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The Architecture of the Persian Period in the Levant

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PREFACE

The excavations carried out at Tell Bait Mirsim by William Foxwell Albright in the twentieth century A.D. considered as the prevailing norm for the later excavations in the Bronze and Iron Ages sites in the Levant. Dunand's excavations at Sidon are one of the earliest field works in the northern Levant. The major contribution to our knowledge of architecture in the southern Levant was made by Carl Watzinger in the 1920s. In 1985, G. R. H. Wright reviewed and condensed the works of the earlier authors in his "Ancient Building in South Syria and Palestine", Volumes I-II. In 1992, another useful book was issued under the title "The Architecture of Ancient Israel from the Prehistoric to the Persian Periods" by Aharoni Kempinski and Ronny Reich (eds). Relevant contributions are also to be found in "Transeuphratene" periodical.

The need for writing the present dissertation has emerged after the author has finished his master thesis in 2011, which was under the title: "Archaeology and History of Jordan in the Persian Period." Ever since the author realized that the Levant is a single geographical and cultural entity, and the Levantine sites could not therefore be considered in isolation from each other just because of the political borders, since the problem may persist.

This dissertation is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Bologna. The research was conducted under the supervision of Professor N. Marchetti in the Department of Archaeology, University of Bologna, between December 2012 and July 2016.

Part of this thesis has been presented in the following publication:

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ABSTRACT

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The earliest scholars were not concerned about preparing extensive investigations linking the Persian-period building remains excavated in the entire Levant together. Moreover, the research interests of scholars caused some impediments to the study of this period viz in the last decades; the Achaemenid period has been neglected by the scholars who -in turn- focused on the earlier and later periods for religious reasons. Too, while some regions have been studied abundantly, but it was not the case in other areas, which makes our knowledge is incomplete. From the explanation side, some scholars try to interpret the architectural remains from an ethnic perspective or unsubstantiated personal fancies, so their arguments were utterly lacking any objectivity.

This thesis explores what are the Persian architectural and ornamental impacts on the Levantine architecture and the relations between Persian-period sites in Syria-Palestine region. Too, the architectural remains and their contents benefited us to clarify the settlement patterns in the regions being discussed.

The author analyzed the ground plans of the buildings and their architectural features and ornamental motifs by conducting a descriptive, analytical, and interpretative study. He also conducted comparisons with similar buildings outside the Levant, especially in Fars to obtain a more comprehensive and systematic study, and then extracting any direct or indirect Persian influences. This has given us a better understanding of the nature of the social, political, and religious life in the entire Levant and the knowledge gap has been bridged to a satisfying extent. This study has demonstrated a few of the Achaemenid impacts, especially on the northern coastline of the Levant.

Keywords: Persian Period; Achaemenid Period; Architecture; Levant; Building Techniques; Building Types.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Levant is a historical and geographical term referring to a widespread area of the central territories of the Fertile Crescent to the east of the Mediterranean Sea embracing Syria, Lebanon, Jordan and Palestine nowadays. Some definitions have included Cyprus (Graf 2010: 247). The word "Levant" is broadly commensurate to the Arabic expression "al-Mashriq" that means the land where the sun rises (Naim 2011: 921). This term has been used primarily to denote the term "Syria-Palestine" or "Greater Syria". Geographically, Levant is approximately bounded on the north by the Taurus Mountains southern Turkey separating the Mediterranean littoral region of southern Turkey from the central Anatolian Plateau. On the south, it extends into the Gulf of Aqaba on the Red Sea, and some definitions include Sinai Peninsula as the southernmost boundary of the Levant. To the west, it is bordered by the Mediterranean Sea, and on the east it extends to the Euphrates River and Syrian Desert (in Arabic *bādiyat ash-shām*), which is located in the northern Arabian Peninsula, covering portions of southeast Syria, northeast Jordan, western Iraq and northern Saudi Arabia (Fig. 1.1). The eastern side of the Southern Levant located between by the Syro-African rift on the west and the Syrian Desert on the east known as "Transjordan" that includes [in this thesis] Jordan Valley and the highlands and eastern desert. The western side of the southern Levant bounded by the Mediterranean Sea was termed "CisJordan", which includes the coastal and coastal plains regions (Suriano 2013: 9-21). Northern Levant also contained internal and coastal sites as does the southern Levant, and the key Persian-period sites are distributed mainly alongside the coast of known as the Phoenician Coast that extends from Ras Al-Naqoura south in Lebanon until Iskenderun to the north, with some hinterland sites.

For a more comprehensive in-depth analysis, the author has divided the Levant area (north and south) into nine principal geographical territories, each contained several sites, taking into consideration particularly the geographical location of the key Persian-period sites. These geological regions are (1) Jordan Valley; (2) the Highlands and eastern deserts of Transjordan; (3) Galilee; (4) Jezreel Valley; (5) Al-Khalil (Judean Foothills); (6) Negev; (7) the southern coast of the Levant; (8) the northern coast of the Levant; (9) Hinterland of northern Levant (Figs. 1.2-1-3). Due to the diversification of the surface morphology that affected the settlement patterns during the Persian period, however, the author preferred to divide the coastline into the southern and northern shorelines.

Historically, from the Neo-Assyrian until the Persian periods, the region located to the west of the Euphrates to the south of Palestine was termed “Beyond the River” (Eph’al 1998: 141). In the fourth years of his reign, Cyrus II established what has come to be called “The United Satrapy” that included Babylonia and “Beyond the River” including Cyprus (Elayi and Sapin 1998: 16; Mitchell 2005: 76; Kuhrt 2007: 51). The annals of Cyrus II declared that he received a tribute from the kings of Phoenicia, who had fully recognized the sovereignty of the Persians over the world. Moreover, their naval fleet supported the Persians in the war against Greece (Dandamaev 1989: 59-60). All Phoenician cities maintained their independences and competed among themselves to penetrate new markets, to control the economy and to dominate the southern Levantine coast. Some scholars deem that the capital of “Beyond the River” was Sidon taking into account its political reputation and prominence within the Phoenician cities in addition to its critical role in the naval Persian-Greek wars. Too, their gods such as Melqart, Eshmun, and Astarte have gained wide acclaim, and people worshiped them all over the Levant (Elayi and Sapin 1998: 17-18). The region from India to the Mediterranean Sea became a common market of trade, and the Aramaic language was adopted as the official language in commerce transactions, ceremonies, and the official language of the Persian bureaucracy (Folmer 1995: 5).

Some scholars assumed that “Beyond the River” and Babylonia became separated during the reign of Darius I in 503 B.C.E. (cf. Van de Mieroop 2007: 290-291) while others cited that they were departed after the destruction of Babylonia by Xerxes I in 486 B.C.E. (Briant 2002: 393). The Levant lost its relevance during his reign because of the implication in conflicts with Greece but soon has regained some of its previous prestige under the reign of Artaxerxes I in the middle of the fifth century B.C.E. (Hoglund 1992: 29).

The studies indicated that the Empire supremacy over the Levant, especially over the Southern Levant was at its lowest levels starting at the beginning of the fourth century B.C.E. i.e. after the death of King Darius II in 404 B.C.E., and the subsequent insurrections that broke out in Palestine, Phoenicia and Cyprus, which undermined the Persian authority in the whole region. As a result, Egypt achieved independence and controlled trade routes between Persia and Arabian Peninsula (Eph’al 1982: 205; 1988: 163). The Persian King Artaxerxes II (404-359 B.C.E.) sought to reconquer Egypt, but he failed because of the Nile flood. Sidon plotted with Egypt against the Achaemenid crown in the decades following the Egyptian liberation during the times of Artaxerxes II and III, who successfully quelled the insurgency. After the death of Artaxerxes III in 338 B.C.E. the Persian Empire started to collapse (Kuhrt 2007: 409-413). In the last few decades before the fall of the Achaemenid Empire, it is evident that the Persians were at their most vulnerable; the armies of Alexander assaulted Tyre and Gaza were encountered by the local people resistance without the interference of the Persian's paltry troops (Eph’al 1988: 147).

CHAPTER 2

ARCHITECTURE OF THE PERSIAN PERIOD IN THE SOUTHERN LEVANT

In this chapter, the author will examine the Persian-period building remains in both the inland and coastline of southern Levant, which includes nowadays Jordan and Palestine. This region has yielded most of the Persian-period sites as it is the world's most excavated region being the "Holy Land" and therefore, the scholars' eyes, especially the Biblical ones, had turned naturally to Palestine since the nineteenth century A.D.

2.1. THE JORDAN VALLEY

The Jordan Valley is an inherent component of which is now commonly known as the "Syro-African Rift," stretches 105 km from the Sea of Galilee in the north to the Dead Sea in the south. It is flanked by highlands on the west and east at altitudes between 600 and 1200m above sea level. The building remains in Jordan Valley were not limited to the buildings mentioned below, rather than, the excavations have revealed a few ruined structure remains at Tell Deir 'Alla (Franken and Ibrahim 1977-1978: 71-73), Tell el-Mazar (Yassine 1988: 80), Tell Iktanu (Prag 1989: 40-41), and Tell Nimrin (Flanagan et al. 1992; 1994; 1996). Of particular interest of these remains are the buildings of Tell el-Mazar. They were associated with great granaries to save the crops. Too, the necropolis of Tell el-Mazar was unearthed in the vicinity of the residential quarter and contained 85 graves. The most significant peculiarity of the cemetery are the funerary tools accompanied with the corpses that bore Achaemenian effects (Yassine 1984: 6-7).

2.1.1. *Tell es-Sa'idiyeh*

Tell es-Sa'idiyeh is situated in the middle of Jordan Valley, some 1.8 km east of Jordan River. The mound consists of two mounds actually: an upper and a lower tell. The top tell is rising 40m above the surrounding area while the bottom tell is 20m under the higher one (Tubb 1989: 521, 524). An extraordinary building attributed to Stratum III has been excavated at the upper tell in Area 31 (Pritchard 1985: 60-68). Phase IIIB came into sight at a depth of 0.15-0.20m of Phase IIIA and that is correlated with ovens and covered by remnants of plaster and pits filled with bones of cattle, deer, birds and fish. At a shallow depth underneath Phase IIIB, the floor of Phase IIIC had emerged. It is similar to, but better-

preserved than the previous floor and contained pits, an elliptical clay oven, and ashes. Phase IIID is represented by an open courtyard paved with stones and cobbles unearthed at a depth of 1m below Phase IIIA. Two tabuns were found over its floor (Tubb and Dorrell 1994: 54-57). No other building remains datable to the Persian period have been found at Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Tubb 2007: 281).

2.1.1.1. The Building

2.1.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The building is square, right-angled structure, measured 22m (north-south) × 22m (east-west), and contained an open courtyard besieged by a single row of rooms from four sides (Plan 2.1). The building was built of mud brick constructed on stone foundations. The north, west and east walls are 1.25m-thick while the south wall is 1.60m-thick.

The central courtyard of the building designated as Room 101 occupies the largest area. It is a spacious rectangular patio, measured 7.80m (north-south) × 9m (east-west), and paved by uncut big and medium-size stones, and the cobbles filled the gaps between flagstones. A drainage pipe was extending underneath the southeast corner of the courtyard and continued beneath the floor of Room 109 and then into outside (Fig. 2.1). At the joint doors with Rooms 109 and 102 were built stone thresholds. The threshold between the courtyard and Room 102 raises ca. 0.14m (Fig. 2.2). Room 102 was completely paved as well and contained four clay ovens (Fig. 2.3). On the eastern side of Room 102 was built a perpendicular wall protruding from its northern wall and extending southward and cut off before reaching the southern wall forming a 1m-wide, unpaved doorway leading to a narrow paved end space. Corridor 103 also had a pavement of stones with remains of plaster on its east and west walls (Fig. 2.4).

In several parts of the building, especially the southern one, were found residues of charcoals, charred wooden beams (0.17m-wide), ash, carbonized gypsum, and fragments of burned mud brick fallen from the walls, which intimates that the building's walls were burst into flames.

On the contrary of the other rooms of the building, Room 104 had a compressed clay floor rather than stones, but the southwest corner was stone-paved. The excavator has cited that there was an entrance in this flagged spot.

Room 105 was almost entirely stone-paved, had a stone threshold set in front of the shared entryway with Room 106. A conical clay silo was dug into the northeast corner of its floor. In Room 106, the squatters dug several pits into its floor as well. As opposed to the rest of the walls of the building, the east mudbrick wall of Room 106 was built directly on bedrock without stone foundations. J. Pritchard has interpreted it to mean that this wall was constructed in a later architectural stage and was never in the original floor plan (Pritchard 1985: 63). A stone threshold was laid in front of the joint doorway to Rooms 105 and 106. Both Rooms 107 and 108 had a solid clay floor and a stone doorsill placed at their shared

entrance. The excavator concluded that the remains of stones in the northwest corner of the western wall of Room 109 were a threshold at its joint door with the courtyard. The walls of Room 110 were consolidated by doubling their thicknesses and by erecting a solid cross-wall in its middle bonded the northern and southern walls. Pritchard has suggested that this wall having been erected for defensive purposes, perhaps a watchtower. In the author's view, a more plausible interpretation is that this wall was built to block off the stairs leading to the terrace or the roof of the building.

Table 2.1: The excavated findings in the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
1	Not ill.	Lamp	Room 101	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 20)
2	Not ill.	Fibula	Room 102	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 27)
3	Not ill.	Iron nail; Loom weight	Room 102	(Pritchard 1985)
4	Not ill.	Jar	Room 103	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 18)
5	Not ill.	Cosmetic palette	Room 103	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 168: 9)
6	Not ill.	Anklet	Room 103	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 24)
7	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	Room 103	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 30)
8	Not ill.	Iron weapon; Loom weights; Eleven tiles	Room 103	(Pritchard 1985)
9	Pl. 2.1	Incense burner	Room 104	(Pritchard 1985: Figs. 18: 22; 174: 1-6)
10	Not ill.	Bronze pin; Tile	Room 104	(Pritchard 1985)
11	Not ill.	Bronze needle	Room 105	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 26)
12	Not ill.	Stopper with string impression on top	Room 105	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 31)

13	Not ill.	Pottery sherds; Animal bones; Shells; Bronze needle; Bronze ring.	Room 105	(Pritchard 1985)
14	Not ill.	Amber bead	Room 107	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 29)
15	Not ill.	Fibula	Room 107	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 25)
16	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 107	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 19)
17	Not ill.	Bronze kettle	Room 107	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 23)
18	Not ill.	Basalt mortar	Room 109	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 21)
19	Not ill.	Silver ring	Room 109	(Pritchard 1985: Fig. 18: 28)
20	Not ill.	Tile	Room 109	(Pritchard 1985)

2.1.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building was built on the hillside of upper tell (Area 31) (Pritchard 1985: 60-68). Interestingly, the excavations did not reveal an evidence of any Persian-period occupation on the mound as a whole (Tubb 2007: 281).

The only clear entrance in the plan was in the southwest corner of the building. It opened immediately to Corridor 103, of which, in turn, opened to Rooms 102 and 104. The courtyard as mentioned earlier reaches only to two sides: Room 102 on the south and Room 109 on the east. The latter led to Room 108 on the north and Room 110 on the south. Room 108 also communicated with Room 107. On the other side, Room 104 reached to Rooms 105 and 106. The excavator assumed that there were two other entrances: one in Room 106 and the other accessed to Room 104 (Pritchard 1985: 60). Other suggestions supposed that an entrance opened in the southwest corner of Room 109 north of the drainage channel.

2.1.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

J. Pritchard has proposed that no one of the supposed entrances represent a big gate, which would mean that this building was designated for defensive ends. In other words, these small indecipherable gates secure the building against any potential aggression. Nonetheless, he acknowledged that it was challenging to ascertain its exact function in the light of the inadequate quantity of the artifacts found inside it. Moreover, he concluded that entering to Room 110 was by the means of narrow staircases parallel to the west wall of the Room 109, of which signifies to a protective function of this room i.e. a watching tower.

Furthermore, the perplexity of distinguishing the character of the building arises from the relatively insufficient number of the findings found in the rooms and the unusual distribution of their types (Pritchard 1985: 64). Thicknesses of the walls would suggest that the building was multi-storey. Identical examples of such case could be recognized at Ugarit (Ras Shamra) during the Late Bronze Age. Indeed, the residential nature of the building of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh could be proved by the following criteria:

- The installations: the four clay ovens laid on the floor of Room 102, a silo in Room 105, and some pits in Room 106;
- The material culture: although the findings excavated inside it are not sufficient by themselves to determine the function of each room, but its residential nature is shown by some particular findings which point to practicing weaving and sewing, as evidenced by the loom weights, a spindle whorl, and needles. Other findings represented luxury items attesting to the use of a wealthy class, as shown in the fibulae, a cosmetic palette, an anklet, rings, an amber bead, and a decorated incense burner;
- The topographical location: the building's position on the top of the settlement with no other structures (publics or dwellings) near it would mean that it was as a rural residency;
- Building techniques: several technical solutions inside the building have been noticed, including the neatly stone-paved floors, the plastered walls and stone sills.

Summing up, the Tell es-Sa'idiyeh building's function seems to have been a private and residential villa of local governor or well-to-do family.

2.1.1.1.4. Chronology

The excavation processes beneath the courtyard (i.e. Phase IIIa) have revealed three architectural sub-phases: IIIb, IIIc, and IIId (Tubb and Dorrell 1994: 54-57). The sherding evidence of the first two phases

suggests the later part of the sixth century B.C.E. while the pottery sherds of Phase IIIId indicate to the sixth century B.C.E. (Tubb 2007: 284-288).

The Persian-period date of the building was not limited solely to the material culture because of their rarity. The Aramaic text incised on the incense burner found in Room 104 was also adopted. The style of the letters of the inscription indicated the period between the sixth and fourth centuries B.C.E. i.e. the Persian period. Moreover, radiocarbon analysis (¹⁴C) were also undertaken on some grain and charcoal samples collected from the building, and the results were identical with the Aramaic text (Pritchard 1985: 66).

In addition to the studies mentioned above, the author thinks that the Persian-period date of the building can be validated by other excavated findings that are similar to other objects excavated elsewhere in the Levant and belong to the same period as well. Stratum III in Tell es-Sa'idiyeh yielded a figurine of a woman in an advance stage of pregnancy with one hand placed on the belly (not illustrated) (cf. Pritchard 1985: Fig. 169: 6-7). Pretty similar figurines were found in the shrine of Makmish (catalogue no. 482), Shrine 2 (Level II) at Sarepta (catalogue no. 593), and on the forecourt of the sanctuary of Kharayeb (catalogue no. 614). Too, the incense burner excavated in Room 104 is similar to three limestone incense burners found at Tell Jemmeh and dated to the Persian period as well (catalogue nos. 217 and 300).

2.1.1.1.5. Type

In his classifying the function of the building as a fortress, J. Pritchard remarkably has reclined on the similarity of its ground plan and size to other open-courtyard buildings excavated by R. Cohen in the central Negev and dated to the Neo-Assyrian period (Pritchard 1985: 65). These buildings are the fortress of Horvai Mesora (Plan. 2.2), the fortress of Horvat Ritma (Plan. 2.3), and the fortress of 'Atar Haro'a (Plan 2.4) (Cohen 1979: 70, Figs, 7: 2-4). As a matter of fact, the similarity between these buildings and the Tell es-Sa'idiyeh one is undeniable. However, the interpretation of the buildings at the Negev as fortresses needs a deep reexamination, and, therefore, we cannot adopt the same definition of the building under discussion. Based on the above arguments, the Tell es-Sa'idiyeh building was elite among the other nearby sites in Jordan Valley, built in the "open-court" style (see Chapter 5).

2.1.2. *Tel Goren (in Arabic Tell el-Jurn)*

Tell el-Jurn is the ancient tell of En-Gedi on the western seaside of the Dead Sea. Five seasons of excavations between 1961 and 1965 revealed five strata of occupation (Borag 1993: 400-402). The Persian-period occupation has been assigned to Stratum IV. This stratum remains contained well-

preserved and large structures built of coarse stones, plastered installations, bronze bracelets, stamped jar handles, store jars, cooking pots, bowls, flasks, jugs, and juglets (Mazar et al. 1966: 38-39, 57-58, 98). The Persian-period settlement concentrated on the northern surface of the mound and its slopes. The principal structure from this period is Building 234.

2.1.2.1. Building 234

2.1.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Portions of the building's western and southern walls were unearthed under a dense layer of wreckage and accumulated earth during the third campaign of excavations in 1964. The building came to light completely in the fifth season conducted in 1965 (Plan 2.5; Figs. 2.5-2.6).

Building 234 is a monumentally complicated structure, measured 26m (north-south) × 24m (east-west), and hence covers an area of about 624 square meters. It was constructed mostly of solid rubble stones. The design of the building demonstrates three wings; each wing contains a courtyard and surrounded rooms. The northern wing comprises Courtyard 236 and Rooms 254, 271, 263, 268, and 266. The western wing had Courtyard 230 and Rooms 234, 235, 246, 231, and 229. The eastern side held of Rooms 251-253, 260, 262, 258, 261, 249, and Courtyard 248. In the time of excavations, Mazar and Dunayevsky were the opinions of that the building had two stories in its southern part because of the considerable difference in altitude between the north and south sides. Palm-trunks used in the construction of the steps and for carrying the plastered ceiling and walls. Courtyard 236 was paved and contained a circular tabun in its southwest corner. Room 229 was divided into two separate units (229a and 229b) by a cross-wall protruding from its southern wall (W178) and cut off 0.70m before reaching the northern wall forming a narrow passageway. The walls of this room stand to a height of 1.50-2.50m. In the northwest corner of Room 234 was built a semi-circular tabun and a bench adjoining its southern wall. Room 246 was a staircase of the building leading to the second storey through Courtyard 248. The left jamb of this entryway was built of orthostate. Seemingly, it was sealed off in a later architectural stage, and Room 246 was re-used for storage purposes (see below). Two lumps of burnt mudbrick have been unearthed inside Room 258. In the northern end of Room 231, the excavators have revealed a silo, a plastered installation and a tabun in-between, with charred timber beams probably fell off the ceiling (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 134-140).

Table 2.2: The excavated findings in Building 234 of Tell el-Jurn

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
21	Not ill.	Basalt, metal and bone tools	Room 254	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 136-139)
22	Not ill.	Kitchen wares	Room 254	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: Pl. 33)
23	Not ill.	Basalt grinding tools; Loom weights; Storage jars; Cooking pots; Jars; Attic sherds	Room 231	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 136-139)
24	Not ill.	Lamp incised with the letter <i>mem</i>	Room 231	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: Pl. 32: 1)
25	Not ill.	Cooking vessels; Attic, East Greek and local pottery sherds; Juglet incised with the letter <i>mem</i>	Room 229	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967)
26	Not ill.	Small cattle and other animal bones	Room 229	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967)
27	Not ill.	Complete bowl incised with the letter <i>mem</i>	Room 229	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: Pl. 32: 3)
28	Not ill.	Attic sherds and an Aramaic ostrakon	Room 234	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967)
29	Not ill.	Glass pendant depicts a woman face wearing earrings	Room 234	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: Pl. 31: 4)
30	Not ill.	Attic pottery sherds	Room 235	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 138)
31	Not ill.	Large decorated krater; Fragment of rhyton depicting a crouching lioness	Room 246	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 140)
32	Pl. 2.2	Conical chalcedony stamp seal	Room 248	(Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: Pl. 31: 1)

2.1.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

For erecting this impressive structure, the constructors handpicked the most prominent spot on the oasis of En Gedi, on the northern slope and at the foot of the mound. Near the building northward flows down perennial water spring (Fig. 2.7) creating an appropriate environment for establishing permanent settlements since antiquity, despite the high temperatures and lack of rain which caused the drought. The building was not isolated from the other structures; in the sense of that other severely-damaged dwellings separated by narrow allies had been unearthed west and east of it (Borag 1993: 403). On the nearby southern slope, the excavations have revealed portions of another building, perhaps a public one (Stern 2001: 439).

The floor plan of the building is obscure regarding the connections between its wings and the entryways to its rooms. In the plan, there are two main entrances: the first one was on the north side through a forecourt (Loc.240), and the second opening was through Courtyard 230 in the western wing and opened to Room 229. On the north, Room 254 reached to Courtyard 236 that, in turn, opened to Rooms 263 and 266. The latter reached to Rooms 268 and 271 northward respectively. The northern wing is positioned at an intersection between the western and eastern wings through two joint doorways. The west wing was approachable through an entryway opened in the southern wall of Courtyard 236 while the east wing was accessible through a door opened in the south wall of Room 266. As opposed to the western and south wings, the east one had no entrance from outside. Too, it seems that the western and eastern wings were separated since there are no common entryways between them. Loc.246 in the west wing was a staircase leading to the upper floor and was accessible from Courtyard 248. The floor levels of Courtyard 236 and Room 231 are 1m and 0.80m lower than the floor level of Rooms 234 and 235 sequentially. The floor of Room 229a is rising about 2m above the floor level of Room 234, and there was no doorway between them. Too, the elevations appeared on the plan illustrates that the northern and central rooms of the eastern wing are approximately 3m lower than the floor level of the southern row (i.e. L.232, L.251-L.253). Furthermore, these last rooms had no ground doorways neither between them nor with the other rooms, of which would indicate that the southern side of this wing and the south side of the western wing (i.e. L.229) was composed of two floors accessed through Stairways 232 and 246.

2.1.2.1.3. Functional Interpretations

The peculiar distribution of the objects in addition to their scarcity, however, make the determination of the function of most of the rooms is a delicate matter needs a comprehensive data, which is practically uninformative. Room 231 seems to have been a workshop served for producing perfumes. Room 253 was

probably a basement as indicated by a few specimens of dates found in it. The kitchenware including a cooking pot, jugs, and jars that were found in Room 254 would suggest that this room was a kitchen. The stamp seal found on the ground of Courtyard 248 used unequivocally for administration affairs, which would suggest that part of its function was the conduct of public affairs. Generally speaking, the ground plan of the building, the material culture, and installations such as tabuns, kitchenware, grinding tools, storage jars, cattle bones, ornaments and loom weights, however, leave no doubt that this building was a large dwelling, and its settlers worked in spinning and fabricating works (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 134-136). Building 234 and the "Rural Residency" of Tell Mardikh are similar regarding their locations in arid zones with dwellings around them. Building 234 of Tel el-Jurn is too large to be a private dwelling, and its plan refers clearly to a residency; most probably a rural residency. To sum, Building 234 of Tell el-Jurn was elite building in the neighboring areas, and it could have been a public residence of a local governor who dwelled it with his entourage and governed his territory from it.

2.1.2.1.4. Chronology

The pottery analysis has shown that Building 234 was erected on the debris of Stratum V belonging to the Iron Age (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 134). A study of the pottery and other findings collected from the building itself, including the Attic wares intimates that it was founded in the first half of the fifth century B.C.E. On the other hand, the layers of burnt mud brick found in several rooms indicate that it was destroyed around 400 B.C.E., but continued to be occasionally inhabited for the next fifty years (Borag 1993: 403). The in-depth study conducted by H. Thompson on the Attic wares has verified that date (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1964: 126).

2.1.2.1.5. Type

Interestingly, although Building 234 follows the "open-court" style, it is not similar to any "open-court" buildings excavated elsewhere in the Levant. In the author's view, the Mesopotamian effects, specifically the Assyrian ones on the building are illustrated by the complexity of the interior design, the neatness of the rooms and the separation between the wings. These structural features appeared in the Assyrian palaces since the Late Bronze Age. Seemingly, the architects who built this building attempted to obtain the splendor of the Mesopotamian architecture.

2.2. HIGHLANDS AND EASTERN DESERT OF TRANSJORDAN

The settlement activities in this region were increased in the Iron Age II and Persian period (LaBianca 1990). Several sites were reported in this region especially in the heart of Transjordan. In the Baq'ah

Valley, the presence of humankind in the Persian period was linked to the cultivable lands. In this region we have two major sites: Rujm el-Henu and Rujm al-Hawi. Both of them were border fortified stations controlled the main road leading to Khirbet Um ad-Dananir (McGovern 1985: 141-144; 1989: 26). Amman was surrounded by large towns like Tell El-'Umeiri and Hesban (Herr 1992: 175, 177), large agricultural farms like Rujm Selim, and forts such as Ed-Dreijat, Khirbet al-Hajjar, and the forts mentioned earlier. The excavations of F. Larche, F. Zayadine, and F. Villeneuve have proved that Iraq el-Amir region could have housed a sizable people in the Iron Age and Persian Period. The outskirts of Iraq el-Amir have reported several route stations on the main road connected between Iraq el-Amir and Jordan Valley (Ji and Lee 1999: 528, 532, 534-537). Tell Jalul was one of the most important sites in this region; it contained ruined government buildings and a large reservoir providing the town with water (Younker et al. 1996: 73), which would refer to a civilized society, settled it during the Persian time. In Dhiban, a large agricultural property named Duhfura was excavated, but it is in ruins (Ji and Lee 2000: 499, 504). In South Jordan, it is challenging to imagine the settlement patterns as it was occupied largely by Bedouin tribes (MacDonald 2009: 776).

2.2.1. Rujm Al-Henu (West)

Rujm Al-Henu is located in the Um ad-Dananir precinct in the Baq'ah Valley near Amman; wherein two fortresses were excavated (the eastern and western fortresses). The east building was unearthed in Field III and the western one was excavated in Field IV. The author has excluded the eastern building from this study owing to the absence of the Persian-period findings, besides the stratigraphy sequence is unclear to follow its occupational history. On the other hand, the western building is better-preserved, and the Persian-period findings are well attested. Test soundings were concentrated on the west side of the building that contains the interior and exterior (enclosure) walls and a circular tower (Fields IV.1-3) (McGovern 1983: 127, 135-136).

2.2.1.1. The Fortress

2.2.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The fortress of Rujm Al-Henu is a grand rectangular structure built mainly of large undressed fieldstone. The fortress measured 46m (north-south) × 44m (east-west), including the southeast corner, of which has been identified as a “bastion” (Plan 2.6). An 11m in diameter circular tower was incorporated into the middle of the western wall. Both the “bastion” and the circular tower were built of larger boulders than the other parts of the fortress. The building contained an open-air courtyard encircled by a passageway from all sides. Some crosswalls, especially in the northeast and southwest corners formed casemate units

or chambers. The entire building, including the enclosure (exterior) and inner walls (loci.IV.1.2, IV.1.12, and IV.3.5, 6 respectively) and the circular tower (loc.IV.1.3), however, was erected directly on bedrock without stone foundations. The outer face of the tower was coated with a thick layer of plaster. The enclosure wall is preserved to a height of 2.50m and was built of a double line of unhewn limestone, sandstone, and flint boulders while the circular tower is preserved to a height of 3m. The inner walls were built of a single line of small fieldstones and were preserved to a height varying from 1.60m and 2.20m. Some minor rooms (not illustrated in the plan) have been excavated south of the circular tower wherein were found cosmetics palettes, grinding stone, fragments of storage jars, and other pottery vessels (McGovern 1983: 134-136; Fig. 14: 1-2; Pls. XXIII: 1; XII: 2).

2.2.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The eastern and western fortresses are 30m apart, and the fortress of Rujm Al-Hawi is located roughly 350m southwest of Rujm Al-Henu (McGovern 1983: 112). In the plan, there are three evenly spaced breaches in the eastern wall that might be entrances (see Plan 2.6). The southern east-west corridor is accessible by a shared doorway with the enclosure at the eastern end (McGovern 1983: 110, 136). No stairwells in the tower have been unearthed.

2.2.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the "bastion" and the circular tower indicate their defensive use definitively. The tower joined the western wall of the fort was a watchtower controlled and monitored Wadi Um ad-Dananir in the northwest route (McGovern 1983: 112-113).

2.2.1.1.4. Chronology

Both Glueck (1939: 194) and de Vaux (1938: 421) cited that both buildings of Rujm Al-Henu were built concurrently. McGovern (1983: 110-112, 124-125) assigned the eastern building to the Late Middle Bronze or Early Late Bronze Age with the fact that it was not entirely abandoned in the Late Iron II C/Persian period as indicated by some miscellaneous pottery sherds, but it was re-used as a stockyard as shown by sheep and goat bones. Moreover, there is no way to establish an absolute date of the eastern building due to the absence of floors, foundations, and an intact stratigraphy sequence. On the other side, the first occupational phase in the western building was the Late Iron II C/Persian period based on the pottery sherds excavated in it (McGovern 1983: 112; 1989: 36, 41).

2.2.1.1.5. Type

Several scholars have labeled the building as a “qasr” type building that appeared elsewhere in Jordan in the seventh-sixth centuries B.C.E. such as Khirbet Al-Hajjar, Rujm Al-Hawi and Rujm al-Malfuf (south). This kind of buildings is discriminated by a large enclosure, either square or rectangular and a circular tower that could be both isolated or incorporated into a wall (cf. Glueck 1939: 153-155; McGovern 1983: 136). Regardless, the layout of the building decisively endorsed its public nature, and the circular tower approves the defensive function. The casemate wall is a defensive-type wall composed of two parallel walls. Partition walls were built between the inner and outer casemate walls, forming small rooms or chambers known as casemates. The casemate walls that were encircling buildings and settlements were unearthed in the settlements of Tell Abu Hawam and Tel Megadim, the strengthened agricultural estate at Nahal Tut and Building 264 at Tel Mevorakh. Based on these arguments, we can say that this building was a monumental public building built for defensive purposes in the “open-court” and “qasr” types.

2.2.2. Tell El-‘Umeiri

Tell El-‘Umeiri is located in Madaba Plains south of Amman, east of Jordan River in fertile highlands viewing the Dead Sea. The excavations were launched since 1984 by Madaba Plains Project (MPP) under the direction of L. T. Geraty and others (Geraty et al. 1989a). The whole complex i.e. Buildings A, B, and C was built on the debris of a house belonging to the Iron Age I (Plan 2.7) (Geraty et al. 1989b: 146; Herr et al. 1991b: 156). In this thesis, the author will deal only with Building B as it is the only structure that has a clear layout.

2.2.2.1. Building B

2.2.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Building B is better preserved than Building A (see Plan 2.7), measured 15m (east-west) × 9m (north-south), and its walls were built of 1m-thick hewn boulders stand to an altitude varying between 1.50m to 2.70m. The layout shows two elongated rooms running parallel to the northeast-southwest axis and one or two L-shaped rooms. As opposed to the other rooms, the northern room was cobbled-paved (Herr et al. 1994: 150). It was odd that neither installations nor material culture have been found in the building.

2.2.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The whole complex was erected on the western flank of the mound (the acropolis) that was also identified as the “Western Citadel” or “The Ammonite Citadel” or later as “The Ammonite Administrative Complex” (Fig. 2.8) (cf. Geraty et al. 1989b: 146; Herr et al. 1996: 64). A 1m-wide entrance was opened

at the southern end of the eastern wall. It opened to the L-shaped room (s) and the parallel rooms on the north as well.

2.2.2.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavators identified the building as an administrative center (Herr et al. 1991b: 157). It should be stressed that functional interpretation based primarily on its architectural layout is questionable. On the other hand, the high quality of its materials of construction made up of carefully prepared stones, its dimensions (135 square meters), and geographic location at the peak of the mound, however, suggested that the proposed function as a governmental building could be conveniently accepted.

2.2.2.1.4. Chronology

The whole complex was built on the ruins of the Iron Age I and II phases, which are ascribed to Phases 9 and 8 respectively. The pottery sherds collected from the foundations belong to the Late Iron Age II (Phase 6), which establishes the date of construction. Several architectural corrections were conducted on the floors and walls (Phases 5 and 4) between the Late Iron Age II and the fifth century B.C.E. i.e. the early Persian period (Herr et al. 1991b: 157-158; 1994: 150).

2.2.2.1.5. Type

The building's layout resembles the so-called “four-room” scheme. This style was encountered in Levant in the Persian period, specifically in Area D1 building and the Magazine Building of Tel Dor (see Tel Dor). As a matter of fact, this form was not originated in the Persian period, but in some Iron Age sites such as Shechem, Beth Shemesh, Tell en-Nasbeh, Tel Beersheba and Tell Beit Mirsim.

2.2.3. *Ed-Dreijat*

Ed-Dreijat is located in Madaba Plains some 3 km southwest of Tell el-'Umeiri. The site was allocated by Fohrer (1961: 60) as Site D, and later as Site 135 during Ibach's surveys in Hesban Region (Ibach 1987: 28-29).

2.2.3.1. The Fortress

2.2.3.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The fortress of Ed-Dreijat is a huge rectangular edifice, built of unhewn large chert boulders formed 2.5m-thick walls (Plan 2.8). Some fieldstones weigh roughly 1000 kg and varying between 1.10 and 2m-

in diameter. The maximum width of the east-west axis is 22.57m, and the north-south axis is exceeding 27m. The northern segment of the western wall is partly destroyed wherein perhaps was a spacious room north of the entrance. The building had a large central courtyard sided by rooms from the north and south sides. In the southwest corner of the courtyard was built a rectangular enclosed chamber. In the immediate vicinity of this room was a portion of a thin wall protruding from the south wall and continuing northward. We cannot emphasize how far it was lengthening or even its function, albeit it seems to have been part of a larger enclosure circled the small one.

The excavators think that the building had an upper floor carrying by the separation walls (Younker et al. 1990: 13, 33; Herr et al. 1991a: 341). As a matter of fact, thicknesses of the walls are remarkably adequate to sustain an additional storey. In the southern part, there are rectangular rooms and a disklike installation of unclear function. The excavators had failed to mention it in their reports. It seems to have been a cistern similar to those dug into the floors of Complexes A and C at Buseirah. Various objects were found in the vault of the structure (see chronology).

2.2.3.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

It was built on the zenith of the mound; a position granted it a picturesque view and a strategic location to control Madaba Plains from the south, Tell Jawa from the east and El-‘Al from the west (Herr et al. 1991b: 171). The only noticeable entrance to the building was opened on the northwest corner of the courtyard that was either opened to a forecourt or a room. Possibly, the courtyard reached to the northeast room through a door at the eastern end. The southern part should have had a common doorway to the courtyard as well.

2.2.3.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The magnitude position on the crest of the mound put the scholars in the same way in emphasizing the protective function of the building. In the second occupation phase, the fort was remodeled, and the new squatters dug basements below it for storing food and water. The small rooms of the fortress served as storage facilities and kitchens (Younker et al. 1990: 13, 33; Herr et al. 1991a: 341). The excavators cited that the protective capacity of the building was ended soon, and the fort was abandoned to be dwelled by some families, as evidenced by the household tools found in some rooms, including grinding stones and an oven (Herr et al. 1991b: 171; London and Clack 1997: 27-28).

2.2.3.1.4. Chronology

The pottery sherds collected from the foundations of the walls was attributed to Phase 6 and dated the Late Persian/Early Hellenistic periods i.e. the later quarter of the fourth century B.C.E. (Herr et al. 1991b: 172).

2.2.3.1.5. Type

The fortress of Ed-Dreijat belongs unambiguously to the “open-court” design flanking by rooms on two sides.

2.2.4. *Buseirah*

Buseirah is located some 20 km south of Tafila southern Jordan. Five seasons of excavations took place at the site from 1971 to 1974 and in 1980 under the superintendence of Crystal-M. Bennett (Bennett 1973; 1974; 1975; 1977; 1983). Bennett’s excavations exposed building remains and a fortification wall securing the whole acropolis on a series of terraces. The earliest and significant occupational phase at Buseirah was the Iron Age II/Persian period.

In Area A, Bennett's excavations brought to light two buildings: a smaller and later Building A that measured 48 × 36m. She called it the “Winged Building” because of the concave corners of Walls 33 and 79 that gave it a winged appearance (Plan 2.9), and a larger and earlier Building B that measured 77 × 38m (Plan 2.10). According to her, the latter occupied the whole acropolis (see chronology). Area A (i.e. Bennett’s Buildings A and B) covers an area of ca. 2.325 square meters (Bennett 1977: 2-3; 1983: 13-15).

Bennett’s declaration about the two building periods in Area A has been rejected later by P. Bienkowski for the following reasons: (1) the excavations have not finished especially in the southern part of the building (i.e. Bennett’s Building A); (2) the stratigraphic sequences, chronology, and ground plans are still controversial [although the preparatory ground plans are moderately convincing]; (3) only a few trenches and walls have been excavated to bedrock; (4) there are no tokens of a larger building replaced a smaller one. Moreover, the Phase 4 rebuilds of Walls 31 and 44 on either side of the steps that are leading to the northeast courtyard authenticate that the *terminus ante quem* of the building was the Late Iron Age/Persian period, which would mean that both buildings were actually a single large structure (Bienkowski 2002: 61, 86). Furthermore, she distinguished between the earliest and latest walls chiefly through their surviving heights. In other words, she peeled off walls that she believed to be from the later building period (i.e. her Building A) and dropped the walls that she reckoned to be walls of the earlier building period (i.e. her Building B) (Bennett 1983: 13-15). In summary, the evidence presented by

Bienkowski plus the mistakes made by Bennett and her inexperienced team suggested that this massive building was essentially a single building accompanied by continuous remodeling processes. Exceedingly, she failed to prove that Buseirah is the Biblical Bozrah since nothing was found to substantiate it (Bienkowski 2002: 61).

In Area B, the relics of the Late Iron Age/Persian period have been unearthed in Squares B1-4 (Phases 6-8), Squares B5-8 (Phases 4-6) and Squares B9-10 (Phases 1-3). The structure remains in these three excavation areas had no stratigraphic connection between them since bedrock had not been reached in all trenches and others had not been excavated. Furthermore, the walls were dismantled and thus, no reconstructed ground plans could be regained. At any rate, the large number of the storage jars might signify that some rooms were used for storage purposes. In Area C, near the large complex, the excavations reported portions of scrappy walls in Squares C20-23 and the whole area covered by fallen mudbrick debris.

2.2.4.1. The Area A Complex

2.2.4.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The main building phases (Phases 3-4) was erected partially on a platform made up of heavy fill deposits and stone walls: Walls 20, 55-57, 60-67, 69, 70, 72, 81, 87, 88 and 95 (Plans 2.11-2.12). The rest of the walls were constructed immediately on bedrock. The building is a grand structure, measured 76.50 × 38m, built of 2m-wide, roughly drafted limestone built up in headers. Fills of smaller rubble buttressed the cracks between the internal and external faces of the walls and bonded together with lime mortar. All walls, floors, and some foundation courses were coated with a compact layer of lime plaster. Bennett thinks that the entire superstructure of the building was performed of mudbrick (Bennett 1974: 4; Bienkowski 2002: 64, 70).

The building contained two main wings with a set of small rooms surrounding two inner courtyards: one in the northeast and the other in the southwest (Plan 2.13). The northeast courtyard that was confined with Walls 8, 34, 43, 44 and probably 26 is measured 19.5m (north-south) × 20.5m (east-west) and had a plastered floor (Bienkowski 2002: 66, 70-71, 76, 82). The southwest courtyard is smaller and confined with Walls 59, 36, 73 and 38 (see Plan 2.12). In the southern wall of the northeast courtyard in Trench A5.9 was a 5.30m-wide entrance flanked by two bases measured 1 × 0.70m each, and having reddish discoloration circular imprints of columns or statues or cult icons. Between these two bases are shallow steps (5.9.F18) made of well-quarried limestone but badly fractured by intense heat (Plans 2.11, 2.14; Fig. 2.9). The steps giving access to a long narrow plastered room associated with two low stone podia (P1

and P2), measured 9.10m east-west \times 3.25m north-south each (see Plan 2.14) (Bennett 1975: 6; 1983: 15; Bienkowski 2002: 80). In the heart of the northeast courtyard is a 5m-in diameter cistern associated with two sewer pipes. The first one (5.11.F27) emerged from the northern corner of room in Trench A5.1, measured 5 \times 2.40m and had plastered floor and walls (Plan 2.12; Fig. 2.10). The second drain (60.4.F13) (Fig. 2.11) ran near the cistern northward and had an outlet through the northwest entrance in Wall 23 (see Plan 2.12) (Bennett 1974: 4; 1977: 3; Bienkowski 2002: 78). Outside the building to the northwest in Trenches A26.2 and A26.6 was another plastered cistern (see Plan 2.14) (Bennett 1975: 6).

The southeast corner of the rectangular room near the northeast courtyard in Trenches A1.17, A1.19, and A1.34 was covered with crumpled mudbrick (see Plan 2.14), some of which were intact measured 0.90 \times 0.36 \times 0.33m. The internal doorway in its southern wall (i.e. Wall 8) is 2.50m-wide, stone-paved, plastered on both faces (Fig. 2.12), and filled with mudbrick collapse; perhaps fell off from the superstructure (Bennett 1975: 6-7; 1977: 3). On either side of it inward were circular holes measured ca. 0.35m-in diameter, filled with small rubble, ash, charcoal, and lumps of plaster. Most probably, these holes were dug into the floor as door-posts (Bennett 1977: 3; Bienkowski 2002: 73-74, 76).

In Trenches A27.1, A27.2, and A27.3 (i.e. the northeast corner of Bennett's "Winged Building" A) was a complex of three plastered rooms, separated from each other by two small partitions plastered walls measured 0.27m-wide (Walls 47 and 49) (see Plan 2.14). These rooms were appended to the building in a later phase of use (Phase 4) (see Plan 2.12). The smaller rooms are 1.34 square meters each, and the large one measured 3.5 \times 3m. This complex of rooms connected with a sewerage system composed of two drains: one in the middle of the partition Wall 49, and the other runs beneath the southwest corner of Trench A27.3 (see Plan 2.14) (Bennett 1975: 6; Bienkowski 2002: 83, 86).

In Trench A60.6, at the junction of Walls 23 and 27 was a semi-circular stone silo (60.6.F9) contained ash and some intact pottery (see Plan 2.12). It was blocked off later by burnt mudbrick (Bennett 1977: 4).

The building contains three main external entrances: one in the northern part of Walls 23 and 8, and two in the southern part (i.e. Bennett's "Winged Building" A) in Walls 77 and 79 (see Plan 2.11). The doorway in the short Wall 79 was in the center, measured 3m-wide, had a stone threshold, and was divided into two halves by a pedestal. The doorways in Walls 23 and 77 were off-centre entrances. The doorway in Wall 77 is 1.90m-wide, built of various size stones, and the door opened in Wall 23 was plastered, measured 2.40m-wide and sealed off in Phase 4 (see Plan 2.12) (Bennett 1974: 4; Bienkowski 2002: 71, 72, 75, 85). Bennett (1983: 15) suggested that these entrances are approached by the means of ramps or steps since they are at a higher level than the yards in front of them. Bienkowski (2002: 72) did

not coincide with this assumption because of absent a specific showing. The large room in Trenches A7.3-4 of Phase 3 (see Plan 2.14) in the southern part of the building was partitioned by Wall 53 of Phase 4, creating two small rooms measured $2.50 \times 1.80\text{m}$ and $2.70 \times 2.10\text{m}$ (Bienkowski 2002: 86).

2.2.4.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Area A where the complex was erected is the central and highest point on the mound (the so-called acropolis) (Fig. 2.13) (Bennett 1973: 6). Buseirah is located in the highlands of the eastern edge of Wadi Arabah. To the east is the ancient mining region of Faynan; a site of copper smelting since Chalcolithic. The old site of Buseirah, which lies to the north of the present village, however, is located on a high spur running northwest and flanked on three sides by very steep valleys separated by rugged hills (Fig. 2.14) (Bennett 1973: 4).

Obviously, the building had two wings approached independently since the middle Wall 33 between them had no common entryway. The northeast courtyard may have been entered from the doorway in Wall 8 (see Plan 2.13; Fig. 2.15), and the southwest courtyard was reachable through the external entrance opened in Wall 77 (see Plan 2.13; Fig. 2.16). The complex of the plastered rooms in Trenches A27.1, A27.2 and A27.3, mentioned above perhaps had a doorway reaches to the southwest courtyard as well (Bienkowski 2002: 80, 82, 86).

Inside the building, the door in Wall 79 reached to a group of rooms between Walls 83 and 36 in Trenches A20 and A21 (see Plan 2.14) and these rooms, in turn, communicated to each other through doorways in Walls 83 and 36. In Wall 83 were opened two doors in Trench A20.4 (1.5m-wide) and Trench A20.2 (3m-wide) with a stone threshold (Fig. 2.17). In Wall 36 was opened a single doorway with a stone threshold as well (Fig. 2.18). Between Walls 8 and 10 was a 2m-wide entryway with a stone threshold (“Wall” 9). It led to a room on the southeast side of the courtyard (see Plan 2.12). “Wall” 7 that was erected between Walls 6 and 10 is a stone threshold of another internal entryway (see Plan 2.12) (Bienkowski 2002: 74).

2.2.4.1.3. Functional Interpretation

This complex, according to Bennett, was a temple, and the two stone podia (P1 and P2) were flanking the “cella” although she confessed that bedrock has not been reached in the southern part of the “temple” principally in Trenches A20.8 and A20.10. Moreover, the excavations had ceased at the latest surface (Bennett 1973: 11; 1977: 4-5). The plastered room in Trench A5.1 served as a washing room for purification purposes before penetrating the “Holy of Holies”. The small rooms in the southwest wing

perhaps were storerooms of the temple i.e. an administrative annex of the temple (Bennett 1977: 3-4; 1983: 15). Bennett has considered that the room on the southeast side of the northeastern courtyard that is bordered by Wall 34 from the west was a bath or pond or washing room, as evidenced by its solid layer of plaster. The long narrow room on the northwest side of the same courtyard wherein Silo 60.6.F9 should have had a storage role as indicated by a large storage jar found at its opposite corner in Trench 26.5 (Bienkowski 2002: 74-75, 78).

2.2.4.1.4. Chronology

Bennett assigned Buildings A and B to the neo-Assyrian period judging from the unearthed pottery, and the Persian-period occupation was restricted to a small scale. Moreover, Buseirah, according to her, has abandoned shortly afterward the breakdown of the Persian regime (Bennett 1977: 2; 1983: 16).

Architecturally, by the end of the final season of excavations in 1980, Bennett postulated her last hypothesis, of which suggested two building periods with a transitional period: the earliest (Building B) that was replaced partially by a later building (Building A), which was overlying the southwest part of Bennett's Building B (Bennett 1974: 4; 1983: 13). According to Bennett (1983: 15-16), Building B (i.e. Phase 3 building) was destructed by fire caused by the neo-Babylonian assault mentioned in the Bible, before erecting Building A (i.e. Phase 4 building), of which was also destructed by the neo-Babylonians attackers. Bienkowski (2002: 64, 82-83) contended that there were no signs of a widespread destruction associated with the end of Phase 3 except of some sections such as the shallow steps leading to the “cella”, the area between Walls 8 and 12, part of the doorway in Wall 23, and Wall 5 from outside. At any rate, all these signs imply to localized fire. The stone platform (Phase 2) predates the building construction (Phase 3). Phase 4 is the final stage of the Late Iron Age/Persian period occupation that was represented by reconstructing and erecting new walls.

Judging from the ceramic evidence unearthed all over Area A (Phases 2-4), the building could be assigned to the Iron Age II/Persian period. Some pottery sherds from Phase 4 were dated to the third and second centuries B.C.E. Two Attic sherds from the fourth century B.C.E. (Phase 4) were found: one in Trench A50.5 and the other in Trench A26.1. The rooms between Walls 8 and 5 contained many cylindrical storage jars attributed to Phase 4 as well (Bienkowski 2002: 63, 90-91).

2.2.4.1.5. Type

Evidently, the complex is following the “open-court” type, and the entrance in Wall 8 is an Assyrian fashion (Bennett 1974: 4; 1975: 6-7). In fact, the layout of Complex A exhibits pure Assyrian elements

appeared in Assur since the Middle Assyrian period (1392-934 B.C.E.). The most prominent peculiarity of this building is the two inner courts with rooms and halls around each. This style was encountered in the palace of the Assyrian King Adad-Nirari I (1305-1274 B.C.E) (Plan 2.15). Despite the similarity between both buildings, there are several discrepancies between them. The open courts of the palace of Adad-Nirari I are not on the same axis unlike the open-courts of Complex A of Buseirah. The two wings of the palace of Adad-Nirari I approached each other, but in Complex A of Buseirah each wing had a separate entrance from outside. The southwest court with its rooms in Buseirah has been interpreted as an administrative annex, and the southwest court of the palace of Adad-Nirari, also known as “Bitanu” has been interpreted as the throne hall. The same monumental palace that contained two inner courtyards has been excavated in Nimrud, of which was built during the reign of the Assyrian King Ashurnasirpal II (883-859 B.C.E.) in the neo-Assyrian period (Plan. 2.16).

2.2.4.2. “The Area C Complex”

2.2.4.2.1. Contextual Analysis

Some of the building's sections have not yet been excavated, including the area between Walls 9 and 33. Therefore, it is difficult to determine its exact dimensions and to reconstruct a clear plan. Anyhow, the excavated area between Walls 12/27 in the northeast and the proposed tower in Trench C1.2 in the northwest covers an area of 624 square meters (26 × 24m). The building built of 2m-wide walls in average made up of large and small sizes of unhewn rubble and occasionally plastered. The central part of the building was constructed, most probably, on a stone “platform” stands to a height of 2.80m. Although the excavations did not reach bedrock and barely four courses of the proposed platform had been excavated, but its preserved massive stones would imply to this function. Unlike the northeast walls, namely Walls 12/27, 33, and 26, however, the walls of the central part in Squares C10-12 and C14 have not been excavated to bedrock (Bienkowski 2002: 153, 156, 162, 170, 194).

In the northeast face of Wall 9 was a recess measured 0.58m-deep and 2.58m-long (Fig. 2.19). The plastered floor in front of it i.e. Floor 12.2.6 extended to the northeast toward Wall 12/27 and cut off about 4m before reaching it. Conjecturally, this plastered floor perhaps reached to Wall 16 on the south (Bennett 1974: 8). Neither the niche nor its floor was plastered (Fig. 2.20). On the southwest face of Wall 9 was a plastered “bench” or “shelf” of stones protruding from its base and bonded with Wall 10 (Fig. 2.21). Between Walls 9 and 13 laid a large flat stone (10.1.F33), perhaps a door sill of with a width of 1m (Fig. 2.22). Wall 11 of Phases 3-4 was plastered on either face and probably formed a door with Wall 5 of Phase 5 (Plans 2.17-2.18). Wall 12 is preserved to a height of 3m and built of large stones in the superstructure and small stones in the infrastructure. In Trench C11.1 was a stone-paved area (11.1.13)

between Walls 5 and 22 (Plan. 2.19) and two pits contained pottery and grains of corn. The surrounding floor yielded sherds of large storage jars. Another paving stone area was unearthed in Trench C10.5 (10.5.F2). The floor between Walls 20 and 15 in Trench C14.1 was a packed earth floor covered partially with ash (see Plan 2.19). In the same trench against Wall 16 was found a cooking pot and part of a pilgrim flask. Between Walls 18 and 22 was unearthed a plastered storage bin (10.3.F12) cut by Walls 6 and 8. In the corner formed by Walls 18 and 5 in Trench C10.3 was built a hearth (Fig. 2.23) (Bienkowski 2002: 158-160, 163-166 170).

In the corner formed by Walls 9 and 10 in Trench C12.3 was found a stone measured $0.83 \times 0.49 \times 0.25\text{m}$, with a keyhole-shape cut into it (12.3.F22), estimated $0.25 \times 0.18\text{m}$ and was split off into two halves (Fig. 2.24). It was most likely, a stone toilet as it connected with a pit at a depth of ca. 0.40m and a possible drain. In front of the “Toilet” to the southwest were a flight of wide plastered steps (12.3.F23) (Fig. 2.25) and a large plastered container, most likely a bath (13.3.F25) (Fig. 2.26) (Bennett 1974: 8). The floor of the “Bath” was gradually stepped to discharge wastewater efficiently. Inside it on the southeast side was a step to facilitate getting in and out. The sides of the bath are 0.18m-thick at the top and thicker at the base. All these installations together formed a “Bathroom”. The “Bathroom”, “Storage Areas” and “Reception Room/Courtyard” bore traces of a localized fire correlated with the end of Phase 4. Burnt deposits attributed to Phase 6 were found in Trench C12.2 i.e. the “Reception Room/Courtyard” and Trenches C12.5, C11.4, and C14.1. In Trench C11.4 was a tabun (11.4.F3). Trench C14.1 against Wall 21 contained a large quantity of pottery sherds of large storage jars (Bienkowski 2002: 166-167, 170, 185-186).

2.2.4.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Area C is a strategic spot located on the southern flank of the mound where the only easy connection between the ancient site and the modern village (Bennett 1973: 11; 1974: 1, 8). In Square 3 west of this building have been excavated walls of another unknown function structure (Plan 2.20). Walls 8 formed two doorways: one with Wall 6 on the northeast and a second with Wall 7 on the northwest (see Plan 2.18). In Wall 1 (Trench C1.2) (see Plan 2.19) is a 1.60m-wide doorway with a threshold made up of two hewn flat stones (Bienkowski 2002: 181, 195-199). Since the building is greatly damaged and unexcavated in some parts, it is challenging to identify its general layout and the locations of its internal and external doorways.

2.2.4.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The building as a whole represented a luxury residential structure, most likely a palace. Trench C11.1 probably used for storage purposes judging from the plastered bin and the two pits dug into its floor and their contents (see above). It should also be stressed that no clear indications for an alternative original use for this trench were found. The area in Trenches C21.1-21.3 might also have the same function (Bienkowski 2002: 170). The plastered Floor 12.2.6 in Trench C12.2 was a plastered reception room or courtyard and the structures in Trenches C10-12 were the private apartments (Bennett 1974: 8).

Bennett interpreted the stones in Square C1 as a stone foundation of a defensive tower (Phase 3) (1974: 8), but since it was not yet completely excavated, this hypothesis is not decisive yet. The Room in Trench C12.4 could have served as an anteroom before reaching the “Reception Room/Courtyard” (Bienkowski 2002: 156, 199).

2.2.4.2.4. Chronology

The pottery excavated in the complex was assigned to Phases 2-6 and dated to the Late Iron Age/Persian period. The main architectural phase is Phase 3. The Persian-period occupation was appointed to the real beginning of this period i.e. to the second half of the sixth century B.C.E. Phase 7 outlined by collapse and fired deposits (Bennett 1977: 8; Bienkowski 2002: 153, 156, 195).

2.2.4.2.5. Type

It appears that the building contained a central courtyard and rooms on at least one side. The most agreeable reconstruction shows rooms surrounding a courtyard from all sides. Bienkowski (2002: 170, 194, 199) thinks that the bathroom is a luxury element. Similar palaces and residences raised on artificial platforms were found in Assyria in the neo-Assyrian period (Reich 1992b: 218). In the Levant, there are similarities between Buseirah Complex C and Amman Citadel belongs to the Late Iron Age regarding the paved areas, toilets and the central courtyard encircled by rooms (cf. Humbert and Zayadine 1992: 250, Fig. 12, and Pls. XIIb and XIVa). Building 1369 at Megiddo contains a bathroom provided with a drainage system similar to the bathroom of Area C complex (cf. Lamon and Shipton 1939: 70-71). The unplastered niche in the wall of the “Reception Room/Courtyard” perhaps had a stone slab such as slabs found in the host suits of the neo-Assyrian palaces and residences (Turner 1970: 186-188).

2.3. GALILEE

Galilee (In Arabic al-Jalil) is a rocky territory north of Jordan Valley. The main archaeological sites that contained prominent building remains are Mizpe Yammim, Ayyelet Ha-Shahar, Hazor, and Jokneam. At

Tel Yin'am (in Arabic Tell en-Na'am), in the Lower Galilee, were revealed portions of a large building and a cobbled floor associated with a little amount of Persian or Persian-period pottery (Liebowitz 1985: 116).

2.3.1. Mizpe Yammim (in Arabic Jebel el-Arbain)

The mount of Mizpe Yammim in the Upper Galilee today includes southern Lebanon and northern Palestine. The peak of the mount soars 734m above sea level and measures 90×30m. It overlooks “Mountain of the Chief” (in Arabic Jebel el-Shaykh) to the north, Mount Tabor (in Arabic Jebel aṭ-Ṭūr), the Lower Galilee to the south, Jordan Valley, Golan Plateau, and Sea of Galilee to the east and southeast, and the Mediterranean Sea to the west (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 25). Druks and Tfilinski (1965) have classified the site as an Israelite fort. The site was first recognized during a survey and designated as Site 310 (Frankel et al. 2001: 38). In 1986, four bronze votive objects belonging to the Persian period were discovered on the summit of the mountain (Frankel and Ventura 1998). Subsequently, two seasons of excavations were carried out in 1988 and 1989. The architectural remains under discussion include the sanctuary on the Lower Terrace and the Western Compound in the summit area (Plan 2.21) (Frankel 1989/1990; 1997).

2.3.1.1. The Sanctuary

2.3.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The temple at Mizpe Yammim is small rectangular building and integrated into the southern wall of the Enclosure that measured 30 × 90m, whereas the entire northern half was constructed directly on bedrock (Plan 2.22; Fig. 27). The walls survived to a height of 1.70m (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 25-28). The main layout of the building consists of a long rectangular hall measured ca. 13.70m (east-west) × 6m (north-south) and a small side room annexed to its eastern wall measured ca. 4.80 × 4.40m. The hall's floor is paved with slabs of stones and amidst it, there are three stone column bases aligned along its central axis (Loci.15, 16 and 6) (Fig. 2.28), of which affording a real evidence that the sanctuary was roofed. The stone benches adjoining the northern, southern and eastern walls were carved from bedrock. Two stone platforms that apparently served as altars were excavated inside it. The first altar (Loc.23) in the northwest corner was in part carved from bedrock, and the other part was built of large natural stones (Fig. 2.29). The second altar (Loc.22) is measured ca. 2.00 × 1.50m, and incorporated into the southern wall of the rectangular hall between the central and western column bases (see Fig. 2.28). Immediately east of it, two ashlar blocks were placed. The southwest corner of the side room was paved by fieldstone and was full of fragments of pottery (not illustrated) (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 33).

Table 2.3: The excavated findings in the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammin

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
33	Not ill.	Carrot-shaped bottle	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 18: 4)
34	Not ill.	Krater	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 38: 2)
35	Not ill.	Mortarium	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 38: 4)
36	Not ill.	Jug	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 39: 1)
37	Not ill.	Black-slipped cup	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 40: 1)
38	Not ill.	Ovoid and globular juglets	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Figs. 20: 4; 21: 3; 22: 2, 4; 23: 2; 24: 5; 25: 2, 4; 27: 2)
39	Not ill.	Silver, eye-shaped bangle	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 3)
40	Not ill.	Blue glass lozenge shape bead	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 6)
41	Not ill.	Bronze weight	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 8)
42	Not ill.	Two arrowheads	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 9-10)
43	Not ill.	Triangular bronze fibula	L.15	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 14)
44	Not ill.	Two juglets	L.16	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Figs. 20: 3; 27: 1)
45	Not ill.	Mortarium	L.16	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 38: 3)
46	Not ill.	Two jars	L.16	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 39: 4, 6)

47	Not ill.	Cooking pot	L.16	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 39: 7)
48	Not ill.	Two bronze triangular fibulae	L.16	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 15-16)
49	Not ill.	Bronze pin or needle	L.16	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: 55)
50	Not ill.	Two wedge-impressed sherds	L.6	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 39: 8-9)
51	Not ill.	Blue glass bead	L.6	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 6)
52	Not ill.	Ovoid juglet	L.22	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 20: 1)
53	Not ill.	Two ovoid juglets	L.5	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 24: 1; 26: 2)
54	Not ill.	Mortarium	L.5	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 38: 5)
55	Not ill.	Lekythos	L.5	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 40: 2)
56	Not ill.	Triangular bronze fibula	L.5	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 13)
57	Not ill.	Three carrot-shaped bottles	L.8	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 18: 1-3)
58	Not ill.	Two Piriform juglets	L.8	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 19: 3, 5)
59	Not ill.	Ovoid and globular Juglets	L.8	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Figs. 20: 2, 5; 21: 2; 22: 3; 23: 1, 3-4, 24: 2-3; 25: 1, 3; 26: 1, 4; 27: 3, 6)
60	Not ill.	Two fragment of glasses	L.8	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: 55)
61	Not ill.	Bronze bracelet	L.8	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 4)

62	Not ill.	Ovoid juglet	L.17	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 20: 6)
63	Pl. 2.3	Silver coin	L.17	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 36: 1)
64	Not ill.	Skulls of sheep and cattle	L.23	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: 36)
65	Not ill.	Ovoid juglet	L.23	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 21: 1)
66	Pl. 2.4	Silver coin	L.23	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 36: 3)
67	Pl. 2.5	Bronze situla	L.23	(Frankel and Ventura 1998: Fig. 1)
68	Pl. 2.6	Bronze Apis bull	L.23	(Frankel and Ventura Figs. 15-16)
69	Pl. 2.7	Bronze prancing lion cub	L.23	(Frankel and Ventura Figs. 22-25)
70	Pl. 2.8	Bronze recumbent ram	L.23	(Frankel and Ventura 1998: Fig. 18)
71	Pl. 2.9	Schist statuette of the Egyptian divine triad of Isis, Osiris, and Horus	L.23	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 29)
72	Not ill.	Three pear-shaped juglets	L.26	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 19: 4, 6, 7)
73	Not ill.	Jug or jar	L.26	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 39: 3)
74	Not ill.	Pithos	L.26	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 39: 5)

2.3.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The sanctuary was established at the top of the mountain near the Western Compound on the Lower Terrace along the southern enclosure what is now commonly known as a "temenos" (see Plan 2.21). The main entrance of the sanctuary was in the eastern half of the northern wall of the main hall through a 1m-

wide opening. The side room is not reachable from outside, and no inner doorway between it and the main hall could be recognized as only the lower foundations courses were preserved (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 31, 33).

2.3.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The side room was most likely the storeroom of the temple as evidenced by a significant number of the broken pottery vessels, mainly the storage jars and pithos (see Table 2.3) (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 26, 33). Meanwhile, the religious festivals held in the main hall, as indicated by the altars, benches, and the 99 votive offerings found in it. Generally speaking, the small size of the sanctuary does not accommodate a large number of visitors, and it was not, therefore, a principal temple, rather than, a small cultic place served the small local settlement and passersby (see Table 2.3).

2.3.1.1.4. Chronology

The pottery and votive offerings excavated at the lower foundation courses were characteristic of the late sixth century B.C.E. i.e. the beginning of the Persian period. The upper strata have yielded Hellenistic pottery, a bronze coin of Antiochus IV, one coin from the Byzantine period, a few glazed dishes and a Roman-period lamp. Naturally, no one of the finds reveals a sacred nature, rather than, they reflect a mundane nature, which would be indicated that the temple ceased to be served as a cultic place simultaneously with the end of the Persian rule, but that does not preclude the occasional visits (Berlin and Frankel 2012).

2.3.1.1.5. Type

It seemed very likely that the sanctuary is one of what the author would prefer to term it as the “one-room” temple. Similar schemes have been encountered with slight variations at Makmish, Sarepta, and Kharayeb (see below).

2.3.1.2. The “Western Complex”

2.3.1.2.1. Contextual Analysis

The Western Complex is square building, measured 25×25 m, and consisting of two parts: an open rectangular court on the east measured 10m (east-west) \times 25m (north-south), and a large structure on the west called “Platform” (Plan 2.23). The open-air court had a soft bedrock floor. The platform was built of large hewn ashlar, as evidenced by the foundations and the lower courses.

Most of the walls of the “Platform” are razed to the ground, and only a few walls have preserved. Several probes that conducted in the southern part of the "Platform" have unearthed incoherent walls incorporated into each other and formed rectangular and square spaces (see functional interpretation) (Frankel 1993: 1063; Berlin and Frankel 2012: 28-31).

Table 2.4: The excavated findings in the Western Complex on the summit area of Mizpe Yammin

Catalogue no.	Plate. no	Type	Provenance	Reference
75	Not ill.	Piriform juglet	L.19	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 19: 1)
76	Not ill.	Two juglets	L.19	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Figs. 26: 3; 27: 5)
77	Not ill.	Shallow banded bowl	L.20	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 40: 3)
78	Not ill.	Fragment of glass alabastron	L.4	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 1)
79	Not ill.	Carnelian, barrel-shaped bead	L.4	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 35: 5)
80	Not ill.	Ovoid juglet	L.13	(Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 24: 6)

2.3.1.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The Western Complex was erected on the summit area near the unfortified western slope giving it a panoramic view from four sides, which emphasized its defensive function that it was designed for. The remains of a stone pavement on the southern side of the complex could be indicated to entrance in this segment heading to the sanctuary, of which its doorjamb still in situ (Frankel 1993: 1063; Berlin and Frankel 2012: 28-31).

2.3.1.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavators think that this complex served as a fortress or guard tower to protect the sanctuary, and the site as a whole. The western flank of the site is the weakest point in the mound and easy to penetrate, so it was necessary to erect a fortification system at this unfortified point (Frankel 1993: 1063). Indeed,

the ground plan and the topographical location could, therefore, support this function (see below). The significant amount of the pottery excavated in the lower courses of the southern probes (Loci.3, 4, 11, 12, 14, 19, and 20) inspired the excavators to presume that they were artificial fills (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 28).

2.3.1.2.4. Chronology

The pottery sherds assembled from the bedrock of the southern part of the "Platform" (i.e. Loci.3, 4, 11, 12, 14, 19, and 20) has been dated to the period between the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 28-31).

2.3.1.2.5. Type

The layout of this compound expressed neither the domestic nature nor the typical cultic place in any way. Alternatively, the protective function is the most believable proposition, given the fact that data are incomplete and inadequate.

2.3.2. *Ayyelet Ha-Shahar*

Ayyelet Ha-Shahar is located in the Upper Galilee, east of Hazor. The building under discussion came to light during the excavation carried out by P.L.O. Guy in 1950 (Guy 1957).

2.3.2.1. The Building

2.3.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The building was constructed by using a construction technique known as "terre pisée" (in English: rammed earth) (see Chapter 4). Since the excavations have not disclosed the whole plan of the building, the excavators reconstructed the southern side as shown by the dotted lines (Plan 2.24). The building is almost exactly oriented to cardinal points of the compass. The restored plan shows four rooms, three of which are aligned in a single row (Rooms A, B, and C) while the fourth room i.e. Room D occupies the entire second row. Room A measured 16.7×6.2 m and was flanking on either side by Rooms C and B. Both rooms are almost equal in size: Room C measured 6.2×3 m while Room B measured 6.2×3.7 m. In the middle of the east wall of Room A is a recess measured 2.9m-wide and 0.30m-deep. Door sockets (0.60m-deep) were dug into the interior corners of this room from both sides, and the two vertical bolt holes are in the middle of the threshold, which indicates that the door was a double leaf. Double-leaf

doors are made when more space is needed at the entrance. Remains of iron pivots and carbonized timber were found in the door-sockets.

As previously stated, Room D has not completely excavated, and the excavators have speculated its original form. In Room D1 are two vertical shafts, roughly 3m-deep and connected with a 0.60m-in diameter pipeline of pottery. The excavators cited that these installations served as a sewerage system in a bathroom. The floors of the building made up of pebbles and coated with a thin layer of lime plaster. The walls that were constructed mainly of packed mud brick were also covered with a thin layer of lime plaster. The long walls are very solid: the northern wall is 2.40m-wide, the central wall is 1.80m-wide, and the southern wall is 2.20m-wide. Meanwhile, the cross-walls are about 1.20m-wide. The variation in thicknesses led to the conclusion that the roof was barrel-vaulted, carried by the long thick walls. The finds were confined to the pottery vessels such as bowls, jars, juglets and a few Attic sherds (Reich 1975: 233-235; Stern 1982b: 3-4).

2.3.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building was not the only building on the mound, but there were other scattered dwellings belong to the same occupation phase in the whole excavation areas at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar itself and Hazor (Stern 1982b: 4). Nevertheless, we do not have detailed information about these structures. The building had a 3m-wide entrance, opened in the center of the northern wall (loc.E). The opening led directly to Room A, which reached to Rooms B and C on both sides and Room D on the south as well. Room C reached to Room D1, and Room B reached to Room D.

As mentioned above, the excavator has reconstructed the south unexcavated part of the building and marked the locations of the doorways on different axes given the fact that the visitors should not see the inner part of the palace directly as is the case with the Assyrian palaces (Reich 1975: 233-236).

2.3.2.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The magnificent design of the building plus its vast size, ground plan, the construction and material techniques, and thicknesses of its walls, make it an elite building constructed for public purposes. In other words, it must have been a residence domicile of the local governor, his retinue, and the administrative staff who handled the governance and public administration from this palace.

2.3.2.1.4. Chronology

The majority of the pottery sherds collected from the building are characteristic of the Persian period (Maisler 1952: 22; Stern 1982b: 3-4), with some Iron-Age sherds from the ninth-eighth centuries B.C.E. and from the Hellenistic period as well (Yeivin 1960: 29). The resemblance between the public building at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar and the Assyrian royal palaces motivated R. Reich to conclude that the building of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar was first erected in the Assyrian period and renovated in the late Persian period (Reich 1975: 233-237).

2.3.2.1.5. Type

S. Yeivin (1960) suggested that the building at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar was a palace based on its resemblance to the Assyrian palace at Arslan-Tash (Ancient Hadatu) in Aleppo Governorate (Plan 2.25). Both buildings had big entrances reach to parallel lines of rooms. The unexcavated Area E at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar served a forecourt, estimating that the throne room or the reception room in the palace at Arslan-Tash (i.e. Room XVIII) was reachable through a big door from a forecourt in the middle of its northern walls. The suggested podium incorporated into the depression in the common wall between Rooms A and B probably intended to place the throne. The lobby in the Assyrian palaces is usually located at one of the two sides of the reception room: at Arslan-Tash Palace, Room XVII was an anteroom, and Room XVI served as the stairwell. Hence, Room C has been identified as the anteroom leading to the presumed stairwell in the unexcavated Area G on the west and the bathroom i.e. Room D1 to the south.

Room B has been interpreted as another anteroom that perhaps was leading to another bathroom in the unexcavated areas; either on its east side or south of it. Room XX at Arslan-Tash served as the bathroom (Loud 1936: 153-160; Loud and Altman 1948: 10-13; Reich 1975: 233-237; Turner 1970: 177-213).

In the author's opinion, the comparison conducted by Yeivin is sketchy and unreliable for the following arguments: (1) the palace of Arslan-Tash contains three wings with two inner courtyards, but Yeivin peeled off the northwestern part of the centre wing and overlooked the other wings of the palace when conducted his comparison; (2) the south part of the building of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar is destroyed and therefore, the speculated courtyard in this part which could have been similar to that in the palace of Arslan-Tash, however, is unclear. Regardless, the deducted part of the palace of Arslan-Tash is very analogous to the preserved part of the palace of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar, with differentiation in the orientation. Based on the preceding, the author thinks that the palace of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar is a miniature of the Palace of Arslan-Tash.

2.3.3. *Hazor (in Arabic Tell el-Qedah or Waqqas)*

Hazor is located in the Upper Galilee, north of the Sea of Galilee in the Hula Valley. The bottle-shaped mound occupies an area of 25 acres and rises about 40m above the surrounding ground level. The mound is naturally fortified, as it is encircled by steep slopes from the north, east, and south sides, and on the western side is a huge wall still rising to a height of ca. 15m with a ditch behind it. Initial soundings were carried out by John Garstang in 1926 (Garstang 1944). In the mid-1950s, the Hazor expeditions were headed by Y. Yadin (Yadin 1956a: 4; 1959; 1968).

2.3.3.1. Citadel II

2.3.3.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Citadel II of Hazor is an impressive building measured ca. $30 \times 26\text{m}$ (780 square meters), contained a square open courtyard (Loc.3002) measured ca. $7.5 \times 7.5\text{m}$, surrounded by a single row of rooms from the east, west and north, and two successive lines of rooms on the south. The city-wall is joined Halls 3018 and 3019, which are measured $4.80 \times 1.20\text{m}$ and $4.80 \times 1.10\text{m}$ respectively (Plan 2.26). North of the courtyard, there is a rectangular hall (Hall 3009), measured ca. $7.5 \times 2.5\text{m}$, and flanked by two lateral rooms (Rooms 3026 and 3010). On the opposite side, the larger hall (Hall 3001) is measured $8.5 \times 3\text{m}$ and similarly flanked by two side Rooms 3005 and 3014. Behind it is a row of small rooms (Rooms 3006, 3007a-b and 3008a-b). Hall 3012 is an ample and rectangular room; measured ca. $7.00 \times 2.5\text{m}$ (Yadin 1956b: 123).

The ground plan of Citadel II is similar to the preceding one that belongs to the Assyrian period (Citadel III). The new settlers have cleaned out the old citadel and conducted some structural alterations. They blocked off some entrances or decreased their sizes by erecting partition walls and enclosures inside rooms. Those changes had significantly altered the internal layout of the building (see below). Almost all doorjambs were built of upright slabs known as orthostates (see Plan 2.26). Loc.3043 has been interpreted as a niche opened in Wall 3 based on a juglet and an Attic lamp that were found in it (catalogue nos. 97 and 98). Along the length of Hall 3009 was built an uneven wall (W15) with five enclosures and three niches dividing it into two rooms with a shared doorway (Fig. 2.30). Another niche made of tooled slabs of stone was dug into wall 3. All niches contained jars, juglet, and loom weights, whereas all enclosures were empty of objects except some sherds. In Hall 3012 two partition walls were erected (W12 and W32). The drainage channel extended from the courtyard into Room 3003 in the east (Fig. 2.31). Inside the latter was built a clumsy unknown-purpose wall. To the south, along the northern wall of Hall 3001 i.e. Wall 2 was constructed a long enclosure partitioned into two portions (Loci.3041 and 3042) (Fig. 2.32). Some ovens were built in Rooms 3009, 3003, 3007a, and a silo in the southeast corner of the courtyard (Yadin

et al. 1958: 54-57). In the absence of established evidence, it is hard to determine if the patches of stones appeared in the plan on the floors of Halls 3012 and 3009, and Rooms 3026, 3003, 3004, 3007, 3014 and the courtyard were fallen or paving stones.

Table 2.5: The excavated findings in Citadel II of Hazor

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
81	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 3010	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 9)
82	Not ill.	Bronze ring	Room 3010	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 8)
83	Not ill.	Basalt bowl	Room 3010	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 19)
84	Not ill.	Loom weight	Room 3010	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 10)
85	Not ill.	Juglets	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 3, 5, 12, 17)
86	Not ill.	Bottle	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 22)
87	Not ill.	Cooking pots	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 23, 24, 27)
88	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 1, 3)
89	Not ill.	Jug	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 9)
90	Not ill.	Iron bracelet	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 7)
91	Not ill.	Stand	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 16)
92	Not ill.	Basalt bowl	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 20)
93	Not ill.	Iron pick	Room 3009	(Yadin et al. 1958:

				Pl. LXXXII: 4)
94	Not ill.	Fragment of storage jar	Loc.3030	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 35)
95	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	Loc.3031	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 9)
96	Not ill.	Loom weights	Loc.3036	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 11-12)
97	Not ill.	Juglet	Loc.3043	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 2)
98	Not ill.	Attic lamp	Loc.3043	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pls. LXXXII: 1)
99	Not ill.	Juglet	Loc.3035	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 8)
100	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 3026	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 26)
101	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room 3026	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 31)
102	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 3003	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 13)
103	Not ill.	Fragment of storage jar	Room 3003	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 4)
104	Not ill.	Loom weight	Room 3003	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 13)
105	Not ill.	Stand	Room 3003	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 17)
106	Not ill.	Krater	Room 3004	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 30)
107	Not ill.	Stand	Room 3004	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 15)
108	Not ill.	Juglets	Loc.3063	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 7, 10, 11)

109	Not ill.	Jug	Loc.3063	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 8)
110	Not ill.	Attic lamp	Loc.3063	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 2)
111	Not ill.	Bronze fibula	Loc.3063	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 3)
112	Not ill.	Juglets	Room 3012	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 4, 6, 18)
113	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 3012	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 25)
114	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room 3012	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 10)
115	Not ill.	Storage jar	Courtyard 3002	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 34)
116	Not ill.	Loom weight	Courtyard 3002	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 14)
117	Not ill.	Juglets	Room 3001	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 1, 16)
118	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room 3001	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 6)
119	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 3006	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 20)
120	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 3006	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 32-33)
121	Not ill.	Basalt bowl	Room 3006	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 18)
122	Not ill.	Krater	Room 3007	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXX: 29)
123	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room 3007a	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 2)
124	Not ill.	Jug	Room 3007a	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXI: 7)

125	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 3007a	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXIII: 5)
126	Not ill.	Iron sickle	Room 3007b	(Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. LXXXII: 5)

2.3.3.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Citadel II of Hazor was founded on the western flank of the highest point of the upper mound (Area B), of which overlooks the western slopes of the mound (Fig. 2.33) (Yadin 1956a: 7; Fig. 5; 1958a: 4). The plan explains that some doorways were blocked off or downsized by erecting partition walls or long narrow enclosures. The entrance to Hall 3001 and the central courtyard (Loc.3002) was completely blocked off by three courses of long ashlar blocks built up on stretchers without headers and by a long enclosure built inside the courtyard in front of the blocked entrance (Loc.3052). By sealing off this door, the building had become divided into two main wings: the northern and southern wings with a possible separate entrance for each. The south wing was reachable through Room 3006 and in the north wing another entrance should have been opened either in the northeast corner through Room 3026 or in Hall 3009 or Hall 3012. The doorway between Rooms 3003 and 3026 was also sealed off. The shared doorway between the central courtyard and Hall 3009 was decreased by erecting ashlar blocks and two enclosures on either side of the reduced entrance (Loci.3049 and 3070). The entry to the courtyard and Room 3004 was reduced by adding a solid wall fits the entire width of the original entrance. Enclosure 3072 was built in the western wall of the courtyard, in the middle of the doorway. In the midst of the entrance to Hall 3001 and Room 3007a was erected a 1m-long wall dividing it into two halves forming a double-leaf door (Yadin et al. 1958: 54-56).

2.3.3.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the meager quantity of the objects unearthed in each room and their randomization do not help us conclude functions of most of them. Moreover, some installations, particularly the enclosures and the partition walls may refer to a change in the original role of the rooms and the building consequently. Halls 3018 and 3019 have been interpreted as towers (Stern 2001: 374). The intense concentration of objects came from Hall 3009 and its niches and shelves (Loci.3035, 3036, 3027, 3030, and 3031). Most of the excavated artifacts represented kitchen wares including cooking pots, storage jars, jugs, and a bowl, besides some household tools that found inside the niches such as spindle whorls, loom weights and miscellaneous objects including a pick, a bracelet, a stand and an Attic lamp. The oven built

inside Room 3009 might indicate to the probability that it served as a kitchen. The southern rooms perhaps designed for the same purposes of the south end row at Lachish, namely as a living private apartments and services facilities (see Lachish).

2.3.3.1.4. Chronology

Citadel II was first established in the Assyrian period (Stratum III) in the eighth century B.C.E. and remodeled in the Persian Period (Stratum II) (Yadin 1956a: 8; 1958b: 40). The Persian-period occupation was assigned by a coin to the fourth century B.C.E. i.e. to the reign of the monarch Artaxerxes III, who ruled from 359 to 338 B.C.E. (Stern 2001: 376).

2.3.3.1.5. Type

This building recalls the Palace of Lachish and Citadel II of Beth-Zur, but it is smaller in size than both of them. Both citadels of Hazor and Beth-Zur contained a spacious hall (reception suit) south of the courtyard with two lateral rooms on both sides and a back row of services rooms behind it. Palace of Lachish had two broad halls (a throne room and a reception suit) with side rooms on both sides and a row of services and private rooms behind them. West of the courtyard of Citadel II of Hazor is a single broad longitudinal hall (Hall 3012) while both palaces of Lachish and Beth-Zur had two long parallel halls: Halls 91 and 93 at Beth-Zur and Halls U/Y and T/AC at Lachish. North of the courtyard of Citadel II of Hazor is a broad hall with two side rooms on either side; while in the palace of Lachish there is a single row of small rooms, and the northern side of Citadel II of Beth-Zur is an open space.

On the eastern side of the courtyard of Citadel II of Hazor are ample rooms, but the eastern side of the palace of Lachish had formed of several small rooms, and the eastern side of the courtyard of Citadel II of Beth-Zur had no room. The pillared porticos of the courtyard of the Palace of Lachish (bit-hilani entrances) have not been encountered in Citadel II of Hazor. Based on the previous results, the author supposed that Citadel II of Hazor was not built for defensive purposes as the excavators previously proposed. Alternatively, it was a luxurious building built chiefly as a domicile for an extraordinary person (the local governor?) and his family based on its palatial layout including the capacious halls and the broad courtyard, besides the domestic-type findings.

The orthostates used in the construction the doorjambs were found in Building 1295 of Megiddo and Building B of Tell Keisan. Our explanation, therefore, is that the building was elite “open-court” palace, built for both residential and administrative purposes.

2.3.4. *Jokneam*

Jokneam or Yoqne'am is located in a rugged region in the Lower Galilee at the foot of the Carmel Mountains northern Palestine. The mound occupies an area of 20 acres and rising to a height of 60m above its surrounding (Fig. 2.34) (Ben-Tor and Rosenthal 1978: 57, 60). The excavations were undertaken in the name of the Institute of Archaeology of the Hebrew University at Jerusalem in collaboration with the Israel Exploration Society between 1977 and 1987. A. Ben-Tor and R. Rosenthal directed the first season of excavations. A. Ben-Tor, Y. Portugali and M. Avissar directed the next three seasons (Ben-Tor and Rosenthal 1978; Ben-Tor et al. 1979; 1983; 2005). In the Persian period (Strata X-VIII), Tel Jokneam was an unfortified city, and the Persian-period remains were severely devastated by deep trenches dug in the Early Islamic and Crusader periods. The best-preserved architectural remains were found in Stratum X. Stratum IX had some incoherent walls, and no architectural remains were attributed to Stratum VIII. The only Persian-period remains that belong to this stratum are several large pits of unknown purposes dug into walls and floors of Strata X and IX causing destruction of the buildings (Ben-Tor et al. 1983: 31; 2005: 403, 414 Fig. IV. 12; IV.13; IV: 14).

Despite the enormous damage occurred on Stratum IX, it is possible to notice the applied building techniques. Room 1558 was built of undressed fieldstone with ashlar piers integrated into Wall 1044, the so-called "pier-and-rubble" or "rubble-and-ashlars" method, which is characterized by alternating the pillars masonry with a fill of fieldstone in between (Ben-Tor et al. 1983: 33). The architectural remains of this stratum and the associated large storage jars reflected the public nature, perhaps storerooms (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 421). Only Stratum X remains will be addressed since it had coherent walls formed a definite plan.

2.3.4.1. Stratum X Building

2.3.4.1.1. Contextual Analysis

In the plan, the architectural remains of the northern building of this stratum are better preserved than the southern one. Both complexes are separated by a 2m-thick retaining or terrace wall (W208) running east-west (Plan 2.27). The northern building contains, at least, five rectangular of varying sizes rooms are Rooms 1971, 1953, 1934 and two unmarked rooms on the east and west. These rooms are arranged in a single continuous row and separated by crosswalls (W215, W206, W205, and W197) (see Plan 2.27) (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 404-406). Room 1971 is the largest room, measured 3 × 2m, and had a stone-paved floor. The undesignated room east of it contained a tabun (L.1976) in its southwest corner abutting Wall 215. Room 1953 measured ca. 1.80 × 2.20m. Room 1934 is P-shaped room, measured ca. 1.60 × 2.20m

and was also stone-paved. South of the building there are portions of walls (W251, 1022, 1051, and 108) and packed earth floors (Loci.2054, 1566, 1568, 1526, 1571, 1567a, and 1527) of a separate building. Of particular concern is Wall 1022, which was built of undressed rough stones with ashlar piers united into Walls 1022 and 1051 (pier-and-rubble technique) (Ben-Tor et al. 1983: 33). Some scholars speculate that this method used to buttress the structure (cf. Shiloh 1979: 63) while others think that these ashlar piers were solely an aesthetic element (Pritchard 1971: 19-20).

Table 2.6: The excavated findings in Stratum X building of Jokneam

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
127	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 404; Fig. IV.1: 1-11)
128	Not ill.	Krater	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 404; Fig. IV.1: 12)
129	Not ill.	Mortaria	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 405; Fig. IV.2: 1-2)
130	Not ill.	Bowls	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 405; Figs. IV. 1: 13; IV.2: 3-6)
131	Not ill.	Cooking pot	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 405; Fig. IV.2: 7)
132	Not ill.	Decorated sherd	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 405; Fig. IV.2: 8)
133	Not ill.	Lamp	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 405; Fig. IV.2: 9)
134	Not ill.	Loom weight	L.1971	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 405; Fig. IV.2: 10)
135	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.1934	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 406; Fig. IV.3: 1-4)
136	Not ill.	Juglet	L.1934	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 406; Fig. IV.3: 5)
137	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.2054	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 407; Figs. IV.4: 1-10)
138	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.1567a	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005:

				408; Fig. IV.5: 1-4)
139	Not ill.	Hole-mouth jar	L.1567a	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 408; Fig. IV.5: 5)
140	Not ill.	Cooking pot	L.1567a	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 408; Fig. IV.5: 6)
141	Not ill.	Storage jar	L.1527	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 408; Fig. IV.6: 1)
142	Not ill.	Hole-mouth jar	L.1527	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 408; Fig. IV.6: 2)
143	Not ill.	Mortaria	L.1527	(Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 408; Fig. IV.6: 3-4)

2.3.4.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The Persian-period town at Jokneam was an extra-mural settlement at the northwest edge of the mound in Area B2 (Squares E-F-G/30-31-32) (Fig. 2.35) (Ben-Tor and Rosenthal 1978: 63; Ben-Tor et al. 1979: 73). The westernmost parts of the architectural remains that located in Square E/30-32 are razed to the ground owing to their vicinity to the western slope. The man-made mound had a critical position since it overlooks Jezreel Valley at the crossroads leading to Megiddo in the southern part of the region, and it controls the northeastern outlet of the route crossing the Carmel Mountains. Too, the site is located at the junctions of Phoenicia and inland Syria (Ben-Tor and Rosenthal 1978: 57). The northern and eastern sides are joining the limits of the excavation area while the western side is adjacent to the slope. Therefore, no entrance could be found on these fronts. Furthermore, there is no opening in the southern retaining wall. Too, the plan does not show doorways between the rooms, which could mean that they are either absent or disregarded.

2.3.4.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The sizable quantity of storage jars found in the rooms that are arranged in a parallel row is categorically suggested that they were designed for storage ends, namely warehouses. The lush and cultivable soil and the plenty of water rendered a suitable environment for living and horticulture, which explains the presence of a vast number of storage jars and other vessels that were used for storing the crops.

2.3.4.1.4. Chronology

The remains of Stratum X were buried under accumulated debris of the Late Iron Age (Stratum XI) (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 404). Based on the pottery vessels, Stratum X was dated to the late sixth or early fifth centuries B.C.E. (Ben-Tor et al. 1983: 45). Stratum IX buildings replaced the buildings of this stratum. Pit 1564 of Stratum VIII was cut through the northwest corner of Loc.2054 (see Plan 2.27) (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 414).

2.3.4.1.5. Type

The alignment of the rooms in a parallel row recalls the “Magazine Building” excavated in Area D2 at Tel Dor, the storerooms excavated in Grid 50 at Ashkelon (Phase 6), the storehouses of Tel Megadim, and the workshops and warehouses of the second town of Tel Nahariya.

The integrated ashlar piers into the walls is a Phoenician technique adopted in the dwellings of the lower city of Shikmona, the buildings of the settlement of Tell Abu Hawam, the complex of Acre, Areas D and C buildings of Tel Ya’oz, the Phase 10 Villa and Warehouse of Ashkelon, the warehouse of Jaffa (Building M), Area D1 building and the "Magazine Building" in Tel Dor, Building 264 of Tel Mevorakh, Building 1 and the “two-room” building of Tell el-Burak, the residential quarter at Beirut, and the storerooms of Tell Kazel. The author termed this type of buildings as a “Parallel-Rooms” building that meant chiefly to be a public storage facility.

2.4. JEZREEL VALLEY

Jezreel Valley (in Arabic Marj Ibn Amer) is a fertile plain south of Galilee. Megiddo is the only major site in the Persian period. Less important sites contained Persian-period building remains were also excavated in this region. Tel Kedesh (in Arabic Tell Abu Qudeis) is situated between Megiddo and Taanach. The Persian-period occupation in it was assigned to Stratum III, of which produced segments of walls, tabuns, a rubbish pit, a section of floor with a mortar and local pottery (Stern and Ariei 1979: 9; Figs. 6 and 8). The excavations at Tell Ta’annek south of Megiddo have revealed a few preserved walls of a massive structure erected in the late sixth century B.C.E. and stone-lined pits (Lapp 1967: 30-32; Fig. 20).

2.4.1. *Megiddo (in Arabic Tell el Mutesellim)*

Megiddo is an important site in Jezreel Valley northern Palestine, in a strategic position on the highways. The first excavations were carried out between 1903 and 1905 by Gottlieb Schumacher for the German Society for the Study of Palestine (Schumacher 1908). After the First World War, Carl Watzinger published the survived available remains from Schumacher’s excavations (Watzinger 1929). In 1925, the

excavations were reopened by the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago and continued until the outbreak of the Second World War. Clarence S. Fisher directed the excavations. In the following seasons P. L. O. Guy, Robert Lamon, Geoffrey M. Shipton, and Gordon Loud headed the fieldwork (Fisher 1929; Guy 1931; Lamon and Shipton 1939; Loud 1948). The Persian-period remains were attributed to Stratum I in Areas A and D, and Strata II-I in Area C (Plan 2.28). In the rest of the areas, the remains of this period were scanty (Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88).

The site was abandoned in the middle of the fourth century B.C.E. (Guy 1931: 19). Schumacher's trenches had caused extensive damages to some buildings belonging to Stratum I, such as Building 736 (see below). In the ground layouts, the excavators did not detach the architectural remains that belong indeed to Stratum I from those belong to the earlier strata (Plan 2.29). However, Buildings 736 and 1295 indisputably belong to Stratum I, likewise some very destructed remains such as Building 640 in Square Q5 and Building 1415 in Square P10 (Stern 2001: 377).

2.4.1.1. "The Fortress"

2.4.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Schumacher's trenching operations in 1903 revealed a few portions of the Fortress and the other segments were destroyed. The "Fortress" is a grand rectangular building; measured ca. 65 × 46m, constructed of massive and rough stones, varying from 2 to 2.5m-thick. Small stones filled the crack between the two faces (Plan 2.30; Fig. 2.36) (Fisher 1929: 61, 65; Lamon and Shipton 1939: 83; Wright 1985: 91). The original plan of the Fortress consists of a central courtyard measured 23m (north-south) × 29m (east-west) surrounded by roofed rooms from three sides: north, south, and west while the eastern side is an open space. The building has not symmetric scheme, and it seems that several architectural adjustments were conducted on the original plan, and new walls were supplemented by some parts of it.

2.4.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Area C where the Fortress was erected, however, is the eastern edge of the mound, and it was flanking by remains of badly-damaged dwellings in the unfortified area (Fig. 2.37) (Fisher 1929: 61-62; Figs. 39-40; Lamon and Shipton 1939: 83). A paved road west of the structure might suggest that the main entrance was from this side (Fisher 1929: 61). Given the fact the open court opens on the east, this conclusion lacked objectivity. The only inner entryway is that opened on the northwest side of the courtyard leading to a small room through a 5m-wide entrance with a threshold.

2.4.1.1.3. Functional Interpretations

The little quantity of the findings that found inside this building are not reliable to define its function. Nonetheless, its central position on the high mound that was allowing it to monitor the region, besides its layout and its solid walls, however, make the interpretation as a fortress is the most adequate proposed function.

2.4.1.1.4. Chronology

Based on the pottery evidence, Fisher distinguished two successive architectural phases in the Fortress: Strata II and I. Stratum II was assigned to the Assyrian period between 650 and 600 B.C.E. and Stratum I was attributed to the period between the neo-Assyrian and Persian periods (600-350 B.C.E). The Assyrian-period fortress was erected on the ruins of Schumacher's temple termed as "Tempelburg" or Fisher's "Astarte Temple", of which was attributed to Stratum III (780-650 B.C.E.). At any rate, Fortress II maintained its general layout without modification during the second phase of re-use (i.e. Stratum I) (Schumacher 1908: 110-124; Fisher 1929: 61, 68; Lamon and Shipton 1939: 87).

2.4.1.1.5. Type

Apparently, this building belongs to the "open-court" scheme, encircled by rooms on three sides with an open space in the fourth one. Yet, on closer observation, we can realize the considerable similarities between it and Fort A of Tell Jemmeh, despite the fortress of Megiddo is almost double in size than Fort A and the courtyard of fortress of Megiddo is twice bigger than Fort A. On the other hand, both buildings have a rectangular broad open court opened to the south and flanked by a double row of rooms on the north and south sides and a single line on the west.

2.4.1.2. "The Barracks"

2.4.1.2.1. Contextual Analysis

The "Barracks" is a term given by the excavators to the three longitudinal rooms excavated in Squares K-L/9 (Rooms 634, 635 and 576) (Fig. 2.38). These rooms are planned in three parallel rows running north-south. The floor level of these rooms is very close to the ground level. Room 635 is extended up to the gated pathway in Square K9 and cut off a portion of it. Their shared southern wall is extended westward and combined into Wall 1045 of Building 1052 belonging to Stratum III. These Barracks might have relations with Rooms 603 and 604 in Squares M/9-10. A long street (Loc.606) running north-south separates them that was reaching to the residential area in the southern part of the mound (Area A) (Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88). In Room 635 were found bronze fibulae and steatite whorl (Lamon and Shipton 1939: Pls. 78: 10-11; 93: 15).

2.4.1.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The Barracks were erected in the northern part of the mound near the city gate (Area D). Apparently, the rooms were isolated, in the sense of they did not reach to each other, rather than each barrack was reachable from the city-gate in the north.

2.4.1.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The vast spaces of each room gave each one of them an adequate space to accommodate a significant number of persons, which prompted the excavators to conclude that they were served as barracks (Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88). Wright (1985: 92) suggested storerooms instead. In the author's view, the latter's suggestion is unrealistic since no pottery wares or storage jars were found inside them, plus their position near the city gate supports the first proposal. Indeed, besides the fact that the Barracks are comparable to the warehouses of Ashkelon, Jokneam, Tel Dor and Tel Megadim, however, their large sizes, their position near the city gate and connection with the monitoring rooms made their defensive mission, therefore, is more reasonable than the storage one. The rectangular rooms (Loci.603 and 604) were built most likely to monitor and control the passageway heading to the residential quarter in the south and the city gate in the north.

2.4.1.2.4. Chronology

Despite the insufficient number of the objects that found inside these rooms, Stern (2001: 377) attributed them to Stratum I because of their stratigraphic sequence.

2.4.1.2.5. Type

Although the floor plan of the "Barracks" is slightly similar to some warehouses and storehouses excavated elsewhere in the Levant, there are profound variations in details. Accordingly, it is not reasonable to classify them among the "parallel-rooms" warehouses.

2.4.1.3. Building 736

2.4.1.3.1. Contextual Analysis

Schumacher's trench (Loc.674) that has been conducted along the north-south axis in the middle of the courtyard has caused partly damaging in the north and south parts. The western walls are better preserved than the eastern walls. Fortunately, the building maintained its main layout. The plan demonstrates a

rectangular building measured ca. 20 × 18m contains a rectangular open courtyard (Loc.736) measured ca. 16 × 8m and various-size rooms on the north, east, and west while the southern side is an open space (see Plans 2.29, 2.31). The excavators assumed that there was a fourth row on the south side of the building, but Schumacher's trench has destroyed it.

An empty rectangular cistern (Loc.741) was dug into the floor Room 1314. The excavators believe that it postdates the buildings, but they did not assign its exact date due to the absent of material culture (Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88).

Table 2.7: The excavated findings in Building 736 of Megiddo

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
144	Not ill.	Jug	Room 736	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: Pl. 1: 5)
145	Not ill.	Iron chisel	Room 740	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: Pl. 83: 16)
146	Not ill.	Basalt whorl	Room 740	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: Pl. 93: 3)
147	Not ill.	Jar	Room 1314	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: Pl. 9: 28)
148	Not ill.	Carnelian bead	Room 1314	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: Pl. 90: 12)

2.4.1.3.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Building 736 was erected in the southern part of the mound in the “Residential Quarter” that termed as Area A (Squares R-S/10-9) (see Plan 2.29) (Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 98). The main entrance to the building should have been in the open space in front of the courtyard southward. The central courtyard was the communicating link between the west and east sides. On the west, it opened to Rooms 1314, 740

and perhaps to the undesignated room at the southern end. Most likely, Schumacher's trench removed the entrance to the courtyard and Room 737 in the north.

2.4.1.3.3. Functional Interpretation

The objects are very meager and do not fulfill, by themselves, the minimum demands to identify the functions of the rooms. Generally speaking, the design and excavated household tools suggest that Building 736 was a residency or large, well-to-do villa or residency.

2.4.1.3.4. Chronology

Building 736 belongs with the utmost confidence to Stratum I, as evidenced by the pottery and other objects excavated in some portions of the building (Lamon and Shipton 1939: 91).

2.4.1.3.5. Type

The layout of the building affiliated the "open-court" type, of which rooms on three sides surround it. The building's design resembles considerably Building G of Tell Qasile that built for domicile goals, the Villa of Ashkelon (Phase 13), and House J of Al-mina.

2.4.1.4. Building 1295

2.4.1.4.1. Contextual Analysis

The present author has chosen the sections that he believed to have been an integral part of the building and peeled off the other parts of the original plan in order to understand better its design. Indeed, the gigantic mess occurred in Stratum I, however, made it difficult for gaining a sunny layout for several buildings, including Building 1295. Seemingly, the building contained two inner courts instead of one with rooms around them: a northern courtyard (loci.1295 and 966) and a southern smaller one (Loc.760) (see Plans 2.29, 2.32). The north court was stone-paved, and its entire eastern wall is destroyed while the south court was not paved except some preserved patches in the east end (loci.753 and 756). The east wall of Building 1295 is the west wall of Building 763 i.e. both buildings are attached to a shared wall. The doorjambs of Entrance 750 and the common doorway between Rooms 763 and 713 were built of orthostates.

Table 2.8: The excavated findings in Building 1295 of Megiddo

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
149	Not ill.	Jar	Room 1294	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88: Pl. 12: 62)
150	Not ill.	Jar	Room 1295	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88: Pl. 13: 67)
151	Not ill.	Bowl	Room 1295	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88: Pl. 23: 2)
152	Not ill.	Chalice	Room 1295	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88: Pl. 33: 3)
153	Not ill.	Bowls	Room 763	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88: Pls. 23: 13; 24: 29)
154	Not ill.	Jar	Room 763	(Lamon and Shipton 1939: 88: Pl. 9: 19)

2.4.1.4.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

If we acknowledge the two inner courts suggestion, then the building contained two separate wings with an entrance or more for each. The main entrance appeared in the plan is located in the northern wall of the “northern courtyard” (Loc.750), which opened seemingly to a forecourt. The second entrance was in the northern wing as well and reached to Room 713 through a pathway west of it running north-south. The north courtyard perhaps had a third entry in its eastern demolished wall. The proposed southern wing had most probably an entrance from the south. It seems that Loc.766 opened to the west pathway, but the opening was sealed off at a later stage.

2.4.1.4.3. Functional Interpretation

Only a few negligible quantities of pottery vessels have been found, which in the author's view made it difficult to gain a full understanding of the rooms' functions. Like Building 736, it appears that Building 1295 had only one function- a private residence or villa.

2.4.1.4.4. Chronology

Despite the limited data that is provided by the pottery and other excavated objects, they were attributed to the period between the late sixth and mid-fourth centuries B.C.E. (Stratum I) (Lamon and Shipton 1939: 91).

2.4.1.4.5. Type

The "two inner courts" buildings would seem unfamiliar during the Persian period, and only Buseirah and Tell Jemmeh (Building B) contained this Assyrian style. Regarding the construction methods, the stonemasons of Building 1295 sought to add an element of beauty the doors by erecting the upright slab stones at the doorjambs (orthostates) (see Hazor for parallel examples).

2.5. JUDEAN FOOTHILLS

The Judean Foothills (in Arabic Al-Khalil) south of the West Bank is a lowland region in the heart of Palestine, flanked by the Negev on the south and the Dead Sea on the east. Three important sites from the Persian period were excavated in this area are Khirbet Nimra, Lachish, and Beth-Zur.

2.5.1. *Khirbet Nimra*

Khirbet Nimra is located north of Al-Khalil. In 1989, Hizmi and Shabtai conducted a rescue excavation at the site and assigned it to the Persian period (Hizmi and Shabtai 1993). Vividly, the excavators have devoted their attention principally to the methodology and typology of the loom weights excavated inside the building instead of the building itself.

2.5.1.1. The Building

2.5.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The building does not seem to be pre-planned since its rooms are arranged in a chaotic manner and its walls are occasionally overlapped. Undressed and slightly hewn stones were used in the construction. The thicknesses of the tumbledown walls are uneven. The total length from east to west is 25m and from north to south is 12m. The building contained thirteen rooms of various sizes (Plan 2.33). It is not possible at

this juncture to predict if the stones that still exist in Rooms C, R and M are paving stones or fell off from the walls and ceiling. Room A measures ca. 2.5m (east-west) × 4m (north-south) and contains a pit or silo dug into its northeastern corner. Some unknown-function installations were excavated inside Room Q. Room E measured 2.40m (north-south) × 6m (east-west) and was divided by a partition wall into two completely separated sections. A semi-circular unknown-purpose wall was built in the northeast corner of Room F. Room D also contains some unclear installations. Room N measured 3m (north-south) × 6m (east-west) and has a neat appearance and marked by its solid walls on four sides.

Table 2.9: The excavated findings in the building of Khirbet Nimra

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
155	Not ill.	Sixteen loom weights	Room A	(Shamir 1997: 5, Table 2; Fig. 2: 1, 7-8)
156	Not ill.	Three loom weights	Room D	(Shamir 1997: Table 2)
157	Not ill.	Two loom weights	Room E	(Shamir 1997: 5; Table 2)
158	Not ill.	Two loom weights	Room I	(Shamir 1997: 5; Table 2)
159	Not ill.	One loom weight	Room K	(Shamir 1997: 5; Table 2)
160	Not ill.	Twenty four loom weights	Room N	(Shamir 1997: 5; Table 2; Fig. 2: 2-6, 9-10)

2.5.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Khirbet Nimra is very close to Tell el-Jurn at En-Gedi, so it is reasonable to conclude that they had a sort of relation between both sites. The current plan does not illustrate the location of the main entrance, especially given the absence of the personal comments of the excavators, although the author would estimate that it was in the west through Forecourt I.

2.5.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Admittedly, the ground plan points out neither a defensive function nor a palatial nature. Apparently, the vast amount of the loom weights, particularly in Rooms A and N, indicates that these rooms were often used in fabric and textile work viz workshops. Room I in the western side perhaps was a forecourt. Stern thinks that the building was an administrative center (Stern 2001: 450). Indeed, given the information embedded in the excavation report, Stern's proposal is undeterminable. In fact, the significant number of loom weights would indicate that the building was a productive place administered by a local government that manages the workflows, or most likely it was simply a private dwelling settled by a family whom their livelihoods had relied mainly upon on leatherworking.

2.5.1.1.4. Chronology

Types and forms of the loom weights discovered inside the building are characteristic of the Persian period (Shamir 1997: 4-6). In point of fact, similar species were found at Makmish (cf. Singer-Avitz 1989: 359), Shikmona (cf. Elgavish 1968: Pl. LXIII: 159-164), and in the town of Tell Mardikh, specifically in loci.2480, 2057, 2020, 2070, 2004, 2038, 2430, 2063, 2481, 2463, 2480, and 2411 (catalogue nos. 632, 634, 637, 641, 646, 650, 651, 653, and 655).

2.5.1.1.5. Type

The building of Khirbet Nimra is very simple and had no a unique plan. Therefore, we could not classify it to any other type knew in the Levant.

2.5.2. *Lachish (in Arabic Tell ed-Duweir)*

Lachish is located on the main road heading from the southern coastal plain to Al-Khalil Foothills, some 30 km southeast of Ashkelon. The archaeological mound at Lachish is located on the edge of Wadi Ghafar and surrounded by fertile lands, which makes it indistinguishable from a long distance or in restricted visibility (Fig. 2.39). The region is characterized by low hills and small deep valleys in-between (Ussishkin 2004b: 23).

The site was first excavated between 1932 and 1938 under J. L. Starkey with the assistance of L. Harding and O. Tufnell on behalf of the “Wellcome Marston Archaeological Research Expedition to the Near East” (Starkey 1934; 1935; 1937; Tufnell 1953). In 1966 and 1968, Y. Aharoni administered two seasons of excavations, which shed additional light on the history and stratigraphy of the “Solar Shrine” unearthed during the British expedition (Aharoni 1975). In 2004, D. Ussishkin renovated the fieldwork in the name of the Institute of Archaeology at Tel Aviv University (Ussishkin 2004a; b). The British team attributed

Level I to the Persian period. During the Persian period, Tell ed-Duweir was refurbished as an administrative centre contained a roadway leading to the city-gate, the inner city gate (Area GE; Square G-18), the outer city gate (Area GW, Squares EF-18), the city-wall, the Residency or the Palace on the summit of the mound (Squares KJL-12/13/14), the central temple “Solar Shrine” (Square QRP-12/13), cemeteries (Plan 2.34) and remains of three houses (Tufnell 1953: 98-99; Ussishkin 1993: 910; 2004a: 95).

2.5.2.1. The Palace

2.5.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The Palace of Lachish was erected on a raised platform, comprised of two main wings: northern and southern wings and a spacious open courtyard (Loc.P) measured $18 \times 18\text{m}$ in between (Plan 2.35). The court was surrounded by 30 various size rooms and halls on four sides¹: a single row of rooms on the north and east, a double row on the west (the second row is outlined by dotted lines since it been demolished), and a triple row south of it.

Half of the east wall was founded on rubbish. The west wall was destroyed. The substructure of the building was constructed of small semi-dressed limestone blocks and mudbrick coated with plaster. The fallen curved limestone from the uppermost parts of the walls on the floors of the rooms except the courtyard, however, reveals that the building had barrel vaulted roofs constructed of well-dressed limestone measured in average $0.50\text{m} \times 0.25\text{m} \times 0.15\text{m}$, plastered with lime and supported by arches (Fig. 2.40). In the same manner, the floors, doorsills, columns and column bases were whitewashed.

The building is oriented to the north-south axis, and measures ca. 50m (north-south) \times 36m (east-west) (Tufnell 1953: 131-134). West of the courtyard is a staircase leading to a double-row of rooms (Stern 1982b: 60). The elongated hall on this side (i.e. Hall U) had two pairs of pilasters protruding from the long walls at the northern end forming an end space (loci.Y and V) (Reich 1992a: 118). Both Hall K and the undesignated hall north of it, counting the small side rooms i.e. Rooms L and J on either side of Hall K and Rooms O and Q on either side of the undesignated hall, however, measured 25m (east-west) \times 7m (north-south). At the eastern and western ends are identical rooms: on the east there are Rooms M and N and on the west there are Rooms N and R/S. At the southernmost side of the building is a single row of

¹ The unmarked room that lies on the northeastern end has been counted.

the square and rectangular rooms: Rooms A, B, AF, C, D/E, F and G. The floors of Rooms A and B were plastered and equipped with a drainage canal.

The crucial feature of the building is the two pillared porticoes at the entrances to the southern and western halls. The columns of the porticoes are well-quarried and standing on round bases above stepped square plinths (Figs. 2.41-2.44), with well-cut door sockets and thresholds (Reich 1992a: 118; Fantalkin and Tal 2006: 169). These drums represented the earliest stone-made column bases ever documented in Palestine. In the previous periods, particularly in the Late Bronze Age temples, however, they used to be wooden pedestals (Fischer and Tal 2003: 21, 29; Ussishkin 2004a: 96). In Room AE, three drums were re-erected in a later stage (Fig. 2.45). A door socket was uncovered in the 2m-wide entrance opened to Room Z. The floor of Room B was plastered with an inclined surface to discharge the waste water into a clay pipe that continued eastward within the lavatory and then to outside (Fig. 2.46) (Tufnell 1953: 131-133).

Table 2.10: The excavated findings in the Palace of Lachish

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
161	Not ill.	Fragment of potstand and sherds of bowl	Room A	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
162	Not ill.	Fragments of jar; Bowls; Fragments of Minoan ware; Jar handle	Room B	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
163	Not ill.	Weight	Room C	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
164	Not ill.	Fragments of jars and bowls	Room D	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
165	Not ill.	Mortaria; Potstand; Storage jars, Baking plate; Attic sherds; Lamp; Arrowhead; Sickle; Stone bead	Room E	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
166	Not ill.	Fragment of jar	Room F	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
167	Not ill.	Jar handles	Room J	(Tufnell 1953: 136)
168	Not ill.	Glazed cup; Jar; Cooking pot;	Room K	(Tufnell 1953: 136)

		Bowls; Jar handles; Bead; Scarab; Sickle; Nail		137)
169	Not ill.	Nail; Sickle; Bead	Room L	(Tufnell 1953: 137)
170	Not ill.	Mortaria; Potstand; Lamp; Jar Base; Fibula	Room N	(Tufnell 1953: 137)
171	Not ill.	Unguentarium	Room O	(Tufnell 1953: 137)
172	Not ill.	Handle of Kylix; Fragments of lamps; Krater; Black Glazed Skyphos; Handle of amphora; Jar; Mortaria; Cooking pot; Alabaster dish; Part of altar; Sickle; Oil flask; Jar handles	Room P	(Tufnell 1953: 137-138)
173	Not ill.	Bowl	Room R	(Tufnell 1953: 138)
174	Not ill.	Jar; Bowl; Mycenaean sherd	Room T	(Tufnell 1953: 138)
175	Not ill.	Black Glazed dish; Mortaria; Bowls; Storage jars; Potstand; Cooking pots	Room U	(Tufnell 1953: 138)
176	Not ill.	Attic sherd	Room V	(Tufnell 1953: 138)
177	Not ill.	Storage jar; Bases; Cooking pot; Bone spatula; Nail	Room W	(Tufnell 1953: 138)
178	Not ill.	Krater; Jar; Cooking pot; Handle	Room X	(Tufnell 1953: 139)
179	Not ill.	Base of lamp; Mortaria; Cooking pot; Potstand; Bangle	Room Y	(Tufnell 1953: 139)
180	Not ill.	Attic sherds	Room AA	(Tufnell 1953: 139)
181	Not ill.	Fragment of Black Glazed bowl; Pin; Bead	Room AB	(Tufnell 1953: 139)

182	Not ill.	Attic sherd	Room AC	(Tufnell 1953: 139)
183	Not ill.	Storage jar; Mortaria; Cooking pot; Jar handle	Room AD	(Tufnell 1953: 139)
184	Not ill.	Black Glazed carinated cup; Storage jar; Alabaster dish; Handle	Room AE	(Tufnell 1953: 139)
185	Not ill.	Potstand	Room AF	(Tufnell 1953: 139)

2.5.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The palace occupies the center and the highest point of the mound. The city-gate is on its back wall (Ussishkin 2004a: 95). As shown in the ground plan, the main entrance was at the eastern end of the northern wall through Room Z. Tufnell has supposed another door in the western demolished wall leading from Room T to the courtyard via Hall U (Tufnell 1953: 132). The courtyard communicated with the apartments around it. Each room on the eastern and northern side of the courtyard was approached only through the court. The latter reached to the western rooms through a colonnade portico and reached to the southern apartments by three steps laid in front of a 12m-wide columned portico. The two elongated successive halls (i.e. Hall K and the unmarked hall) reached to each other through an entryway opened in the middle of their shared wall on the opposite side of the entrance of the southern portico. Both halls are communicated with the small rooms on either side except Room R, which was reachable through Hall T and perhaps Room N. The rooms at the southern end were reachable through three unevenly-spaced doorways opened in the south wall of Hall K. One of them was opened in the west and led to Rooms A and B through Room L. The second one was opened in the middle of the common wall and reached to Rooms AF, G, O/E and F through the hall. The third opening was through Room N in the west that was entering to Room G.

2.5.2.1.3. Functional interpretation

Generally speaking, the public nature of the building is clearly demonstrated by its size and layout. The pillared porticoes, the vast halls and the whitewashed floors, walls, and columns manifested special innovations appeared only in the sumptuous mansions. Starkey in the 1930s termed the building “Palace-Fort” (Starkey 1935: 203; 1937: 239). The rooms on either side of the two elongated halls beyond the

southern portico were private rooms and domestic office. Loc.S was interpreted as a substructure of a stairwell approaching the roof. Loc.AG outside the building served as a platform. The sewerage channel and plastered stepped floors of Rooms A and B pointed out that they functioned as lavatories: Room B acted as a bathroom, and Room A was a toilet (Starkey 1935: 203; Tufnell 1953: 132). Wright (1985: 94) has interpreted the triple row south of the courtyard as the main “diwan”.

2.5.2.1.4. Chronology

In several rooms, the excavators encountered two construction phases: a primary level attributed to the Assyrian period and a secondary one assigned to the Persian period. Tufnell has cited that the Palace was built in the Assyrian period (Stratum II) on the ruins of Palace C (Stratum III), which was destroyed two and a half centuries earlier, during Sennacherib’s campaign in 701 B.C.E. The Persian occupation (Stratum I), therefore, was a transitional occupation phase that took place in the middle of the fifth century B.C.E. after a partial destruction. On the other side, several original plastered floors of Stratum II were reused without alterations in the Persian period (Tufnell 1953: 53, 132, 135). Subsequently, this date has been accepted by some scholars (cf. Hoglund 1992: 140; Carter 1999: 170; Stern 2001: 447–450; Lipschits 2003: 342). In her opinion, Tufnell thinks that except some mortars, querns, stone troughs and some Attic ware, however, there is nothing to indicate when the Palace was resettled as a temporary occupation in the later stage of the Persian period (Tufnell 1953: 133).

Starkey (1935; 1937) also suggested an occasional resettlement in the ruined palace took place in the middle of the fifth century B.C.E. based on some Black Glazed and Black Figured Attic pottery dated by J. Iliffe between 475-425 B.C.E.- a date is consistent with Starkey’s and Tufnell’s suggestions (Iliffe 1933). Starkey (1935; 1937) had also emphasized that the artifacts excavated on the floors belong to the latest period of occupation (i.e. the Persian period), and no materials from the first stage (i.e. the Assyrian period) have been preserved. O. Tufnell rejected Starkey's argument, and she weighs the possibility of attributing those findings to the first stage instead of the second one, and nothing was preserved from the Persian occupation, which is in her words appears to have been unusual. On the other hand, all findings excavated in and beneath the foundations are from Stratum III and nothing was preserved from Stratum II. She explained this odd phenomenon as follows: the new squatters in the Persian period had removed all debris accumulated over the centuries lasted from the period of destruction of Palace C (Stratum III) and the time of erecting the Palace under discussion (Stratum II) (Tufnell 1953: 135).

These previously interpretations have been revised by Fantalkin and Tal (2006: 167-197) and D. Ussishkin (2004b) the director of the new excavations, who shed new lights on extraordinary

archaeological data. The renewed excavations demonstrated that this palace was erected above pits and debris layers containing typical Persian-Period pottery, including Attic pottery, mostly from the fifth century B.C.E. (Ussishkin 2004a: 96). Indeed, the earlier British expeditions did not omit this, but they suggested that these pits predate the erection of the palace (Inge 1938; Tufnell 1953: 151).

Based on their analysis of the local and imported Attic pottery, Fantalkin and Tal concluded that the palace was established in 400 B.C.E., and they claimed that Tufnell's date relied principally on a minuscule proportion of Attic sherds (Fantalkin and Tal 2006: 173-174). To sum up, based on the refreshed stratigraphic analysis, the excavators observed that Level I or Stratum I consisted of three sub-phases: (1) Phase I (Level IA) is represented by pits; (2) Phase II (Level IB) is designed by erecting the massive palace and some other structures; (3) Phase III (Level IC) is characterized by a Late Persian/Early Hellenistic temporary occupation and erecting the "Solar Shrine" (see below) (Ussishkin 2004a: 96-97).

2.5.2.1.5. Type

Aharoni was not convinced that there were Persian influences on the Palace. The threshold of the main entrance, the elaborate hinges of the doors and the pillared porticoes that are standing on square torus column bases, the broad halls behind the porticoes and the services and living quarters in the last row, however, prompted Aharoni to insist on the Assyrian archetype of the building that was encountered in Assyria since the late eighth and early seventh centuries B.C.E. (Aharoni 1975: 34-35, 38). O. Tufnell, in her turn, believes that neither the pottery nor the plan bore direct Persian influence, and it was not similar at all to the fifth-century B.C.E. palaces excavated at Pasargadae and Persepolis, but it is more closely resemble the Syro-Hittite character instead (Tufnell 1953: 58, 135). Amiran and Dunayevsky classified the Palace of Lachish to the second group of the "open-court" buildings, which contained a central court surrounded by rooms on three sides (see Chapter 5). Classifying this palace to the second group is a big mistake; as the central court of the Palace of Lachish was surrounded by rooms on four sides, not three. At any rate, M. Roaf claims that Lachish was the first site in Palestine which adopted this plan (Roaf 1973).

Aharoni concluded that the Palace of Lachish combines between the Assyrian type which is the "inner courtyard building" and the neo-Hittite type termed "bit hilani" (in English House of Pillars). The latter type seems to have become popular during the Early Iron Age, especially in northern Syria (Aharoni 1975: 36). Stern (1997: 27) confirmed that this is an accurate express of the building style. Moreover, he writes: "The Lachish Residency therefore clearly seems to have been constructed under Achaemenid

influence.” Moreover, in his view, the applied architectural elements sets it apart from certain other; perhaps because it is the only building in Palestine that could be interpreted indisputably as a palace.

Building 1369 (Stratum III) of Megiddo is comparable to this palace (Plan 2.36) (cf. Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 89). The building excavated at Zinjirli is also similar to the Palace of Lachish (Plan 2.37) (cf. Naumann 1955: 126). In the author’s view, the two-stepped square bases topped by a cylindrical column with a circular torus base, however, is a Persian style found in the Achaemenid palaces (see Chapter 4). As a matter of fact, some scholars have emphasized on the Persian-period style of the Palace. They proposed that this kind of column bases, multiplicity of the lavish columns with towering height and the square rooms, however, were originated in Persia in the Achaemenid palaces in Iran (Frankfort 1952; Amiran 1967: 3020; Nylander 1970:103, Figs. 35-36; Perrot and Ladiray 1974: Figs. 17-18). Dressing by toothed chisel is originated in Greece and reached Persia in the sixth century B.C.E. (Nylander 1970: 53: 56). In general, the Persian buildings are characterized by combining influences derived from Urartu, Greece, Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria and Phoenicia. Also, hiring foreign craftsmen for construction the Achaemenian buildings was not unusual, such as the case of the palace of Susa. As opposed to the Assyrian and Babylonian palaces, the walls of the Palace of Lachish are not carved with battle scenes (Stern 1982b: 58).

2.5.2.2. The “Solar Shrine”

2.5.2.2.1. Contextual Analysis

This sanctuary was termed “Solar Shrine” because its orientation in the east-west direction and, therefore, its main entrance was opened in the east wall viz facing the sun (Plan. 2.38). The sanctuary composed primarily of two parts or wings, each contained rooms, with a square open-air court (loc.106) in between. From east to west it measured 27m and from north to south is 17m. The courtyard and eastern rooms are on a lower level than the floor level of the western rooms that, in turn, were approached by five broad stairs. The western walls were preserved to a height of 2m, but the eastern walls are not exceeding 0.50m-high. Relics of hard lime plaster were preserved on all walls and the floor of the holy of holies i.e. Room 102 (Figs. 2.47-2.48), the doorsill of Room 101 (Fig. 2.49), the south wall of Room 104, and walls and the stone-paved floor of Room 105 that was uncovered at a depth of 0.20m beneath the plaster. In the center of the doorway of holy of holies is a drain, which suggested that there was an altar standing on this sacred spot (Fig. 2.50). There was another drain in the plastered floor of Room 102 below the niche and incorporated into its southern wall. The plastered floor of Room 105 was blackened by fire and on the steps leading to Room 102 were charred wooden beams perhaps fallen from the roof. It seems that the western wing of the sanctuary had a barrel-shaped roof and arches as indicated by the fallen chalk blocks

on the floor of Room 103 and six fallen blocks of an arch (Starkey 1935: 203-204; Tufnell 1953: 141-145). The eastern rooms composed either of a second storey, as indicated by the stairwell (i.e. the unmarked room between Rooms 108 and 107) or had a flat roof. The stones in front of the entrance from outside were interpreted as foundations of a walkway toward the door (Aharoni 1975: 3).

The plan shows three circular pits dug into the floor of the courtyard: the largest at the centre (Pit 34) while the two others are abutting the southern wall of the courtyard. In front of the main entrance opened in the northern end of the eastern wall was a 1.30-wide stone threshold. Along the western walls of Rooms 110 and 109 and the southern wall of Room 104 were benches made of roughly dressed stones. The limestone altar found on the ground of the court was not in situ. Tufnell believed that it has fallen from the antechamber into the court (see Table 2.11). The eastern rooms were empty of finds (Tufnell 1953: 143-145).

Table 2.11: The excavated findings in the “Solar Shrine” of Lachish

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
186	Not ill.	Bowl	Room 102	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 77: 22)
187	Not ill.	Marble palette	Room 102 (Inside the niche)	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 64: 9)
188	Not ill.	Beads	Room 102 (in the drain)	(Tufnell 1953: Plates. 67: 119; 66: 26)
189	Not ill.	Fragment of pottery figurine	Room 102 (in the drain)	(Tufnell 1953: 143)
190	Not ill.	Bead	Room 102 (floor)	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 67: 120)
191	Not ill.	Calcite lid	Room 102 (floor)	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 65: 11)
192	Not ill.	Loom weights; Alabaster fragment; Glass fragment	Room 103	(Tufnell 1953: 143)
193	Not ill.	Lamp	Room 104	(Tufnell 1953: Plates. 42: 2; 63: 1)
194	Not ill.	Sickle	Room 104	(Tufnell 1953:

				Plate. 59: 6)
195	Not ill.	Marble palette	Room 104	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 64: 10)
196	Not ill.	Chalk altars	Room 104 (on the bench)	(Tufnell 1953: 143)
197	Not ill.	Fragments of pottery figurine; Nails	Room 105	(Tufnell 1953: 144)
198	Not ill.	Square limestone altar with a relief sculpture depicting begging man with upraised hands	Room 105	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 42: 8-9)
199	Not ill.	Trachyte altar	Room 105	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 64: 7)
200	Not ill.	Beads	Room 105	(Tufnell 1953: Plates. 66: 55, 76; 67: 117)
201	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room 106	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 60: 70)
202	Not ill.	Needle	Room 106	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 63: 9)
203	Not ill.	Stone quern	Room 106	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 64: 6)
204	Not ill.	Clay loom weights	Room 106	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 65: 10)
205	Not ill.	Basalt dish	Room 106	(Tufnell 1953: Plate. 65: 7)
206	Not ill.	Stone spindle whorl; Jar stamp; Coins; Stone rubber	Room 106	(Tufnell 1953: 144)

2.5.2.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The Solar Shrine was built near the palace to the immediate north in Squares P-R/12-13, on a slope, about 20m north of the outer gate (Ussishkin 1993: 910). The entrance of the sanctuary was once in the eastern

half of the northern wall of the court (see Plan 2.38) (Tufnell 1953: 144). In fact, this proposed entrance could have been simply a gap in the wall. Aharoni (1968: 3) supposed that there was a drain in this place that caused this breach in the wall, and the only visible entrance is that opened at the northern end of the eastern wall of the sanctuary, as indicated by a 1.30-wide threshold at that spot (see Plan 2.38). This entrance opened directly to Room 110 that, in turn, led to Room 109 and the open court through a narrow doorway. Room 109 also had a shared door with the court at its southern end. It seems to have been downsized by blocking off part of it in a later architectural phase (Aharoni 1975: 3). Room 108 had no common doorways with the court and the adjacent rooms. On the southern end of the eastern wing, Rooms 107 and the narrow undesignated room between it and Room 108, however, was opened to the court. The western side was approached by five flight stairway built in the courtyard that led to an off-center door of Room 105. Perhaps these steps were extending across the entire width of the court, and thus Room 104 could have been approached by steps as well as it has a shared doorway to the court. Regardless, from Room 105 a person can step up to the holy of holies through a stairwell of three steps. The doors of Rooms 105 and 102 are on the same axis. Room 105 was communicating with Rooms 101 and 104 that reached to Room 103 in turn.

2.5.2.2.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the temple was a central cultic edifice dedicated to a solar deity, as evidenced by its orientation toward the east where the sun rises and position of the libation altar in Room 102. The latter's most acceptable function is that it was the holy of holies of the sanctuary taking into consideration that its floor is rising 2m above the ground level of the courtyard, and the recess in its wall, therefore, aimed to insert a deity. Hence, Room 105 was the antechamber before approaching the holy of holies. Rooms 107-110 served as storerooms or apartments. Rooms 101, 103 and 104 were services rooms near the holy of holies (Starkey 1935: 203-204; Tufnell 1953: 141). Aharoni (1968: 3) explained the function of Rooms 109 and 110 depending on the benches across their widths, and thus he considered them as entrance rooms, and the only storeroom in this wing was Room 108 since it had no door and its floor level is slightly below the rest of the chambers. The unmarked room between Room 108 and 107 was, according to him, a wooden stairwell.

2.5.2.2.4. Chronology

Aharoni assigned the majority of the pottery found near the foundations to the Iron Age [he meant the Israelite period]. The plastered pits abutting the southern wall and the potsherds found beneath the south wall of the courtyard are vividly Persian. The intact cooking pot that found also beneath the south wall of

the courtyard was dated between the fifth and third centuries B.C.E., and it precedes the construction of the temple. Obviously, Aharoni assigned the sanctuary to an ethnic group- the Jews, who established it in the Hellenistic period and deserted it in the second century B.C.E. To him, Lachish was largely not occupied during the Persian period; despite the fact that he confirmed that the *terminus post quem* for its construction was the Persian period. He seemed to have fundamentally ignored his previous arguments. Again, he indisputably dated the 150 incense altars that were found in Cave 534 near the city gate to the Persian period (Aharoni 1968: 159, 163-164). Although O. Tufnell did not give an exact date for its construction, she suggested that the coins and Greek vessels belonging to the second half of the second century B.C.E. perhaps indicated that it continued to be used until the end of the Hellenistic period (Tufnell 1953: 142, 412-413). In their turn, Fantalkin and Tal (2006: 176) concurred with Aharoni's date, and they depended on the Hellenistic pottery found in Pit 34 beneath the floor. Ussishkin (2004a: 96) has refused this date given the fact that only a few Hellenistic sherds were found in that pit without a distinguishable stratigraphy. Also, only a single sherd of pottery that predates its construction was found beneath the floor of the antechamber. Therefore, this date is not reliable, and the temple belongs unequivocally to the Persian period- a date corresponds the earlier Starkey's date (Starkey 1935; 1937). Judging from the similarity of the layout of the Palace, the stratigraphic data, and the analysis conducted on the finds, the temple, therefore, was most probably erected at the same time as the Palace (Ussishkin 2004a: 96). The finds excavated in the temple such as the cult vessels, a terracotta figurine of a Persian rider, a bronze open-lamp, the incense altars, a decorated plaque made of marble and the cooking pot mentioned above, however, left no doubt of a Persian date (Stern 1982b: 63). Again, Aharoni considered that the "Persian Rider" figurine was not found in situ, and the bronze lamp was an archaic object and preserved from an earlier period, although he accepted the Persian date for it (Aharoni 1968: 163). Hence, the reliance by some scholars on invalid grounds constitutes an express violation of the time of construction. Therefore, their resolution is erroneous and should be annulled, and thus, we should have acquiesced to the Persian-period as the most appropriate date for construction.

2.5.2.2.5. Type

At Arad, the excavators found two libation altars similar to those discovered in the "Solar Shrine" at Lachish. Aharoni pointed out to the similarities between the temple at Tel Arad and the "Solar Shrine" in terms of size, orientation, the layout and even the contents. He claimed that this temple served as a Yahwistic cult built by Jews. He writes: "It was a traditional Israelite shrine, exactly as was the earlier Arad temple." He believed that Lachish had an ancient tradition of the Yahwistic cult that it already began during the "Monarchy" at Arad. In other words, the city was not abandoned in the Hellenistic period as

some scholars had suggested (Aharoni 1968: 160-163; 1975: 5-7). Obviously, the “Solar Shrine” belongs to the “open-court” family flanked by rooms on two sides.

2.5.3. *Beth-Zur (in Arabic Khirbet et-Tubeiqa)*

Beth-Zur is located in the mountains of Al-Khalil, some 22 km southwest of Jerusalem. In 1931, O. Sellers and W. F. Albright conducted the first real excavations on the site. The second season was carried out in 1957 under O. Sellers; R. W. Funk; J. L. McKenzie; and P and N. Lapp (Sellers et al. 1968).

2.5.3.1. Citadel II

2.5.3.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Citadel II of Beth-Zur was planned with the palace in mind. It is well-organized building, and its wall are situated exactly according to the points of the compass. The building is measured ca. 33m in the east-west axis and exceeding 41m in the north-south axis (Plan 2.39). Indeed, the correct length of the north-south axis is unknown owing to the destruction accompanied by the Hellenists invaders (Reich 1992a: 118). The inner courtyard measured ca. 22m (east-west) × 17m (north-south), surrounded by rooms from the north, west and south. Watzinger (1935: 24-25) cited that Citadel II of Beth-Zur is marked by its elongated and broad rooms. The west wing had two large parallel rooms: Room 93 measured ca. 17 × 2m, and Room 91 measured ca. 17 × 4m. A pair of pilasters is protruding from the long walls near the southern end forming an end space or tiny chamber (Loc.92). The southern wing had also two elongated and parallel halls (Halls 74 and 73), with lateral rooms on either side: Room 54 on the east and Room 95 on the west. Hall 73 measured ca. 18 × 3m and Hall 74 measured ca. 18.2 × 5.7m, with two opposite pairs of rectangular pilasters protruding from the long walls forming two end spaces similar to those in Room 91².

2.5.3.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Citadel II stands at the zenith of the mound (Reich 1992a: 113). The entrance may either be on the eastern wall of the courtyard wherein a crevice in the wall (Loc.56) or perhaps was somewhere in the northern wrecked part. In the plan, the inner doorways were either omitted willfully or less likely the digging processes have not reached bedrock. As long as the excavators were satisfied with a brief description, we are unable to appraise the likelihood since the relevant information is unavailable, superficial, or

² The pilaster in the southeast is conjectural and had been added in the layout in order to match its peers.

fragmented. The only clear doorways are those opened in the shared walls of the courtyard and Hall 74, and Hall 73 and the southern end of Room 95.

2.5.3.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Lacking of objects and installations made it not easy to determine the functions of the rooms. In general, the lavish character of the building embodied by the elongated halls with the aesthetic protruding pilasters, the extended size, and the location at the top most point of the mound that gave it a panoramic view, give rise to a well-founded interpretation which is that Citadel II was a luxurious palace. In addition to the artistic aspect of the engaged pilasters, they played certainly a vital role in supporting the upper floor or, at least, the roof. Indeed, the 1.5m-thick walls would hint to the first argument, namely the second floor. Hall 74 was the principal hall, and Hall 73 has been identified as the “throne room” (Reich 1992a: 117-118).

2.5.3.1.4. Chronology

In both seasons, the excavators did not address the dilemma of complicated stratigraphy of the building in a comprehensive approach. Alternatively, they had confidence in the literary sources (Reich 1992a: 114). Moreover, we can realize the contradiction in the arguments of Sellers and Albright; as they confirmed that the occupation in the Persian period was sparse while they claimed that Beth-Zur was a “district capital” in the time of Nehemiah in 444 B.C.E. (Sellers and Albright 1931: 9). Indeed, the excavators have confessed that the problem lies in the overlapped strata causing misunderstanding of the chronological sequence owing to the inability to distinguish the pottery of each stratum. The other thorny issue is the terminology, in view of the fact that the excavators in 1931 designated the period from the end of the sixth century B.C.E. to the middle of the first century B.C.E. as Hellenistic (cf. Sellers et al. 1968: 1, 8).

Referring to the foregoing, the scholars had come to an agreement on three occupational phases (Sellers and Albright 1931: 10-11; Sellers 1933: 22; Watzinger 1935: 24; Albright 1960: 150-152; Sellers et al. 1968: 14). Some scholars attributed all three phases to the Hellenistic time (cf. Sellers et al. 1968: 1; Dever 1971: 461; Funk 1975: 267). The date of Stratum I was indefinable to Watzinger (1935: 24-25), while he dated the two successive strata to the Hellenistic period as the previous scholars did. For his part, Albright (1960: 150-152) attributed Stratum I to the Persian period and the next two strata to the Hellenistic era. Reich (1992a: 115) assigned Strata I and II to the Persian period and Stratum III to the Hellenistic period.

2.5.3.1.5. Type

Stern (1982b: 54) classified Citadel II as a Persian palace or citadel. Other scholars presented similar suggestions and emphasized on the Mesopotamian character of Citadel II of Beth-Zur such as Watzinger and Reich (Watzinger 1935: 25; Reich 1992a: 116). Citadel II at Beth-Zur has a remarkable similarity to the Palace of Lachish and Citadel II of Hazor (see Page 40). In the comparison, we can notice that Citadel II of Beth-Zur is much closer to the Palace of Lachish than Citadel II of Hazor. The engaged pilasters from the long walls forming end spaces or tiny chambers in both buildings have no identical in the residency of Hazor.

Despite the significant resemblance between the Palace of Lachish and Citadel II of Beth-Zur, Reich pointed out to an extraordinary differentiation regarding the internal layout. In Lachish, the entry to the “throne room” was through a wide colonnade entrance approached by a staircase while the entrance at Beth-Zur is not clear (Reich 1992a: 119).

Other scholars believe that this type of buildings with an inner courtyard with a reception suit provided with a wide entrance in the centre, and one or two elongated halls south of the courtyard, however, is the typical plan of the Assyrian palaces and residences that erected in the late eighth century B.C.E., and evolved in the neo-Babylonian and the early Persian period (Ghirshman 1965; Roaf 1973; Amiet 1974; Perrot 1989). A more comprehensive investigation shows that Reich has ignored some other significant differences between Citadel II of Beth-Zur and Palace of Lachish. The most important one is that the inner courtyard of Palace of Lachish is surrounded by rooms from four sides, whereas the central courtyard of Citadel II of Beth-Zur is surrounded by rooms from three or perhaps two sides; the northern side perhaps was an open space.

2.6. NEGEV

The Negev is a vast desert occupies south of Palestine. Its western side is touching with the Sinai Peninsula, and the Arabah Valley is the eastern boundary. Although it occupies the entire southern side of Palestine, we have only one principal Persian site which is Tell Jemmeh. At Tell el-Hesi on the west bank of Wadi Hesi, 26 km in the northernmost boundaries of the Negev, a large casemate-like structure enclosed a central courtyard was uncovered. It was constructed of sun-dried oblong mud bricks and plastered walls (Fargo and O’Connell 1978: 170).

2.6.1. *Tell Jemmeh (Ancient Gerar)*

Tell Jemmeh is located 10 km south of Gaza. In 1922, a step trial trench was dug by Phythian-Adams on the southwestern slope of the eroded northern area of the ancient site. The first excavations were carried out by F. Petrie between 1926 and 1927 (Petrie 1928), but major campaigns were conducted by G. Van Beek in 1970-1978, 1982, 1984, 1987 and 1990 (Van Beek 1997: 213). Petrie has distributed the architectural remains into six periods using the English letters to express each period. In the buildings under discussion, however, he used the letter A referring to Building A that belongs to Stratum A, and the letter B referring to Building B belonging to Stratum B (Petrie 1928).

Van Beek had evaluated Petrie's excavations and revealed serious flaws in Petrie's management. He stated that his (Petrie) restlessness and penchant to increase the pace of work as far as possible, however, motivated him to recruit an immense number of workforces- about 250 workmen, boys, and girls whom works had destroyed foundation trenches and floors during this unscientific and irrational excavation. As an unavoidable consequence, Petrie had failed to correlate the walls with layers and the pottery with its context as well. Another problem arose from Petrie's character; as he lacked precision and had a historical bias. Accordingly, misconceived or blinkered interpretations have emerged as he did not pay any attention whatsoever to the periods followed the 26th dynasty of Egypt. All these matters of substance prompted Van Beek to estimate Petrie's excavations as follow: "His stratigraphy in Gerar is not dependable; structural units, phasing, and dating frequently rest on weak or wrong assumptions" (Van Beek 1993: 575-580).

2.6.1.1. Building A

2.6.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Building A is a massive rectangular structure occupies an area of 1102 square meters, measured 38m (east-west) × 29m (north-south), and built of ca. 2m-thick mudbrick walls. Its central courtyard (Loc.AO) is surrounded by a paired row of rooms from the north and south and a single row on the western side (Plan 2.40). Petrie has explained the non-existence of rooms on the east by the fact that there was no sufficient space to annex additional rooms on this side. The stone-paved area in front of this open space (Loc.AFF) was a threshold made up of stones. Remnants from earlier phases have been unearthed beneath the floors of Rooms AD, AB, AC and AP on the western side of the building, Rooms AQ and AH in the south, and the central courtyard as well. Rooms ACC, AY, ABB, AL and AM were described as an annex on the southwest corner. Except Chamber AL, no objects have been excavated inside the other rooms in this annex. Almost all the northeastern part of the building was demolished.

Three out of ten massive round granaries were dug into the floor causing widespread destruction to some walls. Granary AZ was dug into the southeast part of the building between Rooms AQ and AH. Half of Granary AW lies in Courtyard AO and the other half destroyed the wall of Room AQ partially. The largest part of Granary AA was dug into the floor of the courtyard as well. The thick curved walls of these silos suggest that they had conical ceilings. In one of them were found a significant amount of charred grain. Petrie conducted his analyzes on this grand bins and concluded that they might support an army of 70,000 soldiers for two months. The southwest corner of the building was destroyed later by a storehouse consisting of five rectangular rooms, built of mud brick and arranged in continuous rows. Near the northeastern wall of the building, a Persian column was found dated to the mid-fifth century B.C.E. (Fig. 2.51) (Petrie 1928: 8-9, 25).

Table 2.12: The excavated findings in Building A of Tell Jemmeh

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
207	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room AD	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXVIII: 18)
208	Not ill.	Bowls	Room AD	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLIX: 14R, 14X)
209	Not ill.	Kraters	Room AB	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LII: 32Y; LIII: 33E)
210	Not ill.	Fibula	Room AC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 18)
211	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room AC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 18)
212	Not ill.	Rib bones	Room AC	(Petrie 1928: Pls. XXXIV: 30, 33, 34)
213	Not ill.	Cypriot pilgrim bottle	Room AC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVII: 5)
214	Not ill.	Small jar	Room AC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: 78F)
215	Not ill.	Fishing hook	Room AP	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 32)

216	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room AF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LV: 44K)
217	Not ill.	Limestone incense altar	Room AG	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLI: 16)
218	Not ill.	Bowl	Room AG	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 2P)
219	Not ill.	Ring-shaped stand	Room AG	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 96M)
220	Not ill.	Deep bowl	Room AH	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 3M)
221	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room AH	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVI: 47S)
222	Not ill.	Bronze nail	Room AK	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIII: 37)
223	Not ill.	Hook	Room AK	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 23)
224	Not ill.	Pottery human figurine	Room AK	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVI: 44)
225	Not ill.	Incense altar	Room AK	(Hassel 2005: Fig. 24)
226	Not ill.	Bronze nail	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIII: 44)
227	Not ill.	Toggle	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 3)
228	Not ill.	Pottery figurine of ox	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVII: 21)
229	Not ill.	Bowl	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 8N)
230	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LV: 46N, 46P)
231	Not ill.	Juglet	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVII: 57U)
232	Not ill.	Jugs	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pls.

				LIX: 77H; LX: 84S)
233	Not ill.	Basin	Room AQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 96R)
234	Not ill.	Bowl	Room AO	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 8K)
235	Not ill.	Jug	Room AO	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIII: 38C)
236	Not ill.	Silver earring	Granary AZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XX, 48)
237	Not ill.	Bangle	Granary AZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 80)
238	Not ill.	Lamp	Granary AZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 91Y)
239	Not ill.	Silver earrings	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pls. I, 16; XX: 47)
240	Not ill.	Fibula	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 19)
241	Not ill.	Nails	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXVII: 4a-5)
242	Not ill.	Sickle	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXVII: 20)
243	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 65)
244	Not ill.	Bowl	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 2S)
245	Not ill.	Jug/Decanter	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVIII: 66Y)
246	Not ill.	Jug	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: D)
247	Not ill.	Lamp	Granary AW	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 91R)
248	Not ill.	Discoid spindle	Granary AA	(Petrie 1928: Pl.

		whorl		XLIV: 27)
249	Not ill.	Bowls	Granary AA	(Petrie 1928: Pls. XLVIII: 3Q; XLIX: 15U)
250	Not ill.	Jar	Granary AA	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIII: 35K)
251	Not ill.	Jug	Granary AA	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVII: R)
252	Not ill.	Fibula	Granary AA	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 31)
253	Not ill.	Fibula	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 21)
254	Not ill.	Bronze coil	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XX: 62)
255	Not ill.	Bone ring	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXIII: 47)
256	Not ill.	Pottery figurine of ox	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVII: 24)
257	Not ill.	Conoid spindle whorl	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLIV: 44)
258	Not ill.	Bowls	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pls. XLIX: 13X, 14W)
259	Not ill.	Jar	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LII: 31Q)
260	Not ill.	Pithos	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVI: 47H)
261	Not ill.	Jugs	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pls. LVII: V; LIX: Y)
262	Not ill.	Spouted Jug	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: 76Z)
263	Not ill.	Bes jug	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: 78M)
264	Not ill.	Flask	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: PL.

				LX: 87F)
265	Not ill.	Lamp	Room AJ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 91U)
266	Not ill.	Knife	L.AFF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXI: 50)
267	Not ill.	Chisel	Room ABB	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXII: 35)
268	Not ill.	Pithos	Room ABB	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVI: 47K)
269	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room ABB	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 34)
270	Not ill.	Knives	Room ABB	(Petrie 1928: Pls. XXXI: 53, 55, 56)
271	Not ill.	Juglet	Room ABB	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVIII: 66S)
272	Not ill.	Portion of horse figurine with hole for a wheel	L.AN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXIX, 19)
273	Not ill.	Arrowhead	L.AN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 16)
274	Not ill.	Bone tool	L.AN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXIII: 49)
275	Not ill.	Rib bone	L.AN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXIV: 31)
276	Not ill.	Discoid spindle whorl	L.AN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLIV: 26)
277	Not ill.	Ovoid storage jar	L.AN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LV: 45J)
278	Pl. 2.10	Limestone incense altar	L.AM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XL: 1-4)
279	Not ill.	Arrowhead	L.AM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXVIII: 19)
280	Not ill.	Bronze coil	Room AL	(Petrie 1928: Pl.

				XX, 61)
281	Not ill.	Jugs	Room AL	(Petrie 1928: Pls. LIII: 38M; LVIII: 66M)
282	Not ill.	Lamp	Room AL	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 91W)
283	Not ill.	Incense altar	Room ACC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLI: 10)

2.6.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Tell Jemmeh lies on the main highway from Egypt to Jerusalem, which means that it had a strategic spot prevented the Edomites tribes from assaulting or threatening the coastal road (Petrie 1928: 3). Gaza and the nearby sites including Tell Jemmeh had also served as the primary outlet for the merchandises coming from South Arabia and Egypt. Moreover, Tell Jemmeh was one of the fortified sites that controlled the camel convoys coming through the Incense Route given the fact that the building itself occupies the center of the mound (Fig. 2.52) (Hassel 2005: 133; Tal 2005: 74). A few meters apart from the building were unearthed severely destroyed structures bore signs of localized fire, and two huge circular silos (Loci.WG and WH) (Petrie 1928: 8-9).

The stone-paved area on the eastern side served most probably as a forecourt wherein the main entrance. Petrie's layout shows no internal doorways in the building, although the walls stand for several courses. Van Beek assumed that either the building had holes in the roof served as entrances- a style derived from the village of Wadi Bin 'Ali south of Yemen, or Petrie's recklessness during the excavations destroyed all traces of the doors (Van Beek 1993: 577).

2.6.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The hindrance to realizing the function of most of the rooms of Building A cannot be solved based solely on the excavated finds due to their erratic and unpredictable distribution in the chambers. Generally speaking, Petrie interpreted the building as a fort drawing on the similarity to some forts in Egypt (see type) (Petrie and Griffith 1888: 53; Petrie 1892: 39, 51-54). As a matter of fact, several domestic-type findings, personal and quotidian tools, ornaments and icons such as fibulae, bangles, earrings, fishing hooks, incense altars, nails, figurines and spindle whorls, however, suggested that the fort had a

residential quarter in it. In other words, perhaps the fort was a military garrison with a possible annex of living rooms of the family of the commander (?) on the southwest side (i.e. Loci.ACC, AY, ABB, AL and AM).

2.6.1.1.4. Chronology

Petrie had attributed Strata A and B to the 26th dynasty of Egypt (685–525 B.C.E.), and he also thought that the city was finally destroyed by the Persians in the middle of the fifth century B.C.E. Watzinger, in turn, has accepted Petrie's chronology (Watzinger 1929). On the other hand, Petrie has assigned the round granaries to the Persian period. He claimed that during the Persian occupation, Egypt was vulnerable, had an unstable regime, and thus was unable to do an act of aggression against the Persians, who deemed that there was no a compelling need to fortify this secured spot at that time, with the exception of the necessity of food to support the Persian army, if necessary, by digging great granaries can fulfill this aim (Petrie 1928: 7-8).

Some scholars have restudied Petrie's chronology, and they dated level 197 ft onward to the sixth century B.C.E. (see Table 2.12), and the final destruction, in their view, took place in the fourth century B.C.E. (Albright 1929: 9; Galling 1929: 242; Wright 1939: 460). Sinclair (1960: 42) dated Building A, at the level of 197-8 to the fifth century B.C.E. based on the pottery evidence. Stern (1958: 25-32) suggested that the finds unearthed inside the rooms of both buildings emphatically underscored the Persian occupation. To sum, two stratigraphic phases have been approved: an earlier phase dated to the seventh century B.C.E. and a later one belongs to the Persian period.

2.6.1.1.5. Type

Watzinger believed that Building A of Tell Jemmeh was descended from Babylonian or Assyrian roots. Too, he pointed out the similarities between it and Building 736 of Megiddo (Watzinger 1929). The author thinks that the comparison between it and Building 736 is not accurate because of the essential variations between both buildings regarding the size and floor plans. Building 736 occupied an area of 360 square meters and had only a single row or rooms from three sides while Fort A is almost three times larger than Building 736 and had a dual row of rooms on either side of the court. The closest building to Fort A from the same period is the fortress of Megiddo (see Megiddo), although the fortress of Megiddo is twice of the size of Fort A. The layout of Fort A, according to the classification presented by Amiran and Dunayevsky (1958: 25-32) is not a local prototype, but a derivative version from the Assyrian "open-court" buildings, as its central court is surrounded by rooms on three sides. On the other hand, Petrie had

indicated to the similarity between the layouts of Building A and fortresses of Daphne (modern Tell Defenneh) (Plan 2.41) and Naukratis or Naucratis (modern Kom Gi'eif) on the Suez Canal north of Egypt that erected during the reign of the Pharaoh Psamtik I (664-610 B.C.E.) in order to protect Egypt from the Assyrian invasion.

2.6.1.2. Building B

2.6.1.2.1. Contextual Analysis

Building B is a monumental construction occupied an area of 1196 square meters. From north to south it is 52m-long, and the east-west axis measured 23m (see Plan 2.40). It was constructed of solid walls made up of mudbrick. Vividly, the building was pre-planned as evidently by its floor plan, which is divided into two separate unsymmetric wings, each surrounded by rooms on the south, north, and east. The west side is a forecourt. In the north side, the building contained Courtyard BM that was embedded by Granary BN. To the south of the courtyard, there are Rooms BB, BW, and BL. Rooms BH, BJ, and BA occupied the eastern side with an annex on the easternmost (Loc.BG). To the north of the court are two equal-size rooms (Loci.BBB, BE) and a long and broad one along the entire length of the northern wall (Hall BY). The southern wing is larger than the northern one. Courtyard BZ occupies most of its size. Two great granaries were dug into its floor (Loci.BFF and BCC) causing a critically damaging in the northern rooms (Rooms BT and BK). Granary BMM caused a partly destruction of Room BP. Loc.BC in the southeast corner was built of thicker walls than the other walls of the building. All granaries are almost equal in diameter; 6m (20 feet in the plan).

Table 2.13: The excavated findings in Building B of Tell Jemmeh

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Room/Context	Bibliography
284	Not ill.	Hooks	Room BY	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 28, 29)
285	Not ill.	Jug	Room BY	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVII: 53Y)
286	Not ill.	Krater	Room BY	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 8R)
287	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room BA	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 17)
288	Not ill.	Jug	Room BG	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVIII: 66C)

289	Not ill.	Small jar	Room BG	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVIII: 66D)
290	Not ill.	Fibulae	Room BF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 17, 20, 23)
291	Not ill.	Knife	Room BF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXI: 60)
292	Not ill.	Bodkin needle	Room BF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 48)
293	Not ill.	Pin with sunflower	Room BF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 56)
294	Pl. 2.11	Limestone incense altar	Room BH	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XL: 5-8)
295	Not ill.	Fragment of Cypriot limestone figurine	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XV: 8)
296	Not ill.	Hooks	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 24-25)
297	Not ill.	Ornament formed of two strips of bronze crossing	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 73)
298	Not ill.	Knife	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXI: 58)
299	Not ill.	Pottery figurine	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVI: 45)
300	Not ill.	Limestone incense altar	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLI: 14)
301	Not ill.	Spouted decanter	Courtyard BM	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIII: 33S)
302	Not ill.	Fibula	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 11)
303	Not ill.	Bronze pin	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIII: 39)
304	Not ill.	Hook	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: Pl.

				XXIV: 27)
305	Not ill.	Belt fastener	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 74)
306	Not ill.	Piece of furniture of casket made of bone	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXIII: 45)
307	Not ill.	Jug	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIII: 38P)
308	Not ill.	Small jar	Granary BN	(Petrie 1928: PL. LX: 87N)
309	Not ill.	Fibula	L.BV	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XVIII: 24)
310	Not ill.	Arrowhead	L.BV	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 20)
311	Not ill.	Knife	L.BV	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXI: 57)
312	Pl. 2.12	Winged of Persian figurine made of ivory	Room BL	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XX: 17)
313	Not ill.	Blue glass	Room BL	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XX, 18)
314	Not ill.	Hooks	Room BL	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 33-34)
315	Not ill.	Stopper	Room BL	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 98P)
316	Not ill.	Small jar	Room BL	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVIII: 66O)
317	Not ill.	Incense altar	Room BW	(Hassel 2005: Fig. 16)
318	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room BP	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 19)
319	Not ill.	Hook	Room BK	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 35)

320	Not ill.	Spouted Jug	Room BK	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIII: 38H)
321	Not ill.	Knife	Room BK	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXI: 59)
322	Not ill.	Conoid spindle whorl	Room BT	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLIV: 45)
323	Pl. 2.13	Clay impressions	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XX: 15-16)
324	Not ill.	Pottery figurine	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVI: 46)
325	Not ill.	Pottery figurine of male	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVI: 19)
326	Not ill.	Pottery figurine of ox	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXXVII: 25)
327	Not ill.	Lamp	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 91Z)
328	Not ill.	Stoppers	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LXI: 98Q, 98R)
329	Not ill.	Deep bowl	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLIX: 13Z)
330	Not ill.	Jar	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LV: 46M)
331	Not ill.	Juglets	Courtyard BZ	(Petrie 1928: Pls. LVII: 53U; LVIII: 66V; LIX: K)
332	Not ill.	Small jar	Granary BFF	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVIII: 66Q)
333	Not ill.	Spouted juglet	Room BAA	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: M)
334	Not ill.	Calcite, worn, panther	Room BS	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XX, 20)
335	Not ill.	Hook	Room BS	(Petrie 1928: Pl.

				XXVII: 2)
336	Not ill.	Bodkin needle	Room BC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIV: 49)
337	Not ill.	Arrowhead	Room BC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XXIX: 63)
338	Not ill.	Amphora	Room BC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIV: 43C)
339	Not ill.	Base of jar	Room BC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LVI: 47M)
340	Not ill.	Bowl	Room BC	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLVIII: 8H)
341	Not ill.	Doomed spindle whorl	Room BQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. XLIV: 31)
342	Not ill.	Juglet	Room BQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: J)
343	Not ill.	Spouted jug	Room BQ	(Petrie 1928: Pl. LIX: R)

2.6.1.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Building B is located at the peak of the mound near the western edge (see Fig. 2.52) (see the topographical location of Building A). The main entrance (s) to the building must have been somewhere in the western forecourt. Either each courtyard had a separate entrance on the west or less likely just one of them. In such case, the issue of the two different wings is unpredictable; since it cannot be confirmed if each wing had an individual entrance from outside and did not reach to each other from inside.

2.6.1.2.3. Functional Interpretation

Petrie (1928: 8) had defined Building B as a residency. The available data prevented a detailed assessment of the function of the majority of the rooms. The two inner courts, the considerable size of the building, the material of construction and the material culture point out to a luxurious palace, with a possible administrative annex as evidenced by the clay impressions unearthed in Courtyard BZ.

Too, the building seems to have been equipped with a military garrison formed of soldiers armed with arrowheads. The corner projecting room (Loc.BC) was in all probability a watch tower. The palace composed mainly of small living apartments as shown by the various types of pottery used in the daily life, the fibulae, the incense altars, and the clay and limestone figurines, of which could represent idols. Moreover, the hooks excavated in many rooms are crochet-type used to make loops in the yarn and to interlock them into crochet stitches. Besides the crochet hooks, there are some other tools used for manufacturing fabric and textiles such as bodkins needles, pins, and spindle whorls. To sum up, this elegant palace probably was settled by the local governor or the administrative officer with his family and the military unit tasked with palace protection and the incense route likewise.

2.6.1.2.4. Chronology

Building B has the same level of Building A, of which would mean that both buildings were erected at the same time (Petrie 1928: 7) (see the chronology of Building A). Wright (1985: 100-101) believed that Building B was built in the Neo-Assyrian period depending solely on its floor plan. Stern (2001: 413) had cited that both buildings (i.e. Buildings A and B) were erected in the Persian period, but Building A was collapsed and replaced by Building B and storerooms on the southwest corner. Indeed, the construction of Building B at the corner of Building A would support this argument.

2.6.1.2.5. Type

Wright (1985: 101) has postulated that Building B is similar to the palace of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar concerning the separation between the official and residential quarters. In the author's view, the general layout of Building B bears a stunning resemblance to the ground plan of the Complex A of Buseirah. Both buildings had two separate wings with a central court in each wing aligned on the same axis. Complex A of Buseirah contained a single and double rows of rooms on four sides, but Building B of Tell Jemmeh has only a single row on three sides. Complex A of Buseirah has broader rooms and halls than Building B. Regarding the size, Complex A of Buseirah has roughly twice the size of Building B of Tell Jemmeh.

2.7. THE SOUTHERN COAST OF THE LEVANT

The southern coast of the Levant was densely populated during the Persian period. It stretched from Ras Al-Naqoura south of Lebanon, in the Palestinian-Lebanese borders in the north to Al-Arish in North Sinai.

The northern coastline of it stretches from Ras Al-Naqoura on the north to Haifa in the south. In this vast coastal plain, we have three key sites: Tell Keisan, Shikmona, and Tell Abu Hawam. In Acre south of Nahariya, the excavations have revealed a complex of severely damaged rooms assigned to Strata 6-4. The walls in the first and second strata were built of well-cut ashlar blocks built up in the header fashion. In the latest level (Stratum 4), the walls were constructed mainly of rubble, standing to a height of ca. 0.50m shifting with 0.90m-high ashlar (pier-and-rubble technique). This complex was interpreted as a dwelling (Dothan 1976: 26). In Nahariya, the excavations have exposed two successive towns. The buildings of the first town were destroyed, and only some walls were protected. The buildings of this village record the Phoenician technique “pier-and-rubble”. The second town was erected on the vestiges of its predecessor, and it bears signs of a definite town plan that contains structures flanking a street running north-south, with seriously damaged buildings on both sides of the street. The compound contains rooms arranged in parallel rows. The town was erected on the northern and southeast slopes and the acropolis. Regrettably, the excavator did not perform final schemes for the preserved structures, so we are unable to conclude the general layout of the Persian-period town and its structures. The excavator interpreted the buildings belong to the second town as public buildings served as administrative centers, warehouses, and workshops. The first Persian-period town (i.e. Stratum III) was dated between the end fifth and mid-fourth centuries B.C.E. and the second town (i.e. Stratum II) was established in mid-fourth century B.C.E. and abandoned in the early Hellenistic era (Yogev 1993: 1089).

The central coastal plain also termed as Sharon Plain stretched from Mount Carmel to the north and bordered on the south by the Yarkon River (in Arabic Nahr al-Auja). Several prominent sites were excavated in this region: Tel Megadim, Tel Dor, Nahal Tut, Tel Mevorakh, Makmish, and Tell Qasile. ‘En Hofez yielded a building very similar to the building excavated at Nahal Tut, but only a few portions of it have survived. The estimated measurements are ca. 60m (east-west) × 80m (north-south). Like the nearby complex of Nahal Tut, this structure was built of large fieldstone arranged in a herringbone form. Seemingly, it contained a central courtyard with an enclosure surrounding it, which -in turn- is surrounded by rooms and halls. The roof was carrying on stone pillars, of which their bases are still in situ. The west wall perhaps was a retaining wall measured 26m-long × 1.2m-wide. At the time of excavation, this wall was yet standing to a height of 1.4m. The building was constructed in the late sixth century B.C.E. and continued in use until the Early Hellenistic period. It was interpreted as an administrative center (Alexandre 1996: 53-54). The excavations at Apollonia-Arsuf in Areas H and D (Strata Persian II and I) have revealed significant refuse pits, tombs, fragments of walls of domestic buildings, floors and ceramics (Tal 1999: 83-103).

The southern shore is the last section of the coastal strip of the southern Coast of the Levant that extends into the northern Sinai. Four major sites with pretty substantial building remains came to light in this region: Jaffa, Tel Ya'oz, Ashdod, and Ashkelon. At Nebi Yunis near Ashdod, the excavations revealed a *favissa* of a proposed temple dedicated to the Phoenician god Ba'al as evidenced by an ostrakon found in it. At Tel Qatif near Gaza, the remains of a small fort were excavated. It seems to have been an "open court" building, built of massive mudbrick, enclosed by a 5m-wide defensive wall and attached to a watch tower viewing the sea. Similar forts were excavated in northern Sinai Peninsula at Sheikh Zuweid, Rumani and Tel el-Her (Migdol), but are in ruins and therefore, will not be discussed (Stern 2001: 407-408, 416).

2.7.1. Tell Keisan

Tell Keisan is a coastal site located 9 km east of Acre. J. Briend and J.-B. Humbert excavated it between 1971 and 1976 for the sake of the "École Biblique et Archéologique Française" at Jerusalem (Briend and Humbert 1980). The Persian-period occupation at Tell Keisan is well-documented and lasted from beginning to end (Mlynarczyk 2000: 17). The building remains were significantly destructed because of the following building processes and weathering. The remnants of the Persian period were attributed to Level 3, which has been divided into two sublevels (Level 3a and Level 3b) due to the failure of connecting them into one structure.

Building A (i.e. Level 3a) had only some rambling walls and damaged floors. The squatters used slabs wedged with small stones protruding about 0.10-0.15m above the ground as bases of wooden poles to support the roof. The excavators concluded that this type of construction was not attested in the Persian period. All objects found inside the rooms are housewares and refer to the domestic nature of the house. The local and imported ceramics discovered in this level were dated to the period between 450 B.C.E., and 380 B.C.E. Level 3a precedes the Hellenistic layer (Level 2b). Three sublevels of Building B (Level 3b) under discussion were recognized are Levels 3b1, 3b2, and 3b3. The East Greek and Attic ceramics that attributed to Level 3 attested a strong trade between Tell Keisan and Greece in the Persian period (Nodet 1980: 117-124, 127).

2.7.1.1. Building B (Level 3b)

2.7.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

As mentioned above, the erection of the building has taken place in three phases (Plan 2.42). In the first phase (Level 3b1), the building composed of Room 313 (5.50 × 2.50 m), Room 314 (5.50 × 4.10 m), and

Room 306 (6.50 × 2.50m). In the next stage (Level 3b2), the western half of Wall 3029 separating Room 313 from Room 314 was dismantled. Both rooms were downsized by erecting a cross-wall (Wall 3020), which was protruding from Wall 3017 in the southwest and lengthened northeast to join the new western end of Wall 3029 at a 90-degree angle. The new corrections have constituted four rooms instead of three: an anterior ample and stone-paved room (Loci.301 and 303), intermediate rooms with new loci numbers (Rooms 304 and 307), and Room 306 in the back. In the final sublevel (Level 3b3), the building maintained its general layout with slight corrections conducted mainly on the cross-wall between Rooms 307 and 301 (i.e. Wall 3020). This separation wall was dismantled, and a new cross-wall was erected just west of it (Wall 3016). These changes intended to enlarge Room 307 perhaps to fulfill new functional purposes. At each junction point of the walls and corners was placed a large and well-dressed slab of stone at regular distances. The doorjambs of the main entrance opened in Wall 3018 (Loc.3022) were built of large stones (orthostates) set upright on the ground, and the entrance had a stone-paved sill (see Plan 2.42). The western wall of Room 306 i.e. Wall 5242 had, at least, four large ashlar piers placed at regular periods. Conceivably, the northern destroyed wall of the building (Wall 3019) had ashlar piers set at the corners and the conjunctions with the walls. Most likely they were dismantled when the entire wall was destroyed. A large pit was dug into the floor of Room 314 (later Room 307).

Table 2.14: The excavated findings in Building B of Tell Keisan (Level 3b)

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
344	Not ill.	Jar	Room 301	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 18: 1)
345	Not ill.	Amphora	Room 301	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 3018: 12)
346	Not ill.	Mortar	Room 301	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 20: 21)
347	Not ill.	Cooking pots	Room 301	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 21: 6, 9, 9a)
348	Not ill.	Attic vase	Room 301	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 22: 18a)
349	Not ill.	Fibula	Room 307	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 100: 9)
350	Not ill.	Fibula	Room 314	(Nodet 1980: Pl. 100: 8)

2.7.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Building B controls the north and east slopes (Nodet 1980: 120). The main entrance to the building (loc.3022) faced the west side that opened to the paved forecourt (Loc.302). In the first architectural phase, the main entrance opened solely to Room 314. It is not obvious if there were other doorways opened through the separation walls between the three rooms. In the second and third phases, the main entrance reached to Room 301/303 after dismantling the western half of the dividing wall (Wall 3029). Perhaps, Rooms 307 and 306 had a joint entrance either between the first and second ashlar or between the second and third ones.

2.7.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, both layout and the household findings implied that this building was built for residential purposes; most probably a private dwelling. It is possible to evaluate the functions of some rooms depending on the excavated material culture. The kitchenware unearthed in Room 301 suggested to a considerable extent that it served as a kitchen. Room 307 (former Room 314) seemed to have been a bedroom or living room.

2.7.1.1.4. Chronology

All three successive renovations conducted in the building (Levels 3b1, 3b2 and 3b3) have been attributed to the period between 580 B.C.E. (Iron IIC) and 480/460 B.C.E. based on the Attic and Ionian pottery vessels. The whole structure was built on the debris of the Iron Age IIC (Level 4a) as indicated by the objects found near the foundations of Walls 5242 and 5221 while Wall 6023 has been ascribed unequivocally to Level 3 (Prignaud 1972: 249; Nodet 1980: 120, 127).

2.7.1.1.5. Type

Seemingly, the final form of the building suggested that it belongs to the “four-room” type known since the Iron Age. Vividly, there was no particular form of this kind, namely the arrangement of the four rooms repeatedly changed since the Iron Age (See Tell El-‘Umeiri). Regarding the construction technique; the “pier-and-rubble” method was quite common in the Persian period (see Jokneam for parallel examples).

2.7.2. *Tel Shikmona (in Arabic Tell es-Samak; in English Tell of Fish)*

The ancient mound of Shikmona is situated near the coast, approximately 1.3 km southwest of the Carmel near the modern-day city of Haifa. It was constructed on a shallow and dry stratum of gravel. The principal excavations were carried out by J. Elgavish during the 1960s-70s in the name of the Department of Museums, in the Municipality of Haifa. Salvage excavations were conducted in the 1990s by the Israel Antiquities Authority. In 2010, M. Eisenberg and Sh. Bar headed a team from the Zinman Institute of Archaeology at the University of Haifa. Two brief seasons of excavations were conducted in 2011. The renewed excavations concentrated mainly at the Late Bronze, Iron Age, and Persian-period strata. Two strata of the Persian period were ascertained. In this period; Shikmona was administered by Tyre, and developed from a small settlement to an important and well-planned city. In the discovered residential quarter have been uncovered stone vessels, weapons, jewelry and other small finds. By the end of the Persian period, the city was fortified, and the housing was apparently relocated at the base of the tell. The upper stratum contained a large badly-destroyed building interpreted by the excavator as a fortress or royal storehouse, but its plan has not been retrieved since only the floors had preserved. Therefore, it will not be addressed independently in this thesis. Among the other destroyed buildings is an underground room served as a storeroom, as evidenced by dozens of pottery vessels and four large storage jars bearing royal Phoenician inscriptions written in ink (Stern 2001: 389-390).

2.7.2.1. The Settlement

2.7.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The lower stratum complex of the buildings contained a vast and well-planned city organized on the orthogonal plan. Two paved streets intersecting at 90-degree angles crossed the settlement: Street PA running east-west and Street PB running north-south, with two blocks of structures and courtyards on both sides. The town is expanded beyond the excavation areas on all sides making it impossible to determine the settlement's limits. The excavated portions of Street PB is ca. 22m-long \times 2.80m-wide and Street PA is ca. 14m-long \times 2.50m-wide. The buildings were built of ashlar masonry and monolithic pillars infrequently set at the junction of the walls and the corners (Plan 2.43). The block established south of the east-west street contained, at least, eight rectangular buildings or rooms are PE1-PE5, PF, and two undesignated structures south of Rooms PE1 and PF. Since the southern and western sides of this complex are in the unexcavated area; it is difficult to calculate the exact number of structures. Considering the systematic layout of Rooms PE2-PE5, they would form together a single building, built of 1m-thick walls with a possible vast and unpaved courtyard (PE3) flanking by rooms from the east and west. The southern side perhaps was an open space. A rectangular monolithic pillar was placed on the

northeast corner of Room PE4 to strengthen the intersecting walls. In the center of the "courtyard" was found a mortar in situ. In Room PE2, the excavators found a store jar in situ and a circular tabun built in its southwest corner (see Plan 2.43). The adjacent rooms west of it perhaps formed part of another building contains Rooms PE1, PF and two undesignated rooms south of them. Room PE1 measured 5m (east-west) \times 3m (north-south), had a stone pavement, a circular stone-lined silo in the southeast corner, and two ovens in the northeast and southwest corners. Room PF measures 2.5 \times 2.5m, had also a stone-paved floor embedded with a circular oven near the southwest corner and a storage jar found near the southeast corner.

The northwest block is more complicated than and unclear as much as the southern one. Nonetheless, it seems that the structures were separate rooms. The southernmost room or corridor (PC1) measured ca. 3 (east-west) \times 1m (north-south), had a stone pavement and a circular oven in its southwest corner. At its southeast corner i.e. the south doorjamb of the entrance opened to Street PA was laid a large monolithic pillar. Room PC2 measured ca. 2.90m (east-west) \times 3.90m (north-south) and had an unpaved floor. Several store jars were found in it. Loci.PC3 and PC4 were a large single room measured 6m (north-south) \times 4m (east-west). It was separated by a cross-wall protruding from the east wall and cut off at a distance of 1.20m apart from the western wall forming a passageway. Near the west end of the cross-wall was placed a well-quarried square monolithic pillar. Patches of big uncut stones were found in the common passageway and loc.PC3 as well. Loc.PD perhaps was a stone-paved forecourt or a room. Several store jars were found on its ground. Room PG3 was a big rectangular room measured ca. 4m (east-west) \times 2.90m (north-south). Neither material culture nor installations were excavated in it. Room PG1/PG2 is similar to Room PC3/PC4 as it was divided into two halves by a 2.10m-long unattached cross-wall running east-west, built of ashlar masonry with a monolithic pillar at its western end. In the northwest angle of the room was a 1m-in diameter circular pit. At the center of the southern wall of the room was laid a group of skillfully arranged stones of a bench (?) rising 0.20m above the ground level. At the intersection of the eastern and northern walls of Room PG1/PG2 was set a rectangular well-cut monolithic pillar to buttress the weak point on the wall. An orbicular silo was dug into the northeast corner. Room PH was partly stone-paved. Another block must have been east of the street. The excavations of the Persian period inside these *insulae* have yielded a heap of pottery; mainly juglets.

2.7.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The area around the tell was an agricultural area fed by gushing streams. Both blocks formed entrances from the streets; the southern block opened to the east-west street through a wide entrance opened in the northern wall of Room PE1. The plan did not explain if this room distributed to the adjacent rooms or the

nearby proposed building. Perhaps they were approachable from the unexcavated area southward. The northern block, on the other hand, had entrances on both streets: one in Room PC1 opens to the north-south street, and two entrances opened to Room PC4 and Room or Forecourt PD through Street PB.

2.7.2.1.3. Functional Interpretations

In general, the ground plans, the findings, and installations refer to a well-planned city composed of a residential quarter formed of private dwellings and perhaps workshops and warehouses, as indicated by the considerable number of storage jars and juglets, the ovens, and silos.

2.7.2.1.4. Chronology

Judging from the Attic pottery, the lower stratum was ascribed to the period between the end of the sixth and the first third of the fifth centuries B.C.E. The upper layer that contained the supposed fortress or the royal storehouse mentioned above, however, was attributed to the mid-fourth century B.C.E. and destroyed by the Hellenistic invasion in the last third of the fourth century B.C.E. (Stern 2001: 389-390).

2.7.2.1.5. Type

The orthogonal plan of the town of Shikmona had also organized the residential quarters at Tel Dor, Ashkelon (Phase 10), Tel Megadim, Al-Mina, and Beirut. The general layout of the settlement is substantially similar to the residential districts of Al-Mina and Beirut (see below). Regarding the construction technique which is the “rubble-and-ashlars” technique used widely in the Persian-period buildings in the Levant (see Jokneam for parallel examples).

2.7.3. *Tell Abu Hawam*

Tell Abu Hawam is located in the estuary of Kishon River (in Arabic Nahr el-Mokatta') north of the Carmel Ridge, on the eastern outskirts of Haifa. The tell itself stands roughly 7m above the surrounding ground level and measures ca. 80 × 90m (7200 square meters). The ancient site was excavated by Hamilton in 1932/33. The Persian-period layer has been assigned to Stratum II, which has been badly weathered to a concrete level. The necropolis discovered near the harbor of Nahr el-Mokatta' may have belonged to Tell Abu Hawam, and it has been damaged by erosion as well (Hamilton 1933; 1934).

2.7.3.1. The Settlement

2.7.3.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Through the last few decades, the town has suffered from plundering and natural, which caused demolishing of its entire northern sector, portions of the southern side and several walls of the structures (Plan 2.44). The preserved section show a district of several structures enclosed by a polygonal casemate wall served as an enclosure or a city-wall. Only a minor portion of the southern and eastern parts are preserved up to two courses high. The buildings are enclosed by enclosures adjoining the inner face of the south wall that would grant a more resilient and robust wall (see Plan 2.44). The excavator cited that the portions of the wall at the western end were remaining of an earlier wall as it is not on the same axis of the city-wall. Inside the city wall, the excavator has counted remaining of nine buildings built of ribbed walls made up of unhewn and regular sizes rubble rotating with ashlar blocks laid at interval distances of 2 and 3m and each projection or angle. The ashlar ribs are built up in a crude header and stretcher fashion (Fig. 2.53) (Hamilton 1934: 2-3).

The preserved walls of Building 1 in Squares C5-6 formed two parallel and rectangular rooms with remaining of a cobbled pavement in the northwest chamber and outside the building northward as well. Their common wall was consolidated by planting three monolithic columns at regular lengths. Several circular pits were dug into the area around the structure, and one of which caused a destruction of the northern wall (see Plan 2.44). A few meters south of it, in Squares D5-6 there are portions of Building 4 that is consisting of a vast and small rooms measured 5 × 10m and 4m × 5m respectively. The floors of the rooms are compressed mud and rubble (see Plan 2.44). To the west runs an uneven 30m-long path or street on the east-west axis separating the northern block so to speak, namely Buildings 6 and 9 from the southern one, namely Buildings 5, 7 and 8. The preserved segments of Building 6 represented one spacious and unpaved room, with an extension of its southern wall eastward, which would suggest another chamber (?). Several walls from an earlier phase were reused in Building 9 forming a poor layout. The buildings of the southern block are severely destroyed and sparse, so nothing could be said about their ground plans and installations. East of Building 6 a hoard of coins (a total of 109 coins) has been unearthed in a jug embedded into the floor (see Chronology). Most of the objects discovered at Tell Abu Hawam are imported Greek pottery (see Table 2.15) (Hamilton 1933: 78; 1934: 2-3).

Table 2.15: The excavated findings in Stratum II complex of Tell Abu Hawam

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
351	Not ill.	Juglet	Building 7	(Hamilton 1934: 14: no. 2)
352	Not ill.	Juglet	Building 1	(Hamilton 1934: 14: no. 3)

353	Not ill.	Base of Kotyle	Building 1	(Hamilton 1934: Pl. XII: 21)
354	Not ill.	Jar	Building 2	(Hamilton 1934: 14-15: no. 4)
355	Pl. 2.14	Scarab	Building 2	(Hamilton 1934: 18: no. 47)
356	Not ill.	Jug	Building 4	(Hamilton 1934: 15: no. 5)
357	Not ill.	Two-handed pitcher	Building 4	(Hamilton 1934: 15: no. 6)
358	Not ill.	Bowls	Building 4	(Hamilton 1934: 15: nos. 7-8)
359	Not ill.	Juglet	Building 4	(Hamilton 1934: 15: no. 9)
360	Not ill.	Fragment of terracotta figurine	Building 4	(Hamilton 1934: 15: no. 10)
361	Not ill.	Handle of Kylix	Building 6	(Hamilton 1934: Pl. XII: 14)
362	Not ill.	Fragment of Aryballso	Building 3	(Hamilton 1934: Pl. XII: 24a)
363	Pl. 2.15	Steatite scarab	Building 3	(Hamilton 1934: 18: no. 49)
364	Not ill.	Fragment of seated female figurine	Building 5	(Hamilton 1934: 16: no. 25)
365	Not ill.	Fragment of kneeling sphinx	Building 8	(Hamilton 1934: 17: no. 27)
366	Not ill.	Fragment of standing female figurine	Building 8	(Hamilton 1934: 17: no. 28)
367	Not ill.	Loom weight	Building 8	(Hamilton 1934: Pl. XXXI: 30)

2.7.3.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The site is a natural harbor of Haifa; a location granted it beneficial commercial relationships with the Aegean world, as Hamilton's excavations have proved. Geographically, it is located on the route leading to the Jordan Valley via Megiddo and Beth-Shan, and it is surrounded by the Carmel Mount from the south and southwest. In many sectors, the infrastructure remains are heavily destroyed followed by changing the general appearance of the town and the associated structures. Nonetheless, it seems that the city was flourished and well-planned.

2.7.3.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, all findings unearthed inside the buildings are household tools that are reflected the domestic nature of most of these structures. The scarabs excavated in Buildings 2 and 3 were either religious icons or used as personal ornaments incorporated into jewelry or functioned as official seals. Indeed, the purpose of scarabs repeatedly changed. Accordingly, in the light of the absence of precise layouts of both buildings mentioned above, their functions could not be determined. Perhaps they were administrative centers or just dwellings and thus, the scarabs found in them were used as amulets or ornaments. The terracotta figurine found in Building 4 could have been depicted a goddess. Perhaps Building 4 was a small cultic place intended to serve the local society. The small square room maybe was an annex or a treasury of the sanctuary, and the main rituals hold in the large room. The fragment of seated female figurine in Building 5 portrayed a goddess. However, the layout of the building is not clear due to the great mess occurred in the building and the town in general. Therefore, we cannot estimate its exact function. In Building 8, the squatters seemed to have engaged in textile production, but on a limited scale as evidenced by the little amount of unearthed loom weight. The bowing Sphinx and the naked female figurine refer to perform religious ceremonies related to the goddess of fertility, most probably Astarte. To sum up, Tell Abu Hawam in the Persian period was an affluent settlement having had the constituent elements to qualify as a well-organized city or town contained mainly private dwellings with potential administrative centers and a local sanctuary.

2.7.3.1.4. Chronology

Generally speaking, this settlement was attributed to Stratum II, which the excavator called it the "Persian-Greek period". The local and Greek pottery vessels had been dated to the middle of the sixth and the beginning of the fourth centuries B.C.E. The excavator had observed two architectural stages with a short span in between: Phases A and B. Phase A dated between 569 and 525 B.C.E. and Phase B dated

between 525 and the early fourth century B.C.E. (Hamilton 1934: 2, 5, 66). Stern (1968: 215, 219) assigned Phase A to the period between the end of the sixth and the beginning of the fourth centuries B.C.E. and Phase B from the early fourth century B.C.E. until the conquest of Alexandre in 332 B.C.E. based on the unearthed Tyrian coins, which have been omitted by the excavator. Fourteen out of 109 coins were dated by Lambert (1931: 10-20) to the period of the conquest of Tyre by Evagoras I, king of Salamis and Achoris, king of Egypt in 385 B.C.E. down to the Alexandre invasion, and the rest of the pieces were ascribed to the early Hellenistic period. F. M. Cross did not concur with Lambert, and he dated the entire hoard between 375 and 335 B.C.E. and no one of these coins is later than the Hellenistic time (Cross 1963: 110-121). All buildings, except Building 7, were ascribed by the excavator to Phase B. In Building 7, the two phases mentioned above had been recognized: in the earlier phase (i.e. Phase A) the walls were built without limestone ashlar ribs as opposed to the second architectural phase (i.e. Phase B). The pit disturbed Building 8 in Square E3 was ascribed to Phase A as well (Hamilton 1934: 3; Balensi 1985: 69).

2.7.3.1.5. Type

Regarding the construction technique, the stonemasons have used a pair of the well-known techniques knew in the Levant for erecting the walls of the settlement of Tell Abu Hawam, which are the "header-and-stretcher" and "pier-and-rubble" techniques. For more information about the "pier-and-rubble" fashion see Jokneam.

The "header-and-stretcher" style used in the construction of the ashlar ribs was utilized in the houses of Tell el-Mazar, some walls in Area G of Tel Dor, Building 264 of Tel Mevorakh, the warehouse of Ashkelon, Building M of Jaffa, Area D building of Tel Ya'oz, storerooms of Tel Kazel, and the residential quarter at Beirut.

The ribbed walls have been adopted largely in the Phoenician structures, which prompted some scholars to presume that the site was a Phoenician colony (cf. Elayi 1982: 101). In fact, using a Phoenician construction method does not necessarily mean that the Phoenicians inhabited the site as the only ethnic group, but it might also refer that the local settlers have learned new ways different from what they knew through the sea trade and then adopted it in their buildings.

2.7.4. *Tel Megadim (in Arabic Tell Saḥar)*

Tel Megadim is located at the Carmel Coast near 'Atlit, about 17 km south of Haifa. The excavations were commenced between 1967 and 1969 under M. Broshi (Broshi 1969). In 1994, S. Wolff directed a

salvage excavation on behalf of the Israel Antiquities Authority between the acropolis (Broshi's Area C) and the railroad track that bisects the site (Wolff 1996: 748).

During the Persian regime, there was increasing urbanization throughout the site, and Tel Megadim had seen a high intensity of shipping traffic and external trade, which is ascertainable from the Greek and Cypriot pottery vessels (Wright 1985: 95; Broshi 1993: 1003). The Persian-period level was very rich and subdivided into three strata: Strata I, II and III. Stratum I contained low-quality walls, and most of its remains are in ruins as a result of topographical changes over the years followed by erosion and other natural processes as it is the closest stratum to the surface. The primary layer is Stratum II since it is the best preserved Persian-period level and contained coherent walls formed a well-planned city. The walls of Stratum III are loose, and thus, no clear plan could be established (Broshi 1993: 1001). Consequently, there is no place for addressing the remains of Strata I and III, and therefore, only the remains of Stratum II will be described.

2.7.4.1. The Settlement

2.7.4.1.1. Contextual Analysis

In the Persian period, Tel Megadim was a city, consisting of insulae flanking streets intersected at right angles. The settlement was enclosed by a rectangular casemate wall constructed mainly of rubble and roughly dressed sandstones also known as kurkar. Of this fortification wall, the entire western wall had been unearthed, which measures 170m-long and only portions of the northern and southern walls (100m and 20m-long respectively). The city-gate was on the south wall (Plan 2.45).

At any rate, the insulae under discussion were abutting the western side of the casemate wall. The northern insula contained eleven casemate structures neatly arranged in parallel rows: three large chambers flanked by two smaller on both sides. A complex of three chambers was attached to the fourth, fifth and sixth chambers (see Plan 2.45). To the south of this block, two insulae are flanking a street. The anterior insula incorporated into the western wall and consisted of ten chambers arranged in a single row. On the opposite side, there is the second insula which is composed of thirteen relatively large rooms. To the east of these blocks run a 90m-long street on the north-south axis. Its width varied from 2.40m to 3m, and two lanes intersected with it at right angles. The finds excavated inside these structures represented by significant amounts of jars, bowls, jugs, stands, basket handles, juglets, iron and bronze arrowheads, fibulae, coins, Egyptian-style seal depicting Isis nursing Horus and terracotta figurines including Astarte (Broshi 1993: 1003; Stern 2001: 392).

2.7.4.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The western flank of the mound, where the storerooms were excavated, however, is the closest point to the seashore, which unequivocally corroborates their supposed functions (see Plan 2.45). The southernmost insulae are separated by a street opened to every structure in each insula. A narrow lane running east-west communicated between this street and the easternmost one running south-north. Perhaps this road expanded northward in the northern quarter and therefore, the insula located over there opened to this street as well.

2.7.4.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The store function of these chambers could not be rejected given the large numbers of the store jars and other pottery vessels and the arrangement of the rooms in parallel rows near the harbor to facilitate loading and unloading of goods (Fig. 2.54). The city-wall would have been erected to protect the city against the intrusion of pirates and not designed to be a giant defensive wall (Broshi 1993: 1002). On the other hand, the international trade flows and patterns, including the import/export and taxes or charges for public utility services, however, needed management and organization that should be controlled by an administrator officer. Indeed, the seal impression found in a room is an actual manifestation of the existence of a local authority tasked with monitoring all works related to the harbor. Combating violations of the regulations and ensuring security in this area needed armed patrols whose their presence is proved by the arrowheads.

The Egyptian influence is illustrated by the terracotta figurines, including Astarte and the seal impression depicted the Egyptian deities Horus and Isis. Nevertheless, no one of the excavated chambers intimates to have been a cultic place, and no *favissa* was found, which would indicate that the people worshiped his or her beloved deities in the house or workshops viz an individual worshipping. Like Tell Abu Hawam, it appears that Tel Megadim in the Persian period maintained its flourishing and had all necessary elements to be a cosmopolitan city contributed largely to rekindling the sea international trade, and could have played a key role in economic recovery.

2.7.4.1.4. Chronology

This town was established by the end of the fifth century B.C.E. and continued to be settled for the following century when it was destroyed and deserted all of a sudden at the beginning of the fourth century B.C.E. as evidenced by the enormous amount of the intact pottery vessels unearthed in the entire excavated area (see Chapter 6 for explanation) (Wright 1985: 95; Broshi 1993: 1003).

2.7.4.1.5. Type

This type of structures, namely the parallel chambers arranged in successive rows one after another with a bunch of storage jars in them, however, appeared at several sites in the Levant during the Persian rule (see Jokneam for parallel examples). It could not be imagined that a prospered city like Tel Megadim has been arbitrarily established without a prior urban planning. Although only the western flank of the city was established with solely a street, we can perceive that there was a network of intersecting roads with buildings on their sides (Hippodamian plan). The site needs further investigations eastwards.

2.7.5. *Tel Dor (in Arabic Khirbet el-Burj)*

Tel Dor is located south of 'Atlit on a small peninsula about 30 km south of Haifa. E. Stern directed the first real excavations between 1980 and 2000 on behalf of the Institute of Archaeology at Hebrew University of Jerusalem, and the Israel Exploration Society. The mound occupies an area of 30 acres (500m-long × 350m-wide) (Stern 1980: 209). The Persian remains have been unearthed in Areas A, B, and C on the eastern side of the mound, Area D on the southern flank close to the harbor, Area G at the center of the mound, and Area F in the western side of the tell (Fig. 2.55).

An inscription on the sarcophagus of Eshmun'azar king of Sidon, who ruled in the late sixth or early fifth centuries B.C.E., declares that Dor and Jaffa were awarded to him upon the orders of Darius I king of Persia (522-486 B.C.E.) as a remuneration for his loyalty (Dunand 1965: 105-109; Peckham 1968: 80-8; Moscati 1973: 25). This royal decree would mean that Dor in the Persian period was a Phoenician city and established by the Sidonians (Stern 1995b: 34). This hypothesis was not entirely convincing for S. Moscati, who did not consider them as real Phoenician settlements (Moscati 1973: 75).

In the centre of the mound (Area G), remnants of dye deposits with shells and lime, plus a large quantity of local and imported pottery vessels had been found in large pits. Massive walls built of thick ashlar arranged in the "header" form, perhaps formed a monumental building (Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; Pl. 27: C; Stern et al. 1989: 42; 1991: 53; Stern 2001: 398-399). In the western flank of the mound (Area E) were found portions of walls constructed of ashlar, perhaps were essentially remnants of dwellings (Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; Stern et al. 1991: 54).

In this thesis, the author would address the settlement excavated near the eastern slope of the mound in general as we do not have clear floor plans of the buildings excavated in it. The best-preserved structures have been unearthed in Area D (see below). This area has been divided into two areas: Area D1 on the west and Area D2 on the east, which is the closest spot on the port (see Fig. 2.55). Generally speaking,

Area D yielded dog bones and fireplaces full of ash, glass wastes, and iron and bronze slag, which most likely indicate that there were manufacturing workshops (Stern 2001: 395, 397). The two principal buildings of Area D (i.e. Area D1 building and the Magazine Building) will be separately addressed since we have clear ground plans for both of them.

2.7.5.1. The Settlement

2.7.5.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Impressive structure remains have been found throughout the eastern area of the mound that was identified as a residential quarter (Areas A, B, and C) (Plan 2.46) (Stern 1983b: 260; 2001: 395). In the northernmost district (Area C), the excavations have revealed storerooms, workshops, and dwellings abutting the inner face of the “offset-inset” or “salient and recess” city wall that was built of large undressed native limestone. The uppermost part of the walls is ca. 3m-thick and the substructure is 1m-thick³. The structures flanked 2m-wide streets (St.I and St.II) that run along the city wall (Stern 1982a: 111, 113).

Area C contained buildings with high walls that were infrequently standing to a height of 3m. These walls were built of hard sandstone (kurkar) in the so-called “rubble-and-ashlars” manner. The inner spaces of the houses were divided by partition walls forming long and narrow rooms (Stern 1983b: 259-261; 1985: 173-175; Fig. 3). Area C1 yielded an intact Lekythos (0.15m-high), and at the bottom of a *favissa* have been found pottery vessels and figurines (see chronology) (Stern 1983a: Pl. 15: C; 1986: 284-287; Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; Pl. 27: A).

The city wall already excavated in Area C expanded into Area A. Westwards, some badly-damaged dwellings built of ashlar piers alternating with rubbles have been excavated. Area A houses are similar to those excavated in Area C northward. The fieldwork in Area A revealed local, Phoenician, East-Greek, and Attic pottery vessels (Marchese 1995: 127-181; Mook and Coulson 1995: 93-126; Stern 1995a: 51-92), coins, clay and faience figurines, a conical glass stamp decorated by a Phoenician-style sphinx, and two bronze censers (Stern 1980: 211; 1982a: 107-108; 1983b: 260; 1985: 178).

³ Offset-Inset is a term used for change of location for segments of wall sections in both casemate and solid style curtain walls, in other words, it is a type of defensive wall construction that has alternating sections of the wall set somewhat protruding or receded from adjacent sections. Wright (1985: 182) used the term “salient and recess”.

Area B has been divided into two areas: Area B1 in the north and Area B2 in the south (see Fig. 2.55). A 2m-wide defensive “offset-inset” wall was excavated in this area, in addition to a stone-paved piazza/square embedded by severely damaged and scattered houses. A stone-paved road runs east-west from the city gate via the piazza and to the western bay. It was intersected by the north-south streets (St.I and St.II) (Stern 1980: 212; 1982a: 116; 1985: 183; 1988: 9). The “offset-inset” wall attached to the "two-chambered" city gate that was erected originally in the Assyrian period after the destruction of the four-chambered gate by the end of the eighth century B.C.E. by the troops of Tiglath-Pileser III in 734/3 B.C.E. (Figs. 2.56-2.57) (Stern and Sharon 1995: 29). The basalt socket of the outer door was unearthed intact, and in the center of the entrance was a socket of a bolt indicating that this entrance had a double-leaf door, most probably built of wood (Stern 1983b: 260 Pl. 30: B). Inside the southern and northern chambers of the two-chambered gate had been unearthed two stone basins. East of the city-gate was a heap of late Persian-period pottery vessels and almost fifty stone catapults. The *favissa* of Area B contained a figurine of a pregnant woman, two Sidonian coins, imported and local pottery vessels, "horse-and-rider" figurines, stone beads, a necklace, a glass stamp depicting a king or hero capturing two winged and horned creatures, and a rhyton in the shape of a veal (Stern 1980: 212; 1982a: 117; Pl. 15: D; 1986: 278-284; Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; Pl. 27: B; Stern et al. 1992: Figs. 2-4).

2.7.5.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Area C occupies the northernmost side of the residential quarter; Area A at the center; and Area B was the southernmost limit of the district. The city gate was built on the south side of the eastern slope (Area B2). It opened to the street heading from city gate in the east to the western bay. Streets II extended southward down to the fortification system of the city and intersected with the other street oriented east-west. The *insulae* flanked all these streets.

2.7.5.1.3. Functional Interpretation

As mentioned above, Areas C and A were the residential quarter of the eastern district of the city that contained storerooms, workshops, and dwellings. The Persian-period figurines (almost 20) and the pottery vessels excavated in Area B *favissa* urged the excavators to assume the presence of a sanctuary inside the city wall, but it was completely dismantled during rebuilding processes of the new Hellenistic city wall (Stern 1986: 278-284; Fig. 2). Area B, in general, is evident to be identified with “the city gate area” of Tel Dor, which contained the fortification system including the "two-chambered" city-gate and the "offset-inset" defensive wall attached to it. Accordingly, the whole city should have been a full-fledged

city contained private residential dwellings, public administrative centers, defensive structures, storerooms, and workshops.

2.7.5.1.4. Chronology

Between 1983 and 1984, several test trenches were conducted on the Hellenistic floors of the western *insulae* of Area C, specifically beneath and on both sides of the street separating them. These soundings yielded objects and pottery vessels characterized the Persian period. The material culture excavated in Area C was ascribed to the period between the middle to the end of the fifth century B.C.E. (Stern 1986: 284-287; Stern and Sharon 1987: 208). In Area B, the Persian-Period strata were unearthed underneath those belong to Hellenistic period. Judging from a fragment of a Persian-type horse figurine, the two-chamber gate of Area B in all probability continued to be used throughout the Persian period (Stern 1985: 183-185). Moreover, the pottery uncovered in the gateway and the stone-paved street leading to the city give clear evidence that this fortification system was destroyed by the middle of the fourth century B.C.E. during the Sidonian rebellion against the Persians in 348 B.C.E. (Stern 1988: 8). The archaeological evidence indicates that the city gate was restored within a short period (Levine 1973: 75-81). The excavator confirmed that the orthogonal plan also known as “Hippodamian Plan” of the residential quarters of Areas A and C is originated in the Persian period and still used during the Hellenistic and early Roman periods without fundamental changing in the plan (Stern 1983b: 259-261). Too, all findings of Area A are from the Persian period.

2.7.5.1.5. Type

The residential quarter of Tel Dor vividly established in the orthogonal urban planning (See Shikmona for parallel examples). The “rubble-and-ashlar” technique also used in the construction of the dwelling in Areas C and A have comparable patterns elsewhere (see Jokneam for parallel examples). The storerooms and workshops of Area C seem to have been organized in a row, although more excavations are needed to highlight it (see Jokneam for similar examples). The "offset-inset" defensive walls are a fortification system used since the Middle Bronze Age toward the Persian period (see Chapter 4). In Jordan, the excavations at Tell Jawa had revealed an offset-inset wall but not connected to a gate and built in the Early the Iron Age (Stratum IX) (Daviau 2003: 49-52). Using headers technique without stretchers in the construction of the walls is infrequent, and it was used in the buildings at Tell Deir Alla and Tell el-Mazar in Jordan Valley.

2.7.5.2. Area D1 Building

2.7.5.2.1. Contextual Analysis

Despite the fact that the building has not been completely excavated, the preserved sectors demonstrated a well-preserved and pre-planned building. It was constructed of 1m-thick fieldstone shifting with upright monolithic pillar or ashlar blocks set between the rubble masonry on deep foundations (Fig. 2.58) (Stern and Sharon 1987: 208). The excavated portions illustrated, at least, three long parallel rooms, each measured 4m (east-west) × 9m (north-south), and paved with kurkar. A passage or large hall adjoined their northern wall, with a tower approached by a staircase (Fig. 2.59) (Stern et al. 1997: 35-36; Stern 2001: 395-397). Apparently, the limits of the building extended beyond the unexcavated areas eastward and northward. At the center of the westernmost hall was placed a thick square ashlar pillar meant to support the roof, but a heavy rain has ruined it. Beneath it was a large pit contained a considerable amount of Persian-period pottery and limestone head statuette wearing a cylindrical hat showing Cypriot influences (Stern and Sharon 1993: 138; Fig. 8).

2.7.5.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building was unearthed in Area D1, which is the western part of Area D on the southern edge of the mound close to the shore (see Fig. 2.55) (Stern and Sharon 1987: 203; Stern 2001: 395). South of the building are two pits used for purple dye manufacturing: the first pit was a stone-lined and full of crushed shells of snails, and the second pit had an abundant amount of purple dye residue and ash. Both pits were connected by a plastered channel. The quicklime has been used to extract the dye from the mollusks (Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; Stern et al. 1989: 39; Stern et al. 1992: 45-46). Most of the portions of the building and the remains in the adjacent areas are razed to the ground. Furthermore, the photo taken by the excavator does not show any doorways, except one in the eastern end of the northern oblong hall.

2.7.5.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The layout, according to the excavators, refers that it was a public residence (Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; 1993: 138). In the author's view, this interpretation is baseless as very few objects have been excavated in it, besides it is too small to serve as a residency compared to the other residences excavated elsewhere; it does not exceed 170 square meters. Moreover, the function of the “four-room” buildings repeatedly changed and was a highly controversial subject. Some scholars have interpreted some buildings in this style as cultic structures depending mainly on the resemblance to the layouts of temples belong to the second millennium B.C.E. (cf. Andrae 1930: 24; Thiersch 1932). Other scholars have rejected this

proposition and defined some buildings in this style as granaries or warehouses (Yeivin and Avi-Yonah 1955: 109), or public (administrative) buildings or dwellings of the rulers (Barrois 1939: 274) or merely private houses (Shiloh 1970: 188). The author thinks that Area D1 building was a well-to-do private villa. The statue head perhaps portrayed the owner of the villa or one of his ancestors. If so, the villa was inhabited by a wealthy Greek family as the Greek-type statue head shows.

2.7.5.2.4. Chronology

In general, the “four-room” buildings were quite familiar since the Iron Age (Shiloh 1970: 183). In our case, the excavations beneath the foundations of one of its rooms exhibit the building was not built originally in the Persian period, but in the Iron Age and continued to be used until the Persian and Hellenistic periods as well (Stern et al. 1997: 35). Several superimposed floors of the westernmost hall corroborate the early Hellenistic occupation (Stern and Sharon 1987: 208; 1993: 138).

2.7.5.2.5. Type

The building is typified as one of the “four-room” buildings excavated elsewhere (see Tell el-Umeiri). The most common layout of the “four-room” buildings is a row of three parallel rooms of equal width with a back room along their entire length [this description is entirely compatible with our building under discussion]. The main room of this type is the back room (Shiloh 1970: 180, 186). On the other hand, the “rubble-and-ashlar” technique was common in the Phoenician cities (see Jokneam for similar examples).

2.7.5.3. The “Magazine Building”

2.7.5.3.1. Contextual Analysis

Only six chambers of the building have been preserved. The rooms are rectangular and have different sizes (Plan 2.47). Owing to the destruction occurred on the southern and west sides of the building it is hard to define its accurate dimensions. The maximum preserved length from east to west is 20m, and the maximum protected width from north to south is only 6m. All walls are 0.60m-thick. The long northern wall (W5176 and W5188) was constructed of large boulders alternating with ashlar piers while the partition walls (i.e. W5313, W5178, W5288, and W5278) in addition to the short wall i.e. W5322 were constructed of fieldstone. The southern demolished wall most probably was built in the same manner of the northern wall. The excavations revealed a considerable amount of the Persian-period pottery (Stern et al. 1997: 39-40). In this area, several pits were dug into the floors and contained Greek pottery, amphorae, a Phoenician ostrakon, figurines, a Phoenician “Bes-vase” and slag and a waste of dye. Underneath the

street running parallel with the building were found dog burials and pits (Stern et al. 1991: 53; Stern and Sharon 1995: 30).

2.7.5.3.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The “Magazine Building” was erected south of a 5m-wide street run east-west on the southern periphery of the mound (Area A2), which is the closest point to the harbor. A north-south road was running near the eastern edge of the building referring, therefore, to a Hippodamian plan in this area (Stern et al. 1991: 53; 1997: 39; Stern and Sharon 1995: 30). In the scheme, the building has no entryways neither from outside nor inside. Either the excavators overlooked them, or perhaps each room had a separate entrance from the destructed south side. The latter proposition is the most pleasant reading as it fulfills the intended function of the rooms as warehouses (see below).

2.7.5.3.3. Functional Interpretation

The colorant residual suggested that the squatters used this area for industrial purposes and commercial works. Accordingly, the building seemed to have designed as a storehouse as indicated by the arrangement of its chambers, the storage jars and the considerable amounts of the amphorae that have been unearthed in it, and its location near the seashore (Stern et al. 1991: 53; Stern 2001: 395). Perhaps some rooms served as workshops.

2.7.5.3.4. Chronology

The "Magazine Building" replaced an Iron-Age one. The building was attributed to Phases 4 and 5. Both levels were dated to the fourth century B.C.E. judging from the ceramic evidence (Stern et al. 1997: 39).

2.7.5.3.5. Type

The layout of the building and the construction technique used in erecting its northern wall, which is “rubble-and-ashlar”, however, were widespread in the storehouses and workshops excavated correctly on the seashore in the Levant (See Jokneam for parallel examples). Moreover, the northern wall has two shallow salients on the east and west which could refer to an "offset-inset" wall. In this building, the "offset-inset" wall was not a defensive one, rather than, it intended to be an aesthetic advantage.

2.7.6. *Nahal Tut (in Arabic Wadi el-Shaqaq)*

Nahal Tut is a littoral site located some 11 km east of Tel Dor. Salvage excavations were carried out in 1993 (Alexandre 2006: 131-132). The site was designated as “Site VIII” during an archaeological survey (Olmali 1981: 57).

2.7.6.1. The Building

2.7.6.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The plan of the southern half could not be sufficiently clarified (Plans 2.48-2.49; Fig. 2.60). The excavated parts, however, show a massive square and well-planned structure, oriented north-south, measured 55×55 m (3025 square meters), and constructed of casemate walls made up of undressed chalk fieldstone erected directly on bedrock (Fig. 2.61). Its central courtyard occupied most of its size as it measured 40×40 m. It had a bedrock floor and a small podium (Wall 206) measured 3m-long \times 2m-wide \times 0.80m-high (Fig. 2.62). Some floors had stone pavement like Rooms 299, 115, 129 (Fig. 2.63) and the entrance to the courtyard and Room 244/299. Other floors had fragile layers of packed earth. Only the entire western part of the building has been excavated and some portions in the south, north, and east. The thicknesses of the walls are varying from 1.30m to 1.40m at the base and 1.20m at the top (Fig. 2.64). The stonemasons raised the external and internal faces of the walls by erecting large fieldstones arranged diagonally in rows- a technique also known as zigzag or herringbone patterns. This method ensures the durability of the walls even without using mortar in between (see Fig. 2.64). Noteworthy, this technique did not apply to the retaining walls. The western wall (W218), Tower 240 and the southern wall (W260) were consolidated by erecting robust and rooted retaining walls built of undressed stones adjoining the external faces and preserved to a height of 1.20m (Fig. 2.65). The retaining walls 251 and 259 are 2m-thick, making them a single impenetrable wall with a total width reaches to ca. 3.40m. The retaining walls of Tower 240 (i.e. W249 and W297) are wider than 2m, which made it a reinforced tower with a total width up to 3.50m (see Fig. 2.61). Tower 240 is the only ultimately survived tower. It stands to a height varying from 1.50m to 2.30m. The quantities of rubbles found near and in the tower indicate that the stone construction reached even higher. Traces of three towers remain evident in the corners. Walls 306, 307, and 308 formed the southeast corner tower; the northeast corner tower is constructed by Walls 152, 153 and 154; and the roadworks conducted in the 1970s eliminated any traces of the northwest one.

The excavators deduced that this building had two floors based on the stone pillar bases found in the center of Rooms 275, 129, 244/299, and Tower 240 (Figs. 2.66-2.67), besides the large quantity of the collapsed stones in the rooms, especially in Room 244/299. Two stone platforms measured 1m-long \times

2.20m-wide \times 0.30-0.50m-high each, however, were built in Rooms 115 and 275. The excavator described them as stairwells ascending to the upper storey (Fig. 2.68).

The partition walls that are linking the outer and inner casemate walls on the western part of the building formed various size rooms: Room 275 measured 5×9 m; Room 115 measured 5×6 m; Tower 240 and Room 277 measured 5×4 m each; Rooms 142 and 116 measured 5×3 m each; Room 283 measured 5×1.50 m; and Room 143 measured 5×2 m. The excavator considered loci.299/244 as a single large hall measure 5×13 m. The doorpost of the shared doorway between Tower 240 and Room 275 was constructed of the well-cut stones placed horizontally, with a stone threshold rising 0.15m above the bedrock. Among the debris and near the joint entrance between loci.244 and 299 were found more than 30 large iron and bronze nails, which prompted the excavator to conclude that the door made up of solid wood (see Table 2.16). Two stone-lined canals ca. 0.30m-wide were running along the east-west axis of Rooms 277, and 115 are Channels 307 and 123 respectively (Figs. 2.69-2.70). Both channels expanded about 25m outside the building westward. A row of three small installations built of stones was placed at the corner of Room 299. The excavator thought that they were designed for storage and manufacturing purposes (Fig. 2.71).

The excavation area was filled with crumpled walls and dozens of crushed storage jars beneath the fallen walls. Ashes and soot covered most of the floors. Heavy burnt materials, stones, and mudbrick found beneath all rooms on a depth of 1m. Crushed bones of adults and children were found in Rooms 277, 240, 275, and 299. Weapons and rounded stone catapults were unearthed in several loci as well. All these remnants indicated to a horrific destruction and conflagration took place by the end of the Persian rule. As a matter of fact, the function of the rounded stones is unclear; either they were stone catapults or merely used for industrial purposes (Alexandre 2006: 132, 138-146, 148, 179).

Table 2.16: The excavated findings in the complex of Nahal Tut

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
368	Not ill.	Attic bowl	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 1)
369	Not ill.	Mortarium	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 4)
370	Not ill.	Cooking pots	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 5-6)
371	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 9)

372	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 12-17)
373	Not ill.	Lamp	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 18)
374	Not ill.	Iron ploughshares	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 54: 1-4)
375	Not ill.	Iron sickles	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 55: 1-2)
376	Not ill.	Iron shearing clippers	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 56: 2)
377	Not ill.	Iron fibula	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 57: 3)
378	Not ill.	Bronze spearhead	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 57: 4)
379	Not ill.	Iron arrowhead	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 57: 5)
380	Not ill.	Bronze nails	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 58: 2-7, 14- 15)
381	Not ill.	Basalt millstone (<i>in situ</i>)	Room 244	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 59: 1)
382	Not ill.	Large basalt millstone (<i>in situ</i>)	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 38)
383	Not ill.	Large iron ploughshare (<i>in situ</i>)	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: 150; Fig. 39)
384	Not ill.	Three diamond- shaped iron rings used to clamp the wooden parts of the plough	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: 150; Fig. 40)
385	Not ill.	Three iron scythes	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: 150)

386	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: 150)
387	Not ill.	Bronze and iron nails	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 58: 1, 8-13, 16)
388	Not ill.	Mortaria	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 2-3)
389	Not ill.	Krater	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 7)
390	Not ill.	Jug	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 8)
391	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 10)
392	Not ill.	Handle	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 53: 11)
393	Not ill.	Iron pickaxe	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 56: 1)
394	Not ill.	Iron ring	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 56: 3)
395	Not ill.	Bronze buckle with duck's head	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 57: 1)
396	Not ill.	Iron accessory	Room 299	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 57: 2)
397	Not ill.	Storage jars (almost 100)	Room 143	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 60: 1-10)
398	Not ill.	Storage jars (almost 40)	Room 283	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 60: 11-18)
399	Not ill.	Handle	Room 283	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 60: 19)
400	Not ill.	Lamp	Room 283	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 60: 20)
401	Not ill.	Storage jars (almost 20)	Room 142	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 12-15)

402	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 240	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 1-3)
403	Not ill.	A bronze fishhook	Room 240	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 4)
404	Not ill.	A couple of bronze nails	Room 240	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 5)
405	Not ill.	Iron ring	Room 240	(Alexandre 2006: 151)
406	Not ill.	Human bones	Room 240	(Alexandre 2006: 152)
407	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 50)
408	Not ill.	Cooking pots	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 48: 4-7)
409	Not ill.	Bowls	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 48: 1-3)
410	Not ill.	Jugs	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 48: 8-10)
411	Not ill.	Lamp	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 49: 1)
412	Not ill.	Alabastron vessel	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 49: 2)
413	Not ill.	Limestone bead	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 49: 3)
414	Not ill.	Jar bases	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 49: 4-5)
415	Not ill.	Iron pickaxe	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 51: 1)
416	Not ill.	Iron shearing clippers	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 51: 2)
417	Not ill.	Iron and bronze nails	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006: 152)
418	Not ill.	Human bones of	Room 275	(Alexandre 2006:

		an infant		152)
419	Not ill.	Cooking pots	Room 277	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 6-7)
420	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 277	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 8-12)
421	Not ill.	Iron awl	Room 277	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 13)
422	Not ill.	Spindle whorl of black stone	Room 277	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 52: 14)
423	Not ill.	Mortarium	Room 129	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 7)
424	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 129	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 8)
425	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 129	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 9-11)
426	Not ill.	Bowl	Room 115	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 1)
427	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 115	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 2)
428	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 115	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 3)
429	Not ill.	Storage jar	Room 115	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 4)
430	Not ill.	Sandstone whetstone	Room 115	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 5)
431	Not ill.	Pestle of black stone	Room 115	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 61: 6)
432	Not ill.	Attic bowl	L.215/106	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 1)
433	Not ill.	Mortaria	L.215	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 3, 4)
434	Not ill.	Cooking pot	L.215/106	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 8)

435	Not ill.	Flask	L.215	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 10)
436	Not ill.	Handle	L.215	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 12)
437	Not ill.	Bronze buckle	L.215	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 63: 7)
438	Not ill.	Iron arrowhead	L.215	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 63: 8)
439	Not ill.	Mortarium	L.128/114	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 2)
440	Not ill.	Jug	L.128	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 11)
441	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.128	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 63: 1-2)
442	Not ill.	Bronze spatula	L.128/114	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 63: 5)
443	Not ill.	Mortarium	L.255/279	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 5)
444	Not ill.	Bowl	L.255/279	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 6)
445	Not ill.	Krater	L.255/279	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 7)
446	Not ill.	Cooking pot	L.255	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 62: 9)
447	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.255	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 63: 3-4)
448	Not ill.	Bronze chain	L.255	(Alexandre 2006: Fig. 63: 6)

2.7.6.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The site is surrounded by perennial springs and rivers made it a productive agricultural area. The building was erected on a slope of a hillock (Olmair 1981: 57; Wolff 1996: 749). Nahal Tut, on the other hand, had

a strategic position on the north-south route linking Syria with Egypt and vice versa. The building monitored the west-east route from Tel Dor to Galilee and Jezreel Valley as well, which would mean that Nahal Tut is the eastern end of the agricultural land that was under the sway of Tel Dor, and at the western end of Galilee (Alexandre 2006: 179).

The location of the main entrance of the complex is unclear since it suffered a considerable physical damage that has caused by war (?). The western retaining wall affirms the absence of any entrance in this part. The excavator believed with cautious that the main entrance was in the center of the southern casemate wall (see Plan 2.47) (Alexandre 1996: 49). All casemate rooms are reachable through joint doorways communicated them with the central courtyard. Several corrections were conducted on the building in later phases: the doors between Rooms 244/299 and 283; Rooms 244/299 and 143; and the courtyard and Room 142 all were blocked off by large stones (Fig. 2.72) (Alexandre 2006: 142-143). The courtyard also approached to the northern and southern casemate rooms i.e. Rooms 129 and 275 respectively. The latter reached to the tower in the southwest (Loc.240).

2.7.6.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The objects excavated in the building could be typified in seven groups: 1) kitchen vessels including mortaria, cooking pots, juglets, millstones, krater, jugs, bowls, alabastron vessel, whetstone, pestle, flask, and spatula; 2) plowing, cultivation and livestock rearing tools including Iron ploughshares, Iron sickles, scythes, Iron pickaxes, and Iron shearing clippers that perhaps used as wool shearing tools; 3) weapons, including bronze spearhead and Iron arrowhead; 4) storage jars; 5) ornaments and personal tools including Iron ring, bronze buckle with duck's head, fibulae, beads, buckle and Iron awl, which may have been used as stitching needle used for piercing holes in leather; 6) fishhooks; 7) textile industry tools such as spindle whorl.

As a matter of fact, the random or inequitable distribution of the finds in the rooms plus the absence of installations from most of them, however, makes it difficult to determine the function of each one, even for those that yielded a big number of objects like Rooms 244/299 and 275. In any event, based on preceding arguments, the primary activities that carried out in the building were the food production and the agricultural production, commencing from cultivating through harvesting and milling, and finally storing. Indeed, blocking off some entrances between rooms had utilitarian ends related mainly to the storage functions. The basalt millstone in Room 244/299 is an indication of engaging milling works, and therefore, the storage jars filled with flour. The excavator weighs the possibility that this vast edifice was a fortified agricultural property (Alexandre 1996: 50; 2006: 149-153, 175, 180). Indeed, its great size and

finds refer that it was a provincial agricultural estate contributed to enhancing farm incomes and the development needs by providing the surrounding areas with crops. Perhaps, these crops used partially for exporting goods via the adjacent harbors such as Tel Megadim and Tel Dor. On the other hand, there is no clue amongst the findings such as stamp seals that would corroborate that Nahal Tut had an administrative or governmental authority managing food production, which brings us the probability of that Nahal Tut was administered by one of the adjacent sites, most probably by the nearby metropolitan city at that time which is Tel Dor or even Megiddo.

On the other hand, the enormous number of storage jars in Rooms 283, 142, and 143 leaves no room for suspicion that these rooms were storerooms as well. The bronze and iron weapons excavated in Rooms 244, and 215, the solidity of the casemate and retaining walls in addition to the buttressed towers are conclusive proofs of the fortification system. In other words, they suggested that this agriculture estate was annexed with a military garrison protected it. The spindle whorls were used for spinning after shearing the wool of the livestock as alternative livelihoods besides the fishing.

2.7.6.1.4. Chronology

Walls of a Middle Bronze Age IIA building have been excavated beneath the northern foundation courses of the building (Alexandre 1996: 50). The complex was short-lived as it was built in the last phase of the Persian period i.e. the fourth century B.C.E. and was destroyed by the end of it or the very beginning of the Hellenistic period i.e. 350-325 B.C.E. as evidenced by the local and the Attic pottery vessels (Guz-Zilberstein 1995: 289, 295, 356; Alexandre 2006: 132, 154, 156, 180). A bronze coin dated to the reign of the Alexandre the Great that has been found in Room 244/299 beneath a thin layer of debris provided an unequivocal evidence about the date of the destruction of the complex (Alexandre 2006: 178, 180; Fig. 64).

2.7.6.1.5. Type

The zigzag pattern used in the construction of the walls is in the same way as the late Iron-Age city-walls of Megiddo and Dan (Wright 1985). The building is very comparable to the fortress of Ashdod regarding the spacious courtyards which are enclosed by rooms on four sides and the projecting corner towers. Nonetheless, there are many differences between both buildings regarding the size, number of rooms, thicknesses of the walls and corner towers and the material of construction. Nahal Tut building is three times bigger than Ashdod fortress. The total width of Nahal Tut building counting the retaining walls is up to 3.50 and in Ashdod fortress the walls are only 1m-thick. The complex of Nahal Tut is built of

boulders arranged in the zigzag pattern, and the fortress of Ashdod was erected of bricks. In Theangela in Greece, there is a similar rectangular fort and also dated to the late fourth century B.C.E. as well (Lawrence 1979: 138, 179; Figs. 31, 441).

2.7.7. Tel Mevorakh (in Arabic Tell Mubarak)

Tel Mevorakh is a coastal site located on the southern cliff of the Crocodile River (in Arabic Nahr ez-Zarqa) between Sharon Plain and the Carmel coast, about 5 km northeast of Caesarea. The tell measured 50 × 50m and stands ca. 15m above the surrounding area (Wright 1985: 96). E. Stern excavated the site between 1973 and 1976 (Stern 1973; 1974; 1978). Based on the ribbed walls formed by ashlar blocks, E. Stern (1973: 256-257) cited the site was inhabited by the Phoenicians since this kind of walls is a Phoenician prototype. The Persian-period level composed of three strata (Strata VI-IV). Stratum VI contained only deep pits filled with ash, animal bones, and pottery. Stratum V is represented by a structure erected on the western flank of the mound. Stratum IV contained a large building covering the whole mound (see below). Building 120 of Stratum V is extremely damaged, and only a few disjointed walls have survived. Moreover, the finds are not sufficient by themselves to conclude its function. In general, the excavated portions of this building show a complex of rooms similar to Building 264 of Stratum IV. Based on the local and imported Greek pottery excavated in the whole excavated area and inside the silos, Stratum V has been dated to the beginning of the fourth century B.C.E. E. Stern (1978: 26-30) has concluded that Building 120 was an open-court building, served as a large farm house. Indeed, this argument is baseless in the light of the enormous destruction occurred in the building. The present author will only discuss in-depth the architectural remains of Stratum IV (i.e. Building 264).

2.7.7.1. Building 264

2.7.7.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Building 264 is a large complex consisted of a vast number of rooms. Perhaps the building had two wings with a long narrow lane or street run east-west separating them (Plan 2.50; Fig. 2.73). A circular pit was dug into its floor on the eastern end (Pit 8). Vast portions of the building are yet in the unexcavated areas on the north, east and west; so neither the layout nor measurements could be established in an exact manner. In the plan, the building is demarcated by a casemate wall that its external wall (W7 and W22) is located in Squares H/10-11 and the inner wall (W1) is located in Squares G/10-11 and together they formed casemate rooms (L.4 and L.6) (Figs. 2.74-2.75). It seems that the external face (W7 and W22) has salients and recesses. It was constructed of well-cut ashlar blocks courses arranged alternately in headers and stretchers. The inner wall (W1) is built of semi-dressed fieldstones alternating with well-cut ashlar

blocks laid at fixed distances (Fig. 2.76). The excavator thinks that the casemate wall surrounded the entire complex. Unlike the casemate wall, all rooms were built of undressed ashlar blocks of different sizes.

Remnants of stone-paved floors have been unearthed in Rooms 102 and 214 while the rest of the rooms had beaten earth floors. The stone pavement of Room 102 has been unveiled a few centimeters beneath the surface, and it covers the northeastern part of the room. The southern and western portions are completely demolished, perhaps because of later graves. Although this floor is rising 0.60m above the ground level, it has been attributed to Stratum IV based on the types of jars found above it (see Table 2.17). The major amount of pottery has been unearthed in Room 103 (Fig. 2.77) (see Table 2.17). Most of them are intact despite collapsing the roof on its floor. The floors of Rooms 104-106 are severely destroyed by graves belonging to later periods. Some walls were utterly destroyed by Hellenistic structures as well (Stern 1978: 26-28).

Table 2.17: The excavated findings in Building 264 of Tel Mevorakh

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
449	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.102	(Stern 1978: Pls. 24: 4, 6; 25: 4)
450	Not ill.	Bowl	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 4: 12)
451	Not ill.	Kraters	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 5: 2, 4; Pl. 23: 7)
452	Not ill.	Cooking pots	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 5: 10-11, 17; Pl. 23: 9)
453	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.103	(Stern 1978: Figs. 6: 6, 8, 11; 7: 1, 6; Pls. 24: 5; 25: 1)
454	Not ill.	Amphora	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 8: 15; Pl. 25: 14)
455	Not ill.	Stand of a jar	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 8: 22; Pl. 27: 8)
456	Not ill.	Jugs	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 9: 2, 4-5; Pl. 27: 2,

				4)
457	Not ill.	Juglets	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 9: 14, 15, 17; Pl. 28: 2, 4, 7)
458	Not ill.	Lamp	L.103	(Stern 1978: Fig. 10: 5)
459	Not ill.	Unknown metal object	L.103	(Stern 1978: 105; Pl. 46: 1)
460	Not ill.	Metal bracelets	L.103	(Stern 1978: 105; Pl. 46: 4)
461	Not ill.	Part of amphora	L.117	(Stern 1978: 97; Pl. 25: 13)
462	Not ill.	Jug	L.117	(Stern 1978: Fig. 10: 18; Pl. 30: 9)
463	Not ill.	Attic imported ware	L.150	(Stern 1978: 98; Pl. 29: 8)
464	Not ill.	Attic imported ware	L.154	(Stern 1978: 99; Pl. 29: 20)
465	Not ill.	Pyxis	L.154	(Stern 1978: Fig. 9: 25; Pl. 28: 13)
466	Not ill.	Imported East Greek bowl	L.172	(Stern 1978: 100; Pl. 30: 5)
467	Not ill.	Handle of amphora	L.172	(Stern 1978: Fig. 8: 14; Pl. 25: 11)
468	Not ill.	Bowl	L.106	(Stern 1978: Fig. 4: 5)
469	Not ill.	Kraters	L.106	(Stern 1978: Fig. 5: 6-7; Pl. 23: 4, 6)
470	Not ill.	Storage jars	L.106	(Stern 1978: Fig. 7: 2-4; Pl. 25: 2-3, 5)
471	Not ill.	Juglet	L.106	(Stern 1978: Fig. 9: 11; Pl. 27: 7)

472	Not ill.	Fragment of clay figurine	L.110	(Stern 1978: 104; Pl. 42: 4)
473	Not ill.	Bowl	L.108	(Stern 1978: Fig. 4: 6)
474	Not ill.	Juglets	L.5	(Stern 1978: Fig. 9: 9, 18; Pls. 27: 6; 28: 5)
475	Not ill.	Attic imported ware	L.2	(Stern 1978: 99; Pl. 29: 13)
476	Not ill.	Metal bracelet	L.2	(Stern 1978: 105; Pl. 46: 2)
477	Not ill.	Jar	Pit 8	(Stern 1978: Pl. 24: 2)
478	Not ill.	Jug	Pit 8	(Stern 1978: Fig. 9: 7; Pl. 27: 3)
479	Not ill.	Lamp	Pit 8	(Stern 1978: Fig. 10: 10-12)

2.7.7.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building occupies the entire surface of the mound (Fig. 2.78) (Stern 2001: 403). The ancient tell lies at the junction of Sharon Plain and Carmel Coast. In other words, it was dominating the coastal plain.

Some details of the plan remain problematic, especially the connection between the different parts and entrances to the rooms since only the foundations of the complex are preserved. More excavations are needed south, west and east of the compound to obtain a more instructive picture of its layout.

2.7.7.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavator believes that Rooms 27 and 28 in the northwest sector were staircases leading to a tower or second floor on the western side of the complex. The storage jars in Room 102 would indicate to a storage function of it. Room 103 could have been a kitchen, as evidenced by the kitchenware. The Pyxis in Room 154, which was originally used by women to hold cosmetics, trinkets or jewelry would imply to a bedroom. Room 106 perhaps was intended to store the wine in the kraters, plus the fluids and crops. Stern

(1978: 26-27) has interpreted the complex as an administrative center or large agricultural estate. In fact, there is no clue about both suggested functions especially that the building is largely unexcavated yet, and the findings refer to a domestic nature rather than public. In the author's view, this complex was, seemed to have been a residential quarter occupied the entire area of the mound and composed mainly of private dwellings and storerooms.

2.7.7.1.4. Chronology

Judging from the pottery vessels, Stratum IV was dated to the last stage of the Persian period i.e. the middle of the fourth century B.C.E. (Stern 1978: 28; 2001: 403).

2.7.7.1.5. Type

Stern (1974: 267; 2001: 403) has inferred that this complex is similar to Building 234 excavated in Tell el-Jurn at En-Gedi regarding their multiple rooms, the open courtyards, and the second storey. As long as the excavations have not been finished, and the complex maintained of the status quo, we could not retrieve a clear layout of it. This complex combined almost all Phoenician architectural techniques used elsewhere in the Levant, including “pier-and-rubble”, “header-and-stretcher”, “casemate wall” and possible “offset-inset” wall (see Jokneam for pier-and-rubble technique; Tell Abu Hawam for header-and-stretcher technique, Rujm Al-Henu for casemate; and Tel Dor for offset-inset technique).

2.7.8. *Makmish (Tel Michal)*

Makmish is a small mound on the northern half of the Mediterranean seashore northern Palestine. In 1922, J. Ory was the first scholar who conducted the first survey on the site. Between 1958 and 1960, N. Avigad directed salvage excavations on the northeast side of the mound, followed by the excavations of Z. Herzog and J. D. Muhly between 1977 and 1980 (Herzog 1993: 1036). Six rich occupational phases on the upper and lower tells and the lower city, however, have been attributed to the Persian period (Strata XI-VI) (Herzog 1989: 88, 124; 1993: 1038). N. Avigad was convinced that Makmish was a Phoenician settlement (Avigad 1960: 92-96).

The building remains of Stratum XI have been unearthed at the northern end of the acropolis where the excavators found only remains of a single building (Building 872), pits and ovens. Stratum X overlies Stratum XI and contained incoherent walls of Buildings 856, 1454, and 1351, courtyards, floors, pottery, cooking ovens, pits, drainage system and fragments of plastered roofs. The remains of Stratum IX have been unearthed on the acropolis as well. It contained yards and poorly-preserved buildings (Buildings

344, 1483, 1308, 1771, and 412), pits, silos, and floors. Stratum VIII remains have been excavated on the acropolis in Area D. It yielded a few remains of Buildings 340, 1084, 1304, and 89, kilns (loci.1803, 215 and 207), a small winepress (loc.510), floors, animal bones, and pottery vessels. Stratum VII contained portions of walls and silos. Building 1013 is the best-preserved building in this stratum. Stratum VI is a continuation of Stratum VII and covers the center, south, north and east sides of the acropolis. It contained silos, a winepress (loc.566), pottery sherds, drainage channels (loc.137), incense altars and portions of building remains without precise layouts (Herzog 1980: 118-120, 123-138; 1989: 89-113, Figs. 8.4-8.17).

Despite the absence of explicit designs of most of the buildings, the excavators presented inconsistent explanations about their functions. Therefore, the present author will examine only the sanctuary, Building 89 of Stratum VIII and Building 1013 belonging to Stratum VII as they are the best-preserved buildings with clear ground plans.

2.7.8.1. The Sanctuary

2.7.8.1.1. Contextual Analysis

In consequence of the damage occurred in the building, specifically on the western wall, no one can retrieve the original plan of the sanctuary. The building processes have taken place in two phases. In the first stage, the sanctuary was a rectangular building oriented in the north-south direction and, composed mainly of two rooms with a vast courtyard on the east: a large room on the south and a smaller one attached to its northern end. The eastern limits of the court are indefinable, and its floor is 1m below the ground level of the rooms. The total length from north to south was 15m, and the estimated width was 6.5m (Figs. 2.79-2.80). The east wall of the main hall is the best-preserved wall. Only two courses of it have been survived. The lower course was built of uncut stones, and the upper one was erected of mud brick with a 1.10m-wide opening associated with square doorposts made of ashlar. In the second phase, an enlargement took place in the building. The main hall was, therefore, widened 2.5m northward creating an oblique bend and the floor level of the courtyard was lifted 0.17m. A rounded plastered basin (1.10m-in diameter) was built into its floor with a depth of 0.30m. Inside it was found an incense limestone altar. This basin was probably connected to an open and shallow drain run, at least, 5m in the east-west axis. Near the pipe was found a circular torus smooth column base made of basalt (not in situ), which are rather similar to the basalt torus base found at the Palace of Lachish. In front of the main entrance was added a small pavement of sandstone slabs (Avigad 1958: 276; 1960: 91).

Table 2.18: The excavated findings in the sanctuary of Makmish

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
480	Not ill.	Open lamps; Deep bowls; Jars; Beads; Bronze bracelets; Incense altars	Northern annex	(Avigad 1961: 97-98)
481	Not ill.	Glass pendant representing a bearded head	Northern annex	(Avigad 1961: Plate 25: b-c)
482	Not ill.	Figurines depicting women in the prenatal phase	-	(Avigad 1960: Plate 11: a-b)
483	Not ill.	Figurine of a mother carrying her infant in a hand and supporting her breasts with the other one	-	(Avigad 1960: Plate 11: c)
484	Not ill.	Maiden figurine supporting her breasts	-	(Avigad 1960: Plate 10: c)
485	Not ill.	Statuette of naked male	-	(Avigad 1960: Plate. 12: a)
486	Not ill.	Cypriote limestone statuette of a woman wearing a sewn garment, known as chiton and hold a votive offering in a hand	-	(Avigad 1960: Plate. 12: b)
487	Not ill.	Limestone male heads showing Cypriot influences	-	(Avigad 1960: Plates 9: c; 11: d)
488	Not ill.	Seated old men wearing cylindrical and pointed headcloths and grasping their beards	-	(Avigad 1960: Plates 10: a-b)
489	Not ill.	Bearded-head of male wearing Atef-crown of Osiris	-	(Avigad 1960: Plate 9: b)

2.7.8.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The sanctuary was erected about 400m at the northwest side of the mound (Avigad 1960: 90, 95). A person can enter the main hall of the temple through the courtyard, and most probably, there was an entryway connected the main hall and the annex.

2.7.8.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The layout of the building and the abundant quantity of votive figurines and limestone incense altars clearly indicate to a cultic character of the building. Too, the types of the figurines suggested that the sanctuary was dedicated primarily to a goddess of fertility; most probably Astarte. This argument can also be easily confirmed by the fact the site was inhabited by Sidonians who established a commercial colony in Makmish for the sake of prosperity of their global sea trade. Geographically, Makmish is located within the territories extended from Dor to Jaffa, which were granted to Sidonian king Eshmun'azar by a royal decree from Darius for his great deeds (see above). The small room on the north probably was served as a treasury of the sanctuary since most of the valuable objects were found inside it (Avigad 1960: 92-95). It seemed that the Egyptian deity Osiris was also worshiped in this sanctuary as indicated by the terracotta figurine of the bearded head wearing Osiris Atef crown (catalogue no. 489). This figurine had quite similar iconography to Osiris in Egypt regarding the headgear, the false beard, and shaved mustache. On the contrary, despite the Atef-crown that topped the male head shown in catalogue no.488, it represented a personage rather than Osiris, as demonstrated by the gesture clasping the beard with the right hand. In the Egyptian mythology, Osiris never had a mustache.

2.7.8.1.4. Chronology

The trial trenches conducted below the sanctuary have revealed Iron Age potsherds (Avigad 1958: 276; 1961: Fig. 1: A-D). Both identified phases are belonging to the Persian period judging from the pottery, figurines, and the other objects. The votive figurines bore Persian, Cypriot, Egyptian and Phoenician influences (Avigad 1960: 91-94). The pregnant women and those holding their breasts were also widespread in the Levant in the Persian period. Several parallel examples were excavated in Shrine II of Sarepta (catalogue nos. 593-594), Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Stratum III) (cf. Pritchard 1985: Fig. 169: 6-7), Tell Abu Hawam (Level II) (catalogue no. 364), House 2 of Tell Mardikh (cf. Matthiae et al. 1995: 515, Fig. 495), Beth Shan (cf. FitzGerald 1931: Pl. XXIV: 2-3) and Kharayeb (catalogue no. 614). The male figurines topped by Atef crown of Osiris were also found in Amrit (catalogue no. 581), Kharayeb (catalogue no. 618), and Mizpe Yammim (catalogue no. 71). Similar figurines of the old men wearing a

cylindrical tiara and fondling their beards were also found in Kharayeb (catalogue nos. 603, 605) and Tell Sukas (catalogue no. 558). The Hellenistic date has been given to the latest phase of occupation after the destruction of the building (Avigad 1960: 96).

2.7.8.1.5. Type

The one-room sanctuary with an annex was not widely known among the sanctuaries during the Persian period. In the Levant, the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim is the only comparable temple to the shrine excavated in Makmish (see Mizpe Yammim).

2.7.8.2. Building 89

2.7.8.2.1. Contextual Analysis

Building 89 is contained solely Rooms 89 and 92. They both measured 9m (northwest-southeast) × 4.50-6m (northeast-southwest), and built of undressed sandstone in the lower courses, and the superstructure was constructed of ḥamra bricks that were collapsed on the floor of Room 92. Room 89 was considered as a courtyard measured 3 × 3m and Room 92 measured 3.50 × 4.50m (Plan 2.51). In Room 92 a semi-circular stone-lined silo was dug into its southwest corner. The walls of the building are 1m-thick and stand to a height of 1.5m (Herzog 1989: 97, 100). Beneath the floor of Alley 405 is a 0.40m-wide ditch (loc.413) elongated along the northwest-southeast axis through the stone-paved street (loc.951).

Table 2.19: The excavated findings in Building 89 of Makmish (Stratum VIII)

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
490	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 92	(Singer-Avitz 1989: Fig. 9.4)
491	Not ill.	Miscellaneous pottery ware	Room 92	(Singer-Avitz 1989: Fig. 9.5)
492	Not ill.	Storage jars	Room 93	(Singer-Avitz 1989: Fig. 9.6)
493	Not ill.	Attic oil lamp	Room 89	(Marchese 1989: Fig. 10.2: 32)

2.7.8.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Building 89 was established on the southern end of the acropolis, on the upper terrace of Stratum VIII (see Plan 2.51). Alley 405 reached to Room 89 that, in turn, had a joint entryway with Room 92. It is apparent through the plan that the settlers blocked it off later (see Plan 2.51). The building was adjoined by two streets intersecting at 90-degree angles. Loc.405 was a 1.20m-wide lane or street separates this building from another extremely-damaged building north of it.

2.7.8.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The large number of store jars that were collected from the building, particularly from Room 92, however, suggested that the building was a public storehouse meant to store wine jars in all probability, and thus Silo 93 was dug for gathering the empty jars (Herzog 1989: 100).

2.7.8.2.4. Chronology

Stratum VIII has been dated to the second half of the fifth century B.C.E. based on pottery evidence (Stern 2001: 405). Architecturally, it seems that the building had two construction phases that were distinguished principally by sealing off the entrance to Rooms 89 and 92 in the second stage.

2.7.8.2.5. Type

This building seems to have been belonged to what the author prefer to call it as “two-room” scheme. Regardless, this type was not widespread in the Persian period in the Levant. The only similar example, with slight differentiations, is Phase C building of Tell el-Burak (see Tell el-Burak).

2.7.8.3. Building 1013

2.7.8.3.1. Contextual Analysis

Most of the building's walls are destroyed and the excavators, therefore, reconstructed the missing portions. The southern half of the building was built of mud brick built up in stretchers only, and the northern and western segments were made of small undressed stones (Plan 2.52). Room 1013 measured 2.40m (north-south) × 5.60m (east-west) and filled with a 0.80m-thick layer of shattered mud-brick. Loc.1029 seems to have been a brick-lined silo; measured ca. 2m-in diameter and its bottom is 2m lower than floor level of the rest of the building. Its upper walls are curved, of which indicated that it had a dome-shaped roof (Herzog 1989: 105). On the west, there are, at least, two other rooms (loci.1640 and 1027).

Table 2.20: The excavated findings in Building 1013 of Makmish (Stratum VII)

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
494	Not ill.	Miscellaneous pottery ware	Room 1029	(Singer-Avitz 1989: Fig. 9.8)
495	Not ill.	Attic Skyphos	Room 1029	(Marchese 1989: Fig. 10.2: 10)
496	Not ill.	Base of cup	Room 1029	(Marchese 1989: Fig. 10.2: 23)
497	Not ill.	Lekythos	Room 1013	(Marchese 1989: Fig. 10.2: 19)

2.7.8.3.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Building 1013 is located on the lower terrace of the acropolis (Herzog 1989: 105). Since most of its walls, especially the western walls are destroyed, we could neither ascertain the position of the external entrance, nor the inner doors communicated between its rooms.

2.7.8.3.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavator interpreted Room 1013 as a courtyard and loc.1029 was a storage room for storing grains as indicated by its domed roof, deepness and rounded shape (Herzog 1989: 105). To sum up, Building 1013 seemed to have been a public storehouse, or perhaps a private dwelling attached to a silo to save the crops of the family inhabited it.

2.7.8.3.4. Chronology

The pottery of Stratum VII was dated to the first half of the fourth century B.C.E. (Stern 2001: 405). The ceramics that are characterized of the Hellenistic in the upper stratum, however, indicated that the building was replaced by Building 1024 belonging to Stratum VI (Herzog 1989: 110).

2.7.8.3.5. Type

The ground plan of the building does not show what might denote foreign features or even influences. Regardless, the construction technique used in the arrangement the mudbrick commonly used during the Persian period in the dwellings and storehouses (for parallel examples see Tell Abu Hawam).

2.7.9. *Tell Qasile*

Tell Qasile is located near Jaffa, on the northern bank of the Yarkon River (in Arabic Nahr Al-Auja). The mound is raised 26m above sea level. The first methodical excavations were carried out under Benjamin Mazar in 1948 (Maisler 1950-51a: 61).

2.7.9.1. Building G

2.7.9.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Building G is a rectangular building built of 1m-thick walls made up of undressed sandstone rubble. The excavator has reconstructed a clear ground plan of the building despite the fact that it is severely damaged and only the northeast part is conserved that contained the entire corner Room G4 and parts of Rooms G2, G3, and Courtyard G1 (Plan 2.53). The restored plan illustrates a rectangular open courtyard surrounded by rooms from the north, south and east with an outer court east of it (Loc.G6) and a big granary dug into it (Plan 2.54). Room G4 is almost a square room measured ca. 2.5×2.4 m. Room G3 is ca. 2.5m-wide (east-west) and its preserved length from north to south is ca. 6m. Generally speaking, Stratum VI yielded jars, cooking pots, juglet, bowl, lamp, Attic black figurine, Persian horseman figurine, a portion of a plough, and limestone seal (Maisler 1950-51b: 211-214).

2.7.9.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Tell Qasile is one of many sites located near Al-Auja River that contributed to the well-being of the population living nearby by providing the region with a fertile and productive land rendered fit for cultivation. The scattered silos, grain pits, fruit presses, and farming tools such as sickles found in all strata, mainly since the Iron Age forward, however, support this argument. The building itself was erected south of the tell (Maisler 1950-51a: 61-62; 1950-51b: 211). Apparently, the main entrance of the building was to the west. It is reasonable to conclude that the open courtyard communicated with the surrounding rooms.

2.7.9.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Analysing the function of each room is out of the question as the excavator did not correlate the findings with their contexts, except for some jars and cooking pots unearthed on the floor of the courtyard. The seal impression decisively implies that the building carried out administrative and governmental duties. Hence, the building could have been a public residence of a local governor who dwelled it and carried out administration affairs from it.

2.7.9.1.4. Chronology

The excavator had designated Stratum VI as “Postexilic” and dated it between the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. judging from the pottery (Maisler 1950-51a: 67; 1950-51b: 211).

2.7.9.1.5. Type

In fact, the excavator has not explained why he restored the demolished parts of the building to look like exhaustively as an "open-court" building surrounded by rooms from three sides rather than four. Therefore, if we look objectively at this thorny issue, we can conclude that it is impossible to settle the debate definitively. In general, it is largely acceptable that this building joins the dozens of the “open-court” buildings excavated elsewhere. The best similar examples of this building are Building 736 of Megiddo and the Villa of Ashkelon (Phase 13), regardless of the differences between them in size and some details in the layouts.

2.7.10. Jaffa

Jaffa is located a few kilometers south of Tel Aviv at the southern edge of Sharon Plain. The excavations have been sporadically conducted since the 1940s under the direction of P.L.O. Guy and the early 1950s under J. Bowman (Bowman et al. 1955). Between 1955 and 1974, J. Kaplan supervised large-scale excavations (Kaplan 1959; 1961; 1964, 1970; 1972; Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a; 1993b). In 1997, Z. Herzog headed two seasons of excavations (Herzog 2008: 1791-1792). Like Tel Dor, Jaffa belonged to the territory of Sidon in the Persian period as evidenced by the inscription of Eshmun’azar (see Tel Dor), the manuscript document called Periplus of Pseudo-Scylax, and the Sidonian coins excavated at the site. The excavator correlated the use of the Phoenician ribbed walls to the arrival of the Sidonians (Kaplan 1972: 85, 87; Fantalkin and Tal 2008: 247-248; Burke 2011: 74). During his fieldwork, Kaplan unearthed a 2.5m-thick city wall that was constructed in the “header-and-stretcher” technique (Kaplan 1972: 88).

2.7.10.1. Building M

2.7.10.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Only a few portions of this structure are preserved. Nonetheless, the excavator has reconstructed the razed parts (Plan 2.55). Some scholars believed that it comprised of a courtyard surrounded by rooms on three sides (cf. Fantalkin and Tal 2008: 249). Indeed, the reconstructed plan is tolerable as it has been restored in a manner that is commensurate with the axis of the preserved walls. The renovated layout does not show an inner courtyard, rather than it demonstrates a building contains two wings separated by a lane.

The preserved walls are constructed of fieldstone with ashlar piers at constant intervals, which are made up of stones arranged on headers rotating with stretchers (Fig. 2.81). The entrance was stone-paved. In a room, too many Greek bowls called *lekanides* were found (Stern 2001: 406). Heaps of iron slag were scattered across the mound with part of a forge and a container near the building contained an iron sickle and a knife (Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 657).

2.7.10.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Building M was established on the peak of the tell (Area A) with a wall surrounded the whole settlement (see above) (Fig. 2.82) (Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 657). Other building remains have been found scattered throughout the excavated area, including a few incoherent walls of Building N (Fantalkin and Tal 2008: 249), storerooms, and workshops built in the “pier-and-rubble” style (Herzog 2008: 1792). Some tombs were found on the southern slope (Ayash and Bushnino 1999). The inner design is entirely unclear since the major parts of it are badly-demolished.

2.7.10.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the excavators assumed that this building served as a large warehouse for keeping and storing the imported goods (Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 657).

2.7.10.1.4. Chronology

Generally speaking, the Persian period was assigned to Level II, which had been divided into three sub-phases: A, B, and C. The earliest phase (Level IIC) was characterized by large silos. Level IIB is represented by portions of unclear structure excavated in Square K-3 and dated to the fifth century B.C.E. The building under discussion is attributed to Level IIA that was dated between the second half of the fifth century B.C.E. and the end of the Persian period i.e. the last third of fourth century B.C.E. (Kaplan 1959: 77-78; Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 656-658).

2.7.10.1.5. Type

The preserved walls are raised in the so-called Phoenician style “pier-and-rubble” (see Jokneam for parallel examples) and “header-and-stretcher” (see Tell Abu Hawam for parallel examples). The layout of Building M was not an unusual; since Houses J, B, and E at Al-Mina (Level III) had the same layout and same function.

2.7.11. *Tel Ya'oz (in Arabic Tell Ghazza)*

Tel Ya'oz is located a few kilometers south of Tel Aviv on the Mediterranean seacoast. The site was surveyed for the first time in 1933 by J. Ory, and then by M. Dothan in 1952 (Dothan 1952: 112). In the 1950s and 1960s, the site was surveyed under the superintendence of M. Brosh. I. Roll was the director of the surveys that conducted in the 1970s and the test excavation in 1980 (Fischer et al. 2008: 123-126). In 1998, R. Kletter conducted a rescue excavation (Kletter et al. 2000: 72). Regrettably, several portions of the buildings were destroyed by bulldozers prior the excavations.

2.7.11.1. Area D Building

2.7.11.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The building of Area D was erected directly on the sand without stone foundation. The walls are 0.50m-thick, made up principally of fieldstone of various sizes alternating with solid ashlar piers of kurkar built up in the "header-and-stretcher" fashion. These ashlars were placed at equal gaps measured 1.5m from one another (Plans 2.56-2.57; Fig. 2.83). At any rate, the excavators have reconstructed the western demolished part of the building identically to the eastern preserved facade. In the reconstructed plan, the building had four analogous rooms with an open courtyard in between and a vast hall behind them (see Plan 2.57).

The length of the building from north to south is 9m and from east to west is indeterminable. What are left of the eastern wall (i.e. WD4) are five ashlar piers; two of which were put at the junction of Walls D8 and D6. It must have been two other piers at the intersection with Walls D3 and D1 southward, but they were destroyed by a bulldozer as mentioned above. The preserved length of Wall D1 is 7.5m [although the southeastern part is demolished]. It had four ashlar piers; one of which was laid at the intersection of Wall D2. The doorjambs of Room 403 and 401 were built of orthostates. Of particular concern is Room 403; as it had plastered floor and walls with two shelves rising 0.22m and 0.35m and perhaps they were whitewashed as well. On the other hand, the floor of the open courtyard (Loci.402/405) was compressed sand and ash. It is lifted 0.40m above the floor level of Corridor 400. Therefore, at the joint entrance were built of three steps of kurkar slabs. The floor of Room 404 was similar to the floor of Room 402/405. The floor of Hall 408 has not been reached (Fischer et al. 2008: 129-134).

Table 2.21: The excavated findings in Area D building of Tel Ya'oz

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
498	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 404	(Fischer et al.

				2008: Fig. 29: 1)
499	Not ill.	Jar	Room 404	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 29: 3)
500	Not ill.	Lekythos	Room 404	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 29: 8)
501	Not ill.	Stone bowl	Room 404	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 29: 9)
502	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 405	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 29: 2)
503	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 405	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 29: 7)
504	Pl. 2.16	Incised glass seal depicting a nude, bearded male figurine in kneeling position identified as Heracles	Room 405	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 30)
505	Not ill.	Animal bones	Room 405	(Fischer et al. 2008: 152)
506	Not ill.	Jars	Room 400	(Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 29: 4-5)

2.7.11.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Area D is the northeastern slope of the mound (Fig. 2.84). Two sources of water are gushing near the mound: ‘En el-Maliha and ‘En el-Sultan (Fischer et al. 2008: 123, 129). These springs created a productive and cultivable soil. The main entrance of the structure was opened on the eastern side of the southern wall between the two ashlar blocks incorporated into Walls D1 and D2, but it was blocked off later by fieldstones and mortar (Fischer et al. 2008: 130). The location of the new entrance is still unclear. At any event, the original doorway opened directly to the L-shaped corridor i.e. loci.400/401, which opened to Room 403 on the east and the open courtyard (loci.402/405) on the west. The latter reached to Room 404, and it must have had entrances leading to the rest of the rooms on the west and north.

2.7.11.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the excavators think that this structure was a private dwelling. Although Room 403 was empty of finds especially storage jars, it was interpreted as a storeroom (Fischer et al. 2008: 130, 133). Apparently, the excavators' explanation relied principally on the plastered floor and walls. The kitchenware and lekythos that used for storing oil, especially olive oil found in Room 404, however, might suggest that this room functioned as a kitchen. The omission of the glass stamp seal seems to be a critical mistake and will not help to resolve the problem of the functional interpretation. The stamp seal is real evidence that the building handled administration matters. Like Building G of Tell Qasile, perhaps this building was a public residency and an administrative center of the local governor or an administrative employee.

2.7.11.1.4. Chronology

Most of the material culture excavated in the building is dated to the Persian period with some artifacts belonging to the Late Iron Age (Fischer et al. 2008: 133). Indeed, the lekythos is one of the most prominent vessels that they were very popular during the 5th-century B.C.E.

2.7.11.1.5. Type

If we accepted the reconstruction made by the excavators, then the building is following the “open-court” scheme excavated elsewhere in the Levant. It was unusual among the Persian-period residences and villas to use the construction methods “pier-and-rubble” and “header-and-stretcher”. Both styles were so prevalent during this period (See Jokneam for parallel examples of pier-and-rubble technique and Tell Abu Hawam for header-and-stretcher style).

2.7.11.2. Area C Building

2.7.11.2.1. Contextual Analysis

The substantial destruction occurred in the building included the entire western wall (W8), the western segment of the southern wall (W9) and some walls in the eastern part including Walls 1, 2, 6, 10, 11 and 12 (Plan 2.58). Despite this disruption, the building maintained its general layout. The material of construction was the crude kurkar alternating with well-quarried sandstone ashlar piers laid at equal periods measured 1.50m one from the other. The building was created directly on the sand floor without foundations (Fig. 2.85). The width of the walls is varying from 0.40 to 0.50m. The ultimately preserved width from north to south is ca. 10m and it exceeds 14m from east to west. It contains, at least, four spacious rooms: loci.302/303 measured 9.50m (east-west) × 2m (north-south); the L-shaped room (loci.314A, 311, and 315) measured 6m (north-south) × 2.80m-6m (east-west); Room 314B measured

2.20 × 2.20m; and Room 313/309 measured 3.50m (east-west) × 5.50m (north-south). Loci.302, 313 and 309 had soil floors while loci.307, 311, 314 and 315 had ḥamra and earth floors. The open area in the foreground i.e. loc.306 had no floor. In the southern end of the L-shaped room is a circular tannur measures 0.69m-deep and 0.50m-in diameter (see Plan 2.58) (Kletter et al. 2000: 72; Segal et al. 2006: 1-24).

Table 2.22: The excavated findings in Area C building of Tel Ya'oz

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
507	Not ill.	Moratorium	Room 302	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 7: 6)
508	Not ill.	Jar	Room 302	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 10: 8)
509	Not ill.	Cooking pots	Room 302	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 8: 5, 9)
510	Not ill.	Jug	Room 302	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 6)
511	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 302	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 14)
512	Not ill.	Bowl	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 7: 2)
513	Not ill.	Moratoria	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 7: 5, 8)
514	Not ill.	Kraters	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 8: 3-4)
515	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 8: 8)
516	Not ill.	Jars	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Figs. 9: 4, 6; 10: 15)
517	Not ill.	Eastern Greek bowl	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 12: 1)
518	Not ill.	Eastern Greek Amphora	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 12: 2)

519	Not ill.	Attic lekythoi	Room 303	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 12: 5, 6)
520	Not ill.	Jugs	Room 307	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 4-5)
521	Not ill.	Jars	Room 306	(Segal et al. 2006: Figs. 9: 21; 10: 1)
522	Not ill.	Attic Handle	Room 306	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 12: 16)
523	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 311	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 8: 10)
524	Not ill.	Jars	Room 311	(Segal et al. 2006: Figs. 9: 2-3; 10: 3, 12)
525	Not ill.	Juglets	Room 311	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 9, 12)
526	Not ill.	Lamp	Room 311	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 18)
527	Not ill.	Attic ware	Room 311	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 12: 10)
528	Not ill.	Krater	Room 314	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 8: 1)
529	Not ill.	Jars	Room 314	(Segal et al. 2006: Figs. 9: 12, 19; 10: 13)
530	Not ill.	Jug	Room 315	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 7)
531	Not ill.	Moratorium	Room 315	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 7: 7)
532	Not ill.	Jar	Room 315	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 9: 18)
533	Not ill.	Attic ware	Room 315	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 12: 12)
534	Not ill.	Cooking pot	Room 309	(Segal et al. 2006:

				Fig. 8: 6)
535	Not ill.	Jars	Room 309	(Segal et al. 2006: Figs. 9: 14; 10: 4)
536	Not ill.	Bowl	Room 313	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 7: 3)
537	Not ill.	Krater	Room 313	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 8: 2)
538	Not ill.	Jars	Room 313	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 9: 8, 13)
539	Not ill.	Moratorium	Room 312	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 7: 4)
540	Not ill.	Jars	Room 312	(Segal et al. 2006: Figs. 9: 15; 10: 5, 17)
541	Not ill.	Juglet	Room 312	(Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 11: 13)

2.7.11.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Area C was opened on the southwest slope of the mound that could have been part of a residential quarter (Kletter et al. 2000: 72) (see Fig. 2.84). A 0.50m-wide entrance was opened in W4 northwest of the building. This entry opens to Corridor 307 and then to the vast room east of it (i.e. loci.302/303) from the outside supposed open area (i.e. loc.306). The doorway in W2 that leads to the L-shaped room could have been somewhere in the damaged portions. In the same manner, perhaps there was an entryway in W3 leads to Room 309/313 in the south. In the northern end of the eastern wall of this room (i.e. W5) is an opening approached the L-shaped room. Room 314B maybe had an opening either in W10 or W13.

2.7.11.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavators could not identify the function of the building (Kletter et al. 2000: 72). Generally speaking, we could rule out the cultic nature since the findings are pure mundane, besides it does not consist any of the religious elements existed in other shrines such as altars and podia. Too, the building could not be a fortress with 0.50m-wide vulnerable walls. In the same manner, the building does not have palatial elements that could refer to a residency or palace, in addition to its small size. Indeed, the

domestic-type findings, the ground plan, and construction technique all refer to a well-to-do private dwelling.

2.7.11.2.4. Chronology

The building has no architectural phases, and no maintenance operations have been conducted on it. Only a single phase was recognized that was dated to the Persian period as the ceramic evidence has shown (Kletter et al. 2000: 72; Segal et al. 2006: 203). Of particular interest is an anthropomorphic horn-shaped, Achaemenid-type rhyton that had a protome of an Egyptian sphinx wearing a false beard and a Nemes headcloth with ram's horn and a solar disc. This sphinx perhaps portrayed an Egyptian king as god Amun-Ra (identified as Zeus Ammon in ancient Greece since the late fifth century B.C.E.) or depicted a Pharaoh as a god. The other two rhyta had a lion's and a ram's heads (Ziffer et al. 2006: 25-37; Figs. 1-3). The excavators did not assign the exact context of these remarkable drinking vessels, but they supported the Achaemenid existence at Tell Ya'oz.

2.7.11.2.5. Type

The excavators cited that the construction technique is a Persian prototype (Kletter et al. 2000: 72). Like many Persian-period sites in the Levant, in particular on the coast, the "pier-and-rubble" technique was encountered in the private dwellings and storerooms (see Jokneam for parallel examples).

2.7.12. Ashdod

Ashdod is a large mound located on the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, north of Ashkelon. Between 1962 and 1972, Moshe Dothan conducted his excavations on behalf of the Israel Department of Antiquities (Dothan and Freedman 1967; Dothan 1971; Dothan and Porath 1982; 1993).

2.7.12.1. The Building

2.7.12.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The building is square structure measured 29×29 m (841 square meters). The building is largely occupied by its central court that measured 16×16 m and surrounded by fourteen rooms from all sides. The building had four corner towers measured 4×4 m each⁴ (Plan 2.59). The exterior walls are 1m-thick

⁴ The rooms in the destroyed parts of the building have been also counted.

constructed of bricks on stone foundations, and the corner towers are 1.20m-thick. The protruding edges formed "offset-inset" appearance of the exterior walls.

The northern and eastern facades are better preserved than the other faces. The southwest part which is marked by dotted lines is demolished, including the presumed corner tower. The northwest tower was divided into two halves (Loci.60 and 61) by a cross-wall (W14) protruding from the western wall (W19) and cut off before reaching the eastern wall, forming a 1m-wide entryway. The cross-wall is rising 0.60m above the ground level. The floor level of Loc.61 is 0.16m higher than the floor level of Loc.60. Room 62 measured 6.50 (north-south) \times 4m (east-west). The scattered stones illustrated on the plan perhaps represented a stone-pave floor. A 2m-deep pit (Loc.621) was dug into its northern side. At the centre of the north side of the building between the two corner towers (i.e. loci.57 and 60/61) are two broad rooms (Rooms 58 and 59) measured 7.80 \times 4m and 8.10 \times 4m, respectively. The floor level of Room 59 is 0.46m higher than the floor level of Room 58. In front of the doorway opened in the middle of the southern wall of Room 58 (i.e. W13) is a stone threshold rising 0.38m. Inside the room is a large rectangular pit (Pit 582) incorporated into its western wall and measured 1.50m-long \times 1m-wide \times 1.20m-deep. The doorway between Rooms 59 and Tower 57 also had a stone sill rising 0.33m above the floor level of Room 59 and 0.11m above the floor level of Tower 57. Room 53 measured 4.5m (north-south) \times 2m (east-west) and had two stone-made doorsills: one in front of the joint doorway with Tower 57, which is rising 0.25m above its level, and the second one was built in front of the shared door with the courtyard and rising 0.41m above its ground level. In its northwest corner was constructed a semi-circular oven (Loc.531). The joint doorway with Room 51 south of it seems to have been blocked off in a later phase. The latter had a circular stone-lined oven that is lifted 0.42m above the floor level. The stone threshold at the entrance leading to the court is 0.16m higher than its floor. Loci.51/52 perhaps were originally a single large hall divided into two parts by a cross-wall (W3) incorporated into Wall 1 on the east and continuing 3m westward and cut off at a distance of 1m apart from W2 forming an entryway. This separating wall stands 0.70m above the ground level of loc.51. The floor level of loc.52 is 0.27m higher than the floor level of Room 54, and in between there is a stone threshold on a level of 0.17m lower than the floor level of loc.52. On the opposite side, namely the western side in front of the courtyard, there is a shallow stone threshold in front of the entryway of Room 68. The floor level of Room 64 is 0.22m lower than the floor level of Room 63 and measured 6m (east-west) \times 4.10m (north-south) each.

2.7.12.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building occupies the entire area of the acropolis. Interestingly, the excavations did not reveal dwellings or other structures in its surrounding. In the plan, it is hard to emphasize the location of the

main entrance of the building, although the author would suggest that it was either in Room 64 or Room 63 through Wall 9. From inside, the courtyard communicated to all rooms on four sides.

2.7.12.1.3. Functional Interpretation

This layout that contains protruding solid corner towers and boosted walls refer beyond any doubt to a public building built for defensive ends, namely a fortress. The position of the mound on the seashore and the strategic location of the fortress on the top of it would mean that it was erected to shield the southern coast and the surrounding important sites such as Ashkelon and Tel Ya'oz from the foreign invasions coming from the sea.

2.7.12.1.4. Chronology

The Attic pottery vessels found inside the fortress confirmed that the *terminus post quem* of erecting the building was the fifth century B.C.E. (Hoglund 1997: 328).

2.7.12.1.5. Type

The closest examples to this fortress regarding the layout are the agriculture estate at Nahal Tut (see above). The villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh is similar to this fortress regarding the outdoor court which is surrounded by rooms on four sides, thicknesses of the walls, and the material of construction. Regardless, the villa at Tell es-Sa'idiyeh had no similar corner towers.

2.7.13. Ashkelon (in Arabic 'Asqalān)

Ashkelon is a coastal site located on the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, about 16 km north of Gaza Strip. The site was first excavated by John Garstang in 1920-1922 on behalf of the Palestine Exploration Fund (Garstang 1921a; b; c; 1922; 1924). The Leon Levy Expedition conducted extensive excavations on the ancient tell of 'Asqalān since 1985 under the administration of Lawrence Stager on behalf of Harvard University (Stager and Esse 1986: 2; Stager et al. 2008: 165). Pseudo-Scylax in his *Periplus* had mentioned that Ashkelon subordinated to the Tyrian rule in this period (Elayi 1982: 103). The Persian-period architectural remains were uncovered principally at the south tell in Grids 38, 50, and 57. In addition to the structures discussed in detail below, there are less important buildings excavated in the entire excavation grids. In Grid 50 there are portions of a massive structure or complex of structures assigned to Phase 4, but it is hard to recapture its layout due to the overlapping of the strata, especially in the northwest part. A Phoenician pottery figurine depicting a seated pregnant woman and scarabs has

been found in it [the exact context is not specified]. The unearthed objects inside these rooms are not sufficient to assign their functions, but they reflected, in general, the domestic nature. All excavated objects are from the first half of the fourth century B.C.E. (Stager and Esse 1986: 4; Stager et al. 2008: 316).

In the southern side of the mound in Grid 57 have been excavated a densely destructed structure assigned to the early Persian period (Phase 6). Just one room of it had preserved. It contained traces of red ocher and ash that prompted the excavators to conclude that this room served for industrial prospects. Too, it yielded a significant amount of pottery and five ostraca inscribed with Phoenician inscriptions (Stager 1993: 107; Stager et al. 2008: 319). The Phase 4 structure in Grid 57 is also ruined. There are some installations in it: a bin contains several bronze nails, pottery, and deposits of ash, a pit filled with ash and a bench.

The Phase 3 structure in Grid 57 is magnificently reconstructed since most of its walls are in ruins. A bin and a small pit contained a silver bracelet were excavated in it. Of special interest is its basement (Room 306), which carried traces of heavy conflagration, and its floor is filled with burned mudbrick, carbonized wooden beams, seed and, ash, and smashed pottery vessels. Among the finds were iron and bronze spikes and coins. Similar traces of that conflagration were found in another room. In a chamber, two spearheads were unearthed. The considerable amount of restorable pottery excavated in it indicated that it was a storehouse (Stager et al. 2008: 321-322).

2.7.13.1. Phase 13 Villa

2.7.13.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The Villa of Phase 13 is a large building measured 15m (east-west) × 19m (north-south) with a spacious court (Courtyard 427), measured 10m (north-south) × 8m (east-west), and surrounded by rooms from the north, east, and south sides (Plan 2.60). The western facade is opened to the adjacent street running north-south (Street 330).

Thicknesses of the walls are varying between 0.75m and 1m. Portions of the Walls 729 and 12 on the east side are extending beyond the limits of the building. Perhaps they were walls of other rooms on this side. At any rate, the northern part of the building contained three broad rooms: Rooms 704, 707 and 706. Room 704 measured 3.90m (east-west) × 2.50m (north-south). Room 707 measured 6m (east-west) × 2.50m (north-south). The dimensions of Room 706 are hard to define. Loci.405 and 431 seemed to have been a single large hall measured 8.10m (north-south) × 2.20m (east-west) and separated by a loose cross-

wall (W406), with a 1m-wide doorway in between (Doorway 409). On the southern side are Rooms 270, 255, and 358. Room 270 measured 6m (east-west \times 2.10m (north-south)). Room 255 measured 3m (east-west) \times 2.10m (north-south) with a circular oven (loc.242). Room 358 measured 2.90m (east-west) \times 2.10 (north-south). In the courtyard was built a rectangular chamber (Room 478) incorporated into its northern wall and a circular oven (Oven 269) near its southwest corner and abutting Wall 246. Dog burials were unearthed in Street 330 and the courtyard as well. All rooms yielded a big amount of pottery vessels (Stager et al. 2008: 283), but the excavators did not define the contexts of each type of these wares. The Villa is separated from a badly-damaged structure south of it by Alley 263 run east-west. To the east of it, there are incoherent walls of other unknown-type structures.

2.7.13.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The Phase 13 Villa was built on the northern slope of the South Tell in Grid 38. Seemingly, the building had more than one entrance: one in the south through Alley 263 and the second through Street 330 in the west. There may have been other entrances in the east. Most probably, the southern entrance was a secondary entrance, and the main gate is that opened to the courtyard from the west. In the plan, no one could assign the locations of the doorways between the rooms. Most likely the courtyard communicated to all chambers.

2.7.13.1.3. Functional Interpretation

As mentioned above, the excavators did not correlate the findings to their exact contexts, which impede any attempt to define the functions of the rooms. Generally speaking, the ovens and pottery collected from the rooms corroborated the domestic nature of the building. The layout is reminiscent of the residences and villas excavated elsewhere in the Levant (see type). In other words, it is justified to define the function of the building as a well-planned and prosperous residential building (residency) or most likely villa.

2.7.13.1.4. Chronology

This Villa was attributed to Phase 13, which was erected in the first half of the fifth century B.C.E., based on the Attic pottery, and was destroyed in the late fifth century B.C.E. to be substituted by new uncorrelated walls of unknown type structure (Phase 12) and dog burials as well. It seems that Street 330 and Courtyard 427 continued in use during this time (Stager et al. 2008: 283-287).

2.7.13.1.5. Type

The Phase 13 Villa corresponds to the second group proposed by Amiran and Dunayevsky, which is an "open-court" building with rooms on three sides. This villa is very identical to Building 736 at Megiddo and Building G of Tell Qasile concerning the general design and the area they occupied (see above).

2.7.13.2. Phase 10 Villa

2.7.13.2.1. Contextual Analysis

The Phase 10 Villa is smaller than the Villa of Phase 13. It is square building; measures ca. 14 × 14m and built mainly of rubble on fieldstone foundations (Plan 2.61). The walls are joined securely by mortar and well-dressed sandstone ashlar set at the corners. The upper parts of the building were constructed of mudbrick. Thicknesses of the walls are varying between 0.80m and 1m. The building composed of two parallel rows of rooms, each comprised of three rooms are Rooms 308, 324, 341, 346, 369, and 321, with a broad hall (Room 256) along their side, and three rooms on the southernmost side (Rooms 229, 225, and unmarked room on the western end). Room 308 measured 3m (north-south) × 2.10m (east-west). Room 324 measured 2.90m (north-south) × 2m (east-west) and contained a circular oven abutting its southern wall. Room 341 measured 2.20m (north-south) × 3m (east-west) and contained a hoard of Greek coins (Obol). Rooms 321 and 369 measured 4.10m (north-south) × 3.10m (east-west) each. Room 346 measured 2.10m (north-south) × 1.50m (east-west). Hall 256 estimated 8m (north-south) × 3m (east-west). Room 225 measured 3m (north-south) × 5m (east-west) with an oven on the northeast side.

The excavators cited that the orthogonal urban planning of the city of Ashkelon had appeared in this phase; as they unearthed parts of three *insulae* intersecting by paved streets associated with stone-lined drainage channels (Stager et al. 2008: 287).

2.7.13.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

This villa was built on the northern slope of the South Tell in Grid 38. Neither the main entrance nor the internal doorways are illustrated in the plan, which impedes any endeavor to describe the planimetric analysis. It is probable that there was an entrance opened to the east-west street north of the villa.

2.7.13.2.3. Functional Interpretation

Regrettably, it is challenging to determine the function of each room because we cannot correlate the unearthed artifacts to their original context as is the case of the Villa of Phase 13. Generally speaking, the ovens refer that there were household activities took place in the villa during the Persian period. The layout of the building and its size corroborated that it was a villa of a well-to-do family.

2.7.13.2.4. Chronology

Judging from the pottery and other miscellaneous objects, Phase 10 has been dated to the later part of the fourth century B.C.E. and the beginning of the third century B.C.E. i.e. Late Persian/Early Hellenistic periods. The fallen mudbrick walls, the collapsed roofs, the burnt floors, and the smashed pottery beneath the destruction layers and ash indicated to an unexpected violent destruction took place about 290 B.C.E. Some Greek silver coins unearthed in Room 341 support this date. Indeed, similar destruction layers were found in Grid 57 (Stager et al. 2008: 287).

2.7.13.2.5. Type

The villa of Phase 10 did not follow a particular scheme knew elsewhere in the Levant during the Persian period, and therefore, there we could not find parallel ground plans throughout the Levant.

2.7.13.3. The Warehouse

2.7.13.3.1. Contextual Analysis

The "Warehouse" of Ashkelon has been partially destroyed. The preserved section measured ca. 29m (east-west) \times 11m (north-south). It contained, at least, one continuous row of five rectangular and equal size chambers aligned from east to west are Rooms 333/299, 323/322, 320, 316, and 205. It is probable that there was one or more rooms at the western end. The first two easternmost rooms i.e. Rooms 333/299 and 323/322 are divided by crosswalls into two unequal size rooms each (Plan 2.62; Fig. 2.86). The measurements of all rooms are 8.25m (north-south) \times 3.50m (east-west). The long and partition walls were also of uniform thickness, which is 0.90m-thick. They were constructed of stones alternating with ashlar in the bottom courses, and the superstructure is made up of mudbrick built up in the "header-and-stretcher" style.

The east-west wall on the north (W294 and W312) is facing a 5m-wide street or courtyard, and is the only wall that had deep foundations while the rest of the walls are set immediately upon a clay layer. The floor level of the rooms is terraced as having a series of steps incrementally increased eastward. All rooms except Room 333 were empty of finds; it yielded storage jars, Phoenician amphoras, black Attic pottery, red-figured lekythos depicting Heracles, black-figured vessels and bone artifacts (Stager and Esse 1986: 4; Stager 1993: 108; Stager et al. 2008: 313-314).

2.7.13.3.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Grid 50 where the "Warehouse" was excavated is the western flank of the South Tell, adjoining the seashore of Mediterranean Sea. Definitely, the building was extending eastward and westward beyond the boundaries of the excavated areas. The open space at the eastern wall of Room 333/299 could have been a doorway or simply was a gap in the wall. No one could emphasize what it was in the light of the absence of detail description. The undeniable entrance is that opened in the southern wall of Room 316 (W60), which opened to an alley or street.

2.7.13.3.3. Functional Interpretation

Although only Room 333 yielded objects and installations, the only reliable criteria for defining the function of the building is its ground plan and the topographical location (see below). The neat and regular arrangement of the rooms in a continuous row and its location near the shore refers to a public storehouse built near the shore for loading and unloading processes. The findings of Room 333 would be considered as another important clue.

2.7.13.3.4. Chronology

This structure was resettled after an occupational gap lasted one hundred years after The devastation caused by the Babylonian in 604 B.C.E. (Phase 7). The next phase (Phase 6) was dated to the late sixth or early fifth centuries B.C.E. Many of the amphoras, Greek, and Attic pottery wares, besides the bone and bronze artifacts unearthed in Square 57 and the northern east-west street or courtyard demonstrated that the occupation continued until the mid-fifth century B.C.E. (Stager and Esse 1987: 72; Stager 1993: 108; Stager et al. 2008: 313-314).

2.7.13.3.5. Type

The storerooms obviously follow the typical "parallel-rooms" warehouse. As several dwellings and storehouse in the Levant, the builders of this warehouse have used the most familiar techniques ever knew in the Levantine coast since the fifth century B.C.E., which are the "pier-and-rubble", and the "header-and-stretcher" fashions (see above). The orthogonal urban plan was encountered elsewhere in other coastal sites (see Shikmona for parallel examples).

CHAPTER 3

ARCHITECTURE OF THE PERSIAN PERIOD IN THE NORTHERN LEVANT

The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate the building remains in the northern Levant that nowadays includes Syria and Lebanon. Due attention had not been paid to the study of the heartland sites of the northern Levant like the southern Levant has received being "The Holy Land." Accordingly, scholars' attention was drawn principally to the periods before and following the Persian period, which has caused a deep knowledge gap. Under such circumstances, the excavation reports have not provided essential data, and the Persian-period sites have not been reported well in the northern Levant.

3.1. THE NORTHERN COAST OF THE LEVANT

The Persian sites in the north of Levant were concentrated mainly on the shoreline that extended from Ras Al-Naqoura on the south to Al-Mina on the north. Besides the sites described in detail below there are other sites with ruined building remains. Tell Kazel in the Safita district of the Tartus Governorate in the north of the Akkar plain contained meager but vital remains as they expose similar familiar construction methods to some important sites. The Persian-period layer is well attested in Area I on the western flank of the tell. In this area, the excavations have revealed a few walls of a complex built of mudbrick on uncut stone foundations. These structures are severely damaged, resembled the beehive and divided into three naves (Dunand and Saliby 1957: 13-14; Gubel 1990: 39-40). Apparently, the masons used the "pier-and-rubble" technique for constructing the walls, and the stones of the piers were arranged in the "header-and-stretcher" fashion. These structures were interpreted as storage facilities intended for export of the agricultural surplus from the city to the outside (Gubel 1990: 40).

3.1.1. *Al-Mina (in English the port)*

Al-Mina is the name given by Leonard Woolley to an old trading station on the northern Mediterranean coast, in the estuary of the Orontes, near present-day Samandağ in Hatay Province of Southern Turkey near Turkey's border with Syria. L. Woolley conducted the first excavations at the site between 1936 and 1937. Since its discovery, it considered as an early Greek trading colony in direct competition with the Phoenicians to the south, founded a little before 800 B.C.E. and ended shortly before 300 B.C.E. (Woolley 1948: 148). Some scholars considered the majority of the merchants of Al-Mina as Greeks in

view of the fact that the Phoenicians had occupied the best ports in the eastern Mediterranean and, therefore, they have omitted the port of Al-mina because of the dangers of shipping at the entrance to the estuary of the Orontes (Rostovtzeff 1941: 88-89; Dunbabin 1957: 25, 27). Too, Riis has cited that Al-Mina was a Grecian emporium inhabited by a mixture of ethnics included Euboeans, Cycladic, Cypro-Phoenicians and Greeks (Riis 1982: 253-255). Based on the Greek-type pottery, the Greeks considered as the principal founders in addition to the Mycenaean, or Aegean, or Euboeans, or Cypriots (Coldstream 1968: 312). The argument that Al-Mina was inhabited by Greeks, because the Phoenicians had abandoned this worthless harbor, is a gratuitous assertion (Elayi 1987: 257). Furthermore, the Level III tombs bore evidences of the presence of the Greek traders, but most of them could be Phoenician (Woolley 1938a: 15; 1938b: 155-157). However, Elayi has suggested that the graves of Level III have no parallel in the burial customs of the Greek World during the classical period (Elayi 1987: 258). In fact, the excavations have proved that only Building H of Level III appears to have contained exclusively of Greek products and the other buildings contained local products (see Building H) (Woolley 1938b: 142; Riis 1982: 246). The careful reading of excavation reports is enough to prove that Al-Mina was not a Greek city in the Persian period; the discovery of Greek ceramics in Al-Mina, despite their abundant, do not constitute proof of the Greek presence in the site; it is not even prove that it was brought by passersby Greek merchants. The classical sources have mentioned that the Phoenician traders could sell the Greek ceramics. As a matter of fact, the objects belonging to the Phoenician culture became numerous in the reconstructed town (i.e. Level III) around 430 B.C.E. in comparison with the level corresponds to a period of establishing it (i.e. Level IV) around 520 B.C.E. and the levels preceding the Persian period alike. The beginning of level III would thus seem to correspond to a significant change in the occupation of the site, probably an influx of Aradians and associated new burial customs and coinage (Elayi 1987: 254, 256, 259, 266). The inscriptions, which are mostly Phoenician, shed more light on the mixture of the Phoenician, Aramaic and Greek cultures around the beginning of the fourth century B.C.E. (Bron and Lemaire 1979: 677-678)

Woolley has believed that Al-Mina in the Persian period or the Greek period, as he called it, had a fortified acropolis surrounded by a town at its foot. The Persian-period structure remains are represented in Levels IV and III (Plans 3.1-3.2). Level III buildings had suffered a severe damage because of denudation and fire, and its structures had been leveled as a prelude to construct a new town in the Hellenistic time (Level II). Moreover, most of Level III walls were rebuilt on the ruins of the preceding architectural phase i.e. Level IV which required disassembling some old walls occasionally and adding new mudbrick walls on stone foundations to prevent the collapse of the walls. Too, the floors were surfaced lower than the stone foundations to cease water accumulation. All walls belonging to Levels III

and IV are made up of mudbrick put on one or two courses of stone foundations of large boulders mixed with well-cut rubble. Since only the foundations that are rising slightly above the floor level have been preserved, it was difficult to determine the positions of the doorways largely. The walls are fairly thick; some of which are exceeding 2m-wide. Nonetheless, the excavator does not think that these walls intended to carry an upper storey, especially that no house contained a staircase. The flat roofs are mixed of layers of matting, reeds and mud coated the compact wooden beams, and the floors were of beaten clay or mud. Woolley believed that Levels IV and III buildings served mostly as warehouses and business premises of the merchants working on import and export between the Aegean region and Al-Mina, and from there to the other cities in Asia using the caravans. Al-Mina during the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. was systematic at the highest levels and its structures were laid out in *insulae* arranged on either side of north-south and east-west, gravel-paved streets or lanes intersecting at right angles forming what has been termed the “Hippodamian” plan of the city. The streets were associated with a drainage system. Woolley thinks that Al-Mina was a Greco commercial area inhabited mainly by the insolvents, port workers, storekeepers, sailors, and some petty trader and inhabited lesser by wealthy Greek merchants who lived in the near town called Sabouni (Woolley 1938a: 9-16, 24). Therefore, the buildings of Level III are better preserved than those of Level IV, and the present author will address all Level III buildings since their layouts are clear enough, whereas the buildings of Level IV are disturbed and their layouts are not recognizable mostly. Therefore, in this stratum the present author will address only the buildings that had clear ground plans, which are: Houses A1 and A2 (Woolley’s House A), Houses B1 and B2 (Woolley’s House B), House D, and House E and the other houses that has been designated by the present author, which are: Houses L, H, G, J and K. The other rooms on the southeast side, in the other hand, are extremely disrupted and thus it is very difficult to distinguish each single building from the other.

3.1.1.1. House F

3.1.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

Almost the entire northeastern part has been demolished which makes it difficult to retrieve its general layout. At any rate, the preserved portions of the building formed eight different sizes and neat rooms. Room 5 seems to have been a courtyard, with a row of rooms at the western end (Rooms 1, 3, 4 and 6), and two side parallel rooms on the north (Rooms 7 and 8). The mutual southern wall of Rooms 7 and 8 made up of mudbrick and was intersecting with the separating stone wall protruding from the eastern wall of Room 6 at right angles and continuing westward forming a long narrow corridor between Rooms 7 and 8 on the east and Room 6 on the west. The southern half floor of Room 1 is cobbled, wherein large jars were found in situ and a circular stone base near the northwest corner. Room 3 contained similar but smaller stone base placed near a stone bench jutting from the middle of the eastern wall. The northwest

wall of the building contained a recess and salient. Room 6 is an elongated room contained a large number of small globular painted flasks (Aryballi) used for perfume or oil.

3.1.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House F was erected in the eastern flank of the town in Squares D-F/8-9, on the opposite side of House E and facing two streets. Due to the enormous damage occurred in the building, especially in the eastern part, it is impossible to assign the exact location of the main entrance and its interior design. Since the building opens to the street, it makes sense to conclude that there has been an entrance from the western side overlooking this street.

3.1.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavator cited that Room 6 was a storeroom of the Aryballi manufactured in Athena (Woolley 1938a: 24). The Athenian-type vessels do not necessarily mean that it was produced in Athena; rather it could indicate that a local craftsman learned how to create it, or rather designed by a Greek craftsman who settled Al-Mina. Room 1 must have used for storage purposes as shown by the large jars found on the paved section of the floor. Generally speaking, House F was a storage facility meant to be a warehouse.

3.1.1.1.4. Chronology

House F belongs to Level III that has been assigned to the reconstructed town between 430 and 375 B.C.E. (Woolley 1938a: 24).

3.1.1.1.5. Type

The building does not belong to a specific type because it is mostly in ruins. We cannot, therefore, to restore the demolished part.

3.1.1.2. House E

3.1.1.2.1. Contextual Analysis

House E is one of the largest structures ever erected at Al-Mina. It contains 14 different size rooms surround an open courtyard or alley from the north, west, and south sides while the east side opens to the street. To the north and south of the courtyard there is a central large room (Room 2 on the north and Room 12 on the south), each flanked by three smaller rooms on either side: one in the east and two in the

west. Rooms 3 and 4 are parallel to the central room while Rooms 10 and 11 are perpendicular. Room 13 had a mud brick floor. The western part of the building is largely occupied by a large L-shaped room (Room 9), with a small square room at its eastern end (Room 14), and Rooms 5-8. Beneath the floors of Rooms 7 and 9 are two stone coffins.

Table 3.1: The excavated findings in Building E of Al-Mina (Level III)

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
542	Not ill.	Bars of silvers	Room 2	(Woolley 1938a: 13)
543	Not ill.	Hoards of silver coins	Room 2	(Woolley 1938a: 13)
544	Not ill.	Fragments of jewellery made of gold and silver	Room 2	(Woolley 1938a: 13)
545	Not ill.	Weights	Room 2	(Woolley 1938a: 13)
546	Not ill.	Necklace	Room 2	(Woolley 1938a: 25, Fig. 9)
547	Not ill.	Attic and Syrian-type “cocked-hat” lamps	Room 8	(Woolley 1938a: 24)
548	Not ill.	Lamp-fillers	Room 7	(Woolley 1938a: 24)
549	Not ill.	Lamps	Room 6	(Woolley 1938a: 24)

3.1.1.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

It seems that House E had a strategic position as it is situated at crossroads of three streets in Squares E-G/6-8. The main entrance of the structure was from the courtyard or alley that opened to the street on the east. Perhaps there had been other entrances through one or both streets on the north and south. The courtyard must have opened to the lateral and back rooms likewise. Unlike the side rooms, there are clear doorways between Rooms 6-7 and 7-8.

3.1.1.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The rooms surrounding the courtyard have been identified as storerooms. Room 2 was a workshop of a craftsman (jeweler) (Woolley 1938a: 12-13). Therefore, House E seems to have been a private productive place.

3.1.1.2.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above)

3.1.1.2.5. Type

There are some petty differences regarding the back rooms between House E and the other "open-court" buildings. The most similar building in the Levant is Building M of Jaffa that has been interpreted as a warehouse (see Jaffa).

3.1.1.3. House B

3.1.1.3.1. Contextual Analysis

House B is fairly large structure. Like House E, it had a rectangular open court or alley (Room B6) flanked by side rooms on either side (Rooms B1-B3 on the southeast and Rooms B7-B10 on the northwest). Backward of the presumed court, there are two broad, rectangular and parallel rooms arrayed in a double row (Rooms B5 and B4), and separated by a crosswall protruding from their common southern wall. Beneath the floor of Room B4 is a stone coffin.

3.1.1.3.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House B was excavated in Squares G-H/4-6 and faces three streets intersecting at right angles. The open court opened to a bypass reached to the adjacent street. From inside, the location of the doorways communicating the rooms is not visible.

3.1.1.3.3. Functional Interpretation

The rooms are empty viz had neither findings nor installations. Nonetheless, its general plan is very similar to the other buildings that have been interpreted surely as warehouses. Therefore, House B served for the same purposes and the side rooms as storerooms and workshops.

3.1.1.3.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above)

3.1.1.3.5. Type

No one can affirm that House B is "open-court" building since Room B6 was a sort of vestibule communicated with the side and back rooms, rather than a court (See House E).

3.1.1.4. House J

3.1.1.4.1. Contextual Analysis

House J is well-planned huge square building. It contains a broad rectangular courtyard (Room J) with a small square chamber (Room J2) attached to its southern wall and side and back rooms. Inside Room J12 is a crosswall extruding from its northeastern wall and extends slightly southwest. Perhaps it was dividing the room into two halves for functional ends. Room J3 yielded jugs (see Plan 3.1).

3.1.1.4.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House J was erected on the northwestern side of the town in Squares D-F/2-4, at the junction of two streets intersecting at right angles. Apparently, a person can enter the building through its broad courtyard on the southwest, which distributed unequivocally to the side and back rooms in turn.

3.1.1.4.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavator interpreted the rooms around the courtyard as storerooms (Woolley 1938a: 12). Room J2 would have the same function of Room A2 in House A of Level IV, namely the office of the tally clerk who checks the count of goods being loaded or unloaded.

3.1.1.4.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.4.5. Type

Room J1 was definitively a courtyard rather an alley surrounded by room from three sides. Indeed, Building 736 of Megiddo and House J are considerably identical. Both buildings have a courtyard flanked by spacious side rooms and a large hall in the rear (Room J8 in House J and Room 737 in Building 736). Too, both buildings have a corner room on a side (Room J11 in House J and Room 1313 in Building

736). The only difference between them is the side chamber inside the courtyard of House J, of which was built to fulfill its duty that was designed for (see above).

3.1.1.5. House K

3.1.1.5.1. Contextual Analysis

The excavator considered Rooms J6, 7, 9 and 10 as part of House J, but that is disproportionate with the general layout of both buildings. Accordingly, the present author considered them as part of House K instead of House J. The plan shows different size rooms arranged in four successive rows, with a large hall on their back (Room K2). Two stone coffins were unearthed beneath the floors of Rooms K3 and J6. Several jugs were discovered in Room K6, and some pithos were found in Room J7 (see Plan 3.1).

3.1.1.5.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House K was erected in the northeastern flank of the town in Squares C-E/4-6. The building opened on two streets intersecting at right angles, and the main entrance must have been through one of them. As the building is extremely destroyed it is not possible to assign the location of the inner doors communicated the rooms.

3.1.1.5.3. Functional Interpretation

House K, in general, seemed to have been a productive warehouse and Room J7 appears to have been a storeroom as indicated by the large pithos laid on its floor.

3.1.1.5.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.5.5. Type

Most of the portions of the building are in ruins causing a difficulty in defining the type of the building. At any rate, House K does not follow a well-known type.

3.1.1.6. House H

3.1.1.6.1. Contextual Analysis

Like House F, the entire eastern part of House H has been destroyed. The current plan shows different size rooms arranged randomly. The western half of Room 10 had a cobbled floor. Rooms 4 and 7 are considerably spacious rooms. Beneath the floor of Room 6 is a grave. In Room 9 the masons have added enclosures. In Room 11 was a great number of different sorts of Greek vessels (Cotylae), of which were a liquid measure, used especially for oil. Rooms 10 and 12 contained several kraters (Woolley 1938a: 24).

3.1.1.6.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House H was erected in the eastern district of the town in Squares C-D/6-8, on the opposite side of House F, and overlooks two streets. The building is on a higher level than the street, and a person can enter the building from Room 1 through some steps built in front of it. Room 3 seems to have been a corridor reaches to Room 4.

3.1.1.6.3. Functional Interpretation

House H seems to have been a well-to-do private warehouse. The enormous number of Greek vessels prompted the excavator to conclude that this productive warehouse owned by a Greek tradesman lived in Al-Mina (Woolley 1938a: 13; Elayi 1987: 257).

3.1.1.6.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.6.5. Type

Like most of the private properties, House H does not fall into any familiar type of structures in the Levant during the Persian period as it is severely damaged and, therefore, its original features have been eliminated.

3.1.1.7. House A

3.1.1.7.1. Contextual Analysis

House A is a large structure consists of twenty-one rooms including Room N1 that the excavator has weighed it as part of House N, but that would not seem probable as it is on the same axis of the adjacent rooms belong definitely to House A. Rooms 8 and 9 appear to have been a central courtyard. A high number of oil-jars and wine amphorae have been found in Rooms 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, and N1. In Room 14, hundreds of Greek storing olive oil vessels (Lekythi) were found in clay bins (Woolley 1938a:

10, 24). The doorjambs of the door between Rooms 18 and 19 are built of two slabs of well-quarried stones known as orthostates (see Plan 3.1).

3.1.1.7.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

It was built on the southeast side of the town at the junction of two streets in Squares G-H/7-10. Room 21 had an entrance opened to the adjacent street. From Room 21 there is a doorway leading to Rooms 9 and then to Room 8 through a wide mutual door. Room 9 reaches to Room 5, and Room 8 reaches to Room 4 that, in turn, opened to Room 3. In the northeastern part is only one clear doorway between the rooms which is the door between Rooms 18 and 19.

3.1.1.7.3. Functional Interpretation

Judging from the findings mentioned above, Rooms 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13 and 14 must have been storerooms intended to save oil specifically. Accordingly, House A was in all probability a large storehouse.

3.1.1.7.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.7.5. Type

Although the building is highly preserved and its general floor plan is very clear and understandable, it could not be typified into any well-known scheme.

3.1.1.8. House N

3.1.1.8.1. Contextual Analysis

House N is a small structure in comparison with the rest of the buildings in the town of Al-Mina. It consists of five rectangular rooms; four of which are arranged in two rows with two rooms in each (Rooms N2, N3, N4, and N5) and Room N6 along their width. Neither installations nor findings have been excavated inside this house. It seems that Room N6 was partly paved with mudbrick as the plan demonstrates. Like House F, the eastern wall of House N contained a recess and salient.

3.1.1.8.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House N is located at the junction of two streets (see Plan 3.1). The main entrance of the building is unclear, and the inner doorways between its rooms are unrecognizable.

3.1.1.8.3. Functional Interpretation

Owing to the absence of the finds and installation, the function of each room could not be asserted. The building, in general, served as a warehouse (Woolley 1938a: 13). The author thinks that there are no clues that could support this argument, and it appears that it functioned as a proper private dwelling.

3.1.1.8.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.8.5. Type

Despite the fact that the building seems to be a pre-planned structure, it has no distinct layout. Indeed, most of the Persian-period private houses have no a specific floor plan.

3.1.1.9. House G

3.1.1.9.1. Contextual Analysis

House G is a huge structure extended along the entire length of Houses J and K and shares with them its northwestern wall. It contains twelve rectangular and square rooms: Rooms G1-G12. Interestingly, the rooms contain no installations. In Room G9 is a small wall protruding from its northern wall, perhaps was a bench. Stone coffins were unearthed beneath the floors of Rooms G2, G5, and G8. Large storage jars were found in Room G1. Room G2 contained jugs. Room G3 yielded clay loom weights. Several bowls were found in Room G9. In Room G10 were found several large jars and amphorae (see Plan 3.1).

3.1.1.9.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House G was erected nearly in the center of the town, and it opens to three streets. Perhaps Room G12 was an open space facing the street like House J, or the entrance was in one of the walls facing the other two streets. From inside, all interior entryways are not visible in the plan.

3.1.1.9.3. Functional Interpretation

Despite the absence of the installations, the finds are reliable to define some rooms' and general function. Rooms G1 and G10 used for storage purposes. Room G3 perhaps was a workshop for textile industry, although this assumption could not be overemphasized as the number of these loom weights had not been adequately explained. Room G12 seems to have been a forecourt. In general, it appears that House G was a wealthy private dwelling of a rich businessperson, whether was a Phoenician or Greek.

3.1.1.9.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above)

3.1.1.9.5. Type

Matching the majority number of the houses excavated in Al-Mina and elsewhere alike, House G does not belong to any common type house in the Persian period.

3.1.1.10. House Q

3.1.1.10.1. Contextual Analysis

House Q is the smallest structure ever erected in the restored town of Al-Mina. The excavator considered it as a four-roomed block, with a stone coffin beneath each room (Woolley 1938a: 13). All walls are equal in thickness. Rooms Q1 and Q2 and Rooms Q3 and Q4 are identical in size.

3.1.1.10.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House Q was erected on the very southeast side of the town in Squares L-M/10. Neither the main entrance nor the inner doors are clear in the plan.

3.1.1.10.3. Functional Interpretation

According to Woolley, House Q was a proper private residence given the fact that each room in the house contained a grave beneath its floor (Woolley 1938a: 13).

3.1.1.10.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.10.5. Type

The layout of House Q has never been encountered elsewhere in the Levant. Although it is a "four-room" house, there is no similar building to it neither in the northern Levant nor in the south.

3.1.1.11. House M

3.1.1.11.1. Contextual Analysis

The building had been vastly devastated, especially its northeastern and southwestern parts. The preserved parts show a building with fourteen square and rectangular rooms in parallel rows: Rooms M1-M14. Neither installations nor findings have been excavated inside the chambers. At least three stone coffins were unearthed beneath Rooms M4, M9 and M10. The stone coffin in Room M10 has occupied almost the entire space of the room.

3.1.1.11.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House M is the furthest building on the northwest side of the town, in Squares A-B/1-3. In the plan, there is no clear entrance neither from outside nor from inside.

3.1.1.11.3. Functional Interpretation

Since neither installations nor findings are illustrated in the plan or even mentioned in the text, the purpose of its rooms is difficult to interpret. In general, the floor plan of House M and the stone coffins underneath the floors could refer that it was a private dwelling.

3.1.1.11.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.11.5. Type

House M does not follow any known type as the majority of the Persian-period houses in Al-Mina and elsewhere.

3.1.1.12. House I

3.1.1.12.1. Contextual Analysis

The excavator considered Rooms 22-32 as part of House A, but this arrangement could not be accepted as these rooms are not on the same axis of Woolley's House A. Accordingly, the present author grouped

them into a single house and termed it "House I." Rooms 32/24 seems to have been a courtyard with stone coffin embedded beneath its floor. The doorjamb of the doorway between Rooms 25 and 26 was built of orthostates. Room 31 contained a big amount of jugs.

3.1.1.12.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House I was erected on the southwest side of the town and overlooking a street, in Squares H-J/5-7. Most probably, the main entrance was on the wall of the L-shaped supposed courtyard. The excavator suggested a doorway between Rooms 31 and 30 (see Plan 3.1). Perhaps, Room 30 opened to Room 32 and reasonably to Room 28 or Room 29. The L-shaped court perhaps opened to Rooms 27 and 23 or at least to one of them. Perhaps the two last rooms must have a common entryway, but this is could not be ascertained. The corner Room 22 had most probably a common doorway with Room 23.

3.1.1.12.3. Functional Interpretation

Room 31 must have been served as a storeroom judging from its contents, and the function of the other rooms was difficult to assign due to the absence of installations and material culture. In general, House I was most probably a house.

3.1.1.12.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level III (see above).

3.1.1.12.5. Type

Room 32 of House I is very identical to Room 9 of House E and both them could be interpreted as a court and integrated with stone coffins beneath their floors. Nonetheless, the type of "House I" is not recognizable.

3.1.1.13. House A1

3.1.1.13.1. Contextual Analysis

House A1 a term given by the author to distinguish it from House A2. The excavator supposed that they were a single building, but the present author weighed the possibility that they were two separate buildings. At any rate, House A1 is enormous building contained of broad courtyard (Room A1) with a small chamber attached to its southwest wall (Room A2). A 1.10m-deep bin was dug into its northeast side (see Plan 3.2). Several rooms are flanking the court from the southeast and southwest.

3.1.1.13.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House A1 was erected on the northwest side of the town in Squares C-D/2-4. Certainly, the main access to the building was through the open side of the courtyard on the northeast side.

3.1.1.13.3. Functional Interpretation

The rooms on flanking the court were storerooms (Woolley 1938a: 13). The building as a whole was interpreted as a warehouse. The courtyard served to unpack and store the imported goods. Room A2 was the office of the tally clerk who monitors the count of goods being loaded or unloaded.

3.1.1.13.4. Chronology

House A1 belongs to the first town that was assigned to Level IV, which was dated from 520 to 430 B.C.E. judging from the pottery associated with its remains (Woolley 1938a: 20).

3.1.1.13.5. Type

House A1 has no a distinct style and could not be typified as is the case with the majority of the buildings of Al-Mina. Although it has an open court, it is inaccurate to classify it among the "open-court" buildings as it does not have the general common features that these buildings have.

3.1.1.14. House A2

3.1.1.14.1. Contextual Analysis

The northwest part of House A2 is completely razed to ground. It seems that it had a double row of rooms; the first row composed of Rooms A10-A15 and in the second row there are two preserved rooms (Rooms A16 and A17). Rooms A12 and A13 are inconsistent with the rest of the rooms as they are not parallel to the other rooms and parted by a perpendicular wall. In Room A15, there are raised courses of stones abutting the southwest wall, perhaps formed a bench. In Room A14 is a block or capital on which an arch rests (impost), of which means that the roof of the building was arched.

3.1.1.14.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The house was erected at the most remote point of the town on the northwest side, near House A1 in Squares A-C/2-3. To the northwest, there is a wall of what seems to have been a wall of another structure, of which would mean that both structures i.e. House A2 and this structure are separated by a lane or

street. Therefore, the building must have an entrance opened to this street. There could be another entrance through Room A10.

3.1.1.14.3. Functional Interpretation

Obviously, the layout and installations suggest a warehouse. Regrettably, there is no material culture local or imported that could affirm this hypothesis.

3.1.1.14.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.14.5. Type

House A2 is the only building in Al-Mina that followed the typical layout of the Persian-period warehouses excavated elsewhere in the Levant, namely the "parallel rooms" warehouses (see Jokneam for parallel examples).

3.1.1.15. House B 1

3.1.1.15.1. Contextual Analysis

In the same previous manner, the author divided House B into House B1 and House B2 because they are two houses instead of one as the excavator has presumed. House B1 is large building composed of Rooms B1-B7. At any rate, it seems that this building is one of the biggest buildings in Al-Mina, but its northeastern part is completely devastated, of which would have formed spacious halls or courtyards. In Room B6 are raised stone perhaps formed a bench.

3.1.1.15.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building under discussion overlooks a street and a lane in Squares D-E/3-4. Definitely, the building is reachable through the cobbled-paved lane between it and House B2 on the southwest side.

3.1.1.15.3. Functional Interpretation

In the light of absence findings and installations except the bench in Room B6, however, we could not emphasize its function. Perhaps it was one of the warehouses excavated in the town, or most likely proper dwelling.

3.1.1.15.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.15.5. Type

The building's ground plan does not help us conclude its type especially that most of its portions are in ruins.

3.1.1.16. House B2

3.1.1.16.1. Contextual Analysis

The house as the present author presumed it contains two parallel rooms (Rooms B9-B10) and a large rectangular room along their back (Room B8). Neither installations nor findings are illustrated in the plan or mentioned in the text.

3.1.1.16.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House B2 is adjacent to House B1 to the southwest in Squares E-F/3-4 and shares with it the lane separating them.

3.1.1.16.3. Functional Interpretation

In the light of absence of installations and material culture, we can adopt the similarity to House N of Level III that has been interpreted as a warehouse, and thus we can, therefore, interpret House B2 as a warehouse as well.

3.1.1.16.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.16.5. Type

House B2 is similar to House N of town Level III in terms of the back broad room with front parallel chambers. It is possible to classify it among the "three-room" houses.

3.1.1.17. House D

3.1.1.17.1. Contextual Analysis

House D is fairly preserved structure contained seven different size rooms (Rooms D1-D7). The southwest part facing the street is demolished. The plan demonstrates that benches are abutting the walls of Rooms D7, D3, and D1. Room D2 had a stone pavement.

3.1.1.17.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The house was erected in the northeastern part of the town in Squares C-D/8-9 and faces at least one street. Most probably, the building opened to the street in the southwest and had an entrance from it to Room D1 or Room D2 or both.

3.1.1.17.3. Functional Interpretation

It is not feasible to define the function of the rooms and the entire building exactly, despite the fact that its layout would refer to a private residential house.

3.1.1.17.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.17.5. Type

The stonemasons of House D clearly did not intend to build it in a specific style or familiar type as its rooms are arrayed randomly without proficiency in design.

3.1.1.18. House E

3.1.1.18.1. Contextual Analysis

The building is partly destroyed in the southwest part. The preserved segments show twelve rooms arranged in four parallel rows with three rooms each. It seems that the entire Room E3 and half of Room E2 had stone benches, and in Room E3 is a stone impost similar to that in Room A14 of House A2. In Room E7 was built a mud-brick platform. The excavator has counted Room E13 as part of the building, and it might be if there was another row of rooms in the empty area north of it, but in the current plan, it is not clear if there were rooms or not. Accordingly, the present author would consider it as part of House H.

3.1.1.18.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House E was erected in the center of the mound and overlooks two streets in Squares E-G/7-8. The building is flanking by two streets intersecting at right angles. Therefore, one or both streets reached to it.

3.1.1.18.3. Functional Interpretation

The grouping of the rooms in rows is evocative the warehouses excavated elsewhere, and thus, most likely, this building intended to be a warehouse.

3.1.1.18.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.18.5. Type

The "parallel rooms" warehouses were well-known in the Levant during the Persian period (see Jokneam for parallel examples).

3.1.1.19. House G

3.1.1.19.1. Contextual Analysis

House G is well-organized building contains nine rooms: Rooms 35-40 and three unmarked rooms in the northwest. Perhaps there were other rooms in the empty area eastward. In Room 37 was placed a hinged stone. In the southwest wall of Room 40 is a projecting and separated from Room 39 by a short crosswall.

3.1.1.19.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House G was erected in southwest part of the town in Squares G-J/4-6. It opened to a street on the northeast and a cobbled floor passage in the southwest.

3.1.1.19.3. Functional Interpretation

The function of the rooms is obscure as neither findings nor installations have been found in them. Generally speaking, the plan refers to a storehouse.

3.1.1.19.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.19.5. Type

Building G of Level IV has no specific type as all storehouses excavated in Al-Mina. On the other hand, we can observe some similarity to Building B of Level III.

3.1.1.20. House J

3.1.1.20.1. Contextual Analysis

House J contains of four rooms (Rooms 31-34), neatly arranged in an adroit manner in a double successive row. The rooms are empty of findings and installations.

3.1.1.20.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House J was built in the southwest part of the town in Squares J-K/4-5. The building could be reached from the cobbled lane in the north. It seems reasonable to assume that the rooms reached to each others.

3.1.1.20.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the layout of the rooms of the building maybe suggests a private dwelling, rather than a warehouse.

3.1.1.20.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.20.5. Type

House J could be typified as a "four-room" house and is very similar to House Q of the town of Level III. As opposed to House Q, in House J, all rooms are identical in size.

3.1.1.21. House K

3.1.1.21.1. Contextual Analysis

House K is well-preserved building and contained seven spacious rooms are Rooms 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29 and 30. It seems that the excavator reconstructed wrongly some walls of the building, specifically the wall between Rooms 25 and 27 and Rooms 29 and 30. In other words, Rooms 25 and 27 most probably were,

in fact, a single L-shaped room, as well as Rooms 29 and 30. Too, the crosswall separated Rooms 27 and 28 do not seem to have been attached to the other side. The latter rooms had circular hearths.

3.1.1.21.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House K was built in the southwest part of the town in Squares H-J/5-7. The building must have had an entrance through the cobbled lane.

3.1.1.21.3. Functional Interpretation

The hearths embedded into the floors of the building would indicate that this house was a workshop designed for manufacturing the pottery.

3.1.1.21.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.21.5. Type

It is one of the other unknown-type structures erected in Al-Mina.

3.1.1.22. House H

3.1.1.22.1. Contextual Analysis

House H is composed of Rooms 3-6 and Room E13. Room 3 is an L-shaped room with an oven built on its floor. Rooms 4 and 5 had a pit each dug into its floor.

3.1.1.22.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The house was built in the southeast part of the town in Squares G-H/7-8. Perhaps the building was reachable from the cobbled lane to Room E13, or through the empty area in the north.

3.1.1.22.3. Functional Interpretation

Seemingly, the building was a dwelling as evidenced by the oven and pits.

3.1.1.22.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.22.5. Type

House H could not be classified to a specific type.

3.1.1.23. House L

3.1.1.23.1. Contextual Analysis

House L is a relatively large building composed of Rooms 1, 2, 7, 8 and 9. Some mudbrick walls have been added to it perhaps after the stone walls were dismantled, or were added to block off the entrances to Rooms 1 and 2, Rooms 1 and 8, and Rooms 2 and 9. In Room 1 was built a small chamber. In the southwest corner of Room 7, there is a pit.

3.1.1.23.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House L was erected in the southeast flank of the town in Squares F-G/8-9. The only clear path leading to the building was in the east from the street, of which may have been reached to Room 7.

3.1.1.23.3. Functional Interpretation

No one could assign exactly the function of House L due to the lack of installations and objects.

3.1.1.23.4. Chronology

It belongs to Level IV (see above).

3.1.1.23.5. Type

Obviously, House L was not built according to a definite scheme as is the case with all houses and storehouses of Al-Mina.

3.1.2. Tell Sukas

Tell Sukas is an artificial mound situated between two creeks, about 6 km south of Jableh northern Syria. A Danish team excavated the site under P.J. Riis between 1958 and 1963, whose excavations demonstrated that it was a “Phoenico-Greek” city (Riis 1970; 1979; 1983). J. Elayi has coincided with this postulate (Elayi 1982: 105).

3.1.2.1. “The Late Greek and Neo-Phoenician Sanctuary”

3.1.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The sanctuary of Tell Sukas is split into five parts are North Court, Altar Enclosure, Chapel, Chapel Court and South Court (Plan 3.3). All these structures were built of well-quarried and rectangular limestone blocks cut out of a nearby quarry on the north, with some small undressed stones (Riis 1979: 33, 37). The rectangular structure that half of it is in Square H7 and the other half in Square G7, however, was most probably the shrine (naos) of the temple. It has been designated as the “Chapel”. It seemed that the shrine was installed inside an open-air court and surrounded by walls from the north, south and west, or perhaps it was enclosed by a covered portico, which was named “Chapel Court” (Riis 1979: 33, 38-41). The space between the shrine and the northern and western walls of the Chapel Court is 0.70-0.80m while the passage between the southern wall and the shrine is 1.60m. The south wall of the Chapel Court is 0.80m-thick, and is severely damaged perhaps because of digging processes of Dump 7 (see Plan 3.3). The northern wall of the Chapel Court is 0.90m-thick × 3m-long. The long western wall extends 0.90m southward beyond the southern wall of the Chapel Court forming the west wall of the South Court. Too, it extended 1.50m beyond the northern limit of the Altar Enclosure forming the western wall of the North Court. To the north of the Chapel is a small enclosure termed "Altar Enclosure" that contains three altars (Loci.16, 17 and 20). Altars I and II (loci.16 and 17) are adjoining the southern wall of the Altar Enclosure, whereas Altar III (loc.20) is incorporated into its northern wall. Altar I is square, made up of two ashlar blocks coated with smooth plaster, and stands to a height of 0.26m with a width of ca. 0.53m. Altar II (Loc.17) is a roughly quadrate monolith, constructed of limestone with a square cavity. Altar III (Loc.20) also has a square shape, built of rough fieldstone and stands to a height of 0.30m with a width of 0.60m (Riis 1979: 41, 43-44, 64). A grayish sacred limestone (Loc.24) also known as “baetyl” was standing at the center of the Altar Enclosure. Immediately northeast of it was dug an egg-shaped pit (Loc.25). The excavator has reckoned that it was a sacrificial pit. Beyond the western wall of the Altar Enclosure two fallen roughly merlons of local limestone have been found (Loci.30 and 31) (Fig. 3.1) (Riis 1979: 45-48).

Table 3.2: The excavated findings in the sanctuary of Tell Sukas

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
550	Not ill.	Lamp spout	L.1	(Riis 1979: 33; Fig. 97)
551	Not ill.	Male limestone statuette	L.2	(Riis 1979: Fig. 99)

552	Not ill.	Portion of female limestone statuette	L.3	(Riis 1979: Fig. 101)
553	Not ill.	Stone figure of a boy in squatting position	L.5	(Riis 1979: Fig. 104)
554	Not ill.	Sherds of a big jar	L.5	(Riis 1979: 36-37)
555	Not ill.	Pot-stand	L.9	(Riis 1979: Figs. 116-117)
556	Not ill.	Pointed bottom of storage jar	L.10	(Riis 1979: Fig. 118)
557	Not ill.	Fragment of a jar	L.14	(Riis 1979: 40)
558	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine depicting a bearded man with headdress	L.15	(Riis 1979: Fig. 122)
559	Not ill.	Limestone statuette	L.15	(Riis 1979: 40)
560	Not ill.	Limestone figure shows lion's paw	L.15	(Riis 1979: Fig. 126)
561	Not ill.	Rimsherd of big bowl	L.19	(Riis 1979: 43-44)
562	Not ill.	Terracotta head	L.19	(Riis 1979: Fig. 134)
563	Not ill.	Three fragments of a large bowl	L.21	(Riis 1979: 44)
564	Pl. 3.1	Stone fragment depicting lion's skin, perhaps referring to Herakles (Melqart)	L.21	(Riis 1979: Figs. 137-138)
565	Not ill.	Bronze nail	L.26	(Riis 1979: Fig. 144)
566	Not ill.	Cluster of pottery	L.27	(Riis 1979: 46)

567	Not ill.	Storage jar	L.27	(Riis 1979: Fig. 145)
568	Not ill.	Bottom of large pithoid jar	L.35	(Riis 1979: Fig. 159)
569	Not ill.	Bottom of large pithoid jar	L.36	(Riis 1979: Fig. 160)
570	Not ill.	Fragments of pointed jars	L.37	(Riis 1979: Fig. 161-162)
571	Not ill.	Pottery sherds mixed with the stones	L.41	(Riis 1979: 51)
572	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine depicting a squatting boy	L.41	(Riis 1979: Fig. 163)
573	Not ill.	Stone fragment depicting part of a human head	L.41	(Riis 1979: Fig. 164)
574	Not ill.	Portion of Torso of human figurine, perhaps a nude woman	L.42	(Riis 1979: Fig. 165)

3.1.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The sanctuary was built near the southern dock with access to two natural harbors: the south and north harbors (Fig. 3.2) (Riis 1983: 509-510). At the northeast side of the mound in Squares G15 and G16 are fragments of another sanctuary, which was termed "The North-East Sanctuary" with a same chronological sequence of the sanctuary under discussion. Regrettably, "The Third Greek Building Phase" or Period G1 belonging to the Persian period is severely damaged, and just a few walls of the sanctuary are still standing (Riis 1970: 88-91; Fig. 33). The excavator cited that the main entrance to the sanctuary was in the eastern part of the Altar Enclosure (loc.26) (Riis 1979: 64). Due to the frequent renovations conducted in the sanctuary starting from 552 B.C.E. until 350 B.C.E., it is difficult to establish the location of the inner doorways. Perhaps each part had its discrete approach from the open east side.

3.1.2.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Generally speaking, the layout of the structures, the altars found inside it, and the statuettes and votive sculptures that were scattered all around the sanctuary corroborate the religious character of the building (see Table 3.2). The statuettes excavated in the sanctuary could be classified into two main groups: (1) human figurines found in loci.2, 3, 5, 15, 19 and 41; (2) statuettes of deities unearthed in loci.15, 21, and 42. The lion's skin and paw often embody Heracles/Melqart, and the nude woman usually appeared to refer to a fertility goddess, most probably Astarte. The squatted boys' figurines are reminiscent of the statuettes excavated at Sidon. It seems that this sanctuary had played the same role of Eshmun Temple at Sidon, namely a protecting and healing shrine (see Sidon). In the Phoenician myth, Melqart protected the sailors, and that explains the presence of his statuettes in a sanctuary dedicated to him. Its location near the harbor was intended to fulfill its intended purpose.

3.1.2.1.4. Chronology

Several architectural phases have been recognized are Periods G, F, and E (Riis 1979: 65; Fig. 221). Period G refers to the Greek settlement starting from the Iron Age [or Early Archaic period in Greece]. It has been divided into three sub-phases (Periods G3-G1). The sanctuary was built ca. 625 B.C.E. (Period G3), but a decade of war from 590 to 580 B.C.E. between Egypt and Babylon brought with it a havoc in the second year of the conflict i.e. in 588 B.C.E. Shortly afterwards, the sanctuary was renovated.

Again, the sanctuary was a victim of Nabonidus' campaign against Syria in ca. 553/2 B.C.E. and the local inhabitants restored it for the second time in 552 B.C.E. (Period G2). The sanctuary continued to be utilized until 498 B.C.E. (Period G1), which has been designated as "The Late Greek Period". Riis relates the destruction of the site to the Greek defeat in 498 B.C.E. at Salamis' battlefield in Cyprus. After a long hiatus from 498 B.C.E. until 380 B.C.E., a "neo-Phoenician" town was constructed on a different plan. The Phoenician settlement was assigned to Period F that was dated between 380 to 140 B.C.E. In this period, the Phoenician settlers renovated the sanctuary and enlarged it. The periods under discussion are Periods G1 and F. The lamp unearthed from the Chapel Court suggested the fourth century B.C.E. as a date for Floor I (catalogue no. 550). Floor II has been attributed to the later part of the third century B.C.E. based on a bronze coin struck in Arados (in Arabic Arwad) that was found beside the east wall of the Chapel (Loc.4). The shared west wall of the sanctuary was constructed by the same date of Floor I (catalogue nos. 551, 557, and 570) and perhaps was destroyed by an earthquake. Floor I of the Altar Enclosure yielded finds from the Persian and Hellenistic periods (catalogue nos. 558-560 and 563-564). Altar III was constructed on Floor II after demolishing of Altar I in the Hellenistic period (Riis 1979: 62-

63). Several finds from the Hellenistic period prove the continuation of using of the sanctuary until that time (Riis 1979: 35-38, 43, 51, 55-58, 62-68).

3.1.2.1.5. Type

The scheme of the sanctuary that is divided into separate sections does not match the designs of the other shrines unearthed in the Levant. The merlons are very similar to those decorated the naos at Amrit and those decorated the massive palaces in Iran (see Chapter 4).

3.1.3. *Amrit (Ancient Marathos)*

Amrit is a coastal site located some 6km south of Tartous Governorate northern Syria. H. Maundrell in 1697, R. Pococke in 1754 and E. Renan in 1860 described the ruins of the city and the temple of Amrit (Pococke 1745; Renan 1864). They have described it as an open-court building with a throne in the middle of it (Saliby 1989: 19). The British explorer Richard Pococke, in this regard, has stated: “To the south of this vale there is a court cut into the rock, with a throne in the middle of it. The court is enclosed by solid rocks one every side, except to the north, where are signs of two entrances. The throne being probably built for an idol worshiped in this court or open temple” (Pococke 1745: 203). The earliest well-organized excavations at the site were carried out under Maurice Dunand in 1926, then in 1954 and 1957 by the latter and others. The "Ma'abed" under discussion was excavated between 1955 and 1957 (Dunand 1944-45; Dunand 1946-48; Dunand et al. 1954: 194-196; Dunand and Saliby 1985).

3.1.3.1. The “Ma’abed”

3.1.3.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The “Ma’abed” of Amrit is a grand building, oriented north-south and measured 56.30m-long × 49.50m-wide. It is largely excised from the nearby solid rocks at the foot of the mound (Saliby 1989: 22) (Plan 3.4: Fig. 3.3). The sanctuary had a large open-air basin, measured 46.70m (north-south) × 38.50m (east-west), with a depth exceeding 3m. The pond was surrounded by a dock or monumental stone porticoes on the east, west and south sides hinged on solid rectangular shafts (Fig. 3.4). These porches carried lintels, also knew as architraves decorated with merlons, and leonine gargoyles served as waterspouts (Figs. 3.5-3.6). Four T-shaped monoliths were placed on the four corners of the porticoes. All these porticoes with their architraves and the monolithic pillars have fallen into the pool (Plan 3.5; Fig. 3.7) (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 10-15, 20; Saliby 1989: 24).

The basin was fed by a local spring of water, and the wastewater discharged into a canal at the northwest corner. Two ditches have been uncovered at the bottom of the east and south porticoes heading to the western wall (Figs. 3.8-3.10) (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 36; Lembke 2004: Taf. 1: c).

M. Dunand and N. Saliby have assumed that the altar in the northern facade was flanked by two square towers in the northeast and northwest corners (Dunand and Saliby 1985) (see Plan 3.4). Lembke has cited that this assumption is baseless in the light of the absence of traces of these towers (Lembke 2004: 21).

In the heart of the pond is a small and well-preserved cuboid shrine (naos). The shrine had a deep rectangular recess at its top faced the north. The worshippers used to insert their preferred deity inside this niche. The naos stood to a height of 5m above the ground level of the basin and crowned with an Egyptian cornice and merlons of the Persian type (Fig. 3.11). The bottom of the shrine is resting on a base excised from bedrock. It had solid barricades on four sides, decorated with an Egyptian cornice and merlons as well. All shrine's interior walls were coated with whitish plaster (Fig. 3.12) (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 9, 11-12, 31-32; Saliby 1989: 24).

The official ritual festivities took place at the entrance of the "Ma'abed" i.e. between the two supposed towers on either side of the altar (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 36). Lembke thinks that the spring of water called 'Ain al-Hayat served as a "holy pool" of the temple as do the holy lakes of Egypt since the Middle Kingdom. In this case, the sacred lake of Amrit was not only a water reservoir and a purification place for worshipers but also was a venue for boat rides during carnivals (Lembke 2004: 30). The *favissa* of the temple is larger than any *favissa* ever excavated in the Levantine temples during the Persian period; it measured 70m-long × 60m-wide and located some 100m west of the "Ma'abed" (Saliby 1989: 24).

The excavations have revealed 456 fragments of votive sculptures made of limestone, clay, and marble (Lembke 2004: 14, 17). Overall, they were found in the *favissa* during Dunand's excavations in 1926. The majority of these sculptures were published in two articles of Dunand in the 1940s (1944-45; 1946-48). Three main types of these statues could be distinguished: (1) figurines of men wearing Egyptian dresses; (2) statues of Heracles-Melqart; (3) bearers of offerings (Dunand 1944-45: 102; Saliby 1989: 24).

Table 3.3: The excavated findings in the "Ma'abed" of Amrit

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
575	Pl. 3.2	Torso of Heracles-Melqart	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand 1944-45: Pl. XX: 21)
576	Not ill.	Torso of Heracles-Melqart without a head	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand 1944-45: Pl. XIX: 16)
577	Not ill.	Fragments of hands	<i>Favissa</i>	(Jourdain-

				Annequin 1992: PL. VI: Divers)
578	Not ill.	Male figure wearing Himation	<i>Favissa</i>	(Jourdain- Annequin 1992: PL. VII: 13)
579	Pl. 3.3	Statue of a juvenile deity (Imhotep)	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XLII: 1)
580	Not ill.	Statue of a worshiper presenting an offering	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XLIV)
581	Pl. 3.4	Terracotta head wearing a pointed cap	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XLIX)
582	Not ill.	Terracotta head Showing Greek influence	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. L: 1)
583	Not ill.	Limestone heads showing Egyptian Influence	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LI: 2)
584	Not ill.	Heads	-	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LII)
585	Not ill.	Lamps	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LV)
586	Not ill.	Bowls	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LVIII)
587	Pl. 3.5	Decorated cup	Basin	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LIX)
588	Not ill.	Corpus of miscellaneous	Northern dock of	(Dunand and

		pottery	the basin in front of the naos	Saliby 1985: Pl. LVI)
589	Not ill.	Corpus of miscellaneous pottery	Basin	(Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LVII)
590	Not ill.	Standing statue wearing Himation	<i>Favissa</i>	(Dunand 1946-48: Pl. XXX: 59)
591	Pl. 3.6	Figurine of "The Persian horseman"	<i>Favissa</i>	(Saliby 1989: Fig. 5: b)
592	Not ill.	Head of a child	<i>Favissa</i>	(Lembke 2004: Taf. 53: e)

3.1.3.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Two rivers were gushing the city are Amrit River to the north near the temple and El-Kuble River to the south. 'Ain el-Hayat (In English: the spring of snakes) is another perennial source flowing south of the temple (Fig. 3.13). Between the northern fairly steep slope of the mound and the southern shore of Amrit River are small, lush lands and caves carved in rock (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 3-4; Saliby 1989: 19). The worshipers had to approach the sanctuary from the open space on the north. Therefore, the worshipers had to face their deity inserted in the niche of the naos before commencing the rituals. To reach the naos, the person had to use a canoe. Interestingly, no dwellings or administrative centers or forts or residences were unearthed in the vicinity of the temple. The nearest site to Amrit was Tell Kazel (see Chapter 6).

3.1.3.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The religious nature of the "Ma'abed" is demonstrated by its plan, the naos, the altars, and the votive sculptures excavated in it and its *favissa* as well. The large number of statues of the god of health Melqart left no doubt that this temple was dedicated to him. Therefore, the "Ma'abed" of Amrit seemed to have been a sanctuary of healing like the temples of Sukas and Eshmun.

3.1.3.1.4. Chronology

The excavators confirmed that the unearthed pottery characterizes the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. (see Table 3.3). Moreover, all statuettes are either archaic or Egyptian prototypes wearing the crowns of the Pharaohs of Egypt. They could have belonged to the end of the sixth century B.C.E. (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 7, 13, 48). Statues of the beardless Melqart wearing lion's skin appeared in Cyprus in the sixth century B.C.E. as well (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 40, 45; Saliby 1989: 22-26). The deity Imhotep (catalogue no. 579) also worshiped in Greece as a healer divinity in the sixth century B.C.E. (Hurry 1928: 26; Dunand and Saliby 1985: 42). Lembke has believed that the temple was built in the second half of the seventh century B.C.E. or the very beginning of the sixth century B.C.E. depending on several arguments: (1) the style of the earliest sculptures retrieved from the basin and the *favissa*; (2) the form of the water spouts that carved into the shape of lion heads; (3) the terracotta and the chalk stone sculptures. On the other hand, she has attributed the fragments of the calcarenite and marble statues to the Persian period (Lembke 2004: 25, 31, 38). As a matter of fact, since the final publication of the site by Dunand and Saliby, most of the scholars have accepted the Persian period date for the temple (Jourdain-Annequin 1992: 36; Counts 2006: 682).

3.1.3.1.5. Type

Generally speaking, the "Ma'abed" of Amrit was an open-air sanctuary. The excavators think that nothing in this temple exhibits western characters. Regardless, Lembke had cited that the temple bore local and foreign elements and ornamentations imported from the Ancient Near East and Greece as well (Lembke 2004: 22-23).

The Egyptian influences are clearly discernible in the grooves incised on the naos (see Fig. 3.12) and the location of the naos upon a pedestal in the center of the basin as is the case of the Blessed Sacrament of the Egyptian sanctuaries. The pillared hall surrounding the basin was a widely common style in Egyptian sanctuaries since the Middle Kingdom. The lion gargoyles adorning the portico is a prototype combine between the Egyptian and Hittite features (Wagner 1980: 109; Lembke 2004: 29, 31, 149). Similar gargoyles were found on the Podium of the Persian Complex at Byblos and near the Astarte throne in Eshmun Temple at Sidon.

Some scholars think that the vast colonnaded porticoes are of the Persian influence since they have been found at Persepolis (Smith 1938: 113; Dunand and Saliby 1985: 12, 21, 31, 36). The battlement friezes also knew as pinnacles or stepped merlons with rectangular blocks resembles the teeth, also known as a "dentil frieze" beneath them, however, were applied principally to the Achaemenid palaces in Iran (see Chapter 4).

3.1.4. *Byblos (in Arabic Jubayl)*

Byblos is located some 35 km north of Beirut. From 1921 to 1924, Pierre Montet conducted the first fieldworks and followed by Maurice Dunand, who commenced the excavations in 1925 and continued to the next 40 years. The natural boundaries of Byblos are the Mediterranean Sea in the west, Mount Lebanon in the east, Nahr el-Kalb in the south, and Ras Cheqqa in the north. Dunand's excavations have outlined that Byblos in the Persian period was a small but self-sufficient and prosperous city (Dunand 1969a: 94-95, 98). The historical written records are rare. Of particular concern are some inscriptions dedicated to Ba'alat.

In fact, the relation between Byblos and Persia at this time seems to have been almost inexistent. Furthermore, Byblos under the suzerainty of the Great King in Persia was consonant with the position of strict neutrality viz it had neither engaged in any war for the benefit of the Persians nor the Phoenician revolutions against them.

The strata corresponding to the Persian period are overlapped as a result of the ceaseless occupation. Moreover, the remains are still largely unpublished.

The port of Byblos was the only entrance of the city to the outside world and, the temple of Ba'alat-Gebal had played a crucial role in the convergence of interests between Byblos and Egypt and expanding the trade and investment under the patronage of their deities: Ba'alat-Gebal of Byblos and Hathor of Egypt. Indeed, several objects and figurines have confirmed the Egyptian influence in Byblos (Elayi 2008: 97-98, 102-103, 105, 107-110).

3.1.4.1. The Persian Complex

3.1.4.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The Persian complex contains a grand podium (no.15) with two preserved protruding corner towers (nos.1 and 10), eight defensive towers (nos.2-9), a ramp (no.11), a retaining wall (no.16), and a restored temple topped the podium (no.12) (Plan 3.6).

The great podium measured 70 × 30-40m, stands ca. 16m-high, and nowadays its surface is covered with grass and trees, which made it difficult to observe traces of the temple that topped it. Only the eastern segment of the podium has been preserved (see Plan 3.6). On this side, there are two massive rectangular towers built of rugged, cumbersome, well-cut stones attached to a solid wall built of the same material of construction (Fig. 3.14). A glacis (no.14) reinforced the bottom of the northwest corner of Tower 1. This

corner was adorned with a protome of a crouched lion made of smooth and carefully-prepared stones (Fig. 3.15). The lowest course of the podium was laid on a plinth projecting from the edge.

In front of the podium eastward there is an “offset-inset” defensive barrier contained eight towers (nos.2-9). The defensive wall is measured ca. $90 \times 30\text{m}$, built of rough medium size stones formed solid walls varying between 1.25 and 2.5m-thick with deep foundations. The topographical configuration of the area determined to a large degree the distinctive layout and character of the towers; they were built with a gradual unevenness in the elevation up to 2m between the southern and northern towers. Too, they are built at regular intervals between each offset and inset⁵ (Figs. 3.16-3.23). Tower no.2 was integrated into the southeast corner of the podium. The oldest tower (no.9) was restored after erecting the defensive wall and the ramp. The new tower was built of equal-size hewn blocks and was supported by a retaining wall (no.16) ranges between 3.6m and 8m-high (Fig. 3.24) (Dunand 1969a: 95; Chéhab 1975: 16).

Between the podium and Tower 9 is a long and wide ramp alongside the podium (no.11) (Fig. 3.25). In the earlier stage, this passage was paved carefully, but it was sealed off later by stone fillings, and the entrance was blocked off by a wide leaf door.

A few meters northwest of the podium in its lower part was a staircase (no.17) of large steps made up of large limestone slabs leading from the slope to the city gate. The city gate is well-preserved with an intact lintel. It seems that it was wooden since no stone abutments were found.

Intact jars have been found in one step of the staircase. Lamps were found on the paved path. Some bowls and two large Greek kraters with red figures on a black background have been found in Tower 9 (Dunand 1969a: 94, 97).

The restored temple is quite large rectangular building measured 42m (east-west) \times 21m (north-south) (882 square meters). The main hall in the temple measured 15m (north-south) \times 26m (east-west) and contains two rows of square shafts; each contained five pillars. The temple opens to the west with a 7m-wide entrance in a sort of two-chambered gate. Both chambers are equal in size, measured 6m (north-south) \times 4.5m (east-west) each. The western wall of the temple is attached to a chamber measured 3m (east-west) \times 5m (north-south), with a 3-wide entrance. In the eastern end of the temple is a large projecting chamber measured 5m (east-west) \times 18m (north-south).

⁵ Tower no.7 is not preserved.

3.1.4.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The whole complex was built on the northeast side of the acropolis outside the Early Bronze Age city walls (Dunand 1939: 72). The entrance to the podium was through a stepped ramp (no.11) between Tower 9 and the tower of the podium (no.10) that was leading to the city gate (see Fig.3.25). To the west side of the podium was opened an entrance the same width of the entrance of the restored temple with a space between them formed a 1.90m-wide passageway on either side of the entrance northward and southward. To approach the temple, the worshippers had to enter first and foremost to the proposed “two-chambered gate,” then to the main hall through a wider entrance and then to the large chamber on the east. All doors are on the same axis, making way for the worshipers to see the entire inner part of the temple even from outside. Regarding the towers of the defensive wall, the excavator has figured out that the towers had entrances from the curtain wall since no passage along it has been recognized (Dunand 1969a: 95).

3.1.4.1.3. Functional Interpretation

Seven meters in front of the staircase to the east was built Tower 10. It is probable that this tower intended to monitor the northern side and the entrance to the city to protect it from the Egyptian invasion during the sequence of wars between them and the Assyrians in first half of the seventh century B.C.E. (see chronology) (Dunand 1969a: 93, 97). Generally speaking, the temple was built in the honor of the deity “Ba’alat Gebel,” as evidently shown by the stele of Yehawmilk king of Byblos. It mentions that the king has reconstructed and embellished the temple of “Ba’alat-Gebal” for the sake of “The Lady of Byblos” (Dunand 1954: 27-41).

3.1.4.1.4. Chronology

This enormous complex as a whole was dated between the second third of the seventh century B.C.E. and the second third of the fourth century B.C.E. The staircase (no.17) and the foundations of Tower no.9 were erected in the first half of the seventh century B.C.E. The retaining wall (no.16) was built in the late seventh-early sixth century B.C.E. The monumental podium and the temple were erected at the same time, approximately by the end of the six century B.C.E., i.e. contemporaneous with the Achaemenid occupation of the region. Indeed, the pottery vessels that found in the restored tower (no.9) and the ramp have been dated to 350 B.C.E (Dunand 1969a: 94, 97-99).

The defensive “offset-inset” wall was established in the late fifth or early fourth centuries B.C.E., as a result of the weakness of the Persian Empire after the death of Xerxes II in 424 B.C.E. and Egyptian independence in 404 B.C.E. (Dunand 1969a: 97-98; Castellvi et al. 2007: 66). The inscribed text on the

stele of Yehawmilk king of Byblos was scripted in the fifth-century B.C.E. Moreover, the king on the stele was depicted in the Persian costume (Montet 1928: 5, 10; Jidejian 1971a: 96-97).

3.1.4.1.5. Type

The temple was identified as an urban sanctuary (Wright 1985: 89). The podium is imitating the Persian podium at Tall-i Takht at Pasargadae and recalls the podium of Eshmun Temple at Sidon (Dunand 1969a: 94-95; Chéhab 1975: 16).

3.1.5. *Beirut*

Beirut, lying about midway between Byblos in the north and Sidon in the south, is one of the most prominent sites of the Phoenician Coast. The rescue excavations in the downtown of Beirut in the 1990s have uncovered a whole district of the ancient Phoenician port. The buildings were remarkably preserved and dated to the Iron III/Persian. The Persian-period houses are in the underground parking of the new "souks" (new commercial center), and the city wall area is north of martyrs square. Beirut was a fishing port and very active trade colony, facing the sea. The excavations are devoted to the urban planning and architecture, and its history since construction in the late sixth century B.C.E. to its likely destruction by an earthquake in the late fourth-early third century B.C.E. The Iron Age III/Persian architectural remains were excavated mainly in sectors A and D (Fig. 3.26). The building remains of the sixth-fourth centuries B.C.E. in Areas B and C were destroyed by the intensive activity of subsequent building processes. Areas A and D (Bey 010) were divided into three terraces termed TI, TII, and TIII, each contained several units. Sector D contained twelve excavated units (U1-12) in Terraces I and II, and Area A had only four units (U13-16) excavated in Terrace III.

The graffiti unearthed in sectors Bey 010 and 039 might reflect that the Beirut in the sixth-fourth centuries B.C.E. was inhabited by a multilingual community, including the Greeks, Phoenicians, and Egyptians as indicated by the names (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: 174, 180, 258).

3.1.5.1. The Settlement

3.1.5.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The excavated settlement composed of five streets (Street RI-V) integrated with a sewerage system run beneath them and *insulae* were built on their both sides. Street RI is 14m-long × 1.75m-wide, run in the north-south orientation, with no traces of canalizations underneath it. Street RII is a stone-paved straight road, run parallel to Street RI, and measured 43.50-long × 2m-wide. Street RIII is parallel to Streets RII

and RI. The excavated length of this street is 12.50, and it stretches until Area C. Street RIV run on the east-west axis and intersects with Streets RI-RIII at right angles. Street RV is parallel to Street RIV and runs toward the port and intersects with Street RI.

Units 2, 3, and 4 were excavated east of Street RI. Unit 4 is also on the northern side of Street RV. In the southeast corner of Room 2.1 of Unit 2 is a rectangular bench made up of small uncut stones. The southeast side of Room 3.2 of Unit 3 is stone-paved. To the west of Street RI were built Units 5 and 6. Both units contained several rectangular rooms built mainly of small fieldstone. Walls M620 and M623 in the western end were constructed of cruelly dressed stones arranged in headers and stretchers (Plan 3.7). Unit 7 contained three rooms (7.1, 7.2/3, and 7.4). Unit 8 had ample and rectangular rooms arranged skillfully in parallel rows. The wall facing Street RII (Walls M628 and M531) was built of irregular fieldstone alternating with ashlar pilasters built of carefully dressed blocks put in headers and stretchers in between. In Wall M580, the masons inserted larger stones between the smaller fieldstone. Wall M425 that stretches east-west on the southern side was built in the same manner of Wall M628/531 (Plan 3.8). Units 9 and 10 also had several vast chambers each. Seemingly, the general layout shows that Rooms 9.4-9-6 and Room 10.5-10.7 formed a separate house, each separated by a wide array (10.8), and the eastern rooms (Rooms 9.1, 9.2, 9.3, 10.1, 10.2, 10.3, and 10.4) formed another single building. Wall M436 was built of well-cut ashlar blocks placed at uneven distances between the fieldstone. The eastern half of Wall M340 was constructed of headers without stretchers, and the western half was built of fieldstone and well-quarried ashlar blocks positioned at different gaps. Wall M526 had also headers without stretchers (Plan 3.9). Units 11 and 12 are the southern end structures, and it seems that they were a single large warehouse viz a separate spacious unit rather than two as the excavators have proposed. Their common southern wall (M250 and 254), which is delimited by Street RIV was uneven in thickness and constructed of irregular small and medium size stones shifting with large stones occasionally (Plan 3.10).

On the other side of Street RIV are the Sector A structures (i.e. Units U13-16). The eastern side of the southern wall of these units (Wall M258) was built chiefly of large stone slabs, and the western portion (Wall W267) was built of smaller stones. Unit 14 contained four large parallel chambers. Unit 13 had five rooms (Rooms 13.1-13.5). In the middle largest room (Room 13.3) was built a small chamber bounded by Walls M364 and M363. Unit 14 is a replica of Unit 13. Unit 15 is delimited on the north by Wall M476 that separates it from Unit 16 and contained five ample rooms (Plan 3.11). In Unit 16, there are several large rooms built of small unhewn stones with some headers and stretchers blocks (Plan 3.12). All walls of these units are equal in thickness (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: 168-170).

3.1.5.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The settlement is an orthogonal town contained three parallel streets run north-south (i.e. Streets RI-RIII) intersected with two straight ones run east-west (i.e. Streets RIV and V). Street IV is the southernmost street and intersected with the Streets RI-III at 90-degree angles. Street V is meeting only with Street RI in the northern end of the excavated settlement and extends eastward.

Street RI opened onto Units 2 and 3 via Room 3.1 and opened to Room 4.1 of Unit 4. Between Streets RI and RII are Units 5-12. Units 5 and 6 are the northernmost buildings, and no doorways appeared in the plan neither through Street RI nor Street RII. Reasonably, there have been doors in the north unexcavated area. In the same manner, the plan does not show doorways opened to Units 7-12 neither from Street RI nor Street RII or Street RIV as it is the southernmost street and delimited by Units 11 and 12. It is possible that the excavators did not reach the bedrock. On the other hand, Street RIV reached to the western end block through a door opened in Room 14.2 of Unit 14. As opposed to the other buildings, Unit 16 has apparent inner doorways.

3.1.5.1.3. Function Interpretation

In general, Sector Bey 010 was identified as a residential quarter. The excavators have recognized three types of the buildings in the entire sector: houses (Units 6, 7, 9, 10, and 15), workshop (Unit 8), and warehouses (Units 13 and 14). The baetyl found in the center of Unit 16 prompted the excavators to conclude that in this locality was the district sanctuary of the residential quarter. In addition to this sacred stone, the excavations have revealed other elements supporting the religious nature of this unit: two stone basins attached to a fragment of a canal and four terracotta protomes of bulls and other women figurines with an outstretched arm holding a weapon that was identified as Astarte. Moreover, the center of Unit 16 is an outdoor court which hints that it there was an open-air sanctuary where the ceremonies hold in it. Room 16.8 served as a junkyard where the pottery vessels gather in it, and Room 16.9 acted as a *favissa*. Room 16.4 seems to have functioned as a dining room, perhaps during the religious rituals (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: 257, 264-265, 269).

3.1.5.1.4. Chronology

The Persian settlement at Beirut was assigned to Stratum IX, which was dated to the Iron Age III/Persian. The Hellenistic and Roman building processes have brought considerable havoc to the city (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: 116).

3.1.5.1.5. Type

The settlement of Beirut is a pre-planned city where its houses, workshops, and warehouses are scattered on either side of the intersected streets. Among the Persian-period settlements that were organized upon the orthogonal urban plan, it seems that Shikmona is the most similar site to Beirut regarding the form of the units (see Shikmona). The methods of construction which are the "pier-and-rubble" and "headers-and-stretcher", however, were commonly used during this period in the Levant (see above).

3.1.6. *Sidon (in Arabic Saidah)*

Sidon is a coastal city located some 43 km south of Beirut. It is enclosed by natural boundaries from all sides: the Mediterranean Sea on the west; the promontory of Nahr el-Kalb on the north; the Litany River on the south; and the mountains of Lebanon represented its eastern border. In the Persian period, Sidon was an open city, in the sense that it had a very powerful presence in trade; besides the Sidonian merchants have traveled widely around the old globe. Sidon was mentioned in the historical Greek sources since the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. During the reign of the Sidonian King Abd'astart I, also known as Straton (365 and 359 B.C.E.), an Athenian decree contains tax privileges was given to the Sidonian seafarers in exchange for protection the Athenian salesmen coming to Sidon (Elayi 2008: 116-117).

In 1901, Macridy Bey conducted the first excavation (Macridy 1904: 7). Between 1914 and 1920, G. Contenau directed soundings on behalf of the Louvre Museum (Contenau 1924: 7). M. Dunand followed him in the following two years (Dunand 1926: 1, 4), who handled the first systematic excavations between 1963 and 1979 (Dunand 1969b: 105-106).

The temple has been designated by some scholars as "Temple-Boy" because of the considerable amount of the statuettes of lads unearthed inside and near the temple (cf. Stucky 2001: 248). In 1973, M. Dunand traced in a comprehensive paper the outlines of the history of the sanctuary (Dunand 1973). Regrettably, the findings discovered in his excavations are mostly unpublished (Elayi 2008: 98).

3.1.6.1. Temple of Eshmun

3.1.6.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The sanctuary area contained complexes of structures dated to the neo-Babylonian, Persian, Roman, and Byzantine periods. Temple of Eshmun was the most prominent structure in this complex. Only a few structures related to the temple were preserved, and the temple itself is no longer exists (Plan 3.13). The earlier archaeologists have attempted to reimagine and reconstruct the form of the temple. The sacred area of the temple consists of an esplanade and a grand open court limited by a huge limestone terrace wall

supports the monumental podium (nos.II and III) -namely the second podium- that was facing north. The south side of it is leaning against the side of the valley, and the east and west sides remained as they have been originally built (Dunand 1966: 103). The podium stands 22m-high, runs 50m into the hillside, occupied an area of 60m (east-west) × 40m (north-south), and was topped by a Greco-Persian style temple (Figs. 3.27-3.29). Apparently, the architects sought to make their temple an esteemed edifice emulating the monumental temples in Greece erected on the Acropolis and the majestic palaces in Iran. The podium was constructed of large solid limestone blocks measured 3m-long × 1m-thick × 1m-high (Fig. 3.30) (Dunand 1973: 11-12). The constructors have added 125 square meters to the western half of the northern side of the podium (see Plan 3.13). The enlargement process can be easily explained as the succeeding classical temple was erected over there (see below) (Plan 3.14) (Dunand 1973: 16; Stucky 1991: 473; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 125, 129, 136).

The first podium (no.I) (i.e. Eshmun'azar podium) had inclined, sharp-angled walls resembles the pyramids, constructed of well-cut stones, and associated with a rampart on the eastern side built of quarried stones as well (Fig. 3.31). The erecting of the first podium was not performed and collapsed very quickly except the northwest corner to be replaced by the second podium mentioned above (Dunand 1973: 11).

The sanctuary is characterized by a series of ablution ceremony basins fed by canals channeling water from the Awali River and the sacred "Ydll" spring [Yidlal]. Dunand has followed the canal providing 'Ain Yidlal with water and found that it brought water from the nearby hills located some 7 km away from the sanctuary (Dunand 1970: 61; 1973: 12; 1983: 515). When water reaches the plain, it flows into these rituals basins, each connected by a small canal (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 129). After the construction of the podium and maybe even after the construction of the temple itself, a 0.85m-deep × 0.50m-wide pipeline that carried water for worship ceremonies was established (no.IV). This canal also served as the *favissa* of the temple. On the north side of the podium was built a complex of three integrated buildings (no.VI: a-c). The building on the eastern end of this complex (no.VIa) is a large pentagonal structure built of tremendous roughly hewn stones (Fig. 3.32). A water canal was dug along its eastern wall and pours water into a basin (no.VI) south of it (Fig. 3.33). On one of the stones of a wall inside the pentagonal structure, the author has noticed a bas-relief sculpture of a horned bull's head (Fig. 3.34). The entrance leading to this structure from the east is ca. 2m-wide with only one preserved course of stones on the north and two courses high on the south side where a large pedestal topped it (Fig. 3.35). To the west of the pentagonal structure is the basin area of the empty throne of Astarte (no.VIb). The

throne is an armchair with backrest standing on a rectangular granite monolith fitted into a niche in the center of the south wall of the pond and guarded by two sphinxes of winged lions (Figs. 3.36)⁶. The throne was associated with a votive inscription devoted to her. In the southern wall of the basin i.e. above the throne there is a sculpted hunting scene representing a jumping gazelle chased by a horseman and on the next stone, there is another scene of kids having fun (Fig. 3.37). Bleachers built of mud were incorporated into the western wall of the basin of the throne of Astarte (no.VII) (Fig. 3.38). The bleachers were intended to give the worshippers of Eshmun and Astarte unimpeded spectacle northward. At the bottom of the bleachers was built an altar (no. XI) (see Fig. 3.38). The last building in the complex (no.VIc) perhaps was a basin (see Fig. 3.38). Further to the west, there is another square basin with a circular fountain at its center (no.IX). A new basin replaced the old one. It was partitioned into smaller basins with terraced bathtubs (no.XII).

Near the northeast side of the podium at its bottom, Dunand has found a large sculptured scene widely known as the "Tribune of Eshmun" (no.V). It was choreographic scene shows Greek deities, nymphs, musicians, and dancers. It stands on a rectangular limestone pedestal measured 1m-high × 2.15m-long × 2m-wide and leans on the first three courses of the wall of the podium⁷ (Figs. 3.39-3.40) (Salamé-Sarkis 1987; Stucky 1984; Will 1995: 199). All its three visible sides are covered by two rows of marble plates bonded to each other and the pedestal by staples. Above this pedestal is as deep and wide seat with backrest and armrests, facing the wall at a distant of 1m. The excavator cited that this seat was neither a throne nor an altar; it comes rather as a pulpit. The pedestal was accessed by a side stairway composed of two or three steps, and the pulpit by a giant stride (Dunand 1973: 16-22). The other installations appeared in the plan are additions from the Hellenistic, Roman and Byzantine Periods.

In the fourth century B.C.E., specifically after the Sidonian revolution, the Sidonians constructed a new temple on the podium next to the Temple of Eshmun made entirely of Greek marble. The looting of rows of the upper blocks of the podium throughout the centuries destroyed all hope of finding the trace of walls of this temple, and thus, the reconstruction can only start from some photographed or drawn architectural elements that can provide us a relatively large degree of uncertainty. The new temple was built in the Attico-Ionic style as it had two columned porticoes both at the front and the rear, namely the short sides with four columns in each portico- a type also known as "amphiprostyle." The drums under the Ionic

⁶ Only one sphinx could be seen and the other perhaps has been removed. The preserved sphinx is looking west toward the entrance from the pentagonal structure perhaps.

⁷ It was transported to the National Museum of Beirut.

capitals are decorated by anthemias composed of lotus flowers alternating with acanthus palmettes (Fig. 3.41). At each corner of the three-cornered upper part of the front of the temple, known as the “pediment” set a bearded Sphinx wearing a flat hat (see Figs. 3.29, 3.42).

The temple was identified as “Persian-Greek” temple; as its external appearance is imitating the Greek style, whereas the temple from inside is oriental (Plan 3.15) (Dunand 1983: 515). The roof of the pronaos is decorated with Egyptian cornice, and the architrave is carried by two Syrian-type columns placed on smooth torus bases. In the rectangular cella, there are two rows of columns with four columns in each row set on Assyrian-type bases decorated with motif reliefs supported the ceiling that made of the cedar wood of Lebanon. Four protomes of bulls carved from limestone are emerging from each capital (Fig. 3.43). Similar protomes of bulls are integrated into the walls of the cella as high reliefs (Fig. 3.44); two protomes in each wall arranged on the columns axis (Stucky 1991: 470; 1993a: 5; 1993b: 263; 1998: 4; 2001: 249; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 135). The columns of the temple were of basalt and white marble with leaf motifs (Figs. 3.45-3.46) (Dunand 1926: 4; Pl. V; Stucky 1991: 469-470).

Immediately west of the podium, there is a cubic block built of large grooved stones and faced north. On its top was placed four protomes of bulls as decorative and supporting elements. It was placed immediately below the ceiling carried by a pillar, which, most probably, was leaning against the neck of the bulls (Figs. 3.47-3.48) (Dunand 1967: 44; Stucky 1991: 470). Dunand believed that these protomes depicted the god Hadad- the supreme deity of Phoenician and Syrians (Dunand 1973: 14).

Macridy missions have yielded marble statuettes of children and Phoenician inscriptions dedicated to Eshmun (Macridy 1904: 7). The soundings carried out by G. Contenau revealed black Greek vessels, several inscriptions dated to the reign of Bodashtart i.e. the fifth century B.C.E., and a portion of white marble votive stele (Uraeus) found sunken slightly beneath the courtyard. It was depicting the sun in the center with two winged serpents have rounded feathers (Fig. 3.49) (Contenau 1924: 7, 19). When the Lebanese civil war broke out in 1975, the findings which include some 2000 fragments of sculptures made of stone and bronze, architectural elements, Phoenician and Greek inscriptions and coins, however, were listed by Mireille Dunand (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 127).

The masculine statuettes can be divided into three groups that reflect each characteristic elements of a certain age. The first group composed of little boys who have not yet reached one year of age and they are sitting or squatting on the floor and playing with a toy or one of their preferred animals (birds, turtles, or puppies) (Plate 3.7). They measure between 0.30m and 0.50m-high. The second group is derived from the first one viz they represented standing children often leaning against a pillar, either naked or wearing a

Himation. The third group is depicting completely naked adults that could be athletes (Dunand 1926: 4; Stucky 1991: 476).

All these statuettes have been found in the *favissa* (Fig. 3.50) (Dunand 1970: 61-62; Stucky 1991: 476). It seems that these figurines were broken deliberately, and then the dedicators threw them in the *favissa* after being dedicated to Eshmun and Astarte, and then they threw down into the sacred canal that was reserved as a *favissa* (Macridy 1902; 1903; Dunand 1970: 62; Jidejian 1971b: 60). Other scholars think that they were crushed after the city was destroyed by the army of Artaxerxes III (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 130). Interestingly, the dedicators have incised their names and ancestors, and then ending with the constant formula: “bless him” or “protect him”. Of particular concern is the marble statuette of the son of the king Ba'alchillem, who ruled in the last quarter of the fifth century B.C.E., as indicated by an associated inscription (Dunand 1970: 61-76; Teixidor 1986: 210; Stucky 1993a: 84; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 130; Stucky 2001: 248). The fragments of about 100 statuettes of children indicated to the character of the healing and savior god (Stucky 1991: 476). Twelve terracotta flasks and small terracotta tambourine were also found (Dunand 1970: 62). Eight ostraca contain personal names have been collected from the bottom of the walls of the podium, especially the west wall (Vanel 1967: 45-95; Dunand 1969b: 101-107).

The other important figurines are the fragments of heads that represented portraits of the satraps as indicated by their pure oriental characteristics (Plate 3.8) and a head of Herakles-Melqart (Plate 3.9) (Stucky 1991: 472, 474). Around the area basin of the throne of Astarte were found thousands of beads attributed to the period that followed the destruction of the temple (Dunand 1983: 516). In front of the throne, many sculpted fragments were collected (Saidah 1967: 163).

3.1.6.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

Temple of Eshmun is located in Bostan esh-Sheikh, some 4 km northeast of Sidon, on an esplanade overlooking the left bank of Nahr al-Awali (Al-Awali River) northward. When the present author visited the sanctuary area in March 2016, it was challenging to observe some installations mentioned in the excavation reports, especially the canals because of grasses and some trees. Furthermore, it is inconceivable to distinguish the layout and the general appearance of the sacred buildings erected on the podium of Bodashtart since it was destroyed during the Sidonian revolt to be replaced by the Ionic temple. Perhaps the two sacred buildings occupied together the surface of the vast podium, which surely could accommodate two monumental buildings (Stucky 1991: 473). In the early twentieth century, the fundamental features of the sanctuary were changed because of the radical widening of the road along the

west side of the podium (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 129, 145). At any rate, dozens of notches in the rock exceeding from the southwest corner of the podium perhaps served as steps leading to the podium in this spot. Dunand has proposed that they were approaching to a monumental gateway termed as “propylaeum” obliquely oriented on the west side (see Plan 3.14) (Dunand 1973: 14). Nowadays, what remained from the temple essentially comprises an enclosure measured 57m-wide × 37m-long, hanging on the hillside in the south-north and facing the river course (Contenau 1924: 10; Dunand 1973: 14).

3.1.6.1.3. Functional Interpretation

This temple is a cultic place dedicated to Eshmun- the Phoenician god of healing and protection. In the Phoenician mythology, healing shrines supposed to heal children or strengthen their fertility by ritual ablutions under divine protection (Lipinski 1973; Stucky 1993a: 29, 56; Xella 1993). The statuettes of the children accompanied with Phoenician inscriptions confirmed that argument (Stucky 1991: 473; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 126). All inscriptions whether inscribed on the podium or those found elsewhere, however, were devoted by Bodashtart to Eshmun and one of them dedicated to Astarte (Chéhab 1975: 17; 1983: 171; Xella and Zamora 2004: 274-275). In all religions, especially in healer shrines, basins attended to purify the visitors and clerics alike before entering holy of holies and also served in the therapy rituals (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 129). In the sixth and fifth centuries B.C.E. Eshmun had not yet specific iconography and, as a young savior and protector god, the sculptors have adopted instead the guise of Melqart, which would explain his statues instead of Eshmun. Indeed, the dedicatory inscriptions incised on Melqart's statues excavated in the *favissa* of the temple of Amrit that were dedicated to Eshmun have demonstrated that the two deities showed similar connotations (Stucky 1991: 474).

3.1.6.1.4. Chronology

The analysis conducted on the oldest votive offerings fixes the date of construction of the first podium to the first half of the sixth century B.C.E. i.e. under the Babylonian dominion. Shortly it was collapsed, and the construction processes did not accomplish. Between 1901 and 1902, Macridy Bey recognized on one of the lowest courses of the blocks of the second podium inscriptions dated to the third quarter of the sixth century B.C.E. (530-500 B.C.E.). The inscription mentioned the name of the founder- the Sidonian king Bodashtart (Contenau 1924: 14-16; Fig. 12; Dunand 1966: 103). Several Phoenician inscriptions that found in the area of the sanctuary and an inscription incised on the sarcophagus of Sidonian king Eshmun'azar II declares that the temple was originally constructed by him and his mother Amoashtart in the last quarter of the sixth century B.C.E. and perhaps at the very beginning of the fifth century B.C.E. (Dunand 1967: 41; 1973: 11-12; 1983: 515; Teixidor 1986: 88; Bordreuil and Gubel 1990: 493; Stucky

1991: 468; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 128; Bordreuil 2002: 106-108; Xella and Zamora 2004: 274; Elayi 2008: 103). The inscription on his sarcophagus states “we have built a temple for our Lord Eshmun in the Yidlal source in the mountains” (Donner and Röllig 1964: 19, 23-25). The ostraca published by Vanel were attributed to the date of construction. The fonts indicated to the period extended from the beginning of the fifth to the end of the fourth century B.C.E. (Vanel 1967: 45-95). Head of Herakles-Melqart was dated to the end of the sixth and beginning of the fifth centuries B.C.E. (Stucky 1991: 474; Stucky 1993a: 17, 68; Stucky 1998: 4; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 130). Based on the stratigraphic context wherein the statues of children were found, the forms of the letters of the associated dedicatory inscriptions, and the stylistic elements such as the performance of the head and body, they can be placed between the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. (Dunand 1970: 61). The portrait of the “satrap” could be assigned to the fifth century B.C.E. as well (Dunand 1973: 16).

Based on the Ionic features, Stucky has concluded that perhaps the Ionic temple displaced the oriental-type temple after the Sidonian uprising that broke out in 362 B.C.E. during the reign of Artaxerxes II (404-359 B.C.E.) under the leadership of Sidonian King Abd’astart I (372-358 B.C.E) (Stucky 1991: 473). Dunand has attributed these radical changes to the period followed the revolt that broke out in the reign of Artaxerxes III ca. 343/342 B.C.E., and thus, he attributed the so-called “Tribune of Eshmun” or “Forum of Eshmun” to the end of the fifth century B.C.E. or mid-fourth century B.C.E at the latest as Sidon was destroyed by the armies of Artaxerxes III after that rebellion. Indeed, all gods depicted in the scene are common types of the second half of the fifth and first half of the fourth centuries B.C.E. (Dunand 1973: 18-19; 1983: 515). Throne of Astarte was dated to the Late Persian and Early Hellenistic Period. The sculptures found in front of the throne dated between the fifth and second centuries B.C.E. (Saidah 1967: 163).

3.1.6.1.5. Type

It seems that the original podium had pyramidal corners predate the construction of the temple itself. The excavator thinks that it imitates the so-called “Ziggurat” and attributed it to the neo-Babylonian period (605-539 B.C.E.) and the monumental podiums erected in Iran since the Achaemenid Dynasty ascend the Persian throne (see Chapter 4). The sanctuary features a wealth of mixture architectural and decorative styles and influences including Greek and oriental ones; that prompted Dunand to designate the sanctuary as “Persian-Greek” sanctuary (Dunand 1973: 14). The protomes of bulls are Achaemenid fashion (Dunand 1926: 5; 1967: 41). At any rate, in Iran during the fifth century B.C.E. the protomes of bulls are often a couple of bulls instead of two pairs as appeared in the Eshmun Temple (see Chapter 4) (Pierfrancesco Callieri: Personal Communication).

The basalt column bases (Fig. 3.51) and floral decorations embossing the columns (Fig. 3.52) are of Greek styles observed in the columns and the door lintel of the Erechtheion erected on the north side of the Acropolis of Athens, Greece around 420 B.C.E, and in the classical temple dedicated to the goddess Hera in Argos, Greece that was built around 410 B.C.E.

The sphinxes adorned the pediment were a hybrid sculpture art between the funeral sculptures of Greece and the architectural bas-reliefs of Persepolis. Similar themes were found in Asia Minor, specifically in Labraunda west of Ortaköy, Mugla Province of Turkey, in the mountains near the coast of Caria (Stucky 1991: 470-472; Stucky and Mathys 2000: 135). The marble column bases were considered as an Achaemenid-type, but they are very different from the Achaemenid column bases excavated at the palaces of Persepolis, Susa, and Pasargadae. There are similar decorative elements of the cubic decorated with protomes of bulls in Xanthos, the site of present-day Kinik, Antalya Province in Turkey (Eichler 1950: 7, tav.1).

3.1.7. Tell el-Burak

Tell el-Burak is located on the southern coast of Lebanon, between Sidon and Sarafand. The archeological site is a large man-made mound stand about 19m above sea level and measures 150 × 120m at its base. The site was surveyed in the early 1960s and the early 1970s under I. Kaoukabani. In 1997, surveys were undertaken jointly by the American University of Beirut and the German Archaeological Institute. The first systematic excavation took place in 2001 by the two institutes mentioned above in partnership with the University of Tübingen (Finkbeiner and Sader 2001: 173-177). The excavations have uncovered complete ground plans of Phoenician domestic buildings (discussed in detail below) as well as an Iron Age fortification wall. Areas II and IV have revealed a 3-4m-wide fortification wall at the foot of a step-trench on the south slope of the tell built of fieldstones with well-dressed ashlar blocks at regular intervals (pier-and-rubble). The stratigraphy of the fortification wall can be subdivided into four phases: (1) phase of construction; (2) phase of use; (3) phase of collapse; and (4) phase of reuse. These stages covered the period from the end of the eighth to the middle of the fourth centuries B.C.E. judging from the ceramics. At the southern end of Trench Area IV has been exposed a 2m-wide badly-preserved wall runs in front of and parallel to the fortification wall at a distance of 25m. The preliminary study of the pottery suggested the fifth century B.C.E. as a date for this wall (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 155-157; 2008: 20-21).

3.1.7.1. Building 1

3.1.7.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The present author termed the building as "Building 1" to distinguish it from the other building. It is well-preserved building contained three rectangular rooms attached to a large rectangular room measured 5 × 3m on the northeast corner (Plan 3.16). It was built of fieldstones alternating with large ashlar blocks at the intersections of the walls and entrances. The rear of the building has been divided into two halves by a cross wall forming two elongated and equal size rooms with a stone-paved entrance in between. All inner doorways of the building are accompanied with doorsills. The doorjamb of the entry opened in the middle of the northwest wall of the front room was constructed of large quarry-dressed ashlar blocks (orthostates). The entrance on the opposite side is off-centre and stone-paved with a partly-preserved threshold (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 149).

3.1.7.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building has been excavated in the western flank of the mound near the seashore (Area III), in a very fertile and horticulture plain. The mound is surrounded by springs of water and vast plantations and has very steep slopes. Its location near the seashore indicates that it dominated the sea trade and a nearby harbor (Sader 1997: 370; Finkbeiner and Sader 2001: 174-177). Except the northwest wall of the front room, there was no fundamental modification occurred on the ground plan of the building during its two occupation phases (i.e. Phases A and B). That wall was reconstructed thrice in a slightly different orientation, and the entrance opened in its northwest wall was downsized as well. The building had three entrances: two of which were opened in the northwest and northeast walls of the front room, and the third one was opened at the northern end of the western wall of the back rooms. From inside, all rooms are connected with inner doors (see Plan 3.16). On the northeast corner of the annex are some steps leading to outside (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 149).

3.1.7.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The layout of the building, besides the contents, indicated that this building served as a private domestic dwelling (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 152-155).

3.1.7.1.4. Chronology

This building gave evidence of a continuous occupational development. The construction stages may be subdivided into two main phases. In the earlier phase (i.e. Phase A) the building is topped a thick layer of the hard soil belongs to the Middle Bronze Age after being leveled and terraced. The second occupation phase (i.e. Phase B) is represented by a continuation of occupation and construction of a new house with two separate rooms (see below). The building under discussion was crumbled in the third phase (i.e.

Phase C) to be replaced by fireplaces and dog burials. The evaluation of the ceramics shows a typological range that assigned the Iron-Age occupation in Area III from the end of the eighth to the middle of the fourth centuries B.C.E. (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 149, 152-155).

3.1.7.1.5. Type

The excavators have cited that this building has documented the early form of the “pier-and-rubble” technique distinguished since the Late Iron Age in the Phoenician architecture (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 149). The orthostates are a sort of decoration style applied to the prosperous buildings, which would indicate that this house was a deluxe dwelling settled by a rich family (see Citadel II of Hazor for parallel examples).

3.1.7.2. The “Two-Room” Building

3.1.7.2.1. Contextual Analysis

The term “two-room” building is given by the present author since it contained two separate rooms. The rooms had different size and built in front of the southwest corner of the previous house. The southeast room measured ca. 3.6 × 2.5m and paved with large slabs of limestone, while the western room is measured ca. 4.5 × 2.7m (see Plan 3.16; Fig. 3.53). In the same manner of the Building 1, this building was built of fieldstones alternating with hewn large ashlar blocks (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 149).

3.1.7.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The “two-room” building has the same geographical location of Building 1. A person can enter to each room through a separate entrance from outside (see Plan 3.16). Both dwellings are separated by a narrow lane.

3.1.7.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The household vessels excavated in the rooms of the building would refer to that the building was a private residential dwelling.

3.1.7.2.4. Chronology

Two architectural phases could be recognized in this building. The first occupation phase (i.e. Phase B) is contemporary with the second phase of Building 1. The occupation of the building continued until the next phase (i.e. Phase C) when Building 1 was destroyed (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 149).

3.1.7.2.5. Type

The building is too simple and has neither extraordinary architectural features nor distinctive decorative elements. At any rate, the "two-room" building at Tell el-Burak is comparable to House 3 at Tell Mardikh regarding the ground plan.

3.1.8. *Sarepta (Modern Sarafand)*

The ancient site of Sarepta is a small low mound rises 15 above the surrounding area and situated on the coastal highway between Sidon and Tyre on the seashore of the Mediterranean Sea (Khalifeh 1997: 488). In 1968, R. Saidah (1969: 134-137) conducted the first exploration at the site, followed by the excavations of J. Pritchard between 1969 and 1974 (Pritchard 1975; 1978). The architectural remains of the Persian period have been unearthed in Soundings X and Y of Area II (Fig. 3.54). The buildings and fireplaces which were uncovered in Sounding X bear obvious signs of having had a special industrial character located near the port. Sounding Y was a residential area located far southward. It contained remains of badly-damaged rooms built of ashlar blocks associated with lamps, bowls, storage jars and beads dated between the sixth and fourth centuries B.C.E. (Anderson 1988: Pls. 38: 13-24; 39: 8). Anyhow, the shrine under discussion has been unearthed in Sounding X (see Page 188) (Pritchard 1975: 1, 4, 13). Stratum B of Sounding Y (6th-5th century B.C.E.) represented a continuity from the earlier period i.e. the Iron Age assigned to Stratum C (850/825 B.C.E.-650 B.C.E.). It contains Rooms 50, 30, 49 and 31 with some installation including a basin inside Room 50, a crusher north of Room 30, a pavement between Walls 307 and 311S, bricks, and plastered and stone floors. Stratum A that has been attributed to the fourth century B.C.E. It had fragments of incoherent walls constructed of well-cut stones, stone, plastered, and cement pavements, and pits (Anderson 1988: 117-128, 423).

3.1.8.1. Shrine 2

3.1.8.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The shrine of Sarepta is one-room building; it has Room 71 that was oriented in the east-west direction (Plan 3.17). The long walls (i.e. W478 and W471) measured ca. 7.50m each. Wall 478 extended 1.10m eastward beyond the building's limits. The east wall (i.e. W479) is ca. 3.60m-long, and the estimated length of the western wall (i.e. W472) is ca. 3.20m-long. All walls are 0.50m-thick and almost they have been razed to the ground except the southern wall, which is still preserved to a height of one course of well-cut sandstone built in the "header-and-stretcher" technique, which alludes that the entire building was built of same materials of construction and same technique. The shrine was remodeled in the second

phase: the fieldstone benches, the offering table or the altar and the sacred stone (baetyl) that were once an integral part of the first shrine (Level 3) were dismantled in the second shrine (Level 2) (Fig. 3.55; Plan 3.18). Too, the cement floor north of the offering table of Shrine 1 was removed by the stonemasons of Shrine 2. The absence of a cement floor in the northwest corner was largely the result of the column that placed in the western wall (Pritchard 1975: 13-16, 21-22; 1978: 139).

Table 3.4: The excavated findings in Shrine 2 of Sarepta

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
593	Pl. 3.10a	Figurine of seated pregnant woman	Room 71	(Pritchard 1975: Fig. 46: 1)
594	Pl. 3.13b	Figurine of nude woman holding her breasts	Room 71	(Pritchard 1975: Fig. 46: 3)
595	Not ill.	Carnelian bead	Room 71	(Pritchard 1988: Fig. 20: 56)
596	Not ill.	Ivory pin	Room 71	(Pritchard 1988: Fig. 30: 2)
597	Not ill.	Fragment of spindle with grooves	Room 71	(Pritchard 1988: Fig. 30: 9)
598	Not ill.	Ivory spoon	Room 71	(Pritchard 1988: Fig. 30: 16)
599	Not ill.	Earring or ring made of silver	Room 71	(Pritchard 1988: Fig. 34: 1)
600	Not ill.	Lamps	Room 71	(Pritchard 1988: Figs. 57: 15, 18; 72: 70)
601	Not ill.	East Greek cup	Room 71	(Koehl 1985: Figs. 12, 23: 251)

3.1.8.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The shrine was built in the industrial area that contained long streets separated them on the south, east, and north. Several contemporaneous workshops associated with large kilns have been excavated near the shrine. Regrettably, we have no clear ground plans of these workshops as they are in ruins. The radiocarbon analysis conducted on the pottery retrieved from the kilns refers to the Persian period (Anderson 1987: 44-47; Figs. 7-8, 14). It has become evident that the excavated area was used for pottery production, extracting colorant and olive oil production. The shrine was overlooking the harbor at the edge of the mound, northwest of Sounding X in Area II in Squares A/B-4 (Fig. 3.56). The location of the entrance was modified twice during the occupation. In the earlier phase, the original doorway was in the eastern end of the southern wall with a width of ca. 1m (see Plan 3.17), as indicated by a 0.85m-wide stone step in front of it. During a heavy rain, the water used to flow inside the shrine as the level of the southern street is higher than the floor level of the shrine. Therefore, the first step towards changing the location of the doorway should have been made. It seems that the new entrance opened in the northern end of the eastern wall as indicated by an extension of the cement floor. Moreover, to discharge the wastewater efficiently, the responsible for the sanctuary dug canals beneath the floor continued to outside (Pritchard 1975: 15).

3.1.8.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The layout of the building and the female figurines excavated in it clearly indicated to the religious nature of the building. The excavator thinks that the building was too small to serve all inhabitants. In other words, it cannot be the principal cultic place of the city. Alternatively, perhaps it was part of a larger temple or a palace on the northern side, which has been partly excavated (Pritchard 1975: 13-14, 38). Furthermore, an inscription found within the shrine has a dedication to the deity “Tannit-Ashtart”; the goddess of love, fertility and sometimes the goddess of war in the Phoenician mythology (Pritchard 1978: 139. 147-148).

3.1.8.1.4. Chronology

Shrine 1 (Level 3) was built on a 1.10m-deep accumulation of broken pottery, pebbles, and sand. The objects that found in Shrine 1 were dated to the eighth-seventh centuries B.C.E. or even the early sixth century B.C.E. Shrine 2 (Level 2) was unearthed at a depth of 0.40m of the ruins of Shrine 1. The figurines found inside it has been attributed to the fifth-fourth centuries B.C.E. (catalogue nos. 593-594). The excavator mentioned that torrential rains in 1972 caused falling off the north balk of II-A-4 with its associated finds and votive objects from Level 3 to Level 2 (Pritchard 1975: 14, 20-21; 1978: 133, 147).

3.1.8.1.5. Type

Shrine 2 of Sarepta perhaps is the purest example that expresses the standard type of the “one-room” sanctuary in the Levant. Interestingly, this shrine is the only sanctuary in the Levant that documented using the "header-and-stretcher" technique for erecting the walls.

3.1.9. *Kharayeb (in English the ruins)*

Kharayeb is located south of Sidon. The discovery of numerous terracotta figurines from the so-called *favissa* led to the first excavations in 1946. In addition to the discoveries of the *favissa*, the excavations have also documented a Persian-period chapel to the east (Chéhab 1951-52). The field works at the site had been suspended for over two decades, until 1969 when B. Kaoukabani resumed the investigations at the site (Kaoukabani 1973: 41). It should be noticed that, despite the destruction wrought both by nature and man to the sanctuary of Kharayeb, it is still possible to study its remains.

3.1.9.1. The Sanctuary

3.1.9.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The course remains of the building showed a rectangular building measured 16.70m (north-south) × 11m (east-west) and contained a central patio (Plan 3.19). The northeast wall was erected on the rocks while the northwest wall is resting on a slightly thick earth layer. Both walls are built of limestone blocks measured 0.60m × 0.30m × 0.20m. The outer face of the walls is coated with a thick layer of robust plaster made of a mixture of lime and sand, which is visible vividly on the southwest wall. Several blocks in the center of the southwest wall are missing causing a wide breach dividing the wall into two sections. The blocks stretched alongside the short and long walls from the inside, besides the partition walls would indicate to casemate rooms formed by the outer and inner walls. The walls are destroyed, and the foundations are partly razed to the ground. Only the northwest and southwest corners still intact while the northeast and southeast corners have been dismantled but their traces still visible (Fig. 3.57). Nonetheless, some well-quarried intact stones of the walls have been assembled from the floor of the courtyard (Chéhab 1951-52: 12, 20; Kaoukabani 1973: 42-44; Oggiano 2012: 6). The *favissa* is just a few meters from the northwest corner of the sanctuary (Fig. 3.58). Inside the sanctuary has been uncovered a door lintel made of soft limestone measured 0.77 × 0.40m, and engraved with a solar disk and two winged Uraeus (Fig. 3.59). Too, the sanctuary yielded an ellipsoid box made of uncooked clay measured 0.65m-long × 0.20m-wide and the lid had become stuck. A fragment of curved terracotta decorated in bas-relief with moldings and ovals was also excavated. The sanctuary is surrounded by a slab-paved forecourt from

all sides measured 58 × 30m. The thickness of the stone slabs fluctuates from 0.20 to 0.30m. Although their shapes are irregular, they are arranged in a regular manner. All slabs are placed directly on the ground (Chéhab 1951-52: 8-12).

Table 3.5: The excavated findings in the sanctuary and *favissa* of Kharayeb

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
602	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a bearded man	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 21; Pl. VIII: 1)
603	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a bearded and seated man wearing a cylindrical cap	Forecourt	(Chéhab 1951-52: 17; Pl. VIII: 2)
604	Not ill.	Terracotta head of a bearded man	Forecourt	(Chéhab 1951-52: 18; Pl. VIII: 3)
605	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a bearded man wearing a cylindrical cap	Forecourt	(Chéhab 1951-52: 17; Pl. VIII: 4)
606	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of man wearing a Persian tunic with long sleeves	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 21; Pl. VIII: 5)
607	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of male wearing a very wide and long dress with hidden waist belt	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 23; Pl. IX)
608	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of headless male	Forecourt	(Chéhab 1951-52: 18; Pl. X: 1)
609	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of offerings bearer	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 24; Pl. X: 2)
610	Pl. 3.11	Terracotta figurine of headless eagle	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 24; Pl. X: 3)
611	Pl. 3.12	Terracotta figurine of squatted Apis	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 23; Pl. X: 4)
612	Not ill.	Terracotta head of harnessed horse	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52: 22; Pl. X: 5)
613	Pl. 3.13	Terracotta figurine of male	<i>Favissa</i>	(Chéhab 1951-52:

		wearing a high tiara flanked by feathers		22; Pl. VII: 4)
614	Not ill.	Terracotta figurines of the goddesses of fertility bearing their breasts	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. VII: 1-4)
615	Pl. 3.14	Terracotta figurines of the god Bes	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. IX: 1-3)
616	Not ill.	Terracotta figurines of monkeys	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. X: 1-2)
617	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of potbellied dwarf	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. X: 3)
618	Pl. 3.15	Terracotta figurines of a man wearing Atef crown	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pls. X: 4; XIV: 3)
619	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a person	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XI: 1)
620	Not ill.	Terracotta figurines of horses	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pls. XII: 1-4)
621	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a raging bull	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XIII: 2)
622	Not ill.	Terracotta figurines of cocks	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XIII: 3-4)
623	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of female	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XIV: 1)
624	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of deities	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XIV: 4)
625	Not ill.	Terracotta figurines of persons bearing lotus flower	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pls. Pl. XI: 2-3; XV: 1)
626	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a warrior	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XV: 2-3)
627	Not ill.	Terracotta figurines of men wearing Egyptian loincloth	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XVI: 1-2)
628	Not ill.	Terracotta figurine of a Greek	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973:

		soldier		Pl. XVI: 4)
629	Not ill.	Lamps	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XVII: 3)
630	Not ill.	Bowls	Forecourt	(Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XVII: 4)

3.1.9.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The sanctuary is located some 3km north of the Nahr el-Qasimiye near Jurat al-Khawatim (Oggiano 2012: 6). It dominates the route between Sidon and Tyre (Chéhab 1975: 18). The terrain of the region is slightly hilly, cut by a series of valleys and controls almost 150m from the plain westward and the course of Nahr el-Qasimiye on the south. This region is unproductive, covered by chalky limestone soil, with a few carob trees and maize crops. The sanctuary was erected near the northern slope of the site (Chéhab 1951-52: 7-8). Since the sanctuary is heavily destroyed, nothing could be said about the planimetric analysis.

3.1.9.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The majority of the figurines came from the second stratum bore Egyptian and Greek influences, and represented primarily the goddess of fertility and the god Bes associated with the theme of the birth. The personage figurines were either wearing the pointed headgear of Osiris Atef or lotus flower, with the subject of the birth associated with deities on the chest, which gives sufficient evidence that the building was a shrine dedicated to a goddess of fertility which relates to Osiris-Isis cycle. In the myth, Isis was the benevolent mother who outlines, creates and nourishes all life, and she personifies the principle of motherhood and source of life, whereas, Osiris is the god of the dead, and the life in his tale comes from death. Accordingly, the sanctuary was interpreted as a cult place or rural shrine dedicated to a mother goddess that would become syncretism Isis-Astarte. This goddess is assisted in its hours of birth by the jester god Bes. The sanctuary in the Hellenistic time seems to have been supplanted by an Eleusinian cult wherein beginning rituals held every year for the cult of Demeter (Kaoukabani 1973: 55-58).

3.1.9.1.4. Chronology

Two archaeological strata could be recognized: the lowest stratum (i.e. the second stratum) has been dated to the second half of the sixth and early fifth centuries B.C.E. judging from some figurines that are

bearing Persian influences found in the forecourt surrounding the sanctuary and in its *favissa* as well. The sanctuary was modified and enlarged during the reign of the Ptolemies in the second phase, as evidenced by the enormous Hellenistic figurines found in the upper stratum (i.e. the first stratum). Those figurines have been dated to the late fourth and early first centuries B.C.E. (Chéhab 1951-52: 159; Kaoukabani 1973: 44, 48, 50-51, 58).

3.1.9.1.5. Type

The sanctuary of Kharayeb is following the “one-room” temples excavated elsewhere (see Mizpe Yammim for parallel examples). The most similar temple to it is the shrine of Sarepta as both sanctuaries had a single room without an annex or treasury of the temple solely. The sanctuary has been identified as a “Mammisi”, in the sense of it was a small chapel attached to a larger supposed temple where the ceremonies related to the mysteries of birth and the mother-goddess held in it (see above).

3.2. HINTERLAND OF NORTHERN LEVANT

Interestingly, in the inland region of northern Levant there only two main sites are Tell Mardikh and Karkemish. Tell Khamis is one of the insignificant sites in the heartland of northern Levant. It is located in Tishrin region of the Euphrates valley. Two principal occupational phases of the Persian period at the site were recognized: Khamis VI and VII. The Persian levels in this site spanned from the sixth to the fourth centuries B.C.E. Both phases yielded severely damaged complex of buildings, paved courtyards and floors paved with sun-dried bricks. The walls were occasionally plastered. The structures were interpreted as dwellings judging from the pottery and other finds (Séiquer 1999: 216-217; Peter et al. 2003: 391). The next unimportant site is Tell Qarqur at the northern edge of the Ghab Basin in the Orontes River Valley in western Syria. The Persian period level is characterized by reusing the Iron Age II gateway in Area A, and portions of a large building accompanied by pottery in Area E (Dornemann 2008a: 46; 2008b: 70; 2008c: 93).

3.2.1. *Tell Mardikh (Ancient Ebla)*

Tell Mardikh is located in Idlib Governorate some 45 km south of Aleppo northern Syria, on the main road leading to Damascus. The mound has an oval shape, measured 900 × 700m and elevates about 15m above the surrounding area (Bermant and Weitzman 1979: 126; Marrassini 1980: 175). During the Persian period, Tell Mardikh was a flourished and developed village (Mazzoni 1984: 99; Matthiae 2010: 366). The enormous amount of loom weights (981 specimens), spindle whorls (62 samples), in addition to the absence of the imported wares, however, afford a clear evidence that Tell Mardikh played an essential

role in the textile industry and had a strong local economy associated with the growth of the agriculture (Matthiae 1984: 347; 2010: 367-369). Mazzoni (1984: 89-90, 92, 98) believed that the estimated construction date of the houses surrounding the Residency is very close from the from the occupation date of the Residency itself.

3.2.1.1. The Residency

3.2.1.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The Residency of Tell Mardikh is a monumental rectangular structure measured $32 \times 25\text{m}$ (800 square meters), constructed mainly of polygonal stones cut from local quarries. The internal area of the building was remodeled twice through two principal architectural phases. In the first stage, which was termed Mardikh VIA 1, the building contained a stone-paved open courtyard (L.2038) surrounded by different-size rooms arrayed neatly in a single row on all sides (Plan 3.20). A series of slow and complicated changes over the years has occurred on the residency between the first and second phases. These corrections were conducted exclusively on the courtyard and the northeast side of the building. On the other hand, the southern and western sectors remained unchanged except remodeling the main facade. In all probability, these innovations had dramatically changed the character of the Residency and its original appearance and therefore, its function as an inevitable consequence. The alterations conducted in the courtyard included erecting inner walls forming Rooms 2008, 2012, 2280, 2038 and 2017 (Plan 3.21). Similar radical changes had also performed on the vast space northwest of the building. It was divided into two unequal-size rooms (undesignated room and Room 2463) by a perpendicular wall extending northeast-southwest (see Plan 3.21). It seems that this wall was dismantled in the third phase. In the southwest corner of Room 2437 was built an enclosure with an oven or pit in a corner and two small pits or ovens outside it (see Plan 3.21). It seems that these installations were dismantled in the next phase (i.e. Mardikh VI3). As mentioned above, the inclination toward dividing the internal design must have been aimed to increase the number of rooms, so as to respond more efficiently to the new requirements associated with the purposes of new services rooms used for manufacturing, processing, preparation and storing (Peyronel 2004: 216). Beyond any doubt, the fundamental alterations conducted on the building over two centuries reflected the development of the urban structure (Mazzoni 1990: 190-196).

Table 3.6: The excavated findings in the Residency of Tell Mardikh

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
631	Not ill.	A head of female figurine made of	L.2057	(Matthiae et al. 1995: 515, Fig.

		clay		497: 5)
632	Not ill.	Loom weights (23 specimens)	L.2057	(Peyronel 2004: LXVII: 1072)
633	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	L.2057	(Peyronel 2004: 427-428, Tav. XXV: 173)
634	Not ill.	Loom weights	L.2020	(Peyronel 2004: CIII, LX, CVI)
635	Not ill.	Loom weight	L.2071	(Peyronel 2004: Tav. CIII: 715)
636	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	L.2071	(Peyronel 2004: XVIII: 132)
637	Not ill.	Loom weights	L.2004	(Peyronel 2004: LVI, LXV)
638	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	L.2004	(Peyronel 2004: Tav. XIX: 141)
639	Not ill.	Spatula made of bone	L.1334	(Matthiae et al. 1995: 516, Fig. 501)
640	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	L.1334	(Peyronel 2004: 414, Tavv. XIV, LXXXVII: 103)
641	Not ill.	Loom weights	L.2038	(Peyronel 2004: XLIX, LV, LVII, LX, LXVII)
642	Not ill.	Fragment of decorated rod	L.2038	(Peyronel 2004: XXVIII: 190)
643	Not ill.	Spatula	L.2038	(Peyronel 2004: XL: 239)
644	Not ill.	Double-rim jar	L.2456	(Mazzoni 1984: 102, Fig. B: 2)

645	Not ill.	Hole-mouth jar	L.2456	(Mazzoni 1984: 102, Fig. B: 8)
646	Not ill.	Loom weight	L.2430	(Peyronel 2004: LXIX, CX: 1169)
647	Not ill.	Spindle Whorl	Square FcVI2iii (= L.2430)	(Peyronel 2004: XXI: 150)
648	Not ill.	Iron awl	Square FaVI3iii (=The undesignated room in the northeast side)	(Matthiae et al. 1995: Fig. 509)
649	Not ill.	Iron knife	Square FaVIIi (=L.1370)	(Matthiae et al. 1995: Fig. 510)

3.2.1.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The Residency had an unhampered view on all sides; as it was erected on the highest point of the northeastern part of the acropolis (Area E) (Matthiae 1977: 51; 1995: 95) and was surrounded by private houses from all sides. The main entrance opened to a street running alongside the village, flanked on both sides by houses and led finally to the entry of the Residency at the eastern end of the southwest wall (Fig. 3.60) (Matthiae 1984: 347). The entrance was a long narrow corridor (L.2020) opens to Rooms 2071 and 2004 on both side and the courtyard as well (Figs. 3.61-3.62). The joint door between Corridor 2020 and Room 2071 was sealed off (Fig. 3.63) (Mazzoni 1984: 92-93, 97). From Room 2004, a person can enter the entire southwest rooms (Rooms 1372, 1370, 1334, and the undesignated room on the northwest corner) (Fig. 3.64). The access to the courtyard from this part was through Rooms 1327 and 1370. Rooms 2043 and 2064 opened to each other, and from Room 2064 the person can enter Room 2430. The latter communicated with the court and Room 2456. On the northeast side, the courtyard reached to Room 2437, 1364, and the undesignated room. The secondary entrance of the Residency was through Room 2437 as indicated by a door socket in its eastern wall from outside, which would mean that the door opened to the outside into another private house or to a street in the unexcavated area (see Plan 3.20).

3.2.1.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The excavator has cited that this building represented a “Rural Residency” (Matthiae 1977: 51; 2010: 368). The huge number of loom weights excavated in most of the rooms helps us imagining the growth of textile manufacturing (Peyronel 2004: 239). Mazzoni believed that this “Rural Residency” served as a fort as well as being a residency (Mazzoni 1984: 89). In the author's view, the private houses around the building refute this baseless and arbitrary argument; as it is simply unacceptable to erect private dwellings around a fortress designed essentially to protect the village and its dwellings. Moreover, the layout exhibits no traces of watching or defensive towers. It is evident that this building intended to serve as a productive place where textile industry engaged in it apart from being a residency. The significant amount of loom weights and spindle whorls indicate to this functionality explicitly. Indeed, the textile works were manufactured at the level of the local economy.

3.2.1.1.4. Chronology

The Residency was constructed on the debris of the Royal Palace E belonging to the older city dated to the Middle Bronze Age (1800-1600 B.C.E.). Three principal architectural phases for the Persian-period building could be recognized: Mardikh VIA 1-3. The Hellenistic and modern strata are mixed with the Persian one (Peyronel 2004: 216). The final phase (i.e. Mardikh VIA 3) is represented by erecting several private houses around the residency, and the devastation occurred in the whole town as indicated by the organic and burnt materials, which would refer to a widespread destruction, took place by the second half of the fourth century B.C.E. (Mazzoni 1984: 98-100; Peyronel 2004: 216).

3.2.1.1.5. Type

The excavators believed that the building's layout is inspired by the monumental buildings of the neo-Assyrians since it follows the “open-court” scheme. Moreover, the building does not bear any possible features characterized the Persian architecture (Mazzoni 1984: 93-96; Matthiae 2010: 368). This building represented an elite building in the site regarding layout, size, the amount of the material culture excavated in the whole area, besides its central location on the acropolis.

3.2.1.2. House 1

3.2.1.2.1. Contextual Analysis

The evaluated rooms of this house are Rooms 2056, 2069, 2024 and 2080, besides two partly-excavated rooms at least. Generally speaking, House 1 is a well-preserved dwelling, constructed of well-shaped and coherent walls that are equal in thickness formed uniformly arranged rooms. The door between Room 2024 and the undesignated room south of it was built of orthostates (see Plan 3.21). A spindle whorl was

found in Room 2056 (Peyronel 2004: 412-413, Tavv. XIII, LXXXVII: 97). Room 2080c contained Attic black glazed cup made of cream clay and decorated with palms Mazzoni 1984: Fig. 23: a-b, Fig C: 13).

3.2.1.2.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House 1 was erected to the southeast of the main street (L.2057). It was overlooking the southeast side of the acropolis toward Area R. It seems that some radical changes were conducted on the interior design of the house; the doorways between Rooms 2080 and 2024 and between the latter and Room 2049 of the adjacent house were blocked off. In the plan, the main entrance to the house was opened in the northwest wall of Room 2056 through Street 2057, as indicated by a door socket inside the room (see Plan 3.21). It seems that this entrance was sealed off later by a short external wall and then opened elsewhere; most probably in the unexcavated section southward.

3.2.1.2.3. Functional Interpretation

The spindle whorl unearthed in Room 2056 is a shred of evidence about practicing textiles, and leatherwork in this house.

3.2.1.2.4. Chronology

The Attic black glazed bowl excavated in Room 2080 is very similar to the base of the bowl excavated in Tell Deir 'Alla that was dated to the fifth century B.C.E. (cf. Van der Kooij and Ibrahim 1989: 107; cat. no. 150).

3.2.1.2.5. Type

The ground plan of House 1 indicates incontrovertibly to the residential nature of House 1, which was inhabited by a small family, as evidently shown by its small size.

3.2.1.3. House 2

3.2.1.3.1. Contextual Analysis

House 2 is a small dwelling built of thick and various size walls with narrow doors. It formed of two rectangular rooms (loci.1328 and 1313) and a passageway or perhaps another room (loc.2025) (see Plan 3.21). The doorjamb between Rooms 1328 and 1313 was built of orthostates. It is not clear if the stones placed at the shared door between Room 1328 and Passage 2025 represented a threshold or blockage. Like the other door, the doorjamb of this doorway was built from one side of orthostate. In the light of the

absence of a sufficient data about the house, it is difficult to interpret with certainty the installation in it. Regardless, the stone line in Passage 2025 running into the doorway perhaps was a canal of water. In Room 1328 were a circular oven and another unknown rectangular installation adjacent it. The short northern wall adjoining the southern wall of the Residency either was a bench or a new wall to support it. A plate of female figurine bearing her breasts was found in Room 1328 (Matthiae et al. 1995: 515, Fig. 495). In Room 1313 was unearthed a spindle whorl.

3.2.1.3.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

This house was abutting the Residency on the southwest side and supporting it as well. In the plan, the person can enter the house through Passage 2025 from Street 2057.

3.2.1.3.3. Functional interpretation

The spindle whorl excavated in Room 1313 indicated that textile operations had been performed in the house but on a limited scale incorporating only the residents, who also performed their religious rituals exemplified by worshipping the fertility of goddess, which its figurine was found in Room 1328.

3.2.1.3.4. Chronology

In general, the female figurines bearing their breasts often represented the fertility goddesses that their figurines appeared abundantly in the Levant between the middle of the sixth and fourth centuries B.C.E. Similar figurines have been excavated in the sanctuaries of Kharayeb, Sarepta, and Makmish (see above).

3.2.1.3.5. Type

The house has no a specific type known elsewhere in the Levant. Perhaps it follows the “three-room” type, which was very rare in this period.

3.2.1.4. House 3

3.2.1.4.1. Contextual Analysis

House 3 has only two rooms (Rooms 2063 and 2496). It was built of thick walls. Room 2063 had a circular pit or most likely an oven and a bench along its southeast wall (see Plan 3.21). The excavations have revealed a loom weight in Room 2063 and a spindle whorl in Room 2496 (Peyronel 2004: LXVII: 1095; XV: 113).

3.2.1.4.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The house overlooked Street 2057 and Lane 2025. Street 2057 separated it from House 1. The main entrance was opened in Room 2063. From inside there is no an entryway between Rooms 2063 and 2496. Perhaps there was another entrance in the unexcavated area in Squares EIV9 or EIV10.

3.2.1.4.3. Functional Interpretation

A large number of the loom weights (total 49 specimens) found inside this building (not illustrated) furnish clear evidence that it had a vital role in the textile industry in the village and contributed to the economic regeneration of Tell Mardikh in the Persian period. Therefore, it could serve as a private or public workshop or most likely a private house.

3.2.1.4.4. Chronology

As mentioned above, all houses including House 3 have been built in the third phase of the Persian-period occupation at Tell Mardikh (Mardikh VI 3).

3.2.1.4.5. Type

Apparently, House 3 follows the "two-room" house. The "two-room" house at Tell el-Burak has quite identical scheme to House 3 at Tell Mardikh (see Tell el-Burak).

3.2.1.5. House 4

3.2.1.5.1. Contextual Analysis

House 4 is a large dwelling composed of Rooms 2094, 2463, 2481, 2217, 2479, and 2411 (see Plan 3.21). It was built of solid walls. Circular ovens or pits have been found in Rooms 2411 and 2463. A short bench was also abutting the eastern wall of Room 2411.

Table 3.7: The excavated findings in House 4 of Tell Mardikh

Catalogue no.	Plate no.	Type	Provenance	Reference
650	Not ill.	Loom weights	L.2481	(Peyronel 2004: LV, LXI)
651	Not ill.	Loom weights	L.2463	(Peyronel 2004: XLIX, LIX)

652	Not ill.	Spindle whorl	L.2463	(Peyronel 2004: 421, Tav. XIX: 142)
653	Not ill.	Loom weights	L.2480	(Peyronel 2004: Tavv: CIII: 732, CVII: 913, CXI: 1178-1179)
654	Not ill.	Double-rim jar	L.2217	(Mazzoni 1984: Fig. B: 3)
655	Not ill.	Loom weight	L.2411	(Peyronel 2004: LXI, CVIII: 809)

3.2.1.5.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

This house is abutting the southeast wall of the Residency. The principal entrance of the house should have been in the lane or the street run to the southeast; most probably through Room 2463. Several modifications to the inner layout were conducted (see Plan 3.21): the door between Rooms 2481 and 2217 was blocked off by two large stones, and it seems that Rooms 2217 and 2094 originally reached to each other, but their shared doorway was sealed off by a short wall. Likewise, in an earlier architectural phase, Rooms 2411 and 2217 most probably were a large single room in the initial layout, and then they had become separated by a thin wall; since it was not erected on the same axis of the projection on the southwest wall of Room 2411.

3.2.1.5.3. Functional interpretation

It could be concluded that House 4 combined between productive functionality and residential purposes, as evidently shown by the loom weights and spindle whorls excavated in it. Namely, it was a private and productive house, where its residents worked in textile works for their livelihoods and sustenance.

3.2.1.5.4. Chronology

The available data either comes from the loom weights, spindle whorls and pottery does not help us figure out the architectural phases conducted at the house. Whatsoever, this house as the other houses, was built in the third architectural phase.

3.2.1.5.5. Type

The rooms of this house are randomly arranged viz they seem not be pre-planned and therefore, they formed an irregular design. Accordingly, the determination of the type of the building is out of the question in the light of the present scheme.

3.2.1.6. House 5

3.2.1.6.1. Contextual Analysis

The house no.5 at Tell Mardikh had at least four rooms: Loci.δ, β, γ, and a room in Square EIVIIiii (see Plan 3.21). Neither installations nor material culture have been found in it.

3.2.1.6.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

House 5 was erected at the southwest side of the Residency. The location of the main entrance is not clear since the entire southern part is unexcavated.

3.2.1.6.3. Functional Interpretation

Due to the absence of installations and findings, we could not determine the function of its rooms, but its domestic character of the building is evidently shown by the layout.

3.2.1.6.4. Chronology

It had the same chronological sequences of the rest of the houses surrounding the Residency of Tell Mardikh i.e. it was built after the main correction on the Residency have been conducted.

3.2.1.6.5. Type

Since House 5 has been partly excavated, no one can retrieve the original layout of the house. More excavations are needed. At any rate, the design of this house follows the general pattern of the dwellings excavated at Tell Mardikh and elsewhere, which is the absence of a typical standard scheme.

3.2.2. *Karkemish*

Karkemish is a hinterland site located on the west bank of the Euphrates River, on the frontier between Turkey and Syria. The site was excavated since the nineteenth century. Since 2011 until the present, the

excavations were carried out by a joint Turco-Italian team from the Universities of Bologna, Gaziantep, and Istanbul under the direction of N. Marchetti on behalf of the University of Bologna, whose recently excavations in 2015 have revealed a Persian-period house.

3.2.2.1. The Building

3.2.2.1.1. Contextual Analysis

The building was partly excavated and disrupted by Roman and Islamic pits and channels. Nonetheless, it maintained its general layout greatly. It is a large well-planned building, built of thin walls that do not exceed 0.30m-thick and erected partly on the southeast debris of an Assyrian palace (see chronology). The building goes beyond the eastern and northern limits. The exposed sectors of the building demonstrate, at least, eight different-size and neat rooms. The largest portions of Rooms 5670 and 5675 are in the unexcavated area (Plan 3.22). The preserved length of the building on the north-south axis is 7.80m and on the east-west axis is exceeding 5m. All rooms except Room 5670 and 5675 are empty of installations. Room 5670 contained a tannur near the northeast corner, and Room 5675 had a bench abutting the western wall. In the area outside the building were excavated a few installations such as tannurs. The findings in the building confined to stone vessels and kitchenware.

3.2.2.1.2. Topographical Location and Planimetric Analysis

The building was excavated in Area C, which is located almost at the center of the mound (Fig. 3.65). The only clear entrance of the building is that opened in the western wall of Room 5694 that opened to the adjacent “productive area” where the tannurs were excavated. Room 5694 reaches to Room 5688 on the east and Room 5689 on the north. The latter had a joint entryway with Room 5671, and from there to the undesignated room east of it and Room 5674. The eastern rooms (loci.5670 and 5675) perhaps had separate entrances from the east unexcavated flank, which would mean that the building was partitioned into two wings: west and east with a separate entry in each wing. Room 5688 perhaps had a shared entrance with Room 5675, but it was demolished.

3.2.2.1.3. Functional Interpretation

The layout, installations and material culture excavated in this house are clearly indicating that this building was a private residential dwelling, settled by a wealthy family.

3.2.2.1.4. Chronology

This house replaced partially the ruins of the Assyrian palace that was destructed, most probably, in the middle of the sixth century B.C.E. (Phase 9c). The Persian-period occupation in the house under discussion was attributed to Phase 8b. The ceramic evidence shows that the house was sometimes abandoned when most of the area has been used as an open space (Phase 8c). A few incoherent walls, floors, and pits from the Hellenistic era (Phase 7) replaced the building.

3.2.2.1.5. Type

The building does not belong to a specific layout knew in the Levant during the Persian rule as with most of the private dwellings excavated in the region.

CHAPTER 4

BUILDING TECHNIQUES DURING THE PERSIAN PERIOD

The practice of architecture is used to accomplish both functional and emotional requirements, and thus, it serves both technical and artistic ends. Despite the fact that these two aspects may be distinguished, they cannot be departed. During the Persian rule, the inhabitants of the Levant did not repudiate the other technical methods known since the old times, rather than they maintained to employ their ancestors' techniques with or without changes. In other words, work has been adapted to the specific circumstances of each site. This chapter describes the methods and art of designing of buildings, as distinguished from the skills associated with construction:

4.1. Methods of Construction

It was not unusual to find typical Phoenician architectural elements in some buildings, in particular, those erected on the coast. The Phoenician stonemasons who located the shoreline did so with foreknowledge and experience. This fact may be linked to the fact that many of these coastal sites were actually under the Sidonian and Tyrian hegemony through the Persian period. The funerary epitaph of Eshmun'azar, King of Sidon, states that the Persian king awarded him Dor and Joppa (Jaffa), the mighty lands of grains in the Sharon Plain (see above). As a matter of fact, the Phoenician techniques and elements did not originate exclusively during the Persian rule, rather than the Phoenician architects knew and applied these techniques since the Early Iron Age. These ways of construction were already known since the Middle Bronze Age. The main construction methods that had been implemented to the Levantine architecture in the Persian period can be classified into three techniques: (1) "Pier-and-Rubble" technique; (2) "Headers-and-Stretchers" technique; (3) Zigzag or Herringbone walls.

The first technique, which is the "Pier-and-Rubble" technique, is characterized by the construction of ashlar piers alternating with fieldstone between each pilaster. The squatters have used this building technique mostly when erecting the domestic dwellings and storehouses. Notably, it was one of the most popular methods amongst the other ones and has been widely reported as well (see Jokneam for more information). It seems that the Phoenician or, rather the Sidonian influence in the Persian period expanded over a vast distance along the coast, from Ashkelon on the southern coast to Al-Mina on the north shore,

and perhaps beyond. The choosing of this technique for erecting the domestic-type buildings would refer to that it was used for aesthetic concerns rather than the defensive purposes. Certainly, the domestic architecture is produced for the social unit: the individual and family and their dependents, human and animal.

In various buildings, the "pier-and-rubble" technique has also been used in conjunction with the second architectural method, namely the "headers-and-stretchers" fashion. The builders used the latter method for construction the ribbed ashlar blocks that are placed between the rubbles (see Tell Abu Hawam for examples). In certain buildings, the alternating courses of headers and stretchers have constituted the whole stone or block walls; in the sense of to dispense with the infrastructure of the fieldstone walls. This kind of walls was encountered in Tell el-Mazar and Tel Deir 'Alla in Jordan Valley (cf. cf. Franken and Ibrahim 1977-1978: Pl. XXXI, 2; Yassine 1988: Pl. III: 1). In Tell Deir 'Alla, the builders set the mudbrick in headers without using stretchers. In Area A Complex at Buseirah, only some limestone walls were put in headers. In Building 1013 of Makmish, only stretchers have constituted the southern section of the building.

It was in Phoenicia that those both techniques innovated for the first time, not in the Iron Age but even earlier as all investigations conducted on the Canaanite/Phoenician coast have shown. These studies have substantiated that Phoenicia was the center from which those techniques spread through the whole Levant, especially the coastal sites, both northern and southern shorelines. In the final phase of the Iron Age and beginning of the Persian period, we have three sites documented the first usage of these methods are Tell el-Burak, Beirut, and Tel Dor. The excavators of Tell el-Burak have claimed that on this site was the first appearance of the "pier-and-rubble" fashion. In fact, as long as all three sites are contemporaneous, we cannot stress whence those methods have spread.

Another defensive-type wall is the "zigzag" or "herringbone" wall type- a technique that ensures self-supported even without using the mortars between the stones. The only sites that had this technique were the fortified storage facilities at Nahal Tut and 'En Hofez. Indeed, the people knew this method since the Late Bronze Age, not the Iron Age, and therefore, Nahal Tut and 'En Hofez were not an exceptional among the Iron-Age and Persian-Period sites. During the author's scientific expedition to Lebanon spanned for three months, he visited the complex of buildings at Byblos and observed this technique on several buildings belonging to the Bronze Age.

4.2. Architecture Typology

In the Persian period, the people knew and used several characteristics commonly seen in buildings and urban places according to their correlation with various categories such as the geographical location, the importance of the site, and its duty. Strictly speaking, the people created or renovated various architectural types based on identified needs, as appropriate and subject to available resources. In addition to the Phoenician styles, other local and foreign architectural types inspired by the Mesopotamian culture have appeared in the Levant.

The casemate-like wall consisted of two parallel solid walls; inner and external walls with several transverse chambers formed by partition walls erected perpendicularly with the casemate walls. In the tenth century B.C.E. such military architecture was established in some sites such as Megiddo (cf. Lamon and Shipton 1939).

The "offset-inset" walls attached to a massive six-chambered or four-chambered or two-chambered gate complex, however, is a fortification system used since the Middle Bronze Age up to the Persian period. In the Middle Bronze Age, both two-chambered and four-chambered gates were discovered in Palestine. The Tel Dan-gate is a four-chambered gate built of mudbrick excavated in the 1980s by Avraham Biran (Biran 1984). This kind of gates has also been found at Hazor, Megiddo, Gezer, and Lachish. In the Persian period, the best example of the "two-chambered" gate is that excavated at Tel Dor, which is a restored version of the "four-chambered" gate belonging to the Assyrian period.

The "offset-inset" walls in the Persian period surrounded the agricultural estate of Tel Mevorakh, the residential quarter of Tel Megadim, the fortress of Ashdod, Houses N and F of Al-Mina, the defensive barrier surrounding the Temple of Byblos, and settlement of Beirut.

The single-and-double-leaf doors which contain a single or two rigid wooden panels have been used in the monumental palaces at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar and Hazor. They also employed as a sort of fortification gates at the city-gate area at Tel Dor (Area B) and the Persian Complex at Byblos.

The monumental podiums in the Persian period are imitating the Ziggurat of the Neo-Sumerian Dynasty at Ur that was built during the Early Bronze Age. The Ziggurat was established in the form of flat rectangular platform, having the design of a terraced step pyramid of successively decreasing stories or levels. In the Persian period, we have only two monumental temples topped Ziggurat-like structures are the temple of Byblos and Eshmun Temple at Sidon. Obviously, these massive podiums recall the podium at Tall-i Takht "throne hill" at the northeast end of Pasargadae, which probably dates to the reign of Cyrus

the Great (559-530 B.C.E.) (Fig. 4.1) (Pierfrancesco Callieri: Personal Communication). The impressive western wall of this podium made of carefully carved stones similar to the stones of the podium of Eshmun Temple and the podium of the Persian Complex at Byblos. Too, they are analogous to the terraces of Masjid-i-Sulaiman now dated to the fourth century B.C.E. and situated in the Zagros Mountains of southwest Iran (Dunand 1973: 11, 14; 1983: 515; Wright 1985: 97).

In Buseirah, the Areas A and C Complexes were built partially on stone platforms but are not equal to the podiums erected at Sidon and Byblos regarding the quality of materials of construction, the elegance, and soaring high.

4.3. Materials of Construction

The mudbrick was the most commonly used for the Persian-period buildings because it is accessible, durable, and efficient. The mudbrick walls were usually erected directly on bedrock and occasionally on stone foundations. The mudbrick often used when erecting the monumental palaces and residences such as the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh, the palace of Buseirah, the palace of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar, the Palace of Lachish, Fort A and Palace B of Tell Jemmeh, the sanctuary of Makmish, the fortress of Ashdod, and Villa o Ashkelon (Phase 10). The less prominent buildings were built chiefly of sandstone (kurkar) and boulders- both hewn and undressed.

Using the lime plaster for coating the walls and floors was an element of lavishness in that period as it was not widely used. It confined only to some palaces and temples such as the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh, Building 234 of Tell el-Jurn, the palace and temple of Buseirah, the palace of Ayyelet ha-Shahar, Palace and Temple of Lachish, Area D Building at Ya'oz, the "Ma'abed" of Amrit, and the temple of Kharayeb.

The arid climate and high temperature at Jordan Valley urged the stonemasons using wooden roofs in the two monumental buildings erected in Tell es-Sa'idiyeh and Tell el-Jurn. Alternatively, rather, the wooden roof would have been an aesthetic aspect in the mentality of the Levantines in that period. The roofs of the massive palaces of Darius I at Susa and Persepolis, however, made up of wooden beams leaning against the shared structure of the pair of bulls (see below). Hence, perhaps the Levantine architects desired to revive this method in their prestigious edifices.

The "terre pisée" or in English "rammed earth" method of construction appeared in the Levant for the first time in the Iron Age. It is a technique for building walls using natural raw materials. This technique is an old-fashioned construction style that ensures the stability of the walls. Rammed-earth walls are simple to

construct, noncombustible, thermally massive, strong, and durable (Fleming et al. 1980). In the Persian period, we have only one example of this technique which is the palace at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar.

4.4. Architectural Ornaments

There are only a few sites in the Levant revealed pure architectural ornaments inspired by the monumental palaces in Fars itself. Usually, these ornaments are occasionally mixed with oriental and Greek influences. In Sidon has appeared the Egyptian cornice on the architrave, besides the basalt and marble Assyrian-and-Syrian-type torus smooth column bases. In the Palace of Lachish, the stone-made and torus column drums placed in front of the colonnaded porticoes are very similar to the column bases found in the “Residential Palace” of Cyrus II at Pasargadae (Fig. 4.2), and the smooth column bases at Sidon. The columned portico was also found in the Area A complex of Buseirah.

The Greece elements are represented by the triangular facade of the temples knew as pediments and the flowerlike decoration on the drums under the Ionic capitals. The sphinxes on the pediment are of an Achaemenid prototype. Therefore, Temple of Eshmun combines the form of the most familiar temples in Athens and the Achaemenid sculptures in Persepolis.

The protomes of bulls are pure Achaemenid types. The bull-capitals have a Persian origin appeared for the first time in the Palaces of Darius I at Persepolis and Susa established at the beginning of the fifth-century B.C.E. (Fig. 4.3). In the Palaces of Darius in Iran, the bulls’ capitals are more elaborate than the bulls’ capitals at the Temple of Eshmun. The common feature between the protomes of bulls in Sidon and the Palaces of Darius I at Susa and Persepolis is that they were portrayed in crouched positions with significant variations in details. In Iran, there are dozens of such capitals carried by fluted shafts in the audience halls, knew as Apadana or the hypostyle halls as a dense forest of columns where the king would greet visitors. They give a sense of the scale of the royal architecture of this dynasty and the power of the Persians. The capital shaped in the form of double-headed and kneeling bulls towering above the visitors and supported a very high wooden roof. The two bulls are attached to a single structure, with only the heads and the front part of the bodies doubled. The bulls show a high degree of delicacy. On the bulls has appeared patterning of the curls of the fur, especially on their breasts. They had elongated pointed horns, long skillfully prepared ears, hoofs, and nostrils, elongated and thick necks, and the chin is unattached to the breast. The bulls are topped massive columns similar to the Ionic architecture from Ancient Greece. Below the bulls is an additional capital and then below it would have been the shaft of the columns itself with a base.

In the Temple of Eshmun at Sidon, each capital had four bulls' heads (see Fig. 3.43). The bulls had tiny, clumsy ears and hoofs, short spiral horns, hidden nostril, and heads without neck and the chin is stuck into the body. The bodies of the bulls had no any patterning, and they are carved from a block of stone.

Another paramount feature of the Persian period is the pinnacles or the stepped merlons. The merlons decorations in the Levantine architecture during the Persian period, however, used to have been a decorative motif in the religious buildings, not the palatial edifices as with the Achaemenid palaces in Persepolis and Susa. The merlons decorated the eastern stairwell of the Apadana at the Palace of Darius I at Persepolis each had four stepped right-angled steps, equal in depth and high with a niche in the bottom center. This recess contained two successive and deep holes located directly under the last step at a high less than the second one (Fig. 4.4). The merlons ornamented the peak and the foot of the shrine of the temple of Amrit each had four stepped steps ascending at right angles. The steps have equal shallow depths and low highs. At the bottom of the steps, there are two lateral niches instead of one in the center (see Fig. 3.5). The merlons in the palace of Persepolis are separated by equal distances one from the other, but the pinnacles in Amrit are attached. The pinnacles found at Tell Sukas contained each three steps. These stepped steps were of unequal depths and highs (see Fig. 3.1). Obviously, the Persian merlons, however, are more elegant and detailed than the merlons decorated the shrine of the temple at Amrit and those found on the ground of the sanctuary of Tell Sukas. It seemed that the craftsmen performed the shrine of Amrit have introduced their innovation and style.

Regarding the origin of the pinnacles, G. Garbini (1958) in a brief study dedicated to tracing the first appearance of the pinnacles in the ancient world, he shed new lights on the source of this decorative and architectural design. In fact, the first appearance of the stepped merlons was in the Elamite seal imprints that were found at Susa dating back to ca. 3000 B.C.E. (cf. Legrain 1921: no. 263). Garbini thinks that these pinnacles in the beginning were neither conceived as architectural element nor a decoration motif, but a religious conception indicates to stairway to the heaven or the sacred mountain.

These pinnacles also had four triangles steps. From Susa, this religious connotation began to spread all over the ancient world eastward and westward, including northern Syria when it was occupied by the Aramaeans in the first millennium B.C.E. (Garbini 1958: 85-91).

The leonine waterspouts ornamenting the portico of the "Ma'abed" are extremely similar to the lion sculpture on the podium of the Persian Complex at Byblos. The lions' sculptures in Fars adorned the walls of palaces of Darius and Xerxes at Persepolis, however, would indicate that the Levantine leonine

sculptures have a Persian origin. However, the leonine sculptures found at Sidon, Byblos and Amrit do not manifest the craftsmanship of the Iranian ones.

The orthostates are rectangular stone blocks greater in height than depth, stand upright and they are usually built into either side of a doorjamb. It seems that the builders seek more elegance and luxury of the buildings- both privates and publics.

Using pairs of pilasters protruding slightly from the walls forming end spaces could be considered as an unessential element but adopted as a decoration style in the sumptuous palaces such as the Palace of Lachish and Citadel II of Beth-Zur.

The barrel-vaulted roof, the pillared porticoes, the bathrooms associated with sewerage systems, and the lavish columns standing on circular bases above stepped square plinths, however, were the rarest elements in the Persian-period architecture in the Levant. It seems that the Levantines sought to imitate the massive palaces in Iran through adoption high-cost raw material or labor content.

The symbol of the divine rearing cobra widely known as Uraeus was an emblem of sovereignty engraved on the forehead in most royal headdresses of the Egyptian Pharaohs as an ornament and a religious icon. In the Levant, this figure was applied to the faith-based architecture rather than the personal headgears as a direct and pure Egyptian impact. Two sanctuaries in the Levant contained this symbol are Eshmun Temple at Sidon and temple of Kharayeb.

CHAPTER 5

BUILDING TYPES AND URBAN SPACE USE IN THE LEVANT DURING THE PERSIAN PERIOD

This chapter consists of two sections: in the first part, the author will investigate the types of the Persian-period buildings excavated in the whole Levant. The second part highlights the characteristics of the settlements with their intersecting streets, squares, and buildings; in the sense of describes the art of ordering the use of land and settings of buildings and communication streets to meet the various needs such as social, culture and economic. In a few words, it means the organization of all elements of a town or city. Each building type has specific distinctive feature, and building's use greatly influences its form and construction.

A crucial problem related to the Persian-period buildings is the determination of the chronological sequence in most of the sites. An additional inconvenience is that the Persian level is often damaged by the Hellenistic and Roman levels and vicissitudes of time as well. Generally Speaking, this matter is highly controversial, and there is no full unanimity among the scholars in this respect.

The typological distribution of the Persian-period buildings would provide a full understanding of the settlement patterns, the roles of the sites, and their relations (Fig. 5.1). The current comprehensive study has manifested seven main functional classes of buildings in the Levant during the Persian regime, are:

- 5.1. Palaces.
- 5.2. Residences and Villas.
- 5.3. Fortresses.
- 5.4. Temples.
- 5.5. Workshops and storerooms.
- 5.6. Dwellings.
- 5.7. Administrative Centers.

The buildings of these functional classes, in turn, can be classified into seven principal typological categories based on their plans: (1) "Open-Court"; (2) "Parallel-Rooms"; (3) "One-Room"; (4) "Amphiprostyle"; (5) "Four-Room"; (6) "Three-Room"; (7) "Two-Room."

First and foremost, the "open-court" scheme is the most important hallmark of this period; it was encountered in the majority of the Persian-period sites in the entire Levant. The builders often used this design when erecting the palaces, residences, villas, and forts. Temples were also built infrequently in this style. The comprehensive study of the Assyrian buildings excavated in Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine achieved by R. Amiran and I. Dunayevsky has revealed two main categories of the "open-court" buildings. The first type is pure Assyrian, comprised of courts surrounded by rooms from four sides, and the main entrance in this group opened at one of the corner rooms. The buildings belong to the second group have a courtyard surrounded by rooms on three sides, providing a space for the central entrance on the open side. In fact, a third form has been preserved for us, which brings us to define three derivatives instead of two: (1) "open-court" buildings surrounded by rooms from four sides; (2) "open-court" buildings surrounded by room from three sides; (3) "open-court" buildings flanked by rooms on two sides. The classification of Amiran and Dunayevsky omitted the third form.

In the first subgroup, we observe that some open courts are encircled by a single row of rooms from four sides. The best parallel examples of it are the villa/residency of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh, the fortress of Ashdod, and Residency of Tell Mardikh. All these buildings were erected at the beginning of the Persian period. This form was more developed during the neo-Assyrian period in the Levant; the "open-court" buildings that had an Assyrian origin had a double or triple row of rooms on one or two sides of the court, and the other sides contained a single row as usual. These palaces and residences were more luxurious than the first sub-group that built in the Persian period. Palace of Lachish and Citadel II at Hazor are perfect examples of this form. The design of the Palace of Lachish is a mixture between the Assyrian "open-court" scheme and the Syro-Hittites style called "bit-hilani" (house of pillars) that is portrayed by wooden-pillared porticoes laid in front of the lobby to reception suites mark the evolution of a standard palace unit. Building 234 at Tell el-Jurn is a hybrid version of the "open-court" buildings; it contained three courts instead of one, each surrounded by one or more rows of rooms on four sides. Interestingly, this developed form was innovated in the Persian period.

In the second subgroup, the buildings constituted mainly an open court surrounded mostly by only a single row of rooms from three sides. As with the first sub-group, some buildings belonging to this form had two rows of rooms on a side, and the other two sides contained only one row. The most significant buildings are Residences 736 and 1295 and the fortress of Megiddo, Palace of Beth-Zur, the Phase 13

Villa of Ashkelon, Palace B and Fort A of Tell Jemmeh. All these palatial buildings, except the Villa of Ashkelon, had an Assyrian root; the pottery assembled from the foundations confirmed that they were built when the entire ancient world came under the Assyrian political and cultural influences. The Villa at Ashkelon is the only building in this style that erected at the time of the Persian hegemony. In every way, performance, build quality, the ingenuity of design, however, do not appear in it as performed in the Assyrian-period palaces and residences mentioned above.

The third sub-group is less prevalent than the two previous forms; it was found only on a few sites, including the "Solar Shrine" of Lachish and the fortresses at Ed-Dreijat and Rujm al-Henu (W). Rujm al-Henu fortress is mixture form between the "open-court" and "qasr" types knew in the Iron Age. The central courtyard had a tower incorporated into its western wall- a type which is marked by a large enclosure (square or rectangular) and a circular tower whether isolated or incorporated into a wall. The palace of Ayyelet Ha-Shahar is the only palace in the whole Levant that does not follow the "open-court" scheme.

The earlier scholars believed that this scheme dawned in Assur in the neo-Assyrian period (ca. 911-612 B.C.E.) i.e. in the Iron Age and carried by the Assyrian conquerors since the days of Tiglath-Pileser III in the eighth century B.C.E. The author speculates that this suggestion seems quite inaccurate regarding both the date and origin. By tracing the origin of the "open-court" scheme, we can affirm that the Assyrians were not the first nation who created it. As a matter of fact, the first sign of this design had appeared in the Sumerian architecture in Uruk (Modern Warka) south of Iraq. The Eanna Temple contained a central court and was built during the first phases of the Protohistorical Periods termed as Uruk V and IV that was dated to the second half of the fourth millennium B.C.E. (cf. Moortgat 1969: Fig.1). In the Levant, the mud-brick "open-court" building at Tell el-Burak was re-dated to the Middle Bronze Age (Finkbeiner and Sader 2001: Fig. 14a; Kamlah and Sader 2008). In the southern Levant, the excavations have revealed an "open-court" structure at Tell Halif on the southwestern flank of Al-Khalil Hills built in the Late Bronze Age (cf. Jacobs 1984: Fig. 1). Both structures undermine the argument said that it was arrived at the Levant in the eighth century B.C.E. since both buildings were erected some hundred years before the conquests of Tiglath-Pileser III.

The Persian-period architecture was often at its most beautiful and impressive when adapted to the needs of the local people religion. The most common layout of the buildings classified as sanctuaries is that what the present author prefers to call "one-room" temples. Occasionally, this room is attached to a lateral chamber such as the temples of Mizpe Yammim and Makmish. Temples of Sarepta and Kharayeb had a single hall unattached to a side room that has usually been interpreted as a treasury.

The Amphiprostyle was very prevalent in the classical Greek sanctuaries during the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. It denotes a temple with a colonnade portico at each end. Usually, the number of columns is maximum four in the front and same in the back. In the Levant, there are only two sanctuaries adopted this Greek style: temple of Byblos and Temple of Eshmun at Sidon. Although all temples mentioned in the text were erected in the Persian period, the simplicity is the dominant feature of the temples in this time except Eshmun Temple at Sidon, the sanctuary at Tell Sukas and the "Ma'abed" at Amrit. The other temples do not have the complexity and beauty of the Mesopotamian, Egyptian, and Greece temples.

The design of the warehouses and storerooms space should be designed to best accommodate business service prerequisites and the goods to be stored/handled. In the Persian period, the majority of these buildings were in the form of parallel rooms- a design that provides a proper environment for the purpose of storing products and materials. Workshops and storerooms must be invented to render service loads of the wares to be deposited, the associated handling equipment, the receiving and transportation procedures. The best standards of this kind of structures are the warehouses and storage facilities excavated at Jokneam, Tel Nahariya, Tel Megadim, Tel Mevorakh, the "Magazine Building" of Tel Dor, and Warehouse of Ashkelon. Since all Persian-period storehouses and workshops were built between the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E., the Persian-period origin of this kind of storage facilities is largely acceptable. The fortified agricultural estate at Nahal Tut was built in a different style, perhaps to fulfill its potentially indispensable role in the times of political upheavals (see Chapter 6).

The "Four-Room" building or "pillared courtyard house" is a term used by scholars to describe the buildings that contained four rooms and a larger central space divided by one or two rows of stone pedestals with an exterior entrance through a courtyard into the central space. Additional rooms may be added or subdivided. It emerged during the late 13th -early 12th centuries B.C.E. and still in use during the Persian period (although the examples are too scarce). As stated above, the function of the "Four-Room" building frequently changed. In the Persian period, a few buildings are belonging to this type: the private dwelling of Tell Keisan, the administrative center (Building B) of Tell El-'Umeiri, Area D1 villa at Tel Dor, and Houses Q (Level III) and J (Level IV) at Al-Mina.

Perhaps the "Three-Room" and "Two-Room" types have emerged from the "Four-Room" one. The buildings that followed those both schemes in the Persian period were interpreted as private dwellings. House 2 at Tell Mardikh and Building 1 at Tell el-Burak are the best examples that express the "Three-Room" houses. The "Two-Room" house at Tell el-Burak, House 3 at Tell Mardikh, and Building 89 at

Makmish are fitting the "Two-Room" style. On the other hand, the majority of the buildings that have been interpreted as dwellings do not have distinct schemes and their remains are seriously damaged.

The construction date of the private dwellings and administrative centers differs from site to site, viz not all houses and governmental buildings were dated to the Persian period. The "four-Room" and its derivations of the "three-room" and "two-room" buildings were first known in the Iron Age i.e. during the neo-Babylonian and neo-Assyrian periods, but they were local designing.

Apparently, not all buildings mentioned above have been excavated within towns or cities. Indeed, most of the Persian-period sites contained one or more building remains occupied one or more area on the artificial mound. The rest of the buildings at the settlement (s) have either destroyed due to exposure to the elements as well as obsolescence or as the consequence of later building processing that took place in the subsequent periods or illegal excavations and subsequent looting and plundering. Hence, only a few sites have unveiled complete settlements with its buildings, squares, and streets. On the other hand, some sites were not intended to be settlements, rather than they were chosen owing to their geographical locations to achieve the aims that they designed for originally. To illustrate this, some sites intended to be defensive or route stations such as Rujm al-Henu, Rujm al-Hawi, and Ed-Dreijat. Accordingly, establishing settlements near these forts was not a correct choice. The substantial settlements in the Levant during the Persian dominion, however, were built alongside the shore. These settlements include Al-Mina, Beirut, Tel Nahariya, Shikmona, Tell Abu Hawam, Tel Megadim, Tel Dor, and Ashkelon. Tell Mardikh is the only inland Persian-period site in the Levant that contains an entire town. Perhaps, the future excavations in the hinterland of the northern Levant will reveal other sites similar to Tell Mardikh.

All these settlements mentioned above had residential buildings whether individual houses or apartment buildings which are holding a block of grouped but separate buildings flanking straight streets intersecting at right angles- an urban planning called "Hippodamian Plan" or "Orthogonal Plan." This urban planning was devised to fulfill the requirements emanating from the complexity of the settlements, chiefly the commercial colonies alongside the seacoast as it is extending without obstacles. The Hippodamian Plan is the genuine Persian-period feature in the Levant. Based on the pottery analysis and studying the structures of the domestic orthogonal quarters, it is easy to conclude that the Hippodamian plan arose in the Persian period.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Despite the environmental and climatic variations, the Levant over centuries was a cultural entity that cannot be partitioned. Therefore, each region is affected concretely by what happens in the others. This fact did not change during the Persian hegemony. The administrative reforms conducted by the Persian monarch Darius I to his empire proves it. The Great King divided his empire into twenty satrapies and made the entire Levant part of the fifth satrapy, which contained the Levant and Cyprus. In several sites south of the Levant such as Tel Dor, the destroying levels were linked to the Sidonian revolts broke out successively during the fourth century B.C.E.

Owing to its unique geographic situation, Levant has always been a point of contact between the Middle East and the external world, and it privileged the worldwide network of trade agreements. Nonetheless, the scholars excessively failed in connecting the historical developments of the Levant during the Persian period as there was no a research method involving an up-close, in-depth, and detailed examination of the history of the Levant as an integrated unit in this time. The lack of the local historical written sources deepened the problem. We have only two valuable classical writers lived in the Persian period: Herodotus the author of “Histories”, who lived in the fifth century B.C.E, and Pseudo-Scylax the author of “Periplus”, who lived in the mid-fourth century B.C.E. besides some references in the Books of Ezra and Nehemiah. At any rate, all these sources do not explain the nature of the political and social conditions in the Levant sufficiently at that time. Except Tawilan’s cuneiform script that mentions the name of King Darius, there are no other scripts in the Levant mentions the other Achaemenian sovereigns.

The archaeological remains are the true expression of multiple human needs and express the nature of the economic, social, political, and intellectual developments. Therefore, the researchers need to shape their studies and present their results cautiously away from personal whims when evaluating the archaeological remains and related historical events. Certainly, the architectural remains are one of the principal remains discovered in the course of excavations since they provide us a direct expression of people's history in every age, explain the extent of their technological competence, traditions, culture, and ideological levels, and their relations. Furthermore, the material culture excavated both inside and in the vicinity of these buildings, however, helps us conclude the functions of the buildings and then nature of people’s lives. This comprehensive study enables also us to conduct a comparison between the types of the material culture excavated in all sites, which help us conclude the gods they used to worship and the lifestyle they

lived in general. Hence, the student of antique architecture must deal with its components and contents as a cultural phenomenon, to discover and describe its characteristic and then to provide a reasonable explanation.

Obviously, no one of the buildings mentioned in the text even those that have been interpreted categorically as palaces, however, shows the dazzling splendor and beauty of the Persian architecture unearthed in the principal Achaemenid capitals Persepolis, Susa, and Pasargadae. The royal Achaemenid palaces in Iran had grand public audience halls for receptions called Apadana where the king would welcome his subjects; halls contained hundreds of towering and sumptuous columns; private room for the king and his counselors; and the royal apartments behind it. The royal chambers were approached by a grand stairway made up of hundreds of steps.

Indeed, the Persian impacts on the architecture still minimal and confined to a few of structures. In other words, except the bulls' heads and bearded sphinxes at Eshmun Temple, the merlons adorning the temples of Amrit and Sukas, the lavish columns and column bases at the Palace of Lachish and Eshmun Temple, however, there were no other direct Persian impacts on the Levantine architecture. Alternatively, the Levantines in the Persian period maintained largely their ancestors' traditions and cultures they knew since the Iron Age and innovated new methods suited the requirements of individual regions, the population's need, and their experience. Nevertheless, they absorbed some foreign architectural and decorative influences both directly and indirectly by virtue of the strong trade relations, especially with Egypt and Greece.

The Persian cultural impacts in the Jordan Valley have appeared in the necropolis of Tell el-Mazar. The dead bodies associated with swords, arrowheads, spears, knives, and funerary tools bore Persian influences such as the cylindrical seals that contained themes similar to those excavated in Persia and characterized the Achaemenian prototype. The Persian influences indicated that the local inhabitants of Jordan Valley had good overland trade connections with Persia or were controlled directly by the Persians, in contrast with the Phoenicians who gained a sort of “supervised autonomy”. The large cities of Byblos, Sidon, and Tyre struck their coins while the other cities did not have their currency.

The excavations and surveys conducted throughout the Levant have shown to a satisfactory level the nature of the economic, political, social and intellectual aspects in the Levant during the Persian hegemony. Nevertheless, neither the archaeological evidence nor the historical scarce written records convey a clear picture of the nature of the settlement patterns in the Levant.

First and foremost, it was challenging to estimate the population density of the entire Levant in the Persian period because of the absence of sufficient statistical information showing the number of the Iron-Age sites that continued to be occupied continuously until the Persian period or the settlements that were established exclusively in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. Moreover, the hinterland of northern Levant has not been excavated properly, and thereby, it is not possible to count the number of the Persian-period sites or to determine if there was a significant switch from neo-Babylonian and neo-Assyrian occupations to the Persian one.

At any rate, the present study proved that there was a continuation of the settlement without hiatus from the Iron Age II until the Persian period in the whole Levant, as evidenced by that most of the buildings were erected on the debris of the Iron Age II buildings.

As mentioned above, through investigating the structure remains and their contents, we can determine the nature of people's lifestyle, their occupations, and the sources of subsistence. The livelihoods differed by the geographical region. In Jordan Valley, the inhabitants worked in the agriculture and related processes including growing crops, harvesting and storing, as indicated by the large silos excavated at Tell el-Mazar and the flint sickles unearthed at Tell Deir 'Alla. The huge conical and cylindrical granaries at Tell el-Mazar perhaps aimed to provide the Persian military garrisons positioned in the highlands of Jordan and Jordan Valley such as Ed-Dreijat, Rujm el-Henu, and other fortresses with the supplies they need. Indeed, Jordan Valley and the highlands of Transjordan were not isolated, but, they had economic relationships and communicated by a road network, as evidenced by the excavated route posts scattered along the road from Iraq el-Amir near Amman to Jordan Valley.

The population's economy in the pastoralist areas such as Tell Mardikh in the hinterland of northern Levant and Khirbet Nimra on the northern frontiers of the Negev has depended on livestock farming and textile industry by using the reared cattle's wool. The southern coast of the Levant, on the other hand, was densely populated, and the inhabitants of it have worked in agriculture, trade, fishing, and dyeing purple.

The northern coast was occupied largely by temples with a few scarce dwellings. Nonetheless, through investigation of the Persian-period sanctuaries in this vital shoreline, we gained meaningful information about the religious life of the Phoenicians, the deities they worshiped, the foreign religious influences, and the imported architectural and decorative elements that have inspired them.

Strictly speaking, the studying conducted on the southern Levant, in general, has recorded advanced intercultural exchanges between the Phoenician city-states and the inhabitants of the southern Levant,

especially the coastline as a result of the mutual trade relations. The Phoenician presence is well attested by utilizing their construction techniques in various sites located along both the southern seashore and some inland sites, and by the figurines depicting their goddesses. On the other hand, the Phoenician cultural influences that have appeared clearly on the southern coast of the Levant, however, did not exist to the same degree in the Jordan Valley nor the highlands of Jordan. That was due in large part to their geographic locations; these hinterland areas have no strategic positions on the international trade routes that depended mainly on the sea trade rather than the overland trade. Nonetheless, the large-scale global trade seemed to have revitalized and stretched to these inland regions, as indicated by the Attic and Greek pottery vessels from the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. unearthed in the majority of the sites.

The administrative buildings and residential dwellings at Tell el-‘Umeiri and Tell Jalul in Madaba Plains were associated with sewerage systems and large reservoirs, which proves that Madaba region was a vital district, inhabited by a steady and sophisticated society administered by local governments supervised the people’s economic and politic affairs. The stamp seals unearthed in the compound of Tell el-‘Umeiri suggested that this site held a prominent position in the surrounding area and was an elite administrative center viz it included the local government headquarters and therefore, the other nearby sites in the highlands of Transjordan were subordinated to it. The nearby fortresses at Rujm el-Henu, Rujm al-Hawi, and Ed-Dreijat were erected most likely to protect the approaches to Madaba Plains. Except Ed-Dreijat, these fortresses and the administrative centers in Madaba province were built in the late Iron Age and beginning of the Persian period.

The villa of Tell es-Sa’idiyeh in the middle of Jordan Valley may have been a winter resort of the local satrap who also exercised the duties of the authority during his rest and recuperation there. The location of Tell el-Jurn near the Dead Sea south of Jordan Valley refers that the elegant building erected in it was also for recreational purposes of a local governor. Perhaps he settled permanently in the luxurious Palace of Lachish, which is located about 50 km away westward or in the palace of Tell Jemmeh, which is circa 90 km westward.

At Buseirah south of Jordan, the temple and the palace is a true evidence that the community lived there during the Persian dominion was a civilized and stable society. Buseirah is located in a dry zone where there is no spring, river, or any nearby water supply. Nonetheless, the both complexes contained cisterns. It may be assumed that already in the Iron Age and Persian Period there was a water supply based on the gathering of the run-off of rainwater running down from all parts of the nearby hills into these reservoirs that would have been possible to gather a sufficient quantity for the basic needs of the population.

Northward, the palace at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar, the residency of Hazor, and the temple of Mizpe Yammim that was associated by a fortification system, however, suggested that the community lived once in the Upper Galilee was a developed and prospered society. It seems that the Temple of Mizpe Yammim served the local people settled these very close sites to each other. The archaeological tell, however, acted as the fortified urban center of the city. The dwellings at Ayyelet Ha-Shahar indicated that the Upper Galilee was densely inhabited at that time. The nature of the terrain, the torrential rains and its proximity to the Sea of Galilee contributed to establishing those flourished and civilized cities. The flinty terrain of the Upper Galilee makes it unfit for agriculture. The closer cultivable land to the Upper Galilee is the Lower Galilee. In this lush land, Jokneam is the only Persian-period site. Hence, the storehouses of Jokneam that were filled with store jars perhaps they provided the nearby sites in the Upper Galilee and Jezreel Valley with crops.

The Persian-period occupation in the Galilee began by erecting a sanctuary at Mizpe Yammim and warehouses at Jokneam in the late sixth century B.C.E. The Assyrian palaces of Hazor and Ayyelet Ha-Shahar were not renovated until the fourth century B.C.E.

The occupation in the northern coast of Palestine begun by erecting the settlements of Tell Abu Hawam and Tell Keisan in the middle of the sixth century B.C.E. The settlements of Shikmona and Acre were established after a half of century. Nahariya was founded at the end of the fifth century B.C.E. and the demolished town was restored by the end of the Persian period in the mid-fourth century B.C.E.

The political and military headquarters of the metropolitan city of Megiddo unequivocally needed a large quantity of crops, particularly in the beginning of the conflict with the Phoenician cities, which culminated in the fourth century B.C.E. Conceivably, the local governor settled in Megiddo perhaps deemed that it is the time to establish large agriculture estates staffed by a guild of workers capable of supplying the Achaemenian armies involved in putting down the uprisings in Phoenicia in bulk, with their needs of supplies. The nearest lush land that can fulfill this duty is Nahal Tut, which is located some 12km away westward. Reasonably, part of these crops was allocated to provide the nearby residential quarters at Shikmona, Tell Abu Hawam, Tell Keisan, and Tel Dor with the needs of the people. Some of them may have been intended for export through the nearby coastal warehouses and storehouses at Tel Megadim and Tel Mevorakh. The storehouses and private dwellings that were erected in Tel Mevorakh in the middle of the fourth century B.C.E. perhaps were erected in response to the establishment of the agricultural station at Nahal Tut. Obviously, Nahal Tut was an important site for the Persians, who have given special attention to strengthening it carefully. The stone catapults that are associated with the destruction level caused by the Alexander's army serve as further evidence that they have made a serious

effort to occupy it and the Achaemenid garrison in charge of protection this governmental property put up a fierce resistance before its fall in the hands of the new occupiers.

Obviously, all storehouses, warehouses and workshops were destroyed in the fourth century B.C.E. perhaps because of the frequent revolutions took place in this era ended by the Hellenistic conquest. This hypothesis is further strengthened by the catapult stones unearthed in some buildings such as Nahal Tut and Tel Dor.

The fortress of Ashdod has a strategic position on the southern coast as it is centrally located between Jaffa and Tell Ya'oz on the north and Ashkelon on the south. All these sites were established simultaneously at the beginning of the Persian period. Too, the fort of Ashdod was on the front line of the defense of the Palace and Temple of Lachish from the sea. The fort of Tell Jemmeh protected both the trade route coming from Egypt and the inland palaces of Lachish and Beth-Zur.

The scarce of the Persian-period buildings in the northern Levant and non-diversity of their types represented a stumbling block that will face any researcher who tries to understand the nature of people's life in this region, especially the inner northern Levant. In the north of Levant, there are only two sites with a whole town planning are Beirut and Al-Mina. Interestingly, although the settlements through ages usually establish near the sources of water, on the Euphrates River there are only two Persian-period sites are Karkemish and Tell Khamis. Too, the Persian-period occupation in two locations was confined only to private dwellings, and there are no clues refer that they have been densely inhabited; since there were neither nearby administrative centers nor public buildings. Therefore, we cannot recognize the settlement patterns around the Euphrates River or the inhabitants' relations with the other nearby sites. The nearest Persian-period site to both towns is Tell Mardikh that is some 150 km away.

Regarding Phoenicia, we could discern from the literary classic written records besides the inscription, specifically the royal ones that the Phoenician cities had no political entity, despite the cultural and religious uniformity; each city was a city-state and a metropolis in itself under the Persian surveillance.

The Phoenicians devoted themselves to the trade with the outside world. Too, the independence they obtained would have allowed them too much leeway and freedom of movement to establish trade colonies northward up to Al-Mina and southward at Tel Dor and Jaffa and perhaps further south, keeping in mind that they serve the interests of the Persian Empire. Obviously, the Persian royal court deemed it is in the empire's interest to adopt a fresh approach that would be conducive to reconciliation with the Phoenicians rather than fomenting hostility and tension in the empire. The Persians knew the adverse implications of

the wars have an impact upon every area of socio-economic development resources. On the other hand, they would not allow forging a Phoenician-Grecian or Phoenico-Egyptian alliances that would threaten the security, sovereignty and independence of their empire. Moreover, they were acutely aware of the importance of the profits from the Phoenician sea trade, and they are not willing to dissipate the state's share of the imposed tribute for the empire's treasury. Perhaps, the Phoenician city-states had continued to call for the mobilization of the resources necessary for the implementation of the declaration on the right to development as well as for forgiveness of their heavy tribute at times of economic slowdown or recession caused by the Persian-Greek wars, which burdened their budgets and hampered their progress. These demands seemed to have been rejected, which has caused serious social and economic problems following by uprisings broke out all over Phoenicia.

The Athenian decree granted to the Sidonians in the first half of the fourth century B.C.E., however, confirms that Sidon and its king had a powerful political position at that time among the other Phoenician city-states. Too, it is clearly suggested that there was an administrative council in each district organized a sort of unhindered sea trade and the exporting and importing through taxing profits of trading loaded vessels.

The Phoenician history in the Persian period cannot be reduced easily depending solely on the architectural remains since the Phoenician Coast was occupied mostly by temples and dwellings without public palaces or administrative centers. These sanctuaries were usually dedicated to the local idols Melqart and the goddess of fertility Astarte. The figurines of Astarte depicted her as a nude woman holding her breasts or as a veiled and clothed pregnant woman in the last days before giving birth with a hand on her belly or as a lady cradling her swaddled baby in hand. All these figurines are related to the childbirth. The worshiping related to the childbirth rites were not confined to the people inhabited the Phoenician coast, but also spread all over the Levant and entered in the people's concepts during the Persian period. The stratum III at Tell es-Sa'idiyeh, for example, yielded a seated young pregnant woman figurine. Healing shrines were so common in the Phoenician mythology such as the sanctuary at Tell Sukas, the "Ma'abed" of Amrit and Eshmun Temple at Sidon.

Healing shrines and the fertility goddess were closely connected and express the nature of the people's religious concepts about the maternity and childhood. It is probable that after each birth the parents by attending their neighbors set up a "Thanksgiving" by offering these dedicatory figurines to the "Mother Goddess" for acknowledging her as the birth crowned with success. After that, they throw their child's figurine into the *favissa*, which is associated with a dedicatory inscription devoted to the savior gods Eshmun or Melqart to protect or heal or bless their infant. In some cases, the *favissa* was the only

evidence of a temple since a few of the temple remains have not been preserved. Such cases we found in the residential quarters at Tel Dor, Beirut, and Nebi Yunis. Other temples had no *favissa* such as the sanctuaries at Mizpe Yammim, Lachish, Makmish, and Sarepta.

Obviously, the temples in this period had no political role as the Mesopotamian temples had. The dedicatory inscriptions are not informative in that regard. On the other hand, the sanctuaries played an important part in the economic and social activities. The sanctuary at Sarepta, for example, was built amidst industrial zone contained workshops for potters and other artifacts, as evidenced by the unearthed silver tools. The craftsmen produced the dedicatory figurines for the worshipers, who had to come from their nearby residential district (Sounding Y) to purchase their hand-made idols, perhaps during the festival times or throughout the year. The sanctuary at Makmish had a role in revitalizing the domestic and international trading system, as evidently shown by dwellings, silos, and kilns, which used to manufacture the glass and bronze trinkets and the “Mother Goddess” figurines for both the local and wayfarers worshipers. In fact, the religious-type figurines those are of the Egyptian and Greek types unearthed inside the temples of Mizpe Yammim, Kharayeb, Makmish, and Amrit were either manufactured by local craftsmen for the Egyptians and Greeks travelers or by Egyptians or Greeks craftsmen, who worked as immigrant laborers. Alternatively, these figurines were produced in Egypt and Greece and arrived at these sanctuaries with the seafarers, who used to worship their deities during the stay. In all likelihood, these hypotheses attesting to that the lines were open with Egypt and Greece and affirmed that the Egyptian and Greece merchants’ ships arrived on the Levantine Coast for trade and they integrated with the local communities. Although the "Solar Shrine" of Lachish is located on the main trade route via Egypt, it does not contain unaccountably any Egyptian-type objects or deities.

The Egyptian culture and religion had a strong presence, and it influenced the religious life of the local inhabitants of the Levant, especially the Phoenician city-states, as evidenced by the terracotta figurines of men wearing Atef-crown of Osiris, the figurines of Apis bulls, and the statues of the comic god Bes. The Egyptian influence has also arrived in Iran after the invasion of Egypt by Cambyses II in the fifth century B.C.E. and the founding of the 27th dynasty, as shown by the god Bes statues that were unearthed at Susa. The Achaemenids had not such strong influence on the people of the Levant; perhaps they did not have the capacity to counteract and rid the country of the substantial impact of the Egyptian presence. The Egyptian culture indeed is rooted deeply in the history of the Levant that began since the Bronze Ages. Regardless, the palatial and luxurious palaces in Iran erected between the fifth and fourth centuries B.C.E. and their ornaments, however, have inspired the architects in the Levant, who attempted to absorb and imitate some of these elements according to the financial capacity and craftsmanship.

Remarkably, the principal idol in the universe of Zoroastrianism Ahuramazda, who incarnate in the supreme god as a horror monster, however, was completely absent from the religious scene of the Levantines. No one of the excavated sanctuaries neither in the southern Levant nor the northern Levant contained a singular dedication to him. At the very least, this demonstrates that the people continued to worship their local gods in an atmosphere of religious tolerance and free of all bigotry and enthusiasm. The Persians did not force the peoples of their empire to believe in their deity, but they allowed freedom of worship and the people could dedicate their sacrifices to any god they wished. Likewise, this might also suggest that the Levant was devoid of the Persian immigrants or even traders. Perhaps, only the Levantines have worked in a business trade with Persia and not the other way around.

The Achaemenids presence in the religious life of the Levantines was not completely absent. The stepped pinnacles and related religious connotations used by the Phoenicians in the buildings for religious purposes are a direct Achaemenid impact, who inspired by their ancestors; the Elamites. Obviously, the Levant in the Persian period has witnessed the peaceful comingling of different cultures and religions and the fact that societies are becoming more diverse.

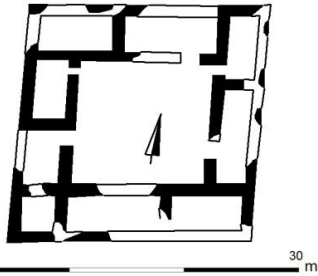
Although this study unveiled valuable information regarding the features of the Persian-period architecture and ornaments, the relations between Achaemenid sites in the entire Levant and the settlement patterns, we still need more studies and excavations focusing on the neglected areas especially the hinterlands of northern Levant.

Appendix A

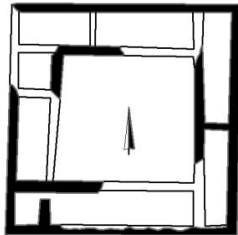
PLANS



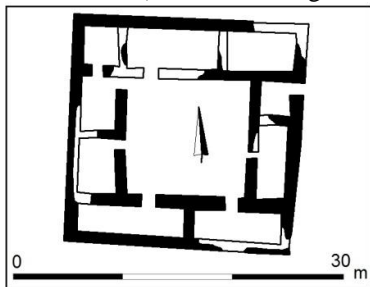
Plan 2.1: Ground plan of the building of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Stratum III) (after Pritchard 1985: Fig. 185)



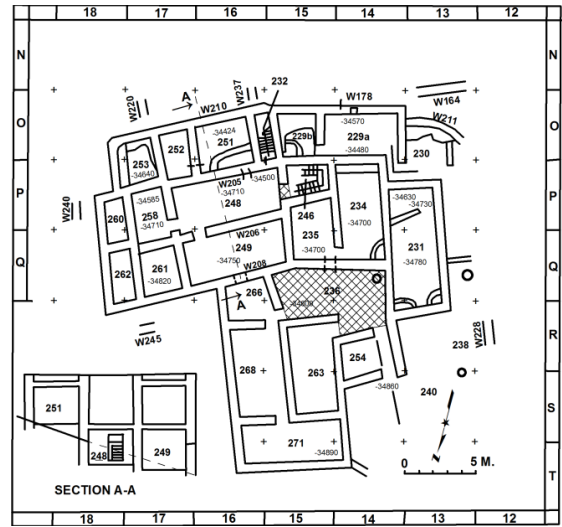
Plan 2.2: Ground Plan of the Iron Age fortress of Horvat Mesora (Cohen 1979: fig. 7: 4)



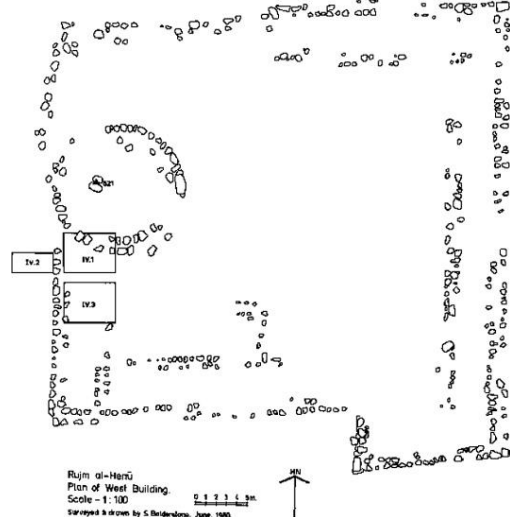
Plan 2.3: Ground Plan of the Iron Age fortress of Horvat Ritma (Cohen 1979: fig. 7: 2)



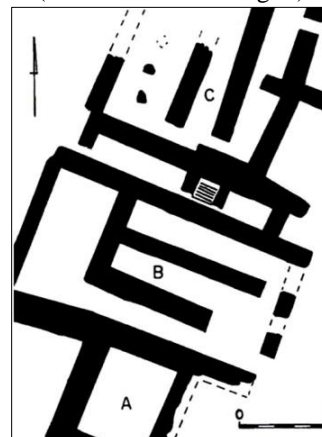
Plan 2.4: Ground Plan of the Iron Age fortress 'Atar Haro'a (Cohen 1979: fig. 7: 3)



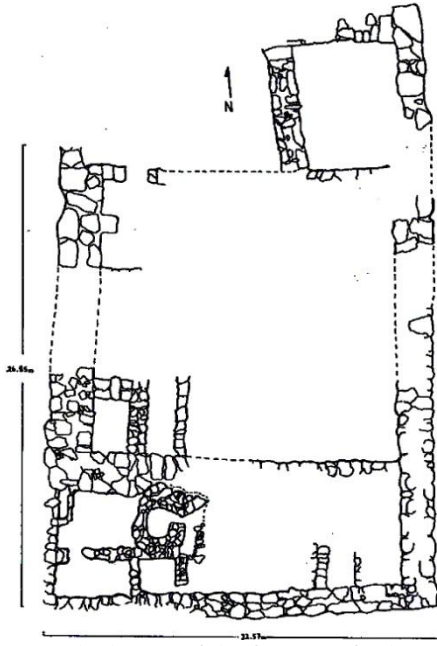
Plan 2.5: Schematic plan of Building 234 of Tel Goren (Tell el-Jurn) (modified from Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: 135, fig. 1)



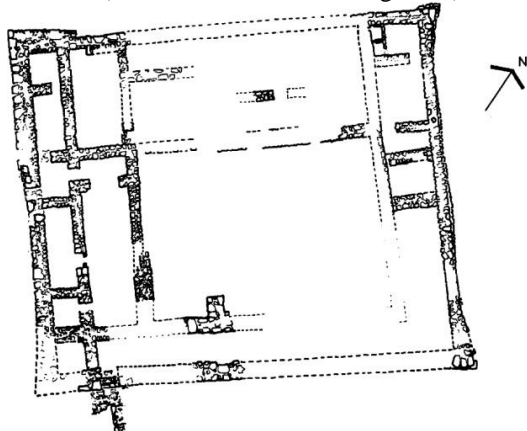
Plan 2.6: Layout of the fortress of Rujm al-Henu (W) (McGovern 1983: Fig. 3)



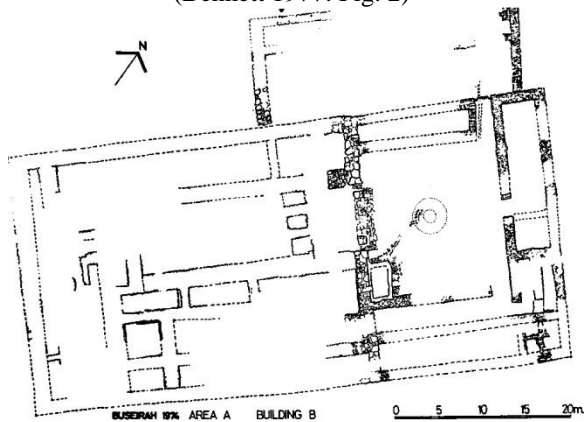
Plan 2.7: The complex of buildings at the western summit of the mound at Tell El-'Umeiri (Herr et al. 1991b: 158; Fig. 3)



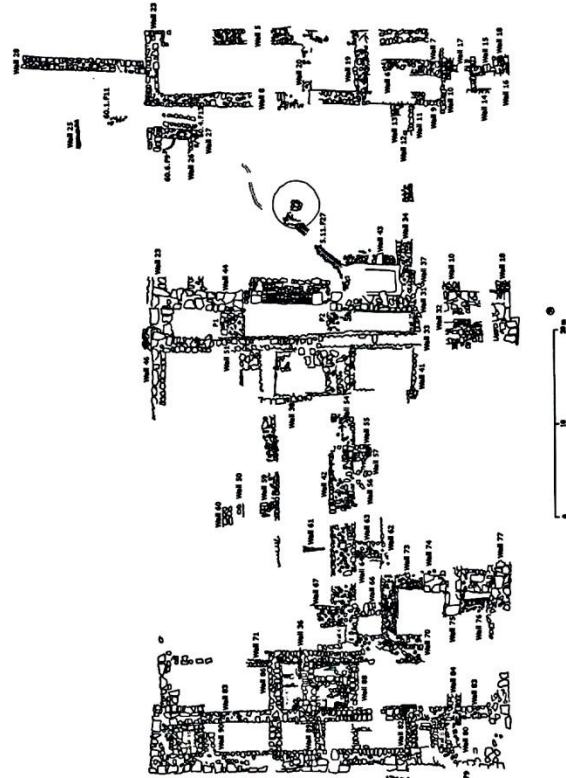
Plan 2.8: The layout of the fortress of Ed-Dreijjat (Herr et al. 1991a: 341; Fig. 13.5)



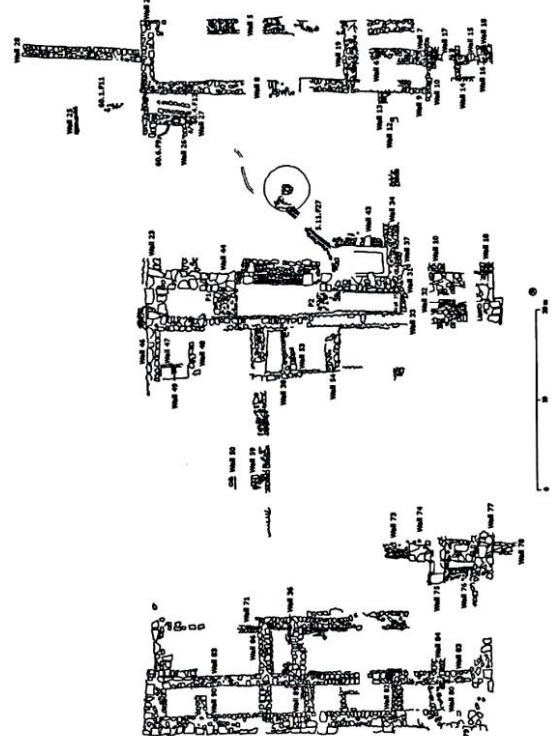
BUSEIRAH 1976 AREA A BUILDING A
Plan 2.9: Bennett's Winged Building A of Buseirah (Bennett 1977: Fig. 2)



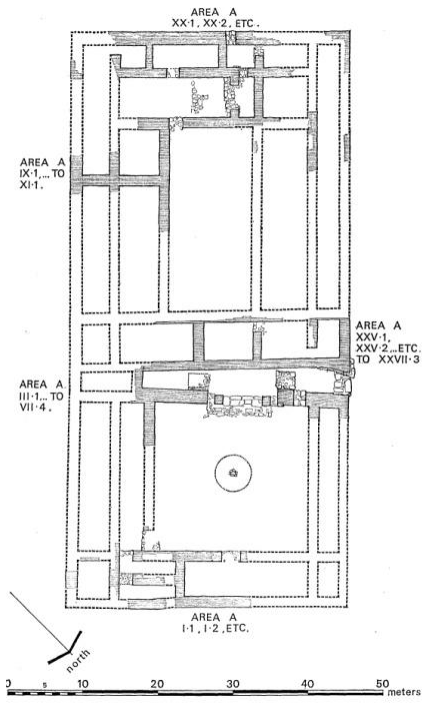
BUSEIRAH 1976 AREA A BUILDING B
Plan 2.10: Bennett's Building B of Buseirah (Bennett 1977: Fig. 3)



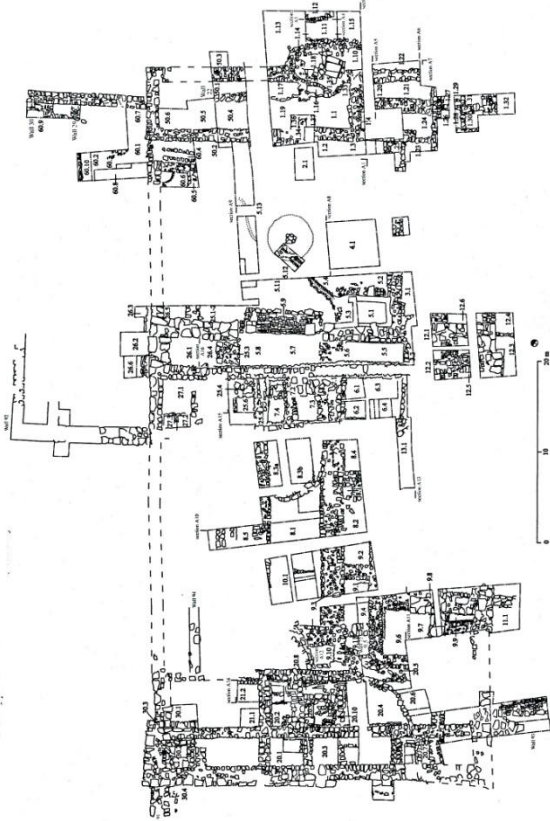
Plan 2.11: Area A Complex at Buseirah (Phases 1-3) (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 4.6)



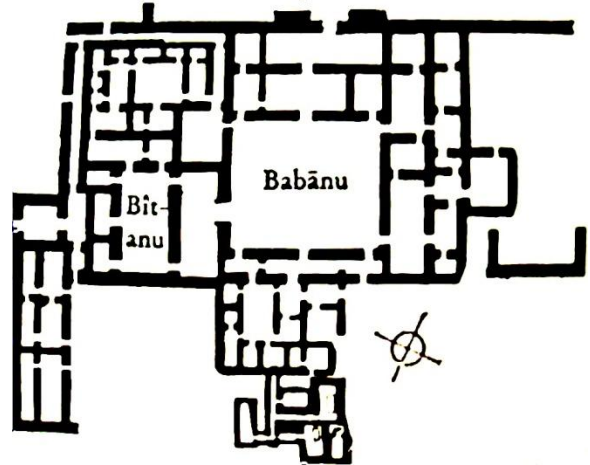
Plan 2.12: Area A Complex at Buseirah (Phase 4) (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 4.7)



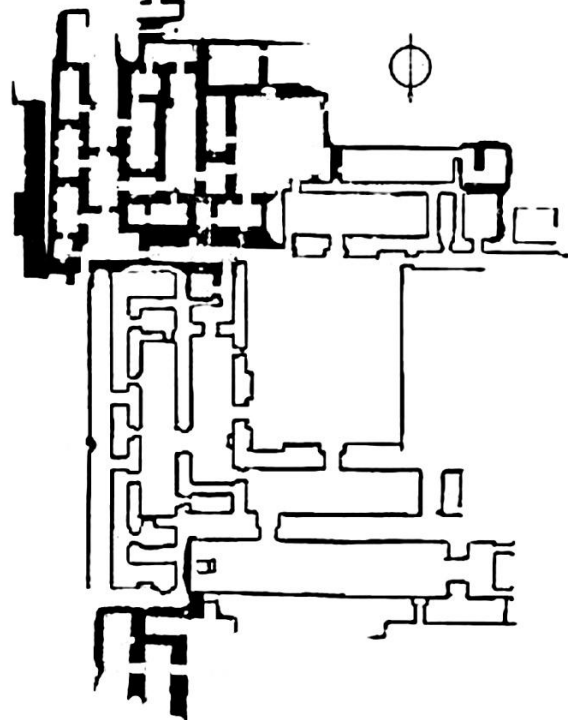
Plan 2.13: Bennett's Buildings A and B at Buseirah (Bennett 1975: Fig. 4)



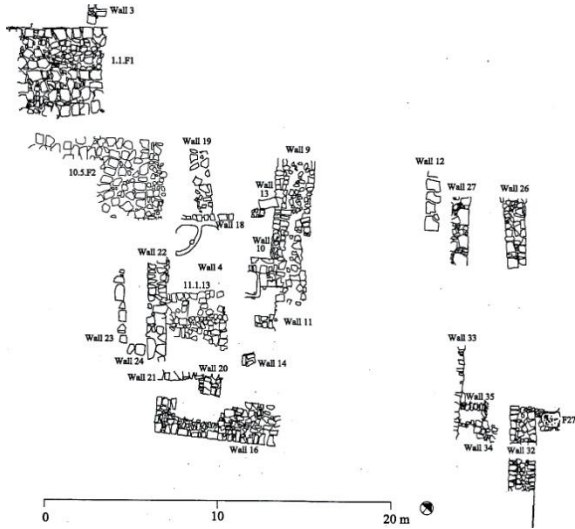
Plan 2.14: Overall Plan of Area A Complex at Buseirah, showing trench numbers (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 4.2)



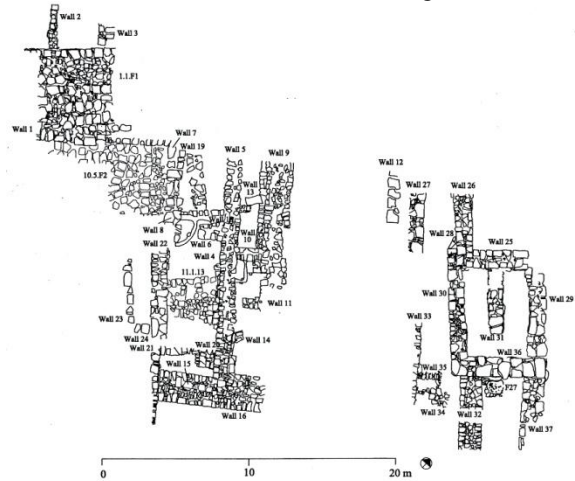
Plan 2.15: The layout of the palace of Adad Nirari I at Assur (Moortgat 1969: Fig. 75)



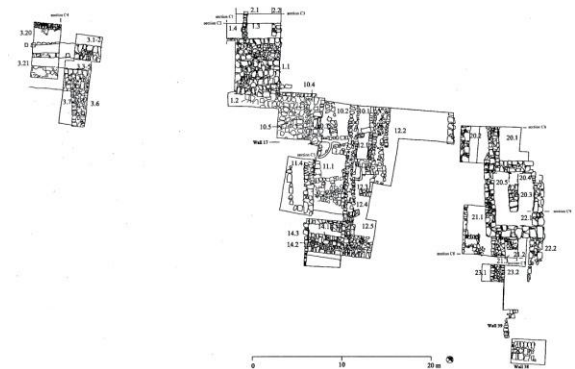
Plan 2.16: The layout of the palace of Ashurnasirpal II in Nimrud (Moortgat 1969)



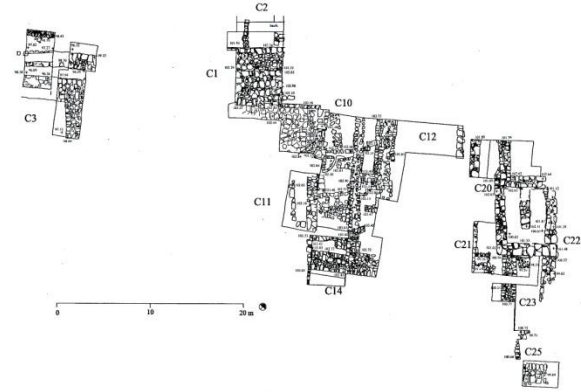
Plan 2.17: Plan of Area C Complex (Phase 3-4) of Buseirah (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 6.6)



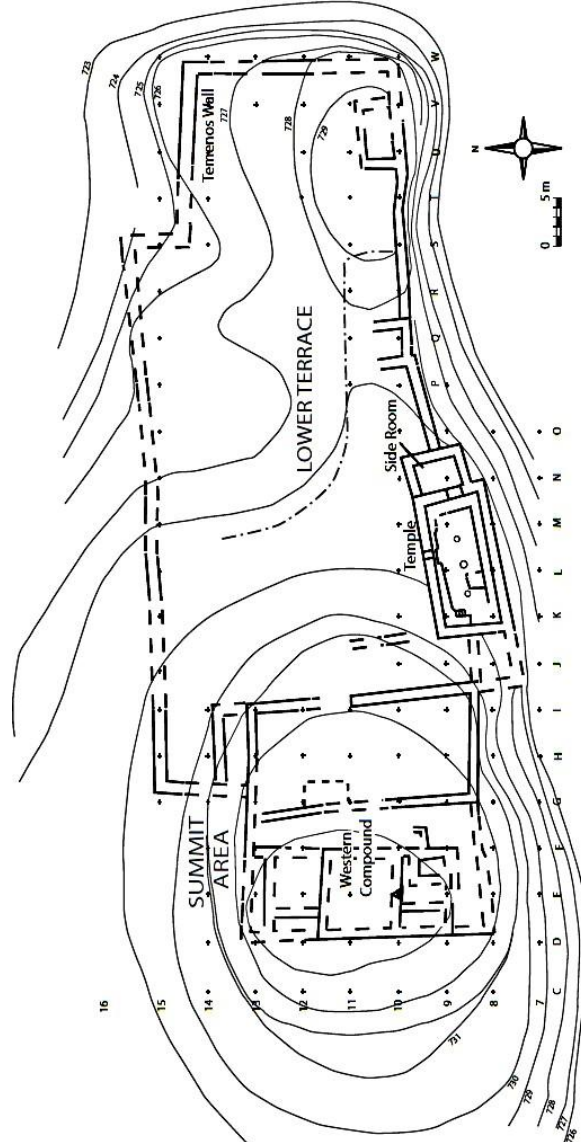
Plan 2.18: Plan of Area C Complex (Phase 5) of Buseirah (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 6.13)



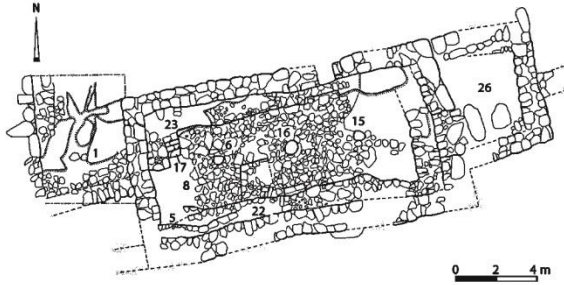
Plan 2.19: Overall plan of Area C Complex of Buseirah showing trench numbers (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 6.2)



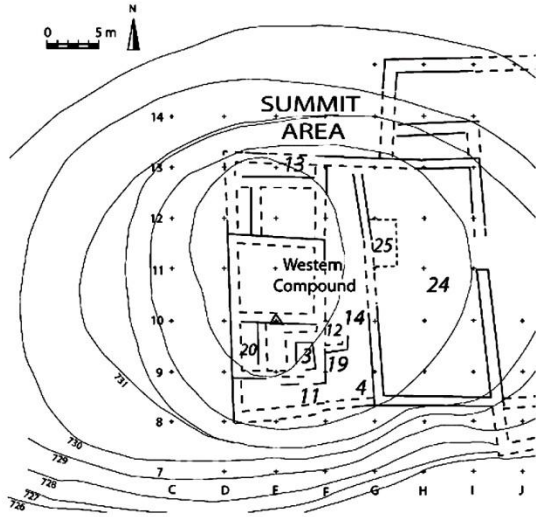
Plan 2.20: Overall plan of Area C Complex of Buseirah showing Square Numbers (Bienkowski 2008: Fig. 6.1)



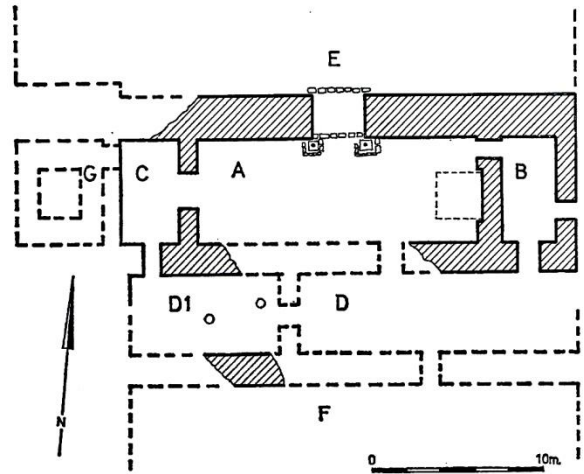
Plan 2.21: The topographic map of Mizpe Yamim (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 27; Fig. 3)



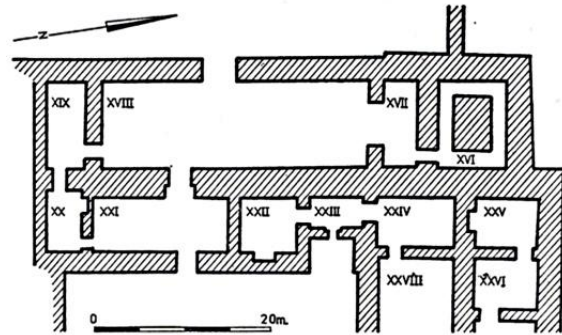
Plan 2.22: Layout of the sanctuary of Mizpe Yamnim (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 32; Fig. 10)



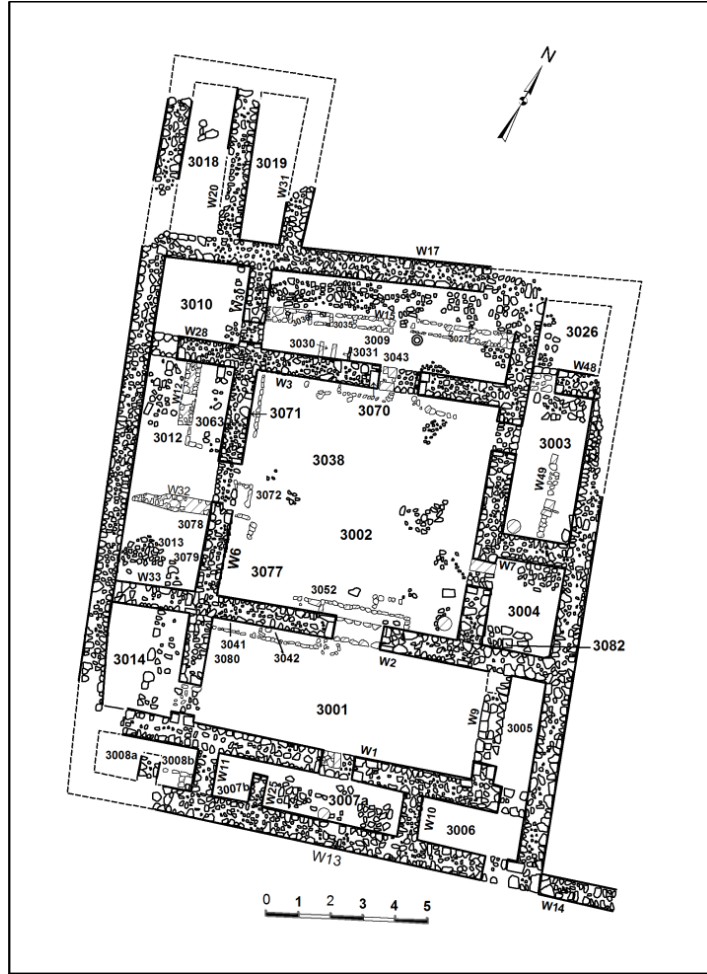
Plan 2.23: Layout of the Western Complex of Mizpe Yamnim (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 30; Fig. 6)



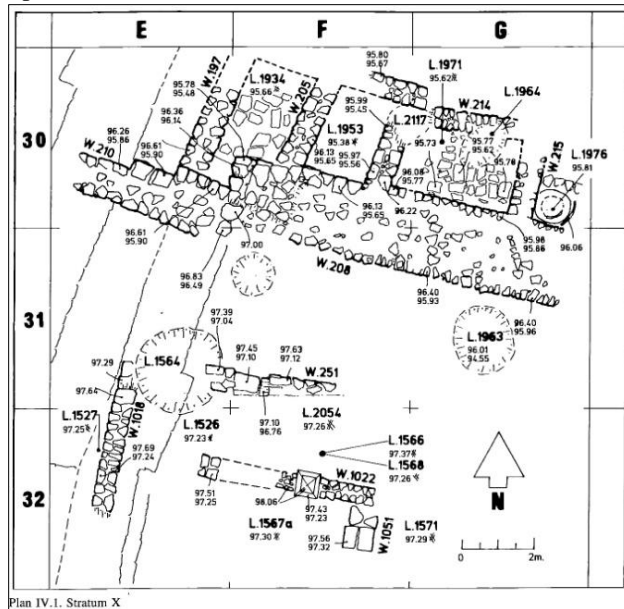
Plan 2.24: The ground plan of the palace of Ayyelet ha-Shahar (Reich 1975: 234; Fig. 1)



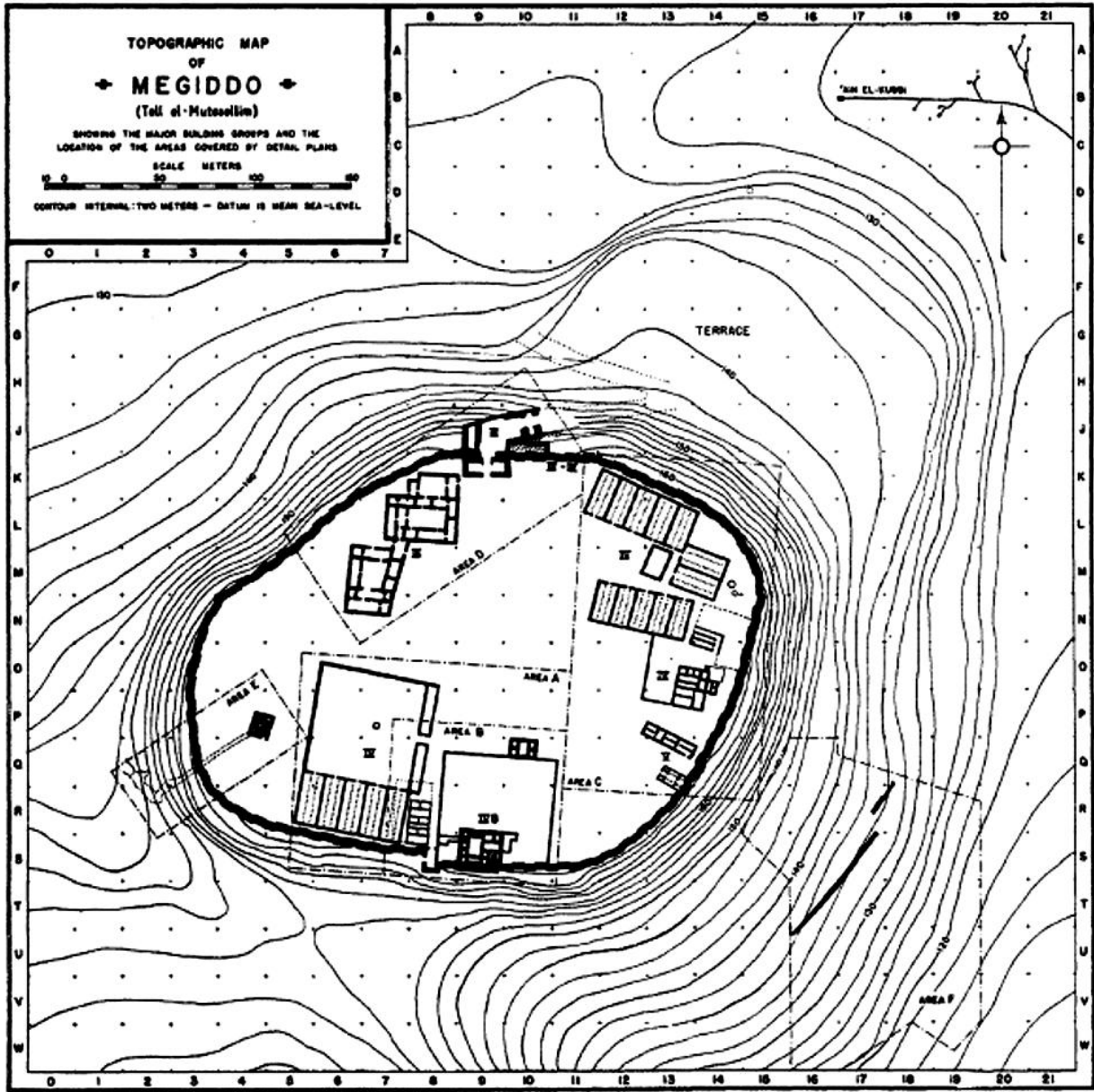
Plan 2.25: The Assyrian palace of Arslan-Tash (Reich 1975: 235; Fig. 2)



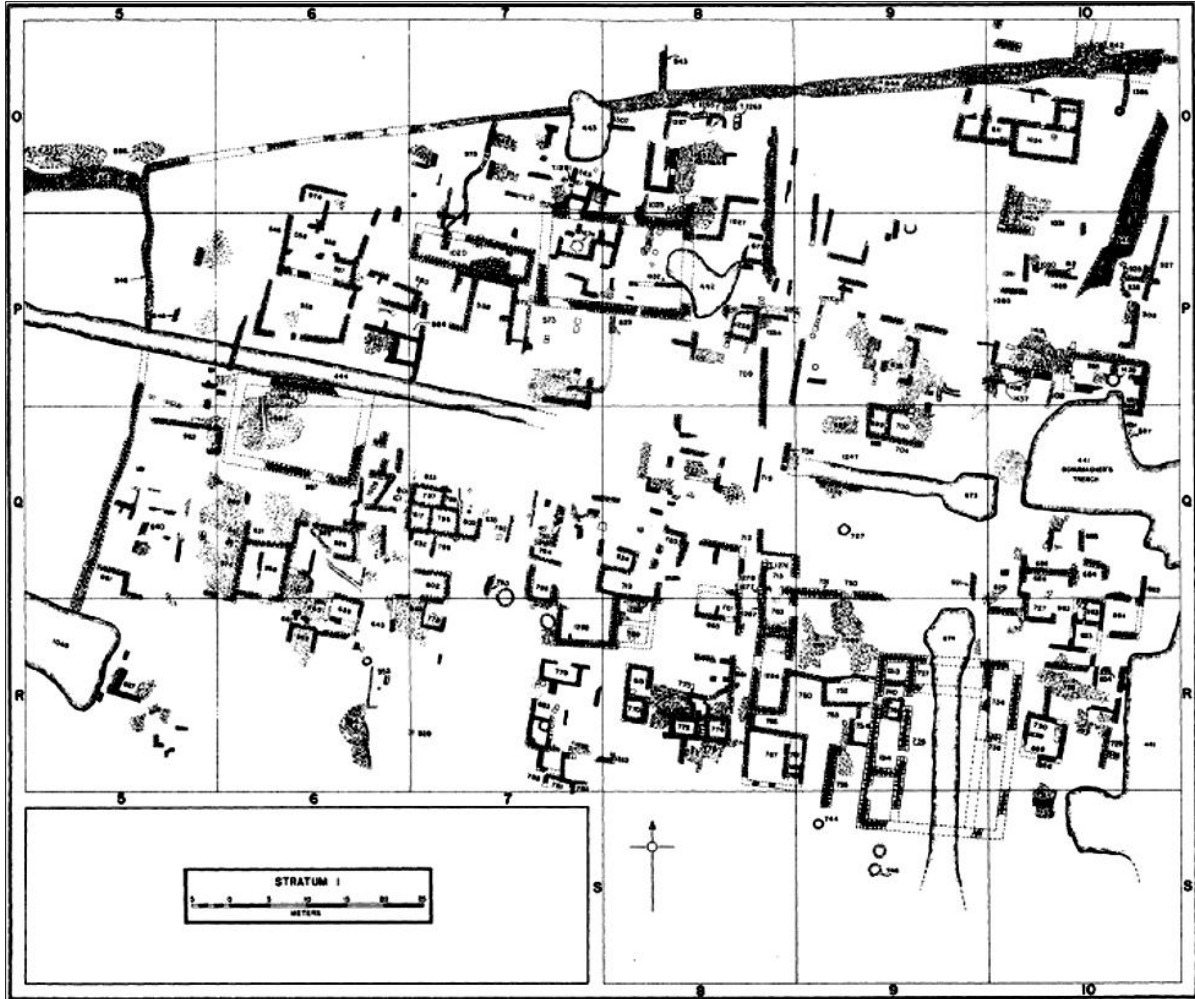
Plan 2.26: The ground plan of Citadel II of Hazor (modified from Yadin et al. 1958: Plate CLXXVII)



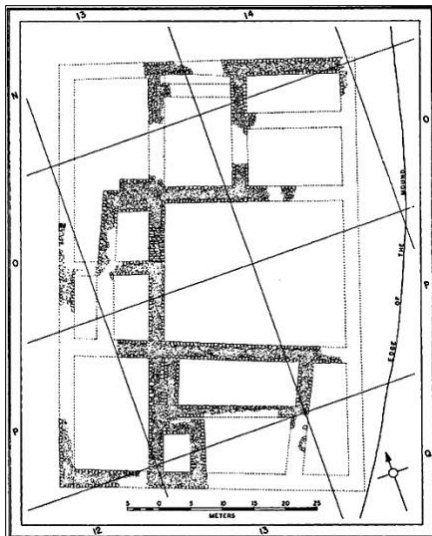
Plan 2.27: The Stratum X warehouses of Jokneam (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: 403; Plan. IV.1)



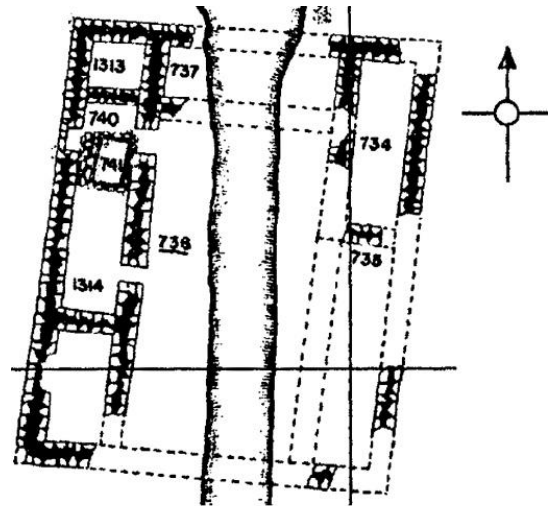
Plan 2.28: The topographic map of Megiddo (Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 3)



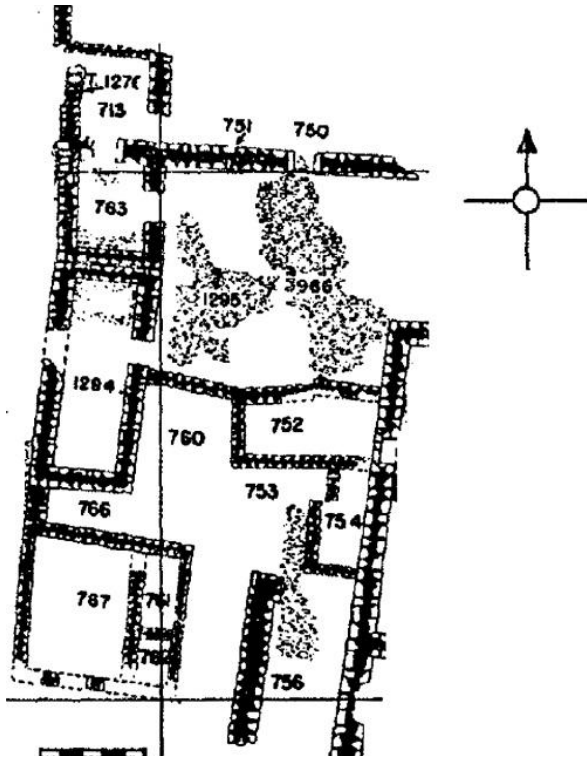
Plan 2.29: The building remains of Stratum I at Megiddo (Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 98)



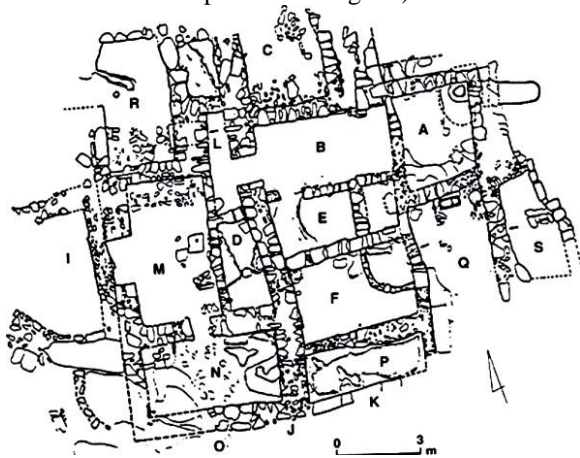
Plan 2.30: The fortress of Megiddo (Strata II and I) at the eastern edge of the mound (Area C) (Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 95)



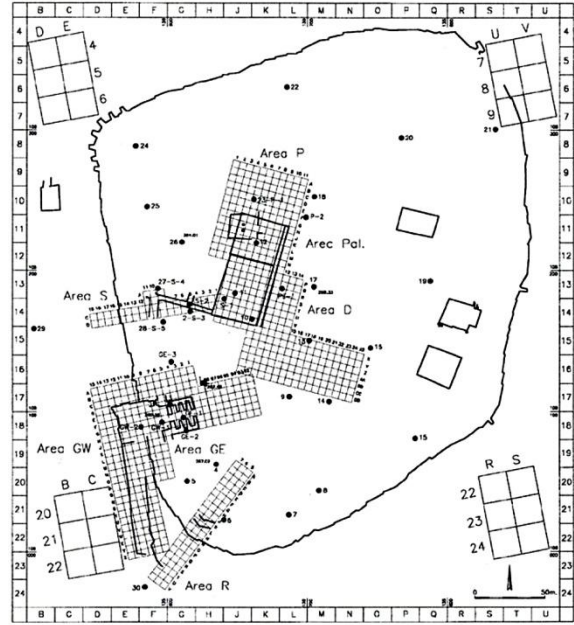
Plan 2.31: The ground plan of Building 736 of Megiddo (Stratum I) (modified from Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 98)



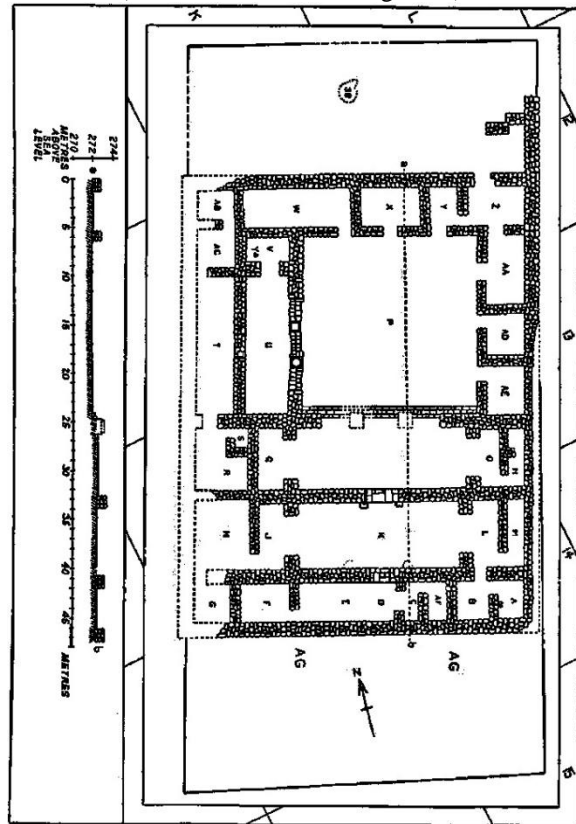
Plan 2.32: The ground plan of Building 1295 of Megiddo (Stratum I) (modified from Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 98)



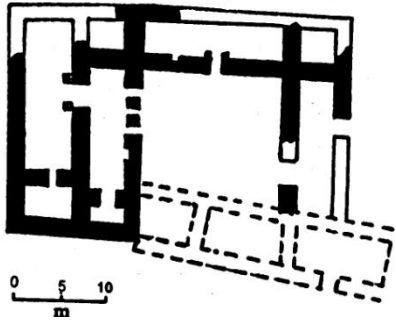
Plan 2.33: The layout of the building of Khirbet Nimra (Shamir 1997: 1, Fig. 1)



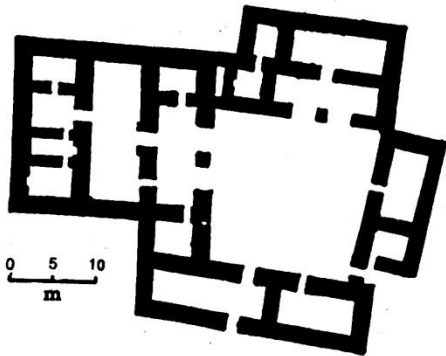
Plan 2.34: Site plan with the general grid of Lachish (Ussishkin 2004a: 35, Fig. 2.10)



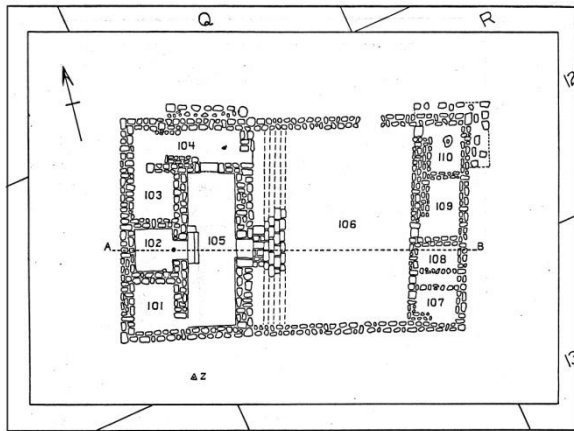
Plan 2.35: The Palace of Lachish (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 119)



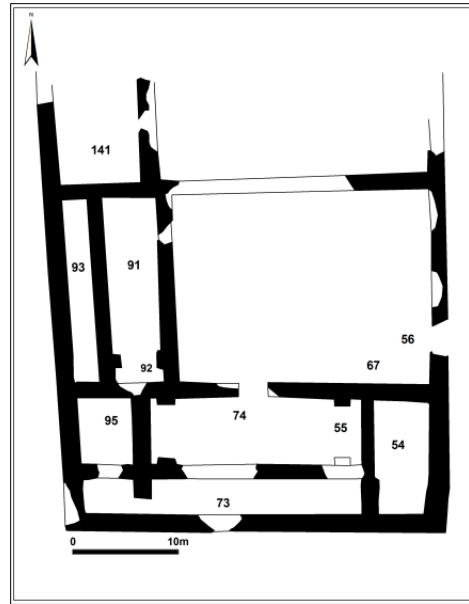
Plan 2.36: Sketch plan of Building 1369 of Megiddo (Lamon and Shipton: Fig. 89)



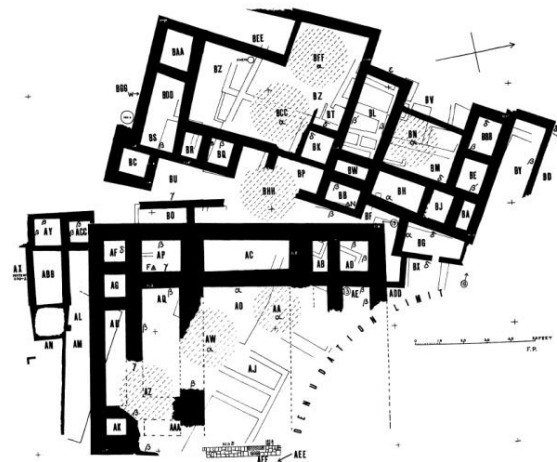
Plan 2.37: Sketch plan of the Upper Palace of Zinjirli (Naumann 1955: Pl. XX)



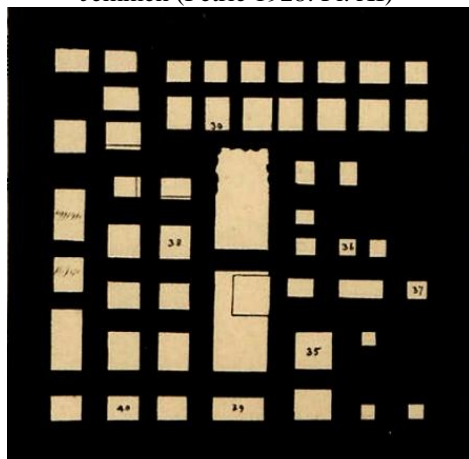
Plan 2.38: The "Solar Shrine" and section of Lachish (Tufnell 1953: Plate: 121)



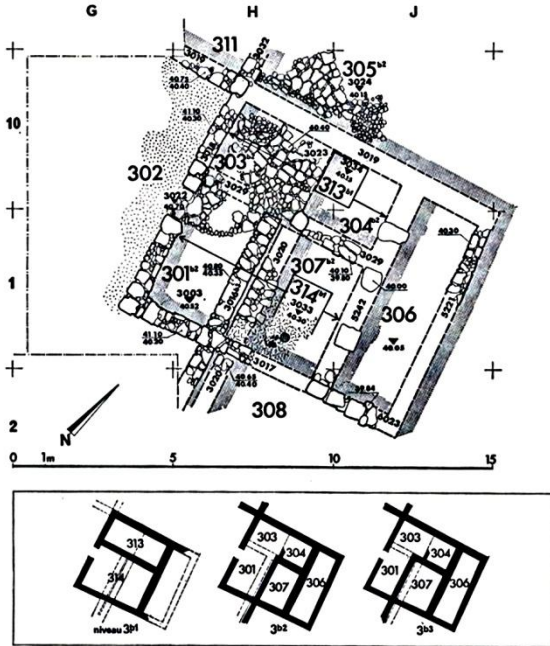
Plan 2.39: The ground plan of Citadel II of Beth-Zur (Reich 1992: 114, Fig. 2)



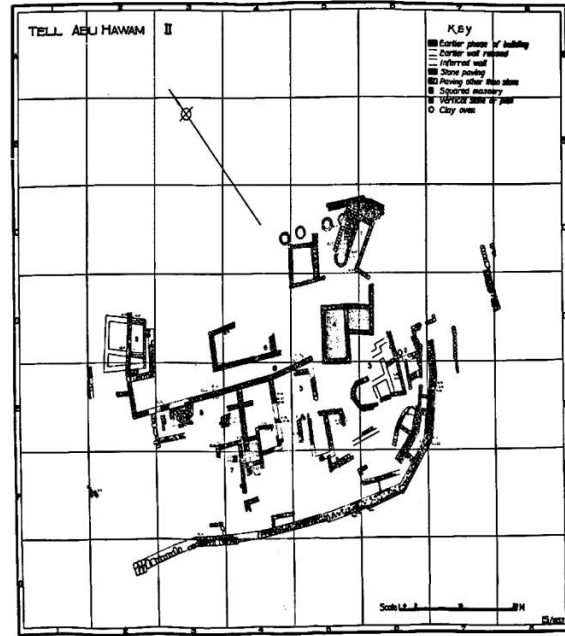
Plan 2.40: The plan of Buildings A and B of Tell Jemmeh (Petrie 1928: Pl. XI)



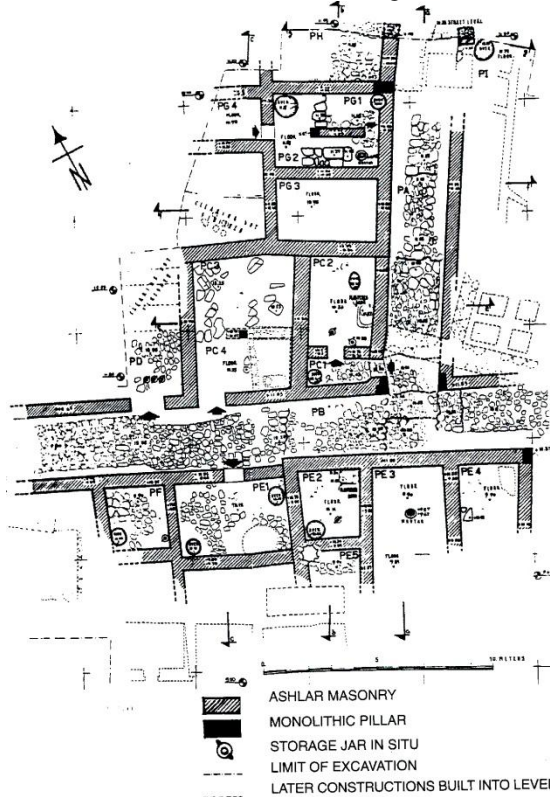
Plan 2.41: The fortress of Psmatek I at Daphnae (Petrie 1888: Pl. XLIV)



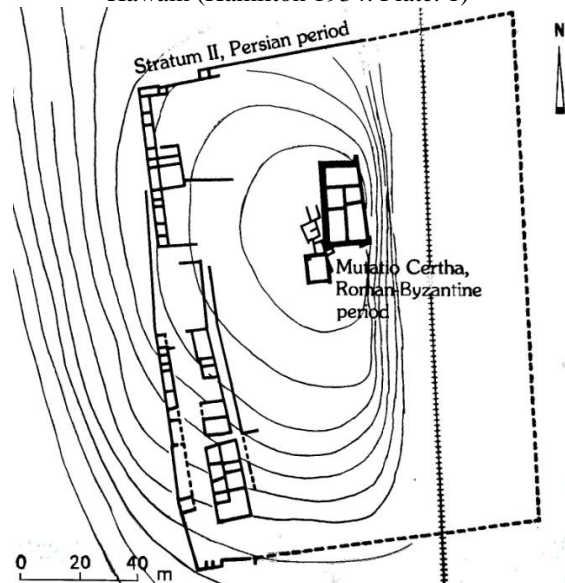
Plan 2.42: The layout of Building B of Tell Keisan (Level 3b) (Nodet 1980: Fig. 32)



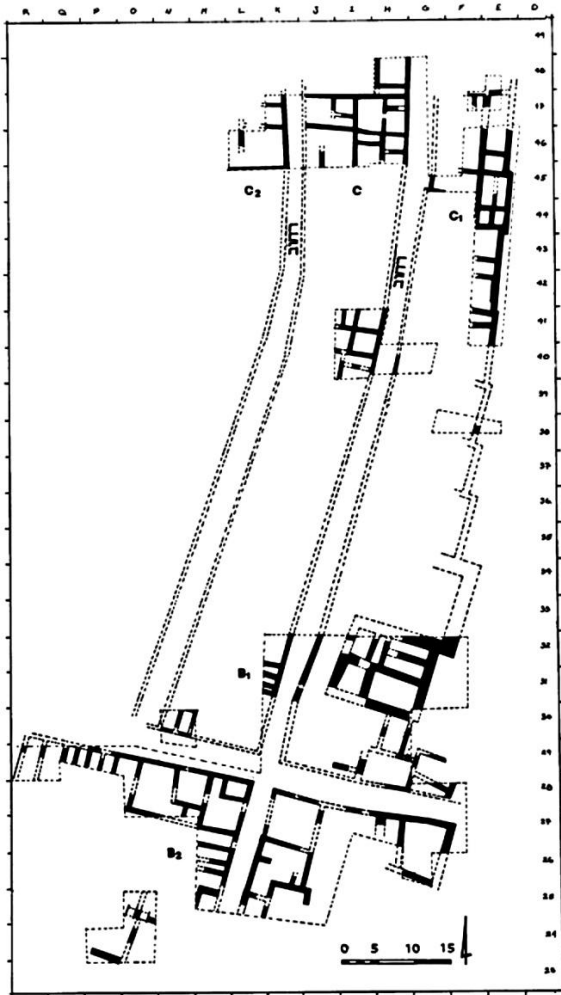
Plan 2.44: Complex of Stratum II of Tell Abu Hawam (Hamilton 1934: Plate. 1)



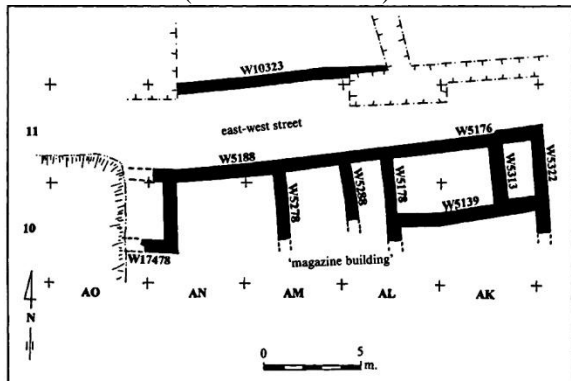
Plan 2.43: The residential quarter of Tel Shikmona (Stern 2001: 388)



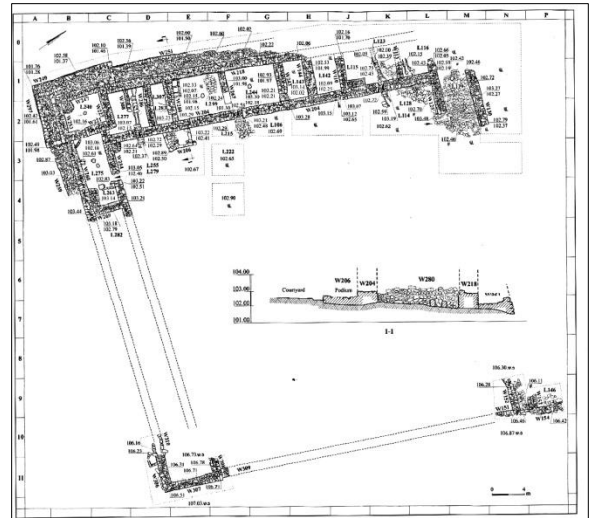
Plan 2.45: General plan of Tel Megadim (Broshi 1993: 1001)



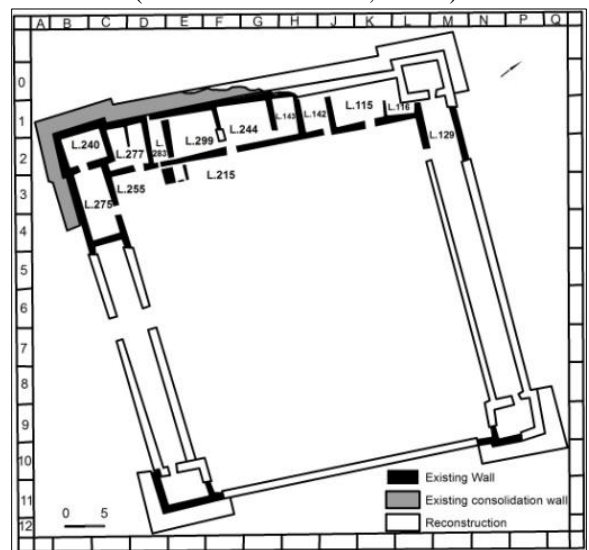
Plan 2.46: The eastern flank of the mound of Tel Dor (Stern 2001: III.10)



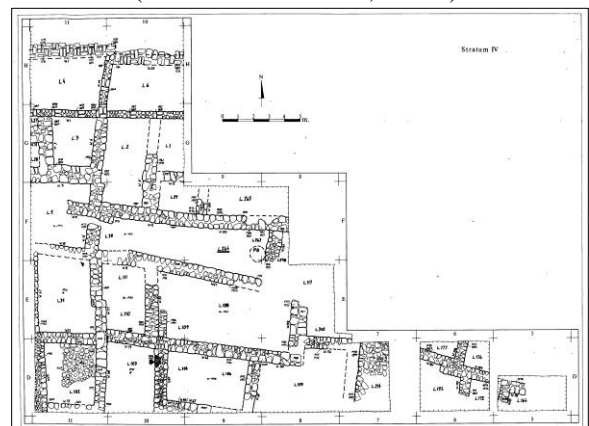
Plan 2.47: The layout of the "Magazine Building" at Tel Dor (Stern et al. 1997: 39; Fig. 6)



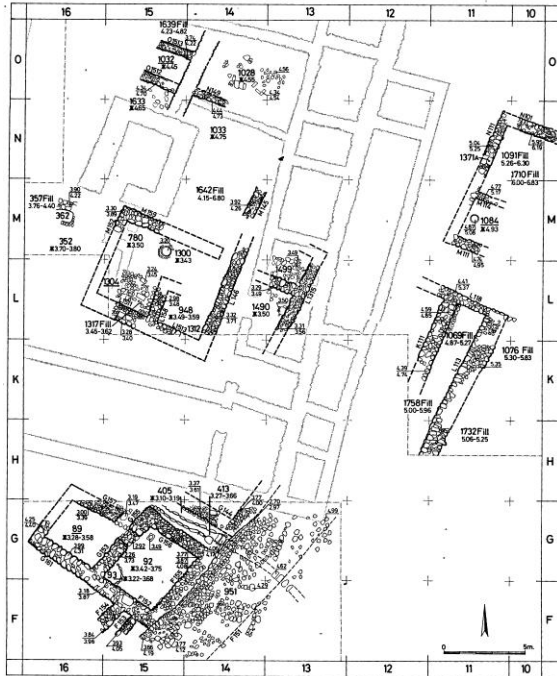
Plan 2.48: The layout of the complex of Nahal Tut (Alexandre 2006: 138; Plan 2)



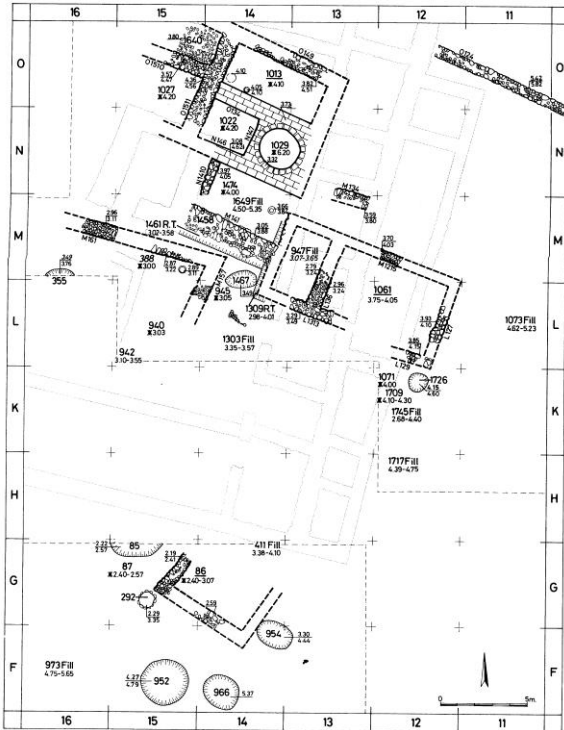
Plan 2.49: Layout of the complex of Nahal Tut (Alexandre 2006: 140; Plan 3)



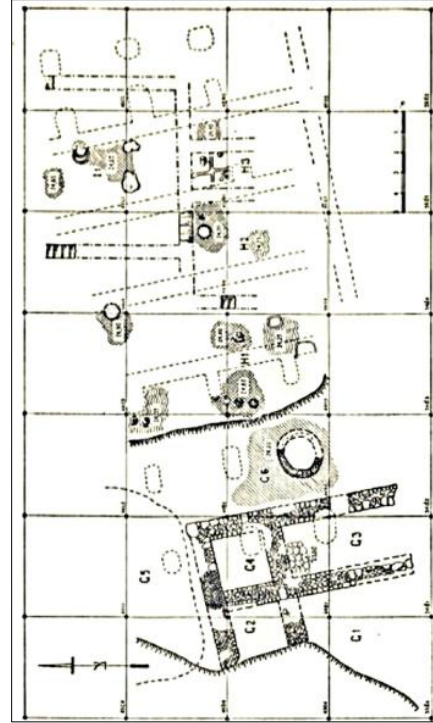
Plan 2.50: Plan of Building 264 of Tell Mevorakh (Stratum IV) (Stern 1978: Fig. 25)



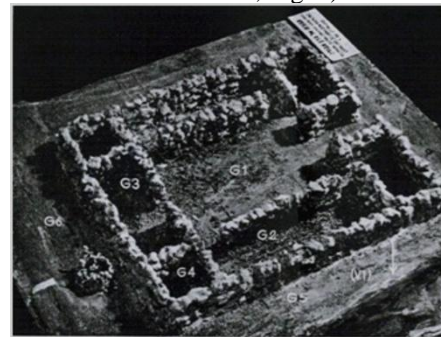
Plan 2.51: Building 89 at the high tell of Tell Makmish (Stratum VIII) (Herzog 1989: Fig. 8.12)



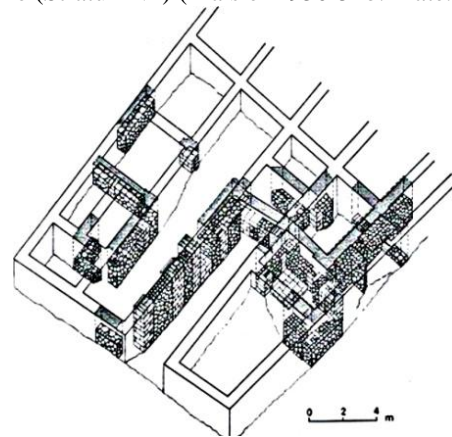
Plan 2.52: Building 1013 at the high tell of Tell Makmish (Stratum VII) (Herzog 1989: Fig. 8.17)



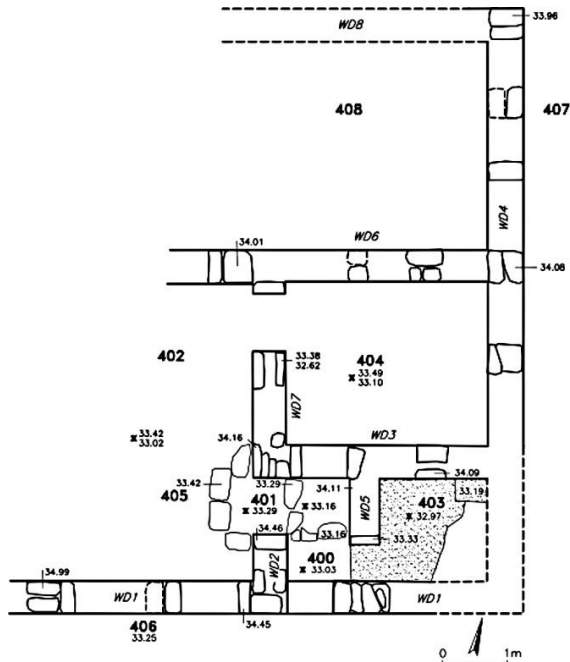
Plan 2.53: The preserved part of Building G of Tell Qasile on the southern flank of the mound (Maisler 1950-51a: 70; Fig. 2)



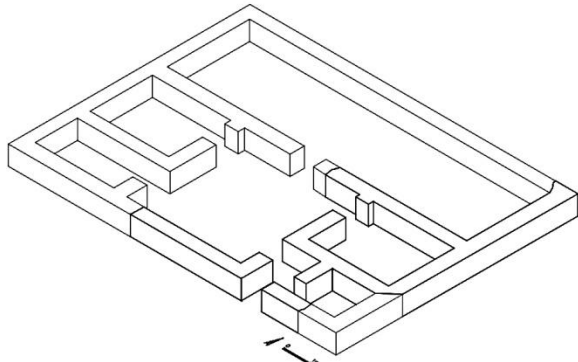
Plan 2.54: The reconstruction of Building G of Tell Qasile (Stratum VI) (Maisler 1950-51b: Plate. 39a)



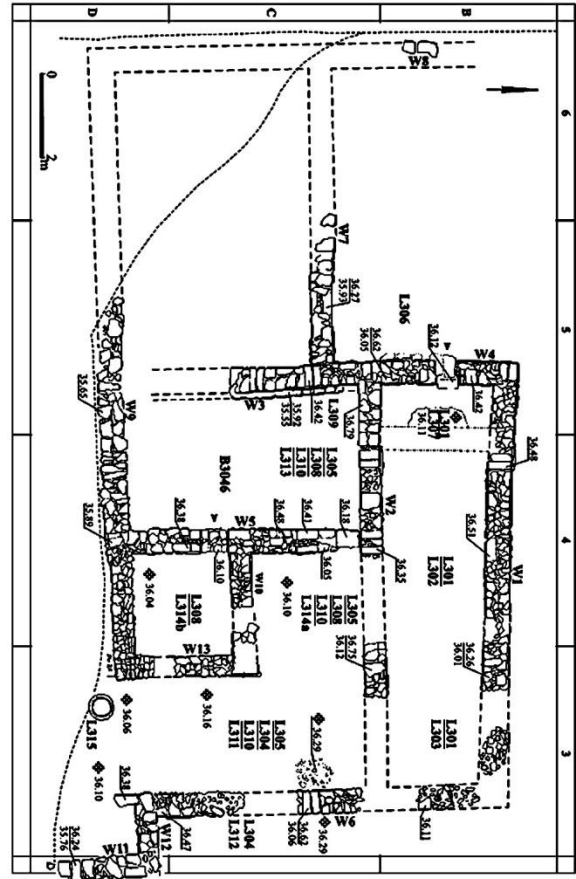
Plan 2.55: The reconstruction of Building M of Jaffa (Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 657)



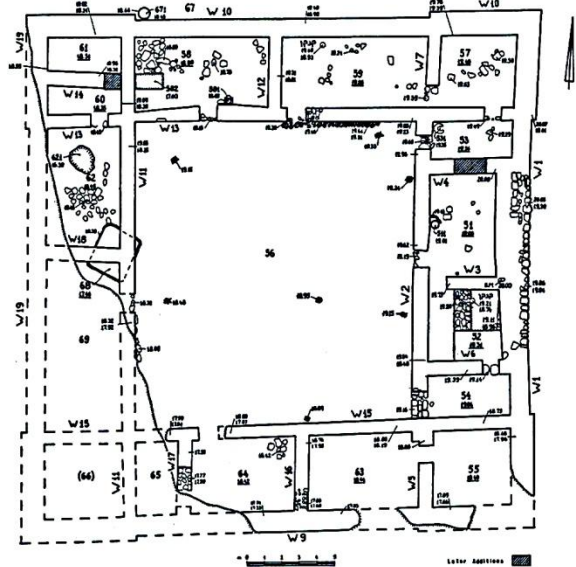
Plan 2.56: The original layout of Area D building of Tell Ya'oz (Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 7)



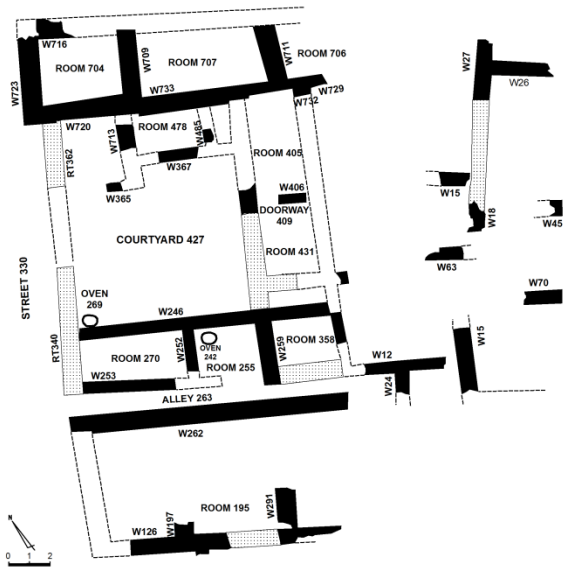
Plan 2.57: The reconstruction of Area D building of Tell Ya'oz (Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 13)



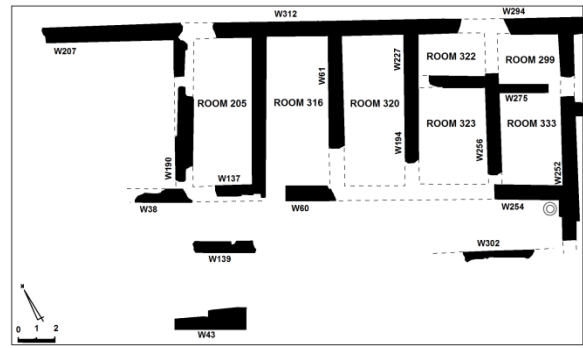
Plan 2.58: The layout of Area C building of Tell Ya'oz (Segal et al. 2006: Plan. 1)



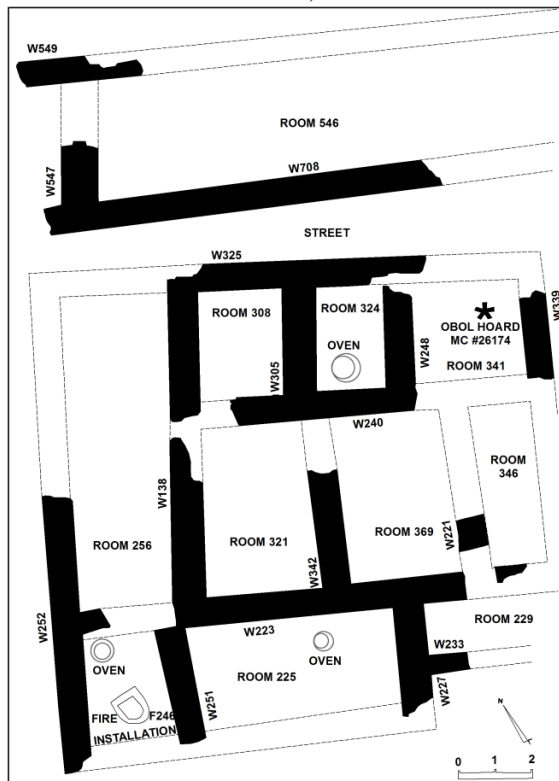
Plan 2.59: The layout of the fortress of Ashdod (Tal 2005: Fig. 7)



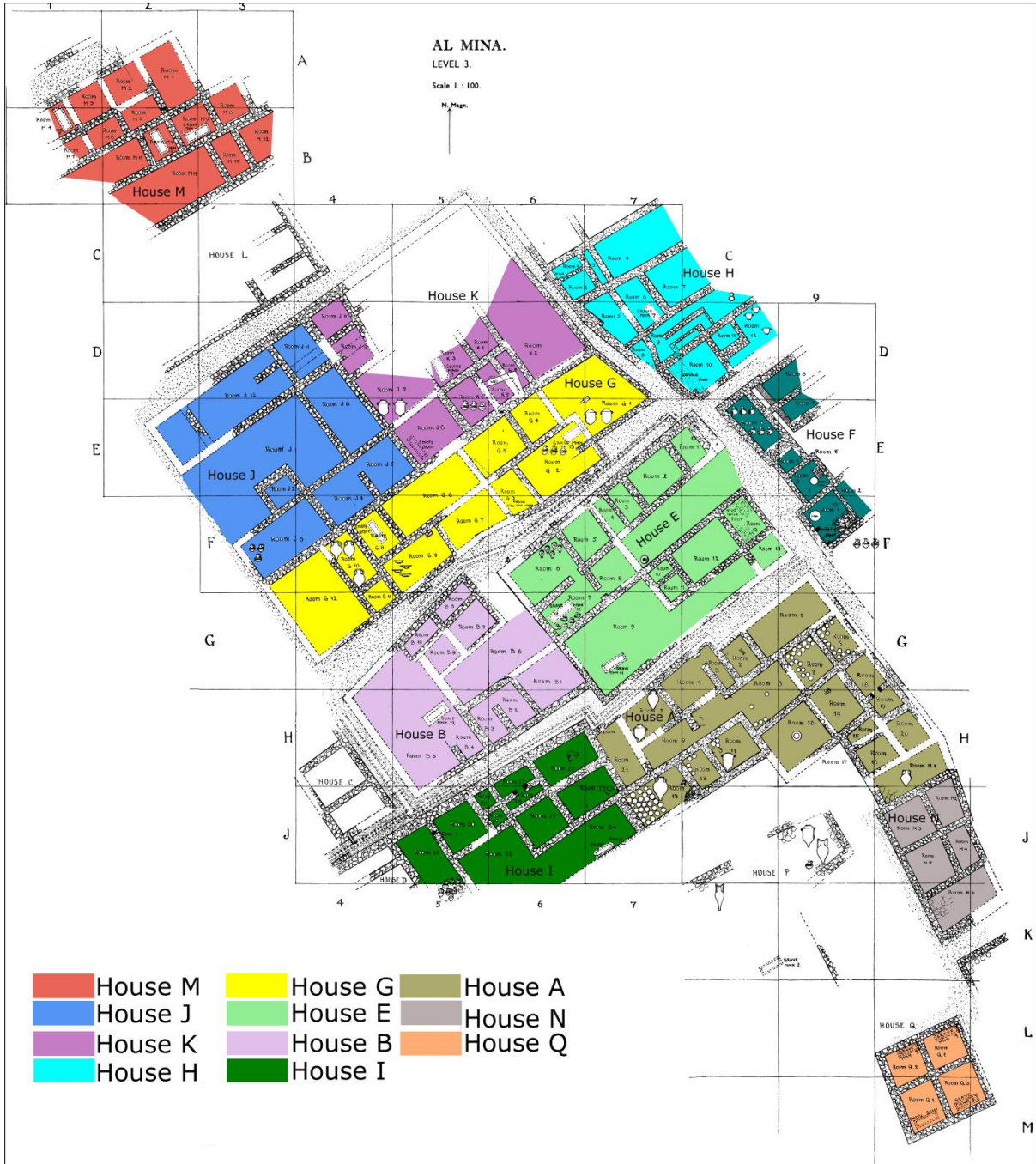
Plan 2.60: Block plan of the Villa of Ashkelon (Phase 13) in Grid 38 (adapted from Stager et al. 2008: Fig. 15.60)



Plan 2.62: Block plan of the Warehouse of Ashkelon (Phase 6) in Grid 50 (adapted from Stager et al. 2008: Fig. 15.94)



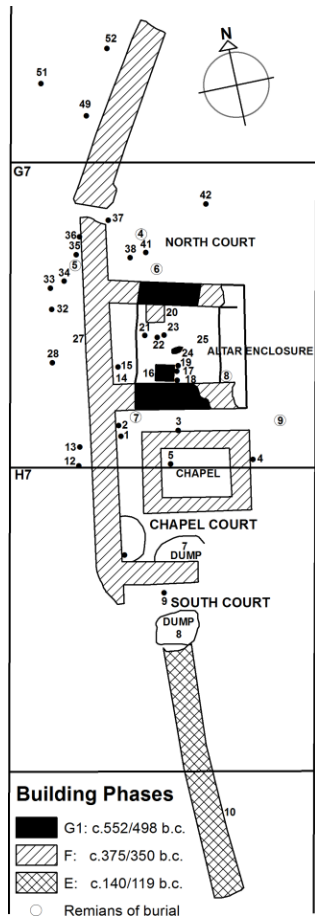
Plan 2.61: Block plan of the Villa of Ashkelon (Phase 10) in Grid 38 (adapted from Stager et al. 2008: Fig. 15.63)



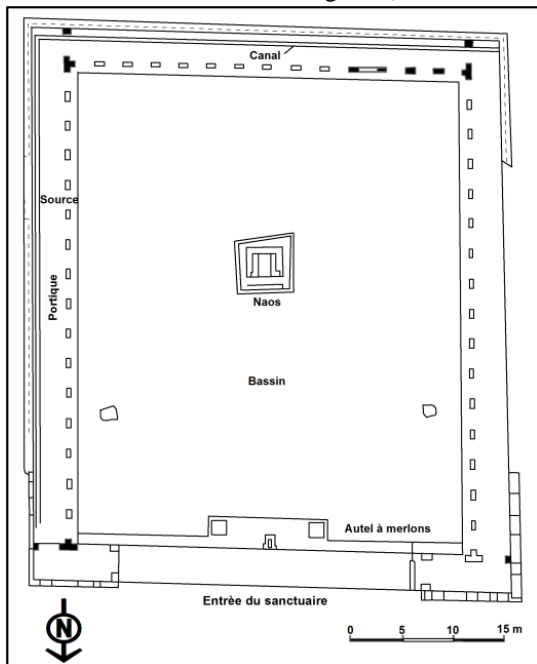
Plan 3.1: The settlement of Al-Mina (Level III) (adapted from Woolley 1938)



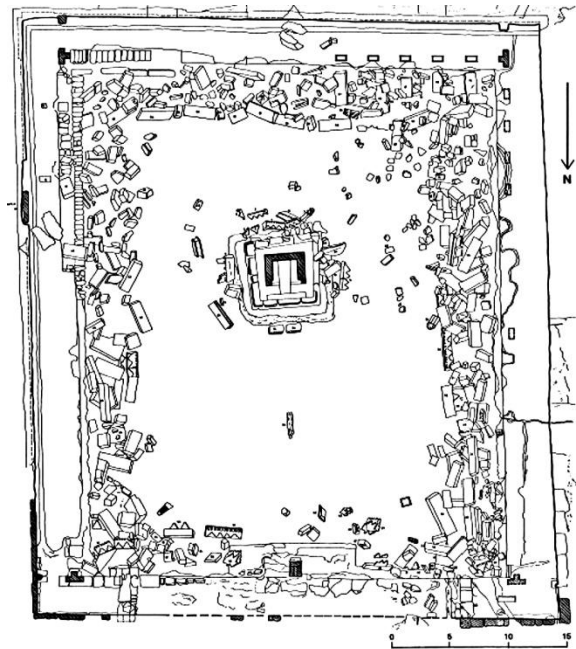
Plan 3.2: The settlement of Al-Mina (Level IV) (adapted from Woolley 1938)



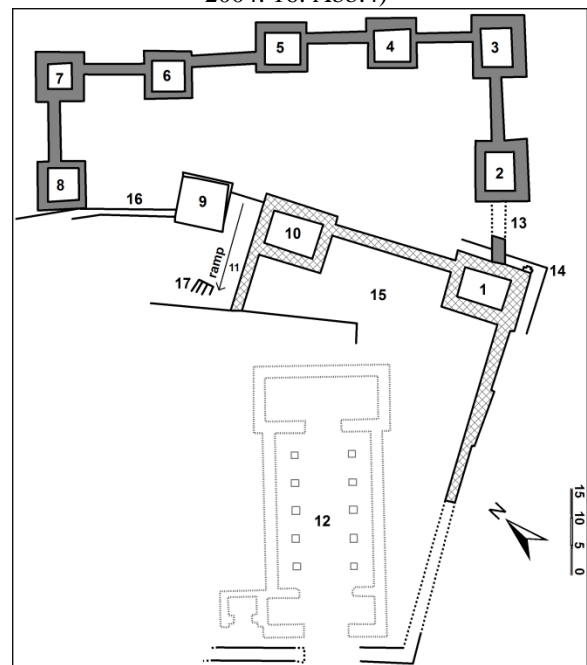
Plan 3.3: The layout of “The Late Greek and Neo-Phoenician Sanctuary” of Tell Sukas (adapted from Riis 1979: 65; Fig. 220)



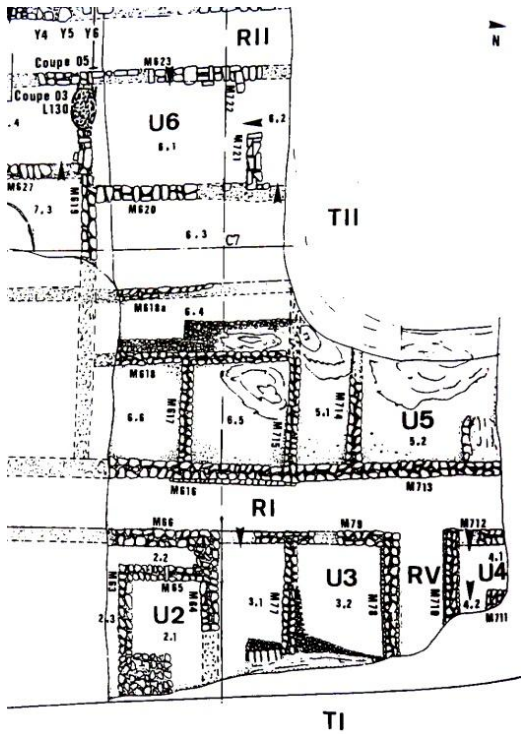
Plan 3.4: The layout of the “Ma’abed” of Amrit (adapted from Saliby 1989: 22)



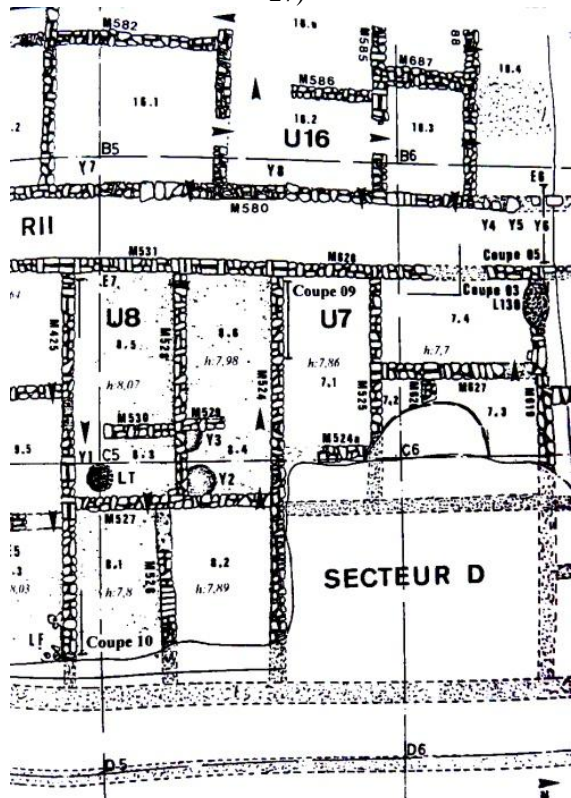
Plan 3.5: The layout of the “Ma’abed” of Amrit showing the fallen portico into the basin (Lembke 2004: 16: Abb.4)



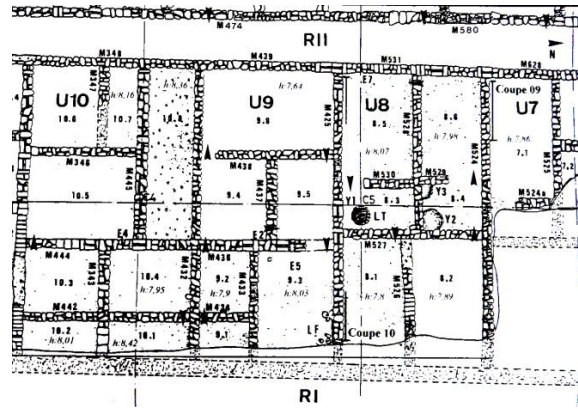
Plan 3.6: The layout of the Persian Complex at Byblos (adapted from Dunand 1969: 96)



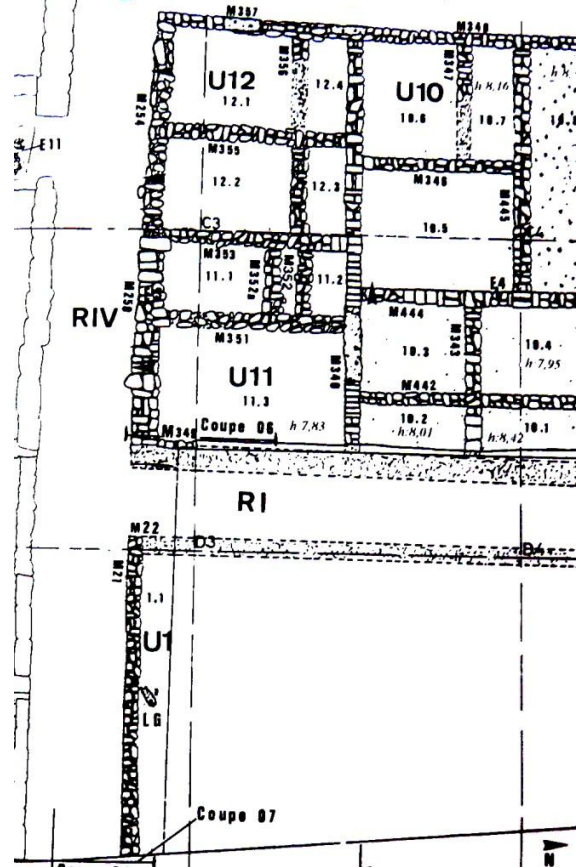
Plan 3.7: The layout of Units 2-6 of 8 of Area D in the settlement of Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 27)



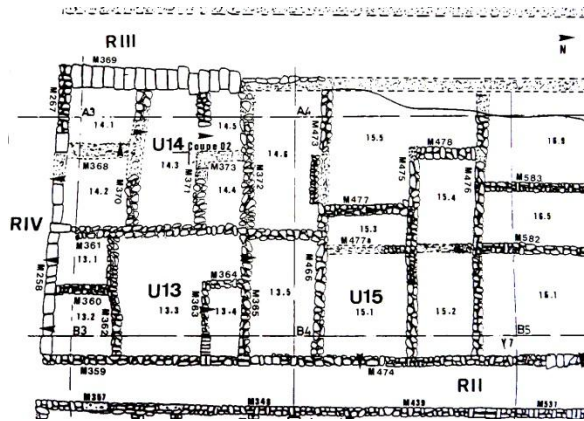
Plan 3.8: The layout of Units 7-8 of Area D in the settlement of Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 28)



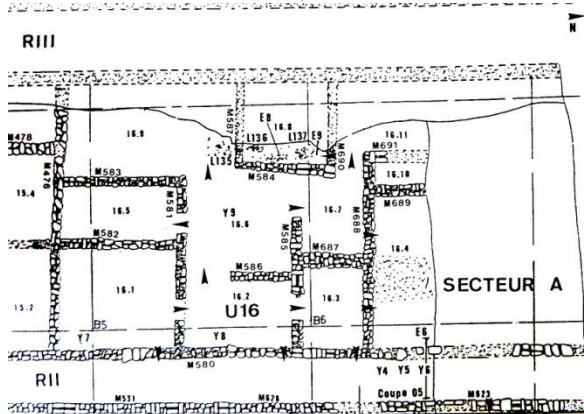
Plan 3.9: The layout of Units 9-10 of Area D in the settlement of Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 29)



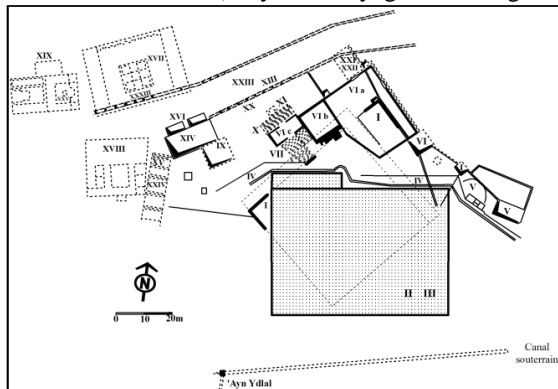
Plan 3.10: The layout of Units 11-12 of Area D in the settlement of Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 30)



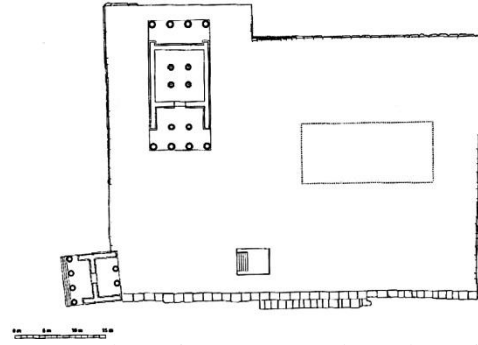
Plan 3.11: The layout of Units 13-15 of Area A in the settlement of Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 31)



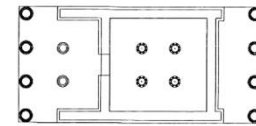
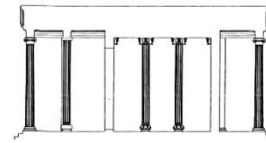
Plan 3.12: The layout of Unit 16 of Area A in the settlement of Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 32)



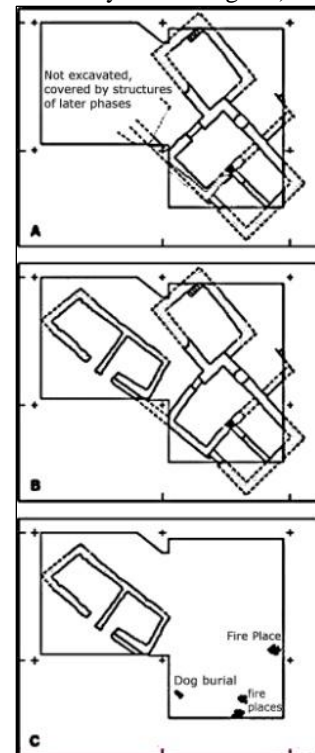
Plan 3.13: Plan of Eshmun Temple at Sidon (adapted from Dunand 1973: Fig. 1)



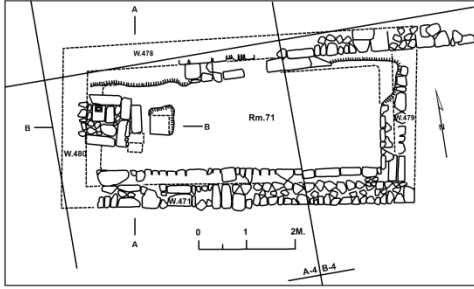
Plan 3.14: The Ionic reconstructed temple at Sidon (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 139; Fig. 11)



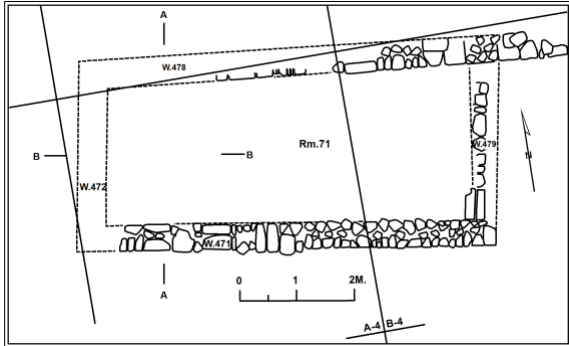
Plan 3.15: The reconstructed classical temple on the podium of Eshmun Temple at Sidon (Stucky and Mathys 2000: Fig. 14)



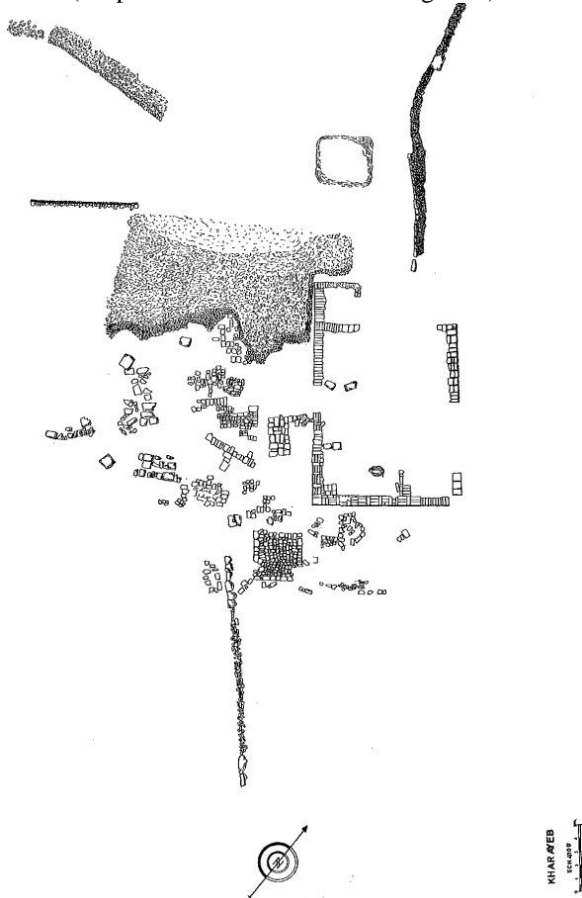
Plan 3.16: The structures of Area 3 of Tell el-Burak (modified from Kamlah and Sader 2003: 150; Fig. 4)



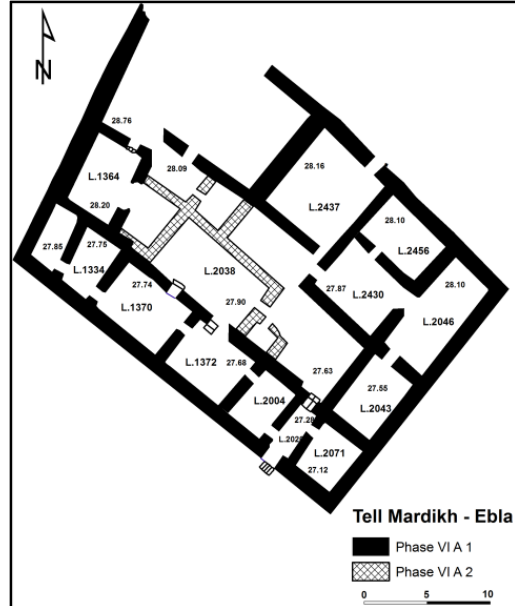
Plan 3.17: The plan of Shrine I (Level 3) of Sarepta (modified from Pritchard 1978: Fig. 125)



Plan 3.18: The plan of Shrine II (Level 2) of Sarepta (adapted from Pritchard 1978: Fig. 125)



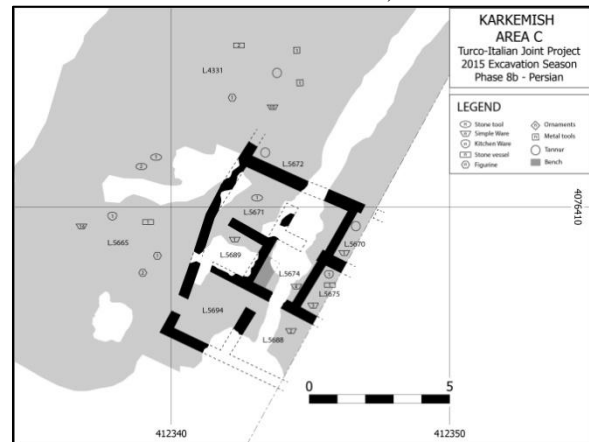
Plan 3.19: The plan of the sanctuary of Kharayeb (Kaoukabani 1973: 59)



Plan 3.20: Plan of the Residency of Tell Mardikh (adapted from Matthiae 1984: Tav. 94)



Plan 3.21: Plan of the Residency of Tell Mardikh and the private houses around it (adapted from Peyronel 2004: Tav. CXXI)



Plan 3.22: The ground plan of the house of Karkemish (Courtesy of N. Marchetti)

Appendix B

Figures

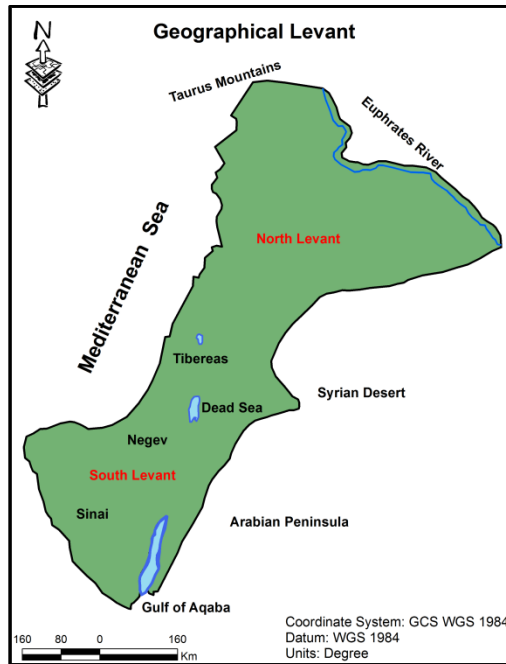


Figure 1.1: Map of geographical Levant

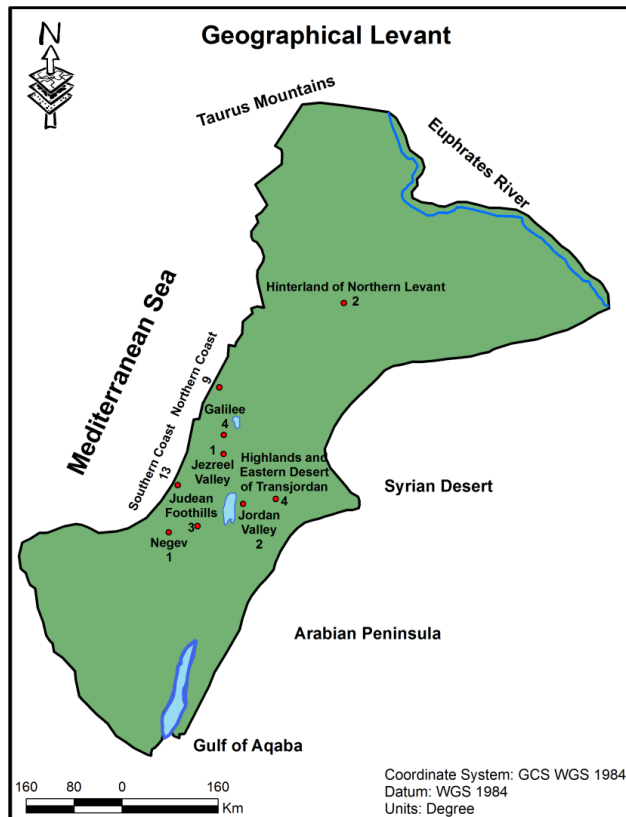


Figure 1.2: The geographical distribution of the Persian-period regions in the Levant showing the number of the key sites in each region

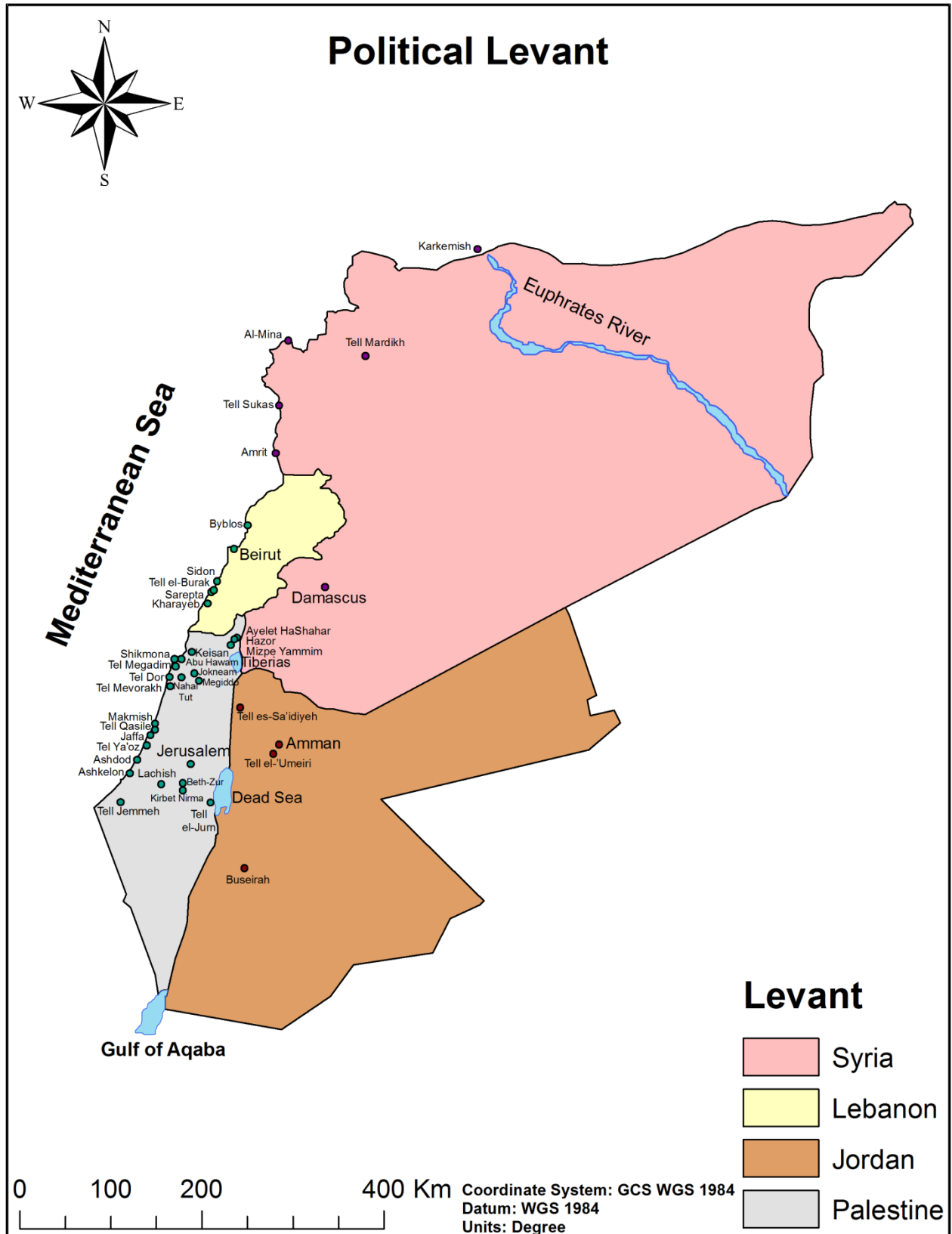


Figure 1.3: The principal Persian-Period sites mentioned in the text



Figure 2.1: The drainage channel beneath the open court of villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Looking west) (Pritchard 1985: Fig. 118)

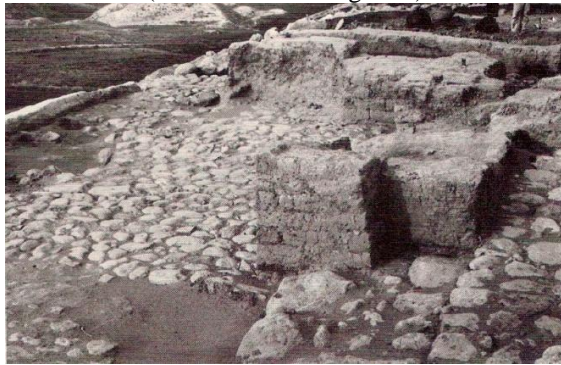


Figure 2.2: The entrance between Room 101 and 102 of the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Looking west) (Pritchard 1985: Fig. 123)



Figure 2.3: Room 102 of the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Looking east) (Pritchard 1985: Fig. 124)



Figure 2.4: The Corridor (L.103) of the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Looking North) (Pritchard 1985: Fig. 125)



Figure 2.5: North view of Building 234 of Tell el-Jurn (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: pl. 29)



Figure 2.6: The northern entrance to Building 234 of Tell el-Jurn (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: pl. 30: A)

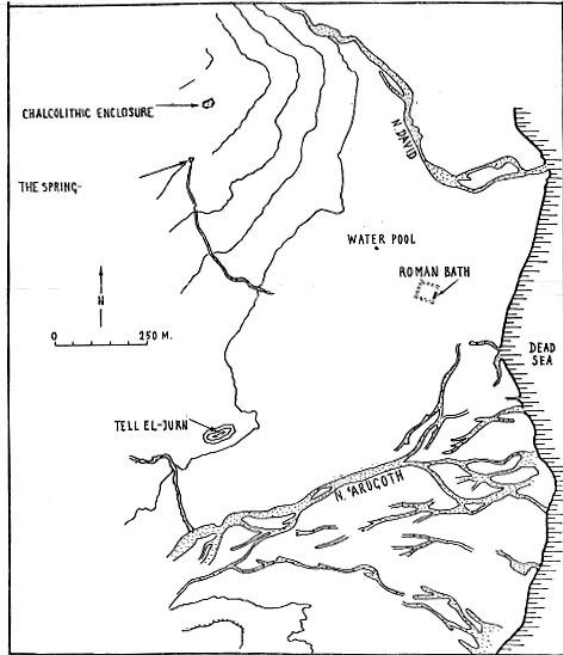


Figure 2.7: The topographical location of Tell el-Jurn in the oasis of En-Gedi (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1964: 122, Fig. 1)

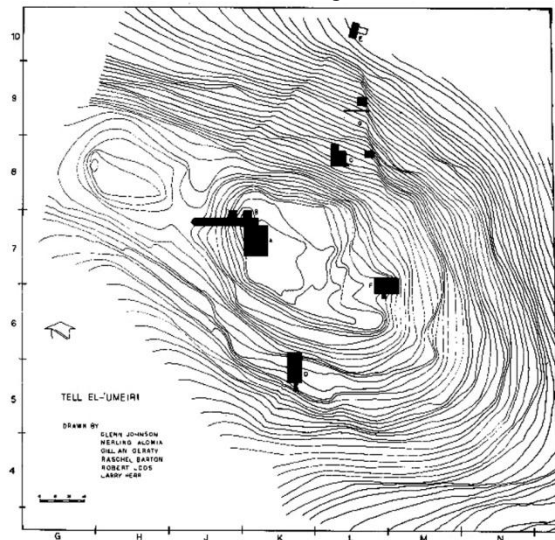


Figure 2.8: The topographic map of Tell El-Umeiri showing the excavated fields (Herr et al. 1994: 149; Fig. 2)



Figure 2.9: Steps 5.9.F18 of Area A Complex at Buseirah (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.55)



Figure 2.10: Plastered room in Trench A5.1 which was identified as a "Purification Room", looking west (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.52)

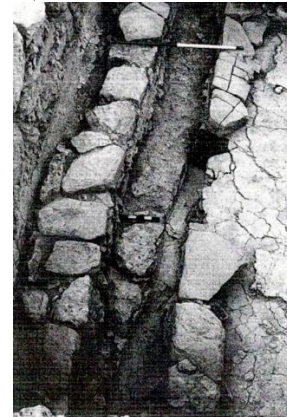


Figure 2.11: Drain 60.4.F13 in Trench A60.4 of Area A Complex at Buseirah, looking southeast (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.49)



Figure 2.12: Entrance in Wall 8 of Area A Complex at Buseirah, looking south (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.33)

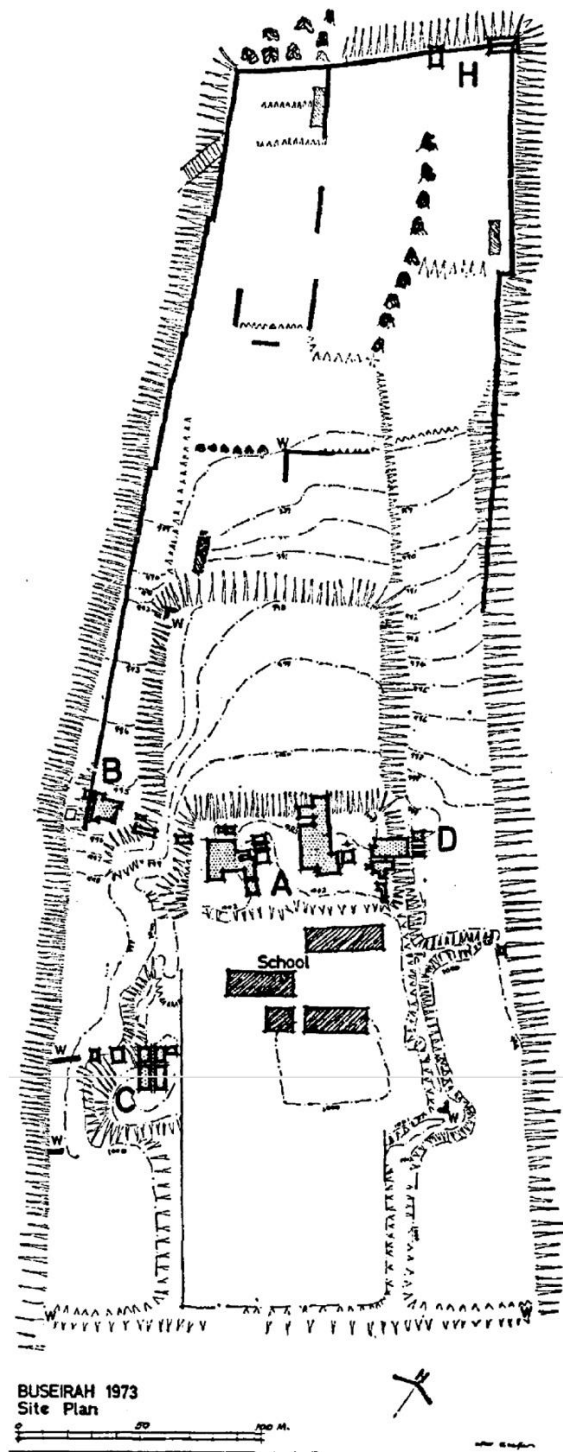


Figure 2.13: The excavated areas at Buseirah (Bennett 1975: Fig. 1)

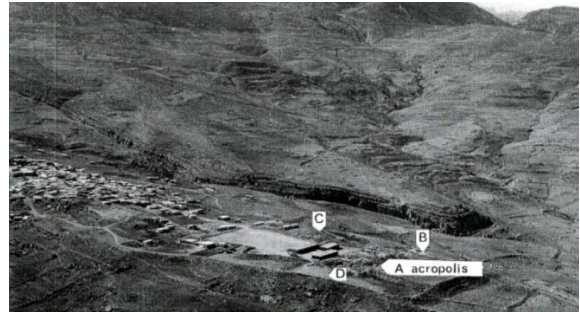


Figure 2.14: The excavated areas at Buseirah (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 1.1)

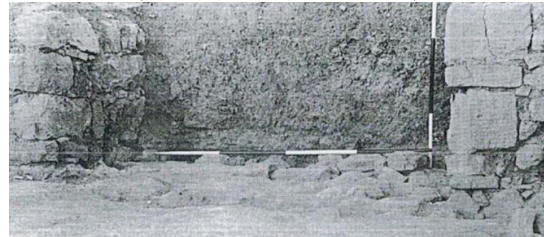


Figure 2.15: Entrance in Wall 8 of Area A Complex at Buseirah, looking south (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.33)



Figure 2.16: A doorway in Wall 77 (top right) of Area A Complex at Buseirah, looking east (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.32)

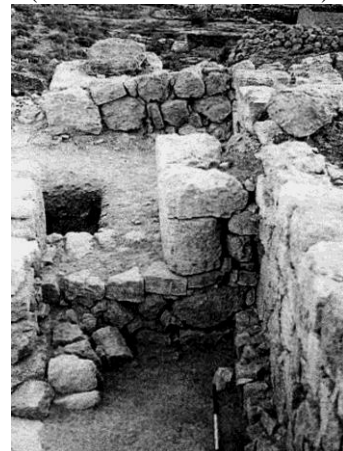


Figure 2.17: Doorway in Wall 83, with Wall 86 (right) of Area A Complex at Buseirah, looking southwest (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.30)



Figure 2.18: Doorway with a stone threshold in Wall 36 of Area A Complex at Buseirah, looking northwest (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 4.16)



Figure 2.19: A niche in the north-eastern face of Wall 9 of Area C Complex at Buseirah, looking south (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 6.16)

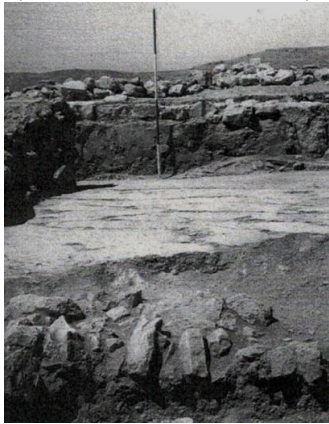


Figure 2.20: Plaster Floor 12.2.6 running up towards Wall 9 of Area C Complex at Buseirah (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 6.30)



Figure 2.21: Wall 9 showing plastered "bench" or "shelf" of Area C Complex at Buseirah (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 6.18)



Figure 2.22: A flat stone (threshold?) Between Walls 9 (right) and 13 (left) (10.1.F33) (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 6.20)



Figure 2.23: A hearth at the corner formed by Walls 18 and 5 in trench C10.3 or Area C Complex at Buseirah, looking east (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 6.42)



Figure 2.24: Stone toilet 12.3.F22 in Area C Complex at Buseirah, looking northeast (Bienkowski 2008: Plate 6.43)

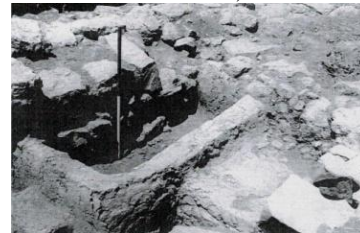


Figure 2.25: Bathroom in Trench C12.3, showing Toilet 12.3.F22, Plaster Steps 12.3.F23 and Bath 12.3.F25 in Area C Complex at Buseirah, looking west (Bienkowski 2008: Pl. 6.45a)



Figure 2.26: Bathroom in Trench C12.3, looking southeast (Bienkowski 2008: Pl.6.46)



Figure 2.27: General view of the temple of Mizpe Yammin with its side room, looking east (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 33; Fig. 11)



Figure 2.28: The rectangular hall of the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammin showing two column bases, the southern altar, and the two ashlar blocks near the altar, looking southwest (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 34; Fig. 12)



Figure 2.29: Altar (Loc.23) at the northwest corner of the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammin, looking southeast (Berlin and Frankel 2012: 35; Fig. 15)



Figure 2.30: Wall 15 with its niches and enclosures alongside Hall 3009 of Citadel II of Hazor, looking east (Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. XVIII: 1)



Figure 2.31: The drainage system from the courtyard to Room 3003 of Citadel II of Hazor, looking west (Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. XX: 5)



Figure 2.32: An enclosure along the northern wall of Hall 3001 (W2) of Citadel II Hazor (Yadin et al. 1958: Pl. XVI: 2)



Figure 2.33: Aerial view of Area B of Hazor showing Citadel II (Yadin 1956a: Fig. 5)



Figure 2.34: Aerial view of the mound of Jokneam (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: Photo I.1)

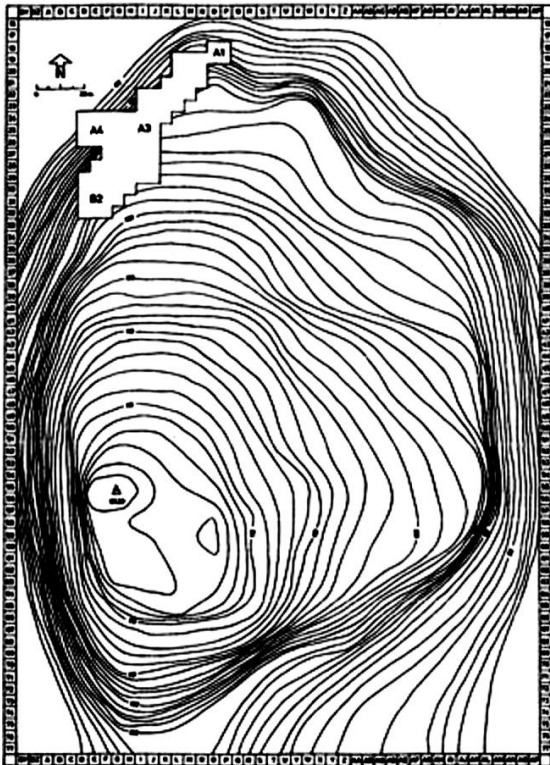


Figure 2.35: Topography and excavated areas of the mound of Jokneam (Ben-Tor et al. 2005: Plan I.1)



Figure 2.36: Remains of the fortress of Megiddo (Fisher 1929: 61; Fig. 41)



Figure 2.37: The fortress of Megiddo surrounded by the badly-damaged houses (Fisher 1929: 61; Fig. 39)

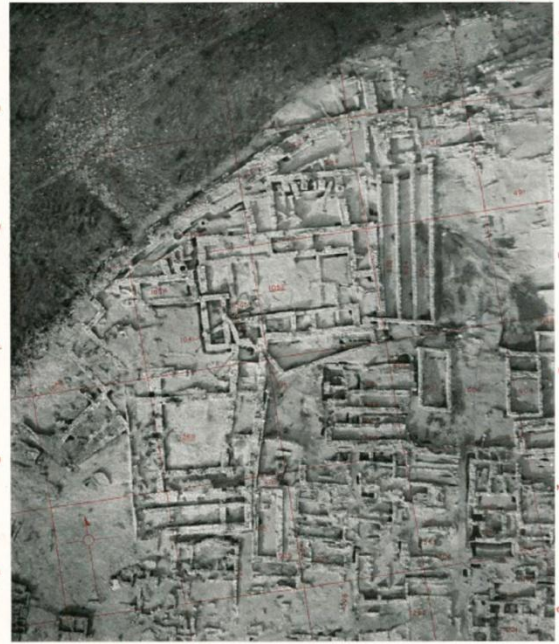


Figure 2.38: Aerial view of Stratum I of Megiddo with most of Stratum III remains (Lamon and Shipton 1939: Fig. 117)



Figure 2.39: Aerial view from the north of Lachish (Ussishkin 2004a: 24, Fig. 2.2)

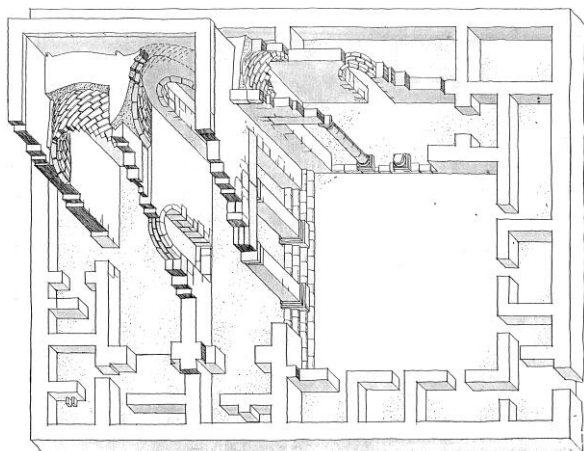


Figure 2.40: Reconstruction of the Palace of Lachish showing the barrel roof (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 120)



Figure 2.41: Steps leading to the southern portico at the Palace of Lachish, looking southeast (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 22: 3)



Figure 2.42: West and south porticoes of the Palace of Lachish with column basis in situ, looking southeast (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 22: 4)



Figure 2.43: Room U at the Palace of Lachish beyond the western portico, looking southwest (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 22: 6)

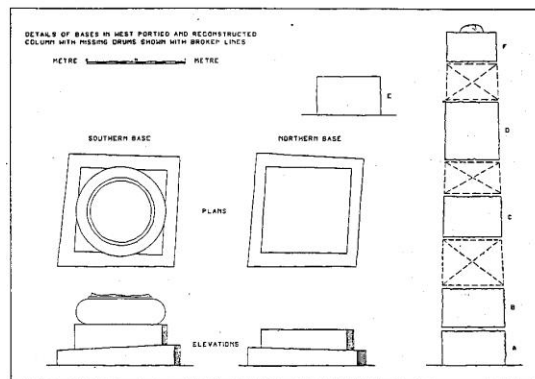


Figure 2.44: Reconstruction of the drums of the porticoes of the Palace of Lachish (Tufnell 1953: Fig. 11)



Figure 2.45: Drums in Room AE at the Palace of Lachish, looking southeast (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 22: 7)



Figure 2.46: Clay drainpipe in Bathroom B and Lavatory A at the Palace of Lachish, looking northwest (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 23: 1)



Figure 2.47: General view of the "Solar Shrine" of Lachish from the east (Starkey 1935: Plate. XVIII; Tufnell 1953: Pl. 24: 1)



Figure 2.48: The Plastered room of holly of hollies at the "Solar Shrine" of Lachish, looking west (Tufnell 1953: Plate. 24: 4)



Figure 2.49: Room 101 with the plastered doorsill at the "Solar Shrine" of Lachish (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 24: 3)



Figure 2.50: General view of the "Solar Shrine" of Lachish showing a drain in the center of the entrance of holly of hollies, looking east (Tufnell 1953: Pl. 24: 2)

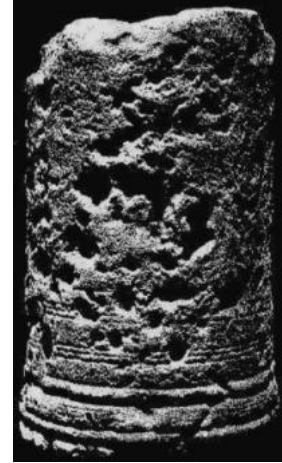


Figure 2.51: A Persian column in Building A of Tell Jemmeh (Petrie 1928: Pl. LXVII: 3)

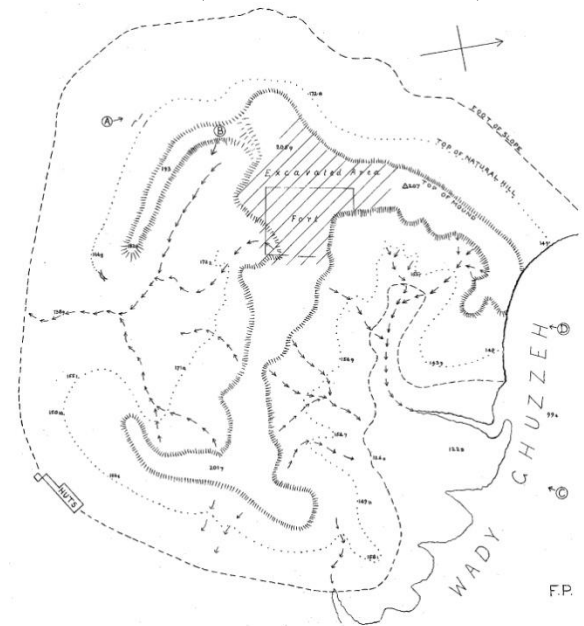


Figure 2.52: The mound of Tell Jemmeh (Petrie 1928: Pl. IV: 6)



Figure 2.53: Rubble and ashlar ribs at Structure 8 at Abu Hawam (Hamilton 1934: Plate II: 1)



Figure 2.54: Storeroom with storage jars found in situ in Tel Megadim (Broshi 1993: 1002)

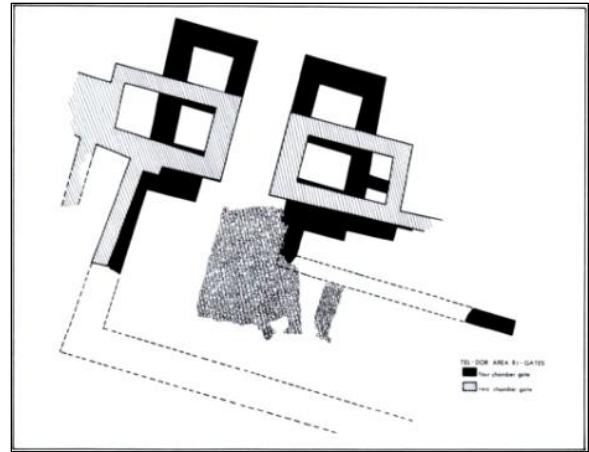


Figure 2.57: The city-gate (Area B2) at Tel Dor (Stern et al. 1992: 43; Fig. 9)

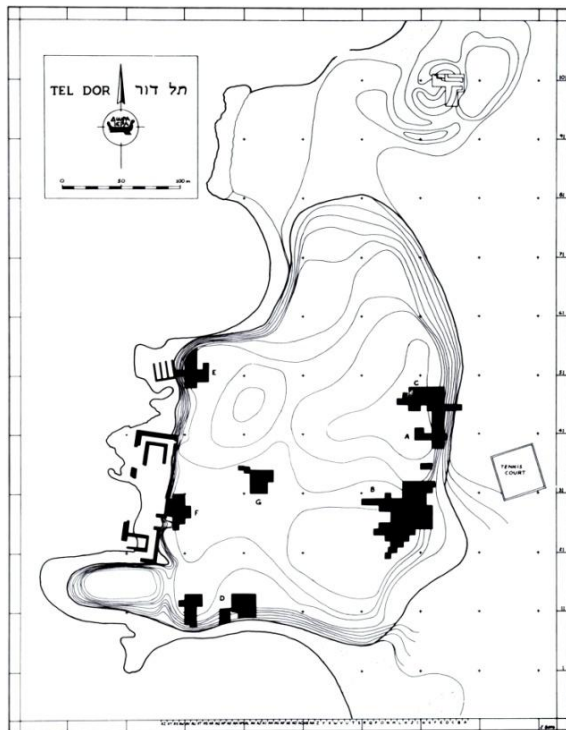


Figure 2.55: The excavated subareas on the mound of Tel Dor (Stern and Sharon 1993: 127; Fig. 1)



Figure 2.58: Part of the public building of Area D1 at Tel Dor with ashlar pillar at the centre (Stern and Sharon 1987: Pl. 26: B)



Figure 2.56: Southern chamber of the tow-chambered gate (Area B2) at Tel Dor (Stern and Sharon 1987: Pl. 25: B)



Figure 2.59: The Persian-period public building near the harbor in Area D1 at Tel Dor (Stern 2001: II. 13)

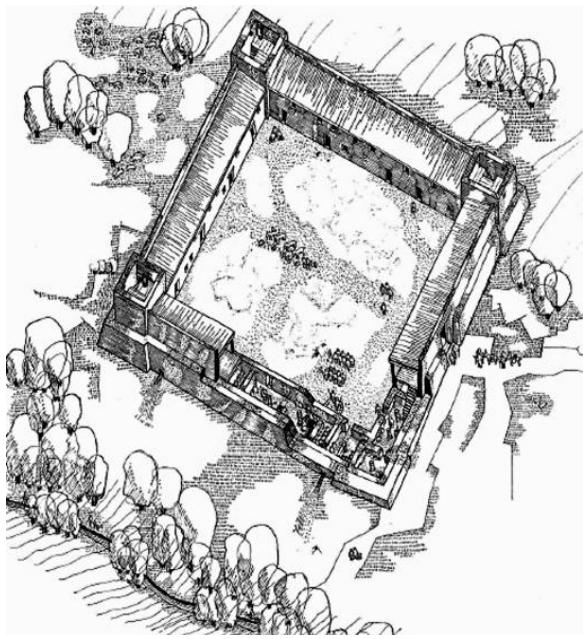


Figure 2.60: Reconstruction of the complex of Nahal Tut (Alexandre 2006: 148; Fig. 33)

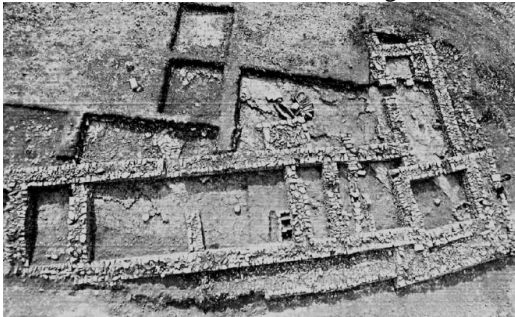


Figure 2.61: Aerial view of the complex of Nahal Tut (Alexandre 2006: 138; Fig. 8)



Figure 2.62: Stone podium in the eastern side of the central courtyard of the complex of Nahal Tut (Alexandre 2006: 147; Fig. 32)



Figure 2.63: Stone-paved floor of Room 129 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking east (Alexandre 2006: 145; Fig. 26)



Figure 2.64: The casemate walls of the complex of Nahal Tut, looking northeast (Alexandre 2006: 140; Fig. 12)



Figure 2.65: The retaining Walls 251 and 249 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking east (Alexandre 2006: 141; Fig. 14)



Figure 2.66: Pillar bases in Room 275 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking south (Alexandre 2006: 146; Fig. 27)



Figure 2.67: Installations and a pillar base in Tower 240 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking west (Alexandre 2006: 146; Fig. 28)



Figure 2.68: Stairwell in the corner of Room 275 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking east (Alexandre 2006: 147; Fig. 29)



Figure 2.69: The drain system in Room 277 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking south (Alexandre 2006: 145; Fig. 24)



Figure 2.70: The drain system in Room 115 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking west (Alexandre 2006: 145; Fig. 25)



Figure 2.71: Stone installations in Room 299 at the complex of Nahal Tut (Alexandre 2006: 147; Fig. 31)



Figure 2.72: Blocked entrance (W280) between Rooms 299 and 283 at the complex of Nahal Tut, looking northwest (Alexandre 2006: 144; Fig. 22)



Figure 2.73: View of the southern part of Building 264 of Tell Mevorakh, looking east (Stern 1978: Pl. 9: 2)



Figure 2.74: General view of the casemate wall of Building 264 of Tell Mevorakh, looking northwest (Stern 1977: Fig. 4)

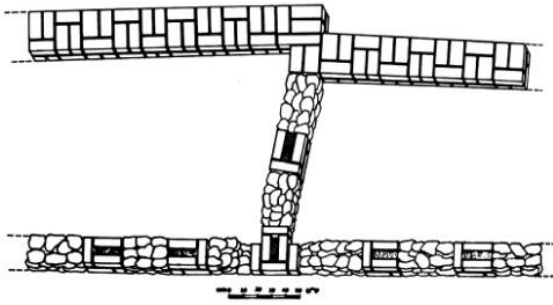


Figure 2.75: Sketch drawing of the casemate wall north of Building 264 of Tell Mevorakh (Stern 1977: Fig. 5)



Figure 2.76: The inner casemate wall of Building 264 of Tell Mevorakh (Stern 1977: Fig. 6)



Figure 2.77: Room 103 of Building 264 of Tell Mevorakh, looking south (Stern 1978: Pl. 11: 1)

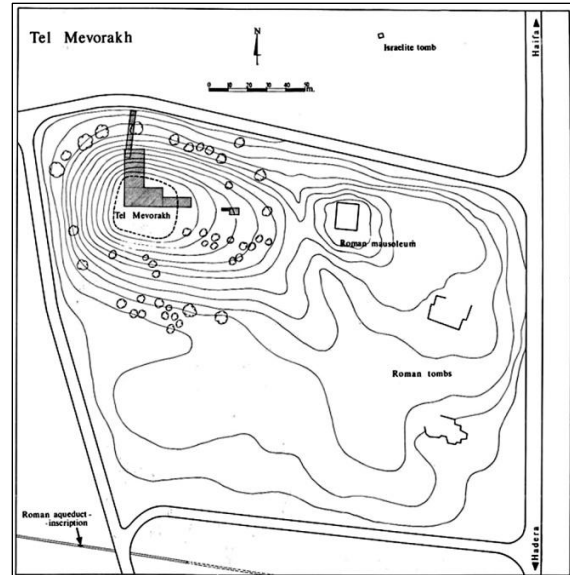


Figure 2.78: General plan of the mound and the surrounding area of Tell Mevorakh (Stern 1978: Fig. 21)



Figure 2.79: The sanctuary of Tell Makmish (Avigad 1960: Plate. 9: A)



Figure 2.80: The sanctuary of Tell Makmish (Avigad 1961: Pl. 25: a)



Figure 2.81: Wall from Building M of Jaffa showing the Phoenician technique “pier-and-rubble” (Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 658)

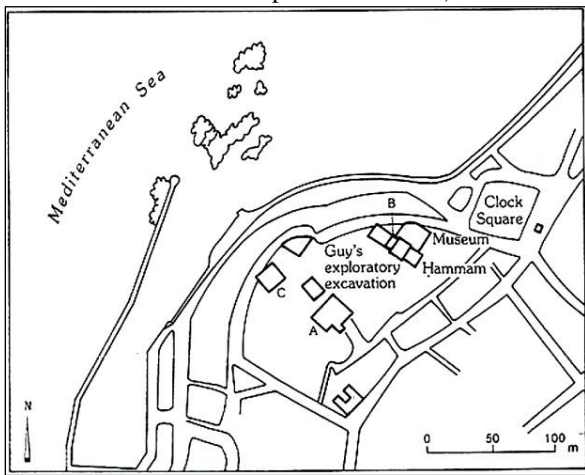


Figure 2.82: The excavated areas at Jaffa (Kaplan and Ritter-Kaplan 1993a: 655)



Figure 2.83: Wall D1 of the Area D building at Tell Ya'oz, looking west (Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 9)

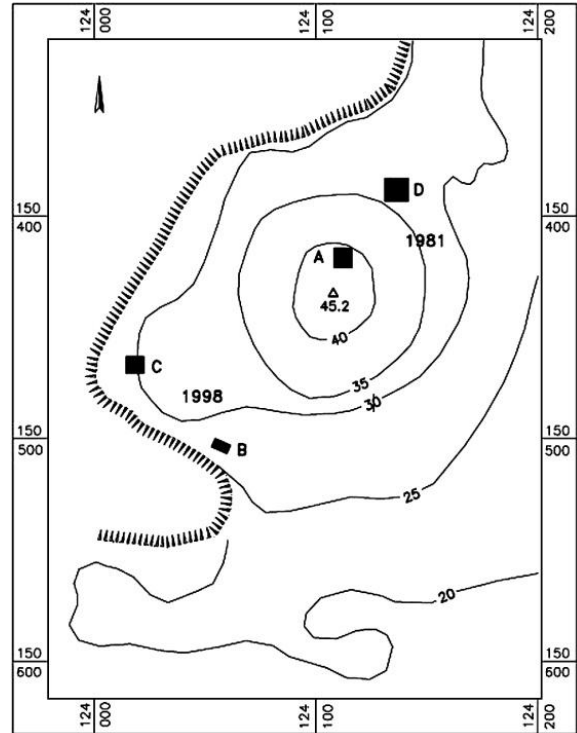


Figure 2.84: The excavation areas of Tel Ya'oz (Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 3)



Figure 2.85: The Area C building showing walls built of fieldstone with intervals of ashlar stones, looking east (Segal et al. 2006: Fig. 1)



Figure 2.86: The Warehouse (Phase 6) in Grid 50 at Ashkelon (Schloen 1997: Fig. 3)

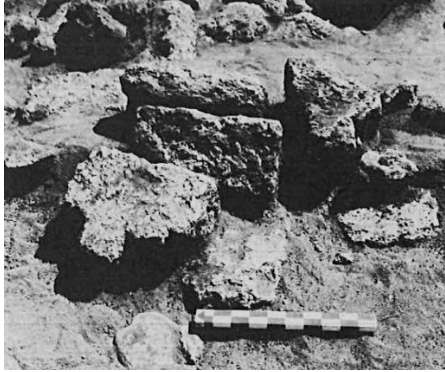


Figure 3.1: Fallen merlons (Loci.30 and 31) from the sanctuary of Tell Sukas (Riis 1979: 48; Fig. 149)

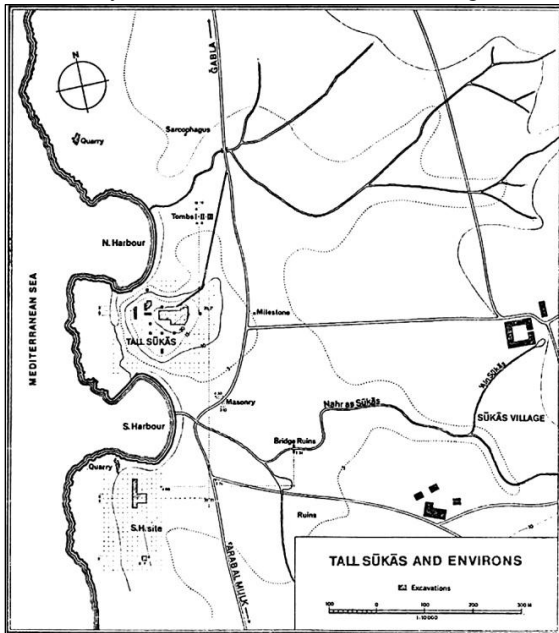


Figure 3.2: The topographical location of the mound of Tell Sukas (Riis 1983: 511; Fig. 2)



Figure 3.3: General view of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Lembke 2004: Taf. 1: a)

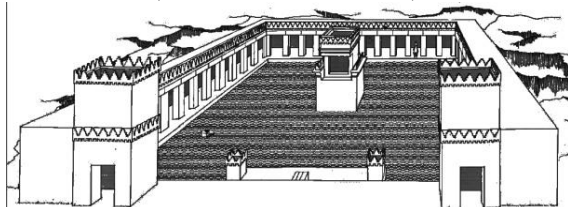


Figure 3.4: A reconstruction of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LXIII)



Figure 3.5: Battlements frieze with dentil at the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Lembke 2004: Taf. 1: E)



Figure 3.6: Water spout on the shape of a gargoyle at the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Lembke 2004: Taf. D)



Figure 3.7: Fallen architraves in the southeast corner of the portico at the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XIV: 1)



Figure 3.8: Southeast corner of the portico showing a canal at the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Lembke 2004: Taf. 1: c)

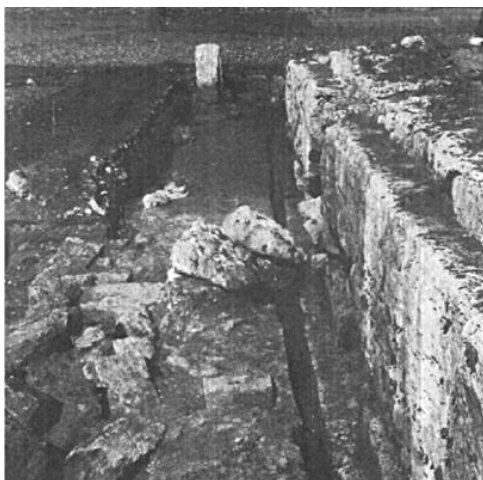


Figure 3.9: The eastern dock of the “Ma’abed” of Amrit with the canal along its length (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XII: 1)



Figure 3.10: The southern dock of the “Ma’abed” of Amrit with its canal (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XXXI. 2-3)

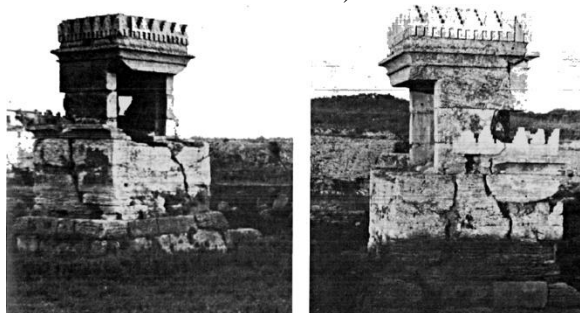


Figure 3.11: The shrine (naos) in the centre of the “Ma’abed” of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XXXI. 2-3)



Figure 3.12: The lower part of the naos at the “Ma’abed” of Amrit showing the Egyptian cornice and merlons (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XXIX: 2)

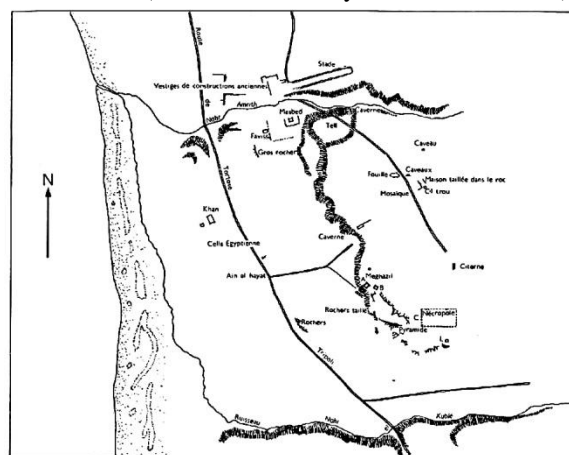


Figure 3.13: The topographical location of the “Ma’abed” of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: 3: Fig. 1)



Figure 3.14: The corner towers of the podium of the Persian Complex at Byblos with a solid wall linked them, looking northwest (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.15: The northwest corner of the podium of the Persian Complex at Byblos showing glacis and a crouching lion decorating the corner, looking west (Photo by Author)

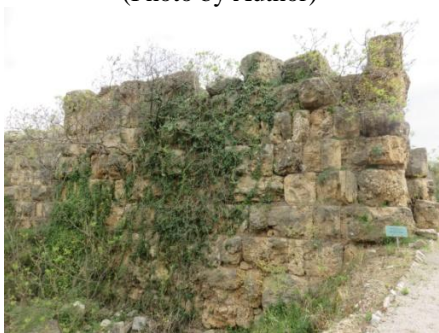


Figure 3.16: The southeast corner of Tower no.2 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking south (by the author)



Figure 3.17: The southeast corner of Tower no.3 of the Persian Complex at Byblos and the wall linking it with Tower no.2, looking southeast (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.18: The wall linking between Towers no.3 and no.4 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking northeast (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.19: Tower no.4 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking northeast (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.20: Tower no.5 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking northeast (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.21: Tower no.6 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking northeast (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.22: Tower no.8 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking south (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.23: Tower no.9 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking south (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.24: The retaining wall no.16 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking southwest (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.25: The ramp no.11 of the Persian Complex at Byblos, looking southwest (Photo by Author)

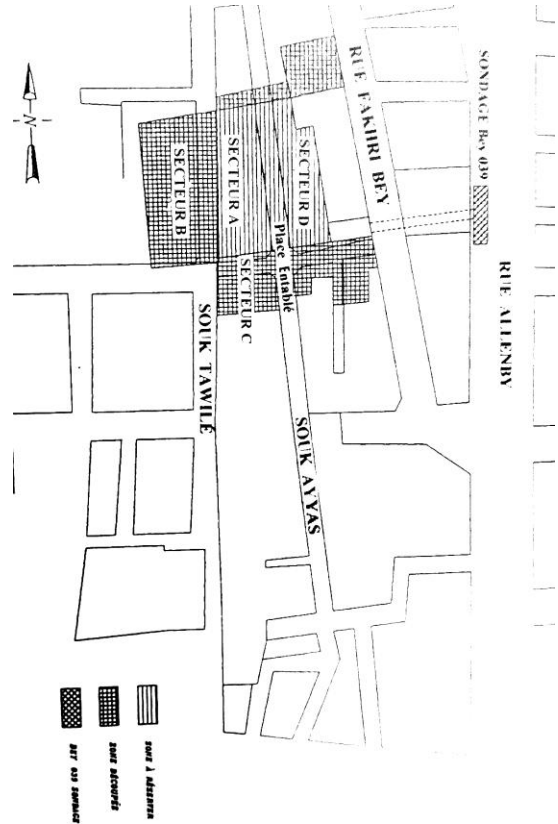


Figure 3.26: The excavated areas at Beirut (Elayi and Sayegh 2000: Fig. 2)



Figure 3.27: General view of Eshmun Temple with the podium of Bodashtart at the centre and remains of podium of Eshmun'azar II at the far-right, looking south (by the author)



Figure 3.28: Aerial view of Eshmun Temple at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 475; Fig. 14)

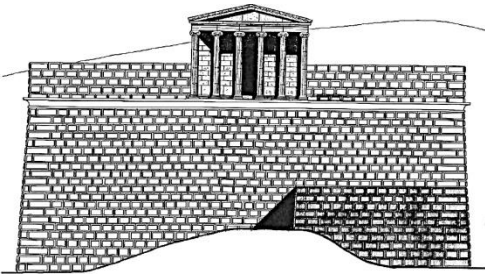


Figure 3.29: The façade of the restored Temple of Eshmun at Sidon after the revolution of the satrap (the Ionic Temple) (Stucky 2001: 255; Fig. 2)



Figure 3.30: The stones of the second podium of Temple of Eshmun at Sidon, looking east (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.31: The unaccomplished first podium of Temple of Eshmun at Sidon with rampart in the northwest corner of the second podium, looking southwest (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.32: The pentagonal structure at the sanctuary area of Temple of Eshmun at Sidon to the northeast side of the podium with a canal of water along its eastern wall, looking north (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.33: Basin no. VI at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon south of the pentagonal structure, looking south (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.34: A horned bull's head sculpting on a stone inside the pentagonal structure at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon, looking west (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.35: The entrance leading to the pentagonal structure at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon with a column base on the southern side, looking west (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.36: The basin area of Astarte throne at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon, looking south (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.37: Sculpted scenes on the back wall of the basin area of Astarte throne at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon, looking south (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.38: Bleachers incorporated into the western wall of the basin of Astarte throne at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon with an altar at the bottom, looking southeast (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.39: Location of Tribune of Eshmun at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Dunand 1973: Pl. III)



Figure 3.40: Details of Tribune of Eshmun at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Dunand 1973: Pl. IV)

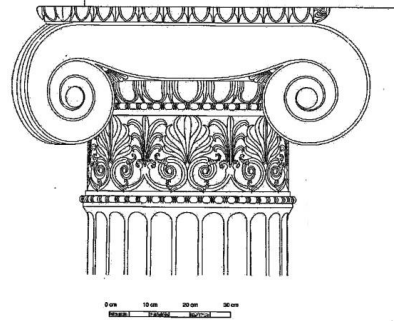


Figure 3.41: Capital of column from the restored temple (the Ionic Temple) at Sidon (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 137; Fig. 8)

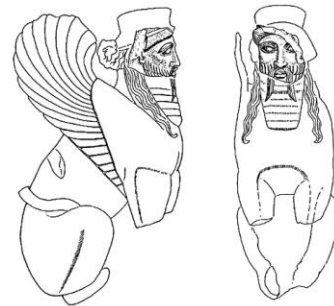


Figure 3.42: Sphinxes on the corners of the parapet of the Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 138; Fig. 10)



Figure 3.43: Column capital with four protomes of bulls at the Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Stucky and Mathys 2000: 140; Fig. 12)

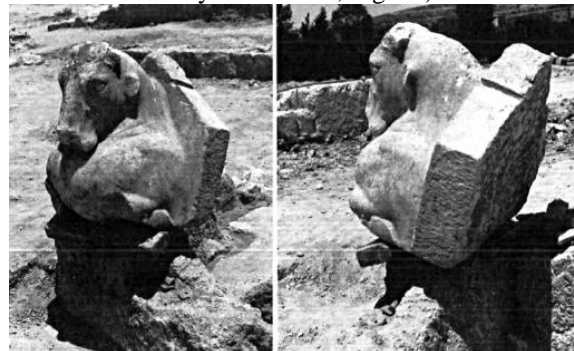


Figure 3.44: Protomes of bulls at the Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 470; Figs. 6-7)



Figure 3.45: Column bases of basalt still in situ near the podium of Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.46: Marble column in situ near the podium of Temple of Eshmun at Sidon eastward (Photo by Author)



Figure 3.47: Block with four protomes of bulls at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 471; Fig. 8)



Figure 3.48: The cubic block without bulls' protomes at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon, looking south (Photo by Author)

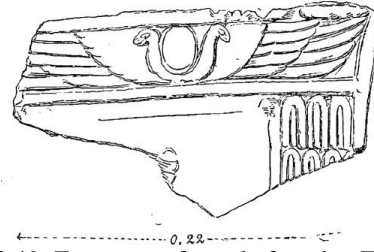


Figure 3.49: Fragment of a stele found at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Contenau 1924: 19; Fig. 13)



Figure 3.50: The *favissa* of Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Dunand 1973: Pl. X)

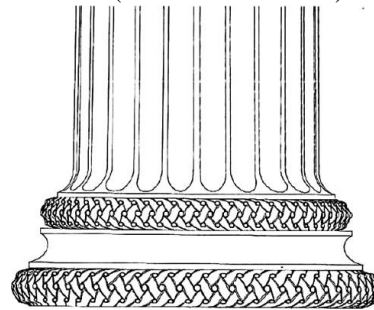


Figure 3.51: Base of column in the Attic-Ionic style at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 473; Fig. 11)

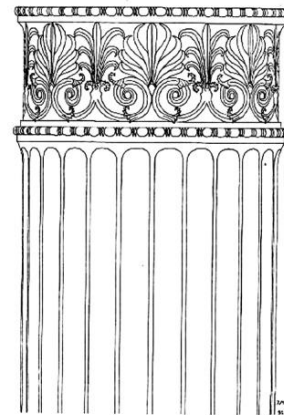


Figure 3.52: The upper part of a column at Temple of Eshmun at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 473; Fig. 12)



Figure 3.53: The “two-room” building of a later phase at Tell el-Burak (Kamlah and Sader 2003: 151; Fig.6)

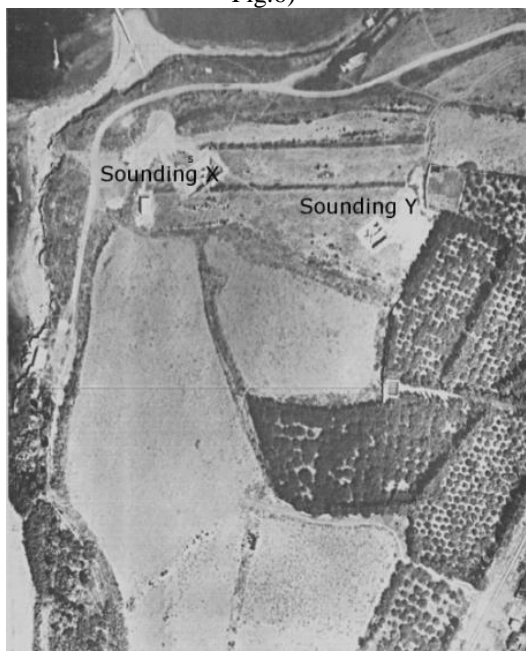


Figure 3.54: Aerial view of Sarepta showing Soundings X and Y (modified from Pritchard 1975: Fig. 31)



Figure 3.55: The shrine of Sarepta, looking west (Pritchard 1975: Fig. 33)



Figure 3.56: The industrial quarter in Sounding X northwest of Sarepta (Area II) (Pritchard 1975: Fig. 32)



Figure 3.57: The southwest corner of the sanctuary of Kharayeb covered with plaster (Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. C: 4)

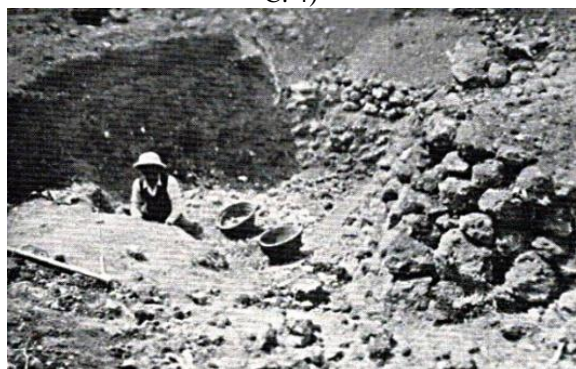


Figure 3.58: General view of the *favissa* of Kharayeb (Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. C: 1)

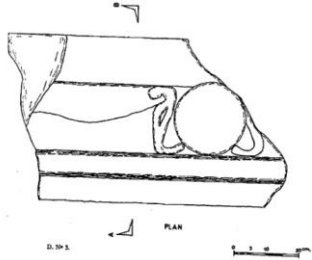


Figure 3.59: Door lintel carved with a solar disk and two winged uraei found in the sanctuary of Kharayeb (Kaoukabani 1973: 52)



Figure 3.60: The internal door which leads to the corridor of the Residency of Tell Mardikh (Mazzoni 1984: Fig. 25)

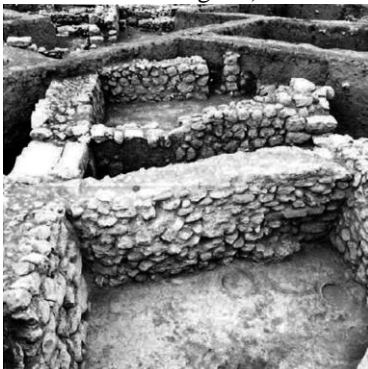


Figure 3.61: Room 2071 at the Residency of Tell Mardikh (Mazzoni 1984: Fig. 28)



Figure 3.62: Room 2004 at the Residency of Tell Mardikh, looking northwest (Mazzoni 1984: Fig. 29)



Figure 3.63: The sealed door which faces the corridor at the Residency of Tell Mardikh, looking southwest (Mazzoni 1984: Fig. 26)



Figure 3.64: Rooms 1370 and 1334 at the Residency of Tell Mardikh, looking east (Mazzoni 1984: Fig. 30)

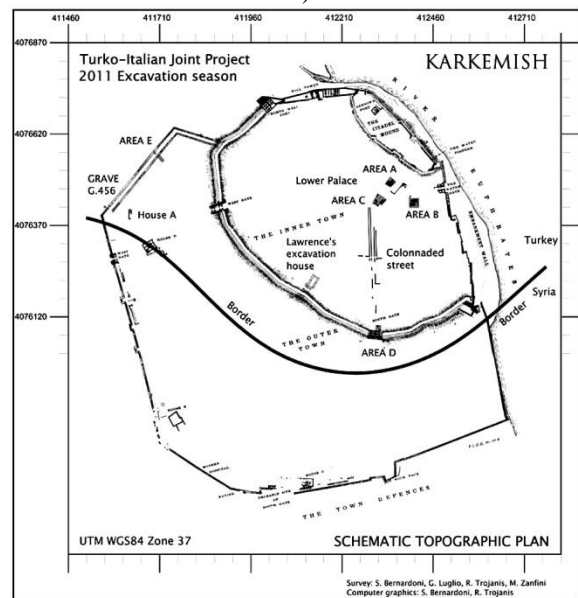


Figure 3.65: The topographic map of Karkemish (Marchetti 2012: Fig. 3)



Figure 4.1: The northwest corner of Cyrus' podium at Tall-i Takht at Pasargadae (Perrot and Soler 2013: Fig. 454)



Figure 4.2: The columns of Pasargadae (Perrot and Soler 2013: Fig. 457)



Figure 4.3: The Louvre Museum showing bulls' capitals of the Palace of Darius at Susa topped an Ionic-type shaft with a wooden roof leaning against the necks of the bulls (Perrot and Soler 2013: Fig. 320)



Figure 4.4: The merlons decoration on the eastern stairways of the Apadana of the Palace of Darius I at Persepolis (Schmidt 1951: Plate 26)

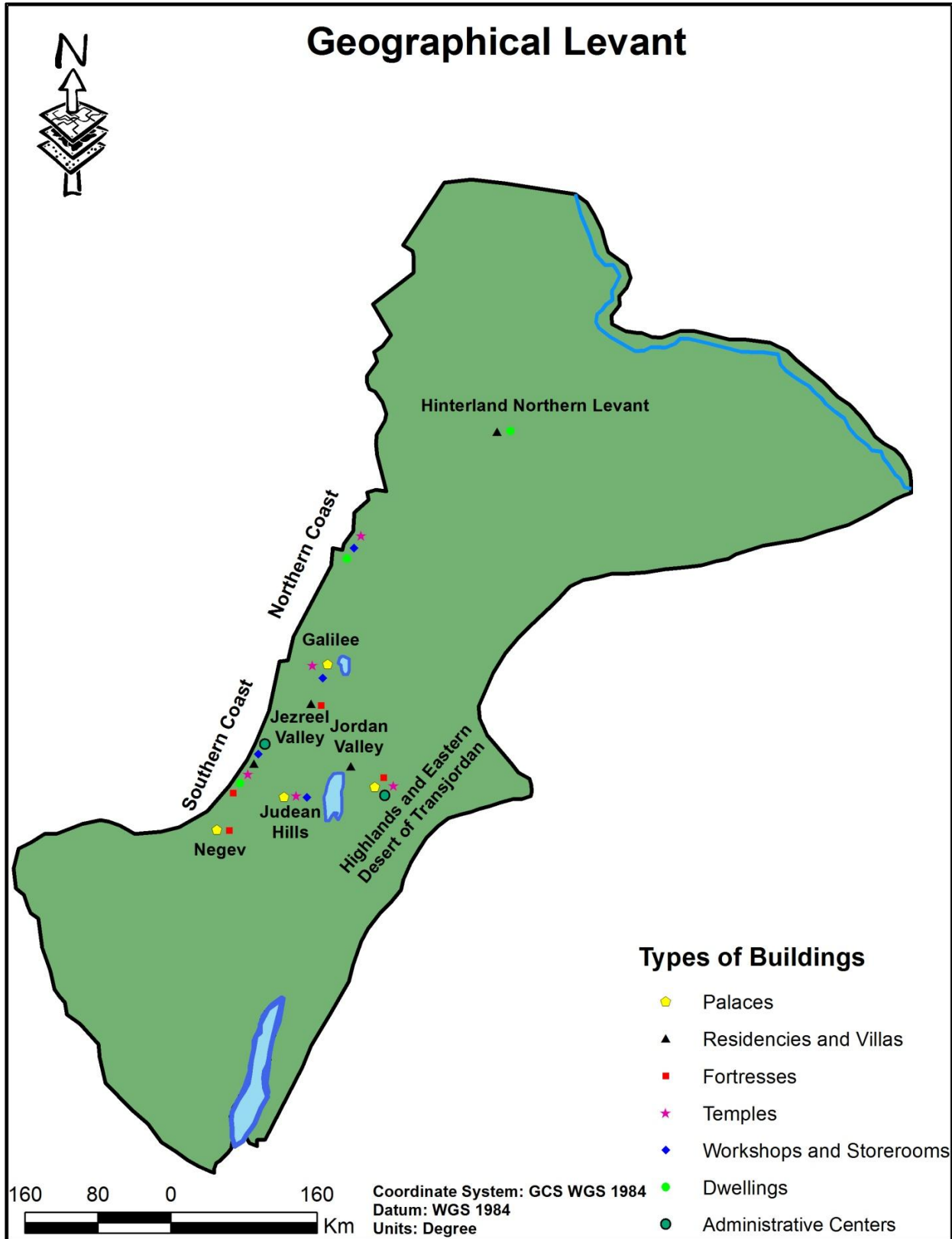


Figure 5.1: Typological distribution of the principal Persian-period buildings in the Levant

Appendix C

Plates

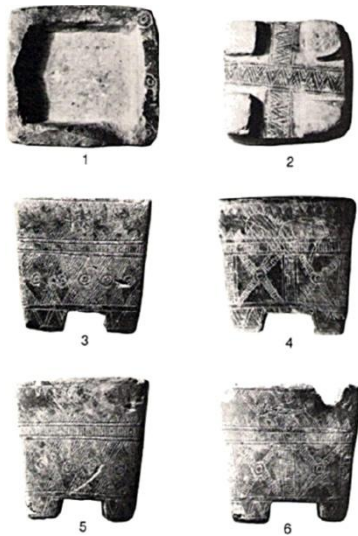


Plate 2.1: Incense burner in Room 104 of the villa of Tell es-Sa'idiyeh (Pritchard 1985: Figs. 18: 22; 174: 1-6)

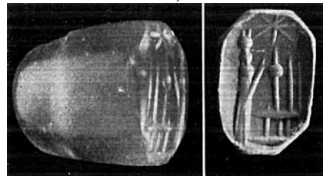


Plate 2.2: Conical chalcedony stamp seal found in Room 248 at Building 234 of Tell el-Jurn (Mazar and Dunayevsky 1967: Pl. 31: 1)



Plate 2.3: Silver coin found in Loc.17 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim (Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 36: 1)



Plate 2.4: Silver coin found in Loc.23 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim (Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 36: 3)



Plate 2.5: Bronze situla found in Loc.23 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim (Frankel and Ventura 1998: Fig. 1)



Plate 2.6: Bronze Apis bull found in Loc.23 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim (Frankel and Ventura Figs. 15-16)



Plate 2.7: Bronze prancing lion cub found in Loc.23 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim (Frankel and Ventura Figs. 22-25)



Plate 2.8: Bronze recumbent ram found in Loc.23 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammim (Frankel and Ventura 1998: Fig. 18)



Plate 2.9: Schist statuette of Isis, Osiris, and Horus found in Loc.23 at the sanctuary of Mizpe Yammin (Berlin and Frankel 2012: Fig. 29)

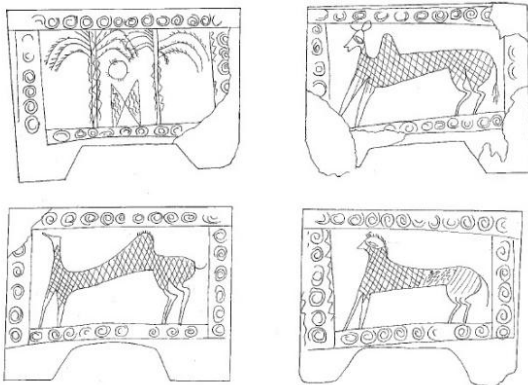


Plate 2.10: Limestone incense altar found in Loc.AM at Building A of Tell Jemneh (Petrie 1928: Pl. XL: 1-4)

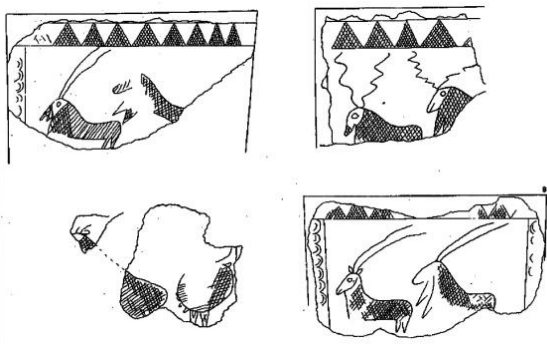


Plate 2.11: Limestone incense altar found in Room BH at Building B of Tell Jemneh (Petrie 1928: Pl. XL: 5-8)



Plate 2.12: Winged of Persian figurine made of ivory found in Room BL at Building B of Tell Jemneh (after Petrie 1928: Pl. XX: 17)



Plate 2.13: Clay impressions found in Courtyard BZ at Building B of Tell Jemneh (Petrie 1928: Pl. XX: 15-16)

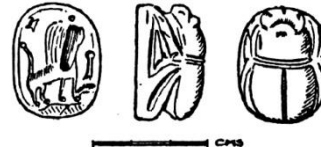


Plate 2.14: Scarab found in Building 2 at the complex of Tell Abu Hawam (Hamilton 1934: 18: no. 47)

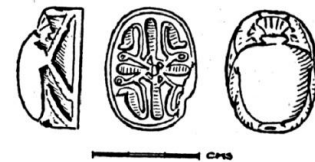


Plate 2.15: Steatite scarab found in Building 3 at the complex of Tell Abu Hawam (Hamilton 1934: 18: no. 49)

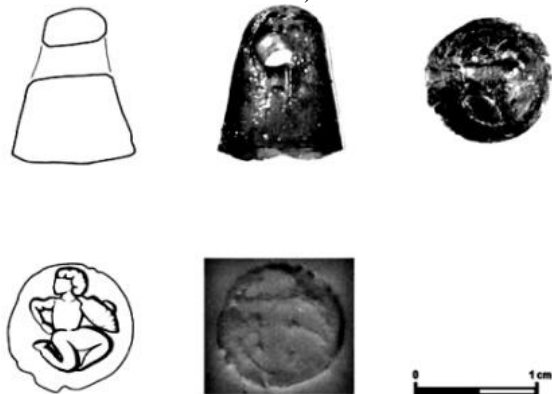


Plate 2.16: Incised glass seal depicting a nude, bearded male figurine in kneeling position identified as Heracles found in Room 405 at Area D building of Tel Ya'oz (Fischer et al. 2008: Fig. 30)

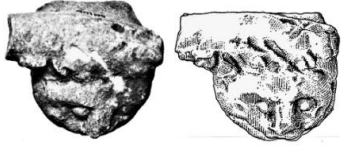


Plate 3.1: Stone fragment depicting lion's skin, perhaps referring to Herakles (Melqart) found in L.21 in the sanctuary of Tell Sukas (Riis 1979: Figs. 137-138)



Plate 3.2: Torso of Heracles-Melqart found in the Favissa of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Dunand 1944-45: Pl. XX: 21)



Plate 3.3: Statue of a juvenile deity (Imhotep) found in the Favissa of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XLII: 1)



Plate 3.4: Terracotta head wearing a pointed cap found in the Favissa of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. XLIX)



Plate 3.5: Decorated cup found in the basin of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Dunand and Saliby 1985: Pl. LIX)



Plate 3.6: Figurine of "The Persian horseman" found in the Favissa of the "Ma'abed" of Amrit (Saliby 1989: Fig. 5: b)



Plate 3.7: Figurine of squatting boy found in Eshmun Temple at Sidon (Dunand 1970: Pl. 3b)



Plate 3.8: Portrait of a satrap found in Eshmun Temple at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 474; Fig. 13)



Plate 3.9: Head of Herakles-Melqart found in Eshmun Temple at Sidon (Stucky 1991: 476; Fig. 15)

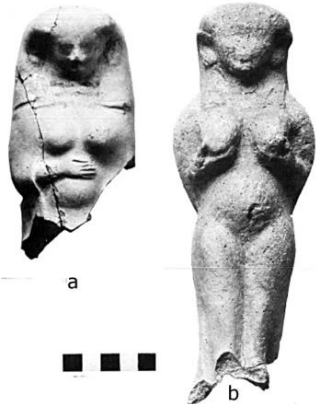


Plate 3.10: (a) Figurines of seated pregnant woman found in Room 71 at Shrine II of Sarepta; (b) Figurine of nude woman holding her breasts found in Room 71 at Shrine II of Sarepta (Pritchard 1975: Fig. 46: 1, 3)



Plate 3.11: Terracotta figurine of headless eagle found in the *favissa* of Kharayeb (Chéhab 1951-52: 23; Pl. X: 3)



Plate 3.12: Terracotta figurine of squatted Apis found in the *favissa* of Kharayeb (Chéhab 1951-52: 23; Pl. X: 4)



Plate 3.13: Terracotta figurine of male wearing a high tiara flanked by feathers found in the *favissa* of Kharayeb (Chéhab 1951-52: 23; Pl. VII: 4)

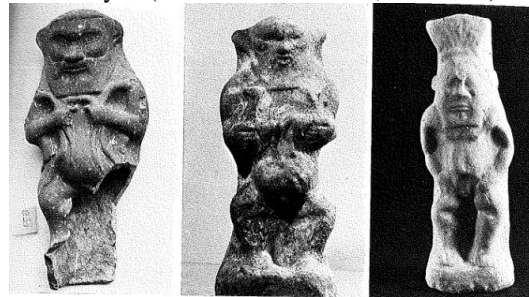


Plate 3.14: Terracotta figurines of the god Bes found in the Forecourt of Kharayeb (Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. IX: 1-3)

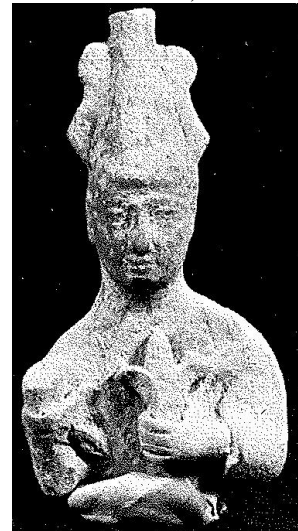


Plate 3.15: Terracotta figurines of a man wearing Atef crown found in the Forecourt of Kharayeb (Kaoukabani 1973: Pl. XIV: 3)

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