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2018

Ayelet Gilboa, Ilan Sharon, Jeffrey R. Zorn
and Sveta Matskevich

EXCAVATIONS AT DOR, FINAL REPORT

VOLUME IIA

AREA G, THE LATE BRONZE AND IRON AGES:
SYNTHESIS, ARCHITECTURE AND STRATIGRAPHY

DIRECTED BY

EPHRAIM STERN 1986–2000

ILAN SHARON AND AYELET GILBOA 2002–2004

with contributions by:

John E. Berg, Elizabeth Bloch-Smith, Allen Estes

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In memory of
Professor Ephraim Stern (1934–2018), Director of the Tel Dor Excavations
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CONTENTS

List of Illustrations	IX
List of Abbreviations.	XXI

VOLUME IIA (QEDEM 10)

PART ONE: INTRODUCTION AND SYNTHESIS

Chapter 1. History of the Excavations in Area G (1986–2004), Post-Excavation Analysis (1993–2010) and Remarks on Documentation and Methods — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn, Ilan Sharon and Ayelet Gilboa</i>	3
Chapter 2. The Late Bronze and Iron Ages in Area G: An Architectural, Contextual, Functional and Chronological Synthesis — <i>Ayelet Gilboa, Ilan Sharon and Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	27

PART TWO: STRATIGRAPHY

Chapter 3. Introduction to the Stratigraphy of Area G — Phases 5–12 — <i>Ilan Sharon</i>	81
Chapter 4. East of “Cheryl’s Room”: AG/33–34—Phases 5–6/7? — <i>Allen Estes and Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	99
Chapter 5. The “Pithoi Room”: AH–AI/33—Phases 5–10 — <i>Allen Estes and Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	109
Chapter 6. Below “Ana’s Room”: AH/34—Phases 6–8 — <i>Allen Estes</i>	121
Chapter 7. “Cheryl’s Room”: AH–AG/33—Phases 5–8 — <i>Allen Estes and Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	125
Chapter 8. The “Egyptian-Jars Room”: AI/31—Phases 5–12 — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	137
Chapter 9. The Courtyard (The “Bakery” and the Bronze Smithy): AI/32–33, AJ/32—Phases 5–12 — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	155
Chapter 10. “Doreen’s Room”: AI/33—Phases 5–10 — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	191
Chapter 11. Fragmentary Remains of Phases 5–7 in AI/34 — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	205
Chapter 12. The “Cult Room”: AJ/34—Phases 6–10 — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	209
Chapter 13. The “Fish Room”: AJ/33 East–AI/33 West—Phases 6–12 — <i>Ilan Sharon</i>	219
Chapter 14. The “Antler Room”: AJ–AK/32—Phases 5–12 — <i>Elizabeth Bloch-Smith, Jeffrey R. Zorn and Ilan Sharon</i>	229
Chapter 15. “Sloan’s Room”: AJ/33–AK/33 West—Phases 5–10 — <i>Ilan Sharon</i>	249
Chapter 16. Iron Age Traces: AK/34 — Phases 4?/5?–6 — <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn</i>	259
Phase Plans and Section — <i>John E. Berg and Sveta Matskevich</i>	261

VOLUME IIB (QEDEM 11)

PART THREE: CERAMICS

Chapter 17. The Local and Imported Late Bronze Age II–III Pottery of Phases 12 and 11: Typology, Chronology and Cultural Setting — <i>Ragna Stidsing and Yossi Salmon</i>	3
Chapter 18. The Aegean-Type Pottery of Phases 12 and 11 — <i>Philipp W. Stockhammer</i>	71
Chapter 19. Neutron Activation Analysis of Aegean-Type Pottery of Phase 11 — <i>Yossi Salmon</i>	89
Chapter 20. The Iron Age Pottery of Phases 10–5: Sequence, Contexts, Typology, Cultural Affinities and Chronology — <i>Ayelet Gilboa</i>	97
Chapter 21. Quantitative Aspects of the Iron Age Pottery Assemblage — <i>Sveta Matskevich and Ayelet Gilboa</i>	173

PART FOUR: ARTIFACTS, ECOFACTS AND OTHER STUDIES

Chapter 22. Metalworking in Area G — <i>Naama Yahalom-Mack, Jeffery R. Zorn, Adi Eliyahu-Behar, Sana Shilstein and Sarel Shalev</i>	195
Chapter 23. Lead Isotope Analysis of Copper-Based Artifacts from Area G — <i>Naama Yahalom-Mack and Irina Segal</i>	205
Chapter 24. The Flaked-Stone Tool Assemblage — <i>John E. Berg</i>	211
Chapter 25. The Glyptics of Area G — <i>Othmar Keel and Stefan Münger</i>	233
Chapter 26. Ornamental and Utilitarian Objects of the Late Bronze IIB and Iron Ages — <i>Hagar Ben Basat</i> With an Addendum by <i>Christian Herrmann</i>	247
Chapter 27. Mammalian Remains — <i>László Bartosiewicz and Elicia Lisk</i>	277
Chapter 28. Non-Mammalian Vertebrate Remains — <i>László Bartosiewicz, Elicia Lisk and Irit Zohar</i>	313
Chapter 29. The Human Skeletal Remains from Area G — <i>Tzipi Kahana, Marina Faerman and Patricia Smith</i>	323
Chapter 30. Radiocarbon Dating of the Human Skeletal Remains from Area G — <i>Elisabetta Boaretto</i>	331
Chapter 31. Mollusk Shells from the Late Bronze Age IIB in Area G — <i>Daniella E. Bar-Yosef Mayer and Yana Vitalkov</i>	333

VOLUME IIC (QEDEM 12)

PART FIVE: POTTERY PLATES, PHASE PLANS AND INDEX OF LOCI

Pottery Plates – Chapter 17	3
Pottery Plates – Chapter 20	63
Phase Plans and Section – <i>John E. Berg and Sveta Matskevich</i>	241
Index of Loci – <i>Jeffrey R. Zorn, Ilan Sharon, Elizabeth Bloch-Smith and Allen Estes</i>	257

CHAPTER 2

THE LATE BRONZE AND IRON AGES IN AREA G: AN ARCHITECTURAL, CONTEXTUAL, FUNCTIONAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL SYNTHESIS

Ayelet Gilboa, Ilan Sharon and Jeffrey R. Zorn

INTRODUCTION

Preliminary Remarks

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary for the reader who requires a basic understanding of the excavation results, as well as an introduction for specialists who will go on to deeper analysis of the Area G material in the rest of these volumes. It provides a synopsis of the area's stratigraphic/architectural framework from Phases 12 through 5 and an overview of the material culture of this sequence. It also presents a functional assessment, based on both architectural features and the finds in the various architectural spaces. Relations between Area G and other excavation areas are noted, based mainly on the ceramic sequence. Chronological issues addressed in this chapter are discussed in more detail in Chapter 20. Because this is a summary, in-depth details of the stratigraphic, ceramic and other analyses are left to the appropriate chapters (Chapters 4–31). Environmental and economic issues gleaned from the analysis of the faunal assemblage have not been addressed here and for this, the reader is referred to Chapters 27 and 28.

The general presentation scheme is chronological. Although the evidence for several of the topics is much better represented in one stratigraphic phase than in others or is repetitive, a general picture based on evidence from all phases together can be drawn. Such topics are discussed thematically in the framework of the chronological horizon in which the available evidence is clearest or in which it first appears to a significant degree.

The role of Area G, as that of the entire early Iron Age sequence at Dor, for understanding broader historical and cultural developments in the Levant has been extensively discussed in various papers and is not repeated here, the more so as major stakeholders in this volume disagree on some cardinal points of historical interpretation. The main publications are: Stern 1990; 1991; 1993; 1995; 1999; 2000; 2013; Gilboa 1998; 2001; 2005; 2006–2007; 2015; Gilboa and Sharon 2008; 2016; Gilboa, Sharon and Boaretto 2008; Sharon and Gilboa 2013; Gilboa, Sharon and Bloch-Smith 2015; Gilboa, Waiman-Barak and Sharon 2015). Publications dealing specifically with the pottery and its implications are referenced in Chapter 20. A full bibliography, including Area G preliminary reports, may be found at <http://dor.huji.ac.il/bibliography.html>.

A Brief Synopsis of the History of the House

This report treats Phases 12–5 as one continuous developmental sequence, based on the fact that these phases represent one evolving entity, the kernel of which is what we hold to be a single house which existed in Phases 9–6, over a period of some two centuries (regardless of the absolute chronology; see below). Despite the fact that the house was destroyed at least once during this sequence (and possibly twice or even three times), there is conceptual continuity in the plan (and probably in the use) of the structure throughout these phases (Fig. 2.1). Some of the walls built in Phase 9 (e.g., W9140, W9684, W9266) continued to be used unchanged until Phase 6, if not even later. In other cases, walls were rebuilt, nearly always on the same lines as previous walls. Actual architectural changes are limited to partitioning spaces (in particular the courtyard), moving installations, etc., as detailed below. Finally, the ceramic picture is very similar to the architectural one. Pottery traditions in Phases 9 through 6 follow a similar pattern of gradual change. In general, the locally produced pottery becomes simpler both in form and decoration.

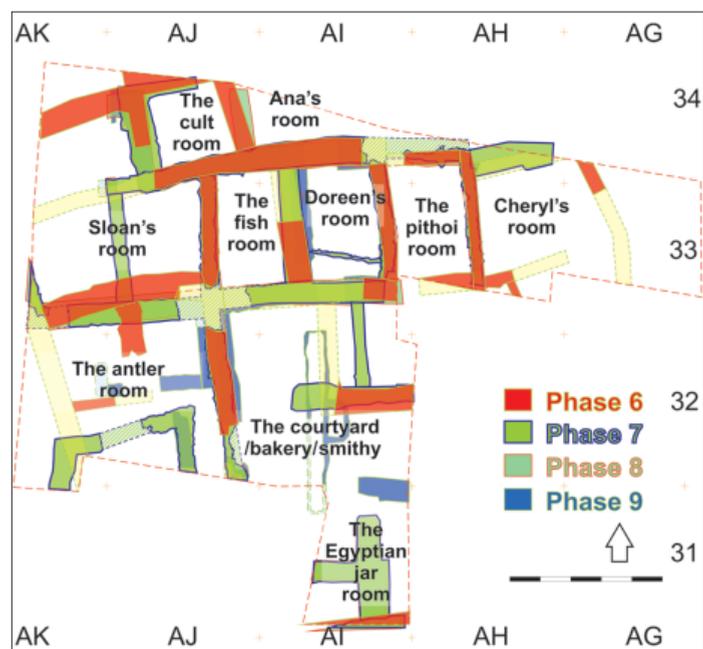


Fig. 2.1. Superposition of Phases 9–6. (d09Z3-1287)

It should be noted that this report follows a convention that uses a nickname coined during the excavation when referring to the space within the house in its chronological entirety (Fig. 2.1). However, when referring to an individual floor/phase of the room, it is denoted by its assemblage ID, which is usually the locus number of the major floor of the room in a particular phase. Thus “rooms” 18067, 9836, 9823 and 9321 are the superimposed floor levels of “the fish room” in Phases 9, 8, 7 and 6, respectively (cf., Figs 2.45, 2.55–2.56, 2.60).

We regard Phases 12–10 as a preamble to this “kernel” building. The exposure of Phases 12–11 is too limited to know what the Area G landscape looked like in the Late Bronze Age (LBA); these remains certainly do not form part of this house. Functionally, however, there does appear to be continuity in the use of this area for metallurgical activities between Phases 12–11 and Phase 10.

Whether or not the Phase 10 architecture should be considered part of the Phases 9–6 house is unclear, partially because its exposure is fairly limited. The little that can be said is that the Phase 9 house makes limited use of some Phase 10 walls; e.g., Phase 9 floors reach W9915 (the Phase 10 wall below W9140) on the west in “Sloan’s room” and the “antler room”. In the detailed stratigraphy chapters, we propose several alternative explanations to this anomaly, but, be that as it may, the position of the central N–S partition wall of the house is retained from Phase 10 into 9, and later, until Phase 6. The main E–W partition, however, shifted (W18229 of Phase 10 is some 2 m south of W9262 of Phase 9 and onwards; see Fig. 2.2). Other walls of Phase 10 (to the limited extent that such were excavated) are not retained in Phase 9. What we consider crucial, however, is that the main space of the Phase 10 house—the central courtyard in which metallurgical activity took place—is directly beneath the central courtyard of the Phases 9–6 house (Fig. 2.2).

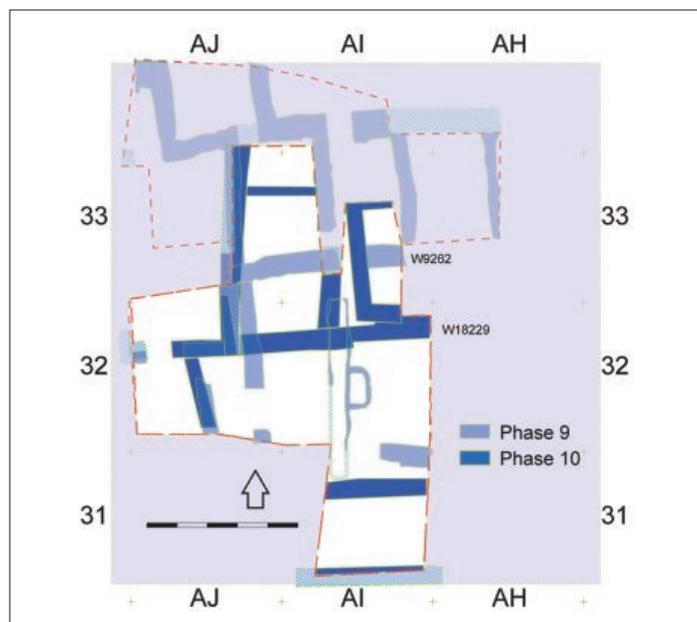


Fig. 2.2. Superposition of Phases 9 and 10. The whitened area shows the part in which both Phases 9 and 10 were exposed. (d10Z1-1008)

As regards ceramics, the Iron Age traditions emerge from those of the LBA. However, at least in the limited area where LBA layers were exposed, there seems to be a hiatus in habitation between Phases 11 and 10. The latest pottery in LBA Phase 11, including Cypriot and Aegean-type imports, dates to the early 12th century. On the other hand, fills immediately below and above the first floors of the Iron Age construction in Phase 10 already produced Philistine Bichrome fragments, some of them demonstrated by petrography to indeed have been imported from Philistia. This means that no habitation has been revealed in Area G that would be contemporary with the Philistine Monochrome (or “local Myc IIIC”) horizon in Philistia. This includes most of the Egyptian 20th Dynasty (for details, see Chapter 20). Typologically, and in every cultural respect, the local Phase 9 pottery is a direct continuation of that of Phase 10 (Chapter 20), although minute transformations in the formal attributes of many pottery shapes indicate that considerable time had elapsed—a generation or, perhaps, two.

The period following the use of the house, the Iron Age IIC (what happened in this area during Iron IIB is unclear), is represented by a single phase (5), which is heavily damaged by Persian period pits of Phase 4 and later massive construction of the Hellenistic to Roman eras (Phases 1–3). Combined, Iron IIB–C cover a span of time similar to the entire Phases 10–6 sequence, ca. 800 (depending on the chronology employed) to ca. 600 BCE. Only a few fragments of walls and patches of floor attest to habitation in this long period. We cannot say anything definitive about its architecture, least of all to what extent, if any, it formed part of the architectural continuum described for Phases 9–6. No significant ceramic assemblages were recovered and the few late Iron Age sherds in reliable contexts point to the 7th century, when Dor was ruled by the Assyrians, as the date for the end of Phase 5.

Together, Phases 5 and 4 thus form a sort of interim between the house described above and the later Phases 3–1. By Phase 4, the area had undergone a fundamental change from a densely built domestic area to a large open space in the middle of town, which was retained until the end of Dor’s urban history. The choice to include Phase 5 in this report and to open the discussion of the later eras with Phase 4 is influenced by the fact that Phase 5 is still Iron Age, whereas Phase 4 is post-Iron Age. Also, Phase 5 provides some architecture, fragmentary though it is, whereas Phase 4 was completely devoid of any such structures and clearly marks a functional shift in the use of the area.

Notes Regarding the Functional Analysis of Architectural Spaces and the Nature of Artifact Deposition

As will be evident below, we have tried to assess the function of the various spaces of the Area G house mainly based on architectural considerations and distributional patterns of artifacts (and, not, for example, on ethnoarchaeological or ethnohistorical analogies, as categorically advocated by some, e.g., Kent 1987: 2; Blanton 1994). Moreover, our approach is purely inductive. Some clarifications are thus in order here regarding the way we perceive the value of artifactual assemblages for assessing the function of architectural spaces.

The contexts and nature of deposition are detailed in

Chapters 3 and 20. Only a minority of the artifacts can be demonstrated to be in primary deposition. Area G was continuously inhabited and most activities took place on earthen floors, i.e., directly upon earlier dirt deposits. Thus, these earlier deposits and residual artifacts and ecofacts were always part of any activity area. Moreover, as will be detailed below, it is also obvious that the function of spaces changed at quite a rapid pace.

Even without delving here into the “Pompeii premise” debate, it is patently obvious that even primary assemblages contain materials which are chronologically and functionally unrelated to them (i.e., that even in these cases, archaeological contexts do not equal systemic contexts). A typical primary assemblage will indeed contain some material functionally related to the architecture with which it was associated, along with other material, often the majority, which is not (Allison 1992). The only means to differentiate between these two categories is by the traditional identification of articulated and non-articulated finds. It is our conviction then that even in the “primary” loci, only the former can be used for assessing the function of the rooms. For pottery vessels, this distinction is relatively simple. The following are regarded to be in systemic context: complete and near complete vessels (usually restored from fragments), vessels represented by many fragments, even when these do not join and, occasionally, very large pieces of pottery. However, small finds, even in primary loci, are always suspect. There are, of course, specific cases where small finds can be shown to be in systemic context, such as when found in clusters (like the clay weights or stoppers in Room 9903 of Phase 8), or in unusual concentrations (like the seals in Room 9300 of Phase 7a). Thus, although we appended to the discussion of each primary context a list of small finds belonging to it, these should be treated with caution. The otherwise meticulous study by Daviau (1993: passim, e.g., 64, 77) is an example of the hazards of conducting functional analyses of architectural spaces with no regard to the nature of deposition and without considering the fact that, in most excavation reports, there is no indication as to how much of the pottery made its way to the report.

The observations on groundstone tools in this chapter are based on a report prepared by David Eitam that is not published in this volume. Some of the conclusions based on these objects may change after the final analysis.

Special finds from non-primary contexts are not mentioned in the following analysis (for full lists, the reader is referred to Chapters 22 and 24–26). Animal bones (Chapters 27–28) have been mostly omitted from the functional analysis below, other than in a few specific cases, since their very extensive distribution in nearly every context indicates that they were, to a large degree, left lying around and not discarded in specifically allotted middens and/or that material from discard contexts was used for constructional fills. Thus, it is unclear if and how these bones may relate functionally to the rooms (for a discussion of these issues regarding early Iron Age contexts in Area D2, see Raban-Gerstel et al. 2008: 51–52). It should also be born in mind that rooms, and spaces within rooms, were most likely multifunctional, so that there is no reason to expect discrete behavioral units (cf., Newell 1987: 137), and that some functions are more visible in the archaeological record

than others (cf., Ciolek-Torrello 1985). On top of all this, all of the assemblages herein described should be considered partial. Other than in a few cases, no complete architectural units were unearthed. Even when we have complete rooms, with some objects clearly in articulation, it is obvious that some of the assemblage, including portions of primary vessels, were removed by later activities. This is the case, for example, with Room 18570 of Phase 9, where two large pithoi found broken *in situ* had many of their fragments missing. As we do not possess complete assemblages, quantitative assessments (such as distributions of different classes of pottery in the different assemblages or storage capacities) were not undertaken. The data, for the Iron Age, where discreet architectural spaces exist, are presented in full in Chapter 21.

A Note on Chronology

The Late Bronze and Iron Ages sequence in Area G is summarized in two charts that appear at the beginning of each volume. Chart 1, which compares the Area G sequence to those in the three other major Iron Age areas, B1, D2 and D5 (for details, see Gilboa and Sharon 2003; Sharon and Gilboa 2013), as well as to the chrono-stratigraphical sequence at Megiddo, is repeated here as Table 2.1, with the addition of detailed annotations. Chart 2, repeated here as Table 2.2, establishes the internal correlations within Area G—how the sequences of walls, floors and other features in the various rooms and units fit into a master sequence; this chart was constructed mainly on stratigraphic considerations. Other than the one prominent destruction event in the middle of the Iron Age I sequence, identified in Areas G, B1, D2, D5, and probably F (at the end of Phase 9 in Area G; cf., Chapter 3 and below), there are no stratigraphic pegs which may serve to correlate the independent phase sequences of different excavation areas. Table 2.1/Chart 1 is thus constructed mainly based on ceramic cross-dating. In order to underline this situation, we do not use stratum designations, but rather a looser terminology of “chronological horizons” (see also Chapter 1), which denote the position of each local phase in the local chronological scheme, in comparison to typologically similar assemblages in other areas at Dor. The details of this chronological terminology can be found in Chapter 20.

At the time these words are being written, the absolute chronology of the Levantine Iron Age is a greatly debated issue. Dor holds a key position in this debate because it is one of the sites in Israel that has produced a large body of radiometric determinations (cf., Gilboa and Sharon 2001; 2003; Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2004; Sharon et al. 2005; 2007; Gilboa, Sharon and Boaretto 2008); the two other main sites are Megiddo and Tel Rehov. The relevant phases in Area G, however, were by and large excavated before the onset of this debate and before current refinements in radiocarbon dating of historical periods. Consequently, Area G produced only seven dates from Phases 9 through 6b, all, except one, from charcoal samples (presented and discussed in Chapter 20; the last sample—on the skeleton in “Doreen’s room”—is presented in Chapter 30). These are about 75 years lower than the traditional dates.

Since we do not think that the chronological dispute is

Table 2.1. Comparative stratigraphy and chronology of Areas G, D2, D5 and B1 and correlation to Megiddo strata

Area G Phase	Horizon	Absolute Chronology (approximated to quarter century BCE)		Area D2 Phase	Area D5 Phase	Area B1 Phase	Megiddo Stratum*
		High	Low				
12 ¹	LBIIB	1250–1200	1250–1175	Uninhabited	Uninhabited	14?? / Missing?	VIII
11b–a ²	LBIIB						
Missing	LB Ir1	1200–1150	1175–1125	Uninhabited	Uninhabited	Missing?	Mainly VIIA
10c–a ³	Ir1a <i>early</i>	1150–1075	1125–1025	Uninhabited	12 ⁴	13?? ⁵	VIB
9b–a ⁶	Ir1a <i>late</i>			13 ⁷	11 ⁸	12 ⁹	
8 ¹⁰	Ir1alb	1075–1050	1025–1000	12 ¹¹	Unidentified yet	11 ¹²	Early VIA?
7d–c ¹³	Ir1b	1050–1000	1000–925	11 ¹⁴	Unidentified yet ¹⁵	10, 9b ¹⁶	Mainly VIA
				10 ¹⁷			
				9 ¹⁸			
7b–a ¹⁹	Ir1l2	1000–925	925–875	8c ²⁰	10 ²¹	9a ²²	VB
6c–b ²³							
6a ²⁴	Ir2a	925–825	875–800	8b–a ²⁵		8 ²⁶	VA–IVB
Unclear ³⁰	Ir2b	825–730	800–730	7 ²⁷	9 ²⁸	7 ²⁹	IVA
					8 ³¹		
				6b ³²	7b? ³³	Unclear	
5 ³⁴	Ir2c	730–650	730–625	6a ³⁵	7a ³⁶	6 ³⁷	III–II
						5c ³⁸	

* The correlation with the Megiddo strata does not imply exact overlaps.

This table = Chart 1 at the beginning of each volume.

¹ Open industrial area.

² Open industrial area.

³ Construction of first (courtyard?) building; metallurgical activity. No clearly primary deposits.

⁴ Fieldstone habitation/storage building on bedrock.

⁵ City wall and adjacent building constructed above (pristine?) deep sand deposit.

⁶ Courtyard house; cottage industry; ending in severe destruction. Extensive assemblages in primary deposition.

⁷ Large stone building constructed on bedrock in Stratum 13, at least four rooms. “Bastion” in western part of area apparently constructed on this phase. Some in situ vessels possibly indicating a traumatic end.

⁸ Large, probably domestic structure, violently destroyed. Extensive assemblages in primary deposition.

⁹ City wall still in use, building adjacent to city wall renovated; ending in severe destruction. Extensive assemblages in primary deposition.

¹⁰ Renovation of courtyard building. Only one significant assemblage, apparently cultic, in primary deposition.

¹¹ New stone building on similar lines as previous building; partially burnt.

¹² Poorly preserved mudbrick structure, still using the partially ruined city wall.

¹³ Internal changes to courtyard building, mainly subdivision of courtyard; gradual raising of floors. Few primary vessels.

¹⁴ Poor structures.

¹⁵ Possibly part of 10.

¹⁶ 10: new city wall and poorly preserved mudbrick structures adjacent to it. 9b: new mudbrick structures.

¹⁷ Two large public structures built: monumental boulder-and-ashlar building in the SE quadrant and mudbrick building with storage halls and an open work area in the west. “Bastion” still in use.

¹⁸ Renovations to both monumental stone and mudbrick buildings. “Bastion” still in use.

¹⁹ Minor changes to courtyard building. Some primary assemblages possibly indicating trauma.

²⁰ Mudbrick building abolished; new structure above it (fieldstones with ashlar corner), ends in destruction with extensive primary assemblages. Monumental stone building and “Bastion” still in use.

²¹ Open space, mostly domestic activity.

²² City wall still in use; previous buildings renovated, partially with stones and floor levels raised.

²³ Internal changes to courtyard building. Large primary, apparently domestic assemblage in one room.

²⁴ Only floor raising in courtyard building. One extensive primary assemblage, seemingly of ceremonial nature.

²⁵ Fieldstone-and-ashlar building renovated and then destroyed again. Extensive primary assemblages. Monumental stone building and “Bastion” still in use.

²⁶ Previous city wall abolished; unclear if new one constructed; area rebuilt with alley flanked by stone structures. A few primary deposits.

²⁷ Area transformed. “Bastion” and fieldstone-and-ashlar building built over by monumental ashlar building with massive foundation fill.

²⁸ New, mostly ashlar city wall and adjacent large fieldstone public structure with long narrow halls.

²⁹ New city wall with four-chamber city gate and adjacent stone structures.

³⁰ Uninhabited or obliterated, or possibly part of Phase 5.

³¹ New massive boulders/ashlars structure obliterating earlier fieldstone structure.

³² Open area with many pits above obliterated ashlar building; industrial activity.

³³ Mainly pits.

³⁴ Scant walls and floors; unclear if courtyard building still exists.

³⁵ Pits, mainly containing Phoenician transport jars and waste of iron and bronze secondary industry.

³⁶ Mainly pits of industrial area.

³⁷ Large pit cutting through four-chambered gate.

³⁸ New two-chambered gate attached to modified Phase 7 city wall.

Table 2.2. Area G Bronze and Iron Ages phases and horizons by context*

LBA				Gap?	IRA I				IRA II								
H1	H2	H3	H4		Ir1a(e)	Ir1a(l)	Ir1a b	Ir1b	Ir1 2	Ir2a	Ir2b-c						
Area G Phases																	
12	11		10		9		8	7		6		5					
	b	a	c	b	a	b	a		d-c	b-a	c-b	a					
East of Cheryl's Room: AG/33-34 (Ch. 4)																	
									x	ix	viii	vii	vi				
Pithoi Room: AH-AI/33 (Ch. 5)																	
					xiv	xiii ^{*35-36}	xii	xi	x	ix	viii	vii	vi				
Below Ana's Room: AH/34 (Ch. 6)																	
							iv			iii							
Cheryl's Room: AH-AG/33 (Ch. 7)																	
							viii-vi	v	iv	iii	ii ^{*57-62}	i					
Egyptian Jars Room: AI/31 (Ch. 8)																	
xviii	xvii	xvi	xv		xiv ^{*10-11}	xiii	xii	xi ^{*21-26}	x	ix	viii	vii	vi				
Courtyard: AI/32 (Ch. 9)																	
xv	xiv				xiii ^{*2-9, 12-13}	xii	xi	x ^{*14-20}	ix ^{*40}	viii ^{*47}	vii ^{*48-50}	vi ^{*46}	v ^{*46}	ivc	ivb	iva	
Doreen's Room: AI/33 (Ch. 10)																	
					xii	xi	x	ix	missing	viii ^{*51-52}		vii-vi					
Fragmentary Remains: AI/34 (Ch. 11)																	
										viii	vii	vi					
Cult Room: AJ/34 (Ch. 12)																	
					ix	viii ^{*32-33}	vii ^{*38-39}	vi	v								
Fish Room: AI-AJ/33 (Ch. 13)																	
					xiii	xii	xi	x	ix	viii	vii	vi	v	iv	iii ^{*34}	ii	i
Antler Room: AJ-AK/32 (Ch. 14)																	
xix	xviii	xvii			xvi	xv ^{*27-30}	xiii	xii	xi	x-vii	vi						
Sloan's Room: AJ-AK/33 (Ch. 15)																	
						vii	vi	v ^{*31}	iv	iii	ii	i ^{*64-67}	o				
IrA Traces: AK/34 (Ch. 16)																	
											vii	vi					
High (BCE)	1200		1150		1075		1050	1000		925		825	725	640			
Low (BCE)	1175		1125		1025		1000	925		875		800	725	625			

* This table=Chart 2 at the beginning of each volume.
 Small Roman numerals (i, ii, etc.): local stages within unit. Thick separator between stages: evidence for destruction or trauma. Asterisk (*): context fully illustrated (numbers above are plate nos. in Volume IIC). Arrows (↔): placement of the stage separator (or of the entire stage) is arbitrary; it might be moved right (later) or left (earlier).

resolved yet (see discussion in Chapter 20), Tables 2.1 and 2.2 (=Charts 1 and 2 at the beginning of each volume) present a high and a low option for absolute chronology. These represent the highest and the lowest edges of the range of possibilities that we consider feasible, based on the best available data from Israel (radiometric and other) at the time of writing. Note, in particular, that our “high” option is not the same as the “traditional” high chronology (e.g., the option that the Iron Age IIA ended at 925 BCE is not referred to in the charts and tables since it is no longer sustainable).

A Note on Pre-Late Bronze Age Periods

Residual material in the LBA and Iron Age fills includes some Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age pottery and dozens of Middle Bronze II fragments, spanning the entire range of that period. These are not included in this report. The tell itself was certainly inhabited by the Middle Bronze Age II (Raban 1995: 332–337). The source of material earlier than this period is yet unclear and it could well have been brought with construction material from some nearby site. The one complete Intermediate Bronze (IB) teapot from Phase 9 was probably scavenged from a nearby tomb.

THE LATE BRONZE AGE IIB: PHASES 12–11

Introduction

One of the goals of the excavation in Area G was to open a window onto the LBA. In other excavation areas, early Iron Age habitation was established either on bedrock (in the south, Areas D2 and D5) or on seemingly natural sand deposits (in the east, Area B1) and so, the location of the Bronze Age town remained enigmatic. In Area B1, one rich deposit of LBII pottery was uncovered, but its stratigraphic association was unclear. Therefore, currently, Area G is the only spot where the LBA/Iron Age transition can be defined.

As excavation proceeded through ever greater depths of Iron I levels, it became increasingly evident that only a very small window would be possible without many more years of excavation. The probes that were dug into the LBA strata in AI/31 and AI/32 showed deep accumulations of apparently dumped metallurgical and other industrial wastes. The nature and even the location of the settlement in which the metal workers resided remain uncertain. Was the built-up area only west of Area G or near the northern harbor, or was Area G an open industrial area within the town?

Phase 12: Late Bronze IIB (ca. 1250–1225 BCE)

Stratigraphy, Deposits and Evidence of Metallurgical Activity

Excavation of Phase 12 material (Plan 1) occurred only in several deep and unconnected soundings in AI/31 (southern end), AI/32 (center) and, possibly, AJ/32 and AI–AJ/33 (Figs. 2.3–2.4); only a single possible floor was found. Despite the discontinuous nature of these soundings, they share a number of features. Based on field observations and subsequent

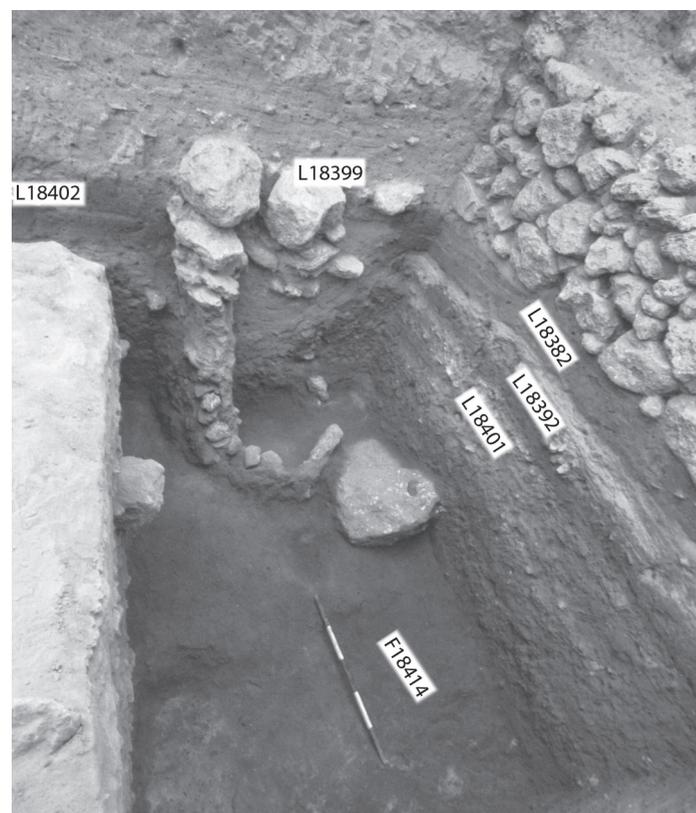


Fig. 2.3. View of deep sounding at southern end of AI/31, looking east. Upper right: Phase 10 W18315. Meter stick shows depth of Phases 11–12 (LBII) debris layers, in which no architecture was found. (p05Z3-0203)



Fig. 2.4. View of sloping Phase 11 layers associated with dumping of debris from metallurgical activities, looking north. Note in particular the pronounced slope on upper left. The deep sounding in AI/32 continues down to Phase 12. (p08Z3-1472)

sediment analysis (Berna et al. 2007; Albert et al. 2008), it has been determined that they generally consist of overlapping lenses of compacted sand, gravel, ash, mudbrick material, bits of oven (or furnace), copper/bronze slag, bits of charcoal and difficult-to-trace surfaces, generally sloping from north to south and from east to west. Most of this debris is redeposited

and originally seems to have accumulated in an open space. In the small areas excavated, no architectural remains were found, except for a stone-lined pit. All this seems to represent a dumping action originating in the area of AI/33–34, which formed the high ground according to the direction of the local slopes. This debris also yielded fragmentary pottery and bones, alongside a limited quantity of shells, mostly *glycimeris*, but also other species (Chapter 31), as well as many flint tools (Chapter 24). Body-part representations of animals and butchering marks evident on (mainly mammal) bones indicate that butchery in LBII was apparently conducted on site, a pattern that continues into the Iron Age (Chapter 27; see also Raban-Gerstel et al. 2008).

Analysis of the eastern section of AI/31–32, where the laminated layers were well defined, indicates that debris deposited there was heated to 500–700° C, confirming that high-energy pyrotechnic activity took place in the vicinity. Significant amounts of copper were traced in the upper part of this accumulation, further narrowing down the nature of this activity. Fourteen pieces of metal-waste products and one possible object of tin-bronze and unalloyed copper (but none of iron) were recovered from the limited exposure of Phase 12 (Chapter 22: Table 22.1). Evidence regarding the source of copper is meager; two items that underwent Lead Isotope Analysis point to Cypriot ores (Chapter 23: Sample Nos. 5–6). Phase 12 shows that the metallurgical activity, more clearly defined in Phase 10 (see below), began much earlier, even if its center lies east of the excavated area (see discussion in Chapter 22). Regarding the nature of the LBA/Iron Age transition, it points to some functional continuity, at least in this limited area.

Pottery and Other Finds

None of the pottery in Phase 12 (Chapters 17–18) was in primary deposition. It consists mostly of small LBA fragments (with a handful of MBII sherds), which were apparently dumped here with the metallurgical waste. Alongside the local wares, a very high (almost 30%) proportion of imports is attested, most of them (70%) being common Cypriot wares (handmade Monochrome, Base Ring, White Slip, White Shaved, plain and White Painted Wheel-made). The relatively scant Aegean-type pottery in this phase, consisting mainly of containers, is mostly of the LH IIIB/C horizon (with some earlier, residual pieces) and most of it is probably also Cypriot-made. Wheel-made Burnished Grey Ware is also present, of as yet unknown provenance, and probably also cooking vessels of Handmade Burnished Ware.

An outstanding phenomenon in this phase is the quantity and variety, both in shapes and fabrics, of Egyptian-made ceramics (not Egyptianizing, but actual imports). Mostly jars and amphorae are present, but also some bowls and cups (Chapter 17). It thus seems that in this period, Dor had a special liaison with Egypt, a situation that lasted well into the early Iron Age (Chapter 20 and see below). This picture is corroborated by the copious quantities of Nile perch bones in the LBA levels (Chapter 28).

Some 40 flint artifacts were found in Phase 12, including mostly cores and blades, the latter comprising also sickles and,

to a lesser extent, flake tools (Chapter 24). The cores provide unequivocal evidence for knapping on the tell in this period and also of the inhabitants' involvement in harvesting cereals. In contrast, cores were all but non-existent in the Iron Age levels.

Phase 12 also produced a scarab (Chapter 25, No. 22), a crescent-shaped gold earring (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:18, possibly from Phase 11b), a bronze ring (Chapter 26, Table 26.5:4), an ivory game piece (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:3) and several bone tools and objects (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.3:11; Table 26.17:4–5, 10).

Chronology–Phase 12

Based on the local and imported pottery (Chapters 17–18), Phase 12 represents a short-lived occupation of 20–30 years within the second half of 13th century, but not extending into its last quarter.

Phase 11: Late Bronze IIB—Late Phase (ca. 1225–1200/1175 BCE)

Stratigraphy, Deposits, Architecture and Evidence of Metallurgic Activity

Material from Phase 11 (Plan 1) was excavated in AI/31–32, AJ/32 and AI–AJ/33. The lowest part of the Phase 11 accumulation comprises a phytolith layer (up to 30 cm thick) consisting almost entirely of laminated layers of wild grasses (including inflorescence-derived ones) with associated spherulites, indicating animal dung. These suggest that at one time in the early part of Phase 11 (or end of Phase 12), the area was used for penning ruminants (Berna et al. 2007; Albert et al. 2008: 8–9). This accumulation underlies the only constructed element in this phase, called the Shell-Floor Installation. Together, this phytolith layer and the installation constitute Phase 11b (see below).

Above the Shell-Floor Installation (Phase 11a), the accumulation is very similar to that of Phase 12 (Figs. 2.3–2.4). In AI/31 and AI/32, it comprises sloping and overlapping lenses of sand, ash and mudbrick debris, with numerous bits of charcoal, on top of which was brown sandy material, probably used to level the area for the construction of the Phase 10 building. Similar to Phase 12, some of these sediments were heat-altered (see below). In AI/32, a similar debris layer clearly slopes down from north to south and east to west. Much the same phenomena appear in AI–AJ/33. Patches of floors/surfaces or tip lines were found in AI/31–32 and AI–AJ/33, which provide one of the main distinctions between Phases 11 and 12. Again, lenses of sand, mudbrick, and ash were uncovered in AJ/32. Together, the evidence continues to point to the dumping of metallurgical debris from some point northeast of the excavated area, which, similar to the situation in Phase 12, was an open space.

Architecture

Square AJ/32 yielded the only architecture from Phase 11—the eastern end of the Shell-Floor Installation (Fig. 2.5),



Fig. 2.5. The fragmentary remains of the Shell-Floor Installation, looking east (=Fig. 14.35). (p08Z3-1474)

constructed of at least three fieldstone walls (the western end was hidden in the balk) which were once surmounted by mudbricks, as surmised from collapsed debris bounded by the stone walls. These walls were built on a surface of small shells, in turn resting on the aforementioned phytolith accumulation. The shell surface is preserved partially inside the installation and slightly to its east. Four small shallow pits were found inside the installation and outside to its east. Although it is not possible to say what the installation was used for, such shell floors have corollaries (Chapter 31) and are hypothesized to be associated with water-related activities, owing to their propensity to filter water without muddying the bottom of the installation. The relationship of such activities to the metallurgical or other industrial function of the area remains moot.

Evidence of Metallurgic Activity

Traces of copper in the Phase 11 sediments are concentrated mainly in the lower part of this accumulation (Berna et al. 2007). There was comparatively less copper/bronze slag in Phase 11 (25–30 pieces of bronze and one of iron) than in Phase 10, although only in Phase 11 were actual implements found, most of them very fragmentary. Only three of these were clearly identifiable: a bronze hoe (Fig. 26.5:2), an iron dagger with a bone hilt (Fig. 26.4:9, from a locus with some Ir1a intrusions) and an iron arrowhead (Fig. 26.4:4). The hoe is the only object from this phase to undergo Lead Isotope Analysis, indicating that Timna' in the Arabah Valley is the source of the copper (Chapter 23: Table 23.1: Sample No. 8). This is an important indication that copper from these

mines was already consumed in the Canaanite sphere, even at sites like Dor, which still had rather intensive contacts with Cyprus.

Fragments of several crucibles and pieces of oven or furnace walls were also recovered. No trace of heated soil was found in the vicinity of the Shell-Floor Installation in AJ/32, where the samples were taken from the mudbrick remains of the structure itself and from the shell floor. On the other hand, analysis of the eastern section of AI/31–32, where laminated layers were traced, indicates that debris deposited there was heated to 600–800° C, confirming that metallurgical activity took place in the vicinity (Berna et al. 2007).

Pottery and Other Finds

The debris yielded large quantities of LBIIB sherds (with some MBII sherds) and some Iron Age pottery in its upper part.

As in Phase 12, the LB pottery is mostly redeposited and fragmentary. Both in overall character and specific types of the local assemblage, it continues that of Phase 12 (Chapter 17). Important additions are the initial appearance of collared-rim jars and flasks.

Regarding imports, there are several changes. Generally, there is a decline in imports in Phase 11 and a significant fall-off in relative quantities of the “classic” Cypriot material that is found in Phase 12. There is, however, an increase in the proportion of Cypriot imports of Aegean type, originating both in the eastern and western parts of the island (Chapters 18–19). Most of them are defined as LH IIIB/C and a few as possibly LH IIIC early, with some LH IIIA residual pieces, including at least two originating in the Peloponnese (Chapter 19). Most of the assemblage comprises commercial containers and, to a lesser extent, kraters and bowls. Among the latter, noteworthy are shapes that are rare in the Levant, such as deep bowls and one-handed conical bowls. An assumed Cilician origin for some of these was refuted by NAA proveniencing, as described below (see “Chronology”). Some of the Aegean-type containers were produced on the northern coast of Israel, but probably not at Dor itself. A possible Cypro-Minoan sign was incised after firing on a jar handle of this horizon (Chapter 17; Pl. 17.v:30).

Phase 11 also witnesses a significant increase in Egyptian imports, most of them commercial jars.

Some 50 flint objects in this phase (Chapter 24) comprise cores and blades, in which sickles are prominent (some exhibiting gloss), similar to Phase 12 and, to a lesser extent, bladelets and flaked tools. Other finds include fragmentary groundstone tools, large amounts of shells (mainly glycimeris, but also murex and a few cowrie shells; Chapter 31) and bones, as well as occasional chunks of pumice.

In addition to the metal and other finds mentioned above, notable artifacts in this phase are two scarabs (Chapter 25, Nos. 20, 23), a torso of a female plaque figurine (Chapter 26, Table 26.18:1), several beads (Chapter 26; Tables 26.7:2, 8; 26.8:11), several bone tools (Chapter 26, e.g., Fig. 26.3:9), and a fragmentary bronze plaque (Chapter 26, Table 26.12:7). In addition, there were four stones (not included in Chapter 26) that might have been weights or stoppers: two irregularly

shaped stones perforated at their narrower top (ca. 6 x 7 cm; Reg. Nos. 185673, 186987), a disc-shaped stone (6 cm diameter, 1 cm thick; Reg. No. 180882) and a perforated ring-shaped stone (4 cm diameter, 1.8 cm thick; Reg. No. 186966). The core-formed glass fragment in Chapter 26, Fig. 26.6.14 may either belong to this horizon or the next.

Chronology–Phase 11

Based on the pottery in its latest contexts (Horizon 4, as defined in Chapter 17), Phase 11 dates to the late 13th and, possibly, the early 12th centuries BCE and has been estimated to represent a time span of 40–50 years. The notion of continuity into the 12th century was initially based, *inter alia*, on the definition of five Aegean-type fragments as early LH IIIC. Of these, four were assessed to be Cilician products, generally not believed to have been manufactured before ca. 1200 (Chapter 18). Since this identification is not supported by NAA (Chapter 19), these fragments should probably be redefined as LH IIIB2/C.

This late 13th and, possibly, early 12th centuries chronological horizon, dubbed “the Nami horizon” by Stockhammer, is a crucial, although most often ignored factor in understanding the dynamics of the end of maritime trade in the transition from the LBA to the Iron Age in our region. It is characterized by Aegeanizing wares of non-mainland manufacture (principally Cyprus, perhaps also Cilicia) in LH IIIB2 and/or LH IIIC *early* style, alongside a continuation of some imports of the classic Cypriot LBA types. This horizon is distinctly later than the usual LBIIB strata in the Levant (the “Abu Hawam horizon” in Stockhammer’s terminology; see Chapter 18), in which many of the Aegean imports are indeed made in mainland Greece. It is also distinctly earlier than the local Myc IIIC/Philistine Monochrome horizon, in which the Aegeanizing pottery is local and its style is derivative of MYC IIIC *middle*; while Cypriot White Slip, Base Ring, etc. are no longer found. Ignoring this stage yields the impression of a very abrupt boundary between the LBA and the early Iron Age. We might be able to even further nuance this transition if we could place the latest evidence of LBA occupation at Dor vs. that of Tel Nami. Our assessment is that the LBA occupation at Tel Nami lasted longer than at Dor, but this cannot yet be proven based on the scant and secondarily deposited material in Area G Phase 11 (and pending the full publication of the Tel Nami pottery).

THE IRON AGE: PHASES 10–5, IR1a–IR2c

Introduction

Area G at Dor is justly renowned for its early Iron Age sequence, extending through five phases (10–6) and over 3 m of cultural debris, covering a span of some 300 years, from Ir1a *early* to Ir2a (Iron Age IB to Iron Age IIA in the terminology used in Mazar 1990). Due to the very meager and poorly preserved remains between the end of Phase 6a of Ir2a and the end of Phase 5 in the 7th century BCE, the nature of occupation of this area in the latter part of the Iron Age is currently undeterminable.

As noted above, Phases 10–6 show marked continuity

both in their architectural development and ceramic trends. As would be expected from a harbor town, international contacts are well attested by vessels of Cypriot and Egyptian origin and by Cypriot and Syrian impact on the local ceramic production. Continuity also seems evident in the industrial aspect of the area. Initially a metallurgic production center in Phase 10, which itself continues from the LBIIB, it became an area for fish and grain processing in Phase 9 and perhaps later.

Overview of Construction Methods: Phases 10–6

In order to avoid repetition when describing each phase, we assemble here all the general observations about construction methods relating to all building stages of the Phases 10–6 house.

Like other structures in Iron Age Dor (e.g., the city wall in Areas A–C; Stern 1995: 29), the Area G house is conspicuously built with a combination of stone walls and mud construction. The two are often dovetailed together and it is obvious that this is the way the house was planned from its inception.

Earth, Mud and Mudbrick Walls

Mud construction is mostly mudbrick, but a few anomalies suggest that other earth-construction techniques do occur. There are several walls in which individual bricks could not be delineated, such as some phases of W9275, the “reed-mat wall” (see below) of Phases 7 and 6, and W18229, the “pier and pisé” wall of Phase 10 (see below) (Figs. 2.6; 3.35–3.36). There are other, less clear cases, where arguably the mudbrick is simply degraded, e.g., W9914 (Fig. 2.7) and W9400 of Phase 7.

Earth construction other than mudbrick is well documented in the ethnographic literature, but rarely recognized in the field in the archaeology of the Levant. Earth construction techniques include true pisé, or “rammed earth”, where dry clay is beaten or stepped on until it hardens and becomes water resistant. Mud (or wet-clay) techniques are divisible into casting, where wet clay is poured into a frame and allowed to dry (similar to modern cement pouring) and daube, in which layers of wet clay are applied to gradually raise the walls (Aurenche 1981: 54–59).

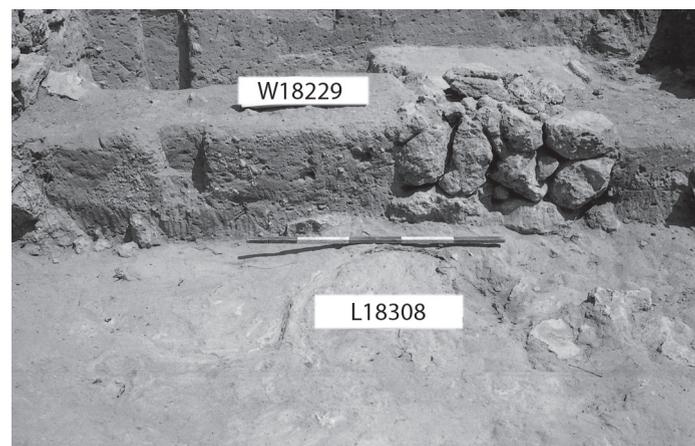


Fig. 2.6. W18229 with stone-rubble “pilaster” between two sections of mud, looking north. No bricks could be delineated in the mud construction. (p05Z3-0615)

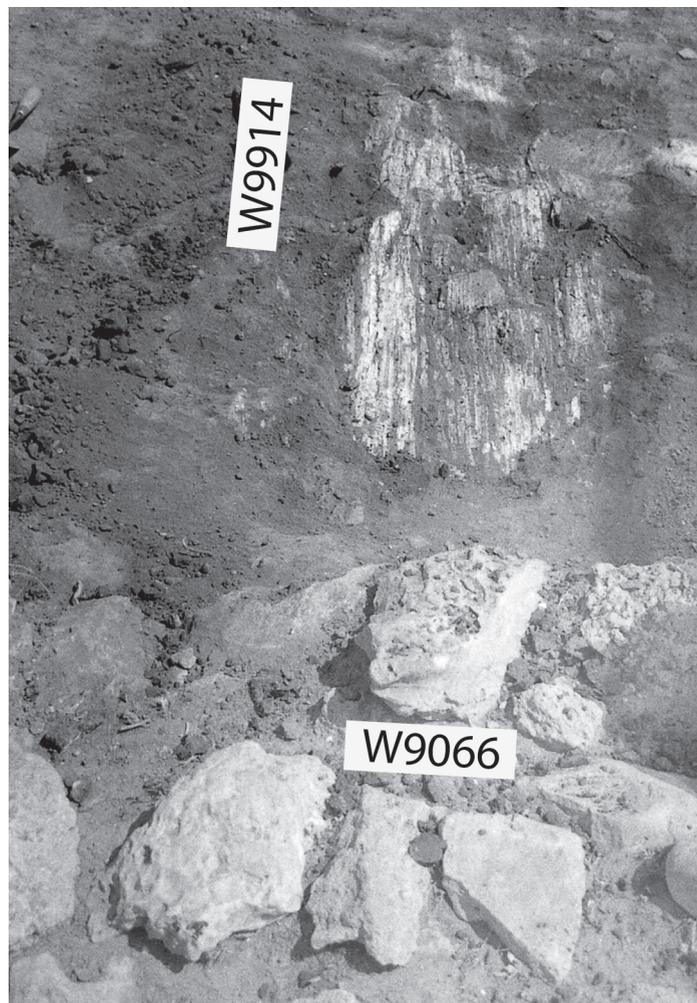


Fig. 2.7. W9914, showing phytolith remains of grass mat in-between mud courses, looking north. (p0Z3-1475)

All of these techniques produce earth walls which do not have the characteristic checkerboard pattern of bricks with mortar lines between them. We suspect that some or all of these techniques are much more prevalent in the archaeological record than one would be led to believe from the literature. In many cases, walls are identified as mudbrick without actual bricks or mortar lines being visible. The problem is compounded as it is often quite difficult to detect individual brick lines, even when the wall is constructed of bricks. If the mud-mortar is nearly of the same color and consistency of the bricks, it becomes virtually impossible. Admittedly, this might be the case at Dor, and walls tentatively identified as *pisé*/daube are misidentified mudbrick walls (although note in Fig. 3.35 that even in section, no brick lines are identifiable in W18229). We raise the possibility of other mud-construction methods here so that it can be checked more thoroughly in subsequent work.

Perhaps associated with the latter type of walls is another phenomenon noticed first in Area G. We found white marks of grasses, canes, reeds or mats laid lengthwise inside the course of the earth walls (Fig. 2.7). These were analyzed in at least one case and are made up of grass phytoliths, although the species is/are at present undetermined (D. Cabanes, personal

communication). Layers of various organic materials inside mudbrick are a known occurrence in Mesopotamia and Egypt (Spencer 1979: 134–135; Aurenche 1981: 124; Moorey 1999: 361–362; but see Wright 1985: 409–410 for the lack of systematic recording in the Levant). Heimpel (2009: 258–265) cites literary evidence for the use of mats as building material for (presumably) mud-constructed buildings in Mesopotamia. Such layers of organic material are variously explained as adding elasticity to the wall, reducing stress due to expansion and contraction of the mud with humidity, or preventing the spread of cracks. It is not clear if the apparent association of “mats” with mud (rather than mudbrick) walls in Area G is real or fortuitous, as the sample size is rather small. If, however, it is, we might suggest a different explanation. A mat may have been used as the form or frame into which mud was poured, possibly braced by wood posts on the sides to prevent the wet mud from bulging. After drying, the mat might have been cut, leaving the matting on the bottom trapped inside the walls.

The construction of mudbrick walls was not a trivial matter, requiring the collection of a significant number of resources and the expenditure of a great deal of labor (Homsher 2012). The mudbricks used for construction in Area G fall into two types. The common kind is of dark brown material. Here and there, however, were red bricks (probably based on *hamra* soil) with many inclusions of crushed *kurkar*, which gave the bricks a distinctly orangey tone, with yellow and tan flecks. These were colloquially called “tracer bricks”. Exposure of such a brick was often the first and best indication for hitting a mudbrick wall. “Tracer bricks” were not usually found in clusters, but rather, one or two in a wall, nor in any specific position or pattern (Fig. 2.8; see also Chapter 9, Fig. 9.4).

Although not systematically measured, the bricks’ dimensions were fairly standard. A sample of arbitrarily chosen bricks is shown in Table 2.3. Mudbrick walls, or earth walls in general, are, on the average, somewhat wider than their stone counterparts. Table 2.4 lists a selection.

In as much as could be determined, the placement of bricks in the walls shows a prevalence of header construction. Narrow walls (e.g., W9909, W9915) were built of a single row of headers, while wider ones were



Fig. 2.8. A “tracer brick” in W9262 (Phase 7), looking southeast. (p05Z3-0604)

Table 2.3. Dimensions of mudbricks in Area G

Feature	Phase	Dimensions (cm)
W9275	7+8 (+6?)	40 x 30 x ??
W9735	6-7	49 x 28 x 7 60 x 27 x 20 20 x 25 x ??
W9963	7	45 x 35 x 7
W9974	7	45 x 35 x ??
W9408	6-7	40 x 25 x 10
W9729	7-9	?? x 25 x 10
W9909	9-10	50 x 37 x 8
W9915	9-10	60 x 27 x 9
W9216	6-7	40 x 20 x??

Table 2.4. Width of walls in Area G

Feature	Phase	Width (cm)
W9275	8+7 (+6?)	85
W18045	6 (+7?)	80
W9925	7/8?	70
W9408a	6+7	100
W9914	7	50
W9400	7	75
W9262	9-7	65
W9725	7	40
W9963	7	65
W9964	7	95
W9915	10+9	60
W9909	10	55
W18229	10	70

usually of two headers or, more rarely, have headers on one side and stretchers on the other (i.e., one header and one stretcher wide). All of the bricks that we could observe were laid on their long, wide sides (i.e., the shortest dimension forms their height).

Mudbrick walls in the Area G house have two types of foundations. Walls with no stone foundation at all are rare, e.g., W18045, W9989, W9735 (Phases 7–6b in AG–AH/33), W9963, W9964 (Phase 7 in AI/31) and W9704 (Phase 7 in AI/32). These seem to be primarily partition walls built on top of existing floors. Higher floor surfaces do reach them, so it is possible that such partitions were built as standing foundations, i.e., the floor level was raised after the wall was constructed. Where stone foundations exist, they usually consist of one or, at most, two or three courses of small fist-sized or slightly larger fieldstones. Whenever the original floor associated with the construction of a wall could be determined, it was found to reach the wall just below the top of the fieldstone course(s). Very common are what we call here stone socles, which are walls whose base is made of the typical small fieldstones, but which is quite high, so that the interface between the stone socle and mudbrick superstructure is ca. 50 cm and sometimes as high as 1 m above floor level (Fig. 2.9).

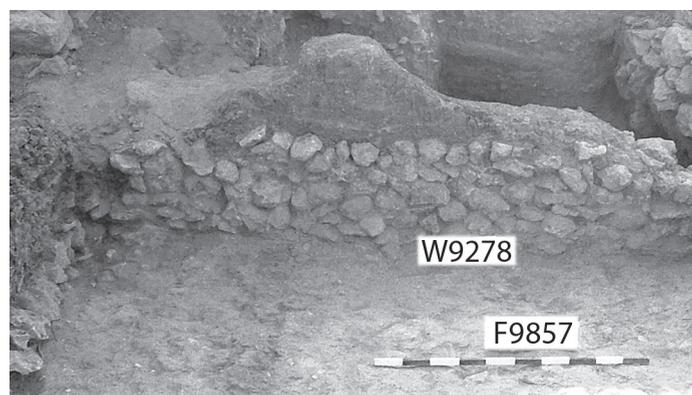


Fig. 2.9. Example of a floor reaching a mudbrick wall with a stone foundation (left) vs. a mudbrick wall with a stone socle, looking east. (p05Z3-0586)

Stone Walls

The common occurrence of mudbrick-on-stone-socle walls makes it difficult to differentiate between them and purely stone constructions. Given a wall with no mudbrick visible on it, how would one know if it is a stone wall or merely a socle above which the mudbrick has not been preserved? Some walls, however, were preserved to such a height that it is obvious that the wall (or at least the first story) was constructed entirely of stone. Of the latter walls, there are two types. One type is a double-faced wall which is constructed of two outer rows of medium-sized field stones (usually larger than those used in socles), with smaller stones in between (e.g., W9140(S) of Phases 7–6; Fig. 2.10). The other type is a single-stone wide, built with boulders as large as 50 x 50 x 75 cm in a more-or-less non-coursed construction, with smaller chinking-stones in-between. The most conspicuous examples of this type are the N–S walls in the northern rooms of the Phase 9 house (W9266, W9684, W18481, W9140[N]) (Fig. 2.11). Although these walls are quite narrow (ca. 65 cm wide) and appear flimsy, they were used for a remarkably long period and, once excavated, continued to stand for over a decade with no protection from the elements. All of the abovementioned walls, except for W18481, survived without rebuilding until the end of the house's use. They are also preserved remarkably high; e.g., W9140(N) is preserved up to nearly 3 m. For a discussion of the same construction methods at Tell Qiri on the other side of the Carmel range, see Portugali (1987: 132–133, Plan 59); for a general discussion with further references, see Wright 1985: 399–400.

Where did the stones come from to construct the Area G building? This is no trivial question. As Table 2.5 shows, the amount of stone used in the excavated portion of this area exceeded 47 metric tons. The bedrock in the immediate vicinity of the tell is *kurkar* sandstone, yet the walls of the Iron Age are constructed of limestone, unlike in later phases when the local sandstone is used. The limestone of the Carmel ridge is approximately 3 km distant. Table 2.5 overestimates the amount of stone in as much as it assumes the walls are flat, solid limestone cuboids, whereas, in fact,



Fig. 2.10. Background: W9140(N) (Phases 9–6) with single-stone-wide construction; foreground: W9140(S) (Phases 7–6) with double-faced construction, looking north. (p05Z3-0645)

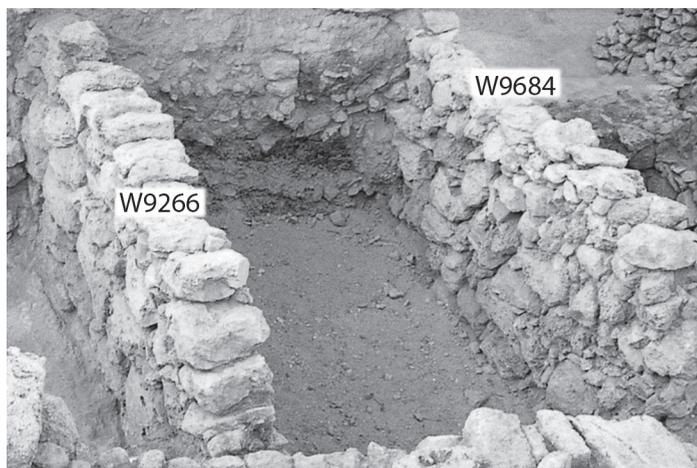


Fig. 2.11. N–S walls W9266 (left) and W9684 (right), constructed of one row of small boulders, looking south. (p10Z3-0054)

Table 2.5. Estimate of total weight of preserved remains of Phase 9 walls*

Wall	Length	Width	Height	Volume	Total Wall Weight
9140	3.8	0.5	1.1	2.1	5250
9211	10.5	0.7	1.8	12.3	30750
9262	5.5	0.7	0.3	1.2	3000
9266	3.5	0.5	2.0	3.2	8000
9408	3.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	3750
9684	3.5	0.5	2.0	3.5	8750
9800	1.8	0.8	1.0	1.3	3250
9832	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	250
9904	1.8	0.6	1.2	1.3	3250
9961	2.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	750
9998	1.1	0.5	1.2	0.6	1500
18048	3.5	0.5	0.7	1.2	3000
18250	2.2	0.5	0.9	0.9	2250
18481	3.0	0.7	0.5	1.1	2750
Total					76500

* Dimensions are in meters, volume is LxWxH (cubic meters) and weight is calculated using an average value of 2500 kg per cubic meter of limestone.

there are considerable mud-filled gaps between individual stones. However, on the other hand, it does not take into account the considerable amount of fallen stones removed in the excavation. Some amount of stones would have been reused from previous construction phases, but, in general, the use of stone (relative to mud construction) is on the increase throughout the Iron Age and into the succeeding Persian and Hellenistic periods. Moreover, some of the walls in each phase were found with mudbrick courses intact and so could not have been robbed for stones. Thus, each construction cycle needed at least some new raw material. Since each building phase, in turn, was also robbed by succeeding ones, the amount of stone left provides at least a ballpark estimate of how much had to be acquired.

To give a sense of the labor involved in securing this building material, the following scenario is presented. The British military estimated the carrying capacity of the donkey at approximately 45 kg, covering about 24 km a day (War Office 1908: 274–275). If half of the stones used in the walls had to be brought from offsite (24 tons), this is on the order of 530 trips for a single donkey under the British estimate, or 67 donkey workdays. If more stones had to be brought in, then even more trips would have been required. The work load may have been lessened somewhat if the builders were able to exploit river-rolled stones from the less-distant Wadi Milk (Naḥal Daliah), which enters the sea about 2 km south of the site, or other stream beds to the north of Dor (Naḥal Ayala or Naḥal Maharal). Many variables would figure in a more detailed estimate of the labor involved in transporting such an amount of stone. The point is simply that building house walls out of limestone at Dor likely required significantly more effort than building such walls in the central hills, yet apparently limestone was so desired that the effort was invested.

Floors

For the most part, floor surfaces found in the Area G house were of the so-called beaten-earth type, which should probably be renamed “trampled-sediment”, namely, living surfaces were comprised of whatever happened to be the exposed interface at the time the room was in use, into which organic and non-organic remains of microscopic size and larger were inadvertently trampled by the human and animal household inhabitants. Micromorphological analysis identified that most surfaces in Area G and elsewhere show micro-lamination consistent with extensive trampling (Albert et al. 2008: e.g., Fig. 2).

Extensive sampling (unfortunately carried out only after excavation in Area G was mostly complete) shows that the typical makeup of floors, as well as other sediments on the tell, are varying proportions of clay, calcite and silicates (Berna et al. 2007: Table 4; Albert et al. 2008: Table 2). The clay probably originates from decayed mudbrick and sometimes shows evidence of heat alteration, probably indicating proximity to household fires or pyro-technological activities (see below). Calcite derives primarily from ash produced by the above-mentioned activities, as well as, possibly, from the degradation of *kurkar* (calcareous aeolianite). The silicates are partly the siliceous facet of the calcite, with the addition of plant phytoliths (see below) and beach sand.

Apparent exceptions to the above are multiple phytolith surfaces which, in Area G, were by-and-large limited to “Sloan’s room” in Phase 9 (Chapter 15; see further discussion in Albert et al. 2008: 8–11 and below) and multiple thin ash surfaces found in the Phase 10 courtyard (Room 18333), which are also discussed in some detail below (see also Berna et al. 2007). However, these are not real exceptions, in as much as they do not constitute an intentional flooring and it is only the nature of the specialized activity which produced the buildup of distinct deposits.

The only intentionally built floors encountered are (rare) pavements made from irregular flat limestone slabs. These are very specifically situated; of four such pavements encountered, one was under the phytolith layers in the aforementioned “Sloan’s room” and three were superimposed in the western half of the courtyard in Phases 9, 8 and 7. This phenomenon will also be discussed separately below.

Roofs

Evidence for roof construction was preserved only in the Phase 9 destruction. Although numerous pieces of beams and roofing material were found in the burnt collapse, they were mainly fragmentary and/or disarticulated. In some cases, however, complete sections of roof collapsed above the floor, allowing a tentative reconstruction of the roofing technique (Figs. 2.12–2.14). The roof was constructed of a mesh of wooden beams, of which the lowermost layer consisted of beams 9–10 cm thick, spaced about 25–50 cm apart. Across these was a second layer of smaller branches or cross-members, 2–3 cm in cross-section, laid no more than 20 cm apart. Above these was probably some sort of mat or

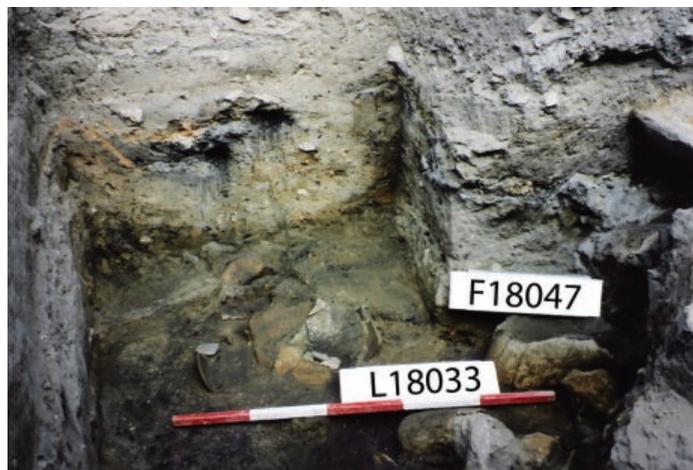


Fig. 2.12. Section through the Phase 9 destruction debris in Room 18033, looking west. Note *in situ* jars on floor, with mudbrick and stone collapse on top and burnt beams and roofing material above (photograph courtesy of J.C. Monroe). (p09Z3-6011)



Fig. 2.13. Close-up of roof collapse seen in section in Fig. 2.12. Above the beams: burnt organic layer with packing of mudbrick material above (photograph courtesy of J.C. Monroe). (p09Z3-6014)



Fig. 2.14. Close-up of roof collapse in western balk in Room 18033, opposite the roofing material in Figs. 2.12 and 2.13. Note the two cross-members under the brush and a thin white organic layer (mat? fronds?) draping across them (photograph courtesy of J.C. Monroe). (p08Z3-1460)

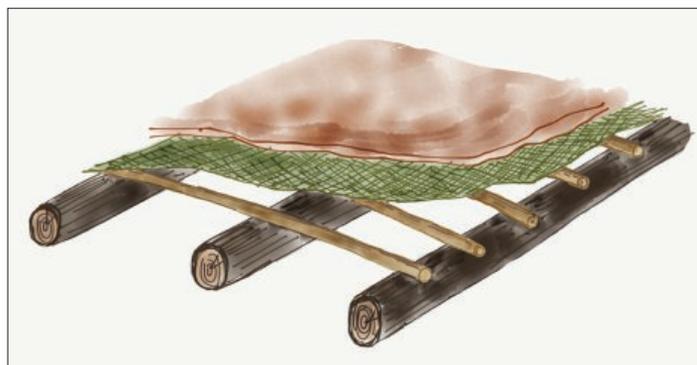


Fig. 2.15. Reconstruction of the roof construction technique. (d09Z3-1460)

reeds, which left occasional impressions in the mud-plaster that was packed on top (Fig. 2.15; cf., Wright 1985: 460–461, Fig. 362). The latter presumably consisted of the final layer of the roof and/or the floor of the second story. Portugali (1987: Photo 61) shows similar reed impressions, but he believes that the roofs at Tell Qiri did not contain beams at all (Portugali 1987: 133, Plan 60).

Phase 10: Ir1a early (ca. 1150/1125–1110/1075 BCE)

Preamble: A Temporal Gap and Functional Continuity

As demonstrated by the ceramic analyses (Chapters 17, 20), there seems to have been some temporal gap between the assemblages of Phases 11 and 10. The latest ceramics in Phase 11 are coeval with Tel Nami or even slightly earlier, i.e., they date to the very early 12th century or slightly earlier. On the other hand, Philistine Bichrome fragments on and under the floors of the first Iron Age phase (Phase 10), date them to ca. 1150/1125 at the earliest (see discussion in Chapter 20). The horizon paralleling the Philistine Monochrome (local Myc IIIC) phase in Philistia, is not represented here (LBIIr1; Table 2.1). It could be claimed that such a phase was obliterated by the Phase 10 construction operations, especially as the upper part of the Phase 11 fills yielded some Iron Age pottery alongside that of LBII, but this is inconclusive. Thus, at least in the excavated part of Area G, which is the only spot at Dor where the LB/Iron Age transition can currently be defined, there seems to be some sort of hiatus, at the very least two generations long. For the proposed absolute chronology of the Phases 10–8 range, see Chapter 20: “*Relative and Absolute Chronology*”. Divisions within this range were rather arbitrary.

In contrast, functionally, Phase 10 represents a continuation of the metal-working industry first attested in LB Phases 12–11. In Phase 10, however, metal working is actually located in the center of the excavated area. At least part of this activity was conducted inside a building and many of its components were uncovered *in situ*. Thus, Phase 10 does not merely reflect material left over from such processes somewhere to the east and dumped here, as in the previous phases, but is the actual locus of metallurgic activity (for further details of this industry, see Chapter 22).

Stratigraphy, Deposits and Architecture

The N–S and E–W dumping of industrial waste from the previous phases established the general topography for the Iron Age as well. The Phase 10 building that was constructed over these earlier dump layers is only partially known. The area most completely excavated is the courtyard (Room 18333), which is ca. 4.5 m long (N–S) and at least 7.5 m wide; portions of rooms were found to its north, south and west (Fig. 2.16). It is quite likely, therefore, that the Phase 10 building was of the “CC# type”, like its successors from Phase 9 and onward (see definition and discussion below).

The three sub-phases defined within Phase 10 (a–c) were generally based on architectural stages limited to individual rooms (Plans 2–4). In the central courtyard (18333), the subphases (10b–c) are determined on the basis of the relationship of surfaces to the upper and lower stages of W18229 on the northern side of the courtyard. North of this wall (Room 18286 and other rooms), the subphases are determined by two sets of walls, one clearly replacing the other. W18515 is clearly later than W18349 (Fig. 2.16). In addition, the W18229–18349 system clearly has two phases, with the eastern extension of W18229 being a later addition. Rooms to the west (18398 and 18307) and south (18330) do not exhibit any clear architectural subdivision within Phase 10, although some of them have multiple floor levels.

Some of the Phase 10a surfaces either reached the very top of preservation of Phase 10 walls or even covered them. It is possible that these floors do not represent a true living surface, but rather were laid in preparation for the establishment of Phase 9. This is also supported by the fact that, as compared to other (lower) Phase 10 sediments, they did not reveal any traces of copper nor were they heat-altered (Berna et al. 2007).

W18229, the E–W wall used as the defining feature for this phase, is of remarkable construction (see Chapter 9, Figs. 9.52–9.59). The lower stage of this wall is built entirely of stone. The upper stage, however, consists of two square segments built of stone, while the rest of the wall is built of a type of mud

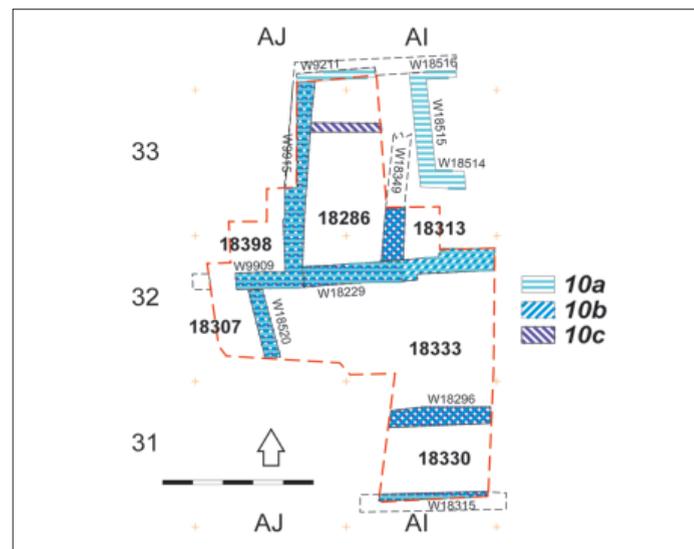


Fig. 2.16. Superposition of Phases 10c–a. Note changes in wall lines between sub-phases. (d09Z3-1289)

construction technique in which no bricks were discerned (Fig. 2.6; also Chapter 9, Fig. 9.52) termed “rubble pier and pisé” (as noted above), due to the similarity to the well-known “ashlar pier and rubble fill” technique. We know of no parallels to this wall-construction technique at Dor nor elsewhere.

The upper mudbrick courses of the N–S wall (W18349) (see Chapter 9, Fig. 9.68) which forms a corner with W18229 in Phases 10c and 10b are very different in composition and size than the average ones, being made of what appears to be a silty sand and measuring 8 x 25 cm (the height had not been recorded). These might represent some specialized use for this wall, perhaps somehow connected with the metallurgical installations nearby.

Functional Analysis of the Phase 10 Building: The Metallurgical Activities

Metallurgy, comprising melting and probably mostly recycling of bronze, was practiced mainly in Phase 10c (Fig. 2.17). Phase 10a certainly postdates this activity. Intensive recycling of bronze/copper is known in this period at many sites in the Levant and Cyprus (Chapter 22). Most of the evidence for copper/bronze working comes from the courtyard, which is also the space with the largest exposure. This evidence includes an oven/furnace(?) (18308), a round clay installation preserved 35 cm high (60 cm in diameter), which has a notch

at the base of its southern face, probably for the insertion of a tuyère pipe used for feeding compressed air into it (Fig. 2.18; see Chapter 9, Figs. 9.73–9.75). Except for this small hole, no other opening was found to the extant furnace, but its top was not preserved and it seems most likely that the main opening was at, or near this part of the installation.

The area was dotted with shallow fire pits scooped out of the soil (Fig. 2.20), typically ca. 10 cm across and 3–5 cm deep

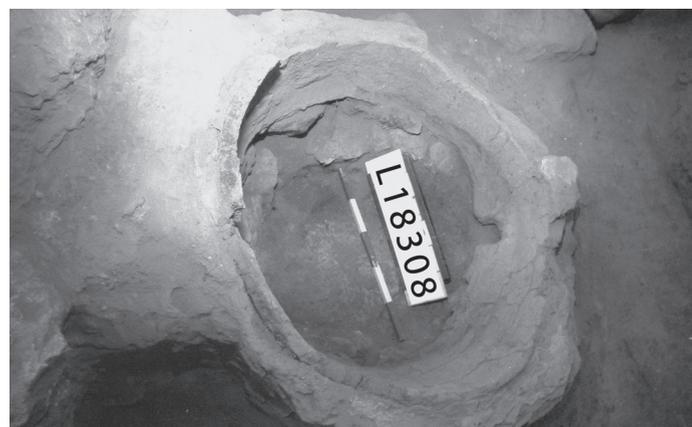


Fig. 2.18. Phase 10 furnace/oven in AI/32, looking north. (p08Z3-1277)

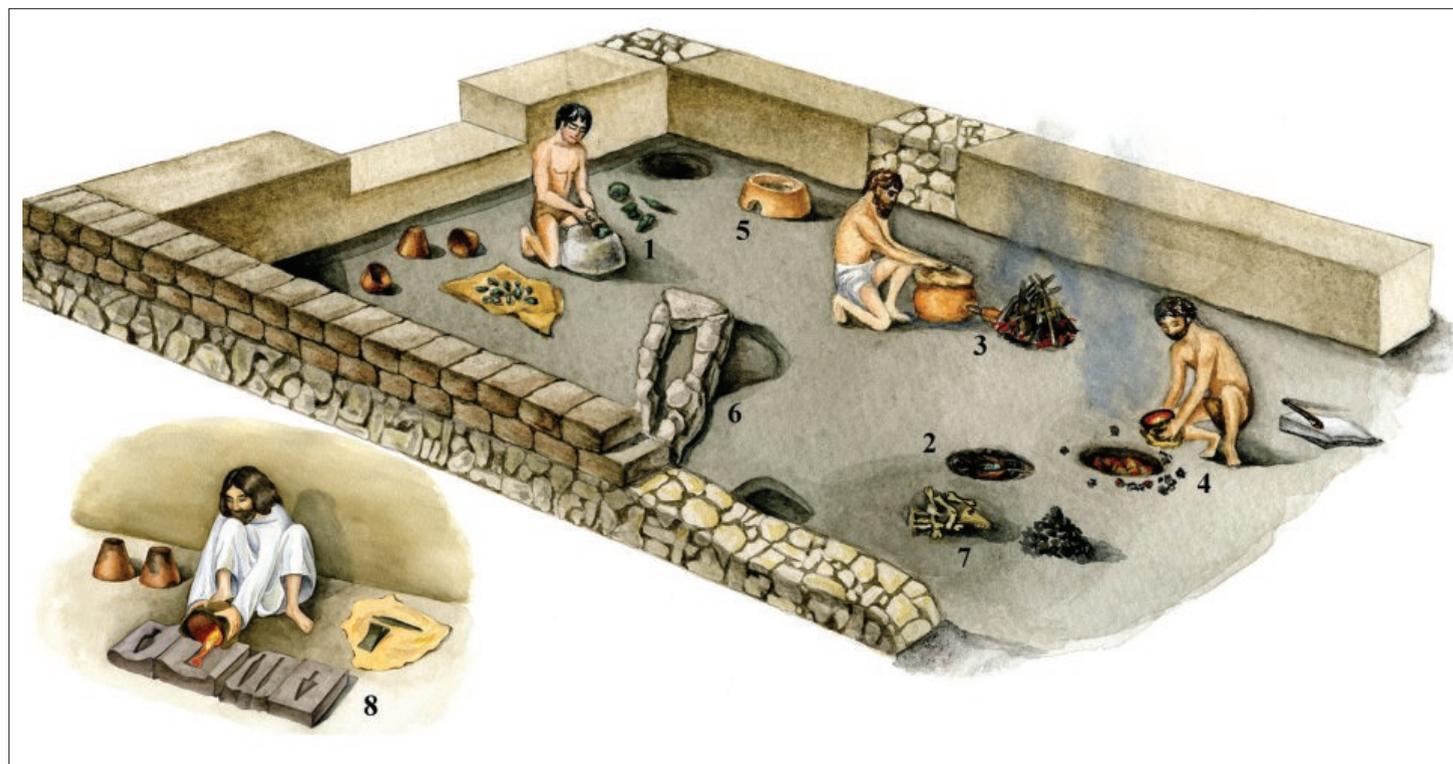


Fig. 2.17. An artist’s view of the metal-working area and activities in the courtyard of the Phase 10c house. (1) Scrap metal (copper and/or bronze) is broken to pieces in order to fit into small clay crucibles. (2) A full crucible is placed with fuel in a dug-out firing pit. (3) A firing pit might be covered with more fuel, lit, and a clay bellows with an animal-hide covering is connected to the pit with a wooden (?) pipe and clay tuyère in order to feed the fire and raise its temperature to ca. 1300°C. (4) A crucible with molten metal is removed from the pit. (5) A clay oven/furnace can serve instead of a firing pit; note the hole for the tuyère. (6) A stone installation of unknown function. (7) A pit with animal bones, which may have been used for fuel and/or for deoxidizing the copper (unclear if the pit is associated with this complex or dug from the phase above). (8) Conjectural reconstruction of molten bronze being poured into molds to form new objects (although no molds were actually found). Drawing: V. Damov. (d10Z3-1126)

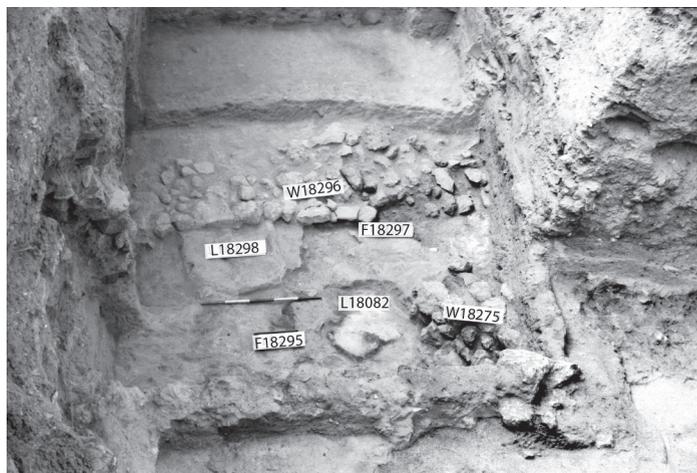


Fig. 2.19. Right: installation 18275; left: clay installation 18298, and a patchy ash surface between them, looking south (=Fig. 9.65). (p05Z3-0258)

and filled with ash. One of these, which was left in the eastern balk of AI/32, was tested in 2002–2003 and revealed evidence of high-temperature sediment alteration and a high proportion of copper in the sediment (Berna et al. 2007; Chapter 22). Two shallow basins lined by thick clay floors (Fig. 2.19) may also have been used as fire pits.

The area of the courtyard was built up from the ashy debris left over from firings in these installations, typically manifested as alternating layers of gray/white ash (comprising mainly calcite and silicates, some of them heat-altered) and sand, mixed with bits of mudbrick debris and charcoal (for details, see Berna et al. 2007). These lenses never extended far and, although initially thought to be simply patches on a single, more-or-less continuous white floor surface, this was not the case. In fact, it was impossible to isolate discrete floors for the courtyard because of these patchy, overlapping, discontinuous, white, floor-like laminations (Fig. 2.20, see also Chapter 3, Fig. 3.35). Approximately 30 such “surfaces” were counted in a single ca. 40-cm deep section. These ashy

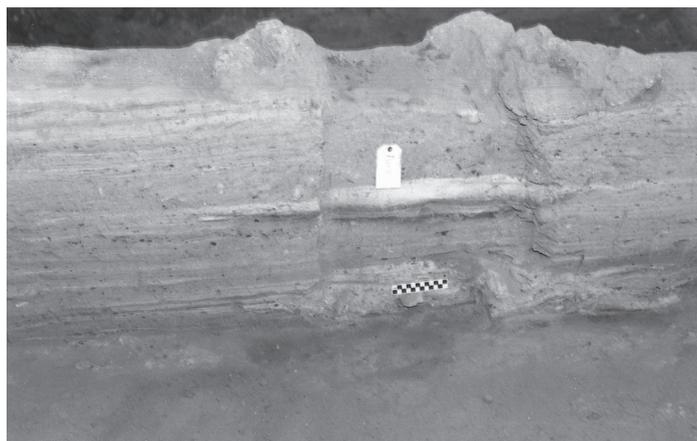


Fig. 2.20. Temporary balk between AI/31 and AI/32, looking south, showing dense lamination of ashy and sandy layers associated with metal working. Center: two fire pits (=Fig. 9.70). (p05Z3-0632)

lenses were mostly limited to the courtyard, not being found in the partially excavated rooms on the north (18286 and 18313), nor to the west in Rooms 18398 and 18307, although they (and several fire pits) were found in the southern Room 18330, a space measuring 4 m wide from north to south.

Analysis of the sediments in the courtyard also revealed significant concentrations of copper, mainly within the charcoal components of the laminations. These were occasionally accompanied by copper slags and prills (Chapter 22). Temperatures in the laminations and the fire pit reached as high as 1300° C (Berna et al. 2007).

Other evidence for metallurgical activity was found in the southwestern corner of Room 18286, north of W18229. This was a vessel shaped like a deep bowl/krater, but with a flat base and a spout near its base (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.13:13; Fig. 20.56). It is likely that this pot functioned as a bellows for use with one of the installations uncovered in the vicinity, the fire pits and possibly also the oven/furnace(?). It was probably operated by hand. Some sort of flexible material would have been tied around the neck as a sack which could be compressed and released to force air through the spout and into a tuyère pipe. Parallels are known from metal-working areas in Cyprus and Syria and examples of such vessels have been found in Israel as well (Chapter 22). Room 18286 to the north is the only one that yielded a piece of pumice, an abrasive substance frequently encountered in metallurgical contexts used, for example, for polishing the metal.

In the courtyard was installation L18275 (Fig. 2.19), comprising an elongated basin-like feature, ca. 1.5 m long; its internal width is 20 to 40 cm, its external width is ca. 70 cm and it is ca. 60 cm deep. Its long eastern and western sides were constructed of small fieldstones, while the short northern side was made of a single large stone, with a flat top understood to possibly have functioned as an anvil, although there is no proof for this. The laminated surfaces outside the installation (see below) appear to reach its entire height. It is not clear if the installation was dug from (one of) the upper surfaces or whether it was built upon (one of) the lower ones. No trace of plastering exists on the inside of the installation and if or how it was related to the metal industry it is not clear.

Adjacent to the basin is another enigmatic installation (L18324). While scraping one of the lower surfaces, a semicircular row of nine tiny ash-filled postholes (Plans 2–3), 1–2 cm in diameter and spaced 10–25 cm from each other was revealed. Its function and relation to the basin and the metal-working activities in the courtyard remain unknown.

Yet another puzzling feature is a pit/pile of bones (L18347) found in AI/33, north of W18229 and east of W18349 (Fig. 2.21). This concentration contained mainly cattle foot bones, as well as at least two skulls, i.e., low-meat-yielding body parts. The *prima facie* stratigraphic scenario is that the bones were probably placed in a pit dug from Phase 10a into 10b and thus, are unrelated to the process of metal production. However, there are corollaries for bones being used in bronze production process as a de-oxidizing agent (cf., for example, Karageorghis and Kassianidou 1999; see also Chapter 22). A possible workaround for the stratigraphic difficulty is to

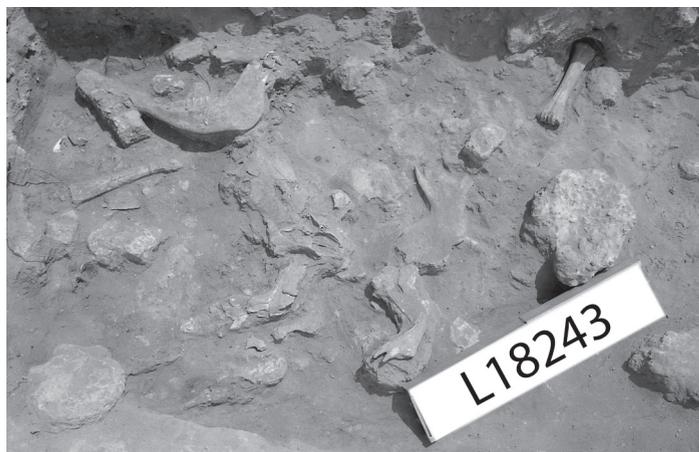


Fig. 2.21. Bones from Pit L18347 as found during excavation of L18243, looking north (=Fig. 9.62). (p05Z3-0621)

assume that the bones were not in a pit, but rather in a pile placed on a Phase 10b surface and gradually covered by 10a accumulations, although no evidence of such a surface was recorded.

Metal and Other Objects Related to Metal Working

In Phase 10, some 66 pieces of bronze, one piece of unalloyed copper and at least one poorly preserved fragment of an iron artifact were found, along with 12 fragmentary clay crucibles, a few of which still contained bits of copper/bronze adhering to their inner surfaces. These were encountered mainly in the courtyard (18333), but also in Room 18330 to the south and Room 18313 to the north, where four more fragmentary crucibles and 10 bits of bronze were uncovered; one fragmentary nail in Room 18286 may or may not belong to the industrial activity. These pieces, together with the oven/furnace, baked-clay firing surfaces, firing pits, buildup of multiple laminated layers of ashy-sandy surfaces and their composition, bear ample testimony to the Phase 10 bronze-working center (see Chapter 22). The source of the copper is difficult to pinpoint (see Chapter 23).

One type of item appearing in large numbers were smooth river or beach pebbles of various sizes, between 1 and 8 cm in diameter, some flat and others spherical. While beach pebbles could naturally occur in sediments brought up to the tell for constructional purposes, their preponderance here begs explanation. Of some 170 pebbles collected in Area G, about 140 come from Phase 10, 115 of them from courtyard 18333. The vast majority of these pebbles show no traces of use-wear and so are unlikely to have been used as abraders or polishers. No actual surfaces or installations made from them or surrounding them were found, but they did seem to cluster in and around installation L18275, near the center of the courtyard. Perhaps they served a purpose similar to that of the Shell-Floor Installation in Phase 11. About 19 basalt vessels, mostly very fragmentary, were found, mainly in the courtyard (11 pieces), with one example in Room 18330, four in Room 18398 and three in Room 18286. It is yet unclear how these relate to the activity here.

Ceramic Assemblages

Other than the pot bellows, no pottery from a primary context was recovered from Phase 10 and, altogether, only one or two complete vessels were found. Considering the nature of deposition, the fact that, in most cases, no serious segregation between assemblages belonging to the different sub-phases of Phase 10 could be achieved and the likely possibility that rooms may have changed their function in Phase 10a, it is unclear if and how the pottery is related to the metallurgic activity. Thus, although we chose to present the pottery according to rooms (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.2–20.14), this clustering is most likely not contextually significant.

Generally, the pottery is of Canaanite derivation, although the complex painted decorations, typical of the LB, are hardly attested. Where painted decoration exists at all, it is very simple, comprising linear designs and appearing mainly on containers, such as flasks and jars (e.g., Chapter 20, Pls. 20.7:3–14; 20.8:24–31; 20.13:2). Bowls are also frequently adorned with red bands on their rims.

Some ceramic shapes and decorations betray foreign associations, chief among them the simply formed and adorned bell-shaped bowls (skyphoi). Although the origins of the shape are foreign, most of these skyphoi are of local manufacture (e.g., Chapter 20; Pls. 20.2:1–2; 20.10:1–6). These are much more prevalent in Phase 10 than in the subsequent phases and apparently indicate drinking habits that may be traced to Cyprus. A few other skyphoi were imported from Philistia (e.g., Chapter 20, Pl. 20.1:3–4) and possibly also from coastal localities north of Dor (e.g., Chapter 20, Pl. 20.14:1). Generally speaking, Phase 10, and deposits immediately under its floors, produced most of the Philistine Bichrome fragments uncovered at Dor (beyond skyphoi, mostly containers), but these, too, are extremely rare (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.8:36; 20.11:11; 20.13:8).

Also noteworthy are a few fragments whose decorations display Syrian stylistic impact, perhaps even specifically Ugaritic; for a discussion of this design, named OMDS (overlapping multiple diagonal strokes), see Chapter 20. These are mostly, again, drinking/serving vessels (Chapter 20; e.g., Pls. 20.8:32–33; 20.13:3). They might have served in some social/ceremonial context, as perhaps did the few Philistine containers and the one zoomorphic vessel from the courtyard (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.9:3), although this cannot be confirmed. This “Syrian connection” suggests that it may not be a coincidence that the best parallel to the Phase 10 pot-bellows originates in (LB) Ugarit and that Syrian impact has been postulated for the “style” of the metallurgical technology in Phase 10 (Chapter 22).

Other than the few skyphoi and Philistine Bichrome vessels, ceramic imports are mainly numerous fragments of Egyptian jars and very few Egyptian bowls (Chapter 20, e.g., Pls. 20.7:19; 20.11:4–5). However, in contrast to Phases 12–11, and to the early Iron Age sequence of Area D2 which also contained large amounts of imported vessels, Egyptian fish are hardly represented in the Iron Age levels of Area G.

Generally speaking, the distribution of ceramic classes is very similar to that of the subsequent Phase 9, when the

metallurgical activities have ceased. Bowls, for example, comprise 29% (vs. 34% in 9), cooking pots a mere 7% (vs. 5% in 9), and storage vessels—jars and pithoi—26% in both phases (see Chapter 21: Table 21.1). This is markedly different from the distribution in later phases, when the assemblages appear to have more of a domestic nature, as detailed below.

Flint Tools

Of the 127 flints found in Phase 10, including tools, debitage and unidentifiable items, about a quarter have been studied (Chapter 24). All but a few originate in the two lower phases of Phase 10 (b, c), with the lion's share found in courtyard 18333; 83 items were recorded in the field and 22 were analyzed, including cores, blades (including sickles) and flake tools. This is most likely the result of the courtyard being the most widely exposed space. However, it is still notable that adjacent rooms produced very few items: 15 items in Room 18330, nine in Room 18286, eight in Room 18313, two in the northwestern section, nine in various other Phase 10 loci, and none in the other spaces. This distribution indicates that although hardly anything in this phase can be demonstrated to be in primary deposition, at least some of the flint tools are probably associated functionally with the metallurgic activities in the courtyard.

Other Objects

Phase 10 yielded one scarab (Chapter 25, No. 16). There were also a number of glass objects, a noteworthy phenomenon for this early stage in the Iron Age, including several glass beads (Chapter 26, Table 26.8), a fragment of the neck and shoulder of a small, core-formed, amber-colored vessel which may either belong to this horizon or to Phase 11 (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.6.14, Zorn and Brill 2007: Fig. 1) and what has been identified as an ear-plug attested in Egyptian art and actual finds (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:35; Zorn and Brill 2007: 256). Other notable objects were a stone game piece (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:4), a bead of Egyptian Blue (Chapter Fig. 26.1:21), a bronze button, a fragment of a bronze rod and a bronze chisel (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.6:5; Tables 26.16:12; 26.17:19), a small fragment of thin gold leaf (Chapter 26, Table 26.17:26), as well as some bone points and small clay objects (Chapter 26, Tables 26.14:12–13, 21; 26.17:17–18). In a Phase 10 locus whose finds may have been mixed with Phase 9, a perforated conical stone weight (?) was uncovered (ca. 6 cm lower diameter, 2.7 cm high), decorated with striations (Reg. No. 18705; for a very similar object from Phase 7, see Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:16). Another conical stone spindle whorl (2.5 cm in diameter, 0.5 cm high) was found in the courtyard (Reg. No. 182249; not illustrated).

The End of Phase 10

The reason for the end of Phase 10 is unclear, but plausibly should be associated with a decision to abandon the metal industry and to use the area for another purpose. There was no destruction, but the area was leveled off for the

construction of Phase 9. The peaceful end of Phase 10 also means that any portable objects of value or potential future use were removed. Other than the pot bellow left *in situ*, probably because it was not needed anymore, and the beads and scarab that were most likely accidentally lost, it is mainly broken ceramics and groundstone tools and vessels that remained.

THE COURTYARD HOUSE IN PHASES 9–6: IR1a LATE–IR2a

Introduction

As noted above (“*A Brief Synopsis of the History of the House*”), there were some significant changes in the plan of the structure between Phases 10 and 9, but as of Phase 9, this plan becomes more or less fixed. While we suspect that the Phase 10 structure already displays some of the features which would later become typical, such as the courtyard, its exposure is rather limited. Phase 9 is also the best preserved due to its violent destruction. We shall therefore present a detailed architectural analysis based mainly on the well-preserved remains of the Phase 9 house, incorporating elements from Phases 8–6 when necessary to complete the picture. This analysis utilizes the architectural plan of the house to focus on broad issues that go beyond the specific features of each phase.

A Formal Architectural Analysis of the House

The simplest approach to architectural analysis is typological. To define a type, one must start with a recurring floor plan or, even better, an emic reference, such as a literary or ethnographic description denoting a certain set of structures with a unique name. One constructs a list of attributes which define the type and can then serve in the examination of additional cases (even when exposure or preservation is partial) and to assess whether, or to what extent, the definition pertains to them (cf., Shiloh's classic [1970] study of the four-room house and derivative types for such a didactic architectural analysis; see also Sharon and Zarzecki-Peleg 2006).

Two such recurring types of private dwellings have been discussed in the literature for the Iron Age. The first is the above-mentioned four-room house, or rather four-space, because some of these spaces may be subdivided (for a recent discussion and up-to-date bibliography, see Faust 2006: 71–75); see Fig. 2.25b for a generic plan of such a house. In the face of growing criticism of the ethnic label, Faust reargues the case for this house type as being specifically Israelite (cf., Mazar 2008: 333–334 for a recent summary of the argument and a rebuttal of Faust). Faust also identifies a second type of ground plan—a “train-like” configuration consisting of a unilinear sequence of rooms in which each space is connected only to the next one in the sequence (Faust 2000: 12–13). This he calls the “Canaanite/Phoenician” house type, which we submit is a misnomer (see below). We shall henceforth refer to these as the “four-room/space” and the “unilinear” types, and thus

avoid the unnecessary burdening of typology with cultural interpretation.

Obviously, the Area G house fits neither the “four-space” nor the “unilinear” prototype. We will argue here that this structure (and perhaps other Iron Age houses at Dor) falls into the category often called the “Canaanite Courtyard House”. Note, however, that although the term has been used often enough (e.g., Ben-Dov 1992; Daviau 1993), it has never been formally defined. If every house that has an inner courtyard in the Near East was defined as a “Canaanite Courtyard House”, then a great many residential structures, beginning with the Neolithic period (e.g., at Sha‘ar HaGolan) and ending with traditional Arab houses of modern times, would fall into the same category (including the “four-room” house type, but not necessarily the “unilinear” one). Such a broad definition, therefore, lacks analytic value. At the end of this section, we shall attempt to define some additional traits to clarify what we mean by the term.

The analysis below is hampered by the fact that the Area G structure is incomplete and particularly by the lack of a definite exterior and hence, no certain entry into the building. Indeed, even the assumption that it is a house, rather than one portion of a larger unit or even segments of different units, cannot be absolutely proven, although all of the spaces in it appear to be interconnected by doorways, whose existence and position can be inferred with varying degrees of certitude. As we are not acquainted with the complete structure, we cannot seriously assess whether our house also represents a household (cf., for example, Allison 1999: 4–5, with references).

Following the data provided in the stratigraphic analysis (Chapters 3–16), establishing which walls and floors constitute the house in each particular phase, we follow three analytical steps: (1) Analysis of construction methods (as detailed above); (2) Access analysis; and (3) Ventilation and lighting analysis.

Access Analysis

Formal (or numerical) access analysis is a technique developed for architects and adopted by anthropologists (e.g., Hillier and Hanson 1984; Hillier 1996; Hanson 1998). The analysis progresses through three steps:

1. Identification of convex spaces (rooms) and connections between them (doorways). This can be done with computer analysis or heuristically (Fig. 2.22).
2. Representation of spaces as nodes and connections between them as lines (Fig. 2.23). This representation is then justified (Fig. 2.24) to produce a structure known in mathematics as a simple graph, which is an abstract model of the plan, independent of actual size, shape, position or orientation of the rooms.
3. Direct consideration of the graph, which highlights certain properties of the house (Hillier and Hanson, 1984: 147–155). For example, in Fig. 2.25b, node 3 is obviously the integrative focus of the house, because every path between two other nodes must traverse it; in Fig. 2.25a, however, node 3 is the most segregated, being the end node of a *cul-de-sac*. We can also assess the depth of individual

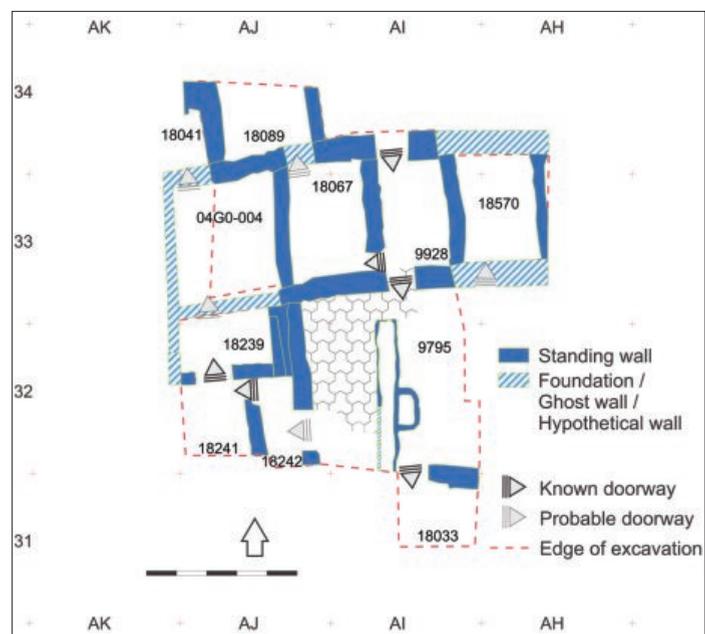


Fig. 2.22. Plan of the Phase 9 house, with rooms and possible accessways. (d09Z3-1447)

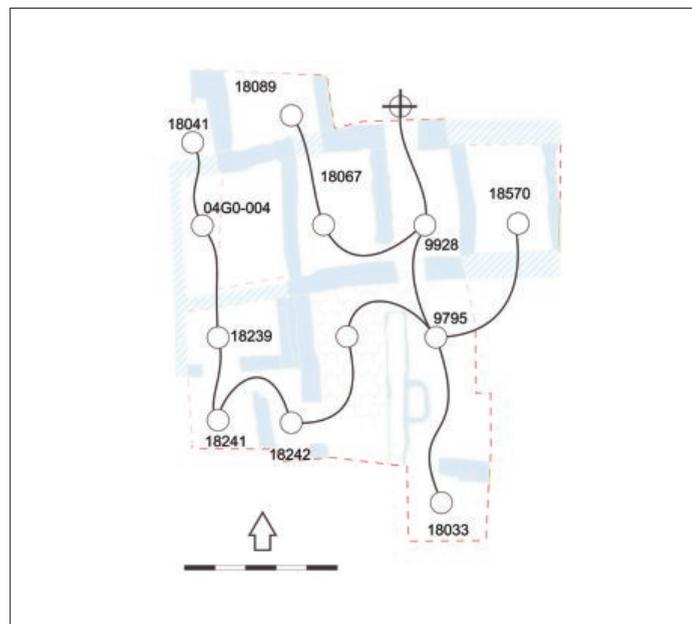


Fig. 2.23. Unjustified access-analysis graph for the Phase 9 house. (d09Z3-1291)

nodes—how many nodes must be traversed to get from one to another—and consequently, the depth of the plan as a whole. The “distributedness” of the plan is the number of alternative paths between nodes. This shows up in the number of rings in the graph. The graph in Fig. 2.25a is very deep and non-integrated, while Fig. 2.25c shows high integration and high distribution. The house represented by Fig. 2.25b is shallow and well-integrated, but not well distributed, as there is only one way from each node to another (through 3).

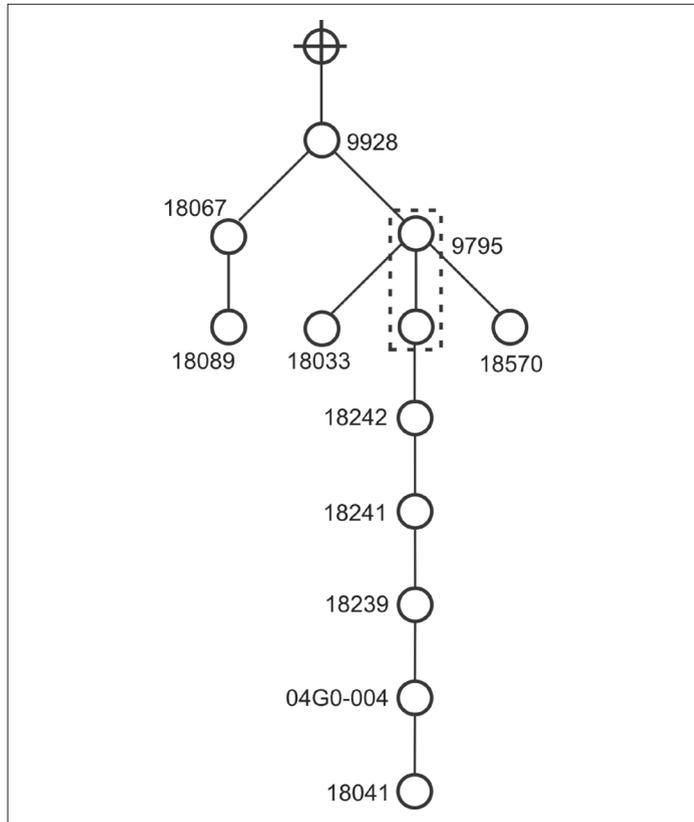


Fig. 2.24. Justified access-analysis graph for the Phase 9 house. (d09Z3-1292)

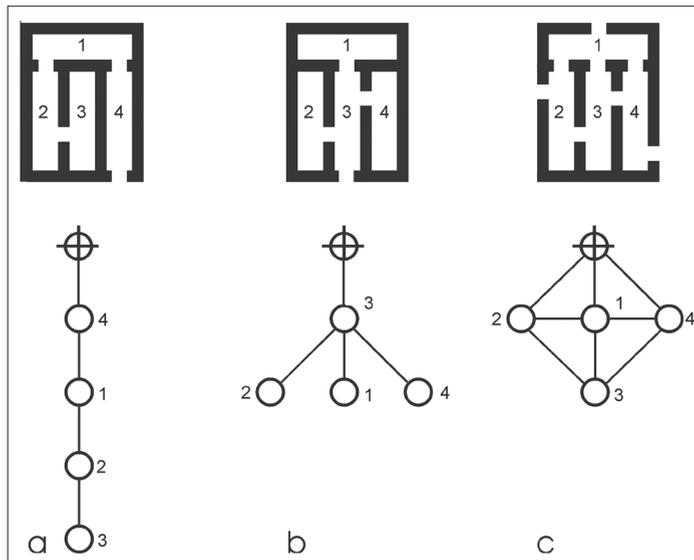


Fig. 2.25. Diagram showing how the placement of doorways affects the access graph (cf., Hillier and Hanson 1984: Fig. 93). The prototype is the classic Iron Age four-room house ground-plan – b: the access plan as usually reconstructed. (d09Z3-1293)

- Various numerical indices can now be computed on each node or on the graph as a whole. Numerical measures on nodes might represent how well integrated a certain room is. The “relative asymmetry” (RA) of a node is the mean depth (the average number of nodes one would have to

traverse to get from it to all other nodes) normalized to the total number of rooms in the house. Low RA values for a node signify high integration (i.e., it is relatively easy to get from that node to all others) and high RA values signify segregation. After calculating the RA for each room in the house, one can compute the average RA for the entire house, which is a measure of how well-integrated the plan is as a whole (Hillier and Hanson 1984: Fig. 95). Similarly, one can devise numerical indices for the control exerted by one node on the surrounding ones. A weighted sum of the accessible nodes is computed, where the weight for each node is inversely proportioned to the number of other nodes accessible from it. Thus, a node would have a strong “control value” (E) if it has many dependent nodes whose occupants must pass through in order to access other parts of the house (Hillier and Hanson 1984: 109). Other indices can be used to assess the “distributedness” of a node or of the plan as a whole (Hillier and Hanson 1984: 154).

Anthropological interpretation of access graphs, or the resultant numerical indices, has usually been of the structuralist vein. But whether or not we subscribe to the notion that latent patterns in human society (or the human psyche) manifest themselves in other facets of human constructs, it is obvious that the flow of traffic through a house constrains the use of that house and can shed light on its users. This includes the very definition of a house—an interconnected set of spaces whose only out-of-set connections are to the global node “outside”. In access-analysis lingo, the former is called a “premises”, because there can be cases of multiple premises in a single structure, e.g., a modern apartment house.

Accessibility is also intimately tied to such notions as privacy, containment and control. A containable space (a node or cluster of nodes) is one which can be sealed by closing off a single access. In a house environment, it is easiest to think of containment in the context of the safekeeping of some valuable commodity, which one would not want to store in a commonly used passage. But we may also seek to contain pollution, infection and uncleanness; one would hardly install the toilet-seat in a passageway. Faust (2006) proposes that the organizing principle of the “four-space” house was to allow the containment of ritual impurity (e.g., impure animals, people with skin diseases or menstruating women). A (potentially) private space is a node, or a cluster of nodes, with no obligatory through traffic, meaning that paths exist from each “public” node to every other “public” node in the house, which do not pass through any “private” node. Control can be defined as who “owns” the primary nodes, through which everyone must pass.

In a review of recent literature of access analysis in archaeology, Cutting (2003) concluded that formal, or numerical, access analysis is often of little use to archaeologists, particularly “stage 3”, above. Most of the numerical indices depend on total knowledge of the plan of the house and their computation might give very different results under different parameterizations of missing values. As depicted in Fig. 2.25, very different graphs can be obtained from the same basic plan by shifting the doorways. Even in the best of all possible (archaeological) cases, where we have the full ground plan of the house and can safely locate all entrances, the existence,

position and plan of upper stories (or any other type of rooftop access) remains conjectural and could produce very different access graphs. The same can be said for various items of furniture, e.g., screens which can divide spaces. Nevertheless, heuristic access analysis is an opportune “tool for thinking” and it is in this sense that we use it here.

In general, the Phase 9 walls show the best preservation of any Iron Age phase in Area G. They were usually high enough to show where many, although not all, doorways were located. In Figs. 2.22 and 2.23, walls whose superstructure is preserved are marked with solid lines. These solid lines cannot have been crossed except through designated doorways. Hatched lines mark either walls which are present, but are preserved only as foundations or robber trenches or are unexcavated areas in which we assume the existence of a wall, usually by virtue of a sequence of walls above. Naturally, an entryway might be reconstructed at any point along such a line. In order to allow a reconstruction of how foot traffic flowed through the building, we need to make at least one further assumption, namely, that the conceptual plan of the house did not drastically change. If we cannot tell whether a wall of Phase X had a doorway in it, but a doorway was located in Phase X-1 and/or Phase X+1, we reconstruct a doorway in the same place. These are marked in Fig. 2.22 as probable doorways. Given the extraordinary continuity in other aspects of the plan of the house, we feel this is justified.

Support for the assertion that these are parts of a single house, rather than sections of several different ones (i.e., that all of the spaces are interconnected) is the probable doorway in W18048, between courtyard 9795 and corridor 18242. Note (Fig. 2.24) that the most salient feature of the graph representation of our house—the long “tail” starting with 18242—depends on there being a connection between 9795 and 18242. The visible opening in W18048 is not necessarily a doorway, because a Phase 4 Persian pit cuts the wall at this point. No recognizable doorjambs exist in W18048 and the opening is, in fact, wider than one might expect of a doorway. However, the Phase 9 floor, visible as a clear interface between burnt and unburnt material, could be traced between the courtyard and Room 18242. Thus, the Phase 4 disturbance had clearly bottomed out above the Phase 9 floor level and had there been a wall at that point, presumably either it or its robber trench would have been visible.

Although the house lacks a clear external doorway, it seems most likely that the latter had been located in the unexcavated space north of Room 9928 (AI/33) through a doorway between W18516 and W18481. This rather narrow room (2 m wide) is divided by W9961, although that seems to be a sleeper wall which never had a superstructure, with the floors on either side sloping over it. This, plus the nature of the floor itself, made of thick mud plaster baked by the fire that destroyed Phase 9 to almost cement-like hardness, led the excavators to believe that this was some double installation. This interpretation is belied by the fact that this space forms a critical passageway for all access through the house. It is connected to the courtyard (9795) to the south and to Room 18067 to the west and might have served as an entrance vestibule to the building. If this interpretation is correct, then the space to the north might have been an alley outside the building or, if this is part of a larger

structure, a courtyard separating this wing from the other parts of the complex.

The only other room accessed from Room 18067 is Room 18089, just to the north. In Phase 7, a doorway-less wall marked the northern end of Room 18089. Because of the proximity of the balk, it is unclear if such a wall also existed in Phase 9, but the marked continuity in the building’s layout over time suggests this is a strong possibility. If so, there was no access to the building from this direction. Room 18067 is also one of the few known contained spaces in the house, i.e., one might close it off without impeding through traffic.

As can be clearly seen from the access graphs (Figs. 2.23–2.24), courtyard 9795 is the main integrative element in the house. Almost all traffic must pass through it and thus, it is represented with a double node. Formal access analysis identifies a node as any convex space. In mathematics, a shape is convex if it completely contains the straight line between any two points in it. The architectural equivalent is that two (or more) people standing anywhere within a convex space can see each other. Strictly speaking, then, courtyard 9795 is a single architectural space. However, in terms of human traffic, anyone entering the courtyard from Room 9928 must make a decision to either turn left around trough-installation 9982 to reach Room 18570 or 18033, or turn right to reach 18242, 18241, etc. We thus chose to model courtyard 9795 as if trough-installation 9982 forms a full barrier.

Understanding access to Room 18570 on the northeast, east of Room 9928, is problematic. As excavated, the eastern and western walls are preserved quite high and display no signs of doorways, nor does the northern wall. In Phases 7–6, there was a doorway that led through the southern wall to the courtyard area, but in Phase 9, no clear sign of a doorway was visible in the mudbrick wall below the Phases 7–6 walls. The courtyard was not excavated south of Room 18570, but nevertheless, on the presumption that the room was entered somehow, it most likely was connected to the courtyard. Alternatively, it might have been entered from above, which is possible for such a storage space, the assumed function of this room (see below). This room, too, is a *cul-de-sac*, which also fits the finds recovered from it (below).

Since the eastern end of the courtyard was not excavated, it is not known if there were any doorways or further rooms in that direction.

The nature of the access from the courtyard to the south into Room 18033 is somewhat unclear. The eastern end of W9800 has a massive squared-off stone that is quite clearly a doorjamb and a stone threshold marks the transition to Room 18033. However, on the other side of that opening, trough-installation 9982 in the courtyard extends for a length of at least 5 m to the southern balk of AI/32, close to W9800. The actual corner, however, was hidden in the balk. The eastern, southern and western ends of Room 18033 were not excavated, so we do not know its size or if it led to any additional spaces. However, since walls existed at the southern edge of AI/31 in Phase 10 (W18315) and in Phases 8–6 (W9715), it seems probable, given the architectural continuity in other parts of Area G, that a Phase 9 wall was also located at the southern end of AI/31, although hidden in the balk.

Room 18242 to the west of the courtyard is extremely

narrow (1 m wide); its length is unknown because its southern part was not excavated. The doorway (L18293) connecting it to Room 18241 to the west was offset northwards from the one between it and the courtyard, so that there is no direct line-of-vision from the courtyard to Room 18241. It seems that Room 18242 is a corridor, affording access to what might be a private suite of rooms to the west of the courtyard.

From Room 18241, a doorway led north to Room 18239. The balk between L18239 and 04G0-004 to its north was never removed due to later unexcavated walls above. Thus, we do not know if L18239 and 04G0-004 were one large space or two smaller ones, although on stratigraphic grounds, it is more likely that these were separated by a wall (see Chapter 3). The walls in Phases 8–6 above the balk all have doorways between the relevant units (cf., Chapters 14 and 15; Fig. 2.1). Thus, it seems that there was a wall with a doorway between these spaces in Phase 9 too. This would make 18239 a small antechamber to the larger Room 04G0-004.

This points to a possible pattern of small vestibule (9928)–large courtyard (9795)–small hallway/corridor (18242)–larger(?) space (18241)–small antechamber (18239)–large room (04G0-004), defining the progress along the axis of the long “tail” of the access graph.

Only short segments of the western walls of Rooms 18239 and 04G0-004 were excavated in Phase 9 and no western wall of Room 18241 was located. Later phases (8–6), however, also had walls extending more or less along the AJ–AK gridlines. This line must represent a major north-south division throughout the history of the house. Any or all of these rooms might have had doorways facing west. For reasons of lighting and ventilation (see below), there must have been an open space, either an alley or another courtyard, west of this line of rooms. Thus, the extremely segregated “tail” of rooms leading only to each other—18242→18241→18239→04G0-004→18041—may merely be the result of the limitations of excavation.

Whether Rooms 18041 and 18089, in the northwestern corner of Area G, are part of the same Phase 9 house or belong to the next structure to the north, is somewhat uncertain. The western part of Room 04G0-004 was, for the most part, not excavated to the level of Phase 9, but in Phase 8, there was a doorway between it and 18041. We thus present this room as part of the same house in Phase 9 too and reconstruct an access between the two spaces. It is likewise uncertain if excavation in Room 18089 reached a Phase 9 floor (see discussion in Chapter 12). However, W9211b, which separates it from Room 18067 to the south, has a blocked doorway in Phases 8–6 and so, a doorway is reconstructed for Phase 9 as well. W9904, separating Room 18089 from the space through which 9928 is entered (possibly an alley or courtyard) is only preserved to one or two courses, so that this room might have had an independent entrance leading out cannot completely be ruled out.

A Second Story?

Ceiling material was most clearly seen in the eastern section of AI/31 (crossing though Room 18033 on the south). Here, as well as in the rooms to the north of the courtyard, it was



Fig. 2.26. Collapsed debris tumbled against installation 9982 (on right), looking north. Center and left: fallen stones and mudbrick below three layers of fallen ceiling material (=Fig. 9.39). (p05Z3-0610)

clear that there were no debris representing living surfaces in a second story. There is, however, some evidence for a second story over the rooms west of the courtyard. In the destruction debris west of and leaning against the courtyard trough-installation were three overlapping layers of fire-hardened ceiling material (Fig. 2.26), the lowest perhaps from the western half of the courtyard (suggesting that part of the courtyard had possibly been roofed; see below), with the upper two falling in from the west. In the same general debris, there were stones falling from the west and at least one complete mudbrick resting askew on debris above floor level. The most likely place from which such debris could fall is a second story west of the courtyard. In Room 18239, there were two superimposed Phase 9 surfaces, both with *in situ* pottery. The upper one was found sagging against the eastern wall of the room, again, suggestive of an upper story collapsing onto a ground floor. Finally, in Room 18242, the narrow corridor, complete bowls were found lying upside down, as if they had fallen from above.

Assuming that at least the western wing of the house had a second story, from where was it entered? One possibility is that the southern (unexcavated) portion of Room 18242 contained a staircase or a ladder. This would provide a plausible function for this narrow corridor (this option is the one illustrated in Fig. 2.54). Another possibility is through Room 18067. In this case, immediately as one enters the building, one has a choice of continuing through corridor 9928 to the courtyard or branching off to a stairwell leading to a second floor. Yet another possibility is that Room 18089 is a stairwell, with its own entrance to the street; in that case, one need not even enter the house proper to gain access to the second story. In access-analysis terminology, the upper story would, in that case, constitute a different premises. The same effect could also be gained by attaching the stairs to some outside wall. Note that each of these alternatives would produce a very different access graph and they have different consequences for the privacy of and control over the inhabitants of the second-story suite(s).

Any reconstruction of access within the second-story wing would be highly speculative. Note, however, that unless we

conjecture a second-story porch over the courtyard (see below for the possibility that the courtyard was partially roofed), the only possibility of access between the rooms would be by stringing them to each other, forming a long segregated “tail” in which the individual rooms (except the last one at the end of the “tail”) would afford little privacy.

Ventilation and Lighting

In addition to planning the flow of human traffic through the house, the architect must also plan the passage of air and sunlight (“architect” and “plan” are used here in a generic sense). At a minimum, three categories of space must be considered:

1. Open spaces that are fully lighted and ventilated, but are also exposed to the elements and hence, unusable for some activities at certain times.
2. Anterior spaces or indirectly lit spaces that are roofed rooms connected to an adjacent open space via a doorway or a window.
3. Interior spaces (secondary, tertiary or more) that do not border with any open space at all. Such spaces are difficult to light and ventilate.

To this might be added semi-open or clerestory lighted spaces (e.g., the glass-covered mall in a latter-day shopping center or a colonnaded street in a Roman town) which offer at least partial protection from the elements at the price of minimal reduction in light and ventilation. In the analyses below, we make no distinction between open and semi-open spaces. We shall come back to the question of semi-open courtyards later.

Within a densely built-up environment, the lighting/ventilation problem can be stated as one of how to maximize the anterior spaces as opposed to the open areas, while minimizing interior spaces. There are two general strategies to achieve this and these (or combinations thereof) confer a basic typology on built-up spaces. In exogenic lighting and ventilation, the house is lighted only through its external walls. Most modern dwellings, built in the northern European tradition, are exogenically lighted and ventilated. Endogenic lighting and ventilation means that the principle source of light and fresh air is an internal courtyard. Fig. 2.27 shows a schematic diagram of a densely built matrix with both schemes.

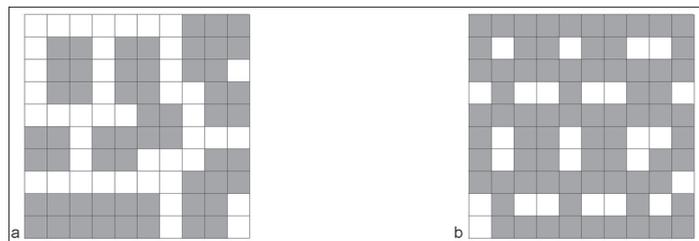


Fig. 2.27. Two simple diagrams of lighting strategies for a grid of square cells. The generating rule: every roofed area (shaded cell) must share a wall with at least one open-air cell (unshaded). In case a, the open-air cells are external to the buildings (contiguous blocks of shaded cells), while in case b, the open-air cells are almost entirely internal. (d09Z3-1294)

Note that, in general, the endogenic scheme allows for denser building. Much more variation would have been possible, of course, had we allowed for non-square rooms and a certain amount of interior (unlighted) spaces, but the principle that endogenic lighting is more space efficient would still hold. Hence, our assertion that “courtyard houses” are an ubiquitous phenomenon in any densely built-up, agglomerative site where, in general, new houses are built by attaching them via party walls to existing architecture.

The archaeologist’s problem is opposite that of the architect’s. Given a plan, she must decipher which space was a roofed room and which one an open courtyard. One way of tackling this is by “reverse engineering”, along the same principles as above. We arbitrarily look at a space as a “courtyard” or “outside” and mark the ones adjacent to it as potentially anterior (the fact that a space could have been lighted by a window facing out does not mean that it was). The spaces adjacent to that are marked as “interior”, etc. The resultant models can then be compared to see which one maximizes the number of well-lighted spaces with the least sacrifice of unroofed space. Fig. 2.28 shows three of the (numerous) possible permutations.

We start with the model that was implicit in the descriptions we have used hitherto for the Phase 9 building (Fig. 2.28a). If we assume that 9795 is indeed a courtyard, then all the rooms around it can be designated “anterior”. Note that this leaves Room 04G0-004, whose only interface with courtyard 9795 is a corner, as an unlighted interior space and the same for Rooms 18241 and 18041, which are twice-removed from the courtyard. This might be remedied if there was an open space (a street or an additional courtyard) west of the excavated area.

In an arbitrary scenario where 9795 is not a courtyard and Room 9928 is designated an open space, then seven of the excavated spaces would have no visible means of lighting or ventilation (Fig. 2.28b). Three of these, 04G0-004, 18241 and 18041 would be three times removed from a natural light source and thus, this is clearly a poor model. The results would be improved if an additional space is defined as open, particularly 18239 (Fig. 2.28c).

A Courtyard?

An additional strategy for locating courtyards is to use external criteria, such as size or shape of the space (e.g., Holladay 1997), primary finds and installations found in it (e.g., Daviau 1993), or the nature of the floor deposit itself, in order to guess whether it might have been roofed or unroofed.

In our case, it is clear that 9795 is the largest space in the house. Although its span (ca. 6 m by at least 6 m, more likely ca. 8 m) is not too large to be completely roofed over, this is not likely to have been the case. Finds in this room (described in detail below) support its identification as a courtyard. Other features of this space include the distinctive and unique trough-installation L9982 that occupies the middle of the courtyard in Phase 9 (Chapter 9; Figs. 9.48–9.49) and, most significantly, the stone-paved western half of the courtyard. Stone pavements are a rarity in Iron Age Dor (and in most other Iron Age architecture in the Levant), yet the same part of the courtyard is repeatedly paved. The initial pavement is F18087

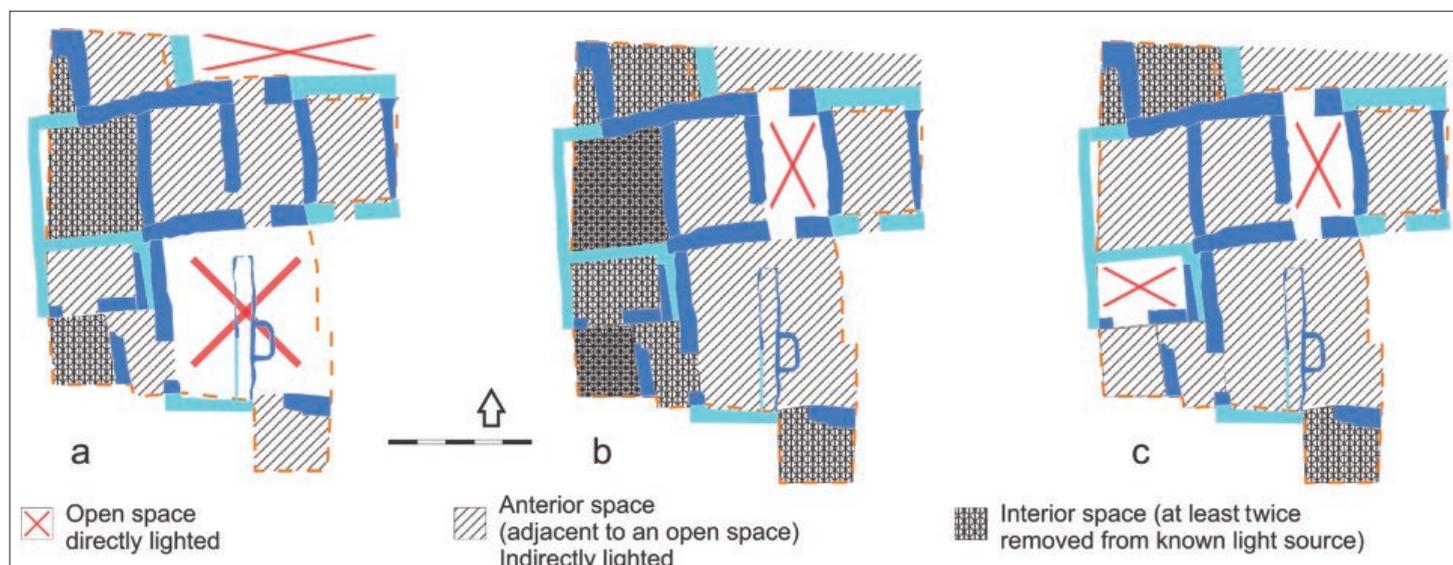


Fig. 2.28. Three possible reconstructions of a lighting/ventilation schemes for the Phase 9 house. (d09Z3-1295)

of Phase 9, upon which trough-installation 9982 is built (Fig. 2.29), but in Phase 8, about 1 m higher, the courtyard is repaved (F18035) and supported a poorly preserved Installation18036 (Chapter 9, Fig. 9.30). The pavement over half the courtyard thus represents a pervasive feature and is probably essential for its function. Below, we show that the half-paved courtyard appears in other similar houses in the Bronze and Iron Age.

In quite a few of the corollaries, a row of column bases demarcates the edge of the paved part of the courtyard, indicating that half-paved courtyards were also half roofed. Although there is no indication of columns in any of the abovementioned pavements at Dor, we regard it likely that the central courtyard was semi-open. Which side of the courtyard was roofed is uncertain. Fallen pieces of roofing (see above) were concentrated on the paved western side. However, the appearance of these pieces, especially the fact that several layers of them were found, makes it likely that they slid sideways as they collapsed, folding fan-like when they hit



Fig. 2.29. Phase 9 trough-installation 9982 with bin 9805 and pavement F18087 to its left, looking north. Right: unpaved part of courtyard with “tripod” installation. Traces of fire clearly seen on both floor and installation. (p08Z3-1010)

the floor, rather than having fallen vertically. Thus, their find spot does not necessarily indicate their original placement. Assuming that the western half of the courtyard was roofed, however, also makes sense in as much as the second-story “porch” formed by this roof might provide access to the second-story western wing, as suggested above.

This formal modeling of the illumination of the building is arguably merely a confirmation of the obvious. We deem it necessary, however, in order to demonstrate that one or more of the excavated architectural spaces must have been an internal courtyard. This is to counter an inclination in some recent scholarship to banish the courtyard from “courtyard houses” altogether. This view was initially advanced by Stager, who asserted in a much-quoted article (1985: 15), that the “Israelite four-room house” was completely roofed over (cf., also King and Stager 2001: 28–35, Fig. 15; Schloen 2001: 139, 170, 176; Mazar 2008: 332). Holladay (1997: e.g., 105) continued in the same vein for “Canaanite” courtyard buildings, calling the courtyards “hallways”.

Even cursory examination would show that applying an exogenic lighting model to an agglomerated Bronze Age/Iron Age Levantine town, where most houses share party walls with their neighbors on two or three sides, would leave many spaces within these houses completely dark. Moreover, in such a case, as such towns had very little open space outside the houses, no space at all is allowed for various activities which have to take place in the open air. At the root of this misconception, we suspect, is a concern with obtaining a fit between the hypothesized number of residents and cross-cultural estimates of average space per person in the house. Starting with Naroll’s (1962) seminal work, it has been customary to calculate such estimates on the basis of roofed space only.

However, a cross-cultural estimate of the minimal (or average) space-per-person sufficient for normal domestic activities in a household makes no sense if there is no cross-cultural norm for which activities are considered “domestic”, much less whether the “household” includes only roofed space. Note, for instance, Holladay’s (1997: e.g., 102) concern that

roofed space in the house should be sufficient for “kitchen and living room”, which leads to the question of whether cooking was an indoor activity. Stager seems to think so (1985: 15; also King and Stager 2001: Fig. 15); however, this is not necessarily the practice in many traditional Near Eastern households. Another case in point is Schloen’s (2001) exhaustive (and valuable) survey of houses and households in the material and literary record of the ancient Near East. Although he begins with a scathing denouncement of positivist-functionalist archaeology’s quest for universal laws of human behavior (Schloen 2001: 7–95, especially 13–18, 29–45), he goes on to undermine his own argument in a minutely detailed (but highly speculative) calculation of purportedly roofed spaces, exclusive of purported storage and stabling/penning spaces, as well as space used for crafts and industry, such as weaving or oil production. Although Schloen (2001:165–183, 329–335) did not concur with Naroll’s (1962) universal estimate of 10 sq m of roofed area per person, he attempted to apply it, regardless of the number of rooms, assessment of communal vs. private spaces, etc., in order to argue that these buildings housed extended or, in his more precise terminology, joint families.

Was cooking normally done indoors? Is storage part of domestic activity? Are crafts or industry domestic? Are animals allowed indoors? Activities conducted indoors in one culture may normally be done outdoors in another, and may not even be considered domestic in a third. All of the above does not even begin to consider even more elusive and variable social parameters. What is the expected size of personal or intimate space (i.e., devoted to activities restricted to only part of the household), social space (devoted to activities common to the entire household and perhaps guests), engendered space, etc., and, even more fundamental, which activities are considered personal, intimate, social or gender-specific?

Restricting the size of the house to its roofed space makes no sense except in a Euro-centric kind of way. That is, in northern climates and in a post-medieval (or even post-industrial-revolution) frame of reference, a house is a contiguous roofed space used exclusively for sleeping, eating, food preparation and child-rearing, plus occasional socializing. On the other hand, we submit that the essential nature of the Near Eastern/Mediterranean “courtyard house” is that most domestic activities, including socializing, food preparation, care of children and household animals, craftwork and industry, normally took place in the courtyard. The reason for the persistence of the type in this region for millennia (despite changes in the exact plan) is that the climate allows for most of the above activities to take place outdoors most days of the year, especially if some provision is made for at least part of the courtyard to be protected from rain in the winter and to be shaded in summer. Rooms were normally used for storage and for sleeping, except in high summer, when people probably slept on the roof or in the courtyard. Given this, the ratio of roofed vs. unroofed space is of secondary significance at best.

Conceptual Plan

Like many of its corollaries, the basic layout of the Area G house is a grid (Wright 1985: 289; Foucault-Forest 1996:

106–107; see further discussion below). Walls are built along virtual lines which cross the entire structure from side to side. In such a plan, rooms tend to be of uniform dimensions of one grid-cell, while courtyards/halls/other large spaces are multiples of the basic modus. In our case, the grid is slightly warped, as its orientation changes from NNW–SSE + ENE–WSW on the western side of the house, to N–S + E–W in the center and back to NNW–SSE + ENE–WSW in the eastern side of the house (Fig. 2.30). This might have been caused by the topography of the area when the house was first constructed (but see below) or by the orientation of adjacent structures or street lines. These hypothetical guidelines are emphasized by the fact that, at least as initially built, the lateral divisions are constructed of single-boulder-wide walls and tend to be straight, while the transversal divisions are usually rubble or mudbrick and are often gently curved. The gradually warped grid may have served to give an air of regularity, orthogonality and spaciousness to a house which was, in fact, tucked into an irregular space.

Note that although a strict conceptual-grid plan is arguably quite simple and basic, it is not necessarily efficient. Typically, corner rooms would present lighting and access problems in grid-oriented structures. Fig. 2.31 shows two similar plans, but the one which diverges from a strict grid is better lighted and better integrated than the one following such a grid.

Definition of the “Central Courtyard Hash-Planned House” (“CC#”)

At this point, we can provide a list of attributes which characterize the Area G Phases 9–6 house and allow its comparison to other structures:

- The building has a squarish central courtyard, surrounded by rooms on three to four sides. The courtyard serves as the integrative focus of the house and is its main source of light and ventilation.
- Access to this central courtyard is indirect. It is gained via an antechamber which separates the public space (the street or plaza outside the house) from the private space inside the house.
- Rooms around the courtyard are arranged in segregated sets, or suites, of uni-linear connected spaces, forming long “tails” in the access diagrams. Each suite is segregated from the rest of the house, but within the suite there is little privacy, as each room (except the innermost) is a necessary passage between other rooms.
- Suites of rooms open to the courtyard or sometimes to the antechamber.
- The conceptual design of the house is a grid (two intersecting tripartite divisions—lateral and transversal).

We suggest the name “Central Courtyard Hash-Planned House” or “CC#” (pronounced si-si-hash or si-si-sharp)—with a wink towards the old acronym CCH (for “Canaanite Courtyard House”) and the popular computer language, since “Canaanite Courtyard House” is an often-used term that has been ill-defined in various standard reference works, for example:

- “All the houses [in the Middle and Late Bronze Age] are of the courtyard type, containing a relatively large courtyard

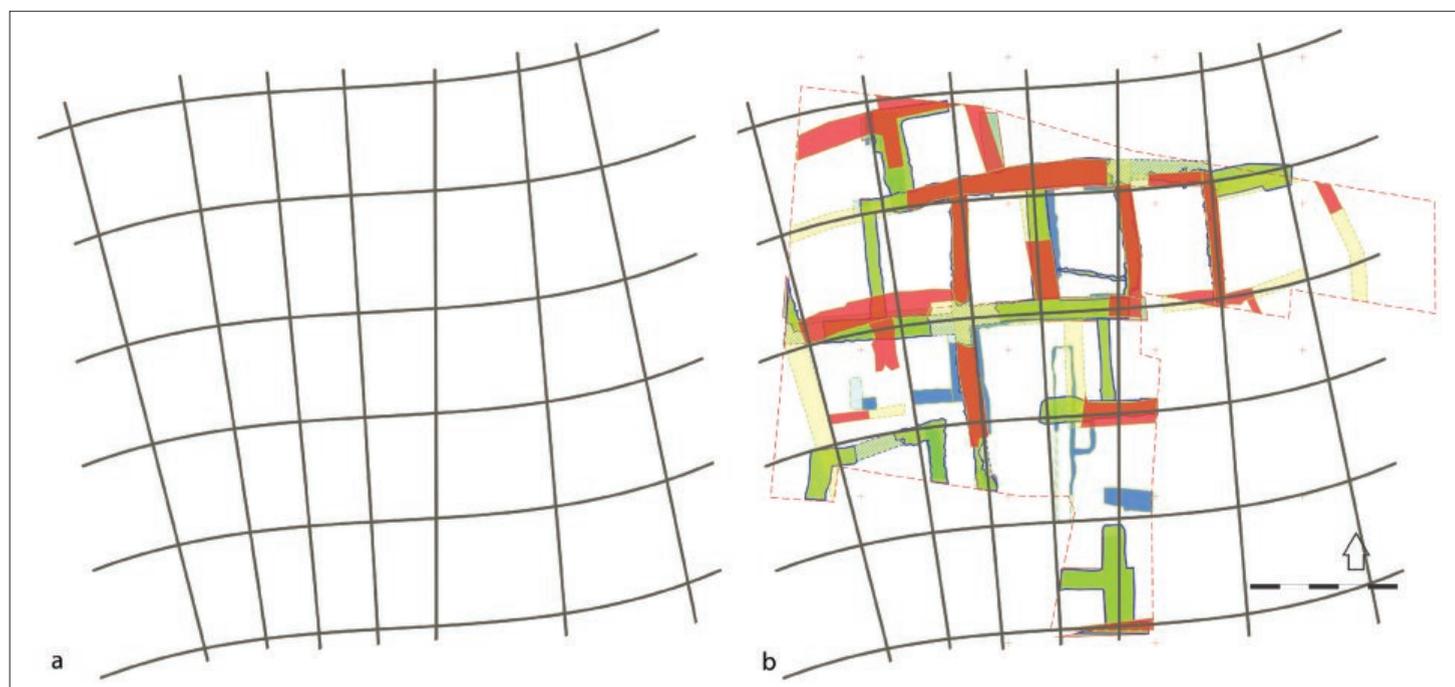


Fig. 2.30. a: The conceptual grid along which most walls and spaces in the house are aligned; b: Superposition of Phases 9–6 walls imposed on the grid. See Fig. 2.1 for key to phases. (d09Z3-1297)



Fig. 2.31. Diagram contrasting a grid-oriented (left) vs. non-grid-oriented (right) plan for a courtyard house. (d09Z3-1298)

with adjoining rooms, although individual buildings differ” (Ben-Dov 1992: 100).

- “[In the MB IIA]... the courtyard house first appears ... that is, a house consisting of rooms ranged around a courtyard in the center or in the corner of the structure. This type of structure becomes the standard dwelling in later phases [of the Middle Bronze Age]” (Kempinski 1992: 173).
- “Most ... Canaanite dwellings are courtyard houses—namely, they are composed of a central courtyard surrounded on several sides by rooms of no defined proportion or design. Such houses began to appear in the Middle Bronze Age, and they continue to be the major type of Canaanite dwelling” (Mazar 1990: 248)
- “The most common variants of this type are characterized by rooms on one side of a large hall ... or rooms on two opposing sides of such a hall.... A third alternative has rooms along one long side [of the hall] and an adjacent short side. ... A fourth variety has rooms on three or even four sides” (Holladay 1997: 105).
- “As a norm, the developed town house in Palestine has regular compact outlines, and this squarish figure is divided

into several (say 2–5) ranges by long through walls. Then ... these ranges are subdivided into smaller and relatively numerous compartments. In this way individual rooms tend to be square in form. ... generally a range or residuum is left relatively undivided and this may or may not be a court.” (Wright 1985: 289).

These definitions are so general as to be nearly useless. The first three use the courtyard as the defining feature, but do not commit to any attribute which may separate the Canaanite house from any other house type with an inner courtyard. The fourth altogether divorces the courtyard element from the Syro-Palestinian Bronze Age house, but it is just as vague, as every possible arrangement of rooms around a hallway goes. The fifth, and probably the best of the above, at least says something about the shape of the house and the rooms. The “division into ranges” may be Wright’s equivalent of our “grid-oriented conceptual plan”.

Similarly, Foucault-Forest (1996) uses a “tri-partite lateral division” as the *fossil directeur* for Canaanite houses, a definition which includes a great many structures, including, as she herself admits, the later “Israelite” four-room house and Iron Age “tripartite colonnaded buildings” (but not, for instance, Holladay’s first sub-type, which has only a bi-partite division). Among her subtypes are: (a) “Le plan de base”: — courtyard with rooms on two sides; (b) “Les plans à aile transverse”—as above, with an additional transverse division and sometimes two; (c) “Les plans à aile lateral supplémentaire” — with four (or even more) longitudinal divisions and (d) “Les plans à extension combiné—with the addition of both lateral and transverse divisions. The plan we are herein contemplating seems to fall in Foucault-Forest’s category b (a tri-partite lateral division with two transversal divisions).

The problems with the above-quoted definitions, and others like them, are that they concentrate on formal characteristics rather than functional ones and that they attempt to rigidly apply a single classification criterion, whether it is the situation of the courtyard vis-à-vis the rooms or the number of lateral and transversal divisions. We propose a wider set of attributes, focusing on the movement of light, air and people through the house, rather than on its shape. Furthermore, we argue that this trait-list be used polythetically, i.e., rather than look for a single criterion that all the structures of a certain group satisfy, look for a group in which each structure would satisfy most of the criteria listed above, while each criterion appears in most of the structures of the group.

Architectural Comparanda for the CC#

The following is a non-exhaustive list of corollaries, including examples from the southern Levant, Phoenicia and the northern Levant.

Southern Levantine Corollaries

Our closest corollaries come from nearby Megiddo, where very similar structures can be found beginning with the Late Bronze Age. In Stratum IX (LBI), Building 3024 (Fig. 2.32) is built over a rather similar house—3046 of Stratum X. In Strata VIII–VII (LBII), Building 2158 is comparable (Fig. 2.33), as well as the adjacent House 3000, 3024's successor.

Another building at Megiddo is Building 00/K/10 of the Tel Aviv University excavation's Level K/4 (Stratum VIA in the Chicago terminology; Fig. 2.34). This building, too, was constructed over a long sequence of earlier "courtyard buildings" of LB and early Iron Ages date (Levels K/8 or even K/9 to K/5), but being the latest one in the series, and having been destroyed in the conflagration that terminated the early Iron Age town, it is the best-preserved building in the Area K sequence. Its Iron IB(=Dor Ir1b) date is close to Phase 8 or early Phase 7 of our Area G building.

Building 00/K/10 has a square half-paved courtyard, suites of interconnected rooms and even the technique of compensating for the differing orientation of the alley on the west vs. the tell edge on the east by splaying the N–S walls and curving the E–W ones. Unfortunately, the location of the entrance is unknown, although it was probably not situated on the east, because of the proximity to the edge of the steep slope of the tell. The wall along the northern side was largely exposed and there is no doorway there, so the southern or the western walls are the main possibilities. The likeliest option is that the narrow eastern part of the southwestern room (Room 87-70) served as an ante-chamber, else the only way from the street into the courtyard would be by traversing rooms 22, 77, 66 and 46. However, based on the portable finds and installations (including an oven) Gadot and Yasur-Landau convincingly argue that Room 87-80, or rather its western part, was used for cooking and, perhaps, also storage (Gadot and Yasur Landau 2006: e.g., 587–589). It thus seems that only the narrow eastern space of the room, flanked by the row of pillars, was used as an entryway. Indeed, it was nearly empty of finds.

A set of three buildings west of the Megiddo gate, ascribed by the Chicago excavators to Stratum VA (Iron IIA), show

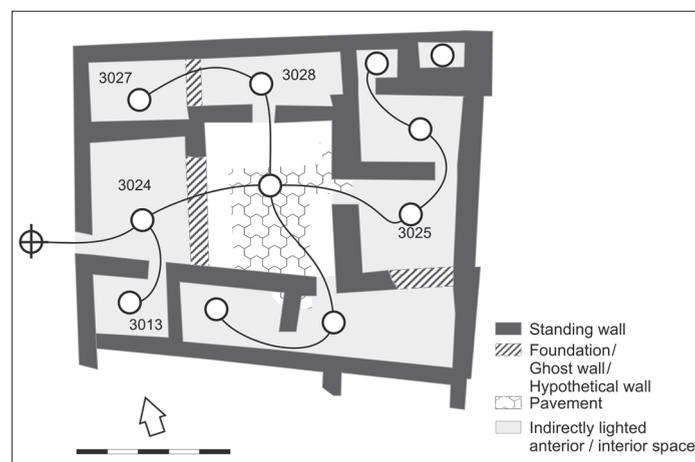


Fig. 2.32. Megiddo, Building 3024, Area BB, Stratum IX (based on Loud 1948: Figs. 242, 401). (d09Z3-1299)

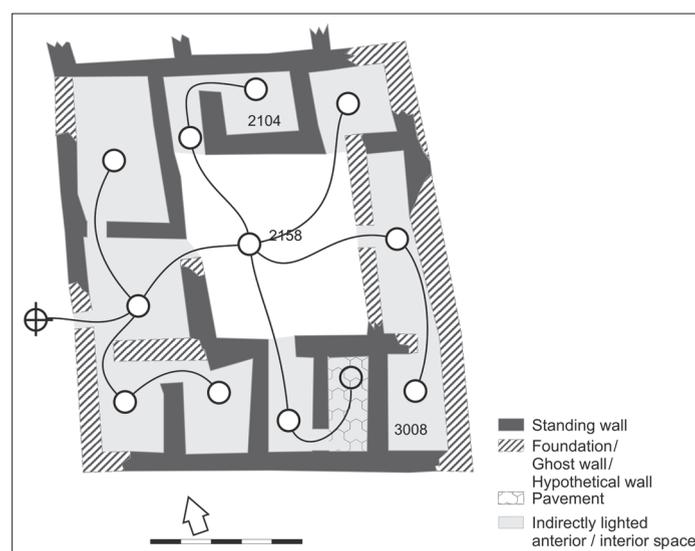


Fig. 2.33. Megiddo, Building 2158, Area BB, Stratum VIII (based on Loud 1948: Figs. 246, 402). (d09Z3-1300)

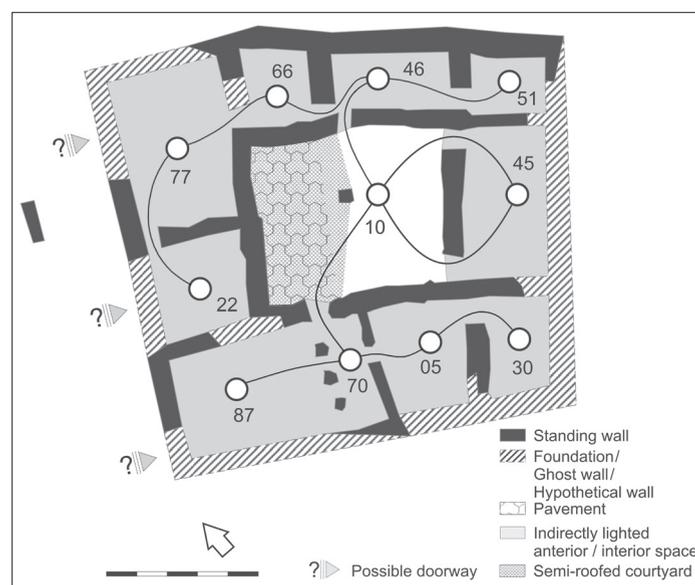


Fig. 2.34. Megiddo, Building 00/K/10, Area K, Level K-4 = Stratum VIA (based on Finkelstein, Ussishkin and Halpern 2000: Fig. 7.7). (d09Z3-1301)

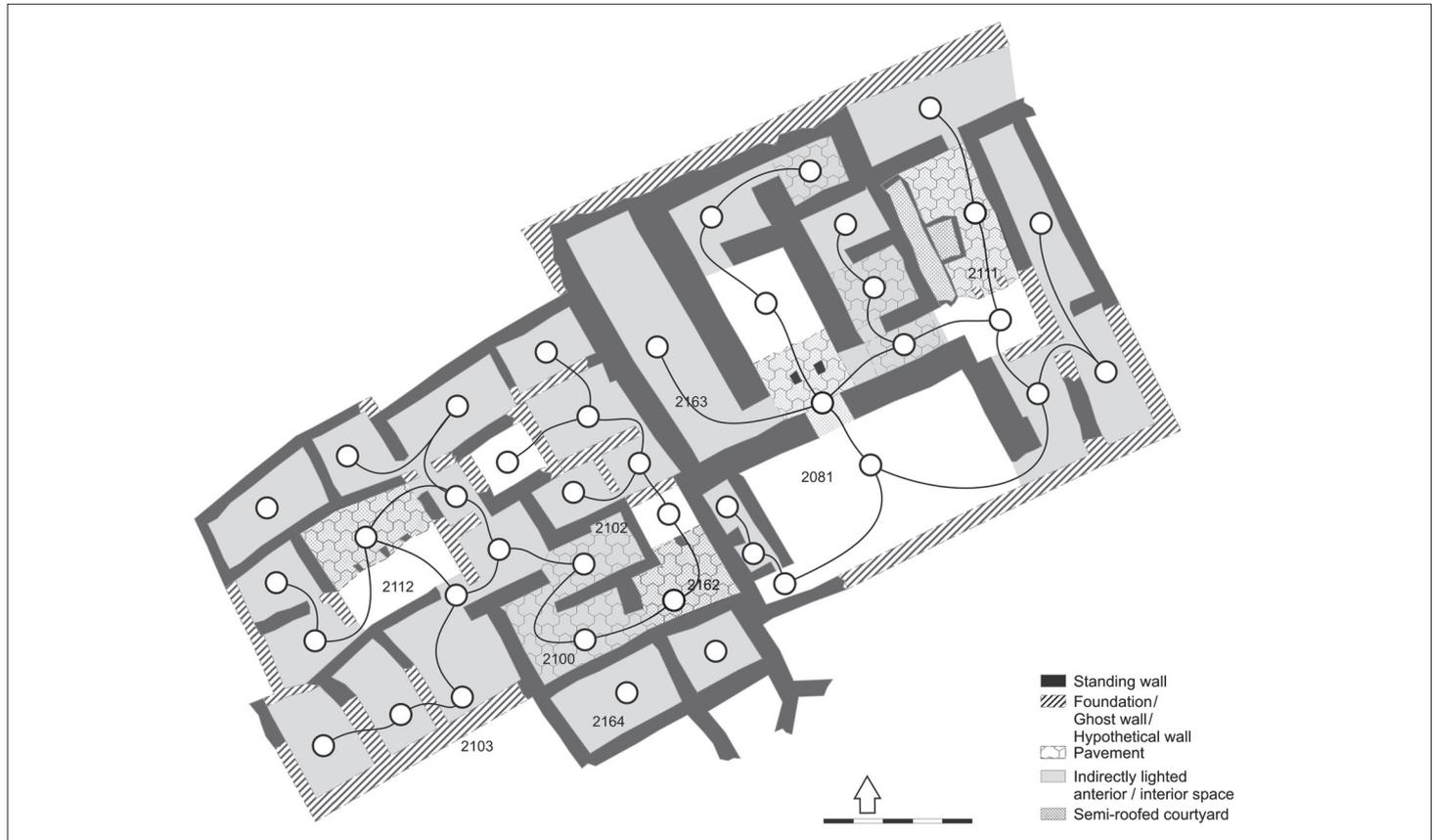


Fig. 2.35. Megiddo, Buildings 2081, 2102, 2112 in Area AA, Stratum VA (based on Loud 1948: Fig. 100, 388). (d09Z3-1302)

that the tradition of building CC# houses does not stop with the demise of Canaanite Megiddo (Stratum VI). Building 2081, famed for the “cultic corner” in its front courtyard, sits on top of a less-well-preserved Stratum VIA building (3021), which may also be a central courtyard house (Loud 1948: Fig. 386). The reconstruction of Building 2081 in Fig. 2.35 is not exactly the same as the excavators’. Indeed, the warren of rooms west of Building 2081 can be divided into habitation units in different ways, with different spaces conjectured as courtyards. Almost all reasonable hypotheses, however, would end up reconstructing roughly square houses, with roughly square central courtyards which are entered indirectly. Note also several half-paved, presumably half-roofed colonnaded courtyards and a table-like/trough-like installation with a bin in Courtyard 2111. These buildings are more elaborate than many of the previous examples and were probably multi-winged. Courtyard 2111 and the rooms around it appear to be an annex to 2081 or a closely connected house, and the same may be true for Buildings 2100 and 2112 (cf., Fig. 2.36 below).

Further afield are the LB examples in Hazor. In addition to a doorway from the street, the LBII building (6215) in Fig. 2.36 also has an opening connecting it to the house to its north (6225). There also seems to have been a tradeoff, where House 6215 ceded a room to the house east of it and acquired one (6224) from the house on the north (6225). There also is an interconnecting door between these two houses. These suggest that the insula was inhabited by a kin group or other closely knit social grouping, and that houses could expand,

contract or amalgamate with their neighbors according to fortunes and circumstances. Note also that there is no apparent entry to the western wing of the house, nor, in most cases, between individual spaces in that wing. Some of these may have been accessed from the street, where the outer wall is not preserved, but it is more likely that these were storage spaces,

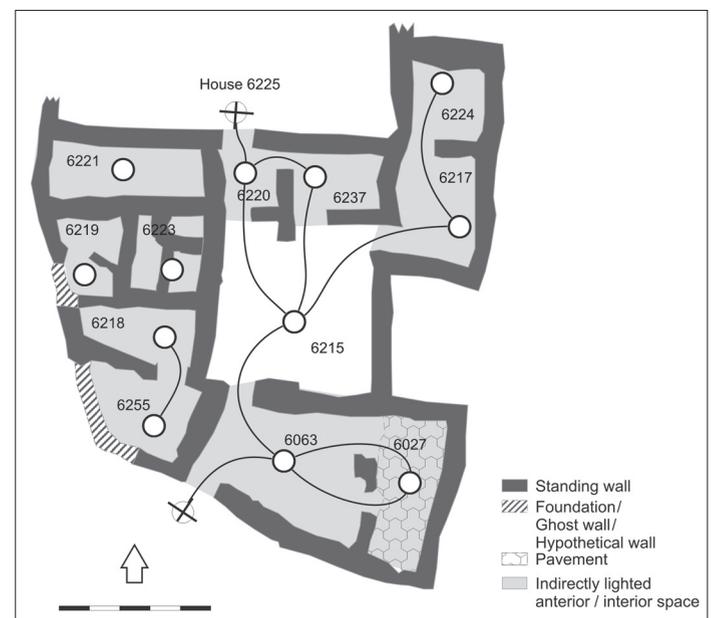


Fig. 2.36. Hazor, Building 6215 in Area C, Stratum 1, LBII (based on Yadin et al. 1960: Pl. CCVIII). (d09Z3-1303)

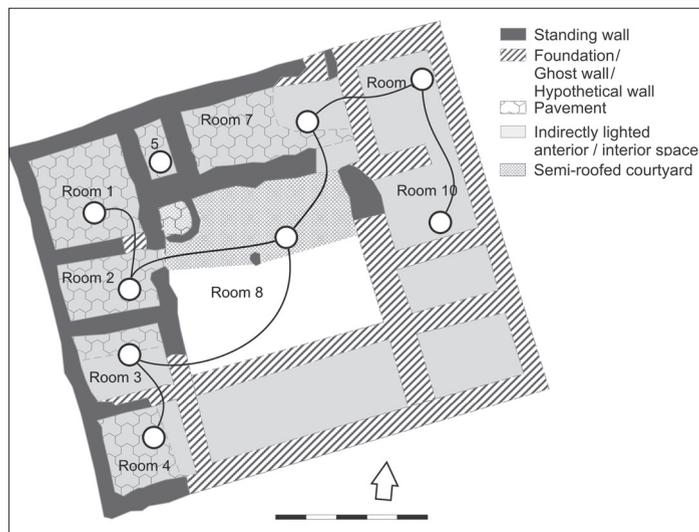


Fig. 2.37. Tel Yin'am, Building 1, Stratum XIII, LBII (based on Liebowitz 2003: Plans 3.1, 3.3). (d09Z3-1304)

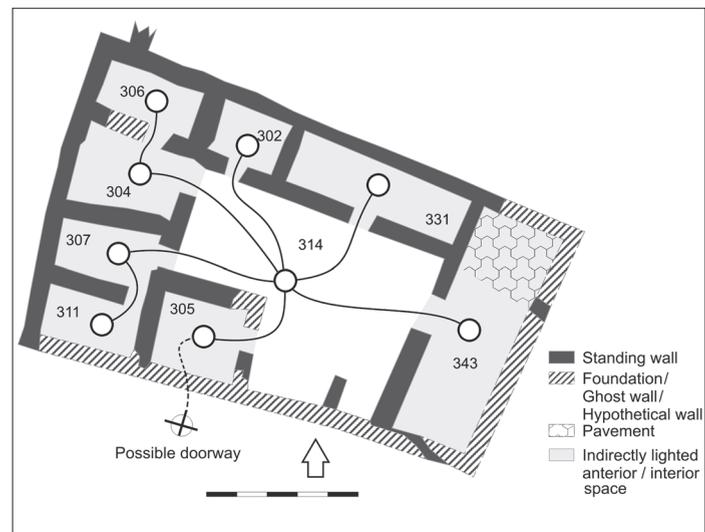


Fig. 2.38. Tel Masos, Building 314, Stratum II, Ir1I2 (based on Fritz and Kempinski 1983: Plan 14). (d09Z3-1305)

entered from above, as *de facto* cellars. Note especially Spaces 6223 and 6219, which are almost entirely taken up by bins or installations. If the entire wing was indeed entered from above, it is logical to assume that the house (or at least that wing of it) had a second story, where living quarters may have been situated, although this is impossible to prove.

Tel Yin'am, in the Yavne'el valley, has an example of a CC# house from the LBII (Fig. 2.37). Note the single column in the middle of the courtyard (similar to Megiddo 00/K/10, Fig. 2.34). The excavators noted charred beams in the debris on the northern part of the courtyard, so this was apparently the roofed part. Note also that the small Room 6 is inaccessible from the ground floor. It is possible that it served as a silo or some other storage space accessed from the roof/second story. Building 3024 in LB Megiddo (Fig. 2.32) has a similar installation in its northeastern corner.

The Tel Yin'am excavators interpret this as a public building rather than a private house: "the plan of Building 1 has no close parallels in the land of Israel ... the building resembles in a general way several of the LB residencies, such as Beth-Shean and the Egyptian-type structure at Tel-Masos." (Liebowitz 2003: 57). At less than half the size of the Beth-Shean residency, this comparison is doubtful; see below concerning Tel Masos. Contrary to the excavators, we think this structure has close corollaries to residential structures of the Bronze and Iron Ages in Israel.

At Tel Masos, there are several CC# structures in Strata III–II, probably paralleling Dor's Ir1b and Ir1I2 horizons (Phases 8–6b in the Area G building). These include Building 314 (Fig. 2.38), which the excavators indeed identified as a "Canaanite Courtyard House" and attributed to a "Phoenician trader" on the grounds of its architecture, as well as some imported pottery that was found in it (Fritz and Kempinski 1983: 42). However, this is not the only one. Although poorly preserved and fragmentary, Building 410 (Fig. 2.39) is most probably of the same type. The best example, however, is Building 480 (Fig. 2.40). It is a square building, with an indirect entry into a half-paved colonnaded central courtyard. The manner of access to many of the rooms is

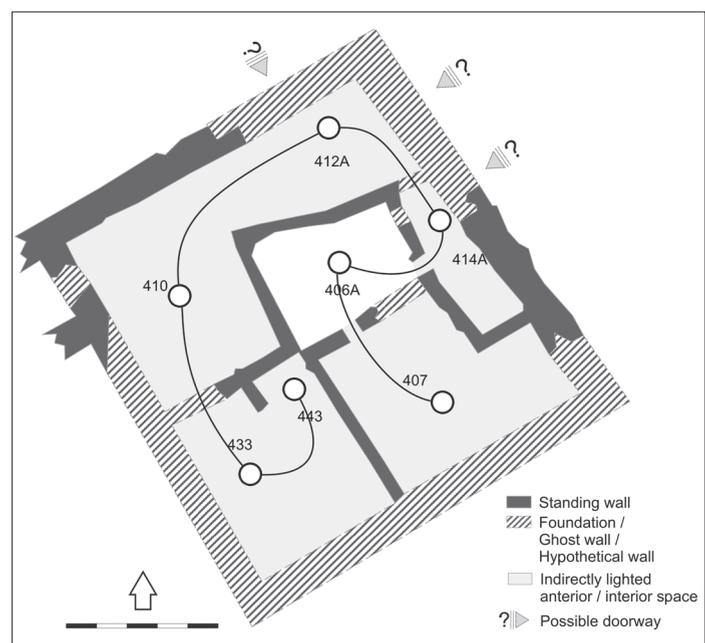


Fig. 2.39. Tel Masos, Building 410, Stratum II, Ir1I2 (based on Fritz and Kempinski 1983: Plan 18). (d09Z3-1306)

unclear and at least the western wing probably comprises cellars entered from above.

Building 480 achieved some notoriety as a putative Egyptian "governor's residency" (e.g., Oren 1992: 118–119). The excavators compared it to the Egyptian residency in Beth-Shean (Building 1500) on the grounds of both its plan and the fact that most of its walls are made of bricks without a stone foundation (Fritz and Kempinski 1983: 64–65). This identification implicitly relies on an early dating of this structure to the 12th and 11th centuries BCE (Fritz and Kempinski, 1983: 78, 87), presumably before the Egyptian withdrawal from the area. However, in recent years, it has become obvious that Tel Masos Stratum II is later than Iron Age I. Herzog and Singer-Avitz (2004: 222–223) assigned it

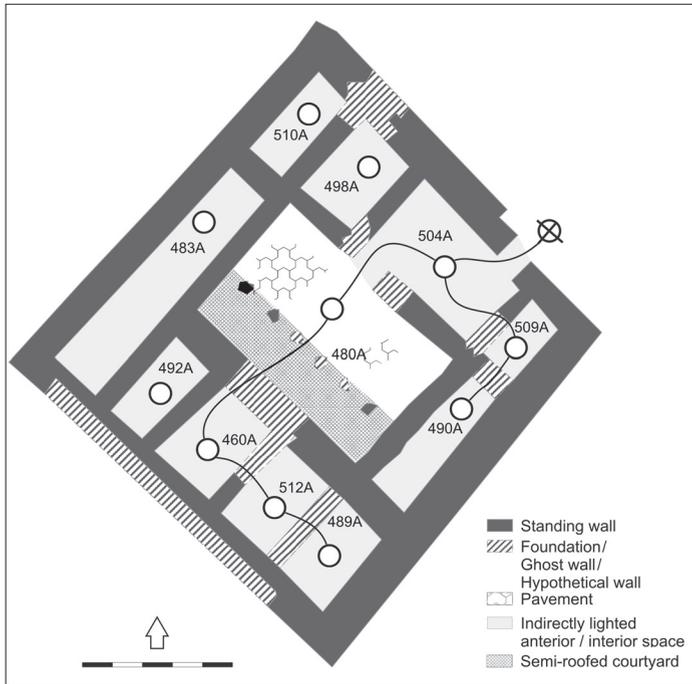


Fig. 2.40. Tel Masos, Building 480, Stratum II, Ir112 (based on Fritz and Kempinski 1983: Plan 18). (d09Z3-1307)

to the earliest Iron IIA horizon in the south (the Arad XII–Masos II–Beersheba VII–Lachish V horizon; early Iron Age IIA in their terminology), which parallels the horizon we call “Ir112” at Dor (and in Phoenicia). This dating severs any possible connection between Building 480 and the Egyptian administration in LBA Canaan. We see nothing compellingly Egyptian about it. It is about half the size of well-established LB Egyptian “governor’s residencies” and has close affinities to the group of private houses herein discussed, including some at Tel Masos itself.

Two Iron Age I structures at Gezer may be cited. The Northeast and Northwest Houses in Field VI are attributed by the excavators to local Strata 5B and 5C (= general Strata XI–XII) and dated to the mid and late 12th centuries respectively, a period when the site, according to its excavators, was inhabited by Philistines. These dates probably need to be lowered (by any current chronology), but the buildings are certainly within Iron Age I. Although both buildings were only partially preserved, the excavators see them as “...an almost classic example of the Iron Age “four room” house except for the fact that the entrance was in the side wall rather than the end wall” (Dever, Lance and Bullard 1986: 91). To this anomaly should be added the following: the entrance does not lead straight to the courtyard, there is a column in the center of said courtyard, and the supposed transversal room at the far end is composed of small cubicles instead of one broad room. In Figs. 2.41 and 2.42, we completed the unexcavated portions of both buildings somewhat differently than the excavators to show that they can be reconstructed as almost-classic examples of the CC# plan.

Building O in Tell Qasile Stratum X (Fig. 2.43), which was correctly identified as a courtyard house in Canaanite tradition, belongs to a slightly later period (Iron 1B) (Mazar 1980: 75, cf., 2008: 327).

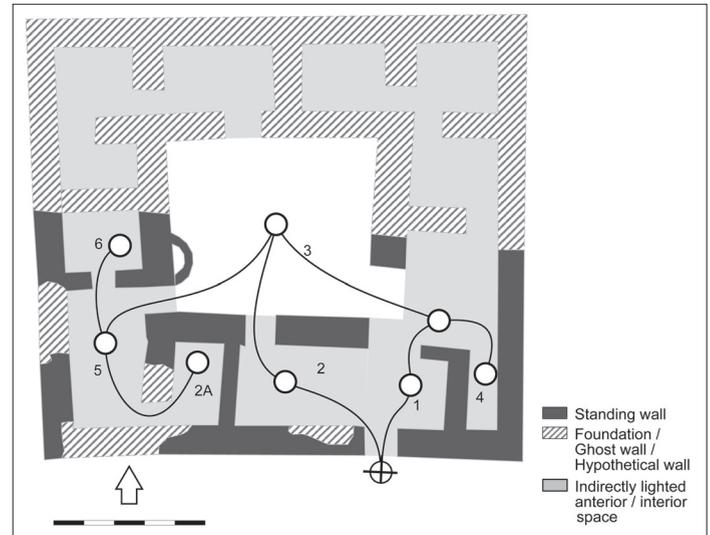


Fig. 2.41. Gezer, Field VI, reconstruction of the Northeast House in local Stratum 5B (based on Dever, Lance and Bullard 1986: Fig. 16). (d09Z3-1308)

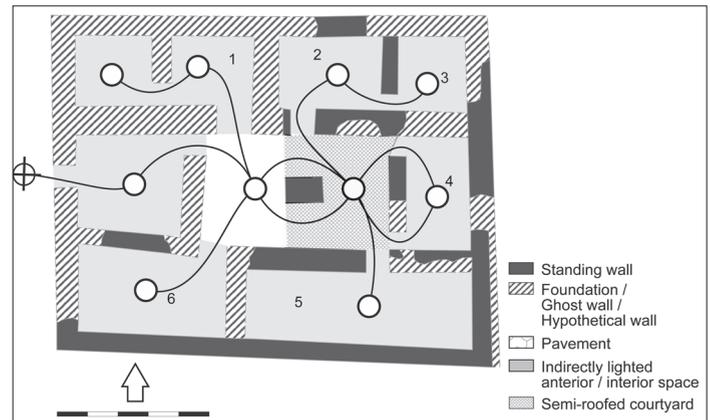


Fig. 2.42. Gezer, Field VI, Northwest House in local Stratum 5C (based on Dever, Lance and Bullard 1986: Fig. 18). (d09Z3-1309)

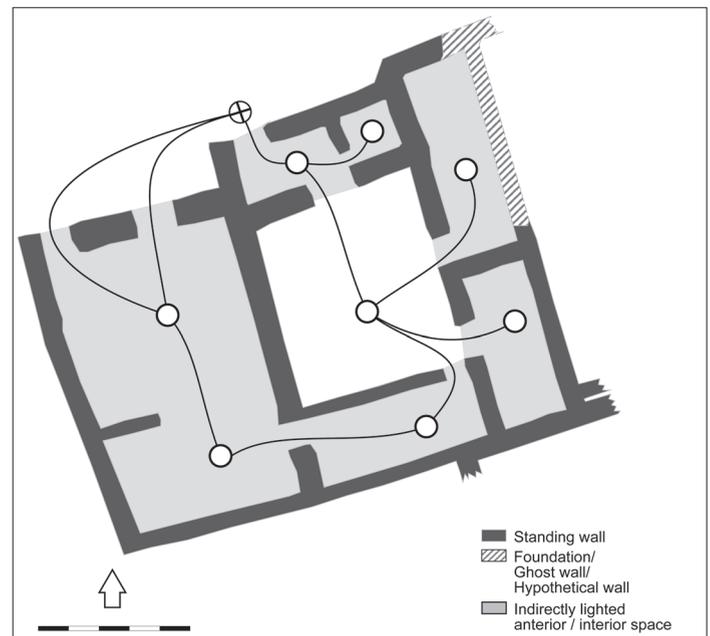


Fig. 2.43. Tell Qasile, Building O in Stratum X (based on Mazar 1980: Fig. 16). (d09Z3-1310)

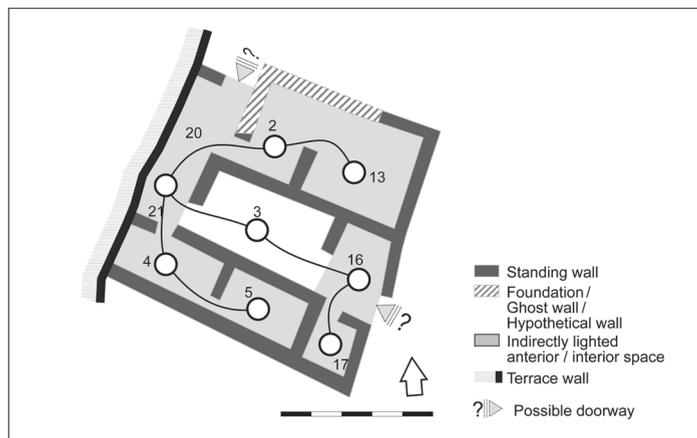


Fig. 2.44. Shechem, House B in Field VII, Stratum IX (based on Campbell 2002: Fig. 237). (d09Z3-1311)

We end our brief survey of southern Levantine structures with another, rather late example, from Shechem Stratum IX (Fig. 2.44). In the report (Campbell 2002: 8–9), Stratum IX is dated to 920–810 BCE, but the pottery from that level has not been published. Wright (1965: 151–154) states that Shechem IXB = Hazor IX and Shechem IXA = Hazor VIII. For the end of IXA, he posits a destruction by Hazaël, ca. 810 BCE. Thus, in the excavator’s opinion, this structure must belong to late Iron IIA/early Iron IIB. It is certainly not a “four-room” house or any of its derivatives and its reconstruction as a “CC#” structure (based on a slightly different division of the insula into houses than that offered by the excavators) is at least reasonable. Other houses in the same field, only partially excavated for the most part, may also have had similar plans.

Partial and arbitrary though the above review may be, it does establish that houses comprising central courtyards with indirect access and a hash-like design are found at southern Levantine sites at least from the LB. We have not found any in the Middle Bronze Age, but this may be the result of incomplete research or the paucity of the database. It may, however, be stated with confidence that they are not common in the latter period. What is more surprising is that the bulk of our corollaries are from the Iron Age I and some are even later—Iron Age IIA and perhaps bordering on Iron Age IIB. We have not found any dating to the very end of the Iron Age, but this, again, may be due to incomplete research.

Using conventional ethnic labels, such houses are found in “Canaanite” (Megiddo VI), “Philistine” (Tell Qasile, Gezer), and “Israelite” (Shechem, Megiddo VA–IVB) Iron Age sites. At two sites—Tel Masos and Tell Qasile—they are found next to “Israelite” four-room houses.

We thus have here a house type which begins as typically “Canaanite” in the LB, but reaches its heyday in the earlier part of the Iron Age, primarily, although not exclusively, at non-Israelite sites.

Phoenician Corollaries

Much to our regret, we have no grounds for dubbing this type of building “Phoenician”, although at Dor there are indications that this is not a singular example (for the reasoning, see Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2014). In fact, among all the early

Iron Age constructions known from other sites in Phoenicia in the Iron I–Iron IIA range, no clear courtyard houses of this sort are found. Admittedly, the evidence is extremely scant and fragmentary and hardly any complete building plans can be reconstructed.

The sites we take into account here are Sarepta Area II (Trench Y, Strata F–D and Trench X, Periods VI and VII; respectively, Anderson 1988: Pls. 6–10; Khalifeh 1988: Pls. 8–9); Tyre (Strata XIV–IX; Bikai 1978: Pls. LXIII–LXVI); Tell Keisan in the ‘Akko plain (Strata 9–8; Briand and Humbert 1980: Figs. 49–54; Humbert 1981: 392–396) and Tell Abu Hawam Strata Upper V–III (Balensi 1980; Herrera and Gómez 2004: Chapter 2). It is possible that the LB Stratum XV building at Tyre (Bikai 1978: Pl. LXVI) may be reconstructed as a courtyard house, with the courtyard/open space being the large space dubbed Area 1 (possibly Area 4 is part of the same space). As at Dor, this space revealed clear evidence of industrial activities (faience beads in the Tyre case). Subsequently, in Strata XIII–XI, Iron IB to Iron I–II, several modifications were introduced to the building. Similarly, at Tell Abu Hawam, Building 54–55 in Balensi’s Stratum Vc-late may constitute parts of such a layout, but this is highly speculative. This phase apparently dates to the Iron IB and not to the 12th century, as proposed by Balensi (Gilboa 2001: Chapter 6). Among the Tell Keisan Stratum 8 buildings, there are at least two cases of half-paved, colonnaded courtyards typical of the CC# plan, but the arrangement of rooms around them seems to be different. As mentioned, however, the fragmentary nature of the architecture renders these suggestions very tentative.

Northern Levantine Corollaries–Ugarit

Further north in the Levant, the best attestation of courtyard layouts are those in LB Ugarit, due to large-scale clearance and the exemplary work of Olivier Callot (1983; 1994), who redrew, reanalyzed and reconstructed the plans of dozens of houses.

The typical Ugaritic house is entered via an ante-chamber, with a stone staircase immediately off it leading to the upper stories. The ante-chamber also leads to a courtyard which is, however, much smaller than is usual in southern Levantine houses, and basically serves as a light-well/ventilation shaft. Off the courtyard is usually one major “living room”, which is semi-open to the courtyard. The opening is sometimes a colonnade, but more often, a double-doorway or a single wide “garage door”-type aperture. Other rooms open onto the “living room” or the courtyard, or both. The house thus has a “double-focus” access scheme. Perhaps the covered part of the courtyard in CC# houses in the southern Levant, such as that at Dor, played the same role as the “living room” in Ugarit. The two then might then be a southern and a northern Levantine adaptation of the same functional plan. The need for smaller courtyards and additional “living rooms” may be a consequence of the colder winters experienced some 350 km to the north or of the premium value of urban space in crowded Ugarit. Like their southern counterparts, the houses in Ugarit were grouped in blocks and there is some evidence that individual dwelling units might grow, shrink, become subdivided or amalgamate adjacent units, as their owners’

economic and/or familial circumstances changed (Schloen 2001: 330–331).

In general, the houses in Ugarit are more sophisticated than those in the Southern Levant. Their construction often incorporates ashlar and wooden beams in the walls. Other installations include built tombs under the floors, in-house wells and “puisards” for storing and composting waste products, none of which are regularly found in the southern Levantine examples. On the other hand, they show no predilection towards a grid plan.

The Unilinear House

Lastly, we would like to return to an issue raised above, which is a totally different house plan—a unilinear string of spaces—that has been labeled by Faust (2000; 2006: 79) the “Canaanite Phoenician house”. Of the dozen or so examples cited by Faust, several (Houses 1–3; 4–6; 8–9, all in Tell Qiri; Faust 2000: 6) are actually the same houses in different stages of their existence, while others (e.g., House 7 at Tell Qiri and all of the houses at Tel Hadar; Faust 2000: 7) are largely reconstructed. Yet, in other cases (notably Tell Keisan; Faust 2000: 10), we disagree with his typology (see above). The actual data set is therefore more meager than presented. Furthermore, a simple division of a long space into several shorter ones by means of a series of transversal partitions may be an *ad hoc* solution which defies any geographic, temporal and cultural determination. This, indeed, seems to be the case in (Israelite) Hazor (Geva 1989: 85–87; Faust 1999: 182–184; 2000: 18–19), where such structures seem to occupy secondary spaces which were initially between primary houses, or what formerly were common spaces. That is to say, it seems that as housing stress within towns intensified, open spaces were subdivided to serve as residences for excess family members, dependents or new immigrants. As such, Faust’s (1999: 185–186) previous assessment of the phenomenon as indicating an essentially economic difference seems to us more likely. Lastly, in order to “ethnicise” a house type, one must at the very minimum establish a clear affinity between said type and residents who undoubtedly belong to said ethnic group. Of all the houses discussed by Faust, only two (in Tell Keisan) are in sites/phases commonly labeled “Phoenician”; as discussed above, we do not necessarily agree that these houses are of the “unilinear” type.

The CC# vs. the Four-Room House

Generally, the CC# is larger than its four-room counterpart, averaging ca. 150–200 sq m, with ca. 50 sq m of that occupied by the courtyard, vs. ca. 50–100 sq m for four-room houses (Schloen 2001: Tables 5–9). This, plus the additional attributes that the rooms are often grouped together in “suites” of interconnected rooms possessing only one access to the courtyard, that rooms might be “traded” with adjacent houses and that houses are often interconnected, means that they were more likely inhabited by joint or extended families. See Gadot and Yasur-Landau (2006: 591–592; contra Arie 2006: 237) for additional arguments in favor of extended families at Megiddo and Schloen on the same

issue in Ugarit (2001: 323–329). For the controversy about whether four-room houses served as nuclear or extended habitations, see Schloen (2001: 171–183; contra Stager 1985: 18; also Mazar 2008: 332–333, with further references in all of these studies). We comment on these suggestions in Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2014.

Phase 9: Ir1a late (ca. 1100/1075–1075/1025 BCE)

Phase 9 is the best-preserved and understood phase in Area G because of the destruction that sealed its fate and contents. Most rooms contain *in situ* or otherwise primary deposits of pottery and other objects of daily use. They also occasionally preserve some ecofacts related to the use of the space. This allows a fairly comprehensive picture to be drawn of an area ca. 10 x 15 m, 150 sq m. Despite this relatively wide exposure, however, the entire area of the structure was not uncovered and only three rooms are known in their entirety.

The area of Phase 9 (Fig. 2.45) is dominated by the large central courtyard (9795), at least 6 m north to south and over 5 m east to west (Plan 5). The western half of the courtyard was stone-paved, while the eastern part had an earthen floor; the stone pavement was re-established in the same location in Phases 8 and 7 as well. South of the courtyard is Room 18033, ca. 2 m north to south and at least 2.5 m east to west. To the west of the courtyard are Rooms 18242, 18241, 18239 and 04G0-004. The latter had a stone pavement in its northern part. The size of these rooms is unknown due to incomplete excavation, but 18242 is very narrow, only about 1 m wide. Immediately north of the courtyard are a series of rooms (18067, 9928 and 18750), all about the same size, ca. 3.8 m north to south and 2.5 m east to west. In the northern half of Room 9928 was a

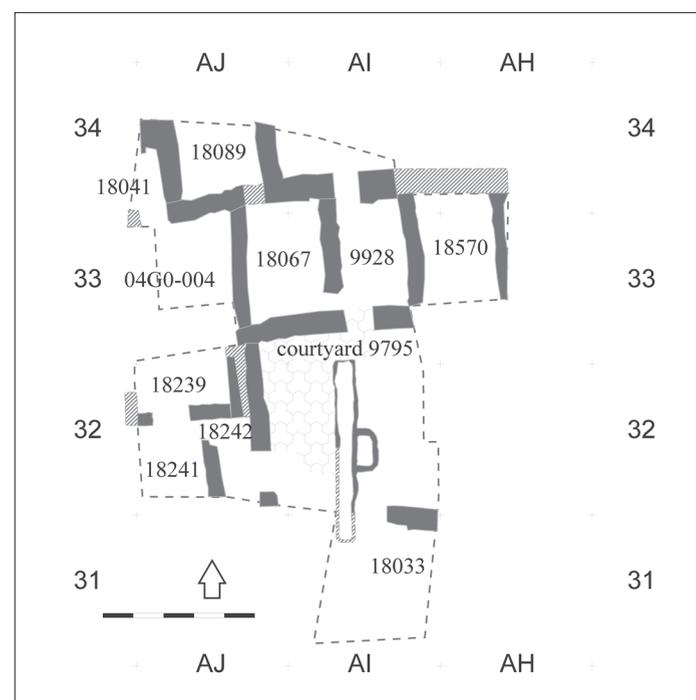


Fig. 2.45. Phase 9, schematic plan. (d10Z1-1009)

thick, basin-like clay floor. To the northwest of these are two partially excavated rooms: 18089 and 18041.

The Phase 9 Destruction

When first encountered at the southern end of AI/32 (Fig. 2.46), the Phase 9 destruction appeared as a mass of swirling burnt orange, black and white mudbrick debris, interspersed with bits of carbonized roofing timbers, fallen stones and fire-hardened mudbricks and ceiling plaster. Heat-altered clay and other components in this destruction debris indicate a fire temperature above 500° C and, in places, as high as 1000° (Berna et al. 2007). In some of the rooms, this destruction layer was 90 cm thick (Fig. 2.47). The fiery destruction did not, however, engulf the entire house. The burnt layer was thickest and most impressive in AI/31 and AI/32 in the south, but dwindled and petered out as it spread towards AI/33 to the north and AJ/32 to the west (cf., Chapter 3, Fig 3.31). It thus seems that most of the highly combustible materials were concentrated in a relatively small part of the overall

structure (but see more on this below). However, vessels in primary deposition in the north and west (such as in Rooms 18570, 18241 and more) indicate that these rooms too were destroyed (although not burnt) and, in any case, at least part of their contents abandoned. In other rooms (e.g., 04G0-004), there was no unequivocal evidence of destruction. Because this latter room was the last to be excavated, with the express purpose of locating the destruction level, we did notice that the constructional fill below the Phase 8 floors contained what seems to probably be degraded burnt orange mudbrick debris and that the floor was covered by (unburnt) mudbrick collapse. Had we gone in unsuspecting, however, it is doubtful that we would have noted any traces of trauma. This should be a cautionary note to the concept of destruction layers which ostensibly can serve as “benchmarks” for site stratigraphy and for correlation with known or assumed historical events. The actual phenomenology of destruction, even for a very traumatic event, can be very localized and may seem arbitrary.

Although in primary deposition, not all the pottery in the



Fig. 2.46. Area G destruction as first encountered in 1992, looking west. Center: narrow partition belonging to southeastern edge of trough-installation 9982, not yet fully exposed (=Fig. 9.41). (p08Z3-1004)



Fig. 2.47. View of eastern balk, AI/32, showing the depth of Phase 9 destruction debris; the arrow marks the top of the destruction material. Square supervisor Robyn Talman standing on courtyard floor (photograph courtesy of Andrew Stewart). (p08Z3-1440)

rooms was *in situ*. Vessels were scattered about over quite large distances and their original positions could only seldom be reconstructed. This means that there is no certainty that other artifacts were found in their systemic contexts either. At least in some cases, we have clear evidence that pots were broken and their sherds were scattered about not only before the architecture collapsed, but also before the fire started. In many of the reconstructed vessels (e.g., the krater and pithos in Chapter 20, Pls. 20.21:19; 20.25:3), fragments that were heavily burnt mended with others that were not, demonstrating that they were exposed to fire only after they were broken. This seems to best fit a scenario in which the house was ransacked and then burnt, although alternative explanations (e.g., an earthquake and a subsequent fire) cannot be entirely ruled out.

Functional Analysis of Rooms

Because Phase 9 suffered an extensive destruction, it is possible to present some suggestions regarding the functions of several of the rooms at the moment they came to an end. As discussed above, not all the finds in the rooms are taken into account here.

The Courtyard (Room 9795) and Trough-Installation 9982

As noted, the courtyard must have played a central role in the function of the building (Figs. 2.29; 2.48). The center of the courtyard is dominated by the trough-installation, separating the paved, and presumably roofed, western part of the courtyard from its unpaved eastern part (see Chapter 9 for a detailed description of the trough and additional illustrations). East of the trough-installation, three stones were embedded into the dirt floor, making a kind of a tripod. Five basalt tools

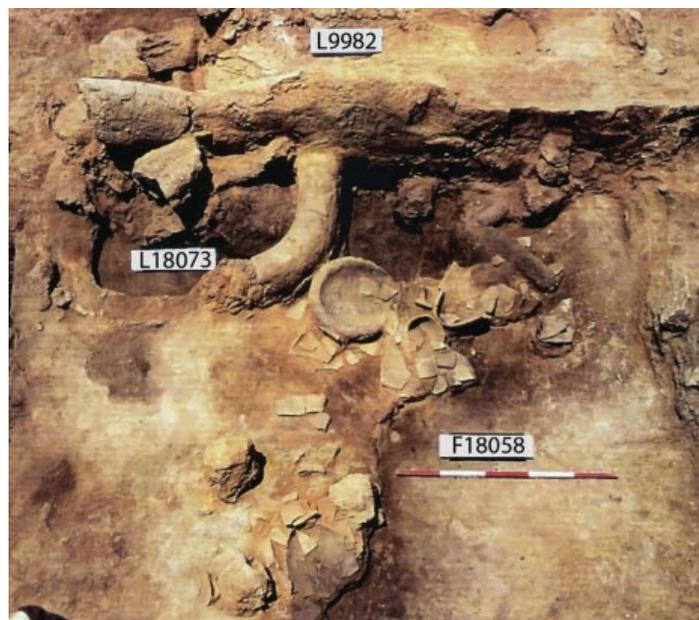


Fig. 2.48. *In situ* pottery near the trough-installation, looking west. Note basalt bowl, upper grinding stone (above meter stick) and “stone tripod” at bottom (=Fig. 9.47). (p09z3-6007)

were recovered from the eastern part of the courtyard: one bowl, one slab and three upper grinding stones, suggesting a function related to the processing of grain into flour.

What purpose did the trough, bin, “tripod” and obviously very combustible material in the southern and western parts of the room serve (see Zorn 2009 for a detailed analysis)? Table-like installations in which lower grinding stones were set are well documented in the ancient Near East and Egypt (e.g., at Ebla, Gordion and Amarna; Zorn 2009: 272*–275*). A terracotta model from Boetia, Greece shows a trough with flat “planks” set into its surface, on which individuals knead bread (Zorn 2009: 275*) and similarly, in a model displayed at the Louvre (Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2014: Fig. 12). The clay surface of the trough-installation would not have been suitable for either kneading wet dough or grinding grain and the surface showed no sign that anything was ever embedded into it, although a flexible material, such as a mat, could have been placed in the trough and been used as a kneading surface. Thus, the Dor trough, while having superficial similarities to several other table-like installations used for processing grain, remains unique. We noted above what might be a similar table-and-bin arrangement in L2111 of Stratum VA in Megiddo (Fig. 2.35). The plan of this feature is suggestive, but no photograph or discussion of it exist.

The attached basin may hold the key. Similar kinds of basins at other sites have been found with lower grinding stones intact and *in situ* set within them (the best example is at Tel Rehov; see Zorn 2009: 275*–276* for this and other examples). As grain was ground, it collected inside the basin. If, then, the basin was used for grinding, what purpose did the trough serve? It may have been used as a place where workers could both sieve grain and then pick through it by hand to remove final impurities before feeding it to the grinding basin. Alternatively, with the use of a mat as suggested above, it could have been used for kneading. The trough is long enough for six to seven people to stand at it on the western side (the bin blocks access to part of the trough on the east), so perhaps it could have served both purposes.

In the center of the unpaved area were three stones forming an approximately equilateral triangle and thus termed the stone “tripod”. These were the only stones found in this specific space, which was covered by burnt mudbrick collapse. They may, of course, have been part of that collapse and their placement coincidental, or they might have been an intentional stand of some kind. What sort of object would have been supported by such a tripod is uncertain. Another open question is where the ovens used for baking the bread were located; perhaps they were to the east, in the unexcavated area.

Pottery and Other Finds

Among the pottery found in the unpaved eastern part of the courtyard (“9795 east”; Chapter 20, Pls. 20.16–20.18; for a complete list of ceramics from this context, see Chapter 21), the following vessels were recovered in evidently primary deposition: one bowl, two kraters, four straight-shouldered jars (large and small, one decorated), one other jar, two large fragments of one or two wavy-band pithoi, one jug, one dipper juglet and one very thick lentoid flask. The complete small jar and dipper juglet in “9795 upper” (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.20:10,

14) probably also belong to this assemblage. In “9795 west”, the paved part of the courtyard (Pl. 20.19), the only ceramic item in primary deposition is a large fragment of a decorated amphoroid krater (Pl. 20.19:7).

This indicates that the courtyard was also used for (at least temporary) storage, possibly carried out only in its unpaved eastern part. The fierceness of the fire in this area, similar to that in Room 18033 described below, suggests that the jars were used for storing highly combustible food resources. Oil is one possibility. The auto-ignition temperature of cooking oil is ca. 315°–450° C (Liu et al. 2004). At temperatures higher than that, its surface will start vaporizing and spontaneously ignite; flame temperature can easily reach 800° C, which will keep the fire going as long as there is fuel. Another possibility is grain-dust. Very small particles of dry grain suspended in the air or layers of dust in a confined space provide explosive potential. The precondition (apart from a source of ignition) is a minimum explosive concentration (MEC) of 50 to 150 grams per cubic meter of air. Once airborne dust ignites, the pressure wave from the explosion may knock settled dust particles into the air, engendering secondary explosions and maintaining the blaze (Noyes 1998). Grain-dust explosion is a major concern in modern industrial installations, such as mills, grain storage-and-moving facilities and breweries. Whether the much smaller amounts (and probably coarser grind) present in an ancient household-industry environment can lead to such a phenomenon is debatable; there are no definitively recorded cases prior to the industrial revolution.

The courtyard yielded seven flint tools: five flake tools and two blades, including one sickle (Chapter 24). Of the seven flint tools, four are significantly in the higher parts of the fill, above the destruction debris (“9795 upper”) and only three are possibly in primary deposition (Fig. 24.21).

Other than the pottery and the stone vessels/tools, the courtyard yielded very few objects; even if we consider all the artifacts in this space (including the not-evidently primary ones), the situation does not change significantly. A few bone needles were found, some of them in a cluster in the eastern part in “9795 east”, and a bone point in “9795 west” (not included in Chapter 26; respectively, 97866 and 98013 from L9795, and 98355 from L9832), as well as a clay loomweight or jar stopper (see discussion below, Phase 8, Room 9903) and a clay spindle whorl in the east (Chapter 26, Table 26.11:10). These may hint that some textile-related activity took place here. There are no metal tools (or fragments thereof) at all. Whether this means that they really did not exist here, or that people foresaw the catastrophe and removed whatever could be carried away, is unclear, but the latter possibility seems more likely.

Room 18033

As mentioned above, this space to the south of the courtyard was only partially excavated and it is unclear whether it was indeed a separate room or possibly a pantry/storage space associated with the courtyard, as indicated by the numerous, densely packed storage containers found here (Fig. 2.49). The fact that it could be directly accessed from the courtyard



Fig. 2.49. Jars in destruction on Phase 9 floor in Room 18033, looking west (=Fig. 8.29). (p08Z3-1459)

implies that no attempt was made to control or regularize access to the goods stored in these containers. Alongside the courtyard, this is the space where the conflagration was the heaviest, as indicated by masses of burnt wood, burnt mudbrick and other debris, although not all the vessels showed signs of burning. When mended, several vessels showed conjoint burned and unburned pieces, as mentioned above, indicating that they were broken and scattered before the fire. It probably also indicates that (at least in some cases) structural collapse preceded the fire, covering and protecting some of the potsherds on the floor.

Pottery and Other Finds

Ceramic vessels uncovered here in primary deposition (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.21–20.26) include two bowls, five Egyptian jars, seven straight-shouldered jars (one rim-less and base-less not illustrated), one oblong jar, one small narrow jar, one jar of unclear shape, four collared-rim pithoi, two semi-complete jugs, one complete decorated amphoroid krater and one Intermediate Bronze Age (IBA) teapot. The excavated part of this “room” was very crowded with storage containers. Evidently, the storage vessels must have contained some highly combustible resources (cf., discussion above); both collared-rim and wavy-band pithoi in contemporary destruction contexts in Area D5 contained lentils. However, while unground dry grains and legumes do provide fuel to a fire, they would not have produced the spectacular temperatures evident in this “room” and in the courtyard.

The concentration of Egyptian jars in this room begs explanation. Dried fish were considered a possibility for their contents (for the numerous Nile perch remains at Dor in the early Iron Age, see Raban-Gerstel et al. 2008). However, in the Iron Age levels of Area G specifically, there were few Nile perch bones (Chapter 28). Moreover, neither the practicality of transport, nor ethnographic analogies, indicate that such cargo was moved in jars (see further discussion in Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2014). In any event, Room 18033

itself did not produce any Nilotic fish. Those jars could, of course, have been used secondarily for any number of uses. The decorated amphoroid krater (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.21:19), which must have served some social function (Gilboa 2006–2007), was probably stored in this space, as this hardly seems to be where it was used. The other complete decorated amphoroid krater from this building was likewise found in a storage context (Room 18570, below). A similar situation was found in Building 00/K/10 at Megiddo (Stratum K-4, see above), where storage space K/77 produced two of the few vessels there that may be associated with ceremony: a cultic stand and an elaborately decorated Phoenician Bichrome strainer jug (Arie 2006: Fig. 13.46: 48, 52). Arie's (2006: 247) suggestion that these vessels were put there in order to protect the stored merchandise is intriguing, but needs corroboration. The presence of a complete, hand-made IBA teapot in this room requires note. Other than this specimen, not a single IBA potsherd has ever been identified at Dor. Except to suppose that some inhabitant of the house had found it (while robbing an IBA tomb?) and kept it, we are at a loss to explain how it ended up in this context. Like the decorated krater, this object of (presumed) symbolic character is incongruous with the other contents of the room.

Other than the pottery, the room had a relatively large concentration of stone tools (to be published in a future volume). About ten of them were small cuboid-spheroid objects, chiefly of hard limestone, but also of basalt, calcareous flint and quartz. They may be interpreted either as weights (especially those that have one flat side) or possibly as hammerstones or polishers. There were also disk-shaped objects, possibly scrapers or polishers; all these objects indeed bore use-wear marks. In addition there were a complete cylindrical pestle or abrader made of hard limestone, a flat schist palette that was probably used for grinding some delicate substance, possibly cosmetics, a small scoria rubbing stone and a basalt grinding stone of unclear shape and function.

Aside from this, Room 18033 was very poor in finds and none can be unequivocally attributed to this systemic context. Possibilities are three worked bones in L18033 and one in 18064, a flint blade and bladelet, and a fragmentary bronze ring (unpublished). The charcoal in Room 18033 (Loci 18033 and 18265) yielded four ¹⁴C dates (Chapter 20, Table 20.1).

Rooms 18242, 18241 and 18239

Distinctive evidence for fire gradually diminishes as one moves from Courtyard 9795 west into Corridor 18242 and thence into 18241 and northwards into 18239. On the other hand, all of these spaces, as well the opening between Rooms 18241 and 18242 (L18293) had quite a few restorable vessels. Unlike Courtyard 9795 and Room 18033, where the restorable pottery was by-and-large smashed on the floor and sealed by more-or-less sterile mudbrick collapse, in these rooms, at least some of the restorable pottery came from the collapse above the floor, giving a distinct impression that it fell from an upper story. This is most clearly the case in Room 18239, where two distinct "floor" surfaces were detected. F18239, the upper, is sharply sloped and appears to be sagging towards the center of the room, where it nearly merges with the lower floor, F18370



Fig. 2.50. F18239 under excavation, looking south. Note slope of surface, with *in situ* pottery and deer antler. (p08Z3-1007)

(Fig. 2.50). We interpret the upper surface to be the floor of the second story which fell onto the first.

Pottery and Other Finds

Room 18242, the narrow space southwest of the courtyard, yielded the following primary deposit of pottery (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.27): one bowl, one krater, one large cooking pot, two small and narrow jars, one cooking pot/jug of Aegean/Cypriot type (Pl. 20.27:9), one jug, one pyxis, one decorated spouted jug, two dipper juglets, one lamp and one very small conical bowl(?)/lid. Room 18241 to the west produced one krater, half a cooking pot, two small decorated flasks, three medium-size ovoid jars and two large straight-shouldered jars (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.28–20.29). The fragments of the highly decorated OMDS strainer-spouted jug (Pl. 20.28:12; see discussion in Chapter 20) were mostly found in L18293, the opening connecting Rooms 182421 and 18242. In L18239, the presumed second-story collapse in Room 18239, were two bowls, two kraters and one very large part of a large decorated flask (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.30). Below this accumulation and probably belonging to the ground floor of this room (F18370), were a small narrow jar and a funnel, both intact (Pl. 20.30:19–20).

In contrast to the courtyard and to Room 18033 (and to Room 18570 on the north, see below), vessels used for preparing, serving and consuming food are present here alongside the jars. In fact, such vessels are found only in Rooms 18242, 18241 and 18239, which might support the conjecture that the living-eating-sleeping quarters of the inhabitants were in a second story only over this part of the building. The unusual decorated spouted jugs (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.27:15; 20.28:12) suggest some social serving/drinking. Their occurrence in conjunction with the two decorated flasks (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.28:10–11) may suggest some functional relationship. Another noteworthy phenomenon is the near absence here of the straight-shouldered jars, which are ubiquitous in the storage spaces of the house. Only three such jars were encountered in Room 18241 (Chapter 20, Pl. 29:4–6). It is quite possible that such jars indeed functioned for (more) long-term storage and were mainly kept at ground level.

Other finds in this wing include: in Room 18239—three fragments of bronze nails or pins (unpublished); in Room 18242—a cylindrical stone weight (ca. 4 x 4 cm, perforated longitudinally; cf., a similar item in Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:10), a barrel-shaped clay weight (4 cm high, perforated longitudinally); four glass beads, including two eye beads, which were probably originally strung together, and a shell bead (Chapter 26, Tables 26.8:13–16; 26.3:1); another small faience bead was uncovered in Room 18241 (unpublished). Three fragmentary bone objects identified in the field as gaming pieces and a bronze fragment that may have been part of a bowl were also found (all unpublished). These may provide another hint as to the activities taking place in the western wing, perhaps on its upper story (see further below).

Contexts 18242, 18241 and 18239 (especially the latter) also yielded a very unusual concentration of bones. A nearly complete antler of a fallow deer (*dama Mesopotamica*) was found on the upper floor of Room 18239 (Fig. 2.50; see also Chapter 14; Figs. 14.25–14.26), as well as seven more fragments of deer antlers (see discussion in Chapter 27). These are the only such antlers in Area G Phase 9; they were accompanied by two metapodials (finger bones) of deer. Other than in these contexts, only one deer bone has been identified in Phase 9. In the entire Area G sequence, only 19 other deer antler fragments were identified (scattered in different loci) and only four were found among the extensive bone assemblages studied from other early Iron Age areas (again in different loci; Raban-Gerstel et al. 2008; Sapir-Hen et al. 2014). Also attested in Context 18239 is an unusual concentration of mountain gazelle (*gazella gazella*) bones: a mandible, three lower foot finger fragments and two teeth. These are the only gazelle remains in Phase 9. In the entire Iron Age sequence of Area G, only 18 gazelle bones were identified, in various contexts (Chapter 27, Table 27:1), and only seven in other early Iron Age loci at Dor, all as isolated specimens. There were also two red fox bones (femur and pelvis fragments; Chapter 27, Tables 27.1, 27.16), the only bones of this species in Phase 9. Only two more fox bones have been recognized in Iron Age Dor. Other faunal peculiarities of this context are a dog bone (a mandible), one of only two dog bones in Phase 9 and of nine in the entire Area G sequence; three pig bones (Chapter 27, Table 27.16), a metatarsus (finger bone) and two teeth (out of five in this phase), and one equid tooth (out of two in Phase 9 in Area G). Pigs are extremely rare at Dor during the Iron Age and most of the animals were apparently wild boars (Chapter 27; see also Raban-Gerstel et al. 2008; Sapir-Hen et al. 2014). Thus, although the pig bones in this context could not be positively identified as game, they are likely to be so. The same assemblage also produced two fragments of hippopotamus incisors (see Chapter 26, Table 26.17:13), both identified as industrial waste; a similar fragment was identified in nearby Room 18242 (Chapter 26, Table 26.17:15).

Since early Iron Age faunal assemblages at Dor have been extensively studied, both in Area G and in other areas, we can state categorically that the assemblage of game bones, teeth and antlers of this context is unique. Of nearly 10,000 identified bones, bones and horns of wild species (or even potentially-wild, as in the case of pigs) are attested in negligible numbers. Hunting contributed a very marginal portion of the diet of Dor's Iron Age inhabitants and this concentration of game animals in one context is unparalleled.

Room 18239 also produced three human bones: two finger bones and a skull fragment (not discussed in Chapter 29). These are the only human bones in the Area G sequence, other than a complete skeleton buried under a stone collapse in Phase 7 (below and Chapter 29). One of the bones, however, was found in the fill well above the floor, although restorable pottery was found at approximately the same elevation.

Also significant is the concentration of flint tools from these three rooms. Of about 30 worked flint objects in Phase 9, 18 are from these three small rooms, comprising 10 blades (four defined as sickles), six flake tools, one miscellaneous tool and one core. The courtyard only had seven, of which at least four are not in primary context, Room 18033 had two, and 04G0-004, one. All of the other rooms did not have any. Only one core was identified in Phase 9, as opposed to six in Phase 10 (found mainly in the courtyard), 14 in Phase 11 and 12 in Phase 12 (Chapter 24).

Stone tools (to be published in a future volume) include several hard limestone pebbles and various cuboid-spheroid objects of unclear use (possibly weights, abraders and/or polishers, made of limestone, basalt, flint and hematite), some of them clearly on the lower story and some on the upper one. In addition, notable are a pumice object, a flat rectangular beach-rock palette (clearly on the upper floor), a small square object made of apatite (perhaps a scale-weight or an inlay) and a not-clearly identified object made of (non-local) gabbro (all unpublished). The latter two are from the upper story.

The unusual combination of decorated serving vessels, game-animal bones and flint implements leads us to a tentative engendered identification of this space, or much more likely the second story above it, as the male section in this house (see further discussion in Gilboa, Sharon, and Zorn 2014: 65–66).

Room 04G0-004

As mentioned, this room was somewhat unusual, as its northern part was stone paved. Above this pavement, a thick layer of unburnt phytoliths had accumulated (Fig. 2.51). Detailed analysis (Albert et al. 2008) showed that these originate from domesticated grasses (including their inflorescence), related



Fig. 2.51. Phytolith surface in Room 04G0-004, looking east. (p10Z3-0051)

to modern common wheat (*triticum aestivum*). No spherulites were found associated with the phytoliths (spherulites are indicators that grasses have been digested by herbivores and deposited as dung). Their absence here suggests an area for storage of grain, which may make sense in the context of the use of the courtyard, or of hay. On the other hand, the phytoliths were laminated into very fine layers, suggesting that they were trampled (by animals?), perhaps indicating that, despite the absence of spherulites, the area was used as an animal pen, as was suggested in the abovementioned publication. Against the latter possibility may be the fact that unless the room had a doorway leading to an unexcavated open area to the west, animals stabled in it would have had to be led outside in an extremely circuitous route, cf., Daviau (1993) who suggested that animals were seldom kept indoors, although admitting that she had no real means to identify penning locales.

Pottery and Other Finds

This space produced very scant primary pottery (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.31): two bowls, one krater (found embedded in the phytoliths) and half a jug. The phytolith layer also yielded dozens of micro-beads of glass, faience, and gold and a few larger beads (Chapter 26, Tables 26.7–26.8). The micro-beads evidently belonged to a necklace or the like that was either lost here or, perhaps, in light of the indications of a second-story collapse in the west and the cluster of beads in Room 18242, fell from an upper story. A fragment of a hippopotamus incisor found here (not included in Chapter 26) may indicate industrial waste, but this could not be ascertained. If it were, it may have originated in the same context that produced the positively identified wasters in nearby Rooms 18241 and 18239.

Rooms 18041 and 18089

These two rooms in the far north of the building were only minimally excavated in Phase 9 and hardly produced any finds. In Room 18041, nothing can be demonstrated to be in primary deposition (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.32). In Room 18089, destruction is evident by crushed pottery which was partly overlain by stone collapse and mudbrick debris, with only very few traces of fire. This room had been disturbed by the “cult deposit” 9903 of Phase 8 (*infra*). Two bowls, one large piece of a krater and the upper part of a decorated piriform jar are probably in primary deposition (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.33:4–5, 8, 10). In addition, a wavy-band pithos was represented here by dozens of fragments which could not be joined and were not illustrated. Open vessels are also dominant among the sherd material from this room and only one fragment of a straight shouldered jar was recorded (Chapter 21).

The only other notable find, in Room 18089, was an oblong decorated ivory plaque (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.3:3 and this room (in Locus 9885) also produced a complete flint palette (not included in this report), but because of the disturbances in this locus it is possible that this object in fact belongs to Room 9903 of Phase 8.

Room 18067

Just north of the doorway to this room, the remains of several dozen small fish skeletons were found scattered on the floor in articulation, although too fragile to excavate (Fig. 2.52). These



Fig. 2.52. A single fish skeleton on F9661 of Phase 7, similar to those recovered from the floor of Phase 9 Room 18067 but which could not be photographed because of their fragmentary condition (photograph courtesy of Andrew Stewart). (p08Z3-1418)

suggest another food-processing locale, possibly involving the drying or salting of fish, or perhaps only a space where fishing gear was kept. Very few items were found here, including a near-complete decorated flask (Chapter 20, Fig. 20.34:13) and a carnelian pendant (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:7).

Room 9928

As mentioned, this room is the main candidate for an entryway to the excavated part of the building. Its thick clay floor (Fig. 2.53)



Fig. 2.53. The “basin” in possible entryway in Room 9928, looking south (photograph courtesy of Andrew Stewart). (p09Z9-6009)

suggests a special role, although this remains unclear and it is likewise uncertain if its basin-like shape is related to this role or is a result of subsidence. Only one jar was found here in primary deposition (not illustrated, probably SJ3; see Chapter 10, Fig. 10.14), which is, perhaps, consistent with its interpretation as an entrance space. Additional finds include a mushroom-shaped faience piece and two large clay loomweights or jar stoppers (see discussion below, Phase 8, Room 9903), but all crumbled during excavation.

Room 18570

This room, denoted the “pithos room”, was excavated in its entirety (ca. 2.5 x 3.8 m). In it were at least two (perhaps three) large wavy-band pithoi, possibly a cooking jug, a large decorated flask and an unusual decorated amphoroid krater (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.35–20.36). Another decorated amphoroid krater is represented only by a small rim fragment (Pl. 20.35:5), but the similarity to that of the krater in Pl. 20.35:4 and the general scarceness of this type at Dor, suggest that there may have been two similar amphoroid kraters here. Despite the numerous large conjoining pieces, and the fact that the room was completely excavated, none of the vessels is complete. It is unclear if the other special pieces of pottery here (Chapter 20; Pl. 20.35:1–3, 6) are residual or not. This content suggests a storage function and, similarly to Room 18033, the amphoroid kraters were probably stored here. Of the two groundstone tools uncovered here, one seems to be in primary deposition:

a large fragment of a basalt loaf-shaped hand stone. Although this room was completely excavated, it demonstrated no sign of a doorway. The only possibility for one is via its southern wall (which is just under the balk) into the courtyard (assuming it extended this far to the east). However, when the two (or three) pithoi were upright, not much space was left to move about the room and it is possible that access was via the ceiling; above, we pointed out several corollaries in similar houses where this was the case. Despite the artifactual evidence for destruction (or at least abandonment), there was little evidence of fire damage in this room.

Summary of the Phase 9 Building

What is notable from the above tabulation of vessels in articulation is the scarcity of bowls, kraters and cooking pots, so common in domestic assemblages and, by contrast, the great number of large storage containers. These comprise mainly straight-shouldered “commercial” jars and, most noteworthy, many Egyptian jars, as well as collared-rim and wavy-band pithoi. It is unclear whether this profile of containers is just the natural outcome of the types circulating at Dor at the time, or implies a special function for the Area G building. In comparison, storage in courtyard house 00/K/10 at Megiddo was conducted only in ovoid jars, alongside one collared-rim pithos (Arie 2006: especially Fig. 13.39).

Activity areas on the ground floor in the Phase 9 building (Fig. 2.54) included food processing: preparation of bread in

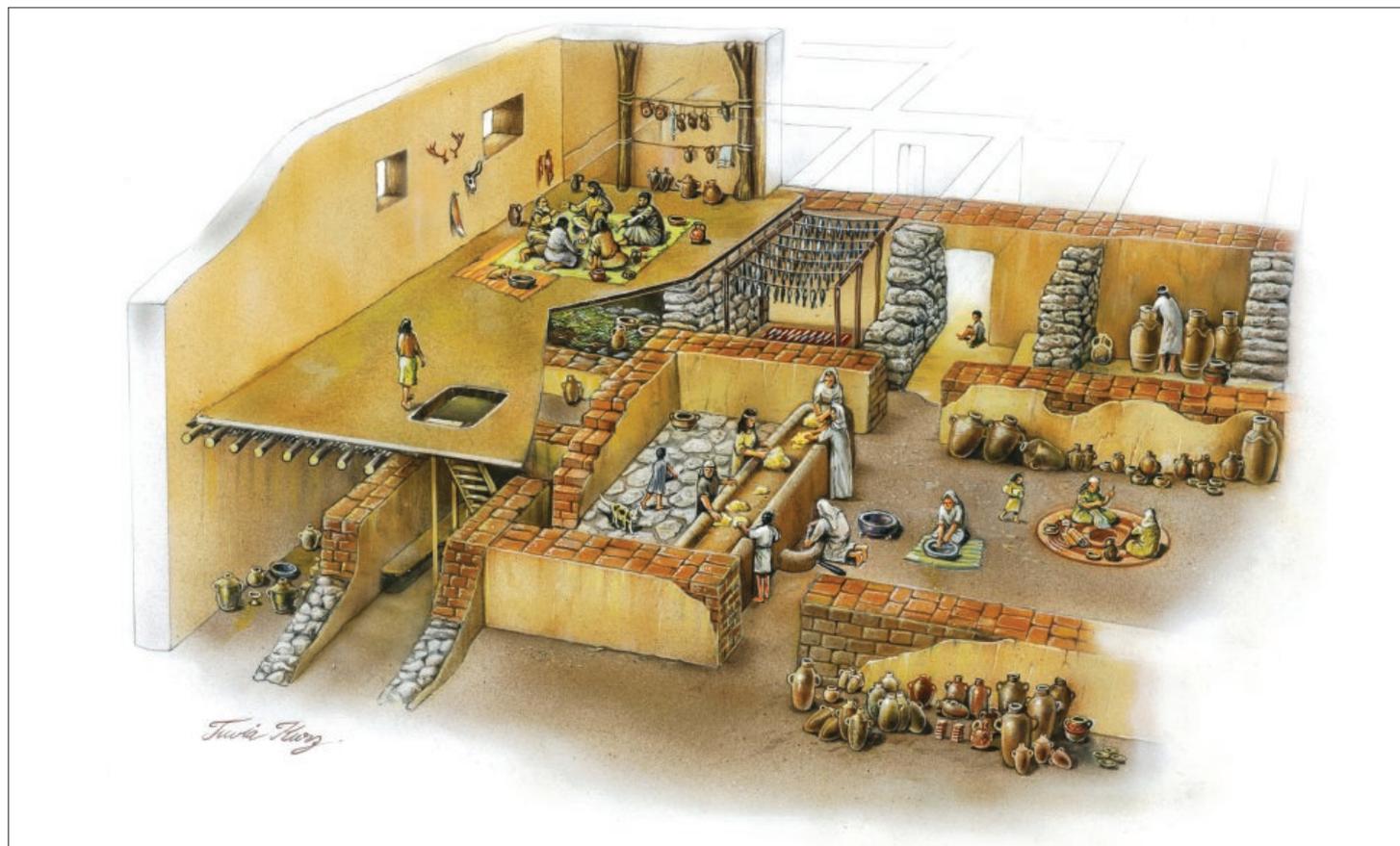


Fig. 2.54. An artist's view of Phase 9, showing a suggestion of the rooms' functions based on their contents when destroyed, looking north. Drawing: T. Kurz, based on an earlier drawing by V. Damov. (d09Z3-1288)

the courtyard, with the wheat in Room 04G0-004 to the west probably related to it, and fish processing in Room 18067 on the north. Storage can be positively identified in Room 18033 south of the courtyard, in Room 18570 north of it and, probably, in part of Room 18242 on the west (the ground floor). In the two former rooms, special decorated amphoroid kraters were also stored.

Some patterning in the placement of the storage containers can be discerned. wavy-band pithoi are confined to one room in the north (18570, with one fragment in the courtyard, whose significance is unclear). Egyptian jars and collared-rim pithoi are found only in the southern space (18033). The most common jars used for storage were the straight-shouldered type, occurring in the courtyard and in space 18033, together with the Egyptian jars and the pithoi. They seem, however, to be absent from contexts that were interpreted on other grounds to have served (among other activities) for the consumption of food and/or drink: Rooms 18242, 18239 and possibly also 18241, where three such jars seem to belong to the lower floor (storage) and most of the rest of the vessels to the upper floor (the “masculine space”). Oval and smaller jars occur almost in every context (except for the “pithoi room”) and may have had more variegated uses.

The western wing (Rooms 18242, 18241 and 18239) produced a high concentration of vessels related to food and drink serving, consumption and preparation, and only a few indications of long-term storage, some of which probably originated from the lower floor. Note also that not a single oven was identified in this phase (in contrast to later phases); it is possible that cooking was done in one of the unexcavated wings of the house. Household industries (e.g., spinning and weaving) could not clearly be identified in this part of the house.

Very few items of personal adornment (mainly beads in clusters) also come almost exclusively from this western area, as well as most of the flint objects and all of the game-animal (deer and gazelle) bones. These rooms (or, perhaps more likely, the ones on the upper story) are the only ones that may have served (also) for habitation.

Can the Phase 9 structure be interpreted as a “domestic” unit? This was one of the interpretations offered for Building 00/K/10 at Megiddo (Arie 2006, with references). This is difficult to judge, mainly because we do not know the building in its entirety. Such an interpretation will also require an assessment of the storage capacity exemplified by the house’s containers, which was not conducted, and the sort of containers employed.

For the time being, as suggested above, one cannot even rule out the possibility that this structure was but one wing of a larger unexcavated complex and thus was part of an organizational unit above household level. This situation would then be comparable to the northern sector of Megiddo Stratum VIA, where Courtyard Building 3021 is probably an auxiliary building to Building 2072 (Herzog 1997: Fig. 5.8; cf., Arie 2006: 238). If so, this situation was probably not confined to Phase 9 only. For a further assessment of the Phase 9 house, see Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2014.

The End of Phase 9

What precipitated the fire that was coincident with the overall destruction of the building? Although extremely intense, it

evidently was fairly well confined to the area used for the storage and processing of grain and perhaps of other food products. However, many of the jars were found broken and body pieces of restorable vessels were found strewn around these rooms. This breakage happened before they were burned. The western half of the courtyard contains some evidence of building collapse from the west. Only a few fragments of human remains were found in the destruction debris, most valuables seem to have been removed and the building was rebuilt along exactly the same lines almost immediately (see below, Phase 8).

The Phase 9 destruction is the only event that, most plausibly, can be identified across more than one excavation area at Dor. Destruction levels, which by their ceramic contents are attributed to the same horizon (Ir1a *early*) were unearthed in Area B1 on the far east (Phase B1/12), Area D5 on the southwest (Phase D5/11) and Area D2 on the south (Phase D2/13) (Table 2.1). A small probe on the west, in Area F, also produced destruction debris with similar pottery. Although it will never be possible to unequivocally demonstrate that all these mishaps are the result of the same event, this is highly probable. Throughout the 2400 years of occupation history in all these areas, this is the only clear fiery destruction. Not every house was burnt, nor even destroyed, yet this seems to have been a site-wide disruption. On present evidence, this catastrophe happened between 1075–1025 BCE, possibly slightly later, ca. 1000 BCE (see Tables 2.1–2.2 and discussion in Chapter 20).

Considering Area G alone, it seems impossible to decide between accident (a kitchen fire), belligerent action or natural catastrophe (an earthquake) as the cause of the disaster that brought Phase 9 to a fiery end. However, the probable parallel destructions in other areas indicate that this was not a localized event. Stern (e.g., 1990; 1991) associates this destruction with the conquest of this part of the coast by Phoenicians from Lebanon (about 1050 BCE) and Halpern (1996: n. 8), with an Israelite conquest. Others (e.g., Gilboa 2005; Sharon and Gilboa 2013) deny any cultural upheaval coincident with this destruction, but remain undecided as to its exact nature. In any event, the structure was rebuilt along almost identical lines, there is no break in local material cultural traditions across Phases 10–6 and there is no intrusion of a new material culture after Phase 9.

Phase 8: Ir1alb (ca. 1075/1025 –1050/1000 BCE)

General Description and Architecture

After the destruction of Phase 9, there was a general leveling of debris to about 80 cm above the previous floors and the building was rebuilt (Fig. 2.55), defined as Phase 8. The walls enclosing the courtyard itself (now termed Room 18035) and the rooms in the northern half of the area (Rooms 9836, 9919 and 18563) were reconstructed on exactly the same lines as before (e.g., W9262 and W9140); other walls (e.g., W9266 and W9684) simply continued in use (Plan 6). A stone-paved floor was re-established in the northwestern part of the courtyard, immediately above the stone pavement of Phase 9. Traces of mudbrick on the

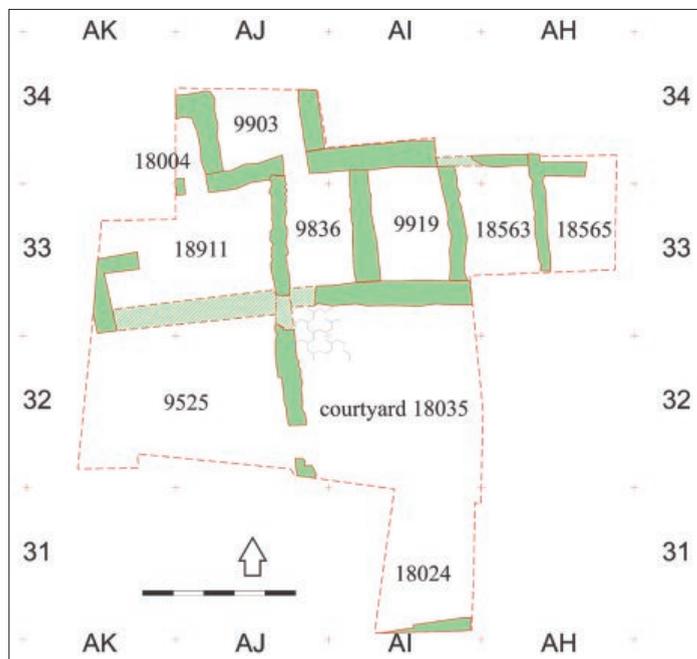


Fig. 2.55. Phase 8, schematic plan. (d09Z3-1313)

southern edge of this pavement suggest that there might even have been a similar (although probably smaller) food-processing installation on it. As in Phase 9, the eastern part of the courtyard had an earthen floor, as did the southern portion. The eastern extent of the courtyard is similarly unknown. This division of the courtyard into paved and unpaved parts along nearly identical lines as in Phase 9, even though the earlier remains were concealed by deep destruction debris, indicates that whoever built the house in Phase 8 was intimately acquainted with the particulars of the Phase 9 building. This could hardly have been coincidental, because, as mentioned above, stone pavements are an extreme rarity in early Iron Age structures at Dor. This comprises one of the best indications that whatever catastrophe caused the Phase 9 destruction, it was not accompanied by a change of population and even the ownership of the house was retained.

As is the case with the architecture itself, ceramic traditions reveal an uninterrupted continuation of those of Phase 9 (see Chapter 20).

The area south of Courtyard 18035 in AI/31 underwent some changes. W9800 (which separated Room 18033 from the courtyard in Phase 9) was not rebuilt after the destruction. It is thus possible that this space (18024) was now part of the courtyard, which would double its width. All the floors in this area, however, were extremely patchy and there is a possibility that an east–west wall had existed in one of the disturbed areas just north or south of the defunct W9800, to act as a partition between 18035 and 18024, although no trace of such a wall was found. However, if no such wall existed, the space occupied by the courtyard is greatly increased in this phase.

The area west of the courtyard witnessed the most substantial changes. The three small rooms on the southwest in AJ/32 (18239, 18241 and 18242 of Phase 9) were replaced

by a single larger space, Room 9525. If this entire space was indeed one room, it may have been as large as the courtyard and, as such, most likely an open space. It should be kept in mind, however, that the assignment of walls to Phases 6–8 in the southern part of this space is problematic, because late pitting destroyed the connections between them.

The space north of Room 9525 is designated Room 18911. We have no evidence for a wall separating these two spaces, but later walls here had never been dismantled, so it is reasonable to suppose that such a wall existed in Phase 8 too.

Furthest to the north is Room 9903 (the “cult room”). A blocked doorway shows it was once connected to Room 9836. The eastern, western and southern limits of this room are clear, but the northern end is more problematic. In Phases 7–6, there was a mudbrick wall (W9216) at the northern excavated limit of this room. Given the marked architectural continuity in Area G, it is possible that the Phase 8 northern wall of this chamber was located in roughly the same area, although hidden just inside the balk. The vessels of the cultic deposit described below came mostly from adjacent to the room’s western wall, on top of and inside of what seems to be a trench or pit; a few were found more towards the center of the room, on a mudbrick floor.

Access Analysis—Phase 8

Following the principles concerning access that were laid out above and discussed in depth for the Phase 9 building, several observations will be made concerning Phase 8.

Fewer doorways are preserved in Phase 8, due mainly to the fact that Phase 7 is a close rebuilding on top of these remains. As was the case with previous phases, it is impossible to say what proportion of the entire building lies in the excavated area or if any external doorways were located. A few observations, however, can be made. From the central courtyard there was a passage to Room 9525 on the west, just above the old Phase 9 doorway in the south of W18048. W9729, under the unexcavated southern balk in Room 18563 on the north, contains a doorway that almost certainly led into the courtyard. There also seems to have been a doorway from Room 18911 on the northwest to Room 18004. Room 9525 may have been connected to rooms on its south, but, again, the phasing of the walls is uncertain due to later pits.

The biggest change in terms of access seems to be the blocking of what we have assumed to be the main access to the house, through the room with the basin (Room 9928 in Phase 9). The northern, western and southern walls were rebuilt after the destruction had blocked the doorways from the (presumed) street/plaza to the north into the room, from this room to Room 9836 to the west, and to the courtyard to the south. As a matter of fact, it is not clear how Room 9919 was entered, and it is possible that the only entry was from a hatch above (see also discussion of the same space in Phase 7 below). How was the building entered then? One possibility is through Rooms 9903 and 9836. Note that the southwestern corner of the latter is missing, due to a Persian period pit. There may have been a doorway there into the courtyard. If that was the case, then the courtyard in Phase 8 was even more segregated than in Phase 9, as one had to traverse two rooms in order to reach the main

node. Note also that if this was the case, the “cultic deposit” of Room 9903 (or, alternatively, a storage space for “special” vessels) would be situated at the entrance to the house, which is not very likely (although compare Megiddo Building 2081 for a similar situation, shown above in Fig. 2.35; the cult assemblage there is in the small space in the southern corner of Courtyard 2081, not far from the entrance to the building). Of course, it is also possible that the main doorway to the house in Phase 8 was through one of the unexcavated wings.

Functional Analysis of Rooms

Because of the calm transition between Phases 8 and 7, there was no destruction deposit which would allow a functional characterization of the different spaces, other than in Room 9903 on the north. Nearly all finds are in secondary deposition and the pottery is mostly very fragmentary, but a few observations can still be made.

The Courtyard

No trough installation such as that in Phase 9 was found, but the reconstruction of the stone-paved floor suggests continuity in the function of the courtyard. Two small pits in the southern half of the courtyard perhaps indicate food storage or refuse dumping (see Chapter 20, Pl. 20.40).

The space of Room 9525 on the west contained a number of black and white ashy layers, showing that it had been repeatedly used for some sort of activity that required burning.

The “Cultic Deposit” Room 9903

Room 9903 on the north is the main space that produced an assemblage of many complete and near-complete vessels in a primary context. This deposit was suspected to include some disturbances, but in Chapter 20, Pls. 20.38 and 20.39, only artifacts that could be securely attributed to Phase 8 are presented.

Pottery and Other Finds in Room 9903

Articulated vessels include one skyphos, 10 bowls (four votive, one very delicate and burnished), three kraters, one small globular decorated flask, two very large fragments of two different large decorated flasks, one cooking jug, one painted goblet, one lamp, one figurative cut-out chalice, a large fragment of another chalice and one lamp. Some of the bowls and the simple chalice were found in one heap. Most were standing right-side up, but the chalice and two bowls were clearly upside down. This may indicate that some of the vessels here fell from some place (a shelf?) above floor level.

The small fragment of a “Handmade Burnished Ware” (HBW) bowl found here (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.38:4, Fig. 20.60) cannot be demonstrated to belong, systemically, to the rest of the assemblage. It is, however, very tempting to do so. This is the only identified fragment of this ware at Dor. At near-contemporary Tell Qasile Stratum X, where its closest parallel occurs (Mazar 1985: 43–44, Photo 40, Fig. 34:12), this, and other similar HBW bowls, are associated with the sacred precinct. A cultic association for some vessels of this ware is also suggested at Tell Kazel, but there they are

considerably earlier (Guzowska and Yasur-Landau 2007, with a comprehensive discussion of this ware).

Other finds in Room 9903 were five flint objects—four flake tools and one unifacial “knife” (Chapter 24)—and five other stone tools. The latter comprised one small spheroid flint stone, possibly used as a weight, two small fragments of basalt polishers(?) and one fragment of a polisher or abrader made of gabbro (to be published in a future volume). However, none of these can be demonstrated to belong systemically to the room. In addition, there was a concentration of five unfired perforated clay “loomweights” (four are illustrated in Chapter 20; Pl. 20.39:19–22; Table 26.10:7–10) and two additional halves, two spindle whorls (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:18, 26), a bone point (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.3:12), a shell bead (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:14), three polished stones and at least six chunks of pumice (see below). The function of the unfired-clay items called “loomweights”, prevalent in Iron Age sites in the Levant, has been debated. The traditional interpretation as loomweights (especially when found in clusters, such as in our case) has been contested and suggestions have been made that they were used as jar stoppers, which is sometimes corroborated by *in situ* finds (e.g., Shamir 2007: 263–265). Room 9903, indeed, produced fragments of jars, but none in obvious primary deposition, so the question here is moot. The cluster of these objects may, however, point to them having been used as loomweights, plausibly associated with a loom that was employed or stored at this spot. Whether the spindle whorls and bone point were functioning here or stored as well is unclear.

Regarding the pumice pieces, it should first be noted that other than isolated pieces in Phases 11 and 10, where such examples are probably related to the metallurgical activities, this is the only place where a cluster of chunks was uncovered in the entire Area G sequence. This cannot be random. In nearby Tel Nami, pumice chunks found in late LB contexts were suggested to be associated with Cretan ritual habits (Artzy 1991). In our case, we are unable to determine whether such a function may be asserted.

Minimally, the figurative chalice, the votive bowls, the unusual decorated goblet and the delicate bowl may hint that Room 9903 functioned for some ceremonial activity. Even more likely, taking into consideration the apparent small size of this space, it may have been only the spot where these vessels and the other objects listed above were stored. It is thus quite possible that this space was part of a larger ceremonial complex, which still lies hidden to its north and/or east and west.

Other Finds in Phase 8

Beyond pottery (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.41), among the very poor harvest of finds in this phase, one is noteworthy: an ivory knife handle with a ring-shaped end, of the type well known in Cyprus and in Philistine sites (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.4:10). However, the locus (18001) was unsealed and both its stratigraphy and pottery could equally belong to Phase 7. Other finds in Phase 8 were three beads (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:2, 5, 14), a mallet-shaped ivory pendant (Chapter 26, Figs. 26.1:11, 26.8:2), a bone point (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.3:12) and an iron ring (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.6:13).

The End of Phase 8

There seems to have been no intended nor unintended destruction of Phase 8. Phase 7 is simply a raising of floor levels and a repartitioning of already existing spaces. In other words, the transition from Phase 8 to 7 was one of peaceful remodeling. The one anomaly in this picture is the L9903 “cultic” assemblage, which is in primary deposition. We have no good explanation for this. Although we attribute Phase 8, in general, to the Ir1alb horizon, the pottery in L9903, typologically speaking, is already very close to the Ir1b horizon; for other options of phasing L9903, see Chapter 12. This, and some other “late” pottery fragments, such as the few Phoenician Bichrome sherds, may indicate that this phase ended in Ir1b.

Phase 7: Ir1b and Ir12 (ca. 1050/1000–925/875 BCE)

General Description and Architecture

There is only about a 10 cm raising of floor levels between Phases 8 and 7. All walls in use in Phase 8 are rebuilt or continue to be used in Phase 7 as well (Fig. 2.56). The courtyard is still the dominant feature, but the northern half has been separated from the south by a new east–west wall and then bisected again by a new north–south wall (Plan 7). In other words, the old courtyard has been partitioned into three new spaces: Room 9813 on the northeast, Room 9300 on the northwest and Room 9661 on the south (possibly still functioning as a courtyard). The east–west wall in AI/31 is now several meters to the south of where it was in Phase 9. This change, coupled with the addition of new walls in the northern part of the courtyard, shifts the center of the courtyard slightly to the south. A short section of wall in the northeastern part of Room 9300 seems to be either a bench or a low partition wall. As before, a stone-paved section of



Fig. 2.57. Phase 7 Courtyard 9300, looking south. (p08Z3-1002)

floor (F9300) was established above the Phase 8 stone floor F18035 (which, in turn, is above stone floor F18087 of Phase 9), while the rest was still earthen. Some of the stones used to pave this space were ca. 80 cm long (Fig. 2.57). No traces of an installation survived on this floor.

The area south of the courtyard is also subdivided now by two walls, W9963 and W9964, creating three rooms: 9979, 9965 and 9912; their western walls lie mostly outside the area of excavation. North–south W9964, as excavated, ends in an *ante*, and no east–west wall separates Rooms 9912 and 9965 from Room 9661 to their north. It is possible that such a wall existed on the line of the AI/31–32 balk, right above the Phase 9 W9800, but was robbed. It is also possible that there was no such division, in which case Room 9965 is best seen as a niche within the wider expanse of Room 9661.

Several wall fragments on the southern side of AJ/32 and AK/32 attest that the large space to the west of the courtyard (Room 9380) was subdivided in this phase. However, late disturbances in this area severed most of the wall connections and any division of this space into specific rooms is conjectural at best.

North of the courtyard, the situation is much the same as before, except that the area northwest of the courtyard is now subdivided into two rooms, 9859 and 9902. The rooms north of the courtyard are now 9823, 9816 and 9937. Room 9816 has a narrow partition wall delineating some installation at its southern end. On the extreme east is Room 9950, which sits somewhat askew from the rest of the building. In Phase 6, there were clearly two ovens in this space and it is possible that one of them was already in use in Phase 7. East of Room 9950 was an open space in which only a few patches of *kurkar* surfaces, but no walls, could be identified. Floors made of *kurkar* are not found within this building in Phases 9–7, so this may be the first indication of an outside space east of the structure. AG/33 was not excavated below Phase 7, so it is impossible to say whether this marks the edge of the building in earlier phases too. On the extreme north of the house, Room 9191 replaces Room 9903. To its west is the barely excavated Room 18004.

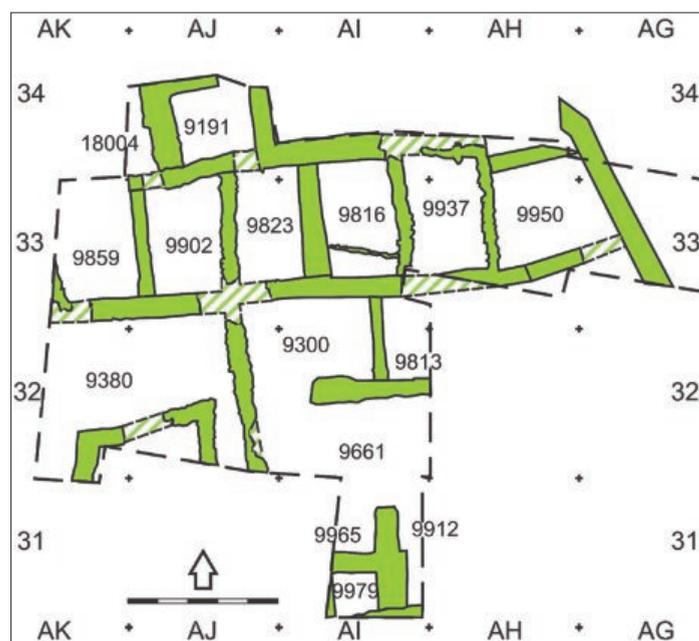


Fig. 2.56. Phase 7, schematic plan. (d09Z3-1314)

Access Analysis—Phase 7

As with Phase 8, specific observations concerning access in the Phase 7 building are presented here.

Relatively few doorways could be identified in Phase 7; perhaps rebuilding in Phase 6 effaced any trace of most of them. On the north, no definite doorways for access to Rooms 9859, 9902, 9823, 9816 and 9191 could be located, although they must have existed. As noted already (in Phase 8), W9211 had two blocked doorways which could have led from Room 9902 to 18004 and from Room 9823 to 9191, although we have no way of knowing when these openings were blocked or whether they were active in Phase 7. The central wall junction between W9140, W9262 and W9400 is cut by a late pit (see Chapter 3) and thus, there might have been access from Room 9902 to 9380 and/or from 9823 to 9300. Room 9937 had access to the south, probably into Room 9813. This leaves one room (9816) with four built-up walls and no evident entryway. One possibility is that access was through the roof. The fact that this room was most likely mainly used for storage (see below) may support the entry-through-the-roof possibility.

It is unclear how or if Room 9813 connected to Room 9661 in the former central courtyard, but Room 9661 did have access to Room 9300 to the north and to Room 9912 to the southeast. Access to Room 9979 at the southern end of AI/31 is unknown, but its mudbrick walls were only preserved some 15–30 cm above floor level.

Worth noting are the particularly wide openings between 9661 and 9300 (1.85 m) and 9661 and 9665 (at least 1.25 m). We have noted the existence of such “garage doors” in rooms adjacent to the courtyards at Ugarit. The reason for their existence there, and presumably here as well, is to light the back rooms. The courtyard is both the main light source in such a house and its main access node, as well as its main “area reserve” that can be subdivided into habitation units as needs dictate. The problem is that as portions of the courtyard become sectioned off and roofed, the rooms behind them are deprived of light and of access to the courtyard (and hence, to other parts of the house). A possible solution is to devote the new rooms to common activities and thus avoid hindering access to the rooms behind them, and to open them widely towards the courtyard so as to still allow some sunlight into the back rooms.

This leads to the question concerning the roofing of the new subdivisions of the former courtyard. Room 9661 is now the largest space in the house (3.7 m by at least 5.5 m, not counting niche 9665) and so, might function as the building’s courtyard. On the other hand, the half-paved arrangement of Room 9300 attests that the major activities carried out in the former courtyard were still being carried out there and so, perhaps this was the unroofed space in this phase. It is even possible that only the unpaved half of 9300 (or alternatively, the paved part) remained unroofed, so as to serve as a small (2.0–2.5 x 2.75 m) light-well and ventilation shaft to the rest of the house, which by now would be entirely roofed over. The wide opening would have ensured that Room 9661 is well lighted and that rooms in the back (e.g., 9979) may still have received a measure of light.

It is possible that there was a still a doorway from Room

9661 into Room 9380 to the west, although this is obscured by a later disturbance. Room 9380 had an oven in its northeastern corner, but it is unclear if this means it was unroofed. On the contrary, the large primary domestic assemblage found in this space (see below) may indicate that it was roofed somehow, perhaps with lightweight roofing. Access from Room 9380 either to the north or south is uncertain, although there may be as many as two passageways on the south (the western limit of this room is unknown).

At the extreme eastern end, it is unclear how or if Room 9950 is connected to the rest of the house. A doorway may connect it to a largely unexcavated space to the south, since, for most of its length, brick wall W9989 was only preserved a few centimeters above floor levels; however, this is uncertain. As mentioned, Room 9950 may also have had an oven. Again, it is unclear whether this means that it was unroofed.

Functional Analysis of Rooms

Despite some evidence that it suffered at least partial destruction, relatively little material has survived from Phase 7 to indicate how most of the spaces were used. Most of the Phase 7 material consists of objects in secondary deposition, with several exceptions.

Room 9661

This room, in the south of the former courtyard, may have continued to function as a courtyard. It contained pottery that was evidently crushed on a surface, but restoration produced only few complete or near-complete vessels (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.46): one bowl, two large parts of kraters, half a cooking pot, one cooking jug, a quarter of a jug, one cup-and-saucer and half a small, thick, decorated lentoid flask. Activity here thus seems to have been of a domestic nature, but did not entail substantial storage. It is unclear, however, if the abovementioned ceramics were crushed on the same surface. Additional finds here were a fragmentary basalt grinding slab, a cuboid object of hard limestone (ca. 5 x 5 x 5 cm), possibly a weight, another rounded flint object of slightly smaller dimensions (to be published in a future volume) and a worked point, probably of ivory.

Room 9300

The northwestern corner of the Phases 9–8 courtyard may have retained the same function, depending on the role of Room 9661. It continues to have a stone-paved floor, suggesting a special purpose, although, as in Phase 8, no installation survives to suggest what this may have been. The lower floors here (7c–d) yielded mostly pottery in secondary deposition (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.48). In Chapter 20, Pls. 20.49–20.50, we present ceramics of the two upper phases in this room (7b–a). The fills above the Phase 7a floor (F9814) were partially covered by stone and mudbrick collapse, which also sealed a few vessels in primary deposition: one simple bowl (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.49:8) and at least three delicate burnished bowls (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.49:20–22), one rounded undecorated jug (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.50:9), one Phoenician Bichrome jug (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.50:11), a dipper juglet and a chalice

(Chapter 20, Pl. 20.50:16, 19) and quite probably also a lamp (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.50:18).

The rest of the pottery consisted of large fragments of cooking pots and additional bowls. As in Room 9661, vessels related to food consumption are dominant here and storage vessels are scarce. The following stone objects may or may not be in primary deposition: a complete loaf-shaped hammerstone of hard limestone, a cuboid object (weight?) of flint and three fragmentary basalt tools, including a slab, a pestle and an unidentified tool. Three scarabs and a tabloid-seal, which, most plausibly, had been strung together in Phase 7a, were found above Floor 9300 in this room (Chapter 25: Nos. 5, 7–8, 11; Gilboa, Sharon and Zorn 2004 and further references there). An additional seal, ascribed to the fill under the Phase 6c floor here (L9878), probably belonged to the same cluster (Chapter 25: No. 9), as did a stone pendant (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:6) and possibly, a stone bead found in the fill above it (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:4).

Room 9816 Upper

On the floor of Room 9816, just north of the one-course-wide and one-course-high partition wall W9841, the skeleton of a 35–40 year old woman was found in articulation, crushed under the falling stones from adjacent walls (Fig. 2.58, see Chapters 9, 29; cf., Stewart 1993). Her upper body lay on its right side, while the pelvis and legs were supine, with one leg folded over the other and twisted at the foot. Her head was facing west, with her hands raised to her face. The skull was crushed and under it was a flint blade (Chapter 24; Reg. No. 98393). Stones were found on her head, ribs, pelvis and legs, her neck was severed and her spine possibly pushed into the brain case. Although most of the fracturing could have occurred postmortem, due to subsidence of the stones on top of the body as it decayed, some of the many fractures in the bones were of types typical of antemortem or perimortem injury. The combination of forensic and circumstantial evidence strongly indicates that this woman died as a result of the wall collapse. No intramural burials were found at Iron Age Dor and the body's position is highly atypical of inhumation, as is the covering of an interment with a pile of stones. No other articulated human remains were found in Phase

7 or in any other Iron Age context at Dor. Was this woman the only fatality in the event that brought an end to Phase 7, or was she the only victim whose body could not be recovered? Interestingly, the body (or skeleton), was obviously left *in situ* when activities were resumed here in Phase 6. To date, this is the only studied skeleton from an early Iron Age Phoenician context.

Pottery and Other Finds in Room 9816

In situ remains found with the skeleton in Room 9816 are important for understanding the function of that room (Fig. 2.59). Other than a complete bowl (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.51:4), there were mainly jars, indicating that a major function here was storage; a minimum of eight jars (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.52:1–8) were recovered. In addition, there were numerous body fragments of at least one large Egyptian container, probably a jar, which could not be mended; it is unclear whether these fragments should be associated with the rim in Chapter 20; Pl. 20.52:11. Other finds include one fish skeleton and a small cluster of unidentified seeds, along with part of a deer antler which may have been worked. These were accompanied by five flint tools (only one was analyzed—a flake tool; another was identified in the field as a biface; Chapter 24) and a large collection of groundstone tools (to be published in a future volume). Minimally, there were (fragments of) two basalt grinding slabs, one upper loaf-shaped grinding stone and one basalt oval pestle or abrader, suggesting an area where food and food-processing tools were kept or used. In addition, two pebbles were found that may have been used as weights, similarly to one naturally perforated limestone. At least seven points/needles made of animal bone, teeth and ivory were found here as well, along with a bone tube produced from a *tibia*, an ivory spindle whorl (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:23, Table 26.14:19, 22), some bone pieces of less determinable function (Chapter 26, Table 26.17:2), and an iron spoon (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.6:4). Also found was at least part of a necklace of cowrie shells (which was subsequently lost and remains unpublished), a shell bead and a mushroom-shaped faience object. It is unclear if these latter objects may have in some way been part of the dead woman's personal adornment.

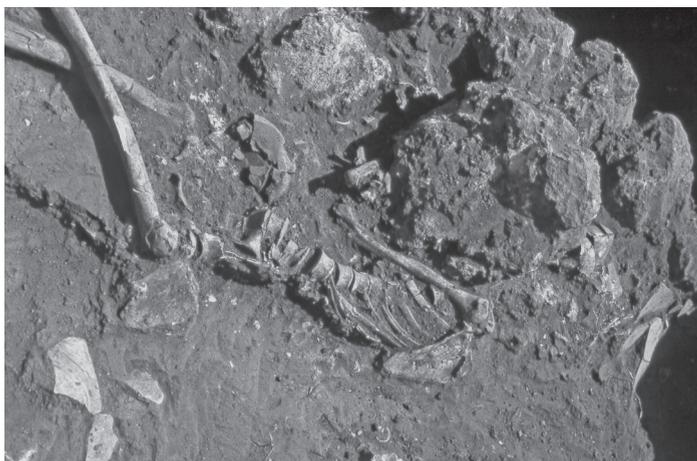


Fig. 2.58. The skeleton of a woman in Room 9816, looking south, partly covered by fallen stones. (p08Z3-1013)

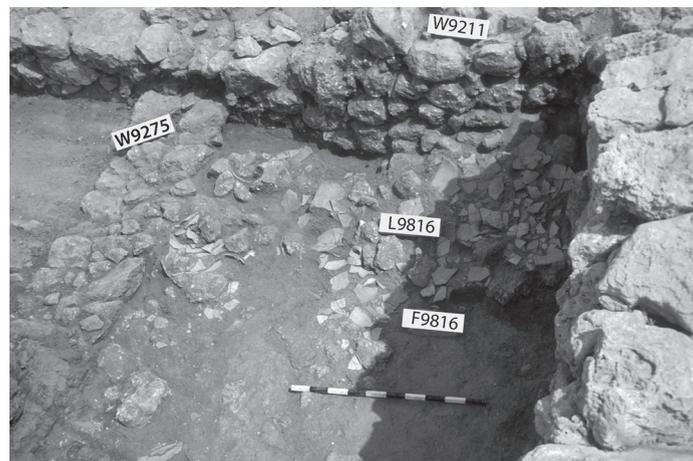


Fig. 2.59. Smashed pottery and rubble collapse on F9816, looking north (photograph courtesy of Andrew Stewart). (p10Z3-0059)

Rooms 9937 and 9950

The area of Room 9937 contained evidence of burning in the form of black charcoal and white ash deposits on its floor. A small oven was built against the northern part of the eastern wall, but it does not seem of sufficient size to have caused this build up. Thus, the nature and purpose of the burning remains a question. Room 9950 on the northeast also seems to have had an oven, indicating that the room was used for baking. None of these rooms produced any primary pottery to indicate their function. Room 9937 produced three groundstone fragments: a grinding slab and two unidentified stones. Perhaps some of the bakery functions associated with the courtyard in Phase 9 had been transferred to the northeastern section of the building by Phase 7. None of these items, however, can be shown to have been uncovered in a systemic context.

Room 9191

This room, in the northern part of the building, continues Room 9903 of Phase 8, in which the “cultic deposit” was uncovered. On its floor (main number, F9548) was an extensive assemblage of pottery in seemingly primary deposition, again, indicating some traumatic end, but very little was eventually restored and therefore, the ceramics from this room are not presented as an assemblage. As well, since it is unclear whether the floor was recognized everywhere, some mixture with Phase 8 is suspected and therefore, some vessels from this context are presented in plates illustrating possibly mixed pottery in Chapter 20. Beyond mundane pottery, such as four simple bowls and other types (Chapter 12, Fig. 12.9; Chapter 20, Pl. 20.42:4), there was half a cooking jug, many fragments of cooking pots and a few sherds of a Phoenician Bichrome jug (not illustrated), a Phoenician Bichrome bowl (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.42:20); a chalice bowl and a chalice/stand foot (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.42:23, 25) and two small and crude fragmentary male figurines that were probably attached to a vessel (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.7:2–3). These finds may indicate continuity in ceremonial activity (or the storing of ceremonial paraphernalia) in this particular room from Phase 8 into Phase 7. In Phase 6a, similar activity was recognized in Room 9679 west of the courtyard. Stratigraphically, it is unclear to which subphase of Phase 7 this assemblage belongs, but the primary material probably associates it with its end (Phase 7a).

Other Finds in Phase 7

Phase 7 (including several less-secure contexts) yielded a few carnelian and bone beads, game pieces of faience and ivory (Chapter 26, Tables 26.1–26.2), an iron arrowhead, a bronze handle(?) and an ivory point (Chapter 26, Figs. 26.4:5, 26.6:1; 26.3:10). A less-secure context produced a bronze arrowhead (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.4:8). For the pottery, see Chapter 20, Pls. 20.53–20.55.

The End of Phase 7

The evidence for the end of Phase 7 is somewhat ambiguous. One room (9816) seems to indicate a violent end. In all other rooms, however, the indications for this are slight or altogether lacking.

There are some *in situ* vessels, but no real *in situ* assemblages and no evidence of burning. The unusual concentration of glyptic items on the pavement of the courtyard probably also indicates some mishap and the height of the debris used to level off the area before the construction of Phase 6 (ca. 70 cm) might indicate some structural collapse.

Regarding chronology, Phase 7 begins in the Ir1b (subphases 7d–c) and continues into Ir12 (subphases 7b–a). Its end should thus clearly be placed within the Ir12 transitional horizon and not in Ir1b, as previously concluded (see Chapter 20).

Phases 6b and 6a: Ir12 and Ir2a (respectively ca. 975/925–925/875 BCE and 925/875–825/800 BCE)

General Description and Architecture

Phase 6b is the last Iron Age phase whose architectural layout is well preserved (Fig. 2.60; Plan 8). Above this level, Persian period pits and Roman–Hellenistic construction make such comprehensive reconstruction impossible. Even in Phase 6, these later intrusions sometimes obscure aspects of construction. Phase 6a is less well preserved, but where extant, there seems to have been mostly a raising of floors (Plan 9). For this reason, Phases 6b and 6a are described together, with only two primary assemblages (one from each phase) presented separately. One of the rooms had three floors relating to the same set of walls and thus, the lowermost one was named Phase 6c. Pottery from this context, however, is scant, none of it primary, and thus, it is not discussed here.

Although the architecture of Phase 6 is more-or-less evident, mainly by dint of continuity in earlier phases, many of the rooms lack even one single “clean” Phase 6 locus. The courtyard is a case in point.

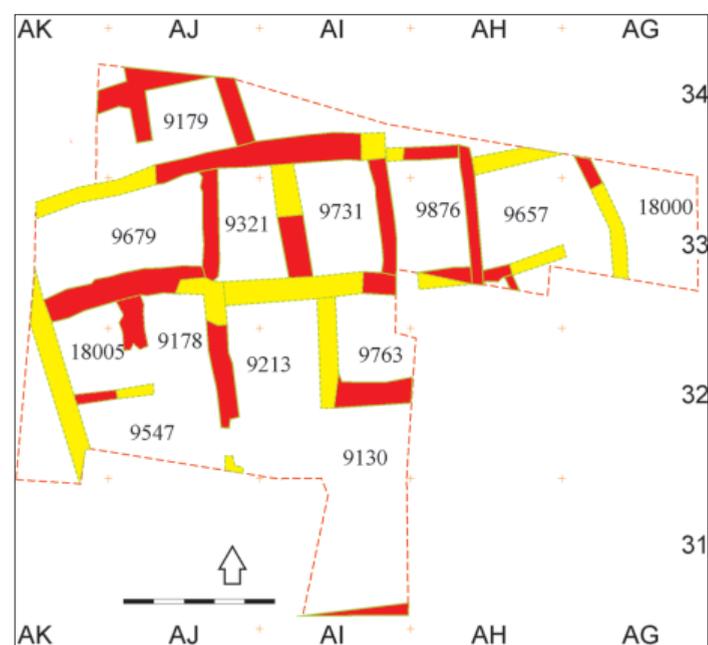


Fig. 2.60. Schematic plan, composite rooms of Phases 6a and 6b. (d09Z3-1315)

After the destruction of Phase 7, there was a ca. 70 cm raising of floor levels across the area and walls were largely re-established along the same lines, except, perhaps, west of the old courtyard. The courtyard itself is much disturbed by a Phase 1 Roman drain which crossed it from north to south, a Phase 2 sump on the southeast and a Phase 4 pit on the northeast. No evidence for a stone pavement was found in the little space left between all these intrusive features, but it is not clear if it did not exist or simply was not preserved. As in Phase 7, the original Phase 9 courtyard was divided in half by an east–west wall (W9626), into Room 9130 to the south and Rooms 9213 and 9763 to the north. As in Phase 7, this partition does not extend all the way across. No actual trace of any additional division was located in the courtyard.

South of the courtyard, the arrangement of space is uncertain, as practically the entire area is disturbed. The Phase 7 walls may have continued in use, as attested by copious stone rubble, but no clear walls were found in the center of AI/31. All that can be said is that the structure extended to the southern end of AI/31, where its southern wall (W9715) appears in the balk.

North of the old courtyard, it seems that the same three rooms that have been present since Phase 9 are still there: 9321, 9731 and 9876. To their east are Rooms 9657 (6b) and 18000 (6a). On the northwest is Room 9679, encompassing the area of Phase 7 Rooms 9859 and 9902, while the room furthest north is 9179. West of the courtyard are the most obvious changes, with two walls dividing this space into three rooms: 9178 (6b), 18005 (6a) and 9547, all of which are only fragmentarily preserved.

Access Analysis

Despite the fragmentary preservation, some observations concerning access may be made. Doorways for most rooms either do not survive or could not be identified. A doorway to the south was found in Room 9876. This doorway probably led into Room 9763. A wide “garage door” opening may have existed in the southern wall of Room 9657 in 6a, but how access out of this space was achieved in 6b is uncertain. Room 9130 certainly opened into the northwestern part of the old courtyard. The presence of a late sump at the southern end of AJ/32 prevents certainty on any connection between it and the western half of the structure.

Functional Analysis of Rooms

Only two primary assemblages of pottery and clusters of other artifacts survive to suggest how some of the spaces may have been used.

Rooms 9657 (Phase 6b) and 18000 (Phase 6a)

The most important body of material comes from Room 9657 (nicknamed “Cheryl’s room”; Chapter 7), which is the only assemblage of complete vessels in a primary context in Phase 6b (Fig. 2.61). In Room 18000 to the east, *kurkar* flooring is found and is limited to this space, suggesting that it might have been an exterior area. No finds in primary deposition were uncovered here.

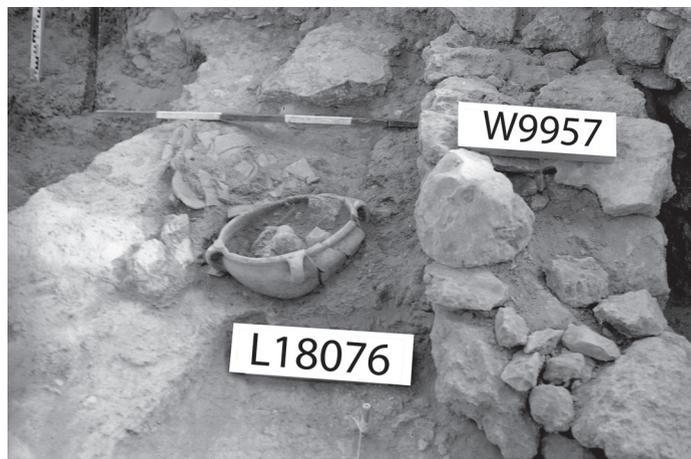


Fig. 2.61. Some of the large number of *in situ* vessels on F9657, looking north (=Fig. 7.10). (p08Z3-1140)

Pottery and Other Finds in Room 9657

Among the extensive ceramic assemblage of Room 9657 (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.56–20.62), the following complete and near complete items, vessels represented by many fragments, and very large single fragments were judged to be primary (MNI): seven simple bowls (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.56:1–3, 6–9), three fine bowls (which are very rare at Dor, one of them red-slipped; Chapter 20, Pl. 20.56:15–17), ten kraters (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.57:1[very large]–2, 5, 8–10, 15–18), seven cooking pots (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.59:1, 8, 11–15), four cooking jugs (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.60:21–24), two baking trays (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.62:1, 4), five jars (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.60:1, 5–6, 9–10), one collared-rim pithos (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.60:13), one simple jug(?) (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.60:19), three dipper juglets (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.60:25–27), one small lentoid Phoenician Bichrome flask (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.61:5), one large Phoenician Bichrome jug with concentric circles (many fragments, not illustrated), one Phoenician Bichrome jug with horizontal decoration (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.61:13), one small Phoenician Bichrome juglet (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.61:20), one Phoenician Bichrome strainer jug decorated with latticed lozenges (many fragments, partly illustrated in Chapter 20, Pl. 20.61:21–22, 24–27), one lamp, four cup-and-saucers, one miniature vase, one (bread?) mold and one zoomorphic vessel (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.62:6–10, 13–15). Many other vessels appear to be represented here by single or few fragments, including many Phoenician Bichrome containers of various sorts. The cooking pots, cooking jugs, baking trays (one of them found in Oven 9658) and bread mold(?), as well as the bowls and kraters, all indicate a space used for food preparation. This conclusion is confirmed by the two ovens found against the western wall (Fig. 2.62). A small room or bin in the southwestern corner may indicate a storage role. In addition to the few jars judged to be primary (see above), 72 jar handles were found in this room. None can be securely demonstrated to be in primary deposition, but at least some of them must have been.

It is perhaps worth noting that whatever activities were conducted in this room, they apparently did not involve intensive use of flint tools. Only three flint tools were found (for two of them, see Chapter 24). Flint tools, however, were

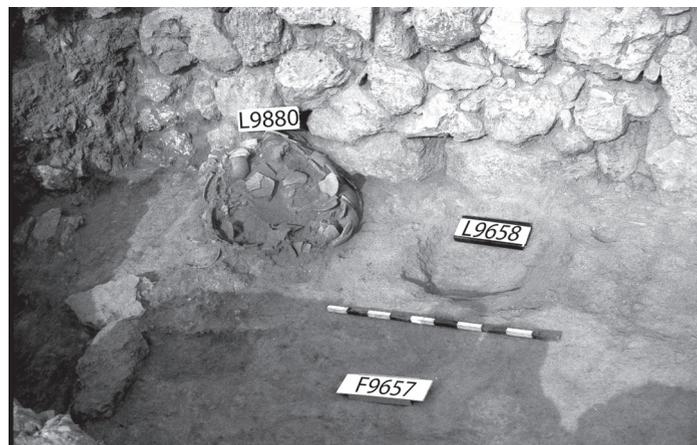


Fig. 2.62. Two ovens on F9657, looking west. Most of 9658 was excavated by the time 9880 was uncovered (= Fig. 7.13). (p08Z3-1061)

quite scarce in Phase 6 in general and flint was probably on the verge of extinction as an important domestic medium.

Other than pottery, Room 9657 was relatively poor in objects. Metal objects were scarce, including an unidentified object, possibly a base, of bronze and lead (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.6:12), a small bronze ball (in L18076), a bit of a bronze rod or pin and some other small unidentified bits of bronze. The few stone objects here include one near-complete basalt grinding slab and fragments of two more unidentified grinding tools.

Other objects are one stone spindle whorl (Chapter 26; Fig. 26.2:21), a perforated rounded stone weight(?) and a roughly rounded fired clay object, 1.5 cm in diameter and perforated longitudinally (both unpublished), a flat rounded ceramic button or weight (Reg. No. 182595; a conical faience seal (Chapter 25, No. 18), two bone and faience beads (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:22; Table 26.7:4) and one Egyptian Blue bead (Chapter 26, Table 26.6:3).

Room 9679 (Phase 6a)

This room (nicknamed “Sloan’s room”), with a semi-rounded shell installation or floor in its southeastern corner, produced the only primary assemblage in Phase 6a, buried under a mudbrick collapse. This assemblage also deserves special mention due to its possible cultic associations. Over the remains of the southern wall of the room was a *kurkar* ashlar with four projections (Fig. 2.63). Depending on which side the stone is placed, it either has the appearance of a four-horned altar or a stool. Nearly identical objects are known from ‘En Hazeva, found in an undoubtedly cultic context (late Iron Age; Cohen and Yisrael 1996: 48) and from the “treasury” of the Canaanite palace of Megiddo VIIA, 12th century BCE (Loud 1948: Fig. 78). No signs of burning were found on the stone, but its shape could also be interpreted as a support for some object placed upon it. Found just adjacent to it were two other *kurkar* ashlars (Fig. 2.63). Ashlars are nonexistent in Area G in the Iron Age, so these two stones may have a special significance, possibly *maššebot*.

Pottery and Other Finds in Room 9679

In the immediate vicinity of these stones were two arrowheads (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.4:1–2), a faience bead and a game piece

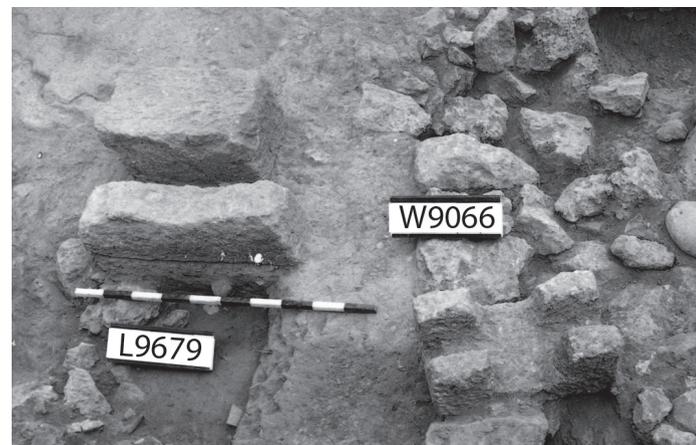


Fig. 2.63. Room 9679, with stone table and ashlar stones (*maššebot*?), looking east. (p05Z3-0709)

(Chapter 26, Table 26.7:4; Fig. 26.2:2), an Udjat eye (Table 26.18:10), an ivory button/pendant (Chapter 26, Figs. 26.3.16; 26.8.14), a bone spatula (Chapter 26, Table 26.13:2), a clay stopper and a rounded clay object, ca. 1.0 x 1.5 cm wide, 1.5 cm high, with two perforations on its upper(?) part (not published).

The ceramics here may corroborate the special significance of this room. Most unusual are the rare Phoenician Bichrome jar/large pyxis and one of the most delicate Cypriot bowls found at Dor (Chapter 20, Pls. 20.66:6, 20.67:18, Figs. 20.68, 20.70). The red-slipped jug (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.67:7, Fig. 20.20.69), a rare occurrence at Dor, and possibly the other fragmentary decorated and imported pottery, may also hint at such a significance. It seems that the unidentified small decorated fragments in Chapter 20, Pl. 20.67:16–17, surely belonging to some special vessels, belong to this assemblage as well. The room also contained more mundane pottery in primary deposition, such as storage jars (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.66:1–5), including an Egyptian one (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.65:19). Obviously primary material that could not be drawn includes a Phoenician Bichrome bowl, a cooking jug and at least one cooking pot.

In addition to the pottery, Room 9679 produced a relatively large assemblage of groundstone tools, of which three were complete—two basalt grinding slabs and a rounded basalt pounder(?). The rest were fragmentary, comprising (minimally) two more grinding slabs, a *kurkar* bowl or goblet, three basalt hand stones and one of *kurkar*, three basalt abraders/polishers and a few more unidentified fragments of basalt tools (to be published in a future volume). The complete vessels, the concentration of tools and the unusual *kurkar* bowl indicate that these vessels/tools indeed reflect on the activities in this “ceremonial” space. It should be kept in mind that in Phase 8, and, most probably, in Phase 7 as well, a cultic assemblage was found in Room 9903 of Phase 8 (= Room 9191 of Phase 7, just to the northeast). It is tempting to speculate if this section of the structure preserved a cultic role over the two centuries of the building’s use, but the data is not sufficient to determine this.

Other Phase 6 Finds

Other contexts of Phases 6b and 6a produced an Egyptian Blue bead (Chapter 26, Table 26.6:4); notably, there are no

glass beads. An ivory bead was uncovered in a locus whose attribution to Phase 6 is uncertain, and two metal objects—a bronze ring and a silver bead—could either belong to Phase 6 or to 7 (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.1:19–20). Other objects are an ivory plaque decorated with a rosette, probably an inlay (Chapter 26; Fig. 26.3:5), a worked astragalus, stone weights and spindle whorls (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:8–11, 17, 19) and two ivory spindle whorls (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.2:22, 24). Metal artifacts, all of bronze, comprised four arrowheads, a hook (Chapter 26, Figs. 26.4:1–3, 6; 26.6:2), an axehead (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.5:1) and a plaque (Chapter 26, Fig. 26.3:7).

The End of Phase 6

Because of the fragmentary preservation of Phase 6, it is impossible to characterize how it came to an end. Not enough *in situ* assemblages were found to suggest a simultaneous area-wide destruction, although this might be due to the poor state of its preservation.

A Lacuna?: Ir2b (ca. 800–720 BCE)

Phase 5 (see below) is datable, albeit on very scant evidence, to Ir2c, probably no earlier than the late 8th century BCE. In between Phases 6a and 5, we expected to encounter remains of the Ir2b settlement, which we know, mainly from Area B on the east of the tell, to have been a fortified town. This, however, did not turn out to be the case and not a single clear architectural element nor assemblage of finds was uncovered that could fill this gap. The length of this lacuna depends on one's stance in the ongoing debate regarding the absolute dates of the Iron Age in Israel. If one dates Ir2a Phase 6a to the 10th century BCE, as in the traditional chronology, there is quite a substantial gap until the late 8th century. If, as per the low chronology, Phase 6a is dated roughly to the first half or mid-9th century BCE, the gap is shorter. Although some pottery found in poorly stratified contexts may belong to such a horizon (Chapter 20), this is not certain.

Phase 5: Ir2c (ca. 720–640/625 BCE)

Wall fragments assigned to this phase (Plan 10) were found in AI/31 (W9636), AH/33 (W9675+W9702), AH/34 (W9885), and AK/32 (W9162). All that can be said is that these walls are often very close to those of Phase 6 and follow a similar alignment. This may be tentative evidence for architectural continuity until the end of the Iron Age. Some of the Phases 9–6 walls, such as W9266 and W9684, were preserved to the same height as the Phase 5 walls, perhaps indicating use into this very latest Iron Age phase. By the extremely scant pottery directly associated with these remains (Chapter 20, Pl. 20.72), one vessel being a near-complete Assyrian-type bowl and the other a large fragment of another Assyrian shape, it is plausible to date them to the late 8th/7th centuries BCE, a date which is corroborated by the pottery found in their vicinity, but not in clear stratigraphic association. On stratigraphic grounds, no other artifacts could be associated with this occupation, but by typological considerations, some may have been, such as the pottery fragments in Chapter 20, Pls. 20.73:19–28 (possibly

also 29–30); 20.74:5–6, 11–18; 20.78:1–2, 4–7, as well as the stone cosmetic bowl in Chapter 26, Fig. 26.3:18, and some beads.

These, then, are the only remains in Area G that can be linked to the days when Dor was an Assyrian administrative center. The fate of the area during the rise of the Babylonian empire remains unknown. Unfortunately, massive construction projects of Phases 3 and 1, with deep foundations, and especially the 20 Persian period pits of Phase 4, some more than 2 m deep, effaced virtually all late Iron Age remains from Area G. On present evidence, no pottery or other finds hint at occupation here during the 6th century BCE; only very few such artifacts have ever been found in other excavation areas at Dor.

Thus, only a few disconnected fragments of walls, patches of floor and sherds in mixed debris are all that remain of the Ir2b–c time stretch, a period of 300 years or more, depending on the chronology employed. Considering that approximately 3 m of debris make up the early Iron Age sequence (Ir1a *early* to Ir2a in Dor terminology), this lack of data for the later periods is puzzling indeed.

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