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Rethinking Tel Achziv: an Iron II Architectonic and Ceramic Sequence from Southern Phoenicia

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By assessing the archaeological corpus of Moshe Prausnitz's 1963 and 1964 excavations at Tel Achziv, the article reevaluates aspects of the chronology and nature of the Phoenician expansion to the area south of the Ladder of Tyre (*Rosh Haniqra*). The authors present the Iron IIC stratigraphical sequence of Area D, the main excavation, as well as an outline of a typological and quantitative study of its pottery. It is dominated by a building with long and narrow spaces which existed over three phases, from the late 8th to the 7th century BCE. An analysis of the changes in its architecture and pottery assemblage indicate that it began as a domestic unit in Phase 6 and was transformed into a non-domestic structure in Phases 5 and 4, with an emphasis on storage, very likely in relation to trade in the port of Achziv. Finally, a review of settlement patterns in the Western Galilee during the Iron IIC suggests that the enlargement of the settlement at Achziv at the end of the 8th century BCE, and the likely contemporary (re?)building of the fort at Kabri, are indications of a deliberate Phoenician involvement in the resettlement of Achziv, as well as its administration.

KEYWORDS Tel Achziv, Phoenicia, Iron II, Assyrian empire, City of Achziv

In search of the southern expansion of Phoenicia in the Iron II

The commercial and colonial activities of the Phoenicians in the central and western Mediterranean peaked in the 8th and 7th centuries BCE. During this time, Phoenician expansion to the west resulted in the foundation of emporia and colonies in Sicily and Sardinia, North Africa and Iberia, leading to the economic integration of eastern, central and western Mediterranean networks (Broodbank 2013: 524–530; Aubet 2001: 213, 236, 258). This expansion was by no means directed only westward. Literary sources

point to the expansion of Phoenicia south of its heartland into the Galilee during the Iron II. The biblical tradition of the presentation by King Solomon of 20 cities in the land of Kabul in the Galilee to King Hiram of Tyre (1 Kgs 9:11) may be interpreted in various ways (Aubert 2001: 77; Lehmann 2001: 92, 2008; Frankel *et al.* 2001: 148), and is unlikely to represent a 10th century political event, but rather to point to a later Iron Age reality in which considerable parts of the Western Galilee were controlled by the city-states of Phoenicia. More reliable historical sources point out that the coast of Western Galilee and the Akko Plain were firmly under the political control of either Tyre or Sidon by the 9th century BCE. Rainey and Notley (2006: 208) maintained that Mount Carmel was the 9th-century boundary between the Kingdom of Israel and Tyre and cite the 841 BCE campaign of Shalmaneser III where ‘the head of Baal’, *Ba‘li-rasi*, a headland on the sea, is mentioned. There the kings of Israel, Tyre and Sidon paid tribute to the Assyrian monarch, and a victory monument was erected.¹ Starting at the end of the 8th century, the city of Achzib, the focus of this article, begins to appear by name as specifically belonging to the Phoenicians. Achzib (called Akzibi) was one of the Phoenician cities that capitulated to Sennacherib during his 701 campaign (Lipiński 2004: 303; Rainey and Notley 2006: 240–241). It is mentioned in a list of fortified cities that belonged to Luli king of the Sidonians, who fled to Cyprus from the armies of Sennacherib; on the list it appears between Usu in the north and Akko in the south. It is likely that Luli was the king of Tyre, which was the capital city of Phoenicia at that time, and that he was referred to as ‘King of Sidon’, an indication that he was king of all ‘the Sidonians’, i.e., Phoenicians (Rainey and Notley 2006: 241). A further indication that at the time Achzib was not a city-state in its own right comes from its absence on the list of the kings of the Land of Amurru that gave tribute to Sennacherib in Akko (*ibid.*: 241). In the 7th century, probably in 675–674 BCE (Na’aman 1994: 5), the transfer of the area both north and south of Akko to the Phoenicians was strengthened by Esarhaddon in his treaty with Ba‘lu of Sidon, which gave them trading rights that may have already been theirs previously:

These are the ports of trade and the trade routes which Esarhaddon, king of Assyria, en[trusted] to his servant Baal: to Akko, Dor, to the entire district of the Philistines, and to all the cities within Assyrian territory on the seacoast, and to Gubla, the Lebanon, all the cities in the mountains. (*ibid.*: 3; see also Rainey 2001: 58; Na’aman 2009: 98–99)

The cities were soon taken from the hands of Ba‘lu of Sidon after the king was accused of collaboration with Egypt, and a new Assyrian province was founded instead in the area between the Litani River and the Carmel Mountain. A rebellion against Ashurbanipal in 644 resulted in severe punishment of the people of Akko and Usu, which included the killing of rebels and the deportation of the population (Na’aman 1994: 7–8).

The Western Galilee coast continued to be a part of Phoenicia well into the Persian period, as documented in the 4th-century Periplus of Pseudo-Scylax. Although its

¹ See, however, Lipiński 2004: 315, who regards this toponym as referring to the considerably less conspicuous Ladder of Tyre.

name is lost, a ‘city of the Tyrians’ is mentioned between Palaityros (Usu) and Akko, and plausibly restored as Achzib (Lipiński 2004: 300–304; Shipley 2011: 44, 78, 181–182). Exope (ancient Achshaph, identified at Tel Keisan or Tel Abu Hawam[?]), which is mentioned after Akko, is also designated as a ‘city of the Tyrians’, and the area of Tyrian control seems to extend as far as the Carmel Ridge, with Arados (‘Atlit) mentioned as belonging to the Sidonians (Lipiński 2004: 309, 317; Shipley 2011: 44). While the citing of Achzib in these sources indicates that it had a pivotal position in the south Phoenician settlement system, the lack of archaeological data from the site has not permitted its role in Phoenician expansionism to be understood. This article aims to reevaluate the chronology and nature of Phoenician expansion to the area south of the Ladder of Tyre (*Rosh Haniqra*) by assessing the massive unpublished archaeological data from Moshe Prausnitz’s 1963 and 1964 excavations at Tel Achziv.

The setting of Tel Achziv and previous exploration

Tel Achziv is located on the northern coast of Israel, about 15 km north of Akko and 25 km south of Tyre. The settlement was established on a natural *kurkar* (coastal sandstone) ridge. It is bordered on the north by the Mediterranean and Nahal Kziv and on the south by Nahal Sha‘al. The area of the tell is ca. 5.5–7 ha (Prausnitz 1975: 203–204; Frankel and Getzov 1997: 66*; the lower estimate is based on a recent GPS survey: Yasur-Landau, Cline and Pierce 2008: 63). This does not include the lagoon west of the mound, which may have been part of the settlement when sea levels were lower. It is possible that due to sea level changes, including an estimated rise of 1.5 m from the Middle Bronze Age until today (Sivan *et al.* 2001), the size of the tell was considerably larger than today in the Bronze and Iron Ages (Fig. 1). Indeed, a 2012 excavation by Davies and Yasur-Landau immediately to the south of the tell uncovered later Iron Age architecture cut by the current Nahal Sha‘al.

The site has been explored repeatedly over the last several decades. Immanuel Ben-Dor of the Mandatory Department of Antiquities in Palestine first excavated here from 1941 to 1944—at the ez-Zib (or Buqbaq) and er-Ras cemeteries to the south and east of the central mound respectively (Dayagi-Mendels 2002). Between 1957 and 1984, Moshe Prausnitz of the Israel Department of Antiquities conducted nine seasons of excavations (partly in conjunction with the University of Rome), exploring the tell and four cemeteries around it (Prausnitz 1993). More recently, Eilat Mazar worked in the eastern, southern and northern cemeteries (Mazar 2001, 2004, 2009–2010). In addition, various small salvage excavations have been carried out on and around the mound by the Israel Antiquities Authority. The results of the various field explorations have demonstrated that Tel Achziv was inhabited as early as the Middle Bronze Age, with continuous settlement through the Crusader period. The site particularly flourished in the Iron Age and in the Persian period, when it was an important Phoenician port. Although the site witnessed multiple excavations, most focused on the cemeteries *surrounding* the mound. Only two seasons of Prausnitz’s excavations (in 1963–1964) explored the tell itself, the site of the ancient city of Achzib. Unfortunately, Prausnitz’s results have never been fully published, and are only mentioned in passing in the *Encyclopedia of*

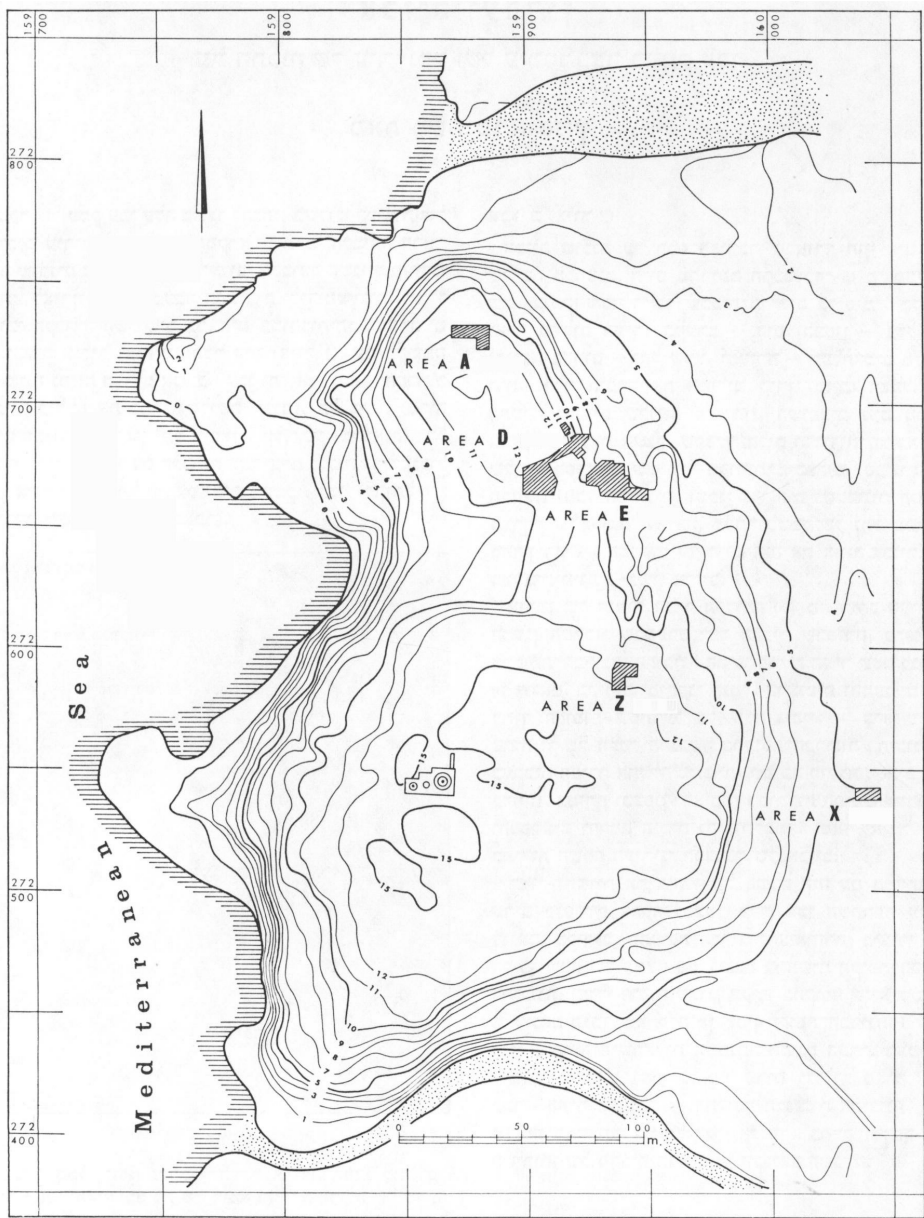


FIGURE 1 General plan of Tel Achziv showing location of the excavation areas.

Archaeological Excavations and in other preliminary or thematic publications (e.g., Prausnitz 1975, 1993, 1997).²

² This article presents a preliminary discussion of the current publication project. Aided by the Shelby White-Leon Levy publication grant, it aims to bring the results of these two seasons of excavation to light and thus contribute to our understanding of the history of Phoenicia in general and of Achzib in particular.

Prausnitz's excavations

Prausnitz's two seasons of excavation on the tell, in 1963 and 1964, were a joint project of the Israel Department of Antiquities (now the Israel Antiquities Authority) and a team from the University of Rome under the direction of Sabatino Moscati. In 1963, excavation areas were split between the ancient settlement and the eastern cemetery (er-Ras or Gesher ha-Ziv), while in 1964 attention concentrated entirely on the settlement. In all, four areas were excavated (Fig. 1). Much of the excavation concentrated on the northern part of the tell. Area Z, under the auspices of the University of Rome in 1964, was the only area opened on the central part of the tell, but even this area was in fact located on the slope. The remains unearthed dated mostly to the Hellenistic, medieval, and Ottoman periods; only a handful of loci from the Iron II were reached at the end of this season. Two soundings, Area A and Area X were located east of the main site as well as on the northern subsidiary tell. Both areas appear on Prausnitz's plan, but no finds or any excavation records could have been located.

The two main areas of excavation, D and E, were located on the northern subsidiary mound. These were excavated in both the 1963 and 1964 seasons, and were also the major areas of Iron Age remains from Prausnitz's excavations. Area E, supervised by Amihai Mazar in 1963, contained three cist tombs dating to the Iron IIA, and scant remains of two additional tombs that had been robbed and destroyed (Prausnitz 1997). These tombs were apparently dug into earlier remains from the Middle and Late Bronze Ages. A destruction layer covering the tombs was reported by Prausnitz, who attributed it to Sennacherib's conquest of the city.

Area D, supervised by Aharon Kempinski in 1963, was the largest excavation area on the tell. In 1964, it was divided into four sub-areas: D, D2, F, and C. Area C, the easternmost of these and separated from the others, contained a section in the Middle Bronze Age rampart (Oren 1975; Prausnitz 1975). The other sub-areas had formed a single unit in antiquity, but were divided by a modern wall (Figs. 2–3), running from Eli Avivi's *Aczivland* holiday resort compound through the middle of Area D.

In all, seven occupational strata were identified by Prausnitz in Area D. While our preliminary re-analysis of the stratigraphy and architecture has confirmed this general conclusion, we have re-designated these strata as local phases, and modified the attribution of specific walls and loci.

Pre-Phase 6 remains

Prausnitz labeled the earliest remains as both 'Stratum VII' and 'earlier than VI' on his plans, indicating that their attribution to a single layer was not very clear due to limited exposure. The largest exposure of pre-6 remains was in Squares C13 and A13. The remains in Square C13 were likely part of an open courtyard with two ovens. The remains in Square A13 included a possible oven or rounded bin and a stone installation to its south. The variety of pottery types within this assemblage probably attests to the domestic nature of Area D during this period. Since it is a sherd assemblage (Figs. 4.1–4.2), the latest items, dated to the Iron IIA, dictate the chronology of the entire



FIGURE 2 Southern part of Area D during the 1964 season, looking east.



FIGURE 3 Northern part of Area D during the 1964 season, looking east.

assemblage. Naturally, the size of the assemblage does not permit its assignment to one of the sub-phases of this period (Herzog and Singer-Avitz 2006; Gilboa, Sharon and Boaretto 2008).

The pottery of Pre-Phase 6

Almost half of the bowls from Pre-Phase 6 have a slight carination of the upper part of the wall and have hardly any rim treatment (Fig. 4.1: 1–3). Figure 4.1: 5 is a red and black decorated bowl of the Phoenician Bichrome group (Gilboa 2001: 367–388). All cooking-pots of this phase have a vertical rim, either triangular or pinched; while some are inverted, others are straight (Fig. 4.1: 8–9, respectively). The only cooking jug in this assemblage (Fig. 4.1: 10) is of the type with a high neck and an inverted rim. Figure 4.2: 1 is the upper part of a pilgrim flask of the Phoenician Bichrome group. Many flasks of this type were found in tombs at Tel Achziv (e.g., Mazar 2001: Fig. 16: 4–5; and a large concentration of flasks unearthed in three built tombs in Area E of Prausnitz's 1963 excavations, soon to be published by the authors). Figure 4.2: 2–5 represents the most frequent type of storage jar that appears in Pre-Phase 6. It has a short neck, simple rim and carinated or slightly carinated shoulder. It was the standard transport jar of the 11th–9th centuries BCE along the central and northern coasts of Israel.

Phase 6 (Fig. 5)

Phase 6 marks the construction of a major building that occupied almost the entire excavation area. It remained standing through Phase 4, suggesting a century or more of use—from its construction in the late 8th century BCE, to its abandonment in the late 7th or early 6th century BCE (the pottery is discussed below). In general, this and the next

FIGURE 4.1
The pottery of Pre-Phase 6

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Bowl	1964/F-2063/2	Tyre XIV-X (e.g. Bikai 1978: Pls. 26: 1–2; 33: 1–8; 37: 4–6, 8; 39: 17); Keisan 11-7 (e.g. Burdajewicz 1994: Pl. 25: 18; 29: 15; Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 52: 1–4; 66: 3–4); Late Iron I and Iron IIA Tel Dor (Gilboa 2001: 109–111, Types BL30–34)
2	Bowl	1964/DII-747/7	
3	Bowl	1964/DII-1007/3	
4	Bowl	1964/D-205/2	Dor Iron I/II (Gilboa 2001: Pl. 5.67: 32); Rosh Zayit II (Gal and Alexandre 2000: Fig. III.79: 3)
5	Bowl	1964/DII-1024/3	Dor, Iron I/II+Iron IIA (Gilboa 2001: 381–384, Bichrome painted bowls; Pl. 12.13: 10) and Rosh Zayit III–II (Gal and Alexandre 2000: 38, Bichrome painted bowls)
6	Krater	1964/DII-747/17	Dor, Late Iron IA–Iron IIA (Gilboa 2001: 115–117, Types KR20-21); Keisan 12-6 (e.g. Burdajewicz 1994: 41–42, Type BC I-II; Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 49: 5; 64: 6, 8)
7	Cooking-pot	1964/DII-1024/1	Rosh Zayit III–II (Gal and Alexandre 2000: Figs. III.1: 18, III.79: 20)
8	Cooking-pot	1964/DII-747/5	Megiddo VIIA–VA-IVB (Arie 2013: 690–691)
9	Cooking-pot	1964/DII-747/4	
10	Cooking jug	1964/D-205/1	Megiddo V (Arie 2013: 696, Type CJ31)
11	Baking tray	1964/F-2065/122	Tyre IX (Bikai 1978: Pl. 20: 18)
12	Jug (trefoil rim)	1964/F-2065/24	
13	Jug	1964/DII-725/12	
14	Jug	1964/F-2065/7	Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 57:7

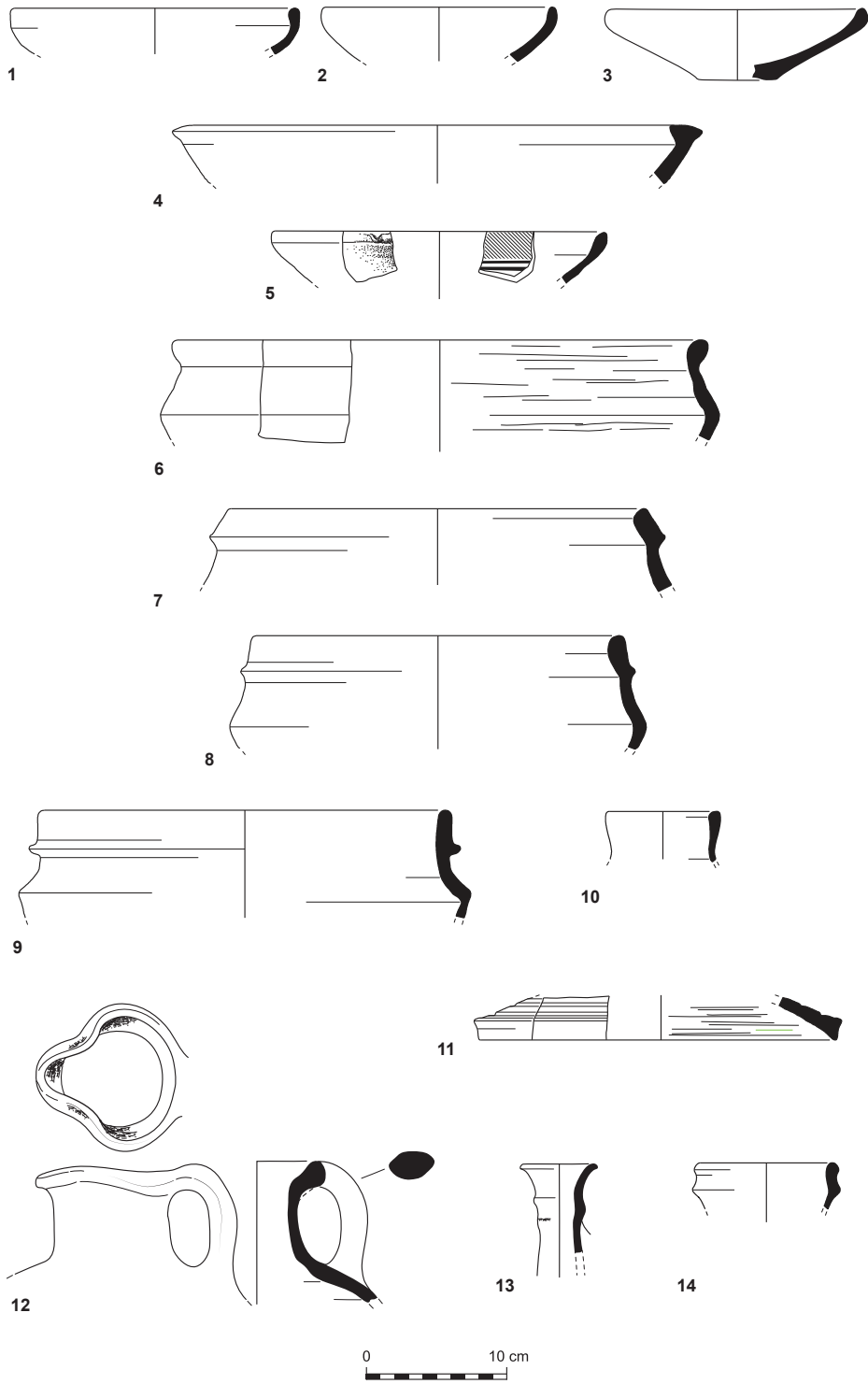


FIGURE 4.1 Pottery of Pre-Phase 6.

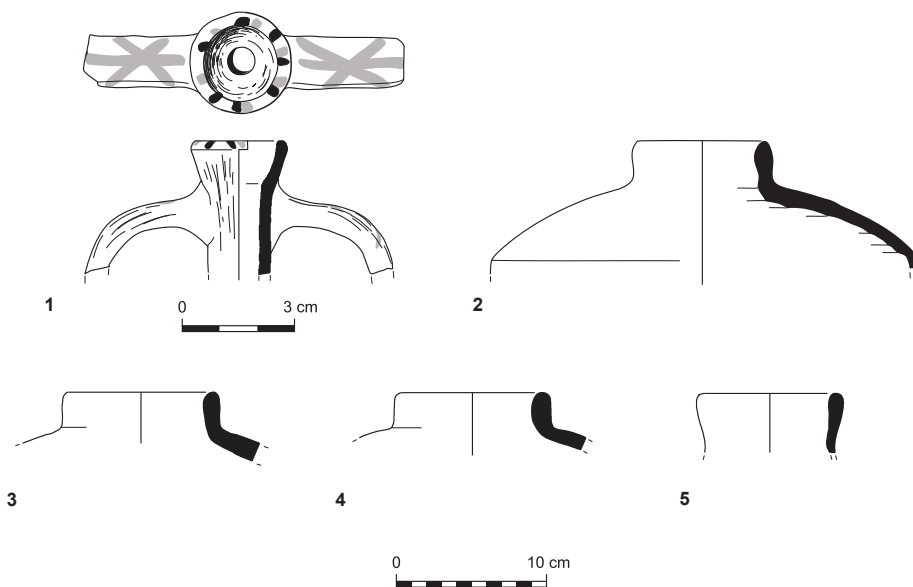


FIGURE 4.2 Pottery of Pre-Phase 6 (cont.).

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Flask	1964/F-2065/1	Mazar 2001: Fig. 16: 4–5; Gilboa <i>et al.</i> 2008: 153; Fig. 12:3
2	Storage jar	1964/DII-1013	Dor, Late Iron Ia–Iron IIA (Gilboa 2001: 122–124, Types SJ4–SJ6, SJ10), and Keisan 9 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 59–60)
3	Storage jar	1964/F-2063/5	
4	Storage jar	1964/DII-1017/1	
5	Storage jar	1964/F-2055/8	Dor Iron I/II–Iron IIA (Gilboa 2001: 124–125, Type SJ 12 and Pl. 5.74: 9); Rosh Zayit III–I (Gal and Alexandre 2000: 50–53, Types SJ III, V)

phase are characterized by the reuse of some walls from the previous phase (sometimes with modification), along with limited construction of new walls—mostly interior partition walls. Thus, the basic plan of the building remained in place throughout its history: a rectangular structure (its central section measures almost 10×10 m) divided into a small number of long, rectangular corridors, usually with a cross-room at the southern end. Unfortunately, the complete plan of the building remains somewhat unclear; a 2 m wide east to west zone was left unexcavated as a result of the aforementioned modern wall that runs through the center of the excavation area. The overall rectangular plan is already visible in the first phase of the structure.

The eastern wing of the building consists of Rooms R-D6-5 and R-D6-4. Along the eastern edge of the house (and south of the northeast extension) is Courtyard C-D6-3, which contains an oven. Traces of conflagration farther south, along Wall D9, may have resulted from ash deposits created by the use of the oven. The western wing can also be divided into several rooms. In the southern part of the western wing two narrow spaces or corridors were found. R-D6-1 was paved with large rectangular stones; a round installation was located in its southeastern corner; Room R-D6-2 had a beaten-earth floor. There is at

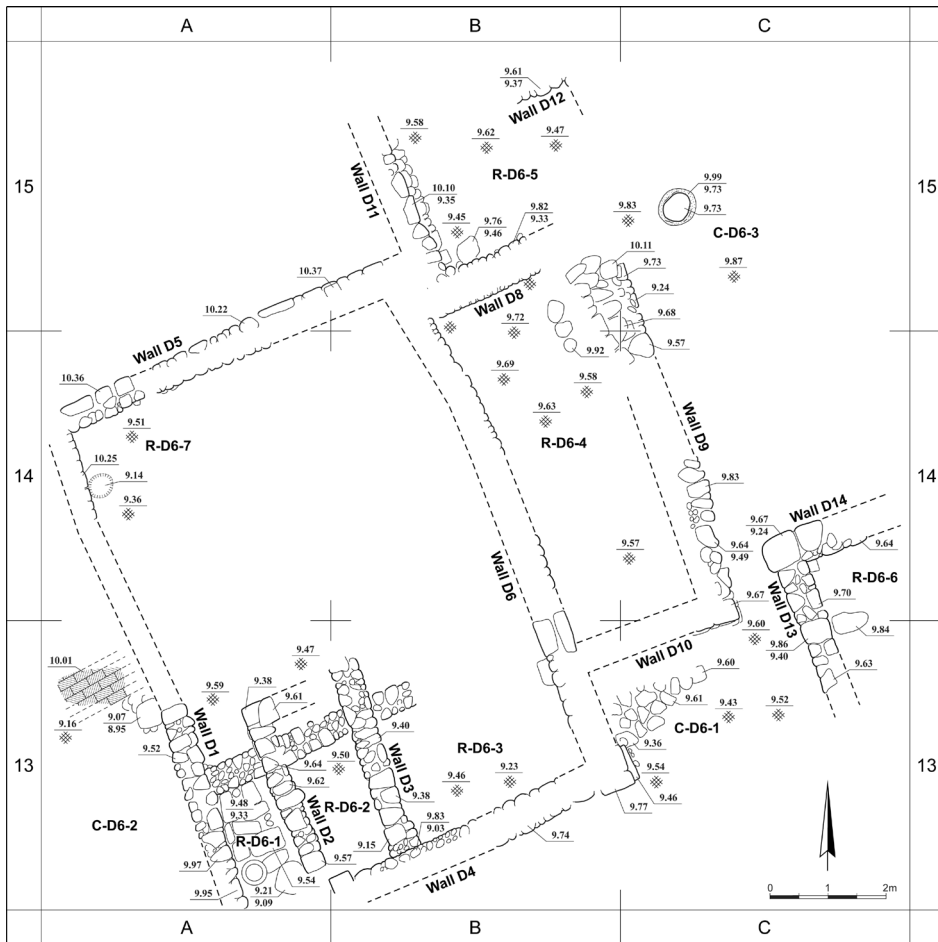


FIGURE 5 Plan of Phase 6.

least one additional room to the east (R-D6-3). To the west of the building, open Space C-D6-2, probably a courtyard, was revealed. The remains of an additional structure were also detected—a corner of a building in the southeastern part of the excavation, formed by Walls D13 and D14, enclosing Room R-D6-6. Between this building and the main house were the remains of part of a courtyard, C-D6-1, notable for a paving of rounded stones.

Phase 5 (Fig. 7)

The plan of the building in Phase 5 is much clearer, thanks to better preservation. The central part of the building is still missing due to the intrusion of the modern wall. The architecture of the building is noteworthy for its pier-and-rubble walls; the piers are made of ashlar blocks laid on their narrow and wide sides in alternating courses. This technique first appears in Phase 5, but becomes more widespread and uniform in Phase 4 (below). Three north–south walls divided the main part of the building into a series of four long, north–south rectangular rooms (R-D5-2, 3, 4 and 5). Room R-D5-4 is the best preserved; the northern end of the floor is especially well-kept. Sixteen complete

FIGURE 6
The pottery of Phase 6

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Bowl 1	1964/DII-717/5	Tyre I-II (Bikai 1978: Pls. I: 5; X: 24-25); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.76: 2, 13); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 29: 5, 10; 30: 6-7; 41: 11a); Dor A-9 and B-6 (Gilboa 1992: 26-27, Types BL9, BL11, BL13; Gilboa 1995: 3, Types BL11-BL12)
2	Bowl 4	1964/DII-1059/2	Tyre II-III (Bikai 1978: Pls. IX: 21; X: 32-33); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Figs. 5.77: 6; 5.85: 12-15); Keisan 4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 29: 8); Dor A-9, B-6 and C-2 (Gilboa 1992: 29-30, Types BL22, BL24; 1995: 4-5, Types BL 24, BL29-BL31)
3	Bowl 3	1964/DII-717/61	Tyre I-II (Bikai 1978: Pls. I: 12; X: 12-13); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Figs. 5.76: 18-20, 23, 25; 5.77: 1-3); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 30: 1-4; 41: 1-3b); Dor A-9, B-6 and B-5 (Gilboa 1992: 31-32, Types BL27-BL29, BL31-BL35, BL39-BL43; 1995: 4-6, Types BL25-BL27, BL39)
4	Bowl 6	1964/DII-692	Tyre I-III (Bikai 1978: Pls. 1: 7-11; 8A: 1-53; 9: 2-4, 11-18); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.76: 5-6); Keisan 5 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 38; 43: 13); Dor A-9 and B-6 (Gilboa 1992: 22-23, Type BL2; 1995: BL3-BL4, Fig. 1.3: 4-6)
5	Bowl 6	1964/DII-643/1	
6	Bowl 2 (base)	1964/DII-702/2	Tyre I-III (Bikai 1978: Pls. I: 1-2; XIA: 4-8, 12-16); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.76: 9, 12); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 29: 11; 40: 12a-12d); Dor A-9, B-6 and B-5 (Gilboa 1992: 51-59, Type BL55; Gilboa 1995: 7, Type BL47)
7	Bowl 7	1964/DII-643/2	Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.78: 6-8) and Tel Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 28: 12-12a; 33: 1-2; 45: 4-4a)
8	Krater varia	1964/F-2060/2+ 1964/DII-723/36	Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 42: 2-2b; 43: 4; Mazar 2004: Fig. 2: 1
9	Cooking-pot 1	1964/DII-692/1	Tyre II (Bikai 1978: Pl. XII: 30); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.84: 8-9); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 28: 6; 34: 5-6; 43: 6; 46: 4-4a); Dor A-9, B-6 and C-2 (Gilboa 1992: 84, Type CP8; 1995: Figs. 1.5: 10, 20; 1.9: 18)
10	Backing tray 1	1964/DII-717/6	Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.85: 11); Keisan 5 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 46: 8-8a)
11	Juglet 1	1964/DII-701	Tyre III (Bikai 1978: Pl. XII: 1-23); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.79: 5-7); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 33: 3-4; 43: 8-8a); Dor A-9 and B-6 (Gilboa 1992: 113, Type JT1; 1995: 13, Type JT 1a; Fig. 1.7: 6)
12	Juglet 1	1964/DII-1016/1; IAA 1964-1672	
13	Storage jar 1a	1964/D-162; IAA 1964-2273	Sarepta C1 (Anderson 1988: Pl. 38: 24), Tyre I-II (Bikai 1978: Pls. I: 14; IV: 1-2, 6); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.82: 8-10, 15[?]); and Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 25: 2-3; 26: 1-9; 27: 9-9b; 47: 4, 6); Shiqmona 9 (Elgavish 1994: Fig. 50: three jars from right), and Dor B-6 (Gilboa 1992: Pl. XI: 18)
14	Storage jar 1a	1964/F-2060/1	
15	Storage jar 2	1964/DII-702; IAA 1997-720	Shiqmona 9 (Elgavish 1994: Fig. 50: first from left)
16	Storage jar 5	1964/DII-692/3	Tyre II (Bikai 1978: Pls. II: 1-11; III: 4-8; IV: 3-5); Dor A-9, B-7 and B-5 (Gilboa 1992: 96-99, Type 12a; 1995: 11-12, Type SJ 16)
17	Amphora 1	1964/DII-692/2	Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Figs. 5.75; 5.84: 1-2); Keisan 4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 23-24); Dor A-9 (Gilboa 1995: 12, Type 21a); Shiqmona 8 (Elgavish 1994: Fig. 53) and at a small site near 'En Zippori (Oshri and Gal 2010: Fig. 6: 1, 5-8)

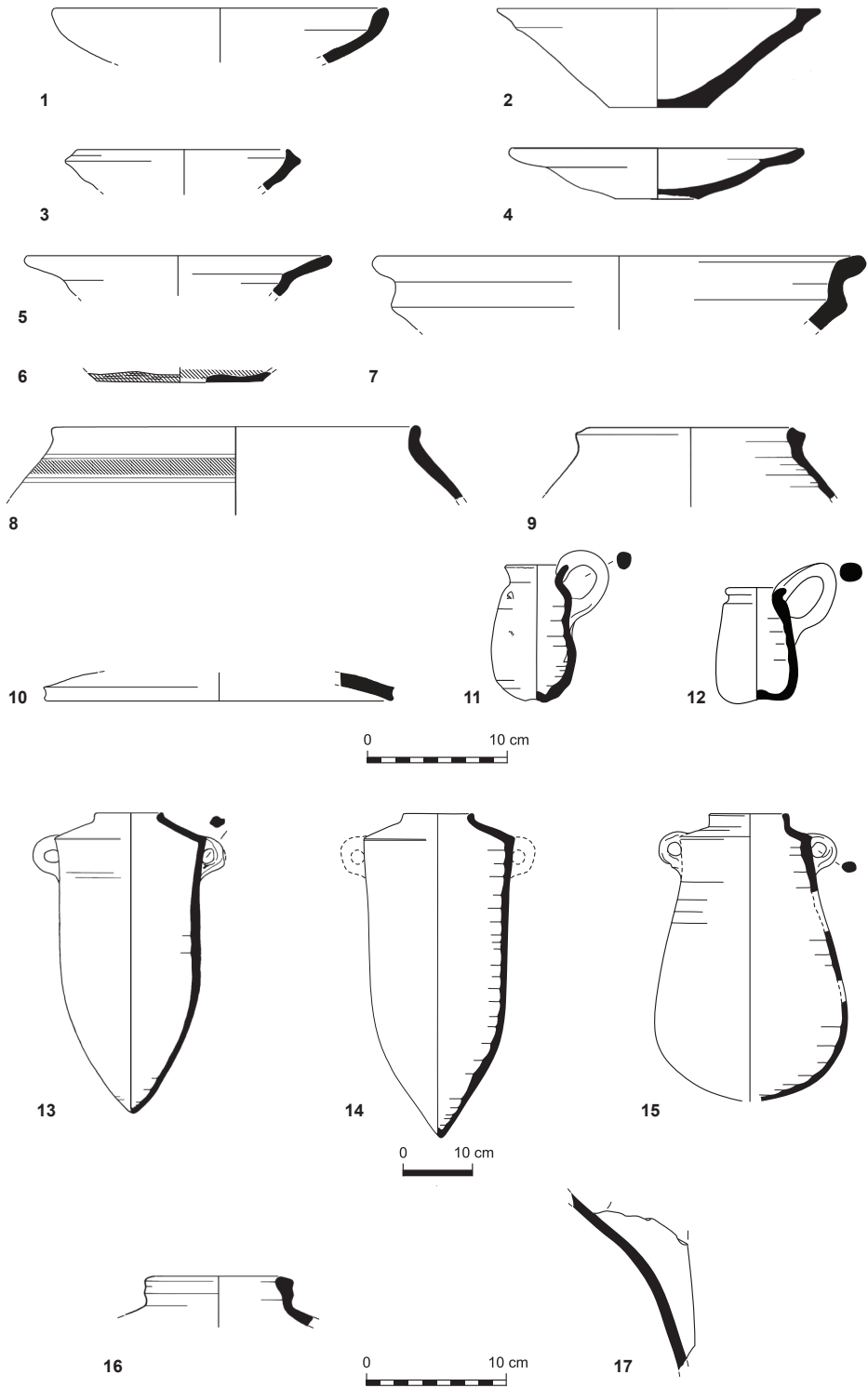


FIGURE 6 Phase 6 pottery.

piers made of ashlar blocks laid on their narrow and wide sides in alternating courses. The pier-and-rubble technique may have been a predominantly coastal phenomenon. There are good examples of this technique at Megiddo Strata VA–IVB and IVA (9th–8th centuries; Lamon and Shipton 1939: 11, Fig. 11, 12). Other parallels are known from the Phoenician coastal sites of Tyre (Stratum IX–VIII: mid-9th–mid 8th centuries; Bikai 1978: 10–11, Pls. LXIII, LXXXIX: 5–6) and Sarepta (‘primarily’ ca. 800–350; see Anderson 1975: 48, Fig. 7; 1988: 107–108, 423, Fig. 2, Pl. 9; Khalifeh 1988: 156). Also of note is an ashlar pier at the late Iron Age fort of nearby Tel Kabri, in Strata E3 and E2 (late 8th and 7th centuries; Lehmann 2002: 74, 80, Fig. 4.90).

As in Phase 5, it appears that the main portion of the building consisted of four long rectangular rooms, R-D4-1, 2, 3 and 6. In the west, Room R-D4-1 had floor elevations from 10.13 to 10.41, probably indicating a lengthy process of accumulation on living surfaces. To its east, Room R-D4-2 displayed a similar phenomenon, with floors in elevations ranging from 10.09 to 10.45. Another room, R-D4-3, possibly served as a long corridor that began at the southern entrance to the building. Signs of conflagration are attested in the northern part of Room R-D4-3, where a concentration of four complete storage jars was found. The eastern half of the building was divided into two rectangular rooms, R-D4-5 and R-D4-6. To the north, an additional room, R-D4-4, contained a concentration of complete storage jars. All five jars exposed on this floor are of the same bullet-shaped type (see below, Type SJ1; one is shown in Fig. 10.1: 12). It appears that in this phase there were three additional rooms extant to the north of the main wall (D26): R-D4-8, R-D4-9 and R-D4-10. Only the southern edges of these rooms were in the excavation area, so their complete plans cannot be determined. In this phase, as in Phase 5, the entrance seems to have been in the southeastern corner of the building. A small unit (R-D4-7) paved with stones, was located east of the entrance, which led to two external open spaces, also paved with stones.

The last use of the building was at the end of Phase 4. It is impossible to ascertain if the structure was destroyed or abandoned, yet the signs of conflagration in the northern part of Room R-D4-3 may support the latter scenario. After the end of Phase 4, some of the structure’s walls continued to be used in a limited manner, as indicated by a mixture of Persian and Hellenistic material found on Post-Phase 4 floors.

The pottery of Phases 6–4

We checked the description of every pottery basket in the field reports, and then gathered only the baskets with clear affiliations. All rims and decorated sherds from clean baskets were counted according to a comprehensive type-series that was constructed for Phases 6–4 at Tel Achziv. All diagnostic sherds appear in Tables 1–4.

Since only a few late Iron Age southern Phoenician settlements have been excavated and the results published, we know relatively little about their pottery; the Iron Age corpus from Tel Achziv thus adds greatly to our knowledge. The best parallels for the Tel Achziv 6–4 assemblages come from four sites in the region: Tyre III–I (Bikai 1978), Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002), Tel Keisan 5–4 (Salles 1980; Chambon 1980) and Tel Dor A-9, B-5, B-6 (with ‘the big pit’) and C-2 (Gilboa 1992, 1995).

Bowls and kraters

Bowls comprise up to 40%–60% of the pottery assemblages of Phases 6–4 and were the most frequent vessel at Tel Achziv during the late Iron Age. Many of the types are common throughout Israel: bowls with a simple rim and a slightly rounded carination of the upper wall (BL1; Fig. 6: 1; most of the exemplars are undecorated, though some are red slipped and burnished); fineware carinated bowls (BL2; sometimes still referred to as ‘Samaria bowls’; Fig. 6: 6); carinated bowls with a rim with a triangular section (BL3; Figs. 6: 3; 10.1: 1); and slightly carinated bowls with a flat ledge rim (BL4; Fig. 6: 2).

FIGURE 8.1
The pottery of Phase 5

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Bowl 4a	1964/DII-1003/25	Keisan 5 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 41: 6a–6c); Dor B-6 and C-2 (Gilboa 1992: 28–29, Types BL19–BL21; 1995: 5, Type BL34b)
2	Bowl 5	1964/DII-677/119	Tyre III (Bikai 1978: Pl. X: 29); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Figs. 5.76: 16–17, 21, 24); Keisan 5 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 39: 1–7; 40: 1–5); Dor A-9 (Gilboa 1995: 3, Type BL 5)
3	Bowl 6	1964/DII-647/3	See Fig. 6:4-5
4	Bowl 7	1964/D-231/37	See Fig. 6:7
5	Bowl 9	1964/DII-637/1	Horvat Rosh Zayit (Gal and Alexandre 2000: 191–192); Lehmann 1996: Types 159–163; Zukerman and Ben-Shlomo 2011: Table 1
6	Cooking-pot 6	1964/D-225/6	Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.85: 4), Ashkelon, 604 BCE destruction layer (Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 114, Fig. 7.56) and Tel Dan I (Y. Thareani, personal communication)
7	Cooking-pot 3	1964/F-2025/3	Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.85: 7); Keisan 4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 34: 2a)
8	Cooking-pot 5	1964/DII-635/6	Kabri E2 (Niemeier and Niemeier 2002: 238; Fig. 5.95: 10–14) and at least one complete example from Shiqmona (IAA 1981-320, to be published)
9	Jug 2	1964/F-2037/11	Tyre II–III (Bikai 1978: Pls. V: 18; VI: 6) and Dor C2-7 (Gilboa 1995: Fig. 1.9: 5[?])
10	Juglet 1	1964/DII-635/1; IAA 1964-2351	See Fig. 6:11-12
11	Juglet 2	1964/DII-636/31	Dayagi-Mendels 2002: 132; Fig. 5.11: 8–10
12	Bottle 1	1964/DII-612	Bikai 1978: Pl. VI: 2; Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 37: 13; Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.79: 3–5
13	Lamp 1	1964/DII-647/2	Tyre III (Bikai 1978: Pl. VII: 6); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.82: 1-4); Keisan 4-5 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 32: 8-9; 43: 12; 44: 5-8); Dor B-6 (Gilboa 1992: Pl. XIII: 23-24)
14	Storage jar 1a	1964/D-241; IAA 1964-2353	See Fig. 6:13-14
15	Storage jar 1b	1964/D-231/241/4	
16	Storage jar 2	1964/DII-605; IAA 1997-758	See Fig. 6:15

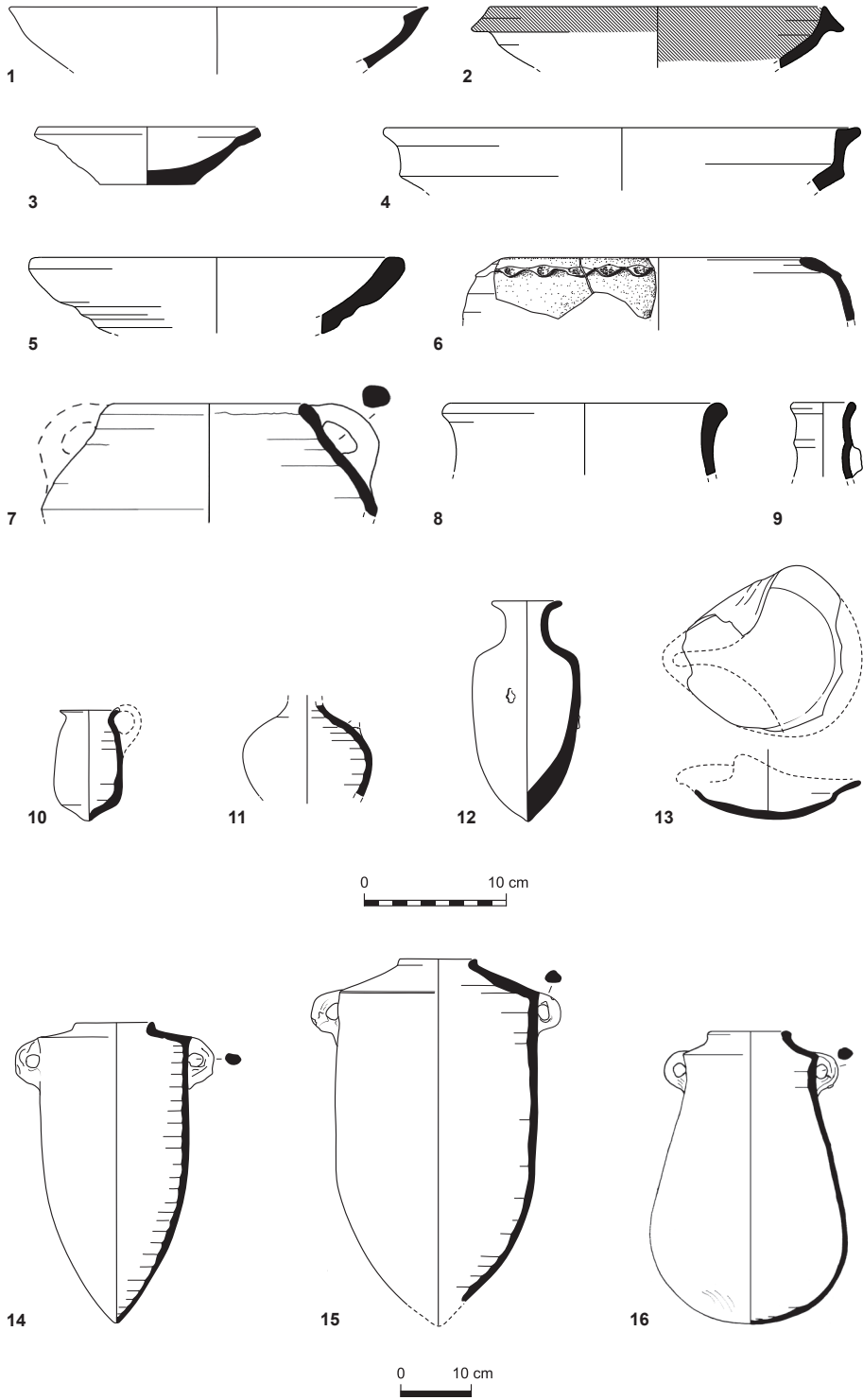


FIGURE 8.1 Phase 5 pottery.

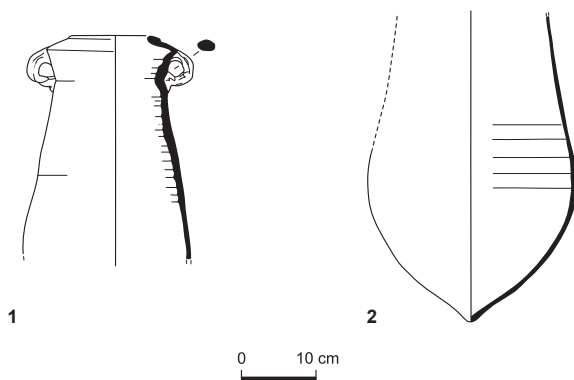


FIGURE 8.2 Phase 5 pottery (cont.).

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Storage jar 3	1964/D-231/68 +1964/D-241/22	Tyre I (Bikai 1978: Pl. 1: 15–16); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.82: 11–12); Keisan 5–4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 25: 4, 7–8; 27: 1–5c; 47: 1–2); Dor A-9, B-6 and B-5 (Gilboa 1992: 102–103, Type SJ16; 1995: SJ 19, Fig. 1.6: 19)
2	Storage jar 3	1964/D-241/40	

TABLE 1

Sherd and complete vessel counts of Tel Achziv Phases 6–4, by type*

Phase Type	6		5		4	
	n=	%	n=	%	n=	%
BL	111	62.6	145	50	77	41.1
KR	9	5.1	1	0.3	2	1.1
CH	4	2.3	1	0.3	1	0.5
CP	5	2.8	10	3.4	19	10.2
JG	12	6.8	15	5.1	8	4.3
BO			1	0.3		
JT	3	1.7	12	4.1	3	1.6
SJ	22	12.4	91	31.4	55	29.4
AM	1	0.6			5	2.7
P	1	0.6				
Varia	9	5.1	15	5.1	17	9.1
<i>Total</i>	<i>177</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>291</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>187</i>	<i>100</i>

* BL-Bowl; KR-Krater; CH-Chalice; CP-Cooking-pot; JG-Jug; BO-Bottle; JT-Juglet; SJ-Storage jar; AM-Amphoriskos; P-Pithos; LP-Lamp; ST-Stand; MI-miniature vessel.

Three bowl are Phoenician hallmarks types of the end of the Iron Age across the Mediterranean basin: carinated bowls with long overhanging rims (BL5; Figs. 8.1: 2; 10.1: 2); bowls with an inner carination and a long, oblique ledge-like rim (BL6; Figs. 6: 4–5; 8.1: 3; 10.1: 4); large, deep, carinated bowls with an everted rim and two loop handles extending from the rim to the carinated shoulder (BL7; Figs. 6: 7; 8.1: 4; 10.1: 4).

An additional important bowl type in these assemblages are the mortaria (Fig. 8.1: 5) (Zukerman and Ben-Shlomo 2011 with a thorough bibliography). Unfortunately, no bases of mortaria were kept from Phases 6–4 and we can only assume that these bowls had flat bases, similar to their complete counterparts from other sites (e.g., Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.78: 11–14).

Kraters (e.g., Fig. 6: 8) are almost non-existent in the pottery assemblages of Achzib 6–4. They were probably replaced by the large bowls of Type BL7.

Cooking-pots

The most frequent type of cooking-pot has an inverted, delicately stepped rim (CP1; Figs. 6: 9; 10.1: 7). It is probably a descendant of the most common type of pot in the Iron IIB with an inverted and a ridged or ‘modelled’ rim (only one cooking-pot sherd was found in Phase 6; it will be published in the final report). Two additional types of pots were probably developed from Type CP1: pots with rim with a triangular section (CP2; Fig. 10.1: 6) and pots with a rather flat rim in an inverted stance (CP3; Fig. 8.1:

FIGURE 10.1
The pottery of Phase 4

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Bowl 3	1963/D-414/26	See Fig. 6:3
2	Bowl 5	1964/D-194/46	See Fig. 8.1:2
3	Bowl 6	1964/D-194/48	See Fig. 6:4-5
4	Bowl 7	1964/F-2029/2	See Fig. 6:7
5	Bowl 8	1963/D-253/3	Tyre I–III (Bikai 1978: Pls. I: 4; X: 20–21), Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.77: 14) and Keisan 5–4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 28: 5; 41: 7)
6	Cooking-pot 2	1964/D-194/49	Tyre III (Bikai 1978: Pl. XII: 24, 32); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.84: 7); Keisan 5–4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 28: 4; 34: 2, 8; 35: 6; 46: 7); Dor A-9 and B-6 (Gilboa 1992: 87, Types CP16–CP17; 1995: Fig. 1.5: 17)
7	Cooking-pot 1	1964/DII-587/3	See Fig. 6:9
8	Cooking-pot 4	1964/D-194/8	Tyre II (Bikai 1978: Pl. XII: 33); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 34: 3, 46: 6), Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.85: 5), Dan I (Pakman 1992: Fig. 4: 8), and Hazor IV (Yadin <i>et al.</i> 1958: Pl. 58: 10)
9	Cooking-pot 5	1963/D-414/33	See Fig. 8.1:8
10	Jug 2	1964/D-150/1	Tyre I–II (Bikai 1978: Pls. I: 3; VI: 5); Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.79: 8–10); Keisan 5–4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 28: 8; 44: 3); and Dor A-9 (Gilboa 1995: 13, Type JG 5a)
11	Jug varia (base)	1963/D-240/2	
12	Storage jar 1a	1963/D-240/16; IAA 1963-902	See Fig. 6:13-14
13	Storage jar 1a	1963/D-409/1	
14	Storage jar 3 (rim)	1964/D-150/2	See Fig. 8.2:1-2
15	Storage jar 4	1963/D-409/8	Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 88–89

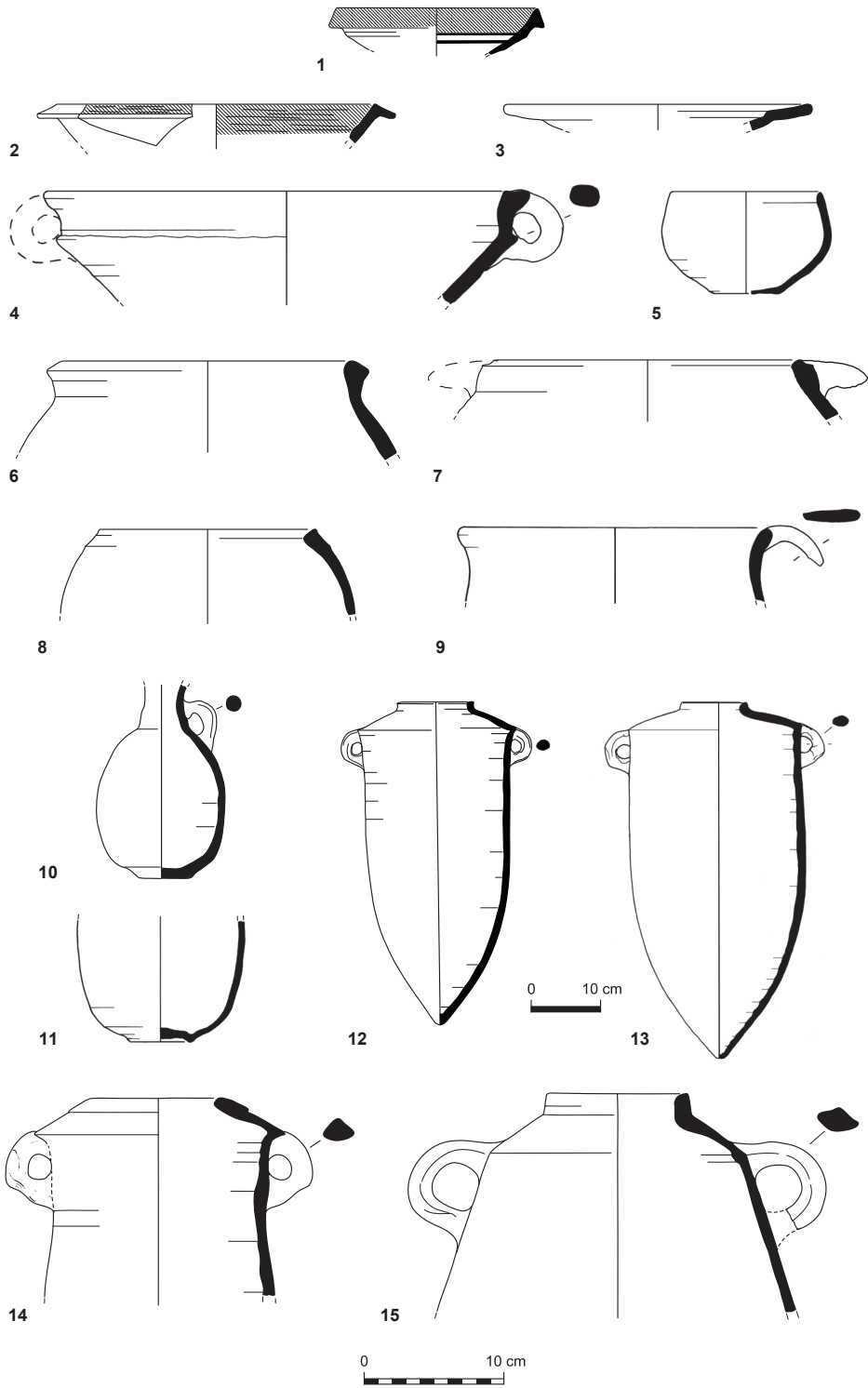


FIGURE 10.1 Phase 4 pottery.

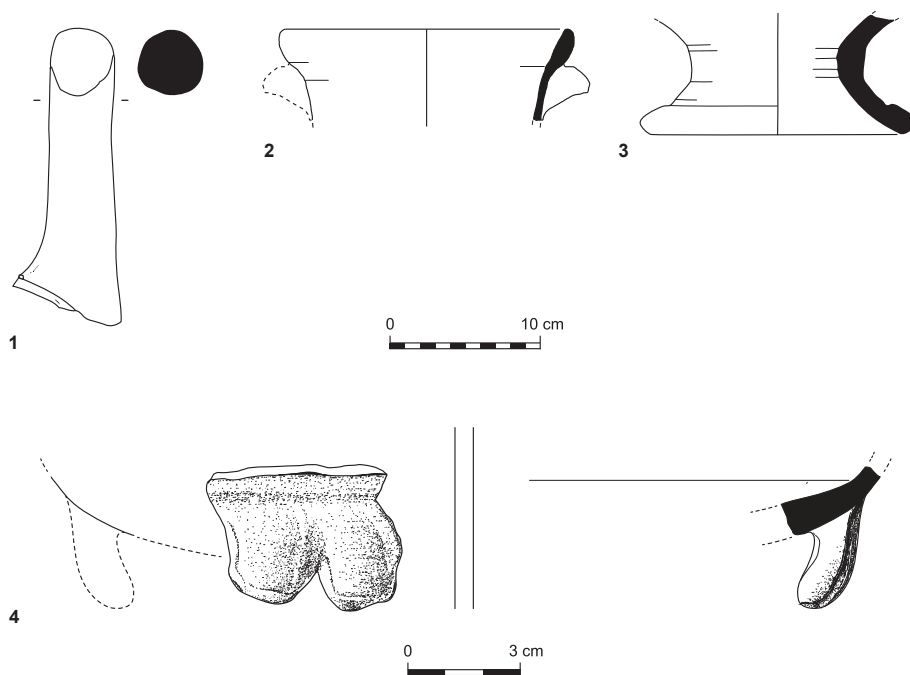


FIGURE 10.2 Phase 4 pottery (cont.).

No.	Type	Reg. No.	Parallels
1	Amphora 1	1963/D-409/39	See Fig. 6:1
2	Greek Amphora	1964/DII-690/1	
3	Stand 1	1963/D-253/1	Kabri E2 (Lehmann 2002: Fig. 5.81: 8); Keisan 5-4 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pls. 32: 7; 45: 7-12); Dor B-6 (Gilboa 1992: Pl. XIV: 6-8)
4	Cult stand	1964/DII-587/2	Keisan 7 (Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 51: 6-7)

7). Another type of cooking-pot (CP4, Fig. 10.1: 8) is characterized by a more closed form, giving it the appearance of a holemouth vessel. In contrast to all other cooking-pots from Tel Achziv 6–4, the handles of this type (when found complete, e.g., Briend and Humbert 1980: Pl. 34: 3) are not attached to the rim, but extend to the outer walls of the vessel.

The Type CP5 cooking-pots from Tel Achziv 6–4 are of the one-handed East Greek type with an everted and thickened rim (Figs. 8.1: 8; 10.1: 9). Only rim fragments were identified in Tel Achziv. The fabric of these cooking vessels can be distinguished by the large chunks of mica added to the clay (Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 292–306 with a comprehensive bibliography). Figure 8.1: 6 is a single example of a rare, handmade cooking-pot. Only three parallels for this pot have been found in Israel: at Kabri E2, the 604 BCE destruction layer at Ashkelon and Tel Dan I. The only close parallels outside Israel are specimens from northern Syria (Lehmann 1996: 451, Type 440).

Jugs, bottle and juglets

Jugs are very popular in the tombs at Tel Achziv but are quite rare in the settlement itself. It seems that the two jugs in Fig. 10.1: 10–11 belong to Amiran's 'Achziv group' (1969: 272–275). If so, there is good reason to believe that they had broad, mushroom-like rims.

Only one bottle was retrieved from the pottery assemblages of Phases 6–4 (Fig. 8.1: 12). Bottles are usually related to the Assyrianizing pottery (Gilboa 1996; Na'aman and Thareani-Sussely 2006). We have not been able to locate an exact parallel to the one found at Tel Achziv.

Since most of the juglets uncovered in Area D were dipper juglets, we believe that their use was related to the jars that were also found here in large numbers (see below). Only two types of juglets were observed: Type JT1 has a high handle and a simple everted rim (Figs. 6: 11–12; 8.1: 10). The fact that most juglets of this type were discovered in the northern Coastal Plain suggests that they were a local Phoenician product. Only two juglets of Type JT2 were found in Area D (Fig. 8.1: 11); both are very delicate and made of a fine, light fabric.

Jars

The most common jar type is a bullet-shaped carinated vessel (SJ1; Figs. 6: 13–14; 8.1: 14–15; 10.1: 12–13) with a short, simple rim, vertical body walls and a pointed base (Raban 1976: 51–55, 1980: 104–107; Zemer 1977: 18–21; Mazar and Panitz-Cohen 2001: 103). Provenance studies reveal its northern coastal origin (Aznar 2005: 160–161; Master 2001: 101; Yasur-Landau and Ben-Shlomo 2012: 23). Petrographic examinations, to be published in the final report by P. Waiman-Barak, reveal that SJ1 jars from Tel Achziv were primarily manufactured in the vicinity of the site, or in southern Lebanon (in the area of Tyre and Sidon). Outside of Phoenicia the geographic distribution of Type SJ1 jars is very broad: in northern Israel and Judah, but also in northern Syria (Lehmann 1996: Pls. 73–74: Types 388–392), Cyprus (Gjerstad 1948: Fig. XLIV: 10; Karageorghis 1974: Pl. CCXXV: 592, 933A, 813, 716, 812; Institut du Monde Arab 2007: 313: Cat no. 63), Egypt (Aston 1996: Figs. 60: 34; 240: 4; 1999: Pl. 72: 2045), Sicily (Albanese Procelli 2008: Fig. 4: 6), Carthage (Bechtold and Docter 2010: Fig. 5: 11) and the Iberian Peninsula (Neville 2007: Figs. 2.14a: I; 4.2: ii left). The vast distribution of this type of jar leaves no doubt that it was used as a trade container, and was well known throughout the Mediterranean basin as desired Phoenician merchandise. Secondary transport containers are jars (SJ3; Figs. 8.2: 1–2; 10.1: 14) with a sharp, neckless, carinated body with an infolded holemouth rim. One jar of this type from Tel Achziv was examined petrographically (Fig. 8.2: 1); it originated in the region of Tyre and Sidon (P. Waiman-Barak, personal communication). The distribution of this type too is broad and far from Phoenicia's borders—from Carthage to Nimrud (e.g., Lehmann 1996: 434, Type 384; Salamis Tomb 79 [Karageorghis 1974: Pl. CCXXV: 806, 807]). Sack-shaped storage jars (SJ2; Figs. 6: 15; 8.1: 16) have an inverted rim (flattened or rounded), short neck and a sharply carinated shoulder. It is probably a local product, as also evidenced from one petrographic examination (P. Waiman-Barak, personal communication). Another type of jar (SJ4, Fig. 10.1: 15) has an ovoid body with a short, simple rim, slightly carinated shoulder, large rounded base and jutting loop handles. Only three examples of this jar type

were found at Tel Achziv Phases 4–6. Storage jars of Type SJ4 are most common in Iron IIB–IIC strata at Philistia, and are also found in the Judahite Shephelah, in the Negev (see Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 88–89 for a complete bibliography), and in Egypt (Aston 1999: Pls. 73–74: 2049–2061). They were used in Philistia for long-distance trade (Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 88). However, Phoenicia was only a minor client of this product.

‘Torpedo’ jars with a long, nearly straight-side and a short neck that is often ridged (SJ5, Fig. 6: 16) are the most common commercial jars of northern Israel (and especially Phoenicia) during the Iron IIB (Ballard *et al.* 2002; Gilboa *et al.* 2004: 688–692; Aznar 2005: 58–68, 157–159, 206–209; Finkelstein *et al.* 2011). In Area D only one rim sherd of this type was found (Phase 6; Fig. 6: 16).

Secondary types and imports

Secondary types at Tel Achziv 6–4 include oil lamps (Fig. 8.1: 13; 3%–4% of these assemblages), baking trays (Fig. 6: 10; less than 1%), and stands (Fig. 10.2:3–4; only 1% of Phase 4 assemblage).

Basket-handled amphorae (AM1; Figs. 6: 17; 10.2: 1) have been discussed thoroughly over the years (Salles 1980: 136–141; Humbert 1991; Lehmann 1996: 443–444; Types 421a–421b; 2002: 198–199; Leidwanger 2007; Wolff 2009, 2011). It seems that they first appeared in the Levant during the 8th century BCE and became a widely known form in the Persian period. Both NAA (Gunneweg and Perlman 1991) and petrographic examinations (Master 2001: 117; Goren and Cohen-Weinberger 2002: Table 15.1: 43) found it difficult to determine whether they originated in Cyprus or northern Syria. Even so, as noted by Lehmann (2002: 199), since some of the incised or marked signs that were found on these amphorae are in Cypriot Iron Age writing, the Cypriot source should be favoured. In unclean contexts in Areas D and E at Tel Achziv ca. 60 broken handles of Type AM1 were uncovered, together with almost ten rim sherds. Five handle fragments and two rim sherds were associated with clean contexts.

The remains of only four additional Cypriot vessels were uncovered in clean contexts affiliated with Phases 6–4. They include a Black Slip juglet rim, a large Plain White pithos rim and two body sherds of White Painted and Bichrome closed vessels. Additionally, two sherds of Greek amphorae were uncovered in Phase 4.³ Noteworthy (though not drawn here) is a sherd of an ‘Ionian’ cup found in an unclean basket in Area D (cf. Dayagi-Mendels 2002: Fig. 4.14: 21). It contains many fine mica inclusions and small black grits. The colour of the paint is a lively orange. This vessel compares with Type 4 in the Ashkelon report (Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 181–204).

Chronology and function of the Area D structure

The Phases 6–4 pottery assemblage in Area D includes a medium-size collection of 50 complete vessels⁴ and ca. 600 sherds. Most of the complete vessels are storage jars that originated in Phase 5. The similarity of the general nature of these three assemblages

³ They will be fully dealt with by Gerald Finkielsztejn in the final report.

⁴ A complete vessel was defined in this research as a vessel with a complete profile or a vessel of which more than a half is preserved.

testifies to the proximity in time of their production. The parallels likely indicate that Phase 6 began at the end of the 8th century at the earliest, while Phases 5 and 4 belonged to the 7th to early 6th centuries BCE. Roughly, these are contemporary with Kabri fort Phase E2, Tel Keisan Strata V and IV and Tyre Stratum II.

Prausnitz (1993: 23) contended that the building was a public storehouse. He based his argument primarily on the discovery of storage jar deposits,⁵ and presumably also on the form of the building with its series of long, rectangular corridors. However, parallel long rooms are known from both domestic and public/storage structures in Phoenician or Levantine coastal architecture of the 7th century BCE. One example of a contemporary storehouse is Building 267 in late 7th century BCE Ashkelon (Stager, Master and Schloen 2011: 42–44). It was composed of three long, narrow rooms, 2.3, 2.6 and 2.8 m wide and at least 9.5 m long. According to its plan, it was interpreted as a warehouse. Little can be said about its construction and contents, as its walls were robbed in antiquity, leaving only a small area of undisturbed floor (*ibid.*: 731, Fig. 27.19). Another example of a contemporary storehouse is Building C at Toscanos in Spain, beginning in Phase IIIa/b and continuing into Phase IVe, dated to the 7th century BCE (Schubart 2002: 77; Niemeyer 2002). It contained three long, narrow halls that were probably subdivided into smaller rooms, at least in the southeastern part of the building (Schubart 2002: Fig. 6). The rooms were ca. 2.2, 2.9, and 2.2 m wide, northwest to northeast, and the length of the structure was at least 15 m. Ashlars were used in the outer corner of this structure (Schubart 2002: Anexo. 1), which was interpreted as a storehouse based on comparisons between its tripartite plan and Levantine warehouses of the Iron Age, including those in Hazor. In addition, most of the sherds found in it belonged to transport and storage containers (Aubet 2001: 319–320; Niemeyer 2002: 37). To Niemeyer it was part of a widespread Phoenician phenomenon, and ‘Building C... appears to be one of those storehouses that must have existed in every Phoenician settlement on the Mediterranean’ (*ibid.*: 37). Building C in Toscanos was compared to Building C8 found in Motya, which appears to have a section with three long, narrow rooms (Aubet 2001: 319; Niemeyer 2002: 37–38). This structure had at least two constructional phases: the earliest building was erected in Phase 9 (775–750 BCE), refurbished with new floors in Phase 8 (750–675 BCE) and reconstructed in Phase 7 (Motya V, 675–550 BCE) (Nigro 2013: 44–50). However, the current excavators maintain that it is domestic in nature (Nigro and Lisella 2004: 78–79: Fig. 2; Nigro 2013: 44).

The closest parallel to the Tel Achziv Area D, Phase V structure is Maison I in Stratum V at Tel Keisan (Chambon 1980: 159–162, Fig. 43; see, also, Braemer 1982: House 516), dated to 720–650 BCE according to the excavators (Salles 1980: 151; Chambon 1980: 177; but see, also, the later publication by Humbert [1981: 382–385], who erroneously claimed that Stratum V ended in 700 BCE). Its basic division is four long north–south units, two of which are further divided, creating a total of six distinct spaces. Its core, 10

⁵ Prausnitz also reports two inscribed storage jar sherds found in one room, but these were never located. We believe that Prausnitz referred to other inscriptions that were found in unsecure loci, and affiliated them with the building without solid evidence. It appears that the inscriptions are likely of the Persian period and have nothing to do with the Iron Age building.

× 10.8 m, is divided into five spaces: a long and narrow hall in the centre, with a north–south orientation, and two rooms or spaces on each of its sides. The two rooms on the west are stone paved. The southeastern space is a kitchen with a *tabun* (Chambon 1980: 159–161). Another long and narrow room to the east of the core of the two eastern rooms was interpreted to be an annex. To Chambon this is a version of a four-room house, yet it does not answer the basic criterion of this house-type—a broad room at the back of the structure, which is perpendicular to the three (sometimes subdivided) front rooms or spaces (Stager 1985: 17; Netzer 1992: 193; Faust 2006: 71–84; Harding 2010: 48–55). The similarity to the Tel Achziv structure is apparent in the overall division into four long units on a north–south axis. Additional similarities are the paving in the southern room, and the existence of an ‘annex’, a long room to the west of the structure’s core. The core of Maison I at Keisan is not a four-room house; it belongs to a group of courtyard buildings with rows of rooms on two sides (Netzer 1992: 200). This group includes structures found in the urban centres of the Kingdom of Israel: Structures 3100 and 3067 at Hazor Stratum Vb of the 8th century BCE (Yadin *et al.* 1960: Pl. CCIV) are clearly residential in nature, like the one at Keisan. However, Buildings 409, 424 and 406–408 in Samaria, and two units within Building 1482 at Megiddo Stratum IVb, are perhaps administrative in nature, and were suggested by Herzog to be ‘scribes’ chambers’ (1992: 229–230).

Further indications of the function of the structure at Tel Achziv are given by the finds it yielded, mainly the more complete assemblages of Phases 5 and 4. These are dominated by storage jars, which constitute more than 60% of the vessels. Juglets and bowls form the second and third largest categories, each comprising ca. 15% of the assemblage. These distributions are quite similar to the contemporaneous pottery assemblages of Tyre II and Keisan IV (see Table 5). All these strata reflect massive concentrations of goods in pottery containers, probably as part of large-scale trade systems. Even so, it is notable that in the complete sherd counts of Tel Achziv 6–4 (Tables 3–4), storage and transport containers are only the second most frequent group, while there are twice as many open vessels (almost all of which are bowls, see above). This situation finds good parallels in the assemblages of complete vessels retrieved from Kabri E2 and Keisan V (Table 5).

Conspicuously missing from the structure in Phases 5 and 4 is evidence of food preparation. There are no grinding stones or mortars and pestles, no *tabuns* or other cooking installations, and no complete or restorable cooking-pots. This is especially interesting as open courtyards were found to the east, south and west of the structures; while none yielded cooking installations attributed to Phases 5 to 4, *tabuns* were found there in Phase 6 and Pre-Phase 6. Indeed, the absence of evidence of food preparation, one of the basic activities in every Iron Age domestic unit, is intriguing (cf. Ebeling and Rowan 2004, 2008; Gadot and Yasur-Landau 2006: 587–588). In addition, there are no indications of textile production in the structure, in the form of loom weights, spindle whorls or spatulae. This absence cannot be coincidental, as domestic textile production is one of the most indicative archaeological markers of a household unit (Gadot and Yasur-Landau 2006: 590, 595). The absence of the two very basic domestic activities from the Tel Achziv structure is, to our mind, an indication that it was not a domestic structure. Singer-Avitz (2011: 289–290), analyzing Iron IIB Tel Beer-sheba, demonstrated that the three-room structures in the northern quarter of the site differed

from most other structures, as they lacked food preparation facilities as well as evidence of domestic textile production. She therefore concluded that these were not occupied by families, but rather by ‘functionaries, perhaps soldiers, whose needs were catered to by the authorities’ (*ibid.*: 290). The story of the Tel Achziv structure may indicate a transfer from domestic to non-domestic functions. Phase 6 is characterized by more vernacular architecture—with no use of ashlar on one hand, and with the existence of a *tabun* in the eastern courtyard on the other hand—features that are more indicative of a domestic structure. The structure was given a more official nature in Phases 5 and 4, with the gradual addition of ashlar masonry, while keeping the general outline of the Phase 6 architecture. This transformation is also reflected in the ceramic assemblage of these phases, dominated by storage jars. We would therefore suggest that although the building began its life as a domestic building, it was transformed into a non-domestic structure during Phases 5 and 4, with an emphasis on functions of storage, very likely in relation to trade in the port of Achziv.

TABLE 3
Complete Vessels from Tel Achziv Phases 6–4, by functional class

	Achziv 6		Achziv 5		Achziv 4	
Open vessels	3	33%	2	7%	2	14%
Small containers	2	22%	6	21%	2	14%
Storage and transport vessels	4	45%	18	65%	9	65%
Varia			2	7%	1	7%
<i>Total</i>	9	100%	28	100%	14	100%

TABLE 4
Complete count of the Tel Achziv assemblages, by functional class

Phase Type	6		5		4	
	n=	%	n=	%	n=	%
Open vessels	124	70.4	147	50.5	80	42.7
Cooking vessels	4	2.3	10	3.4	19	10.2
Small containers	15	8.5	28	9.6	11	5.9
Storage and transport vessels	24	13.7	91	31.4	60	32.1
Varia	9	5.1	15	5.1	17	9.1
<i>Total</i>	176	100	291	100	187	100

TABLE 5
Complete vessels from 7th century Kabri, Keisan and Tyre, by class

	Kabri E2		Keisan V		Keisan IV		Tyre II	
Open vessels	19	42%	31	48%	11	20%	5	19%
Cooking vessels	7	16%	2	3%	2	4%		
Small containers	5	12%	14	22%	5	9%	1	4%
Storage & transport vessels	9	21%	8	12%	36	63%	21	77%
Varia	4	9%	10	15%	2	4%		
<i>Total</i>	44	100%	65	100%	56	100%	27	100%

Conclusions: The city of Achziv and the southern expansion of Phoenicia in the Iron II

The evidence from Area D at Tel Achziv is to be added to other archaeological manifestations of the expansion of Phoenicia to the south. Surveys in the Western Galilee and the Akko Plain conducted by Frankel and Getzov (Frankel *et al.* 2001), as well as by Lehmann and Peilstöcker (Lehmann 2001; 2008: 45–50), have recorded a change in settlement patterns between Iron I and II. These surveys have shown a decrease in population in the western hills of the Galilee and an increase on the Coastal Plain. The small Iron I villages in the highlands were replaced by new villages on both the Coastal Plain and in the foothills of the Western Galilee. At the same time, larger settlements such as Tel Bira or Tel Avdon emerged during the Iron II, forming a more complete settlement hierarchy of villages, towns and the urban centre of Akko. Finally, a denser cluster of settlements was formed around Akko (Lehmann 2001: 87–92; Frankel *et al.* 2001: 106). In Lehmann's opinion (2001: 94), the changes in settlement pattern in the Akko Plain and its hinterlands were caused by a deliberate policy of the city-state of Tyre. On the one hand, intensified financing of agriculture was aimed at growing profitable products for export, and on the other, at investing the profits of the risky sea trade in what may have been perceived as more solid venues.

The few less valuable raw materials available to Tyre such as the sand in the bay of Akko was turn[ed?] into value-added products such as glass.... The wood required for building the ships was cut in the mountains of south Lebanon and western Galilee.... In agriculture the Tyrian wealth permitted the production of cash crops like wine and oil, and the maintenance of the necessary manpower. Again value-added production and expertise are part of the business. (Lehmann 2001: 94)

This explanation is supplemented by Aubet (2001: 76–78), who sees the Phoenician expansion to the south as a Tyrian effort to buffer problems of overpopulation and agricultural deficit via the procurement of agricultural land.

The Phoenician administration, associated with agricultural production in the Western Galilee and the Akko Plain, was accompanied by the construction of forts, examples of which can be seen in Horbat Rosh Zayit and Tel Kabri. The well-planned late Iron IIA fort at Horbat Rosh Zayit was no doubt an administrative centre overlooking the Akko Plain. Hundreds of storage jars found within the structure indicate its role as a clearing house for intensive agricultural activity in the vicinity, perhaps the eastern area of the Akko Plain and the hills immediately to its east. Rather than being an Israelite centre, its location on the boundary between Israel and Tyre may indicate that it was a Phoenician administrative centre (Gal and Alexandre 2000: 196–200). The radiocarbon dates from the site suggest a date within the 9th century (Sharon *et al.* 2005; Sharon 2007).

The large 60 × 90 m fort with casemate walls at Tel Kabri was constructed, according to the excavator, in the 8th century and was in use until the end of the 7th century (Lehmann 2002: 85–86). Lehmann (*ibid.*: 85) sees this fort as a place in which agricultural goods from the hill country were stored before being shipped to Akko and Achziv. However, its location on the perennial spring of 'Ein Giah, the largest spring in the Western Galilee,

may also suggest a possible connection to intensive, irrigated agriculture in the immediate vicinity of the site. The last phase of the fort is characterized by some East Greek pottery that may indicate the presence of Greek mercenaries either in the service of the kings of Tyre (Niemeier 2002) or in the service of Egypt (Fantalkin 2006). The construction date of this fort should be revisited according to a reevaluation of the pottery from its first phase, E3 (Lehmann 2001: Figs. 5.71–5.73). By using the loci list at the end of the publication, one can separate the material from the clean loci of Phase E3; all the pottery sherds of this phase from safe contexts can be easily dated to the Iron IIA (e.g., vertical rim stance cooking-pots [see above, Pre-Phase 6], Black on Red Cypriot imports and a painted jar with a good parallel at Rosh Zayit II [Gal and Alexandre 2000: Fig. III.74: 21]). Thus, it is possible that it was first constructed during the late Iron IIA, similar to the Rosh Zayit fort.

The Iron II settlement pattern in the ca. 10 km radius around Achzib points to a settlement hierarchy of at least three tiers. The site, with its overall area of at least 7 ha, and possibly up to 12 ha (including the lagoon and the coastal areas), seems to have been an urban centre in its own right during the Iron II. Architectural remains from this period were found in Prausnitz's excavations of Areas D (containing the structure discussed in this article) and E in the northeast of the mound. Recent excavations by Yasur-Landau and Davies at Nahal Sha'al, on the southern edge of the tell, suggest that Iron II structures continued further south than the current edge of the site. The cemeteries to the north of Nahal Kziv and to the south of Nahal Sha'al also provide evidence of the limits of urban habitation at the site. In contrast to the relatively good documentation for the Iron II habitation area, the extent of the Iron I settlement at the site is unknown, as no architectural remains have been assigned to this phase. A reexamination of the ceramic material from the built tombs in Area E assigned to the Iron IB (Prausnitz 1997) indicates that they may be assigned to the early Iron IIA. Hence, it is unlikely that Achzib was a centre of a small territory in the Iron I, as suggested by Lehmann (2001: 90). In fact, it was probably unsettled at that time.

The second tier in the Achzib settlement hierarchy is represented by two fortified sites in its vicinity. The smaller, to the southeast, is the ca. 0.6 ha fort on the upper mound at Tel Kabri, mentioned above (Lehmann 2001: 85). The larger site is the 1.4 ha fortified summit of Tel Avdon, known only from surveys (Frankel and Getzov 1997: site 2.142). The location of Tel Avdon above the perennial Nahal Kziv, on the boundary between the hilly areas and the rich alluvial lands, suggests that this site too had a connection with the collection and redistribution of agricultural products. Smaller, rural settlements include seven sites on both the Coastal Plain and the hills to the west, known only from surveys. These include a site east of Mizpe Hanita (Frankel and Getzov 1997: site 2.10), Kfar Rosh Haniqra (*ibid.*: site 2.16), H. Kenesiyya (*ibid.*: site 2.77), H. Hamsim (*ibid.*: site 2.134), a site south of Tel Avdon (*ibid.*: site 2.143), Abu edh-Dhahab (*ibid.*: site 2.159), and Tell el-Gheiyada (*ibid.*: site 2.194). Two additional find spots of Iron II pottery were in caves: Megharat el-Beiydha (*ibid.*: site 2.43) and Me'arot Adar (*ibid.*: site 2.64). It is likely that these survey data represent a settlement pattern dating to the Iron IIB and Iron IIC, as the ceramic forms used by Frankel and Getzov to identify Iron II habitation were those found in Hazor Strata VIII–VI (Frankel *et al.* 2001: 106).

The structure in Area D at Tel Achziv was built during the beginning of Iron IIC or at the end of the 8th century BCE. No evidence was found there for substantial Iron IIB habitation, and the site may have been reduced in size after the Iron IIA period. The enlargement of the settlement at Tel Achziv at the end of the 8th century BCE, and the likely contemporary (re?)building of the fort at Kabri, seemingly indicate a deliberate Phoenician involvement in the resettlement of the area, as well as in its administration. There are signs that Tyre was the source of both capital and manpower for this venture, as ritual practices that were prevalent at Tel Achziv seem to find their best parallels there. The publication of finds from the three Iron Age cemeteries at Tel Achziv (Mazar 2001, 2004, 2009–2010; Dayagi-Mendels 2002) has exposed the thoroughly Phoenician practices of the Iron II inhabitants. There are direct parallels at the Phoenician cemetery of Tyre in Al-Bass (Aubert 2004, 2010) of cremation burials in urns, grave stelae with Phoenician inscriptions, ceramic masks, model and figurine deposits in the tombs and everyday pottery accompanying the burials. In addition, the underwater site at Shave Zion, a reef 600 m off the coast and few kilometers south of Tel Achziv, yielded 7th century BCE storage jars (in addition to hundreds of Persian period figurines and possibly some earlier figurines, Yasur-Landau and Ben Shlomo 2012). This site may have been the favissa of a temple or some other ritual deposit of artefacts at sea rather than a shipwreck (Linder 1973; Raban and Kahanov 2007). As there is no late Iron Age site in the immediate vicinity of Shave Zion, it is likely that people from nearby Achziv were involved in this deposition. The placement may have been the result of a Tyrian practice, as very similar figurines, models and other objects were found in the sea near Tyre (Seco Alvarez and Nouredine 2010).

Tyre, merely 25 km north of Achziv, no doubt needed the agricultural resources of the northern Akko Valley, as well as the timber of the Galilee highlands, to facilitate its vast international trade and colonization activities. Indeed, by the end of the 8th century, Achziv is mentioned by Sennacherib as a fortified town belonging to Luli the king of Sidon. It seems that the Assyrians did not interfere with the Phoenician policy of strengthening the settlement of the Akko Valley. The rights of the Tyrian king in Akko were reassured by Esarhaddon, and the settlement at Achziv and the surrounding area seem to have flourished in the 7th century BCE. The destruction of Phase 5 within the 7th century is intriguing and could have hypothetically been connected to the punitive activities of Ashurbanipal against Usu and Akko in 641 BCE. The apparent collapse of the settlement system in the northern part of the Akko Plain in the 6th century, and the end of Tel Achziv Phase 4 may be connected to the campaign of Nebuchadnezzar against Tyre, perhaps in 572/1 (Rainey and Notley 2006: 268–269).

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