by the resemblance to the Gr. μάχαιρα (R. Johanan [d. 279 A.D.]; cited in Ber. R. § 99; Ra.) we cannot tell. Ba. and Gu. take the word to be ὅλον, the former rendering 'plots' (fr. Ar. makara, 'to plot')
owing partly to uncertainty of text, and partly to the obscurity of the δπ. λεγ. ἡδερὲ (v.i.). The rendering above gives a good sense, and Ba.'s objection, that daggers are necessarily implements of violence, has no force.—6a. council . . . assembly] The tribal gatherings, in which deeds of violence were planned, and sanguinary exploits gloated over. The distich expresses vividly the thought that the true ethos of Israel was not represented in these bloody-minded gatherings.—6b. men . . . oxen] The nouns are collective.—slaughter . . . hough] Perfects of experience. The latter operation (disable by cutting the sinew of the hind-leg) was occasionally performed by Israelites on horses (Jos. 11.6, 2 Sa. 84); to do it to a domestic animal was evidently considered inhuman. No such atrocity is recorded of the assault on Shechem (see 34.28).*—7b. in Jacob . . . in Israel] The speaker is plainly not the individual patriarch, nor the Almighty (Land), but the personified nation.

and the latter 'pits' (cf. ἔρπα, Zeph. 29); but neither τάκετα τῶν ἄλφων (Ba.) nor τάκετα τῶν Ἀλφῶν [knavery and violence are their pits'] (Gu.) is so good as the ordinary interpretation. Ba., however, rightly observes that τάκετα yields a better metre than τῶν—(so Siev.).—6a. τὰκέντρον] Read with γίγαντα, 'my liver,' the seat of mental affections in La. 211 (cf. Ps. 169 3018 579 1052: MT γίγαντα): cf. καβιττον, 'Gemüth,' in Ass.—חכית] מ. ר. Since גיגא is masc., rd. גיגה:—6b. עד] 'self-will,' 'wantonness'; cf. Neh. 934.37, Est. 18 96 etc.—וֹד] On certain difficulties in the usage of the word, see Batten, ZATW, xxviii. 189 ff., where it is argued that the sense is general—make useless.—רוֹש] Aq. ΣΧΣΤΟ read רוש, 'wall,' perhaps to avoid the supposed contradiction with 34286. Hence the correct ταχὺρον of γιγα is instanced in Mechilla as a change made by the LXX translators (see p. 14).—7. יהוה主力军, מ. יהוה主力军: מ. יהוה主力军] Here pausal form of יה (ct. v.8).

* Zimmern (ZA, vii. 162 f.) finds in 6b a reminiscence of the mutilation of the celestial Bull by Gilgameš and Eabani in the Bab. Gilgameš-Epic. Simeon and Levi, like Gilgameš and Eabani, represent the Gemini of the Zodiac; and it is pointed out that the Bull in the heavens is ἡμτρώος, i.e. only its fore-half appears as a constellation. The then then corresponds to the tyrant Humbaba, who was slain by Gilgameš and Eabani; and Jacob's curse answers to the curse of Istar on the two heroes for mutilating the Bull.—Whatever truth there may be in this mythological interpretation, it does not relieve us of the necessity of finding a historical explanation of the incidents.

8 Judah! Thee shall thy brethren praise—
Thy hand on the neck of thy foes—
Bow down to thee shall thy father's sons.

9 A lion's whelp is Judah,
From the prey, my son, thou'rt gone up!
He crouched, he crouched like a lion,
And an old lion—who shall arouse him?

10 Departs not the sceptre from Judah,
Nor staff from between his feet,
Until . . . come . . . (?),
And to him the peoples obey.

11 Binding his ass to the vine,
And his foal to the choicest vine!
He washes his raiment in wine,
And his clothes in the blood of the grape!

12 With eyes made dull by wine,
And teeth whitened with milk!
8. *Thee*] The emphasis on the pron. (see G-K. § 135 e) is explained by the contrast to the preceding oracles: at last the singer comes to a tribe which he can unreservedly praise. Nowhere else does the poem breathe such glowing enthusiasm and such elevation of feeling as here. The glories of Judah are celebrated in four aspects: (1) as the premier tribe of Israel, 8; (2) as the puissant and victorious lion-tribe, 9; (3) as the bearer (in some sense) of the Messianic hope, 10; (4) as lavishly endowed with the blessings of nature, 11f. — The same fanciful etymology as in 29. — *thou hand . . . foes*] The image seems to be that of a defeated enemy, caught by the (back of the) neck in his flight, and crushed (Ex. 2327, Ps. 1841, Jb. 1612). — *thine brethren . . . thy father’s sons*] The other tribes, who acknowledge the primacy of Judah. — 9. A vivid picture of the growth of Judah’s power; to be compared with the beautiful lyric, Ezek. 192-9. — *a lion’s whelp*] So Dt. 3328 (of Dan). The image naturally suggests the ‘mighty youth’ of the tribe, as its full development is represented by the lion, and old lion of the following lines. Hence the cl. חִטָּב—חָרָם is rendered by some (Gu. al.): *On prey, my son, thou hast grown up* (been reared), which is perhaps justified by Ezek. 198. But it is better to understand it of the lion’s ascent, after a raid, to his mountain fastness, where he rests in unassailable security (9b). — *he crouches, etc.*] So (of Israel as a whole) Nu. 249. — 10a. Judah’s political pre-eminence.—*sceptre . . . staff*] The latter word (נְּשִׁי) might be used personally =

8. דָּרָי נָּשִׁי:—9. דָּרָי נָּשִׁי] גּּאֶק βλαστοῦ, taking the word as in 811, Ezek. 179. — נָּשִׁי גּאֶק σκύμνος, נָשִׁי נָּשִׁי. The common rendering

‘lioness’ is based on Arab., but it is by no means certain that in Heb. the word denotes specially the female. It is never construed as fem.; and in Ezek. 19 the pointing נָּשִׁי shows that the Massorites considered נָּשִׁי as masc.—10a. נָּשׁ and נָּשִׁי are found together in Ju. 514, where נָּשִׁי (וְנָּשִׁי נַשָּׁא) has the personal sense of ‘commander.’ But in Nu. 2118, Ps. 609 [=1088] it denotes the commander’s staff; and since נָּשׁ is always the instrument, the impersonal sense is to be preferred here: hence the δρακόντω of is wrong, and the personal renderings of ‘in’ in all Vns. at least doubtful.—10b. נָּשׁ וְנָּשָׁא, נָּשׁ וְנָּשָׁא, ‘from between his banners,’ gives no sense. interpret after Dt. 2897 ‘from his
'prescriber [of laws]' (Ge 31:1; al.); but בֶּן is never so used, and parallelism requires that קְלָת should be understood of the commander's staff (Nu. 21:18, Ps. 609 = 1089).—from between his feet] The chieftain is conceived as seated with his wand of office held upright in front of him. The Bedouin sheikhs and headmen of villages are said still to carry such insignia of authority.

The question arises whether the emblems denote (a) kingly authority, or (b) military leadership of the other tribes, or merely (c) tribal autonomy. Dri. (JPh. xiv. 26) decides for (a), because (1) בֶּן, without qualification, suggests a royal sceptre; (2) the last phrase presents the picture of a king seated on a throne; (3) the word קְלָת in אָב most naturally expresses the homage due to a king (cf. 377). But in favour of (c) it might be urged (1) that קְלָת never has this meaning, and (2) that בֶּן is the word for 'tribe' (e.g. vv. 16, 28), and, if the passage be early, is likely to be used as the symbol of tribal independence. The idea of military hegemony (b) is in no way suggested, apart from the connexion with v. 6, which is dubious. The point has an important bearing on the exegesis of the next cl. If (a) be right, the Davidic monarchy is presupposed, and אָב assigns a term to its continuance; whereas, if (c) be right, אָב is possibly (not necessarily) a prophecy of David and his dynasty. See, further, the note at the end of this verse.

10b. The logical relation of the two halves of the v. is clear: the state of things described by אָב shall endure until

thighs' and hence אָב 'from his sons' sons,' אָב 'from his seed.'—10b. בְּנֵי—[Ge. 31:1] אָב אֶל אִלְיָה יִתְנְהֵי לְאֹוֶקֶלֶנֶה אֲדוֹת [vars. אֵל לְאֹוֶקֶלֶנֶה ...]; אֵל כָּלָהוּ ... etc.]: אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶל אֶl
—something happens which shall inaugurate a still more glorious future. Whether this event be the advent of a person—an ideal Ruler—who shall take the sceptre out of Judah’s hands, or a crisis in the fortunes of Judah which shall raise that tribe to the height of its destiny, is a question on which no final opinion can be expressed (see below).—and to him] Either Judah, or the predicted Ruler, according to the interpretation of 10ba.—obedience of peoples] Universal dominion, which, however, need not be understood absolutely.

The crux of the passage is thus 10ba: נֶלֶשׁ אֶמֶרָיו לָע. For a fuller statement of the various interpretations than is here possible, see Werliin, De laudibus Iudaæ, 1838 (not seen); Dri. JPh. xiv. 1–28 (and open to question, and we are free to try any pronunciation of the Keteb יֶלֶשׁ which promises a solution of the exegetical riddle with which we are confronted. In spite of the unanimity of the Vns., the pointing יֶלֶשׁ is suspicious for the reasons given above,—the presence of שׁ in an early document, and the want of a subj. in the relative sentence. On the other hand, the attempts to connect the word with יֶלֶשׁ, ‘be quiet,’ are all more or less dubious. (a) There is no complete parallel in Heb. to a noun like נֶלֶשׁ from a נֶלֶשׁ root. If it be of the type qitôt, the regular form would be יָלֵשׂ; although Kön. (ii. p. 147) argues that as we find נֶלֶשׁ alongside of נֶלֶשׁ, so we might have a נֶלֶשׁ alongside of יֶלֶשׁ. Again, if be an apocopated form of the nominal termination יֶלֶשׁ, the יָלֵשׂ would naturally be not יֶלֶשׁ but יָלֵשׂ (in Arab. = ‘flow,’ whence seil, ‘a torrent’) or יֶלֶשׁ. It is true there are a few examples of unapocopated nouns of this type from נֶלֶשׁ verbs (יָהְתֶק, יֶהָק [Ezk. 40:18?], יֶהָך [Gn. 3:18]—prob. an error for the reg. יֶהָק, Hos. 9:13, Ru. 4:18]); and the possibility of deriving the form in be a root of this kind cannot be absolutely excluded (cf. יֶהָק with יֶהָק). (b) But even if these philological difficulties could be removed, there remains the objection that יֶלֶשׁ (as contrasted with יָלֵשׂ) is in OT at most a negative word, denoting mere tranquillity rather than full and positive prosperity, and is often used of the careless worldly ease of the ungodly. For all these reasons it is difficult to acquiesce in the view that יֶלֶשׁ can be a designation of the Messiah as the Peaceful or the Pacifier; while to change the pointing and render till tranquillity (נֶלֶשׁ) ‘come,’ is exposed to the additional objection that the יֶלֶשׁ of the following line is left without an antecedent.—רָמָה] (Pr. 30:17) Dag. forte dirimens. The יָלֵשׂ appears in Ar. wakiha, ‘be obedient’; Sab.[ip]. That a vb. (יָהְתֶק, יֶהָס?) would be more natural (Ba.) is not apparent; the vbs. in מָה, all of which probably derived from יָלֵשׂ (Aq. from יָלֵשׂ, II.: BDB).
more briefly Gen. 410-415) ; Posnanski, Schilo Ein Beitrag zur Geschichete der Messiaslehre : i Theil: Ausleg. von Gn. 490 im Altert. bis zum Ende des MA, 1904; Di. 462 ff. — The renderings grammatically admissible fall into two groups. (i.) Those which adhere to the text. rec., taking נִשָּׁה as nom. pr. (a) ' Until Shiloh come' (Shiloh, a name of the Messiah), the most obvious of all translations, first became current in versions and comm. of the 16th cent., largely through the influence of Seb. Münster (1534). Although the Messianic acceptation of the passage prevailed in Jewish circles from the earliest times, it attached itself either to the reading נִשָּׁה (ii. below) or to the rendering ' his son' (נִשָּׂה), or (later and more rarely) to הַשֵּׁה (' gifts to him') . The earliest trace (if not the actual origin) of Shiloh as a personal name is found in the following passage of the Talmud (Sanh. 98b) :

And as he is a river unto all his name, and his name is as it is said, ' Until Shiloh come.' 

The sequel of the quotation is: "Those of the school of R. Shela say, Shiloh is his name, as it is said, ' Until Shiloh come.' 

And our Rabbis say, The leprous one of the school of Rabbi is his name, as it is said (Is. 534), Surely our sicknesses he hath borne, and our pains he hath carried them, though we did esteem him stricken (sc. with leprosy), smitten of God, and afflicted." Now there is nothing here to suggest that Shiloh was already a current designation of the Messiah any more than, e.g., the verb נִשָּׁה in Ps. 7217 can have been a Messianic title. Yet, as Dri. says, it is "in this doubtful company that Shiloh is first cited as a name of the Messiah, though we do not learn how the word was read, or what it was imagined to signify." Subsequently Shiloh as a personal name appears in lists of Messianic titles of the 11th cent. (Psn. 40), and it is so used (alongside of the interpretation נִשָּׁה) by Samuel of Russia (1124). Partly from this lack of traditional authority, and partly from the impossibility of finding a significant etymology for the word (v. i.), this explanation is now universally abandoned. — (b) ' Until he [Judah] come to Shiloh' (Herder, Ew. De. Di. [hesitatingly] al.). This is grammatically unexceptionable (cf. i Sa. 418), and has in its favour the fact that נִשָּׁה (נִשָּׂה, נִשָּׁה [orig. נִשָּׂה]) everywhere in OT is the name of the central Ephraimite sanctuary in the age of the Judges (Jos. 1818, i Sa. 1-4 etc.). At the great gathering of the tribes at Shiloh, where the final partition of the land took place (Jos. 18f.), Judah is imagined to have laid down the military leadership which had belonged to it during the wars of conquest; so that the prophecy marks the termination of that troubled period of the national life. But all this is unhistorical. The account in Jos. 18 belongs
to the later idealisation of the conquest of Canaan; there is no evidence that Judah ever went to Shiloh, and none of a military hegemony of that tribe over the others, or of a subjugation of 'peoples' \(^{1098}\), until the time of David, by which time Shiloh had ceased to be the central sanctuary. Even if (with Di.) we abandon the reference to Jos. 18, and take the sense to be merely that Judah will remain in full warlike activity till it has conquered its own territory, it is difficult to see (as Di. himself acknowledges) how that consummation could be expressed by a coming to Shiloh.—(c) The translation 'As long as one comes to Shiloh,' i.e. for ever (Hitz. Tu.), gives a sense to \(\psi\) which is barely defensible.—(ii.) Those which follow the text underlying all ancient Vns. except \(\exists\), viz. \(\text{נַּפ} = \text{נֶּפֶג}\). (a) 'Until he comes to that which is his' (Orelli, Br.) involves an improbable use of the acc.; and it is not easy to see how Judah's coming to his own could be the signal for the cessation of any prerogatives previously enjoyed by him.—(b) 'Until that which is his shall come' is a legitimate rendering; but the thought is open to the same objection as ii. (a).—(c) The most noteworthy of this group of interpretations is: 'Until he come whose' [it is], sc. the sceptre, the kingdom, the right, etc.; i.e. the Messiah. This has the support not only of nearly all Vns., but of Ezk. 21:22 (where, however, the subj. \(כַּפֵּרָה\) is expressed). The omission of the subj. is a serious syntactic difficulty; and this, added to the questionable use of \(\psi\) in an early and Judæan passage, makes this widely accepted interpretation extremely precarious. The first objection would be removed if (after a suggestion of We. [see Comp.\(^2\) 320]) we could delete the following \(וָל\) as a gloss, and read 'Until he come whose is the obedience,' etc. But metrical considerations preclude this, as well as the more drastic excision of \(כַּפֵּרָה\) as a gloss on \(וָל\) (ib. 321).—Of conjectural emendations the only one that calls for notice is that of Ba. (followed by Gressmann), who reads \(כַּפְרָה\): 'Until his ruler (i.e. the Messiah) come.'

With regard to the general scope of the v., the question recurs, whether the term fixed by \(^{109a}\) is historic or ideal; whether, in other words, it is a prophecy of the Davidic kingdom or of a future Messiah. 

(i) The tendency of recent scholars has been to regard \(וָל\) as Messianic, but interpolated (We. Sta. Di. Ho. Dri. al.), on the double ground that it breaks the connexion between \(^9\) and \(^{11}\), and that the idea of a personal Messiah is not older than the 8th cent. But (apart from the question whether the subj. in \(^{11}\), be Judah or the Messiah) the connexion between \(^9\) and \(^{11}\) is in any case not so obvious as to justify the removal of \(^{10}\); and the assumption that the figure of the Messiah is a creation of the literary Prophets is based more on our ignorance of the early religious conceptions of the Israelites than on positive evidence. 

(2) Accordingly, Gu. (followed by Gressmann, Ursprung d. Isr.-Jüd. Eschatologie, 263) finds in the passage proof of a pre-prophetic eschatology, which looked forward to the advent of a Ruler who should found a world-empire, the point of the oracle being that till that great event Judah's dominion should not pass away. It is difficult, however, to believe that the climax of a blessing on Judah is the expectation of a world-ruler who takes the sceptre out of Judah's hands; and though a reference to a
Messianic tradition is quite conceivable, it is probable that it is here already applied to the Davidic monarchy. (3) It seems to me, therefore, that justice is done to the terms and the tenor of the oracle if we regard it as a prophecy of David and his dynasty,—a *vaticinium ex eventu*, like all the other oracles in the chapter. The meaning would be that Judah shall retain its tribal independence (see on 10b) against all adversaries until its great hero makes it the centre of a powerful kingdom, and imposes his sovereignty on the neighbouring peoples. As for the enigmatic הָלָשֶׁנ, we may, of course, adopt the reading הֲלָשֶׁנ, which is as appropriate on this view as on the directly Messianic interpretation. But if the oracle rests on an early eschatological tradition, it is just possible that הָלָשֶׁנ is a cryptic designation of the expected Ruler, which was applied by the poet to the person of David. Bennett (p. 397) calls attention to the resemblance with הָלָשֶׁנ in ch. 38; and it is a wonder that those who recognise mythical elements in the story of Judah and Tamar have not thought of identifying the הָלָשֶׁנ of our passage with Judah's third son, of whose destiny the story leaves us in ignorance. Is it possible that this connexion was in the minds of the Jewish authorities (v.i.), who render הָלָשֶׁנ 'his youngest son'? (see Posnanski, 369).

II, 12. As usually understood, the vv. give a highly coloured picture of Judæan life after the conquest, in a land where vines are so common that they are used for tethering the ass, and wine so abundant that garments are washed in it. As a description of the vine-culture for which Judah was famous, the hyperbole is perhaps extreme; and Gressmann (l.c. 287) takes the subject to be not the personified tribe, but the Ruler of v. 10, the vv. being a prediction of the ideal felicity to be introduced by his reign. Whether this be the original sense of the passage or not is hard to decide; but Gr. is doubtless right in thinking that it supplied the imagery for the well-known picture of the Messianic king in Zec. 9.—12.LET take the adjs. as comparatives: 'brighter than wine (v.i.) . . . whiter than milk': but this is less natural.

11. תָּלָשֶׁנ with archaic case-ending: cf. חָּלָשֶׁנ below, and perhaps תָּלָשֶׁנ in v. 12.—תָּלָשֶׁנ] &. לֵא רָא, Is. 5; Jer. 21 [תָּלָשֶׁנ, Is. 16]; probably from the red colour of the best grapes.—תָּלָשֶׁנ] מָלָשֶׁנ, 'covering' (Ex. 21 etc.). מָלָשֶׁנ (v. תָּלָשֶׁנ?) does not occur elsewhere.—12. תָּלָשֶׁנ] In Pr. 23 the חָּלָשֶׁנ כַּיּוֹן means 'dulness of eyes,' the effect of excessive drinking. This is the only sense justified by etymology (Ass. *akku*, 'be gloomy'; Ar. *hakala*, IV, 'be confused': see BDB, s.v. חָלָשֶׁנ), and must be retained here, although, of course, it does not imply reproach, any more than חָלָשֶׁנ in 43. חָלָשֶׁנ] כַּיּוֹן, 'glad-eyed'; and similarly *V.S.*
The section on Judah lacks the unity of the first two oracles, and is very probably composed of strophes of diverse origin and date. V.⁸ opens with a play on the name, like vv.¹⁶. ¹⁹, while v.⁸ starts afresh with an animal comparison, like vv.¹⁴. ¹⁷. ²⁷ (see Introd. Note, p. 510). The impression of discontinuity is partly confirmed by the poetic form; v.⁸ being an irregular trimich, and the remainder a series of 7 perfect trimeter distichs. The dekastich ¹⁰-¹² seems distinct from what precedes (note the repetition of the name in ¹⁰), but is itself a unity. The proposal to remove v.¹⁰ as a late Messianic interpolation, and to make v.¹¹ the continuation of v.⁸, does not commend itself; and the excision of the third line in v.¹⁰ (Meier, Fripp) merely avoids an exegetical difficulty by sacrificing the strophic arrangement.


13. shall dwell] An allusion to the etymology in 3ο²⁰. It is plausibly conjectured that יִבְשָׁא has been substituted by mistake for the original יִבְשִׁי (Gu. al.).—The second and third lines are unintelligible, and the text is probably corrupt. The comparison of Zebulun to a recumbent animal, with ‘itself’ (םְדָנִי) towards the sea-coast, and its hind-parts towards Zidon (Di. Gu. al.), is unsatisfying and almost grotesque. Dt. ₃₃¹⁰ shows that it is the advantageousness of Zebulun’s geographical position which is here celebrated.

—Zidôn] may be a name for Phœnicia, in whose commercial pursuits it has been surmised that Zebulun became more and more involved (Sta. GVI, i. 171).—14. bony] i.e. strong-

13. יִבְשָׁא נַחַל] Ju. 5¹⁷; cf. יִבְשָׁא, Dt. 1⁷, Jos. ⁹, Jer. ⁴⁷, Ezk. ₂⁵¹⁶†; נַחַל is never found with any other gen. except in the next line.—עַל נַחַל] One is tempted to construe prosaically thus: ‘And that a shore for ships, with its flank on Zidon’; but this would entail elision of י, to the detriment of the rhythm: besides, the repetition of נַחַל and the unique combination נַחַל נַחַל are suspicious. Ba. reads דִּבְשָׁא for יִבְשָׁא (after Ju. ⁵¹⁷), and deletes the last line.—בְּיִו] וַעֲבַרְשָׁא] וַעֲבַרְשָׁא נַחַל, 'ass
limbed. Issachar had strength enough, but preferred ease to exertion.—[The common interpretation 'sheep-pens' has no appropriateness here, and may be a conjecture based on Ju. 518. Equally unsuitable are the renderings of the old Vns. ('boundaries,' etc.), and the 'fire-places' or 'ash-heaps' which the Heb. etymology would suggest. The form is dual, and one naturally thinks of the 'panniers' carried by the ass (v.i.).—15. ננֶנְעָפִי] A technical term for a labouring drudge] Lit. 'became a toiling labour-gang'; cf. Jos. 1610. יִּשְׁנָ is a levy raised under the system of forced labour (corvée). That a Heb. tribe should submit to this indignity was a shameful reversal of the normal relations between Israel and the Canaanites (Jos. 1610 1718 [= Ju. 128], Ju. 130. 33. 35).

The two northern Leah-tribes found a settlement in Lower Galilee, where they mingled with the Canaanite inhabitants. According to Jos. 1910-18, Zebulun occupied the hills north of the Great Plain, being cut off from the sea both by Asher and by the strip of Phoenician coast. We must therefore suppose that the tribal boundaries fluctuated greatly in early times, and that at the date of the poem Zebulun had access at some point to the sea. The almost identical description on Ju. 517 is considered by Gu. to have been transferred from Zebulun to Asher,—a view which, if it can be substantiated, affords a reliable criterion of the relative dates of the two oracles. The district of Issachar seems to have been between the Great Plain and the Jordan, including the Vale of Jezreel,—a position in which it was peculiarly difficult for a Hebrew tribe to maintain its independence. The tribe is not even mentioned in the survey of Ju. 1, as if it had ceased to be part of Israel. Yet both it and Zebulun had played a gallant part in the wars of the Judges (Ju. 46. 10 516. 518 658 519). The absence of any allusion to these exploits lends colour to the view that this part of the poem is of older date than the Song of Deborah.

of sojourners' (unless יִּשְׁנָ be an adj. fr. וֹשֵׁב). כַּלְדוּ כָּלַדְוֹנְ עֶבֶדִים (= יִּשְׁנָ רַעְעָ: Ginsb. Introd. p. 254); ֶבֶדֵד ak. and ֶבֶד support on the whole MT.—םְתָחֵשֵנְה יִבְר] Ju. 5184, but cf. Ps. 6814. The three pass. are somehow interrelated, although no sense will suit them all. Vns. mostly render 'territories,' or something equivalent, both here and in Ju. But the διαγομας of כ in Ju. (see Schleusner) is noteworthy, and shows that the rendering above has some show of authority. So the late Gr.-Ven. ἰμαφορία. For the rest, see Moore on Ju. 518.—15. בְּשֵׁת] וֹשֵׁב יִּשְׁנָ (Ginsb. l.c.).—On וֹשֵׁב, see DBD, and Moore, Jud. p. 47.

16 Dan shall judge his people,
    As one of the tribes of Israel.
17 Be Dan a serpent on the way,
    A horned snake on the path,
    That bites the hoofs of the horse,
    And the rider tumbles backwards!

[1 wait for thy salvation, Yahwe!]

19 Gad—raiders shall raid him,
    But he shall raid their rear!
20 Asher—his bread shall be fat,
    And he shall yield dainties for kings.
21 Naphtali is a branching terebinth (?)
    Producing comely tops (?)

16. Dan . . . judge] See on 308.—his people] Not Israel, but his own tribesmen. The meaning is not that Dan will produce a judge (Samson) as well as the other tribes (CRT), nor that he will champion the national cause (Ew. De. Di. al.); but that he will successfully assert an equal status with the other tribes. Note that in Ju. 182. 11. 19 the Danites are spoken of as a 'clan' (נָחַ֑יִם).—17. The little snake, concealed by the wayside, may unhorse the rider as effectually as a fully armed antagonist: by such insidious, but not ignoble, warfare Dan in spite of his weakness may succeed.—[םָ֔יִה] אָ֑רְפּ. λεγ. is probably the cerastes cornutus, whose habits are here accurately described (see Dri., and Tristram, NHB, 274).—18. An interpolation, marking (as nearly as possible) the middle of the poem (so Ols. Ba. Siev. al.). The attempts to defend its genuineness as a sigh of exhaustion on Jacob's part, or an utterance of the nation's dependence on Yahwe's help in such unequal conflicts as those predicted for Dan, are inept.—Dan was one of the weakest of the tribes, and perhaps the latest to secure a permanent settlement (Ju. 134f., Jos. 1947, Ju. 18). Its migration northward, and conquest of Laish, must have

17. [םָ֔יִה] זֶֿוקַעַתָּהֲעַנְּוָא, taking the אָ֑רְפּ. λεּ as an adj.—בָּיִה] בָּיִנ (after בָּיִנ).
taken place early in what is known as the Judges' period; and is apparently presupposed here and in Ju. 517.—19. Strictly: 'A marauding band shall attack him, but he shall attack their heel' (rdg. הבש, v. i.); i.e., press upon them in their flight. The marauders are the warlike peoples to the E, specially the Ammonites (1 Ch. 518ff., Ju. 10 f.), who at a later time dispossessed the tribe (Jer. 49). As yet, however, Gad maintains its martial character (cf. 1 Ch. 128-15), and more than holds its own.—20. Asher settled in the fertile strip along the coast, N of Carmel. The name occurs as a designation of Western Galilee in Eg. inscrs. of the time of Seti and Ramses II. (see Müller, AE, 236 ff.).—fat] Probably an allusion to the oil (Dt. 3324) for which the region was, and still is, famous.—royal dainties] fit for the tables of Phoenician kings (cf. Ezek. 2717).—21. The verse on Naphtali is ambiguous. Instead of בָּנוֹן, 'hind,' many moderns read בְּנוּן ('a spreading terebinth'). The following cl.: 'giving fair speeches,' suits neither image; on the one view it is proposed to read 'yielding goodly lambs' (בְּנוֹן), on the other 'producing goodly shoots' (בְּנוֹן). No certain conclusion can be arrived at.

19. [The name is here (otherwise than 3011) connected with ראב, 'band' (i Sa. 306. 18, 21 Ki. 1134, 2 Ki. 52 620 etc.), and with נ ראב, 'assail' (Hab. 316, Ps. 9424).—בּוּנָ ה. Rd. בּוּנָ, taking the ה from the beginning of ה.20. [Read with כָּרָנָ ה. — מָנָ ה. mw נש. — 21. נָבָ ה. נ] So Aq. ו (Jer. Qu.). ס and ת probably had the same text, but render 'a swift messenger.' On Jerome's ager irriguus (Qu.) and its Rabbinical parallels, see Rahmer, Die hebr. Traditionen in den Werken des Hier. p. 55. סטָלֵכֶס seems to imply נ; but Ba. dissents.—[ב] After either נ or נ, פִּנּוּ would be better.—[ב] 'words,' is unsuitable, and caused ס and ת to change the metaphor to that of a messenger. An allusion to the eloquence of the tribe is out of place in the connexion. The reading רָנָ, 'topmost boughs,' has but doubtful support in Is. 176 (see the comm.). רָנָ, 'lamb,' is not Heb., but is found in Ass. Phoen. Aram. and Ar. סֶנֶנֶאֶנֶא is traced by Ba. to רָנָ; but?—[ב] אַר. לָנָ.–Ba. argues ingeniously, but unconvincingly, that נ belongs to ה, and that the ה of that ה stood originally in ס. His amended text reads:

Naphtali is a branching vine,
That yieldeth comely fruit.

22 A fruitful bough (?) is Joseph—
A fruitful bough by a well (?)....
22 And . . . dealt bitterly with him,
And the archers harassed him sorely.
24 Yet his bow abode unmoved,
And nimble were the arms of his hands.
Through the hands of the Mighty One of Jacob,
Through the 'name' of the Shepherd of the Israel-Stone,
26 Through thy father's God—may he help thee!
And El Shaddai—may he bless thee!
Blessings of heaven above,
Blessings of Têhôm '1' beneath,
Blessings of breast and womb,
26 Blessings of . . . (?),
Blessings of the eternal 'mountains',
'Produce' of the everlasting hills—
Be on the head of Joseph,
And on the crown of the consecrated one of his brethren.

The section is full of obscurities, and the text frequently quite untranslatable. Its integrity has naturally not passed unquestioned. We may distinguish four stages in the unfolding of the theme: (1) The opening tristich (22), celebrating (as far as can be made out) the populousness and prosperity of the central double-tribe. (2) Joseph's contest with the 'archers' (23, 24a). (3) A fourfold invocation of the Deity (24b-26a). (4) The blessing proper (26b, 26c, 26d), which closely resembles the corresponding part of the Blessing of Moses (Dt. 33:13-18), the two being probably variants of a common original. Meyer (INS, 282 ff.) accepts (1), (2), and (4) as genuine, but rejects (3) as a later addition, which has displaced the original transition from the conflict to the blessing. Fripp (ZATW, xxii. 262 ff.) would remove (3) and (4) (24b-26d), which he holds to have been inserted by an Ephraimite editor from Dt. 33: Ho. seems in the main to agree. Sievers also (II. 362) questions the genuineness of 24b-26 on metrical grounds. But we may admit the northern origin of some of the vv., and the resemblance to Dt. 33, and even a difference of metre, and still hold that the whole belongs to the earliest literary recension of the Song to which we have access. The warm enthusiasm of the eulogy, and the generous recognition of Joseph's services to the national cause, are no doubt remarkable in a Judean document; but such a tone is not unintelligible in the time of David, when the unity of the empire had to be maintained by a friendly and conciliatory attitude to the high-spirited central tribes.

22. On the ordinary but highly questionable rendering,
the image is that of a young thriving vine planted by a fountain and thus well supplied with water, whose tendrils extend over the wall.—a fruitful bough] Or ‘A young fruit-tree’: lit. ‘son of a fruitful [tree] or ‘vine’]. There is probably an etymological allusion to Ephraim (יהוֹס = הָרְשַׁי: We.).—23, 24. The figure is abruptly changed: Joseph is now represented as beset by troops of archers, whose attack he repels.—dealt bitterly . . . ] The following word בְּרַה requires some amendment of text (v.i.).—24. abode unmoved] or ‘constant.’ Taken with the next line, this suggests a fine picture; the bow held steadily in position, while the hand that discharges the arrows in quick succession moves nimbly to and fro (Gu.). The expressions, however, are peculiar, and a different reading of the second line given in

‘fruitful’ (Is. 17:32, Ezk. 19:10, Ps. 124:9), or בָּרַה, with archaic fem. termination. בָּרַה, ‘bough’ (Ezk. 17:31-36), might be thought of, but would be hardly suitable as gen. after מְ.—Down to מְ the Vns. have substantially the same text.—רָשׁ יִלָּע הַרְשַׁי (נֹב) defines explanation. Lit. filia discurrentur super murum (Ɵ). But מְ = ‘tendrils,’ has no analogy; רָשׁ means ‘march’ or ‘stride,’ but not ‘extend’; and the discord of number is harsh (notwithstanding G-K. § 145 §). The Vns. reveal early corruption of the text, without suggesting anything better. G vltς μον νεότατος (= μον ὄρυγμα νῦν) πρὸς μὲ ἀναστρέφουν (= ὄρυγμα νῦν). S דַּכְּתָם

—Zimmern’s zodiacal theory, which identifies Joseph with the sign Taurus, finds two tempting points of contact in the consonantal text: reading רָשׁ = בָּרַה, ‘juvenca,’ at the beginning, and רָשׁ, ‘ox,’ at the end. But the reconstruction of the text on these lines, with the help of Dt. 33:17 (see ZA, vii. 164 ff.; ATLO2, 399), has no title to respect: against it see Ba. p. 116.—23. רָשׁ] From יֹלֶל , a by-form of יֹלֶל, ‘shoot,’ with intrans. pf. (G-K. § 67 m). The simple pf. between two consec. imps. being suspicious, the least change demanded is רָשׁ. μον (εἰσοπόρων) and Ɵ (jurgati sunt) read רָשׁ, ‘strove with him.’ Parallellism suggests a noun as subj. to רָשׁ; we might read רָשׁ, ‘bowmen’ (Jer. 50:90), or (since the line is too short) רָשׁ רָשׁ (21:50).—24a. G καὶ πυντριβή μετὰ κρά- τους τὰ τῶνα αὐτῶν [=אֵּלָהָנְ וַיַּסְּפַּר].—בַּשְׁחַה] S לָשֶׁבֶת = בַּשְׁחַה. The sense ‘abide’ for בַּשְׁחַה is justified by Lv. 12:4, 1 Ki. 22:3, Ps. 125:1, and nothing is gained by departing from MT.—יוֹסִי] Lit. ‘as a permanent one’ (יִזְּסֵיתא).—יוֹסִי] 2 Sa. 6:14. G καὶ ἐξέπεμψε, S הָרַּבַּה may represent יהוֹס (see Ba.).—[emics] יִזְּסֵיתא is a hard

* But see above on 21:90.
some Vns. is approved by several scholars (v.i.).—Strong One of Jacob] A poetic title of Yahwe, recurring Is. 49\(^{26}\) 60\(^{16}\), Ps. 132\(^{2-5}\), and (with Israel for Jacob) Is. 1\(^{24}\). See, further, the footnote below.—Through the name] שִׁפַּי, the reading of § and ת, though not entirely satisfactory, is at least preferable to the meaningless שֶׁפַי of MT.—the Shepherd of the Israel-Stone] A second designation of Yahwe as the Guardian of the Stone of Israel,—either the sacred stone of Bethel, or (better) that of Shechem (Jos. 24\(^{26f}\))., which was the religious rendezvous of the tribes in early times (see p. 416): so Luther, INSV, 284\(^1\). Both text and translation are, however, uncertain (v.i.).—25, 26. The construction is ambiguous: it is not clear whether the lines beginning with Blessings are a series of accusatives depending on the תְּרוֹמָה of 25a (‘may he bless thee with blessings,’ etc.), or subjects to נִרְשָׁה in 26b. The second view is adopted above; but the ambiguity may be an intentional refinement.—25a\(^{18}\). ’El Shaddat] For the reading, v.i.; and see on 17\(^1\).—25a\(^{18}\).

combination, but perhaps not too bold.—24b. רֶכֶּס] occurs only in the pass. cited above. It is reasonably suspected that the Mass. changed the punctuation to avoid association of ideas with רכש, ‘bull,’ the idolatrous emblem of Yahwe in N Israel. Whether the name as applied to Yahwe be really a survival of the bull-worship of Bethel and Dan is another question; רכש (strong) is an epithet of men (Ju. 5\(^2\), Jb. 24\(^{22}\) 34\(^{30}\), Je. 46\(^{19}\), 1 Sa. 21\(^8\) etc.), and horses (Jer. 8\(^{16}\) 47\(^{10}\) 50\(^{11}\)) much more often than of bulls (Ps. 22\(^{13}\) 68\(^{61}\) 50\(^{13}\), Is. 34\(^7\)), and might have been transferred to Yahwe in its adj. sense. On the other hand, the parallelism with ‘Stone of Israel’ in the next line favours the idea that the title is derived from the cult of the Bull at Bethel, which may have had a more ancient significance than an image of Yahwe (cf. Mey. INSV, 282 ff.; Luther, ZATW, xxi. 70 ff.). The further inference (Nö. Lut. Mey.) that Jacob was the deity originally worshipped in the bull is perhaps too adventurous.—עֵל] So הָעָל; but הָעָלָּב. הָעָלָה יָד] Cf. טו וַיְרַע, 2 Sa. 23\(^8\), Is. 30\(^{59}\); also רַע יָד, 1 Sa. 41\(^{5}\) 7\(^{19}\). The translation above agrees with §; MT puts יָד in apposition with ‘ע (so §); הָעָלָה בְּקַלְקְלָה Isp. omits יָד, and may have read יָד (Ba.). The line is too long for the metre, but יָד is the one word that should not be omitted.—25. עָרִיב שְׁרֹפֶּה . . . רֵאָס] Cf. Ps. 69\(^{38}\), and see Ew. § 347 a.—טָשַׁנ] Read with מְעַגֶּה (רְכָסֵת רֶכֶּס), § הָעָל: though יָד alone (Nu. 24\(^{4}\) 18) would be suitable in an ancient poem.—הָעָל] Metrically necessary in Dt. 33\(^{18}\), but here redundant; probably, therefore, a gloss from the other recension (Siev.).—26. דָּוִד נִיְּרִיָּה נִיְּרִיָּה הָיָה וַיִּתֶּר. דָּוִד נִיְּרִיָּה נִיְּרִיָּה הָיָה וַיִּתֶּר] There are two stages of corruption,
26a. The blessings, arranged in three parallel couplets,—the first referring to the fertility of the soil.—*Blessings of heaven above*] Rain and dew, the cause of fertility (so Dt. 33:13 em.). —*Tēhôm . . . beneath*] The subterranean flood, whence springs and rivers are fed: see on 1^2.—*Blessings of breasts and womb*] Contr. the terrible imprecation, Hos. 9:14.—26a. Passing over the first four words as absolutely unintelligible (v.i.), we come to the third pair of blessings: . . . of the eternal mountains . . . of the everlasting hills (Dt. 33:15, Hab. 3:6) In what sense the mountains were conceived as a source of blessing is not clear,—perhaps as abodes of deity; cf. the ‘dew of Hermon’ (Ps. 133:3).—The word rendered produce is uncertain; we should expect ‘blessings,’ as גה actually reads (v.i.).—26b. *Be on the head*] as in benediction the hand is laid on the head (48:14): cf. Pr. 10:6 11:28.—ריו] So Dt. 33:18. The יִרְיָם is either the Nasirite—one ‘consecrated’ to God by a vow involving unshorn hair (Ju. 13:5,7 etc.)—or the prince (so only La. 4'). For the rendering ‘crowned one’ there are no examples. The second interpretation is that usually adopted by recent scholars; some explaining it of the Northern monarchy, of

one remediable, the other not. The last line is to be restored with גה יִרְיָם תַּכֵּרָא, ‘blessings of the eternal mountains’ (Dt. 33:15, Hab. 3:6). But the first three words, though represented by all Vns., must be wrong; for to put תַּכֵּרָא under the regimen of by destroys the parallelism, and the vb. יִרְיָם cuts off מַאֲרָת from its subj. What is obviously required is a line parallel to וַתִּנְדַּס תִּנְדַּס. Gu.'s suggested emendation, though far from satisfying, is the best that can be proposed: יִרְיָם נְדַּס יִרְיָם תַּכֵּרָא נְדַּס = ‘Blessings of father, yea, man and child.’—יהו] מַעַכִּיד + נְדַּס, suggested no doubt by the previous line.—יִרְיָם] בְּשַׂמֶּה render ‘my progenitors,’ by an impossible derivation from נְדַּס, ‘be pregnant.’—יִרְיָם] EV ‘utmost bound’ (so De., fr. מַאֲרָת or מַאֲרָת; see BDB), has no real philosophical or traditional justification. If the text were reliable, it might be the common word ‘desire,’ from מַאֲרָת (גֵּשֶׁם, יִרְיָם), in the sense of ‘desirable things.’ With some hesitation I follow above Ols. Gu. al., reading מֵאָרְאָת after Dt. 33:14. But גה תַּכֵּרָא has great weight (all the greater that the translator has lost the thread of the thought), and ought perhaps to be preferred.—יִרְיָם is not necessarily a derivative from the noun יִרְיָם, ‘diadem,’ = ‘the crowned one’; more probably it comes from the vb. directly,—נְדַּס = ‘dedicate’ (cf. דַּס)—which admits various shades of meaning. Of the Vns. גה represent the idea of ‘prince’ or ‘ruler, גה the separated one,’ וַשָּׁאָד. ‘the Nazirite,’ ג ‘the crown’ (ג).
which the Joseph-tribes were the chief part; though others think it merely ascribes to Joseph a position of princely superiority to his brethren. The other view is taken by Sellin (Beitr. ii. 1, 132 ff.) and Gu., who conceive the ancient Nazirite as a man like Samson, dedicated to single-handed warfare against the foes of Israel (cf. Schw. Kriegsalterthümer, 101 ff.), and hold that Joseph is so designated as being the foremost champion of the national cause. The interpretation is certainly plausible; but it derives no support from the word רֵינֵי (םָ֣רְנָה), which is never used in connexion with the Nazirite, and is quite common in other connexions (see Dt. 3320).

The opinion confidently entertained by many scholars (see We. Comp.2 321), that the Blessing of Joseph presupposes the divided kingdom, rests partly on this expression, and partly on the allusion to an arduous struggle in 22ff. But it is clear that neither indication is at all decisive. If רֵי could mean only 'crowned one,' we should no doubt find ourselves in the time of the dual monarchy. In point of fact, it never denotes the king, and only once 'princes'; and we have no right to deny that its import is adequately explained by the leadership which fell to the house of Joseph in the conquest of Canaan (Ju. 122ff.). Similarly, the 'archers' of v.22 might be the Aramaeans of Damascus, in which case Joseph would be a name for the Northern kingdom as a whole; but they may as well be the Midianites (Ju. 6ff.) or other marauders who attacked central Israel between the settlement and the founding of the monarchy, and whose repeated and irritating incursions would admirably suit the terms of the description. The general considerations which plead for an early date are: (1) The analogy of the rest of the poem, some parts of which are earlier, and none demonstrably later, than the age of David or Solomon. (2) The incorporation of the blessing in a Judean work is improbable at a time when Israel was a rival kingdom. (3) Although Joseph sometimes stands for the Northern kingdom, it can hardly do so here in an enumeration of the tribes. Consequently it takes us back to the time when Joseph was still a single tribe, or when at least the separation of Ephraim and Manasseh was not clearly recognised: the addition in Dt. 3317b is instructive in this regard (see Gu., and Sellin, l.c. 134).

27. Benjamin.

27 Benjamin is a ravening wolf:
   In the morning he devours the prey,
   And at eve divides the spoil.

27. מִּגְזֹּן וְמֵאָרֶץ] Descriptive impf., see Dav. § 44, R. 3, § 142. On pausal 
    א, see G-K. § 29 u.—י] = 'booty,' Is. 3323, Zeph. 38 [? Is. 98]; Ge בֵּצֵע.
Benjamin is praised for its predatory instincts, and its unflagging zest for war. The early history contains a good deal to justify the comparison: its fight with Moab (Ju. 3:15ff.), its share in the struggle with the Canaanites (Ju. 5:14), its desperate stand against united Israel (Ju. 19 f.); it was famous for its skill in slingling and archery (Ju. 20:16, 1 Ch. 8:10 12^2, 2 Ch. 14:7 17:17). But a special reference to the short-lived reign of Saul is probable: the dividing of spoil reminds us of the king who clothed the daughters of Israel with scarlet and ornaments (2 Sa. 1:24).—The contrast between this description and the conception of Benjamin in the Joseph-stories is an instructive example of how tribal characteristics were obscured in the biographical types evolved by the popular imagination.

28aba (to ונהבכ) is the subscription to the poem; the remainder of the v. belongs to P, and probably continued 1a in that source.—*the tribes of Israel, twelve in number*] The division into 12 tribes is an artificial scheme, whose origin is uncertain (see Luther, ZATW, xxi. 33 ff.; Peters, Early Heb. Story, 55 ff.). It obtained also amongst the Edomites, Ishmaelites, and other peoples; and in Israel betrays its theoretic character by the different ways in which the number was made up, of which the oldest is probably that followed in the Song of Jacob. In Dt. 33, Simeon is omitted, and Joseph divided into Ephraim and Manasseh; in P (Nu. 2) Joseph is again divided, to the exclusion not of Simeon, but of Levi.

The recently revived theory of a connexion between the original sayings of the Blessing and the signs of the Zodiac calls for a brief notice at this point. The most striking correspondences were set forth by Zimmern in ZA, vii. (1892), 161 ff.; viz., Simeon and Levi = Gemini (see p. 517); Judah = Leo, with the king-star Regulus on its breast (\(\text{וֹלַד} \text{וֹלַד}\)); and Joseph = Taurus. This last comparison, it is true, rests on Dt. 33 rather than Gn. 49, and is only imported into this passage by a violent reconstruction of v. 28 (p. 530). Other possible combinations mentioned by Zimmern are Issachar = Aselli (in Cancer), Dan = Serpens (N of Libra), Benjamin = Lupus (S of Scorpio), and Naphtali = Aries

28. וֹלַד וֹלַד] ג וֹלַד יאָכְבּ. — 'פ גֵּשֵּׁים שֵּׁים] Such a construction is impossible. We must either omit the rel. (Vns.) or read שֵּׁים שֵּׁים (Ols. De. KS. Gu. al.).
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(reading _IMPL for ἐνωκομοι). Stucken (MVAG, 1902, 166 ff.), after a laboured proof that Reuben corresponds to Behemoth (hippopotamus), an old constellation now represented by Aquarius, completed the circle after a fashion, with the necessary addition of Dinah=Virgo as the missing sign; and his results are adopted by Jeremias (ATLO, 395 ff.). A somewhat different arrangement is given by Winckler in AOF, iii. 465 ff. These conjectures, however, add little to the evidence for the theory, which must in the main be judged by the seven coincidences pointed out in Zimmern's article. That these amount to a demonstration of the theory cannot be affirmed; but they seem to me to go far to show that it contains an element of truth. It is hardly accidental that in each series we have one double sign (Gemini, Simeon-Levi) and one female personification (Virgo, Dinah), and that all the animal names occurring in the Song (lion, ass, serpent, ram, ox, wolf) can be more or less plausibly identified with constellations either in the Zodiac or sufficiently near it to have been counted as Zodiacal signs in early times. The incompleteness of the correspondence is fairly explained by two facts: first, that the poem has undergone many changes in the course of its transmission, and no longer preserves the original form and order of the oracles; and second, that while the twelve-fold division of the ecliptic goes back to the remotest antiquity, the traditional names of the twelve signs cannot all be traced to the ancient Babylonian astronomy. It may be added that there is no prima facie objection to combinations of this sort. The theory does not mean that the sons of Jacob are the earthly counterparts of the Zodiacal constellations, and nothing more. All that is implied is that an attempt was made to discover points of resemblance between the fortunes and characteristics of the twelve tribes on the one hand, and the astro-mythological system on the other. Such combinations were necessarily arbitrary, and it might readily happen that some were too unreal to live in the popular memory. Where the correspondence is plausible, we may expect to find that the characterisation of the tribe has been partly accommodated to the conceptions suggested by the comparison; and great caution will have to be observed in separating the bare historical facts from the mythical allusions with which they are embellished. In the present state of the question, it may be safely said that the historical interpretation must take precedence. The Zodiacal theory will have to be reckoned with in the interpretation of the Song; but it has as yet furnished no trustworthy clue either to the explanation of obscure details, or to the restoration of the text.

XLIX. 28b—L. 26.—The Death and Burial of Jacob; and the Death of Joseph (P; J, E).

Jacob charges his sons to bury him in the family sepulchre at Machpelah, and expires (28b-33). Joseph causes the body to be embalmed; and, accompanied by his brethren and an imposing cortège, conveys it to its last resting-place in
Canaan (501–14). He pacifies and reassures his brethren, who fear his vengeance now that their father is gone (15–21). He dies in a good old age, after exacting an oath that his bones shall be carried up from Egypt when the time of deliverance comes (22–26).

Sources.—492bβ–33 belongs to P, with the possible exceptions of 32 (a gloss), and the clause 32bβ; note the reference to ch. 23 and the identical phraseology of the two passages; also the expressions הָלָּא, חָוָה, פָּלוֹת יִשְׂרָאֵל (bis).—In ch. 50, vv. 12, 13 are from P (Machpelah, etc.: note also that the suffix in יַנְב refers back to 4933). Vv. 11–14 are mainly J (יהוֹשֵׁה, 3; יְהוָא הניך, 4; יְהוָא, 8; יְהוָא, 11: note the reference [34] to Joseph's oath [4729–31]); and 18–26 E (ידיה, 19. 20. 24. 25; יִנֵּב, 21 [4511 4712]: וַיָּשָׁר עַל מַתָּן, 19 [307]: the resemblance to 455. 7; and the backward reference in Ex. 1319, Jos. 2482). The analysis might stop here (Di. We. Dri. al.: but a variant in 10 (10b 10αβ), and the double name of the place of burial suggest that there may be two accounts of the funeral (see KS. An. 242). Ho. Gu. Pro., however, seem to me to go too far in the attempt to establish a material difference of representation (e.g., that in E's account Joseph's brethren did not go up with him to the burial). Traces of J in 15–26 are equally insignificant (see the notes).

28b–33. Jacob's charge to his sons. —28bβ. The sequel to 1α in P. Note the close formal parallel to 281 (P): And . . . called . . . and blessed . . . and charged . . . and said . . . —each with a special blessing] v.i.—29, 30. See on ch. 23.—31. Abraham and Sarah his wife] 259 2319. The burying-place of Isaac (3530) is not elsewhere specified; and the burials of Rebekah and Leah are not recorded at all.—On the possibility that the notice of Rachel's burial (487) stood here originally, see p. 504 f.—32. Probably a gloss (v.i.).—33. drew up his feet into the bed] The clause may have been inserted from J; cf. 482b. —As in the case of all the patriarchs except Joseph, the actual account of the death is left to P.

L. I–14. The burial of Jacob.—I. The forms in which

29. כֹּהֵן רַא שָׁבָע] כֹּהֵן רַא שָׁבָע (cf. 35): see on 258.—30. For 'הָלָּא נַעֵל, כֹּהֵן has simply הָלָּא שָׁבָע, and for the following לֵשֵׁנ, הָלָּא. —31. יִנֵּב] כֹּהֵן יִנְבֶּה—At the end of the v. Bu. would add בָּרָא as P's original statement (ZATW, iii. 82).—32. The v. has no syntactic connexion with the preceding, the construction is cumbrous in the extreme, and the notice superfluous after 30b. It should probably be deleted as a marginal variant to 30b (so De. Gu.).—יָשָׁר] כֹּהֵן 'שָׁר.
Joseph’s grief expressed itself were doubtless conventional, though they are not elsewhere alluded to in OT.—2. The Egyptian practice of embalming originated in ideas with which the Hebrew mind had no sympathy,—the belief that the ka or ghostly double of the man might at any time return to take possession of the body, which consequently had at all costs to be preserved (Erman, LAE, 307). In the cases of Jacob and Joseph (v. 26), it is merely an expedient for preserving the body till the burial could take place. On the various methods employed, see Herod. ii. 86–88; Diod. i. 91; and Budge, The Mummy, 160 ff., 177 ff.—the physicians] In Egypt the embalmers formed a special profession.—3. forty days . . . seventy days] The process of embalming occupied, according to Diod., over 30 days, according to Herod., 70 days; exact data from the monuments are not yet available (Erman, 315, 319 f.; Budge, 179). The mourning for Aaron and Moses lasted 30 days (Nu. 2029, Dt. 343); the Egyptians (who are here expressly mentioned) are said to have mourned for a king 72 days (Diod. i. 72).—4–6. Joseph seeks Pharaoh’s permission to absent himself from Egypt. Why he needed the court to intercede for him in such a matter does not appear.—5a. Cf. 4720ff.—have dug] The rendering ‘have purchased’ is possible, but much less probable (cf. 2 Ch. 1614). The confused notice Ac. 710 might suggest a tradition that Jacob’s grave was in the plot of ground he bought near Shechem (3319 E), which is the view maintained by Bruston (ZATW, vii. 202 ff.). On any view the contradiction to 4730 remains.—7–9. The funeral procession is described with empressement as a mark of the almost royal honours bestowed on the patriarch. Such processions are frequently depicted on Egyptian tombs: Erman,

2. סנה] v. 26, Ca. 218.] Apparently a Semitic י, meaning in Arab. ‘become mature,’ applied in Heb. Aram. and Arab. to the process of embalming.—3. ישן] ל. י, abstr. pl. = ‘embalming;’—4. סנה] The fem. only here, for סנה. The suff. prob. gen. obj. (weeping for Jacob).—5.] Add with ביברלנ.י.ם — 5. יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאובישון יאوبני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאובני יאוב Nicole H. 4081-4081,
320 f.; Ball, *Light from the East*, 119 f.—horsemens, however, never appear in them: "We have no representations of Egyptians on horseback; and were it not for a few literary allusions, we should not know that the subjects of the Pharaoh knew how to ride" (Erman, *LAE*, 492 f.).—10, 11. The mourning at the grave.—*Goren ha-Ātād* 'the threshing-floor of the bramble'; the locality is unknown (*v.l.*).—11. *Abēl Mīzraim*] one of several place-names compounded with ל見積もり = 'meadow' (Nu. 3349, Ju. 1138, 2 Sa. 2015, 2 Ch. 164); here interpreted as סירט פיראמד, 'mourning of Egypt.' The real name 'meadow of Egypt' may have commemorated some incident of the Egyptian occupation of Palestine; but the situation is unknown.—The record of the actual burying in J and E has not been preserved.

It is difficult to say whether *Goren ha-Ātād* and *Abēl Mīzraim* are two different places, or two names for one place. Jerome (*OS, 8510*) identifies the former with Bethagla (='Ain Ḥağla, or Kasr Ḥağla, S of Jericho [Buhl, *GP*, 180]), but on what authority we do not know. The conjecture that it was in the neighbourhood of Rachel's grave depends entirely on a dubious interpretation of 487. Since there appears to be a doublet in v.10 (*10a b 10b*), it is natural to suppose that one name belongs to J and the other to E, and therefore there is no great presumption that the localities are identical (יַפְּנֵי 'ם in 11 may be a gloss). According to the present text, both were E of the Jordan (*10a 11b*); but such a statement if found in one document would readily be transferred by a redactor to the other; and all we can be reasonably confident of is that one or other was across the Jordan, for it is almost inconceivable that תָּרָה יניב 'n should be an interpolation in both cases. Since it is to be assumed that in J and E the place of mourning was also the place of burial, and since the theory of a détour round the Dead Sea and the E of Jordan to arrive at any spot in W. Palestine is too extravagant to have arisen from a fanciful etymology, it would seem to follow that, according to at least one tradition, Jacob's grave was shown at some now unknown place E of the Jordan (Meyer, *INS*, 280 f.). Meyer's inference that Jacob was originally a transjordanic hero, is, however, a doubtful one; for the East is dotted with graves of historic personages in impossible places, and we have no assurance that tradition was more reliable in ancient times.

and is here to be preferred.—*תָּרָה יניב* נח + נח נס. —10. תָּרָה The word for 'bramble' in Jotham's parable from Gerizim, Ju. 944 (only Ps. 5810 again). Can there be an allusion to the threshing-floor of this passage at Shechem?—11. תָּרָה 'ם Possibly a gloss from v.10. If so, קסנ (ם קסנ), referring to קס (whose gender is uncertain), must have been substi-
12, 13. The account of the actual burial (from P).—It is significant that here the Egyptians take no part in the obsequies: the final redactor may have assumed that they were left behind at the mourning place E of the Jordan.—See further on 49\textsuperscript{99ff.}.—14 (J). The return to Egypt.

15–21. Joseph removes his brethren's fears. —The vv. contain a variation of the theme of 45\textsuperscript{6ff.} (Gu.), as if to emphasize the lesson of the whole story, that out of a base intent God brought good to His people.—15. saw] i.e. 'realised,'—took in the full significance of the fact (cf. 30\textsuperscript{1}). If it were meant that they 'learned' for the first time that their father was dead, the inference would surely be not merely that the brethren had not been present at the funeral (Gu.), but that E had not recorded it at all.—16, 17. They send a message to Joseph, recalling a dying request of their father (not elsewhere mentioned).—the servants of the God of thy father] Religion is a stronger plea than even kinship (Gu.).—18. Cf. 44\textsuperscript{16}. The v. may have been inserted from J (v.i.).—19. am I in God's stead?] (30\textsuperscript{3}): to judge and punish at my pleasure.—20. Cf. 45\textsuperscript{5, 7, 8}.—21. The continuance of the famine seems presupposed, in opposition to the chronology of P (47\textsuperscript{28}).

22–26. Joseph's old age and death.—22. a hundred and ten years] Cf. Jos. 24\textsuperscript{29}. It is hardly a mere coincidence, but
rather an instance of the Egyptian affinities of the narrative, that 110 years is at least three times spoken of as an ideal lifetime in Egyptian writings (Stern, Z. Aeg. Spr., 1873, 75 f.).

—23. Joseph lived to see his great-grandchildren by both his sons, —another token of a life crowned with blessing (Ps. 128\textsuperscript{6}, Pr. 13\textsuperscript{22} 17\textsuperscript{6} etc.). The expressions used of Ephraim's descendants are somewhat difficult (v. i.). —\textit{Makir} the most powerful clan of Manasseh, in the Song of Deborah (Ju. 5\textsuperscript{14}) numbered among the tribes of Israel, and possibly therefore an older unit than Manasseh itself (see Meyer, INS, 507, 516 f.). —The expression \textit{born on Joseph's knees} implies the adoption of Machir's sons by Joseph (see on 30\textsuperscript{o}), though the action does not seem to have any tribal significance. —24, 25. Joseph predicts the Exodus (as did Jacob, 48\textsuperscript{21}), and directs his bones to be carried to Canaan. For the fulfilment of the wish, see Ex. 13\textsuperscript{19}, Jos. 24\textsuperscript{32}. —\textit{His brethren} are here the Israelites as a whole (v. \textsuperscript{25}). —26. The death of Joseph. —\textit{In a coffin} or mummy-case, the wooden inner shell, shaped like the mummy, which was placed in the stone sarcophagus (see Erman, LAE, 315 f.; Ball, Light from the East, 121). A mythological allusion to the 'coffin' of Osiris (Völter, 55) is not to be thought of.

"This 'coffin in Egypt,'" remarks Delitzsch, "is the coffin of all Israel's spiritual satisfaction in Egypt." Gu. shows sounder judgement and truer insight when he bids us admire the restful close of the narrative, and the forward glance to the eventful story of the Exodus.

\textit{kai pása ἡ παροικία}. —23. \textit{μα 'ς νῦν} so \textit{κόσμος}. \textit{μα 'ς νῦν} means 'great-grandchildren' (Ex. 34\textsuperscript{1}); hence 'ς νῦν ought to mean 'great-great-grandchildren' (not, of course, of Ephraim, but of Joseph in Ephraim's line). But there being no reason why the descent should be carried further in the line of Ephraim than in that of Manasseh, we must understand 'great-grandchildren,' whether we read with \textit{μα}, or take 'ς νῦν as appositional gen. (see Di.). —\textit{μεταβολή} \textit{μα νῦν}, 'in the days of,' —'a bad correction' (Ba.), supported by no other Vn. —24. \textit{υπερβαίνω} \textit{δὲ θεὸς τοῖς πατριάσιν ἡμῶν}. —25 end. Add with \textit{Heb. MSS μὲν ἐγνατίος, 'with you.'} —26. \textit{ἐναντίον} \textit{μεν ἐναντίον}. See on 24\textsuperscript{38}. 
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