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TWENTY-FOURTH VOLUME,
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A Dated Gandhāra Figure.—By Alfred William Stratton, late Principal of the Oriental College at Lahore, India.

[Alfred William Stratton, the author of the following paper, died in Kashmir in August, 1902. The MS. of the "Dated Gandhāra Figure" was presented to the Society at its annual meeting in April of that year, and but for the fact that the author wished to revise it, would have been published in the twenty-third volume of the Journal. It is apparent that his premature death prevented thorough revision on the part of the author, but the article seems well worthy of publication both as a contribution to science and as a memorial of a promising scholar. Dr. Stratton may have owed his position as Principal of the Oriental College at Lahore, in the Punjab, partly to the fact that he was of English blood, but native worth was the chief factor in determining the choice of an American professor to succeed Dr. Stein. In the short time that elapsed after he gave up his chair at the University of Chicago, to go to India, Dr. Stratton had already proved himself equal to the task assigned him and given evidence of his ability to enter successfully a new field of work. This paper is the first fruit of his brief stay in India—as, unhappily, it is the last.—Ed.]

With Dr. Vogel, the archaeological surveyor of the Punjab Circle, I spent a few days last April [1901] visiting places of archaeological interest in the Yūsufzai country. In Peshawar, Captain Waterfield, the Deputy Commissioner, showed us some pieces of Gandhāra sculpture which he had recently received from [near] Cārsadda. The largest and altogether the most interesting of these was a figure very much like the one discovered by Colonel Deane at Sikri (and now in the Lahore Museum),

1 See the note at the end of the article.—Ed.
which has been supposed to represent Hārīti. To this the newly-found figure was much inferior in execution, but a dated inscription in Kharoṣṭhī characters marked its importance for the determination of the age of the Gandhāra work. At Dr. Vogel's request, Captain Waterfield readily consented to place it in the Lahore Museum, where it now stands.

Captain Waterfield was unable to learn in what position the figure had been found. Dr. Vogel, however, intends soon to examine the remains in the neighborhood of Cārsadda, and will, no doubt, be able to ascertain the particulars of the discovery. The only inscribed pieces of Gandhāra sculpture hitherto found, the pedestal in the British Museum, of which an excellent photo-etching was given by Mr. Vincent A. Smith, in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, vol. lvi, plate x, and the pedestal in the Lahore Museum, described by Bühler in the Indian Antiquary, vol. xxv, p. 311, are from Cārsadda. It is to be hoped that careful search there will bring to light other dated pieces.

The new figure is cut in the blue slate that was regularly used for the sculptures of the Peshawar valley. The stone is in all four feet three inches long, but nine and a half inches at the base are uncut and must have been built into the structure it adorned: traces of the joining can indeed be seen. The back is plain.

This figure and the one discovered at Sikri evidently deal with the same subject. In each of them there is a child on each shoulder and one at the breast, and each of the children on the shoulders holds in one hand an object which, rudely cut in the new figure, seems in the other to be a pomegranate. In the new figure the woman (or goddess) holds in her right hand a bunch of grapes, to which a vine-leaf clings. Whether or not this would justify us in assuming that the earth-goddess is represented, I do not know. At any rate, it is a feature not characteristic of Hārīti.

Alike in subject, the two figures show little likeness in execution. In the earlier figure, of the children on the shoulders each holds by one hand to the mother's head; the one on the left is supported by the slight raising of her arm as her hand rests on her hip; one foot of the other is placed on the left shoulder of the third child, which she holds in her arm, its right hand cov-
ering the nipple of her right breast and its face turning upward in a natural way. In the new figure the children on the shoulders sit stiffly. Especially unnatural is the position of the one on the left, and one wonders how it can maintain its place on such a sloping seat. The third child buries its head in the mother's left breast, while its hands, raised above its head, lie flat against her garments.

In both figures the children are unnaturally small, but in the new one the disproportion is far greater than in the other. Only in this way, it would seem, could the sculptor indicate that they were children. Their heads, moreover, are small in proportion to their bodies, distinctly smaller in the new than in the earlier figure, where in the case of the child at the breast the head is of a natural size.

There is nothing of the child-look in the face of the one whose features can be clearly seen in the new figure. The hair of the one whose face is turned away falls in a thick mass to the neck, waving outward after a fashion that one sometimes sees now in grown men.

An utter lack of skill is shown in the proportions of the woman's figure. The position of her arms is stiff and unnatural. The draping of the outer garment is most crude: in fact, so far as I know, no other figure in the Lahore Museum is in this respect at all so poor. The workmanship of the Sikri figure is distinctly better: there can be little doubt that it is to be assigned to a much earlier period than the one found at Čär-sadda.

In the earlier figure the breast to which the child clings is uncovered, but in the Čär-sadda figure, arms and breast show designs that seem to represent a close-fitting sleeved jacket. A similar garment may be seen in the seated figure presented by Colonel Walker to the British Museum, which corresponds closely to I-šing's description of the figures of Hāriti. The dressing of the hair is another point of resemblance between these two. Here again the new figure suffers by comparison.

Below the left arm is found the inscription of which mention has been made. It is in two lines. The characters in the lower line are for lack of space shorter than those in the upper line, the width, on the other hand, being in general the same throughout. Toward the lower end, the left of the inscription,
the surface of the stone has been slightly cut away, but here also in continuation of the upper line are four or perhaps five Kharoṣṭhī characters. Unfortunately the surface is throughout uneven, and three slight depressions running parallel with the inscription add to the uncertainty of the reading. With regard to several of the characters, especially among those in the lower line, I am in doubt. For the present I give only the following tentative reading of the upper line, which records the date:

VASRA EKUNASITAŚATIMAE [or EKANAVITAŚATIMAE] AṢĀḌASA MASASA 4 BUDHAVARA

The sixth is one of the uncertain characters. The cutting is not of the same depth throughout. A pointed stick, following the groove in the stone from the lower right hand, stops before reaching the downward curve on the left, so that one might believe that there are two characters. I was at first inclined to read vi (navita for navati), but the likeness to the character in the inscription found by Lieut. Maxwell in 1882 leads me to believe that it should be read śi. There is a slight depression to the left of the lower end of the ka, which may be the sign of u.

Then follows what appears to be a single character. The curve, however, on the right is longer than on any ha that I have seen, nor could that syllable be found in the record of the year. I accordingly prefer to regard it as a blending of ta and śa.

The next character is looped. There can be no doubt, I believe, that it is ti. On my impression of the Twelfth Edict of Asoka at Shābbāṣgarh I find a similar loop in the character at the end of the second line. The word śattimae is clear on the inscription of Guduphara.

Two forms of sa occur in the first line; a third, closed as in the inscriptions of Asoka, is probably to be seen at the end of the inscription.

The surface, uneven everywhere, is particularly rough in the depressed part, where only one line is engraved. The determination of the meaning is very difficult. After much hesitation I now read the word budhavara. The first character is more like va than ha. At the upper end of the second there is traceable on the stone a slight curve to the left which cannot be
seen in the photograph: I judge that dh is intended. The third and fourth va ra are clear. Beyond these there is a distinct upright cutting, which merges into a shallow curve running upward to the left: this, I judge, cannot belong to the record of the date.

If the above reading is correct, the figure was set up on Wednesday, the 4th of the month Āśādha in the year 179 (or 191). I find no mention of the lunar fortnight in which the reckoning was made. The month is now reckoned in the Punjab from full moon to full moon. This, I presume, may be supposed to have been the practice in the early centuries of our era. The date would then be the fourth day after the full moon.

The inscription found by Dr. Bellew, at Takht-i-Bahāi, records that the year 103 of an unnamed era fell in the twenty-sixth year of the reign of King Guduphara. The beginning of this era cannot be placed much earlier or later than the year 57 B.C., and it may well be that the reckoning was made by the Vikrama era. Nor is there any good evidence that more than one era was referred to in the dated inscriptions of the Gandhāra country. We may yet obtain records that will enable us to determine absolutely whether or not it was the Vikrama era that was adopted in these reckonings.

The first table in Sewell’s and Dikshit’s “Indian Calendar” does not include calculations for the first three centuries after Christ, but by the use of Professor Jacobi’s thirteenth and fourteenth tables in the seventeenth volume of the Indian Antiquary and Sewell’s and Dikshit’s third table it may be found that the fourth day after the full moon of Āśādha in the (expired) Vikrama year 179 (but not 191) fell on a Wednesday. I must add, however, that I am not at all sure of the correctness of such a calculation, since the results arrived at by that method for later years did not always agree with the calculations of the “Indian Calendar.”

Allowing for all the uncertainty there is in the record of the date, it may safely be said that the work was executed not later than the first half of the second century after Christ; that is to say, earlier than the year 200 of the Vikrama era or an era nearly coincident with it. The figure from Sikri with which it has been compared must have been made considerably earlier. If this is so, Professor Senart’s arguments in his discussion of
the age of the Gandhāra work in the Journal Asiatique are confirmed, while the dates assumed by Mr. Vincent A. Smith in his article in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal must be definitively given up.

Through the kindness of Mr. Percy Brown, curator of the Lahore Museum, I am able to send the three photographs that accompany this paper; (I) the new figure; (II) the inscription on a larger scale, from a plaster cast; (III) the figure found by Colonel Deane at Sikri.

Lahore, February 12th, 1902.

[In a letter to Dr. Stratton dated the 20th March, 1902, i.e. after this MS. had been sent to America, Dr. Vogel describes more exactly the place where the above-mentioned figure was found as being Skārah Dheri (or Derl), eight and one-third miles north from Cārsadda, which is the distance (but not the exact direction) mentioned by Cunningham, A.S.R. ii, p. 90. from Cārsadda ("Pushkalavatī Stūpa") to "a small Stūpa where Buddha had converted the mother of the demons." Dr. Vogel adds that the image shows some resemblance to the Lokapāla-statues, a fine specimen of which is in the Lahore Museum (Grünwedel 127) and another "here (at Mardān) in the Mess." As to the date, Mr. Percy Brown, in a letter to Dr. Stratton dated 18th March (1902) says: "My impression is that that inscription is not contemporaneous with the figure; it has been added later. The slightly concave nature of the surface of that portion of the statue is in itself rather suspicious. This is always found in inscriptions that have been super-imposed; it is necessary, in order to get a suitable surface to work upon. But a still more convincing fact is the very evident sign of there having been originally folds of drapery where the writing is now incised. However, the date you have read, the first half of the second century after Christ, is about the date I should have reckoned the sculpture was carved, judging by the other specimens in the Museum; but of course that is only guesswork, whereas your date is conclusive. The inscription may have been added only a few years after the carving." These letters, together with the original MS. of the article, which had been left almost untouched by Dr. Stratton at the time of his death, were kindly forwarded by Mrs. Stratton to the editors of this Journal in December, 1902. The argument above would be affected by the modification of Guduphara's date suggested by Bhandarkar in the Journ. Bomb. Branch R.A.S., 1900, p. 27 ("Gondophares began to reign in 155 A.D."); but this date is extremely doubtful.—Ed.]
Epic Chronology.—By E. Washburn Hopkins, Professor in Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

This essay is the third installment1 in the series announced in this Journal, vol. xxiii, p. 109. It was presented to the Society at its annual Easter meeting in 1902, but in the Journal of that year other publications took so much space that the editors thought it best to postpone this publication till the next year. In the interval I have received two works on the chronology of India touching directly on epic data. They are of very different character. The first is the Chronology of Ancient India, by Mr. Velandai Gopala Aiyer, B.A., in which are discussed the beginning of the Kali Yuga and the date of the Mahābhārata war. This is a very ingenious attempt to establish the date of the war as beginning Oct. 14, 1194 B.C., though “the epic was cast into its present form more than a thousand years after the date of the war” (p. 98). The date 1194 B.C. is reached by a series of eleven converging arguments, based on (1) the Vedāṅga Jyotisā, which points to the beginning of the Kali Yuga as approximately 1173 B.C.; (2) a statement of Garga, which points to the beginning of the Yuga as occurring a few years before 1165 B.C.; (3) classical historians, whose figures point to 1177–6 as the beginning of the Yuga; (4) The Malabar era, which indicates for the same event 1176 B.C.; (5) details of the epic which, if the Yuga began at the winter solstice preceding 1176 B.C., would indicate 1194 B.C. as the date of the war; (6) the Rājatarāṅgini tradition, which indicates the dates of the war to be about 1190 B.C.; (7) a statement of Āryabhaṭa to the effect that the Rṣis were in Maḥā in Kali 1910, i. e. 1192 B.C.; (8) the average duration of Hindu reigns, which also would indicate about 1193 B.C. as being the date of the war; (9) Garga’s stanza cited in the Brhat Saṃhitā, which leads (? cf. IA. viii, p.

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1 Compare also the syntactical paper evolved from the same series and published separately, AJP. vol. xxiv, p. 1 f.; and the note on the same subject at the end of this paper.
66) to the same conclusion; (10) the first year of the Brhaspati cycle of sixty years, corresponding to the date as given by Garga, i.e. 1194–3 B.C.; (11) a stanza of the epic, fixing the day of the winter solstice occurring soon after the war, which, in connection with the elements of the Jyotisa, would indicate that the war took place in the latter part of 1194 B.C. The exact day is then deduced from other epic verses.

A glance at this array of arguments shows that they fall into two divisions, in one of which is sought the date of the Kali Yuga, and in the other the date of the epic as based on the date of the Yuga. Important as is the general contention, for the purpose of the present essay only the latter division comes into account, and in this division only the arguments numbered 5 and 11 above. These points will be briefly considered in their proper place in the course of this paper, but I have thus outlined Mr. Aiger's contention in advance, that their bearing might be understood. In regard to the whole theory I can see no objection to the conclusion that tradition points to the twelfth century as the date of the Bharata war; but it is possible that the details of the epic should be considered as based on tradition rather than as furnishing it, and that this tradition referred originally to a great Bharata war rather than to the special Pandu war with which the epic really has to do. That the heroes of the present epic lived in the twelfth century B.C. seems to be historically impossible, if for no other reason at least for this, that the Pandus as such are unknown till long afterwards.

Of a very different sort is the symbolic interpretation of epic epochs and eras deduced from a general theory of Hittite and Akkadian supremacy in pre-historic times by J. F. Hewitt in his History and Chronology of the Myth-making Age, which is the second work referred to above. A few examples will suffice to show the character of the "chronology" evolved out of a symbolic interpretation of the epic: A year of eleven months and another of seventeen months, divided into seven-day weeks, are discovered to be latent in the fact that the Kurus have eleven and the Pandus seven aksāhinīs (armies), in-

1 Compare the argument as reported in the Secretary's correspondence in the Proceedings for April 1908, at the end of the second half of this volume of the Journal.
interpreted as "monthly revolutions of the axle." The eldest Kuru was Duryodhana, who brayed like an ass at his birth, thus showing him to be the son of the divine (epoch-making) three-legged ass. Duryodhana's car was drawn by mules, "thus showing him to belong to the race born from the union of the sun-horse and ass." The thirteen-month year was brought to India during the rule of Kansa. Kansa is the same as Hansa, the goosesgod of the Ugro-Altaic Finns (Ugro is Sk. ُغُرُ) ; so Su-bhadra means the Su-bird, Su is Akkadian-Egyptian Khu (mother-bird). The epic shows all the changes from the pole-star epoch to the solar epoch of reckoning. The year of seventeen months ended and the eighteen-month year began at the epic sacrifice of the (sun-)horse, 10,200 B.C., and the eighteen books of the epic symbolize the eighteen-month year (of twenty-day months), which was the outcome of the Pandus' victory. This was the year which was taken from India to Mexico in the Bronze Age. The epic is an allegorical history of India from the Neolithic to the close of the Bronze Age and represents the period of the years of eleven, fifteen, thirteen, and seventeen months each. Pārthas (sons of Prthā) are Parthians. Despite the date of the horse-sacrifice at which he is present, Yudhishthira himself was born in May, 12,200 B.C. Here, as the learned author sorrowfully admits, "there is a difficulty" about the exact date! But that Karna is the "horned lunar-solar god of the three-year cycle," and that Gandhari (from gan, 'land,' and dhari, 'wetter') is the goddess Dharti, the star Vega, in the constellation of the Vulture, now Lyra, which was the pole-star from 10,000 to 8,000 B.C., admits not even of an interrogation point.¹ The reader will readily see why a modest study like mine can dispense with any discussion of such conclusions as these, interesting as they are. I turn now to a study of epic chronology based not on fancy but on facts.

NEGATIVE TIME; INDEFINITE PERIODS.

God, as Great Time, Mahākāla, a late-epic epithet of Śiva, and as All-time, is also Not-time, akālaḥ ca 'tikālaḥ ca daśkālaḥ kāla eva ca, xii. 285. 143 (after akālaḥ kelikaḥ kalih ; cf.

Mait. Up. vi. 15), or, otherwise, the destruction of time in the reabsorption of the universe, *pratyāhāra*; though elsewhere (loc. cit., Great Epic, p. 189) Time is the destroying Lord. As with space, the word *antara*, interval, when in negative form, expresses negative time, “there was no interval,” etc. The word itself is combined with “winking,” in a colloquial form. Thus, *nimesāntaramātrena*, “in the measure of a wink’s interval” (space of a wink), vii. 98. 37, etc. The wink is the twinkling of an eye (expressly), *okaṣṇunimesamātrena*, xii. 321. 11; *yāvad aksiṇimesāni*, xiii. 100. 41; *aksiṇo nimesamātrena*, vii. 51. 17; and, as with us, it may be cut in half, though the latter phrase is rare, *nimesārdhāt*, “in half a wink,” viii. 25. 13; *madhyāhne vai nimesārdham* (*tiṣṭhasti tvām divākara*), “at noon (O sun, thou standest still) half a wink,” xiii. 96. 6. 1 More common than “half a wink” is *muhūrtakam*, which in colloquial language as diminutive of *muhūrta* (*muhuḥ =mox*) has no reference to hour but means a little time, *tuṣṭim āśin muhūrtakam*, R. vii. 13. 15, Gorr., but not in Bomb. ed.; *Mbh*. i. 133. 2, *tiṣṭha tāvan muhūrtakam*, “stop just a moment.”

In iv. 48. 2 and 3, a moment is expressed first by a breathing, *uṣevāsamātram*, and then by a wink, *nimesamātram*, both being followed by *api*, as marking the shortest time (at death, *antakāle*); in v. 79. 20, by *lavaśaḥ kṣaṇaḥ ca *pi*.

The indefinite non-technical nature of these terms shows itself in the exchange of *nimesa* with *nimesamātrena*, for example in xii. 313. 6; and in the phrase *muhūrtam iva*, “momentarily,” compared with *muhūrtaiṁ suhjyutām*, “a short time,” ib. 319. 9. The *muhūrta* in iii. 297. 7 appears with *vēḷa*, period of time, as well as *kṣaṇa*, another indefinite word for moment. The eighth *muhūrta*, noon, *kutapa*, is called *abhijit* and is mentioned by this name in R. Gorr. vi. 112. 70; but the corresponding passage in *Mbh.*, iii. 291. 66, has only the day and asterism. 2

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1 Compare Vas. xi. 36: *divamanayo śame bhāge mandōbhavati bhāṣaka-raham, sa kālaḥ kutapo nāma* (see the next note). So (epic) vii. 99. 1, where the sun “goes slow as it turns in its course (at midday) to the west.”

2 In xiii. 64. 27 *abhijita* (*yoga*) is mentioned as the twentieth lunar asterism; the same word occurring in i. 123. 6 in the other sense of *abhijit*, the eighth (noon) hour: *āndre candrasamāyukte mūhūrte*
The flight of an arrow also measures a short indefinite period of time (as the stick-cast measures space). Thus in ixi. 296. 32: ἵππος ἀντίκειται πρὸς ἀρμοδίως ὀπίσθιον, "sensual pleasure is said to be (short-lived as) the measure of an arrow’s flight"; ib. 321. 11, ἑλεφαντραγοθαλάσσει, "going the pace of a light arrow", i. e. in a moment; ib. 328. 30, γιαθά δόειν γυναικόταμ (ἐφάκταμ), (swift) "as a cord-sped arrow."

But as the indefinite sense of nimesa is lost in the formal timetable, so with other small divisions. In v. 109. 4, as typical divisions are named the truti and lava; the former being joined with kalā, portion, ksanta, glance, and nimesa, wink, as "hairs of Time," in xii. 322. 25. Of these, ksanta,1 etymologically meaning a "look" or "glance," is, like nimesa, a moment, and so a moment of leisure (ksanta, "at leisure," ii. 13. 48), whence comes a name for the giver of leisure, Night, ksantulā, a late word, found in viii. 1. 8. Characteristic of the later didactic epic is the fact that it uses the ending rātra as an independent word, trīyā rātra ypośiśā tēna pāpād vimarṣyate, in the jargon of this period, xiii. 136. 11.

Time-periods casually mentioned or enumerated in various passages of Śānti, xii. 137. 21; 227. 97 (repeating, as a section, 224) and also xii. 166. 14, do not present the ordered progression of the time-table, but juxtapose kāsthā, kalā, mukhūta, divā, rātra, lava (before month, half month, season, aeon, year); or ahorātra, month, ksanta, kāsthā, lava, kalā (all acc., followed by sampādayati yah kalā viddhi śaradvaśiko yathā, "Time adds up days etc. as a usurer adds up his increase," 227. 97); or, in the order of creation, years, seasons, months, half months, lavas and ksantas. In ii. 11. 37 (also late), divā is nom., as above.

The lava is a bit (sakt.uprasthalaśa, xiv. 90. 115), or minute "cut" of time, corresponding loosely to our minute in ordinary speech. God is praised as all time in i. 25. 14,

1bhījaśe śaśena, divā madhyagata śūrya tithān parṣye tipaśte. Here āndra is the asterism Jyeṣṭhā and madhyagata śūrye is "at midday." Compare xii. 336.38: madhyagataḥ icchā dīṭam, "like the midday sun" (metrically altered).

1 So too the compound of this word, abhīṣyaṃ, every moment, too much, i. 78. 9; 100. 60; xii. 86. 29 (bhīṣyaṃ uś). Compare anrakṣyaṃ in Yaś. iii. 21. for the adverbial use in kṣayena, "in a glance" (moment).
tvam mühūrtaṁ tithis tvāṁ ca tvāṁ lavas tvāṁ punah kṣaṇah
śuklas tvāṁ bahuḷas tvāṁ ca kalā kāśṭhā trūṭiś tathā,

where bahula is a poetical equivalent of the dark half of the month, and trūṭi is a fractional bit of time. The mühūrta, in ordinary language a moment, in the formal time-table of the epic is an hour of forty-eight minutes. “They say that in the evening, pārvarātra, the twilight hour, mühūrta, except for eighty lavas, is devoted to demons, the remainder, ṣeṣam anuyat,¹ to men,” i. 170. 8–9. Another passage states that “after midnight” is the time when demons roam about: rātraṁ niśithe tv
abhīte gatē ṛdhasamaye, nyam, pracāre paṇaṣadānāṁ rakṣasāṁ
ghorakarmāṁ, iii. 11. 4. The former passage is to be com-
pared with i. 154. 22, which says that the whole twilight, saṃdhya, is rāudra mühūrta. Besides the rāudra, after sun-
set, mühūrte ramyadārūne, iii. 1. 45 (both “fair and horrible”), the noon hour, abhūja (kutaṇa), above, and the brāhma
mühūrta, the hour before sunrise, are mentioned, xiii. 104, 16 (= apararātreyu, “at the end of the night,” ii. 5. 29).

Little can be learned of the relative length of these periods as mentioned generally in the epic. They appear to be designations of short times as indefinite as twinkling and moment. Nor does the order in which they are mentioned in other places help in this matter, for sometimes one and sometimes another precedes. In xiii. 14. 185, the order is day, half day, mühūrta, kṣaṇa, lavo; and ib. 395, nakṣatraṁ, grahaḥ,¹ māsārdhanāṁ ṛthavo
rātrih saṁvatsarāṁ kṣaṇah, mühūrtaṁ ca nimeṣāṁ ca tathā ’ca
yugapargyāyaḥ. The “year, season, half month, day and night, akorātra, kalā, kāśṭhā, mātrā, mühūrta, lavo, kṣaṇa,” make
the list of xiii. 159. 32, which brings in the mātrā, mora. This is found also in xiii. 17. 141 f., where the list is season, year,
month, half month, pakṣa (Śiva as “number-effecting,” saṁkhyāsaṁyapanaḥ, is explained by N. as effecting saṁkranti and
the new and full moon days), kalā, kāśṭhā, lavo, mātrā, mühūrta,
day, night, kṣaṇa.

Besides being an astronomical period or course (of the sun), as in xii. 51. 15, the kāśṭhā (copied from Kātha Upaniṣad, iii. 3,

¹ Compare (tad)ahāḥṣeṣam, xiii. 19. 101 : 20. 9.
² Compare xii. 285. 128, where also mepakāla is mentioned (saṁvarta-
kalādāhakaḥ) and the yugāvarta, 144–153 (see below).
sā kāśthā sā parā gatiḥ) is found in a non-technical sense in xiii. 16. 57, iyaṁ sā paramā kāśthā iyaṁ sā paramā kalā... iyaṁ sā paramā gatiḥ. The Upaniṣads otherwise, it may be remarked, have the list, day, night, month, year, kalā.muhūrtāh kāśthās ca, but not till Mahānār. i. 8.

**DEFINITE DIVISIONS.**

Nevertheless, the pseudo-epic has its regulated time-table, xii. 232. 12 f. It is in a lone triṣṭubh stanza, which has been introduced into the poem at a period later than Manu, whose general scheme is followed, but with this important difference, that the epic agrees in detail with the later Puranic view rather than with Manu; excelling the latter also in exactitude. It is as follows (sc. gaṇayet, “one may reckon”):

| 15  | nīmeṣas | make one kāśthā |
| 30  | kāśthās | “ “ kalā |
| 30  | kalās   | “ “ muhūrtas |
| 30  | muhūrtas | “ “ day and night |
| 30  | days and nights | “ “ month |
| 12  | months | “ “ year (of two semesters, ayane). |

Manu’s account, i. 64, differs from this in ascribing to the kāśthā eighteen nīmeṣas, instead of the epic and Puranic (VP. i. 3. 7) fifteen; nor does the law-book add to the thirty kalās that make a muhūrtā the epic’s one tenth: triṇāṭkalās cā ’pi bhaven muhūrtāḥ bhāgaḥ kalāyā daśāmaḥ ca yaḥ syāt.

According to this table, the nīmeṣa is about one-fifth of a second; the kāśthā, about three seconds; the kalā, about a minute and a half; and the muhūrtā, just forty-eight minutes. On kalā as a fraction, see this Journal, xxiii, p. 135. For a Brāhmaṇa calculation of time-divisions, see ŚB. xii. 3. 2. 1–5.²

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¹ But it differs from that later division (not recognized at all in the epic) by which the Hindu hours and minutes are exactly inverted as compared with ours, that is (instead of a day of twenty-four hours of sixty minutes each) a day of sixty hours, nādis, gaṭikās, of twenty-four minutes each (ahorātraḥ gaṭakāṭikābhiḥ, N. to ii. 11. 89).

² This Brāhmaṇa recognizes half-months of fifteen days, twelve and thirteen months; three, five, six, and seven seasons, i. 8. 3. 8 f.; ii. 2. 3. 26 f., etc. The table (referred to above) in the twelfth book (cf. x. 4. 3. 8) has the muhūrtā as above, one thirty-sixth of a day; and the nīmeṣa; but this is cal-
But, before proceeding with the greater divisions of time added to the table, it will be necessary to take up in more detail the last three divisions of the scheme already given.

**DAY AND NIGHT.**

Tacitus says of the Germans' view, nox ducere diem videtur. The Polynesians and New Zealanders to-day always count by nights, and the Babylonians originally made the whole day begin with the evening. According to the Vedic views represented by the Brähmana period, AB. viii. 15. 2; SB. ii. 4. 2. 3; x. 6. 4. 1, and by MS. i. 15. 12, it is not quite certain that night was the norm of time. It is true that night generally precedes when days and nights are mentioned together, but on the other hand, in contrast to space, dyāvah, time is reckoned as "days" in RV. iii. 32. 9, "nor days, nor months, nor years" (harvests). Yet since we find also "nights and years," iv. 16. 19, and this view prevails, it may, perhaps, be regarded as the more primitive Aryan norm of short times. It is the Avestan method of measuring, and Dr. Bolling has lately shown that in Homer also the day is reckoned from sunset to sunset. How long such a method may continue under favoring circumstances was well known a few years ago to the boys of New England, whose weekly holiday ceased sharply as the Sabbath began, at sundown on Saturday!

In the great Hindu epic, an inheritance of stereotyped formulas somewhat affects precedence in the phraseology of the poets, who use ahoratra, divaratra, but also rātryaṇi. Generally speaking, night is the favorite word in compounds such as tri-ratra, saptaratra, daksharatra; but the alternate forms are used as well, ekaha, saptadin, etc., and the same passage may give precedence to both words, as, for example, in xii. 124. 16, ekaratraṇa, tryaṇa, saptaratraṇa, prthivim pratipedire. "Several days" is saptā ḫaḥāni, i. 92. 15, and niśāniṣam and

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2 AJP. xxiii, p. 428 f.

Culated otherwise, as a subdivision of kṣipras, etarhis, idānis, and breathings (=nimeṣas), arranged in multiples of fifteen. Here the year has three, five, six, or seven (Vedic) seasons; twelve or thirteen months; three hundred and sixty days; ten thousand eight hundred mukṛtas; etc. On the sixty-hour division in the Rig Veda, see Zimmer, AIL., p. 363, and Ludwig's note to RV. 1. 123. 8.
divāniṣam are used indifferently. So in other phrases, sārıyā-
gnīṇā rātridvendhanena, “with the sun as fire, night and day as kindling-wood,” xii. 322. 92; rātrāv ahāni saṁdhyaśu, “night, day, twilights,” xiii. 115. 28; prabhāte ca sāyaṁ ca, “morn and eve,” iii. 305. 10; sāyaṁ prātaś ca, “eve and morn,” iii. 200. 83; xiii. 78. 9; āhunīṁ caī’va nāśaṁ ca duḥ-
kham, “daily and nightly sorrow,” v. 110. 14; avasaṁ tatra 
saptarātram, āṣaṁ “hāni samprāpte, “they stayed there a 
sennight, on the arrival of the eighth day,” iii. 158. 22 f.; āṣā-
dāśāha, rayoviṇātiratā, āṣāvinātiratā, xv. 10. 30; xii. 
46. 14; iv. 36. 3, respectively.

But it is formally stated in xiv. 44. 2, that, as the bright for-
tnight of the moon precedes the dark fortnight, so day precedes 
night:

ahāḥ pūrvam tato rātrir māṁśāḥ suklaṁdayaḥ smṛtah
śravaṇādīni rkaṁi ṛtavaḥ śiśīrādayah,

“the day comes first, then the night; the months begin with the 
bright fortnight; the asterisms begin with Śravaṇa; the seasons 
begin with (the cool time) Śiśira.” Moreover, dēvah, to-morrow, 
always in practice refers to a day that begins in the morning, 
not at sunset, and “half the day” is measured from the sunrise. 
On the other hand, it is formally stated in xiv. 44. 18, that days 
end at sundown, ahāny astamayāntāni, and night ends at sun-
rise, udayaṁta ca sarrarī (as “joy ends in sorrow and sorrow 
ends in joy”); but here the “day” is the bright part of the 
whole time. Light ends in darkness as darkness ends in light, 
is the whole meaning; probably without thought of defining the 
(following) day as beginning with evening.

Besides the restriction of the border-period, velā, of the twi-
lights, pūrvā and paścimā,1 day and night are divided into fore,

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1 But velā is a general hour; sarvāsā velāśu, “at all hours,” iii. 305. 3 
(paścimā velā, iii. 65. 5). ‘At dawn’ is sarvaryām (or another word for 
night) prabhātāyām, vyuṣṭāyām, vyatitāyām; or prabhāte, prage, 
vimale, uṣasi, uṣasya- uṣasyodhā bhārateyaś ca, xiii. 76. 18. On āva-
bhāte, etc., see the last paper in this series, Journal, xxiii, p. 351. In 
the formal definition of the BS. xlvii. 21, the saṁdhya is from half-sunset 
(when the sun is half under) till the stars become visible (not yet bright), 
and from their fading till half-sunrise: ardhāstamayāt saṁdhya, 
yak-tībhūtā na tārakā yāvat: teṣāḥparihānimukhāh, bhānor ardhodayah 
yāvat. See below on the correlation of this division of the day with the 
corresponding century-saṁdhya in the scheme of ages.
mid, and after parts, pūrvāḥna, madhyāhna (madhyaśidina), aparāḥna; pūrvarātra, etc., the only measured period being the saṁdhyās, twilights (of one hour and twelve minutes, as reckoned later). Compare viii. 91. 51; xii. 207. 29; and xii. 224. 53 f.:

\[
\text{ṛtun māśārdhamāśānē ca divasaṁē ca kṣayāṁś tathā}
\]
\[
pūrṇāḥma aparāḥmaś ca madhyāhnaṁ api cā 'pare
\]
\[
mahārām api cā 'vā 'hur ekam sautam anekadhā
\]
\[
tam kālam iti jānīhi yasya survam idanān vāke,
\]

where Time and Fate, bhavītavayam, set at naught the doctrine of sin working out in a new birth (ib. 32, parallels, Great Epic, p. 103). In iii. 65. 6; xii. 304. 3, etc., arāmarātra is midnight (also niśitha) instead of madhyarātra, as used in the epic, xv. 5. 34, where, after prātar, pradosa, aparātra have been mentioned, the king is told to have his vīhāra at midnight and midday, madhyarātra, madhyāhna. Manu, vii. 151 (in the same connection) uses arāmarātra.1 Evening has more names than any other division of the day, of which saṁyam, saṁyāna, is most current, as in the phrase, common to both epics, yatra saṁyagṛha, one whose house is where evening finds him, i. 13. 12, etc.; R. ii. 67. 23. The beginning of evening (when fire-flies are out, vii. 15. 18) is currently pradosa (niśāmukha); “late in the afternoon” is mahat aparāhna, i. 190. 47. Compare ĀB. ii. 15. 8; Manu iv. 129, mahāniśi, and xii. 322. 73: kṛṇākāryam aḍya kuruṭa (“do to-day to-morrow’s duty”) pūrṇāhena cā \text{parānhikam} (“do in the morning the work of the afternoon”). Compare ŚB. ii. 1. 3. 9, “put not off till to-morrow; for who knows man’s morrow?”

The three watches of the night are alluded to in a stanza which speaks of one night of three watches, triyāmā raṇī, as being so fearful as to seem like a thousand watches, sahasrayā-maṇḍatimā, vii. 184. 14. Vālmiki expresses the same idea, R. ii. 62. 17 (G. 63. 17), and his imitator, G. ii. 10. 17, triyāmā rātrih . . . varṣāṇaṭopamā (omitted in the Bomb. ed. 13. 15); and it is found again in more modern form in the Mbh. viii. 1. 8,

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1 But a Yogin meditates in the fore-part, pūrvarātra, and sleeps in the middle of the night, madhyarātra, rising within an hour after this, xii. 336. 48. Compare xii. 239. 39.
The last watch of the night includes the *muhūrtta* of Brahman (or Prājāpatya, as in Vas. xii. 47), alluded to above.

The formal rule for the king is that he shall sleep two watches and rise in the third *yāma*, ii. 5. 85. In xii. 53. 1, "he woke half a watch before day" is expressed by

*yāmanātrārdhaśeṣāyaṁ yāmīnaṁ prayāyabhyata,

where *yāma* gives the name to *yāminī*, night. A corresponding division of the day is apparently alluded to in xiv. 39. 18,

*ahas tridhā tu vijñeyām tridhā rātrir vidhiyate,

though years and conjunctions of seasons also, *varṣāṁ, suunādhayaḥ*, are here made three-fold, by virtue of the all-pervading *guṇas*. The natural three-fold division of the day, morn, or sunrise, *sūryadarsana*, noon, *kutapa*, and evening, of many names, is implied in the conventional use of a ritualistic formula; so that we find not only *trīvelam*, "three daily," but also *saptatrisavaṇaṁ suvatrā* xiii. 136. 18, "bathing three times a day for a week." Sunrise gives a number of expressions indicating that the time for man to be up is already passed when the sun is up: *utṣūryaśāyin, abhyuditaśāyin* (like *pracāya, pragniśa*), used of lazy people, opposed to early risers, *kalyan utthāya, kalyothāna, prātār utthāya*, etc., as in xiii. 130. 9; 146. 48; xv. 11. 11. The word *sun* is not necessary. Thus, "at or before sunrise" is simply *udaye or udite ṛṣudite vā pri*, xii. 60. 49. An hour after sunrise is *muhūrtojāta ādīte*, i. 126. 12. There is probably no sharp distinction between the periods loosely indicated by "brightness." Thus *praḥāte* is usually the first dawn (as in *niśi prabhāṣayām*, "when night grows light"), but in i. 21. 1 we find *tato rajjunāṁ vṛṣṭaḥ ṛṣabhāte *bhūdite varām "when dawn had dawned,

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1 Cf. iii. 164. 13 (grief made every night and day seem like a year). Conversely, in iii. 176. 5, four years of joy pass "like one night."

2 I have noticed in the epic no "fourth watch," such as is found in the classical period, e. g. in the BS. xxx. 3 ṛ, and Harṣacarita, to mark the time before dawn. Thus in Harṣacar. 166, the fourth watch, before dawn: and in 228, at the end of the third watch, eight strokes mark the number of leagues in the day's march. The modern Hindus divide the day also into watches, *pahars*, of three hours each.
and morning had come, and the sun had risen." The sun "sets" is usually expressed by "goes home," *astam upāti savitā* (at sunset, *astaim gacchati bhāskare*; just after sunset, *sūrye 'stam ite sati*, "being gone," ix. 29. 64 and 87; the sun sets twice on this day!), but this is sometimes filled out with the word hill, *sūryo hy astam abhyagamad girim*, i. 24. 10.

Of short combination of days, *saptarātra*, sennight, is colloquial, interchanging with *saptāna* divasaḥ, seven or eight days, the former perhaps more common: *saptarātraṇa mṛtyu-bhāk*, "he will die within a week," xii. 318. 13 (amongst the *ariśṭāni*, "death-signs"), etc. But ten days also make a group and three and its multiples are more common in the ritual, *tri-rātra, tryaha, saṇḍrātra, dvaḍaśaura*, periods of three, six, and twelve days. The fortnight, *ardhamasa*, māsārdha, *paka*, is not regarded as a group of days but as half a moon, or the one wing, division, of a month, *pūrva* and *apara*, xiii. 87. 19 = Manu iii. 278.

In accordance with a "Veda-word" (cf. ŚB. xii. 2. 2. 23) there is a formal equation of the year with a day and night in iii. 52. 23:

*aḥorātraṇa mahārāja tulyaṁ saṁvatsaraṇa ha*,

which may be compared with the ritualistic substitution of a month for a year, ib. 35. 33. 1

**MONTHS AND SEASONS.**

**The Months:** Although the month of thirty days is Vedic, yet, to judge by colloquial epic language, the month was a moon’s length, twenty-seven to twenty-eight days. This is implied in the colloquial expressions just referred to, which, like our week of seven to eight days, give natural halves of a half-moon period.

1 So in Śūtras, when "the sun is over the trees," *adhibṛkṣaśaṇyam adhvānam na pratipadyate*, is either noon or late afternoon, Vas. xii. 43; Gāut. v. 40.

2 Compare the phrases, *sūryaśatamanavelā (astamaṇa=astamayana); astam yāte (or prāpte) divikare (or dinakare). Before the evening twilight comes on is expressed by anāgatāyanī saṁdhyāyām paścināyām. The nooning of the sun is expressed by madhyadesagata ratā (after prāpte ca 'kunakāte tu), xii. 346. 14 (in 18 pitarāḥ is accusative); also by the sun’s turning astāśikharum prati, vii. 99. 1

3 Compare Mahānār. Up. xxv. 1, *ye ahorātre te dasāpūrṇamāsāu.*
But the regular ascription of "ten months" to the period of pregnancy (c. 280 days) sets the matter beyond doubt, as otherwise we should have an extraordinary duration (300 days) assumed as the normal period. Apart from cases of diabolic birth, pregnancy of three years, i. 74, or longer, and divine or devilish performances of a similar sort, as when "demons conceive and instantly give birth," birth is usually said to follow in ten months (cf. Ch. Up. v. 9. 1), garbhān daśa māsān bibhṛati, iii. 134, 17; xii. 7. 14; iii. 128. 7; 132. 14; 205. 10; xii. 332. 18, etc. So RV. x. 184. 3; ÅB. vii. 13. 9, daśame māsi, in the course of the tenth month.¹ But as the solar month becomes popular we find in the Sulabhā-Janaka episode, inserted in xii. 321, that the period of pregnancy is set at the end of the ninth month, sampūrne navame māsi jātah, śl. 117. So in the introduction to the poem, i. 63. 61, Vyāsa's mother is ready to be born after nine months, as soon as the tenth month arrives, māsi daśame prāpte; and in the law-book of Yājñavalkya, iii. 83, birth is said to take place "in the ninth or tenth month." Also in iv. 36. 3, "twenty-eight nights or a month to its end" (was the fight) seems to imply a month of thirty days; while in xii. 232. 13 a "month" is formally declared to be of this length, māsah sunto rātryathani ca triṇaḥ. To distinguish the two kinds of months we find Māgha described as sāmynā, lunar, in xiii. 168. 28. Compare, however, the sense of agreeable or moonlighted in v. 142. 16-17: sāmyno (N. candrikayā abhirāmah; this is said a week before the new moon) 'yain vartate māsah suprāpyavasudhanah . . . apamakṣikah, nispaikah, nā tyagatiśiṇah. As the solar month, really civil month, of thirty days was thus reckoned from remotest antiquity, it is a question of locality or popularity only. In many cases a "month," according to long-inherited use and metaphors (below) was thirty days; in other cases, however, it was a moon, not quite twenty-eight days, though reckoned as full twenty-eight.

¹ So a devil's baby becomes full-grown at once: sađyo hi garbhān rākṣasyo labhande prasavanti ca (bālo 'pi yauvanam prāptaḥ), i. 155. 35 f.

² Cf. daśamāsya, daśa māsān, RV. v. 78. 9; ÅB. iv. 5. 2. 4. But ÅB. xi. 1. 6. 2, sahaśatvara eva stri vā gaur vā vaḍāvā vā viṣyate ("in the course of a year," as in ÅB. iii. 2. 1. 27, sahaśat-vara jāyamanaḥ), gives only the outer limit, this side of which birth takes place, "in (side of) a year." Cf. ib. xi. 5. 4. 6.
A stanza cited above, p. 15, shows that the month does not begin with the full-moon, as was sometimes the case; but with the bright fortnight, māsāḥ suklaḍādayah. The moon, it is said, is born at the beginning of the bright fortnight (by means of drinking the "six essences" of Varuṇa), jāyatā tarunāḥ somah suklaśyāḥ 'dāu tamāsirahā, v. 110. 4. The bright half ends with the full moon, suklaṭāyaḥ paurṇaṁśayām, i. 76. 61. The full-moon day is par excellence the month-day, e. g. kārtikī is the full-moon (night) of Kārtika. "Fair as the full-moon," paurṇaṁśayām iva 'nduḥ, i. 76. 61, etc., is an epic commonplace; "ugly as the moon on the fourteenth day of the dark fortnight," draṣṭān naḥ pritikurāḥ kuśi 'ca kṛṣṇasya pakṣasya caturdaśāḥe, xi. 21. 13, refers to a gnawed body, diminished and ghastly.

Only traces remain of Vedic phraseology in naming the seasons (months): suṁspitavane kūle kudācin madhamādhave (=Cāṭra-Vaiśākha) spring-time, i. 125. 2; śuciśukrāgama, the time of heat, śuciśukrāgane kūle suṣyet toṣam iva ḫaṇam, ii. 47. 24; "the sun absorbs water with his fierce heat when intervening between Śuci and Śukra," ugraraśmiḥ śuciśukramadhyayagaḥ, viii. 79. 78. But this is also the tempest-time (when the monsoon first blows), jaṅghāvāto cāvān ca ʿsyā śuciśukrāgane yathā, i. 151. 2 (jyeṣṭhāsūrdhāyoh samaye, N.). The following rain-months, Nabhas and Nabhasya, are alluded to in II. ii. 95. 1; but there is no mention of the corresponding Vedic terms for autumn, Īrja and Isā; of those for winter, Saha and Sahasya; or of those for cool-time, sāṅkṣārā, called Tapa(s), Tapasya (yud etayor balisṭhauṁ śyāyati) in ŚB. iv. 3. 1. 19; viii. 7. 1. 5.

It is usually in conventional passages that the "four-month" season is noticed: daraśe ca paurṇaṁśaṃ cā cāturmarṣya puṇaḥ

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1 ŚB. vi. 2. 2. 18 and Kāuṣ. B.v.1, etc., give the full moon of Phālguṇa as the beginning of the spring and of the year (paurṇaṁśaḥ vaṁ prathamaṃ vyavasā).
2 Compare Yāj. i. 80, sustha indāu, "when the moon is full" (?), one should "avoid Maghā and Mūla in connubial intercourse."
3 Cf. ŚB. iv. 3. 1. 14. Madhu and Mādhava are the vāṃsātkāru months of growth; ib. 15. Śukra and Śuci are the grāismānu months of strongest heat.
4 ŚB. loc. cit. 16, vāṛṣikāu.
punah, (offered horse-sacrifices) "on the new and full-moon and on the thirds of the year," xii. 29. 114. But it is once given as the proper term for wages which are to be paid cāturmaryavaram, "at least every four months," ii. 5. 118. The seasons thus divided are summer, rains, and winter, or spring, rains, autumn, according to SB. xii. 8. 2. 33; vii. 2. 4. 26, respectively (which must embrace the remaining time). The full-moon of Phālguna is the regular beginning of the Cāturmarya. See also below.

According to xiii. 168. 6 and 28, the winter solstice occurs near the beginning of the bright half of the month of Māgha. The saint who dies here is anxious to pass away at an auspicious period, i.e. in the northern course of the sun and the bright half of the month. He asserts in this passage that the proper conditions are fulfilled. The solstice has already taken place (xii. 47. 3) and he says: "The lunar month Māgha has arrived, Yudhisthira, and the bright fortnight must be two-thirds (or a quarter) past."

māgho 'yam samamprāpto māsah sāmyyo Yudhisthira
tribhāgaścaḥ pakṣaḥ 'yam śuklo bhavitum arhati.

The doubtful meaning of tribhāga (1/4 as well as 3/4) renders exactness of translation impossible. The natural agreement of the adjective would lead to the meaning given by Mr. Aiyer, that the solstice occurred "on the expiry of the fourth part of the bright fortnight in the month of Māgha, that is, on the fourth or the fifth day after new-moon" (op. cit., p. 81). But there is no certainty that tribhāgaścaḥ does not refer to the word month.1 Nilakaṇṭha here says the day is the eighth of the month. Mr. Aiyer takes the fifth lunar day after new moon as the real meaning (referring to N. on vi. 17. 2). Then, according to the Vedāṅga, he argues that this would imply that the solstice was the fourth of the five winter-solstices of a five-year cycle (op. cit., p. 84), and uniting this with the assumed date of the Kali Yuga in 1177 B.C., he arrives at 1194-3 as the date of the war according to the epic itself. It is at least unfortunate that a stanza so important for this result should not be less ambiguous, for if tribhāgaścaḥ refers to māsah the whole argument is invalidated.

1 Mr. Aiyer's metrical objection (loc. cit.) is inconclusive, as he has admitted by letter.
Though Māgha is the solstice-month, neither this nor Cāitra nor Kārtika is the first month, but Mārgaśīrṣa. This, as is implied in the Gītā, stands in the same relation to the months as spring stands to the seasons.¹ In connection with the phrase āgrahāyaṇa, this, like the epic list, points to Mārgaśīrṣa not as the best but as the formal first month (compare āgrahāyaṇi = mārgaśīrṣi, Vas. xi. 43). The list is given in xiii. 106. 17 f. and is as follows (with the alternate names supplied from another list at xiii. 109. 3 f.).²

Mārgaśīrṣa (November–December), Pūṣa, Māgha, Bhaga-dāvata or Phālguna, Cāitra, Vāsiṁkha, Jyeṣṭhāmūla or Jyāiṣṭha (jyeṣṭha, sic), Āṣādha, Śrāvaṇa, Proṣṭha- or Bhādra-pada, Āśvayuja or Āśvina, Kārtika.

If, as the epic says, the month begins with the new moon, Māgha would be from the new moon of December to the new moon of January. But this list probably implies that (as usual) Māgha is counted from the full moon in January and so on, Mārgaśīrṣa being from the full moon of November. Two passages in Virāṭa show that when the “seventh day” and “eighth day” are mentioned they refer to the days after the full moon. In iv. 47. 10–11, these days are cited merely as saptamīyām aparāṁ and uṣṭamīyām ādITYAN YO TADAM PRati, “on the afternoon of the seventh and at sunrise on the eighth,” which days in 30. 26–27 are referred to as krṣṇapakṣasya saptamīm and aprāe divae, “on the seventh of the dark half and on the next day.” This is borne out by the fact that the pseudo-epic (like the law) gives as marching-months Mārgaśīrṣa, Phālguna, or Cāitra, which would be November, February, March (cf. Manu vii. 182, Vishnu, iii. 40), or more particularly the full moon of these months, Cāitra, Mārgaśīrṣa; and in fact Kārtika, Kāumuda, overlaps autumn and winter, v. 83. 7:

Kāumude nāsi Revatīṁ sarulante himāgane,
“on the arrival of cold, at the end of autumn, under the star Revati, in the lotus-month;” xiii. 115. 76:

¹ Kṛṣṇa says (10. 85): māsānām mārgaśīrṣa ḥam ṛtānāṁ kusumā-karaḥ. On this passage and the application of āgrahāyaṇa, compare Tilak, The Orion, pp. 87 f. (Phālguna, the first night of the year), 86 f., 153; Jacobi, Beiträge zur Kenntniss der vedischen Chronologie, p. 109.
² The object of this list is to show that Kṛṣṇa ought to be adored under a different name on the twelfth of each month.
purā māṁsāṁ na bhaksitāṁ śāradāṁ kūmudāṁ mā-
sām,

"meat was not eaten of old during the autumnal month Kā-
muda."

There is, then, a certain discrepancy in the matter of the
epic months. The data as to marching, etc., above, would in-
dicate that they were the months of the law-books, as follows,
reckoning from full moon to full moon: Mārgaśīra, November-
December; Pāuṣa, December-January; Māgha, January-Febr-
uary; Phālguna, February-March; Cāitra, March-April; Vāi-
sākha, April-May; Jyāisītha, May-June; Āśātha, June-July;
Śrāvana, July-August; Bhādrapada, August-September; Āśv-
ina, September-October; Kārtika, October-November. But
this is incompatible with Māgha being well on its way by
December 21st, as above.

The lunar day, tithi, masculine and feminine, gives rise to
auspicious and inauspicious days, sutīthi, dusṭīthi (but sudīna
and durūlīna refer to the weather, e. g. i. 190. 46, durūlīna
meghasamplute, "on a dull cloudy day"). The form is usually
feminine, but tīthān pārne, i. 123. 6. The asterism and mu-
hūrtas are usually mentioned with the lucky or unlucky day, as in
ii. 25. 4; tīthāva atha mūhūrtay ca nakṣatra ca "bhipajite; xii.
100. 25, tithinakṣatrapajitāḥ; xii. 180. 45, 46, uta jātāḥ
nakṣatrasu sutīṭhe svamūhūrtajāḥ, nakṣatraśev aṣureya anye
dusṭīthān durmūhūrtajāḥ. Manu's derivation of utīthi from
anītyam sthitāḥ is found, with a varied reading, in xii. 97. 19=
M. iii. 102.

The holiest night is that of the full-moon of Kārtika, purṇa-
tamā rātraḥ purnamudhāṁ saṁ sāradā kārtikī, iii. 182. 16.
The thirteenth day is a very lucky day, prakṣaṭā, iii. 134. 20,
but not when sun and moon are eclipsed, vi. 3. 28, 32. The
last stanza refers to the ill-luck of having a new moon on the
thirteenth lunation, instead of the fourteenth, fifteenth or six-

1 In i. 209. 30, kūmudā is either the moon or the full-moon night of
this month:

akākākūmudāṁ cāt va cakratāḥ sārvakālākīm,

"they made the moon untimely (rise) at all times" (or the night come,
v. l. sarvakālmīnām). According to the Suśruta, Mārgaśīra is the second
autumnal month.
teenth, and the ill-omen of the new moon on the thirteenth with a synchronous eclipse. But every unusual number anyway is ominous of evil. Thus headless trunks are especially portentous when they have many hands and feet, ix. 58, 56, and animals with four eyes and five feet, and women having four or five daughters at a birth are grouped together, as of very evil omen, vi. 3, 3 f. So the unusual day is the unlucky day apart from the eclipse:

\[\text{caturdaśī pañcadaśī} \text{ bhūtapūrvāṁ ca ṣoḷaśīṁ ināṁ tu nā 'bhijāne 'ham amāvāsyāṁ trayaḍāśīm candrasārāṇāv ubhāṇ grastāṁ ekamāśīṁ trayaḍāśīṁ.}\]

It is added that an aparrapti eclipse portends disaster. With this stanza, vi. 3, 32, compare xvi. 2, 18, 19:

\[\text{evaṁ paśyān Hṛṣikeśaḥ samprāptaṁ kālaprayayaṁ} \text{ trayaḍāśīṁ amāvāsyāṁ tāṁ dṛṣṭvā prāavrīd idam} \text{ caturdaśī pañcadaśī kṛte 'yaṁ Rāhanā punaḥ} \text{ prāpte vāi Bhārate yuddhe prāplā cā 'dya kṣayāya naḥ.}\]

The “first day” of the month is generally given by the moon-day, but sometimes by the number, Kūrtikusya tu māyasya prathame 'hani, ii. 23, 29. The days of the new and full moon, amāvāsyā,1 amāvāśā, and pūrṇamāṇā, are also called dārāṇ and pūrṇamāṇa. The most prominent and auspicious days are those of the new and full moon, the thirteenth, and the eighth (end of a week), Śināvā, Anumati, Kūhā and Rākā, the first part of the day of the new moon and of the full moon, and the latter part of the day of the new moon and of the full moon, respectively (ĀB. vii. 11), viii. 34, 32, etc. The eighty-seventh section of Anuśāsana gives the rules for Śrāddha (compare Manu iii. 273–276) on each day of both fortnights, the fourteenth of each being bad. To live one hundred years, one must be chaste on the days of the new and full moon, and on the eighth and fourteenth of all lunar fortnights: amāvāsyāṁ

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1 This has the epithet Śakradevata, saptamaś ca 'pi divasaśād amāvāsyā bhavasyati samāyamo yujyāṁ tasyāṁ tāṁ āhuḥ Śakradevataṁ. “by the end of the week there will be a new moon; let the fight begin on that (new moon, for) they say that has Indra as its divinity.” v. 142. 18. 

Aiyer, op. cit. p. 96, interprets as Jyeṣṭhā (as if yām stood for tām). Cf.

āindrā (p. 32) and śakra-dāivata, BS. vii. 12.
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pārṇamānyāṁ caturḍasyāṁ . . niṣṇāmyāṁ sarvakāśānāṁ, xiii. 104. 29; Manu iv. 128. A particularly favorable eighth day is known as kāmyāṣṭamī, for gifts and oblations, xiii. 71. 49; 76. 19; 132. 7, the last referring to that of the dark half of Kārtika:

Kārtike māsi va 'slēṣā bahulasāya 'ṣṭāmi śiva
tenā nakṣatrayogena yo dudāti guṇāndanaṁ, etc.

Special gods have special days. Kṛṣṇa's day is the twelfth (above). Skanda's days are the bright half's fifth and sixth, iii. 228. 15; 229. 52 (śrīvijayā pūrṇamīṁ Skandas tasmāc chṛipaścāmā smṛtā . . śaṣṭhi mahatīthiḥ). The Sun's day is the sixth or the seventh, saptaṁyāṁ atha va saṣṭhiyāṁ bhaktyā pājāṁ kuroti yaḥ, iii. 3. 64 (perhaps on account of the title Saptaśapti, for saptaśara, ib. 63).

The name of the month is added in noun-form, drādaśyāṁ māghaṁ ∑e or jyāśgre māsi, etc., xiii. 109, passim, or the adjective form of the month is joined to the name of the day, cātryā pārṇamāsī, for initiating the king at the beginning of the horse-sacrifice; māgha pārṇamāsī after drādaśa māghaṁśtā, xiv. 72. 4; 85. 4-8; or the day is implied, pārṇa cātrīṁ upāsthitāṁ, ib. 76. 25 (pārṇa cātrīṁ, 81. 23).

The Seasons: These are six in number, e. g. iii. 134. 13. The group consists of Śīṣra, cool-time, Vasanta (kṛṣṇa-kāra), Easter-time, Grīṣma, heat-time, Varsās, rains, Sarad, autumn, Hemanta, snow-time. For Grīṣma is found also Uṣṇā, heats, as in i. 222. 14, uṣṇāṁ vardante, "the heated term is at hand." A favorite epic word for the hot spell is Nīḍāgha (Nīḍāghakāla, v. 26. 10) searing-time:

meghāv śvā ṣapāryāye dhārābhikā, vii. 98. 14,
with uṣānapāryāye meghānāṁ iva rāgarah, ib. 32.

nīḍāgharāṣṭikāṁ māṣāṁ lokāṁ ghermaṇābhīṁ yathā
(sc. uhatām Paṇḍuraṇa), vii. 30. 10 (v. 1. C. 1331, gharambaṁ-
bhīṁ).

So iii. 3. 49; vii. 146. 11; R. Gorr. v. 41. 25; and

1 In xiv. 43. 8. arko 'dhipatir uṣānāṁ jyotiṣāṁ indur ucye, "the
sun is lord of light (things); the moon, of stars," the heated term may be specially meant. In the next chapter the sun is called the beginning of light, āddīyo jyotiṣāṁ ādir ughinā bhūtādīr ucye, 44. 5.
nāidāgha rītuh, AV. ix. 5. 31, etc., all showing that Nidāgha is the heated term before the rains begin. The first rains are called Prāṛṣ, whence the phrase of both epics, yathā prāṛṣi toyadāh, vi. 81. 39; R. iii. 18. 23, etc., though there is no passage, I think, indicating that the whole rainy period was formally divided into two seasons, varṣās, īrad, hemanta, vasanta, grīṣa, prāṛṣ, which division occurs first (as just cited) in the Suśruta (Thibaut, Grundriss, Astronomie, p. 11).

In the six-season division, the rains take four months and the remaining seasons, of which the first is Śiśira, must be divided between eight months. Compare caturu vārśikān mānū, i. 62. 32, “through four rainy months;” and v. 35. 67:

aṣṭamāśena tat kuryād yena varṣāḥ sukham vaset,

where the eight months as a group are opposed to “rains,” as also in Manu, ix. 304 f.

Though the earlier literature makes Vasanta the first season, that of the epic may begin with its expressed choice, and the seasons may be arranged about as follows: Śiśira, February; Vasanta, March–April; Grīṣa, May till it rains; Varṣās, June–September; Īrad, October till cold weather; Hemanta, c. November–January. Hemanta is the season when the shadow is shortest, mukūrtai sukham evā tut tālavchāye 'va hāmanī, ii. 80. 50 (and elsewhere). On the other hand, the Aśoka blooms at the end of Hemanta, hemantāṁ 'soka eva raktaśtabakamaṇyaṁditaḥ (bubhāu Rāmaḥ), v. 173. 31. The term, probably, is a general one, either ignoring or, according to locality, merging into Śiśira." In the same way, Vasanta is an indefinite period, from the middle of February running through March and into April; as Grīṣa includes part of June. The rains may last four months, but there often are seasons when the rains are not more than two or three months, from the middle of June to the middle of August or September, instead

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1 The spring-festival comes on the thirteenth of the first half of Cāitra.
2 Compare (at vi. 17. 2) the stanza of the Bhārata-sāvitrī: hemante prathame māśi suklapakṣe trayodaśīṁ prayāṭam Bhārataṁ yuddhāḥ nakṣatraṁ Yamaṅāṁva (under Bharaṇī).
3 So in Manu, iii. 281, “thrice in a year . . . in Hemanta, Grīṣa, Varṣās,” as the three general seasons, though six are known, ib. 217; also iv. 26 ṛtvan ā is at the end of the four-month season.
of the "four rainy months," and then Śarad begins earlier. The coming of the rains varies by almost a month, so there is quite a margin here as well as in respect to the other seasons, which are really meteorological divisions shifting from year to year like our dog-days and Indian summer. They are always numbered as six, ratarā ṣat, v. 11. 15; viii. 34. 47, etc.,¹ but they are not enumerated as a group. According to iii. 3. 6, when the sun first took pity on starving man it began its work in the "northern course," and then passed into the "southern course," or in other words the year of the sun begins at the winter solstice, which in the epic is the time when begins the "northern course of six months," śaṁmāśa uttarāyaṇam, Gītā, s. 24, to reach which Bhīṣma delayed his end, as explained above. The Gītā passage alone, however, may imply, as Mr. Tilak has suggested, through its collocation of fire, flame, day, bright half, and northern course, as opposed to smoke, night, dark half, and southern course, that the northern course was the fiery, flaming months, or in other words, that the year began not with the solstice but with the vernal equinox. This may well be the case, since the Gītā stanza is merely a recasting of a famous Vedic passage (Ch.U. iv. 15. 5, etc.).² The other Gītā passage, cited above, agrees with the older Brāhmaṇas in making spring the first season, whereas the pseudo-epic stanza cited above, p. 15, makes Śiśira the first season; a discrepancy consonant with the character of the heterogeneous epic.

A passage in Vana, 163. 34 f., says that the sun, after turning on its course, when desirous of making coolness, śīśirāṇi, favors the southern district. Then the cool-time arrives, śāśiraḥ kāloḥ (when cattle suffer, vi. 118. 8). Then returning, niṁttah, he takes to himself the energy of all creatures, which

¹ Three, five, six, or seven in early texts, e. g. ŚB. ii. 1. 1. 12-13, and above, p. 18, note 2.
² Compare Tilak, The Orion, p. 23 f. The northern course of the sun is the gods' abode, the Manes as opposed to the gods are as dark to light. ŚB. ii. 1. 3. 1 f. Here the gods are represented by the northern course, the bright half of the year (spring, summer, rains), the crescent (first half of) the moon, the day, and the forenoon, as opposed to the Manes, represented by autumn, winter, cool-time, etc., the gibbous moon, the night and the afternoon. It is added that spring is the priesthood, as the first (best) season and caste.
thereupon become sweaty, weary, and sleepy. Then, following a path incapable of being indicated, samvednya margam avrtta, the sun emits rain. Here the “cool-time” marks the beginning of winter, as the time of fatigue indicates summer. Instead of bhajate one might expect tyajate, as tataḥ following seems to show that the immediate result is coolness. But the words may mean only that after the southern course has been completed the cool time comes; though the southern course appears to precede the cool time immediately, which would require the latter to begin with the early autumn instead of the solstice, and the former to begin with the equinox:

tathā tamośahā deva mayākhaḥ bhāvayan jagat
margam etad asambhādhām adityah parīwartate
nirśyaḥ sākīryaḥ eva daksinām bhajate diśam

tataḥ sāravāni bhūtāni kālo bhyaṃrhati sākīrāḥ.

The rainy season is described in iii. 182; it ends some time before the full moon of Kārtika (16). There is, I believe, no passage in the epic grouping the months, beginning with Māgha, in pairs according to the seasons, as they are both defined by native lexicographers and grouped in ĀB. iv. 26 (beginning with rasantikān masānū); SB. iv. 3. 1. 14 f.; or as ib. viii. 3. 2. 5, drava hi masār etah, limits the season. At present the natives reckon three seasons of four months each, “hot, cold, and stormy,” JASB., 1901, p. 57 of Part III.

THE ASTERISMS.

Though the “star-man,” nāksatra, xii. 76. 6, perhaps a mere fortune-teller, is a despicable kind of priest, the stars are the object of constant study and even the asterisms are frequently brought into the epic narrative, sometimes formally, as in the lists spoken of below, sometimes incidentally, as when a “Tirtha of the Pleiades and Magha” is mentioned, or when “Rohini surrounded with stars,” tūrākhīh, serves the poet as a simile for a

1 I am not quite sure of this, for the astrologer is also called a sāhṛat-sara and he is no better than a Śādra, xiii. 135. 11, and yet this is the very title given to Garga, xii. 59. 111 (other references in my Great Epic, p. 15). The asterisms, though admitted into the ritual, are clearly little regarded in SB. ii. 1. 2. 19. Here, by the way, ib. 2, no asterisms have more than four stars except the Pleiades.
queen at court, ii. 58. 27. The latter star, Aldebaran, is the best-beloved wife of the Moon-god, and stirs up jealousy among the other asterisms, ix. 35. 47 f. Another story, reported below, attributes jealousy to Abhijit, "younger sister" of Rohini, and tells how the six Pleiades, with the Fire-god as the seventh, replace her, iii. 134. 13; ix. 44. 12, as six; "seven-headed with Agni as divinity," iii. 230. 11. The Pleiades are the asterism of the Sword as Justice, xii. 166. 82. But apart from the Pleiades and Aldebaran, there is little notice taken of the asterisms, except when the planets and asterisms give portents, till we come to the formal lists of the latter in the late epic tables. Apart from the asterisms and planets, however, the Seers, the Great Bear and Dhruga, the Pole star, are not infrequently lauded and described. A saint-star is located "midway between the Holy Seers (the Great Bear) and Dhruga, the son of Uttanapada" (Puranic), xiii. 3. 15. These Seers rise and set in the royal North (dīṣam udīcī rājā, xiv. 43. 10) at Mount Meru, Mahā Meru, iii. 163. 15, round which go daily the sun and moon and other lights of heaven. Setting there, astaṃ priyā, the sun goes north, after the twilight time, saṃdhīyaṃ atikramya ... udicīm bhajate kāṣṭhāṇa dīṣam (as phrased elsewhere, xiii. 168. 6, drṣṭrā [Bhiṣma] nīrttam ādityam pracṛtāṃ ca 'ttarāṇam); then eastward turning he goes on again. And even so, dividing the months, māsāṇa vibhajan kāle bahudhā parvasaṃdhīṣu, goes the moon with the asterisms, nakṣatrāṇā saha yačchati, and having gone about Meru goes again to Mount Mandara, ib. 27 f. Compare v. 111. 14, "Here (in the North) are the Seven Seers, Arundhati, and Svati, which rises here, and (the year) Pitāmaha" (as sacrifice).¹

Since the asterisms are known by name even in the Rig Veda, i. 24. 9, Śatam-bhisajah; x. (19. 1?) 85. 13, Magha (?) and Arjunī; while the Atharva Veda, xix. 7, and other Vedic works presumably earlier, give lists of them, it may be assumed that, whatever the date of the epic, the poets were familiar with all the asterisms, and it is to be expected that the later epic will maintain its usual character by endorsing both lists, that of the twenty-seven

¹ atra te ṛṣayāḥ sapta devi cā rūndhati tathā, atra tiṣṭhati vai svātir atra 'ṣāyād udayaḥ smṛtah, atra yājñān samāṇādyā dhrvaṃ sthātā pitāmahaḥ, i.e. the year.
asterisms and that of the twenty-eight. Whether the asterisms were first counted as twenty-seven or as twenty-eight may still be doubtful (twenty-eight is more likely);1 but the constant later view was that they were twenty-seven, and this is the current epic view, as represented in the usual ascription of twenty-seven wives to Soma. They are nakṣatrayoginī, nakṣatrayoganimatā, and are counted as seven and twenty, i. 66. 16–17; ix. 35. 45; xii. 207. 24; 343. 57, etc.

The twenty-seven asterisms are divided into nine-day weeks (navarātra) by groups of three (of nine each, beginning with Āsvini, Maghā, Māla, respectively, according to the scholiast), and, according to this division, a grīhra, or evil heavenly body, pāpagrama, has a different effect on the fortunes of men, if we may further trust this expansion on the part of the scholiast of B. vi. 3. 31,

_trīṣu sarvān nakṣatranakṣatresu, viśampate,_

_grīhrāḥ sampatate sīrṣaṁ (.! janaśan bhayam uttamam,_

which might refer to a three-fold division of the year according to the seasons already mentioned.2 The Ṛbhūṣa, however, are mentioned merely as divinities of the gods, eternal and changeless under the aeonic changes, devadevaḥ saṁśiṣtaḥ, iii. 261. 19–22:

_na kalpaṣarviratereṇa parivartanti te tathā._

The twenty-eight asterisms are said to “enter the circle of the sun” in the West and then, on account of their association with the moon, to fall out of the sun again, after twenty-eight nights are past, v. 110. 15–16:

_atah prabhṛti sāryusya tiryagyāvantate yataḥ_

_uita jyoṣitāṁ sarīrāṁ viśvante udityamamaditum_

_aṣṭāvdhīśatirātrain ca vaikrama svaḥ bhūmāṁ_

_nipatantī panaḥ sāryāṁ somasaṃyogayogatāḥ._

Twenty-eight asterisms are implied at i. 34. 6, where forty-two days pass from Puṣya to Śravaṇa (= 22 + 20, Puṣya being sixth and Śravaṇa twenty-first).

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1 But cf. TS. i. 7. 7. 2; SB. x. 5. 4. 5; Whitney, OLS. ii. p. 360ff., with citations.

2 C. 98 has _trīṣu sarvān pūrveṇa nakṣatrenāḥ śīrṣa_. With B. cf. RV. x. 61. 10ff., on the Navagvas.
The full list of the asterisms, as developed at xiii. 64, is as follows. I supply the equivalent forms from other passages, chiefly in the same book (giving only epic data); sc. naksatram:


Śravīṣṭhā, the older name of Dhanisthā, does not appear to be in the alternate list (below). The addition of yoga is common, the asterism appearing either as a noun (above) or an adjective, as, for example, in adya pāusa-yam yogam upāti candramah, "to-day the moon enters its Puṣya-conjunction" (a suitable time for a wedding), i. 198. 5. In the same way, maṅgha-viṣaya-yoḥ somaḥ, vi. 17. 2.

Like the naksatryāḥ prājāpatiḥ, "whose hand is Hasta and head is Citrā," in TB. i. 5. 2. 2, is the identification made during the moon-rite, vāindravata, at xiii. 110. 2 f., in which the worshipper identifies himself with the moon as anthropomorphized from the feet up in the asterisms. The month is Mrgaśīra, and the moon’s feet are Mūla; the knees and thighs,
Aśvinī and Aśādhā; the hand, Hasta, etc.; while Citrā is replaced in B. by Mitra (C. has citram, sic), as follows: natre mr̥gyāri o vidyāl latāre mitram eva tu, sl. 8 (probably metrical). In this list the double asterisms are Phālgunī (sic), Bhādrapada, sg.: Asādhe, dual; while Nos. 8, 15, 21, 27, 28 are singular, and Nos. 7, 14, 22 are plural.

Various periphrases take the place of the names of the asterisms elsewhere in the epic. In xiii. 036. 36, gajacchāyāyām pūrvasyām kutape . . . yadā Bhādrapade māśi bhavate bahule maghā, the "elephant's shadow," as in Manu iii. 274, Yāj. i. 218, is probably a constellation. According to the scholiast at xiv. 63, 18, nakṣatraṁ hani ca dhruve, both Rohini and the Uttarātraya (cf. BS. loc. cit., PW. s. v.) bear the name dhruva (Nos. 2 and 10, 19, 25). No. 1 is vahūnāvatatum also in i. 221. 85; No. 16, Jyeṣṭhā, called by N. jyeṣṭhānaksasatra, is regarded as Indra's (āindram, i. 123. 6). The place of Anurādhā, No. 15, is taken by māitrānakṣatra-yuṣa in ix. 35. 14. In xiii. 89. 12, Śatabhiṣā (epic for -bhisaṭ), No. 23, is the nakṣatraṁ vāraṇam; and in i. 8. 16, Phalguni (uttarā, No. 10) is (for marriage) bhagadāvatām nakṣatram. The "five-star" asterism, Hasta, No. 11, is called sācitram pūnkcatāram, i. 135. 30. On Śākralevatā (not of No. 16, Jyeṣṭhā, but) amāvāyā, see above, p. 24, note. According to xiii. 104. 127 f., one should not perform a Śaradā under one's natal asterism, nor under the two Prośṭhapadās, nor under Āgneya (the Kṛttikās). The name Śāiva for Puṣya, No. 6, occurs in connection with the planet Bṛhaspati in the well-known prophecy at iii. 190. 90 f.:

yadā śiryaṁ ca ca vandru ca tathā Śāiva-Bṛhaspati ekurāśaśu nanesyanti prapatsyanti tudā kṛtam,

"the perfect age will come again when sun and moon and the asterism Śāiva with the planet Jupiter shall meet in one zodiacal sign." 1 Cf. brahmaraṣi below. Possibly the (solar) zodiac here referred to may have an earthly counterpart in the process of divination known as mr̥gyacakra, alluded to at v. 48. 98 f.:

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1 The epic poet does not hesitate to make the planets Jupiter and Saturn stay a year in one asterism (as a bad sign), vi. 3. 27. See under Planets, below. Śāiva was the birth-place of Jupiter, according to TB. iii. 1. 1. 5, cited by Tilak, The Orion, p. 161.
sāṁvatsarā jyotistī cābhīyuṅkā
nakṣatrayogaṁ ca niśvayajñāṁ
uccāvacānā daivīyuktāṁ rahasyaṁ
dīvyaṁ prāshā mṛgacakrā mukhtarāṁ,

"astrologers and star-seers and those that tell fate by asterisms, secret prognostications, oracles, wheels of fortune, soothsayers(?)." I take mukhāra to be a metrical equivalent to māukhāra, a soothsayer—astrologer. The latter word is found in xii. 121. 46, as in later literature. As to mrgacakra, "animal-wheel," it seems to be what the modern Hindus call the "wheel of the nine planets" (compare satapada = cakra), a soothsaying device much in evidence at the beginning of the plague in 1896. The commentator explains it doubtfully as a pārvaṇipāta for cakramrga (asking questions with a wheel), according to the use prescribed in the Śivaite scriptures; the questions being astrological, "what is the asterism, by what planet is one injured?" Perhaps it is a zodiac wheel.

As in the stanza cited above, the asterisms are frequently brought into connection with the planets. Thus, in iii. 281. 6, "he looked like Saturn entering Rohini." Another example occurs in xiii. 25. 22, where one is advised to perform ablutions at Great-Ganges, kṛttikāṅgārake, "when Mars is in the Pleiades."

In indicating time, the day and asterism are usually in the locative; the month, locative or genitive: astame ṛhāni Rohinyāṁ pragyātāṁ Phālgunaṁ te, "they started on the eighth (day) of Phālguna under the asterism Rohini," i. 145. 34; kṛnapakṣe caturdahāṁ rātrāṁ, "at night on the fourteenth (day) in the fortnight after the full moon," i. 147. 4; Mārgāśirṣyasya māṁṣya candra Mālāma maṁṣya, "when the moon of the month Mārgāśira is in conjunction with the asterism Māla," xiii. 110. 3; Pāṃsūmanāyata sūkle vai yudhā yajyeta Rohinī, "when Rohini is in conjunction in the fortnight before the moon is full in the month Pāṇsa," ib. 126. 48. With the month in the locative and the fortnight in the genitive: Kārtīke māsi vā śesābhadhasya ṛṣṭamī, "the eighth (day) of the fortnight after the full moon in the month Kārtika under the asterism Āśleṣā," ib. 132. 7. With the new (and "full-moon") day, "month" is unnecessary (in xiii. 134. 4, somasya itiṣṭhatmānāyasya... vol. xxiv.
pāurnamāsyaṁ Bates hari, the moon is object, "one should make an offering to the moon as it is rising on the full-moon night").

The passage referred to above, p. 15, containing the words Śravaṇāḍini ṭkāṇi, "the asterisms begin with Śravana," is of some importance for the date of the epic as well as for the way it was put together. In the lists already cited, the Krāttikās, or Pleiades, begin the series of asterisms, while Śravana is the twenty-first in the list, coming just before Dhanisṭhā = Śraviśthā. As late as Yājñavalkya’s law-book, i. 267, the Pleiades hold this position, as opposed to the still later scheme (since c. 490 A.D.) beginning with Āśvini (to indicate the vernal equinox). The Vedāṅga Jyotiśa list begins with Śraviśthā, and Garga says that the Krāttikās are the first asterism for the ritual, while Śraviśthā is first for ordinary reckoning: karmaśu kṛttikāḥ prathamaṁ (nakṣatram) śraviśthā tu saṁkhyāyāh (cited by Tilak, The Orion, p. 30).

Now we can scarcely believe that the stanza stating that Śravana is the first asterism refers only to the quality of the asterism as the best or foremost, since in the same stanza the relation of day to night is expressly that of priority and not of superiority. Nor is there here any reference to an "abortive attempt" to reform the calendar, as is claimed by Tilak, op. cit., p. 216. The fact is that even in i. 71. 34, where the change of the sphere is described, the act is not spoken of as abortive, but as one that succeeded. The translation of this latter passage, however, is not so certain as Tilak assumes; though the change of asterisms is apparently described as actually occurring. We are told that Visvāmitra, in his anger, did several wonderful things. As he caused the river, Kāuśikī, to change its name to Pārā, so also "he made another world with a right arrangement of asterisms,"

caṅkara 'naye ca lokam vāi krudhho nakṣatrasanpadā.

Then follows:

pratiśravaṇapūrvāni nakṣatrāni caṅkara yah,

the obvious, though rather pointless meaning of which would be that "he made asterisms which had a prior promise." By separating the compound and giving pūruṣa the sense of ādī, Tilak arrives at the meaning "he made the asterisms begin with
Śravaṇa.” But even if this be a doubtful rendering, we have here the statement that Viśvāmitra did rearrange the asterisms, and in xiv. 44. 2, the statement (but without allusion to this story) that Śravaṇa is the first asterism. In another passage, which describes how Abhijit, because she was jealous of Rohini, her elder sister, retired from the group and became “a star fallen from heaven,” naksatram gaganac cyutam, Abhijit is replaced by the Pleiades. This is a tale, thus far without historical meaning (except as showing that Abhijit was regarded as originally in the group); but in the quandary as to what was to be done when Abhijit retired, it is said that
dhanisthādis tadā kālo brahmaṇā parikalpitah,
“time was arranged by Brahman to begin with Dhanisthā,”” iii. 230. 10, which can mean only that this asterism was the first of the group.

We thus have a legend peculiar to the later epic describing a rearrangement of the asterisms; a decided difference between different parts of the epic in regard to the first asterism; and the probability that Śravaṇa was made the first asterism because the Vedāṅga system was no longer suited to the seasons, which had already receded a fortnight. In other words, the substitution of Śravaṇa points to a late date (approximating the modern substitution of Aśvini) for these passages in books i. and xiv.

In the Purāṇas and classical literature, the naksatrāṇi are called ṭksāṇī, and this name is found appropriately enough in what is most certainly a pseudo-epic passage, xiii. 14. 37,

stobhā ṭksāṇī pitaru grahāḥ,
where the context shows the special meaning to be that of śra-
vaṇādini ṭksāṇī in the other verse from the pseudo-epic, upon which I have just animadverted.

Of the far-reaching results drawn by Mr. Tilak from a study of the stars as affecting the date of the earliest Vedic literature, this is scarcely the place to speak, since my study is confined as closely as is convenient to epic conditions. But I would suggest the consideration of two facts. The first is that the loose and casual references to the minor heavenly bodies, and the
indifference with which they were regarded by the earliest depositaries of sacred wisdom make it improbable that any careful astronomical calculations were based upon them at a still earlier, pre-Vedic, period. The second is rather a corollary than a contradiction of this fact, namely, that though but little used as chronological guides, the stars are often regarded in their more obvious appearance, and there is no objection to postulating a primitive acquaintance with and veneration for brilliant stars, especially groups of stars, marking a seasonal change. Thus the savages of the South Sea Islands, though they can scarcely be said either to be star-worshippers in general, or to measure time by the stars, reckon the year (with thirteen moons) as beginning with the rising of the Pleiades just after sunset, about the middle of December, and "pay idolatrous worship to them." ¹

THE PLANETS.

The planets, or rather the grahas, which include the planets, are reckoned as a group of five (so RV. i. 105. 10?) or seven in the early epic; but the later epic makes them nine in number. The order in which they are named is interrupted by the intrusion of the additional grahas and even of gods, but it appears in xiii. 166. 17 as Venus, Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, Saturn, where Bhāmā, for Mars, is noteworthy. The eclipse-demon, Rāhu (whose dimensions, according to the epic, together with those of the sun and moon I have given in this Journal, vol. xxiii. p. 154), here appears between Budha and Śanāśācarā (Mercury and Saturn). In iii. 3. 17, the order is Jupiter, Venus, Mercury, Mars, Saturn. Here Mars is, as usual, Aṅgāraka. The group begins with the moon and Saturn is added after Indra, the sun, Agni, and Kṛṣṇa; the whole group being preceded by the group of the five elements:

śono bṛhaspatiḥ śakro budho 'ṅgāraka ca ca
indro vīcaśrān diptānāḥ śaṁś ādviḥ śanāśācarah.

¹ Compare Gill, Myths and Songs, p. 317: "The Pleiades were worshipped [as harbingers of the new year] at Danger Island, and at the Penrhyns, down to the introduction of Christianity in 1857. In many islands extravagant joy is still manifested at the rising of this constellation out of the ocean."
According to v. 34. 54, the stars, naksatrāṇi, are affected by the grahas (N. sun, etc.). In vi. 17. 2 are mentioned "seven great grahas," mahāgrahāḥ, where the scholiast says that there are nine in all, "as Rāhu and Ketu are to be added as upagrahas." These upagrahas are recognized late in the epic, being mentioned in the Mārkandeya episode, iii. 227. 1, with the grahas, seers, and mother-goddesses. In vii. 77. 11, where the sun is surrounded by kṛṣṇa mahāgrahāḥ, Rāhu, though the number is not stated, may be included. The technical name for hostile planets is here used. So in vii. 137. 23, "the seven Mahārathas oppressed Bhima as the seven grahas (oppress) the moon at the destruction of living creatures" (somaṁ saṁta grahā īva; compare the "seven suns" active in prahaye). In viii. 37. 4,

nihūranta vyādṛīyanta sāryāṁ saṁta mahāgrahāḥ.

The meaning, according to the scholiast, is that the grahas appeared advancing with the sun as the first of the seven. In all these cases, when the number is given we find it to be not more than seven. But the ascending and descending node, Rāhu, Ketu, are mentioned together with the sun and moon and the planets Saturn, Mars, Jupiter with Venus, Mercury, in xiii. 17. 38, if we may trust the scholiast, who says that grahapati is for Maṅgala (Mars) and vara is for Brahmāpati and Śukra; atri being for Budha and Śani (as elsewhere) for Śanāiscara. They are forms of God, who is the nīdhi, highest number, the thousand-eyed soma, the naksatrāśādbhaku, and

caṇḍraḥ sāryaḥ śaniḥ ketur graho grahāpati varaḥ, Atriḥ, etc.

While it is doubtful whether the scholiast is right in this case, another late passage expressly reckons the grahas as nine, iv. 2. 21:

yam manye dvādaśaṁ rudram ādityānaṁ tryadaśaṁ
vasānaṁ navacitam manye grahānaṁ daśaṁ unāṇaṁ tathā,

where the tenth grahu implies nine others. The sun, though sometimes not a grahu, is expressly called a grahu, and is lord of grahas, sūryo grahānāṁ adhipo naksatranāṁ ca caṇḍramāḥ, xiv. 43. 6. At iii. 200. 85, are mentioned grahāḥ sūrya-dvaya dīvi, "the grahas beginning with the sun," all being reckoned as dāruṇāḥ or śivāḥ, unfavorable or favorable, according
to circumstances. Conversely, the planet Saturn is the son of the sun and Jupiter is reckoned among the suns, adityeṣu eva ganyate, in i. 66. 39, as Śukra (Venus) is Bhrigu's son, a planet meteorologically active, varṣāvarše bhayābhaye, ib. 42, though regarded also as the female side of Brhaspati (Venus and Jupiter).

Sporadic mention of the planets (five in number in vi. 100. 37, grahāḥ paṁca, opposed to the sun; and to the moon, ib. 38) is common enough. In vi. 101. 59, two heroes are compared to Mercury and Venus; and ib. 104. 21, to Mercury and Saturn. The last is named also in ix. 16. 10, (rāme) candramaso 'bhyāse śanāścāra iva grahaḥ, Saturn near the moon illustrating Śalya near Yudhiṣṭhira in battle. Such references are found not infrequently: aṅgāraka-budhāv iva, two heroes, "appeared like Mars and Mercury," viii. 15. 16; naksatram abhito vyomī śūkra-śūrvasayor iva (yuddham), a battle such "as in heaven is the battle of Venus and Jupiter respecting an asterism," ib. 17. 1; vakrātiva kramanamad aṅgāraka iva grahaḥ, a hero storms about "like the planet Mars returning in his orbit," ib. 19. 1.

In the same book, in which occur most of these allusions, viii. 18. 5, another reference has a pun on the word graha, the "seizer:" 1

sa Māghadinnām pravaro 'īkusa grahe grahe 'prasahyo vikacca yathā grahah,

where vikacca is "the headless one," Rāhu, who is here a "seizer," but is not grouped with the planets.

Bad signs are given by the planets. In vi. 3. 12 f., the "white graha," Ketu, passing Cīrā stands still; a great graha, a comet, dhūmaketu, attacks Puṣya (the warrior's asterism); Mars, aṅgāraka, turns among the Maghās, māghām vakraḥ; and Jupiter turns in Śravaṇa; the sun's son, Saturn, attacks Pūrva Phalgunī, bhāvanī naksatram; Venus shines in Pūrva Proṣṭhapadā and going about in Uttarī associated (with an upagraha) desires attack; the white graha attacking Jyeṣṭhā, āindrāṁ naksatram, stands still. The Pole-star (?) dhruva) flames;

1 Compare ŚB. iv. 6. 5. 1 f., where the sun is a graha and "the whole Brāhmaṇa is a play on the word graha," as Eggeling says (cf. ib. xiv. 1. 4. 2).
sun and moon distress Rohini; between Citra and Svati is the fierce graha; and Mars, lokitaṅga, turns about Sravana, called here (so N.) Brahma-rāśi. So in v. 143. 8 f., and viii. 94. 49 f., the "son of the moon," Mercury, goes transversely, being fire-colored; while Jupiter, encircling Rohini, becomes moon-colored. In ix. 11. 17, Venus and Mars with Mercury go behind the Pandus, portending the fate of their foes. Here Venus is "Bhrigu's son" and Mars is the "son of earth," dharāputra, while Mercury is again the "son of the moon," śaśija. When the moon is upside down and the planets encircle the sun to the left, something terrible will happen: upasacayam grahās cakrur alakṣmaṇam divākaram, avākṣīrāsa bhavyaṁ upātiṣṭhāta candramāh, vi. 112. 12.

There is no passage in the epic which gives the Greek order of the planets, Sun, Moon, Mars, Mercury, Jupiter, Venus, Saturn, and this fact, according to Professor Jacobi, ZDMG. xxx, p. 307, would imply that the date of composition was not later than the third century A.D. This would be valid for the greater part of the epic, but would not exclude the possibility of still later additions having nothing to do with planets. The rare mention of the group of nine grahas, confined to what we may unhesitatingly call the later part of the epic, shows that the grahas in the early epic were reckoned only as five, or seven with the sun and moon added, without recognition of the nodes, Ketu and Rahu, as part of the "group of nine planets."

That the heavenly bodies are sentient creatures needs scarcely be observed. The planets have merit, punya, after losing which, kṣīṇapunyaḥ, they fall (as shooting stars); and they become sad when they see distressing sights. Thus in i. 210. 26: "moon and sun, the grahas, the stars, the asterisms, (all) the inhabitants of the sky, beheld the deed, became despondent."

For varied views on this point, see my Great Epic, p. 380. The formal adoration of planets in connection with Ganeṣa is recommended in Yāj. i. 292 f., who recognizes nine grahas, sun, moon, son of earth, son of moon, Brhaspati, Sukra, Śanāśiśvara, Rāhu, Ketu. Their worship consists in making metal or pictured models, to which are given clothes, flowers, incense, rice, etc.; and to each planet eight hundred and twenty-eight pieces of a special kind of wood (burned for each); rites later than epic ideas, to judge from silence on a theme so attractive.
SUN, YEARS, AGES, AEONS, AND CYCLES.

The extended astronomical phraseology of the late epic may be illustrated by the gift-laud in iii. 200. 125 f., where occurs the advanced technicality implied in the word ṣaḍaṣṭītimukha. After stating that a gift at the time of the new moon or the full moon has a double value and that a gift at a season-time would be of ten-fold value, parvau dvijunām dānam ṛtāu dākagunām bhavet, the poet adds that the reward would be endless if one gave gifts at the equinox, viṣuva (telāmeṣasam-krāntyoh, N.), when the sun is ṣaḍaṣṭītimukheṣu, that is (the sun's path being divided into arcs of 86°, commencing with the autumnal equinox, JAOS. vi. p. 410 f.), entering Gemini, Virgo, and Pisces (mithunakanyāminasanakrāntiṣu, N.), or at the eclipse, uparāge (eclipsed is upaphuta, passim), of the moon and sun. This information is conveyed in skokas. Part of it is then repeated, amplified, and embellished by being stated over again more artistically:1

ṛtuvu dākagunām vadanti dattaṁ
   katuṇam ṛtrayanādiṣu dhruvam
bhavati sahasragunāṁ dinasya Rāhor
   viṣuvaṁ ca kṣayam utnate phalum.

At the same time, though one or two other passages (see above, p. 32) point to the recognition of the solar zodiac, I cannot believe that this was known in the epic period; for in that case there would inevitably have been references to some sunkrānti, which term, however, does not once appear.

Time is often measured by groups of five divisions, either as “months, seasons, semesters, years, ages,” as in xii. 47. 66, or without ages and with day and night, of which the world is made: akorātramaye lokaḥ... mṛtyur grasati bhūtāni pavanam pavanage yathā, xii. 299. 29. It is this latter group which Nilakaṇṭha thinks has given to Viṣṇu, in xii. 339 (66), his title of Pañcakālakartrpati, “lord of the five makers of time;” though as Pañcarātraṅka follows and as Nilakaṇṭha also gives the five as those of Gitā, 18. 15, the real application of the epithet remains doubtful. In xiii. 149. 60, Viṣṇu is mukṣatranemir mukṣātri.

1 For the irregular form of the meter, see my Great Epic, p. 344.
2 Compare the Anūgīta, xiv. 45. 2 f., where the “wheel of time” turns on day and night, akorātramayakṣepam, but is counted, gaṇitam, by months and half-months.
The period of day and night, the months, and the seasons having been discussed, there remain the year and greater periods of time. The year (pratiyuktara, ii. 74. 19, and sārada, iii. 99. 24, are unique; other designations are those current, varṣa, parivatsara, etc.) is divided most frequently (as in RV. i. 164. 48, etc.) in metaphors. In the “forest of the great world,” kāntāra, there is “a black and white elephant, having six faces, twelve feet,” the year with its dark and light halves of the month, seasons, and months, xi. 5. 15; 6. 11. Two men dance hand in hand and six men play with golden dice (day and night and the six seasons), xiii. 42 and 43. 4 f. The whole year is measured by the "twelve-fold sun," which is spoken of as becoming "twelve suns," dvādaśādityatām gataḥ, iii. 3. 59, dvādaśätman, ib. 26; dvādaśā 'dityan kathayantī 'ha dhīrāḥ, iii. 134. 19. This is God’s form at the destruction of the universe: “as twelve suns” he destroys, xii. 313. 4. Again, the year is a wheel of twelve spokes, turned by six boys, while two girls weave black and white threads; this wheel, however, also having three hundred and sixty spokes and twenty-four divisions, parvayoga, i. 3. 146 (also xii. 246. 32). Compare iii. 133. 24 f.:

\[
\text{triṇākadvādaśādityatām caturviṃśatiparvāṇāḥ}
\]
\[
yah triṇāśatārāsya vedā 'rthaṁ sa parah kavih
caturviṃśatiparva . . . saṃnābhi dvādaśapradhi
tat triṇāśatārām vai cakram,
\]

which adds the “group of thirty,” triṇāka, as one of the divisions, twelve months of thirty days each. In xiii. 159. 23, the year as the wheel of time has three naves, seven steeds, and three divisions, triṇābhi, saṃtākṣayuktaṁ, triṇāhama; the first implying the periods of cold, heat, rain; the last, rain, wind, heat; according to the scholiast (compare RV. i. 164. 2). In i. 3. 58, the weaving of the year appears again, but a new metaphor follows, that of three hundred and sixty cows having one calf, ib. 60; and ib. 61 the wheel again has seven hundred and twenty spokes. The wheel of time is analyzed in ii. 11. 37, as having divisions of kṣamas, varas, mahārās, day and night, half months, months, seasons (six), years, the cycle of five years, paścayuga, and the "four-fold day and night," ahorātraḥ caturviḍhalaḥ, that is, as they belong to men, Manes (whose day is a moon-month), to gods (measured by years), and to Brah-
man (measured by ages). This is the sole passage in the epic recognizing the five-year cycle by that name (Brāh. pañca kaṁ yugam). It may be inferred from the attempt made to bring the solar and lunar year into line in iv. 52. 3,

pañcane pañcane varṣe dvāu māsān upajāyataḥ,

where, in Vedic phrase, RV. i. 25. 8, there is a calculation of the months “born after;” though here an estimate is made of the difference in the course of thirteen years between the lunar and solar years. The epic here uses the technical term, abhyadikā, and says that in this period five months and twelve days would be in excess,

esām abhyadikā māsāḥ pañça ca dvādaśa kṣapāḥ
tramadānānāṃ varśānāṃ.

The difference is caused by “excess of time,” kālātirokena, and “the transit of luminaries,” jyotisān ca vyatikramāt. In this passage the “wheel of time” suffers “partition” into the elements already mentioned, kālā, kāṣṭhā, mūhārta, dina, including asterisms and grahas as time-recorders, after fortnight, month, season, and year.

Two other passages may possibly refer to the five-year cycle by implication and suggestion. One of these is that containing the pseudo-epic name of Viṣṇu, Vatsara, xiii. 149. 63, as this is the name of the year of a cycle; and the other is the passage, i. 124. 22, likening the (group of) five Pandus to years: anusāvataraṁ jātaḥ. Pāṇḍu-patrā vyārājanta pañca saṁvat-saraṁ īva, “like (the group of) five years.” The sixth-year intercalated month of thirty-six days (SB. ix. 1. 1. 43; x. 5. 4. 12) is not recognized in the epic.

After the time-table given above, p. 13, which is virtually that of the later first book of Manu and of the Purāṇas, the epic poet, like the law-giver, continues with an account of greater periods of time. The sun, as is often said, is the chief divider of time. God is “the fruit in the acts accomplished in the moments and other (time-divisions) of the sharp-rayed sun,” xiii. 14. 419. The sun divides the day and night into work-time and sleep-time. In the day and night of the Manes, the bright fortnight

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1 In five years there are sixty days over: in thirteen, one hundred and fifty-six days, five (lunar) months and twelve days (156 − 12 = 144 + 5 = 28).
is their day and the dark is their night! Manu inverts the order, 1. 66; but here, krṣṇah svapnaya śarvāri, etc., there is a confusion of men and Manes. A year of man is a day and night of the gods. The northern course of the sun in their day; the southern, their night. Their are four ages, Kṛta, of four thousand years, etc., as in Manu, with the “twilight periods of just as many hundreds;” each later age losing a quarter, ekapādense hiyante, in thousands and hundreds. In vi. 10. 3, the name of the fourth age, Kali, is Tisya. The length of the ages is stated again, as just given, in iii. 188. 22 f., but without aeonic speculations added. The moral qualities of each age are often described; at length, for example, in iii. 149. According to the usual later view, the Kali age begins with the death of Kṛṣṇa; but according to v. 142. 8 f., at the very beginning of the great war, though probably the moral and not the chronological side is emphasized in Kṛṣṇa’s repeated words, na tūdā bhavatā tretā na kṛtaṇi dvāparaiṇ na ca. That “the Rāj makes the age” is an epic truism that discounts all chronology. As to how the ages got their twilights, see Mr. Aiyer’s *Chronology of Ancient India*, p. 129, where it is shown that one-tenth of the age makes the twilight, as the twilight of a day is one-tenth of a day of twelve hours, measuring 3 ghatikās, 1 h. 12 m.

The sum of the thousands and hundreds (to continue the timetable already cited) is twelve thousand (years). Both seers and mathematicians, saṁkhyaścidah, recognize this age, yuga, of twelve thousand (years); and one thousand such ages (12,000, 000 human years) are equal to a day of Brahman, whose night is of the same length, sahasrasyaṇaḥpurṇam, xii. 232. 15 f. Nothing is said here of divine Yugas. In xii. 343. 3, the period of creation lasts till the end of a thousand caṭuryugas. The day of Brahman is again recognized as a thousand Yugas in iii. 3. 55 and vi. 32, 17, with no intimation that the Yuga is other than that of the twelve thousand human-year Yuga. The dīvyaṁ varṣasahasraṁ is a commonplace in tales, as in the account at iii. 173. 7 of Dāitya austerities. According to xii. 227. 70, the (Vedic) gods live only a thousand (divine) years, varṣasahasrāṁnām.

The aeons, Kalpas, mark a greater period. At the end of a Kalpa the creative eighth of God changes, paricartate, xii. 281.
63. The Kalpa is thus one day of the creator-god (1000 × 12000 years) and forms a new unit. It is in such units that the day of Brahman is reckoned in the later epic, xii. 312. 1f. The day of the Unmanifest is "twice five thousand Kalpas," pañca kalpasahasrāṇi devīyānāṁ ahar ucyate, and his night is the same. He creates, when he wakes, the demiurge creator, Brahman, and the latter's day is the same length less a pāda, dasa kalpasahasrāṇi pādonāṁ ahar ucyate. Thus Brahman's day is now reckoned as one quarter less than that of the Unmanifest, or as seven thousand five hundred Kalpas, "and his night is of the same extent."

According to Manu, 1. 71 f., the total of four ages, consisting in all of twelve thousand (human) years, is one age of the gods, and a day of Brahman is a thousand such divine ages, the expressions being caturyugam (dvādasahāsāram) as devānāṁ yugām, and dvārikānāṁ yugānāṁ sahasram as brāhmaṇ ekam ahaḥ. Now in xii. 208. 9, Soma is represented as a paryupāsitā, ascetic reverer (?), during a thousand divine ages, sahasrāṁ divyānāṁ yugānāṁ, which should be a day of Brahman; and in xii. 328. 24, Mahādeva stands, as an ascetic, on one foot during a divyānāṁ vṛtasahasram, or thousand years divine (of the gods). But in xii. 303. 14, as in the Kalpa enumeration above, the day of Brahman is reckoned not in ages, Yugas, but in aeons, Kalpas, albeit not of the same sort:

yugaiḥ dvādasahāsāraṁ kalpaṁ vidhi caturyugam
daksikalpasatārtrtāṁ ahas tadbṛāhmaṇaṁ ucyate,

"know that twelve thousand (years) are an age; a total of four ages, an aeon; the day of Brahman is said to be ten hundred times an aeon." Nilakaṇṭha interprets the years and ages as divine, and the Kalpa as a thousand caturyugas, the Kalpa thus being a day of Brahman. This certainly cannot be extracted from the text, though it is the orthodox view. Nilakaṇṭha at this place reckons out the year of Brahman in divine days and years, which gives the usual Puranic creative period. But a thousand caturyugas being the usual epic view of a day of Brahman, the text above is uncombinable with other epic data,

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1 The third creation (Ego-creation) and sense-creation have, respectively, days of five and three thousand Kalpas. ib. 11 and 15.
and must be twisted out of its real meaning to be in accord with them.

Two passages give the duration of a single spirit’s reincarnations, in which the jīva is supposed to wander. In xii. 304. 44; 305. 1 (continuation of the passage above) the spirit passes through suryakotisahasrāṇi or thousands of crores of creations; and in xii. 281. 36 and 43, every jīva, in a Buddhist passage, passes through fourteen hundred thousand courses on its way to perfection; eight hundred periods of saṁhāra-vikṣepa in man’s estate alone.

Only the later epic knows the Mahā-kalpas by name. Thoroughly Puranic are the passages; xii. 337. 1, tato tāte mahākalpe; 340, 115, mahākalpasahasrāṇi mahākalpaśatāni ca samatīti rājendra suryād ca pralayād ca ha. So in xiii. 107. 77, phalam putmahataprahyam mahākalpani dasādhikam; but never any such allusion in the real epic.

After the specimen of time-measures given in my Great Epic, p. 206, I need offer no further examples of the epic’s tendency to count time by “oceans,” sāgara, and other similar terms, padma, pātākā, saṅku, nidhi, etc. They will be found, years rolled up to countless billions, in xiii. 107. 21 f., to select only one short passage from the numerous instances afforded by these arithmetical jugglers. As the poets come to consider the extent of time in aeons, creations, visarga and saṁhāra, the imagination is stretched to its utmost to devise parallels illustrative of the periods. A particle of sand removed daily from the Himālayan till all the mountain is reduced to the plain; a drop of water daily drawn from thousands of league-long mile-deep lakes till all are drained; such are the images that describe these (pseudo-epic) creations. One will suffice: xii. 281. 30 f.:

\[
\text{saṁhāra-vikṣepa-sahasrākośis} \\
tiśhanti jīvāh pravaranti ca 'nye' \\
prajāvijnāna-ya ca pārimānya-in \\
vāpīsaḥsahasrāni bahūni, dāitya, \\
vāpyāḥ punar jyotamavīśtyās tāh \\
kroṣṭaṁ ca gāmbhirodahāṁ 'ravādhaḥ
\]

1 The inanimate and animate world.
The passage cited above, p. 32, from iii. 190. 90, which speaks of sun, moon, Jupiter and Tisya as being together, implies the recognition of the sixty-year Brhaspati cycle, as the sun, moon, and Brhaspati are in Pusya once only in this cycle.¹

The doctrine of Manvantaras is implied (according to the commentator) in Bali’s prophecy at xii. 225. 31. When the sun shining in the meridian, madhyamime, ceases to shine from all directions, then there will be war again between the gods and demons. Indra repudiates the idea, however, saying that the sun will never depart from his ordained course. But the Manvantara-theory may well be implied here, for, though foreign to the early epic, the Manvantaras, not only in their earlier form but even in their later fourteen-Manu form, are known to the pseudo-epic. In the early epic, only the Mihira hymn, a late intrusion, recognizes these periods of time. Here, iii. 3. 55-56, a day of Brahman is defined (as above) and the Manus and Manvantaras are referred to. The periods are referred to next in xii. 59. 115 and the first group of Manus is implied at xii. 285. 1, Vivasvate ‘ntare, which phase appears again in 337. 56, “when the Tretā Yuga shall have replaced Kṛta in the (Manv)antare of Vivasvat.” From here on, the later epic is full of allusions to the Manvantaras: pārce ca manvantare Svayambhunet, 343. 26; Manoṣv Svayambhunet ‘ntare, 350. 42; manvantareṣu, ib. 43; Manu Svāroṣina, 349. 36 f.; Śaṅkisvar-ārak (Saturn) sūryaputro bhaviṣyati Manu mahān, tasmin manvantare ca ‘ra Manvādi getName ‘ntare (team eva bhavitā, vatsa), 350. 55. In xiii. 14. 38-39, for the first time in the epic, the Manvantaras appear (as protectors, in connection with the wives, maids, and mother of the gods) along with seasons,

¹ The water of the lake as flung out drop by drop with “the end of a hair” seems to be a play on the chronological meaning of kofi, the “end” of arithmetic thought.

² Compare Aiyer, Chronology, p. 183.
years, kṣanas, lavas, mukhūrtas, niñeṣas and Yuga-changes. Finally, a Manu of the second group (of seven) appears in xiii. 18. 43, Sāvarṇasya Manoh svarge saptarśi ca bhaviṣyati.

The real epic knows nothing of Great Kalpas and secondary Manvantaras. They belong to the Puranic period including the later epic, but even the first (Puranic) chapter of Manu falls short of the extravagant reflected in Śanti and Anuśāsana. In regard to the cogency of this relation used as an argument historically, it does not appear to me that the remark of M. Barth, Bulletin, 1902, p. 30, poses the question properly. Here, in a résumé of a similar argument, M. Barth says: “ces mentions sont rares dans les portions narratives, fréquentes dans les parties didactiques, ce que, à première vue, paraît assez naturel.” The light sarcasm would be justified if the preceding words gave the whole situation, but they do not. The narrative portions of the poem are not quite sundered from didactic material, and the point is that such didactic material, though treating of the same matter, treats it in less modern fashion; whereas the treatment of Śanti and Anuśāsana is, in contrast, rather that of the later Purāṇas. Fear of being thought “expert in cutting up the poem” need deter no one from the admission that epic chronology represents an earlier point of view in the early books, and the Puranic point of view in what I call the pseudo-epic. Nay, rather, one might ask, is he an expert historian who thinks that such a difference of view is quite without historical significance?

EXCURSUS. ANALYSIS OF EPIC DATES.

The Pandus were born a year apart, i. 124. 22, and when they first went to Pañcāla they were all proficient in the use of arms. The youngest must therefore have been at least 16 years old, and Arjuna 17 at this time, when they ravaged Drupada’s kingdom, i. 61. 31–35.; 135–138 (Karṇa made king of Aṅga, 136). A year after this, Yudhiṣṭhira was installed, 139. 1, and Drupada sought a son to avenge his overthrow, 167. 14 (Arjuna now 18). Some time was spent in conquering the world, 139, but, regarding this as a matter of a few weeks (!), the next stage is marked by the expedition to Vāraṇāvata, where the Pandus spent a year (148. 1, Arjuna was now 19), before they traversed the woods and, after spending quite a long time, cīra-
rātroṣitāh, 168. 3, at Ekacakra, went to Pañcāla again, 168. 11. Here they remained one year, parisaivatsasroṣitāh, i. 61. 31, after getting Drupadi (she was born grown up, like her twin brother), and Arjuna must then have been 20. After this they visited Hastinā, went to Khāṇḍava, and remained there “many years,” saivatsaraganān bahūn, before Arjuna was exiled, i. 61. 35.

Arjuna on being exiled “lived a whole year and one month in the wood” and then sought out Kṛṣṇa at Dvāravati and took Subhadra, i. 61. 42,

sa vai saivatsaram pūrṇam māsan vai 'kaṁ vane vasaṁ
tato 'gacchad Dhrṣṭikeśam, etc.

Then, after the burning of Khāṇḍava and the gambling at Hastinā, the Pandus were exiled for 13 years; and the war began on the 14th year, i. 61. 50, etc.

If the “many years” at Khāṇḍava be reckoned only as three, Arjuna would be 23 when exiled for circa two years, aet. 25, returning 4 years before the banishment of all the Pandus, at the beginning of which he would be 39, and at the end of the 13 years, when his son was 16, Arjuna himself would be 42. Part of the years reckoned by Abhimanyu’s age is included in the 1 year 2 months of the building of the Sabhā, ii. 3. 37, māsaṁ parivatramukāṁ.

But discrepancies occur. There is no record of a year spent with Drupada in the full account of the wedding. On the contrary, i. 199–207 imply that the Pandus return to Hastinā soon after the wedding. Nor is it consistent that the Pandus, who have already ravaged Drupada’s kingdom, should regard it as aparavatā on their second journey thither, i. 138 and 168. 6. In i. 141, moreover, Yudhisṭhira is clearly not yet installed as heir-apparent, although he had already been installed in i. 139. 1, a year after Drupada’s defeat. Even the year spent in Vāraṇāvata (i. 149. 1) seems in i. 146 and 147 to be regarded as a term of a month or a few ‘days. There is no inconsistency in the timeless birth and growth of Bhima’s son, for it is expressly declared to be such; though the period of wandering, i. 156, should occupy some reasonable time omitted in the account above. But the difference between the clear statement of the first book, that Arjuna lived a year and a month in the
wood and then raped Subhadrā, and the subsequent prolongation of Arjuna's exile to twelve years i. 212–221, three years of which are spent at Manjipur, i. 215. 26, and one each in Dvārakā and Puṣkara, 231, is important for the critique of the epic. Drāupadī's five children were born "at intervals of a year," ekavaṁśānturāh, i. 221. 66, 78, 86, but though Arjuna's son was necessarily born nearly a year after his return, and was a young warrior in the great war, his age at death is not specified. There is a difficulty, however, even here, for Drāupadī's sons born one and two years later are also young fighters and the youngest would be but 14, whereas Abhimanyu at 16 is always celebrated as the youthful warrior par excellence, and 16 is the youngest age at which boys were considered equal to war.

Another discrepancy which gives a comical effect is found in iii. 33. 12, where Abhimanyu, who should now be about four, is solemnly said to be one of those who did not approve of Yudhiṣṭhira's life! At this time the Pandus had lived 13 months in the wood. In iii. 36–37 they still live "some time" before Arjuna starts on his trip. Five years Arjuna passed in heaven, iii. 44. 5; 141. 7; 164. 17, while the Pandus waited five years for him, iii. 50. 12. In iii. 158. 3, the time of wandering is now four years, Arjuna is to be expected about the fifth, paṁcaviṁ abhitah samām, and in iii. 165–174. 9 the five years end with Arjuna's return. In iii. 176. 5–8 they "lived six years before and four years with Arjuna," ten sāmaḥ altogether, and it is now the eleventh year in the wood, ekādaśaṁ varṣam idaṁ vaṁśam. After this they lived in Viśūkhayūpa forest one year, 177. 17 (with some preliminary marching), and in 177. 20, the somewhat belated twelfth year arrives, dvādaśaṁ varṣam upopayātan. The twelve years in the forest are referred to again in 183. 39; 239. 18 as not yet over. In iii. 243. 15, Yudhiṣṭhira cannot rescue Duryodhana personally because of his vow, kratu, but he urges his brother to do this! In this (twelfth) year, Kuṇa (already the king of Aṅga) conquers the Aṅgas (and Drupada), and all the north, east, west, and south country (254. 19), including the Yavanas and other foreigners all "in a short time," kālena nā 'tidirgheṇa, 254. 33.

A year and eight months now elapse (after the twelfth year has begun) and the Pandus are still in the wood, eating deer (after the Ghoṣayāṭrā), sāstamāsāṁ hi no varṣaṁ yad evaṁ
upayukṣmahe (eating the deer here), iii. 258. 12 (after the liberation of Duryodhana in 246; here Yudhiṣṭhira has a conversation with Duryodhana after rescuing him).

By this time about fourteen years must have passed since the Pandus were banished, but in iii. 259 the narrative reverts with the opening statement that while they dwelt miserably in the woods “eleven years passed away,” as if the twelfth had not yet come. The thirteenth year, however, finally comes, iii. 315. 5, bṛṣaṇi varṣaṇi trayodasam, the completion of the twelfth being announced in 310. 41, “what did they do when the twelfth year was over?”

In the fourth book occurs the most glaring inconsistency in the poem. The bow of Arjuna is here said to have been already carried for 65 years by that hero (who is now 40 or 50 years old, according to the contradictory data already furnished), iv. 43. 6. The 13 years of waiting are paralleled by the 13 days which Drāupadi begs to be allowed still to remain in the town, 24. 29, the agreement and the 13th year expiring, iv. 31. 2 and 4, on the Trigarta expedition, though in 47. 4 the 13th year is not yet over, varṣate tu trayodasam, in Duryodhana’s opinion. But it becomes now a question of years reckoned as lunar or solar, five months and twelve days being the difference (see above, p. 42). In 26. 3, Duryodhana says that most of the time is past and very little remains, alpāvāśiṣṭam kālasya yata-bhāgyaṃ aṃmuṭaḥ; in 21. 17, only a month and a half remain. In 48. 5, Arjuna is represented as having been samāhitaḥ (and therefore out of practice in fighting) for 13 years, varṣayny aṣṭau ca puṇca ca; in iv. 49. 6–8, he is said to have learned arms from Śakra for 5 years, as he practiced brahmavacarya for 5 years and then stole Drāupadi. In iv. 49. 18 Arjuna is said by Kṛpa to be freed, having been deceived, nīkṛṣṭah, by the Kurus for 13 years, as in 62. 14. The exile in the wood for 12 years is alluded to in 60. 7. Finally, in iv. 72. 14, on the end of the 13th year, trayodāke varṣe nirṛtta, being at Upanlavya, Abhimanyu is married (cf. 23).

In v. 1. 11–13, varṣāni sat saptu ca trayodāsas cāi ’va sudustaro ’yam, the 13th year is now ended. In v. 20. 9, the expression vāśitāk ca mahāranye varṣāṇiḥ’ha trayodāsa seems to imply that the 13 years are passed in a forest; but the sequence recognizes the Vīrāṭa episode. In v. 21. 13, Karna says the 13 years are not yet past, and puts it as if they still had to stay in
the wood, yathāpratijñanāḥ kālaṁ taṁ carantu vanam āśritāḥ. Although Virāṭa is recognized in v. 22, yet no notice is taken of the sojourn there in v. 26, where indeed it is said (25) that the Kurus live only because they have not yet heard Arjuna's bow, a curious statement in view of iv. 55, etc. The thirteen years (one incognito) are recognized, however, in v. 48. 92, and elsewhere (below).

In v. 52. 10–11 occurs the following sloka, spoken just before the war, at the end of the thirteenth year (the subject is Arjuna):

\[
\text{trayastriniśat samāhāya khaṇḍave 'gim atarpayat}
\]
\[
\text{jagāya ca surān sarvān nā 'sya vidmaḥ parājayaṃ.}
\]

C has sūta, vocative, for hūya, and N. interprets "thirty-three years, samāḥ, are past." But this is impossible. B's reading is evidently correct (N.'s comment fits only C!1) and the 33 are not years but the gods challenged by Arjuna, samāhāya being a common epic word in these circumstances.

Another year appears to be added in v. 79. 19, where the cattle-lifting foray of Virāṭa is alluded to as occurring sanivatasaragate 'dhvani, "on the expedition of a year past" (N. gata-sanivatasare; cf. xi. 3. 16, sanivatasragata, "a year old"). But in v. 82. 40 it is still only 13 years that Draupadi has waited for revenge, and Pṛthā says in v. 90. 47, caturdakam idam varṣāṁ yan nā 'pāyam (Draupadīm), so ib. sl. 60 and 70; and in 129. 47, the queen says, alam aṅga nikāro 'yaṁ trayodaśaśamāh kṛṭaḥ. The "fourteenth year" merely implies that the thirteenth is ended.

An apparent discrepancy occurs at v. 141. 13. Karna was made king of Aṅga at the tournament, which according to the narrative already given occurred several years before the gambling. Yet in this passage Karna declares that through his fidelity to the Kaurava prince he has enjoyed a kingdom "without thorns" for thirteen years, mayā trayodaśa samā bhuktain rājyam acaṅtakam. This may be made to mean that his kingdom has been thornless only since the retirement of the Pandus; but the natural interpretation is that the kingdom has been his only for the time mentioned, for Karna himself is reviewing his life and this is the only allusion in his speech to the kingdom given to him by Duryodhana. The explanation, however, lies rather in the assumption of a poetic lapsus, for the words are
almost identical with those employed by Duryodhana himself in v. 160. 110, where he says to Arjuna, *trayodāśa samā bhuktam rājyam vitapatas tava*, and the thirteen years of kindly enjoyment on the part of Duryodhana are contrasted with the weeping of his foes (161. 8 and 28 repeat this in the herald’s words).

The exact time of the battle is given as to occur on the seventh day from the interview in v. 142. 17, at the time of the new moon. In Mr. Aiyer’s little book, *The Chronology of Ancient India*, the statement in v. 83. 7, that Kṛṣṇa set out on his mission “in Kārtika, under the star Ṛvati, at the end of autumn,” is united with this, which in turn is interpreted to mean that the new moon will happen in Jyeṣṭhā Nakṣatra (in seven days, emended by Mr. Aiyer to “ten”). It was, however, under Puṣya Nakṣatra that the Kuru army took the field, v. 150. 3, *puṣyo ‘dyya*, as did the Pandus, ix. 35. 10 and 15, and the armies were prepared, according to vi. 17. 3, *maghā-visayagah somaḥ* under Maghā. The asterism should be Citrā (v. 143. 10; vi. 3. 12, 28, etc.). Eighteen days of battle are recognized, save in the interpolation of Balarāma, whose journey can be interpreted only to mean that the battle lasted forty-two days (below).

During the battle, the only point to be noticed is the age of the combatants, the leaders Duryodhana and Yudhiṣṭhira being now over forty or fifty (as above). Arjuna, two years younger, is *taruṇa and yuvan*, Nakula is *sukumāra yuvā sāraḥ*, but Droṇa is eighty-five; vii. 12. 22; 83. 23; 110. 81; 125. 73; 126. 39. Despite these epithets applied to the Pandus, which imply middle-age strength or even youthful delicacy, in vii. 196. 44, Arjuna says that the short remnant of their days will be affected by Droṇa’s unrighteous death, *yuḍa gataṁ vayo bhīyāḥ śīṣṭam alpataraṁ ca nāḥ*, “gone is the greater part of life, it is the lesser part remains to us,” though *vayaḥ* (cf. *pra-vayaḥ*) may imply strength of life more than life (yet the conclusion does not favor this, *tusya dānīṁ viśūro ‘yam adharma ‘yam kṛto mahāṁ*). Karna also is *yuvan*, viii. 8. 11. This is not middle-age, however, according to the antithesis of *yuvāna, madhya, vyuddha*, or *yuvāna, madhya, j̱uś* (see the citations, in the last part of the series in this Journal), nor can it be interpreted as fool’s age as in x. 3. 11, for it is intended, as in the citations above, for a compliment. The time-term for fool is *bāla*, as in xi. 17. 20, applied to Duryodhana.
After the battle comes the inconsistency of Balarāma's expedition. He started out just before the battle and returned at its close, making forty-two days in all, from Puṣya to Śravaṇa, catvāriṁśaḥ ahāny adya dvive ca, etc., ix. 34. 6; 54. 12.

It is quite impossible to reconcile this with the statements in regard to the length of the battle (eighteen days) found elsewhere in the epic. In ix. 35. 14, Balarāma starts under Māitra Nakṣatra, i.e. Anurādhā. Mr. Aiyer, op. cit. p. 101, emends by changing 42 to 24, catvāriṁśat to catuṛvṛṁśat, and Śravaṇe to Rohinyāṃ; but this is merely a confession of inability to reconcile the conflicting statements except by changing the text completely. At the same place, Mr. Aiyer endeavors to reconcile the appearance of the moon in the night battle in vii. 185 f. on the fourteenth day, with the previous account of the new moon. Mr. Aiyer's conclusion that the war ended on the 51st day before the winter solstice, and began on Oct. 14th, 1194 B.C. (or that at least the war took place in the latter half of this year), does not depend altogether on the rectification of these obvious errors, but is based to some extent on the interpretation of the doubtful verse xiii. 168. 28 (27, "for 58 nights Bhīma lies on his couch"), as already explained.

In xi. 17. 21, "he who has enjoyed undisputed royalty for 13 years now lies dead," the fourteenth year implied in the early account is pointedly ignored, as it is elsewhere, notably in viii. 68. 9, "there are now these 13 years in which we have lived in the hope of Arjuna," and the battle takes place immediately on the end of the 13th year.

But as to the assumption that the Pandus were originally banished for only twelve years and that the thirteenth year is a later addition, it must be proved by the content, style, and metrical form of Virāṭa rather than by the discrepancies in the texts that refer to the years of banishment. I used to think that the thirteenth year was interpolated on the further ground that such discrepancies revealed a prior stage in which the thirteenth year was actually unrecognized, as in iii. 24. 2; v. 72. 9; but a careful survey of all the cases now leads me to the conclusion that this may be due merely to the poetic point of view. An example as good as any other is found in vii. 137. 47, in which a reference is made to the fire of rage lasting 13 years, and 197. 7, "the impatience of 13 years," as compared with ib. 145. 93, where "the sorrow of 12 years" is mentioned.
In one case the anger during the whole period, in the other the wretchedness during the life in the wood, is emphasized. So in viii. 9. 58, it is said that Yudhiṣṭhira did not sleep for thirteen years because of his fear of Karna, a statement repeated in different words in 66. 15 and again in xi. 21. 7, and this is presented, in viii. 74. 47, as the grief acquired in thirteen years, duḥkhaṁ trayodāsasamārjitaṁ, whereas in viii. 11. 27 mention is made of the grief (arrow) of twelve years, satyo mama dvādaśavārṣikauḥ. Other references in this book are found in viii. 91. 4, in which an extra year is recognized besides twelve in the wood, and 96. 45, "we shall sleep well to-day after being awake in sorrow for 13 years." The next book too recognizes only 13 years. In ix. 33. 4, which is repeated in 58. 19 with var. lec., this section repeating the substance of 33 after the Tirtha episode, a long interpolation (ch. 33–51), it is said that Duryodhana has been practicing on an iron statue of Bhima for 13 years (this iron statue reappears in xi. 12. 15 f.). Also in xv. 4. 15 the thirteenth year is recognized. In the earlier books, the thirteenth year is recognized, besides passages already cited, in ii. 46. 11; 74. 18 f. –76; 77. 30; 80. 34; iii. 3. 74; 8. 3; 46. 58; 49. 11; 51. 33 f.; 176. 10 f.; 252. 43; 256. 14; 261. 50; v. 61. 19; 95. 41; 160. 89; all referring either to the thirteenth year as being completed, or, what amounts to the same thing, to what will happen in the fourteenth year, after the thirteenth, e. g. ii. 77. 30 and iii. 261. 50. I think now, therefore, that the thirteenth year must be regarded as belonging to the original conception of the present poem and that the late characteristics of Vīraṭa are due to subsequent working-over of the delectable scenes embodied in it. Possibly the original form was simply an extra year "in concealment" (incognito). The time-discrepancy is of no more weight than in the application of thirteen years to the wood-life exclusively. This curious statement, that the Pāṇḍavas lived not only in banishment but in the wood for 13 years, is found three times, once as cited above, p. 50 ad fin., again in vii. 197. 10,

vanam prarājitāṁ ca sma vākalājijnavasāsanāṁ
anārhamānāṁ tam bhāvam trayodāsasamāṁ parāśīṁ,

"we were exiled by our enemies to the woods, clothed in bark and skins, undeserving of that condition, for thirteen years;" and in xv. 11. 23,
(that condition) "when for thirteen years you lived in the wood on forest products." But as the latter is easily explained as a phrase (also in the Rāmāyaṇa, see my list of parallels, Great Epic, p. 433, No. 242), and is preceded by an explicit reference to the "secret residence" in contrast to the "twelve years hate," lb. 20, so in the former case, "that condition" carries the thought over to the end of the period during which the Pandus were treated badly for thirteen years. So also the fourteenth year in the wood, logically to be extracted from the narrative as sketched above, is probably merely a poetic lapsus. Abhimanyu is killed at 16 years of age, after having been married for six months, i.e. 67. 117, etc.; xi. 20. 29.

In the tenth and eleventh books the data carry us forward to the end of the Pandus. Kṛṣṇa is slain on the 36th year after the war; xi. 25. 44, repeated in xvi. 1. 1. During this time the Pandus defer to Dhrūtāṅgā for 15 years, and the latter, xv. 20. 32, lives three years more. It is 16 years after the war in xv. 29. 37, at which time Drāupadi is "just about touching middle age" (!), xv. 25. 9. Two years more pass, xv. 37. 1, after more than a month's visit on Dhrūtāṅgā, māsāh sāmadhīkah, xv. 36. 11. Three of the eighteen years after the war were passed by the old king in the wood and fifteen in town, xv. 39. 25. These form explicit denials of the fact (inferred from the circumstance that Parikṣit was a baby at the time of the visit) that Parikṣit was crowned about sixteen years after the war, as shown by Mr. Aiyer. The epic in this regard contradicts itself and can scarcely be taken as a safe guide for its own date as far as these data are concerned, x. 16. 7; xv. 15. 10; 25. 10. Parikṣit reigns 60 years, according to x. 16. 15, though in a final extravagance the epic declares that Yudhiṣṭhira's reign alone embraces "thousands of years," xv. 10. 22,

tathā varaṇaḥhasāṃni kunḍiputreṇa dhīnmatā
pāpyamāṇā dhṛṣṭimata sukhām vindāmahe nṛṇa.

Altogether the epic is as fairly consistent in its dates as was to be expected of so huge a compilation. Some of the inconsistencies, however, are so decided as to admit of no reasonable doubt that the poem has been largely interpolated.
SYNTACTICAL NOTE ON THE ABLATIVE OF TIME.

It is not worth while to make a separate article out of this note, so I append it here, though scarcely in place. In the Am. Journal of Philology, xxiv, p. 1 f., I have tried to show that, in epic and earlier Sanskrit, the ablative of time-words does not mean “after” but “up to” or “within” the time named, my general conclusion in respect of all the grammatical cases being that in early Sanskrit no grammatical case expresses temporal posteriority any more than it does temporal priority, though “time after” may be implied by any case (except the vocative), even by the nominative and accusative. The ablative in particular approximates to a true indication of posteriority, yet only in serial time, measured from a starting-point. This note illustrates the use of the ablative in the later literature of the Brhat Samhita. Here is strikingly shown how such an expression as saumasaat regularly includes the period and does not mean “after a semester,” but within it. Good examples are found in xxx, xxxii, and xlii. In xxx, 12 and 31, sauptahat is “within a week;” in xxxii, “in four fortnights,” and “in a week” are expressed by the instrumental and by sauptahat respectively; in xlii, 7, it is said that a rise in price will take place sugthe masi, varsirodhat, and (athitva) masam, all alike giving the limit. So in xlii. 14, 30, 39, 53, ‘time within which’ is expressed by instrumental and ablative, saumasaat, and so elsewhere. But in this later literature, BS. lxxviii. 20, appears (as noticed in my article) an innovation in tryahat sauminivartate, in the apparent meaning “ceases after three days.” BS. has a mirdhatuh in the sense “from the head outward,” lii. 10, as well as a varsat, “within a year,” xlv. 16 (also the antan construction, abrahamkatantam, lxxiv. 20). The nominative of duration, as illustrated in the article referred to above, here has a still more striking illustration: (yo dyat), sai ‘kan ti vin katir (the reading of all MSS.; see Kern’s note) ahani, lxxvi. 3: (whoso eats), “days a twenty (nom. 1) and one.”
Śivarāma’s Commentary on the Vāsavadattā.—By Dr. Louis H. Gray, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.

In any attempt to interpret Sanskrit kāvya, native commentaries are not only important, but almost indispensable. The question as to the accuracy of their information is, generally speaking, comparatively easy to decide. Their authors understand in the majority of cases the texts which they explain; they are acquainted with all the stylistic tricks which adorn the kāvya, and their interpretations may usually be accepted. Of the many Hindu glossators of value not the least important is Śivarāma Tripathin, with whose Kāñcamudarpaṇa on the Vāsavadattā of Subandhu this paper is concerned. In the preparation of my projected translation of the Vāsavadattā I have naturally studied the Darpaṇa, the only commentary accessible in printed form (in the editions of the Vāsavadattā by Hall, Calcutta, 1859, and by Vidyasagara, ib., 1874).

Commentaries on the Vāsavadattā are, however, numerous. Hall, in his edition of the novel (Intro., 45-47), mentions Narasiṇhasena and the Tuttrādipini of Jagaddhara. In his judgment, neither of these is equal to Śivarāma. He thus characterizes Jagaddhara: “Jagaddhara, as compared with Śivarāma, though he oftener takes note of various readings, is more diffuse, is equally fanciful, and resorts less frequently to authority in justification of his comments. His errors are freely exposed by his successor [Śivarāma], and not invariably with unexceptional courtesy.” He says of Narasiṇhasena’s gloss that it “is of small value, and is busied very much more with pointing out the figures of rhetoric which Subandhu exemplifies, than with anything else.” To this list of commentaries Aufrecht (Catalogus Catalogorum, i., 566, ii., 133-134, 224) adds the following: the Sarevāṅkaṣa of Nārāyaṇa Dikṣita, the

1 I have not found any mention of Jagaddhara in the Darpaṇa. These exposures of his blunders must therefore be by implication. See, however, Aufrecht, Catalogus Catalogorum, i., 195.
Cārvikā of Prabhākara, the Tattvakānumudī of Rāmadeva, the Vyākhyāyika of Vikramardhī Kavi, glosses by Śrīgārarāgūpta, Sarvacandra, Timmaya Sūri, Sarvaraśaśita, Siddhayacandrāgaṇī, and Śūkṣmaḍarsīn, and either one or two anonymous commentaries. Of these glossators, Timmaya Sūri lived about the beginning of the sixteenth century, if he was identical with the author of a commentary on Agastya's Bādabāhārata) Aufrecht, i., 231), and Prabhākara was born in 1564 (ib., i. 353).

According to Hall (Introd., 44), Śivarāma composed besides the Kaṇcanadharpūna the Bhāṣāna, a commentary on Dāṇḍin's Dvāvakumārcarita (printed in Godeboe and Parab's edition of this novel, Bombay, 1898, 218-244), the Lakṣmiṇīvāśābhidhāna, a collection of nāda derivatives (edited in the Śatkośasatāgraha, Benares, 1874; see also Zachariäe, Indische Wörterbücher, (Koša), 38, Aufrecht, i., 539), and the Rasaratnāhāra, a treatise in 102 couplets, with his own commentary, entitled Lakṣmiṇīvāhāra, on poetic sentiments. To this list Aufrecht, i., 652, ii., 155, adds eighteen, including both commentaries and original works. The commentaries, in addition to those on the Vāsavadattā and the Dvāvakumārcarita, were on the Kādambarī of Bāṇa, on the Vīṇāyakamāhātmya (Aufrecht, i., 577), the Vṛttakānstubhā,1 and the Vīsūnapadī on the Kāvyaprakāśa. His original works, besides the Rasaratnāhāra, are the Alaukgārasamudayaka, the Kāvyabakṣmāprakāśa, the Nākaṭramālā with his own commentary, entitled Lakṣmiṇīvāsya, "a grammatical poem. Printed in Kāvyamālā, 1888" (Aufrecht, i., 274), the Nṛpavilāsa, "written for his brother, Keśavarāma" (ib., ii., 65), the Bhūparabhasīna, "quoted in the Lakṣmiṇīvāśābhidhāna" (ib., i., 415), the Rāhasyacandrīkā, the Rāmaṇapravadha, in which a number of Śivarāma's other works are mentioned (ib., ii., 155), the Vīddīvīlāsa, mentioned in the Lakṣmiṇīvāśābhidhāna (ib., i., 575), the Sūryādivarṇaphalokti, and five stotras in honor of Kṛṣṇa, the Ganges and the Jumna, Ganesa, Śiva and Bāhūrava, and Śiva and Rāma. His main creative interests therefore lay apparently in kāvya-poetry and in grammar, while as a commentator he seems to have devoted himself especially to kāvya-prose and to rhetoric.

1 This seems not to have been found. At least, Aufrecht does not mention it.
Of his life Śivarāma tells little. In his preface to the Kaṇ-canadarpāṇa, after an opening invocation to Śiva, he thus speaks of his ancestry (Hall, 1, ll. 11-18, omitted by Vidyasagara):

\[
\text{trilokacandra ity āsit khyāto lokem candravat} \\
\text{tanayo vinayopeta yaviyān asya ādīcavit} \\
\text{kṛṣṇarāmābhidhāḥ sūriś caturbhis tanayāir yutāḥ} \\
\text{rājate rājaṇītijñāḥ sāmādyāir īva bhūpatih} \\
\text{yāḥ pāṭhakānāṁ kṛṣṇā lāktāḥ ptavidhāḥ} \\
\text{sa kṛṣṇarāmīḥ śivarāmanāmā} \\
\text{govindarāmo 'tha mukundarāmo} \\
\text{jñātāḥ kramāt keśavarāmanāmā,}
\]

'one Trilokacandra there was, famed among the worlds as is the moon. His younger son, with virtue filled, an astrologer, named Kṛṣṇarāma, a sage with four sons, knowing kingly conduct, shineth even as a lord of earth through conciliation and the rest.' The son of Kṛṣṇarāma, who gained knowledge by his teachers' compassion, was Śivarāma; then Govindarāma, Mukundarāma, and Keśavarāma, in order born.' The Bhāṣaṇa gives no additional information, except that Trilokacandra was a Śivite Brahman (ll. 5-6):

\[
māheśkapādāmbujasaktvetā nareśasampājītapādāpadaṁāḥ \\
grahēṣatejā virajā mukānāṁ trilokacandra jāmi su dvijāgyāḥ,
\]

'with his thought devoted to the lotus-feet of the great lord [Śiva], honoring the lotus-feet of the lord of men [the king], with the glory of the lord of planets [the sun], brilliant, great in strength, Trilokacandra was born, foremost of twice-born.'

If we know little of Śivarāma's life, we can at least fix his date within narrow limits. In Lekṣṇivilāsa 9, he cites the Paribhāṣṇendukhaṭha, which places him about the beginning of the eighteenth century (Aufrecht, i., 652), for Nāgoji or Nāgēśabhaṭṭa, the author of this grammar, "was the Guru of Gaṅgārāma, the great-grandfather of Maṇirāma (1804)" (ib., 283).

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In his commentary Śivarāma quotes fifty-six authorities. By far the greater number of references is naturally lexicographical. In glossing the vocabulary of an author as artificial as Subandhu, bristling with śeṣas, virodhas, and all other adornments of kāvyā, constant citations must be made from the lexicographers to support the meanings assigned by the commentator to the words which he discusses. On lexicography, grammar, meter, drama, and rhetoric thirty-three works and authors are quoted in the Kañcanadarpaṇa. Amara, the most important of all the lexicographers (cf. Zachariae, 18-20), is by all odds the most frequently cited authority, being quoted six hundred times.\(^1\) Next comes the Viśva-prakāśa of Maheśvara Kavi (ib., 28-29), with 165 citations. Hemacandra (ib., 30-35) is quoted but thirty-four times; the Hārāvali of Purusottamadeva (ib., 23-24), twenty-eight times; and the Dharaṇikūsā of Dharaṇidāsa (ib., 20), twenty-three times. Medinikara’s Medinikūsā (ib., 35-36) is cited eleven times, and an Ekākṣara-kūsā, probably that by Purusottamadeva (ib., 37-38, Aufrecht, i., 74, 342), ten times. The Utpali of Utpala, apparently one of the older lexicographers (Zachariae, 7), is cited eight times; the Anekarthasamuccaya of Śāsvata (ib., 4-5, 24), seven times; and the Uttaratattra, “probably a part of a dictionary” (Aufrecht, i., 63), six times. As no manuscript of this kūsā seems to be known, and as Sivarāma is the only author recorded by Aufrecht as quoting it, the fragments found in the Darpaṇa are of interest. They are the following:

p. 72 (quoted on p. 242-243 as from the Hārāvali):

makṣikā matsāra jāneyā dhramarā ca sā matā;

p. 73: viśvakarmā devaśilpi viśvakarmā divākaraḥ;

p. 129: rasajñā rasamā jihvā;

p. 142: nandir ānandajāmātmitravar api ce ‘zyate;

p. 184: akhyātyā piricchadā îśvāsochvāsakāv api;

p. 242: corah saukitāvarmaṇa ca kusumākṣaḥ prakirtitaḥ.

Another lexicographer, of whom no manuscript is yet discovered, but who is quoted by Śivarāma (and by a number of other glossators), is Rantideva (cf. Aufrecht, i., 492, Zachariae, 6), who is cited five times. Four quotations each are made from

\(^1\) Counting such references as iti caturṇa amaraḥ, p. 281, as four times, and so in all similar cases.
the Anekārthadhvaniyānjari of Mahāksapanaṅka (Zachariae, 25), the Vaijayantī of Yādavapratāpa (ib., 27), the Ratnakōṣa (ib., 15, Aufrecht, i., 489), and the Rudrakoṣa (Aufrecht, i., 528). Two citations each are made from Mahēsvara’s Śabdabhedaprakāśa (Zachariae, 24), Rabhasapāla (ib., 6, Aufrecht, i., 492-493), and Vyādi, one of the most ancient of all the lexicographers (Zachariae, 6-7, Aufrecht, i., 618). Only one quotation is found from the Kośasaṅga (Aufrecht, i., 130; cf. Hall, Introd., 45). This is the unique citation thus far known from this work, and runs thus (p. 153):

arte kṛte 'vyayaṁ tāvat tādarśye vartate dvayam.

One citation each is made also from Purusottama’s Uṣṇabheda (Aufrecht, i., 71), the Subdaratākara of Mahīpa, written in 1374 (ib., i., 444, Zachariae, 36; cf. Hall, Introd., 45), the Kavikalpadruma of Vopadeva, a dhātuṣṭha of the thirteenth century (Aufrecht, i., 86, 616), and the Sakarabheda (ib., i., 622).

In grammar but one author, Kṛivasvāmin, who lived probably in the eleventh century (Zachariae, 21), is quoted, his Nipatayayopanarga (Aufrecht, i., 134, 296) being once cited. In alankāra literature six authors and works are quoted. The most numerous citations are from Śivarāma’s own Rasaratnakāra, from which he makes five quotations. Four citations each are made from Mammata’s Kavyaprakāśa (Jacob, JRAS., 1897, 308-309) and from the Vāgbhūṭalakṣaṇīkāra (ib., i., 559, Regnuard, Rhetorique sanscrit, 380, Jacob, 281-309). There are two quotations from Daṇḍin’s Kavyādarśa, and one each from the Alankāraśekara and the Kaṇṭhābharaṇa (probably the Saravatikantābharaṇa, [Aufrecht, i., 699, 78, Jacob, 299-306], hardly the Nyāyatilākāvatīkantābharaṇa, a commentary on the Nyāyatilāvati [Aufrecht, i., 310]). Of the former work, the citation by Śivarāma, p. 4, defining the sudharmiṭā-guṇa, yatra viṣeṣaṇaṅdvārā viṣeṣyālābhaḥ śa sudharmiṭaḥ, is the only fragment known (ib., i., 32).1

Kedarabhaṭṭa, the author of the Vṛttaratnākara, is once cited as an authority on meter, and Vāmana, a writer on poetics

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1 Hall (Introd., 45) says that the Alankārāśekhara (Aufrecht, i., 33) and Bhānudatta (ib., 405, Regnuard, 370-372) are quoted by Śivarāma. I have not found the citations.
(ib., i., 563, Jacob, 288-289), is quoted twice. From Bharata there are eight citations.

To explain the astronomical allusions, which are found in the Vāsavadattā, two quotations are made by Śivarāma from Varāhamihira (Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie, and Mathematik, 56-57, 65-66), and one each from Garga (ib., 28-29, 66) and the Jyotīṣa (ib., 28-29). If we may judge from the single fragment preserved from Udayaśaṅkhara Pāṭhaka, kārtika-śuddhadaśamīṁ ārabhya māghaśuddhāṣṭANTAIPARYANTIM, and cited by Śivarāma, p. 298 (Aufrecht, i., 65, Hall, Introd., 45), he also seems to have written on astronomy. There are two references to Vasantarāja's Śakunārṇava (Aufrecht, i., 556, Hall, Introd., 45), a work on omens, but, somewhat curiously, there seems to be but one citation from a philosophical author, Prabhākara Guru (Aufrecht, i., 155, 353).

Of literary works and authors, sixteen are quoted. The most frequently cited is Kālidāsa, from whom twelve quotations are given (pp. 24 [twice], 26, 27, 30, 48, 66, 141 [twice], 151, 152, 153). Māgha is cited five times (pp. 51, 58, 78, 174, 175), the Mahābhārata twice (pp. 34, 273), and the Harivānśa once (p. 273.) Two citations each are given from Bhojarāja (pp. 53, 185), Manu (pp. 16, 23), and the Rāmāyaṇa (pp. 85, 149). Eight works and authors are mentioned once each. The Kātantra, which, though an erotic work, seems not to occur in Schmidt's catalogue in his Beiträge zur indischen Erotik, is known apparently only from a few citations (cf. Aufrecht, i., 92.) The one given by Śivarāma (p. 283) is as follows:

ciropanapradhāsena prītir gacchet parābhavam
rāgāyatanasaṁyavāri yadi na syān mahākṣatam.

Trivikrama-bhaṭṭa, the author of the Dvārayantikathā (Hall, Introd., 45) (p. 27), Nārada (probably the Nārada-purāṇa) (p. 49), Bhartṛhari (p. 154, also once anonymously), Bhavabhūti (p. 259), Bhaṛavi (p. 69), Harsadeva (p. 154, also once anonymously), and the Hitopadeśa (p. 272, also once anonymously) likewise are each quoted once. The Lohuśāstra, which is known, apparently, only from the single passage quoted from it by Śivarāma (p. 198; see Aufrecht, i., 546), was probably a scientific work. The śloka in question is as follows:

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1 It is possible, though not probable, that the Prabhākara here mentioned is the commentator on the Vāsavadattā mentioned above, p. 58.
cumbako drāvakās cāi 'vā 'karṣako bhrānakas tathā
ekadvitracatuḥpaścāsanukhāḥ samhavanti te,
‘the magnet and the touchstone, the lodestone, and the pole-
stone have one, two, three, four, five, or six faces.’

It is noteworthy that there is but one citation from Bāna
(p. 9), which is the eleventh stanza of the poem introducing the
Harṣacarita.

Hall (Introd., 45) correctly remarks that “Śivarāma, to a
most unusual extent for a scholiast in Sanskrit, has recourse to
the living language of the country, in explication of terms
found in his original. His preference is, of course, for his
mother-tongue, the Hindi: but, in a good number of instances,
he also introduces words from the Marāhaṭṭi and the Gujārāti.”
These words, denoted in the commentary by iti bhāṣāyām, or
less frequently, by iti khyāṭaḥ (loke), number fifty-two.

In the Kañcanaḍarpaṇa, sixty-nine anonymous quotations are
made. The majority of these are of little importance, either as
literature or as sources of information regarding Śivarāma. A
number of them may easily be identified. Thus, several
examples of rhetorical figures, as those on pp. 5, 6, 80, are
taken from the Kāvyapraṇakāśa; on p. 24 there is an anonymous
citation from Bhartṛhari; on p. 33, one from the Prasannarāghava; on p. 145, one from the Ratuvali; and on p. 272,
one from the Itiḥpayadā. A number of metrical examples, as
the āryā on p. 2, 164, and the upajātī (upendravajrā) on p. 10,
are taken from the Vyṛtaratnākara, and several specimens of
poetic figures, as the definitions of the sāttvikās (p. 226) are
cited from the Sāhityayadarpāṇa.

In forming an estimate of the Kañcanaḍarpaṇa of Śivarāma,
it may be said that the commentary is in general accurate and
reliable. His appreciation of the Vāsavadattā was keen, and
his explanations of the puns, allusions, and all the artificialities of
Subandhu’s work, are in the main correct. It is safe to affirm
that without the Darpāṇa or some other good commentary the
Vāsavadattā would be almost unintelligible to the Occidental
reader. The cases in which Śivarāma is mistaken are so few as
to be practically negligible. It is perhaps no exaggerated
praise to say that he has written in his Kañcanaḍarpaṇa a
model Sanskrit commentary.
The Pahlavi Text of Yasna ix. 49-103 for the first time critically translated.—By Rev. Lawrence H. Mills, D.D., Professor in the University of Oxford.

The Attributes of Hōm (i.e. of Haoma).

Good is Hōm, who is the well-giving one,\(^1\) [that is to say, thou hast given with propriety], who art the just giver,\(^1\) [that is to say, Thou givest a thing to that one to whom it is quite appropriate (or encumbent upon thee) to give it].

50. The giver of good (thou art, the giver of a benefit); [that is to say, thou wilt give the thing which is a benefit (lit. which is good)];\(^3\) (thou) who (art) the healer, [that is to say, thou dost thoroughly heal a thing (making it healthy\(^7\))].

51. The well-bodied one thou art, [that is to say, with thee the body is handsome (lit. 'good')]. Well-intentioned\(^7\) (or 'well-desiring') thou art, [that is to say, by thee that is desired which is proper.]

52. The victorious, the yellow-hued (thou art), the tender-sprouted, [that is to say, thy sprout is soft].

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\(^1\) The texts from which these translations are made appeared as edited with the collation of all the MSS. and with their variants in the twenty-third vol. of the Journal of the American Oriental Society, first half, July 1902. The square brackets enclose the glosses; the curved marks denote my explanations.  [The transliteration has been brought nearer to the standard published in this Journal, vol. xxi, second half, p. 191.—Ed.]

\(^2\) So I render, to bring the statements into line; but it is possible that the writer meant to say 'the well endowed', 'thou art endowed with propriety.'

\(^3\) Notice that the original here is arā-dātō, and not arā-dātō.

\(^4\) This repetition is not so fatuous as it looks; the word meaning 'good' is repeated in its Semitic form.

\(^5\) According to the gloss, dehāk when understood as active, whereas we might be inclined to regard it as passive.

\(^6\) Here the trl. repeats his former blunder, losing sight of the radical š or š. He refers huvarēs (huvarš) to var = 'to choose.' Hence his hū-kāmāk.
53. When they drink thee thou givest an excellent thing (or 'the best thing') for the soul; thou art most an accumulator of portions; [that is to say; it is necessary or possible to make the store' for the soul good through thee, for a share in heaven is through thee].

Appeals for knowledge, energy, etc.

54. Tell' on thine inspiration, O yellow one, [tell me a thing which (is attended and) attained with knowledge. Let learned wisdom be mine].

55. (Tell me) fully (of) power and fully of victory [let it be also mine].

56. (Tell me) fully (of) health and healing.

57. (Tell me) fully of progress and of the giving of prosperity.'

58. (Tell me) fully of strength of the entire body and of wisdom which is all-adorned, [it is as when one understands the

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1 Possibly 'a heavenly thing' was meant. It is perhaps worth while to point out in passing such an error as the accusative pahrūmfh for the nom. vahistō; notice that a form of vaxš is not used, as elsewhere, to explain vahista.

2 Was not Garōdmānīkīh suggested by the external shape of the termination -mainyōtemō in paśmainyōtemō (or paśm-) which recalled māinyū, whose root is 'man' = 'to think', whereas the 'mān' of 'garōdmānīkīh' is to be referred to an entirely different word, 'man' = 'to abide'. But notice our indebtedness to the Pahl. trlr. for a good rendering of paśm- even when regarded as merely an alternative. Otherwise we might insist upon 'most path-finding for the soul'.

In regard to the meaning 'viaticum' as a 'provision for the soul on the way to heaven,' it does not suit the other occurrence of paśmēng; see Y. 46, 2.

No 'store of provisions' was made for the cattle on the way to any destination, nor do we hear of any store for the soul elsewhere as a wayside provision.

Hôm accumulated a 'store of enjoyment' for the soul here and hereafter; but food for the journey to the 'beyond' hardly.

3 Of course this shows a gross misestimate as to the grammatical form; see SBE. xxxi, pp. 235, 236. Notice that Nēr. follows the error. He would read a mruvē as an imperative, or else he read a mruvē, or mraos.

4 So according to Nēr's puṣṭidātim, or 'of the giving of one's choice desire' to var; possibly 'the giving of ourpouring', to var = 'to rain', might be meant. At all events the translation is really a blunder.

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end of a thing; also knowledge (is) forever' his by means of this]. (That is to say, if he knows the end, he knows all.)

59. (Tell me) fully from that source how they go forth in the world having independent power (or, better, read satūnēnī (or -nāni') with Nēr. and the orig.). ‘(Tell me) fully how I may go forth’), and let me (lit. ‘may I’) overcome hostility, and conquer the drūj (i. e. demon of the foe).

60. Appeals for defence and victory.

(Tell me) fully how from these (resources) I may overcome all that hostility of the enemies (lit. the torment of the tormentors) which is from the demons and (from) [evil] men,

61. (from) the sorcerers and (evil) fairies (from) the tyrants and the Kayaks and (from) the Karps, (the meaning of Kayak va karp) is [those (?) who are blind and deaf as to the matter of the Yazads],

62 (from) the biped murderer (or ‘miscreant’) [even from the biped alamōk (the persecuting-heretic)], and also (from) the quadruped the wolf,'

63 (from) the wide-fronted host also, [that is, theirs is many a murderer; some say this (that the meaning) is that ‘their nostrils’ are wide’], who fly’ with craft.

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1 I should have preferred hamāk to hamāī with Nēr., but not in view of the gl. with ‘the end’; this points to ‘ever.’ Otherwise ‘all’ knowledge would be better as being nearer the original.

2 Sātūnd is of course an error, but in view of the correct tarvēnānī = ‘let me overcome’ and vānēnī = ‘let me conquer,’ for so we must understand the falsely written tarvēnānd and vānēnd, we may also restore sātūnd to sātūnēnd, really first meant for sātūnēni, or ‘ānī.’

3 Cf. Y. 28, 7 for tarvēnānī.

4 Of course these forms should be understood as being in the gen. abl. like their original and their predecessors: see Nēr.

5 These ideas are erroneous traditional growths; see Gāthas, vol. iii, a, pp. 130, 181, on the article Kavi and K. The renderings ‘blind’ and ‘deaf’ are mere careless traditional deductions from the outward forms of the words.

6 Genitive abl. again with Nēr. So in 63, ‘Biped’ is of course but another word for ‘human’ here.

7 Nēr. curiously renders this as ‘tiger.’

8 So perhaps, thinking of negroes. ‘The wide-faced’ would be indeed the more original, as the words are applied only figuratively to armies.

9 I can see no necessity for the meaning ‘who fly’. ‘Who path-along (sic) with stratagems’ might express the idea. Certainly ‘flying’ in the sense of ‘retreating’ was not meant.
Boons asked of Hōm.

64. This first boon which I pray from thee, O Hōm, who art from death afar, (is) that which (is) the best world of the saints which is bright, all-glorious. ¹

65. This second boon which I beseech of thee, O Hōm, who art from death afar, (is) the boon of constant bodily health (lit. ‘the healthy continuance’ of the body’, ‘the unbroken continuance of the body’s health’).

66. This third boon which I ask from thee, O Hōm, (thou) far from death, is the long living on (i.e. ‘the vitality’) of life.

67. This fourth boon I ask of thee, O Hōm, (thou) far from death, is how (meaning ‘that’) from (the condition of) a supplicant’ (that is to say, ‘in accordance with my prayer’) I may go forth both strong and successful upon the earth, and may overcome (still further) the hostility (lit. ‘the hateful torment’) and that I may conquer the druj (demon of all harm).

68. This fifth boon which I pray of thee, O Hōm, the death-afar, is that I may go forth upon this earth as a victorious smiter in battle, that I may overcome hostility (lit. ‘the hateful torment’), and that I may conquer the druj (demon of deceitful harm).

69. This sixth boon I ask of thee, O Hōm, (thou) death-afar, (is) that I may see (the thief) before the thief (sees me), that I may see before the bludgeon murderer (sees me), that I may

¹ Zaidyam-ī, so reading with the MS. D. in the other occurrences = ‘I would ask of thee’; but ‘I’ is of use here to connect hōm... I dūrāōī.

² Perhaps it is better to read hamāk here with the MS.D, as hamāf = ‘ever’ conveys rather too much meaning. Some might prefer ‘all-happy’ to ‘all-glorious’.

³ The word, rōvesnīh (so, now) = ‘continuance’ is a sort of false gloss caused, as elsewhere, by the suffix -(t)-ātem (to drvatātem) which seems, as elsewhere, to have been suggested by a form from i, aē = ‘to go’. See avaētās ( = ‘-tāta’) rendered ānāk-rōvesnīh at Y. 31, 20 where the -aētās, rendering ‘rōvesnīh,’ was suggested by an aētās; cp. Ind. itī, itī, ēta.

⁴ Lit. from ‘a wisher’; but see Ner.’s better bahuvrīhi. I am now inclined to depart from this traditional rendering and to refer aēśō, to īṣīrā, etc.: ‘that I may go forth ‘fresh’ and ‘powerful’; cp. eśā as against ēśa.
see before the wolf; [the exhilaration (is) the remedy (that is, that I may procure thine exhilarating stimulus as a defensive remedy arousing my energies to be on my guard and my eye-sight to be keen to trace the lurking figures)].

70. Let no one see before us (i.e. get first the sight of us); before all may I see, 2 [I and my disciples].

The Gifts of Hôm.

71. Hôm gives to those who are swift, to those who would make their horses completely efficient, even to them, he imparts energy (that is speed) and strength that is endurance; [(this is for) the charioteers].

72. Hôm will give also to those bringing forth in birth a brilliant son, and a sacred offspring.

73. Hôm imparts to those who sit much at home (lit. ‘houssly’ * (sic) in the continued study of books, (that is to say, ‘of the priestly lore and ritual’) increased prosperity and learning.

74. Hôm grants to those who are maidens, and sit long unappropriated, [that is to say, who are not married] a master who is manifestly-true’ (or ‘really their own’), [that is to say, he will

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1 So A (DJ.).
2 Nêr. here supplies an upâyam = ‘remedy’ as above in 69 where it represents properly the Pahalvi čārak. This is of course an error in 70 where no čārak, nor upâyam is called for; but it occurs only in the gloss.
3 Nêr. and the Parsi-Pers. translate negatively. We should simply correct their erroneous short ‘a priv’.
4 One would be inclined to adhere to this meaning for x̂aētō here. The royal family might be held in view as typical.
5 We should avoid, so far as may be possible, attributing too profound a meaning to the word aharuv’. The meaning really held in view in the general use of the word aharuv’ in such a connection as this would be not so much ‘holy’ or ‘righteous’ in our sense of the word, as ‘thoroughly respectable,’ in the orthodox community, ‘of good repute and attentive to all religious duties,’ morality being of course understood.
6 I do not accede to the Pahlavi rendering for katayō, which I refer to Indian kati = ‘how many’. The Pahl. has katīk which Nêr. understands to mean ‘at home, gṛhaṁ’; see SBE. xxxi, p. 237. The Pahl. formation seems to refer to kata, which at times may mean ‘house.’
7 I think the orig. haithim should be here understood in one of the senses of ‘sat’, ‘santam’; i.e. as meaning ‘good’. Whether ākārak could be brought to express such an idea is difficult to say.
make a husband appear for them] also for [each of] them (he will provide) a husband; also for them he produces' quick and (is) one who is endowed with understanding;' [(the meaning) is, when (they are) presented to a man, upon the spot he is in action].

A Punishment.

75. Hōm deposed from the royal authority those who are of the keresānī(n)] party who had grown(that is to say, 'who had become extreme') in (ambitious) seeking for the sovereignty, [that is to say, they have (actually) ascended the throne (lit. mounted the sovereignty)];

76. that is, who say thus: 'Not on our account later, (i. e. in future) do the priests with their desire for continual reciting' (possibly for 'over-reciting') walk in the province (go about the country); [they would treat us thus; it is from our action when they do not (thus) walk (so, literally, possibly meaning 'they render us, i. e. they make us to be thus,') it is out of (from?) our action (or 'sphere of active influence') even when they do not (i. e. even when they no longer) walk'; that is to

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1 The false text zerkhūnēt is well corrected by Nēr. (and Darmesteter does not follow the Pahl. here). Nēr. has *yāčayiṭāram='a beeecher'; The Pahl. trlr. was curiously thinking of jan = zan; but of course Nēr.'s acc. is incorrect for jaiḍyānmō; other grammatical relations also are misapprehended. For a critical free version, see SBE. xxxi, p. 237.

2 'Endowed with understanding' should refer to Haoma as in the nom. Quick goes with jaiḍyānmō and refers to Hōm.

3 When we have such a plain analagon as the Vedic krṣāṇu for our keresānīn, we should pause before we think of 'Alexander,' though this piece was doubtless not older than his time. We should also note that our Iranian keresānīn may be indeed a text corrupted from a keresānīn, as there are prominent Zend MSS. in which i and u (at least) are actually written alike. Nēr.'s deeply interesting report of the opinion contemporaneous to him should not be overlooked. It was that the Church, 'ecclesia' was alluded to in keresānīn and also its 'Christians.' See the edition of the texts.

4 'Desire for reciting' is of course an egregious error for aivīštīs vereśyē. Aivīštīs never equals avarhośmūreśthī, except as a free and strained rendering: and I still think that vereśyē belongs to vard (vered); cp. Sk. vrīth. It may, however, possibly be an infin. to var = 'to choose,' in the sense of 'benevolent cherishing.' Nēr. errs with the Pahl. See SBE. xxxi. p. 239 for a critical free rendering.
say, 'they put us out of action, which inefficiency lasts even after their proselyting peregrinations have ceased.'])

77. Such an one as these conquers heroism of every kind;—slaughters outright heroism of every kind [before and behind].

Hail to Hōm.

78. 'Happy' thou, [that is to say, thy person has become (lit. has arrived good; or perhaps it was meant to say 'it is welcome')], O Hōm, who art an absolute-king (i.e. a desire-king, a king reigning according to desire) through thine own power, [that is to say, thine is power in that duty (or deed). What is necessary (or desired to thee), that it is possible to thee to have].

79. Happy thou who understandest thoroughly many a religious (lit. 'many a truthful') word [which is proper; for it is proper in accordance with the (religiously) true word: kana vaça arṣuṣa (so)].

80. Happy thou, who wouldst not be conferring forth from (that is to say, 'aside (?) from') that which is the truthful

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1 Nēr. seems nearer with his vṛddham taḷayati (sic). Or could the meaning of vṛddhi 'increase' and vardanām be considered appropriate for gūrdhī? which we should naturally render 'heroism'? The Parsi-Pers. does not translate the word, and affords only the awkward transliteration gūrdī (sic). Possibly my text 'gūrdhī' should be considered to be used in a particular sense. We must remember that 'the increaser' was in himself almost 'sacred,' and so 'heroic.' The institutor of prosperity' was naturally regarded as endowed with every virtue, and with valour as well. We may remember that Nēr. elsewhere rather curiously rendered fravāhār = fravāši by vṛddhi. But may not the sign for 'g' in our supposed gūrdhī be really superfluous. We remember that a grikrūnīh was recognized at Y. 58, 8, it being an outcropping of an ancient velarisation. So here we may have a gvardhī (with an original 'g' surviving) in place of a vardhī. As to the objection that this would be the outcropping of a form too ancient to be possible, we could rejoin that a 'gvi' for vi = vi = 'apart' would be quite as ancient, and as difficult.

2 Or possibly in the sense: 'thou hast appeared beatified.'

3 Rāi must be read with Nēr.'s yena for the senseless lā, which came from the misunderstood 'na' of 'kana' (so to be restored). Whatever the Pahl. trlr. may have understood by these words, I should restore them as above, and explain them as referring, perhaps indirectly and through some other passage, to Vend. xix, 28–35. The first particulars there mentioned refer to 'the word' which was to smite and destroy the creatures of Anāgra Mainyu.
speaking of conference,1 [that is to say, thou mayst (or 'dost') not say a thing which Aûharmazd did not say2 in the conference].

The Girdle.

81. For he who (is) Aûharmazd bore to thee the ancient girdle (so, but the word is merely transliterated) the star bespangled, the spirit-made (made by the spirits), the good law of the Mazda-worshippers, [so his girdle is this; that is to say, as the kúštik is singly made with a man (when he is created, a kúštik for each born believer), the law also which is with, that is to say 'upon' him, is also thus 'singly made.' Also its 'singleness of make' is this, that so long as a man does not drink hóm in the (observance of) the Religion, he will not become clear3 (lit. unstupified); the drinking of hóm is a ceremony (or 'duty') in the sacrifice.

82. With that art thou girded upon the highest (spot) upon the mountains, [when there thou hast grown, also this thy 'single-createdness' (sic) is thus] while, or since, thou art for the lengthy4 continuous progress,5 (that is to say, since thou dost concern the far future), [while (or 'until') thou art of the future body (that is to say, since (or 'until') thou dost concern the interests of the future state) in the mantra, [that is to say, they (will) continually until the future state (is reached) prescribe thee in the ceremony of the Yasna].

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1 Or, reading hampūrsakibā: 'Happy thou, whose is not (a question) apart from the conference (whose are on the contrary) truthfully spoken communication and conferences.'

2 Referring especially to the questions in Y. 44, and also to those in the Vendīdād.

3 This is the single effect of it, that it clarifies the intellect by stimulating it.

4 drāj='to maintain' may really be etymologically related to drājah =dirāz: but the Pahlavi translation of drājahdhē as dirāz is, I think, erroneous. It means 'for the maintaining of,' hardly for 'the long drawn out recital of.'

5 So the Pahl. madam sāṭūnešnīh is not correct for aivi-dāitśca; madam is not amiss for aivi, but the d of dāitś seems to be separated from the -dāitē-, which latter was again thought to be associated with 'iti,' or itī from ī, as= 'to go,' which is sufficiently ridiculous.
Still further prayers to Hōm.

83. O Hōm, who art house-chief and village-chief and tribe-chief and province-chief, [that is to say, thine is universal predominance as to 'religious' matters (lit. spiritually all-lordship is thine)]; and thou art prosperity and a well-informed lord, [that is to say, it is thoroughly possible to thee to impart (prosperity and information)].

Deprecations.

84. Power is thine and victory for this which is my body, whose (is) also complete prosperity which affords much enjoyment [through the afrin', that is to say, wealth (is thine) from which abundant happiness is derived].

85. Bear off from us that which is the torment of the tormentors; and bear' off their intent which is severe upon the abode,' [the kingdom, or 'their authority'].

86. He who in this dwelling, in this village, in this tribe, and in this province may be the enemy (lit. 'the hater') [the harmful sinner (the hostile heretic)],

(87) take away that which is the strength (or 'swiftness') of his feet,

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1 The stimulus of the fermented hōm was supposed 'to cheer one' as with a view of 'prosperity' and to awake the intellectual faculties so that they might acquire information.

2 Mruvē seems to be only rendered, if at all, by pavan afrin'; not so, however, Nēr. But he mistakes the form for a first singular imperative; notice that Nēr. treats pavan afrin' as gloss, translating it āsir. For this reason I treat the pavan afrin' as gl., regarding upa mruvē as not being translated by the Pahl. trlr. Patixvih as āddhatvam seems rather lame for dhima; for the critical free version see SBE. xxxi. p. 238.

3 Again an allusion to the Gāthas; see Y. 28. 7.

4 Forms in -ānd are sometimes like those in -yēn used for the 2d sing. imperative.

5 'Severe upon the abode' is of course almost a comic reproduction for garemantām, though 'girān' might be regarded as conveying the idea of its original. Probably we have a case of an additional translation here, the work of some later transcriber conveying the idea of an alternative. He first translated 'garn' as a denominative without sign, and then thought that mān= 'abode' might do for-mantām. Nēr. follows him.
(88) turn' off that which is his understanding;

(89) render that which is his thought destroyed, [i.e. make it thoroughly inefficient to him];

90. Let him not be going forth upon his two feet: may he not be able (to work) with his two hands, [that is to say, may he not be able to do destructive iniquity with his hands];

may he not be able (to work) with his two hands, [that is to say, may he not be able to do destructive iniquity with his hands];

1 Here the trlr., Nër, following, mistakes venenúdi for a form of varti; see SBE. xxxi, p. 298 for a critical free rendering: 'throw thou a veil of darkness,' 'a blinding wrapping;' lit. 'around his intellect wrap up.'

"Around his two ears wrap up' might be a better rendering of the original; as to this see Gáthas vol. iii a, dictionary, p. 101. Manó following in the next subsection might seem at first sight, and even later, to confirm the rendering of the Pahlī trlr. from the argument 'that the word 'mind' follows the word 'understanding'?' Some, however, might argue in the reverse direction, urging 'that a second term almost in the sense of hūs would be redundant and pointing out that 'wrapping up his two ears' was congruous to 'his two feet' in 90. Manó may however bear a more general, or universal, sense. I prefer on the whole the meaning 'understanding,' though the word may elsewhere describe 'the two ears of Ahura Mazda,' which is, though seemingly so quaint, not an impossible expression.

The trlr. could hardly help recognising the dual form here; so Nër.; it is not a case for remark. Nër. was troubled by the two words fratūtuyāo and aivituyāo meaning 'to have forward capacity (capacity to advance)' and 'to have circumstantial capacity (capacity about a thing). He seems to have thought of fra while yāo suggested some form from i. ae. = 'to go.' At least so Nër.'s prapatayatāni indicates. Is it however possible that Nër. was wrong and that patúk' here expresses possibility? Or does he intelligently omit one of the seemingly redundant forms. Notice that the trlrs. do not render the form in -āo as 2nd pers., but as 3rd. Too much importance should not, however, be attached to that. While I accede to the view that fratūtuyāo and aivituyāo are use for 3rd personal (see SBE. xxxi, p. 299). I am of the opinion that they are, together with their Vedic companions in -ās, in reality 2nd personal in form, a sudden reversion to that form taking place much as the 2nd person pl. in English may be used indefinitely; 'may you be able' for 'let one be able,' or 'may he be able.' Under the influence of this law the 3rd pl. opt. may be used as 2nd sing. imperatives: 'let them do . . .' = 'let one do . . .' = 'do you,' in -āid and -yēn. In this connection we may notice the sudden use of the 3rd pl. where the narrative concerns the singulars. as in 90, vebedūnyān: 'they (such as he) would do it,' this in close connection with 'he thinks and says,' meaning 'He thinks and says,' and they, i.e. one (in his situation), would do it.
(91) may he not see the earth with his two eyes; may he not see the herd with his two eyes,

(92) he who may be hostile to that which is our purpose. [That is to say, until (or ‘so that’) he who is hostile may not be able to contrive against our proper interest (may he thus be deprived of sight)] (and also) against our body, [that is to say, with our body he may not be able to establish hostility (i.e. may he not make good his malice)].

Anathemas.

93. Against the (dragon) Aži, the green, the dreadful, whose poison has thoroughly reached¹ its aim, [whose poison has completely reached the body],

(94) when he may approach the body, toward him who is the saint, O Hōm the yellow, for him also dost thou make evi-

¹ Viś - barā - āyāft should be regarded as a bahuvrihi ‘who is endowed with a hitting poison’. ‘The poison affected’ would not be so good. Barā-āyāft is of course an egregious blunder for the plain viśā-vaepahyā (not -ahe) Nēr. however follows it as usual with his viśāvāpte.

² So, reading -nāt. The Pahl. trlr. errs in referring nāsēmnāi to the second ‘nas’ = ‘to reach’. Some extreme traditionalists hesitate to follow him, whereas elsewhere they seem to be almost unvarying in their adhesion. One might be tempted to read yezrubāt transitively: ‘when he (the dragon) would drag his body against the saint.’ But the ‘motive’ of yezrubāt (so reading) is evidently ‘nas’ = ‘to reach’ as erroneously seen in nāsēmnāi. In SBE. xxxi. I could only render ‘to the saint who perishes’, ‘perishing as to his body,’ or possibly better ‘to the saint in the course of losing his body’. As to the rendering: ‘for the saint destroying the body of the Aži,’ if kehrpm refers to the body of the hostile person or being, i.e. the Aži in each case and not to that of the saint, then it is controlled by the preposition paiti with a jaži anticipated and does not at all feel the influence of nāsēmnāi which undoubtedly refers to the,menaced saint. In that sense only can paiti refer to kehrpm, as it does undoubtedly to kamerēdēm. Paiti looks awkward indeed as governing the genitive, and I feel that a kamerēdēm understood is its real object. Aside from the clumsiness of the position of kehrpm, see 95 where kehrpm follows the kamerēdēm of 97: and this separates kehrpm from the aži, as does also the metre, which shows that it, kehrpm, belongs to nāsēmnāi aṣaonē in the other sense throughout. That is to say, ‘kehrpm nāsēmnāi aṣaonē’ means ‘to the body-perishing saint.’ ‘To the body-losing saint’ might, as said, be a useful alternative. We should not hesitate to give a transitive and causative sense to ‘nas’ in the middle participle of the ‘s’ aorist ‘losing his body’, but ‘perishing bodily’ is also admissible. Against the meaning ‘destroying the body of the serpent’ we have also the general sense
dent' (thy) blow [that is to say, declare thoroughly a remedy for it].

95. Against the ruffian who works apart,* [that is to say, who works more apart than (or 'from')'] that which it is fitting to do (who evades the law)] the blood-wisher,* [that is to say, they (such as he) would (like to) inflict wounds] do thou (as) a tormentor* [speak on],

(96) who may (or 'when he may') approach the body, (i.e.) toward the saint, O Hōm, the golden, for him thou showest of the place where the saint is on the defensive: see where the Aši is 'swallowing men'; and 'swallowing horses.' The saint who smote the dragon was not one of the common faithful, but a signal hero, see above; and here also, it is Hōm to whom appeal is made as regards future dangers. See even 92, where *kerp' is actually stated to be 'our body.' This would seem to be decisive. The 'our' refers to the orthodox party of which the body-losing saint was but an individual though representative member. See also 95, where zazarrānō, a nom. sg. masc., intervenes between the genitives and kehrpem; see 99, where kehrpem is separated from the ašmao'yahya (not -ahe) by eleven words; see 101, where, instead of the genitive, we have the dative, which makes a reference of the word 'body' to the hostile party still more improbable. See 'hē' intervening in 108.

1 The rendering pētākēnhi zanesn' for vadar(e) jaidi conveys the idea well enough; but as zanesn' evidently renders jaidi, pētākēnhi must be meant for vadar(e), the 'motive' of which it is difficult to trace save in 'vad' = 'to speak' which would be a grossly erroneous explanation of vadar(e). Nēr. follows the Pahl. with prakāsaya. In the form pētākēnhi we have a case of the 2nd sing. pres. used imperatively; see the gloss explaining the original.

2 I follow this translation in dividing vivarezdavātō, not pausing to consider a possible 'dav' in a vivarez-davatō.

3 Notice aē in this possible sense; 'from' after yūftar (or javiđar).

4 Here our additional MSS, give us a certain solution.-bavihūn. This text also illustrates a frequent error of the Pahl. trlr., who saw sometimes the form iś = bavihūnastan even in sēvīsā, not often, but sometimes, the trl. being in such cases possibly a different person. The -iś in xrvišyātō was rendered bavihūn. And yet these Pahlavi translations of the later Avesta are supposed to be closer to the original than those of the Gāthas. Both sets of Pahlavi translations, those upon the Gāthas and those here, gave us indeed our first ideas and are of indispensable value; but it is folly to ignore their necessary defects, many of which occurred from mechanical accident in the long course of successive periods of study and attempted exegesis. xrvišyāt is an aorist formation from a xru, and has no such element as iś = 'to wish,' in it.

5 I would correct my oversight in following Ner.'s *pīdjayitari, which should have been *pīdjayitari (sic), read as nom.: 'do thou, O Haoma, as enraged', . . . ; so as of course.
contention (lit. the smiting) [that is to say, declare thoroughly the (defensive) remedy for it].

97. Against the wicked man, the tyrant, who has delivered a hurling' [who has thereby hurled a hurling upon persons], (98) when he may approach the person; i.e. toward the saint, O Hōm the golden, for him also thou receaest the blow (showest battle), [that is to say, thoroughly declare the (defensive) remedy for it].

99. Against the unholy infidel, the destroyer of the world, i.e. against the herbad and the destour2 who gives his attention and (utters) his speech, and may not attain to the matter in action, [that is to say, it is not made effect (or 'is not carried out by him'); he thinks, and says thus: 'I (will) do a thing,' and they (such as he) would not do it],

(100) who may (that is, when he may) approach the person, toward the saint, O Hōm the yellow, for him also thou dost make manifest (thy) smiting (showest thy blow), [that is to say, declare thoroughly the (defensive) remedy for it].

101. Against the harlot, (and) the sorcerer, even the (false)3 pleasure-maker, [that is to say, they (such as she) would make a thing a ruin], against the one who brings protection*,4 [that is to say, they (such as this one) would accomplish the protection* of (harmful) sinners] who on that account (for his (or 'her') sake) causes the mind to fluctuate like the wind-driven cloud,5

(102) who (or ' when she or he') would approach the person, toward the saint, O Hōm the yellow, for this one make manifest thy smiting . . . (show thy blow) [that is to say, declare thoroughly a (defensive) remedy for it];

(103) (yea) when (moved) by those (influences)6 she (or 'he ') may approach the person, i.e. toward the saint, O Hōm the yellow, for him make manifest thy smiting; [that is to say, thoroughly declare a (defensive) remedy for it].

[The translator, in apologizing for the misprints in the text, published in the twenty-third volume, first half. calls attention to the corrections also published in the same volume, second half. p. 357.]

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1 I think that this hint as to 'hurling' is valuable and correct.
2 So spelt to improve the euphony, dastūr having a disagreeable sound.
3 So, it is better to accept mūdak' in an evil sense.
4 As may be seen from SBE. xxxi, I do not accede to 'protection' as the meaning for upāstā here. I compare Sk. upāstha=bosom; to upās=bosom ('protection'*=access(?)). 5 Lit. 'of a wind-driven nature'
6 Possibly min valāṣān is merely intended for a genitive.
The Great Behistun Rock and Some Results of a Re-examination of the Old Persian Inscriptions on it.—By Professor A. V. Williams Jackson, Columbia University, New York City.

Easter Monday, April 13, 1903, will remain for me a memorable date in the calendar, for on that morning, after four days on horseback from Hamadan, I caught my first glimpse of the mountain of Behistun and the great inscription of Darius. For miles before one reaches it the huge mass of rock is constantly in sight, lifting its giant head 1700 feet above the plain; and several times in the distance my eager eyes were mistaken in fancying I could see from afar the smoothed surface where the Great King’s edict is inscribed. This was an error, for in approaching by the Hamadan road one must round the northwest corner of the mountain before the inscription can be seen. It was shortly before noon, or to be more accurate, 11.25 A.M., when my caravan halted at the base of Bisitun, as the Persians call it, and far above I could see the inscription and the sculptured figures which the natives term ‘the Nine Dervishes.’ With all I had read about Behistun, with all I had heard about it, and with all I had thought about it beforehand, I had not the faintest conception of the Gibraltar-like impressiveness of this rugged crag until I came into its Titan presence and felt the grandeur of its sombre shadow and towering frame. Snow and clouds capped its peaks at the time, and birds innumerable were soaring around it aloft or hovering near the place where the inscriptions are hewn into the rock. The position of the latter is worth noting again. From the descriptions I had read, or perhaps from the mental picture I had previously formed of the scene, I had always fancied that the inscriptions and the sculptures were carved nearer the middle of the mountain, whose general contour on this side runs from northeast to southwest. Not so. They are cut high up in the side of a steep gorge or craggy gully that makes a deep gash in the face of the rock and extends three hundred feet downward to the plain beneath. But before continuing further with the description, it
may be well to turn to the middle part of the mountain front itself and see how it is occupied.

As one faces the great Behistun rock, the striking feature which catches the eye is a huge space carved out near the central point but left entirely bare of an inscription. Even Ker Porter, Travels, ii. 149–162, seems to have given less attention than it deserves to this magnificent tabula rasa, the more conspicuous because of its vacant wall-like stare. It must have been prepared with an especial design of recording some historic event, as I felt certain after devoting part of an afternoon to a study of it. A space of nearly five hundred feet in length (for I paced it off) and over a hundred feet in height has been cut out of the mountain front to form a rocky canvas for commemorating some record of importance. The idea that it is due to mere quarrying vanishes at once when one studies the appearance of it and observes the evident design. Two rocky ledges, one proportionately higher than the other, are cut on either side to furnish a nearer means of access to the mammoth screen, while the overhanging canopy of hewn-out rock forms a framework above, and a terrace of earth and stones offers an approach to the place from below. Such is the general scheme and arrangement. The question naturally arises, and is always asked by those who have seen the great blank space: 'When and by whom was it cut, what was its purpose, and why is it without a trace of the cuneiform chronicler's chisel?' To this inquiry the natives respond by saying 'it was the work of Fehradd.' The sentiment of such an explanation will appeal to every reader of Nizâmi's romantic epopee; he will recall the tragic story of the enamored sculptor and the lovely Shirin, and he will trace in fancy the marks of the ambitious wooer's steel, or hear the ring of the mallet as the rock yielded to his herculean blows. But the classicist at the same moment will remember a passage in Diodorus Siculus, 2. 13, telling how Semiramis visited 'Bagistanon,' encamped nearby, built a 'paradise' on the spot, and recorded the occasion by an inscription on the mountain. The quotation from the Greek author is worth repeating for the sake of comparison:

'When Semiramis had brought to an end the works upon which she was engaged, she set out for Media with a large military force and halting near the mountain called Bagistan, pitched her camp there. She
made a park, twelve furlongs in circumference, in the plain which has a great fountain that waters all the cultivated area round about. The mountain of Bagistan is sacred to Zeus, and on the side toward the garden it has steep rocks extending upward to the height of seventeen furlongs. On the lower part of this she caused her own image to be carved, with a hundred lance-bearers standing round about her. She inscribed likewise in Syriac characters (Σερθος γράμματι) in the rock, that "Semiramis had ascended from the plain to the top of the height by laying the packs of the beasts of burden that followed her one upon the other."

That we have in this passage a direct allusion to our rock is undoubted. The only question is whether the story which Diodorus gives is to be applied to the unlettered space or to the familiar sculptures and inscriptions of Darius. The difficulty with the former application is the fact that a careful examination of the huge central table does not reveal the slightest trace of its ever having been inscribed. I studied it with great attention, having in mind the Diodorus passage, and I asked also the judgment of my native servant, who was very intelligent in such matters; but I could not convince myself that this portion of the rock had ever been engraved, or that an inscription had been obliterated. If one were inclined to theorize and to build up a fanciful hypothesis on flimsy foundations, it would be easy to suggest that King Darius, after completing the well-known record and sculptures, had directed the present vacant space to be prepared for a memorial of his later deeds, especially the campaign against Greece. The misfortunes at Athos and Marathon, the uprising in Egypt, and the hand of death, frustrated his plan, changed the course of history, and left the blank page on the rock to bear witness e silentio to the triumph of Hellas and the beginning of the downfall of Iran. But this is mere guesswork, idle fantasy, especially when one asks why Darius should have reserved the central and best position on the mountain for the last. All that we can say is that the general appearance of the place and the nature of its surroundings gives the impression of great antiquity. So much for the blank and unfinished wall space. We may now turn to the well-known tablet and sculptures that form the special subject of discussion.

As stated before, the great record of Darius is situated farther to the northeast, some four or five hundred paces removed from the central point. As one stands beneath and looks
three hundred feet upward within the rocky ravine, the general outline of the inscription and the figures of Darius, the two viziers, and the ten captive kings, come clearly into view. It is easy to understand why the natives regard the latter as 'the Nine Dervishes,' because the prostrate figure of Gaumata, with his upstretched hands, is not so easy to distinguish in the distance. As to Skunka with his high Scythian cap, I am inclined to agree with the view that his figure was added some time after the others were carved. Viewing the smoothed spaces, where the inscriptions are cut, the general arrangement could be made out, if one knew it beforehand, of the Old Persian in the center below the sculptures, the Neo-Elamitic to the left of the ledge, and the Babylonian above this and also above on the right. The familiar broad bands indicating by their peculiar grayish color where the water had streamed down and washed away portions of the inscription were all too plain. Even at the moment, water was oozing out from the upper part of one of the tablets and trickling over its face. It was evident at a glance that a telescope would be of no service in copying the lower part of the Old Persian text, because the projecting ledge cut off a portion of the inscription from below. It was necessary to get nearer. Climbing past huge boulders and fragments of fallen crags, which make the ascent of the gorge not easy, it was possible to get closer to where the tablets and sculptures are. The precipitous sides of the gorge form an angle; the Darius record is on the side that faces almost directly toward the east. The opposite wall or other face of the shaft-like ravine is so steep and rugged as to defy the climber's attempts to ascend it for the purpose of photographing the inscriptions from their own level. The natives assert that it is practically impossible to mount this side of the rocky couloir. The question came, how best to ascend to the inscriptions.

Having heard from a Persian friend that it would probably be best to be let down from above, I had previously studied some of the methods employed by the bird-nesters in the Hebrides in being lowered by ropes over craggy cliffs. A brief examination of the situation, however, showed that the only feasible approach was by climbing and being drawn up by cords. In less than an hour the preparations for the task were begun. Meshed Ali, the owner of the caravanserai nearest to the rock,
found five men who were ready to undertake the ascent. A sixth, Kuli, the guide and best of them all, was added later; and the procession with ropes and a ladder was soon under way toward the beetling precipice. Whatever may be said against the ladders, which proved of little use, nothing can be maintained against the Persian goat-hair ropes, for their quality is excellent. The cords that bound the luggage on the caravan pack-horse, supplemented by ropes furnished by the Bisitun guides, and firmly fastened about the chest with knots that only a Persian knows how to tie, were a pledge of surety against slipping and gave confidence for the climb. The stout protest of the guides against my riding boots was well founded, as the risks of the first day proved; but a happy substitute for these was later found in the native girahs, resembling rough tennis shoes, which were loaned by one of the Persian bystanders and firmly sewn upon the feet with a heavy pack-thread needle. All then was ready. The exciting task began.

The ascent of the first huge fissure in the side of the couloir, the clamber with torn hands and clothes along the brink of a precipitous crag, the tugging ropes that helped up the steep incline of the second rock, the scramble past the thorn bush that barred the way farther up, and the final tug and spring that brought to the edge of the ledge, together with xulī xūb 'very good,' and the encouraging word of the guides, 'no fear now, the danger is over'—will not readily be forgotten. Only when one has stood on the narrow ledge by the side of the inscriptions and looked out over the magnificent plain far beneath, and listened to the dull murmur of the stream below, as it bursts from the mountain's base, does one know how to appreciate Rawlinson's work. It may interest others, as it did me, to learn that he has carved his name in the stone, a few inches below the very inscriptions which he first made known to the modern world. This he was entitled to do, and one is almost inclined to append after his simple 'H. C. Rawlinson, 1844,' the words of ancient India's homage—namo namah.

In the words of Rawlinson, 'the climbing of the rock to arrive at the inscriptions, if not positively dangerous, is a feat at any rate which an antiquary alone could be expected to undertake.' On the first day it took a while to get somewhat used to the giddy height, so I devoted my attention to examining the gen-
eral condition of the rock, making notes, observing the sculptures, which one can study better, however, from below than from the ledge, and to getting the size of the cuneiform letters and of the tablets themselves. The four columns of the Old Persian record are each about six feet broad. The exact measurements in meters, if one cares to have them, are: 1st col. = 1.90; 2d col. = 1.94; 3d col. = 1.95 (approx.); 4th col. = 1.94 (approx.). The 5th column I did not measure, owing to the difficulty of its position. The place occupied by the Neo-Elamite (Scythian or Median) inscription is around a crag to the left of the Old Persian, as one faces the inscription, and my most reliable guide wished to quintuple the price for taking me there, while the Babylonian tablet on the overhanging ledge above to the left and to the right is absolutely inaccessible, as Rawlinson himself discovered, when all his guides failed him and he found only one Kurdish shepherd lad who would venture and who accomplished with difficulty the risky task of taking the squeezes of that inscription (see Archæologia, xxxiv (1850), pp. 73–75, and the Memoir of Sir Henry Rawlinson, by his brother, Canon George Rawlinson, pp. 156–157). On looking at the mass of scaped rock one wonders how the daring boy ever accomplished the perilous feat. Perhaps he still lives and can tell, but, as regards Rawlinson, I could not find the slightest recollection of him among the inhabitants of whom I inquired; but his special Persian guide died a couple of years ago at Hamadan, as I learned.

A study of the Old Persian tablets soon revealed the fact that the inscription has suffered much since the days of Rawlinson. Mention has already been made of the water that was oozing from the upper part of the inscription when first I saw it, so that it was wet in places for the space of several feet. Some photographs, which I succeeded in taking on the second day upon the ledge, make clearer what we have lost and are losing, and I fear that other and fresher proofs of this will be found when the rock is examined with more detail than was possible in my short week’s stay. But to one point I wish to call attention. I found that after the eye had become accustomed and had some practice, it was possible to restore lost letters and words by a careful examination of the indentures which the heavy stroke of the engraver’s chisel had left in carv-
ing the character. The head of the nail-shaped letter (for the Behistun letters look perhaps more like nails than like wedges), can still be discerned as a dot or hole in the washed away stone; and a knowledge of the cuneiform writing enables one to combine these dots into skeleton letters that often remove all doubt as to the true reading. I understood how Rawlinson must sometimes have done this, and more easily, because the stone had suffered less in his time, I believe, than to-day. In contrast to the disintegrated parts, however, stand those portions where the water has not mutilated and defaced the rock. Here, instead of the peculiar dull steel gray bands, we have the beautiful brown color of the inscription as perfect as when the stone-cutter of Darius laid his mallet aside. No granite tablet in Central Park or Trafalgar Square could be more perfect. It was interesting, moreover, to compare the style of the Behistun characters with the somewhat larger letters of the Ganj Namah inscription (Dar. Elv. and Xerx. Elv.) which I had been examining at Hamadan the week before. On Alvand the space between the lines was 4 inches and each letter averaged nearly 3 inches in height. At Behistun, where economy of space was necessary owing to the length of the inscription, the sharply drawn lines were about 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) or 1\(\frac{5}{8}\) inches apart, and the clear cut letters each about 1\(\frac{3}{4}\) inches (3\(\frac{3}{4}\) cm.) high. The brown shellac or varnish made them stand out in bolder relief and gave a fine finish to the whole, although I could see no traces of the ‘flakes’ of the cement, which Rawlinson speaks of as having sifted down upon the narrow ledge; nor again did I observe any evidence of letters being preserved by reason of this shellac withstanding the water when the rock itself had disintegrated beneath (JRAS. x. 193, O. S.). But this may be still another proof that the rock has suffered since Rawlinson’s time, and it is to be hoped that M. de Morgan will make casts of the entire inscription, as I learned in Persia it is the intention of his mission to do. My own attempt to take squeezes of certain words was a failure, due partly, among other causes, to the wind, which prevailed during the four days when I was up on the ledge, and was the stronger owing to the height and the peculiar formation of the rocky cut. This made me wish for more time so as to wait for other conditions. Owing to the physical strain of the ascent, for it requires some athletic
prowess, and owing to the exciting interest of the work, which is somewhat of a tax on the nerves, the element of time is necessary for accomplishing what one would wish to do. To this I may add that money is likewise an indispensable factor in the equation. But above all one must not be hurried. On the last day of my stay, for example, after I had finished all I could reach or clearly see, I begged the guides to let me use the ladder in order to examine some of the less certain readings in the upper part of the inscription. This they stoutly refused to do on account of the extreme danger from the high wind blowing at the time. And that afternoon I was obliged to start back to Hamadan. But although some points like these had to be left, I was glad to find I had been able to examine most of the doubtful passages and to prove in general the wonderful accuracy of Rawlinson’s transcript. To this I shall revert also below when I speak of the two or three photographs I took, the first I believe ever taken on the ledge and they were ‘snapped’ as I leaned out over the precipice, held by the guides, while focussing the camera and hastily taking the picture. Most of my time, however, was spent in copying, collating, or verifying the readings on the rock itself without resorting to my photographic apparatus. I may only add regarding the means of ascent in ancient times, that there is not the slightest trace of any thing of the kind to-day. If ever there was any, it can not have been of a permanent material. Regarding the descent, when I had been for hours on the cramped and narrow ledge, the going down seemed much more difficult than the ascent, and it was a joy each time to hear my faithful Persian servant, Safar, call out from below, ‘Now you are safe,’ when I passed the last dangerous place. The unloosening of the tight-bound ropes quickly followed with his aid. All had gone well.

So much for the incidental side. I now turn to the far more interesting and important matter of what I was able to note, verify or restore.

Bh. 1. 47, $\gamma_\iota\sigma_\epsilon\epsilon\tau\alpha$: the reading of each letter is quite clear.
Bh. 1. 51, $\pi\rho\tau\rho\pi\alpha\nu\tau\alpha\mu$: reading absolutely certain.
Bh. 1. 65, $\epsilon\theta\iota\beta\iota\epsilon\chi\epsilon\alpha$: barring this troublesome word, the entire line from $\epsilon\tau\iota\iota\gamma\iota\beta\alpha\tau\alpha\nu\epsilon\alpha\tau\iota\iota\delta\iota\iota\iota$ to $\tau\gamma\alpha\tau\iota\iota\gamma\pi\mu\tau\alpha\iota\iota$ $\hnu$ is quite as given in Spiegel and Weissbach and Bang,
except that the $g$ and $u$ of Gaumata's name are defaced, and the $y$ of $hyn$ is illegible, owing to the weathering of the rock. The question arises with regard to the much discussed word beginning with $v^i$ in the middle of the line. The latter part of the word is mutilated, but my memoranda show that we must accept two letters after -biš. The latter I have marked as 'apparently $â$', the former I noted at first as 'illegible,' but added afterwards 'probably right as $â$.' This shows the bearing of Rawlinson's 'extremely doubtful' as regards the $â$ at least. A photograph which I took of the first part of the word $v^iθ^h^iβ^iβ^iâ$ is interesting as showing that there is no $i$ inserted either before or after the $θ$. This is a matter of importance for future reference. I am not unmindful of the various places where this word has been discussed in the journals—the most recent is Gray, JAOS. xxiii. 56–60. [Regarding $abi$- or $abâ$- of $abicariš$, I unfortunately find on returning to America that I had made no special memorandum, but my inference from the absence of a note is that the text stands as first given by Rawlinson ($abi$-) and also by Weissbach and Bang, because I had the latter volume with me on the rock and should probably have recorded a variation if there had been one.]

Bh. 1. 66: my memoranda and 'snap shot' photographs of portions of l. 66 show that this line stands as given in the received editions, excepting the $â$ in $pâsanââ$ and the final $mcâ$ of $mâda[mcâ]$. But this is a matter of minor importance. My 'snap shots' also help to assure the accuracy of several other words in ll. 66–70; I only wish I had taken more photographs, despite the great difficulty in using the camera on the ledge.

Bh. 1. 86, $v^iθ^iγ^iκâunîâ (?)$ etc.: the first letter of this word is very uncertain, but the notes which I made upon it on two different days seem to confirm the accuracy of the initial $m$. My notes on the last occasion remark that the first part of the word looks more like $v^iγ^iγ^i$, and I twice sketched the remnants of the cuneiform characters with a special comment on the very scanty space between the $m$ (?) and the $γ$. My second drawing in pencil indicates more especially the illegibility of the $m$, which is inferable, however, from the partial dots that are faintly visible, but may be made out with difficulty. The same sketch seems to emphasize again the small space between it and the $γ$. [On returning to America and gaining access to my
books, I find that whereas in JRAS. x. p. xlvi. (O. S.) Rawlinson says 'there would appear to be a sufficient space for two letters between \( m \) and \( k \),' he afterwards corrects this statement (JRAS. xii. p. ii., O. S., Appendix; cf. Bartholomae, IF. xii. 132, note) by noting 'there is only one character wanting in the word \( ma-k\'am\). This later remark would agree precisely with my own independent observations.] As to the correctness of \( y \), which is not given in any of the editions except in the text of Weissbach and Bang and is marked doubtful by them, I have no hesitation. Both my pencil sketches of the cuneiform characters present a \( y \), and so do my memoranda. The last part, \(-k\'am\), of the word under consideration is perfectly clear, as my notes on each letter show. The only Avestan word that I can recall that is at all like this dubious \( mw-y\'k\'am\) is Av. \( mo\'akmant\) Ys. 38. 3; or is it beasts of burden, cf. Sk. 2 \( m\)\( y\)a? As to the reading of the two words \( ad\)\( m\) \( k\)\( ar\)\( m \), which stand before this provoking word, there is no uncertainty.

Bh. 1. 86, \( an\)\( i\)\( ga\)\( m \) \( n\)\( a\)\( b\)\( a\)\( r\)\( i\)\( m \): an examination and re-examination of the rock proves the certainty of this reading. The word-divider precedes the \( n \) and is all right. The \( n \) itself, while not clear, can be made out sufficiently well, for I examined it on two different occasions, in order to be perfectly sure. The \( s \) was found to be beyond question, and that without noticing the loss of any sign after it in the margin, as Foy, IF. xxxv. 36, would assume. The chiselling of \(-b\)\( a\)\( r\)\( i\)\( m \) in the following line shows that portion of the compound to be perfectly clear. Oppert’s original conjecture \( n\)\( a\)\( b\)\( a\)\( r\)\( i\)\( m \) would therefore be substantiated. I refrain here from entering into a discussion of the derivation of this much mooted word.

Bh. 1. 87, \( a\)\( n\)\( i\)\( g\)\( a\)\( g\)\( a\)\( m \) \( a\)\( s\)\( a\)\( m \) (sic) \( a\)\( n\)\( a\)\( g\)\( a\)\( m \): the form \( a\)\( n\)\( i\)\( g\)\( a\)\( g\)\( a\)\( m \), as given, is accurate, though the word is damaged. The reading \( a\)\( s\)\( a\)\( m .. \) of Spiegel, Kossowicz and Tolman, or \( t\)\( s\)\( m\)\( a\)\( k\)\( a\)\( m \) of Fr. Müller, WZKM. i. 222, xi. 253, and \( a\)\( s\)\( [\)\( m \) of Weissbach and Bang, though the latter were on the right track (cf. Gray, AJP. xxi. 21), must be abandoned. The word is simply \( a\)\( s\)\( a\)\( m \), 'horse' (acc. sg.). The \( m \) at the end is very distinct; the \( s \) is very plain; and the initial \( a \) is quite clear. To these comments my note-book further adds, ‘the word-divider after it is quite clear.’ Further conjecture therefore is unnecessary and I find my observation as to the \( m \)
receives additional substantiation from Rawlinson, who read ‘asam... anayam’, but he did not notice the word-divider after asam and consequently vocalized the word erroneously. The old difficulty, however, still remains with regard to the obliterated prefix of [..]anayam. Over each of the cuneiform letters of the legible part, -ā u n a y y a m , I have written ‘O. K.,’ i. e. ‘all right,’ in my note-book. But on examining the conjectural pati as prefix in W. and B. I have added a memorandum ‘pati extremely questionable; the initial letter can hardly be p at all.’ In fact, as my notes continue, ‘it is hardly possible to read the prefix,’ because the rock is so damaged. I appended a further note that the appearance of the word suggested rather [up]ānayam or [uz]ānayam. As to form and composition neither of these prefixes would be impossible, as I have since found on being able to consult the verbal prefixes under vruti in my Sanskrit dictionary. But such a restoration is quite uncertain, though I tried my best to assure it by examining the weathered stone again and again. Whatever the prefix may be, the sense seems clear when combined with the new reading asam (acc. sg. for plur., special for general) so that the sentence may be rendered aniyahā asam [up]ānayam ‘I brought up horse(s) for the rest (of the army).’ This interpretation is apparently also in accord with the Elamite version, cf. Weissbach, Achâmenideninschriften Zweiter Art, pp. 63, 64, and Foy, op. cit. xxxvii. 554.

Bh. 1. 88, exit avadā, in hoc loco; the reading of Spiegel, Kossowicz, Tolman, Weissbach and Bang, is wrong as far as avadā is concerned, and that too despite the fact that Spiegel, Keilinschriften, p. 11, n. 88, is following the authority of Rawlinson’s revision (JRAS. xii. p. ii., O. S., Appendix). The rock plainly gives avam at this particular point, even though avadā occurs often elsewhere in the inscriptions. The m of avam is clear, as is shown by my notes and sketch of the cuneiform characters. The r is not quite plain, but can be made out. Regarding the initial a, there is of course no doubt. In JRAS. x. 211, etc., Rawlinson originally read quite correctly ‘avam kārām’ ‘that army,’ just as in Bh. 2. 20, 21, 41, 46, etc. There was no occasion for his departing from that. It may be added by way of supplement that the letters -āru of the adjacent word [pad]āru are right, though the first part of the word is broken.
Bh. 1. 92–96: the t in naditabaira (1. 92) is legible, and may reasonably be removed from italics in our transcribed editions of the text. I made an incidental note also that āśa hadā (1. 93) is accurately recorded in our texts, and that akumā (1. 96), though defaced, is still legible. There were evidences also that the rock has suffered since the days of Rawlinson.

Bh. 2. 59–61: these three lines are precisely as given in Rawlinson and Spiegel. The lacuna indicated by Weissbach and Bang in ‘nā...acam karam’ (1. 61) is wrong and is evidently due to a misprint (not noticed by Bartholomae, IF. xii. 135). In printing, the two points...have presumably slipped in by mistake from the fragmentary -iyamanam in the next line. This note applies therefore merely to the W. and B. edition.

Bh. 2. 75 (cf. 2. 79), [ḍaṁma] avajam, etc.: at the beginning of this line the y of utāśa/iy, though faint, is nevertheless to be inferred from the indentures or dots that are still quite distinguishable. Recall what was said above on such dots as means of restoration. The obliterated word, read as ḍaṁma or ḍaṁma, yielded no new results and is equally illegible in both 2. 75 and 2. 79. At 2. 75 I have merely noted regarding the fragments of an internal letter that it ‘looks more like an h than it does like an ś,’ but the likeness between the two letters in the cuneiform character leads easily to misapprehension, and certainly ḍaṁma suits the sense, for the loss of an eye or both eyes, afflicted as a punishment in addition to other mutilations, is precisely what one notices or hears of in remote parts of Persia to-day as in the days of King Darius. The sight is destroyed by means of a red hot iron brought near to the ball—see, for example, A. H. S. Landor, Across Coveted Lands, ii. 191. This latter observation may throw some additional light on the meaning of avajam (1. 75). The reading of this word is beyond question. So also is duvarayāmāiy; but basta adāriy must now be put in italics in our editions, as I found both words illegible—still another proof of the damage done by the water since Rawlinson examined the rock some sixty years ago. Simply by way of record it may be worth adding that the last two words of this line, 1. 75 hararaśin kāra are in perfect condition at present.

Bh. 3. 87–91: some time was spent in trying to see if anything new might possibly be got out of the closing lines of the
third column, but the action of the water had so completely obliterated the words that even the two last words at the bottom of the tablet were less clear than they were to Rawlinson.

My notes show that āp of [uzmay]āpatiy may be inferred from the faint remnants of these two letters; the last part of the word is all right. The k of ākuriyaštām is apparently rightly read; I have added 'k is best,' but have repeated that it is much damaged.

Bh. 4. 46: so far as the first three words xōyaṇipiya vaśānā atra[mazdāhā] are concerned, the reading is as in the texts already cited; but I was able to make out the faint remnants of māṛḍā in the divine name. In the fourth word, like Rawlinson, I could only read the latter portion, or -maiya, so there is still an opportunity for conjecture, and the suggestion of Gray, JAOS. xxiii. 62, to read ovaīl-maiya, is as satisfactory a way of filling the lacuna as any. The word unīyaśiya, furthermore, I have marked with an 'O. K.' (all right) in my memoranda.

Bh. 4. 49, arah/yā parナ bāia . . . : the first two words are clear, but the verb is in bad condition. Its introductory part, however, can be made out and I have marked the d as 'O. K.,' but with the latter part I could do nothing.

Bh. 4. 50, maniy[ā][iy]: despite the syntactical grounds favoring a subjunctive we must accept a short ā, judging from the rock, unless my memoranda have failed me. On the margin of my text I have distinctly recorded, 'no space for long ā; what remains of the t comes directly after y.'

Bh. 4. 51, parīva xōyaṇ[iyā] . . . ātā āhu, etc.; the first two words are quite clear on the rock; the remnants of the third one I read as . . . ātā without looking at either of the printed texts of Sp. and W. and B., which I had with me. Rawlinson, followed by the later editors, gives only the final ā, whereas I distinctly made out . . . ātā independently, as stated. Weissbach and Bang conjecture [yāl]ā; but if one is to make a guess I should think that [ād]ātā (cf. Av. āzānu, 'noble born') or [ām]ātā (Bh. 1. 17), as an attribute to xōyaṇiyā, would be as good a way of filling the lacuna as any. With regard to the next word, I have noted: 'āhu can be made out on the stone without question.' The reading, therefore, is assured, and I have marked avātām and astiya as all right; but the maiya between them is no longer clear, although it may be inferred
from the appearance of the stone. Accordingly I have marked it 'O. K., inferable.'

Bh. 4. 53, dāraya[vaũ xša]yādīya nāram: the name of King Darius is apparently somewhat more damaged now than in Rawlinson's time; but that is a minor matter. More important is a memorandum regarding the absence of any break before nāram. In my notes on the margin I have drawn a circle around the dots in the W. and B. edition, to indicate that the lacuna is to be struck out, and have added a definite memorandum, 'omit the space; the word nāram comes after the word-divider that followed [xša]yādīya.' Foy's conjecture of adā, KZ. xxxv, 34, n. 1, is therefore needless.

Bh. 4. 64, naiy zirakara āha[m]: the last part of naiy is much broken, but the reading appears to be all right. On examining zirakara I first noted 'not wholly clear, as the stone is somewhat marred, but still z u r k r does seem all right.' On re-examining it the following day in a better light, I added that the reading is confirmed. [On looking up Rawlinson I find that he gives the cuneiform quite clearly, which again bears out the idea that the rock has suffered since.] As to āha[m] I have marked 'all right' over āḥa and have added 'probably right' over what can be made out of the final m. The printed editions have the same.

Bh. 4. 64, [naiy adam na]inaiy taumā: I was not able to make anything out of the missing letters that are indicated here by being enclosed in brackets, and I wrote 'absolutely illegible to me' over [adam]. But on the last day in the strong sunlight I corrected this, by a supplementary remark that 'I fancied I could discern the a quite clearly, and remnants of the crossbar and upper parts of a d, together with a fragment of the horizontal wedge and possible traces of the indenture, caused by the deep strokes in the nail-heads of an m.' This therefore is something towards assuring the accuracy of [adam]. Regarding the first i in [na]inaiy I have noted that it is 'right but broken badly.' As to taumā there is no doubt. The reading is quite accurate, as in all our texts. The next three words, and those following, called for much study, the results of which will now be given.

Bh. 4. 64, upariy ākṣṭām upariy: I spent much of my last two days in examining this passage, which was one of the
incentives for my going to Behistun, because of the bearing of the whole sentence on the question of the religion of Darius as a Zoroastrian and the faith of the Achaemenian kings, which I have discussed in JAOS. xxi. 169, 172–175. I returned to the line again and again, studied each word under different lights, sketched it, and made rubbings, so far as I could, or dared, lest the stone in any way should become injured. Regarding the two \textit{upariy}'s, the first is much damaged and is difficult to read; but on the last day I was fortunate in having bright sunlight, so that I could examine it well and compare it again and again with the similar word at the end of the line. I found distinctly that it is \textit{upariy} (with \textit{v}) not \textit{apariy} as has been suggested (e. g. KZ. xxxv, 45, n. 1). This first \textit{apariy} therefore remains unchanged, as in Rawlinson. I came to like results as to the second \textit{upariy}, which is more distinct. Over its \textit{v} in my text and over part of \textit{p} and over \textit{y} I have written in my book ‘all right.’ Below the part \textit{pur} I have marked ‘much defaced.’ But on the following day when the sun was bright the word came out quite clearly and I appended the note, it is ‘all right.’ Therefore the second \textit{upariy} must likewise stand, as in Rawlinson.

I was most anxious, however, to examine the word between these two and to find whether it is \textit{abištām} (R.), \textit{abštām} (R.), or \textit{ārštām} (Foy's conjecture)—see my remarks in the article already referred to, JAOS. xxi. 169, 172–175. Great care and attention were spent in the examination, and after working on the individual letters I made it a point to turn to something else and then to return again and again to verify my memoranda and my sketches. In the first place, there is no \textit{i} in the word; any such reading as \textit{abištām} must therefore be dropped. We have therefore to do either with \textit{abštām} or with Foy's conjecture \textit{ārštām}, the point being merely whether our text has a \textit{b} or an \textit{r}, because each of the other letters \textit{aštām} is perfectly clear, as my memoranda again and again show. The whole question between the two mooted letters is whether we have the slight horizontal mid-bar of the cuneiform $\Xi$ or simply the two parallel wedges of the $|\Xi|$. I must mention at once that the shape of the cuneiform character for \textit{r} on the Behistun rock does not exaggerate the middle of the three horizontal strokes so much as in the type of our printed editions. I noticed this particularly and my photographs taken on the ledge
also bring it out. Therefore the middle wedge is naturally less prominent, and when defaced by the action of the water, as this word has been, it becomes very faint. A moment of uncertainty also arises as to whether it be an intended indenture or an accidental dot, because of the peculiar brownish mottled appearance of the somewhat porous stone when it is exposed to the disintegrating water. But each time I returned to the word I became surer that Foy is right and r not b is to be read. I examined the letter in connection with the other r’s in the vicinity, when these had suffered from the water, and always with the same result. I believe therefore that ar’P,tam i.e. ārātam for ārātātam ‘Arshītāti, Uprightness, Rectitude’ is to be read with Foy and he is to be heartily congratulated on his shrewd conjecture. At the same time, I would suggest the need of caution in making further conjectures. The days spent up on the ledge at Behistun have made me more conservative than ever, and in cases of doubt I should generally rely on the faithful Rawlinson until the rock itself be examined.

Bh. 4, 65, ...śakaurim etc.: the text in Spiegel, Kossowicz and Tolman, partly following Rawlinson, gives upariy/mām naīy śakaurim ...... hurvatam zu ra akūram; Oppert, Le Peuple et la Langue des Mīdes, p. 183, writes it upariyāyam naīy urārim naīy dravatam zu ra akūram; Fr. Müller, WZKM. i. 60 reads uparijā/jāma naīy śakaurim [naīy a]hurātam zu ra akūram; Weissbach and Bang present upariy āyām naīy śakaurim [naīy] ...... hurvatam zu ra akūram; Foy, KZ. xxxv. 45 first suggested a correction of the text, i.e. ‘in upariyāyam zu verbessern,’ and he altered śakaurim into šukūrim, and hurватam into d’unškuram (on which see Bang, IF. viii. 292); Bartholomae, IF. xii. 130 made the radical conjecture naīy d’urārim naīy durvatam; finally Foy KZ. xxxvii. 557, shifted his ground and made a new guess, dušurim ... [ai] muturātam. I can only add that with regard to śakaurim suggestions for altering the text may be practically abandoned. The stone plainly gives śu’ kū a r’ u (’r) m’u. Regarding the first three letters, šu’ kū u, there is no doubt, as a repeated examination of the word proved. The r’ though is very unclear, but the holes or dots of the defaced wedges would allow an r. The same is true of i, which looks somewhat like an a, but the dots favor an i. The final letter m is marked in my notes as ‘even
less clear, but the dots would not be against m; and on a third examination I became still surer of the m. I added a remark to the effect that the passage must have suffered since Rawlinson’s time.

As to the first part of the line, which is variously given as mām naiy, or ḏyām naiy, etc., I confess that when I first read the fragmentary second element I marked it as agreeing with naiy in the transcribed text which I had with me. But on re-examining the damaged fragment I recorded in my note book that ‘instead of ḏyām naiy, it looks more like a long word ending in -k”iy or -j”iy—the former, -h”iy, is however better, and it seems so to be clear.’ Later I added again ‘it does not look like naiy.’ This makes the question of the reading naiy just a bit uncertain. [On returning to America and gaining access to Rawlinson’s draft of the cuneiform characters, I am interested in finding that he also has -h”iy, and he must likewise have had the impression of a longer word as his y”...c”h”iy” seem to prove. Yet in his later revision (JRAS. xii. pp. viii, O. S. Appendix) his cuneiform text runs Ṛ”r”iy” m”r”um” n”iy””, with which Spiegel and the other editors have operated. With such a reading I could only understand uparīy mām to mean ‘beyond measure’ and compare (as I did some years ago) Avestan aevi mām, yuβi-mām, Vd. 5.60, 61; Yt. 5. 127.] But I must refer again to my impression of the defaced word, which was similar to Rawlinson’s original impression also.

n[naiy]: regarding the other word after sākūrim, I have noted ‘the n of naiy (?) after sākūrim can be made out by the dots.’ But now, if we begin to hesitate about the naiy before sākūrim, I begin to feel less sure that the word after it is naiy despite the sense. But perhaps I may return to this some day again.

Bh. 4. 65, [...pursam: for this much debated word, formerly read ..huvatam, etc., as noted above, I have now some new material to offer. The text is indeed much mutilated, but each of the letters u r t m is legible, although the final m is in bad condition. On studying the first part of this word, which the editions give as .. huvatam, etc., I noticed that instead of an h as is commonly supposed, we have another letter, a character that looks more like ṣ. On looking closer, it became perfectly clear to me that the supposed ṣ was not ṣ at all but apparently
Although this might possibly be a mistaken reading for \( n \)\(^{\prime}\), the uncertainty being due to the resemblance between the characters in the original cuneiform if the horizontal bars are somewhat marred. The sketch made in my notes, however, looks precisely like \( n \). A further examination of the damaged part revealed an apparent \( m \) preceding this, so that we may assume that the word began with \( m \). [After coming to this conclusion it was interesting to me to consult my PWh. and find in RV. 2.106 *manuyah\ ‘wie Menschen, wie es Menschen ziemt,’ which may possibly be of some indirect help in throwing light on this difficult passage. Perhaps we might be tempted still further to recall likewise Av. *manavain\( \text{im} \) (i.e. *\( \text{av} \) for \( \text{av} \) in Avestan writing), but such a suggestion might be hazardous.]

Bh. 4. 64, *zura akunavam\, etc.: each letter of these two words is legible, and the same is true with regard to each of the words that follow in this line.

Bh. 4. 66, *\( \text{v}^{\prime}\)\( \text{b} \)\( \text{y} \)\( \text{d} \): this is rightly read, although the \( \text{v} \)\( ^{\prime}\) is ‘broken’, but O. K., and it is ‘hard to be sure of the final \( \text{a} \)’ although it is ‘probably correct,’ as I have noted in my text.

Bh. 4. 68, *hya apram \( \text{a} \)\( \text{h} \)\( \text{y} \), etc.: these first three words of the line are weathered and defaced, but they are rightly given in the texts. The same may be said of ‘italic’ *\( \text{mu} \)\( \text{r} \)\( \text{i} \)\( \text{y} \) of the editions, but the word is inferable from the stone. With regard to *\( \text{d} \)\( \text{r} \)\( \text{u} \)\( \text{y} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{m} \)\( \text{v} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{m} \)\( \text{v} \), I have recorded ‘weathered but O. K.’ The subjunctive *\( \text{a} \)h\( \text{a} \)\( \text{t} \)\( \text{i} \)\( \text{y} \) stands as in the editions; so does *\( \text{h} \)\( \text{y} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{m} \), but it is weathered. Regarding [\( \text{a} \)\( \text{t} \)\( \text{u} \)\( \text{r} \)\( \text{a} \)], the whole word, except the internal elements, is ‘so weathered as to be practically illegible.’

Bh. 4. 69, *\( \text{a} \)\( \text{h} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{t} \)\( \text{i} \)\( \text{y} \) avai\( \text{y} \) m\( \text{a} \) dau\( \text{t} \)\( \text{a} \) avai\( \text{y} \), etc.: the first and third words are all right; so also is the first avai\( \text{y} \), although it is hard to read. The last part of dau\( \text{t} \)\( \text{a} \) is scarcely legible, though it may be inferred from the appearance of the stone. The second avai\( \text{y} \) is illegible. The long word *\( \text{a} \)\( \text{h} \)\( \text{i} \)\( \text{r} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{t} \)\( \text{u} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{d} \)\( \text{i} \)\( \text{y} \) is ‘all right, but partly hard to read.’ The imperative pars\( \text{a} \) is ‘almost illegible.’

Bh. 4. 71, 73 (87), *vikan\( \text{a} \)\( \text{h} \)\( \text{y} \): ‘so best with the letter k, not s.’

Bh. 4. 76, *avat\( \text{a} \)\( \text{i} \)\( \text{y} \) avaramaz\( \text{l} \)\( \text{a} \): the first word is ‘apparently all right but almost illegible;’ the second, or divine name, is ‘inferable;’ as to maz\( \text{a} \)\( \text{n} \)\( \text{a} \)\( \text{m} \)\( ? \) of W. and B., I have written ‘illegible’ above it.
Bh. 4. 77, vikanāh[i]diš: the $k$ is 'fairly clear' and 'best read so.' The $[i]$ is 'omitted on the stone.'

By this time the westering sun—for one learns in Persia to live by the sun—warned me that I must descend for the last time from the rocky height in order to start once again for Hamadan and begin my journey to Southern Persia. I was loath to leave, but leave I had to at last if I were to carry out my plans for seeing Isfahan, Persepolis and Shiraz, and for visiting the Zoroastrians at Yazd before going to the capital and journeying thence to Merv, Bokhara and Samarkand. On reaching the plain once more there was an opportunity to urge the inhabitants of Bisitun charitably to guard their inscription and to tell them of the divine blessings which King Darius invoked upon all such, and of the curses that were assured if it were injured. Time now was up and I left the scene of the great inscription on Friday afternoon, April 17, feeling painfully aware that I might have accomplished more if my time had been more and my means greater, but happy in heart at the thought of having possibly contributed something toward our better knowledge of the Behistun text, and inspired by the hope that an opportunity may in some way be offered me to go again and complete such parts as had to be left undone at the moment.

Col. I.

Line 12. Si-Gar "To establish abundance;" feast day of Gula on the 12th of Ajaru, about May 1st. Gula is identified with Bau, a Babylonian goddess whose festival was celebrated on New Year's Day, March 20th. The fruitful season beginning later in Assyria than in Southern Babylonia, the original home of Bau, her feast day seems to have been changed to a later date in the season. A temple was built to Gula at Kalhu by Ašurnaširpal (I. Rawl. 23).

1. 37. ušadgilu pānā-a zanin ešētīšu. I turned my attention to caring for their temples.

1. 46. ḫanšu ana ammatu še-an īšu ina abinnišu. Five cubits tall the grain grew in its thriftiness.

1. 48. ēšir ešāru napaš ḫu Nisaba. The grain grew tall, the corn thrived.

1. 49. kajān nūḫnabu gipāru. The fields put forth verdure unceasingly.

1. 50. ḫulu šatešur ina talidti (ından). The cattle were unfailing in their bearing.

1. 66. emāšī-ia širāti. Singular noun with plural adj.; see Delitzsch, Gram., p. 328.

1. 121. inidiku ramānešu umma. They plotted for themselves thus—

1. 126. ai ībbāši ina birimmu šamumma bēlam. There shall be no other lord among us.

1. 127. ana kitišunu. To keep their compact. ušziḫu šanīḫu. 132–3. (mamit Ašur) šabtu kantušu u-ba-a-i-na. The oath of Ašur exacted satisfaction for the good done them. The stem

1 These Notes were originally intended for the second volume of the Series of Semitic Texts edited by Professors Gottheil and Jastrow. Owing to lack of space this material had to be taken from the Glossary, and is collected and published here by the kindness of the editorial committee of this Journal.—S. H. L.
II. 1. of ḫaḫu is used with ūnītu in the sense of ‘exacting punishment equal to the good done the faithless one by the wronged,’ a Semitic idea of divine retribution common also in the O. T. On the use of ḫatu as a particle of advantage or disadvantage, see the Glossary.

Col. II.

l. 9. adu-ē eli ša maḫri ūṣatir. I rendered his oaths stronger than before.
l. 21. īlik šinat maššišu. His fateful night (i. e. death) came upon him.
l. 42. ša 2500 biti maštukišānu. Whose weight was 2500 hundred weight. bitu √зависим.
l. 57. ana ānā tuklati. For serving in concubinage.
l. 60. ma'anne = ma'attu; see ma’anu.
l. 74. šīrūšu; uṣu for šu; see Delitzsch, Gram., p. 135.
l. 95. ša nibirti tanti. See Del., Gram., p. 329.
l. 100. ànu šuttu (√קָטָן) anniti ùmunn. On the day that he saw that dream. See √קָטָן in Glossary.
l. 112. (rakhušu) úšaršu bāštītu. He stopped sending an ambassador.
l. 113. iḫbu šibbu. Pride impelled him.
l. 117. iššimma. It came to pass.
l. 121. ỉpšat limuttim ša ina nīḫ kāti-ia ilāni tikli-ia ina pan abi bāni-šu ušupriku. Because of the retribution which the gods, my helpers, at my request, hurled against his father [he sent greetings]. ỉpšat limuttim, casus pendens.
l. 124. aḇá-a tarurma limuttu īššakīn ina pānī-šu. My father thou didst curse, and misfortune was prepared before him.
l. 125. la-šu-ṭa = lu ašṭa. Truly I will bear thy yoke.
l. 129. ittallak for attallak.

Col. III.

l. 26. ēmissu = ēmīdu.
l. 32. šipīr ištarāti. The sending of the goddesses, i. e. mission of the goddesses.
l. 53. On this line see יִשְׁפּ in Glossary.
l. 65. Ur-Bi. Ur = mitmaru; Bi = ina. amēl Ur-Bi = amēl mitmaru (Del., Gram., p. 220 note). ‘One who works with
another;' hence 'ally.' Read amēt mundaḥiru, friend, ally. 
Translate: With his allies, my foes of the people of Gambulu.
1. 78. (ā) ḫunuš. He forgot the kindness which I showed him.
1. 80. ēlī ina šārītu itammā tubbātī. Outwardly with his lips he spoke good.
1. 90. ina paššāri takni-e uzizzunuti (√ҧtı). I set them down at a table of carefully prepared dishes.
1. 93. adī. While,
1. 94. wūzzu. Remained (√ҧtı).
1. 100. ina kati-ia. Against me. Dative of disadvantage.
1. 119. ina šat mūši ūtūl. See stem II. 2 of ḫu in Glossary.
1. 123. ippašu zāłātu. [Whosoever has plotted evil against Aṣurbanipal] stirring up hostility. On the Circumstantial Present see Del., Gram., p. 364.
1. 138. ītba ana kitišu. And [who] went into alliance with him.

Col. IV.

1. 15. aḥurrā. A private soldier; see ḫu in Glossary.
1. 18. A second time—ikbi w̓ Ummanigaš ki unaššik kakkaru—he spoke the same thing in regard to Ummanigaš when he kissed the ground.
1. 29. kakkaru uṣēšir ina ziknīšu. He touched the earth with his beard; see ḫu. For a different rendering, see Del., HW, stem III. 1 of ḫu.
1. 30. manzaš ūm mašāri .isHidden. He followed close after my chariot wheels.
1. 32. aššu ēreš dinišu. That I would render him justice.
1. 42. ūa itti ū iššaknu. Who were brought into alliance with Sammuges.
1. 56. napšatunu pannūšun tēkir. Their life was dear to them.
1. 63. kāti-ia = ina kāti-ia; see Del., Gram., p. 222 e.
1. 66. amē šābē šuatušu sillatu pāšnu ūa ina eli, etc. As to these soldiers, because of the insolence of their tongues in that they spoke insolence against Aṣur my god, etc. Two cases of casus pendens; one, šabe, introducing the thing concerned, and the other, sillatu, giving the cause; cf. II.∗∗.
1. 70. sitti nīče baltušun ina kēdi lamassu ša Sin-aḫi-irba ina lībbi ispuru šuunu anaku ina kispišu nīče šātunu ina lībbi espun. The rest of the people I took away alive; at the place
of the bull-god where Sennacherib was slain, now in memory
of his death I slew these people there. Cf. II Kings xix. 36.
  1. 86. īnā šipīr šippūtī. By commissioning the priests.
  1. 118. šu allakû. As I was going. Circumstantial Present;
  cf. III. 11.
  1. 122. imkutanimmu for imkutanimma; see Del., Gram.,
p. 91 (end).
  1. 127. ellamû-a. See 𒎴 in Glossary.

Col. V.

  1. 23. šu aḫpuru rešētu. In that I sent him assistance.
  1. 26. He said to himself: “The peoples of Elam are returned to
  peace īnā pan Aššur šinu šimmu irdubûnimma with
  Assyria; let some here, some there enter [and plunder Elam].”
  1. 41. īnā taḫarti-ia šu šulammē. Upon my prosperous
  return. See Del., Gram., p. 329, 2.

Col. VI.

  1. 17. bešē ḫarabī šimānû (ššDD) mimma epēḫ tāḫāzi. War-
  like weapons, the proper equipment, whatever is used in battle.
  1. 30. ṯu Šušinak ʾīlī širiṣṭišum šu aššu īnā puṣrûti. Šušinak,
  their god of wisdom, who dwells among mysteries. Šušinak =
  Elamite Ninib, on the basis of II. R. 57 c, 49; cf. also II. 60 a,
  10 and b. 9. Ideograph suḫ-šēš. Suh = rankatu. ṯu ša
  rankatū = Ninib, i. e. ‘God of the priestly function.’ Šēš =
  paššu ‘to anoint;’ hence ṯu Suh-Šēš = ‘God of the anointing
  of oil.’
  1. 63. aṭī ṣa bāš-e. Until there were none.
  1. 64. annā ana zakiki. 𒗕 with ana ‘to give over to.’
  1. 87. amēl mukil. See 𒖍 in Glossary.
  1. 87. amēl šilûn-kīšāṭī. Id. amēl 3 Ḥu-Si. Ḥu-Si = kīš-
  šatu, ‘a group, company;’ probably the name of a company of
  a certain number. Hence amēl 3 kīšāṭī = ‘man over three
  companies.’ In II R. 31, 61 f amēl 3 šu amēl 3 Ḥu-Si occurs, which
  must mean amēl šilûn amēl šilûn-kīšāṭī, i. e. ‘man over 3 cap-
  tains of 3 companies = ‘captain of 9 companies;’ i. e. captain of
  three subalterns each of whom has three ‘kīššatu’ under him;
  cf. centurion and decurion. Translate: ‘captain of 3 com-
  panies.’
1. 101. *rigim amelatu kibis alpani,* a šeni šisit alala šāhta uzumma ugārēšu. The clamor of men, the tread of the feet of sheep and cattle, the sweet song of gladness, I made to depart from their fields. On genitive alala for alalī, see Del., Gram., 66. alalī for elēlu due first to change of first ā to ē under influence of the disappearing guttural (\(\sqrt{\text{\text{N}}}\)), and then ā is deflected to ē upon the principle of vowel harmony. See Del., Gram., 34 γ.

1. 109. *ašar la simātšu.* A place not becoming her.

1. 112. *taṣarat itāšan tuṣaddgilu pānā-a.* She entrusted me with the restoration of her divine self.

1. 120. *ḩarrānum ša ullaš libbi.* A way causing the heart to rejoice. ša here is the sign of the genitive.

**Col. VII.**

1. 15. See kiḫullu.

II. 16–27. šiṭ Nābu-bēl-šumē már már Marduk-apal-idānī ša ʾištā-idā-ittakīnu... amēl már šipri-ia šiṭ šēmul N’.....u-na’ir. As regards N’, grandson of M’, who sinned, threw off my yoke, went to U’, etc., my messenger I sent concerning the fetching of [this] N’.

1. 32. Cf. note on 4, 56.

1. 105. *ve’uṭṣiṣna epēši.* To exercise rule over them.

1. 125. *ediššīšu innabīt.* See \(\sqrt{\text{\text{N}}}\) in Glossary.

**Col. VIII.**

1. 6. *ṭenšu.* See tēmu \(\sqrt{\text{\text{N}}}\).

1. 37. *ekulu šerē ḛanimš.* They ate each other’s flesh.

**Col. IX.**


1. 48. *ina 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) šikli 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) šikli kaspi ʾišannu ina bab maḥiri.* They fix the price at 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) to \(\frac{3}{4}\) shekel at the trading gate.

1. 50. *šutammu ina niša amēl urkītu-mu ina ḣabē amēl zikaru ktru ina kīššu ša ukīn ina ṣina jumma ṣu akāmu amēlati.* The builder bought camels and men for his building, the water-carrier
for his vessels, the gardener for his orchard which he had set out.

1. 66. imu eli 7 minu mušninakāti éniku. [They] suckled at seven suckling mothers; see √nī.

1. 83. urrassippa for urrasiha.

1. 101. ikšassu √šēn.

1. 102. ārashā √rēn.

1. 110. ša nīrib mušnukti adnāti nabū zikirā. Whose name is called ‘The entrance of the Throng of Nations.’

Col. X.


1. 32. ušūpā √šūm.

1. 39. asazīnu-inni √nē.

1. 45. ḫudānappar ṣēlu. He sent acknowledgment of my royal power.

1. 47. He sent saying, ‘let there be peace to the king my lord.’

1. 63. mār barrāti-ia isṣāru. They guarded me while I was heir-apparent to the throne.

1. 71. imu <majal> ša šēri. Upon my bed in the morning. Cf. ʿsu ša šadādi, ʿsu ša sillī. ša with gen. in the sense of a descriptive gen. of material, time, etc.

1. 79. tamāl šātu. As to the terrace; cactus pendens.

1. 92. dupkikku is used here as a synonym of alī, ‘basket,’ evidently something used for carrying brick, mortar, etc. Dup =‘table,’ šikku, a Semitic root meaning ‘high,’ hence ‘a high board;’ probably a flat mortar board carried on top of the head and supported on a stout framework of cane which fitted the head like a hood; then the name may have been given to the hood itself. Cf. a bas-relief of Ur-Nina, De Sarzec, Dec., pl. 2 bis, and KB., vol. III, pt. 2, p. 4, l. 55. A sign of slavery and equated with šēdarru, V R. 32, 4.

1. 97. ušarrīq īpbēṭēn. I enlarged its proportions.

1. 98. šu gušār ūtu erini ṣirīti tarbit (nērē) šadu Sisara šadu Libnana uṣṭrī ṣila. Tall cedar beams that grew on Mts. Sisara and Lebanon I reared upon it [i.e. upon the taḫlabu].
108. **en[u 8a muššudī mā’dīš.** (A great garden I planted) that it might bear fruit abundantly. **Muššudū:** Id. Sa. Sa Corpus of Su=māšadu. Br. 7174 muššudū=Su. Ur. Ur. [Ra].
Ur = pen of animals. Šu = du’uzu life producing [Tammuz]. Šu = also membrum virile [Erdman]. Ur. Ur intensive of Ur; Šu. Ur. Ur = produce in great numbers (of animals first and then in general for plants, etc.).

1. 108. **ina zarar takni-e.** In a panoply arranged with this inscription, "ana arkat, etc."

1. 111. **anḫussu buddiš.** See ṢʾR, in Glossary.
The Hymn to Bēlit, K. 257 (HT. 126–131).—By J. Dyneley Prince, Professor in Columbia University, New York City.

This text, which is one of the most difficult of the Sumerian hymns, has, so far as I am aware, never been published before. Professor Haupt made his version of the inscription from a copy furnished him by Mr. Pinches, which Professor Haupt carefully compared with the original text written in Babylonian characters (see HT. 131). The version in HT. is given for the convenience of the student in Assyrian transliteration. The British Museum has several duplicates of K. 257; viz., K. 5132, K. 4968, and K. 4634 (see ZK. ii. 69). I regret that I have been unable to obtain copies of these texts, which might shed some additional light on the interpretation of the hymn. Similar texts are K. 2004 and the inscription published in Cuneiform Texts from Babylonian Tablets in the British Museum, Pt. xv, plates 24–25; see Pinches's remarks in PSBA., Nov. 12, '02, 307. The hymn reminds us also of Reisner's Sumerian Hymns in the Berlin Museum (in "Mittell. aus d. oriental. Sammlungen," Teil 10, Berlin, 1896). The student should also compare Dr. Banks's Dissertation Sumerisch-Babylonische Hymnen, Leipzig, 1897.

The hymn K. 257 is important from two points of view. It presents a philologically interesting text in the Eme-sal dialect, whose existence and phonetic characteristics were first pointed out by Professor Haupt (Nachr. d. kön. Ges. d. Wiss. zu Göttingen, 1880, 513–541 and HT. 133 ff.), and it affords a field for speculation with regard to its mythological concepts. Weissbach in his Sumerische Frage, 52 ff., however, mentions the names of some Assyriologists who suspected the presence of the Eme-sal dialect of Sumerian before Haupt definitely established the fact of its existence. In view of the peculiar character of this hymn and in spite of the difficulties under which I have labored because of my inability to procure copies of the duplicate texts, I venture to present a translation and philological exposition which may pave the way for future investigations in this inter-
esting field. I am indebted to Professor Haupt for valuable bibliographical material in connection with this inscription. Mr. S. II. Langdon has joined me during the past session at Columbia University in a special study of K. 257 and similar texts, and I owe to him several suggestions which have been duly mentioned in the following treatise.

It is now generally accepted that *Eme-sal* is the non-Semitic designation for a variation of the Sumerian language (cf. Hommel, *Semiten* i, 280; Weissbach, *op. cit.*, 175). These texts in variant form were called "Akkadian" by Hommel, Delitzsch, Zimmerm, etc., and "Sumerian" by Haupt. It is unnecessary here to enter into the details of the Sumerian dialect question, which have been admirably set forth by Weissbach in his *Sum. Frage*, 55–61. The fact seems to be that in the non-Semitic texts *Eme-ku* means *Sumer*, i.e. Babylonia, another synonym for which is *Kingi*, which is given as the equivalent of *Sumer* especially, and of "land" in general, as they naturally regarded *Sumer* as the land *par excellence* (Br. 9662). This application of *Eme-ku* is now definitely established by Bezold's discovery of the fragment 81–7–27, 130 (*Z.A.* iv. 434), i.e. *eme-ku=li-ku-an Šume-ri* "the language of *Sumer*." There can be no doubt that *ku* in this combination was considered to be a distinctive designation, either racial or descriptive. This happy discovery makes it perfectly patent, moreover, that the Assyrians both knew and mentioned the Sumerian language. Owing to the undoubted distinction between *Eme-ku* and *Eme-sal*, I have used in this article the former term to denote the ordinary "classical" Sumerian (indicated by EK. and the *Eme-sal* by ES. in the following exposition). Weissbach (*op. cit.* 176/7), in order to connect the Assyrians' Sumerian language with the non-Semitic idiom which we know as Sumerian, points out that the word *Kingi*, as already indicated above, is synonymous with *Sumer*. The inhabitants of *Kingi=Šumer* were therefore "the Sumerians," and the language which belongs to *Kingi* was "Sumerian." Since, then, this *Kingi* always appears in the non-Semitic column of bilingual cuneiform inscriptions, we are justified in naming the idiom of this non-Semitic column "Sumerian." Thus far Weissbach.

Inasmuch as *ku* in the combination *Eme-ku=lišan Šumer* has evidently a distinctive sense, either racial or characteristic, we
may assume that \textit{sal} in \textit{Eme-sal} had a similar signification. The whole difficulty lies in the correct interpretation of \textit{ku} and \textit{sal}, for neither of which terms can we find a satisfactory racial or geographical sense. \textit{Ku} has a number of more or less exalted Assyrian equivalents, such as \textit{bēlu} "lord," Br. 10525 (cf. also Br. 10535="the god Marduk"); \textit{rubu} "prince," Br. 10547 \textit{passim}, (cf. \textit{ku}="the god Sin," Br. 10549); secondary meanings are \textit{tannu} "to adjure," Br. 10555; \textit{tašritu} "dedication," Br. 10556, and \textit{fennu} "counsel, wise speech," Br. 10557. The most characteristic meanings of \textit{sal}, on the other hand, are "woman" \textit{zininšu}, Br. 10920, and \textit{umu} "prudentum muliebre," Br. 10919 and 10927 (\textit{sal-la}=\textit{qalatu}, mug, \textit{sal}). Are we then to assume that \textit{Emesal} was a speech peculiar to women as distinct from \textit{Eme-ku}, the language of the lords, or princes, or the speech of wise counsel, i. e. the language of the higher laws and religion? The \textit{Emesal} texts are many of them devout hymns like K. 257, showing a high religious tone. Why should these have been in the "women's language," as Haupt names the \textit{Emesal}, \textit{Sinfithbericht} 22f.? It is, of course, possible to cite parallels for a "women's tongue" among other peoples. Thus, the Carib women of the Antilles used a different language from that of their husbands, while the Eskimo women of Greenland to this day have certain distinctive pronunciations (cf. Sayce, \textit{Introduct. to the Science of Language}, i. 205). In spite of this fact, however, we find no allusions in the Assyro-Babylonian inscriptions to such a state of affairs, which could only arise among very primitive peoples accustomed to long hunting trips, during which the women were necessarily separated from the men for months at a time. We must suppose that so soon as a higher civilization prevailed, as was the case in the very earliest days in the Euphrates valley, such a sexual speech-differentiation would disappear within a single generation. On this account I cannot think that the sex of the original speakers of \textit{Eme-ku} and \textit{Emesal} had anything to do with the nomenclature of these idioms.

It is much more probable that \textit{Eme-ku} "language of the lords" or "princes" or "language of counsel," and \textit{Emesal} "tongue of the women" were applied to the respective speech-forms in a purely metaphorical sense at a comparatively late date. I suggest that \textit{Eme-ku} "the noble tongue" was so
called owing to its stronger system of phonetics, and that Eme-
sal "the womanly speech" simply alluded to the softer intona-
tions of this dialect, which, for example, avoided the hard g-
sound as much as possible, changing it to m, b and d. The
Eme-sal also preferred the umlaut ę to u, changed z to ś, s to z,
and ū to l, etc. (see Haupt's mastery treatment of this subject,
HT. 134, 2.). It was no doubt owing to its phonetic softness
that the ES. dialect seemed to the early Babylonian scribes
especially suitable for penitential hymns.

In the meantime, until further light comes to us from the
monuments, I fully concur with Weissbach, op. cit., p. 177,
that the dialectic non-Semitic Eme-sal should simply bear this
name and not any term which commits us to a definite theory.

Any tribal or geographical distinction between Eme-kù and
Eme-sal has yet to be discovered. The equation Eme-kù = lišān šumerì "the language of šumer" or Babylonia, does not
imply that Eme-sal was not also spoken in šumer!

At first sight the subject matter of K. 257 would seem to
indicate that the goddess Bēlīt, to whose praise the hymn is
devoted, was a bi-sexual deity. In 22–24 obv., she is made to
exclaim: "I am Bēl (Enlîlû) and Bēlīt (Ninîlû)." So the
Assyrian line 24, which seems to me to give the correct trans-
lation of the Sum. in 22 (see Commentary on this passage).
Professor Barton in the JBL. xx. pp. 23/4 gives two examples
of what might be regarded as parallel cases; that of the west
Semitic deities Melēk-Astart and Esthmun-Astart, whom he con-
siders to be composite gods of both sexes. On the other hand,
a closer examination of K. 257 shows that such a supposition
with regard to our inscription is unnecessary, as our goddess is
simply claiming universality. She calls herself in this hymn
the daughter of Bēl, 20 and 72 obv., the daughter of Sin, 73/4
obv. and the consort of Ešur, 75 obv., although Bēlīt is usually
known as the consort of Bēl (see below and Jastrow, Religion,
226). There can be little doubt that there was no fixed mytho-
logical conception regarding the relation of Bēlīt to the pan-
theon, as the Assyrians also knew her, both as the wife of their
peculiar god Ašur, and as the mate of Ešur, as whose spouse she
is mentioned in our hymn (cf. Sarg. Cyl. 48 and the parallel,
Lyon, Sargontex te, p. 71). She was also called by the Assyr-
ians bēlīt ilāni "the mistress of the gods" (so also in K. 257,
The Hymn to Bêlit.

12/13, obv.). A great deal of the confusion with regard to Bêlit no doubt arose from the fact that bêltu meant “lady,” and hence was applicable to any goddess.

By far the most curious part of our inscription are the passages describing the destructive power of Bêlit, 25–34 obv. She is evidently at war with and conquers other gods “of the mountain,” 45/6 obv., i.e. of the Babylonian universe, and it is distinctly stated, 57/8 obv., that she makes war in heaven. In the reverse 11–22, the same idea is expressed that she is the all-powerful destructive influence who not only overthrows the gods, but also rebellious humanity. From 1 obv.–22 rev. the whole tone of the hymn is that of a song of praise to a warrior goddess. The lines 23–30 rev., which allude to metals, are too mutilated to interpret consecutively, but they seem to imply her power over the inanimate world as well, no doubt in her capacity as a fire deity, as she is expressly stated to be in 11/12 rev.

From 31–72 rev., another phase of Bêlit’s power is treated, although unfortunately in a very fragmentary text. Here the goddess undoubtedly appears as the patroness of sexual intercourse and parturition. The allusions to “the girl” (31/2) and “the man” (33/4), and to “the man and the woman” (47/54 rev.), taken in connection with the significant expressions “to open the house” (55/6 rev.), and “not to open the house” (57/8 rev.), and “the virgin” (?) in 59/60, show very plainly the general sense of this part of the hymn. Bêlit controls the personal attraction of one sex to the other; she presides at the opening of the house, i.e. the act of copulation; she brings forth “the strength out of the house,” 61/2 rev., viz., the semen hominis and “as the (divine) wife” regulates the passions of the male (67–70 rev.). Finally, 72–73 rev., she ordained the time of birth for the expectant mother.

There can be no doubt as to the composite character of the goddess of this hymn. She is the old Bêlit of the earlier Babylonian conceptions, as may be seen from her association with “the mountain.” The Babylonian Bêlit or Ninisliú was called Ninsar-sagy “lady of the mountain,” because Bêl, her husband, as the chief of the gods, was especially associated with this “mountain of the lands” (see Jastrow, op. cit. 55/6). The goddess of our inscription is not only this Bêlit, but also Ištar
in her double personality of the goddess of battle and the goddess of sexual love. This fact is emphasized by her calling herself "the daughter of Sin," who was the father of the real Ištar. The warlike Ištar is not an Assyrian concept, but goes back as far as the time of Hammurābi (KB. iii. 1, 113). Ištar in the Gilgamesh-Epic, as is well known, is a raging deity who smites her foes with plagues. The destructive characteristics of our Bēlit, set forth 11 ff. rev., are precisely those of the Ištar of the Gilgamesh-Epic. Ištar was, of course, the mother of all mankind and the goddess of sexual love and parturition. I might add also that Bēlit in this inscription assumes to herself the attributes of Gībil, the fire-god; cf. 11 ff. rev.

Here we must note a very important point. In one Assyrian passage, Rassam Cyl. B. col. v., 17, Ištar is called the daughter of Bēl, and Jastrow (Religion, 205, n. 3) thinks that this must be a textual error. But this statement is characteristic of our present inscription, as I have mentioned already. The four times repeated assertion of K. 257 that Nin-ilu is the "daughter of Bēl," 14/5; 18/9; 71/2; 73/4 obv., shows definitely that this idea must have been one of the variant conceptions, although not a usual one, regarding the parentage of this goddess, and moreover confirms the parallel in the Rassam Cylinder just cited.

The confusion of the original Babylonian Bēlit with Ištar is well known and need excite little remark (see Jastrow, Rel., 226 ff). The most extraordinary feature of the hymn, K. 257, is the warfare of the goddess Bēlit with "the gods of the mountain," 43 obv. I can find no parallel for this statement in the other cuneiform literature except in the tales of the early cosmology, where the feminine Tiāmat fights unsuccessfully with the great gods under Bēl-Marduk. I am therefore inclined to think that the rebellious "goddess of the water," 53/4 obv., whom Bēlit subdues may be a confused later allusion to the Tiāmat-myth (?). The goddess's statement, 37/8 obv., that she "washes her hands at the mountain spring of Dilmun," probably an island near Bahrein in the Persian Gulf, serves still further to establish her connection with southern Babylonia.

To sum up, we should note the following points in this connection. 1. We have here a composite deity. The old Babylonian Bēlit, associated with the Persian Gulf, fights with
certain gods of the mountain, which is perhaps here a reference to the abode of the primitive chaotic deities who sided with Tiamat, although such a usage is surprising. This is clearly a case of absorption by the feminine Belit of the chief characteristics of Bel-Marduk! This Belit is also Istar in both her forms as shown above and the fire-god Gibil. 2. The inscription was perhaps of Assyrian origin, judging from the fact that Belit is called the daughter of Bel, a genealogical assertion which appears, so far as I am aware, only in the Rassam Cylinder cited above. On the other hand, this genealogy of Belit may have been of Babylonian origin.

Finally, the universal characteristics and dominion claimed by our Belit are worthy of attention. She is not only Belit, but also Bel. She is not only the daughter of Bel, but also of Sin, 73/4 obv., and the consort of Ea, 75/6 obv. She is destructive and at the same time productive. She is the flaming fire of death and the fosterer of love and birth. Nowhere do we find a better example than here of henotheism merging into monotheism. The inscription is worthy to stand among the best efforts of the ancient Assyro-Babylonian hymnologists.

HT. p. 126. Nr. 21 (K. 257).

Obverse.

1. . . . . be-lit . . . .
2. . . . . me-(e-nu-mēn) . . . .
3. (be-il-) tum (ul ana-ku-u)
4. . . . . me-(e-nu-mēn)
5. (be-il-) tum (ul ana-ku-u)
6. . . . . me-e-(nu-mēn)
7. (ru)-ba-tum (ul ana-ku-u)
8. . . . . me-e-nu-(mēn)
9. ru-ba-tum (ul ana-ku-u)
10. . . . . me-e-nu-(mēn)
11. be-il-tum īnu . . . . (ul ana-ku-u)
12. (dim-)me-ir-e-ne me-e-nu-(mēn umun-e-ne)
13. (īlāni ul ana-ku-u) be-lit-(ēnu-ēnu).
14. (me-e-nu-)mēn ū-mu dimme Mu-ul-lil-lā
15. ul ana-ku-u mar-tī īnu ṭēn
16. umun-mēn me-nu-mēn me-e ū-tumu-sag
17. be-ili-ku ul ana-ku-u ana-ku qar-ra-(du).
18. umun-an-na-mên me-e-nu-mên ṭu-mu ur-sag diimmér Mu-
ul-(lil-lá)
20. ṭu-mu mug (?)-sag-gá diimmér Mu-ul-lil-lá
22. diimmér En-lil-lá-mên diimmér Nin-lil-lá
23. uša En-lil ana-ku ša [u] Nin-lil.
25. a lú-lú-a-mu nu-si-gi
26. me-e ad-dal-zi ul i-zak-ku-u.
27. bīl čl-la-mu nu-te-en
28. iš-tu uš-tax-za-zi ul i-bi-el-ši
29. č-an-ša ki-a šu-mu-ta-ni (in-si-si)
31. eri ēr-ra-mu sag an-ku nu-el
32. a-li aš-tal-lum ri-is-su ul in-na-ša-(ši)
33. en-e-am-max dug-ga-mu ki-bal-a-ni gūl
34. a-mat ki-bi-ša-ti-ja šir-tum māt nu-kur-tum qa-tum u-ab-
bat.
35. tulbur kur-ra-kit im-gē-ru nu im-mi-mér
37. tulbur kur ni-tuk-ki-ka sag-ga a-ba-ni-in-(lax)
38. ina bur-ti ša-di-i Dil-nun qa-qa-du an-si.
39. 1 e-gi-zag-ga-ka zag sal ū-ba-ni-in-(dug-ga)
40. ina i-gi-za-an-gi-e uk-tu-an-ni.
41. umun-mên šab-šab-ba gu (ka) ū-ba-ni-in-(dē)
42. be-ili-ku ina gub-la aša-as-si-mu.
43. šab kur-ra-kit gu(ka) u-ba-ni-in-(dē)
44. ina qa-bal ša-di-i a-(aša-as-si-mu).
45. dim-me-ir kur-ra ni-gi-lil-ag-gi
46. iš-ni ša ša-di-i it-ta-na-an-gi-ri-(ni)
47. xar-ra-an kur-ra dim-me-ir kur-ra i-de-mu-ku in-dib-bi
48. ina uru-ux ša-di-i iš-ni ša ša-di-i ana ma-xri-ja i-ba-(u).
49. bar-bar-ga-(e)-ne mu-un-da-ab-sig-sig-gi
50. ašib par-ra-ki i-ra-bu-ni; i-x-šu-ni; i-nar-ru-da-ni-
(ma).
51. bar-bar-(u)-uš aš-a-an mu-un-da-láx-láx-e
52. ašib par-ra-ki kid-su iš-ten i-ri-id-du-ni; šu-(zu-du) ?
53. mulu lu lu mea mu-un-na-ab-bi-e
54. ša sar-rat mi i-qub-bu-ni.
55. umun-mén mu-lu lul-la é-a mi-ni-ib-tu-(ri)
57. šu-él-la-mu an-na ba-na-ab-e-(UŠ=TII) . . .
59. umun-mén šu-mu-ta šu di-a nu-ma-(al)
60. be-li-ku it-ti ga-ti-ja qatu šu iš-ša-an-na-nu ul i-ba-aš-ši.
61. me-ri él-la-mu ki-a ba-e-til
63. umun-mén (me-ri)-mu-ta me-ri di-a nu-ma-al
64. be-li-ku it-ti še-pi-ja še-pu ša iš-ša-an-(nu-nu) ul i-ba-aš-ši.
65. i-de-mu-ka a-ba-a-an bar-mu-ku a-ba-a-an
66. ina pa-ni-ja man-nu ina ar-ki-ja ma-an-nu.
67. (idē)-ku él-la-(mu) a ba ba-ra-(ē)
68. ina ni-iš i-ni-ja man-nu uš-ču
69. (in-)du-mu a-ba ba-ra-šub-bu
70. ina (pi-it pu-ri-di-ja man-nu i-pa-raš-sid.
71. ūmu-max di-da dimmēr Mu-ul-lil-là me-en
72. mar-tum (sir-tum di-ni) šu šu ana-ku.
73. gal-(di) a-mu dimmēr En-zi-na me-en
74. ti-iz(qar-)tim a-bi-ja šu Sin ana-ku.
75. umun-mén sal-dug-ga dimmēr Nu-dim-mud-da me-en
76. be-li-ku (tak-)nit šu ana-ku.
77. xi-bi-eš-šu el ú mu-un-el-la.
78. (en) a-na-aš-si (lu-bi-)ra a-na-aš-ši.

REVERSE.

1. (lugal-)ra él-la-mu-un-na-ab-él-la
2. šar-ru a-ta-a u-ša-aš-ši.
3. siba-ra-mu-mén xi-bi mu-un-na-ab-ši-šam-ma
4. xi-bi-eš-šu a-nam-din.
5. sa-a i-de-mén sa-a a-ba-mén
6. li-max-ru ana-ku li ar-ku ana-ku.
7. umun-mén sa-par-max xi-bi lil-lá šu-ru-na-mén
10. (šatu it-qur-)tum šu ina ši-rim xi-bi-eš-šu . . . -at ana-ku.
11. biš sar-sar-da él xi-bi-eš-šu lá mén
12. i-ša-tum na-pi-ix-tum šit-bu-tum ana-ku.
13. bīl sar-sar-da kur-ra-ga ba-sig-kab-du-ga mēn
14. i-ša-tum na-pi-ix-tum ša ina ki-rib šud-i iš-ša-ra-pu ana-ku.
15. ú-bu-bu ū-te-tal-la ki-bal-a šek-mā-mēn
17. šul ka-tar-ra-ra ka-a-šu ne-mēn
18. ša iš-du mut-dal-tum pu-si-sat piš-šu ana-ku.
19. me-ri-an-šu-čl-la ki-a dib-dib-bi mēn
20. ša tal-lak-ta-šu ša-ga-tum nu-gas-si-is-su ana-ku.
22. (ša) za-nil-im i-ra-a-tum ur-xa ul a-nam-(dīn).
23. . . . . . . am-u mēn ām-mā zabar-ra.
24. . . . . . . šu a-na-ku ana-ku a-na-ak si-par-ri . . . .
25. . . . . . . . par-ku ša-qu-tum ana-ku ša-qu-tum na-mir-(tum)
ana-ku.
26. . . . . mēn am-u mēn lu-mā-dū-dū
27. (umum-)an-na mēn am-u mēn . . . . dū-dū
28. šu iš-ta-ri-tum ana-ku . . . . ri-ib.
29. ām-u zabar-ra . . . .
30. a-na-ak si-par-ri ša ana . . . .
31. gi-in-bī ū-um-tag-ga . . . .
32. am-ta a-la-ap-pat-ma ām-ta u . . .
33. mu-lu-bī ū-um-tag-ga . . . .
34. u-me-lu a-lap-pat-ma a-(me-lu) . .
35. ē mu-un-tu-ri-en-na-mu (ē mulu ē-ib-mar) . .
36. biti e-tu-bu bāt a-mi-li e-da-(ab) . . .
37. mu-lu a-an (da?) mar-en-na-mu . .
38. a-mi-el ìx-ti-šu-šu; ìx-taš . . . .
39. i-de-ku al-dīm . . . .
40. ina max-ri al-lak-ma . . . .
41. a-ba-ku al-di-di . . . .
42. ar-ki al-lak-ma mu-da . . . .
43. zi-da kab-bu-ku uī . . . .
44. in-na ana šu-(me-li) . . . .
45. kab-bu zi-da-ku uī . . . .
46. šu-me-(li) (ana) im-ni
47. mu-tiū at-mu-(tin)-a-ku mu-ni . . . .
48. zi-ka-ri (ana) zin-ništ-tum . . . .
49. nu-ṣa -mu-tin-a-ku nu-uni-
50. zin-ništum ana zi-(kt)-ri-
51. mu-tin nu-ṣa -a-ku se-ir-ka-
52. ša zi-ka-ri ana zin-ništum-
53. nu-ṣa -mu-tin-a-ku se-ir-ka-
54. zin-ništum ana zi-ku-ri-
55. e-ma (gal)-la è xî-hi
56. (bitu) pi-ti-i . . .
57. è nu-ma-(gal)-la sar-da-
58. bitu la pi-ti-i . . .
59. dim-me ma-ma-a . . .
60. u-dištî . . .
61. xî-hi-šî -si è-ta im-ta-an-(c)
62. emag-tum ištum bi-it ur-ša-ir-ga-(a)
63. me-e dam-dam-ta mu-un-na-ab-
64. ana-ku aš-ša-tu . . .
65. umun-men ūnum ama-da mu-un-na-ab-
66. be-li-kum mar-ti itti um-mi-ša da-ga-
67. gud-gud-du GIS-I?-BI . . .
68. ša uru ešu-ti . . .
69. . . . da BAD?-BI . . .
70. ša uru ūn-pa-(ti) . . .
71. . . . SU-LU-ŠU-AN
72. ša pur-ri-is-kum ar-(ku lu iši [?])
73. ū-bi ama sux-a-bi (ka mu-un-na-ab-dê[?])

TRANSLATION.

Obverse.

1. the lady of

2/3. (am I not the lady?)

4/5. (am I not the lady?)

6/7. (am I not the great one?)

8/9. (am I not) the great one?

10/11. the lady, the god . . . (am I not?)

12/13. (of the) gods am I not (their lady?)

14/15. Am I not the daughter of Bel?

16/17. I am supreme, am I not? I am the warrior (masc.).

18/19. Am I not the goddess? The war-like daughter of Bel am I.
20/21. The high-placed daughter of Bel am I.
22. I am En-lil-lá, Nin-lil-lá,
23. (I am En-il) of Nin-il.
24. (I am En-il) and Nin-il.
25/26. The waters which I stir up do not become clear.
27/28. The fire which I kindle does not go out.
29/30. The House of Heaven, the House of Earth, unto my hand he has entrusted.
31/32. The city which I plunder is not restored.
33/34. The utterance of my exalted command destroys the land of the foe. (Assyr. At the utterance . . . . [my] hand destroys, etc.).
35/36. At the mountain spring I fill the vessel.
37/38. At the mountain spring of Dilmun I wash (my) head.
39/40. By the igizangi stone I am guarded.
41/42. I am supreme. In the midst I shout my war-cry;
43/44. In the midst of the mountain I shout my war-cry.
45/46. The gods of the mountain are hostilely inclined.
47/48. On the road of the mountain, the gods of the mountain approach me with hostile intent.
49/50. The royal beings (dwellers in palaces) enter before me: hasten unto me: they afflict me.
51/52. The dwellers in the palaces with one accord come down unto me.
53/54. The rebellious goddess of the water shouts at me.
55/56. I am supreme. I will cause the rebellious goddess to enter the house.
57/58. I establish the lifting up of my hands to heaven; my exalted powers make war in heaven.
59/60. I am supreme. The hand of him who vies with me shall not stand with my hand.
61/62. My mighty pace fills the earth.
63/64. I am supreme. The foot of him who vies with me shall not stand with my foot.
65/66. Who is there before me? Who is there behind me?
67/68. From the lifting up of mine eyes who can escape?
69/70. From the rush of my onslaught who can flee?
71/72. The exalted daughter of the judgment of Béé I am.
73/74. The noble heroine of my father Sin I am.
75/76. I am supreme. The duly appointed spouse (?) of Ea I am.
77/78. Him who is bowed down I lift up; the aged one I lift up.

REVERSE.

1/2. Verily, I will raise up the king.
3/4. To my shepherd . . . . I will give.
5/6. Verily, I am before; verily, I am behind.
7/8. I am supreme. An exalted net spread out in the wilderness (field of the storm-wind) I am.
9/10. ? ? ? which in the field (is spread) I am.
11/12. A glowing fire flaming forth I am.
13/14. A glowing fire which burns in the midst of the mountains I am.
15/16. I am the one who, full to overflowing with its flame, rains down on the foeman’s land.
17/18. The one who makes as naught the speech of the humbled warrior I am.
19/20. The one who cuts off him whose way is haughty in the land I am.
21/22. To those who store up proud thoughts (?) I give, not the way (do not permit to advance with impunity).
23/24. . . . lead I am. Lead alloyed with copper (I am).
25. The lofty . . . . I am. The lofty one, the glowing one I am.
26. Lead I am. The maker (?) of . . . . (I am).
27/28. I am the goddess who . . . .
29/30. Lead alloyed with copper, which unto . . . .
31/32. The girl I disturb, the girl and . . . .
33/34. The man I disturb, the (man) . . . .
35/36. The house which I enter, the house of the man I trouble.
37/38. the man who ? ? ? ?
39/40. I will go before . . . .
41/42. I will go behind . . . .
43/44. Right to left . . . .
45/46. Left to right . . . .
47/48. The man unto the woman . . . .
49/50. The woman unto the man . . . .
51/52. That which the man unto the woman . . . .
53/54. The woman unto the man . . . .
55/56. To open the house . . . .
57. Not to open the house . . . .
59/60. The virgin (?) . . . .
61/62. The strength out of the house I bring forth.
63/64. I as the wife . . . .
65/66. I am supreme. The daughter with her mother I . . . .
67/68. The one who the erect member . . . .
69/70. The one who the low member . . . .
71/72. That which I have planned (in future shall come to pass).

73. On that day (?) to the mother I foretell her time . . . .
(i. e. of her bearing).

COMMENTARY.

VERSE.

I have supplied the first fourteen lines from the context of the subsequent text.

14/15. ʾU amakā with interrogative final -u is a question "am I not?"; cf. Delitzsch, Tir. § 79 γ; Hommel, Semitic, p. 505 ad p. 95; HAS., p. xxxix, B. dimmēr Mālītā, clearly an assimilation for Mālītā which is the well known ES. form for EK. dimmār Mālitā = Ṭu Bēl. Mālītā was evidently pronounced Mālītu, as is clear from V. 37, 21a and Damascus. "Δλως (cf. Zb. 19).

16. Umān, ES. for ṣuṣn, V. 37, 34 abe; u-ṣu-su=belatu. ES. m frequently appears for EK. y; cf. gil (IK)=ES. ma-ad "to be;" EK. ṣarzu=ES. marza "command" (HIT. 134, § 2). There can be no doubt that DU here is a form of writing mēn, the element of the verb "to be." In Sc. 284, we find gi-in=DU=du-ma-ku, which would seem to indicate the y pronunciation for this sign DU; but since ES. frequently avoids the y-sound (HIT. 134 § 2), it is highly probable that DU in an ES. text must have had the value mēn=giin, Sc. 284; especially as me-en occurs in our text, 71, 73, 75 obv. =umāku. Haupt has already pointed out that mēn is not necessarily the first person and the same is undoubtedly true of DU=giin, mēn; cf. AL. 135, 11/12: DU=atti "thou" (fem.). DU=giin and mēn may be used for all three persons indiscriminately, the distinctive signs of the

1 Also p. 507 ad p. 292.
first and second persons *māe* and *zīc* respectively, or the noun suffixes *-mu* "my," *-zu* "thy," being always given, as in AL.135, 1–5 obv. In the case of our present inscription it may be supposed that a distinctive first personal sign occurred in one of the earlier mutilated lines of the obverse. In *me*-nu-*mēn*, we have a repetition of the stem *me* "to be" which must be the equivalent of the interrogative -u in Assyrian.

17. The neg. *-mu* is infixed as in EK, giš-nu-un-tuk=ni išmē "he heard not," V. 24, 38a et passim. *Me-e* stands for *amāku*, but it may also be second person, cf. Sfg. 22 addānu namea=ni abi uttu. In DL. p. 91, B, ki-me-lu=ittini "with us." On *me=me-en*, cf. also ZA. i. 192 and Hommel, Semitica, 470, 175.

17. *Bēliku* is a permansive "I am supreme," applicable to either gender. That *ni=ili* is seen Sfg. 61, n. 5. Cf. s. v. 56 obv. *Qurratu(lu)* masc. is unusual as applied to a goddess; cf. 19 obv. *qurittum* and s. v. 22–24 obv.

19. For *ištārum*, without the god-sign, cf. AL. 134, Istar-Psalm, obv. 4. In 27 rev. the word is written with *ilu*. *Qurittum* here is properly feminine; cf. Hwb. 595b.

20. *Mug(?)-say-gu* for *aštārittum* is probably an error. The EK ideogram is *say-kal*, passim. In ES, we find *i-de-kādú*, Nbk. ii. 2=nāridu. In *mug(?)-say-gu*, *say-gu* is no doubt a variant of *zag=anāridu*, 39, obv. q. v.

22–24. These lines are excessively difficult. The Sum. seems to mean "I am Bēl (and) Bēlit," although the copula is unexpressed. I believe that the Assyrian lines 23–24 are tentative translations on the part of the scribe. L. 23 "I am Bēl of Bēlit" makes apparently no sense. L. 24, however, of which the first part is supplied, probably gives the true rendering (see above Introduction). In 24 *Enlil-ku*, we seem to have an Assyrian perm. form as in *bēliku*, 17. The copula *u* here is perfectly clear.

25. In *lā-lā-μu*, the -*mu* is not necessarily the sign of the first person, although the context demands the first person. This -*mu* is the sign of the relative clause in Sum. probably indicating all three persons. Cf. IV. 30, 4a: *nsaγγul kiγim siγγaμu=γurāδu rētō ])* kīmu irγiγin rētō "the hero who is as firmly fixed as the earth." Cf. also IV. 27, nr. 1, 4–11, where we find a succession of -*mu* clauses all third person relative. A similar case is seen in Ht. 122, obv. 16: *ērizuku*
ággiggá àkámu=ana ardiki šu manaššum ibšu “unto thy (fem.) servant who has sickness. “It is evident, however, that this -mu can indicate the first person also, as may be seen from the line under discussion as well as from 27–28 obv.: bîl àllamu “the fire which I kindle;” ērí ërrãnu “the city which I plunder.” This relative participial construction reminds us of Turkish; as bu gőrdiýim kitâb dîr “this is the book which I saw.” In the Turkish tongues, however, the persons are carefully distinguished by suffixes in these relative participles. Like the Chinese dialects, the Sumerian was lacking in this matter of distinction of the persons, a peculiarity which I hope to discuss in another article (in AJSL., July, 1903, pp. 205 f.).

26. In āddalatu the relative force is expressed by the overhanging vowel -u, as in 28; 30; 32 obv. (-m in 32 obv.).

27/28. The root ēl really means “lift up,” i. e. “raise a fire.” With te-en=bûlu, cf. Hammurab. Biling. 9/10; tenen=bullû “to extinguish”; bîl têntînu=kabăsu šu īkâti “tread down, extinguish, said of fire,” II. 27, 48g. Têntînu also means pâdazû “soothe, pacify,” II. 26, 19c. There seems to be an intentional assonance in bîl àllamu and in the following ērí ërrãnu. L. 28 is cited Zb. 26, 5; cf. ZK. i. 313, n. 2.

29. Šumûntânu “in my hand.” Here for the first time we have an unmistakable first personal suffix; i. e. -mu. The suffixes -ta and -ni here have both of them postpositional force=Assyr. inu; cf. IV. 25, 40 a: ki-nazag-ga-ni-ku=ana ašar têlîtu; ib. 42a: ki-êl-la-a-ni=ana ašar têlîtu “unto a pure place,” where -ni is equivalent to ana. I supply in-si-si=umallî (cf. Hwb. 410).

30. There is an unusual difference between this passage and the text of 29 obv. In 29, ê-an-ma ê-ki-a can only mean “the house of heaven (and) the house of earth,” i. e. the entire universe as understood by the Babylonians. In ê-a-a-ak-e-dimmér-ti, 30, the combination a-nk must be a scribal error for id=náru “river,” Br. 11647. The whole probably means “the house of the water of the river, the house of the god of life” (ti=bailám, Br. 1647). This expression is unique here. It is really an inversion of the expression in 29, i. e. “the house of heaven,” 29=“the house of the god of life,” 30, and “the house of earth,” 29=“the house of the water of the river,” 30. It is perfectly evident that the Assyris. scribe regarded the expression in 30 as being synonymous with that in 29.
31. Ėri seems to be ES. for EK. āru=ālu; cf. Sa. 3, 11 and Sfg. 61, n. 4. Ėr is ES. for šalālu, Br. 5388. The usual EK. form is loz, Br. 4948. DU (tum) also=šalālu, Br. 4948 in EK. Note that the Sum. line here has an-ku “unto heaven,” which is not represented in Assyr. by ana śamē. In aštallām, the overhanging relative vowel is -unn instead of -u; cf. on 26 obv.

33/4. E-ne-am=amātu in a number of passages, cited Br. 5871. It is undoubtedly a dialectic writing for ka=inim (EK.) as pointed out in ZA. i. 9. The extraordinary and unnecessary gātum “(my) hand” of 34 is not represented in the Sum. text.

35/6. The value tulbur for this sign is found II. 32, 16g; cf. Zb. 105. It has also the value pu; see LTP. nr. 211 and for bēru, cf. ib. 169, n. i. The fem. bārtu in 36 is an unusual form for bāru “well”=Sum. tulbur, pu. I am forced to read -nu as a component part of im-gē=quātum “an earthen vessel;” cf. V. 32, 26a; im-gē(gu)=gu-du-te=tītu “clay,” not didu, as Br. 8401; also V. 27, 7a. Nu in our passages may mean qadam “black,” Br. 1963, but this is doubtful. For the ES. value ge (EK. gu), cf. Sfg. 51. Mēr, ES. for gīr=naṣēnu only here. For in-mi, first person, cf. IV. 6, 45b: im-min-ri=armēma. The prefix im-, like a number of other Sum. verb prefixes, may indicate all three persons indiscriminately.

37/8. Tulbar kur Nitukkiku “at the mountain spring of Dil-mun” (-ka here=ina): cf. 39 and 65 obv. (also Br. 551). It is probable that -ka here serves the double purpose of the post-position and of the genitive case. It is evidently cognitive with -ku, -kit, the latter probably to be read ke, or ge. Ka also indicates the genitive relation in archaic Sumerian. I supply laz=misā “wash,” Sb. 76. A-bu is unusual in an indicative sense; cf. only Br. 6331: abu-ni-gigi-ē=ittirnu and Br. 3571: saysur abu-šin-nu-ak=ittā’ilma. It may appear as an imper. of the second or third person; cf. abu-nin-sur=raksu, Br. 4333; abu-nina-šu=lizziz, IT. 98, 49. In these latter cases, however, it is probably a variant of the optat. za-ba-. Aba- usually means mānnu “who?” See below 69/70 obv.

39/40. ɪegizagga=igizangu, found only here, may mean “the stone (i) of the pen (gi) of fate” (zangu=zag=pirītu, V. 29, 73a). Zag here must mean ašīrītu, fem. of ašīridu “first in rank,” although it is not expressed in Assyrian. Zag=ašīridu, V. 29, 64a. The -ka in egizagga-ka=inu, as in 37 obv. The
allusion may be to some sacred written tablet, but the meaning is very obscure. Uktunnu must be Iftaan of \( \sqrt{\text{ננן}} \), as is evident from sal, which must be part of the following verb, i.e. sal-dug-ya, II. 35, 45c. Kannu means "guard, preserve;" cf. Br. 533. Our own inscription 75 obv. has the same combination taknutu.

40/2. Šab-kab-ba=qablu "midst" only here in reduplicated form; cf. on 43, obv. Qablu in this passage cannot mean "battle," as it is probably a variant for ša-ba=libbu, IV. 11, 15b; 20, 5. Cf. 43 obv. Gu(ku)-de is well known for šadd. This line is merely a poetical prolepsis of 43 obv. as in the case with 45/6 obv.

43/4. Here the meaning of šab is perfectly clear. L. 43 is the complement of 41.

45/6. Ni-gil-li-ág-gi. This text seems reasonably certain. Gil in V. 16, 71c appears as equivalent to gu-ru[ ]. This must be gu-ru-n "to be hostilely inclined;" cf. gurâ, girâ "enemy." I cannot explain the ending -ág-gi. Itunangiri(ni), therefore, is probably Itaneal form from gurâ. This passage, then, like 41/2, is simply a prolepsis of 47/8.

47/8. Nurraru is a variant, perhaps ES. for EK. kuskul=xarrânu "road," Sb. 78. The Sum. phonetic writing xar-ra-an is found also II. 38, 23c; V. 26, 2g, xarrânu; and IV. 20, nr. i, obv. 12; II. 38, 24c=xaru "way." We must, I think, regard Sum. xurraru as a Semitic loanword from xarrânu, which appears to be a derivative from xarrânu "dig, hollow out;" (cf. xarru "hole"; xarru "canal"). A parallel instance is sôqru "street" from sôqru "to be narrow," or transitive, "narrow down;" cf. Sfg. 9, n. 4. Idê is, of course, ES. for igê, HT. 134; cf. 65 obv. The suffix -ku=ana; in 65 obv. it represents inu.

49. Bur here must be ášib; cf. Br. 6875; haru is undoubtedly parakkus, Sb. 354, of which -gu is probably phonetic complement. E-ne= "those who."

50. The Assyrian translator is doubtful here, with respect to the correct rendering of šig (PA, 49), as he gives three variant versions; viz., "they enter before me;" "they hasten unto me;" "they afflict me," of which the latter seems to me the best, as the context plainly shows the hostile intent of the gods. For šig=marâdu, cf. Br. 5583.
51/2. The break after bar-baru is not large enough to contain e-ne as in 49. UŠ aš-a-anu is plainly kibsu išten "(with) a single tread." Uš=kabānu, Br. 5036, but kibšu is generally explained in Sum. by ki-nu, II. 27, 50g; V. 19, 52a; IV. 23, 50b. The usual pronunciation of the non-Semitic numeral is diš, represented by a single perpendicular wedge; aš, the horizontal wedge for "one," I find only here and IV. 19, 46a. Lehmann, Šamaššumukin, p. 128. n. 4, regards the horizontal aš-sign as a mere graphical variant for diš and considers that "one" was always pronounced diš; cf. also Jensen ZA. i. 188. The "genu- nation" of the perpendicular diš, however, has the value aš (a perpendicular wedge crossed by three horizontals), which seems to me to confirm the value aš for "one" (cf. on the horizontal aš, Delitzsch, Entstehung, p. 69). The adverbial and verbal -a-an should be read -ān. Láše-arānu only here. The common Sum. form is duš, IV. 3, 19/20b. The Assyr. ṣuru-(tu) is very doubtful.

53/4. Luš=surrum in several passages; cf. Br. 7275. Ni-me I take as a part of the verb "to be" (mē) unexpressed in Assyrian. See above on 16 obv. I must be the equivalent of Assyr. mí, probably a defective writing for mi- "water," Neriql. ii. 10. That the infix -mab- may be used for the first personal object is clear from II. 48, 21gh; mun-mab-signu=atannišami "he weakens me." It usually appears as the sign of third person, as -rab- is the common infix of the second person.

55/56. Mulu lulla, lit. "the person who is rebellious." ES. mulu=EK. gal (IK.), cf. ZA. i. 193. Neither in 53 nor 55 is there any indication of the fem., which might have been shown by means of sul. It is interesting to note that beliku is written here with ti- instead of ni=ili, Sfr. 61, n. 5, as above, passim.

57/8. The Sum. line is incomplete, as only the first half of it was written. I supply til=γamaru; cf. ba-e-til=γamrat, obv. 61. Til, however, has the value uš, Sb. 223, and aš=emādu, passim, Br. 5032, as indicated here ba-e-(til)=ēniš. I find the prefix ba-e only with til (uš): dirīg-dirīg=atānu and tuš (ku)=aššu, so that til is probably the correct reading here.

59/60. Su-a (DI-a)=šamānu here and 63 obv. The vocalic complement -a leads me to adopt the reading su for DI in this passage; cf. Sa. iii. 36. II. 7, 4e and Br. 9519. The usual Sumerian combination for šamānu is doni, cf. Br. 6689, which
seems to be a dissimilative reduplication of DI(?). The simple root DI-a or sa-a in 59 is a ḫāl-clause=Semitic relative. It is here exactly equivalent in sense to the Turkish relative participle seen in gidiq “one who goes,” only in Turkish the ending -ip is necessary. Mu-(al) is ordinary ES. (Br. 6811 and 63 obv.) for EK. gāl (IK), see Br. 5430.

61/2. Mēri is ES. for EK. gīr=tallaktum, V. 16, 25ab; cf. also IIT. 134 § 2, and below obv. 63. In the Assyrian line 62 the possessive is not expressed in tallaktum saqātum, but it appears in Sum. ellen-mu. In 62, gam-mar is of course gam-raf, as Jensen pointed out; Deutsche Litztg., 1891, col. 1451."


65/6. Idēnuka; idē=EK. igē; see on 47 obv.; -ka here=ina, as in 37, 39, obv. Abo-ām (a-an)=mānu; cf. on 37 obv.; -ku=ina; cf. on 67 obv.=ina and 47 obv.=ana.

67/8. The ending -ku=ina; cf. s. v. 65 obv.

69/70. The Sum. (in-)dumma which, in spite of the broken text, evidently equals pīt puridīna, 70, is very doubtful; cf. Br. 4236. Pīt puridīna must mean something like “the rush of my onslaught;” cf. the parallel IV. 26, 42a; ina pīt puridīka mannu ipparāṣid. In HT. 76, 15, Naṣku goes to Ea in the depths of the abyss puridu (adv.). In this latter passage, the Sum. equivalent (EK.) is gīr-pap-xul-la “with the foot of compulsion;” pap-xul=pušu, Sc. 302. Girpapxul also=etēlu “advance, said of an army,” IV., 17, 11a and italluku “go,” Br. 1154. It seems highly probable, therefore, that puridu, whose derivation is unknown, must have a similar signification. In our present text the element du (of (in-)du) may be equivalent to alāku “go.” The meaning of in is obscure, if indeed in is the correct reading. Šub=naparādu “flee,” Br. 1439.

71/2. The EK. form tar is written here for martum, but it was probably intended to be pronounced tnam as in 18 obv.; cf. II. 37, 54e tar=ta-nu (i. e. tu-nu, ZA. i. 19 and II. 48, 33a, Sa. v. 33). Max can only mean girtum “exalted,” while dida may be a dissimilative reduplication from di=dinnu “judgment;” cf. IV. 2, 3c: lugal di-da-kit=hēl dīnu “lord of judgment” (also Zb. 83). The break in the Assy. line 72 is quite long enough to admit the restoration martum (girtum dīnu) 7a Bēl anāku “the exalted daughter of the judgment of Bel am I.”

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2 Suggested also by Haupt.
73/4. *Gal-di=tizgâru, a form like ritpâšu=ztigâru, from *Ptik, the real meaning of which is probably "noble, prominent."

The fem. *tizgârum must be assumed in this passage, although it occurs nowhere else. Mr. S. H. Langdon assumes that *šu Sin here is a scribal error for *šu Bêl, i.e. that the scribe should have written five corner wedges (50, the symbol of Bêl), instead of three (30, the sign of Sin; viz., the thirty days of the month). In view of the Sum. dimmer Enziuna=Sin I see no reason to adopt this emendation. Moreover, the fact that the goddess calls herself the daughter of both Bêl and Sin is quite in accordance with the universality of dominion ascribed to her in the rest of the hymn.

75/6. Saldugunta can only mean taknîtu here, cf. II. 35, 46c; IV. 25, 55b, which must signify "a woman taken under one's protection," perhaps "spouse" or "concubine;" cf. kinnîtu "maid servant" from this same stem kumû, and perhaps kinnîtu "household retainers," Pwb. 338. The ending -nit in 76 must be the final of tak-nit. I consider ri in be-nî-ri in this line to be an error for -ku, i.e. be-ilî-ku, although ri is clearly written. Nu-dim-mud "the artificer" is of course Eu. Here it is well to note the presence of me-en for the verb "to be," in this case =anâku; cf. the remarks above on 16 obv.

77/8. Most unfortunately we are confronted with the familiar Assyry. xibiššu of the scribe "broken off," a form like edâššu from the adv. xibeš. The stem is xipu. Owing to the Sum. ū in the second member and the Assyry. -ru I read labûru anašši as the equivalent of Sum. munêlî. Ė=labûnu, Br. 9465. This makes it impossible that the obscurely written e-na of the first member can be ūnu "eye." It must rather be from evâ "to bow down, oppress," in parallelism with labûnu "old." The Sum. equivalent for enu may be nudu buł, as in V. 39. 27g, or simply buł, as in K. 247, ii. 20, 25. Ėl in the first member is probably bâl-phrase for the first anašši.

Reverse.

1/2. The reverse seems to continue the sense of 77/8 obv. I supply ingal in Sum.=šur-ru; cf. IV. 29, 21a, 22a, Ingal=šur; viz., the sign nisigâ, Br. 4386. Ėlla is again bâl-clause, while munna belle is the finite form with infixed object nab="him."
Assyr. a-ta-a, not expressed in Sum., must be the adv., atá "verily," found in the epistolary literature as a resumptive; cf. Hwb. 156.

3/4. Sîba-ra-mu "to (my) my (-my) shepherd" (sîbu); mēn= "I am" (?). Then follows a broken passage as indicated by sîbi (abbrev. for sîbîš). Mûnâbšiâimmâ plainly=anâmadin. The ending -âimmâ, ES. for âgyâ, is difficult. Âm, Sb. 205, and âimmâ, V. 25, 22a, are Sum. forms for madânu "measure out, apportion." Sîâimmâ, therefore, in our passage and in 21 rev. (q. v.) may merely be a sense-reduplication of the idea of madânu "give, convey." This point is, however, by no means clear as yet.

5/6. I find sa-n=Assyr. li only here. Aha=urku for bar (cf. 65 obv.) is also peculiar to this passage.

7/8. Sa-par=Assyr. supâru "net;" cf. Br. 3126. It is probably from a Semitic stem supâru "enclose;" cf. supâru "enclosure," Hwb. 509, and the name of the wall Tâbi-supârân "its enclosure is good," Zb. 73, n. 2. On the other hand, sa= šētu "net," Sc. 142, but this may be only accidental. The probability is that the combination sa-par=šētu šapârâtu, IV. 26, 23a "an arranged (i.e. spread out) net" is a non-Semitic paronomasia on Assyr. supâru. Edînum=sâri "field" must have stood in the original text here. Lil=zaqīqi "storm wind," Sc. 212 and lilba=šârânu "wind," IV. i. col. v. 4/5, 41/2. Here we have lilba=zaqîqu. Šuruna undoubtedly means šur-바 운, but only in this passage. It may be ES. for šur-ra= rabânu II. 36, 24, 25ab. The ši- in šuruna is probably not the sign of the Shephel.

9/10. Prof. Haupt suggests in 10 itqûrtum. The probability is that it was preceded by šētu "net." The Sum. has su and traces of the sign yi=itqûrtum, K. 246, col. iv. 37, with phonetic complement -li, as indicated in the transliteration. Both the derivation and meaning of itqûrtum are uncertain; see Hwb. 160, but the word is evidently an adjective here qualifying šētu, i.e. "some sort of a net which in the field is spread am I." Edû should follow am-nu; cf. amû-adinnu=ima sâri, IV. 3, 1a. The verb is entirely obliterated except the Assyr. fem. ending -at., but it must have meant "spread."

1 Line 10 was also discussed by Jensen, ZA. i. 65.
11/12. For *marātu*, see Br. 4327. In 12, *sākātu* seems to me to be the Ifteal adjective from *tebā* "go forth hostilely," hence my translation.

13/14. *Kur-ra-ga=ina kirib šudē* is very curious. We find *an-ša-ga*, K. 4386 col. iii. 56= *kirib šamē*, where -ga is merely the phonetic complement of *ši(ki)ga* "heart, midst." In our passage we expect *ša* or the postposition *-ta* or both; *ga*, however, undoubtedly has the force of kirib here. *Bus-sig-kab-du-ga* is evidently the equivalent of *iššaru*. *Bu*- is of course the verbal prefix; *sig(PA)-ga* appears with *bīl "fire;" bīl sig-ga*, II. 34, 76a=kumā with 5, but this must be an inaccurate writing for *qanā*, as *ku* and *ga* are interchangeable. In *sig-kab-du-ga* we clearly have a fuller form of the same combination, but I cannot explain it further. *Sig(PA)=namānu "shine" in one passage, K. 40, col. iv. 1, Br. 5582, which tends to confirm my interpretation of this sign in a combination meaning "burn." *Iššaru* is probably Ifteal.

15/6. *Čubub*, only here, is clearly *muttubritum*. *Temal-la=napūnu* looks like a loanword from Sem. *titallu* "flame." *Tt*, however, may be read *bīl "fire" and undoubtedly suggested this idea to the ancient reader. It was probably not read *bītal-la* here, as we find *te-tal=titallum*, K. 4361, col. i. 4. It is clearly another paronomasia, as in 7/8 rev. *Šek (še-iq)=a-an*, V. 32, 21a; lit. "water of heaven"=tamānu "rain;" ma is abbreviated form of *mal* (ES.) "to be." *Muttubritum* is evidently Ifteal of *barā "be full, sated." Jasamūn in HT. is clearly an error for *izzamūn*, ZA. i. 65/6.

17/8. *Šul=ella*, passim. *Katarra=nuddallum* from *dallū* "be humble" *ka-tar*, IV. 25, 15b; Zb, 73/4. The second *ra* in our text is the postposition *mā*. *Ku-a=pāšu; šu=pasām* "destroy" only here, but *šu=sarēmu "overthrow," passim*, Br. 10839. With *m-mēn*, prefix *ne-* for first person, cf. *nērabbi =aqabbi*, IV. 10, 5b et passim. For 17 rev. see also Guyard, ZK. i. 97, n. 2.

19/20. In *merianānēlla* we have a repetition: *merī=tallaktum*, see above on 61 obv. *An* and *šul* both mean high, i. e. *šagītum*. *Ki=ina ercītim*, IV. 4, 5b, not expressed in Assyrian. *Di-dib-bi=kamā "bind,"* Br. 10683 and *qabatī "seize," Br. 10694, passim. These meanings are closely allied to *muqassīnu =muqassīnu, yāpī "cut off,"* found only here.
21/2. This is a very difficult passage. Gaba undoubtedly signifies irātum, probably pl. of irtu “breast,” Xamin must be participle of xamāmu “cut, harvest, store up,” syn. of egēnu, because ird=xamānu in this sense and not in the sense “lead, govern.” I render tentatively, therefore, bearing the context in mind; xānim irātum “those who store up proud thoughts.” Irtu means “advances” in the connection mutir irtīn, Hwb. 125 and may perhaps be construed in this sense. I read surrān =urzn, following obv. 47 rather than the usual kaskal. On șāmmā=nu’dānu, cf. s. v. rev. 3.

23/4. Ām-n=amāku “lead” only here. The EK. form is anna, passim; cf. ES. āmmā here, evidently a dialectic variation of EK. anna. Ud-ka-bar=zarbar, Sb. 113.

25. From here on the inscription is too badly mutilated to admit of consecutive translation, although the general meaning seems apparent (see above, p. 107). This line which has no Sum. equivalent is evidently an allusion to the glowing of the metals.

26. This is an ES. line without Assyr. translation.

27. I supply annum here, as in 18 obv. Note that īštāritum is written with the determin. ilu, but cf. 19 obv.

31. Gi-in-bi must be compared with gi-in=amtu, K. 2759, 10 et passim, Br. 2470. The -bi suffix is the demonstrative, unexpressed in Assyrian. Tug=lapatu “turn over, disturb,” Br. 3797. It may mean “excite” here; cf. Zb. 12, 5.

33. For mulu, also 37 rev., cf. 55 obv.

36. Minturi-ennānu=etěrho is relative conjugation with the final -nu as above 25 obv. The infix ēn occurs also with -zu; gurri-ēnnazu, Br. 11957=tabāmu. For ēdeb, pres. of addātu, cf. IV. 61, 35b: āken ša nakru ša idibakanni “where is the foe who has troubled thee?” The usual ideogram for addātu is EK. XI-GAR=ES. gi-ib-mar, Sd. 19.

37/8. I cannot explain this passage. The Sum. -ennānu, as in 35 rev., shows a relative clause.

39. Dim would be the ES. value for gim in al-dim. It is cognitive with di-di=aldānu, 41 rev.

41/2. On āba see s. v. rev. 5. Di-di, cognitive with dim, 39 rev.

47/8. Mutin=zikuru also II. 7, 13c; II. 25, 39a, et passim; Br. 1326. Mutin is probably ES. for giš, nitux=zikuru; UŠ,
Br. 5048. The combination ḫ-
mu-tin=zimmīštu "woman;" cf. nu-ḫ-
mu-tin, 49, 50, 53, rev. Satan is, of course, the usual ideogram for zimmīštu. The character ḫ- is evidently a variation of the sign nunuz, Br. 8177=lipu "offspring, descendant," syn. of šurṣu=šušu. The occurrence of this sign in combination with mu-tin=zikaru is explicable, but unusual.

55. Gâl=pîṭâ, only IV. 18, 15a; cf. gd (IK)-gâl=pîṭâ, Bezold, Lit. 181, n. 1. The ma- in ma-gâl-la in our passage must be the verbal prefix with infinitive force.

59/60. The combination dim-me ma-mâ-a seems like two words representing the Assyrian niššu from šaššu "be new, fresh," hence in this connection probably a virgin(?). See comment above, p. 107. It is impossible to determine whether there is any connection of ideas between our dimme and dim-
dim-me-mâ=duâmâti "a weakling," II. 28, 68b. Dim-me also= drûl "king," V. 16, 52e.

61/2. Emâqtem must be fem. abstract for emâqqu "strength," especially "bodily strength," passim, IIwb. 39. The usual ideogram for emâqqu is ID (a), but also ni-e (GIR), cf. s. e. 58 obv. The mutilated ideogram ending in -ṣi in our present passage (61) is inexplicable. E-ta=iṣṭu bit; note the construct state.

63/4. On me-e=umâku, without -n, i. e. mën, cf. Haupt's able remarks, Sfg. 31. Dam-dam with suffix -tu must mean "as a wife."

65/6 Tur here must be read ḫu-umu; cf. 14, 20 obv. Note the masc. ṣu in ummî-ṣu, where we expect ummî-ša. This is not uncommon and may be traced to non-Semitic influence.

67/8. With gud-gud-du=ṭâlî, cf. II. 30, 10g and Br. 4704. The sign for uru is sdâ=qullu, II. 30, 14–19, but it is broken here. GIŠ-L?-BI is incomprehensible.

69/70. We should perhaps supply (sd-ki-ta-)da=uru šapâlîti.

70. I cannot explain ŠU-LU-ŠU-AN. It is probably not equivalent to 72 rev.

72. Parisku, as suggested by Mr. S. H. Langdon, is perman-
sive of parāšu "decide."

73. UD-bî=ima ʿāmīkumma, which is not expressed. Mr. Langdon has ingeniously translated this line as I indicate; suzu-
-bî lit. "her how long;" sur=urûryp, HT. 115, rev. 5. Cf. also Zb. 28 and HT. 122, obv. 12.

The last eleven lines are hopelessly mutilated.
**Ene-sal forms discussed in the Commentary.**

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Blood Test as Proof of Kinship in Jewish Folklore.—By
GEORGE ALEXANDER KOHUT, New York City.

I.

Blood, among the Jews, possibly because it was held to be symbolic of the soul, והשם הרם הוא הנפש (Deut. xii. 23; cf. Gen. ix. 4), was an object of sacred awe. Blood being the seat of the soul, its prominence in folklore, where it is employed for the binding of compacts, the sealing of kinships, for remedial, superstitious, criminal, and even judicial purposes, is not a surprise to the investigator. The ancient practice of covenanting by means of blood, still in vogue in certain parts of the world, forms an interesting chapter in the study of ethnic superstitions, and it will suffice to refer to two books on the subject, wherein the rite is fully described (see Paulus Cassel, Die Symbolik des Blutes und 'der Arne Heinrich,' von Hartmann von Aue, Berlin, 1882; H. C. Trumbull, The Blood Covenant, Philad., 1893). It is not the design of this paper to discuss the origin and diffusion of the blood-rite, which has never been practiced in Israel, though the prevalence of the custom, even among civilized peoples, is responsible for the horrible blood-accusation against the Jews through the course of the centuries (cf. II. L. Strack, Das Blut im Glauben und Aberglauben der Menschheit, etc., Munich, 1900; Jewish Encyclopedia, vol. iii, pp. 260–267); nor is it necessary to set forth the many quaint and curious blood-superstitions as remote parallels to the legend we are about to present.

However, there is one superstition custom, not unknown to judicial courts, concerning which it is proper to say a word, the better to understand the underlying motive of the story which follows; it is the so-called “trial by blood,”—an “ordeal of touch,” as it is otherwise termed,—which has served, in criminal cases, to identify and convict a murderer. There is, namely, a widespread belief that the blood of a murdered man will bear

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1 Paper read at the last Annual Meeting of the American Oriental Society, in April, 1903.

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witness against the murderer, by flowing afresh at his touch; the living blood crying aloud from the inanimate body for vengeance.

Trumbull has already pointed out that this blood-test is frequently met with in ancient European literature, appearing as early as the Nibelungen Lied, passages from which he quotes (on pp. 142–43 of 1st ed.). The following historic incident attests the prevalence of the belief in the efficacy of "the ordeal of touch" in the seventeenth century. It was during the trial of Philip Standsfield, in 1688, for the murder of his father, Sir James. The testimony was explicit, that when this son touched the body, the blood flowed afresh, and the son started back in terror, crying out, "Lord, have mercy upon me!" wiping off the blood from his hand on his clothes. Sir George M'Kenzie, acting for the State, at the inquest, said concerning this testimony and its teachings: "But they, fully persuaded that Sir James was murdered by his own son, sent out [with him] some surgeons and friends, who having raised the body, did see it bleed miraculously upon his touching it. In which, God Almighty himself was pleased to bear a share in the testimonies which we produce: that Divine Power which makes the blood circulate during life, has oftentimes, in all nations, opened a passage to it after death upon such occasions, but most in this case." (See the quotations in Trumbull, loc. cit., p. 145, note 2.) The ordeal of touch, or of "bier-right," seems to have been known to Shakespeare, and Mr. Henry C. Lea (Superstition and Force, pp. 315–23) has gathered all available data on the subject, recalling "an old-time Jewish custom," which the writer is not able to verify. Quoting from Gamaliel ben Pedahzur's curious Book of Jewish Ceremonies (tr. from the Hebrew, London, 1738, p. 11), he says that it was the practice among the Jews to ask pardon of a corpse for any offences committed against the living man, laying hold of the great toe of the corpse while thus asking; and if the asker had really inflicted any grievous injury on the deceased, the body was supposed to signify the fact by a copious hemorrhage from the nose (see Trumbull, l. c., p. 146). I find no reference to such a custom in the Book of the Pious (Sefer ha-Hassidim), a most remarkable repertorium of ethics, superstition and mysticism, written in the Rhineland during the thirteenth century, concerning whose
authorship, despite the erudite labors of Güdemann (Geschichte des Erziehungsweises und der Cultur der Juden in Frankreich und Deutschland, Vienna, 1880), nothing definite is known. It is popularly ascribed to Judah Hasid, but it is not the work of a single writer; it is rather a production of the Zeitgeist—a wonderful conglomerate of the sublime and the puerile, the ethical and the ceremonial. Its value for the study of mediaeval folklore is incalculable, and to it we owe our knowledge of contemporary customs and superstitions. We read there (in § 1143 of the Busle edition, 1589, p. 114a), among other things, that whenever a murderer approaches the body of his victim, the wound breaks out bleeding afresh, accusing him and demanding vengeance. There is this curious addition: that the same wonder happens if anyone who has partaken of soup without eating bread after it should approach the corpse of a man who had suffered a violent death. It is therefore advisable, as a means of precaution against becoming a suspect in such cases, to always eat a crust of dry bread after drinking soup. See concerning this soup-superstition the remarks of Juspa (=Joseph ben Phineas) Hahn (circa 1630) in his תחת יד וט, Frankf. a. M., p. 295a, where we read that fresh blood wells up from the wound of a murdered man if his body be approached with knife in hand. What is the origin of this fanciful tradition? The blood-test is, furthermore, mentioned by the zealot and mystic Manasseh ben Israel (1604–1657) in his ישע ודי, Amsterdam, 1651, iii. 3. It is significant that the Jews seem

In connection with this superstition, it is interesting to read what Isaac b. Judah Halevi, in his Pentateuch-Commentary Paṭnēk Rād (Amst., 1698) to Leviticus xix. 16, writes:}

> שיכן רד' נזיר השחר, ויהי אכלים
>
> והנפש אכלין עליה פט במלוח שלמה שלמה נקמה נקמה מכמים.
to have had faith in this test, though they looked upon the ordeal by water as a heathenish practice (see Güdemann, op. cit., p. 200, note 1). It remains to be added that the beginnings of this belief in the power of the blood to speak for itself against the violator of God’s law may be found in one or two Rabbinic traditions not generally applied to the subject under discussion. In the Babylonian Talmud, tract Gittin, p. 57b, it is recorded that when Cain had assassinated his brother, the latter was found slain with a stone, but the earth refused to receive his blood, meaning, of course, that the blood would not be absorbed (pending the punishment of the murderer?). A still more explicit statement of this idea is to be found in the same place in connection with the constantly flowing blood of the prophet Zechariah, which could not be stilled because of the violent death of so many innocents (see Winter and Wuenschke, Judische Literatur, i., pp. 282–283; P. I. Hershon, Talmudic Miscellany, London, 1880, pp. 110, 275, 276; parallel passages are Synhedrin, 96b; Jerus. Talmud, iv., 8; Midrash to Lamentations, to ii. 2). Arabic writers, enumerated by Max Grünbaum (Neue Beitr. z. semit. Sagenkunde, Leyden, 1893, pp. 237–40), identify Zechariah with John the Baptist, whose blood, according to Albirůnî (circa 1000 C. E.), though heaps of stones had been thrown upon it, “rose over them, boiling and bubbling.” This continued to flow, proceeds Albirůnî, until Nebuchadnezzar [sic] killed the people, and caused their blood to mingle with it; then it was quiet (see E. Sachau’s English translation of his Chronology of the Ancient Nations, London, 1879, p. 297, and additional references on p. 437). Albirůnî, of course, calls attention to the above glaring anachronism in the legendary version of the decapitation of John. According to Christian legend, the drops of blood visible on the so-called Johanniskraut (hypericum perforatum) are of the blood of St. John, who wanders, unapposed, through the world. The tradition is also known in Jewish sources (see Güdemann, l. c., p. 206, note 1).

One recalls, in passing, the annual pilgrimage paid to the shrine of one of the Catholic saints (St. Januarius) in Rome, on the anniversary of his martyrdom, on which occasion, to the wonder of the many gaping thousands, the blood of the martyr, congealed in a bottle the whole year through, is seen to quicken and to flow afresh.
The belief in the accusing power of blood still exists among the English-speaking people, and it has manifested itself as a means of justice-seeking, along with ordeals of a similar nature, in the United States, within a few years past (see Trumbull, *op. cit.*, p. 147).

II.

This popular and widely diffused belief in the retaliatory power of blood may be at the bottom of the interesting kinship-ordeal set forth in a story which has a strong Oriental coloring. In the *Sefer ha-Hasidim* (ed. Basle, 1581, p. 31, § 232) we read the following tale:

"There was a man, who went on a journey, taking with him his servant and great wealth, and leaving his pregnant wife at home. It so happened that the master died and left considera-"
ble property, which the slave appropriated without further ceremony, passing himself off as the dead man's son and heir. When the son grew up (to whom the widow had given birth), he heard of his father's death and sought out the slave in order to claim his property, which was forcibly withheld from him. Finding him so highly connected with the foremost people of the day, the son was afraid to press his claim, lest he lose his life in the bargain for his pains, and repaired, instead, to Rabbi Sa'adyah ben Joseph, the Gaon. Food was placed before him, but he left it untasted until the entire story had been told. The Gaon advised him to seek redress from the king, which he accordingly did. The king sent for Sa'adyah and asked him to render judgment. He ordered both son and slave to be bled and the blood of each to be let into separate basins. Then he caused some of the bones of the dead merchant to be disinterred and dipped them first into the blood of the slave, but the blood was not absorbed; then into the blood of the son, and lo! the bone forthwith absorbed it, for the two were one flesh. And Sa'adyah restored the dead merchant's property to the rightful heir.

This is, in brief, the legend attributed to Sa'adyah Gaon (died 942), a Judeo-German version of which is to be found in the Simhath ha-Nefesh, ed. Sulzbach, 1798, p. 115, and a German rendering in Tendlau's Fellmayer's Abende, p. 262, and in the same author's Buch der Sagen und Legenden jüdischer Vorzeit, 3rd ed., Frkf. a. M. 1873, p. 368. Jost (Geschichte, vol. ii., p. 235) and Rapoport (in his scholarly biography of Sa'adyah, Bikure ha-Ittim, ix., p. 37, note 49) have both expressed strong doubts as to the Sa'adyanian origin of the blood-test story. The earlier and more elaborate recension of the same legend as recorded in the Parables of Solomon runs as follows:

כשהבר אלוהי אדם ברויאו בימי סלמהinternet search
עשית הרכהམאת ויהי לא עבידת שפחתת וכסים רבייה ויהי
ול כו יתייך עשה אתו אדם כו שהרה ורבעה והנה יב
כנכין אורי חינן כמטנה וחל באמריקה עמהו וริม

1 Rapoport says: רוחמום וינו מפרך חטא internet search, ומעכות בריי
ממענות על ספולת וינו בחלכו בנותו internet search.

The first edition of this interesting collection of tales appeared in Constantinople, 1516, but they are very much older. Stein-}

schneider sees Arabic influences in the introductory words (see}
his Manna, Berlin, 1847, p. 101, no. IX.) and assigns it, hypothetically, to the early Gaonic period. Its age cannot be determined and we must content ourselves with this rather vague classification. Jellinek, in republishing the story from the editio princeps (Bet ha-Midrash, iv., Leipzig, 1857, pp. 145-46; cf. also introduction, p. xiv, No. IX.), calls attention to a remote parallel to which we shall refer below. Variants of the same legend are to be found in the Teshuvot Shel Yisrael ha-Rabbi, second ed., Ferrara, 1554 (r. Steinschneider, Catal. Bodl., pp. 606, 624); in Joseph Shabthai Farhi’s U’nesi Shel Yisrael, Livorno, 1869, i., p. 201-211; and in various MSS.\(^1\) Johanan Allemanno (1435–1527), in quoting the story (in the Introduction to his Commentary to Canticles, called Heshek Shelomoh\(^2\)), mentions the current superstition of the blood welling up at the touch of the murderer in proof of its credibility, making it plausible that the two traditions are inter-related. He does not seem to know of the early mention of the legend in the Sefer ha-Hasidim, and, as Steinschneider has pointed out, he must have borrowed it from obscure Oriental sources (see his article in Sabbath-Blatt, edited by Jellinek, 1846, pp. 61-62; idem in Hebr. Bibliogr. xiii., 134; xviii., 39, where parallels are given).

Allemanno’s version of the tradition runs as follows:

\[\text{[Translation:]}\]

\[\text{[Arabic text]}\]

\[\text{[Explanatory text]}\]

\[\text{[Footnotes:}\]
1 MS. Munich, 223, f. 75 (see references to Steinschneider, infra).
2 See Sha’ar ha-Heshek, ed. by Jacob ben Moses Hayyim Ibn Barukh, Livorno, 1798, p. 108.\]
"Our fathers" tell the story, says the author, of a quarrel between two claimants, each disputing the other's right to an inheritance. Both declared themselves to be the legitimate beneficiaries of the estate of a deceased father, and each accused the other to be the slave and not the son of the departed. No witnesses or any corroborative evidence being forthcoming, they repaired to the judge, who submitted each to the blood-ord reparandum. He bled both claimants and ordered the bones of the dead man to be brought to him. That being done, he dipped a piece of the bone in the blood of the two claimants, in the sight of all the people, "wrote their respective names on the blood," and held them until the following morning, when it was found that the blood of one cleaved to the bone, but that of the other remained unaffected. He decided this to be a conclusive proof of the blood-relationship of the rightful heir.

In connection with this the author reports the tradition that the wounds of a person who had suffered a violent death break out bleeding afresh at the touch of the murderer.

The writing of the names on the blood of each points to some cabbalistic belief in the efficacy of names, and there is little doubt that in some earlier version of the story the שם האלוהים, or the Ineffable Name, was used as a test. Allemanno, the mystic, the teacher of the famous Cabbalistic writer Prince Pico de Mirandola (see Steinschneider, in Hebräische Bibliographie, vol. xxi, 1881–1882, pp. 109–113; 130–132; J. Perles, Beiträge zur Geschichte der hebr. and aram. Studien, München, 1884, p. 191 ff.), was addicted to occultism and quotes many similar beliefs and traditions in his writings. The above narrative he concludes with the statement: קצチーム אלו אלוהים—which makes it evident that the source of the story of the blood-test is some "hidden lore," known to him by oral tradition.

Finally, the same story is told in the masse mizra of R. Moses ben Abraham of Aicmiller (3rd ed., Warsaw, 1876, p.
157, §764), a disciple of the famous Cabbalist Solomon Luria, without any source. There, too, the story is accredited to Sa'adya Gaon, proving conclusively that the author copied it from the Sefer ha-Hassidim. The first source of all these versions is no doubt the Book of Legends, composed by Rabbenu Nissim of Kairuan about the year 1030 (see Zunz, Gottesd. Vorträge der Juden, 2nd ed. Frankf. a. M., 1892, p. 139; A. Harkavy, in the Steinschneider-Festschrift, Leipzig, 1896, Hebrew section, p. 12 and ff.). It is extant in two recensions and there are several editions published, the first three (Constantinople, 1519; Venice, 1544; Ferrara, 1557) being very rare. The Verona edition (1648) was printed under the title לְיָם הֶעָנֵס and contains another recension of the legend:

The only son of a rich man migrated to Africa. After a long absence he returned home and found that both his parents had died and that his father's servant was in possession of his inheritance. He met with rough treatment at his hands and submitted his case to David, who, in view of the absence of evidence, rejected the plaintiff's claim. Then it was that Solomon, the son of David, proposed the blood-ordeal. In this account the text reads, not as in the Sefer ha-Hassidim נְבֵלָן הָרָם, but נְזֵבֶן הָעָנֵסָן בְּרִים, כֵּלֶצֶם. Whether the Constantinople edition, published in 1519, chronicles the story, we have no means of ascertaining. There is a strong likelihood of its having been borrowed by R. Nissim from the Meshulim shel Shelomoh, the first edition of which appeared three years before this one, at Constantinople. Both betray strong Arabian influence, and it is now known that R. Nissim's “Story-Book” was written originally in Arabic (see Harkavy, l. c.). The fact that King Solomon, the ubiquitous hero of Moslem tradition, is the judge in the case, would seem to point to Oriental (and possibly non-Jewish) origin.

Steinschneider (in his notes on the subject, Hebr. Bibl. xiii., 134; xviii., 39) quotes parallels from mediaeval and modern

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1 For detailed statements about author and editions, see Harkavy, l. c.; Steinschneider, Bodl. Catalogue; and his Hebr. Übersetzungen d. Mittelalters (Berlin, 1893), p. 933.

2 I am indebted for this reference to the courtesy of the Rev. Dr. A. S. Neumark, of New York.
folklore: *Gesta Romanorum*, ed. Graesse, ii., 174, 280; ed. Oesterley 608, n. 196 and 743 (cf. also p. 165, no. 262); Barbazan, *Fabliaux*, Paris, 1808, ii., 440; Kemble, *Dialogue of Solomon and Moroff*, p. 106; see especially Liebrecht in Pfeiffer's *Germania*, vol. xviii., pp. 363, 365. None of these authorities are accessible at the present writing; they can be readily verified by the specialist in folklore. It is interesting to record that a Portuguese version of the legend, hitherto unknown, is included in a volume of tales, fancies and traditions of the Rabbis translated from various sources, in my possession. This curious and valuable collection bears the following title:

"Liuro que contem Diversos | contos, suseos, e Exemplos de grande | Moralidade e Documento, para entre | tenimento e introducao dos animos | Virtuozos nos caminhos de Deos; tira- | dos; | traducidos de diuersos Liuros hebraicos; | por ordem de | Ishack de Matatia Aboar | e copiado por seu sobrinho | Samuel Curiel: Em Amsterdam | Anno 5436;" Reserving a fuller description of the MS. for another time, I subjoin, herewith, the text of the legend *in extenso*, the original orthography being retained throughout. It is to be found on pp. 13<sup>a</sup> to 14<sup>a</sup> of the collection, and runs as follows:

*Susedeu num homem no tempo del Rey David.*

Oqual moraou num lugar ermo; e era muito rico de fazenda e tinha muitos servos e servas; tinha hum filho unico intentou mandalo fazer hum Viagem e carregouhle hum nauio de diueras fazendas e foy adar com sigo odito mansebo a terra de Africa na qual se deteue alguns annos para negosear oque leuaua, no meyo dos quais morreoo o Pay do tal mansebo, edeixou por eredeiro de todas suas fazendas presentes e auzentes ahum seu criado, oqual come sou logo despois da morte do amo atomar posse de tudo castigando eensenhoreandose demaziadamente sobre os demais criados de caza, com que todos sefugirao efeicou elle sò alegre emuy contente como senhor detoda afa- | zenda; e despois de Vendida toda aque offio hauia levado tor- | nouda Africa para sua caza edandos elhe anoua damorte de seu Pay quis hir tomar possedo que por direito lhe tocaaua como eredeiro forsozo, eo criado com muy asperas escandelozas paluas obrasfentou, e elle com arezaq que tinha náo menos oagratou, tede se rezolueo por fimalh pedir justisa diante del Rey Davud oqual perguntou O hum ea outro se tinhaq testigos para prou-
arem sua Verdade, embos responderaõ que naõ os tinhaõ deu el Rey por sentensa que o criado que estaua deposes se ficase com tudo, sem ser obrigado restituir couza algua, com oque o filho com amargas lagrimas se postrou hua emuitas vezes a os pees del Rey dizendo naõ era vezaõ nem justicia que taõ falsamenlamente perdese oque por direito humano edeuno lhe tocaõa; ouuindo Salamaõ asentensa de seo Pay Daud chamou aomanselho elhe dixe que naõ deixase, de outra Ver pedir justisa ese por a caço seo Pay Daud se encolorizase contra elle lhe suplicase que remetese o caço emseo poder, que elle como Salamaõ julgaria o direito, e fazendo oaisy entregou el Rey Daud o caço emponder de seu filho Salamaõ, oqual perguntou a aquelle mansebo se Sabia em que lugar estaua enterrado seo Pay, erespondendo que naõ, perguntou omesmo a o criado que dezia era odefunto seo Pay, respondeo que sy Sabia aonde estaua enterrado, logo lhe mandou Salamaõ que fosse a sua sepultura e lhe cortase obras o que lho trouxese [? ] diante delle, como ofez, edespois mandou Salamaõ que ambos se sangrassem, e cada qual resebese seu sangue em vazo aparte, dizel Selomo a ocriado do defunto que banhase otal braso em seo sangue e tirando o outra vez do sangue naõ tingiu couza algua; e despois dixe ao filho o mesmo e ficou obras oterguido o vermelho, com que ficou todo opono admirado de ver tal experiensi; emandou logo Salamaõ restituiase ocriado toda afacenda a olegitimo filho do difunto por cuja accaõ se dixe ca sabentouse mais que todo o homem.

A Judaeo-German version of the story, as printed in the Book of Spiritual Delight ("Sefer Simhath ha-Nefesh"),\(^1\) Sulzbach 5558 (1798), p. 11\(^a\), runs as follows:

\[\text{See about this book M. Grünbaum, Juedischdeutsche Chrestomathie (Leipzig, 1882), p. 238 ff. For this reference to the Yiddish version we are indebted to Dr. M. Steinschneider, who, as early as 1846, called attention thereto. See his article "Ein Büchertitel und ein Märchen (Saadin Gaon betreffend)," in Jellinek's Sabbath-Blatt, Leipzig, 1846, no. 16, pp. 61–62.}\]
A merchant went to sea with his servant to trade in foreign lands, taking with him considerable means and leaving his pregnant wife behind. The merchant died, and the slave, pretending to be his lawful heir, claimed all his property, which was considerable. The widow had, in the meantime, given birth to a son, and when he was grown up, the mother said to him: “My child, your father left a great deal of money, but it is all in the hands of his servant. Go to him and claim your own.” The son did so. When he got to the place where he resided, he found him to be a person of some authority. He had succeeded
in marrying into prominent families, and seemed so highly esteemed in society that the son was afraid to open his mouth. He therefore consulted the Rabbi, who was called Saʿadyah the Gaon, and he refused to partake of nourishment [after the fatigue of his journey?] until he had learned the status of the case. The Gaon advised him to carry his grievance before the King. He did so, and the King sent for Rabbi Saʿadyah to render judgment in the matter. The Rabbi proposed to put them through the blood-ordeal. Accordingly he had them bled, the blood being let into two separate vessels. Then he ordered that the bones of the claimant's father be fetched and that the bones of some other dead man be procured. First he dipped the bone from the stranger's body into the blood of each, but no visible effect being produced, he proceeded to dip the father's bones into the blood of the rightful son. The bone became red and speedily absorbed the blood, since father and son are one flesh. Of course, the slave was compelled to refund him his patrimony.

A similar story, minus the blood-test, is known to the ancient Rabbis. In all likelihood, it has served as the basis of all the above accounts, and it is not at all irrelevant to collate these older parallels with the later, more elaborate, versions. In the Babylonian Talmud, tract Baba Bathra, f. 58*, we read the following story:

"A man once overheard his wife telling her daughter that, though she had ten sons, only one of them could fairly claim her husband as his father. After the father's death it was found that he had bequeathed all his property to one son, but that the testament did not mention his name. The question therefore arose, which of the ten was intended? They repaired one and all to Rabbi Benaah and asked him to arbitrate among them. "Go," said he to them, "and beat at your father's grave, until he rises to tell you to which of you it was that he left the property.""

All except one did so; and because by so doing he showed most respect for his father's memory, he was presumed to be

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1 This episode reminds one strongly of the judge's advice in Lessing's admirable parable of the three rings in his Nathan der Weise—many analogues of which are known in Oriental folklore (see Steinschneider's notes in the Zeitschrift für hebräische Bibliographie, Frankf. a. M., 1902).
the one on whom the father had fixed his affections; he, accordingly, was supposed to be the one intended, and the others were, therefore, excluded from the patrimony. . . ."


As a somewhat remote, though none the less striking parallel to this cycle of legends concerning disputed legacies, may be cited the curious fable of the son with two heads [reminiscent of the Argus myth?], claiming a double portion of his patrimony, recorded by the Tosafists in *Menahoth* 36a, and reprinted in full in Farhi's *מִלָּה נְעָה*, Livorno, 1869, i., pp. 21a–21b and in Jellinek's *Bet ha-Midrash* (Leipzig, 1857), vol. iv., pp. 151–152. It is too lengthy to be reproduced in full.

Joseph Zabara, in his *Book of Delight* ("Sefer Sha'ashuim"), finished ca. 1200¹), has still another version of the old Rabbinic story:

". . . . A merchant of wealth untold had an only son, who, when he grew up, said: 'Father, send me on a voyage, that I may trade and see foreign lands, and talk with men of wisdom and learn from their words.' The father purchased a ship and sent him on a voyage with much wealth and many friends. The father was left at home with his slave in whom he put his trust. Suddenly a pain seized him in the heart, and he died without directing how his property was to be divided. The slave took possession of everything; no one in the town knew whether he was the man's son or not. Ten years passed, and the real son returned, with his ship laden with wealth. As they neared the harbor, the ship was nearly wrecked. They cast everything overboard, but in vain; the crew were all thrown into the sea. The son reached the shore destitute and returned to his father's house; but the slave drove him away, denying his identity.

They went before the judge. 'Find the merchant's grave,' he said to the slave, 'and bring me the dead man's bones. I shall burn them for his neglect to leave a will, thus rousing strife as to his property.' The slave started to obey, but the son stayed him. 'Keep all,' said he, 'but disturb not my father's bones.' 'Thou art the son,' said the judge; 'take this other as thy lifelong slave.'


For Indian analogues and other bibliographic data see Steinschneider in Hebr. Bibl., xiii., 133. He maintains that this cycle of stories are all based, more or less, upon the "Judgment of Solomon," which, according to Professor Graetz and Mr. Joseph Jacobs (see the latter's Studies in Biblical Archaeology, London, 1893(?)), are of Indian origin.

A modern setting of the Rabbinic story is to be found in G. Ben Levi's Les Mimiées du Samedi (French), an English translation of which by A. Abraham appeared in London, in 1846, under the title: Moral and Religious Tales for the Young of the Hebrew Faith (see pp. 90-92).

Postscript.

After the above was in type, my attention was called to the fact that the story of the blood-ordeal is also mentioned in the Sefer ha-Zikra edited by Rabbi לבר מֶלְאוֹנִים, towards the end. See also Abraham Levinson's מֵכַר הַמִּרְדָּס . ed. Berlin, 1846, § 98.

1 See, however, his Hebr. Uebersetzungen (Berlin, 1898), p. 986, note 221.
The So-called Intransitive Verbal Forms in Hebrew.\textsuperscript{1}—By Dr.
Frank R. Blake, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

In English grammar, and in Indo-European grammar in general, a transitive verb is one that takes a direct object upon which the action denoted by the verb is exerted, e. g., kill; the man killed his brother, while an intransitive verb is one that has not such an object, e. g., sleep; the man sleeps.\textsuperscript{2}

In Semitic grammar there is more or less confusion in the use of the terms transitive and intransitive. They may refer, as in Indo-European grammar, to the exercise or non-exercise of the action upon an object,\textsuperscript{3} to the special forms of the two classes of verbs,\textsuperscript{4} or, finally, to the meaning of these verbs.\textsuperscript{5} This confusion is due to a characteristic peculiarity of the Semitic languages, namely that transitive and intransitive verbs are usually distinguished by a difference of form.\textsuperscript{6}

Semitic verbs are practically all derived from stems containing either two or three consonants. The prevailing type of verb is the triconsonantal, e. g., Heb. יָשָׁב, and to this norm the biconsonantal verbs have been for the most part conformed,

\textsuperscript{1} The present article is a portion of a larger work on the Intransitive Verbal Forms in Semitic. The complete material in Syriac, Arabic, Ethiopic and Assyrian is reserved for future publication.


\textsuperscript{4} Cf. Nöldeke, op. cit.; loc. cit.; Dalman, Gram. d. jüdisch-palästini-
schen Aramäisch, Leipzig, 1894, p. 199; Socin, op. cit., loc. cit.

\textsuperscript{5} Cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, op. cit.; loc. cit.; Delitzsch, Assyrian Gram-

\textsuperscript{6} Cf. Steintosh-Misteli, Charakteristik d. hauptsächlichsten Typen d.
either by doubling the second stem consonant, verbs medie
geminatae, e. g., Ar. Ɗ共产党员 < 俠共产党; or by lengthening
the vowel between the two stem consonants, verbs medie
infreruae, e. g., Ar. Ɗ共产党员 qâlu < *qula. From every stem, tri-
consonantal or biconsonantal, may be made a number of forms or
conjugations, the simple conjugation with simple verbal
meaning, and a number of derivative conjugations, intensive, causative, reflexive, etc., and in every conjugation there are two
so-called tense forms, a perfect and an imperfect, from which
latter an imperative is derived. In the simple conjugation
there are two verbal types, one of which is prevalingly transi-
tive and the other prevalingly intransitive.

The difference between these two formal types lies in the so-
called characteristic vowel between the second and third stem-
consonants in triconsonantal stems, or between the two stem-
consonants of biconsonantal stems. In general, transitive verbs
have a characteristic a vowel in the perfect, and a characteristic
i or u vowel in the imperfect, while intransitive verbs have
characteristic i or u vowels in the perfect, and a characteristic a
in the imperfect. In Hebrew and Syriac (according to the Nes-
torian pronunciation) characteristic i and u are lengthened to è
and ò respectively; in Ethiopic both become ë, which is synco-
pated in the perfect. These two verbal types exist in all the
Semitic languages except Assyrian, where the perfect, as such,
has not been developed, and where the various characteristic
vowels do not seem to have been used to differentiate between
transitive and intransitive verbs, e. g.:

1 Cf. A. Möller, Verba, Y'Y and W'W, ZDMG., 33, p. 608; Lagarde,
Übersicht über d. im Aramäischen, Arabischen u. Hebräischen übliche
Bildung d. Nomina, Göttingen, 1889, pp. 12, 27; Gesenius-Kautzsch,
Hebr. Gr., pp. 181, 201; Stade, Lehrbuch d. Hebr. Gram., Leipzig, 1879,
§ 143, 2; Nöldeke, Syr. Gr., § 177; Hommel, Süd-arabische Christo-
thie, München, 1893, p. 31, § 51.

2 Cf. Wright, Comp. Gram., pp. 83, 84; Dillmann-Bezold, Gram. d.
äthiopischen Sprache, Leipzig, 1899, § 19. The statement as to the i
vowel in Syriac is given on the authority of Rev. Gabriel Oussani of
Bagdad.

3 Compare the transitive verbs imhaç, imahaç 'strike'; iskun, iskakan
‘put’; iddin, inadin ‘give’; irmuk, irmunak ‘pour out, wash’; isbîr,
isabîr ‘break in pieces’; with the intransitive verbs ipshâ, ipshâb
So-called Intransitive Verbal Forms in Hebrew. 147

Heb. tr. יָבֵל, בֵּל 'visit,'

גָּפִּיר (< iintén) 'give,'

intr. יָבֵל, בֵּל 'be heavy,'

גָּפִּיר 'be small,'

Syr. tr. ܓܹܟܹܐ ܟܹܫܹܐ ܕܡܵܪܹܐ ܟܹܫܹܐ 'kill,'

ܓܹܒܹܐ ܓܵܪ ܓܹܒܹܐ 'buy,'

intr. ܓܹܒܹܐ ܓܵܪ ܓܹܒܹܐ 'sleep,'

Ar. tr. قَتَل qatala, قَتَل ياقَتَل 'kill,'

يَرَب daraba, يَرَب يادَرِب 'strike,'

intr. يَرَب فَرَح fariha, يَرَب يافَرَح 'rejoice,'

يَرَب حَسَن hasana, يَرَب ياهَسَن 'be handsome,'

Eth. tr. ﻗَدَل qatala, ﻗَدَل ﻗَدَل 'kill,'

intr. يُبَعُ يُبَعُ يَبَع 'be dry,'

In the biconsonantal verbs the two types are by no means so distinct, transitive and intransitive forms being more or less confused: cf. however,

Ar. tr. قَال gâla, ياقَل 'say,'

سَرَى sarî, يسَرَى 'journey,'

مَد mudda, يمَد 'draw, pull,'

intr. يَحْفَظ bista, يَحْفَظ 'fear,'

يَقَن يَقَن 'be hot,'

' recover, get well : ʿikkâb, ikarkab 'be propitious' ʿurîq (lîriq). urraq 'be or become pale'; ʿibât, ʿibâf 'live'; ʿirîq, ʿiraptâ 'be or become wide.' The permansive, which corresponds to the perfect, has practically always characteristic i or u vowels, e. g., mariq, maruq 'be sick' (cf. however, McCurdy, The Semitic Perfect in Assyrian, Actes du VI. Cong. internat. des Orientalistes, Leide, 1884, p. 524), and regularly denotes condition or passivity.

1 As the u perfect type of the intransitive verb is practically extinct in Syriac, and in Ethiopic has fallen together with the i type, it is difficult to say what was the original characteristic vowel of the imperfect, a as in Hebrew, or u as in Arabic.
The terms transitive and intransitive are also applied in Semitic to the nominal forms, but here again they are ambiguous. Sometimes they refer to the meaning of the words as being similar in kind to the meanings of verbs of the transitive or intransitive types,\(^1\) e. g.

Hebr. *tr.* דֵּלֵד *pt.* ‘killing,’ cf. לָשָׁן ‘kill,’

*intr.* דֶּפֶן ‘heavy,’ cf. דֶּפֶן ‘be heavy.’

Sometimes they are used as indicating the derivation of a nominal form from a transitive or intransitive verbal form without regard to meaning,\(^2\) e. g.

Hebr. *tr.* שֵׁם ‘straight’ from שָׁמָה ‘be straight,’

*intr.* דֶּפֶן ‘heavy’ from דֶּפֶן ‘be heavy.’

The nominal forms in Semitic are usually regarded as derived from the verb. Lagarde derives practically all nouns from the perfect theme; Barth, part from the perfect and part from the imperfect theme. Hence both consider the vocalization of a noun as an indication of the original vocalization of the verbal forms of the same stem.\(^3\) There is no reason, however, for assuming such a close connection between all nominal and verbal forms. It is hardly probable that the large number of nominal forms should be derived from the few themes which occur in the verb. Moreover, these theories leave out of consideration entirely the influence of analogy in conforming words of related meaning to the same formal type.\(^4\)

Although it is hardly possible, therefore, to assume, in the mechanical manner of Barth and Lagarde, that a verbal form had originally such and such a characteristic vowel, because that vowel is found in its nominal derivatives, it is true, nevertheless, that many verbal nouns and adjectives do offer more or less certain evidence as to the original form of a verb. These nominal derivatives are of two kinds, viz.

\(^1\) Cf. Barth, *Nominalb.*, pp. ii, iii, iv, ix.


1) Those in which there is an organic connection between verbal and nominal forms, as, for example, verbal adjectives of the forms qatil and qatal, which are probably originally identical with the corresponding i and u perfects;

2) Those which, although there is probably no original organic connection, are made more or less exclusively from either transitive or intransitive verbs; for example, active participles of the form qatil may be considered specifically transitive, abstracts of the form qatal specifically intransitive.

The designations transitive and intransitive as applied in Semitic to the two formal verbal types and their derivatives are not entirely suitable. In the first place, the distinction between transitive and intransitive is, strictly speaking, purely grammatical and syntactical, and has per se nothing to do with the meaning of the verb. In the sentences, he kills simply for the pleasure of killing; he is writing; he knows if anyone knows; I can't see: the meaning of the intransitively used verbs kill, write, know, see, is the same as in the sentences he kills animals simply for the pleasure of killing; he is writing a letter; he knows it if anyone knows; I can't see him; where they are used transitively.¹

Secondly, the two classes of transitive and intransitive verbs are not coextensive with the two formal verbal types. Although a large majority of the verbs of the so-called intransitive type are intransitive, there are a number, especially those which denote emotions and actions of the mind, which govern a direct object, e.g., Heb. בָּטַל ‘love,’ מָשַׁל ‘hate,’ יָשָׂר ‘hear,’ etc.; while many verbs of the so-called transitive form, especially verbs of motion, are intransitive, e.g., Heb. נָעַל ‘go out,’ יָכֹל ‘kneel down,’ לָשָׁה ‘fall,’ etc. These numerous exceptions cannot be satisfactorily explained as due simply to a mixture of transitive and intransitive forms: the real difference between the two verbal types is to be sought, not in the grammatical construction, but in the signification of the verbs.

The inadequacy of the terms transitive and intransitive has been very generally recognized, and various names for the two

¹ It is quite possible that originally all verbs were intransitive, indicating a condition or action of the subject without special regard to any object. Cf. Bréal, Essai de Sémantique, Paris, 1897, p. 210.
classes of verbs have been proposed with the idea of defining their nature more accurately. Böttcher calls the two classes *activa* and *statica*; König employs the term *Zustande verba* for verbs of the second class, while Gesenius designates them as verbs of "quality and emotion," or as verbs which denote "states and qualities," and in Lee's Grammar of the Hebrew Language they are spoken of as verbs of "sense and habit." Ewald uses the terms *active* and *halppassive* to designate the two classes: Rosenmüller calls them *activa* and *absoluta*; Merx speaks of verbs of the second class as *descriptive*, Duval as *neutres*. All of these terms point more or less clearly towards the distinction made by Böttcher, viz., that verbs of the first class indicate actions, while those of the second class indicate states or conditions.¹

Professor Haupt has suggested another theory. He calls the first and second classes respectively "voluntary" and "involuntary," or *verba voluntaria* and *verba involuntaria*, and thinks that the original distinction was one between volition and non-volition, verbs of the first class indicating originally an action or state which depends on the will of the subject, e.g., *kill, cut, look, walk*, etc., those of the second class indicating an action or state which does not depend on the will of the subject, e.g., *see, hear, fear, love*, etc.²

The following investigation comprises a study of the meaning and form of the so-called intransitive verbs in Hebrew, the term intransitive being used with reference to form only, unless otherwise stated. In the case of the nominal derivatives the term intransitive is restricted to those which are intransitive in the sense of the two categories given above. The investigation is divided into three parts:


1. **List of stems which exhibit intransitive forms.**
2. **Discussion of the meaning of the intransitive verb.**
3. **Discussion of the intransitive forms.**

1. **LIST OF STEMS EXHIBITING INTRANSITIVE FORMS.**

   The characteristic intransitive verbal forms in Hebrew may be indicated in general as follows, יָּשָּׁל and יָּשָׁן representing respectively any triconsonantal or biconsonantal stem.

   **Triconsonantal Verb.**
   
   pf.  | imph. | impr. | inf.
   ---  | ---   | ---   | ---
   יָּשָּׁל | יָּשָּׁן | יָּשָּׁל | יָּשָּׁל
   "יָּשָּׁל" or "יָּשָּׁנָ

   **Biconsonantal Verb.**
   
   med. geminate.
   יָּשָּׁן (pl.) | יָּשָּׁנָ | יָּשָּׁן | יָּשָּׁן
   med. infirma.
   יָּשָּׁן | יָּשָּׁן | יָּשָּׁן | יָּשָּׁן

   In verbs med. geminate the distinction between transitive and intransitive forms in the perfect is usually one between long forms like יָּשָּׁל and short forms like יָּשָּׁה. In verbs יְּשָּׁה and יְּשָּׁה biconsonantal forms of the med. geminate type, made from the last two consonants of the stem, also occur, imperfects and imperatives in verbs יְּשָּׁה, imperfectives in verbs יָּשָּׁה.

   Many verbal forms are indecisive, i.e. it is impossible to judge from them whether the verb in question belongs to the transitive or intransitive type; such are,

   1) All verbal forms in which the characteristic vowel is reduced to שֵׁהְתָּ, since שֵׁהְתָּ ordinarily indicates nothing with regard to the character of the original vowel; e.g., 3. f. s. pf. יְּשָּׁה, 3. pl. imph. יָּשָּׁה.

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1 As the u perfect is comparatively rare in Hebrew, the question as to the difference in meaning between verbs with i perfect and those with u perfect will not be discussed. The treatment of this question belongs to the discussion of the intransitive forms in Arabic, in which language alone does the u perfect occur with any frequency.

2) The first and second persons perfect with characteristicʼa in triconsonantal verbs and verbs mediae infirmæ, e. g., ʼhûsîm. ʼhûshîm, etc., and forms like ʼhûshîm. ʼišhîm in verbs mediae geminatae, since not only all transitive, but almost all intransitive verbs have first and second persons of these forms.

3) The ʼa imperfect of verbs mediae and tertiae gutturalis, since practically all verbs of these classes have imperfects of this form.

4) All forms of verbs ṭîḥûl, since all verbs of this class have been reduced to one formal type, the imperfect being intransitive, the perfect partly transitive and partly intransitive.

5) Short perfects of verbs mediae geminatae with suffixes, since they occur from verbs which are regularly transitive, e. g., ʼnîʼahûb ʼsurround.

The nominal derivatives in Hebrew which are to be regarded as specifically intransitive are the following.

A. Derivatives which are to be regarded as identical in origin with the perfect or imperfect theme, and may, therefore, be used as evidence for the original intransitive form of the verb, viz.:

1) **Perfect Theme.** Adjectives of the forms ʼašâl. ʼf. ʼhûsîm; ʼašâl. ʼf. ʼhîshîm. ʼhîshîm; ʼašâl. ʼf. hûsîm; ʼašâl. ʼf. ʼhûshîm; ʼašâl. ʼf. ʼhûshîm: verbal nouns of the form ʼhûshîm, originally feminine of the adjective ʼašîm.

2) **Imperfect Theme.** The infinitive forms ʼašâl. ʼkâl. ʼsîl. are, strictly speaking, to be classed here, since they are best regarded as derived like the imperative from the imperfect stem.

B. Derivatives which, while not originally connected with perfect or imperfect, may be regarded as specifically intransitive on account of their more or less exclusive occurrence with intransitive verbs; viz., adjectives like ʼlûl. ʼf. ʼlûl. from

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1 This form may represent either original qatul or original qatal (cf. Wright, Comp. Gram., pp. 82, 83, 84). For the sake of convenience, however, all adjectives of this form will be given in the list, the distinction between qatul and qatal being left to the individual cases.
verbs ד"ל: verbal nouns of the forms לָכַּשׁ, לָכַּשׁ, לָכַּשׁ, לָכַּשׁ.

In the following list, all those stems will be given which exhibit decisive intransitive verbal forms or intransitive derivatives. Verbs ד"ל without intransitive derivatives which exhibit intransitive forms in the perfect or imperfect, and verbs medie and tertiie gutturalis which have no intransitive form except the imperfect or imperative, are given when the evidence of the cognate languages seems to show that the intransitive forms are original. All the intransitive forms in Hebrew will be given in the case of each verb in the order, perfect, imperfect, imperative, infinitive, adjective, abstract, except in verbs ד"ל, where perfect forms like לָכַּשׁ and imperfect forms like לָכַּשׁ are simply indicated by µf. and impf. respectively. Whenever a stem presents intransitive form in only a single instance, a reference to the Hebrew text is added; references are also given in other cases when it seems desirable. Decisive intransitive forms of the verbs in the cognate languages are given in the perfect when it occurs; if not, in the imperfect, in Ethiopic the subjunctive. Forms in Talmudic and Targumic Aramaic are given only when no decisive intransitive form, or when only the imperfect is found in Syriac, J., L. and T. indicating respectively that the intransitive form in question is given by Jastrow in his Targumic and Talmudic dictionary, by Levy in his Talmudic dictionary, or by the same author in his Targumic dictionary. As indecisive forms in the cognate languages are to be regarded, 1) " imperfects of verbs medie and tertiie gutturalis in Syriac and Arabic, and a subjunctives of verbs of the same classes in Ethiopic, 2) " imperfects of verbs tertiie resh in Syriac, 3) syncopated per-

1 No other nominal form can be regarded as specifically intransitive in the sense here employed. On the other hand, adjectives of the form לָכַּשׁ like לָכַּשׁ 'wise' seem to indicate the existence of " perfects with meanings like the i and u perfects, just as adjectives of the forms לָכַּשׁ and לָכַּשׁ indicate the existence of i and u perfects.


fects of verbs tertiae gutturalis in Ethiopic,¹ 4) perfects of the intransitive form of verbs tertiae infirme in Targumic or Talmudic.¹ The Syriac forms are given also in Hebrew transliteration, the Arabic and Ethiopic in Roman transliteration. Metheg indicates that a form occurs only in pause; * before a stem or noun form indicates that the stem does not occur in Qal, or that the nominal derivative is not found in the exact form given; † indicates that references to all the verbal forms of a stem are given: pf. = perfect, impf. = imperfect, impr. = imperative, inf. = infinitive, a. = verbal adjective, abst. = abstract, c. = construct state, pl. = plural, adv. = adverb, prep. = preposition, i. p. = in pause, s. = with suffixes, tr. = transitive in construction, intr. = intransitive in construction, pt. = active participle, pt. p. = passive participle, kt. = kethiv; the abbreviations for the books of the Bible are self-explanatory.

The List.²

1. אבד †אבד (abād; אבד) ¹abāda; אבדה: iô‘ābed) ‘wander, vanish, perish.’

2. יבך (pf. impf.; יבך) i’bād and איבך: i‘bāci ‘be unwilling, refuse’) ¹ be willing.’

3. חבק (ךבק. n. חבק: J. L. T. יבק) ¹lament, be sad.’

² Almost any verb in these Aramaic dialects may have both transitive and intransitive perfects without regard to meaning, e.g.: מלבן. ‘be full,’ מלב, ‘strike,’ etc.
4. אַשָּׁד (a. אַשָּׁד 'sad,' Is. xix. 10).
5. אִדְר (a. אִדְר 'aduma, 'adima') 'be red.'
6. אֵרִי (אֵרִי. inf. and abst. אֵרִי) 'love.'
7. אֵרִי (a. אֵרִי. impr. אֵרִי. a. אֵרִי) 'become bright.'
8. אֱלֹה (אֱלֹה 'brotherhood,' Zech. xi. 14).
9. אָמַר (אָמַר Ps. lix. 16) 'shut.'
10. אֶפֶל (אֶפֶל 'terrible').
11. אֶכָל (אֶכָל 'eat.'
12. אֵלֵה (אֵלֵה Pr. xxii. 25; J. L. T. אֵלֵה 'aliya 'be accustomed to') 'learn.'
13. אָמַר (a. as ade. אָמַר 'so be it,' אָמַר 'amina 'be safe, secure,' אָמַר: 'amina) pt. 'tutor.'
14. אֲבָא (אֲבָא, a. אֲבָא אֲבָא [?]: אֲבָא) 'be powerful, courageous.'
15. אָמַר (אָמַר 'say.'
16. אָנָה (אָנָה 'sighing,' Ass. anah).
17. אֵינָה (אֵינָה 'aniya) 'be angry.'
18. אָנָה (אָנָה 'groan.'
19. אֵסֶף (אֵסֶף Is. xxiv. 22) 'collect.'
20. אָפֶל (אָפֶל 'dark,' אָפֶל 'aphila).
21. אָסֶף (אָסֶף 'stop, be no more.'
22. אָסֶף (אָסֶף Ezek. xxxi. 5, a. אָסֶף 'asaph' a. אָסֶף אָסֶף J. L. T. אָסֶף) 'become long.'
23. אָסֶף (אָסֶף. inf. and abst. אָסֶף אָסֶף. a. אָסֶף אָסֶף: אָסֶף 'athima) 'be guilty.'

1. אַשָּׁד might also be derived from a form אִדְר just as אֶכָל from אֶכָל 'wise.'
2. Denominative from אִדְר 'brother.'
24. הָרָא (Hebr.; יָדַע: i'zay) 'come.'
25. יָנָא (Hebr.: בֵּית: b'isa; אָבָא: b'ea) 'rot, stink.'
26. מַכֵּר (Mal. ii. 10, a. מַכֵּר * מָכֵר Jer. iii. 7, 10) 'be faithless, rebellious.'
27. בָּדָּד (Hebr. 'separation; badi'da 'have parts far apart') pt. 'alone, separate.'
28. בּוֹהַ (נָבַה: bëna 'cattle; בּוֹהַ: bëna 'be dumb').
29. אֵב (ואנ', impr. and inf. אֶב: אֵב; Ass. ib'd) 'enter, come.'
30. בֶּשֹּׁ (בֶּשֹּׁ, impr. and inf. בֶּשֹּׁ: בֶּשֹּׁ; Ass. ib'd) 'be ashamed.'
31. בַּרוֹ (נָבַר: בַּרוֹ, a. נָבַר: נָבַר Jer. vi. 27) 'test, try.'
32. בִּימָ (נָבִים: בִּימָ, a. נָבִים: נָבִים Is. xxx. 15) 'trust.'
33. בַּלִּיא (impr., a. בִּלי: בַּלִּיא balia; בַּלִּיא: balia) 'become worn out.'
34. בּולָא (בּולָא, a. בּולָא: בּולָא balia) 'swallow.'
35. בֵּעוּל (בֵּעוּל: בֵּעוּל bo'ula; בֵּעוּל: bë'lu) 'rule over, possess.'
36. בְּעַר (בְּעַר: בְּעַר, i. בְּעַר: בְּעַר 'burn' intr.
37. בֵּעַ (בֵּעַ, a. בֵּעַ: בֵּעַ 'terror;' בֵּעַ: בֵּעַ 'come upon suddenly, fear').
38. בֵּעַ (בֵּעַ, a. בֵּעַ: בֵּעַ 'dough,' originally 'swelling up') 'swell up.'
39. בְּעַר (בְּעַר, a. בְּעַר: בְּעַר 'piebald').
40. בֵּרַי (בֵּרַי, bari'a 'depart, leave') 'flee.'
41. בְּרַי (bë'rya, 2 Ch. vi. 13; בְּרַי: בְּרַי 'kneel.'
42. בֵּרַי (בֵּרַי, a. בֵּרַי: בֵּרַי 'blessing,' בֵּרַי: בֵּרַי 'pool,' perhaps originally 'something blessed') inf. absolute.

¹ The retention of the Qames in the feminine is strange if the form is qatul or qatàl. Barth (Nominalbildung, §27g) derives it from qatàl. It may be the Aramaic form קָטַל (so Haupt).
43. בֵּר (inf. בֵּר. Eccl. iii. 18, a. בֵּר ‘pure’;
barirta ‘be good, true’) ‘separate, cleanse.’
44. בֶּל (בֶּל. Ps. xix. 12, a. בֶּל ‘become cooked, ripe.’
45. נָהוֹ (naho. ‘rise, be exalted.’
46. נָהוֹ (naho. ‘be high, exalted, proud.’
47. גְּרוֹר (גרור. גְּרוֹר: gabra ‘do, make’) ‘increase, become great.’
48. גְּרוֹר (גרור. a. גְּרוֹר: jadila ‘condemn violently’) ‘become great.’
49. גָּדָּה (גָּדָּה: Gate ‘bend down.’
50. נָו (naw. ‘sojourn.’
51. נָו (naw. ‘plunder,’ originally ‘what is torn off,’ יָזִיל: jazila ‘be cut on the back [of camel] tear off, tear away.’
52. יָד (yad: Job xxii. 28, יָד: ‘desolation’) ‘separate, determine.’
53. יָד (yad: and יָד ‘break forth.’
54. יָד (yad: Ps. cxix. 22) ‘roll.’
55. יָד (yad: ‘what is stolen,’ Ex. xxii. 2) ‘steal.’
56. יָד (yad: נָו בֶּל ‘scold, reprove.’
57. יָד (yad: Lev. xi. 7) ‘draw.’
58. יָד (yad: L. רָכָא: רָכָא ‘fear.’
59. יָד (yad: ‘cake of figs,’ originally ‘something pressed together; דבילה: דבילה ‘be full of fat’).
60. יָד (yad: inf. יָד: לַעֲבִי: לַעֲבִי בָּקָם ‘stick to.’
61. יָד (yad: ‘sick; דָּיִי: דָּיִי dayi: ‘be unwell, menstruate.’
62. יָד (yad: Gen. vi. 3) ‘stay’[?].†

† Cf. Wright, Comp. Gram., p. 67.
† Cf. Stade, Lehrb. §400, c; Olschhausen, Lehrb. p. 524 bot.
63. שָׁדַי (impr. שָׁדָי Mic. iv. 13) 'tread down.'
64. רָכִּים (a. רָכִין 'crushed').
65. רָדַל (רָדַל Job xxviii. 4) 'dangle.'
66. רָדַל (רָדַל, רָדַל, a. רָדַל) 'be weak, poor.'
67. רָדַל (רָדַל Ps. x. 2; רָדַל, רָדַל J. R. רָדַל) 'burn intr., pursue eagerly.'
68. רָדַל (רָדַל Job xxx. 27, הָנַּמֶּר) 'be silent, still.'
69. רָדַל (רָדַל Jer. xiii. 17, דִּמְלַת דְּמֵמָה 'weep, be full of tears.'
70. רָדַל (רָדַל, רָדַל) 'go out, be extinguished.'
71. רָדַל (רָדַל, a. רָדַל) 'be crushed, fine.'
72. רָדַל (רָדַל Deut. xxxi. 20, a. רָדַל דָּסָים 'dasi') 'become fat.'
73. רָדַל (רָדַל T. רָדַל) 'amount to nothing, give oneself up to empty hopes.'
74. רָדַל (רָדַל, רָדַל T. רָדַל, נְּרָדַל, לְרָדַל) 'honor, take the part of.'
75. רָדַל (forms regularly tr. except impf. i. p. רָדַל, 2 pl. רָדַל חָלִיקוּם Ex. ix. 23, Ps. lxiii. 9; J. T. הָלִיקוּ 'perish') 'go, walk, depart, vanish.'
76. רָדַל (רָדַל 'destruction,' Gen. xix. 29; J. T. רָדַל) 'turn, overturn, destroy; turn (intr.), flee.'
77. רָדַל (רָדַל 'slaughter') 'kill.'
78. רָדַל (imprf. a. רָדַל, רָדַל 'be pregnant.'
79. רָדַל (a. רָדַל) 'be haughty.'
80. רָדַל (רָדַל, רָדַל, transposed רָדַל) 'tremble, be afraid.'
81. רָדַל (רָדַל Jud. vi. 38) 'press out.'
82. רָדַל (רָדַל Ps. lxi. 4) 'be strange, apart, rebellious.'
83. רָדַל (imprf.: רָדַל) 'be pure.'

1 Cf. Haupt in Beiträge zur Assyriologie 1, 2.
84. יָבֹא (a. יַבֹּא) ‘be pure, innocent.’
85. יֵבָא (הָּבָא) Pr. xix. 3, a. יָבֹא ‘be angry.’
86. קָעָה (עַעְּקָה) ‘cry out.’
87. נָיַר (נָּיָר), inf. and abst. נָּיַר. a. נָּיַר ‘become old.’
88. יִדְּרָר (הָדְּרָר) Is. i. 6 ‘be pressed out.’
89. מִבָּר (מִבָּר, מִבָּר) ‘be joined together, allied.’
90. בָּרָּךְ (יְבָרָךְ) Job v. 18 ‘bind.’
91. מִנָּר (מִנָּר, מִנָּר) ‘girded,’ Ezek. xxiii. 15 ‘gird, bind up.’
92. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) Hab. i. 8, a. מְנָר ‘sharp.’
93. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) ‘rejoice.’
94. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) ‘cease.’
95. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) ‘pity, spare.’
96. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) Is. xxix. 22 ‘become pale.’
97. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר), inf. and abst. מְנָר מְנָר. a. מְנָר ‘be unmoved, attached to, strong.’
98. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) sin.’
99. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) Ex. i. 19; מְנָר מְנָר; מְנָר מְנָר ‘live.’
100. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) ‘live.’
101. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) J. מְנָר מְנָר; מְנָר מְנָר ‘be wise.’
102. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) מְנָר מְנָר ‘be smooth.’
103. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר), inf. and abst. מְנָר מְנָר ‘be weak.’
104. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) J. מְנָר מְנָר; מְנָר מְנָר ‘desire.’
105. מְנָר (מְנָר, מְנָר) ‘pity, spare.’

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1 All the forms are probably denominative from מַיְלָה ‘beard.’
2 Regarded as "Pual of מַיְלָה by Stade, Lehrb. §415, b.
3 Meaning uncertain, usually translated ‘lively, in good health.’
106. הַמִּין (יהו, יְם, יִם), *inf. הַמִּין*' Is. xlvi. 14, a. יִם: 
ָחַם הַמִּין הָמִינָה, הָמִינָה; הָמִינָה הָמִינָה (יִהוּד) 'become warm.'

107. הָמָס (יהו, יְס, יָס), *hamisa 'be hard, severe') 'act violently to, harm.'

108. הָמַעַת, הָמַעָה Hos. vii. 4, a. הָמַעַת הָמַעָה הָמַעָה; cf. הָמַעַת הָמַעָה. 
L. הָמַעַת הָמַעָה 'be sour.'

109. הָמַי (a. הָמַי הָמַי הָמַי 'oppressor,' Is. i. 17) pt. 'oppressor,' Ps. lxxi. 4.

110. הָמָנָה Am. v. 15, *inf. הָמָנָה הָמָנָה הָמָנָה Is. xxx. 18) 'be gracious to.'

111. הָמָה (יהו, יְהוּד, יְהוּד) a. הָמָה הָמָה הָמָה, הָמָה, הָמָה 'have a contortion') 'be godless, polluted.'

112. הָמַס (a. הָמַס הָמַס הָמַס 'strong,' הָמַס הָמַס הָמַס 'a. Hagar; Hagar') 'fail, be in want, decrease.'

113. הָמָר (יהו, יְר, יְר) a. הָמָר הָמָר הָמָר 'be pleased with, desire.'

114. הָמַס (a. הָמַס הָמַס הָמַס 'pure,' Job xxxii. 9).

115. הָמָר (יהו, יְר, יְר) a. הָמָר הָמָר הָמָר 'be ashamed.'

116. הָמַס (יהו, יְר, יְר) a. הָמַס הָמַס הָמַס 'freedom,' Lev. xix. 20).

118. הָמָר (יהו, יְר, יְר) a. הָמָר הָמָר הָמָר 'be dry, desolate.'

1 Perhaps corrupt and to be read הָמַי; cf. Gesenius-Buhl., p. 290 b.

2 The regular representative of הָמַס in Syriac is 'be fermented,' the imperfect of which is indecisive.

3 Cf. Haupt in Beiträge zur Assyriologie, 1, 19; Lagarde, Übersicht, p. 34.
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120. רד"ח (ר"ד, a. רד: רדנ'ח, ר: חред) harida ‘be bashful’) ‘tremble.’

121. חרה (ח: Job xxvii. 6) ‘pass the winter.’

122. חרה (ח: T. ח: Job xxvii. 6) ‘scorn.’

123. פרה (פ: Ex. xi. 7) ‘sharpen.’

124. חרס (ח: 2 Sam. v. 24; חרס hariya) ‘be eager, hasten.’

125. חרה (ח: Jer. xvii. 6; ח: harira) ‘burn, glow.’

126. חרס (ח: harisa) ‘be dumb, silent.’

127. חסמה (ח: חסמה, חסמהי חסמהי, חסמה) hasika ‘be angry’) ‘become darkened.’

128. חרה (ח: a. חרה) ‘be terrified.’

129. מבחנה (מ: מבחנה) ‘slaughtering’) ‘slaughter.’

130. מבעית (מ: מבעית, מבעית) tabia ‘be rusty;’ ממקו ‘be inborn’ ‘be sunken, sink.’

131. טהור (ט: טהור, ט: טהור) tahura, tahura ‘be clean, pure.’

132. מבר (מ: מבר, מבר) ‘be good.’

133. גרס (ג: גרס) ‘grind.’

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1 The adjective שיח ‘dumb’ is perhaps modified from ייח after the analogy of other adjectives denoting defects, e.g. ייח ‘lame,’ אדים ‘dumb,’ ייח ‘bald,’ עין ‘humped,’ עין ‘blind,’ עין ‘stammering,’ עין ‘crooked,’ ייח ‘lame,’ ייח ‘open-eyed,’ ייח ‘bald.’ ייח is probably to be regarded in the same way, cf. the proper name ייח.

2 Considered an u perfect by Lagarde (Übersicht, p. 26); it is probable, however, that the verbal forms are simply denominative for the adjective, which represents a more original form יב, cf. Syr. יב, יב, יב. Ass. יבו.

12. "Fibu."

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134. סְפָרָה, פָּרָה, פָּרָה (תַּמֵּאָה) "be unclean, impure."
135. טּוּמֵא (תָּעִימה; טֶּעָמָה) "taste" tr.
136. עֶרֶב (תַּאֹרֶשׁ, תּוּרָפָה) "tear, rend."
137. יִבְסָם (יִבְסָמָה). a. יִבְסָמָה (יִבְסָמָה) "be dry."
138. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל). a. יִכְלָל. "be tired."
139. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "fear."
140. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "throw [lot]."
141. יַדָּה (יַדָּה) "yadah, yahuda; cf. סָמֵא: yehuda) "be joined to."
142. יָרַד (יָרַד) "yarah, yahina) "be lustful, in heat."
143. יִבָּז (יִבָּז) "befoot."
144. יָכַב (יָכַב) "be good."
145. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "Bib. Ar. יִכְלָל": cf. והָיָה: kibla) "be able."
146. יֶלְדָה (יֶלְדָה) "yelde, yeldeh, yeldeh (әәә: yeldeh [subj.]) "bear."
147. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "cry of woe."
148. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "suck."
149. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "be fatigued."
150. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "be beautiful."
151. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "breathing forth," Ps. xxvii. 12.
152. יִכְלָל (יִכְלָל) "beauty," Ezek. xxviii. 7, 17.

1 To be pronounced ruči: such forms might also be transliterated סַפָרָה, just as they are sometimes written in Syrian סַפָרָה.
3 Cf. my paper on The Internal Passive in Semitic, JAOS. vol. 22, p. 49, ft. nt. 2.
153. נדמ (nēdēm) 1 Kgs. xxii. 35, impr. נדמ 2 Kgs. iv. 41) 'be poured out, flow.'
154. מזרע (mrēzū) 'form.'
155. מזרע (impf. mrēzū) 'burn' intr.
156. מזרע (mrēzū) 'burn' intr.
157. מזרע (mrēzū) 'obedience,' נודע (nōḏēd) 'be obedient'.
158. מזרע (mrēzū) 'be dislocated.'
159. מזרע (mrēzū) 'be awake.'
160. מזרע (mrēzū) 'be heavy, important, precious.'
161. מזרע (mrēzū) 'lay snares.'
162. מזרע (mrēzū) 'fear.'
163. מזרע (mrēzū) 'contentious,' Hos. v. 13, x. 6).
164. מזרע (mrēzū) 'descend, go down.'
165. מזרע (mrēzū) 'green,' חרד (ḥārdā) yariqa).
166. מזרע (mrēzū) 'inherit.'
167. מזרע (mrēzū) 'sleep.'
168. מזרע (mrēzū) 'be straight.'
169. מזרע (mrēzū) 'old,' 2 Ch. xxxvi. 17.
170. מזרע (mrēzū) 'feel pain.'
171. מזרע (mrēzū) 'be heavy.'

The unaccented a of the final syllable is modified to Seghol as in ירי < ḫārijēmar, cf. i. p. Cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gr. § 68, c. d. e.


1 If the text is correct, a secondary form based on the imperfect יר יר from יר 'contend.'
172. קֵחָה (impf.; כֻּקָה kahia) ‘be weak [of eyes], despair.’
173. קְני (a. קְנַי ‘right, proper’).
174. קְנָה (p. קְנָה Ps. cxvi. 11.
175. קְנָה (impf.; a. קְנָה ‘languishing,’ Deut. xxviii. 32) ‘be complete, ended, languish.’
176. קְנָה (Jer. x. 8. כְנָה; kasila ‘be sluggish’) ‘be foolish.’
177. קְנָה (J. קֵנְיָה ’be displeased, angry.’
178. קְנָה (קְנָה ‘hunger’; קְנָה ‘stretch out hungrily,’ Ezek. xvii. 7.)
179. קְנָה (pf. impf.; קְנָה: ikerai) ‘dig.’
180. קְנָה Esth. viii. 5, יְכָּר: Eccl. xi. 6) ‘succeed, be suitable.’
181. קְנָה (impf.; קְנָה ‘become fatigued, lose courage.’
182. קְנָה (לְבָנָה קְנָה) ‘be white, glowing’).
183. קְנָה (לְבָנָה קְנָה; nah: labisa) ‘put on.’
184. קְנָה (לְבָנָה pr. xix. 20; קְנָה ‘frenzy,’ 1 Sam. xix. 21) ‘spend the night.’
185. קְנָה (a. קְנָה) ‘scorn, scoff.’
186. קְנָה (לְבָנָה: pr. קְנָה: iklmod) ‘learn.’
187. קְנָה (a. קְנָה ‘stutter’ ‘mock.’
188. קְנָה (לְבָנָה Ob. 16) ‘suck up.’

1 Cf. Hoffman, ZAW. 3, 89. The reading is doubtful; according to LXX, Syr. and Targ. we should read לְבָנָה ‘assembly.’
2 קְנָה is perhaps to be read לְבָנָה, and the forms referred to לְבָנָה.
3 Perhaps from אֲשַׁנְו, cf. Syr. אֲשַׁנְו as well as אֲשַׁנְו.
190. מָט שָׁלָּל (a. מְט שָׁלָּל ‘refusing;’ מְט ‘refuse’).
191. מָט מְרוּ (murr ‘haste’).
192. מָט מִט (inf. מִט Ps. xxxviii. 17, xlvi. 3) ‘trotter.’
193. מָט מְרוּ (murr. a. מְרוּ מִט; מִט mitta ‘die.’
195. מָט מְרוּ (a. מְרוּ מְרוּ ‘oppressor,’ Is. xvi. 4).
196. מָט מְרוּ (murr. מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרוּ מְרָא לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל لָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל لָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל לָל L

2. May be Niphal.
3. This form may be referred to כ just as לָל to ‘bullock,’ the pausal form being used with the article; cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gr. § 85, o.
205. מָשָׂה (מָשָׂה. מָשָׂה מָשָׂה s., inf. מָשָׂה. מָשָׂה מָשָׂה) 'anoint.'
206. מָשְׂךָ (Pr. ix. 17, a. מָשְׂךָ) 'be sweet.'
207. נָשָׂא (נָשָׂא. נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'despise.'
208. נָשְׂא (Job xvii. 12, נָשְׂא נָשְׂא נָשְׂא) 'groan.'
209. נָשְׂא (J. L. נָשְׂא נָשְׂא נָשְׂא) 'be soiled.'
210. נָשָׂא (נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'be foolish, act foolishly.'
211. נָשָׂא (Job xviii. 5, a. נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'dawn,' originally 'shining,' Is. lxx. 9) 'shine.'
212. נָשָׂא (נָשָׂא. imper. נָשָׂא) 'approach.'
213. נָשָׂא (נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'willingness;' נדֵב 'be noble, active') 'impel to give willingly.'
214. נָשָׂא (Gen. xxxi. 40; נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'hate; i.e.: nadda 'burn' 'flee.'
215. נָשָׂא (נָשָׂא) 'vow.'
216. נָשָׂא (נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא; לַעֲמֹר nahima) 'roar.'
217. נָשָׂא (Job vi. 5, xxx. 7; Nahima nahiga) 'bray, cry out.'
218. נָשָׂא (Job iii. 4) 'shine.'
219. נָשָׂא (a. נָשָׂא Is. xvii. 11) 'wander.'
220. נָשָׂא (a. נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'beautiful.'
221. נָשָׂא (inf. נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'come to rest, rest.'
222. נָשָׂא (Is. vii. 2, inf. נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'totter, tremble, move hither and thither, wander.'
223. נָשָׂא (a. נָשָׂא נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'lamp,' originally 'shining'.
224. נָשָׂא (Nahisa nahisa) 'flow.'
225. נָשָׂא (Nahisa nahisa נָשָׂא נָשָׂא) 'possess, inherit.'

1 Cf. König Lehrgeb., 2, 1, 83. The reading is perhaps corrupt, LXX and Targ. require הָרָע.
2 Contracted from בַּנְיָא 'beautiful,' probably Niphal participle of בַּנָּה.
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226. הָנָה (or הָנָה, יִהְנֶה) Jer. viii. 16; פָּנָה nahira; נָבֵר nēbar) 'snort, blow,' Jer. vi. 29.†

227. descend.'

228. הָנָה (דָּבַד דָּבָד cf. וּלָה nātha) 'drip.'

229. הָנָה (נָלָה, לָנָה) 'stricken,'

230. הָנָה (רָנָה) 'smitten'.

231. הָנָה (א. לִיָּה לִיָּה) 'lying straight ahead'.

232. הָנָה (רֵעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'be agreeable.'

233. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'female, perforata;' נַעֲמָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'be lacerated, worn') 'bore, pierce.'

234. הָנָה (א. דָּבַד דָּבַד) 'speckled.'

235. הָנָה (נָמִים, נָמִים) 'take vengeance.'

236. הָנָה (נַעֲמָה, נַעֲמָה) 'forget.'†

237. הָנָה (יָרְדָה, יָרְדָה) 'bite.'

238. הָנָה (יָרְדָה, יָרְדָה) 'take off, fall off or out.'

239. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'breathe violently,' Is. xlii. 14.†

240. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'kiss.'

241. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'overflow, be poured out.'

242. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'give.'

243. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'leap up [of heart].'

244. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'turn aside.'

245. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'ascend.'†

246. הָנָה (רַעֲפֵה, נַעֲמָה) 'overhang, spread out freely.'

247. מַר (א. מַר) 'be refractory, rebellious.'

† So König 2. 1, 81 f. 462. the doubling of the third consonant taking the place of the lengthening of the characteristic vowel as in מַר (א. מַר) 'round.'

248. עָבֵד (עֵבֶד) ‘work, service;’ עָבָד ‘a slave’
work, serve.

249. עָבָד (pif.; עָבָד חֶסֶד) ‘abâa ‘be thick, fat.’

250. עָבָד (עָבָד) ‘overflow; cross, pass over.’

251. עָבָד (עָבָד) ‘thickly woven’.

252. עָבָד (Ez. xxiii. 5, עָבָד גִּבְרָה עָבָד; עָבָד גִּבְרָה עָבָד) ‘ujiba’
desire, lust for.’

253. עָבָד (a. עָבָד עָבָד; עָבָד עָבָד) ‘round;’ עָבָד ‘ajila ‘hasten’.

254. עָבָד (עָבָד) ‘voluptuous pleasure,’ Gen. xviii. 12.

255. עָבָד (a. עָבָד עָבָד; עָבָד עָבָד) ‘witness’ kt. ‘cite as an example,’ Lam. ii.

13.

256. עָבָד (inf. עָבָד Is. xxx. 2.) ‘seek refuge.’

257. עָבָד (עָבָד) ‘unrighteousness’.

258. עָבָד (a. עָבָד לֵעַר ‘be jealous’) ‘awake.’

259. עָבָד (a. עָבָד עָבָד; עָבָד עָבָד) ‘azizta’ ‘be strong.’

260. עָבָד (עָבָד) ‘help.’

261. עָבָד (1 Sam. xxv. 14) ‘rush upon.’

262. עָבָד (a. עָבָד עָבָד; עָבָד עָבָד) ‘be exhausted.’

263. עָבָד (pif., impf., a. עָבָד עָבָד ‘leaves,’ originally ‘growing up;’ עָבָד ‘aliya’ ‘be or become high, ascend’) ‘ascend, go up.’

264. עָבָד (a. עָבָד Is. v. 14) ‘rejoice.’

265. עָבָד (עָבָד) ‘thick darkness;’ עָבָד (מִגְלָל) ‘be thick, dense’.

1 עָבָד probably bears the same relation to adjectives of the form qatul as abstract nouns like מִגְלָל do to adjectives of the form qatil, cf. p. 135. The only other abstract of this form is עָבָד * Ez. xxvii, 15, which is probably corrupt: cf. Prof. Toy’s critical notes on the Hebrew text of Ezekiel, in The Sacred Books of the Old Testament ed. Prof. Haupt, p. 83, l. 22.

2 The verbal forms are doubtful: the perfect עָבָד may be read as the adjective עָבָד, the imperfect עָבָד from עָבָד.
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266. עֶלֶם (a. עֶלֶם, עֶלֶם) 'fatigue, exert oneself, labor.'

267. עֶבֶכָּה (a. עֶבֶכָּה; אֵלֶים: גָּפִּוי) 'be deep,' Ps. xcii. 6.

268. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה 'effeminate; flush"

269. עַעַגְּנֵה (p.עַעַגְּנֵה; imp.עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'pliant, coquetish').

270. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'full of branches,' Ezek. xix. 10).

271. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'lazy,' 'azila 'stick together').

272. עַעַגְּנֵה (Ps. xxxviii. 20, עַעַגְּנֵה 'azuma) 'be strong, mighty.'

273. עַעַגְּנֵה (עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'deceive.'

274. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'banded, striped') 'bind,' Gen. xxii. 9.

275. עַעַגְּנֵה (עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'sweet.'

276. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'bare places,' originally 'bare, naked,' Is. xix. 7, עַעַגְּנֵה 'ariia).

277. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'uncircumcised;' גָּרִיל 'circumcise,' Lev. xix. 23.

278. עַעַגְּנֵה (a. עַעַגְּנֵה 'naked').

279. עַעַגְּנֵה (עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'heap').

280. עַעַגְּנֵה (עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'curse, crafty.'

281. עַעַגְּנֵה (עַעַגְּנֵה, עַעַגְּנֵה 'smoke.'

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1 Cf. construct plural עַעַגְּנֵה 'fearing.'
2 Denominative from עַעַגְּנֵה 'branch.'
3 Denominative from עַעַגְּנֵה 'foreskin.'
4 Secondary stem made on the basis of עַעַגְּנֵה 'naked' from עַעַגְּנֵה.
282. עָפָר (a. עָפָר יָשָׁר יָשָׁר Jer. xxii. 3, יָשָׁר יָשָׁר Is. xxxviii. 14) 'oppress.'
283. עָפָר (Job xv. 29; cf. עָפָר 'athila 'be much') 'be rich.'
284. עָפָר (Ps. xxxi. 11) 'be grieved, waste away.'
285. עָפָר (a. עָפָר Ezek. xxvii. 19) 'be smooth,' Jer. v. 28.
286. עָפָר (a. עָפָר עָפָר עָפָר Jer. ii. 19) 'tremble, fear.'
287. עָפָר (a. עָפָר עָפָר עָפָר Jer. ii. 19) 'tremble, fear.'
288. עָפָר (Gen. xxxii. 18) 'meet.'
289. עָפָר (pf., impf.: יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
290. עָפָר (pf., impf.: יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
291. עָפָר (pf., impf.: יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
292. עָפָר (1 Sam. xix. 10) 'get away, escape.'
293. עָפָר (a. עָפָר עָפָר עָפָר Jer. ii. 19) 'tremble, fear.'
294. עָפָר (pf., impf.; יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
295. עָפָר (pf., impf.; יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
296. עָפָר (pf., impf.; יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
297. עָפָר (pf., impf.; יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'spring, skip.'
298. עָפָר (1 Sam. xix. 24; J. מֶשֶׁמ Mal. iii. 20) 'take off (clothes), plunder.'
299. עָפָר (impf.; יָפָר Mal. iii. 20) 'be open, simple, inexperienced.'
300. עָפָר (Num. v. 21; יָפָר Num. v. 21) 'swell up,' Num. v. 27.

1 Professor Haupt compares this word with Assyrian addû 'be grieved,' cf. Delitzsch HW. 151.
3 Cf. Barth, Nominallb. §112. The scriptio plena is perhaps due to the influence of the synonymous יָפָר. Olshausen, Lehrb. §180, and Lagarde, Übers., 85, regard the form as a diminutive like the Arabic qaitall.
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301. רָזֶכֶם (רָצֶכֶם, רָצָק) J. L. T. רָצָק; סָדֵק: sadqa) 'be proper, right, righteous.'
302. צֵיבָה (סֵיבָה, צֵיבָה; סֵיבָה: sahiba) 'gold-colored; סֵיבָה 'blackish-red'.
303. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'cry for joy.'†
304. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'press together, close up.'
305. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'attack, distress.'
306. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'form.'
307. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'be white, bright, clear.'†
308. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'stench,' Jo. ii. 20).
309. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'laugh.'
310. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'white,' Jud. v. 10).
311. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'be successful, succeed, come upon.'
312. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 2 Kgs. xxi. 12, Jer. xix. 3) 'tingle.'
313. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'be thirsty.'
314. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'skein,' Is. xxii. 18) 'wind.'
315. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'grow up, advance, stride.'
316. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'carry, bear, suffer') 'be carried away ['?].†
317. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'cry out.'
318. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: Jer. xxx. 19, a. דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'be small, mean.'
319. דָּשָׁק (דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: inf. דָּשָׁק, דָּשָׁק; דָּשָׁק: 'be pressed together, narrow.'

† Cf. Wright, Comp. Gram., p. 68.
320. שָׁרֵךְ (שָׁרֵךְ) הַשָׁרֵךְ שָׁרֵךְ 'what is before, origin,' בִּשְׁרֵךְ עַדָּר 'be bold, arrive at').
321. שָׁרֵךְ (שָׁרֵךְ) שָׁרֵךְ 'cinaedus,' בִּשְׁרֵךְ שָׁרֵךְ 'be holy.'
322. מָכָר (impf.; מָכָר) מָכָר 'become dull.'
323. מָכָר (impf.; מָכָר) 'lay snares.'
324. מוֹק (מוֹק) גָטִנָה gatina) 'be small, trifling.'
325. מְכֶל (מקל, לָכֶל, לִכֶל) מְכֶל 'curse') 'be light, swift, of little account.'
326. מְכֶל (מקל, לָכֶל) מְכֶל qamila 'be full of lice') 'wither.'
327. עַנְק (עַנְק) עַנְק 'passion, jealousy').
328. מִסָּר (מִסָּר) Ezek. xiii. 23; T. מִסָּר) 'divine.'
329. מַכְפָּר (מכפר, מַכְפָּר) מַכְפָּר 'fear,' Ezek. vii. 25; מַכְפָּר מַכְפָּר 'bristle up,' מַכְפָּר qafida).
330. מַקָּה (מקה) מַקָּה 'bending, breaking [2], Jo. i. 7; מַקָּה qasura, qasira) 'be weak, broken').
331. מַקָּה (מקה) מַקָּה qasura, qasira) 'be short.'
332. מַקָּה (מקה) inf. מַקָּה מַקָּה 'meet.'
333. מַקְרֵב (מקרב, מַקְרֵב) מַקְרֵב a. מַקְרֵב a. מַקְרֵב qaruba, gariba; מַקְרֵב qarba) 'approach.'
334. מַקָּר (impf., a. מַקָּר c. מַקָּר 'happening,' Deut. xxiii. 11; cf. מַקָּר lappia 'meet') 'meet.'
335. מַקָּר (מקיר, מַקָּר) 'shave.'
336. מַקָּר (מקיר, מַקָּר) Ezek. xxxvii. 8) 'be drawn over.'

1 Cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gr. §§ 24, e; 45, d.
2 Perhaps to be read as Niphal מַקָּר.
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337. רֵחַ (a. רָחַ ‘cold,’ qarîta, ‘be cold,’ qarrâ: qarreta).

338. קָשָׁה (Is. xxxii. 3) ‘be sharp [of ears].’

339. קְשָׁה (imprf., a. קָשָׁה ‘be hard, severe.’

340. רָמָה (pf., imprf., inf. רָמָה Ezek. xxviii. 17, a. רָמָה; רָמָה Job x. 15; רָמָה: râma) ‘see.’

341. רַבַּה (רַבַּה a. רַבַּה ‘be or become much.’


343. רַבַּה (pf., imprf.; רַבַּה rabîa) ‘increase, become great.’

344. רַבַּה (inf. רַבָּה Lev. xx. 16) ‘lie with.’

345. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב J. Y. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב (רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב) ‘crouch down, lurk.’

346. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב (impr. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב) ‘be excited, aroused.’

347. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב (a. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב ‘peaceful, quiet,’ Ps. xxxv. 20).

348. רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב Ps. lxiv. 3; רַבָּה יַעֲקֹב ‘be aroused, in restless motion,’ Ps. ii. 1.

349. רַבָּה (inf. רַבָּה Is. xiv. 1) pt. ‘tread down, subdue.’

350. רַבָּה (impr. רַבָּה Pr. vi. 3; J. L. T. רַבָּה ‘fear’) ‘be proud, violent to; urge.’

351. רַבָּה (impr., a. רַבָּה; רַבָּה: Ṝ̇בָּה: רַבָּה; רַבָּה; רַבָּה) ‘drink to satiety, be satisfied with drink.’

352. רַבָּה (רַבָּה Job xxxii. 20, רַבָּה: Ṝ̇בָּה: רַבָּה) ‘become wide, pleasant.’

353. רַבָּה (inf. רַבָּה Ezek. x. 17; Bib. Ar. רַבָּה ‘be or become high.’

354. רַבָּה (a. רַבָּה ‘lean,’ רַבָּה radhîa ‘become lean’) ‘make vanish’[?], Zeph. ii. 11.

355. רַבָּה (a. רַבָּה ‘prince,’ Pr. xiv. 28; רַבָּה razuna ‘be heavy’) pt. ‘prince.’

1 Cf. p. 169. ft. nt. 1.
* Perhaps corrupt. cf. Perles, Analecten, p. 61.
356. גַּדָּה (Ps. xvi. 2; διὰ σπασμόν, τραχίνα) rahima, רַחְיָא, rahima; cf. בְּתוֹחָה: mēhrah) ‘love.’

357. יִרְחָה (Job xxiv. 15; לִבְּגֵד, וְרָחִים) ‘wash.’

358. יִרְחָה (Job xxxii. 26, a. יִרְחָה) Ps. lxiii. 27, a. יִרְחָה; לְדַבָּה: rēhqa) ‘be or become distant.’

359. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

360. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

361. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

362. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

363. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

364. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

365. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

366. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

367. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

368. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

369. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

370. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

371. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

372. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

373. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

374. רָחִים (Job xxiv. 8; לְרָחִים, Job viii. 16; לְרָחִים) ‘be or become distant.’

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1 Cf. Lane, Lexicon, Part III, p. 1141a.
2 The dagesh may be affectuoso, and the form, therefore, an imperfect from רָחִים (359). So Stade, Lehrb. §§ 413, e: 188, b.
3 Usually translated ‘spread out’ tr. The meaning ‘be spread out’ suits the context just as well, and agrees better with the intransitive form.
So-called Intransitive Verbal Forms in Hebrew. 175

375. רֶקֶפָּה (רֶקֶפָּה ‘something variegated’) pt. ‘worker in variegated stuffs.’

376. רֵקָּפָה (a. רֶקֶפָּה ‘thin,’ as adv. ‘only;’ רֵקָּפָה ‘be thin’).

377. רֶקֶפָּה (רֶקֶפָּה ‘be unrighteous, wicked.’

378. שְׁבֻּנֶת (שְׁבֻּנֶת ‘be satisfied (with food), have enough.’

379. שִׁבְנוּת (impf.; שִׁבְנוּת ‘become great, grow.’

380. שִׁבְנוּת (יִשְׁבָּה יִשְׁבָּה ‘strive.’†

381. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (יִשְׁבֶּשָּׁה 1 Ch. xx. 3) ‘saw.’‡

382. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘laugh.’

383. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘oppose.’

384. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘reward, pay;’ שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘be liberal’) ‘hire.’

385. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘rejoice.’

386. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה) ‘hate.’

387. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (a. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘shudder.’

388. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘burning’) ‘burn’ tr.

389. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘be hairy’) ‘shudder.’

390. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘be satisfied with drinking’) ‘draw [water].’

391. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘roar.’

392. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה ‘be devastated,’ Is. vi. 11.†

393. שֶׁבֶשָּׁה (שֶׁבֶשָּׁה s., שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה שֶׁבֶשָּׁה) ‘ask.’

† Cf. Lane, Lexicon, Part III, p. 1130 a, top.
394. לֵ֣א (יטְּרֵ֣י) "remainder, remnant;" סְּתָּמָּה (ם' sa'ira) "remain over," 1 Sam. xvi. 11.

395. חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ (pf., impr., חַ֣שָּֽׁעַ ‘captive’) "carry into captivity."

396. חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ (pf., impr., חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ ‘captive’) "carry into captivity."

397. חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ (pf., impr., חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ ‘captive’) "carry into captivity."

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399. חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ (pf., impr., חַ֥שָּֽׁעַ ‘captive’) "carry into captivity."

400. בִּזֵּ֣ב (inf. בִּזֵּב Josh. ii. 10) "turn."

401. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

402. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

403. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

404. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

405. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

406. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

407. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

408. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

409. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

410. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

411. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

412. רֹאֵ֣שׁ (impr., a. רֹאֵ֣שׁ רֹאֵ֣שׁ ‘plain,’ originally ‘level,’ Gen. xiv. 5; סְוָּיִ֣י soviya) "be like, equal."

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1. Probably a secondary nominal derivative from an adjective רַעַשָּֽׁעַ.
2. The form רַעַשָּֽׁעַ is hardly correct, being a combination of the absolute and construct forms; the proper reading is probably the construct רַעַשָּֽׁעַ (so Haupt).
3. The imperfect רַעַשָּֽׁעַ is best considered as belonging to the Niphal.
So-called Intransitive Verbal Forms in Hebrew.

413. "salīṭa, salīṭa (סָלִיטָה) 'be tranquil, safe.'

414. "salīṭa (סָלִיטָה, סְלִיטָה) 'be firm, sharp, prevail' 'rule over.'

415. "šelm (שֶלֶם) 'plunder.'

416. "salīṭa (סָלִיטָה, סְלִיטָה, סָלִימה) 'be complete, unharmed.'

417. "šelm (שֶלֶם) 'be amazed, desolate.'

418. "šelm (שֶלֶם) Deut. xxxii. 15, a. šelm (שֶלֶם) Gen. xxvii. 28, 39; šelm (שֶלֶם) samina (סָמִינה) 'be fat.'

419. "šelm (שֶלֶם) Is. xxx. 19; T. šelm (שֶלֶם) samina (סָמִינה) 'hear.'

420. "šelm (שֶלֶם) 'whispering,' Ex. xxxii. 25; cf. šemīra (שְׁמִירת) 'speak quickly and indistinctly').

421. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) Ps. cxli. 3) 'watch, keep, protect.'

422. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'stamping [of horses],' Jer. xlvii. 3).

423. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) inf. šemīra (שֶׁמֶר), šemīra (שֶׁמֶר), šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'be or become low.'

424. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'abundance').

425. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) Job xxvi. 13) 'be beautiful, please,' Ps. xvi. 6).†

426. "šemīra (a. šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'almond tree,' originally 'waking,' T. šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'be awake, watch.'

427. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'hiss, whistle.'

428. "šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'drink.'

1 Cf. šemīra (שֶׁמֶר) 'small.'

Vol. xxiv.
2. THE MEANING OF THE INTRANSITIVE VERB.

The great majority of the intransitive verbs in Hebrew denote a physical or mental condition, e. g. שְׁנוֹן 'be dry,' שְׁמַלְמָה 'be low,' מִרְשָׁא 'fear,' רוּחַ 'love'; a passage into such a condition, e. g. נָאָר 'increase, become great,' נָבָל 'succeed'; or a change of condition, e. g. כָּמַר 'perish,' כְּפָל 'wake.' All of these come under the general category of verbs of being and becoming, for which the term 'stative' may be employed. Such verbs are Nos. 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 14, 17, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 30, 33, 36, 38, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 50, 58, 60, 61, 62, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 78, 79, 80, 82, 83, 84, 85, 87, 88, 89, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 108, 110, 111, 113, 115, 116, 119, 120, 121, 122, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 130, 131, 132, 134, 137, 138, 139, 141, 142, 144, 145, 149, 150, 155, 156, 158, 159, 160, 162, 167, 168, 170, 171, 172, 175, 176, 177, 180, 181, 184, 185, 192, 193, 196, 198, 200, 204, 206, 207, 209, 210, 211, 218, 221, 222, 236, 247, 249, 252, 258, 259, 262, 264, 267, 269, 272, 275, 280, 281, 283, 284, 285, 286, 291, 295, 297, 299, 300, 301, 307, 311, 312, 313, 315, 316(?), 318, 319, 321, 322, 324, 325, 326, 331, 336, 338, 339, 341, 342, 346, 348, 350, 351, 352, 353, 356, 358, 359, 362, 363, 365, 366, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 377, 378, 379, 385, 386, 387, 392, 394, 396, 401, 403, 405, 408, 410, 411, 412, 413, 416, 417, 418, 423, 425, 426, 429, 430, 431, 433.

1 A modification of שָׁמַי from שָׁמַי 'put,' after the analogy of verbs mediee geminate. Similar forms are בָּא from הָב 'despise,' חָמַל from חָמַל 'daub.'
Those stems from which only derivatives are made, no form of the Qal occurring (marked * in the list), and the following, occurring only as participle or infinitive, viz.: Nos. 13, 27, 42, 109, 174, 199, 355, 375, 399, do not give direct evidence as to the meaning of the verb, although meanings similar to those discussed above are indicated by the derivatives.

Of those verbs which have not distinctly stative meaning many are to be regarded as belonging to the transitive type.

1) In a number of stems, verbs with transitive form and active meaning have intransitive derivatives. In the majority of cases these derivatives point more or less surely towards the existence of a verb of intransitive form and stative meaning alongside of the transitive active verb, just as in the case of רֵעֵן "cut off," רָעְבַּה "be cut off, be short;" e. g. רָעְבָּה "perforata, female" indicates the possibility of the former existence of a verb רָעְבַּה "be pierced, perforated:" such are Nos. 19, 43 (cf. p. 180) 51, 52 (cf. p. 180) 55, 77, 91, 178, 197 (a impf. due to the guttural), 202, 213, 233, 248, 255, 274, 277, 314, 335, 354, 384, 388, 415.

In a few cases the apparently intransitive derivatives belong to the active verbs. In No. 404 the form הָעִיסָה. In Nos. 129, 260, 395, the form הָעָלֵם. And in Nos. 203, 205, 357, 421, the form הָעֲלָמוּת. is used to make abstract nouns of action: the use of these forms, which are regularly confined to intransitive verbs, has been extended in these few cases to the transitive verb. In No. 31 the adjective or participle עָלָם is best considered a form qatal, which is not a special intransitive form in Hebrew. In No. 239 עָשָׁה "breath" is perhaps simply a concrete noun. Those verbs which have a imperfects owe these forms to the influence of the gutturals.

2) In the verbs medie in the form Nos. 81, 244, 304, 305, 306, 380, 381, 406, the a of the shortened imperfect is due to the guttural which is in all cases the final stem-consonant. The intransi-

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1 It is to be noted that in all these cases the first stem-consonant is a sibilant. The only other verbs medie in the form which make shortened imperfects, viz.: רָעַב "sojourn," רָעִי "fear," have the transitive form רָעִי.
tive forms of Nos. 9, 15, 43, 52, 57, 123, 154, 215, 349, and (287) רָצַע ‘pray’ (cf. עֲמֵּנִי ‘atara ‘sacrifice’) are probably to be explained in the same way.

3) In the verbs דָּלַל Nos. 24, 179, 289 the only evidence as to the originality of the intransitive forms is furnished by the subjunctive of the cognate verbs in Ethiopic. These intransitive subjunctive forms are rare, in every case the transitive form being more common, and are probably due simply to the fact that in Ethiopic the transitive verbs have a tendency to assume the intransitive form in the subjunctive.

4) The feminine imperatives of Nos. 53 and 63, viz.: יִToObject ‘drive forth,’ Mic. iv. 10, יָרָשׁ ‘tread,’ Mic. iv. 13, both occur after an imperative of the active form, viz.: מֶשֶׁת רָשׁוּת; the apparent intransitive forms are no doubt due to dissimilation, standing for רָשׁוּת: cf. forms like מֶשֶׁת מַגָּוִים for מַגָּוִים.

5) The following also belong to the transitive type, viz.: 11. יִToObject ‘eat,’ originally of transitive form in the imperfect, as is shown by יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִToObject יִObjectName. יִToObject is perhaps a shortened imperative Piel from יִToObject.

2 Cf. Stade, Lehrb., §599, b.
3 The characteristic ë of the imperfects of verbs נְיָזֵל, e. g. נְיָזֵל, etc., seems to be due also to dissimilation, cf. נְיָזֵל: but נְיָזֵל but נְיָזֵל: ‘seize.’
4 Cf. Stade, op. cit. §592, d.
140. רָדָי 'throw [lots];' this verb is a by-form of transitive רָדֵי, רְדֶּי being modified from רָדָי just as וְתַֽעֲשֶׂה from וְתַֽעֲשֶׂה: cf. (429).

242. מָעִין 'give;' the only intransitive form is מַעִין in the collocation מַעִין מְתַֽעֲשֶׂה 'we will give thee;' the characteristic a is a phonetic modification of the more original i due possibly to the following a vowel.

261. עֲלָע 'rush upon;' the a of the imperfect is due to the influence of the guttural י.

400. עֲבֵר 'return;' the single apparently intransitive form עִבֵּר is probably incorrectly pointed, perhaps on account of the defective writing.¹

The remaining verbs are more or less readily referable to a stative basis, viz.:

1) Verbs indicating perceptions of the senses, the idea of these verbs being, not the active exercise of the perception, but the condition of the subject while exercising it, viz.: (135) מָכַס 'taste' tr., (340) לָאָרָה 'see,' (419) שָׁמַע 'hear;' (328) מָכַס 'divine' is probably also to be classed here.

2) Verbs of flowing, overflowing, and dripping, since they indicate conditions rather than actions, viz.: (153) מְעָלֵך 'flow [of blood],' (224) נָלֵך 'flow,' (228) נָמְלֵך 'drip,' (241) פְּלַכ 'overflow, be poured out,' (250) נָלֵך 'overflow.'

3) Verbs of motion which indicate a change of state like מָכַס 'perish,' מָסָא 'be no more,' viz.: (40) לָרְה 'flee,' (75) הָלְך 'go, depart, vanish,' (76) הָלְך 'turn, overturn, flee,' (292) מָמָה 'get away, escape,' (294) מָרְנֵה 'turn,' (397) שָׁמִי 'go astray;' in these verbs the emphasis was originally on the idea of change of condition; מָכַס. however, has come to be in its ordinary use simply a verb of motion 'go;' in the stem מָכַס there may have been originally two verbs, e. g. מָכַס 'overturn, destroy,' and מָלָע 'be overturned, destroyed' as in the stem מָלָע.

¹ Cf. Stade, Lehrb. § 619 f.
4) Verbs of approaching and meeting, the original idea being 'to be or become near, come in contact with,' viz.: Nos. 212, 288, 332, 333, 334.

5) Verbs meaning 'to be in or to assume a certain position,' the stative idea being more original, viz.: (41) יָרָךְ ‘kneel,' (49) רָנָד ‘bend down,' (344) עֹנֵל ‘lie with,' (345) רֶכֶב ‘lie down, crouch,' (361) עָכָב ‘ride, mount,' (407) עָשָׁב ‘lie, recline,' (409) שָׁנַךְ ‘sink, go down, bend down.'

6) Verbs denoting various kinds of cries and modes of speech, which may be spoken of as verbs of utterance, e. g. קָצָק ‘cry out,' תָּעַצ ‘laugh': these are to be considered similar to verbs which denote an emotional state, such as פָּר ‘fear,' שָׁמַע ‘rejoice,' since an emotion and its expression are closely connected in the minds of a primitive people; they are Nos. 18, 56, 86, 188, 208, 216, 217, 226, 303, 309, 317, 364, 368, 382, 391, 427. Here also is probably to be classed (187) יָפַּח ‘mock,' cf. Syriac.

7) Verbs which indicate various actions of the lips, mouth, and throat, such as sucking, licking, swallowing, etc.: these verbs must have referred originally to the specific quality of the action, rather than to the action as such; they are (34) בֵּן ‘swallow,' (148) יֶבַע ‘suck,' (189) לֵעַע ‘sip' (if it is not rather לֵעָה ‘bite.' Here are also probably to be classed (428) יְבַר ‘drink,' and (240) נֶשֶׁךְ ‘kiss.'

8) The following verbs, which are best considered individually, viz.:

12. קָלַא ‘learn,' originally 'be or become accustomed to,' cf. Arabic.

29. יְבָע ‘enter, come,' to be connected with the preposition ב ‘in,' originally perhaps 'be or become inside' then to 'enter, come.'

32. בֵּט ‘trust,' indicates a condition of the mind like בֵּט ‘love.'

35. בֵּע ‘rule over, possess,' denominative from בֵּל ‘lord,' meaning originally 'be lord, ruler.'

74. לֵב ‘honor, take the part of,' to be regarded like (32).

90. אָב ‘bind;' the single intransitive form indicates a characteristic of the deity, אָבִי יְהֹוָה ‘he wounds and binds up,' and to this fact its intransitive form may be due.
98. נachable ‘sin,’ originally ‘be without, miss’ like דָּבָא: הָקָא.
107. מַעֲרֶק ‘act violently to, hurt,’ originally ‘be violent,’ cf. Arabic.
118. לָכָב ‘hew;’ the original idea of the verb was probably that of continuous action which is analogous to state; the idea of simple action, however, has prevailed, the forms of the verb being regularly transitive.
133. לָחָת ‘grind,’ probably to be regarded as the preceding verb.
136. רָכַף ‘tear, rend;’ the single intransitive form that occurs indicates a quality, viz.: לָבָע בַּסִּים ‘a wolf that ravens, a ravening wolf,’ and may hence be regarded as stative.
146. לָל ‘bear,’ referred originally to the condition of the mother: the idea of action, however, seems to have prevailed, nearly all of the forms being transitive.
161. שָׁלֵך ‘lay snares,’ denominative from שלך ‘fowler,’ meaning originally ‘be a fowler.’
164. לָל ‘descend;’ the intransitive imperfect forms are used either in the idiom ‘descend in tears’ used of the eye, Jer. ix. 17, xiii. 17, xiv. 17, Lam. iii. 48, where the verb is practically equivalent to רָמַע ‘be full of tears’ or מִלָח ‘be full;’ or they stand in pause, 2 Sam. xxii. 10, Ps. xviii. 10, Pr. xxx. 4, Job xvii. 16, where the α may be regarded as due to the influence of the מ which was perhaps more strongly guttural in this position. When the verb means simply ‘descend,’ the forms are regularly transitive.
166. שָׁלַח ‘inherit,’ originally ‘be heir.’
182. שָׁלַע ‘put on,’ originally ‘be dressed, clothed.’
186. לָה ‘learn,’ originally be or become accustomed to,’ cf. (12).
219. לְנָח ‘wander,’ referred originally to the condition of the subject, cf. (222) לְנָח ‘totter, tremble, move hither and thither, wander.’
225. לְנָח ‘possess, inherit,’ refers to a condition of the subject, cf. (166).
227. דר נב 'descend,' perhaps to be connected with the verb שנה 'come to rest,' meaning originally be or become at rest,' 'settle down,' then 'descend.'

235. דל נב 'take vengeance,' originally 'be revengeful.'

238. ניב 'take off, fall off or out;' the original meaning of the intransitive forms was 'be taken off, removed' then 'fall off.'

243. רע נב 'leap up [of heart],' may refer to condition, rather than action, or the a of the imperfect may be due to the נ.

245. כל נב 'ascend;' the single form which occurs is doubtless an Aramaism; the verb may have meant originally 'be or become high,' cf. (263).

246. דר נב 'overhang, spread out freely,' perhaps originally 'be abundant, overflow.'

256. דא נב 'seek refuge;' if the intransitive infinitive is not simply due to assonance with the following word, viz.: דע נב 'to seek refuge in the refuge of Pharaoh,' it is to be considered as similar to (32) דעה 'trust;' cf. דעה 'seek' refuge, trust.'

263. הול נב 'ascend, go up,' originally 'be or become high, cf. Arabic.

266. לול נב 'fatigue, exert oneself, work;' originally 'be fatigued by hard work,' then simply 'work.'

273. לוכ נב 'deceive,' originally 'be crooked, deceitful,' cf. derivatives.

282. דל נב 'oppress;' the original meaning was probably 'be strong, violent,' cf. derivatives, (107), and Ass. esēqū 'be strong, mighty.'

290. סמ נב 'spring, skip;' if the single intransitive form is not due to some phonetic modification, originally 'be lively.'

293. דל נב 'escape,' originally 'remain alive,' cf. Ass. balāṭa 'live.'

296. דל נב 'urge;' the original meaning may have been 'be hard upon,' the verb being then like (107), (282), or the a of the imperfect may be due to the נ.

298. דל נב 'take off [clothes];' the single intransitive form is perhaps to be explained similarly to (182), originally 'be undressed, stripped.'

323. דל נב 'lay snares;' דל נב is probably to be amended from (161) דל נב.
342. רָבָה ‘shoot;’ the single doubtful intransitive form is usually so translated. If the form is correct, the meaning may be different; the verb is used intransitively and therefore may have had a stative meaning; it is perhaps to be connected with רב ‘be great.’ On the other hand the text may be corrupt.

367. רָעָר ‘tend, pasture,’ denotes an occupation, which is similar to a condition.

383. לָסֵל ‘oppose,’ originally ‘to be an adversary, be opposed to.’

390. הָסָר ‘draw [water],’ perhaps originally ‘have sufficient water,’ like (351) הָרָה, cf. Arabic.

393. לָשֵׁת ‘ask,’ perhaps originally ‘desire;’ at least it is to be classed with verbs of ‘desiring.’

398. לָשֵׁת ‘lie with;’ the vocalization of the single intransitive form is that of the Qere בָּשֵׁת: it is possible, however, that the verb has originally stative meaning like בָּשֵׁת ‘lie, be in a reclining position,’ then ‘lie with.’

414. לָשֵׁת ‘rule over,’ originally indicated a condition, cf. Arabic.

In these verbs with more or less active meanings, which are to be referred to a stative basis, it is to be noticed that in a large number of cases the verb has prevailingly transitive form, intransitive forms being comparatively few. The general tendency for verbs of the intransitive type to pass over to the active (cf. p. 196) has here been aided by the meaning. Theoretically the majority of these verbs may be regarded as denoting either a condition or an action, and their intransitive forms may be explained as due to the fact that they, like those verbs which have undoubtedly stative meaning, were originally looked upon as denoting conditions by the primitive Semites.

Verbs which have transitive form regularly denote action of some sort, e. g. לָבָּב ‘create,’ לָבַּל ‘kill,’ לָכַּל ‘pierce,’ לָכַּל ‘cut,’ לָעַל ‘do, make,’ לָעַל ‘go out,’ לָכַּל ‘kneel down,’ לָעַל ‘creep,’ etc., but there are a number of verbs with transitive form, or at least with no decisive intransitive form, that have meanings similar to those of the intransitive verbs. Excluding verbs לָטַּל, which have only one type of inflection, and verbs mediae infirmae, almost all of which have transitive form without regard to meaning, these verbs are the following (imperf. = imper-
fect in α; other abbreviations, etc., as in the previous list; the numbering is consecutive to that of this list), viz.:

434. דָּחַר

imff. ‘remain behind.’

435. בָּדָּר

‘be disgusted.’

436. דָּחַר

imff. ‘choose’ (בָּדָּר ‘split’).

437. בָּדָּר

‘rest, be still’ (בָּדָּר; בֹּדֶל; בֹּדֶל עָבִּד; בָּדְלָה: ištal).

438. בָּדָּל

(‘I am anointed,’ Ps. xcii. 11; probably to be read בָּדָּל פָּלֶל) ‘anoint.’

439. בָּדָּר

‘hail.’

440. דָּחַר

‘lighten’ (J. L. דָּחַר ‘shine’).

441. יָדְל

imff. ‘depart, die.’

442. יָדְל

‘stream forth.’

443. יָדְל

(pt. ‘ready, ripe,’ Is. xviii. 5) ‘complete, make ready.’

444. יָדוּל

‘complete, be complete.’

445. יָדוּל

imff. ‘abominates.’

446. יָדוּל

imff. ‘shake, totter.’

447. יָדוּל

‘be crushed.’

448. יָדוּל

‘brood, hatch’ (J. L. יָדוּל ‘heap up, collect’).

449. יָדוּל

‘drip’ (יָדוּל; יָדוּל).

450. יָדוּל

‘become green.’

451. יָדוּל

‘shine.’

452. יָדוּל

‘be foolish, godless.’

453. יָדוּל

‘fear’ (יָדוּל).

454. יָדוּל

‘remember’ (יָדוּל; יָדוּל dhakara; חָדוּר: zakara,

subj. once חָדוּר: iškar).

455. יָדוּל

‘think, plan’ (יָדוּל; יָדוּל ‘hum, sound’).

456. יָדוּל

imff. ‘despise, spurn’ (יָדוּל zaniha ‘stink’).

457. יָדוּל

imff. α and ω ‘be angry with, punish, curse’ (יָדוּל דָּגֶה ‘reprehend’).

458. יָדוּל

imff. ‘rise [of sun].’

459. יָדוּל

‘act corruptly’ (יָדוּל habila ‘be corrupt, unsound, insane’).

1 Cf. p. 180, ft. nt. 1.
460. הָלָל "be pierced."
461. הָלָל "become mature" (חֲלָמָה "be healthy, virile").
462. הָלָל "dream."
463. הָלָל "pass by, vanish, change" (J. L. הָלָל "pass by, be gone").
464. הָלָל "foam."
465. הָלָל "tremble" (חֲרִיָּה "be narrow, straitened").
466. הָלָל "consider, reckon, plan" (חֲסֵב: רָשָׁב "hasibah").
467. הָלָל "be bound to, hang to" (J. L. תָּרָק "bind").
468. הָלָל "be fat, dull, unfeeling" (J. L. תָּרָק "be foolish; 탕יס "be careless of one's appearance").
469. הָלָל "desire" (תָּרָק "yari'a 'keep away from, avoid").
470. הָלָל "impf. 'know.'
471. הָלָל "be steep, plunge down; surrender.'
472. הָלָל "despair, tremble" (חֲבֵר "yari'a 'keep away from, avoid").
473. הָלָל "sit, dwell" (חֲסֵב: רָשָׁב "hasibah").
474. הָלָל "decrease, become lean.'
475. הָלָל "become weak, long for" (קָמִי "kamiha 'become gray, weak-sighted").
476. הָלָל "long for.'
477. הָלָל "stumble.'
478. הָלָל "flaming' (מָלַח "kindle").
479. הָלָל "inf. 'lick' (J. T. מָלַח "lakika").
480. הָלָל "pt. 'speaking unintelligibly' (כָּלַח "calak 'speak indistinctly').
481. הָלָל "lick, lap" (לָק "lakka impf. 'n').
482. הָלָל "impf. 'spurn, despise' (נָא אֵל "be sticky, soiled").
483. הָלָל "sink down, be brought low" (מָלַך "malak 'be scattered, despised').
484. הָלָל "rule.'
485. הָלָל "impf. 'be unsteady, slip, totter.'
486. הָלָל "impf. 'act faithlessly.'
487. הָלָל "suck' (T. מָלַח: נְכָש "marista").
488. הָלָל "be disobedient, rebellious' (נְכָש "maruda").
489. מָשַׁל ‘rule.’
490. מָשֵׁל ‘feel, touch’ (masaita).
491. מָדַק ‘find pleasant, suck,’ Job xxiv. 20.
492. מָכַב inf. ‘bark.’
493. מַה ‘flow.’
494. מַה ‘watch, keep, be angry.’
495. מַשָּׁל pt. ‘deceitful’ (כָּל מַשָּׁל).
496. מַעֲרָה ‘growl, roar.’
497. מַעֲל ‘fall.’
498. מַעֲל ‘sparkling.’
499. מַעַּע ‘be alienated, estranged.’
501. מַשָּׁה ‘blow.’
502. מַשָּׁה ‘become dry.’
503. מַשָּׁה pt. ‘shod’ (תָּשָׁה).
504. מַכַּב ‘drink, carouse.’
505. מַכַּב ‘attend, be useful, profit.’
506. מַכַּב imperfect. ‘forgive.’
507. מַכַּב ‘shudder.’
508. מַכַּב ‘lament’ (L. מַכַּב).
509. מַעֲש ‘dry up’ (עֲבַס ‘abasa).
510. מַעֲש ‘be grieved.’
511. מַעֲע ‘overhanging, exceeding’ (L. עַע ‘be more, preferable’).
512. מַעֲע ‘be weak’ (cf. גַּחֲב ‘atiba ‘be powerless, die’).
513. מַעֲע ‘rejoice’ (cf. עַע).
514. מַעֲע ‘rejoice’ (cf. עַע).
515. מַעֲע ‘stand.’
516. מַעֲע ‘become evening’ (גֵּרָב: גֵּרָב עַבְרִי; סָכָה: עַל.
517. מַעֲע ‘long, cry for’ (סָכָה: עַרְגָּה ‘ascend’).
518. מַעֲע ‘drip’ (cf. מַעֲע below).
519. מַעֲע ‘terrify, be afraid’ (אֶרְמָה ‘ariya ‘be or become lively’).
520. מַעֲע ‘be dexterous.’
521. מַעֲע pt. ‘haughty, wanton’ (L. מַעֲע ‘be frivolous; מַעֲע ‘be proud, boast’).
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3. הָמַשׂ pt. ‘limping, halting’ (נִשַׁב fasiḥa ‘become corrupt, disordered’).
4. מְעָדָה ‘rejoice’ (נִשַׁב fasuha ‘be bright, clear’).
5. מַדְעָה inpf. ‘bloom, be inflated, break out.’
6. מַדוּעַ inpf. ‘be rebellious’ (cf. נָשַׁב fasuna ‘turn from right’).
7. מִדָּעַי inpf. ‘neigh.’
8. מִדָּעַי ‘sink down’ (נִשַּׁב dalilta ‘err, go astray’).
9. מְדָעַי ‘become dark’ (נִשַּׁב zalilta ‘be in night or day’).
10. מִדָּעַי inpf. ‘sprout forth.’
11. מְדָעַי pt. ‘dry, dried up’ (נִשַּׁב zumam ‘shrink’).
12. מְדָעַי ‘contract, stick to.’
13. מְדָעַי pt. ‘crying out.’
14. מְדָעַי ‘be or become dirty, dark, lament’ (נִשַּׁב qadhira, qadhura ‘be dirty’).
15. מְדָעַי ‘be condensed, congealed.’
16. מְדָעַי ‘be angry’ (נִשַּׁב מצוה ‘be afraid, angry, envy, revile’).
17. מְדָעַי ‘be horned, emit rays.’
18. מְדָעַי pt. ‘murmuring.’
19. מְדָעַי ‘palpitate,’ Job vii. 5) ‘stir up, terrify.’
20. מְדוּעַי ‘follow, pursue’ (רָדֵּי: רֹדֵי radifa ‘be after, ride behind’).
22. מְדוּעַי ‘be weak, wabble’ (נִשַׁב חַף rahifa ‘be soft, thin’).
23. מְדוּעַי ‘be excited, bubble up’ (נִשַׁב נָמַשׂ ‘creep, move’).
24. מְדוּעַי ‘become foul, full of worms,’ Ex. xvi. 20).
25. מְדוּעַי ‘drip’ (נִשַּׁב ra‘ifā ‘flow’).
26. מְדוּעַי ‘be broken, powerless,’ Is. xlii. 4) ‘break.’
27. מְדוּעַי ‘be high, raised up.’
28. מְדוּעַי ‘act wisely, have success’ (רָכַּב נֶס נָס ‘recognize, know’).
29. מְדוּעַי ‘know,’ Deut. xxxii. 18 (נָס נֶס ‘recognize, know’).

1 Cf. ZDMG. 40, 729.
549. פֹּלְשׁ 'be sufficient.' (נָפשׁ, J. L. T. פָּלֶשׁ, פֶלֶשׁ).
550. פָּדָה 'escape.'
551. פָּדָה 'rule.'
552. פָּדָה imperf. 'pant for, thirst for' (cf. סָגִיב 'be hungry').
553. פָּדָה 'be violent to, oppress, lay waste.'
554. פָּדָה 'stream forth plentifully, overflow.'
555. פָּדָה 'rest' (cf. פָּדָה below).
556. פָּדָה imperf. 'become low, sink down.'
557. פָּדָה 'deceive.'
558. פָּדָה 'subside, be still' (ךָצַנָּה).
559. פָּדָה imperf. 'be astonished, terrified.'
560. פָּדָה inf. 'be straight' (ךָצָעַד 'be firm').

The original intransitive form of the following of these verbs is indicated by the cognate languages, viz.: Nos. 437, 449, 453, 455, 459, 461, 463, 465, 466, 468, 469, 472, 475, 478, 479, 480, 483, 487, 488, 490, 495, 500, 503, 505, 509, 511, 516, 517, 519, 521, 522, 523, 527, 528, 530, 533, 535, 539, 540, 541, 542, 544, 547, 549, 558, 560, and perhaps Nos. 512, 525, 552.

In the following no decisive transitive verbal form occurs other than participle or infinitive, which are often made from intransitive verbs (cf. p. 203), so that they may have been originally intransitive, viz.: Nos. 435, 442, 447, 450, 492 (inf.), 493, 496, 498 (pt.), 499, 501, 504 (pt., inf.), 510, 532 (pt.) 534 (pt.), 537 (pt.), 546, 550.

The following are best regarded as having been originally active in meaning, viz.: Nos. 436, 438, 443, 444, 448, 457, 458, 467, 489, 494, 505, 553; Nos. 456, 482, which bear a relation to the intransitive forms in the cognate languages similar to that of רֶפֶּה 'cut off,' to קָמֶה 'be cut off'; and (439) פָּרָד 'hail,' (440) קָבָר 'lighten,' since such verbs are usually regarded in Semitic as actions of the sky, cf. Ar. بِرَقَت السَّماَءباراقات-السماء 'the sky lightened,' etc.; No. 440, however, may have had intransitive form, cf. Aramaic: also
454. רָדָה 'remember,' perhaps originally 'to penetrate,' cf. רָדָה 'male,' רָדָה dhakar 'membrum virile.' On the intransitive Ethiopic subjunctive cf. p. 180, ft. nt. 1.
473. נָסָה 'sit,' originally no doubt 'take a seat,' referring to the action; the Syriac verb has transitive form in the imperfect, and the intransitive perfect can hardly be regarded as decisive, since practically all verbs prime yod in Syriac have the intransitive form.¹

477. לָשֶׁךְ 'stumble,' originally 'strike against.'

481. לָקַק 'lick, lap;' the action of lapping was probably more prominent than in other verbs of licking and sucking.

497. לָגַד 'fall,' probably regarded simply as an action; יָגַד 'fall,' has also the transitive form.

515. מָזַר 'stand,' originally denoted action, 'take one's stand.'

A few denominate verbs follow the transitive as being the prevailing verbal type, viz.: Nos. 462, 464, 484, 536, 551.

The verbal forms of (160) הָלַל (460) 'be pierced' are doubtful, the perfect הָלַל Ps. cix. 22, is perhaps to be read as the adjective הָלִיל 'pierced,' or to be considered like the denominatives above. The only form of (545) יָרָד which has stative meaning is made on the analogy of verbs יָרָד which have practically all assumed the transitive form with regard to meaning.

The remaining verbs may have had intransitive form originally, their transitive form being due to the general tendency of the intransitive verbs to pass over to the active type (cf. p. 196), though in some cases it is also possible that the original meaning was active, viz.: Nos. 434, 441, 445, 446, 451, 452, 470, 471, 474, 476, 485, 486, 491, 502, 506, 507, 513, 514, 518, 520, 524, 526, 529, 531, 538, 543, 548, 554, 555, 556, 557, 559.

These exceptions to the rule that the verbs of transitive form denote action are therefore only apparent; a large number are shown by the cognate languages to have had originally the intransitive form, while a number are to be regarded as originally denoting action; those verbs about which no conclusive statement can be made are few in number, and are to be explained in one or the other of the above ways.

The fundamental difference, therefore, between the so-called transitive and intransitive verbs, to judge simply from the meaning of the verbs themselves, may very well have been a differ-

¹ Cf. Nöldeke, Syr. Gram², p. 115.
ence between action and state, but it is also theoretically possible to explain the difference, in a large number of instances, as one between volition and non-volition.

Generally speaking, active verbs may be regarded as voluntary, and stative verbs as involuntary, inasmuch as actions are usually the result of an exercise of volition, while states and changes of state are usually independent of the will; verbs of becoming, like יָרָא ‘increase, become great,’ and verbs which indicate a change of state, e. g. יָבַשׂ ‘become lost, perish,’ are very near to the involuntary idea; emotions (e. g. יָוֵדָא ‘love’) and perceptions (e. g. יָשָׁמ ‘hear’) are independent of the will; cries and modes of utterance (e. g. יָעַב ‘cry out’) are often involuntary; there is an involuntary element in swallowing (לֶבֶן), since food which passes a certain point in the throat must go down; sucking (לֱעַל) may be regarded as the half conscious involuntary act of an infant; kissing (לֵשֶׁת) is difficult for the lover to resist, hence involuntary; verbs denoting an action accompanied by exertion (e. g. הָעַב ‘hew,’ מָגַשׁ ‘grind’) may be looked upon as analogous to involuntary verbs, since people are usually unwilling to perform hard work; learning (לְמָה) is hard work, hence to be regarded as the above; bearing children (לְדֵי) is involuntary; taking vengeance (לַעֲבֹר) was incumbent upon every primitive Semite, hence independent of his will; riding (לָכָב) might have been looked upon as involuntary ‘to be carried’ as in Latin vehor; and similar explanations may be offered for many other verbs.

It is questionable, however, whether the idea of volition would naturally enter at all into verbs which indicate simply states and conditions, such as, e. g. יָשָׁב ‘be good,’ יָשָׁב ‘be strong, mighty,’ etc. There is, moreover, no intransitive verb, the meaning of which requires necessarily to be explained on an involuntary basis; and it is strange, if the original meaning of the intransitive verbs was involuntary, that such verbs as אַמְצָא ‘find,’ אַמְצָא ‘fall,’ ‘present no trace of intransitive form.

It is, of course, possible that a primitive people should distinguish in form between verbs implying volition and those implying non-volition, but it seems much more likely that they should have been impressed by the more commonplace and more apparent distinction between state and action. Besides, if voli-
tion had been the principle of division between the two verbal
types, we should expect to find a distinction between voluntary
and involuntary actions, and perhaps between voluntary and
involuntary states, in the same verbal stem; such as, for exam-
ple, ‘to kill voluntarily’ and ‘to kill involuntarily, by accident;’
‘to strike voluntarily’ and ‘to strike involuntarily, butt into;’
‘to be good voluntarily’ and ‘to be good perforce,’ etc.; but
no instances of this kind occur. On the contrary, in those stems
where both verbal types are made, the distinction is regularly
that of action and state, e. g.:

ירג ‘crush’  ונ ‘be crushed, fine,’
ש ‘weaken’  ש ‘be weak,’
ברב ‘impr. ‘devastate’  ו ‘be desolate,’
ס ‘pour out’  ע ‘be poured out, flow,’
מ ‘fill’  ה ‘be full,’
 ‘free’  ‘get away, escape,’
 ‘bind’  ‘be pressed together,
נ ‘narrow,’
 ‘cut off’  ר ‘be cut off, short.’

That the fundamental idea of these so-called intransitive
verbal forms was that of state or condition seems also to be
shown by the fact that in all probability the intransitive perfects
have their origin in verbalized adjectives of the forms qatal and
qatal, such as, e. g. רוב ‘heavy’ and י ‘small,’ which
regularly denote conditions and qualities.1

Granted, then, that the original meaning of these verbs was
stative, the fact that a number of them have more or less invol-
untary meaning admits of a ready explanation. From the idea
of becoming, in which originally there was in all probability no
idea of volition, the idea of becoming, happening independ-
ently of the will, might very readily be developed, and this may

1 A similar relation exists in Tagalog, the most important language
of the Philippine Islands, between the special intransitive verbal forms
and the adjectives, both being made by prefixing the particle ma to the
root, e. g., ma-dunong ‘know’ and ‘learned.’ Cf. my paper on Analogies
between Semitic and Tagalog. JHU. Circ. No. 108, p. 96.

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have taken place in the case of verbs with more or less involuntary meaning. After this involuntary type was once established, it is of course possible that it should have become independently productive, and that verbs expressing an involuntary action not derived from more original stative verbs should take the intransitive form. Such a process, however, does not seem to have taken place in Hebrew.

The so-called intransitive verbs, therefore, to judge from the material in Hebrew, seem originally to have denoted states or conditions or a change of state, while the transitive verbs denoted actions. The terms most suitable for expressing this distinction are those proposed by Böttcher (cf. p. 150, ft. nt. 1), viz.: stative and active.

3. THE INTRANSITIVE FORMS.

The so-called intransitive verb in Semitic is of two types, one with $u$ perfect, the other with $i$ perfect. In Hebrew the latter is the more usual type, the $u$ perfect being comparatively rare, occurring only in Nos. 7, 30, 82, 88, 132(?), 139, 145, 161, 324, 342, 363, 410. Both types have $a$ imperfect, unlike Arabic, where the $a$ perfect has an $u$ imperfect, e. g. דבע, דבעי, 'be heavy,' וקוק, 'be small.'

In verbs medii geminatæ $i$ perfect occurs except the triconsonantal forms Nos. 284, 417, and the $u$ perfect is very rare, occurring only in the 3. m. pl. in Nos. 88, 342, 363, e. g. רג' $u$ 'be high,' רומן $u$ רומן $u$ רומן; the intransitive perfect has usually the form ל. This is not to be regarded as a contraction of $qat$ but as a biconsonantal $a$ perfect $qat < qatta < qattu (cf. p. 146, ft. nt. 1). The reason for its use as a special

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1 In Tagalog, on the contrary, the adjectival particle $ma$ has acquired a distinct involuntary force. Cf. $ma$-pathihúlog 'fall involuntarily,' $ma$-patiðapá 'prostrate oneself involuntarily' with $mag$-pathihúlog 'throw oneself,' $mag$-patiðapá 'prostrate oneself,' made with, active verbal particle $mag$.

2 This is borne out by the evidence of the cognate languages Syriac, Arabic, and Ethiopic, where the majority of the intransitive verbs have a stative meaning, and those which are not plainly stative may be more or less readily explained on a stative basis: cf. p. 145, ft. nt. 1.
intransitive form in Hebrew is not clear. 1 Verbs of this class have usually imperfects like בָּהָם 'be hot,' i.e. ham < ihammanu < ihamu, or like בָּהֵן 'be weak,' made after the analogy of verbs *בָּהָם. Imperfects of the first kind occur in Nos. 106, 204, 319, 325, 362, 369, 417, 431; of the second kind in Nos. 57 (cf. p. 180), 66, 106, 198, 312, 431. Nos. 110, 214 make triconsonantal imperfects; (188) בָּהֵן makes בָּהֵן (?) The imperative of the form בָּהֵן does not occur; on (54) בָּהֵן cf. p. 180. Biconsonantal imperfects of the type בָּהֵן from verbs *בָּהָם are Nos. 141, 142, 146, 156, 158, 160, 164; biconsonantal imperatives of the type בָּהֵן from verbs *בָּהָם. Nos. 153, 166; from verbs *בָּהָם. Nos. 212, 238.

Verbs medieae infiniae have almost all conformed to the transitive type. I perfects are Nos. 193, 290 (?), e. g. בָּהֵן 'die,' mit < mit; u perfects are Nos. 7, 30, 82, 132 (?), e. g. בָּהֵן 'be ashamed,' בֶּס < בָּשׁ; imperfects in o < a < u are made from Nos. 7, 29, 30, 62, 95, 323 (?), e. g. בָּהֵן: imperfects in u, excluding transitive verbs (cf. p. 179 ff.), from Nos. 184, 221, 222, 262 (?), e. g. בָּהֵן 'spend night.' In verbs of this class there seem to have been two kinds of lengthening; a common Semitic lengthening, represented by the imperfects in o, due to the desire to conform the biconsonantal form to the triconsonantal type, and a secondary Hebrew lengthening, represented by the perfects in e and o, due to the accent. 1 The so-called shortened imperfects in u probably represent the original biconsonantal stage with short vowel like Arabic jussive iahaf.

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1 In Ethiopic, also, intransitive verbs medieae gerninate have short perfects like qēma; hamma 'be sick.' Here, however, their use as special intransitive forms admits of an explanation. These forms, which are no doubt derived from biconsonantal forms like *hamma, were regarded as contracted from *hamēma, etc., just as בָּהֵן; laba 'put on,' from labēma.

The transitive perfect forms like בָּהֵן 'rise' also represent this kind of lengthening. e. g. qām < qam, while Syriac مَصْحَم, Arabic مَصْحَم qāma represent the first kind of lengthening. Hebrew בָּהֵן bears the same relation to Syriac مَصْحَم, Arabic مَصْحَم, as Hebrew בָּהֵן bears to Syriac مَصْحَم mit.
In some cases verbs of both transitive and intransitive types are
made from the same stem, viz.: in Nos. 71, 103, 119, 153, 196,
292, 319, 331, and perhaps in 238, where לָעַפ means both 'take
off’ and ‘fall out,’ לָעַפ ‘to fall off,’ and לָעַפ ‘take off,’ the
forms and meaning being more or less mixed. (Cf. p. 193.)
A complete series of intransitive forms have been preserved
in comparatively few verbs. There is a strong tendency for
verbs of the intransitive type to pass over to the more usual
transitive type, the tendency manifesting itself especially in the
perfect, and particularly in the perfect with characteristic i
vowel.
To this tendency is due the fact that almost all intransitive
verbs have transitive form in the first and second persons, e. g.
כָּלְבָּר ‘be heavy,’ מִתָה ‘die.’ In the few u
perfects which occur in Hebrew, the characteristic intransitive
vowel is regularly preserved in the first and second persons
when these forms occur, viz.: in Nos. 30, 139, 145, 161, 324, 410,
e. g. מַעְרֵית ‘fear,’ בָּשָׂה ‘be ashamed,’ accented u
being lengthened to o even in a closed syllable. Short o is pre-
served in an unaccented syllable in Ps. xiii. 5, and
Ex. xviii, 23. Only in מַעְרֵית ‘be childless’ Gen. xliii.
14, i. p. does the transitive form occur, perhaps an intentional
differentiation from מַעְרֵית which directly precedes. In the
case of i perfects, disregarding verbs לָעַפ. intransitive forms
have been preserved only in verbs לָעַפ. Nos. 134, 168 (also
Josh. iv. 24), 196, 313, 386, e. g. מַלָּח ‘be
full,’ and in certain forms of the verbs (146) לָעַפ ‘bear,’ (166)
שֶׁלִּי ‘inherit,’ (393) מַעְרֵית ‘ask,’ and (290) מַעְרֵית ‘spring, skip;’
e. g. מַעְרֵית. in which last the
characteristic vowel occurs in an unaccented closed syllable, and
is preserved in its original short form i. In the case of verbs

1 This is also the case in Ethiopic where all transitive verbs except
verbs mediæ gutturales have transitive forms in these persons, e. g.
מַעְרֵית: labasku, מַעְרֵית: labasku ‘put on’; but מַעְרֵית: kēhdēka,
מַעְרֵית: kēhdēka ‘deny.’

2 Cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gr. § 44, d.
The intransitive type has also apparently prevailed over the transitive in the first and second persons perfect of verbs medius infirmæ in Arabic, all verbs having characteristic ī or ū in these forms without regard to meaning. e. g. ܩܠܘتا qulta, qultu 'say;' ܣܝܪܬܐ sirta, sirtu 'journey;' cf. Philippi in Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie u. Sprachwissenschaft, vol. 20, 1890, p. 855.
these verbs transitive by-forms of the third person perfect also occur, viz.: verbs with \( i \) perfect, e.g. פָּלַג and פָּלִג 'stick to,' Nos. 6, 23, 47, 48, 60, 146, 166, 171, 182, 321, 333, 378, 385, 393, 408, 419; verbs mediae geminatae \( i \) (66) מִלָּה and מִלָּה 'be weak.' Only in Nos. 115, 146, 166 (impr.), 331, 333 (impr.); 106, 369 (impr.), 417, however, are transitive by-forms of the imperfect found, the imperfect in general resisting the tendency towards the transitive type better than the perfect.

In a few instances intransitive verbal forms are preserved only in the perfect, viz.: \( u \) perfects, Nos. 82, 88, 132(?), 139, 161, 342, 363; \( i \) perfects, Nos. 21, 38, 72, 118, 193, 209, 272, 284, 290(?), 326, 411; short perfects mediae geminatae, Nos. 65, 68, 71, 84, 92, 100, 125, 128, 140 (cf. p. 181), 189, 295, 307, 341, 403, 429. The corresponding verbal adjectives are made in Nos. 132(?), 139, 161; 38, 72, 193, 411; 71, 84, 92, 100, 128, 307, 341, 403; in the mediae geminatae stem 125, an adjective of the form יַלַע is made. Transitive by-forms of the perfect occur in Nos. 82; 272, 290, 326, 411; 403. Nos. 118, 193, 209, 290, 411; 68, 403, have transitive imperfects in \( u \), No. 128, a transitive imperative; in the other verbs the imperfect does not occur or is indecisive.

The moribund condition of the intransitive perfect is made still further evident by the fact that a large number of the forms of the \( i \) perfect occur in pause, a position in which archaic forms that have been lost elsewhere are often preserved. The following occur only in pause, viz.: Nos. 23, 38, 47, 60, 72, 108, 111, 116, 146, 149, 171, 232, 272, 284, 311, 313, 321, 326, 333, 365, 378, 385, 411, 417, 419.

In a large number of verbs, the intransitive perfect is not preserved, intransitive verbal forms occurring only in the imperfect or imperative. Verbs of this kind, excluding those which have been shown to be of the transitive type, cf. p. 179, are the following, viz.: Nos. 1, 3, 12, 14, 17, 22, 25, 26, 29, 32, 34,

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1 By transitive by-forms are meant those transitive forms which have the same meaning as the intransitive; they are to be distinguished from those transitive forms which have meanings opposite to those of the intransitive; cf. p. 193.

2 יַלַע (417) can not be considered a transitive form, since all the perfect forms follow the analogy of the triconsonantal verb.

In those Nos. given in italics the perfect does not occur, or is indecisive; in the remainder the perfect has the transitive form. The imperfect has a transitive by-form in the following, viz.: i imperfect, Nos. 1, 75, 164, 184, 312; u imperfect, Nos. 26, 75, 90, 95, 136, 212 (impr.), 214, 221, 222, 237, 240, 288, 298, 328, 396; the transitive imperfect is in most cases the regular form. The former existence of intransitive perfects is indicated by the verbal adjectives in the following: u perfects in Nos. 14(?), 22, 26(?), 46, 127, 200, 206, 211, 318(?), 358, 359; i perfects in Nos. 3, 22, 85, 94, 97, 119, 120, 138, 167, 187, 227(?), 262, 275, 281, 286, 358, 413, 418, mediae infirmæ 184.

Intransitive imperatives occur from the following verbs, viz.: Nos. 6, 14, 32, 40, 56, 86, 94, 97, 101, 119, 131, 153, 162, 166, 182, 212, 238, 311, 317, 333, 346, 350, 361, 378, 385, 393, 407, 416, 419, mediae infirmæ 7, 29, 30. The imperatives (153) יִפְגָּשׁ and (238) יִפְגָּשׁ are intransitive forms used with the meaning of the transitive verbs יָפְגָּשׁ, 'pour out,' יָפְגָּשׁ, 'take off.'

When no decisive intransitive verbal form is preserved, the intransitive derivatives often give evidence of the original intransitive form of a verb, as e. g. in Nos. 44, 104, 107, 114, 185, 193, 207, 339, 409, etc. When no form of Qal is made in a certain stem, intransitive derivatives often indicate the possibility of the former existence of the corresponding intransitive verb, as e. g. in Nos. 10, 20, 37, 59, 64, 117, 173, 194, 308, 424, etc. In some instances intransitive derivatives occurring with transitive active verbs indicate the former existence of intransitive verbs of the same stem, cf. p. 179. Sometimes the apparently intransitive derivatives really belong to transitive active verbs, as in Nos. 205, 260, 357, etc. For the sake of convenience complete lists of the various intransitive derivatives
are here given. A number of nouns which were in all probability originally adjectives, and concrete nouns which seem to be derived from more original abstracts, are included.

Adjectives of the form הָלַקְנָס are made from the following, viz.: Nos. 3, 4(2), 13, 20, 22, 23, 38, 44, 48, 51, 60, 72, 85, 87, 89, 94, 97, 108, 111, 113, 115, 119, 120, 125, 134, 137, 138, 143, 149, 151, 162, 163(?) 167, 169, 171, 187, 190, 196, 227(?), 229, 262, 264, 266, 267, 270, 271, 275, 277, 281, 286, 289, 313, 321, 331, 333, 347, 358, 365, 378, 385, 408, 411, 413, 416, 417, 418, 426, 432. The construct state of the majority of these adjectives has the form הָלַקְנָס, probably due to metaplasms with adjectives of the form הָלַקְנָס c. הָלַקְנָס 'low,' viz.: Nos. 87, 94, 113, 171, 277, 331, 378, 411. No. 3 and the adjectives נַּרְיָש. Nos. 134, 162, 196, however, make their construct regularly, e.g. הָלַקְנָס 'mourning,' נַּרְיָש 'full;' Nos. 22, 171, 277, make constructs from the form qattil, syncopated from qattil, e.g. נַּרְיָש 'uncircumcised.'

Adjectives of the form הָלַקְנָס are made from the following; with feminine הָלַקְנָס or plural הָלַקְנָס probably representing original *qatul in every case,² Nos. 5, 10, 14(?), 22, 39, 127, 171, 200, 234, 251, 253, 267, 268, 273, 274, 278, 389; with the feminine הָלַקְנָס or plural הָלַקְנָס. Nos. 26(?), 46, 48, 91, 131, 204, 211, 231, 310, 321, 331, 358, 387, 405; feminine or plural does not occur, or is made from the form הָלַקְנָס. Nos. 31, 109, 112, 130, 161, 165, 202, 206, 282, 285, 302, 318(?) 324, 355, 359. In the last two lists, the italicized forms seem to represent the form qatul, as is indicated by the u perfects in Hebrew and Arabic; נַּרְיָש 'bird-catcher' (161) may represent the form qatul, since the perfect in this case is based on the nominal form. The remainder may represent either qatul or qatul; נַּרְיָש 'spy' (31)

¹ Cf. the construct state נַּרְיָש 'thigh,' נַּרְיָש 'shoulder.'

² Cf. König, Lehrgeb. 2, 1. 84: Stade, Lehrb. §§204, b; 71, 8; Olshausen, Lehrb. §108, b.
is most probably of the latter form. The construct state of the
adjectives in the last two lists has the form הָלַשׁ. e.g.
ירג `great,' הָנָב `small;' in הָבַג from הָבָג `high' (46), the
α is due to the guttural. No construct state of the adjectives
in the first list occurs.

In a number of stems verbal adjectives of both forms הָלַשׁ
and הָלַשׂ, or an i perfect and an adjective of the form הָלַשׂ are
made, viz.: Nos. 22, 48, 131, 171, 267, 321, 333, 358; in Nos.
127, 204 an adjective הָלַשׂ and verbal noun הָלַשׁ are made.
This seems to indicate that originally in Hebrew i and u per-
fec ts were made from the same stem, as quite frequently in
Arabic, e. g.
מְב חָבִי `be joyful,' חָבִיה `be beautiful,'
חַזְאֵנָה, חָזֵאנה `be altered for the worse in odor,' etc.

Adjectives of the forms הָלַשׂ and הָלַשׂ from stems mediea
firmae are made from the following, viz.: הָלַשׂ. Nos. 50, 79, 173,
184, 185, 193, 195(?), 219(?), 223, 255, 258, 360; הָלַשׁ. Nos. 7, 30,
132(?); adjectives of the form הָלַשׂ from stems mediae gema-
nae from the following, viz.: Nos. 43, 64, 66, 71, 84, 92, 100,
106, 114, 128, 199(?), 201, 204, 247, 259, 307, 319, 325, 337,
341, 362, 369, 376, 403, 431; adjectives like הָלַשׂ from stems
ונָל. from the following, viz.: Nos. 33, 61, 78, 99(?), 150, 175,
194, 220(?), 230, 263, 276, 300, 334, 339, 340, 351, 354, 372,
401. The construct states of the last class have forms like הָלַשׂ
‘hard.’ These adjectives are usually regarded as contracted
from the form qatul, e. g. qiiq < qiiqai, and as the regular con-
traction of the diphthong ai is ... נ, which represents the
same sound is perhaps more original than נ, the more original
form being preserved in the construct connection, while the
ending of the absolute state has been modified; cf. feminine
nouns like נְמָה constr. נְמָה `mare.'
Infinitives of the form לְסָק are very rare, occurring from stative verbs only in Nos. 106(?), 110, 407, 423; in active verbs like לָשׁ ‘send,’ the a of the infinitive is due to the guttural. Infinitives of the form לָסָק from stative verbs media
geminate are made in the following, viz.: Nos. 204, 319, 362, 369, 409; all except the last may be simply the verbal adjectives of the same form used as a noun; in 369 the infinitive form may be perfect.
In Nos. 43 and 349, the a of the infinitive is probably due to the guttural q. Infinitives of the form לָסָק from verbs mediae infirmae are made from the following, viz.: Nos. 29, 30, 192, 221, 222, 256, 353; in 400 the form is probably corrupt. Infinitives of the form לָסָק are made from Nos. 6, 23, 340, 433; of the form לָסָק from Nos. 87, 97, 105, 162, 332, 344, 386; of the form לָסָק ‘p.’ from Nos. 46, 60, 97, 105, 108, 134, 203, 205, 333, 357, 358, 412, 419. In 203, 205, 357 the form לָסָק is used as the infinitive of active verbs. These last three classes are verbal nouns used as infinitives.


Verbal nouns of the form לָסָק are made from the following, viz.: Nos. 23, 27, 74, 107, 138, 165, 174, 178, 228, 235, 266, 281, 286, 313, 365, 374, 378, 384, 415, 418(?); verbal nouns of the form לָסָק, which is a specially frequent derivative from verbs of utterance like לָשׁ ‘cry out,’ from the following, viz: Nos. 13, 16, 18, 37, 42, 56, 58, 68, 74, 80, 86, 98, 120, 147, 157, 168(?), 207, 208, 210, 213, 216, 218, 226(?), 235, 252, 265, 269, 301, 303, 315, 317, 329, 330, 333(?), 341, 351, 352, 364, 366, 391, 393, 397, 407, 417, 422, 433; לָשׁ ‘breath’ (339) is

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1 Cf. König, Lehrgeb. i, 339; Stade, Lehrb. §619, b; Olshausen, Lehrb. p. 581.
to be regarded as concrete, הָלַל בַּּהַל ‘cursing’ (325) is made from the Piel הָלַל בַּּל ‘curse’ on the analogy of הָלַל בַּּל ‘blessing;’ verbal nouns of the form הָלַל בַּּל are made from the following, viz.: Nos. 1, 19, 20, 28, 36, 42, 51, 52, 55, 59, 76, 77, 127, 136, 166, 191, 196, 197, 204, 209, 233, 279, 293, 314, 388, 393, 399, 423, 427. The verbal nouns in Nos. 248 and 394 are also to be regarded as intransitive.

The same tendency to pass over to the transitive type which was observed in connection with the verbal forms is found also to a certain extent in the nominal derivatives. A number of stative verbs, especially such as are more or less active in meaning, make participles and infinitives of the transitive form.

Verbs with intransitive form in perfect or imperfect, excluding those which belong to the transitive type (cf. p. 179), which make such derivatives are the following, viz.:


2) Infinitives of the form הָלַל בַּּל . s. הָלַל בַּּל (suffixal forms like כַּרְעָה כָּרָה are indecisive, as they may represent either הָלַל בַּּל or הָלַל בַּּל ; cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gr. § 61, b) Nos. 1, 6, 26, 32, 34, 40, 46, 56, 67, 75, 86, 90, 94, 97(s.), 98, 118, 122(?), 136, 137, 162, 167, 177, 182, 186(s.), 200, 209, 214, 225, 240, 272(s.), 288, 317, 328, 333, 358, 361, 378, 382, 385, 386, 390, 393, 403, 407(s.), 411, 414, 419; נֵכַל (196) makes the infinitive הָלַל בַּּל after the analogy of verbs הָלַל בַּּל , and similar forms are made also in Nos. 98 and 386; the infinitive of יְכֵל (145) is the feminine form הָלַל בַּּל , a form which is also made from No. 137.

1 Cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gr. § 74, h; also König, Lehrgeb., 1, 611; Stade, Lehrb., § 201, b.

These infinitives may represent the feminine of a form qatāl, as in הָלַל בַּּל ‘three’ ; cf. Stade, op. cit. § 208, c; Olshausen, Lehrb., p. 388, top.
3) Passive participles of the form יִנְסָד. Nos. 6, 32, 35, 74, 90, 118, 146, 182, 186, 237, 246, 272, 386, 393, 410, 411, 412, 416(?), 419; these are in some cases simply verbal adjectives, as e.g. in Nos. 32, 410, etc.

Verbs יַעֲלָה which make participles like יִנְסָד as well as verbal adjectives like יִנְסָד are Nos. 78, 263, 334, 340, 401; in all except Nos. 78, 340, the verbal adjectives are used only as nouns. Verbs medie infirme have for the most part completely passed over to the transitive type: participles of the form יַעֲלָה are therefore to be expected from any verb of this class, whatever the meaning; such participles from verbs which have preserved intransitive form either in verbal forms or derivatives are made in Nos. 29, 50, 80, 82, 192, 219, 222, 353.
Semitic Epigraphical Notes.—By Charles C. Torrey, Professor in Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

I.

AN OLD HEBREW SEAL.

This seal was purchased in Sidon, from a native dealer, and is now in my possession. It is a scarabæoid, longitudinally pierced. The material is agate, nearly white, and the inscribed surface measures three-quarters of an inch in length. The accompanying fac-simile, made from a plaster cast, is twice the size of the original. The seal has been badly chipped, but fortunately the inscribed face is intact, and the letters are all beautifully clear. It reads:

לייהוּת בְּנֵי יַעֲשֵׂר

"[The seal] of Joshua, son of Asaiah."

The name Asaiah ("Yahwe made") is found in this same form on a Jewish seal published by Clermont-Ganneau (Recueil, iii., § 32). The form יַעֲשֵׂר occurs on another seal in the British Museum (see Cooke, North-Semitic Inscriptions, p. 362); יַעֲשֵׂר is found in the Old Testament, 2 Kings xxii, 12; cf. the names יַעֲשֵׂר, 2 Sam. ii, 18, and יַעֲשֵׂר, 1 Chr. iv, 35.

The Old Hebrew characters of this inscription are of extraordinary beauty, as can be seen from the fac-simile. Few specimens of writing in the old alphabet have been found which could compare with it in this respect. There is nothing to indicate the period to which it belongs. So far as any characteristic forms of letters are concerned, its owner may have lived at any point in Hebrew history, from the early kingdom down
to the time of the Roman rule. Attention may be called, however, to the resemblance which these characters bear to those of the Siloam inscription. The resemblance is especially noticeable in the case of the letter ḫ, which has the same peculiar shape, pointed at the top, and the same slant. The l, though of a very common type, also recalls the Siloam inscription both in the shape of its head and in its long shank. The same may be said of the letter ḫ. The ḫ, again, has the same unusual breadth and graceful form as in the other inscription. These resemblances can of course be allowed but very little weight; they do, however, add to the interest attaching to the seal.

Such a specimen of Hebrew calligraphy as this one, moreover, deserves a warm welcome. Attention has already been called to the beauty of the characters in which it is inscribed. Few, if any, alphabets are more pleasing to the eye than the old North Semitic at its best, and the characteristic Hebrew form of it shown here represents one of the finest developments, artistically, which it has experienced. In view of our almost total lack of knowledge of the native art of the Hebrews, such testimony as this to their sense of form and proportion is of great value. And it would certainly be hard to find any single specimen of the script which is more beautifully executed than this one.

Instead of the customary line, or double line, to divide the field in halves, a somewhat more elaborate device is used here, the origin of which I do not know. At the end of the second line of writing is a star of six rays.

II.

AN INSCRIBED HEBREW WEIGHT.

The weight here described was bought by me in Jerusalem, of a native dealer in antiquities, in the spring of 1901. I could learn nothing definite as to the source from which it came. Its form, as will be seen from the accompanying drawing (slightly larger than the original), is the same as that of the four interesting stone weights bearing the problematic inscription ḫṣš, most fully described by Clermont-Ganneau in his Recueil, iv., 24 ff. Three of these, it will be remembered, were found by Dr. Bliss in his excavations for the Palestine Exploration Fund at Tell Zakariyā; the fourth was unearthed at the village ‘Aināta, north of Jerusalem. In the present case, the material
is red marble (specific gravity 2.658); whether or not other weights of this same material have been found, I do not know. One of the four just mentioned is described as "a reddish stone," but nothing more definite is said about it.

The fact of chief importance connected with this weight, however, is the legend which it bears. It is inscribed with the Hebrew word שֶׁכֶל, beqa, "half"; that is, presumably, half of a shekel. It weighs 5.8698 grams, or 90.58 grains; accordingly, the unit (i. e., the shekel) was 11.74 grams, or 181.17 grains. The Hebrew "shekel," as we know, was a standard which varied considerably, though the limits of its variation are still unknown. In the familiar silver coinage of the Jews, the old Phoenician stater of 14.92-14.96 grams was the basis. But there were other norms, and one of these, belonging to Babylonia, comes very close to the unit of our שֶׁכֶל weight. The Babylonian (or Persian) silver shekel of the "royal norm" weighed about 11.50 grams (see the tables in Head's Historia Numorum and Hill's Handbook of Greek and Roman Coins), and it may well be that we are to recognize the result of Babylonian influence in the use of a standard in which the half-shekel was (approximately) 5.87 grams. It is further noticeable that this weight bears no obvious relation to the כֶּל, which seems to have been equivalent to a little more than 10 grams. The four weights above mentioned weigh, respectively, 9, 9.5, 10+, and 10.21 grams, and possibly represent a still further debased standard.

As for the word שֶׁכֶל, it has heretofore been known only from two passages in the Old Testament. In Gen. xxiv, 22, Abraham's servant gives the girl Rebecca a nose-ring whose weight was a beqa; and in Ex. xxxviii, 26, the same word is used in stating the amount of the poll-tax (also described as מְתוֹלִית).  

1 So estimated. This stone (the one found at 'Anātā) had been pierced, and its original weight accordingly reduced.
It is remarkable that the word should not be found elsewhere; the fact deserves notice, too, that in both of these passages the Targum translates עֶקֶף by the non-committal נֶקֶף, “weight.” Are we to conclude from this that the word עֶקֶף, meaning “half-shekel,” was obsolete at the time when the Aramaic translation was made?

III.

A PHOENICIAN (?) BRONZE WEIGHT.

While buying some old copper coins in Jaffa from a native resident of that city, I happened to pick up this small bronze object, presumably a weight. Its owner attached no importance to it, but “threw it in” with my purchase. I have seen nothing else like it, nor has any one of the Orientalists to whom I have shown it been able to give me any information regarding it. Whether it is ancient, or modern, I do not know. It looks like an antique.

As the figure (somewhat enlarged) shows, it has the form of a crystal of fourteen sides. The angles are not quite regular;

no one of the six quadrilateral faces is a perfect square, nor is any one of the eight triangles equilateral, though the variation is so slight as to be hardly noticeable. In every one of the fourteen faces is an incised oblong, containing what appears to

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1 These are the two passages upon which those scholars rely who assert that the Aramaic נֶקֶף was sometimes used to mean “shekel.” Hence the current interpretation (almost unchallenged, but hardly tenable) of MENE, TEKEL, UPHAR SIN; and every recent commentator on Dan. v, 25 remarks that in Gen. xxiv, 22 and Ex. xxxviii, 26 נֶקֶף means “shekel.” On the contrary, the word has this meaning neither in the two passages named, nor anywhere else.

“Half-shekel,” in the Targum, is regularly פָּלַנוּת מִילְעַ יֶקֶף.
be the Phoenician numeral 12. The depth of the incuse varies, but the characters—always thin and clearly cut—are never quite flush with the surface. In addition to this marking, each one of the six quadrilateral faces is stamped with four small circles, or crescents, somewhat obliquely driven. These are not regularly placed, except that, roughly speaking, each of the four corner spaces of the quadrilateral is occupied by one of them. In one case, a fifth circle is stamped directly into the incused oblong, in such a way as to obliterate the character which represents the numeral 10. The weight of the object is 14.9566 grams, or 230.82 grains. It is this fact, especially, which has led me to characterize it, tentatively, as "Phoenician," for this is just the weight of a Phoenician silver stater. Head, Historia Numorum, gives the standard as about 230 grains, and Hill's Handbook as 14.92–14.96 grams. The numeral "12," moreover, corresponds admirably to this conclusion, for the Phoenician coinage (including the Jewish) was based upon the system of twelve parts; a fact due, no doubt, to Greek influence.

IV.

ON A PALESTINIAN 'FORGERY.'

Under the title "Fälschung?" Dr. Messerschmidt contributes to the Orientalistische Litteratur-Zeitung for June 15, 1903 a discussion (with fac-simile) of a certain curious inscribed object recently brought to Germany from the neighborhood of Jerusalem. It is a disc of baked clay, about two inches in diameter, reproducing very clumsily and on a much enlarged scale a well-known coin of John Hyrcanus. Nothing more need be said, of course, as to the value of this 'antique'; it does not even deserve to be taken so seriously as would be implied in giving it the name 'forgery.' Messerschmidt is by no means inclined to regard it as genuine, and yet expresses himself as mystified on two points: (1) How did it happen that clay should be chosen as the material for forging a bronze coin? and (2) Why did its owner, who was a workman of the lower class, appar-
ently make no effort to sell it, and eventually part with it for a mere trifle? Do not these things, he asks, speak against the conclusion that it is a forgery?

The fact is, this is one of a class of objects not infrequently hawked about the streets of Jerusalem by certain vagabonds of a familiar type—half beggar, half rascal. The things are made by pressing clay into forms which some idler has amused himself by fashioning. The conditions which produce such works of art as this one are a little spare time, a sense of humor, and the remote possibility of gulling some brother rascal, or perhaps even a tourist. It would take perhaps an hour to whittle out of wood such a form as the one from which this 'coin' was made. I have frequently been offered just such discs in Jerusalem, the would-be vender always accompanying his offer with a broad grin. One of these objects now in my possession (a clay disc, about two inches in diameter, pressed from a form) bears a representation of Eve and the serpent, with a few meaningless letters appended. Apparently there was never a thought of getting more than a few paras each for these 'inscriptions.' It is not surprising, then, that the native workman mentioned in this case did not show any great eagerness to turn his property into money.

In a foot-note to Messerschmidt's article (col. 241), the editor, Dr. Peiser, expresses the opinion that this clay disc [or rather, its matrix?] belonged to the apparatus of a forger of coins, and formed a part of a cylindrical mould similar to those which have been found in Egypt (he might have said, throughout the whole breadth of the Roman empire, from the British Isles to Asia). But the hatchet-carved monstrosity before us is in no way related to the apparatus to which he refers, or to its product, beyond the fact that it is made of clay and happens to have borrowed its pattern from a coin. The moulds employed for the forgeries in question are of course made from the genuine coins, and are designed to receive molten metal. They give at least an exact reproduction; in fact, it is not usually safe to pronounce these clay cylinders the work of forgers, inasmuch as the official copper coinage of the later Roman empire, both Eastern and Western, was very largely executed in just this way. As for this worthless Palestinian trinket, it is certainly a misuse of language to call it a 'forgery.'
V.

ADDITIONAL NOTES ON THE BOD-'AŠTART INSCRIPTIONS.

Since¹ the publication of my former paper (vol. xxiii. of this Journal, pp. 156–173) on the inscription recently found in the ruins of the temple of Eṣmûn, near Sidôn, the literature of the subject has grown rapidly. Besides the publications of Berger and Lagrange (see the foot-note), the inscription has been discussed by Clermont-Ganneau (Recueil, v., pp. 217–267), Hoffmann (Theol. Literaturzeitung, 22. Nov. 1902; 31. Jan. 1903), G. A. Cooke (Text-Book of North Semitic Inscriptions, 1903, pp. 401–403), Lidzbarski (Ephemeris ii., pp. 49–54), and others. Especially the excellent fac-similes published by Lagrange and Berger have settled all doubt as to the correct reading of the several inscriptions—or rather, the one inscription in its several slightly varying forms. Still other inscribed stones, moreover, have been unearthed from the temple-ruin, one of which exhibits such important variations from the typical reading that I have reserved the discussion of it for a separate note (see VI., below).

For the sake of convenience I repeat the complete text, the lines corresponding to those of the inscription which I published and discussed in my previous article. I have also indicated the division into clauses which seems to me to be required. Regarding this division I shall have more to say below.

מִלְךָ בָּרָעָה מִלְךָ צָרְזָה בַּנָּי מִלְךָ
אֲשֶׂר נָשָׂא צָרְזָה בַּני מִלְךָ
שְׁכָנִים אֲרוֹן רַשָּׁה מַצָּרִים מִשָּׁלָה אֵא בַּנ
עַלְוֶלֶת אֵא הָבָה בַּנ לַآل
לְאָשֶׂמֹן שֶׁר קָרֵי

The only letters here concerning which there can be any question are the third and sixth in line 4; in each of these cases it is altogether uncertain whether the character is י or ל. In one

¹ I think I may fairly claim to have been the first to publish the Bod-'Aštart inscription. Berger’s Mémoire sur les inscriptions du temple d’Esmoun à Sidon was put in distribution Oct. 3, 1902: Lagrange’s article appeared in the number of the Revue Biblique dated Oct. 1, 1902. The number of this Journal (vol. xxiii., First Half) which contained my article was issued in August, 1902, the actual mailing of the volume taking place on Sept. 9 and 10.
point I have been obliged to change my former reading; the first character in line 4 is ٨, not ٧, as is shown by the facsimiles since published, especially plate iv. in Lagrange’s article (Revue Biblique, Oct. 1902, pp. 515–526).

The translation:

“The king Bod'-Aštart, king of the Sidonians, grandson of king Éšmun'azar, king of the Sidonians: reigning in Sidon-on-the-Sea, ‘High Heavens,’ and the Rešeph Land, belonging to Sidon: who built and solidly walled (?) this house: he built it for his god, Éšmun, the Holy Lord.”

בָּלֵד רַמְי בָּאָשָׁר, “reigning in Sidon-on-the-Sea, etc.”

Curiously enough, no one of the translators of the inscription, excepting myself, has connected the word בָּאָשָׁר with the king Bod'-Aštart, although this is the connection naturally suggested by the context (and especially by the preposition ב in בָּאָשָׁר), and indeed, as it seems to me, the only connection possible. Clermont-Ganneau, for example, follows the title of the king with a long list of supposed place-names, contained in a clause which ends nowhere. Lidzbarski’s rendering is still worse, for he does not even give the writer of the inscription time to forget how he began his clause, but makes him end it with בָּאָשָׁר:

“König B-A., &c., Enkel des E., &c., in Sidon des Meeres” (period). But what could this mean? And what sort of a Semitic sentence would this be? Grammar and usage have their rights. The preposition ב, moreover, cannot be disposed of so easily. Cooke (North-Semitic Inscriptions, p. 401 f.) boldly supplies the word “reigning,” but this he has no right

1 I have adopted here the spelling Bod-, rather than Bad-, in deference to the prevailing custom, though I believe the latter form to be the one in accord with modern transcriptional usage. We transcribe the Arabic فَصِّل, for example, by faḍl, not faddl, or faḍl (English u in but), though the sound of the vowel is probably the very same one which was heard by the Greeks who transliterated Bod- in the Phoenician name. In short, our accepted system of transcription is essentially etymological, not phonetic.

2 Of course, in this and all the similar cases, I have employed the Hebrew vowel-pointing merely as the most convenient way of indicating the grammatical form, or the nature of the word; not because I have any idea that the Phoenician pronunciation closely resembled that of our Massoretic Hebrew.
to do. The one thing obviously needed is the participle לשתל (similarly employed, be it noted, and with ב as its complement, in the Ešmun'azar inscription); why not use it, then, since it is here?

The second principal clause of the inscription, then, ends with לשתל (the first ending with the second לין in line 2). The third clause contains the most difficult passage of all; as to its extent, however,—after the second clause has once been marked off as above,—there can be no question; it ends with the pronoun †. At this point, again, my own attempt at translating the inscription has thus far stood alone; all the other renderings treat † לינתדך as the object of the following verb ב, rather than of the one which precedes. Now, aside from the weight of the arguments just set forth, there is very plain evidence that the author of the inscription intended to make a principal pause after the pronoun †. One of the two inscriptions published by Berger actually ends at this point! The stone of which he gives the fac-simile (op. cit., Plate ii.) contains only half of the inscription, it is true (the other half evidently stood on the adjoining stone); but the point at which the lettering ends—near the beginning of the third line—leaves no room for doubt that this inscription, though otherwise like its fellows, originally omitted all that elsewhere follows the words † לינתדך. Still further evidence—equally conclusive—is furnished, if I am not mistaken, by the new inscription of this series which is treated below (see VI.). In this case, also, the words "he who built this house" form a clause by themselves. This clause-division of the inscription, with the interpretation which it involves, I venture still to think—as I have thought it from the first—the only defensible one.

תשמך: That this is the name of a district belonging to Sidon (מלוז, line 3) seems tolerably certain. This interpretation has also been adopted by Clermont-Ganneau and Cooke.

1 Lidzbarski's theory, that an ignorant or careless workman carved only the right hand half of the inscription and omitted the rest, is untenable. It fails utterly in the last line, of which † לינתדך could not possibly have been the half! The fact that there is a margin left at the end of the stone cannot be used as an argument. We could not expect the lettering to be carried to the edge, especially on stone so very soft and fragile as this.
Lidzbarski objects, that it would be "wunderlich" as a place-name. But then, every people has a certain number of place-names which are "wunderlich" when approached from the side of etymology and the dictionary; this one is by no means remarkable. What is far more important is the fact that this is the same place which is called לֶשֶם שָׁרְפָּן in the (later) inscription of Esmun'azar; and that this is the very same temple "of Es'mun, the Holy Lord," built "near the spring (יָדִיל הָרִיל) in the mountain," which is there mentioned. The several independent grounds of this conclusion I have already set forth at length, in my former article; the one of them which is perhaps the most striking of all, the presence of the ידִיל ("conduit-spring?") near this temple-ruin, has apparently escaped the notice of all those who have discussed the inscription. Clermont-Ganneau objects to the identification of the two temples, that the Bod-'Astart ruin could not be described as "in the mountain (הר)," inasmuch as it stands only about fifty meters above the plain. But this argument is less weighty than it seems. The deciding question is not how high this place actually is, but whether the popular speech would describe it as "in the mountain." And on this point there is certainly little or no room for doubt. The contrast between the coast plain and the mountain district is nowhere more sharp than at just this point, where the outpost hills of the Lebanon rise steeply from the level strip and run back in steadily increasing height. Any native of modern Sidon would be certain to speak of this ruin as fi-l-jebel, "in the mountain"; I have myself repeatedly heard them thus describe it. And it is in every way probable that the ancient Sidonians spoke of it in the same way.

Lidzbarski, replying to Clermont-Ganneau, cites line 16 f. of the Es'm. inscription against the interpretation of לֶשֶם as the name of a district. The passage reads: "It was we who built . . . the temple of 'Astart in Sidon-on-the-Sea, and who made 'Astart to dwell in לֶשֶם ; and it was we who built a temple to Es'mun . . . in the mountain and made him to dwell in לֶשֶם ." Of this, Lidzbarski says: "Das ist

1 Lidzbarski's "Flammen-Erde," לֶשֶם (so he reads), would be a much more extraordinary name, it seems to me. But it is easy to accuse one another of stumbling here, where we are all in the dark.
Unsinn, wenn ein Ort ausserhalb von sein soll.” But this is a very strange assertion. How does Lidzbarski know that the induction of Astarte, mentioned in the second half of line 16, had any relation to the temple mentioned in the first half? The very fact that the name of the goddess is repeated might have shown him the probability of the contrary conclusion. The ‘induction’ of a god into a new precinct, or a new temple, was an important ceremony by itself. It might (we should suppose) take place at any time, whether the building in question was old or new, and whether built by the dedicating parties or by others. An old building might be consecrated for a new purpose, or, doubtless, to a new god. There is not the least difficulty in supposing that two temples, in different parts of the city, are referred to in Esrn. line 16. One of these, the one in Sidon-on-the-Sea, Eşmun‘azar and his mother built. The temple of Eşmun, referred to in line 17, was the one which had been begun, at least, by Bod-‘Astart.

The chief importance of this conclusion lies in the fact that it carries with it the order of accession of these two kings. If the temple on the Auwali is the one referred to in the Eşm. inscription, as the facts thus far known to us seem to show, then it is certain that the reign of Bod-‘Astart preceded that of Eşmun-‘azar. No other commentator on the new inscription, so far as I know, has reached this conclusion, but all have assumed the reverse order. The reason for the assumption has been, doubtless, the supposition that the father of Bod-‘Astart never came to the throne; but this supposition has now been proved false, as will appear below.

Still another argument in favor of the division and interpretation which I have advocated is the fact that it frees us from the worse than awkward Esšyr. “Rešeph-District” presents no difficulty. The enumeration of the three places without the use of the conjugation has many analogies, both Phoenician and Hebrew, as Clermont-Ganneau remarks. These three districts were undoubtedly large and important. It is of course useless, in view of our total lack of knowledge of the conditions in the city at this time, to conjecture why they received mention in this inscription. One might think of a dozen plausible reasons.

1 See, on this whole question, my former article, pages 162-164.
בשא, "who built." These are certainly just the words we should expect to see in an inscription telling of the erection of a temple. So מַשְׁבֵּית, line 2, for example; compare also the constantly recurring formula רֹדֶב שָׁא, יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, etc., in dedicatory inscriptions.

רהב ירִשָּׁה. It is certainly not easy to determine what should be done with this group of letters. It contains a verb; this much can be said with confidence. The third letter, or the sixth, or both, may be י rather than ר. The reading יִרְדֵּב שָׁא.

"and Sidon-in-the-Country" (now adopted by Clermont-Ganneau), which of course first suggested itself, I clung to for some time; it was one of those which I discussed in presenting my paper to the American Oriental Society in April, 1902. But nothing can be done with it; any mention of Sidon—whether the whole or a part of the city—is altogether out of place here, even if יִרְדֵּב שָׁא be read in some other way. As for the reading יִרְדֵּב שָׁא that seemed to me to be absolutely excluded by the fact that Sidon is feminine. The usage is unvarying, from the בֵּית יִרְדֵּב שָׁא of the Old Testament down to modern times, and is strengthened besides by a very distinct personification; recollect how the head of a woman, representing the city, appears on the Sidonian coins, and how she is called (also on coins) the "mother" of various cities and colonies! Lidzbarski proposes to read not only יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, "Sidon herrscht," but also יִרְדֵּב שָׁא. "Sidon regiert," in line 3. But neither is permissible; any Phoenician would certainly have written יִרְדֵּב שָׁא and יִרְדֵּב שָׁא like יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, etc. Verb-forms יִרְדֵּב שָׁא and יִרְדֵּב שָׁא would of course be possible in Phoenician with a feminine noun; but the verb in the perfect tense would be quite out of place here, and neither Lidzbarski nor any other interpreter of the inscription has proposed to use it.

Possibly יִרְדֵּב שָׁא = Arabic يَرِضُ, "to complete," or (4th stem) יִרְדֵּב שָׁא "to make solid or compact." יִרְדֵּב שָׁא could then be the verb (denominative from יִרְדֵּב שָׁא) "walled," the two verbs being.

1 If Lidzbarski were to be shown a coin bearing the legend יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, he would at once pronounce it a forgery, and rightly. Nor would any such combinations as יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, יִרְדֵּב שָׁא, etc., be possible in Hebrew.
joined without \( \text{\textdagger} \) in the way so common in Syriac. The whole clause would then be translated: "Who built and solidly called this house." In view of the enormously massive character of the wall of this temple-enclosure, these words would be most appropriate.

Lidzbarski remarks, that it is "Geschmackasache" whether \( \text{שֵׁרַק} \) or \( \text{שֵׁרַפ} \) (Kadesh) is read here. But is it merely a matter of taste, and is there no preponderance of probability here? We know from the Ešm. inscription, lines 9 and 32, that the gods were regularly termed \( \text{שֵׁרַק} \), "holy," by the members of this dynasty—as doubtless through all Phoenicia. A more natural title than "Ešmun the Holy Lord," accordingly, no one could require. But on the other hand, anything more far-fetched than this supposed allusion to Kadesh(!) it would be hard to find. Why add to the difficulties of the inscription, which are already great enough, by discarding the obvious and simple and dragging in the remote and obscure? Thus we see one scholar and another proposing here, in place of \( \text{בֶּן} \text{שָׁנִי} \), "who built," a proper name "Ešbon" or "Ešbūn"(!); in place of \( \text{מִשָּׁל} \), "reigning," the combination "Sidon of Mašal" (mere nonsense); and finally "Kadesh" in place of \( \text{שֵׁרַק} \), "holy." The (manufactured) Hebrew phrase, \( \text{עַשֵׁר אָשָׁמִים בֶּן} \) (cf. Ešm. line 17), which seems to have led Clermont-Ganneau astray, is not remarkable as a mere verbal coincidence—and it is nothing more than this.

Not a little conjecture has been wasted on the question, why the inscribed faces of these stones were all turned toward the inside of the thick temple-wall, where they could not be seen. One commentator thinks of political reasons; another, that the stones originally formed part of another building. But no one who has seen and handled the stone itself can be in doubt as to the true reason: it was simply in order that the inscriptions might be preserved. This is limestone of the softest and most friable kind, broken by any blow, easily cut with the fingernail, and rapidly worn down by weathering. If King Bod-‘Astart had left these records of his building where they were exposed to the air and the rain, they would very soon have disappeared. He was not concerned to inform his contemporaries, in this way, that he had built the temple—they all knew it;
what he wished to do was to make a record for posterity. So the Babylonians did, with their stamped bricks; so we do to-day, with our filled 'corner-stones.' Therefore he employed every possible means of preserving the letters of his inscriptions, filling them in with red paint, and burying the inscribed faces in the core of the wall. The event has justified him, for his record has been preserved, in good condition, for more than two thousand years.

A word is in place here regarding the stone which I purchased in Sidon, and published in fac-simile in my former article in this Journal. Some of those scholars who have mentioned it have taken for granted, not unnaturally, that it is in New Haven. I am sorry to say that this is not the case. At the time when my article was written, I was still in uncertainty as to how the stone would be disposed of. In the summer of 1902, when my account of the inscription was ready for publication, I wrote to the friend in Syria with whom I had deposited the stone, telling him of my intention to write at once to Constantinople, informing the officers of the Imperial Museum as to its whereabouts, and putting it at their disposal. I had strong hopes, it is needless to say, that inasmuch as the Museum already possessed good examples of the inscription, I might be allowed to keep this one for Yale University. But to my surprise, I received answer from my friend that he had already sold the stone for me, since he supposed that my chief interest in it was to use it for publication, and believed that I would be glad to have it finally off my hands. As I had left him no instructions, nor sent him any word regarding it for more than a year, I could not blame him for taking this step, in which he acted purely in what he believed to be my interest. I suppose that the stone is now in Paris, though I have heard nothing further from it.

VI.

A NEW INSCRIPTION FROM THE TEMPLE OF EŠMUN.

This is another of the Bod-ʻAstart inscribed stones, which is now in Beirut. I understand that a full description of it, accompanied by a photograph, is already in process of publication, and will probably appear before these notes of mine are published. Winckler has a brief notice of it in the Oriental-
astic Litteratur-Zeitung for June 15, in which he gives the text on Schröder's authority.

My first knowledge of the inscription was derived from a photograph of the stone brought me (June 19th) by my former colleague, Dr. Warren J. Moulton, of New Haven, who had himself just returned from a visit to Syria. It was at once plain from the photograph (which is a very good one) that the new inscription, while in the main identical with those previously found, makes a very important addition to our knowledge, in that it gives the name of the father of Bod-

.Attart. It was also plain that the inscription is incomplete at the beginning of each line, a piece of considerable size having been broken away from the stone here. The evidence of

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\text{\begin{center}
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\]

this latter fact is abundant and conclusive. At the beginning of the \textit{first} line, before the letters \( \text{\ldots} \), which are the first which can be distinctly made out, there is barely room for six—or at most, seven—letters. Yet this \( \text{\ldots} \) can have formed only part of a word, and aside from the additional letter or letters belonging to it, we have to provide space for the name רַעַשָּׁתָר (seven letters!) at the very least, and presumably for a preceding \( \text{\ldots} \) in addition. We should certainly expect, moreover, in view of the unvarying usage in the other inscriptions, that this one also would begin with the complete formula: מָלֵל רַעַשָּׁתָר מָלֵל. At the beginning of the \textit{second} line, the end of a letter is plainly visible (see the drawing). This cannot be the last letter of the incomplete word, מָלֵל, with which
the first line ends, for then we should have the anomaly of lines
beginning unsymmetrically. In all of these inscriptions, the first
letters of the several lines are in the same perpendicular. At
the beginning of the third line, the particle בָּרָא, at least, is
required before the רַבָּר. It is very noticeable, finally, that as
the inscription now stands Bod-‘Astart is not called ‘king of
Sidon,’ nor even ‘king’ at all! The מֶלֶךְ מֶלֶךְ מֶלֶךְ at the end of
line 1 would most naturally be referred to the name (Sedeq-
yaton) which immediately precedes, just as the מֶלֶךְ מֶלֶךְ מֶלֶךְ of
line 2 certainly belongs to the preceding Ešmun‘azar.

Immediately upon receiving the photograph, I restored the
whole inscription as follows:

מלך ברעשתה ת市场竞争 זרותר ב זרקית מלך מלך
מלך זרותר ב כ מלך אָשָׂמֵנָו מֶלֶךְ זרותר.
אִשׁ כָּנָא [הָבָה 1] ב כָּלָי לָתָּם שֶׁר קָרָש.

The text thus restored is merely an abbreviated form of the
typical inscription of the series, containing everything essential,
but nothing more, and with the important addition of the שדֶא-
yaton clause. It will be seen that I supposed the lost fragment
to have contained eight letters in each of the first two lines, and
seven in the third—which is written and spaced throughout
somewhat more boldly than the other two.

It is not often that a conjecture of this nature receives such
speedy confirmation as did this one of mine. Dr. Moulton, to
whom I had sent my restoration of the inscription, mailed to me
on the 16th of July a number of photographs which he himself had
taken in Beirut and Sidon. One of these was a very clear re-
duction of the right-hand fragment of the stone here described,
showing the ג of the word בָּרָא in the first line so distinctly
that there could be no doubt whatever in regard to it. Another,
which aroused my interest much more strongly, was a photo-
graph of two small fragments of limestone bearing Phoenician
characters. Regarding these Dr. Moulton wrote, that they are

1 Concluding, of course, that the ם was carved by mistake instead of ג.
The mistake is an extremely easy one in the Phoenician alphabet. The
overlined letters are those which must have occupied the space (now
blank) at the beginning of the first line on the large fragment.

2 Schröder, cited by Winckler, l. c., reads (or conjectures?) ג at this
point.
now in the museum of the Syrian Protestant College in Beirut, whither they were brought at the same time with the Bod-‘Aštart inscription. They are of the same limestone as the larger pieces, but have not been supposed to be related to them in any way. One of the two fragments contains the letters יבצ and part of the following ש; the two letters on the other Dr. Moulton thought might be מ". I subjoin a reproduction of his photograph; the fountain-pen leaning against one of the fragments serves to show their size.¹ It was at once plain to me—and I

think no one will dispute the conclusion—that these are pieces of the missing fragment. The one containing the word יבצ originally joined immediately on to the beginning of line 2 (where the end of the letter ש is still plainly to be seen!); the other, containing the letters מ" (not מ"), joined immediately on to the beginning of line 3, the letters forming the latter part of the word

¹ Unfortunately, the stones were photographed in the shadow; and as the letters have lost much of their distinctness in the process of reproduction in half-tone, the result is not very satisfactory, even in the best impressions from the plate. Still, the practised eye will generally be able to make out every one of the characters.
It will be seen from the photograph, and from the drawing which I append, that the Phoenician characters of these two small fragments are exactly the same, in form and size, as those of the main inscription. No one will be surprised that the pieces do not exactly fit on to the larger stone; it would be a miracle if they did, in view of the rough handling which the original block must have received. The strange thing is that any part of the shattered end should have been preserved. It is possible, of course, that pieces were purposely broken off, and reduced in size, by the workmen who found the stone, with the aim of making as many separate ‘inscriptions’—and thus as much money—as possible. This has often been done, to the sorrow of archaeologists.

The complete inscription, restored with the aid of the new material, reads as follows. Letters supplied by conjecture I have enclosed in square brackets; those which are indistinct have a dot above.

ملך בּרַשְׁחֵרַת מלך צַדְּהָנָה, בּ זָדִיקוּדָה מלך מְלָך,
[מִלך] צַדָּה, בּוּ בּוּ מֶלֶךְ אֶשְׁמְעֶהוּ מלך צַדְּהָנָה.
אָסָּמֶנ בּוּ אָסָּשְׁנָדָה נֶבֶר, בּוּ בּוּ נַלְאַחֲלֵו לַשְׁמָנֶה וּלְשָׁמֶנֶה שָׁר קְרֵי.

"The king, Bod-‘Astart, king of the Sidonians, son of Sedeq-yaton, king of kings, king of the Sidonians, and grandson of the king Eshmun‘azar, king of the Sidonians: he who built this house; he built it for his god, Edmun, the Holy Lord."

Line 1. The head of the ד in זַדָּה is fairly distinct in the photograph. Not one of the preceding letters can be made out, as the stone is badly damaged here. The first letter on this fragment was probably the ד in עִשְּמַרַה.

The name Sedeq-yaton, "Sedeq gave," is itself interesting. This is the plainest instance, thus far, of the use of זַדָּה (the

\[1\] I have substituted 𕃑 for the 𕃑 of the original.
The names רֵעָיו and יִבְנֵיו are well known. From the difficulty of finding any satisfactory etymology for the name of the god רַעַע, one is tempted to conjecture that it is merely an abbreviated form of רַעַע.
not have stood at the end of line 1; its presence there would have made the line much too long in proportion.

The ב in the firstונד is practically certain. Both ends of the letter are preserved.

Line 3. I do not see how there can be any doubt as to the way of beginning this line. Compare especially the second inscription published by Berger, where the ה הנב at the end must have been preceded (and governed) by the verb ב. See above, page 213.

I may perhaps be permitted to call attention to the way in which this inscription supports my division and interpretation of the other. The clause מות אל in ... ב is omitted bodily, and the bare possibility that מות might have been construed with ב כ, instead of with what precedes, is thus finally removed. The fact that there is a pause after י, and that ה הנב is governed by the preceding verb, not by the following, appears as plainly here as in the second Paris inscription (which ends with the word י). And finally, the omission of the word-complex יהנש here shows that whatever it contained was of only minor importance (as my former translation also regarded it). That it could not have contained the name Sidon seems to be beyond question.

Postscript. The above was already in type when the Revue Biblique for July, 1903, containing Lagrange's "Nouvelle note sur les inscriptions du temple d'Echmoun," pp. 410-419, came into my hands. Lagrange offers some new suggestions relative to the interpretation of the Bod-Assur inscription, and then appends a brief discussion of the new member of the series, the restoration of which I have attempted above. He gives the text of Schröder, supposing the inscription to be complete at the right hand, and to have begun with the words יבכ: but appreciates the great difficulties which attend this reading, and states forcibly the chief among them. He gives interesting and important extracts from a letter written by Schröder, who has examined the stone itself. Two sentences in particular, regarding the doubtful characters in the first line, call for special comment. After remarking that the first distinct letter is י, Schröder proceeds: "Elle est précédée par un trait qui ne
peut être que la haste du tau, lettre finale du nom בְּרֶנֶר
fondateur du temple d’ Echmoun.” And a little further on:
“Sur la photographie de l’inscription . . . . . on voit entre le
waw et la haste du מ final du nom de Bodachtoreth un trait qui
peut induire en erreur les savants qui n’ont pas vu la pierre ni
l’empreinte en papier de l’inscription.” With all respect for
the authority of so experienced and careful a witness as Dr.
Schröder, and with due appreciation of the fact that I have
seen neither the stone itself nor a squeeze of the inscription,
I must nevertheless record my own conviction that the shaft

("haste") of the letter in question is not that of a מ. In both
of the photographs in my possession the line is distinctly curved
(precisely as I have drawn it), forming the exact counterpart,
in both shape and length, of the shaft of the מ which follows in
the word מ. Would Schröder have thought of the letter מ
here if it had not been for the supposed necessity of filling this
space with the name Bod-‘Astart? As for the misleading line
"between the מ and the shaft of the מ" against which he
warns us, it is plainly to be seen in one of the two photographs
which I have. It forms the downward continuation of the
upper vertical stroke of the ḫ (though swerving slightly from its direction), and ends at a point about half-way between the middle points of the shafts of the ḫ and the ū. It is so evidently the result of accident that I omitted it in my fac-simile, and chose, for the sake of caution, to leave the upper stroke of the ḫ unfinished. That I was right in so doing seems now to be proved by Schröder's valuable testimony.