'BAMOTH' IN THE OLD TESTAMENT*

By J. T. Whitney

The bamoth were the chief crucible for the conflict between the faith of Israel and the religion of Canaan. Israel had brought with her from the desert a faith based on historical revelation, covenant community, personal commitment and moral obedience./1/ The religion of Canaan, on the other hand, was based on an appeal to the senses, magical rites to manipulate the gods, a cyclic view of time, and gods which were merely part of the order of things rather than in control of them./2/

Between these two systems, and the different ways of life they represent, there was an inevitable conflict, and as Israel became a settled agricultural community, the local shrines became the focus of the encounter. The frequent reference to the term בָּמוֹת and its cognates (102 times in the Massoretic Text; about 90% in literature relating to the divided monarchy) is sufficient evidence of the importance of these shrines in Israel's history and in the development of her faith. It is clear from both Old Testament history and prophecy that here was something rejected by those who regarded themselves as heirs to the true Mosaic faith. Light shed on the bamoth will therefore illumine Yahwism also.

Yet, despite progress this century in understanding many aspects of Canaanite religion, the bamoth have remained enigma. Clearly understood lines of interpretation, not of scholarly consensus, have emerged from the study of the Ras Shamra texts about the mythology and

worship of Canaan.

Light has been shed on much of the religious equipment mentioned in the OT - Standing Stones, Asherah Poles, Incense Altars, and the ubiquitous Astarte plaque found in every Iron Age excavation illustrate the deep hold of fertility religion on the lives and homes of the ordinary Israelites during the monarchy period. Yet it was the bamoth which the biblical historians singled out as the real source of the cancer in their midst. Every king, except two, is criticized because he 'did not remove the bamoth', and 'once again Israel did that which was evil in the sight of the Lord'. Even kings for whom general approval is expressed, like Asa and Jehoshaphat, are faulted on this issue; only Hezekiah and Josiah made serious attempts to destroy their evil influence.

Study of the bamoth has hitherto been dominated by a series of unfortunate fashions. The earliest comment outside the OT is to be found in the Talmud. The Rabbis were clearly embarrassed that, despite the command of Moses to worship 'only at the place Yahweh shall choose' (Deut. 12 etc.), early heroes such as Samuel, Saul and Solomon are found worshipping at bamoth. The Talmud excuses their behaviour by a theory of the periodic lifting of the ban on bamoth and by

7. J. B. Pritchard, Palestinian Figurines in Relation to Certain Goddesses known through Literature (1943).
8. E.g. 'Before the Tabernacle was set up bamoth were permitted . . . . . . after the Tabernacle was set up bamoth were forbidden . . . . . . . when they came to Gilgal bamoth were again permitted', Tractate Zebahim 112b, 113a.
a supposed distinction between a great and a small 
_bamah_. Neither suggestion has any real basis in the 
OT but similar concerns can be seen to motivate 
translations in the Targums, the LXX and the 
later Rabbis. Early critical study of the subject 
was concerned with the same issue but proposed a 
different answer. Julius Wellhausen proposed 
that Deuteronomy was a 'pious fraud' and so Israel's early 
heroes could not be held guilty of contravening a law 
not yet in existence. Thus far there had not been any 
study of what _bamoth_ actually were.

Possibility of real progress seemed to be offered by the 
early archaeological expeditions to the East. 'For a 
while sanctuaries blossomed luxuriantly under the pick 
and mattock', and the excavators of Tell es Safi.

9. E.g. 'There is no difference between a Great High 
Place and a small one save in the matter of the 
paschal lamb offering'. Tractate Megillah 9b.

10. Thus although the Targums normally render בָּמַה as 
בָּמַתָּא, Jonathan ben Uzziel uses a word normally 
meaning 'dining room' through 1 Samuel 9, thereby 
disassociating Samuel and Saul from the taint of 
_bamah_ worship. See P. Churgin, _Targum Jonathan to 
the Prophets_ (1907).

11. בָּמַה is used for Hebrew בָּמַה only in passages 
relating to the lives of Samuel, Saul, David or 
Solomon, thereby putting them into a class by 
themselves. 19 different words are used in LXX to 
translate בָּמַה; the poetic non-cultic references are 
particularly poorly handled. Comparison with LXX 
renderings for other Canaanite religious terms 
shows the limited knowledge of the subject 
available in Hellenistic Judaism. Josephus, _The 
Antiquities_, omits all reference to the bamoth.

12. These references are collected together in B. 
Ugolinus, _Thesaurus_ (1744) Vol. 10, Cols. 559f.

13. J. Wellhausen, _Prolegomena to the History of Ancient 
Israel_ (1878); see Part One, A History of Worship.

14. C. C. McCown, 'Hebrew High Places and Cult Remains', 

15. F. J. Bliss and R. A. S. Macalister, _Excavations in 
Palestine during 1898-1900_ (1902) 31-34 on Tell es 
Safi.
Tell Taanach, Tell en Nasbeh, Beth Shemesh, Gezer and Tell Beit Mirsim all claimed bamoth. In 1941 James Montgomery wrote of Palestinian excavations 'every one of which has revealed the remains of such ancient sanctuaries'. In fact Montgomery's claim was already out of date by the time the book appeared for, by the outbreak of the Second World War, it was clear that a drastic re-appraisal of results was necessary. Increasing sophistication of excavation techniques during the inter-war years had brought the uncomfortable conclusion that not a single excavated bamah could be supported; the only exception being that of Petra, which was a surface exploration and not an excavation. Some bamoth had clearly been found because they were expected rather than because they were there. This 'wishful thinking' phase, as Albright called it, was followed by a period of disillusion. C. C. McCown attempted to show that bamoth were not public sanctuaries, which was why they had not been found. He proposed that any wayside altar or domestic libation vessel could be regarded as a bamah - a solution designed to fit the cultic equipment found at Megiddo, but which hardly does justice to the biblical evidence.

The new breakthrough that was needed appeared to come in 1957-8 when three articles were published proposing that

*bamo*th were tomb-shrines. Samuel Iwry read Isaiah 6:13 with the help of the Qumran Scroll and proposed that it referred to the destruction of a *bamah* by the throwing down of the funerary *massebah*.  

25/ Ruth Amiran suggested that the structures she had been excavating west of Jerusalem were a type of tomb *bamah*.  

26/ However, it was W. F. Albright who brought these and other strands together to form a new picture.  

27/ By several textual emendations he found other OT references to tomb *bamo*th. He apologized to Vincent for arguing with him about Gezer and suggested that, like Byblos, Hazor, the Sinai Cairns and the Jerusalem Tumuli, it should now be interpreted as both a tomb monument and a *bamah*. Part of the prophetic reaction against the *bamo*th, he believed, could now be seen as 'against objectionable funerary beliefs and practices'. Cults of the dead were perhaps more common than hitherto supposed and the position of the Pharisees may have been 'a normal development from an age old Israelite faith'. Albright repeated his position in 1968/28/ and did not modify it in any of his subsequent publications.

The tomb theory has passed into general works on the Bible,  

29/ and is probably to be regarded as the dominant hypothesis. Nevertheless, it cannot be regarded as securely based. Albright's biblical analysis is built on five textual emendations, which


themselves have not gone unchallenged. There are, on the other hand, over a hundred firmly attested readings which carry no such implications. The archaeological evidence proves to be equally inconclusive in the light of the decisive re-excavations of Gezer and the so-called 'Conway High Place' at Petra, and Carl Graesser's important classification of masseboth and their functions. /33/

Popular literature on the Bible frequently lacks any explanation or comment on the bamoth. Where a comment is made, it is usually to a 'cultic platform'. The knowledge of most Bible readers is probably limited to the English rendering of בָּמָה in a particular translation. The term 'high place', first coined by Coverdale under the influence of LXX, Vulgate and Wycliffe, was adopted by the KJV and has become the most commonly used English translation. It has long been realized that it is not particularly exact as it carries the idea of 'height' not present in every OT use of בָּמָה but not the idea of 'cult'.


33. Graesser, op. cit.

34. E.g. 'The high places were the elevated platforms or altars': J. Mauchline in Peake's Commentary on the Bible (Nelson, 1962) 340.

35. Coverdale: 'hie places' or 'hie places'.

36. ὑφηλός is used 57 times for בָּמָה.

37. Excelsum is used 89 times.

38. Wycliffe: 'heeze thingis' or 'Hize thingis'.
Modern translations have tended to move toward a more definitely 'cult' rendering. Hence To-day's English Version translates by 'heathen places of worship', The Living Bible by 'altars to other gods' or 'shrines on the hills'. The New English Bible generally translates by 'hill shrine' but The Jerusalem Bible retains 'high place'.

Confirmation that the time is ripe for a fresh look at the problem comes with the appearance of The Meaning of Bama in the O.T. by Patrick Vaughan, published in Oct. 1974. Unshackled by any former approaches to the subject, Patrick Vaughan deals in detail with the etymological and linguistical material and also makes some general suggestions about the correlation of biblical and archaeological evidence. With over ninety pages of text and black and white illustrations, this is the first book length study of the subject to appear and it is certain to become the standard work. Members of the Tyndale Fellowship will be pleased to see prominent reference to the Tyndale House Library in a S.O.T.S. Monograph. I want to place on record my gratitude to Patrick Vaughan for his help in correspondence and for lending me a pre-publication copy of his work. Neither of us find the tomb theory supported by the evidence. However, my own study of the variety of shrines referred to as bamah in the OT leads me to reject his 'cult platform' views and therefore to find a greater variety of archaeological illustrations.

In the first section of his book Patrick Vaughan discusses the relationship between Hebrew בָּמָה and related words. Seven examples of bmt in the Ugaritic literature are noted and the translation 'flank' proposed rather than the more usual 'back'. Akkadian bamtu which occurs in anatomical contexts can best be translated 'rib cage', 'chest'.

40. So Driver, op. cit., e.g. 'She lifted up her father and put him on the bmt of a he-ass' (Aqhat I ii 10).
41. E.g. 'If he cries "woe" during his sickness, lies on his bamtu and does not turn over. . .' Omen text in I. J. Gelb and B. Landsberger, The Assyrian Dictionary of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago.
bamâtu, which occurs in agricultural and military contexts, means 'hilly slopes or foothills surrounding cities'. /42/ bamâtu may therefore be the plural of bamtu occurring only in a specialized topographical context, being thought of as 'rib cages of mountains'. /43/ Vaughan draws a sharp distinction between the two Hebrew plural forms במות and במתי. The former he regards as always cultic relating to the stone platforms or sanctuaries used for worship. The latter he believes is never cultic but, like Akkadian bamâtu, is thought of as 'hill sides'. The clue to the semantic link between the two lies, he suggests, in the cultic purposes to which the platforms were put. There are a number of OT places where Yahweh is said to ride or walk or set Israel or an individual upon the 'heights of the earth'. /44/ Vaughan suggests these passages are evidence of a Hebrew myth about Yahweh appearing in theophany and that the cultic sense of the word was coined, perhaps in Israel, to 'actualize this mythology in cultic ritual'. Further semantic developments are seen in בהמה, 'beast', in the meanings 'grave-mound', 'cultic platform' and 'sanctuary' for במח and in the Greek βωμός to mean 'cultic platform'.

Two hesitations must be expressed about this analysis. First the distinction between the plurals is difficult to maintain in the light of Ezek. 36:2 and Num. 21:28 which use במות in a non-cultic sense. The attempt to show that these are in fact references to places of worship is not convincing. Ezekiel records the enemy's taunt, 'Aha! Now the everlasting highlands are ours'. (36:2) Ownership of the heights gave rights to the whole land, mountains, hills, streams, valleys, palaces and cities and now Ezekiel is told to prophesy to the heights of their restoration to Israel. As Vaughan

42. E.g. 'I made their blood flow over the lowland and the bamâtu of the mountains'. H. Rawlinson, etc., The Inscriptions of Tiglath-Pileser I (1857) 1:79f.
43. So Vaughan, op. cit., and W. von Soden, Akkadisches Handwörterbuch. Gelb, op. cit., regards them as two unrelated words.
44. Amos 4:13; Micah 1:3; cf. Job 9:8; Deut. 32:13; 33:29; Is 58:14; 2 Sam. 22:34 = Ps. 18:33; Hab. 3:19.
points out, battles often took place on heights in
ancient times; possession of the heights therefore gave
lordship over the land. /45/ There is therefore a
common link between the two plurals, במותי 벵터, and
במות, namely the idea of lordship or dominance. Secondly, it
must be questioned whether the ride/walk passages are
really sufficient evidence on which to suggest a ritual
dramatizing the myth of Yahweh walking across the במות.
What happened at this ceremony? What other evidence is
there for it? Restriction of the idea to Israel cannot
be maintained in the light of at least two clear
pictorial representations on cylinder seals showing Baal
walking on two or three mountains. /46/ It is more
likely that we are dealing here with the language of
faith. Israel asserted that Yahweh was lord even over
the symbols of lordship! Thus Amos draws his terrifying
picture of Yahweh, and no other, marching over the
heights to visit his vengeance on his errant people
(Am. 4:13).

In his second section, Vaughan discusses briefly the
O.T. evidence for bamah shrines. In the third section,
after dismissing the so-called 'Conway High Place at
Petra', archaeological evidence for two types of bamah
platform is discussed. Type I was round in shape with
a flat top and examples are discussed from Nahariyah,
Megiddo, Arad and the Jerusalem Tumuli. Type 2 was a
low straight-sided platform and examples are discussed
from Hazor, Arad, Dan and possibly Shechem. Mention is
also made of three low platforms which had altars built
on them at Shechem, Petra and Arad. Literary evidence
for Type 2 platform is seen in the word חיק (Ezekiel
43:14).

The suggestion that bamah shrines were fundamentally
‘platforms’ has been made before, though it has never
previously been given such sustained exposition. OT
support, however, is not great. Vaughan cites four
pieces of evidence in support. (i) Isaiah 16:12:
concluding his dirge over Moab, Isaiah states that her

5. Cf. 2 Sam. 1:19,25.
6. E. Porada, Corpus of Ancient Near Eastern Seals in
North American Collections, Bollingen Series 14,
Vol. 1 (Text), 129-130, Vol. 1 (Plates), Numbers
967E, 968.
worship at the *bamah* is of no avail; 'When Moab comes to worship and wearies himself upon the *bamah* and comes to his sanctuary to pray he will gain nothing'. The *bamah* is used in parallel with *מקדש*, a word used of substantial cult buildings and usually translated 'sanctuary'. The phrase 'על־הבמה' is unique to this reference. If this particular *bamah* was on a height, the phrase may well be intended to be understood as 'up there at the *bamah* on the height'. (ii) Ezekiel 16:16 may imply a platform but it is a notoriously difficult verse to interpret due to the difficulty of knowing whether the 'clothes' are meant literally or symbolically (cf. verse 10). (iii) בּבְמָות, as Vaughan states, can equally well be translated 'at the *bamoth*' as 'on the *bamoth*'. (iv) Although it is true there are passages which seem to identify *bamah* and altar, there are also others which clearly distinguish the two. The conclusion seems to be that all *bamoth* had an altar and that some were perhaps little more than an altar. Curiously the clearest evidence of platforms is a passage where MT does not contain בּמה at all. However, רָמַה should probably be read בּמה in Ezek. 16:24, 35 and 31 for the 'mound' which was בּמה every open place' . . . . 'at the top of every street' doubtless refers to town *bamoth*. On *a priori* grounds it is, of course, highly probable that some *bamoth* did contain raised platforms. Out of functional necessity, rather than any attempt to simulate height, most religious buildings contain a raised area so that the proceedings can be clearly seen. The simpler *bamoth* may have been little more than a platform on which sacrifice was offered, but this was merely the form the *bamah*-shrine happened to take in these instances. In other cases a platform may have been part of a whole complex of religious buildings, while a third type of *bamah* probably contained no platform at all.

Confirmation that fundamentally run meant ‘shrine’ and was used of the whole cult complex, which may or may not have contained a platform, can be found wherever the literary evidence provides a detailed description of a *bamah*. There are examples from several periods. In 1 Samuel 9 the feast is described as 'at the *bamah*' וּבְבָמָה but the meal is held in the dining room לָשֶׁכֶה, which was large enough to accommodate 30 people. When the party had dined, they came down 'from the *bamah*' מְהַבָּמָה.
'Hill shrine' (NEB) is the only possible translation as בֵּיתִם is clearly being used of the whole cult area. Similarly in 1 Kings 3:4, 'Now King Solomon went to Gibeon to offer a sacrifice, for that was the chief hill-shrine'. Solomon used to sacrifice 'upon its altar'. There is no reference to a platform but altar, Tabernacle, and incubation facilities are all included in the term בֵּיתִם, which was clearly only one stage removed from being called a הֵיכָל. Similar implications about the use of בֵּיתִם are carried by 1 Kings 14:23 where chambers for prostitutes are implied and by the reference to priests' houses in 2 Chronicles 34:3-7. Particularly significant is Amos' bitter oracle against Israel where מקדש, a word commonly used of substantial cult centres such as Jerusalem Temple,/47/ is used as a synonym for בֵּיתִם. 'The hill-shrines of Isaac (מבות־יצחק) shall be desolated and the sanctuaries of Israel (ומקדשי־ישראל) laid waste.' (Amos 7:9) The only non-biblical reference to בֵּיתִם in a cult sense, on the Moabite stone line 3, carries the same implication. Mesha refers to the shrine he has built to Chemosh in Qarhoh as 'this bamah' (also probably at the end of the top line 'a bamah of salvation'). There are no suggestions in the text of height or platforms and the word can only be translated 'Sanctuary' (so Ullendorff/48/ and Albright/49/) or 'shrine' and not 'high place'

It has perhaps been too readily assumed that the biblical evidence is of little help in understanding the ancient bamah, perhaps because many of the references are in the apparently cursory historical summaries in the books of Kings. Both Vaughan/50/ and Albright/51/ state that the biblical evidence is only of a very general non-specific kind. However, careful study of the MT supplemented by judicious use of the LXX reveals much important data, and this is the only basis upon which archaeological discoveries can be

47. 66 of the 74 references to McKenzie are to the Jerusalem Temple or to the Tabernacle. 29 are in Ezekiel, 13 of them in the idealized vision of the Temple in ch. 44-45.
49. W. F. Albright, ANET, 320-321.
interpreted. Significant details emerge of important Israelite *bamoth* which existed at Bethel, Gibeah, Gibeon, Ramah and three in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem. There were also *bamoth* at Bamoth-Baal and other places in Moab. As already noted, the use of the phrase 'to walk upon the heights of the land' seems to indicate that the root meaning of the term to the Hebrew mind stood for heights symbolizing lordship. This may help us understand why shrines were first erected on heights, thereby claiming the symbol of lordship for the gods. Verbs of construction and destruction reveal general characteristics of the *bamoth* and references to Beth-Bamoth, the dining room at Ramah, Gibeon, rooms for prostitutes and houses for priests indicate that some *bamoth* at least were considerable establishments. Officiating priests were probably normally called כמרים. Not only were prophets, prostitutes and priests found associated with the shrines, but even once a cook.

A wide range of cultic activity was practised,/52/ including the bringing of gifts, libations, prayers, prostitution and probably ritual lamentation. However, worship centred on the acts of sacrifice. The shared offering and the incense offering were the most common, also whole offerings, and in one instance, which appears to be exceptional, child sacrifice.

An important conclusion to emerge from the biblical evidence relates to the position of the *bamah*. The first *bamoth* mentioned were clearly on high ground (e.g. Num. 22:41; 1 Sam. 9 & 10:5; 1 Kings 11:7). Later *bamoth* were described as 'on every high hill and under every spreading tree', a phrase which, by quoting extremes of high and low ground, indicates that *bamoth* were to be found everywhere./53/ Other *bamoth* are said to be in the city,/54/ or even in a valley./55/ This

52. See especially, Ezekiel 20:27-29.
53. 1 Kings 14:23; 2 Kings 16:4; 2 Chr. 28:4; Ezek. 20:27-29. The phrase is an example of the Hebrew idiom of expressing totality by quoting extremes (cf. 2 Kings 17:9).
54. 1 Kings 13:32; 2 Kings 17:9,29; 23:5,8a,19; 2 Chron. 14:5; 21:11; 28:25.
development did not happen everywhere at once, for of all human activities, cult is among the most conservative. Doubtless established bamoth remained where they were; thus Solomon's cult places on the Mount of Olives were still there two centuries later (1 Kings 11:7; cf. 2 Kings 23:13). But as the population grew during the monarchy period and new cult places were established, it was natural for them to be placed within easy reach. This was a period when Israel occupied a central place on the stage of world history. Egypt and the successive Mesopotamian empires vied with one another for the control of the Palestinian land bridge. Many towns improved their defences and developed means of obtaining water in time of siege. It was therefore natural to bring the point of access to the gods also within the city. In some cases, like Jerusalem, the city may have grown to include the sacred area within itself; in others the highest point of the town may have been chosen for the establishment of a cult centre.

A vivid insight into the variety of shrines which were regarded as bamoth is afforded to us by the literary deposit of the final decades of Judah's existence. Fortunately, this is one of the most detailed records of any period of OT history; 2 Kings 23 contains ten references to bamah shrines, more than any OT chapter. Verse 8b refers to a small bamah probably to be interpreted as a shrine to gate numenes not situated on a height and little more than a wayside altar with no regular cultus or staff. Verse 13 refers to Solomon's bamoth on the Mount of Olives built for Ashtoreth of the Sidonians, Chemosh of Moab and Milcom of the Ammonites. Bethel, the ancient Canaanite shrine, which was given new status by Jeroboam I and had risen to become a 'royal shrine' by the time of Jeroboam II,/56/ is called a bamah in verse 15. Verses 5, 8a and 9 refer to bamoth 'in the cities of Judah and the neighbourhood of Jerusalem'. Verses 19 and 20 refer to 'all the bamoth in the cities of Samaria' which had been encouraged by the, kings of the northern kingdom and taken over by the Assyrian settlers for their own gods. Both of these are clearly references to the common local shrines where the people slaughtered and burnt sacrifices. Verse 10

refers to Topheth in the valley of Ben-Hinnom where child sacrifices were made to מֵלֵך. The writer of Kings does not call this shrine a bamah but the contemporary prophet Jeremiah did so.\textsuperscript{57}/

Such a survey shows that in the closing years of the monarchy period many types of cult centre were thought of as bamoth - small gate shrines, royal centres to foreign gods, large public shrines, local rustic shrines and even Topheth. Their situations are as varied as their cults - on hills, in cities and settlements, by the city gate and in a valley. The inescapable conclusion is that by this period בַּמָּה was a general word for a small shrine. Thus the usage of the word had developed from being a purely secular word with no cult content to become primarily a place of cult with no indications of position.

Once it is realized that בַּמָּה often means no more than 'local shrines' and the general movement in location from heights to many different kinds of situation is recognized, it can be seen that new perspectives for interpreting archaeological data are open. In one sense, the task is more complex for there was clearly no common feature such as a massebah or a platform for which we can search. On the other hand, every excavated cult site of moderate size for a period of more than a millennium becomes relevant.

Only a few bamoth are given a named geographical position in the OT,\textsuperscript{58}/ so it is perhaps not surprising, if disappointing, to record that none of them has, yet been exposed. The large cult platform built by Jeroboam I, and excavated by Dr. Biran at Dan,\textsuperscript{59}/ was almost certainly regarded as a bamah by later generations, but it is not so named in the OT. Jerusalem has yielded the Kenyon shrine\textsuperscript{60}/ and the

\textsuperscript{57} See note 55.
\textsuperscript{58} Bethel (2 Kings 23:15); Gibeah (1 Sam. 22:6); Gibeon (2 Kings 3 etc.); Jerusalem (1 Kings 11:7; 2 Kings 23:8b; Jeremiah 7:31); Hamah (1 Samuel 9); Bamoth-Baal (Num. 21:19-20 etc.).
\textsuperscript{60} K. M. Kenyon, \textit{Jerusalem, Excavating 3000 years of history} (1967) 63-65; \textit{PEQ} 1963, 9-10; 1964, 8-10; 1967, 66; \textit{Digging up Jerusalem} (1973).
Tumuli,/61/ both from the Iron Age, but not Solomon's shrines on the Mount of Olives, or the shrine by the gate of Joshua or Topheth. Nothing yet has been found of the biblical bamoth at Bethel, Gibeah, Gibeon, Ramah or Bamoth-Baal.

Of the simplest hill-top bamah, perhaps consisting of a massebah, altar and rude enclosure, little would have survived to be discovered. In any case, most excavations are of Tells and most evidence can therefore be expected of bamoth established in towns or where the town grew to include the bamah. In fact, despite the false starts of the 'wishful thinking' phase, we can be confident that shrines illustrative of the main types of bamoth indicated by the literary evidence have now been discovered. Their dates span the whole period of the OT, and both before and after. The majority, however, are concentrated in the Iron Age, the period in which the literary evidence encourages us to believe the bamoth were most common.

Bamoth outside settlements are illustrated by the shrines of Nahariyah, Samaria, the Jerusalem Tumuli and Petra. At Nahariyah (MB 17-16th centuries) a temple and circular cult area were probably used by people from the unexcavated Tell 900 m. away./62/ At Samaria the trapezoid shaped enclosure SE of the 8th century town showed evidence of sacrifice and cult use and was connected to the town by a natural rock bridge at the west./63/ The Jerusalem Tumuli (Iron Age, 7th century) still present a number of problems, not least the large number of them./61/ Nevertheless, present evidence suggests that they are some of the bamoth 'in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem'. (2 Kings 23:5) The late date and non-Jewish characteristics of the civilization of the Nabateans recommend caution in relating the 'high places' of Petra to the biblical evidence./22/

Nevertheless, parallels with biblical evidence can be noted, and it seems that some Semitic traditions were preserved though height clearly remained a feature rather longer.

61.  R. Amiran, op. cit.
Bamoth on heights in the towns are illustrated by Megiddo, Arad, Qedesh and perhaps Beersheba. Megiddo's structure 4017 (EB/MB, 2500-1900) must, despite interpretation problems, be regarded as the first known bamah within a settlement and therefore advanced for its day. Early Iron Age Arad (11th century) had a paved area, crescent shaped platform and probably a massebah. It was situated on the summit of the hill while the settlement was down below on the slopes. At Qedesh Stratum V (Iron Age 10-9th centuries) a sacral area was found on the summit of the mound. A raised floor at Beersheba (Iron Age, 10th century) has revealed cult equipment.

Small shrines in towns, but not on heights, such as the literary evidence shows were called bamoth by the Exile, are known from Hazor, Dan and Jerusalem Kenyon. LB Hazor (13th century) has revealed two possible examples. Platform 8019 was clearly used for cult purposes and shrine 6162 in Area C provided a rich supply of religious objects. It is difficult not to regard these shrines as bamoth even though they are several centuries earlier than the earliest literary references to town bamoth. They may illustrate how an advanced urban society found the need for local shrines within the city ahead of other areas. The large platform at Dan (Iron Age, 10th-9th centuries) appears to have had adjacent buildings connected with the shrine. The Kenyon shrine at Jerusalem (Iron Age c. 700) illustrates some of the features of a town bamah of the divided monarchy period.

Another type of bamah, mentioned only once in the OT, is the gate-shrine (2 Kings 23:8) and is paralleled by archaeological evidence from Tirzah and Dan, and

64. G. Loud, Megiddo 11, seasons of 1935-1939 (Chicago, 1948).
68. Y. Yadin et al., Hazor, Vol. 2 (1959) 127-139.
perhaps also from Hazor and Beersheba. The Tirzah shrine (Iron Age, 1000-722) was a small stone platform with a pillar and basin, which went through several phases during its three centuries of life./69/ At Dan (Iron Age 10th-9th centuries) a small structure in the gate which was covered by a canopy has been discovered./70/ At Beersheba (Iron Age, 10th century) a fine, incense altar was found near the gate and may have stood nearby./71/ Carl Graesser reports a small cultic installation by the gate of Hazor./72/ Gate-bamoth were doubtless very simple affairs and are to be associated with threshold superstitions. They may well have been more common than the few discoveries indicate. Their simplicity will have meant they rarely survived an invader's destruction of the gate.

The tendency of a shrine to change its status, as illustrated in the OT at Bethel and Gibeon, is frequently shown by archaeology. The sacredness attached to a holy site leads to a tendency to perpetuate the location. Thus, if the evidence can be accepted as reported, the barren eminence of Chalcolithic Bethel (3000) was followed by a temple in MB1./73/ Megiddo's structure 4017 (EB/MB, 2500-1900) was joined in successive periods by three temples erected alongside./64/ At Sukas (Early Iron 1150-675) Complex IV and the level area around it preceded the Greek temple./74/ At Arad (Early Iron, 11th century) the bamah of Stratum XII was replaced by a temple in Stratum XI./65/

70. A. Biran, op. cit.
71. Y. Aharoni, op. cit.
72. Graesser, op. cit., 56. No detailed description or reference is given.
At Lachish (Early Iron, 10th century) there may well have been a 'High Place' before the later Solar Shrine. /75/ At Qedesh (Iron Age, 10-9th centuries) the 'High Place' of Stratum V was covered by a room containing an altar in Stratum IV. /66/ Dan appears to be an unusual example of a bamah which remained fundamentally unchanged for many centuries. /59/ Its excavator suggests it was erected by Jeroboam I and was still in use in Hellenistic times. The inference to be drawn from these shrines is that the only difference between a bamah and a hekhal was size. The shrines of a community which grew in wealth and status could be 'promoted' whereas neglect, due to political, economic or religious factors, might result in a 'demotion'.

Literary and archaeological evidence also complement one another about the structures and cults of the bamoth. Despite some slight indications that early bamoth may have been tents, /76/ it is clear from the verbs used in the OT to 'construct' or 'destroy' a bamah that for the most part they were man-made structures requiring considerable effort to build or to demolish. Mesha's use of ḫĕṣē and his erection of a commemorative stele on completion of the project have the same implication. Shrines at Megiddo, /64/ Dan, /59/ and Samaria /63/ must have involved substantial planning and effort. The destroyers of the altar from Hazor's shrine 8019 had in fact been unable completely to dislodge the altar 8002 and left it at a rakish angle for the excavators to find. /68/ The OT indicates that some, though not all, of the bamoth had buildings attached to them. Excavated shrines in the towns of Megiddo, /64/ Hazor, /68/ Arad, /65/ Lachish, /75/ Tirzah /69/ and Jerusalem Kenyon /60/ were surrounded with houses, although it is not easy to prove that any of them were specifically associated with the shrine. Hazor's Shrine 6136 in Area C had a potter's shop attached to it. /68/ The Kenyon shrine at Jerusalem was associated with nearby caves /60/ and several of the Petra shrines had houses and dining rooms closely connected with the shrine. /22/

75. Y. Aharoni, IEJ Vols. 16, 18, 19.
76. See the proper name Oholibamah, 'tent of the high place' (Gen. 36:2) and also, possibly, Ezek. 16:16.
Two other types of archaeological evidence which may be relevant to the physical appearance of *bamoth* are shrine houses and cultic scenes. Several shrine houses are known from ancient ruins including well known examples from Beth Shan and Megiddo. Several are in a very poor state of preservation but can be partially reconstructed and appear to have been used as stands for incense bowls in shrines./77/ At Gezer, Macalister found another type of pottery shrine, consisting of a small courtyard with some fragments of walls and door sills. Unfortunately the shrine itself had been completely broken off and the object is badly reported and photographed./78/

Another type is represented by two examples: one was bought from a Trans-Jordanian dealer in 1947, its exact provenance being unknown./79/ It is barrel-shaped and has clear indications of an attempt to represent a pillar at each side of the barrel. A similar type, although more elegant in appearance, comes from a pit in Stratum III, Tell el Farah./80/ It seems that at least some attempt is being made in these two shrines to give a visual impression of a religious building. There are obvious parallels with pillars used in other religious buildings, the most well known being the pillars of Jachin and Boaz which flanked the entrances to Solomon's temple./81/ A number of scenes depicting worship on platforms, or with some of the main features of *bamoth*, have been discovered in archaeological research, and a selection of them are given in W. L. Reed's *The Asherah* (1949). Unfortunately such items prove little, as there is insufficient evidence to link them with the *bamoth*. More instructive, though still not definite evidence, is the Sit-Samsi tablet, discovered in the 1904-1905 campaign at Susa./82/ It was found in the centre of the

80. R. de' Vaux, RB 62 (1955) 571-2; also in *Archaeology and OT Study*, 376.
mound with nothing about its location to suggest a shrine nearby. However, the scene it depicts is unquestionably of a cult ceremony and the inscription can be read sufficiently clearly to show that it was dedicated by the Elamite King Silhak-in-Susinak as a 'Sit-Samsi' towards the end of the 12th century BC. Interpretation of 'Sit-Samsi' is not without difficulty, but it is usually held to represent a dawn or sunrise ritual of ablution. The plaque depicts two naked men in the centre, presumably priests, performing the ceremony, also trees, pillars, posts and two large platforms or altars.

Few images are discovered in Palestinian excavations, perhaps because they were destroyed by the zeal of the enemy. Hazor's Shrine 6162 in Area C produced a seated figure in basalt but he could be a king, governor or god./68/ Nahariyah/62/ and Samaria/63/ produced many male, female and animal figurines, but we cannot say with confidence that any of the images associated with the bamoth have been found. The literary evidence indicates that every bamah had an altar and the shrines of Hazor F, Hazor C/68/ and Jerusalem Kenyon/60/ provide examples. At Bethel,/73/ Megiddo,/64/ Nahariyah,/62/ Sukas,/74/ Arad,/65/ Dan,/59/ Samaria/63/ and Jerusalem Tumuli/26/ there was some kind of platform or level area which may have served either as a base for an altar or in place of one. Incense altars (חֵמָנִים) or basins have come from the Hazor Shrines,/68/ Lachish,/75/ Tirzah/69/ and Beersheba./67/ Masseboth are not always easy to identify, but credible examples have been found at Nahariyah,/62/ Hazor C,/63/ Arad,/65/ Tirzah,/69/ Lachish/75/ and Jerusalem Kenyon./60/ A preliminary report by the excavators of Lachish even claims a burnt Asherah./75/

Archaeological evidence also parallels the fertility cults of the bamoth. Animal bones, thought to be from sacrifices, were found at Megiddo,/64/ Nahariyah,/62/ Hazor F,/68/ Sukas,/74/ Arad/65/ and Samaria,/63/ Bloodstains were claimed by the excavators of Chalcolithic Bethel./73/ The incense altars mentioned above are as much evidence as we can expect of this type of offering. The oily deposit at Nahariyah is probably a unique survival of ancient libation./62/ However, the most common deposit on any Palestinian site is pottery, and the quantities which have come from every excavated bamah not only assist dating, but also
indicate aspects of the cult. Vessels of a clearly
cultic character have come from several sites. From
Nahariyah came dozens of small pottery bowls with
seven cups, and several seven-wick saucer lamps;\(^62\)/
from Hazor F an alabaster double goblet;\(^68\)/ from
Hazor C curved sided and carinated vessels, also a
pottery cult mask;\(^68\)/ from Dan an oil lamp with seven
spouts.\(^59\)/ Quantities of ordinary household pottery
were found at all the sites, and it is likely that they
had contained the qorbanim brought to the shrine. They
could not pass back into secular use for, in the later
Jewish phrase, they 'made the hands unclean' so they
were deposited in \textit{favissae}, either whole (as at
Jerusalem Kenyon\(^60\)/) or having been deliberately
smashed.

Israel was bound ultimately to reject the \textit{bamoth} if she
was to remain true to her historic faith. 'During the
dual monarchy period some loyal Yahwists did use \textit{bamoth}
in the service of Yahweh. This was done as D. F. Payne
put it 'in all innocence'\(^83\)/ but must be judged as
naive. It was left to finer spiritual insight to
realize the danger of syncretism which this involved.
The political instability of the three centuries before
the Exile gave full rein to any local experiment, and as
\textit{bamoth} became established in the towns, so, to those who
cherished Israel's historic traditions, the picture
darkened. The publication of the Book of the Law in 621
and the reform of Josiah were attempts to implement the
vision of one nation, one God and one temple. Josiah's
reform therefore was the beginning of the end of the
\textit{bamoth}, even though his successors did not follow his
lead. But Judah could no longer survive on the stage of
world history by changing her course and her policy with
every wind. Involvement with the empires of the day
proved her undoing, as Isaiah had predicted, more than a
century before. Her inner life eaten away by amoral
cults, Judah had no vision and so the people perished.
Nemesis came at last with the Babylonian invasion and
exile, which gave an opportunity for national soul-
searching, and it was a very different nation which
returned a generation later.

The end of the *bamoth* is as difficult to date as the end of the Canaanite religion itself. Their demise is lost in the obscurity of the post-exilic era. All that can be said is that they disappear from both the literary and archaeological evidence at the time when Judaism began to emerge as a central orthodoxy, based, as Simon the Just later expressed it, ‘on the Torah, on the (temple) service and on the doing of kindness’.\(^{84}\)

The *bamoth* were not a wholly negative experience for Israel; some positive lessons were learned.

First the connection between height and divinity had been re-inforced. It would not be correct to say that it was the *bamoth* which first taught Israel to connect the two; Mount Sinai was the definitive height experience of the Israelite faith. Nevertheless it is striking how many important events of the Bible take place on heights and the *bamoth* appear to have made a contribution to a vital motif of the Judaeo-Christian tradition. As Dr. Tewfik Canaan expressed it:

> It is interesting to note that all the great divine works have, traditionally, been performed on mountains: Ararat and the ark of Noah, Moriah and Abraham's sacrifice, Sinai and the law, Ebal and Gerizim with the blessing and the cursing. It is the same also with Jesus: on a mountain he was tempted, was transfigured, preached, prayed, was crucified, and from a mountain he ascended to heaven.\(^{85}\)

Secondly, the experience of the *bamoth* before the Exile made a dual contribution to the development of Judaism after the Exile. The origins of the synagogue are still obscure but are usually held to be in the small groups meeting for prayer during the Exile. Parallels with the *bamoth* are instructive. Both were for the expression of religious devotion on a local level, but *bamah* worship centred on sacrifice, whereas the synagogues were 'houses for prayer' and based firmly on obedience to the Torah. The amount of control over the early synagogues

\(^{84}\) Quoted in the Pirke Aboth, 1:2.

exercised by the Jerusalem Temple is unknown, but it is certain that sacrifice was reserved to Jerusalem. As time went on Judaism became increasingly centrally organized by Torah and temple.

In rejecting unitary views of the *bamoth*, whether platforms or tomb-shrines, we are being true to the spirit of Canaanite religion. It was essentially a response in polytheistic fertility terms to the concerns of an agricultural way of life. Central control was foreign to its nature and made impossible by political fragmentation. Variety was of its essence. *Bamoth* were therefore different things in different places at different times. Jeremiah, agonizing over Judah's infidelity, contrasted the One whom they had given up with the worthless substitutes: 'On me they have turned their back . . . . . for you Judah have as many gods as you have towns.' (Jer. 2:27-28)
It has become fashionable in Old Testament studies to think of the book of Deuteronomy as the deposit of a 'demythologizing' movement whose aim, in the words of M. Weinfeld, was 'the collapse of an entire system of concepts which for centuries had been regarded as sacrosanct'. Deuteronomy, it is held, rejects the older theology of the Jerusalem cult which regarded the temple as the permanent dwelling-place of Yahweh. In this tradition, Mt. Zion was the 'mountain of Yahweh's inheritance' in the sense of the Canaanite-mythological idea of the god's cosmic abode. God is thought of in a corporeal way. Within the tabernacle 'sits the Deity ensconced between the two cherubim, and at his feet rests the ark, his footstool'. The priestly ministrations served to satisfy his physical needs, and were performed לְפַרְצֵי יְהוֹваֹה, i.e. in his very presence. On this view, Israel's entitlement to dwell in her land was cultic; it was guaranteed by Yahweh's dwelling on Zion. This had the effect of evacuating Israel's religion of ethical content, and led to the opposition of the prophets. But the most systematic rejection of the 'official' Jerusalem theology, it is said, is embodied in Deuteronomy.

Deuteronomy insisted that Yahweh dwelt, not in the temple, but in Heaven. Von Rad, followed by many others, discerns a change in the conception of the ark in Deuteronomy. No longer is it the footstool of God dwelling in the tabernacle, but merely a receptacle

4. Ibid., 192.
6. Ibid.
containing the stones on which the law is written.\footnote{7}

The ark has been 'demythologized'. But the most important weapon in Deuteronomy's demythologizing armoury was, for von Rad and others, its use of name-theology. The question of demythologization could be treated from many angles. But our present study will concern itself only with this aspect of it.

Von Rad, whose work on name-theology has been widely accepted and followed, recognized that it was not new with Deuteronomy, but he believed nonetheless that it attained its most developed form there. Rejecting the 'old crude idea' of Yahweh dwelling in the shrine,\footnote{8} Deuteronomy believed that not Yahweh, but only his name 'as a guarantee of his will to save' dwelt there.\footnote{9}

The name achieved, indeed, an 'almost material presence', so that the conception of it there 'verges closely on a hypostasis'.

In particular, von Rad set Deuteronomy's 'name-theology" over against the 'glory-theology' of P. Glory-theology was another means, von Rad believes, by which the actual presence of Yahweh at the shrine was denied. Indeed it was an advance over name-theology, for now there is not even a hypostasis of Yahweh there. Rather P's tabernacle becomes 'the place on earth where, for the time being, the appearance of Yahweh's glory meets with his people'.\footnote{10}

This is in curious contrast to the view of Weinfeld, who thinks the 'glory' imagery 'derives from ancient traditions concerning divine manifestations'.\footnote{11} \כבוד, he thinks, literally means 'body' or 'substance'.\footnote{12} Glory-theology is for him, therefore, the epitome of primitiveness and corporeality in theophany, and it is this that Deuteronomy's name-theology is reacting against.\footnote{13}


\footnote{8} G. von Rad, \textit{op. cit.}, 38.

\footnote{9} \textit{Ibid.}, 38f.


\footnote{11} Weinfeld, \textit{op. cit.}, 204.

\footnote{12} \textit{Ibid.}, 202.

\footnote{13} \textit{Ibid.}, 206.
Despite this disagreement over glory-theology, however, von Rad and Weinfeld are agreed that name-theology was something distinct from it and characteristically deuteronomic.

Building on von Rad's basic premise, F. Dumermuth attempted to explain the presence of name-theology in Deuteronomy. In his attempt to discover which sanctuary was intended by the expression 'the place which the Lord shall choose', he traced the history of name-theology in distinction not only from the glory-theology of Psalms and Chronicles, but also from ark-theology, of which, he thought, only a residue remains in Deuteronomy. He proposed that while ark-theology was at home in Jerusalem and Judah, name-theology arose in the north, that is, in a part of Israel for which the ark and its traditions were lost after the division of the kingdom. Name-theology was, he believed, a conscious attempt to replace the ark as a guarantee of God's presence. However, when Deuteronomy appeared in Jerusalem, found by Josiah, the name-theology remained, and the ark found no real place in Deuteronomy again. But in the long run, 'name' proved to have little staying power. Although it features in Psalms and Chronicles it is not really at home in either. Glory-theology is more characteristic there. Dumermuth thus tried to trace the contrast between name- and glory/ark theologies right through the Old Testament.

This, then, is one understanding of the nature of name-theology in Deuteronomy. The existence, however, of certain Old Testament passages which seem to combine name-theology happily with the themes with which it is said to be incompatible leads us to ask whether it is the right one.

15. Ibid., 61ff.
16. Ibid., 70ff.
18. One such is 2 Sa. 6:2, where we read of '...the ark of God which is called by the name of the Lord of hosts who sits enthroned on the cherubim'. Cf. 1 Kgs. 8:10-12 with vv. 14 ff, where glory-theology and name-theology are juxtaposed in Solomon's prayer.
One other way of looking at Deuteronomy's name-theology is against the background of the use of the 'name' of a king or overlord in the Ancient Near East. The king Abdu-Heba, mentioned in the Amarna letters, 'set his name in the land of Jerusalem'./19/ The phrase šakan šumšu is like the Hebrew שָׁכֵן שֵׁם in form. It appears to be an affirmation of ownership of the place where the name is set,/20/ with implications of control over the surrounding area./21/

The ideas attendant on the Akkadian phrase šakan šumšu can plausibly be carried over to Deuteronomy./22/ The phrase 'the place which the Lord shall choose to put his name there' indicates that the chosen sanctuary will be Yahweh's possession for ever, and indeed affirms his lordship over the whole land. Thus the name-theology of Deuteronomy becomes a way of expressing the essential deuteronomic theme of conquest and possession of the land. This is a very different angle on name-theology from that proposed by von Rad, Weinfeld and others. It makes its origins legal not cultic,/23/ and therefore does not depend purely on the postulation of the reaction of one kind of cult-theology against another./24/ It raises the possibility that name-theology, while it undoubtedly has a peculiar role to play in Old Testament theology, should be seen as complementary to other ways of speaking about the presence of God, rather than as representing a different conception of that presence.

20. Cf. J. Schreiner, Sion-Jerusalem (Munich, 1963), 163; R. de Vaux, RB 73 (1966) 449. Schreiner cites C. Bezold's opinion (Babylonisch-Assyrisches Glossar, Heidelberg, 1926, 272 b), that 'to set the name' means 'to establish lordship (die Herrschaft antreten)'.
22. The inference is made by both Schreiner and Wenham.
23. De Vaux, RB 73, 449.
24. This is not to suggest, incidentally, that all the scholars who point out the El-Amarna parallel deny that name-theology should be seen in terms of a contrast with glory-theology; cf. de Vaux, op. cit.
Before proceeding to examine more closely in what way name-theology might relate complementarily to glory-theology, a word will be in place about the relation of name- and ark-theology. J. Schreiner took Dumermuth to task for his belief that name-theology was the north's answer to its loss of the ark. To compare name-theology with ark-theology is not to compare like with like. If a parallel exists between the ark and something in Jeroboam's cult it would be the calves set up in Bethel and Dan. The very plurality of Jeroboam's sanctuaries stands against the view that Jeroboam was merely trying to replace the Jerusalem cult./25/ These criticisms are telling. And Schreiner strengthens his case by giving due weight to 2 Samuel 6:2 (cited above /26/) as proof of the close relationship, that existed between the ark and the name. In Jeremiah 7:12, furthermore, Yahweh's name was said to have been at Shiloh - which was of course the home of the ark for a long time./27/ If Schreiner then goes beyond the evidence in suggesting that the procession of the ark to Jerusalem was a bearing of the name thither,/28/ he has nonetheless redressed the balance in favour of a proper association of name and ark.

Exodus 33: 18ff is a vital passage for the interpretation of the relation between the name and the glory of God. Its interest lies not merely in the juxtaposition of the two ideas, but in that the passage comes close to articulating how they stand in relation to each other. J. Barr thinks it unlikely that any source division could separate out the various 'presentations' of the Deity in this passage./29/ But because of the subject-matter of the passage, we have to go further and say that, at this point at least (and the passage is broadly classified as belonging to JE) there is a theology whose perspective can embrace both the name and the glory.

25. Schreiner, *op. cit.* 159f.
26. See note 18.
27. Schreiner, *op. cit.*, 161.
29. J. Barr, *VTS* 7 (1959) 35. As well as שם and כבוד, the passage contains the terms טוב, פנים, מלאך and אחוזה.
In v. 18 Moses makes the bold request of Yahweh: 'I pray thee, show me thy glory'. Yahweh declines to show Moses his glory, but says rather: 'I will make all my goodness pass before you, and will proclaim before you my name' (v. 19). Moses is then granted a vision of God. While God's glory passes by, Moses has to be shielded from it lest he should die. He then sees God's back (אחור), but not his face (פנים). The introduction of these last terms makes the terminology a little problematical. But it is clear enough, that Moses has had to be shielded from a full view of God's glory, while he is permitted to be fully conversant and familiar with his name. In the familiarity of the name and in the fact that the glory of God is not immediately accessible to Moses, we may have a clue as to how to proceed in evaluating the different uses of the two terms.

As Barr has pointed out, the problem in Exodus 33:18ff, coming as it does on the heels of the rebellion in Exodus 32 (the making of the golden calf), is: 'how can Yahweh now go with Israel on their journey?'. There is a deep tension here. On the one hand, Moses expresses the concern that Yahweh should continue to be among his people; his presence is seen as essential to their continued well-being. Yet on the other, that very presence is likely to consume them (v. 20). And Yahweh's answer to the problem is to shield his glory (v. 22) (alternatively, his face, vv. 20,23), while proclaiming his name (and making all his goodness pass before Moses, v. 19). The theophanic terms are marshalled in such a way as to provide a solution to the problem raised by Israel's need to approach and be intimate with one who by his nature was holy and unapproachable. Hence the centrality of the notions of

30. B. S. Childs has suggested that this request parallels Moses' earlier desire to know God's name (Ex. 3:13). Exodus (London, 1974), 595.
31. Barr, op. cit., 35. V. 20 suggests a general sense in which the presence of Yahweh is likely to consume men, i.e. not specifically related to the sin of Ex. 32. Whether or not the sin of Ex. 32 is in mind, however, the nature of the tension is the same.
graciousness and mercy (v. 19). The name and the 'goodness' reflect this disposition to have mercy./32/

Confirmation for the distinction made (in this JE passage) may be found in the use of 'glory' in certain passages attributed to P. In Exodus 40:34f it is said that the glory of, the Lord filled the tabernacle and Moses could not enter the tent of meeting because of it. As in Exodus 33:18ff the unapproachability of God's glory is emphasized. Exodus 40:34f is closely followed by 1 Kings 8:11 and 2 Chronicles 7:2.

In some P passages the glory of God does seem to appear to all the people./33/ There is probably no need to think, however, that this constitutes a second kind of understanding of the glory within P. A ready explanation is found in Exodus 16:10, 24:16. In the former of these it is said explicitly, and in the latter strongly suggested, that the glory appeared 'in the cloud'. Probably, therefore, we have to suppose that in those passages where the glory appears at the tabernacle (as Numbers 17:7 (16:42)), the cloud that normally covered it/34/ covered the glory also./35/ The cloud

32. Barr rightly points out that this passage and the problems it raises have nothing to do with the question of anthropomorphism, but are entirely about the relation between sin and the presence of God, op. cit., 36. Here is another indication that Weinfeld, von Rad and others have been mistaken in thinking that the relation between 'name' and 'glory' was to be discussed in terms of anthropomorphic and anti-anthropomorphic conceptions.

33. E.g. Ex. 16:10, Nu. 14:10; 16:19; 17:7 (16:42); 20:6.

34. See Nu. 9:16, Ex. 40:38.

35. Support for this comes from J. Milgrom, Studies in Levitical Terminology I (University of California Press, 1970), 45n. Milgrom describes the appearance of God's glory as 'cloud-encased fire'. In the same place, incidentally, he argues that the Sinai theophany of Ex. 19 is the archetype of P's tabernacle, indicating a correspondence which, he thinks, demands a re-appraisal of source-criticism, pp. 44f and nn. 167, 170. For the appearance of the glory in the cloud cf. M. Weinfeld, op. cit., 202f.
would presumably have lessened the effect of the vision of God's glory, thus fulfilling the same function as God shielding Moses in Exodus 33:22.

There is, incidentally, a hint of a specific purpose in the appearance of God's glory in Numbers 16:2, namely that ' . . you shall know that I am the Lord'. And here, once again, it seems that the glory has similar functions in JE and P. Numbers 14:20f (JE) looks forward to the day when 'all the earth shall be filled with the glory of the Lord'. In the P passages, 'glory' is a means by which people shall know the Lord; in JE it anticipates a day when all men actually would know him.

We can conclude from these occurrences of 'glory' in JE and P that they consistently express some unusual manifestation of God. The glory of God is unapproachable and dangerous and may not be seen by the people, or even by Moses. The name of God, on the other hand, is something with which his worshippers are permitted to become familiar. From Exodus 3:14 and 33:19 we know that there is no hesitancy on Yahweh's part in this respect, in contrast to the revelation of his glory.

It seems to me that the broad distinction discerned here can be maintained in large parts of the Old Testament. The Psalms, the prophets and Chronicles all accommodate both the name and the glory. This in itself is an indication that they are compatible, and that the various writers concerned consider them to have complementary roles. But this is precisely what Dumermuth felt it necessary to deny. In his view the name is not really at home either in Psalms or Chronicles. It has crept into the latter, he believes, via a deuteronomistic redactional layer, while in Psalms where both terms appear, the glory idea seems to be preferred. /36/

A look at these books, however, reveals that no more here than elsewhere are the two terms in competition with each other. In the Psalms the context of the 'name' is usually one of personal devotion. The Psalmists 'call on thy name', i.e. in normal prayer (63:4; 80:19; 99:6

etc.), 'sing praises to his name' (68:5, cf. 92:2; 135:3 etc.), 'fear thy name' (61:5), 'love his name' (69:36), 'worship thy name' (86:9), 'give thanks to thy holy name' (106:47), seek 'help . . . in the name of the Lord' (124:8), 'trust in his holy name' (33:21) and 'know thy name' (9:10). The last of these perhaps embraces all of them, being strongly reminiscent of Yahweh's revelation of his name in the Pentateuch and that readiness to make it familiar which we have noticed. The name-tradition is clearly very much at home in the Psalms, and evidently occurs readily to the psalmists when they seek to express feelings towards God which would be the stock-in-trade of regular, normal worship./37/

In contrast, 'glory' appears to be the preferred expression when the context is that of the dramatic manifestation of God, and is therefore in continuity with its use as we have observed it in both JE and P. Psalm 97 exemplifies this well. Here all the peoples of the earth behold a dramatic manifestation of God on Zion. The gods themselves bow before him. The attendant imagery is that of fire and lightning and mountains melting like wax. And very significantly, 'clouds and thick darkness are round about him' (v. 2). The appearing of the glory on Sinai (Ex. 19:16; 24:15ff) is clearly recalled, as indeed is the general theme, in P and JE, of the glory being covered in cloud. Psalm 96:3ff speaks similarly of the spectacular nature of God's glory, such that all the nations see it and fear. /38/ This fear is different from the godly fear of the worshipper of Yahweh in the expression 'fear thy name' (61:5). It is rather the terror of those to whom God

37. Of all the places mentioned Ps. 116 may illustrate most clearly the worship context. There we read of 'my supplications', v. 1; 'the soul's rest', v. 7; praise for deliverance from death, tears, stumbling, v. 8; and walking before the Lord, v. 9. Schreiner has also seen the close relation between prayer and the name (Sion-Jerusalem, 164). He cites Solomon's dedication-prayer as itself an embodiment of this, and also cites passages in Psalms and elsewhere to show how the name is used in contexts of grace, salvation and trust in God.

38. Cf. Ps. 66:2f.
appears as the most terrible of enemies. 106:20 relates God's glory and his judgment on Israel's sin very closely. /39/ 108:6 expresses the wish that God's glory should cover the earth - reminiscent of Numbers 14:21 (JE) - and a reference again to the visible majesty of God. Other examples of the use of 'glory' for a dramatic manifestation of God are 102:16; 104:31f (of Sinai); 96:3; 72:18; 145:11f. Often the thought is simply that of loftiness and majesty, without any specific theophany; 113:4; 19:2; 138:5f.

There are a few occasions in the Psalms when the roles of 'name' and 'glory' might seem to be reversed. 111:9 reads 'Holy and terrible is his name'. 44:51 and 54:1 stress the might of God's name, enabling the worshipper to overcome his enemies. But there is no real departure from normal usage here. The 'terrible' (נורא) of 111:9 corresponds to the 'fear thy name' of 61:5. And the latter two passages are really contexts which express trust in God for strength. 26:8, on the other hand, uses 'glory' in a context of devotion. The Psalmist says 'I love... the place where thy glory dwells'. It is significant, however, that the object of 'love' is 'place', not 'glory'. The combination 'love thy glory' is unthinkable. The distinction therefore is persistent.

This is true even in those texts which contain the combination 'glory of his name', and variants. When this occurs the context usually brings one into the foreground more than the other. In 29:2 and 66:2 the stress is on the glory; in 79:10 it is probably on the name. Psalm 96 is a song of the victories of God set in the context of normal worship, resulting in a curious intermingling of the two themes - but no confusion.

We have to conclude from the above that 'name' and 'glory' in the Psalms fulfil distinct functions. There are contexts where the one is appropriate and the other definitely not. The psalmists do not trust or love or call on God's glory, whereas this is characteristic of the name.

39. This was often the case in P. In Nu. 14:10 it heralds the judgment on the faithless spies, vv. 36f. Cf. Nu. 16:19ff (the judgment on Korah).
This may seem to push us towards von Rad's opinion that
the name verged on a hypostasis of God, the glory being
more in the way of an attribute. Von Rad said of
Deuteronomy's conception of Yahweh's presence at the
sanctuary: 'It is not Yahweh himself who is present at
the shrine, but only his name as a guarantee of his will
to save; . . .'/40/ This is to go too far, however, for
von Rad fails to take sufficient account of the
possibility of direct communion with God in name-
contexts, above all in Deuteronomy itself./41/ The
Psalmists too communed directly with their God. They
could love, trust and call on him without invoking the
name as intermediary (cf. e.g. Ps. 30:1-5). It is true,
of course, that name, being and personality are closely
related in Hebrew thought generally./42/ But when God's
name is made to appear almost synonymous with himself
(as in 68:5a, where 'God' and his 'name' correspond to
each other in parallelismus membrorum) the form is
subject more to poetic considerations than to
ontological./43/ Weiser is surely nearer the mark when
he says that the name in the cult is a proclamation of
the nature of God, linked with that of his will./44/ It
is not necessary to think of this proclamation in terms
of theophany however./45/ Exodus 33:18ff suggested that

41. Deuteronomy's common formula 'the place which the
Lord shall choose to put his name there' is very
often closely attended by the expression לפני יהוה
(before Yahweh); e.g. Dt. 12:7, 12, 18(2x); 14:23,
26; 15:20 etc. The phrase לפני יהוה was one which
Weinfeld thought characteristic of that theology
which Deuteronomy was consciously opposing. But
these passages show that Deuteronomy could also
conceive of Yahweh as in some sense directly
present at the sanctuary.
42. Cf. W. Eichrodt, Theology of the Old Testament II
43. Contra Eichrodt, who has thought 'name' to be a
hypostasis in the Psalms; op. cit. 41ff.
45. Contra Weiser, ibid., 30.
the proclamation of the name was something less than a full theophany. And the day-to-day practice of the cult was probably not dependent on theophany. Our observations on the use of the name in the Psalms have shown it to be used in contexts of normal worship and devotion.

It is clear from the above that Dumermuth's belief in the Psalmists' preference for 'glory' is misguided, and pays scant regard to the way in which both terms are actually used. There could only be the sort of preference he envisages if they meant roughly the same thing and were somehow in competition with one another. But this is not the case.

A brief look at Chronicles yields a similar result. Dumermuth claimed that 'name' is not really at home there, but has been imported from the deuteronomistically redacted books of Kings. There are, however, several occurrences of the name of God in Chronicles passages which are not even paralleled in Kings.\(^{46}\) In all of these, of course, the use of 'name' derives ultimately from the usage in Deuteronomy. The reference is to the house that was (or was to be) built for 'the name of the Lord'.\(^{47}\) But the absence of the Kings parallel invalidates the claim that name-theology only entered Chronicles via the deuteronomistic redactor. There is no good reason to suppose it has not been directly inspired by Deuteronomy itself. The presence of 'name' in Chronicles therefore (it is actually more frequent than 'glory'), is more than just an embarrassing anomaly which can be argued away. It is integral to the theology, of the Chronicler.\(^{48}\)

Dumermuth's conclusions about 'name' and 'glory' are, therefore, unsupported by the evidence in Psalms and Chronicles.

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46. These are 1 Chr. 22:7f; 2 Chr. 6:32f; 7:14; 20:8.
47. There are other occurrences of 'the name of the Lord' in Chronicles without parallel in Kings, but these are not so directly associated with the place chosen by the Lord, or the building of the temple: e.g. 2 Chr. 14:11; 18:15.
48. Clements, God and Temple, 128f, sees that both are at home in Chronicles.
Chronicles. The indications are, on the contrary, that
the use of the two terms is determined, not by the
appropriateness of each to one or other theological
movement, but rather by their separate functions, which
appear to be recognized throughout the Old Testament.

Our starting-point was von Rad's treatment of name-
theology in Deuteronomy. Does the above throw any new
light on the fact that the name is common in Deuteronomy,
while the glory and the ark find a place there only once
each?/49/

We have noticed, especially from the Psalms but also
from elsewhere, that 'name' seems to be used in
contexts where the kind of revelation of and response to
God is that of normal, ongoing worship. 'Glory' occurs,
'on the other hand, for dramatic, exceptional divine
manifestations, or when some emphasis is laid on God's
majesty. This is why the use of 'glory' is appropriate
in, for example, the narrative of the exodus, so full of
miraculous, unique event. Deuteronomy, however, in its
legal part, deals rather with what is to be the routine
of worship in the new land. Hence the appropriateness
of 'name'./50/ The same factor explains the few
occurrences of 'glory' and 'ark'. This does not mean
the author of Deuteronomy had no time for them. They
are at least present. And in its single reference to
the ark, Deuteronomy has what might be thought an
unlikely companion in the Psalms, where 'ark' also
occurs only once./51/ Yet the Psalms are not usually
thought to be incompatible with an ark-centred
theology. With the now common association of many
Psalms with the cult of the first temple, the reverse is

49. At 5:24 (21) and 10:8 respectively.

50. The relation between the name and worship in
Deuteronomy and the deuteronomic literature was
affirmed by Schreiner on the basis of the Amarna
letters. He compared the prayer of Solomon in 1
Kgs. 8 with that of Abdu-Heba: may the King - in
this case Yahweh - care for his people and land.
The prayer assumes a connection between the
presence of the name of Yahweh at the sanctuary and
salvation: 1 Kgs. 8:29f, and cf. v. 16.

51. Ps. 132:8.
the case. It seems, then, that the preponderance, of 'name' over 'glory' and 'ark' in Deuteronomy can be explained quite acceptably in terms of the nature of the book itself.

It is true, then, that 'name' is deliberately chosen in Deuteronomy when it is used. But this is not because it is somehow the badge of a theological movement that underlies the book, but rather because, especially in the legal part, ordinary worship is a prominent subject. Two further points lend support to this contention.

First, Deuteronomy is not unique in associating the name of God and a place of worship. The same combination is found in Exodus 20:24. That context also envisages regular worship rather than special manifestations of God. Secondly, the use of the term 'name' in Deuteronomy fits in with the book's wider concern to set the worship of Yahweh over against that of foreign gods. Other gods also have names. This gives rise to the possibility of contrast between Yahweh and them, possibility which is exploited in 12:3-5. Yahweh will put his name at the place which he shall choose (v. 5); but the names (שְׁמָם) of foreign gods are to be destroyed (v. 3)./52/ This is not just a stylistic effect, although it is that. It shows again in what sense the name and the glory are distinct from each other. The presence of the name of Yahweh at the cult-place of Israel means that it is Yahweh who dwells there and has power there, and no other god. The point is insisted upon in the name-names contrast because 'the place which the Lord shall choose' (whichever sanctuaries that phrase was subsequently applied to), would almost certainly have been associated with the names of particular foreign deities before it was associated with Yahweh. In this way diction is wedded to content. It is difficult to imagine such an effect being produced with 'glory', since it is hardly conceivable that a Yahwist would write of the glory of a foreign god. This is evident from a passage like Psalm 97:5ff, where the

52.  G. J. Wenham says, on the basis of 12:3, that 'Yahweh's name is conceived of dwelling in his sanctuary in much the same way as the name of Canaanite gods dwelt in theirs'. TB 22, 113.
appearance of Yahweh's glory (v. 5) is evidence in itself of his exaltation above all other gods (vv. 6, 8). The contrast here is of a different kind, and apparently does not oppose Yahweh to other particular gods, but rather to gods in general. For this reason too, then, the use of the name of Yahweh, rather than that of his glory, is more appropriate to the purposes of Deuteronomy.
HEBRAIC ANTECEDENTS TO THE EUCHARISTIC ANAMNΗΣΙΣ FORMULA

By David W. A. Gregg

The current strengthening of the speculation that Jesus may have spoken in Hebrew at the Last Supper/1/ gives added stimulus to the quest for possible Hebraic antecedents to the formulae that we find in the Greek New Testament. Material for this quest in respect of the ἀνάμνησις formula has, however, proved particularly elusive.

If we begin, as we must nowadays, with Jeremias's standard work, The Eucharistic Words of Jesus,/2/ we find, despite his championing of the longer text of Luke 22, no reference at all to this formula in the section on 'Semitisms' (pp. 173-186), nor in that on 'The Original Language' (pp. 196-203). In the section 'That God may Remember Me' (pp. 237-255), however, he does extend a modicum of help. On p. 249 he first proposes splitting the sentence between the command (τοῦτο ποιεῖτε) and the purposive clause (εἰς τὴν ἐμὴν ἀνάμνησιν) which parts he then treats separately.

For the former he offers as antecedents Ex. 29:35; Num. 15:11-13; Deut. 25:9 (cf. Mishnah, Yeb. 12:3). However he himself acknowledges, in a footnote, that these are all examples in LXX of the adverb οὕτως with a form of ποιεῖν, rendering the Hebrew כָּכָה a jussive of עשה, which he identifies as 'an established expression for the repetition of a rite'. But since the eucharistic formula has, instead, the demonstrative pronoun τοῦτο used as the direct object, these are rather unconvincing as antecedents, and hardly justify the closing of the question whether the command here is to repeat a rite (i.e. breaking and eating/drinking), or to manipulate an

object (i.e. the bread/cup), as a commemorative act. One might even argue that, in the light of these suggested antecedents, the absence of οὐτως (the 'established expression'), and the alternative use of τοῦτο, make the latter interpretation rather more likely than the former!

For the latter half of the formula Jeremias makes no allusion to any Hebrew equivalents, but he does give a lead in footnote 3 on p. 251, where he offers eighteen examples to show that 'An objective genitive with ἀνάμνησις, μνημόσυνον is the established usage'. Of those he gives, we possess the underlying Hebrew for only eight, all of which, surprisingly, are from the Book of Ecclesiasticus, the Wisdom of Ben Sira. But every single one of these is (a) an example of μνημόσυνον rather than ἀνάμνησις, (b) an example of the direct object, whereas the formula has as with the accusative, and (c) renders from the Hebrew the noun זכר, the one nominal form from the root זכר for which μνημόσυνον is always used in LXX, and for which, unlike זכרה/זכריא, and זכריה/זכריה there is no example rendered by ἀνάμνησις! It is obvious therefore that these are most unpromising as pointing to Hebraic antecedents of the ἀνάμνησις formula, and indeed Jeremias advances no such claim for them.

His selection does suggest, however, a far more promising possibility. The Wisdom of Ben Sira is arguably the nearest LXX book to New Testament times for which we possess portions of the original Hebrew, which would suggest that scrutiny of it in our quest might prove particularly profitable. And we are not disappointed.

If we rejoin the two parts of the ἀνάμνησις formula and enumerate the features noted above, we find, in τοῦτο ποιεῖτε εἰς τὴν ἐμὴν ἀνάμνησιν, the following sequence:

3. Though he does discount the Aramaic דילי, op. cit., 251, n.2.
5. Ps. 38 and Ps. 70 titles.
direct object - form of ποιεῖν – εἰς + accusative from root μιμήσκειν. And an examination of the forms from μιμήσκειν found in Ben Sira yields two examples of exactly this sequence, viz.:

45:9 ἀκουστὸν ποιήσαι ἤχον ἐν ναῷ εἰς μνημόσυνον υἱοῖς λαοῦ αὐτοῦ.

50:16 ἀκουστὴν ἐποίησαν φωνὴν μεγάλην εἰς μνημόσυνον ἐναντὶ ὑψίστου.

And, happily, for both these examples we possess the original Hebrew, viz.:

45:9 לזכרוֹ לכיֹּר קהל לאבךְ לכיםֶר תמי

50:16 להזכיר לפני עליון וישהמעו קול אדרונְ יהבְּרִ רמי תליון

From this we may note the following points:

(a) ποιεῖν corresponds to the Hiphil element of the Hebrew verb in each case; i.e. it has a causative significance.

(b) In conjunction with εἰς it renders the Hiphil plus ל in each case.

(c) The forms from the root זכר which occur are both found elsewhere rendered by ἀνάμνησις. In Numbers 10:10 (זכְר) and in the titles of Psalms 37 (38), and 69 (70), where לזכרי is rendered εἰς ἀνάμνησιν, as in the eucharistic formula.

(d) The absence of an objective genitive to μνημόσυνον should not measurably detract from the value of these examples as antecedents. They themselves contain distinctive elements outside the sequence we are looking for. And the status of the possessive adjective ἐμήν in the ἀνάμνησις formula is quite undecided anyway. It does, in any case, appear to be the distinctive, novel and emphatic feature of the whole, for which one would perhaps hardly expect to find antecedents.

(e) Both examples in Ben Sira are in a most markedly 'cultic' context.

One might argue that these two occurrences in Ben Sira, therefore, furnish impressive possible antecedents for the ἀνάμνησις formula, and they have suggested to the writer several further lines of enquiry, the fruits of which must await later publication (see Postscript below).

Meanwhile however the following tentative conclusions are offered:
(a) They fortify the case for considering Hebrew as the original language of the eucharistic formulae, particularly when one bears in mind the provenance of Ben Sira.

(b) Their existence may be seen, therefore, to strengthen the case for the authenticity of the ἀνάμνησις formula as an integral part of the original ordinance by Christ.

(c) They seem to considerably improve the possibility of offering a reasonable reconstruction of this.

(d) Most important, they may provide important pointers to the correct interpretation of what precisely τοῦτο ποιεῖτε εἰς τὴν ἐμὴν ἀνάμνησιν is meant to command, and what it reveals about the intended relationship between the bread and the wine and the body and blood of Christ. They add weight, for instance, to the case against זֵכֶר, with its attendant notion of 'keeping alive the memory' of a person, as a hermeneutical key, and point instead to זִכָּרוֹן, with its 'material' and 'cultic' associations.

POSTSCRIPT

Since this note was written (in 1975) the author's further researches have resulted in the publication of Anamnesis in the Eucharist (Grove Liturgical Study 5. Nottingham: Grove Books, 1976). The latter work furnishes some detailed elaboration of points made above, but also contains some important modifications. The main point of this note, however, has survived this detailed scrutiny.