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Greetings

The first in commences with a list of four general categories of damages: , , , : .
 “There are four categories of damages, namely; the ox, the pit, the *mave*, and the fire.” The spends much time attempting to define the exact meaning of and laws related to each of the categories. Another question to address, however, is the very order of their appearance in the .

" makes the following observation:

– ,

“In the order they are written in the so the orders them: the first (case of damages) is ‘the ox’ with ‘the pit’ second (and so forth).”

" ’s explanation, however, is perplexing. The case of “the pit” appears in " : " before the case of “the ox” in " : " ! It is possible " intends another case of ox - that being an ox that kills a human being, not merely one causing monetary damages. That case of ox indeed appears prior to the case of “the pit,” in " : " .

Rabbi Yaakov Nagen further points out that the , when discussing an ox goring a person and causing death uses the language , while when relating to an ox causing monetary damages to another animal uses . The , on the other hand, uses the language of exclusively for both cases. The Rabbis seem to be intentionally blurring the lines between the two types of animals.

Based on this insight I would like to suggest that the Rabbis intend to send us a message about the severity of the responsibility involved in a person guarding his animals from causing damage. By utilizing language that equates an animal causing damage to an animal that kills, the ox owner is left to conclude that, on some level, the offense is of similar weight. Of course the law expects and exacts more from an owner whose animal kills a person than from one whose animal only causes damages. Nonetheless, the order of the damages cases in the _____ and the interchangeable language regarding the offending animal sends the message that the responsibility of the owner to guard against damages should be taken as seriously as the need to guard one's ox from killing another human being. If this interpretation is valid, it is one more example of how our halachic texts transmit not only normative law but Jewish values as well.

The essays contributed by our students in our Masoret Akiva Torah Journal take the unobvious and, in addressing a particular question, provide us with understanding and resolution. Issues are drawn from the beginning of the first chapter of _____, the end of the second chapter, or the beginning of the third chapter. _____ to all our contributing students and to their teachers, Rabbi Stein and Rabbi Nemes. We also acknowledge the wonderful work of Rabbi Nemes in producing this 4th Volume of Masoret Akiva.

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With Torah Blessings,

Rabbi Scot A. Berman
Head of School

Introduction

When evaluating a situation of **damaging**, two questions typically need to be addressed: did the person commit a sin when causing damage, and is the person liable for the damage. In other words, is the obligation to pay for damage separate from the fact that damaging is **damaging**, which leads to the possibility that even though a person may not be responsible to pay for damage, the person still committed an **act** by damaging. Many commentators, including Rav Chaim Soloveitchik and Rav Yaakov Kanievsky, the Steipler, assume that causing damage is an **act** independent of one's responsibility to pay restitution. **Indirectly**, indirectly causing damage, may be **damaging**, but that does not mean it is **damaging**.

What emerges from this analysis is fundamental to how we approach **damaging**. The **act** is not merely a collection of laws which state if a person must pay or not; it is an all-encompassing guide to life. Even when a person is not required to pay, it does not mean they are permitted to harm someone else. By having this perspective, a person is always looking for the moral and ethical principles that can emerge from legal aspects of the **act**. While learning this year, we emphasized this point many times and looked for personal lessons we can extrapolate from the **act**'s tort system.

This work, the fourth volume of **damaging**, is a compilation of articles written by students in our Beit Midrash Program on **damaging** in **damaging**. Through diligently learning, reviewing, and writing **damaging**, our students have analyzed various topics relating to a person's responsibility toward another person's property. Our **act** to our dear **act** and **act** is as they continue to progress and grow intellectually in **damaging**, they should always look at the

personal lessons that emerge from the . and internalize them as they grow as

Rabbi Asher Nemes

Rabbi Noam Stein

Responsibility for Damage Caused by Property (.') Sima Stein ('21)

In the first in it talks about how there are four main categories of damages, , , , . A person is when they cause any of these; they are when they light a fire and it damages, or when they dig a pit and it damages someone or something, or when their (or other animal) damages. It would seem very obvious that one should be for damage that they cause directly, but what does not seem so obvious is that one should be when one's animal does damage; because one's animal doing damage is not the same as one directly doing damage.

The says . The common denominator between the is they naturally cause damage and the owner has to watch them. Meaning, one is when one's causes damage because one was responsible to properly guard their animal. The fact that the animal caused damage is a result of the owner's failure to properly guard.

The is that if one carefully guards their animal, and it causes damage anyway, then they are . Assuming the reason why one, in general, is for their animals' damage is because they were negligent in watching, then when one is not negligent and they did watch their animal but it still caused damage, one is simply automatically because there is no to begin with.

The in the opening of seems to understand why someone would be for damages that their animal causes in a different way than the . He says, meaning one is , when any animal one owns causes damage because it is that person's .

" , unlike the , does not focus specifically on . He says . Clearly, the obligation to watch an animal varies by animal. However, " is not focused on the obligation to watch the animal and the negligence involved in failing to do so. " understands the obligation much more broadly. One whose animal causes damage is simply responsible, because that animal is their property, and a person is responsible, no matter what, for what their property does.

The difficulty with this position is if one is simply because the animal belongs to them, then they should be even if they watched the animal appropriately. Presumably, however, one is nonetheless because if they have done everything reasonable to guard the animal, it is considered an for which the exempts the owner.

The opinion of and the view expressed in the seem to be similar to two different legal theories. One theory of damages is negligence, which corresponds to what the says, meaning one should have taken certain precautions because there were foreseeable consequences which makes one liable. And the other is strict liability, which seems to correspond with the , meaning one is liable for all damage even when there was no intention or negligence. One is simply because they are connected to their animal. These theories can help one further understand the differing opinions of the and the .

We can see in various places throughout the of , even in cases not involving damage caused by an animal, that the seems to be based on a strict negligence approach in which a person is regardless of negligence or intent. " says meaning a person is always considered forewarned, which means that they are regardless if it was their fault that they caused damage. This statement seems to correspond with the approach of , because one is not regardless of negligence.

Similarly, in a case cited as a source for the rule, the court says that an actor is liable for damages even when it was completely negligent. It would make more sense that this is true if we have a strict liability view of negligence. This corresponds with approach of the Restatement because it is saying that one is negligent even if it was completely negligent, and the whole idea that an actor is negligent even when completely negligent seems to make more sense if we have a strict liability view of negligence.

In contrast, the court quoted in the Restatement commenting on this rule seems to limit the absolute responsibility of the actor based on whether the actor was negligent. He says that only in a case in which the actor came to sleep next to an already sleeping person or went to sleep simultaneously with the other person, is the actor negligent, because the actor is considered negligent. This statement seems to correspond with the Restatement approach because the actor is negligent only because it was their responsibility to watch, and because they did not properly watch they are negligent.

Overall, it appears that both of these approaches play a role in creating the rule of negligence and, in learning the rule, one needs to pay careful attention to which source of law the rule is dealing with.

Subcategories of Damages (.’)

Ethan Adler (’19)

The first in starts off with talking about the four categories of damage: " , , , " The list is (Ox), (Pit), (Teeth, Person), (Fire). All of these things are considered , head categories. The says that since there are there must be , subcategories. An example of a and can be found in the category of . One of the ways an ox can damage is , or goring. This would be an . A of would be kicking. Both of them are intentional acts of damage and therefore one is the of the other. In some topics of , and are identical in their laws, but are the of similar to their ? The asks this question, and we will explain what it means to be “similar.”

The brings the concept of and in and proves that the are similar to their . There are 39 in , categories of forbidden actions, such as planting, each with , such as watering. The have the same prohibition and punishment as the . Then the brings the concept of and in and it proves that the are different than their . There are 3 , and each of the can make something else , but its which acquire from the , have a lower level of regarding what they can pass to. The asks “here what” regarding the of : are they similar to their or not? responds some are similar to their and some are not similar to their . is one of the of (ox). literally means tooth and is the category of an animal eating for its benefit. What is a of ? Two examples are an animal rubbing against a wall for benefit until the wall falls or rolling around on fruits for benefit, ruining the fruits. Since they are

both examples of the animal acting for benefit, they are of . is another . is placing a pit in public property. What is a of ? An example is a rock, knife, or package that are put in the public domain and cause damage. Since they are also hazards placed in public property, they are of . In both of these cases, the are legally similar to their . So in what case would the not be similar to the ? is the case of where the is not like the , because an owner is only obligated to pay , half damages for damage caused by . is where an ox kicks pebbles, causing damage to an object. The of is . is an within where an ox accidentally steps on something during its normal course of moving. Since the act of kicking the pebbles is also a result of the animal's normal course of motion, it is a subcategory of that category. That being the case, while one pays for full reimbursement in , one is only required to pay for half the damage by . Why is it a of if its reimbursement is not similar? In both the damager pays , from his own assets, even in excess of the value of the animal that caused the damage. So it essentially is a form of in both the form of damage as well as level of obligation with this one exception of how much to pay.

There are a few ways to understand the 's question of "are the similar to the ?" Under the of there are two categories, and . refers to an ox whose owner was not warned before it damaged since the animal does not have a history of damaging, while refers to an ox which has gored 3 times in the past and whose owner was warned about his animal's dangerous behavior. There is a difference between the liability of the owner in these two cases. A only pays for half of the damage caused, while the is responsible to pay for all of it. Using this distinction, the " in the beginning of understands the 's question as asking since we see that there is a distinction between and regarding how much you pay, is this distinction going to play out in the or not, meaning: if they are similar, for a of you

would pay like the **אדם** of **אדם** and for **אדם**, you would pay like the **אדם** of **אדם**. The **אדם** clarifies how the **אדם** understands the question. If there was no distinction between **אדם** and **אדם** regarding **אדם**, the **אדם** would not have had a question if **אדם** are similar to **אדם**. Since there is such a distinction, the **אדם** asks if there are more distinctions between the **אדם** and their **אדם**.

Rabbi Yitzchak Zev Soloveitchik, also known as the **אדם**, explains the **אדם**'s assumption when it asks are the **אדם** similar to their **אדם**. He quotes **אדם** on **אדם** "אדם" : **אדם** who explains, "if they are similar then you would have to pay and if not similar then not." **אדם** seems to imply that if they aren't similar you wouldn't have to pay. The **אדם** is perplexed at this implication of **אדם** because he says if you didn't have to pay then why are they called **אדם**? He quotes the **אדם** in **אדם** who brings a case where **אדם** (one's stone, knife, or package) blew off the roof, landed on the ground, and then someone tripped on it. The **אדם** has a disagreement with other **אדם** regarding this form of **אדם** as to which it will be a **אדם** of. The **אדם** say that it's derived from **אדם** and **אדם**, since it includes a moving damager, the defining characteristic of **אדם**, and a stationary damager, a defining characteristic of **אדם**. The **אדם** says that it's defined as a **אדם** of **אדם** since ultimately, the damage was caused by someone tripping over the stationary object, which is the essence of a **אדם**. Ascertaining which **אדם** the **אדם** falls under can have ramifications in regards to its law. Each **אדם** has certain exemptions which take away liability from the damager. The exemption of **אדם** is **אדם**, which means one is not liable for utensils damaged by a pit, and the exemption of **אדם** is **אדם** which means one is not liable for a fire that causes damage to objects which are hidden from view. According to the **אדם**, you apply **אדם** for both **אדם** and **אדם** and would be exempt for both **אדם** and **אדם**. According to the **אדם**, you are only **אדם** for the **אדם** of **אדם**, meaning **אדם** but for hidden objects you would be **אדם** since according to the **אדם** this

case is not derived as a _____ of _____. Using this, the "_____ explains how a _____ would not be similar to its _____ yet would maintain some level of liability to be called a _____. The question of the _____ is if the _____ is similar to its _____, it shares the exemptions that its _____ has, so a _____ of _____ would be exempt from cases of _____ just like the _____ of _____. On the other hand, if the _____ is not similar to its _____, it simply uses the _____ as a source for its liability but not for the exemptions the _____ carries, so the _____ of _____ would be _____ for _____ until the _____ which is _____ from _____. Since the _____'s conclusion is that most _____ are similar to their _____, most have the same exemptions that apply to their _____.

Damages: Compensation or Prohibition (:') Shira Schon ('21)

In order to learn one must understand a fundamental question. Is damaging another person's property or does one simply have to compensate for any damage they cause? In the there are many discussions of and the responsibility to pay for damages is clearly delineated. However, the never expressly forbids damaging another person's property. Moreover, an is never explicitly discussed in the or . Those who maintain that it is in fact need to explain what the source of the prohibition is. And the different possible sources could lead to implications for the parameters of .

in his commentary on ' : ' explains what exactly it was that received from and passed down through the generations. states that when received the he was given the written and the oral along with explanations and elaborations upon them. An example of this is the prohibition of , do not steal. The elaboration that received was that included within the is the as well.

" offers two possible sources for the . His first possibility is . This is certainly different than our traditional understanding of this . Normally this is understood to mean that one cannot exploit or trick a fellow, specifically that one cannot cause another Jew to violate an or to make a harmful decision. " proposes another, more literal explanation of . This explanation is simply that literally putting a stumbling block in front of someone would cause harm or damage to the person or their property and that is why it tells you not to do it, because causing damage is .

" proposes another possible source for . He claims that causing would violate . You are obligated to love others as you would love yourself and it is assumed that people do not wish to damage themselves, so you are then obligated to treat others as you would yourself which would entail not damaging them in any way. This answer has a major difference than the other answers we have seen so far. The would be a violation of a and not an .

introduces an idea that isn't seen in any other sources. He is that damaging is not a violation a broader (like or) but that on its own is . quotes in identifying the source in the for the . claims that when the says it is saying it is to damage and even by not watching not only is one violating an but one is in fact a .

He brings proof for this in the idea of . If a kills someone the owner of the must pay a , a ransom one pays in the place of the theoretical death penalty they deserve. points out that the only thing done wrong in this case is that the owner was not watching his . This shows that is an because if it was not, there would not be a theoretical death penalty.

The fact that is its own has an important implication for the . In general, when we have a about , we do not employ the principle . However, there are several instances in which it seems that there is a about in which we do go . On the other hand, there are other cases related to in which we do not go .

explains there are two types of about . In one type of case the is we are not sure whether there has been a

violation of _____ at all, for example if a _____ does an unusual act of that may or may not qualify as _____. In a case like this, we have a question about _____ – is this act _____ or not. If our _____ is a _____ then we do in fact go _____.

There is another kind of _____, however, if we know that _____ was done, but, it is unclear if this is a case in which the _____ is _____ because of a technicality. An example of this would be if an animal ate someone else's fruit, but it is unclear if the area in which the animal ate it was a _____. In a case like this, the _____ is a _____, even though _____ is _____, the particular _____ we are addressing is only a _____ about whether money is owed. In a case like this, we would not go _____.

_____ is only able to make this distinction, because according to his view that _____ is its own _____, the question of whether _____ occurred or not is identical to the question of whether an _____ was violated. Therefore, the _____ is a _____ not a _____. According to any of the other views, even if something is not _____ it still could be a different variant of the larger _____ (such as _____) that one is violating.

Aggression or Out of the Ordinary (:') Chana Fischer ('19)

Intuitively, it is easy to understand that a person who damages another person should be responsible to pay for the damage they caused. A little harder to understand is the idea that a person is responsible to pay for the damage that their animal or other property causes. Yet, that is the foundation of , a person is for all four of the , , , : . The justification for this is that a person should expect their animal, in certain circumstances, can be a danger to others and, therefore, is responsible for watching the animal. This explanation, however, seems not to apply to one particular variety of damage caused by a person's animal. When an animal damages in a manner deemed to be (literally damage done with its horn, but, as we will see, not limited to cases in which the horn was actually used to inflict the damage), that animal is in many instances considered meaning that it is unexpected it would act in this way. We will explore the legal definition of the category and attempt to understand when, and why, one is for that damage.

Under the category of there are three subcategories: , , and . The first one, , is anything that the animal gets benefit from like eating and the second one, , is anything that happens naturally without the animal noticing. Since with both and damage is foreseeable, the owner is required to watch the animal closely to make sure nothing happens. If damage does happen, then the owner is held responsible and has to pay the full amount. However, if the damage is done in any place that it is normal for animals to be, like a public space or the owner's own property, then they are exempt from having to pay since the injured person should have known there would be animals there and taken precautions.

The third subcategory is *damages caused by horns*, which is damage that a bull does with its horns. The *Shulchan Aruch* extends this category to other aggressive acts like biting and kicking. Unlike *damages caused by horns* and *damages caused by hooves*, these acts are not common for a bull. To help us determine what the owner is required to pay we split animals into two categories. The first one, *damages caused by horns*, is an animal that rarely damages, so it is less likely for it to damage by *damages caused by horns* and the other is *damages caused by hooves*, in which the animal has damaged often and is more likely to do so again in this way.

However, we still need a definition of what kind of act is *damages caused by horns*. Looking at the sources we see that there are two different characteristics that could define *damages caused by horns*, it could be intent or if the act is unusual for the animal.

In *Shulchan Aruch*, the *Shulchan Aruch* discusses how we could learn from the *Shulchan Aruch* that the owner of an animal should be required to pay for *damages caused by horns*. It says that since, in the case of *damages caused by horns*, when the animal is not *damages caused by horns*, it doesn't have intent to cause damage, the owner is required to pay, shouldn't the owner have to pay in a case of *damages caused by horns* when the animal does have intent to cause damage. This shows that the *Shulchan Aruch* is defining *damages caused by horns* as an intentional act of aggression by the animal.

Another example is on *Shulchan Aruch*: " *Shulchan Aruch* which compares a case of an ox swinging its tail and breaking something versus an ox swinging a different body part and breaking something. The *Shulchan Aruch* discusses whether either of these cases would be considered *damages caused by horns* based on whether this type of action is usual behavior for the ox. In the end there's no answer to this question, but this shows that whether the damage was usual or unusual for the animal is important in deciding if something is *damages caused by horns*. Additionally, we see in *Shulchan Aruch*: " *Shulchan Aruch* that a dog that eats a lamb or a cat that eats a chicken is considered *damages caused by horns* because it is unusual behavior for them even though they are getting benefit which would normally mean this was *damages caused by horns*. This shows us that unusual behavior is the defining characteristic of *damages caused by horns*.

These two possibilities can have an important implication . The tells us that while a is with regards to goring and other aggressive acts until it proves itself otherwise by repeated acts of damage, other animals are . A snake, for instance, is considered a automatically and the owner of the snake has to pay the first time the snake damages.

However, the question remains, when a snake damages by an aggressive act like biting, is it because it is really like since this is the norm for the snake? Or, is it because it is like but, unlike a , in the case of a snake the owner should have expected it from the beginning?

According to , the snake is considered like . Since this is a normal act for the snake, it cannot be considered , and therefore, if the snake damages in the owner is since it is normal behavior, and others in the should be wary of such things. Apparently for , the main definition of is something unusual. Biting for a snake does not qualify.

, however, understands " to be saying that if the snake damages in the owner is . On the one hand, this is an aggressive act and for the snake it is normal, so the owner should have watched it better. Therefore, it is from the beginning and the owner pays . On the other hand, since it is an aggressive act, which apparently for " is the main definition of , the other people in would not naturally be as aware of the danger as they would be with . Therefore, since this is , the owner is even in .

An Owner's Responsibility for Damage Caused by a Slave

(. ')

Dena Stein ('19)

' discusses why the needs to tell us a person is for both and and you cannot learn one from the other. The explains that you cannot learn one from the other through a , because is not necessarily more likely to be due to the damage being done . A slave also can damage with , but one is when their slave does damage. explains that the reason a slave owner is is so the slave does not go burn down a field in order to get back at his owner by putting them in a position where they are forced pay for damages.

's explanation of why a slave owner is seems to be based on a . However, the seems to have a somewhat different focus than . The says the reason why a slave owner is even though a owner is is because unlike a that does not have , a slave does, so the owner cannot be for what the slave does. Fundamentally, it seems the owner should be because they are their own person. If a slave has and can make their own decisions, how could we really attribute the acts of the slave to the owner? This being true, we need to understand why according to it seems that the owner is fundamentally and was only made out of concern for how the slave could abuse the situation.

says in the that the owner is fundamentally , as would appear to be the case from the , but the was in a case where the slave did damage on purpose that the owner should be to try to get the owner to be inclined to prevent the slave from doing the damage. It is in that case specifically where the

rabbis stepped in and said the slave would try to get back at the owner and do damage to make him pay, so then the owner is from their slave's damage.

The " says that fundamentally the owner should be , as would appear to be the view of , even though the slave has their independent . The slave is the owner's property, so the owner should be responsible for the damage the slave does even if the owner has limited control over the slave's decisions. The " demonstrates that the owner's responsibility is clearly not based on the owner's control over the slave, because if the owner gave the slave the responsibility to watch himself then the owner should be because he fulfilled his job of doing for the slave. So, if that were the source of , the owner would always be . Instead, the owner's must be based on the fact that an aspect of ownership is the responsibility for what the slave does.

When citing the owner's , the " says that the owner is from both and done by their slave because of the concern that the slave could abuse the situation. This seems problematic, because it suggests that fundamentally the owner should be for the theft committed by the slave. Regardless of our understanding of why the owner could be fundamentally for the damage done by their slave, why would an owner be for a slave's theft?

believes that this " proves that stealing is a form of because it causes a loss in a person's property. Even though one would not be if their slave steals because it is the slave's own sin, the owner could be to compensate the victim for the damage done to them by the theft since stealing is a type of damage. That is why " needs to clarify that you are because of the to avoid a slave abusing the situation.

A Person Is Always Responsible for Damages (. ") Adam Siegel ('19)

The stresses that each person should be on notice at all times regarding damages. This concept is known as . This means that a person is always warned regarding damages. In , there are many cases that deal with oxen that damage. An ox can be labeled either (innocent) or (warned). The ox earns the title of when the ox gores 3 times before and receives the title of being warned. So why is a person always warned regardless of whether they have damaged before or not when an ox has to receive the title of being warned? The simple answer is as humans, we have more knowledge and are more aware than animals. We as people are obligated to always be on edge for something possibly happening.

The in on . " states:

This means that a person is always warned and therefore liable for damage, whether intentional or unintentional, whether awake or asleep. The brings two examples: if you blind a fellow person's eye or break vessels, you pay for the damage. A person who damages is always held responsible to pay no matter what the circumstances.

An example of is a case on . " where a person is on a roof and an uncommon wind (a very powerful wind) comes and blows the person off the roof and the person causes damage. The rules that this person is liable to pay for what he damaged. Even though one's first thought would have been that he didn't expect this

uncommon wind, the person is still liable to pay because of

Even though we state that a person is liable for their actions, does this always truly apply? Are there any circumstances where something happens which is completely out of their control and they are not held accountable? There are some opinions that say yes. This is known as *shemaya*, which means a complete accident. When something happens and it is completely beyond the person's ability to prevent it, it is ruled as *shemaya*.

We see a case where it is out of the reach of a person's ability in the *in ' :'*. If a person is sleeping, and someone comes to lie down next to him and the two injure each other, the second person becomes *shemaya* and the first person is not. *on* quotes this *shemaya* and extends it to damaging an item that was placed next to a sleeping person. *shemaya* says the person is *shemaya* because the person who placed the item next to the bed caused him to break it.

on : " *shemaya* uses the *shemaya* to develop the idea that in a case of *shemaya*, in which one damages but could not have known otherwise, one is *shemaya*. *shemaya* brings five cases where *shemaya* is applied and uses this concept to explain why the *shemaya* is *shemaya* :

1. A person is walking with a barrel and behind him a person is walking with a beam. Suddenly, the person in front stops and the person with the beam walks into the barrel and breaks it. The person with the beam is exempt because he couldn't have expected the person in the front to stop suddenly.
2. A father borrowed a cow from someone and died, leaving his children with the cow. The children think that this cow belonged to their father, so they slaughter the cow. The children are exempt from damage they cause because they thought the cow belonged to their father and it was out of their control to clarify that it didn't belong to their father.

3. The case of the **Children Slaughtering the Borrowed Cow** : Person A is sleeping, Person B lies down next to him and goes to sleep and the two damage each other. Person A is exempt because he could not have known someone or something would be next to him after he went to sleep. Person B is obligated for damage he causes because he was negligent since there was someone already there.
4. A person is walking at night and trips over a barrel, breaking it. He is exempt because the person would not have expected there to be a barrel out in the middle of the street where he was walking.
5. An unpaid watchman was watching a barrel, moves it and breaks it. He is exempt because an unpaid watchman is exempt from having to pay if there are accidents similar to theft. In both cases, he has no control over what happens.

What we see in these cases is **Rambam** applies the concept that **the principle of knowledge** will not apply in a case of **the principle of knowledge**, since the circumstance was beyond the person's ability to know.

The **Shulchan Aruch** in **Shulchan Aruch** : **Shulchan Aruch** takes a different look at this issue. He says that a person is not exempt in cases of **the principle of knowledge**, but looks at the whole situation to determine who is the negligent party to hold responsible. Looking at the **Children Slaughtering the Borrowed Cow**, **Rambam** sees the second person was negligent in putting something or lying down next to a person sleeping, unlike **Rambam** who ruled the first person is exempt because from his perspective, it was an **act of negligence**. For each of the cases that **Rambam** explained as **the principle of knowledge**, the **Shulchan Aruch** understands the reason to be differently. For example, in the case of the children slaughtering the borrowed cow, **Rambam** ruled this as a case of **the principle of knowledge**, but **Shulchan Aruch** understands the children as **the principle of knowledge** since it is not possible for the children to know that the cow did not belong to their father. In the case of one person walking with beam and another walking with barrel, while **Rambam** views the beam-carrier as being **the principle of knowledge**, the **Shulchan Aruch** views the barrel-carrier to be negligent because he shouldn't have stopped suddenly.

What emerges from learning _____ and the " _____ is the two have two different views on the responsibility of damage. _____ sees in a case of _____ the damage being out of the person's control and therefore _____. " _____ on the other hand looks at both parties and the whole situation. The damager won't necessarily be _____ because of _____, but if the other party was negligent, he would be _____ because the damage is their fault.

Source for Obligation to Compensate for Unintentional Damage
(: ")

Cara Lopatin ('21)

" says, ; a person will always be responsible, whether they damage by accident or on purpose, while they are awake or asleep. According to this , it seems that no matter what the circumstances are, a person is always responsible to pay the full payment of damages. The Rabbis feel so strongly about this that they say that even a person who damages in their sleep is responsible to pay. This is not common in most areas of , because usually a does not apply equally in a case where a person acts by accident. So why is the category of damages so unique and different from all other categories of ? Why would a person be responsible if they damage by accident?

" thinks the : " asks this exact question when it asks, , what is the source of these words? " interprets this question to mean, what is the source for the words ? Therefore, according to " 's understanding of the question, the answer can simply be understood from 's answer to the . He says that the source is the , " , or "a wound for a wound," from " : " . " explains that this is a good source for the ruling of because it is an extra passage. There are other places in the , even in the same and , where the ruling of "a wound for a wound" is mentioned. Therefore, because there are not supposed to be extra or repetitive words in the , " says that this can be learned as a source for .

disagrees with " . He thinks when the Rabbis in the ask the question , they are not asking for the source of the

ruling _____, but rather they are asking for the source of the ruling _____, which the _____ derived from the _____ immediately before this question. _____ thinks the _____ is based on this ruling, and therefore interprets the question as asking, what is the source for the ruling of being exempt from the other four payments (other than damages) when one damages by accident? Therefore, according to _____'s interpretation, the question of why a person is responsible to pay for damages _____ is left in the air, and we still don't know the answer!

The _____, who agrees with _____'s interpretation, answers this question. He says the source for the ruling of _____ is obvious. If a person is responsible for the damage that their animal causes even when they do not have any way of stopping their animal from doing it, then _____ a person should be responsible for the damage that they themselves cause even accidentally. However, although this is a good start, it is not a complete answer to the question, because it is unclear why the _____ makes this _____. There are two ways to understand his reasoning, each of which is based on one of the two ways of understanding the overarching issue of why, in general, a person is _____ for the damage they cause.

One way to understand why a person is, in general, _____ for the damage they cause is a person has a responsibility for themselves and their property. They are required to watch what they do and what their property does. If they, or their property, cause damage because they did not properly fulfill this obligation to watch, then they are considered negligent. The _____ for _____ is a consequence of that negligence.

Another way to understand why a person is _____ seems to be championed by "_____. He thinks that the reason a person is responsible to pay for the damage that their property causes is because their property is connected to them. Therefore, a person's

property's actions are connected to that person, so they are responsible for anything their property does.

We can now understand the _____ in two different ways.

According to the first approach we would explain the _____ as follows: we know that a person is _____ for damage their property does, because they were responsible to watch out for what their property did. If a person is responsible to watch out for what their property does, then _____, a person is responsible to watch what they themselves do. Their obligation to watch themselves is clearly greater than their obligation to watch their property. Therefore, if a person is _____ for damage done by their property because of the obligation to watch, even though at the time of the damage, they did not do it on purpose and they had no ability to stop it, so too they must be responsible for damage they do accidentally due to not having properly watched themselves.

However, there is a flaw in this interpretation. It isn't always so clear that a person is more responsible to watch their own actions than the actions of their property. In fact, the opposite could be accepted in a case where a person is sleeping. A person taking a nap is not such a dangerous beast. How much care in watching oneself must one really take? On the other hand, when a person owns a goring ox, it is obvious that they should watch their animal.

According to the second approach, we can understand the _____ differently. If a person is _____ for _____ when their property damages, simply because that property is connected to them and they are responsible for whatever it does, then obviously a person would be _____ for _____ when they themselves damage, even if by accident. The obligation one has for oneself is obviously greater, because the connection and association one has with every action they do is much stronger.

In light of these two approaches to understand why a person is
 , the " can be clearly understood in an
enhanced way. The quotes a of that is very
similar to the in our . In " : " the says
 , comparing hitting a person and hitting an animal.
 comments on this : just like when a person hits an animal
it doesn't matter whether they hit it by accident or on purpose, they
intended to hit it or not, or they hit it with an upward motion or
downward motion, they will always be to pay money. So too
when a person hits another person it doesn't matter whether they hit
by accident or on purpose, they intended to hit or not, or they hit
with an upward motion or downward motion, because they will
always be from paying money.

here takes for granted that when it comes to hitting an animal,
one is whether or . How does he know this? According
to " , the in is based on what we learn in the
in . teaches us that a person who does damage is
and then based on that, compares a person
doing damage to a person killing another person.

According to , is able to make this comparison based
on the assumption that damaging an animal is in both and
 , because this is an obvious fact that can be derived via
from the fact that one is for the damage their animal caused.

Doing One Action While Trying to Do Another (: ") Zoe Korelitz ('19)

The ' " brings the case of which is a case in which a person intended to throw a rock a distance of 2 , but ended up throwing it 4 . This is problematic because on it is to move an object 4 or more in a public domain. However, the tells us that in this case a person is in fact from the charges they would normally receive for doing such an action on . This is surprising since the action of throwing an object 4 is an act of and the thrower intended to move the object. The only aspect missing from making this a perfect case of is that the thrower did not intend to move it as far as they ended up moving it.

The reasoning given for the thrower being is - in order to be a on - one needs to have done the action with intention. There are several categories of less-than-full intention that do not qualify as . The one which is relevant here is , when in the course of intending to do one action one ends up doing a different action which is . Even within this more limited exception to , however, the parameters are unclear. In order to fully understand why the rock-thrower is , the parameters of need to be understood.

The in discusses this case in the context of other similar but not identical cases. The first case is which is a case of intending to lift up a plant which is no longer attached to the ground but actually cutting the plant. This case is according to everyone. There is a about the second case, —intending to cut a plant which is no longer attached to the ground (which is on) but

accidentally cutting a plant which is still attached to the ground (which is on .) According to the actor is because they did not intend to do the action they did. In contrast, says they are because the person did the action they intended to do (they did intend to cut a plant, albeit in a different way.) The rock-thrower case is presented as identical to this case of , meaning they should have the same laws.

However, while the cases of and may seem clear, there is actually a between " and over what the facts of these cases really are. They are arguing practically about two cases.

One case is when a person intends to cut plant A, which actually is attached to the ground, but they miss and accidentally cut plant B, which is not attached to the ground. We will call this case "missing." " says the "missing" case is the case of the and say this is the case in which all agree that the person is .

The second case is when a person intends to cut plant A, which they think is *not* attached to the ground. They do cut plant A, but realize afterward that it actually was attached to the ground. We will call this case "mistaking." In the "mistaking" case, " says the person is and say that this is case of the .

In order to understand why " and have this , the source for the exemption from punishment for needs to be learned. The source for this exemption is in " . In there are two sources for this principle. The first is the " " which teaches us that one is - liable except when it is . A second source brought by is that ; , - . This source says that in other one is for because they get , or benefit, from the action;

however, in one cannot be because in order to be on one needs to have full intention to do the action.

" says and (and as such the in) argue with and do not accept both sources, rather they only accept the first source. As such, " says that one is only when they intend to do an act which is . This is true for both and other . This type of exemption is known as . The reason for this view is that if we accept only one source, we would assume that is referring to its obvious meaning, when one intends to do something .

In contrast, say that that and (and as such the in) agree with and do accept both sources. This means that even when one intends to do something (but end up doing a *different* action which is also) they're for in (this type of exemption is known as), and that when one intends to do something they are in and in other . The reason for this view is that if we accept two sources, the second source must be teaching us another principle—that applies even when one intends to do something .

We end up with two ways of understanding the scope of . It could be that one is if they did an action instead of doing the action they intended to do—they are doing a completely separate act, such as in the case of “missing.” On the other hand, one could be for doing the action they intended to do on a different object than the one they intended to do the action on, regardless of the fact that they *did* intend to do an action and that they completed the act which they intended to do (but just did it on a different object), such as the case of “mistaking.”

We can now better understand the " in the . In that there is one case that all agree is and another

case that is a . Both " and are trying to understand the exact parameters of this case. What they assume is that the here must be based on the conclusion in which talks about the source of the . As such, when the in presents a case in which everyone agrees one is , both " and believe that this matches the case in which one is in ; however, they disagree as to what that case exactly is. The case in in which there is a (the case of) is different in that it is a new kind of case not covered in .

According to " the case we know from is is the case of when a person thinks they are doing a type of action and accidentally instead does an entirely different type of action which is . In the that case is when one plans to simply lift up a plant that is not attached to the ground, but misses, and does a *totally different type of action* - plucking - on an attached plant. According to " the new case argue about is when one plans to cut (not simply lift up) an already detached plant, but misses and cuts an attached one which is the case of "missing." This is closer to fulfilling one's intention than a typical , because one is doing the same exact type of action they intended to do (cutting) just to a different object than planned. Whether this is in fact and in fact is exactly what argue about.

has a different version of the case which is . The case from that they say is is the case of , when a person thinks they are doing an type of action and accidentally does the action on a different object. If this is true then if one intended to do an action on a object but ended up doing the action on a different object which is , one is also obviously . According to the new case and argue about is when one plans to cut a detached plant, cuts it, and then realizes it was still attached when it was cut, the case of "mistaking." This is greater intention than a normal case of since they did the action they

intended to do. Whether this is in fact _____ and in fact _____ is exactly what _____ argue about.

_____ is suggesting that “mistaking” is a case in which _____ says that one is _____, despite the fact that this is a very unusual case which on face value no one should assume to be _____. This case does not seem to fit the definition of _____ at all. _____ is defined as intending to do one action but ending up doing a different action which is _____. In this case one intends to do an action, does that action, and finds out the action was _____. This type of case is fundamentally different, since the action being done is physically the same as the action the actor was intending to do. Usually, the _____ of _____ comes from not having full intention to do the act. _____’s case proposes that this type of _____ is not a _____ from lack of intention to do the act, but rather from not intending to violate the _____. However, not intending to do an _____ but accidentally doing it is, in fact, the very definition of _____ on _____ for which one is _____ a _____. The classic cases of _____ are not realizing what you are doing is _____, or not realizing that it is _____, or not knowing that there is such a concept of _____ on _____. These cases, for which one is obviously _____, seem very similar to the case that _____ claims may be _____! In all of these cases one had full intention to do the action they did, but simply did not have intention to violate an _____ with that action. How then can _____ propose that what seems like a classic case of _____ is actually _____? It seems as if there should be no logical way to think such a thing.

A potential reason that this case qualifies as _____ and one is therefore _____ (according to _____) is the type of lack of intention to violate is different in a case of _____ and in our case. In a _____ case the reason one thinks what one is doing is _____ is external to the action being done. It is about it not being _____, or if the action is allowed or not, and so on. The action is accomplished and so is the actor’s intention, it is just that the actor was unaware of certain facts that make them _____.

However, in our case, the reason you think what you are doing is is you do not understand the action you are doing, the mistake is intrinsic to the action itself.

This distinction is suggested by the in the case of a who thinks he is cutting a baby whose eighth day is but actually cuts a baby whose eighth day already passed. The is even though he did not intend what he did. explains the 's intention absolutely was to cut in an manner, because the mistake was about a peripheral issue of what day it was, but the intention was for an type act:

. In our case, however, the mistake is intrinsic. The cutter thinks they are cutting a different type of plant, which really means the cutter thinks they are doing a different type of action. This kind of mistake about whether one is violating can make one as a type of .

A Person Intended to Throw 8, but Threw 4
(: ")
Shayna Lopatin ('19)

In some cases in the , intention does not matter; what matters is the action that you did, no matter what your intention was. However, in the in , which discusses in detail , intention means everything. There are a few cases that are talked about and disputed in this , but the main case that I will talk about in this article is , a case where your intention was to throw an object 8 and you end up throwing it 4 . The initially gives a ruling of , but by the end, it is not clear whether one would be or in the case. As a result of this lack of clarity, " and " argue about whether you are in fact or in this case.

The in the inverse case is clear. If one intends to throw something and it instead travels they are . This is because it is not considered a . On in order to be in a , one needs to do the action with complete intention. If intention is lacking, they are . If one intended to throw something , they had no intention whatsoever for it to travel and therefore, they are . The question is, should the case of intending be different, since when one intended to throw something they did have within their intention that the object would travel on the way to traveling . So, while the person certainly did not fulfill their entire intention, what they did do (throwing it) was within their intention.

" 's approach to this case, can be compared to a "target approach." states, ' . The target approach he is talking about is the idea

that someone has direct intention to throw an object somewhere and only to that place. For example, I want to throw an apple 8 feet away. Not to pass over 8 feet, but I want my apple to land 8 feet away. Therefore, if my apple lands 4 feet away, it is *not* fulfilling my intention, because even though I knew my apple would pass by 4 feet, I never intended it to land there. "Target" puts a big emphasis on the landing of the object. If it did not land in the place you wanted it to, you are not fulfilled. The intention to throw something 8 feet away was not fulfilled, despite the object going part of the way. There is no fulfillment of any of the action/intention. The person's intention did not come to fruition and the notion of it landing 4 feet away was not at all within their intention.

"Target" does not agree with "Path" 's "target" approach. "Target" believes that one would be disappointed because when one threw it 8 feet, they must have known that it would have to travel across 4 feet:

"Target" . He believes that instead of looking at the intent as a "target" approach like "Target", we should look at the intent like a path. "Path" puts a focus on the travelling of the object while "Target" puts an emphasis on the landing of the object. Because "Target" puts an emphasis on the object's travel, it is obvious why he would think that you would be disappointed: in order for an object to travel to 8 feet, it first has to pass 4 feet. Every foot that the object passes counts as a part of the fulfillment of the person's intention. The traveling past 4 feet certainly was within their intention even if they did also intend to do more.

"Target" asks, why would you discount landing as an important feature to whether you are disappointed? The feature that one is violating in our case is landing. For any violation of landing, in order to be disappointed a person needs to remove something from its place – remove – and needs to place it back in a new place – replace. So, how can "Target" say that having had the intention for something to pass by 4

without having the intention for it to land in that place – with no intention for _____ – is considered enough intention for one to be _____ ?

_____ brings a very interesting answer to its question. When it comes to _____, _____ and _____ seem to be essential components of the _____. They are not simply technical requirements in order to be _____. Without them, one simply has not done the _____. Therefore, in order to be _____, the _____ would also have to be intended. _____ "_____ seems to say that when it comes to _____, however, _____ and _____ are not components of the _____. Technically, in order to be _____, one needs to be _____ and _____, but the definition of the _____ is causing something to travel the distance. Therefore, as long as the travel was within one's intention, even without intention for the _____ at that spot, they can be _____.

Breaking Something Which Will Break (: ") Yehudah Wrotslavsky ('19)

I've always wanted to smash someone's iPhone with my baseball bat, so I did it.

One summer day, I took my friend Bob's iPhone X and brought it to the ballpark. I was so excited to finally break a phone with a bat. I threw Bob's phone up in the air, wound my bat back, and as I was about to take the biggest swing of my life, another friend, Jim, came and crushed the phone with his bat all the way to left. I yelled at Jim because I wanted to break Bob's phone, but at least now I assumed I didn't have to pay for it. Jim, however, said he wouldn't pay for it because when I threw the phone up in the air, even if I swung and missed, the phone would still have fallen and broken. It was inevitably going to break.

Who pays for Bob's iPhone? The in the second of analyzes different types of cases that help us answer this question.

In the second of on : " , brings a case similar to the baseball one. If person A (me) throws a vessel off a roof and before it hits the ground, person B (Jim) breaks it with a stick, person B (Jim) is . The reason is because when Jim broke it, he broke a vessel that was going to break anyway, " ". Something that will break on its own is considered having no value, so he is not

states a comparable case on : " . If a chicken steps on a and doesn't break it, but it rolls to another place and then breaks, what's the ? Do we view this case as in which he would be or do we view it as (pebbles), in which he would

be ? The reason why is only is because it was an indirect damage. The animal kicked the pebbles, then the pebbles damaged an object. The brings 's case from : " to resolve this case, where he concludes that he is , presumably because , we follow rule based on the beginning of when the damage occurred. The wants to prove from 's case that in the case of the chicken, we should also go and the chicken's owner should be to pay .

Everyone agrees that the hitter is because explicitly says so; however the does not seem to address if the thrower is or . The have three possible explanations to clarify if the thrower is or not.

on : " states that since we judge based on the beginning of what happens to this object, the thrower is and the hitter is . Since it was already going to break, it's as if the thrower broke it. Going back to our on : " , there is no mention if the thrower is or not. says that in 's case, the owner threw it off the roof, which is why the makes no mention of him being or not, since he was the owner of the . This case implies that if someone else threw, that thrower would be , reinforcing that the 's conclusion is .

The in ' on . " brings a different approach. He says the thrower is certainly , because we evaluate who is liable based on the time it broke, " , and the hitter is also since the he hit was going to break and therefore had no value. Why does the disagree with ? He explains that if it were true that we judge based on the beginning, why doesn't the say that the first person is ? That's a bigger and it would teach us to judge based on beginning. Clearly, the hitter is because the had no value. Since the does not state addressing the thrower as or not, the " says the

conclusion is _____, and his throwing it did not break it, so he is _____.

A third approach in this case regarding if the thrower is _____ or _____ is presented by the _____ . The _____ of : " _____ , who quotes the _____ , learns _____'s case as proving we judge based on beginning, similar to _____'s understanding, but that doesn't mean the first person is _____ . It only means we obligate based on the beginning of this object's journey. The reason why both are _____ , according to the _____ , is because when we focus on the thrower, perhaps the vessel would not have broken, so we cannot label him as causing a financial loss. Regarding the breaker, since it was inevitable that the vessel was going to break, it is considered as if he did not cause a financial loss. We evaluate each person's action individually, based on what it leads to.

If we look at the _____ in comparison to _____ and _____ , his approach is similar to the _____ that they both say the first person is _____ , but different in that we judge based on the beginning according to the _____ , unlike the _____ who goes based on _____ , when it actually breaks. Compared to _____ , it's similar in that we judge based on beginning, but goes against _____ because the _____ says first person is still _____ .

The _____ brings a comparable case of murder. If a person throws a baby off a roof and someone comes and stabs it, there is a _____ if the stabber is _____ or not (because in murder, you must be the one who "murdered" the person and if you take the last part of the person's life, are you considered as having taken the person's whole life or not), but everyone agrees the thrower is _____ . In _____ , _____ provides an answer as to why by murder we don't judge based on the beginning but in damages, we do.

_____ explains that when we said "because it's going to break," that doesn't mean the object is broken now; it means "when it breaks," we view it as if it was broken in the beginning so right now, it has

no value. By murder, however, you have to fully murder the person to be labeled as a murderer and . Until he is actually dead, he's alive, so you're not . A human's life is not evaluated by a sum of money. As long as he is alive, you can't be for murder. But in terms of damage, if you throw a , you made it worthless, and therefore you are .

Direct and Indirect Damage (: ") Jaden Jubas ('21)

Cases of damage can be categorized based on a person's direct involvement in the damage caused. If you or your property damage you are . When it is a case of , indirectly causing damage, we rule you are . What about cases between these direct and indirect cases? This middle category is called and is the subject of discussion within regarding whether the person is or .

In the on : " , it says "

." This literally translates to "if a person drops an item off a roof, but there are pillows and blankets on the ground underneath and another person or even you yourself come and remove the pillows and blankets while the item is falling you are . What is the reason? At the time you dropped it, your arrows stopped."

While analyzing this it may seem unclear and vague why you are in this case and what it means "your arrows stopped." " on " , " " : " says at the time it was thrown it wasn't going to break until the pillows and blankets are removed. Even if the thrower himself removed them he is because in is . " holds this is a case of since you are only indirectly breaking the object. When it says your arrows stopped it means when you dropped it you are not liable because the item won't break unless someone removes the pillows and blankets, just like an arrow shot at a shield won't cause any damage until the person moves the shield.

A case is brought in the on : " where states if you burn a document or contract of your friend, you are . The quotes a between if , we judge (and therefore obligate to pay) cases of or , we do not judge cases of . comes and explains that this is a case of and the person who judges cases of would make him pay for the value that could be collected based on the . According to the one who doesn't judge cases of , the damager only damaged the paper and would only be to pay for the value of the paper but not of the value that could be collected based on the document.

on : " quotes the " as saying that when presented our case in the , doesn't obligate cases of , so that is why he says . Since we hold of , we would hold that he is . themselves disagree with the " and say that it is a case of so the would be like and he is . himself is the one who said on " a person who burns a is , but we in fact rule against on the case and say you are . From this we can infer that we hold the case of burning a contract is and that is why says it's but we hold .

says if the throws a vessel off the roof and it wouldn't have broken because there were pillows, but someone comes and removes it they are both . The first person is because the item wouldn't break and the second person is because it's . It seems like is holding it is a case of like " and the simpler understanding of , unlike the " . A case of would be burning a contract, in which the value it could obligate is lost, or ruining a pillar that could have been used to carve nice designs on. In both cases, you would have to pay since he judges cases of .

Based on several cases we will bring shortly and the rulings in each of them, in " " " : " developed simple principles to identify a case as or as . For , his first rule

is that you set up the scenario and someone or something else does the damage. The second rule for **causation** is that your action causes damage later on and not at the exact time of your action. All other types of indirect damage cases, according to **causation**, would be categorized as **causation**. The first rule for **causation** is that you are the one doing the damage. The second rule of **causation** is that the damage happens at the same time as your action.

One example of **causation** would be our case of pulling pillows out from underneath a falling object. Since you are causing the damage to happen but it happens later on not at that exact moment you cause it, it will be **causation**. Stoking a fire with the wind by blowing along with the wind to make the fire bigger is damage not only done by you and it happens at a later time so it too is considered **causation**. Placing poison in front of an animal who dies from eating it is considered **causation** because you are just putting it there and the animal eats it later on its own.

In contrast, **causation** brings cases of **causation**, such as burning your friend's contract which is considered **causation** because you are not directly causing your friend a loss; you are indirectly causing a financial loss but it happens as a direct result of your burning his contract and at the exact time when you burned it. A second case is a case of **causation**, growing grapes and grains together. It is forbidden to grow both in the same field and the produce grown becomes prohibited, but if a fence separates the two, the two are considered separate fields and permitted. When the fence between the two fields falls down and the owner refuses to fix it, the damage to his friend's field since he is not able to sell the product is a direct result of the fence falling so we label this as a case of **causation**. A final case **causation** brings under the category of **causation** is when Bob (person 1) sells a contract to Jimmy (person 2) to collect a debt owed to Bob by Tom (person 3). Bob then forgives the loan that Tom is required to pay him, causing Jimmy to lose the money because Tom no longer has to repay the debt. In this case, Bob's action directly and immediately caused

Jimmy a financial loss. All of these cases fit under _____'s rules of how to know when it is a case of _____.

Atonement Payment for Death (. ") Ezra Klausner ('20)

In " , the presents a case referred to as . The case involves an ox that has gored three times, making it , and the owner is warned to guard it, but fails or neglects to, and the ox kills a person. The says that the ox should be stoned and its owner shall be put to death. The afterwards, ' , says " . " The literal definition of the is that if an atonement payment is place upon him, he must pay to redeem his soul. The understands this to mean that the owner isn't actually put to death, but is required to pay an atonement penalty instead, and the word here doesn't mean the classic "if." How do we evaluate what the owner pays?

In : ' , the , based on the words " " brings two opinions on how we evaluate what the owner pays. This is based on how to understand the word in the : whose soul is the referring to? say that we assess the amount to be paid as an atonement according to , the victim's value. says that we assess the amount to be paid as an atonement according to , the owner's value.

This on plays a major role in defining a case in our in on . " . The case is when a baby is thrown off a roof and an ox catches it with its horns, killing the baby. How do we evaluate what the owner of the ox pays? The quotes the from . " says that according to , who holds , the owner would pay his own value. However, according to , who holds , the owner wouldn't pay anything because when the victim, the baby, was thrown from the roof, it had no value because it was going to die with or without the

ox. When the ox's horns killed the baby, the baby was already considered dead and lacking value.

takes a different approach than " about when the owner is and when he is . He states that according to , who hold , the owner would pay because his ox killed someone. However, according to , who holds , the owner should be put to death because since he didn't watch his ox it is like he was the one who killed the baby. However, ' has mercy on him and allows him to pay since he didn't kill anyone with his own hands. In our case, even if the owner caught the baby himself instead of the ox, he would be . He would be because the rule is if more than one person is involved in murder, all of them are . Since one person threw the baby and someone else caught the baby, both are . Therefore, if the owner would be then all the more so the ox should be . This rule is brought up in the previous section of on : " . The case is the same as our case but instead of an ox catching the baby with its horns, a person catches the baby with a spear. The brings a , a Tannaic source, that says if ten people hit one person with sticks, everyone is . We see from here if two or more people kill someone all those involved are .

Rav Soloveitchik offers one approach to understand the underlying points in the between " and . He says that " understands the between and to be on how much you have to pay (i.e. is it the value of the damager or the person damaged). He explains that understands the between and to be a fundamental difference in why you're . According to , you're because your ox killed and that makes you, the owner, a and . is an atonement that exonerates you from any death obligations. According to , the ox is the one who is labeled a , not the owner. You're because someone was killed by

your property, so the obligation to pay is no different than any other damage your property causes.

Looking back at our case, we can see the difference between the two opinions according to the Rishonim's understanding of their opinions. According to the Rishonim, the reason the owner is generally valued is because he is labeled a murderer. However, in our case, the owner would be valued as a murderer because of the rule that when two people murder someone they are both murderers since neither individual can be solely classified as a murderer. Based on the Rishonim's understanding, the reason the owner is generally valued is not because he is classified as a murderer but because his property, the ox, killed a person. In our case, the above mentioned rule regarding two murderers doesn't apply since a human and an ox killed, not two humans, so the owner would be valued as a murderer.

One final issue that Rav Soloveitchik says we still need to clarify is how we evaluate the value of a person. The Rishonim can say that we evaluate a person based on their value in an abstract setting, who hold you evaluate based on their value in an abstract setting, obligate you in this case. While the baby is falling it should have no value since it is going to die, so when the ox kills it, the baby should be valued as zero. The Rav explains that we don't evaluate the individual at that specific moment in that circumstance, rather we evaluate the value of the person in an abstract setting. Therefore, in our case, when the ox catches the baby, we don't evaluate the baby in this specific situation of falling, but as an individual without any external factors.

Payment for Embarrassment (. ") Ari Ershler ('19)

In Jewish Law, when a man causes damage to the body of his fellow man, he is for more than just the reimbursement of the decrease in monetary value that occurred. This reimbursement is known as and is evaluated by looking at the damaged man's value prior to the damage and what he is now worth after the damage. He is also for what is known as " ' ", "the four things". The ' that a man is beyond the damage are: , the pain he caused, , his medical bills, , his unemployment, and finally , the shame the damaged party experienced. It is this final "extra" payment that we will focus on. During an act of damage, the victim can experience a certain amount of shame. This shame is hardly a pleasant experience and has a certain monetary value attached to it, i.e. the amount of money one would pay to avoid experiencing such a shame. This damage is subjective as the on : " tells us that the monetary value is relative to who is the one who embarrassed and who is being embarrassed. This amount is what is required for the damager to pay the victim to cover his embarrassment.

What is the source in the for ? In " : " , the states

." It talks about two men fighting. The wife of one of the men comes over and grabs the man who is fighting with her husband, thus embarrassing him. From this verse we also see that a certain level of intent in the act is necessary as the wording implies she intentionally grabbed the man.

The on . " brings a case of . It states:

. A man falls from a

roof, and ends up in relations with a woman. He is required to pay for , , , and , but not . If this woman is a , his deceased brother's wife, he does not acquire her as a wife. The second half of 's statement says that he is not to pay for because he has no intent to embarrass her.

A big question on this topic is why a person is only for embarrassment if he has intention unlike all the other payments which he is for if he was negligent but committed without intention? The answer to this question, according to the , is because true embarrassment is only if the person did the action with intent, while all other damages can exist even without intent. If a person embarrassed someone else without intention, everyone knows it wasn't done to disgrace them. The other payments of the ' are all different results of the damage the person caused, such as pain he caused, his medical bills, or his unemployment.

What would happen if you have intention for the action you are doing, but not for the embarrassing aspect of it? Would you be to pay for in such a situation? For example, if a man tries to stop himself from falling by grabbing onto another man, causing the second man to fall into mud, what is the law? He did not intend on embarrassing him, but he did intend on grabbing onto him. Is that considered enough intent?

The on . " brings several cases where a man again falls off a roof:

," " . A man falls from a roof due to a , an atypical wind and he caused damage and embarrassed the person. He is for and from the ' because it was not due to negligence.

" " If he falls in a , a common wind, he is to pay for ' , since he was

somewhat negligent if he fell due to a common wind, but from

" If he turned over while he was falling, he would be for all 5 payments, including .

To explain why he is for even though he did not intend to embarrass, the quotes the we discussed earlier which says that the woman "sent her hand and grabbed him." The extra verbiage of sending her hand and grabbing teaches us that as long as there is intent to damage, even if it is not specific intent to embarrass, it is enough to hold the person liable for .

What exactly is this case of the man who turned himself in order land on his friend? What was his intent? There is an argument between and on one side against the , Rabbi Shlomo Luria. The states that when the falling person turns, he is doing so to save himself, but he knows that he is going to embarrass the person under him, therefore, it is considered as if he intended to embarrass. There is a similar concept in the laws of called . If a person wants to perform a permitted action, but it will definitely lead to a forbidden act of , the permitted action is forbidden based on the principle of . In such a case, the normally permitted action becomes forbidden because since it will certainly lead to the forbidden act, it is as if you are intending to do the . Similarly, says that to be for it is sufficient to have intention to benefit from the damage, meaning to cushion your blow from the fall. Furthermore, " says, you're in the case of turning even though you didn't have intention to embarrass. We see from this that and the are on the same side.

The , against " 's position, says you can't just have to save yourself to be . You need to actually hurt in order to be . To support his position, he quotes the which

cites the source of _____, in which the _____ says the woman may not have intended to embarrass the man, but she did intend to hurt the man by grabbing him.

Permitting Someone to Damage Your Property (. ") Daniel Shamayev ('19)

The on . " talks about how if someone asks someone to break their object, the person who breaks it will be obligated to repay the owner for the damage caused. Why? Why should someone be obligated to repay for an object that they were asked to break? Obviously, if the owner of the object told the individual to break it, it clearly means they have no value for it, so why should they get anything for its loss? Does it matter in which form they gave the object?

However, the on . " quotes a which seems to contradict the . The seems to say that you will be exempt from damages if you were asked by the owner to destroy it. How do we explain the contraction with the ?

The explains there is difference between the case in the and in the . The distinction is based upon what the owner initially asked of the person to whom he gave the object.

The case in the is based upon the concept of the owner giving the object to the second party , with the responsibility of watching an object that is given to you to care of. In the , the owner of the object asks someone to break their object for them and the person is liable for payment, only because the object was initially given to them , for the purpose of watching. The initial responsibility given to the was to watch it. Only later did the owner tell the to break it. The responsibility of is so important that even though the owner told the at a later point that he can break it, it is still considered and he has to pay for the damage he caused.

In the _____, the person is _____ from damages because he was given the object initially _____, meaning when he was first given the object he was immediately told to break it.

Let's now bring in an additional concept. The _____ on _____ " introduces us to the idea of _____, "on the condition that you will be exempt." The _____ says that in general, saying _____ does not exempt the damager from responsibility of being a _____. However, if the owner says _____ when he says _____, then he is exempt from payment.

So far, we learned some fundamental ideas, but there is another case. The _____ on _____ " talks about a scenario where someone puts a lump of burning coal on another man's heart and the man dies. _____ rules in this case that he will be exempt from death. Why would that be so? The reason given by _____ " is that the person should have removed the coal and not let it burn them.

However, there is similar case in which the person putting the coal on something is, in fact, held responsible for damages. The case is that instead of putting the coal on someone's heart, they put it on someone's garment which is on the ground. In this case, the owner doesn't remove the coal, and yet, the person who puts the coal on the garment is liable to repay for damages to the garment. Why should the person putting coal on a garment be treated differently than a person who puts a burning coal on someone's heart?

The difference is in what you expect the damaged person to do. In the case of the person who has coal on his heart you would expect him to immediately take it off. After all, if he doesn't he is going to die. To a certain extent, he himself is responsible for the damage he incurred. However, as _____ " explains, the person whose shirt is burning may specifically not act because he knows that he can go to

the to claim his loss so there is no need for him to do anything now.

However, the idea that the person who allows his garment to burn is entitled to damages bothers the " on . " . To the " , the case of someone burning someone else's garment should be no different than the person who gives someone a garment and immediately tells them to rip it. It seems that in both situations, the person is relinquishing control over his property. Can't one make the assumption that a person who puts his garment on the floor or allows it to burn no longer values it? In addition, if in both cases the responsibility for damages stems from demonstrating that you no longer value your property, then it would seem that the person who is told to break after being told to watch should also be exempt from damages. The " resolves this question by stating if the person who placed a coal on someone's garment would be by arguing the owner should have removed it, even if the owner did not direct him to burn it, how much more so we should exempt someone who is instructed after they were given it , which we have stated is unless the owner said .

We Don't Follow the Majority in Monetary Cases (. ") Raffi Klausner ('19)

In ' it says , which is the source of the concept that we follow the , the majority. The is talking about , which are capital cases, but not , which are monetary cases. The in . " discusses the separate topic of whether we follow the in . The brings multiple cases where the terms (a jug) and (a barrel) are used interchangeably. states that these two words technically have the same meaning. He then asks that if and are the same, why are there two different words? His answer is that there is a in cases of sale in places where most people call a a and a a , unlike a minority of the people, who use the two inversely. In such a place, if someone who keeps the terms straight asks for a (meaning a) and receives a , he cannot argue that it was an invalid sale because he got what the seller would call a , and the seller can claim to be part of the minority. The uses this to conclude " " which means that we don't follow the majority in monetary cases.

On this, asks why we do not follow the majority here, since we do follow the majority in where we are generally stricter. Therefore, we should use a to apply the concept of to monetary cases where we are usually more lenient. To answer this, distinguishes between two kinds of majorities: a , which means a majority that is in front of us, and a , which is a statistical majority. An example of is if there are 3 pieces of meat mixed together, 2 kosher and 1 not kosher, but we cannot identify which piece is from which. An example of is stating that most people buy oxen to plow and a minority buy them to slaughter. The issue of not

following the majority in *Halakhot* only to apply to a *reshut* since we do follow the majority in *Halakhot*. In this instance of meat, we follow the *Halakhot* to determine the meat is permissible to eat. So too, if there was a monetary case in a *reshut* in which two judges vote in favor of one party while one judge votes in favor of the other, the ruling follows the majority of judges. This case is considered a *reshut* since it is based on a fact that is directly observable (two vote one way and one votes the other way) and not based on statistics.

on : " *Halakhot* explains the reason why we only follow a *reshut* in *Halakhot* is because we disregard the minority and treat it as if it is incorporated into the majority. In the case of the judges that would mean that although one judge dissents, we view it as if all three judges are giving a unanimous decision. Normally we follow the assumption that when there is a lack of evidence we leave the money with whomever is in possession of it. Here, however, the *Halakhot* has the ability to determine monetary ownership, based on the principle of *Halakhot*, what is declared ownerless (and by extension, transferring ownership) by the *Halakhot* is ownerless (or belonging to the new owner). In this kind of situation where there is neither a minority nor an assumption of ownership, we do follow the majority. However, in a situation of a *reshut*, there is a minority which cannot be ignored and assumption that whoever is in possession of the money has the rights to it, which combined go against the majority. Therefore we don't follow these kinds of majorities in *Halakhot*. Therefore, in the case of the barrels, the buyer will only get a *reshut*, and in the case of buying an ox, he will have to keep his ox even though he may have intended to buy one for plowing as opposed to slaughtering.

Taking the Law into Your Own Hands (: ")

Yona Burstyn ('19)

The question at hand is whether you are allowed to take the law into your own hands. An example of this would be if you know someone stole an item from you, would you be allowed to take the item back yourself rather than take them to court to restore your property.

The on : " starts by bringing a case of . The case is there are two farmers with fields who share an irrigation pit from which they draw water for their fields. Each day only one farmer can draw water, with the farmers each day alternating whose turn it is to draw water. One day, Farmer A sees Farmer B drawing water, despite the fact that it is Farmer A's day to draw water. Seeing this, Farmer A tells Farmer B to stop drawing water because it is not his day, but Farmer B ignores him. To prevent him from taking the water which is rightfully his, Farmer A whacks Farmer B with his shovel. Farmer B didn't like this, so he sued for damages, but rules that farmer A was allowed to hit him with the shovel, and in fact could have hit him as many times as was necessary to stop him from drawing water.

In this case we can see that the farmer was allowed to take the law into his own hands. In this case though, the clarifies that there is an element of immediate loss. " explains that if he went to , the other farmer would continue to draw water, and Farmer A would be unable to verify how much water he took, or Farmer B would take all the water which would not be able to be returned. Even , states the , who is of the opinion that you cannot take the law into your own hands, agrees that if there will be a financial loss if you wait to go to court, you can take the law into

your own hands. We see that the only scenarios in which they disagree is when there is no immediate loss.

The [Mishnah](#) brings several cases trying to support one side or the other. One proof that is brought is as follows. Someone notices that someone else's ox has climbed on top of their ox with the intent to kill it. To save their ox, they may pull out their ox from under the other one, causing the other ox to fall, killing it. The ruling here is that the one who pulled out their ox on the bottom, killing the top ox, does not have to pay for the dead ox. This challenges [Maimonides](#), because it shows that the one whose ox was in danger was allowed to take the law into his own hands. When asking the question, the [Mishnah](#) is assuming that the attacking ox in this case was actually a [Mishnah](#), an ox which has gored at least 3 times in the past. This would further support [Maimonides](#) because if the attacking ox is a [Mishnah](#), the owner of the ox which was attacked can receive full restitution if his ox is killed, since the rule is a [Mishnah](#) must pay [Mishnah](#), full damages. This shows that even in a case where there is no monetary loss, one can still take the law into their own hands. This proof is then rebutted by the [Mishnah](#) saying that in this case the attacking ox is actually a [Mishnah](#), a tame ox, which would mean that the owner would have a monetary loss if his ox is killed, since the owner of the attacking ox would only have to pay in court half the value of the dead ox. An important note emphasized by the [Mishnah](#) is that while pulling out your ox is allowed, pushing the top ox off your ox and killing it is forbidden. This is because when you pull out your ox, you are actively saving your own property, even though this happens to cause the attacking ox to die. However, when you push off the attacking ox, you are actively killing another person's ox in order to save your ox. Since pushing off the other ox is doing an action and was not needed to be done to save your ox, you would not be permitted to do so. However, in a case where you are unable to pull out your own ox, pushing off the attacking ox is justified, because it was the least force needed to save your ox, and thus is allowed in that specific case.

Another proof brought is the following situation. One walks outside of their house to discover that someone has put some jugs of wine and oil in their yard without permission, such that the owner of the yard is blocked from entering or exiting his yard. The ruling in this case is that the owner of the yard may break his way through the jugs to get in or out of his yard. This is because the one who put the jugs there had no right to do so. Note that in this case there is no monetary loss to the owner of the yard, yet he may still take the law into his own hands by destroying the barrels to get through his yard, and is not obligated to pay for them. This proof is rejected by _____, who explains that when the _____ says that the owner may break the barrels and exit it means he may break the barrels to exit in order to go to court, and when it says the owner can break them to enter his house, it only means he may break the barrels in order to enter his house to obtain documents which prove the courtyard belongs to him. This is significant because he is only allowed to do what prevents him from sustaining a loss, which means that we cannot prove from here whether _____ opinion is correct or not. _____ explains that although it is possible for the owner of the courtyard to move all the jugs aside so he can exit his yard, we will not burden him by forcing him to do so since the owner of the jugs had no right to put them in the yard, blocking the path through his yard. This is contrasted with the case of one animal attacking a second animal, where we burden the owner to save his animal by pulling his out.

The " _____ clarifies what _____ means when he says _____ . When _____ allows it, he means you can only take the law into your own hands if you have the evidence to back up your claim in court. However, if you could not prove your case in court, even _____ would not allow you to act on your own.

When looking at the concept of _____ , there are two possible ways of understanding it. One way is to view it as vigilantism; if someone wrongs you, you have permission to defend

yourself and respond. The other way is to view yourself acting as a messenger and extension of the court, and thus operating within the framework of the judicial process. The " " seems to support this second approach by stating that

only works if you have the evidence to prove your case in court. If you could win your case in , the doesn't obligate you to come before them and try the case; they allow you to confiscate the money on their behalf. If you could not prove your case before them, they do not allow you to take the law into your own hands, since they themselves could not rule in your favor. Additionally, the name of the concept, , supports the idea that what you are doing is a form of , something within the judicial system.