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Divination in ancient Israel, 1915.

Cincinnati, April 23, 1915.

To the President and Faculty of the Hebrew Union College:
Gentlemen:

Mr. Abba Hillel Silver's thesis, "A Study of Divination in Ancient Israel," is a very praiseworthy piece of work. Mr. Silver has made a diligent and intelligent study of the literature on the subject, and shows himself thoroughly conversant with the method of scientific research. His presentation of the subject is both lucid and systematic.

In the course of the work there are a number of statements which call for criticism.

For example, Mr. Silver finds reference to divination and the practice of divination where there is absolutely no trace of it, as in the test to which Gideon submits his warriors (Judg. 7:4-7), in the sign for which he asks in confirmation of his mission, (16.6:36-40), in Jonathan's device for informing David of Saul's hostility (I Sa. 20: 18ff.), in Hos. 5:9 and in 4:5--in the latter case he offers the impossible emendation of יְהוָה for יְהוָה . (see pp. 12, 24, 28, 34f 47) His conclusions in this respect are no doubt due to some extent to the influence of some of his authorities, particularly of Jastrow, who, e. g., infers from I Sa. 9:25f.--a text which is perfectly plain in the reading of the LXX--"that the specific kind of divination practised by Samuel was probably astrology" (p. 54).

The outcry of Nu.16 of the destruction of Korah's partisans by fire is not a case of ordeal (p.30).

The Talmudic phrase בְּצִבְעָן cannot possibly be taken as a proof that "the בְּצִבְעָן or the בְּצִבְעָן was represented in the form of a dove" (p.16). The phrase has its origin in the corresponding Biblical figure of Deut.32:11, Ru.2:12,

Ps.17:8, 91:4, and other passages. Neither does *לְשׁוֹן נָבָעַת* permit the inference that "the dove is the omen bird of Israel" (p.17). As in the case of *מִזְבֵּחַ וְלֶבֶךְ* (Sabb. 85a etc), its explanation is to be found in the allegorical interpretation of the Song of Songs.

There is no proof that "the narrator of Gen.31 supposes that the Teraphim were images of Yahweh," rather the opposite seems to be the case; nor does Hosea (3:4-5) identify them with Yahweh (p.37).

The distinctions which Mr. Silver tries to establish between *תְּרוּמָה*, *תְּרוּרָה*, *נִזְבָּח*, and wherein he likewise depends unduly on Jastrow, have no basis in the sources. He has failed to see that in Is. 30:10 Isaiah uses the terms, *וְנִזְבָּח*, of prophets of his own type, and Micah in scorning the official prophets of his day, his antagonists, (3:5-7) not only speaks of them as *תְּרוּמָה* & *תְּרוּרָה*, but also as *נִזְבָּח*, that God is in Isa.22:5 merely spoken of as *נִזְבָּח*, and that no inference whatever can be drawn from the chronicler's use of the terms, *נִזְבָּח*, *תְּרוּמָה* and *תְּרוּרָה*.

In conclusion I wish to restate that the criticism made in no wise reflects on the value of Mr. Silver's thesis as a whole. His thesis not only complies fully with the requirements of a graduation thesis, it is far above the average.

I, therefore, recommend the same heartily for your acceptance.

Respectfully submitted,

Moses Buttenwieser, Referee.

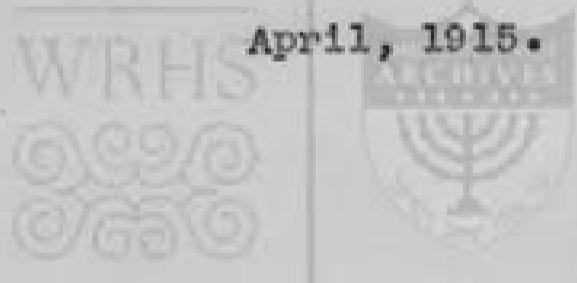
Julian Morgenstern, Co-referee.

~~Pages 13-16 were written
but have been omitted. I am sorry.~~
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Abba Hillel Silver

DIVINATION IN ANCIENT ISREAL.

Graduation Thesis.

Abba Hillel Silver.



DIVINATION IN ANCIENT ISRAEL.

Introduction.

- I. General Terms for Divination.
- II. Kinds of Divination.
- III. Places pf Divination.
- IV. Agents of Divination.
- V. Prophetic Yahwism vs. Divination.

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	Journal of Bib. Literature Vol. XIX and XXVIII.
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McNeile	"Exodus", Westminster Series.
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INTRODUCTION.

Definition. It is probable that divination, like magic, originally passed through a non-religious stage. On the principle of sympathetic magic, it interpreted omens not as messages from superior powers, but as causalities in themselves. "Originally," says Mr. Jacobi, "divination (Indian) seems to have been practiced chiefly with the intention of obviating the evil consequences of omens and portents". (Hastings's Enc. Rel. & Eth. IV.p. 799, cf "Encyclopedie Biblica" article "Magic"). But we are not so much concerned with the origin of this pseudo-science. We wish to study it as a phase of the religious life of a people.

We may then accept Mr. Rose's definition of divination as the most comprehensive of all. Divination is "the endeavor to obtain information about things future or otherwise removed from ordinary perception, by consulting informants others than human." (Hastings's E.R.E. IV p.775) Mr. Toy's definition of divination as "the science that seeks to discover the will of the supernatural Powers by means of the observation of phenomena". (Introduction to the History of Religions, p.406) is somewhat imperfect and incomplete.

The primary function of divination was not to discover the will of the deity, but to obtain information on matters past, present or future which none but the supernatural powers possessed. Spirits may be consulted even when it is evident that their will can have no practical consequences on the matter at hand. Again, information may be obtained without the observation of phenomena. A spirit would often give the required information by entering into and taking possession of a subject and by speaking directly through him. The element of phenomena observation is practically a negligible one also in oneiromancy and, in general, autoscopic forms of divination.

2.

Psychology of Divination. It is not a mere natural inquisitiveness, which prompts primitive man to attempt to learn the unknown things. Divination, like magic, served a very practical purpose. "Sie (die Divination) befriedigt nicht die Neugier und den Wissensdrang, sondern sie zeigt den weg, den man einschlagen muss, um zum Ziel zu kommen" (Wellhausen, "Reste Arabischon Heidentums" p.200). Divination helps man to solve the many practical and pressing problems, which confront him daily. He must discover the cause of the death of his relative or kinsman, for mortality as a natural necessity is unknown to primitive man, (Frazer, "The Belief in Immortality" Index, "Divination"); he must know beforehand the success or failure of a hunt or a battle; the guilt or innocence of a member of the tribe, accused of the infraction of a social custom, must be established in order to avoid the dire visitations of the enraged deity (Cf, The Story of Achan, and that of Jonathan, and the very interesting account of the trial of Thutmosis, priest of Amon, given in Erman's "A Handbook of Egyptian Religion, pp 167-8); and disputes among tribesmen must be decided equitably i.e. with divine guidance. The general supposition underlying the practice of the art of divination is that the spirits, with whom the social group has established a covenant, are endowed with superior knowledge and, accordingly, know the events of the past, present and future. ~~Con-~~ Mr. Ames well remarks, "the life of the tribe is registered in its sacred object. When the tribe attains some social history, preserved in oral traditions, and various monuments, then the God is credited with long life in the past. The sense of the future and of power to plan for it is expressed in the God's knowledge and control of the future." (Psychology of Religious Experience," P.113). For the preservation of the life of the tribe, a knowledge of the significance of ~~phenomena~~ attending ^{events} it and of the things which the future holds in store for it is essential. The community, therefore, attributes this important

faculty to its deity, who is the "corporeализed" expressions of its life. It is likewise assumed that the spirit or spirits are willing or can be coerced, to impart the information which they possess. The medium by which this information is communicated is, of course, the whole of reality, i.e., the physical environment of man, or those segments of it which have come into the horizon of his experience and interest, and his inner world; for the objective reality of such psychic phenomena as dreams, visions and hallucinations, is unquestioned by primitive man.

The Logic of Divination. The science of ~~interpreting~~^{divination} these significant phenomena man learnt from actual experiences by subjecting them to a logic which was vitiated by what Mr. Rose terms "a glaring fallacy of an 'ambiguous middle'". This fallacy it shares ~~in~~ common with sympathetic magic. "Man", says Mr. Tylor, "as yet in a low intellectual condition, having come to associate in thought those things which he found by experience to be connected in fact, proceeded erroneously to invert this action, and to conclude that association in thought must involve similar connection in reality. He thus attempted to discover, to foretell, and to cause events by means of processes which we can now see to have only an ideal significance." (Primitive Culture, Vol. I, p. 116.) But divination as a branch of sympathetic magic, is not sufficient to explain the very complex ~~which developed~~ divinatory systems. Many other elements entered into the construction of this elaborate pseudo-science. Totemism probably, underlies the practice of augury and haruspicy. In general, the symbolic and religious (i.e. omens as divinely-inspired) interpretation of omens contributed much to the art of divination.

Divination in Isreal. Divination is universal in its practice. It is the spontaneous creation of all peoples in the earlier stages of their development. While certain kinds of divinatory practices may be foreign in their origin, yet divination as such is indi-

ogenous in Isreal as among all other peoples. "By the word of Yahweh would the children of Isreal set out for a journey and by the word of Yahweh would they encamp" (Num.9,18) Substitute any number of Gods or Spirits for "Yahweh" and any undertaking ~~at~~^{on} for "a journey" and you have an idea of the prevalence of divination in Isreal during the earlier stages of its religious evolution. The very strenuous endeavors of authoritative religion to eradicate the practice testify to the firm hold which it had upon the people. In the earlier polydaemonic or polytheistic stages, divination was wide-spread, unchecked and unchallenged. It was with the rise of monotheism that divination was first called upon to defend itself. The fundamental implication of divination is the existence of many spirits, whom man may invoke for guidance and help. The rustling of the tree-tops was ominous only as long as the tree is the ^{by man's} habitation of a Spirit, and the water-ordeal ~~is~~^{is} efficacious only in so far as the water is from a sacred well -- the dwelling place of another Spirit. Monotheism, thus ~~showed~~^{present} the ~~deadly~~ enemy of all forms of divination.

Divination, like magic, was never fully eradicated from the popular religion of Isreal. The Bible, Apocrypha, Talmud and Mediæval Jewish Literature bear ample evidence to this fact. But at the hands of the ^{official} ~~authoritative~~ religion it fared very badly, indeed. In this, Isreal differed from Egypt and Babylonia. In the religions of Egypt and Babylonia, divination was not only countenanced but encouraged. The same religious sentiments, which permitted magic to become part and parcel of the national cult could not discourage ~~the art of~~ divination.

Significance of the Study of Divination for the Science of the Religion of Isreal. An historical study of divination is inso a study of the rise and growth of monotheism. It traces the successive stages in the upward climb of a spiritual God-con-

cept and reveals the intense struggle which raged between true monotheism and crude syncretism, culminating in the triumph of the former. While it is true that as regard spiritual and moral qualifications, the prophet had ~~nothing~~ ^{little} in common with the diviner, it is also true that chronologically the latter was anterior to the former, and that a process of evolution from the one to the other, can be discerned. A study of divination is thus indispensable to the student of the evolution of religious ideas in Isreal.



I. General Terms for Divination.a - OF Legitimate Divination.

Presumably no distinction between official and unofficial, licit and illicit divination originally existed in Israel. All forms of divination, in so far as they were employed by the tribe as a whole or by individual members thereof, were legitimate and recognized. The literary records, however, which have come down to us are products of a much later time and, with few exceptions, draw a sharp line of demarkation between the two.

The comprehensive term denoting official or oracular divination is *רְאֵבֶשׂ יָמִין*, *רְאֵבֶשׂ מִנְחָה*, *דִּין־יָמִין* or *דִּין־יָמִינָה* - the latter having the refinement of indirectness. In an exhaustive study of the term *יָמִין* (Journal Bib. Liter. XIX, 68ff.), Mr. Jastrow establishes the technical meaning of the word to be that of "inquiring" or "consulting the deity". The *יָמִין* is then the medium employed in consultation, the one who obtains the oracle, the holy man or the priest. Mr. Jastrow identifies the word with the Assyrian *sha-i-lu*, meaning priest. Frequently *מִנְחָה*, *מִנְחָה יָמִין*, *מִנְחָה עַל־(הַ)יָּמִין* or *מִנְחָה עַל־יָמִין* is used. It is to be noted, however, that whenever *יָמִין* is used, the implication is that the oracle is obtained through a prophet or a holy man, and not through the priest and the sacred lot (V.infra). The term *יָמִינָה* is used twenty-three times in the Bible. Nu. 27.21; Jos. 9.14; Jud. 1.1; 18.5; 20.18,23,27; I Sam. 10.22; 14.37; 22.10,13,15; 23.2,4; 28.6; 30.8; II Sam. 2.1; 5.19,23; 16.23; Is. 30.2; I Ch. 14.10,14. The historical books claim twenty-one. The term *יָמִין* with a positive divinatory implication is used twenty-times in the Biblical writings seventeen of which are in the historical books. Gen. 25.22; Ex. 18.15; I Sam. 9.9; I K. 14.5; 22.5; 7, 8; II K. 3.11; 8.8; 22.13, 18; Ezek. 14.10; I Ch. 10.14; II Ch. 16.12; 18.4,6,7; 26.5; 34.21, 26. Like *יָמִין*, *עַל* is very frequently used for the

many forms of illegitimate divination (For שְׁאֵלָה cf. D't.18.11; Hos. 4.12; Ez. 21.26 and I Ch. 10.13. For בְּקֻשָּׁה cf. D't.18.11; I Sam. 28.7; II K. 1.2; 3, 6, 16; Is. 8.19; 19.3; II Ch. 17.3.) The term בְּקֻשָּׁה in the early stages of its development had assumed new and derivative significance. From its original sense of "consulting", "inquiring of", it soon connoted the act of resorting to, or frequenting a place with a view of consulting or worshiping. D't. 12.5; Am. 5.5; II Ch. 1.5; and, still later, to seek the deity in order to worship him. (cf. D't 4.29; Is.9.12; 31.1 Jer. 10.21; Am. 5.4,6; Ps 9.11 et al.) It is, therefore, sometimes difficult to determine the exact meaning of the term. There are ten or eleven such dubious passages. (Is. 58.2; Jer. 21.2; 37.7; Ez. 14.7; 20.1,3; Hos. 10.12; I Ch. 13.3; 15.15; 21.30. II Ch. 26.5.)

In official divination, the oracle obtained through the priest and by means of the Urim and Thummim (V.infra) in matters of law or ritual was known as the Thorah (תּוֹרָה V.infra) In all other matters, such as the advisability of undertaking an expedition or the confirmation of the guilt or innocence of a party, it was in all probability, נִזְמָן , נִזְמָן , or נִזְמָן (cf. Mic. 3.7). נִזְמָן is the technical term used of God's reply to an inquiry put to him through the priestly Urim and Thummim as well as through other physical media. (I Sam. 9.17; 14.37; 23.4; 28.6, 15; I Ch. 21.28 et al.) The Assyrian *anu*, which corresponds to the Hebrew נִזְמָן is the technical term for a favorable answer from a deity. (cf. Haupt, Jour. Bib. Lit. XIX, p.71) Instead of נִזְמָן , נִזְמָן is sometimes used for God's reply. (Jud. 20.18; 23, 28; I Sam. 10.22; 23.2, 4, 11, 12 et al) but never, נִזְמָן

נִזְמָן is, as a rule, used of an oracle which comes from the mouth of a seer or prophet, through the help of no material things. (I Sam. 3.7; 9.27; 15.10 (of Samuel); II Sam.

7.4 (of Nathan) I K. 12.22, 24 (of Shemaiah); 13.4 (of an anonymous דָבָר); 13.20 (of a prophet at Bethel); 16.1, 7, II K. 16.12 (cf. Jehu ben Hanani, who in II Ch. 19.2 is called נָבִיא); 17.2, 8; 19.9; 21.17, 28 II K. 9.36 (of Elijah); 22.5 (Jehosaphat asks for an oracle of Yahweh and the Nebiim are summoned v.6); 22.19 (of Michaiah ben Imrah); II K. 3.12 (Elisha is said to be able to consult Yahweh נְבֵיא ; see also 7.1); 20.16, 19 (of Isaiah); et al.

נְבֵיא is frequently used of a prophetic oracle especially in the prophecies of Isaiah, Nahum, Zechariah and Malachi. The term had a "materialistic" implication which נָבָר , נָבָת did not have. Jeremiah, therefore, commands the people never to use it again. (23.33 ff) נְבֵיא in prophetic writings frequently takes the place of נְבָבָה . The word may have its counterpart in the Arabic where it signifies "to groan, or "to sigh". נְבֵיא may, then, have reference to the ecstatic outbursts of the possessed nabi or dervish.

b - Illogitimate Divination.

The generic term for divination is however, not נְבֵיא , nor אַלְכָנוֹת but בּוֹזֶבֶת . The former terms already contain a dogmatic implication viz. that Yahweh alone is to be consulted.

בּוֹזֶבֶת , however, is free from any such implication, and may be considered as the all-embracing group-term. Originally בּוֹזֶבֶת referred to a specific form of divination viz. - sortilege, but to this specific character of בּוֹזֶבֶת we shall have ^{referred} recourse later. From many of the passages in the O.T. it is evident that בּוֹזֶבֶת refers to the whole category of illegitimate divination practice in Isreal. Saul commands the witch of Endor, who practices necromancy. בָּلָאָם (I.S. 28.8) Balaam is called בּוֹזֶבֶת (Jos. 13.22) and yet he divines by עֲמָלֵךְ omens, Num 24.1). LXX, as a rule, translates בּוֹזֶבֶת by the all-inclusive term

of Ashes. **Dōj** is the general opprobrious epithet hurled by the true against the false prophets. "Thus saith the Lord concerning the prophets that make my people to err --- it shall be night unto you, that ye shall have no vision (**נְרֵא**) and it shall be dark unto you, that ye shall not divine (**נוֹגֵד**) and the seers (**בָּרַנְתִּים**) shall be ashamed, and the diviners

(**בָּבָשָׂר**) confounded --- The heads thereof judge for reward, and the priests thereof teach for hire and the prophets thereof divine (**לְבָבָם**) for money". (Mic. 3,5-7,11.) Jeremiah couples the false prophets and the diviners together; "But as for you, hearken ye not to your prophets, nor to your diviners (**בָּבָשָׂר**) nor to your dreams --- (27, 9 cf. 29,8-9)

Ezekiel speaks of these prophets as "dabbling for them with untempered mortar, seeing (**וְיָמַר**) vanity, and living (**וְבָבָשָׂר**) lies unto them, saying, thus saith the Lord, God, when the Lord God hath not spoken". (22,28) and again "My hand shall be against the prophets that see vanity and that divine (**בָּבָשָׂר**) lies". (13,9 note also 13,6, 7, 23.)

Dōj had at a very early time fallen into disfavor among the authoritative representatives of the religion of Israel. We have noted how the prophets applied the term to those whom they considered false prophets. It was denounced as an alien product which had been grafted upon the pure religion of Israel. "And the Philistines called for the priests and the diviners (**בָּבָשָׂר**) saying, what shall we do with the ark of the Lord". (I.S.6,2. The Philistines are regarded as the ~~sons~~ ^{"el"} origo of divination ^{by} practitioners, also by Isaiah 2,6) The author of Num. 22,7 connects with the Moabites and the Midianites: "And the elders of the Moab and the elders of Midian departed and the rewards of divination (**בָּבָשָׂר**) in their hand." Again, the King of Babylon is made to practice **Dōj**; "For the King of Babylon stood at the parting of the way, at the head of the two ways, to use divination

(*מִתְדַּבֵּר*). (Ezek. 21.26) and the author of Num. 23.23 triumphantly exclaims, "there is no observation of omens (*וְנִזְׁעָק* v.infra) in Jacob nor divining (*וְנִזְׁבֵּחַ*) in Israel".

~~bad~~ But the term had no such unsavory connotation before the ~~stamp~~ of official disapproval was put upon it. Echoes of a day when the term was not yet censored are found in such a statement as this: "A divine sentence (*וְנִזְׁבֵּחַ*) is on the lips of the King; his mouth shall not transgress in judgment" (Prov. 16.10. Perhaps also Is. 3.1-2, but v. infra.)



II. Kinds of Divination.

We have noted that Israel shared the superstition of divination in common with all other Semitic peoples and that while the Israelitish divinatory practices may have differed in kind from those of other peoples, in ~~most~~ principles they were identical. It behooves us, therefore, to consider now the kinds of divination known in ancient Israel without reference to the attitude which later authorities entertained towards them or, in other words, without subjecting them to the test of legitimacy, which later Israel set up. Later, we shall distinguish between licit and illicit divination, and we shall endeavor to trace the rise and development of this principle of legitimacy. For the present, it will suffice us to classify the many varieties of divinatory practices known in ancient Israel and to analyze them.

We consider Mr. Toy's classification (Int. to Hist. of Rel. p. 409) of the various forms of divination as a very helpful one: "Divinatory signs may be grouped in various classes according as they belong to the outer world or to man's inward experiences and according as they present themselves without or with preparation of man". Applying this principle to Hebrew divination, we may classify all our material as follows:

I. Heteroscopic - (signs belonging to outer world).

A. Involuntary - (without preparation by man).

1. Omens - (ordinary occurrences)

a - augury.

b - astrology.

c - birth omens.

d - dendromancy.

2. Portents (uncommon occurrences)

B. Voluntary (with preparation by man).

1. Sortilege.

- a -- *belomancy*
- b -- *rhabdomancy or xylomancy*
- c. *Hydromancy*
- d. *Orucal*
- e. *Oath*
- f. *Hepatoscopy*
- g. *Miscellaneous*
- h. *Necromancy*.

II. Autoscopic (signs belonging to man's inward experience)

- a -- *Oneiromancy*.
- b -- *Possession*.

I. Heteroscopic (Involuntary)

1. Omens.

The Hebrew term for "omen" is *נֶסֶךְ*. While *נֶסֶךְ* has frequently the meaning of "sign", "pledge" or "token" it specifically denotes an object or an occurrence which may be considered ominous. Miraculous acts are frequently asked from or offered by angles, prophets or holy men, which the petitioner considers, as good or bad omens. Hezekiah asks an *נֶסֶךְ* of Isaiah, which will assure him of a speedy recovery (II K. 20:8 cf. Is. 38:22) Ordinary predictions which come true are considered ominous. Thus Samuel predicts to Saul that three things will occur on his journey. These occurrences will prove ominous. "And let it be, when these signs (*נֶסֶךְ*) are come unto thee, that thou do as occasion serve thee, for God is with thee". (I Sam 10:7).

An angel informs Eli that his two sons will die in one day and this should serve as an omen(*נֶסֶךְ*) of God's displeasure. (I. Sam 2:3-4 See also II K. 19:29; Is. 37:30; Jer. 44:29). The manner in which the Philistines greet Jonathan and his armor-bearer is considered ominous(*נֶסֶךְ*). I. Sam. 14:10) The phrase *נֶסֶךְ* (*נֶסֶךְ*) *נֶסֶךְ* used nine times in the O.T. seems to have a technical meaning: "this thing or this coming occurrence you may look upon as an omen".

The term which embraces divination from all natural phenomena accidental or otherwise is probably *ψευδεύ*. Two biblical passages point directly to this interpretation of the term.

Joseph divines by means of a cup. The practice here referred to is probably hydromancy. The term used is *וַיְלֹא* (Gen. 44.5, 15.). Balaam is said to go in quest of *וַיְלֹא* (Num. 24.1) He is among mountains and he is probably observing natural phenomena and interpreting them; hence his statement to Balak, "Stand by thy burnt offering and I will go, peradventure the Lord will come to meet me". (Num. 23.30). The Septuagint renders *οὐ γένεται σκηνὴ τῶν περιπλανῶν καὶ οὐ γένεται σκηνὴ τῶν περιπλανῶν*, while originally referring to divination from the flight of birds, came to apply in due time to the entire field of divination from natural phenomena. The Peshito, however, under the influence of LXX, translates Lev. 19.26. *لَا تُנَجِّنُ نَعْصَمَ*, "ye shall not divine by means of winged creatures", thus retaining the earlier connotation of *οἰωνίζομεν*.

Talmudic literature seems to be almost unanimous in this explanation of the term.

Thus: *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים* *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים* *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים* *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים*
"The Rabbis taught -- A *לְבָנָה* one who says" his crumb fell out
of his mouth; his staff fell from his hand; his son called him
from behind his back; a raven croaked at him; a deer cut the way
off before him; a snake crawled on the right side of him or a
fox on his left; do not begin with me, for it is early morning
or New Moon or Saturday evening" (San. 65 b ff. cf. the Sifre. Ed.
Friedmann P. 107a where some slight variations to the above are
found). Ani again: *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים* *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים* *לְבָנָה אֲלֹהִים*
"Ye shall not divine" -- like those who divine from a weasel,
from fowl or from stars" (Sifra, Ed. Weiss, P. 90 a et b. The
version in San. 66a, has *לְבָנָה* "from fish" instead of *לְבָנָה*
"from stars")

It is, however, difficult to ascertain the origin of the term וַיַּ. Gesenius gives it a root meaning of "hiss" or "whisper". Some have considered it a denominative from וְנַ "serpent". Thus Baudissin (Studien sur Semitischen Religionsgeschichte, I, 287) holds "---- das zusammenklingen von וַיַּ "wahrsagen", וְנַ, "Augurium" mit וְנַ "Schlange" ist doch wohl nicht zufällig"; and Nöldeke (Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, I, 413) likewise adheres to this view: "Man sehe nur, wie sich aus dem hebräischen Namen für Schlange (וְנַ) mannigfache Denominativa in der Bedeutung "zaubern" u.s.w. entwickeln". Both Nöldeke and Baudissin connect the practice of וַיַּ with the serpent-cult and the serpent-magic so wide spread among the primitive Semitic peoples and among the Egyptians. And so Davies ("Magic, Divination and Demonology among the Hebrews and their Neighbors" p.82): "Omens were certainly taken from the movements of serpents in early times. Now just as in Greek οὐρανός, from denoting an omen from the flight of birds, came to mean any kind of omen, so וַיַּ acquired from the narrow sense of divining from serpents that of divining from any sign." On the other hand, Barth (Etymologische Studien, P. 48, Note 4) maintains that: "Mit diesem hebr. Wort (וְנַ) hat das M. וַיַּ "etw. erforschen, erkunden", namentl. "etw. durch geheimnisvolle Mittel ---- erkunden", Nichts zu thun" and W.R. Smith (Journal of Philology, XIV, 113 ff.) raises the objection that while וְנַ is found in other semitic languages, וַיַּ is peculiar to Hebrew only.

a - Augury.

That certain birds are ominous and their appearances on certain occasions, significant, are notions not found in Biblical literature, unless some importance be attached to the fact that the raven and the dove are signaled out in the flood story (Gen. 8,7,3.).

swiged

to be Noah's informants, and that the ravens are appointed by God to bring food to Elijah (I.R. 1744-6) Some have found also in Eccl. 10.20 "for a bird of the air shall carry the voice, and that which hath wings shall tell the matter" a reference to divination by means of the flight of birds. (cf. Jew. Encyc. s.v. "Augury"). But we shall not be justified in concluding that because of its apparent absence from the Bible. Augury (in its restricted sense) was unknown in ancient Israel. Augury in Israel may have shared the same fate as in Assyria and Babylonia. While Assyrian - Babylonian literature abound in animal - divination, in haruspicy and hepatoscopy, the institution of bird-divination is very rarely represented. Mr. Jastrow offers an explanation which in principle may be held to apply to Israelitish augury as well. "Es ist daher wohl möglich, dass das Fehlen von direkten Andeutungen auf Vogelwahrssagung in den Annalen und sonstigen historischen Inschriften der babylonischen und assyrischen Herrscher darauf zurückzuführen ist, dass diese Unterart der Vorbedeutungslehre durch die Bevorzugung der Leber - und Himmelschau für offizielle Zwecke, um den Göttlichen Willen und das vorhaben der Götter im voraus zu bestimmen, in den Hintergrund ~~und~~ ⁴drängt wurde" ("Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens", II, 800). Augury was a very common practice among the Arabs (Wohlhausen, Heid. p. 202 and Hastings E.R.E. s.v. "Divination" (Muslim), the raven especially being looked upon as a bird of omen.

The dove was endowed by the ancient Hebrews with a sacred character. W. R. Smith remarks that "the fact that the dove was not used by the Hebrews for any ordinary sacrifice involving a sacrificial meal, can hardly be, in its origin, independent of the sacrosanct character ascribed to this bird in the religion of the heathen Semites". (Religion of the Semites, p. 219 Note 2). The natural complement to the idea of the sanctity of an animal or fowl is its power to give information on matters

otherwise obscure.

The dove continued to retain its sacred character down to a very late date in Jewish history. The *בָּרֶנְצִיָּה* or the *בָּרֶנְצַׁעַד* was represented in the form of a dove and the *בָּרֶנְצִיָּה* are frequently mentioned. (cf. Sab. 31a; San. 96a; Sifre Deut. Ed. Fried. 147a; Sotah 13b and the story of the baptism of Jesus, "And Jesus when he was baptized, went up straight way out of the water; and lo, the heavens were opened unto him, and he saw the Spirit of God descending like a dove, and lighting upon him". Matt. 3.16; Mk. 1.10 Luke 3.21-22) The entire community of Israel is identified with the dove (San. 95a; Git. 45a; Shir ha Shir R.I.) The Talmudists are well acquainted with this form of divination and while they frequently attribute its origin to the Arabs (e.g. Pesik. 33b, Commenting on "And Solomon's wisdom excelled the wisdom of all the men of the East" (I.K.5.10) the Rabbis remark: "What was the wisdom of the men of the East"? and the answer is given: "They knew astrology, *לְתֹהֵב בָּנְהַלָּה*, and augury, *וְעוֹלָה עִזְבָּנִים*!) it is evident that the practice was widespread and of great antiquity. While it was officially frowned upon by the Rabbis who included it among the heathen practices. (*וְלֹא נִמְנַח*) See e.g. Sab. 67b: "if one says to a raven, croak, and to a she-raven, shriek and turn thy tail towards me, this is one of the *וְלֹא נִמְנַח*), it was frequently resorted to even by the scholars themselves. Thus the story is told of R. Ilish who, while sitting one day next to a man who understood the language of the birds, heard the croaking of a raven. Upon interrogating his neighbor as to what the raven was saying, he was impressed that it was saying "Ilish, escape!" "Ilish, escape!" But Ilish would not hearken to the warning, contending that the raven was lying. Soon, a dove came and called unto him. Upon in-

quiry, he was informed that she, too, was saying "Ilish, escape! , "Ilish, escape!" R. Ilish took this warning to heart and escaped for he said: *חַנְנָה כִּי תַּלְכֵד נָעָם*, i.e. the dove is the omen bird of Israel. (Git. 45a cf. also the story of R. Joshua ben Levi and the heretic (or Sadducee) Ber . 7a. to this Ab. Zarah 4b and San. 105b) The Samaritans were accused by the Rabbis of being dove-worshippers: "R. Nachman b. Isaac said, The effigy of a dove was found on Mt. Gerizim which they (Samaritans) worshipped." (Hul. 6a and J.Ab. Zar.V. 44d) Among those who are disqualified to serve as judges and witnesses are the *רֹאשׁוֹת* *רֹאשׁוֹת* those who bet on the flight of doves. (San. III, 3. See also San 25a) Two references to augury in the pseudepigrapha may also be given, the one attributing the reintroduction of augury in Israel to Manasseh, ("The Martyrdom of Isaiah," II,5) and the other, prompted by a spirit of overzealousness for the cause which he is propagating, maintains that the Jews "do not consider the portents of sneezes and birds of augury". (Third Sibylline Book, line 224).

b - Astrology.

"Among the Semites", says Smith, "The worship of sun, moon and stars does not appear to have had any great vogue in the earliest times. Among the Hebrews there is little trace of it before Assyrian influence became potent, and in Arabia it is by no means so prominent as it sometimes supposed". (R.S. p.135 Note 2). And so Wellhausen: "Auf Himmelszeichen wird weniger geachtet, die eigentliche Astrologie war den Arabern fremd ---- (Heid. P. 204)."

But long before the Assyrian influence had been directly felt, Israel had come into close contact with the Canaanitish religion in which the celestial nature of some deities was greatly

with reference to star-worship among the primitive Arabs we are inclined to agree with F. Hommel (*Der gestirndienst der alten Araber*) that the worship of the heavenly bodies was quite prevalent among them. It has survived in modified

form to the present day. The new moon is still greeted by the Arab. (Doughty, "Arabia Deserta", I 336,455 cf. the Jewish custom of blessing the new moon, q.v. J.E. s.v.) and it is undoubtedly true that "the religious observance of the new moon with festive rejoicing and sacrifice belongs originally to a lunar cult". (Encyc. Bib. p. 3355. An old Talmudic legend seems to suggest the same idea Hul. 60b.)

Speaking of the reaction which set in under Manasseh, J.M.P. Smith correctly remarks that "it did not introduce sun-worship as a new cult, but rather revitalized a worship which had long been known in Israel, though it had lain more or less dormant, or had been confined chiefly to the rural population, having had no official recognition". ("Zephaniah", P.188 Inter-Critical Comm). The historical books abound in references to this form of idolatry. (e.g. II K. 17.16; 21.3,5; 23.5.12.) In the period of the prophets, the worship of "the hosts of heaven", was prevalent in Israel and the prophets, from Amos down exerted themselves to the utmost to suppress it. Amos and Isaiah denounce it. (Amos 5.26; Is. 17.8). Zephaniah (1.5) and Jeremiah (7.18; 8.2; 10.15; 32.29) inveigh against it. Deuteronomy is strenuous in its opposition (4.19; 17.3) but it is doubtful if the reformation succeeded in putting even a temporary check to this idolatry. ^{At the Temple} Nor did the Destruction. Jeremiah makes condemnatory mention of it (6.6; 8.16). Deutero-Isaiah indirectly fights this idolatry by insisting that Yahweh is autonomy to them (40.26; 45.12). Job speaks of it. (31.26-7) The practice in some form or other survived throughout post-exilic times and traces of it are found in very late Talmudic sources.

In C.T. literature there are few direct references to the practice of astrology, but the mass of evidence pointing to the prevalent worship of the hosts of heaven, points conclusively to the fact that astrology in some form was practice in ancient

Lxx in Hebrew signs /

Israel. Jeremiah urges the people "be not afraid of the signs of the heavens" (10.2). He calls this practice of studying the heavenly signs ^{אֶלְעָנָה וְאֶלְעָנָה} "the custom of the heathen", but the prophets are always tempted to ascribe to Israelitish idolatry a foreign nativity. According to P. the sun and the moon were created *אֵת הַיּוֹם וְהַלְּבָנָן* (Gen.1.14) and *אֶת יְמִינָה* has been interpreted by some to mean "astrological portents". (But see Skinner, "Genesis", p.25, Int. Crit., Com.) The most direct reference to astrological divination in the Bible is found in Deutro-Isaiah. "Thou art wearied in the multitude of thy counsels: let now those that observe the heavens, ^{גְּבוּרָה} the star-gazers (*מְבָדְלִים בְּרִיתָה*) the monthly prognosticators (*בְּשִׁׁירָה נִירְאָה*) stand up, and save thee from the things that shall come upon thee (47.13). The prophet speaks of Babylonian astrology. ^{וְזָהָר} is probably corrupt. ^{וְזָהָר} has been suggested. Also *בְּרִיתָה בְּרִיתָה* (Amer. Jour. Sem. Lang. XVI p. 223-224). Hitzig (Comm. on Isaiah) suggests *בְּרִיתָה בְּרִיתָה* "die Himmelskundigen". Haupt (Jour. Bib. Lit. XIX, p. 67) would read it, ^{בְּרִית} (perfect Qal of *בָּרַת* or *בָּרַת*). "Who observe the heavens. Most all would connect it with the Babylonian bari, "seer". Divination from the movements of the planets and prominent stars and constellations was a most common practice among the Assyrians and Babylonians (see the copious texts given in Jastrow's Rel. u. As. Vol. II 612-749). Prognostication from the appearances of the new, full and old moon occupied the most important position of Assyro-Babylonian astrology (see ibid II, 457 - 577). The ^{relation} connection-once-caused, of misfortune and catastrophe ^{to}, the eclipse of the moon or the sun fully acknowledged in Assyro-Babylonian astrology, is evidenced from the picture drawn of the "Day of Yahweh" in Is. 13.10. "For the stars of heaven and the constellations thereof shall not

give their light. The sun shall be darkened in his going forth and the moon shall not cause her light to shine". (cf. Is. 24.23; Joel 3.4). References to astrology are found in N.T. literatures (e.g. the story of the Magi who learn of the birth of the Messiah from "a star in the east", and in the Talmud.

c - Birth Omens.

Divination through the observation of signs noted at birth ~~in infants~~ was one of the three chief methods of divination among the Assyrians and Babylonians (see Jastrow, "Babylonian-Assyrian Birth-Omens" P. 28-41. also his Rel.Bab.u. Assyr. 891 f.) We suggest that an echo of this practice is found in the story of the birth of Esau and Jacob. (Gen. 25.21-26) ^{The} pre-natal struggle of the infants in the womb of the mother, causes her to consider it an evil omen. She suspects the birth of twins. Now the birth of two males was looked upon as an unfavorable sign. One cuneiform text reads as follows: "If a woman gives birth to two boys, famine will prevail in the land, the interior of the country will witness misfortune, and misfortune will enter the house of their father". Rebekah, therefore, dismayed at the prospect (v. 21) proceeds to consult the deity (v.22). The answer (v.23) while encouraging in some respects does not allay her fears entirely. Some misfortune is inevitable. There will be strife and contention among her offspring. They will separate and war with one another until the younger shall subdue the older. Jacob's holding the heel of Esau in his hand at the moment of birth was also considered, at least by the author of the narrative, ominous. (v.26). So also were the circumstances attending the birth of Tamar's twins (Gen. 38.28), ~~considered ominous~~.

d - Dendromancy.

We need not dwell long on the fact the tree-worship

that tree-worshipt in pre-Israelitish

in ancient Israel. ~~But it was widespread~~ in pre-Israelitish time is witnessed by the fact that there existed many cult-centres, scattered in and around Canaan, whose cult object was a sacred tree. The cities or places of Hebron (Gen. 13.18), Shechem (Gen. 12.6), Gibeah (I Sam. 22.6), Gibeah Hammore (Jud. 7.1), Elim (Ex. 15.27), Elath (P.T. 2.8) Elon (Jos. 19.43), Emek ha Elah (I Sam. 17.2), Ophra (Jud. 6.11) Baal Tamar (Jud. 20.33), Elon Tabor (I Sam. 10.3), Tomer Deborah (Jud. 4.5), Jabesh (I. Sam. 31.13) owe their sanctity to the presence of some sacred tree or trees in their midst. The *תְּאֵן, תְּאֵן, תְּאֵן* or *תְּאֵן* mentioned so frequently in the O.T. is undoubtedly a sacred tree, inhabited, presumably by a numen. "Es wird also daboil bleiben, *תְּאֵן, תְּאֵן, תְּאֵן* und *תְּאֵן* sind Bezeichnungen des hlg. Baumes ohne Rücksicht auf ihre spezielle Gattung. Alle diese Orte sind von herzuleiten". (Gall, "Altisraelitische Kultstätten, p. 28). The sacred character of the tree would naturally lead to divination. The deity would give information and indicate his will through the movements and rustlings of the branches and leaves of the tree. David divines from the sound in the tops of the mulberry trees the proper moment to attack the Philistines (II Sam. 5.24). We have mention in the Bible of an *תְּאֵן פָּרֶךְ* "tree of the revealer" near Shechem, (Gen. 12.6) which is also called *תְּאֵן שְׁבַת* "tree of the sooth sayers" (Jud. 9.37). Deborah sits under a ~~under~~ palm tree, and ~~gives~~ decisions, ~~and~~ information (Jud. 4.5-6. (see also, infra, Rhabdomancy and Neconim)).

2. PORTENTS.

Extraordinary physical phenomena were considered ominous. They portended mostly evil. We have seen how the eclipses of the sun or the moon were looked upon as unfavorable omens. God's displeasure was also manifested in storms, thunder, lightning and earthquake. (Is. 29.6 cf. story of the crucifixion of Jesus M.t. 27.51 f.). Even the rainbow is ominous. It is called an *נִסְעָה*

(Gen. 9.17). It signified that God's anger is past. This attitude towards the more striking of physical phenomena may be the cause or the consequence of that theology which looked upon fire, lightning and storm as manifestations of the deity or its accompaniment. (Gen. 15.7; Ex. 5; 18.21; 19.18; 34.17 et al.)

B. Voluntary Divination.

1. Sortilege.

Sortilege played a significant role in ancient Hebrew divination and its hold upon the people was so strong that even the official religious ritual retained it until a very late date. The practice was widespread among the heathen Arabs where it is known as *intiqam*, and is resorted to before every important undertaking. It was a form of divination by means of a sacred lot, usually headless arrows, originally, perhaps, small twigs, three in number, two of which were inscribed with "Yes" or "No" respectively, the third was blank. The question addressed to the deity was in the form of an alternative, e.g. "Shall we go to war or shall we not?" "Is he guilty or is he not?" The arrows were then ~~probably~~ placed in a quiver and whirled about and the one which first fell out signified the answer of the deity. If the blank arrow appeared, ~~then~~ the lot was recast. (Wollhausen, Heid. p.132-3 and Note 5; Smith, Journal, Philology, XII, 273; XIV, 115 f.) In the O.T.

p̄y as have been previously observed, is the generic term for all kinds of illicit divination. But traces are still found of an earlier and more specific connotation: that of a *sacerdot* by means of arrows. The locus classicus, Ezek.21.26-27. "For the kings of Babylon stood at the parting of the way, at the head of the two ways, to use divination (*p̄y l̄ p̄y?*), he shook the arrows (*לִשְׁעָרֶת יְמִינָה*), he consulted the Teraphim, he inspected the liver. In his right hand was the divination (*p̄y n̄*)

"Jerusalem", to set battering rams ---- It is probable, as Wellhausen suggests (Heid. P. 155) that the methods of divination here mentioned are not three but one i.e. consulting the idol by means of the sacred lot after a sacrifice had been offered unto it and its liver inspected. The practice of inspecting the liver we shall consider later under Hepatoscopy. The result of the divination is given in v.27: "In his right hand was the queson "Jerusalem". Thither he was to march and against it he was to wage war.

Bortiloge was incorporated into the official religion in the guise of the Urim and Thummim. In pre-exilic literature there are only three references to the Urim and Thummim. (I. Sam. 14.41; 28.6 and D't 33.8. Possibly also Hos. 4.5 יְמִינָה בְּנֵי יִשְׂרָאֵל)

In I.S. 28.6, the consultation of the Urim is classed among the three legitimate means of divination. D't 33.8, attributes them to the tribe of Levi. The clearest reference to the mode of consulting the deity by the Urim and Thummim is I Sam.14. 38-41 when this is interpreted in the light of the Septuagint: "And Saul said, draw nigh hither, all ye chiefs of the people and know and see wherein this sin hath been this day. For as the Lord liveth, which saveth Israel, though it be in Jonathan my son, he shall surely die, but there was not a man among all the people that answered him. Then said he unto all Israel, be ye on one side, and I and Jonathan my son will be on the other side and the people said unto Saul, do what seemeth good unto thee. And Saul said: Yahweh, God of Israel, why hast thou not answered thy servant this day? If the guilt be in me or in Jonathan my son, Yahweh, God of Israel, give Urim; but if thus thou say; It is my people Israel; give Thummim." (On the reasons for accepting the reading of the LXX see H.P. Smith, "Samuel" p. 122, Int. Crit. Comm.) The following facts concerning the practice may be observed from an analysis of the above passages:

(1.) The actual Urim and Thummim are in the keeping of the priest (v. 36 and also use of *וְיָד ע* v.42), Ahijah ben Abitub (v.5), while Saul addresses the question to God (v.41).

(2) The ceremony is performed in the presence of God (v.36), probably in the semblance of the Ephod, which was carried by Ahijah (v.5).

(3) The Urim and Thummim can decide an "alternative" question only i.e. when there are only two possibilities. Hence all present had to be divided first into two groups, the people on the one hand and the royal party - Saul and Jonathan - on the other. The Urim designated the royal group. The process was repeated and then Jonathan was "taken".

(4) All parties concerned in the rite had to agree before hand as to the manner in which the lot was to be interpreted.

(5) Saul used the official form of address which was employed in cases of divination by means of the Urim and Thummim.
יְהֹוָה יְמִלֵּחַ (v.41 cf. I Sam. 28.10)

(6) The term *תָּמֵל* which is frequently used of "taken by lot" (10.20; Jos. 7.14, 16.) is here used in connection with the Urim and Thummim.

(7) The entire ceremony is subsumed under the term *וְיָרַבְנָה* (v.37).

v. The analysis points conclusively to the casting of a lot probably by means of two stones, the one designated *וְיָרַבְנָה* the other *וְיָמֵל*.

The etymology of the two terms is still a matter of dispute. The Massoretic text clearly implies that *וְיָרַבְנָה* is a derivative from *יָמֵן* "light" and *וְיָמֵל* is the plural of *מֶלֶל* "completeness", "perfection". The supposition is that the Urim "brought to light" the guilt of the subject, while the

Thummim, established his innocence. (see Hastings, "Dict. of the Bible" s.v.) Some modern scholars have derived Urim from **רְאֵם** "curse" and **וְעַמִּים** from **וְעַמִּים** "be without fault". So Wellhausen, Schwallly and Haupt. W. Kueg-Arnolt, following Zimmern, would identify the Urim and Thummim with the "tablets of stone" and would "connect **מִנְחָה** with the Assyrian *turu*, an infinitive Fiel of *a'eru* from which are derived also the nouns *turu*, "command, order, decision" (usually of the gods) and *turtu* (originally of the same meaning), ---- and **מִנְחָה** with *tarmi*, Fiel *tummi*, verbal forms also belonging to the oracular language" (Amer.-Jr. Sem. Lang. XVI p. 193 ff. For a good resume of the whole subject, see McNeile, "The Book of Exodus" pp. 182-184.)

There is frequent mention of the use of the sacred lot in the historical books of the Bible, although the act is not always called "consulting the Urim and Thummim". Cases very similar to the one just quoted are found in the story of Achan, where the attendant circumstances are very much like those in the case of Saul and Jonathan, (Jos. 7.14-18), and in the election of Saul (I Sam. 10.19-22). In the historical books practically all cases of divination which are introduced by the phrase **בְּמִנְחָה**

בְּמִנְחָה or **מִנְחָה** **לְנֶגֶד** imply the use of the Urim and Thummim. Nearly all cases where **בְּמִנְחָה** **לְנֶגֶד** is used, the answer given is in the same phrasology as that used in the Urim and Thummim viz. "Yes" or "No", or some similar expression. (Jos. 9.14; Jud. 1.1-2; 20.18, 26-28; I Sam. 10.22 (?); 14.37 f; 23.24; 30.8; II Sam. 2.1; 5.19, 23.) The most complete expression of the ceremony is found in judges 20.26-28, where fasting, prayers and sacrifices precede the act of divination.

The Urim and Thummim are frequently associated with the Ephod. In many cases the association is implied though not expressed, thus in I Sam. 23.6 ff., David is about to question God whether Saul will come against them and whether the men of Keilah will betray him into Saul's hands. He commands Abiathar, the

priest, to bring near the Urim. The ceremony then takes place and it is evident that the 'modus operandi' is identical with that of I Sam. 14.40 ff. The Urim is addressed as $\text{ן} \text{נ}$ /
 $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$, $\text{n} \text{נ}$ (v.10). Whenever $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$ $\text{n} \text{נ}$ is used in the historical writing, the use of the Urim seems to be implied (cf. I Sam. 14.18 (read with LXX: $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר} \text{י} \text{ת}$ $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$)). The same change may with justification be made in a very similar case, Judges 20.27); I. Sam. 30.7-8. For a study of the Urim see G.P. Moore, "Judges" (1895) pp.380-399 and the same work in the Int. Crit. Comm. (1910) pp.380-381).

The in the historical books is the generic term for the sacred lot. The agent is usually spoken of as $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$, $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$, $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$ and $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$. The root of the word seems to denote "stone" like the Greek $\text{ψ} \text{ι} \text{σ} \text{o} \text{s}$ and the Assyrian $\text{p} \text{ū} \text{r} \text{u}$ (Heb. $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$). It is mentioned in connection with dividing land, assigning to service, duty or punishment, determining the guilt of persons, etc. (see "Lexicon", Dr. Div. and Briggs, s.v. $\text{ל} \text{א} \text{ר}$).

The Urim and Thummim were known in post-exilic times, but their real meaning had probably been forgotten. The Urim and Thummim according to P. were to be put into the $\text{פ} \text{ר} \text{ש} \text{מ} \text{נ}$ $\text{ל} \text{ה} \text{נ}$ (Ex. 28.30; Lev. 8.8.), the pocket or pouch on the breast of the High Priest, which is to contain the instruments for obtaining divine decisions. The tradition of the function of the High Priest to consult the Urim and Thummim is retained in Num. 27.21 and that of the purpose of the Urim and Thummim in Ex. 2.63 cf. De. 7.65 and I Kgs. 5.40. The three last references show conclusively that Post-Exilic Judaism did not have the Urim and Thummim. In fact Talmudic tradition corroborates this statement. (Sotah IX,10: Yoma 32b; Jer. Kidd. 63b).

a. Belomancy.

We may consider belomancy, the art of divining by means

of arrows, under the general heading of sortilege. There are two instances in the Bible where belomancy is resorted to. The one in Ezek. 21.26-27, has been previously considered. The second reference is found in the story of king Joash and the prophet Elisha (II K. 13.14-19). The narrative is fragmentary, two accounts having been apparently blended together. Both are closely related to acts of sympathetic magic). Perhaps a reference to belomancy is found also in the story of David and Jonathan. (I Sam. 20.18 ff. see Hastings' E.R.E. IV, 810).

1. Rhabdomancy.

A practice similar to belomancy is rhabdomancy or xylomancy-the art of divining by means of a staff, rod or sticks. Hosea may have had this practice in mind when he denounces his Israel: "My people ask counsel of their wood and their staff declares to them the oracle" (4.13). This practice ~~may be~~ a survival of tree worship (Jevons in Dict. of Bible s.v. Divination) The rod may then be considered as a smaller ashera. (see Smith op. cit., p.196, note 5). Omens were derived from the flourishing or withering of rods. In this manner Aaron is chosen. (Ex. 7.1 ff.). The planting of Adonis rods as acts of sympathetic magic and divination seems to be referred to in Ex. 17.10-11. Mr. Gaster contends that the ~~feeling~~ of the rods by Jacob was an act of divination, which was explained to him by an angel in a dream. (Gen. 31.10-12. Hastings' loc.cit.) but this is doubtful. The ~~rod~~ may be the dwelling place of a deity and may accordingly do things on its own accord seems to be implied in the stories of the rod of Moses (Ex. 4.17), the staff in the hand of the angel who appeared to Gideon (Jud. 6.21) and the staff which Elisha gives to Gehazi in order to revive by means of it the son of the Shunammite (II K. 4.29).

2. Hydromancy.

Hydromancy presupposes river and well deities. That such deities were revered and worshipped in Canaan ~~Empire~~ and post-

Jehwistic times is attested by the large number of sacred localities which derived their sanctity from the presence of holy waters in their midst. Among these cult-centers may be mentioned Beor-shoba (Gen. 21.30), An holy tree was likewise one of its names v.33), Beor Lachai Roi (Gen. 16.14-v.7), Madosh (called in Gen. 14.7 פְּעַמִּים and in Num. 20.13, לָשׁוֹן הַמִּדְבָּר ^{gloss} I.K. 1.33), Raanath Lechi (Jud. 16.19) and In Chonech (Jos. 15.7).

Water oracles were quite common among the primitive Semites in general, e.g. the oracle of Aphaca, where the will of the deity was ascertained from the acceptance or rejection of the gifts thrown into the water. (cf. Smith, e.c., p. 176 ff.)

Divination by means of a cup is referred to in the story of Joseph (Gen. 44.5 ff.)

The practice consisted probably in interpreting the images reflected on the surface of the cup or in studying the appearance, size, number, etc. of the bubbles formed by oil poured into a goblet of water. Oil and water divination was quite popular in Assyrian and Babylonian, although it never attained to the importance of astrology or hepatoscopy. (see Footnote, cit. II, 749-775; also Photo of Bible V, p. 566-66)

From the scant reference to it in the Bible it is impossible to draw any definite conclusion as to its method of operation or its importance in the scheme of divinatory practices among the Hebrews.)

S. Ordeal.

The ordeal as a means of adjudication is practically universal in its practice. It is a direct appeal to the deity to establish the guilt or innocence of the accused. Among peoples who worship spring or river deities, the ordeal ~~was~~ ^{was} naturally ~~done~~ of water. The supposition is that it is a dangerous thing for an impious or guilty person to be brought into contact with the deity. In cases where the suspect is thrown into the water, the deity, if he is guilty, will reject

him. In the manner of the ordeal is by drinking ~~the~~ holy water, disease or even death might accrue to the guilty one. (~~see Smith op.cit. p. 282 ff.~~) The Code of Hammurabi (par.2) retains the water-ordeal in the case of a man accused of sorcery. The classical instance in the Bible is the ordeal of the Sotah -- the wife accused of adultery (Num. 5.11 ff.) In connection with this ordeal it is interesting to note the following details.

(a) A sacrifice termed *בְּעֵד הַמִּזְבֵּחַ וְבְעֵד אֶת-יְהוָה* (v.15) accompanies the ceremony. (On the combination of terms, see Stade, *Die Eiferopferthora*, in *Zeitschrift für die Alte testamentliche Wissenschaft* XV, 166-170. (b) The water used in the ordeal is to be *מֹרֶךְ* probably water from a holy spring, ~~from~~ ~~the~~ Others have suggested on the strength of Isa., 1.19

מֹרֶךְ "running water" and adduce Num. 19.17 and Lev. 16.5 f. where running water is used in somewhat kindred rites as proof (See Gray, "Numbers" p. 51, Int. Crit. Comm.) (c) The water is further mixed with dust from the floor of the tabernacle i.e. holy dust. (d) An oath of purgation is administered before it is imbibed. The draught contains the written words of the oath which have been washed into it. The oath in itself ~~is~~ a kind of an ordeal (v. infra) is here coupled with the water ordeal.

While it is true that P attributes the efficacy of the ordeal and the decision to Yahweh, a comparative study of the practice in antiquity proves beyond doubt that the author ~~had~~ interpreted ^{rule} ~~and moralized~~ the ~~practices~~ in the light of a latter-day Yahwism.

An ordeal akin to the above in principle is narrated in Num. 18. Korek and two hundred and fifty princes of the congregation have questioned the ^{author of and reviewer} uniqueness of the holiness of Moses and Aaron. (v.5) Moses entrusts his case into the hands of God. (v.5) He proposes an ordeal; "This do, take you censors --- and put fire therein, and put incense upon them before Yahweh tomorrow; and it shall be that the man whom Yahweh doth choose, he shall be

holy! (v.6-7). The ordeal takes place and Korah and his associates are destroyed by fire. (v.35). The opposition underlying this ordeal is that only those who possess Levitical holiness and are specifically designated for the task ^{can} ~~are~~ approach Yahweh with impunity. (cf. the story of Nadab and Abihu, Lev. 10.1 ff.)

It is very likely that in the ^{burning} ~~burning~~ ^{and} ~~and~~ ^{around} Ex. 28.7-8, the decision of Yahweh is given by means of some kind of an ordeal although an oath (ibid v.10) or the sacred lot may have been used. In general, it may be argued, ~~unquestionably~~, that the cases which were too hard for men to decide and which were referred to God, were decided, in earlier stages of Israelitish development, by means of the ordeal as well as by the sacred lot and the oath. In this connection it is significant to quote Smith, "That the oldest Hebrew tradition refers to the origin of the Torah to the divine sentences taught by Moses at the sanctuary of Kadesh or Meribah ("waters of controversy"), beside the holy fountain, which in Gen. 14.7 is also called *ψηφίων*, i.e. "fountain of judgment" (op.cit., p.18) v. infra "Places of Divination").

(a) OATH.

The oath is, in reality, a form of ordeal. In fact it is frequently, as in the case of the *otnah*, associated with it. The efficacy of an oath was an indisputable fact in the mind of primitive man. ~~The~~ ^{Once} administered, ~~the~~ ^{The} deity would inevitably punish the one who ~~had~~ perjured himself. (cf. Zec. 5.1 ff.) The ~~magistrate's~~ judicial oath, like the ordeal was employed only in cases where no proofs or evidence could be obtained. The oath was known as the *לִבְנֵי קַדְשָׁה* (Ex. 22.10). The *לִבְנֵי קַדְשָׁה* was sometimes coupled with an *מְכֹרֶב*, the curse, which was to fall upon him who perjured himself. (Num. 5.21

Dan. Sell; cf. the interesting case of Peter's denial of his master. Mt. 26.70 ff. At first Peter merely denies

was

that he with Jesus. *δ οὐ πρήστες* (v.70); when he is accused again he denies with an oath: *καὶ τίλιος πρηγότωντο οὐ πάντες* (v.72) and the third accusation he denies with an oath and a curse. *τότε φέρετο ματθαίους λέγειν* ^{βασικ} (v.74).

The formula for the oath administered in the case of the Sotah is given in full in Num. 5.19-22. What the formula was in cases of legal disputes is nowhere given. It is possible that it resembled somewhat the form of the ordinary oaths of promise, covenant or adjuration, so numerous in the O.T.; (*Exodus, 21*, 7; 27; 28; 29; 30; 31; 32; 33; 34; 35; 36; 37; 38; 39; 40; 41; 42; 43; 44; 45; 46; 47; 48; 49; 50; 51; 52; 53; 54; 55; 56; 57; 58; 59; 60; 61; 62; 63; 64; 65; 66; 67; 68; 69; 70; 71; 72; 73; 74; 75; 76; 77; 78; 79; 80; 81; 82; 83; 84; 85; 86; 87; 88; 89; 90; 91; 92; 93; 94; 95; 96; 97; 98; 99; 100; 101; 102; 103; 104; 105; 106; 107; 108; 109; 110; 111; 112; 113; 114; 115; 116; 117; 118; 119; 120; 121; 122; 123; 124; 125; 126; 127; 128; 129; 130; 131; 132; 133; 134; 135; 136; 137; 138; 139; 140; 141; 142; 143; 144; 145; 146; 147; 148; 149; 150; 151; 152; 153; 154; 155; 156; 157; 158; 159; 160; 161; 162; 163; 164; 165; 166; 167; 168; 169; 170; 171; 172; 173; 174; 175; 176; 177; 178; 179; 180; 181; 182; 183; 184; 185; 186; 187; 188; 189; 190; 191; 192; 193; 194; 195; 196; 197; 198; 199; 200; 201; 202; 203; 204; 205; 206; 207; 208; 209; 210; 211; 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and his "Religious Belief in Babylonia and Assyria, pp.147-801). It is true that the Hebrews, like the Babylonians looked upon the liver as the seat of life (Prov. 7.23; possibly also Isa. 2.11), and that they too sometimes identified the sacrificial animal with the deity, but the Biblical data on Hepatoscopy are too meagre to permit us to draw any conclusions as to its practice and vogue among them. The practice was not known among the Arameans and a Rabbi of the third century is aware of the fact that Hepatoscopy was practiced among them. (Eccles. 12.7). The liver was also used in magical arts among the Jews (See e.g. Tobit 6.4 ff; 8.2; also Yoma 84a, b).

Mr. Jastrow thinks it significant that the Biblical codes command no fewer than ten times that "the finger of the liver", the *יָדָה {yadah}* of all sacrificial animals should be burnt. (Ex. 29.13, 22; Lev. 2.4, 10, 15; 7.4; 6.10, 26; 9.10, 19). "Inasmuch as the Pentateuchal codes abhorred in protests against customs and rites prevailing among the nations around, the ordinance to burn this part of the liver was clearly intended as a protest against using the sacrificial animal for purposes of divination, the pars pro toto being regarded as a sufficient reminder". (Rel. Beliefs in Baby. and Assyria, p. 172, note 2.). It is, however, safe to assume that hepatoscopy, even if practiced in ancient Israel never occupied that position of prominence which it held in the Assyrian-Babylonian scheme of divination. The silence of even the historical books on the subject seems to point to an early degeneration or complete disappearance of the practice in ancient Israel.

5. Miscellaneous.

There is made mention in the O.T. of a few cases of divination which though possessing many things in common with, cannot very well be included among the above-mentioned categories. The first case is that of I Sam. 6.7-12:

"Now, therefore, make a new cart, and take two milch kine, on which there hath come no yoke, and tie the kine to the cart, and bring their calves home from them. And take the ark of the Lord and lay it upon the cart ----- and send it away that it may go. And see if it goeth up by the way of his own coast to Beth-Sheneh, then He hath done us the great evil: but if not, then we shall know that it is not his hand that smote us; it was a chance that happened to us ----- And the kine took the straight way to the way of Beth-Sheneh, and went along the highway, lowing, as they went, and turned not aside to the right or to the left".

The Philistines are perplexed over the sudden plagues which have come upon them in the wake of the ark captured from the Israelites. They are not fully convinced, however, that the ark is responsible for their misfortune. There is still the possibility that there is no causal relation between the capture of the ark and the coming of the plagues. (v.9) They accordingly consult the diviners. (*חַזְקָה מִנְחָה* v.2) who suggest to them the above test. The method is apparently a form of sorcery. The will of the deity being discovered in the choice of direction. The deity which is here identified with the ark (cf. Num. 10.35-36; 1 Sam. 6.6-7), forces the cows, in spite of their inclinations to turn back to their calves, to take the road leading to Beth-Sheneh.

Another illustration of divination by means of alternatives, although these alternatives have no real significance in themselves, is the story of the selection of Gideon's warriors. (Jud. 7.4-6).

"And he brought down the people unto the water, and the Lord said unto Gideon every one that lappeth of the water with his tongue as the dog lappeth, him shalt thou set by himself, and every one that boweth down upon his knee to drink. And the number of them that lapped, putting their hand to their mouth, was three

hundred men, but all the rest of the people bowed down upon their knees to drink water. And the Lord said unto Gideon, by the three hundred men that lapped will I save thee-----"

Some have attempted to explain this simple act of divination rationally and to interpret the manner in which the men drank the water as symbolic of their characters. (cf. Moore, "Judges", p. 202, Int. Crit. Comm.) In reality, the manner of drinking has nothing to do with the character or the military fitness of the men. The test is simply an act of divination and the means employed are purely accidental and without any ulterior significance.

A case, closely akin to the above is found in the narrative of Jonathan's sortie against the Philistines. (I. Sam. 14.8-10).

"Then said Jonathan, behold, we shall pass over unto the men and we shall discover ourselves unto them. If they say thus unto us, tarry until we come to you, then we will stand still in our place, and will not go up unto them. But if they say thus, come up unto us, then we will go up, for the Lord hath delivered them into our hands, and this shall be the sign(^{στιχόν}) unto us".

This test, based on the accidental remarks of the Philistine is an echo of a practice which was very common among ancient peoples especially among the Greeks. It is called, *cladomancy*, divination from the accidental words or answers of human beings.

Another case of divination by means of alternatives is that of Jud. 6.36-40, which differs, however, considerably from the above because of the introduction of a miraculous element.

"And Gideon said unto God, If thou wilt save Israel by mine hand, as thou hast spoken, Behold, I will put a fleece of wool on the threshing floor, if there be dew on the fleece only, and it be dry upon all the ground, then shall I know that thou wilt save Israel by mine hand, as thou hast spoken. And it was so; and he rose up early on the morrow, and pressed the fleece together and wringed the dew out of the fleece, a bowl full of water"

But Gideon asked for another attestation of the deity's help. The test is reported in a somewhat different form to the satisfaction of Gideon.

6. Necromancy

In as much as we have arranged all forms of divination into two general groups, heteroscopic and autoscopic, it is necessary to include necromancy among the former. Necromancy presupposes ancestor-worship and the latter was in vogue among the ancient Hebrews (see R.H. Charles "Eschatology" pp. 19 ff. where the subject is discussed at length and copious references are given). Mr. Charles argues that the teraphim were images of ancestors which had become household gods. (*ibid* pp. 21-23). In as much as the teraphim were used as objects of divination (*Ezek. 21.26; Zeph. 10.2*) it behoves us to discover their true nature and function. From an analysis of the Biblical data bearing on the subject the following facts are evident.

1. The teraphim were idols or gods (*Gen. 31.30; 35.4*).
2. They were kept in private houses, (*Gen. 31.30; 1 Sam. 10.13*) but also at shrines (*Jud. 17.5; 10.17 ff.*).
3. They bore a human resemblance. (*1 Sam. 19.13 ff.*).

It cannot be argued from the above with any degree of certainty that the teraphim were ancestral images and household gods. The fact that they resembled a human form is insufficient proof; for the tribal god himself may have thus been represented. Nor would the fact that the teraphim formed part of the usual equipment of a well-to-do family argue that they were ancestral images, for they may very well have been icons of the national or tribal deity himself. Moreover, from *Jud. 17.5; 10.17ff.*, it is apparent that the teraphim are the objects of worship of a general cult and not of one family only. They belong at first to an Ephraimite, the priest is a Levite and the Danites appropriate it as their tribal deity. The origin of the word is obscure.

Some would connect them with the **דְּבָרַת** Schwally would identify the root of **דְּבָרָה** with that of **דְּבָרָתִי** "clades" but this is doubtful. Others again take it to be a later opprobrious term, the plural of **פָּנִים** "foulness", "obscenity", and was substituted for names of various kinds of idols (cf. Hastings' E.R.B. VII p.141). It is probably a plural of eminence like **דְּמָנִים** but the nature of the deity or deities implied is not suggested by the name.

It is possible that the teraphim were the representation of **Yahweh** among some tribes just as the **Ephod** was among others. Originally it may have been, (as, in fact Gen. 31:30, states) an Aramean deity which an Israelitish clan brought with it to Canaan, but it soon suffered the same Yahvistic interpretation which mostly all heathen rites and deities underwent. In the syncretism, which set in during the period of the judges and the early monarchy, the teraphim were retained along with the **Ephod**, although the latter possessed somewhat more of an official character. While it is true that the teraphim are also mentioned in connection with the divination of Nebuchadnezzar, it is very possible, as Mr. Margoliouth suggests, (Hastings' E.R.B. s.v. Ancestor worship (Hebrew)) that "the prophet merely expressed Nebuchadnezzar's manner of consulting oracles in terms of Hebrew speech and that Teraphim in the usual O.T. meaning of the word were not actually used by him". The narrator (J.E.) of the theft of Laban's teraphim by Rachel, (Gen. 31.) undoubtedly supposed that they were images of **Yahweh**, else he would not condone the act. Hosea (3:4-5) seems to identify **Yahweh** with the **Ephod** and teraphim. It is, moreover, significant that whereas the practice of **abu-** **sulting** the dead is everywhere in the O.T. prohibited or concurred, the consultation of the teraphim is not.

Hecromancy, however, was very prevalent among the ancient Hebrews and the practice survived until a very late day. Isaiah

(8.19) speaks of "the **נִשְׁׂאָנִים** and **בָּזָבָז** who chirp and mutter" and again (29.5)" and they (Egyptians) shall consult the idols **נִשְׁׂאָנִים** and the **בָּזָבָז** and the **נִשְׁׂאָנִים** and the **בָּזָבָז** Mr. Smith has demonstrated, and we think conclusively, that the oboth were some sort of talisman or fetishes, probably a human skull, or some other part of the human body, which were used in divining. ("Samuel" pp.239-240, Int.Crit.Hom. cf. also Sam.8.5b: **נִשְׁׂאָנִים יְבוּמָה**; Chmelson, Die "Seabier" II, 150 on speaking skulls; and James Montgomery, "Aramaic Incantation Texts from Nippur" pp. 256 ff. on the human skull inscribed with a magic text). Yidd'oni might signify the "knower", the "wise spirit". (But it is difficult to find a distinction between the Ob and the Yidd'oni (cf. Driver, "Deuteronomy", p.226 Int. Crit. Comm.) Is.8.19 and 29.4 would suggest that the Ob-oracle was given in a muttering or twittering voice, coming from the ground. LXX in translating **Ων** by **εγγοτόπυνθος**, implies that the oracle was given by means of ventriloquism, the listener thinking that the voices was emanating from the ground.) The classical example of necromancy is that of Saul and the witch of Endor. (I.Sam.28.7 ff.) Saul had previously inquired of Yahweh, through the channels of the three legitimate forms of divination, dreams, the sacred lot and the prophets (v.3) but had received no reply. Goaded on by the exigencies of the moment he decided to consult the spirit of the departed Samuel. He sends his servants in quest of a **Ων נִשְׁׂאָנִים** a woman who practices necromancy, and one is located in Endor (v.7). Saul disguises himself and arrives at the witch's place at night. He commands her to divine for him by means of the Ob **Ων נִשְׁׂאָנִים פַּרְעֹז** (v.8), and to bring up the spirit of Samuel **אֶלְעָזָר קָרְבָּן** v.II) The witch complies, and the ghost of Samuel appears. Saul does not see the ghost. The witch describes him to Saul. (v.13-14). Saul then hears the voice of Samuel, advising him of the terrible defeat that is awaiting him on the morrow. (v.16-19). Saul is overcome by the news: He is also faint from fasting. The witch induces him to partake of some food and then Saul departs.)

that they're all beyond the beyond those concentric layers and back
elements of pre-existing religious phenomena." It must be conclud-
ed that in the last of the fundamental types of dreams we come up against the
theory of dreams. "Now," it is added, "let us apply this, that these
upper layers of the sky above the earth are the final
perfections." And so (Ecclesiastes 12.12) says the last chapter of the
Book of Ecclesiastes: "So that when you have seen all the works of God,
then you will say, 'Behold, what a great work he has done!' And on the other hand, (12.13) says
the author of the book of Ecclesiastes: "What's the use of life without
enjoying all the pleasure of life? And so the author of Ecclesiastes
goes on telling any part at all in a dream (Ecclesiastes 12.14) says
of the excess mentioned as yet do we see an ordinary living person
lured to his pleasant one. "It will be declared that in none
concept of dreams among the Greeks is it applicable to the actual
process of creation which we have to make on this



process of division.

Of course not.

at the head of the Phaedrus to the last that he concluded the
whole of the dialogue of Socrates and the defendant of Iliad.
"To this addition (12.15) and the author of Iliad
the company supplies (12.16) and the author of Iliad
in this way was written (12.17) to this in the
composition of the prologue the author of Iliad
written (12.18). In this historical book, "Iliad"
was in the process and before in the case, "Iliad" God's date
of foundation of cities in which there were those who
brought these versions. "Iliad" may have the practice
tinct occasions to eliminate the protection (12.19) 20.6, 27.10
protective. (12.21). It follows the opposite of this
Destruction to cause in the destruction of the

travelled far, in this connection, from the ideas as to the role and nature of dreams, cherished by the majority of contemporary African peoples." While this is true, there are sufficient indications in the O.T. literature that Israel at one time shared in common with the rest of heathen peoples the same notions concerning the validity of all dreams and the methods of interpreting them.

The theory as to the nature and function of dreams undergoes a most remarkable process of development in the Biblical literature. For a better appreciation of this fact, it were best to arrange the Biblical dreams into two classes:

I. Symbolic Dreams.

Symbolic dreams are such in which miraculous or non-miraculous events appear which must be interpreted. Dreams are realities. ~~in reality~~ The dream is as real to the soul which has separated itself from the body in sleep, as is the realm of sensations to the man who is awake. Just as events and phenomena in the world of his perception may have divinatory significance, so may the sights and occurrences in the world of his dreams. The O.T. has retained quite a few instances of such dreams and of their interpretation. Of dreams in which the events are of a non-miraculous nature, the dreams of the chief-butler and of the chief-baker of Pharaoh and their interpretation by Joseph (Gen. 40.8 ff.) may serve as examples. Examples of "miraculous" dreams are Joseph's two dreams (Gen. 37.5 ff.); Pharaoh's dream of the lean and fat kine, and of the thin and full ears of corn, and their interpretation. (*Ibid* 41.1 ff.) and the dream of barley bread rolling round through the camp of Midian (Jud. 7.13-15) and its interpretation. (The dreams narrated in Daniel are best to be included among the Apocalyptic literature where similar dreams are numerous. They show decided influences of later times and peoples and cannot shed much light on the sub-

ject at hand). In some instances, the significance of the dream is so apparent that it needs no professional interpreter to explain it. Thus in the case of Joseph's dream, where his brother's sleeves bow unto him, and of the sun, moon and eleven stars bowing unto him, the brothers immediately apprehend their full significance. In other cases a professional or semi-professional interpretation (*לֹגֶת* Gen. 40,41), *רְאֵבִין* (Jud. 7,15) is needed. Joseph and Daniel are the only two Israelitish characters that are referred to in the O.T. as possessing the art of dream-interpretation, but it is highly probable that, in as much as the idea of divinely inspired symbolic dreams was entertained by primitive Israel in common with other groups of Semitic peoples, a class of dream-interpreters may have existed or, at least, that dream-interpretation formed one of the functions of some of the numerous classes of diviners, who, subsequent ages declared illegal. It is of interest to note that Joseph's brothers, in derision, styled him with the epithet *מִרְאֵבִין סָבִיב* (Gen. 37,19) just as the professional necromancer is called *מִרְאֵבִין* (I Sam. 28,7.)

2. Oracle Dreams.

Oracle dreams are a monotheistic edition of symbolic dreams. Just as divination from physical phenomena ultimately gives way to spiritual revelation, so dream - divination based on things and acts develops into dream - revelation which needs no tangible media. The dream was too real, too much of a fact, in the minds of the people to be readily sacrificed to a spiritual monotheism. Prophecy, however, succeeded, as we shall see, in weeding the dream - idea of its more objectionable features, and hence, the Biblical dreams are, by far, of an oracular nature.

Yahweh and his angels are the only "spokesmen" in an oracular dream. In Homeric dreams, the vision often takes the form of a man or a woman known to the sleeper. Not so in O.T. dreams. Yahweh never delegates the dead to be his messengers

This may be due to the conditions of a higher monotheism or more probably, to the fact that Yahweh until a very late day had no control over the other-world (cf. Charles, "Eschatology" pp.25-36).

The oracular dream may be accompanied by a vision as e.g. Jacob's vision of the ladder (Gen. 28.12 ff., and again in 31.11); but in such cases the apparitions have no specific significance.

The clearest references to divination by means of dreams is found in Num. 22.6,10. The ambassadors of Balak have called upon Balaam and have brought him the message of the King. Balaam is perplexed. He is in doubt whether he should go or not. He finally decides to await an answer from God during night and he accordingly requests the ambassadors to lodge with him for the night. God's answer is given in a dream that night (v.9-12). The same procedure takes place in the case of the second embassy. (v.19-20).

The successive stages in the development of the concept of the oracular dream in Israel we shall consider later.

II. Incubation.

The deity was often coaxed into sending a dream. At certain critical moments when information upon a perplexing situation was imperative and the individual could not very well wait for a chance dream, he would resort to the dwelling place of the deity and spend the night there in the hope that the deity would send him a dream, etc. The ceremony of incubation, common among many primitive peoples, was usually preceded by ablutions, sacrifice and prayer. Incubation was probably reported to by Sam (1.Sam.26.6) but without success. Sacrifice at the shrine of Gil-eon precedes the dream which Solomon has. (I Kings 12.12-13). Elijah evidently practices incubation. (I K. 19.9 ff.) He goes into the cave (^{נַּחַם}) and sleeps there (v.9) and receives a revelation. The author speaks of ^{נַּחַמְתִּי} and presupposes that the

reader knows of what he has reference to. This cave like the cave of Trophonius was probably a favorite resort for those who wished to obtain a dream from Yalwali, who in certain localities was regarded as a chthonic deity.

C. Possession.

Mantic inspiration or possession is another means of divination. The subject who wishes to become a channel of revelation prepares himself for it by working himself into a state of semi-consciousness, when, it is supposed, the deity enters the subject and speaks through him. Under the influence of the jinn, the dervish mutters, mumbles and utters inarticulate sounds. His utterances haveacular importance. The root of *מַשְׁאָר* points to such ecstatic utterances of a possessed being.

The Bible has retained quite a few examples of this practice in ancient Israel. The "Book of Job" is, of course, I Sam. 19. 10-24. These Nabiim-maddim play an important role in the histories of Samuel and of Elijah and Elisha. The guilds of the later period still seem to possess the mantic-nature, which characterized those of the earlier period. (cf. II K.9.11 where the nabi-messenger of Elisha is called *שְׁאֵלֶיךָ*) They still possess the gift of divining and fore telling (I K. 22.8; II K.3.16) which was possessed by the seers before the days of the monarchy. (cf. I. Sam. 9-10). Even the outstanding figures of Elijah and Elisha who in their ethics and religion approach most *needily* to the norm of the writing prophets of the following century, still retain in some instances, the marks of the old nabi or ro'eh. (I K.17.1; 10.40; II K.3.16 et al.). Pictures of prophetic ecstasy are to be found with the writing prophets also, especially with Ezekiel, but it is apparent that neither the vision nor any other abnormal psychic state of these prophets corresponds in any radical sense to the unconscious frenzy of the earlier nabiim or ro'ehim. The term *נִבְרָע* and *נִבְרָה* is used of prophecy until a very late day (Neh. 6.12; *נִבְרָה*).

II Ch. 9.29; 18.9) but the term had very early lost its original connotation.

Mr. Smith argues and with much force that the *Q'JYD*^W were inspired mantics like the old nobiim and rohim. But while the latter were exponents of Yahwism, the former were the survivors of a tree-cult, in which they had originally functioned as interpreters of the tree oracles. The word itself may be derived from an Arabic root which means to croak, to hum and the Hebrew *q'yr* would refer to the hoarsely barking, soothsayers or diviners. (See Journal of Philology, XIV, 113 ff.). And so Draxer, commenting on the *Q'JYD p'sn* remarks that the name "seems to show that a set of wizards or druids, if we may call them so, had their station at the sacred tree in order to interpret to inquirers the rustling of the leaves in the wind, the cooing of wood-pigeons in the branches, or such other omens as the spirit of the oak vouchsafed to his worshippers." ("Folklore in the Old Testament" in Anthropological Essays to H.B. Tyler p.126.)

III. Places of Divination.

When man wishes to consult the deity, he naturally goes to the home of that deity. The god is bound up with the place of his residence. In many cases, the place is the deity. The O.T., at times, echoes this primitive belief. Yahweh dwells in the burning bush at Horeb. (Ex. 3.2 ff.) A later theology gave Yahweh freedom of locomotion. So Yahweh leaves Sinai to somewhere else. (Deut. 33.2; Jud. 5.4 ff.; Heb. 5.5). The devotee who wishes to come into close relation with him is apt to visit the God's abode. (So Elijah, I K. 19.6 ff.) (In the period of syncretism, when Yahweh expelled the Canaanite gods from their abodes and took possession of them, each sacred locality became the θέατης (terminus technicus) for Yahweh's manifestation. So Ex. 20.24 declares: "In every place where I record my name I will cause unto thee there I will bless thee". The "recording of the name" is by means of a theophany. This was an attempt on the part of later ages to explain the sanctity of certain localities which were undoubtedly sacred in pre-Yahwistic days.)

In the polytheistic or polydaemonic stages of the Israelitish religion there were many such sacred places, inhabited by spirits. The sacred spots of the Semites are usually rocks, caves, fountains or trees. To these holy places men would resort for purposes of worship or divination. From our discussion of the various classes of divination (Chap. IX) we have seen that the form of divination is determined by the nature of the deity. Thus a rock deity would as a rule be consulted by means of sortilege, using stones for lots; a chthonic deity, through the medium of dreams; a water-deity through the ordeal and a tree-deity through an interpretation of the sounds of the leaves. Each sacred place would then have a characteristic form of divination and, as the sacred spot grew into prominence, and a sanctuary arose on the spot, an official group of diviners or oracle-interpreters. (Mr. Gall (op. cit.) working on the true supposition that "No man Gott verehrte"

Just one Lühtschütte (p. 69) has enumerated over one hundred holy places in and around Canaan whose sanctity was in most cases due to a holy mountain, rock, cave, tree or well. In all these places worship and sacrifice were undoubtedly supplemented by divination. It will suffice for our purpose to enumerate a few of the more prominent Palestinian holy places, where worship and divination were carried on. Of some clear references to divinatory practices may be found in the O.T., of others, it may be inferred from their name or cult-object.

Bethel was a sacred spot throughout antiquity. It derived its sanctity from the presence of a sacred rock in its midst. (cf. Gen. 28.10 ff. 35.14) The stone was the שְׁמַעַת,⁴ residence of the deity. Jacob abdicates his birth-right spot and receives a revelation through a dream. WRHS He goes up to Bethel to consult the deity concerning the expedition against the Benjaminites. (Jud. 20.16, 27). WRHS As the seat of a prophetic guild. (II K. 2.9.). It is the place of an oracle in the days of Amos. (6.5).

Beersheba gained its prominence from the presence of a sacred well or wells. Gen. 21. Explains שְׁבִירָה as the "Wells of the Oath". Mr. Smith remarks that "it is notable that among the Semites a special sanctity was attached to groups of seven wells" (op. cit. 161). It is at Beersheba that God reveals himself to Hagar. (Gen. 21.14 ff.) to Isaac, (26.20 ff.) and to Jacob (46.1 ff.) in dreams. In the days of Amos, Israelites go to Beersheba to consult the oracle. (3.5; 8.14.). There was also a sacred temple at Beersheba which Abraham is said to have planted. (Gen. 21.33).

Shechem was another sanctuary which retained its sanctity in later days. Its sacra were presumably also a tree and a stone. Abraham is said to come to the דְּבָרָם of Shechem to the נַּחַל מִקְרָב and receives a revelation. WRHS Zion Moreh is the "oracle-giving ter-

binth". This same Elōn is mentioned also in Gen. 35.4; Deut. 11.30 פְּלֹן יְהָנֵן Josh. 24.26, פְּלֹן יְהָנֵן Jud. 9.37. גִּרְבַּע פְּלֹן "terebinth of the soothsayers". (We think that this was the original designation of the tree. In later times when the seconim were illegitimatized, the term פְּלֹן which implies the giving of an oracle by the priests of Yahweh, was substituted). The sacred rock is associated with the Elōn in Josh. 24.26. The-
hem in prophetic times was a sanctuary of Yahweh (פְּלֹן עֲמָלֵק Jos. 24.26) and a band of priests (גִּרְבַּע דָּבָר Hos. 6.6) who were dis-
pensers of the oracle, was connected with it.

The fourth of the holy places so frequently associated with the names of the patriarchs, was Hebron. It, too, was the center of an old tree-cult. Another sacra of the place may have been a holy cave, the פְּלֹן אֶבְרָהָם (Gen. 23.17,19) Abraham built an altar to Yahweh at the terebinths of Mamre in Hebron (Gen.13.18). David makes a covenant with the elders of Israel "in the presence of God" at Hebron (II Sam.5.3). Absalom asks permission of his father to go and "worship Yahweh" at Hebron (I.c.15.7-8). A sacred well was another of the sacra of Mamre or Hebron. Heathenish rites continued at Mamre far into Christian times and Emperor Constantine endeavored to suppress it.

(Smith (op.cit.p.177), quoting) Sozomen, says that "at the annual fair and feast of the Terebinth, or tree and well of Abraham at Mamre, the heathen visitors, who reverenced this spot as the haunt of angels (or demons), not only offered sacrifices beside the tree, but illuminated the well with lamps, and cast into it libations of wine, cakes, coins, syrrh, and incense". The casting of articles into a sacred well or river is, as we have seen, frequently an act of Ritualism.

The sanctuary of Kadesh or Meribah undoubtedly derived its sanctity from the presence of a sacred well. The holy water is sometimes designated as the פְּלֹן מִזְבֵּחַ "waters of con-
troversy" (Num. 20.13,24; 27.14; Dt.32.51; 33.8; Exod.17.10;
46.28; Ps. 81.8; 95.8; 106.32) or the וְגַת מִזְבֵּחַ "well of

judgment". (Gen.14.7) Both terms signify the practice of divination for purposes of adjudication by means of the holy water. (v.s. "Hydromancy and "Ordeal".)

The original sanctity of Sinai or Horeb, originally two distinct places, may have been due to the presence of a sacred tree (cf. the "burning bush" Ex.3) or a rock (יְהוָה Ex. 17.6; 33.21. It is significant that Yahweh is many times addressed as יְהוָה "rock" D't. 32.4,18) and an innumerable number of times likened to one. (The יְהוָה פֶּתַח "cave" at Horeb, where Moses and Elijah receive revelations has been previously referred to.)

That the deity must be consulted in his own home was a belief that found expression in later days in the fact that judicial cases had to be brought to the sanctuary, to the

יְהוָה לְפָנָיו or to the Temple in Jerusalem. We are inclined to believe with Zimmern (Beiträge zur Kenntnis der babyl. Rel. p.88, note 2.) that the יְהוָה סִנְאָן was originally the tent where the propitius time for an undertaking was determined. The author traces יְהוָה and the Assyrian אֲדֹם, "proper time" back to the same root. (see also Haupt, Jour. Bib. Lit. pp. 58,70) In other words, the tent was originally a place of divination. Ex. 33.7 declares that "Moses used to take the tent and pitch it without the camp, afar off from the camp; and he called it the יְהוָה סִנְאָן and it came to pass, that every one who sought the Lord יְהוָה וְעַבְדָּיו went out unto the יְהוָה סִנְאָן which was without the camp." According to Josh. 19.51, the sacred lot was cast "in the presence of God, at the entrance of the That piece of rhodomancy by which Aaron was declared the chosen one of Yahweh was executed "in the presence of God, in the סִנְאָן."

וְלֹא יָמַר (Num. 17.22) Moses cannot decide the case of the daughters of Zelaphchad. He asks the deity so decide. יְהוָה יְמִינֵךְ יְהוָה סִנְאָן (Num. 27.5) The act takes place at the יְהוָה סִנְאָן (v.2)

IV.

Agents of Divination.

Some forms of divination need no skilled human agents to interpret them. The individual who perceives a simple omen, for example, can very well interpret it himself according to the generally accepted rules of omnia-hermeneutics. But often-times the science of omen interpretation develops into a minutely-detailed, complex and difficult system, far too elaborate for an ordinary layman to pursue. Again, other forms of divination, such as astrology, require a certain amount of scientific knowledge, which the average man does not possess. There arose, therefore, in due time in practically every locality where divination was practiced specially endowed individuals, who functioned as the interpreters of divinatory signs too obtruse for the non-professional man to understand.

Another factor which would be conducive to the establishment of professional agents of divination is the primitive belief in the sanctity of certain individuals. Some men are in closer relation to the deity than others. These would be more likely to obtain information from the deity and, also to comprehend the manifestations of the will of the deity in the physical world. Hence man would naturally turn to them in perplexity and in doubt. In time, the art of divining or interpreting divinatory signs would become one of the chief functions of these "godly men".

While it is apparent that the science of omen-interpretation in Israel never attained to that high degree of perfection and completeness, possessed by Assyro-Babylonian or Egyptian divination, it is, nevertheless true, that classes of men, in time, did arise in Israel, whose special function it was to divine and to interpret signs.

Already in the nomadic stage, divination to a very large extent may be said to have become the prerogative of certain men. Among the Beduins, one of the chief functions of the Kahir (Hebrew

/ פָּה) is to consult the oracle. The name Kahin signifies a "sooth sayer". (Wellhausen Heid. p.131 ff.) Along side of the Kalihim, there exist unofficial diviners, who possess no hereditary office at any one shrine. They resemble in many respects the Hebrew Ro'eh and Hözeh. They are sometimes called Hazi (Heb. הָזִי). (cf. op. cit. p. 134).

In Canaan, this tendency towards the concentration of the knowledge and practices of divination in the hands of a few professionals naturally received a great impetus due to the great development of the science induced by Canaanitish and hence, Assyro-Babylonian influence. In the earlier polydaemonic or polytheistic stages, the deities of various localities were, as a rule, consulted by professional diviners. Thus the Meonenim, as has been remarked above, were probably the professional diviners of a tree-cult. It is unfortunate, however, that the zealous Yahwists of the later day obliterated, as far as possible, all mention of the real nature of those diviners whom they so vigorously denounce. There is a good deal said, however, about the Yahwistic diviners, and if we bear in mind the general tendency of that period of syncretism, namely, to include in the Yahweh worship, as far as possible, the many heathenish practices, we might infer from analogy the nature and constitution of the illicit divinatory classes also.

The O.T. knows of four groups of diviners, originally distinct from, latterly blended into one another:

1. פְּהָדָה. 2. נֶזֶח. 3. נַבֵּה. 4. נַבְּרָה.

1. The Priest -

The original function of the priest was two-fold:

- (a) To take care of the sanctuary and especially the images therein. (b) To consult the deity. The offering of sacrifices was not a specifically priestly function. Among the Arabs this original double-function of the priest is still retained. says Wellhausen! "Das Amt des Priesters ist: beiden Arabern die Be-

wachung des Heiligtums --- für die Verrichtung des Opfers an einem einfachen Stein ist er entbehrlich ---- Die Priester werden auch bei den alten Arabern, wie bei den Hebrewern, Orakel urteilt und auf Befrage Weisung und Entscheidung in schwierigen und zweifeligen. Pragen gegeben haben" (Heid. pp.130-131 "cf. also article "priest" in J.E., R.B., and Hastings' Dict. of Bib.") It is the function of the priest as the consulter of the oracle that is of interest to us. We have discussed the method of this consultation above (see *supra*, Urim and Thummim). But in recounting the occasions upon which the oracle was consulted we omitted the principle one, i.e. in the administration of justice. Among primitive peoples the deity was directly appealed to in cases of legal dispute. The deity in the plenitude of his wisdom was asked to decide where man could not. In Israel the practice was common (cf. I Sam. 8.25 and even in much later times, the notion survived. see e.g. Prov. 10.10.). Ex. 22.7-8; commands that all legal disputes where no evidence can be obtained, should be brought before God. בְּרֵאשֶׁת שָׂנֵאת שְׁעָרָה וְיַעֲמֹד מֹשֶׁה בְּפִנֵּי יְהוָה Moses brings the case of the daughters of Zelaphchad before God: בְּרֵאשֶׁת שְׁעָרָה וְיַעֲמֹד מֹשֶׁה בְּפִנֵּי יְהוָה (Num. 27.6) and God gives the decision in this particular case and the general law, which should apply in all similar cases hereafter. (ibid vv.6-11). Again, according to Ex. 10.16, the people in legal difficulties came to Moses, the priest to consult God through him. בְּרֵאשֶׁת שְׁעָרָה וְיַעֲמֹד מֹשֶׁה brings the case before God. בְּרֵאשֶׁת שְׁעָרָה וְיַעֲמֹד מֹשֶׁה (v.19) i.e. in the: ^{7 ym spf} ^{לְפָנֵי יְהוָה} But the act of "approaching God" or consulting him was, as we have noticed above, by means of the sacred lot, the Urim and Thummim. Judging from the story in Ex. 10.13 ff., all legal disputes were originally brought to the priest for decision. But soon the task became too heavy for them. Lay-judges were then appointed who rendered decisions according to the codes of law already formulated by the priests, בְּרֵאשֶׁת שְׁעָרָה וְיַעֲמֹד מֹשֶׁה (v.20). Those cases, however, which involved new legal points were appealed to the priests

who rendered decisions by consulting the deity by means of the sacred lot. Hence, probably the word *נֶגֶל* which is from the root *נָגַל* "to cast"; *נְגָל* "to cast a lot". A *Negel* was then a legal, and sometimes also a ritual or moral decision (e.g. II.K.17.27-28) arrived at by means of casting the sacred lot. (See Wellhausen, *Prolegomena* p.402). The priest is sometimes called the *נָגֵל*

and the rendering of the Torah is his special prerogative: 12
יְהוָה יְמִינֵךְ תַּעֲשֶׂת נֶסֶת (Jer. 16.18; cf. also Hag. 2.11; Zeph. 3.4; Mal. 3.7).

The function of the priest as the guardian and interpreter of the law survived to a very late day. Deut. 33 (10-0 Cent.) speaks of the Levites or priests as the possessors of the Urim and Thummim (v.8) and as the teachers of the law (v.10). Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, Micah, Jereriah knew of this function of the priest. D commands that all difficult cases should be brought before the priests at Jerusalem (178-18) and furthermore states that their decision is final, and must be obeyed. (See also 21.5)

There is still mention of this priestly prerogative in exilic and post-exilic times. (Ezek. 7:26 et al.).

The priests hold ^{the} practice of divination in common with the seers and other diviners. I. Sam. 6-2 points to the fact that this was true among the Philistines. In Israel, Aaron is a priest, but also a prophet or rather a seer (Ex. 4.15; Num. 12.2). Samuel functions both as priest and as seer. So does Elijah.

2. The $\text{Se} - \text{Zn}$

The following facts may be observed concerning the use of the appellative R'eh in the O.T.

1. With one exception the term is used exclusively of Samuel (times). The one other man who is designated as Rech is Hanani (II Ch. 10,7,10).

2. Isaiah knows of the existence of a group of Seers. (11/1)
whose function seems to be distinct from that of the "gazers" (17/1

(I.e., 30,10).

Each man bears the distinct cognomen of his profession.

4. The term seems to have fallen into disuse at a very early date. It is only the older portion of the Book of Samuel (Chaps. 9-10.10) that retains it. The Chronicler, of course, out of his love for archaisms continues to use it to a very late date. Isaiah already speaks with a certain amount of depreciation of the seers. (cf. 50.10 and 28.7). I. Sam. 9.9, a gloss of late origin, evidently tries to account for the fact that the term *hech* is no longer used.

Concerning the nature of the Book, the following may be deduced from a study of the references to Samuel, the seer.

1. He is revered as an *ym'x wix*, a godly man.(9.6).
and is reported as speaking in the name of Yahweh. (9.9,15).

2. He functions also as a priest (Ch 19 ff; Ch 15 ff.)

3. He was paid for his services (9.7-8). It is to be noticed that the pay (*נְסָמֵן*) was not large. In this case one-fourth of a silver shekel is deemed sufficient recompence. Now is the information which he is asked to give always of great importance, national or otherwise. He is consulted even in the most trifling cases. In this case it is to discover the whereabouts of Hish's lost asses.

4. He has nothing in common with the howling dervishes, the early except the gift of divination, which he employs three times in the narrative.

The method which the employed in their divination is difficult to discover. Mr. Jastrow maintains that inasmuch as the Babylonian *bārū* is the exact prototype of the Hebrew בָּרָע, (Bara'ah),

their etymology and function being identical, "it would seem reasonable to take the נָבִי in accord with the meaning attached to בָּרָע , as likewise originally an "inspector", who looks at something with a view of obtaining an answer to a given question" (Journal Bib. Literature XXVIII, p.42 ff.). The duty of inspecting was originally limited in the case of the בָּרָע to the liver but, in time, the term came to be the generic designation of all forms of divination. Concerning hepatoscopy, we have previously observed that there is little to prove its existence in ancient Israel. The term נָבִי when we meet with it in the O.T., already has reached the stage represented by the use of בָּרָע in Babylonian, as the divining priest in general. (cf. op.cit.p.48). The writer, likewise, suggests that the specific kind of divination practiced by Samuel was probably astrology inasmuch as I Sam. 9.26-27 speak of Samuel conferring with Saul on the roof and at daybreak. The time and the place seem to point to an act of divination through heavenly phenomena which the later redactor suppressed.

While in the main, the thesis of Mr. Jastrow is very feasible, we are not convinced that all נָבִי were priests. Certainly, there are no indications that Hanani was a priest. Even in the case of Samuel, the older document seems to imply that his priestly function is rather accidental than essential. As far as the O.T. is concerned, priestly divination is radically different from that of the seer. The priest's divination is limited almost exclusively to cases entailing national welfare. Under the latter we subsume the administration of justice, the enactment of ritual and moral laws, and the discovery of the will of the deity in great national crises. The Rōeh has no official standing. He is associated with no particular sanctuary. He is in charge of no sacred images. He is rather the diviner par excellence, in the interest of the private life of the people. He answers to the need for guidance in the every-day life of the individual and his authority lasts only as long as his guidance proves

helpful, and the information which he vouchsafes, true. He differs, however, from the many other soothsayers of the day, the meonogim, say, or the menahashim, in being a protagonist of Yahweh, and in speaking in His name and by His authority. It was, therefore, not a difficult matter for the later scribes to confound the Nabi with the Rêch (cf. e.g. I Sam. 9.9^b) but in so doing they overlooked a few radical things differentiating them.

5. The Gazer - נֶזֶח

This much may be said with certainty concerning the nature of the hosch.

1 - He was a diviner. Gad is the hosch of David and divines for him. David consults the deity to learn whether he should go next. The answer comes through Gad. (I Sam. 22.5) Again, Gad brings God's answer to David on the occasion of the latter's census-taking of the people. The answer takes the form of three alternatives (II Sam. 24.11 ff.) This corresponds, as Mr. Jastrow well remarks, to the alternative interpretation of signs that we encounter in the various classes of omens-tellers of Babylonia and Assyria. "It is only reasonable to conclude", writes Mr. Jastrow, "that the נֶזֶח like the Babylonian barû-priest had recourse to some method of divination by means of which he secured specific answers to inquiries put to him" (Ibid p.52) That Gad is sometimes called נָבִי is merely another indication of the tendency of later times to compliment all who spoke in the name of Yahweh with the title of נָבִי. That נֶזֶח was the real designation of Gad is evident from such passages as (I.Ch.29.29; II Ch. 20.25.)

2 - The hosch, like the older Nebiim, often employed external stimuli in the practice of divination. Thus, Heman, Asaph and Jeduthun, who are hosim. (II Ch. 35.15), divine by the aid of "harps, psalteries and cymbals" (I Ch. 25.1). The hosch may be the official diviner, attached to the court. The three men just mentioned are called נְבִיא תְּמִימָה (II Ch. 35.15 cf. also I Ch.25.5)

God is called *"יְהוָה יְמִינֵי"* (II Sam. 24.12. cf. also I Ch. 21.9; II Ch. 29.25) His interest would then be centered chiefly in the life of the king and the nation. Herein is one characteristic which may distinguish the *hoseh* from the *r̄beh*. Another distinction may be that the divination implied in *רַקֵּב* is voluntary, that "it is a deliberate act of looking at something or looking for something" while *רַקֵּת* implies involuntary divination; it is "a recognition of something that comes to one's sight involuntarily" (Jastrow, *Ibid* p. 53). Thus astrologers are called by Dostoro-Isaiah *גָּזֹן וְלֹן* "those who 'gaze' at the stars".)

But *n̄j̄'im* like *n̄k̄'i*, soon fell into disfavor. Both suggested physical means of divination which were incompatible with a spiritual Yahwism. Already in the days of Amos, the *hophal* was looked upon with a certain amount of contempt. Thus, when Amaziah addresses Amos as *n̄j̄'im* (Amos 7.12), there is a note of mockery implied. Micah (3.7) puts them in the same category with the *owop* and contrast them with the true prophet. (v. 8 ~~v.~~
also Ezek. 13.24.)

לְרֵגֶל, שִׁירָה וּבְרַגְלָה fared better than *וְיִתְרֹךְ*. The term designating involuntary divination came to include dreams and visions which, with few exceptions, were always considered legitimate means of revelation. The term was more popular in post-exilic than in pre-exilic times. The great literary prophets, fully in keeping with their theory of inspiration speak of it with contempt. Thus Jeremiah in castigating the false prophets, says "a false vision (*שְׁמַנְיָה*) and worthless divination (*שְׁמַנְיָה, בְּזָבֵחַ*) and the deceit of their hearts are they prophesying" (14.14) and at another time he speaks of them as giving "prophecies from their own hearts not emanating from the mouth of God". (*בְּזָבֵחַ, בְּזָבֵחַ*, 23.16). And so Micah addressing himself to the false prophets couples *בְּזָבֵחַ* with *בְּזָבֵחַ* in saying: "Therefore it shall be night unto you that ye shall have no vision. (*בְּזָבֵחַ*); and the sun

shall go down unto the prophets, and the day shall be black over them" (3.6).

4. Prophet. -

We have discussed the early Nebiim-guilds under the heading of "Possession". This much remains to be noticed. In the Nabi, autoscopic divination finds its highest expression. The Nabi requires no physical phenomena to interpret. The information which he obtains is immediate and direct. The agent, however, must be in a certain abnormal psychic state before he is favored with a revelation. This fact constitutes one of the essential differences between the old Nebiim and the literary prophets or between divination, and inspiration. In the former case a revelation was induced by artificial means and was subject to the wish of the agent irrespective of his moral status, while in the latter case, the revelation as a rule came unsolicited and only to such individuals whose moral natures qualified them to serve as channels of revelation. Whether we entertain the idea that the literary prophets are essentially connected with the earlier Nebiim or whether we hold, with Dr. Buttenwieser, that "the inspiration of the literary prophets and the mantic possession or ecstasy of the older prophets are two distinct phenomena proceeding from radically different states of mind, and not, as is widely thought, from a common psychical basis", ("The Prophets of Israel" p.100. For a full discussion of this important subject see ibid., part II, Chap. II.), the outstanding fact is that in literary prophecy we are face to face with a phenomenon which can not be discussed under the subject of divination.

While the terms *hosch* and *rōch* fell into disfavor and disuse because they suggested a form of divination by means of mantic machinations which was very distasteful to the spiritual Yahwist, the term *Nabi* held its own in the religious vocabulary of the day and was slowly transformed and enriched in meaning and significance. Already in the days of Amos, the *Nabi* is an exalted individual, the chosen mouthpiece of Yahweh and no longer

retains that ecstatic traits which characterized the earlier Nebiim.

Women Diviners. The function of divination among the Israelites was by no means restricted to the males. Women played quite an important rôle in it. In fact, women because of their nervous and more readily excitable natures are exceptionally fit for the task, and they figured prominently as agents of magic and vaticination among ancient peoples. The earliest documents make mention of female magicians in Israel. God already legislates against them. *פָנָר נְשָׁוֹן* (Ex. 22.17). As diviners, women in the O.T. occur principally as necromancers. Thus, Saul commands his servants to find for him an *נָשָׁה בַּגְדָּאָה* "A woman who is mistress of necromancy". (I Sam. 28.7) and Leviticus 20.27 states: "A man or a woman, if there should be among them, a necromancer or wizard, should be put to death". As legitimate diviners women figure as prophetesses in Biblical literature. Miriam is called an *מִזְבֵּחַ* (Ex. 15.20) and her name is connected with the singing of songs and the playing of instruments -- the characteristic methods of the old Nebiim. Deborah is not only a prophetess *נָשָׁה נָשָׁה* but also a judge. (Jud. 4.4). She sits under the "palm-tree of Deborah" (v.5) which, according to Gen. 35.6, is called *תְּרוֹם אֲלֹונָה*. The term allon, it has been observed, suggest that the tree was a sacred one and that Deborah's prophecy had something to do with tree-divination. (cf. Smith op. cit. p.196). Again, when Josiah sends men to inquire of Yahweh (*מִלְאָמָר לְרָאָבָר*) concerning the newly discovered book of the law, the prophetess Huldah is consulted (II K.14 ff, II Ch.34.22 ff.). Ezekiel finds it necessary to include the women mantics in his general arraignment of false prophets. (13.7-23) Even as late as the time of Nehemiah, there is mention of a certain prophetess by the name of Noadish. (Ne. 6.14).

V. Prophetic Yahwism vs. Divination.

Among practically all the more civilized peoples of antiquity a distinction is drawn between public and official, and private and non-official divination. This holds true of Assyro-Babylonian, Egyptian and Roman religions. So also of the religion of Israel. Some forms of divination, because of their antiquity, became incorporated into the cult while others, of later or of foreign origin, never received official sanction, although they may have gained popular favor. The factor determining the official or non-official character of a divinatory practice is not theologic. In the religion of Israel, however, this new factor is introduced and, succeeded, first in revolutionizing the entire system of divination and ultimately in abolishing it entirely. The ever-evolving Yahweh-concept in Israel waged war, not only upon private and non-official, but, in time, also on public and official divination. Herein is one of the chief distinctions of Hebrew divination. Official religion outgrew it. But the religions of Babylonia, of Egypt, of Greece and of Rome, never succeeded in freeing themselves from this dead-weight which, in each case, succeeded in obstructing the further development of religious ideas.

The growth of spiritual monotheism in Israel was concomitant with the decline of divination. And inevitably so. Divination at bottom and in its boldest expression, implies polytheism or at least polydaemonism. Only such an object was used in divination, which was of a sacred nature, being the temporary or permanent habitus of a deity. Even in an henotheistic religion, other spirits were consulted. It should be borne in mind that the relation existing between Yahweh and Israel was in the nature of a covenant between Yahweh and the community. The interests of the individuals, as such, were of little concern to the deity. "The contractual obligation of the gods bound them to avert

calamity from the community, but not to protect any particular person from misfortune that affected him alone". (F.B.Jevons, Comp. Religion, p.49.) Man, therefore, in his private needs and perplexities would naturally turn to other supernatural powers and would endeavor to establish a relation with them. Speaking of the social element in the religion of Israel, Mr. Smith remarks: "So much was this the case that in purely personal concerns the ancients were very apt to turn, not to the recognized religion of the family or of the state, but to magical superstitions----(for) there was a whole region of possible needs and desires for ^{Sacred Rel.} which religion could and would do nothing". (op.cit.p.264.) It was only in the later days of syncretism that an heathenish polytheism was compressed into an imperfect monotheism. The diviners were then said to consult Yahweh but, in reality, they were even then consulting other deities or spirits. A real monotheism could never tolerate divination, which at bottom, was its direct antithesis. Spiritual monotheism again walked hand in hand with prophetism and the latter introduced a revolutionizing theory of revelation, which invalidated all schemes of divination. The great postulate of prophetism was that no physical and material media are needed for God's revelation. It is self-evident that this doctrine undermines the very foundation of divination.

A study of the historical and prophetic writings as well as of the various legal codes will clearly demonstrate how mutually exclusive spiritual monotheism and divinatory practices really are and how the latter levitates from the centre of religious thought in proportion to the former's gravitation towards it. The history of divination in Israel is in a sense, the history of its religion.

a - The Historical Writings,

The historical writings are the truest gauges in determining the successive stages of development in the art of divination. They reflect the actual practices and beliefs of the day. We are at times permitted to go behind the scenes and witness the gradual transformation or slow suppression of one or another of the divinatory practices and, mindful of the religious movements of the day as expressed in contemporaneous prophetic or legal writings, we can appreciate the cause.

I. Judges.

The oldest historical writing which we may consider is the Book of Judges. While the greater part of the book has suffered later reaction, the older stratum can, in most instances be readily distinguished. The book, ^{script}~~script~~ of later revision and interpretation is undoubtedly pre-prophetic and it may accordingly help to shed light on the problem of divination in pre-prophetic times. The following facts are noteworthy.

1. Acts of divination to test the deity or to make sure of his presence and co-operation are looked upon with equanimity. (6.17-24; 36-40).

2. Other forms of divination, e.g. 7.4-6, are looked upon as fully in keeping with the belief in Yahweh. It is to be noticed, however, that the source from which information or decision is expected is already Yahweh, himself.

3. The dream is a true source of revelation whether it be sent by Yahweh or by another deity. The Israelites have implicit faith in the dream of the Midianite and in its interpretation. (7.9-15. Especially v.15: "And when Gideon heard the recounting of the dream and the interpretation thereof, he knelt, and he returned to the camp of Israel and said, arise, for the Lord hath delivered into your hand the host of Midian".)

<sup>"Man of
God"</sup>

4. The belief is firm in the prognostications of the "man of God". ~~Yeshua~~ Monoah and his wife who mistook the angel for an "angel of God" (v.16), do not for a moment doubt his word, but merely ask for further instruction. (13.6 ff.)

5. The Ephod and Teraphim are looked upon as legitimate objects of worship (17.5; 8.27b where the Ephod is considered as the cause of Israel's apostasy is undoubtedly of later origin). The Ephod and Teraphim were used in divination. (see *supra*). Hence divination by means of them was considered legitimate. In fact, the implication of 18.5-6 is that the Levite actually consults one or both of them and this consultation is called "inquiring of God". ~~for the sake of convenience~~.

6. The oracle (i.e. Ephod and Urim and Thummim) see *supra*) is the official means of divination, but it is probable that this is the product of a later hand. (cf. Moore, "Judges" ad loc.) It is, however, noteworthy that the oracle may give false and deceptive advice in order to serve the purposes of the deity. (20.23-25).

II. The Elohist and Yahwist Documents of the Hexateuch.

But for the more or less monochronic nature of the Book of Judges and the ease with which it can be treated, we might have included it also in our discussion of the J and E documents. These two documents may be treated collectively. Their theologies are on the whole identical. The pervading spirit of both J and E is well expressed in the following summary of Skinner: "Both (J and E) evince towards the popular cultus an attitude of friendly toleration with a disposition to ignore its cruder aspects" ("Genesis", Intro. L. Int. Crit. Comm.) What has been said concerning the attitude of the author of Judges towards divination holds equally good of the authors of J and E.

Acts of divination abound in them, but such acts which are intended to test the presence or power of the deity are condemned. (Ex. 17.17) the phrase — qđ. v. n. v. 7 — is char-

acteristic of divinatory questions. Num. 14.22 (J.). Both are convinced that dreams are instruments of revelation. Yahweh himself may appear in a dream (Gen. 20.3,6; 21.12 (c.f.v.14); 22.1 (cf.v.5); 28.10 ff; 31.11-13. (Esp. v.13 where the original reading is retained ~~וְיָהּוָה יְהִי~~ and v.24), and in a night vision (Gen. 15.1; 46.2; Num. 12.6.). All these references are from E and they show quite an advance over the more anthropomorphic theophanies of J. The Teraphim are looked upon by E, it is true, with a certain amount of contempt (Gen. 31) but it is not at all certain that their efficacy was doubted or that their employment as instruments of divination prohibited. The Ephod is mentioned neither in J nor in E. Whether this omission is intentional or accidental cannot be determined. To these facts may be added the following:

1. Divination through omens ~~וְיָהּוָה יְהִי~~ is not considered reprehensible by J. Joseph practices it (Gen. 44.5) and so does Laban. In neither case is the practice censured. Num. 23.23, ~~וְיָהּוָה יְהִי~~ does not belong to J E and is a later interpolation. (cf. Gray "Numbers" p.357, Int. Crit. Comm.) The efficacy of the practice is acknowledged. (Num. 24.1). ~~וְיָהּוָה יְהִי~~, LXX, observe.

2. E's theory of prophecy is noteworthy. It is concurrent with his concept of theophany. God speaks to his chosen ones in a dream or night-vision. So. Num. 12.6 declares: "And he said, hearken unto my words, if there be a prophet among you, I make myself known unto him in a vision, in a dream do I speak unto him". Moses is further contrasted with the ordinary, though true, prophet in that Yahweh speaks unto him clearly and intelligibly and not in doubtful and mysterious terms ~~וְיָהּוָה יְהִי~~ (v.8) Such a theory of prophecy is more or less oneiromantic. But it is significant that, already a higher though exceptional type of prophet is conceived in the character of Moses. Moreover, shamanizing as a characteristic of the Habiru is acknowledged by E. (Num. 11.25-30)

The description given of the prophetic frenzy which seized the elders of Israel is in no way different from that of the old Hebiim-guilds in the days of Samuel and Elijah. References to this mantic-possession is found also with Balaam (Num. 24.3, 4, 15, 16).

3. There are three direct references in the Hexateuch to the consultation of the oracle. (Gen. 25.22; Ex. 18.15 (both ~~verses~~) and Jos. 9.14). The first consultation is in the matter of legal disputes; the second, to interpret a birth-omen; the third, to learn the disposition of the deity in the matter of making a treaty with another people. (The deity was always consulted before a treaty-agreement, for he was a party to the contract. c.f. I K 20.33) The process or method of consultation is nowhere indicated. (Num. 27.21, where the Urim are mentioned belongs to P.) In the first instance the oracular response is given in rhythmic form, as was customary practice among many primitive peoples (cf. Wellhausen, Heid. p. 135).

III. Samuel.

The Books of Samuel are by no means consistent in their attitude towards divination. This is due to the later recensions which the original documents underwent. Of the older sources the following may be said: They conform, in the main, with the general tendency of J E. No real headway in the direction of reforming or spiritualizing divination is apparent. The henotheistic conception which pervades them (cf. I Sam. 26.19) makes such a reformation impossible. Saul consults the spirits of the dead who are acknowledged to be gods, (I Sam. 28.13) and whose power the author does not for a moment doubt. Yahweh has refused to answer Saul (v.6) He will consult other deities. The author does not rebuke Saul for it as did the Chronicler centuries later. (I Ch. 10.13-14.) The Teraphim, moreover, are still in the house of such a zealous Yahwist as David. (I. Sam. 19.13 ff.) - The Author's idea of revelation as expressed through dreams, Hebiim, Ro'im and Hozim needs no further expostulation.

But there are striking evidences in the books of a later age and of a truer spiritual monotheism. A later hand has revised the story of Saul's visit to the witch of Endor. He finds it necessary to plead this extenuating circumstance in Saul's behalf that the latter had removed, during the more peaceful days of his reign, all the *Oboth* and *Yiddhouim*, (I Sam. 28.3). His narrative implies that a sinful man cannot obtain an answer from God. This is quite an important and advanced idea. Again he states that there are only three legitimate ways of divining, (i.e. consulting Yahweh) (a) dreams (b) sacred lot (c) prophets. (*Ibid* v.6; v.15 makes no mention of b) While in a sense, this view is still pre-prophetic, it is important inasmuch as it illustrates the tendency to regard all other methods of divination as illegitimate. But a statement such as this: *כְּבָשָׂעַן פְּנֵי כִּי נֹפֵת עַל אֶת־יְהוָה* "Rebellion is as the sin of divining, and stubbornness like idolatry and Teraphim" (I Sam. 15.23) is surely prophetic or Deuteronomic and the imposing figure of Nathan, the prophet who denounces a king (II Sam. 12) seems likewise to be the work of a late hand.

IV. Kings.

The hand of the prophetic redactor is still more visible in the Books of Kings. The dream and the prophet (in the older connotation of the term) are now the recognized means of divination. The books nowhere mention the Urim and Thummim and nowhere employ the term *נְרִזְעָנִים* which refers to divination by means of the sacred lot. They do use, however, the term *נְבָנִים* which always implies the consultation of the deity through the medium of a prophet. (cf. I Sam. 9.9; I K 14.5; 22,5-7,8; II K. 3.11; 8.8; 22.13, 18; et al.) The preference for the one term over against the other is not accidental. The author is inclined to look with disfavor upon the use of material objects in fathoming the will of the divine. The Deuteronomic hand is also noticeable

menorah

of and yiddhoni

mizabeel

kesem

in the denunciation of the ~~sorcery~~ and ~~astrology~~ (II K 17.17) of the ~~fire~~ and the ~~one who consults with~~ ^{the} ~~astrologer~~ (ib.21.6) the Teraphim (23.24) and, indirectly, of astrology (23.5). The author attributes the suppression of illicit divination to Josiah (Ch.23) and bases the act on the authority of the newly discovered Book of Deuteronomy.

V. Chronicles.

doresh

~~by hukkah b'shal b'yad~~ The author of Chronicles shares the preference of ~~for~~ ^{the} ~~astrologer~~ in common with the author of Kings (with two exceptions, where he is quoting I Ch. 14.10-14). In fact, he substitutes the one for the other (cf. I Ch.10.14 with I Sam.28.6). Dreams and prophets are the two legitimate means of divination or revelation. The Chronicler ~~attributes~~ ^{ascribes} Saul's death and the change of dynasty, to the latter's sin (~~astrologer~~) in consulting the Ob. (I Ch. 10.13-14). It is significant to note that here as everywhere the Chronicler is profoundly influenced by the Priestly code. P (or rather H) contains three distinct injunctions against necromancy (Lev.19.31;20.6,27.), while all other forms of illicit divination ~~astrologers~~ are inveighed against but once (19.26). There is no mention of ~~astrologer~~ in P and so Chronicles are silent about it. So also with regard to Teraphim.

b. The Prophetic Writings.

The real intensity and bitterness of the struggle between spiritual monotheism and divination may be grasped from a study of the writing of the prophets. Their concept of the deity, of its spirituality and universality and of its relation to man, and, above all, their theory of revelation and inspiration, would inevitably make them the most relentless foes of all forms of divination which endanger the unity and spirituality of Yahweh and which presuppose a relation between man and God other than the moral one.

We may safely assume that already in pre-prophetic times, such forms of divination which were frankly heathenish were banned by the zealous anti-Baalists of the day. The defeat of Baalism resulted in the illegitimization of its entire cultus which, naturally, comprised various modes of vaticination.

But prophetism challenged not only the illicit, anti-Yahwistic system of divination but also, the recognized, official one. It endeavored to cleanse Yahwism of the divinatory superstitions which had survived from pre-Cananitish days and from those which, under Cananitish influence, had been incorporated into the Yahweh cult. The struggle was a long and bitter one, and success did not always attend the protagonists of ethical monotheism. Nor was their ultimate victory complete. The following outline will help us to gain an estimate of the important contribution of the literary prophets to the cause of anti-vaticination. — *Hosea - very poor*

1. Amos.

1. There are no clear references in Amos, pointing to the fact that he was opposed even to the cruder forms of divination just as there are no indications that he was opposed to the generally prevalent image-worship of his day. (Cf. Harper, "Amos and Hosea", Int. C XVI, Int. Crit. Comm.).

2. He repudiates, however, the insinuation that he is a member of the Nebiim-guilds (7.12-15) and defines his concept of the true prophet. This would imply that Amos does not recognize mantic possession as a true means of revelation.

2. Hosea.

1. Hosea is the first prophet who expressly denies the validity of the Ephod and the Teraphim as instruments of consulting the deity: "For it is many days that the sons of Israel shall sit still without king and without prince, without sacrifice and without pillar, without ephod and teraphim" (3.4). The verse lends itself to a double

interpretation, but we are inclined to think that it is more in keeping with the spirit of Hosea to consider his attitude towards them as antagonistic. (For a discussion of this verse see Harper op.cit.p.223). This opposition to the Ephod and Teraphim is fully in keeping with Hosea's general attitude towards idolatry. (13.2 et passim) ✓ Hosea denunciation of rhabdomancy ("My people consult their wooden blocks and their staff telleth them the oracle" 4.12), may be characteristic of his attitude toward all forms of divination.

3. Isaiah.

*They are
believe
Philistines*

It remained for Isaiah to direct the full force of his powerful invective against divination. He attributes God's abandonment of Israel to the fact: *בְּנֵי יִשְׂרָאֵל נַפְשׁוֹת* (2.6). The first half of the verse is obscure. As it reads it lacks an object. We would suggest *בְּנֵי יִשְׂרָאֵל נַפְשׁוֹת*. The two *בְּנֵי* and *נַפְשׁוֹת* usually go together. cf. Dt. 18.10; 14. (For Kosem among the Philistines, cf. I Sam.6.2.) For a consideration of this verse see Gray, "Isaiah", p.52 ff.)

Isaiah, in attributing these practices to the Philistines, daubs them as heathenish. (The people believed in the Kosem and Isaiah warns them that the time will come when Yahweh will remove him, on whom they rely so much, from their midst, (3.2). It is to be inferred from the verse that the Kosem occupied fully as important a position in the esteem of the people as the shofet and nabi and that belief in divination went hand in hand with faith in magic. ("the skilled in magic arts and the expert in charms" v.3).) Isaiah, again, is the first prophet to denounce all forms of necromancy. The denunciation occurs first in a fragment. (8.19) "And when they say unto you, consult the Oboth and Yidd'honim that chirp and that murmur, (ye shall say unto them) should not a people consult its God? on behalf of the living (should they consult) the dead?" (The reading is problematic). (Isaiah 19.3 states that the Egyptians, in

confusion, will consult the Ittim, the Oboth and Yidd'honim, thereby ascribing to this practice also a heathenish origin. It is doubtful, however, whether the passage can claim Isaianic authorship. There is undoubted reference to necromancy which is bound up with the belief in the spirits of the nether world in the following words of Isaiah. "Because ye hath said, we have entered into a covenant with death, and with the nether world have we made an agreement ----- Therefore thus hath said the Lord Eternal ----- Your covenant with death shall be annulled, and your agreement with the nether world shall not have permanence----"(28.15-18.)

4. Micah.

Micah is even more pungent than Isaiah in his attack on the Kosemim, and stronger than Hosea in his contempt for the Hozim. He draws a sharp and clear distinction between them and the true prophet of Yahweh: "Thus has Yahweh said concerning the prophets who lead my people astray, who when they bite with their teeth preach peace but if one puts not into their mouths they declare war against him. Therefore, it will be night for you without vision (*לֹרְנָה*) and darkness for you without divination, (*לֹרְפָה*)

... And the ~~seers~~ ^(גִּנְעָל) will be ashamed and the diviners ^(מִלְאַת) will blush and they will cover the upper lip, all of them, because there is no answer from God. But I am filled with might in that I am roused by the spirit of God, the spirit of justice and of moral power. So that I can tell Jacob his transgression, Israel his sin." (3.5-8). While he does not openly attack the priestly oracle, a doubt as to its validity is implied in his accusation that the priests manipulate it for sordid reasons. (3.11). The act of the Nobim is called *Keser* (ibid). Micah joins Isaiah in condemning the mōnenim and all kinds of magical practices. (5.11).

5. Zephaniah.

A word concerning Zephaniah. The prophet's invecting

against the worship of heavenly bodies (1.5), a practice quite prevalent in Israel (II K. 21.3,5,21; 23.5,12; et al), undoubtedly included an attack on astrology. The recognition of astral deities and star-gazing for purposes of divination go hand in hand. Zephaniah Moreover, threatens with God's dire punishment all who do not seek God יְהוָה נָא וְיִרְאֶה and who do not consult him. יְהוָה נָא v.6)

6. Jeremiah.

In Jeremiah, the movement against all forms of illicit as well as of licit of official divination reaches its crest. Jeremiah's is the fullest expression of the true prophet on the subject of divination. It goes without saying that he is bitterly opposed to practices unmistakably heathenish. He takes occasion to decry the ^{moreover} ^{ne Rashbiim} גַּגְגֵי along with the נִזְבֵּת (27.9) He denounces those who worship the heavenly bodies and those that consult them "And they shall spread them out before the sun, and the moon, and all the host of heaven, which they have loved, and which they have served and after which they have walked, and which they have consulted חֲבֵד וְנִזְבֵּת and to which they have prostrated themselves." (8.2. see also 7.18; 19.13; 44.17-25). Again in 10.2, Jeremiah urges the people not to follow the custom of the heathens and be afraid of heavenly signs or portents.

But it is against the official forms of divination that the sharpest barbs of the prophet's wrath are aimed. Jeremiah, in more than one sermon, clearly defines the nature of the true prophet. Ecstatic frenzy and possession are not the concomitants of true revelation. "Therefore, behold, I am against the prophets, saith the Lord, that steal my words every one from his neighbor----預言者, and mutter oracles". (23.30-31). Such prophets are false (v. v.16,21,25 et passim.) (Jeremiah even objects to the use of נִזְבֵּת as designating God's revelation to man. (vv 33-40). The word carried with it the implication of the method by which the frenzied nabi would obtain the oracle.) Jeremiah classes these

prophets along with the Kosemi . (14.14; 27.9; 29.8.)

Jeremiah is the first prophet who definitely denies the possibility of dream revelations. "The prophet that hath had a dream, let him relate his dream, and he that hath received my word, let him speak my word of truth; what hath the chaff to do with the corn? saith the Lord". (23.28) The dream is chaff in comparison with God's true revelation. And again: "I have heard what the prophets that prophesied falsely in my name have said: I have had a dream; I have had a dream!" (v.25). Jer. 27.9 is of interest inasmuch as it enumerates the entire list of diviners which Jeremiah denounced as false. "But ye -- do ye not hearken to your prophets ~~YHWH~~ and to your diviners ~~forsooth~~ and to your dreamers ~~aspirants~~ and to your soothsayers ~~soothsayers~~ and to your sorcerers ~~magicians~~ ----- (cf.29.8).

It is evident that Jeremiah denies not alone certain forms of divination, but divination per se. With the highest possible conception of man's spiritual relation to God, the idea of divination is robbed of all content. Man cannot and does not fathom the inscrutable will of the deity. Man cannot gain information from the deity on all matters in which he is interested. It is only in the moral life that man, seeking to rise ever higher on the spiritual plane, may be said to hold converse with the deity, and to divine its will by endeavoring to realize the moral ideals in life. This attitude is the natural and inevitable product of prophetism, of an ethical or spiritual monotheism.

Second

7. Ezekiel.

Ezekiel, of course, has little to add to the thorough-going view of Jeremiah. The latter failed, however, as he had failed in so many other instances, in impressing his view on the popular belief of the day; and Ezekiel had practically the same conditions to contend with as had Jeremiah. The ~~Hozims~~ ^W and the

Kosemim, who parade under the nomenclature of Nebiim come in for a share on Ezekiel's general condemnation of idolatry and superstitious beliefs and practices. (12.24;13 passim, et al.). Ezekiel, moreover, emphasizes this thought; viz. that no one who is in any way tainted with idolatry has a right to consult Yahweh or may anticipate a response from Him: "Son of man, these men have set up their idols in their heart, and the stumbling block of their ^{int}uitu^y have they placed before their faces; shall I in any wise let myself be consulted by them?" *בְּנֵי־הָעָם וְאֶת־יְהוָה* 14.3 cf also vv.4-11). Even in the mind of Ezekiel, Sheol is a realm over which Yahweh has little power. (26.19-21). It is not to be wondered, then, that necromancy was one of the most tenacious superstitions in ancient Israel. It is noteworthy that most of the Biblical references to the nether-world and its inhabitants are exilic or post-exilic. The belief must have received a powerful impetus in Babylonia and this may account for P's strenuous opposition to necromancy.

8. Other Prophetic Writings.

That the conflict was still raging in exilic and post-exilic times may be deduced from a perusal of the pages of some of the later prophets. Deutero-Isaiah declares: God "frustrates the tokens of the diviners (read *בְּבָבִילוֹן*. *bārū*, for *בְּבָבִיל*) and confuseth the Kosemim but fulfilleth the word of his servant and performeth the counsel of his messengers". (44.25-26). He derides the entire school of Babylonian diviners: "Thou art wearied in the multitude of thy counsels. Let now the astrologers (*נָבִיא* cf. supra, "astrology.") and star-gazers (*נָבִיא בְּנֵי־הַמְּלָאָכִים*) and the monthly prognosticators (*נָבִיא סְמִינָה*) stand up and save thee from the things that are to come over thee". (47.13).

The author of Is.58.2 supplements the view previously expressed by Ezekiel by insisting that the morally unfit have no right to consult God. "Yet me do they ever seek (*נוֹתָר*) day by day, and to know my ways do they always desire: as a nation

SUPPLEMENT.

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In dwelling upon the subject of sacred wells and the survival of heathenish rites among the Mohammedans, Goldziher narrates the following: "Bei einer der Quellen macht eine Negerin ein Pfannenfeuer, lässt darin einige Körner Weihrauch oder Benzoin knistern, den Dampf muss die den Zauber veranstaltende Person einathmen; dann werden die mitgebrachten Hühner geschlachtet und in den Sand geschleudert. Wenn die noch lebend ⁱsich fort-schleppenden Hühner das Meer erreichen, wird dies als günstiges Omen für die Erfüllung des Wunsches, dem das Opfer gilt, betrachtet; der Genius hat das Opfer wohlgefällig angenommen. Sterben aber die Hühner auf dem Sande und können sich nicht mehr bis zum Meere fortbewegen, so versucht man die Ceremonie von neuem, der Genius gilt also nicht besänftigt" (Muhammedanische Studien, p.347).

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The pronouncing of the name of the deity was an essential part of the ceremony. The deity was, in a sense, constrained to do the bidding of the worshipper, once His name was pronounced. (On the importance of this act, i.e. pronouncing the hidden name of the deity, among the Egyptians sorcerers and magicians, see Wiedemann. Rel. of The Ancient Egyptians, p. 269.

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It is very interesting to note that the title Ro'eh was applied to the Egyptian priests as well. "At Heliopolis", remarks Wiedemann (op.cit. p.10), "the head of the college of priests was known by the title of the "Great Seer" (~~seer~~ translation, "Great One of Seeings")".

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