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4	Same, Same, But Differer	nt?	4
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5	A Cognitive Analysis of a	n Early Christian	5
6	Apotropaic Amulet		6
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10	Abstract: P.Oslo.5 is an apotropaic amulet from 4	th or 5th century Egypt combin-	10
11	ing traditional, Greco-Egyptian ritual elements wi	th seemingly Christian elements.	11
12	Here, I present and use Jesper Sørensen's adaptation	- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	12
13 14	and ritual development, to explore how tradition Christian influence. My analysis shows how, on the		13 14
15	P.Oslo.5 works to align its Christian and Greco-Egy		15
16	hand the Christian elements retain some distinguis	hing traits. P.Oslo.5, then, demon-	16
17	strates a dynamic between ritual compression offere		17 18
18	to this offered by the respective cultural background		
19 20	Keywords: Amulet; ritual; blending theory; cogniti Antiquity.	ve theory; early Christianity; Late	19 20
21	Introduction		21
41	introduction		21
22	Last year Theodore de Bruyn published a ma		22
23	amulets from Egypt that contain some sort		23
24	building on his 2011 survey together with Jitse	,	24
25	lished cases (2011). While continuing the	0.1	25
26 27	amulet practice evidenced elsewhere in the (26
27 28	these amulets also include litanies or prayers references to Christ's miracles in the Gospels		27 28
29	180–81). One of these amulets is P.Oslo.5 (inv		29
30	rus acquired by Samson Eitrem in Egypt son		30
31	later published with A. Fridrichsen (1921). It of		31
32	tation to bind the artemisian scorpion and p	•	32
33	calling on a range of deities and powers, inclu		33
34	richsen were enthused by this example of "M	ischung von Heidnischen und	34
35	Christlichem" [mixture of Pagan and Christi	[an] (1921: 27), and concluded	35

that "offenbar liegt hier der Fall vor, dass eine altbewährte heidnische Beschwörungsformel durch einen christlichen Zusatz erweitert worden ist" [Apparently the case here is that a well-tried pagan incantation has been extended by a Christian addition] (1921: 23).3 Now, this "Mischung" in the *PGM* is nothing new. Numerous studies have addressed the apparent paradox of Christian amulets and magic in

the face of repeated condemnation and ridicule from Christian authori-ties.4 Many agree with Walter Shandruk that in the PGM "efficacy was drawn from any source that the practitioner deemed as having legitimate power" (2012: 33),5 yet others point out cases where amulets seem to draw on Christian tradition and practice.⁶ This apparent conflict, between cases with seemingly liturgical elements and others that invoke Jesus as just one powerful being among many others, mirrors a rough division among scholars between those who speak of Christian amulets and those who do not. Yet, in recent years, studies have begun to question this dichotomy in the field, seeking to nuance the discussion and understanding of the differ-ent elements and figures in the ancient amulets. They seek to "move beyond simply labeling elements based on their presumed historical or linguistic origins to consider the fluctuating nature of religious idioms and commu-nal boundaries" (Boustan and Sanzo 2017: 219). In de Bruyn's recent mono-graph, for instance, he engages with different levels of text structure and idiom to trace different degrees of Christian influence (2017), and Ra'anan Boustan and Joseph E. Sanzo, for their part, look at an incantation's rheto-ric of indigenization and exoticization when dealing with elements hail-ing from different religious traditions and cultures (2017).7 Here, I want to enlist a ritual theory developed from the growing arsenal of cognitive culture studies in this endeavour to nuance and expand the understanding of how Christian, and other, elements were employed and combined in late antique amulets. And with its "Mischung von Heidnischen und Christli-chem", P.Oslo.5 is an excellent test case.

Since Thomas E. Lawson and Robert N. McCauley's Rethinking Religion from 1990, cognitive theories have been a growing part of the study of reli-gious ritual. Important contributions include Illka Pyysiäinen's Magic, Mir-acles and Religion (2004), Harvey Whitehouse's Modes of Religiosity (2004), as well as Lawson and McCauley's own work (1990/2002). In this article I take up Jesper Sørensen's A Cognitive Theory of Magic (2007),8 where he develops an analytical model for understanding rituals and ritual develop-ment based on blending theory; an approach developed by Gilles Faucon-nier and Mark Turner to map and understand the cognitive formation of ideas and concepts (1998: 2002).9 Sørensen's model explores how the human

mind appreciates ritual efficacy, and through the analysis he discusses what

1	features and elements a ritual must have, and how they should interact, to	1
2	be considered efficacious. This makes it an attractive analytical model for	2
3	my purposes, since it will help me to highlight the features and elements in	3
4	P.Oslo.5 that contribute to its efficacy, which in turn will help me to assess	4
5	the role and importance of the apparently Christian features versus the tra-	5
6	ditional, Greco-Egyptian elements in the amulet. Several studies already	6
7	use cognitive theory to explore religion and ritual in Late Antiquity,10 and	7
8	others have used blending theory to examine rituals as described in literary	8
9	texts, ¹¹ but this is a first attempt to use Sørensen's ritual theory to examine	9
10	an actual amulet from the <i>PGM</i> . As such, my results may inform not only	10
11	the debate on Christian and/or Greco-Egyptian elements in late antique	11
12	amulets, but also the use and applicability of cognitive ritual theory on	12
13	historical artefacts.	13
14	P.Oslo.5	14
15	P.Oslo.5 is a small, rectangular papyrus that measures 10 by 16 cm, and its	15
16	lines show that it has been folded several times, which is typical for papyrus	16
17	amulets (Wessely 1974: 422). In the first publication Eitrem dates it to the	17
18	4th century, from its uncial writing and the symbols at the end – arguing	18
19	that the $A\dagger\Omega$ and the $IX\Theta Y\Sigma$ is common from the 4th century onwards	19
20	(Eitrem and Fridrichsen 1921: 3). In the debates following the publication	20
21	by these scholars, other scholars found parallels with later papyri, and	21
22	pointed out the difficulties of dating early Christian symbols (Peterson	22
23	1923: 135), so the dating was changed to the 5th or 6th century (Eitrem	23
24	and Amundsen 1925: 21). I use Marvin Meyer's translation of P.Oslo.5, and	24
25	refer interested readers to his publication for the Greek text and for further	25
26	discussion of the philological features of the papyrus (Meyer, Smith and	26
27	Kelsey 1994: 49–50). There is little controversy regarding the reading and	27
28	translation of this text since it is almost uncommonly legible, indeed de	28
29	Bruyn writes that the papyrus is distinguished both by its regular script	29
30	and correct orthography (2017: 96), and there are almost no lacunae. There	30
31	are a few differences in the transcriptions and translations offered in the	31
32 33	other publications, listed in note 2, but these are negligible.	32 33
34	1. CH M G.	34
35	2. Hor Hor Phor Phor, Yao Sabaoth Adonai, Eloe, Salaman, Tarchei	35
36	3. I bind you, artemisian scorpion, 315 times. Preserve this house	36
37	4. With its occupants from all evil, from all bewitchment of spirits of	37
38	the air and human (evil) eye	38
39	5. And terrible pain [and] sting of scorpion and snake, through the	39

1	6. Name of the highest god, Naias Meli, 7 (times) (?), XUROURO	1
2	AAAAAA 7. BAINCHOOOCH MARIII III L ENAG KORE. Be on guard, O	2
4	Lord, son of	4
5	8. David according to the flesh, the one born of the holy virgin	5
6	9. Mary, O holy one, highest god, from the holy spirit. Glory to you,	6
7	10. O heavenly king. Amen. (signs)	
8	101 & neavenry king. Finien (orgin)	7 8
9	The text opens with the acronym $XM\Gamma$, which is thought to stand for	9
10	the invocatory phrase "Mary gives birth to Christ" (Χριστὸν Μαρία γεννῷ),	10
11	known both from other amulets and from letters and documentary papyri	11
12	(Choat 2006: 115). Lines 2–6 are intriguing, as they are a variation of an	12
13	apparently well-established incantation for protection found in a number	13
14	of amulets from Oxyrhynchus. ¹² De Bruyn discusses how this must have	14
15	been a common protective text that takes up a number of apotropaic ele-	15
16	ments (2017: 90-93): The opening, phonetic words may be a reference	16
17	to Horus (Eitrem and Fridrichsen 1921: 9), and the subsequent string of	17
18	Jewish divine names in line 2 were an apotropaic commonplace in the	18
19	PGM (Bohak 2008: 306). The artemisian scorpion is the main antagonist in	19
20	all these amulets, but is not known from other sources. Eitrem suggests that	20
21	it comes from Artemis' protection of wild animals, or possibly her identifi-	21
22	cation with Hecate (Eitrem and Fridrichsen 1921: 12–13), but most scholars	22
23	are content to see it as a variation on the period's practice of seeing demons	23
24	in the guise of harmful creatures (Frankfurter 2015: 11–13), as done also in	24
25	line 5 here.	25
26	Following the sequence of so-called <i>voces magicae</i> ¹³ in lines 6–7, most	26
27	of the suggested Christian material occurs in lines 7–10. Eitrem and Frid-	27
28	richsen suggest that this is an addition to the traditional formula, possibly	28
29	borrowed from liturgy (1921: 28) – but I have not been able to find any	29
30	parallels in contemporary liturgical sources. Still, the elaborate epithet in	30
31	lines 7–9, which describes the Lord as "Son of David according to the flesh",	31
32	echoes Romans 1:3 and Christ's birth by the Virgin and Spirit seems to	32
33	evoke the Niceno-Constantinopolitan creed of 381. The doxology in lines	33
34	9–10 also uses Christian imagery, and there are of course the sequence of	34
35	crosses and alpha-omega monograms at the end. In his discussion of the	35
36	amulet, de Bruyn points to how these symbols compare with contemporary	36
37	Christian iconography from tombstones and various gems, and also argues	37
38	that the epithet and doxology "would have resonated with the Alexandrian	38
39	Christology of the Egyptian church" (2017: 95). "The combination of these	39
40	elements with a customary incantation exposes the manifold ways in which	40
41	an incantation or a scribe might have been shaped by the surrounding	41

Christian culture", de Bruyn proceeds (2017: 97), confirming Eitrem and Fridrichsen's initial proposal of a Christian addition to a traditional core. Now, there are no means to verify conclusively that the symbols and the epithet are not simply the opportunistic use of powerful, available ritual elements, as the Jewish divine names in line 2. The criteria that de Bruyn uses to suggest otherwise, as I relay above, is that the incantation in lines 7-10 display both a *structure* (doxological) and an *idiom* (Christological) that point to a Christian setting.¹⁴ Indeed, I also reach a similar conclu-sion if I use criteria proposed by other new contributors to the debate on late antique amulets. Gideon Bohak, for instance, argues that the potential reference of elements must be assessed by their context in the respective incantations; are they presented as "independent and powerful entities with their own myths, rituals and iconography" or are they "mere words of power" (2008: 257)? In P.Oslo.5 there are clear traces of both Christol-ogy and Christian soteriology, alongside the iconographical features of the symbols, which then also by Bohak's criteria suggests a Christian reference or background for this amulet. Therefore, although one cannot conclude with any certainty what references or intentions lay behind the elements in a late antique amulet, I find that there are strong enough indications of Christian influence in lines 7-10 to proceed with my exploration of how Christian elements came to be used and integrated with traditional, Greco-Egyptian apotropaic practice in P.Oslo.5.

Finally, there are important theoretical debates, for instance surround-ing the concept of syncretization, that problematize comparative investiga-tions into the combination of and interaction between different religious 2.5 elements and traditions in cultural expressions; because such studies imply that there are original, undiluted religious elements and traditions (Martin 2000). The debates have pointed to the many pitfalls of this underlying implication, and its modernist, Eurocentric heritage, and, although some still use the term syncretization, most scholars agree that all human/cul-tural expression of tradition or religion are always contextual negotiations between a number of factors and influences (Leopold and Jensen 2004). Indeed, this criticism for dealing with ideal-types has ridden comparative studies of religion for some time, and there is really no definitive solution to this - some degree of abstraction and categorization will necessarily take place in a comparative study (Smith 1982). The answer, then, has been to compare with ever-greater stringency, and with an awareness of pre-cisely the abstraction and categorization that comparative analysis entails (Stausberg 2011). I see this answer also in the aforementioned, recent con-tributions to the study of late antique amulets, where de Bruyn, Bohak, Boustan, Sanzo, and others, explore the material with explicitly discussed and assessed criteria for categorizing the different elements found. As my
 discussion above shows, I build on their work here and aim to carry their
 analytical rigour and transparency over into my analysis.

Blending Theory

"Conceptual integration, which we also call *conceptual blending*, is another basic mental operation, highly imaginative but crucial to even the simplest kinds of thought" (Fauconnier and Turner 2002: 18). Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner started developing blending theory in 1993, basing their work on George Lakoff and Mark Johnson's influential conceptual metaphor theory from 1980. Lakoff and Johnson argue that metaphor is a mode of thinking, not just rhetorical embellishment, and they point to the classical metaphor *life is a journey* as an example: this is not simply a literary analogy, but a conceptualization that carries a comparison and contrasting of the notions of life and journey (i.e. having a beginning, an end and, possibly, a goal) that is used to comprehend the situation or phenomenon at hand (Fau-connier and Turner 2002: 35). Fauconnier and Turner recognize such oppor-tunistic combination of different concepts or notions in all human meaning formation and argue that it is a key cognitive process. Then they proceed to describe how this process of conceptual integration may be mapped out in what they call a conceptual integration network. A basic network consists of, first, two input spaces, for instance life and journey. These input spaces are then related through a generic space, which holds the relevant common traits of the two input spaces (a beginning, an end, movement, etc.). Finally, this combination of the two input spaces, through the generic space, forms a new, blended space, where the metaphor life is a journey occurs as a new emergent structure that may in turn function as an input space in a new conceptual blend (Fauconnier and Turner 1998: 182).

As a model the description of a basic conceptual blend is of course schematic, and there are numerous variations and adjustments for each blend. Fauconnier and Turner, however, formulate and describe two key principles that determine how a blend "runs"; that is, what contacts and exchanges are made between the different spaces in a blend. First, there are certain optimality principles that describe conditions under which the blend works most efficiently. A successful blend should compress what is diffuse; help obtain global insight; strengthen vital relations; and finally go from many to one (Fauconnier and Turner 2002: 312). Fauconnier and Turner observe that a typical way of meeting these optimality principles is for the blend to be compressed to human scale (2002: 312), for instance

as when God in Western, Christian traditions is conceptualized as Father

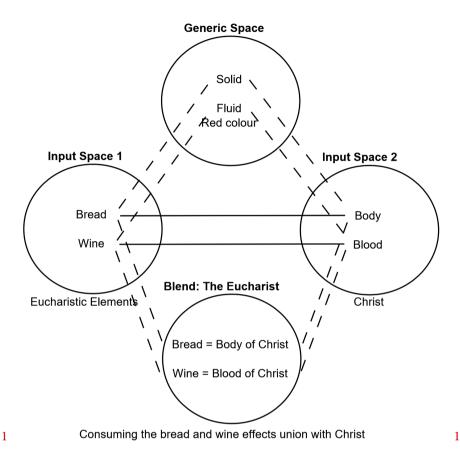


Figure 1. A further example of a conceptual integration network, explaining the Eucharist 2 as a cognitive blend. From Images of Rebirth. Cognitive Poetics and Transformational Soteriology in the Gospel of Philip and the Exegesis on the Soul by Hugo Lundhaug (Brill 2010, 4 418). Reproduced with permission. 5

or King. Then, there is the topology principle, which describes conditions that oppose conceptual blending. Topology refers to existing conceptual 7 frame(s) in input spaces, and the topology principle describes an inherent 8 resistance against blending "that eliminates important topology" (Fau-9 connier and Turner 2002: 328). To return to God, he may be brought into 10 human scale as Father or King, but rarely as an insect or a drainpipe as this 11 would violate important topology. Hence, a blend will always function as 12 12 a balancing act between the topology principle and the optimality princi-13 13 ples, which together create the dynamic that guides a blend's conceptual 14 14 15 integration. 15

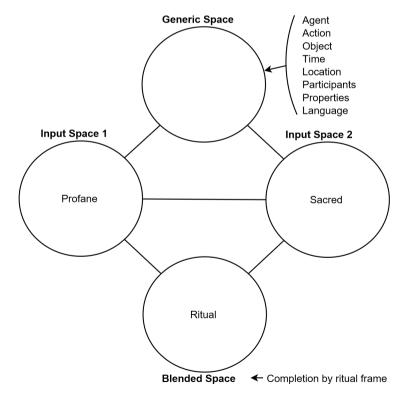
Ritual Blending

1

Sørensen builds, as many students of ritual do, on the basic premise offered by John L. Austin's speech-act theory, 15 and considers rituals "special kinds 3 3 of speech-acts, believed to establish or create a desired state of affairs" 4 4 (2007: 68). He takes up Fauconnier and Turner's work to argue that the 5 5 human appreciation of ritual efficacy can be mapped out or explained as, 6 precisely, conceptual blending. A ritual, according to him, is a conceptual blend that blends a profane and a sacred domain (the two input spaces), and it is efficacious when the actions in the profane space are allowed to 9 9 influence the sacred space (Sørensen 2007: 63–64). 16 "[T]he aim is to change 10 10 schematic aspects of entities belonging to one domain by manipulating 11 11 entities belonging to another domain" (Sørensen 2013: 234). To keep with 12 12 the example from Figure 1, the rites of the Eucharist blends wine and bread 13 13 from the profane space with the body and blood of Christ from the sacred 14 14 space to form the ritually efficacious Host. 15

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17 Figure 2. The Generic Blend. From A Cognitive Theory of Magic by Jesper Sørensen
 18 (AltaMira Press 2007, 75). Reproduced with permission.

17

Sørensen continues, detailing that the traits connecting the sacred and the profane domains, shown in the generic space, centre on the guestion of magical agency (2007: 65), and based on various anthropological studies of ritual practices he finds that the most common types of magical agency are agent-based agency, action-based agency, and object-based agency (2007: 73). 17 Turning again to the Eucharist as an example, magical agency here comes through two avenues; agent-based agency constituted by the priest blessing the gifts in persona Christi and action-based agency in its recreation of the Last Supper (Sørensen 2007: 86).

To supplement and make Fauconnier and Turner's observations on the relations between input spaces relevant for ritual, Sørensen turns to Charles S. Peirce's theory of semiotics. In brief, Peirce argues that objects are appreciated as signs, and that a sign is interpreted through an interplay between three properties of the sign:

a. icon, likeness or appearance;

b. index, factual connection;

c. symbol, its formal/cultural meaning (see Sørensen 2007: 54–59).

Applied to a ritual blend; the Eucharistic wine appears similar to blood (icon), it is factually connected to Christ by the liturgy (index) and the repetition of this in turn makes blood and wine connected in culture (symbol). Sørensen then proceeds to argue that it is the indexical and/or iconic, and not the symbolic, properties that determine what is projected into the blended space. "Spells and magical formulas are a certain type of speechact almost devoid of direct reference and communicative effect [symbolic understanding]" (Sørensen 2007: 87). He claims that, from various studies of ritual use and behaviour, there is in fact a direct negative correlation between "the degree of interpretation of a ritual [symbolic understanding] and representation of ritual efficacy" (Sørensen 2013: 237). In other words, it is the colour and texture of wine and blood that facilitate their blend in the Eucharist, not their symbolic or referential understanding (wine as a beverage and blood as part of the human body).

Still, Sørensen adds, the human need to organize and interpret phenom-ena symbolically works against this tendency (2007: 180). The symbolic meaning of wine and blood may be downplayed in the Eucharist, but it also contributes to its religious and cultural interpretation. It is, after all, the symbolic understanding of both wine and blood that renders them relevant and poignant for use in a ritual. Therefore, the twin pull of icon/index and symbol result in a dynamic process that Sørensen argues is a driving force in religious innovation (2007: 180): first, the emphasis on iconic and indexi-cal features in ritual opens for new contexts and/or alignments. Then, these new ritual alignments, which by then have become incongruous to their former symbolic interpretation, provoke new symbolic interpretation. 18 As

17

2.2.

agent (see figure 3). It is projected from the profane space only, with no related event or being in the sacred space. This, of course, also means that it does not convey magical agency into the blend. However, the act mentioned in the text, the binding, can be connected to a counterpart in the sacred

First, the I of the sentence is projected into the ritual/blend space as ritual

space and thereby convey magical agency, since binding is a common term

- and notion for taking control over supernatural beings in late antique amu-
- lets (Wessely 1974: 423; Ciraolo 1995: 280). Being controlled can therefore 2
- be formulated as a counterpart in the sacred domain, and it connects to the 3
- profane domain through its iconic properties to bind. As it is an action, it 4
- provides action-based agency mirrored in the generic space. 5

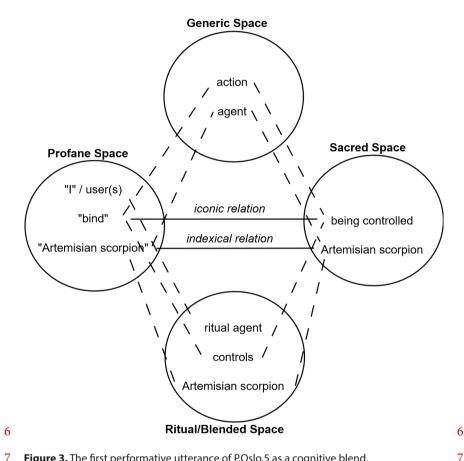


Figure 3. The first performative utterance of P.Oslo.5 as a cognitive blend.

Finally, there is the artemisian scorpion, which is the audience of the per-8 formative utterance, or the ritual's object. It is a demonic figure, thereby 9 originating from the sacred domain and it is implicated in the blend 10 10 through the utterance of its name in the profane space. Writing a deity's 11 11 name is a potent appeal to the deity (Levy 2013: 104). Remembering Peirce's 12 12 definition that indexes are factual connections, a name is a typical indexical 13 13 relation since it is something applied to the sign and asserted by external 14 15 rules. Here, this means that the artemisian scorpion is included in the ritual 15 blend, connecting the sacred and the profane input spaces and thus providing agent-based agency mirrored in the generic space. All this is then
projected into the ritual or blended space, which produces the emergent
structure wherein the user(s), as ritual agent, can exert power over the artemisian scorpion.

b. The Second Utterance

The second performative act, implied by the imperative be on guard, shares some traits with the first, but there are also differences between the two (see Fig. 4). To begin with, the only actual utterance here is Lord, the ritual object. However, I expand it based on Austin's assertion about imperatives, and thereby have the performative utterance I ask/order/appeal to you to be on guard Lord... in the profane space. As in the first performative act, the ritual agent here is the user(s), and he/she/they are implicitly projected into the ritual space from the profane space without a counterpart in the sacred space. However, differently from the first act, also the action here stands with-out a direct connection to the sacred space. While the first utterance implied a direct change in the sacred space, by binding the artemisian scorpion, the second utterance does not bring about a direct change in the audience. This, according to John R. Searle's development of speech-act theory, is the

difference between a *perlocutionary* and an *illocutionary* speech-act: both are performative utterances, but only the former causes a direct change in the utterance's audience while the former does not (Holdcroft 1994: 350). Hence, the second utterance here differs from the first, suggesting that this supposed Christian addition works somewhat differently than the first. The only connection, then, between the sacred and the profane spaces in

this second blend is through object-based agency. The audience, or ritual object, in the profane space here is *Lord*, whom we know by the indexical relation asserted in the epithet and doxology in lines 7–10 to be Christ, thereby making Christ the sacred space counterpart. Through this identification there is a connection between the sacred and the profane domains, creating a basis for the blend. However, this second utterance is different from the first in that the ritual object is the only provider of agency, making Christ the only conveyor of ritual efficacy. This simple fact of having one instead of two connections can signify a weaker blend in the second act, indicating a greater distance between the two input spaces and possibly also a weaker efficacy for the ritual.

This could bring us back to the aforementioned point that the utterance is not perlocutionary, which may invite the traditional differentiation between magic as coercion and prayer as supplication (Harari 2005: 111)

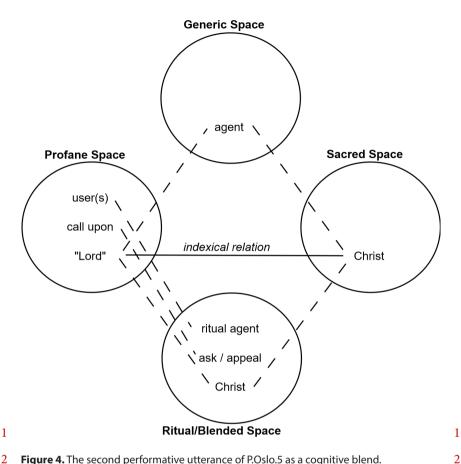


Figure 4. The second performative utterance of P.Oslo.5 as a cognitive blend.

into the discussion: the second utterance, by not being perlocutionary, is more like a prayer, while the first utterance is magical coercion. However, as the analytical value of the category prayer has been found to be limited, 5 and its use disputed, in studies of ancient amulets (Graf 1991), I will not 6 venture into this here. Yet, the difference between the two utterances in P.Oslo.5 is nevertheless interesting. Realizing that Christology was a com-8 plex matter in those centuries, the second utterance can be understood to 9 show that the topology behind the Christian sacred space does not allow for 10 10 any active agent other than Christ, and no other agent or force should con-11 11 trol him. This is, then, a notable difference between the first and the second 12 12 performative utterances, as the topology of the first performative utterance 13 13 appears to include a hierarchy, or even hierarchies, of divine beings in the 14 14 sacred space (implied by the fact that beings here may be controlled). Of 15 15

course, any reconstruction of a full theology or pantheon from a single, small amulet is doomed to fail. Still, my analysis suggests that there are some differences in the ritual blending of the first and second utterances, and furthermore that these differences stem from topological constraints within the sacred domains. This, in turn, confirms the observations made by de Bruyn and others that P.Oslo.5 seems to have a more than fleeting appreciation of Christian worship. However, the analysis does not yet show how these two different utterances still can come together and form an efficacious, ritual whole.

c. Both Utterances Together

On the one hand, these are two distinct utterances, and one could simply say that they are the products of two different ritual traditions brought together on one piece of papyrus, without any more thought or considera-tion of the matter. However, on the other hand, having these utterances together on the same piece of papyrus does place them in some form of relation to each other. The two utterances are not separated by any lines or marks on the papyrus; the text is continuous and appears as one whole. Hence, the two utterances should be considered in some relation to each other, and I therefore bring them together and analyse them as one concep-tual integration network:

Here we can see that, on the one hand, the utterances are structurally similar. They share the basic structure agent - action(s) - object in the profane space, and this is projected into the ritual/blended space. Second, ritual agency is in both cases ascribed to the blend by the implication of a being from the sacred space, as the object of the utterance. On the other hand, the sacred spaces appear to have different topology principles, with the agency in Blended Space 2 coming only through Christ, while the agency in Blended Space 1 comes both from the $artemisian\ scorpion$ and the ritual action. Hence, the structure of the utterances works towards the ritual blend, while the different topology principles counter this blending. P.Oslo.5 then works in a dynamic between the blending tendencies of the ritual's emergent structure and the restraining topology from the Christian sacred domain.

At first, I was hesitant to use the two performative acts as input spaces for a new blended space, since the above dynamic creates a quite weak blend. As the model shows, the two blended spaces can only be brought together in an overarching blend by taking up the two very large and open concepts *interaction(s)* and *deities*. Such wide concepts are symptomatic of a weak blend, begging the question of whether there is any blending taking

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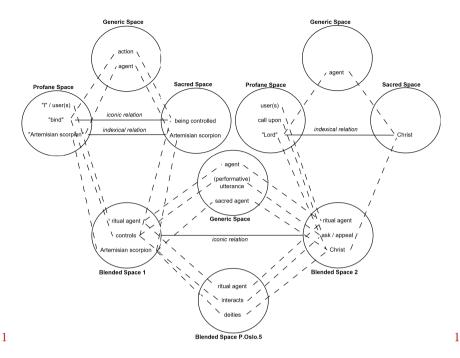


Figure 5. A blend of both utterances in P.Oslo.5.

which facilitates an iconic relation between the two blended spaces and 4 4 may thereby start a new integration network and emergent structure, I 5 argue that there is such a thing, even if it is a weak blend. In fact, I think 6 6 that the weakness of this overarching blend may be an important factor. 7 On the one hand, the iconic connection between the ritual structures in the 8 two utterances puts the artemisian scorpion and Christ on a par with each 9 other, echoing earlier studies that find Christ to be just another powerful 10 10 figure in the diverse repertoire of the PGM. On the other hand, my analysis 11 11 shows that the blend is weak, suggesting there is a topological restraint here 12 12

place at all. Now, with the blending provided by the structural similarity,

14 Conclusion 14

that links with the symbolic interpretation of the different elements.

In the end P.Oslo.5 is a weak ritual blend that includes both topological dif ference and ritual blending in spite of this. In fact, this situation illustrates
 precisely Sørensen's argument that rituals develop in a dynamic between
 iconic and indexical properties on the one hand, and symbolic properties

on the other. Here, it is the iconic similarities in the ritual structure that compares Christ with the artemisian scorpion, while their symbolic interpretation, present and manifest in their respective domains, resist this comparison and the blend it facilitates. Thus, Sørensen's approach con-tributes to the discussion, driven by de Bruyn, Sanzo, and others, of how traditional, Greco-Egyptian apotropaic practice negotiates Christian influ-ence and context. In fact, my observations compare with de Bruyn's recent study, where he finds that the most common use of Christian elements in the PGM follow traditional, Greco-Egyptian ritual structure, but use a Christian idiom, known also from other sources (2017). Through Sørens-en's cognitive ritual theory I am able to map and appreciate the dynamics of these processes of negotiation and ritual development. The results add fur-ther nuance to the debate on influence and interaction in late antique apo-tropaic practices, underscoring that the old dichotomy that saw Christian elements in amulets as either defining or as emptied of religious signifi-cance is obsolete, and the analysis is done with a methodological transpar-ency that clearly shows the abstractions and categorizations imposed on the source material. Certainly, more work is required, for instance testing the theory on other historical material; on other amulets from the PGM; and perhaps also on what constitutes a domain and which criteria go into establishing that. And this should be done, since there is potential in the model for mapping and analysing the composition and developmental dynamics of complex ritual corpora like the *PGM*.

Endnotes

1. Nils Hallvard Korsvoll's is **give title**. His research interests include ritual and magic in Late Antiquity, popular religion, ritual theory, cognitive theory, and cross-cultural interaction. In his doctoral dissertation, Korsvoll explores the distribution and use of apparently Christian elements in Syriac amulets from Late Antiquity (2017).

2. As pagan is no longer an adequate description, *Greek*, *Greco-Roman*, *Greco-Egyptian* and *Hellenistic* are among the adjectives used to describe the content of the *PGM*. I follow David Frankfurter's use of *Greco-Egyptian*, but then as something "which I understand broadly as a pan-Mediterranean phenomenon" (Frankfurter 1994: 190).

3. For further publications on P.Oslo.5, see de Bruyn (2017: 94-96); Preisendanz (1977/2001: 210-11); Meyer, Smith and Kelsey (1994: 49-51); Wessely (1974: 422); Aland (1976: 428).

4. E.g. de Bruyn (2017); Aune (1980); Janowitz (2002); Graf (2002); Frankfurter (1998); Brakke (2006).

38 5. E.g. Czachesz (2007); Bohak (2008: 229–30; 2003: 71–73); Boustan and Sanzo (2017: 39 226–29).

6. E.g. Bovon (2001); de Bruyn (2010); Twelftree (2007).

7. For further contributions to this discussion, see Bohak 2008: 284; Otto 2013: 339–41; 41 Ronis 2015; Boustan and Beshay 2015.

- 8. Sørensen argues for the continued use of *magic* as an analytical category: "The primary problem is not the overestimation of representations of direct ritual efficacy among 'the Other' (whether in present-day Congo or ancient Rome), but the radical underestimation of representations of such efficacy in the Protestant West" (2013: 230–31). He thus turns the criticism of the term *magic*, which argues that so-called magical acts can be equally well described as ritual (Smith 1995: 16), on its head by saying all forms of ritual include *magical agency*. In a recent summary of the debate on *magic* in Antiquity, Bernd-Christian Otto still points out some prevailing issues with the term *magic* (2013), so in my discussion I use the term *ritual*. However, I retain *magic* or *magical* when reporting from Sørensen's work.
- 9. Eve Sweetser (2000) also applies blending theory to ritual, in an article that outlines the main premises of what Sørensen is doing, but Sørensen's monograph develops the approach further than her article.
- 10. E.g. Martin (2003/2004); Uro (2007); Gragg (2004); Beck (2004); Ketola (2007); Biró (2013); Jokiranta (2013) and Czachesz (2013).
 - 11. E.g. Czachesz 2010; Lundhaug 2010; Robbins 2007.
- 12. P.Oxy. VIII 1152, P.Oxy. VII 1060, P.Oxy. XVI 2061-63. Only P.Oxy. VIII 1152 includes a brief invocation of Christ, while the others are without Christian elements. Although acquired in the Fayyum, the findspot of P.Oslo.5 is unknown, so it remains uncertain whether this formula was local to Oxyrhynchus or had a wider dispersion (de Bruyn 2017: 98).
- 20 13. Nonsensical words or phrases. The phenomenon permeates the *PGM*, see for instance 21 Gordon 2012. 21
 - 14. In his analysis of early Christian amulets, which I refer to in my introduction, de Bruyn launches precisely these two aspects as criteria for discussing how and to what extent an amulet is connected with on Christian tradition (2017: 1–16).
 - 15. Austin challenges the view that language is only representational, but rather points to several common instances where utterances do not only describe but actually bring about some sort of change of affairs, and are thus *performative* (Austin 1971). It has since been established that speech-act theory also applies to written utterances (Verschueren 1980: 3), such as the incantations in late antique amulets; in fact, some studies even suggest that a written form heightens the effect of a ritual, increasing its potency (Levy 2013: 106; Frankfurter 1994: 195).
- 31 16. What constitutes the sacred and what constitutes the profane domains of a conceptual 32 blend, asserts Sørensen, depends on historical and cultural circumstances (2007: 63–64). 32 17. Sørensen derives this tripartite structure from the same basic principles of Linguis-33
- 17. Sørensen derives this tripartite structure from the same basic principles of Linguistics as Lawson and McCauley do in their cognitive approach to ritual (Lawson and McCauley 1990; McCauley and Lawson 2002), but he understands and uses it differently, informed by observations from a range of anthropological studies.
 - 18. For instance, during the Protestant Reformation the absurdity of drinking Christ's actual blood was a favoured theme for attacks on the Catholic Church and it also motivated their new interpretations of the Eucharist.

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