importation of Greek wine declines dramatically or ceases after the destruction of the Akra fortress in 141 B.C.E. (perhaps reflecting a rise in purity concerns among the Jewish population), the stamped handles from Kenyon’s excavations peak in the Ptolemaic period and decline already during the Seleucid period.

Prag deserves our thanks and congratulations for seeing through to completion this monumental undertaking. As difficult as it is to produce a final report on one’s own excavation, it is much harder to publish someone else’s project. The difficulties are compounded when several decades have passed and the records and finds have been scattered and in some cases lost. Prag never complains and does not dwell on the many obstacles she faced, but they are apparent when reading through the volume. Thanks to Prag’s efforts, this is a major contribution to our understanding of the history and archaeology of Jerusalem.

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Over the last few decades, one of the primary reference works for students and scholars of the archaeology of Israel, Jordan, the West Bank, Gaza Strip, Golan Heights,
and Sinai has been the Encyclopedia of Archaeological Excavations in the Holy Land (2 vols., Hebrew 1970; 4 vols., English 1975–1978), followed by The New Encyclopedia of Archaeological Excavations in the Holy Land (4 vols., 1993). Even with the advent of Google and other search engines, this is still the resource many use for basic excavation summaries and site bibliographic information. Given the pace of archaeological exploration in the southern Levant since the 1993 edition appeared, it was obvious that a new volume would be needed to keep the series current. Thanks to the foresight and planning of the editor and publishers, just such an update has appeared in a timely fashion.

The text contains 66 articles updating entries from the earlier volumes, and, as a sign of the work in the region, 78 articles on new excavations. Articles on individual sites range in length from a single page to 36 pages for Jerusalem and 28 pages for Beth Shean and Caesarea. The article on Jerusalem is so long that it is divided into three sections: Excavations within the Ancient City (22 subentries), The Necropolis of the Second Temple Period (7 subentries), and Excavations in the Vicinity of the Ancient City (8 subentries). Many major excavations begun in the 1980s or later had relatively brief entries in the 1993 edition. A number of these have been completed, or at least reached a more advanced stage of excavation. A few examples include Beth Shemesh, Beth Shean, Dor, Hazor, Jarmuth, and Mareshah. Some major new excavations began only after that edition had appeared and now receive attention. Examples include Masada, Megiddo, Nebi Samwil, Tel Zafit, and Tel Zayit.

All of the maritime excavations are found in a single article, as in the original volumes. Missing are the topical articles (for example “Churches” and “Synagogues”) and various regional articles, though the bibliographies for the older entries have been updated. The introduction mentions the growing importance of surveys to understanding regional issues, and so articles covering the many surveys conducted over the years would have been helpful. It is a pity that all of Jordan (63 site entries and various summary sections) was shoehorned into a single 50-page article (compare this to the 36-page article for Jerusalem alone). Also, unlike for the sites in Israel, the entries for Jordan are grouped by broad periodization (Early, Classical, Islamic), so, if a site was occupied in more than one of these periods, it has multiple entries. For example, there are three separate entries for Medeba (Madaba). Given the chronological table in the appendix listing periods within sites (see below), it probably would have been more helpful simply to have all the material for each site in a single entry. Sites in the Classical and Islamic sections are ordered alphabetically, while the Early section is curiously broken down alphabetically within four subsections: Northern, Central, and Southern Jordan; and Feinan Region.

The volume is lavishly illustrated, as befits a publication devoted to such a visually oriented subject. In the 532 pages devoted to articles, there are about 1,500+ crisp black-and-white photographs and plans. At the end of the volume, there are 32 color plates.

Besides both new and updated entries, the volume has many useful features. Maps inside the front and end covers show all the sites treated in the five-volume series. After the Editor’s Foreword, and an Introduction by N. A. Silberman, there is a User’s Guide explaining how to interpret some of the information, especially useful for the densely written bibliographies. Next follows a list of contributors, with the sites for which they were responsible, and their email addresses, where available. After this comes an alphabetical site list, with the names of the contributing authors. The introductory material is rounded off by lists of abbreviations used and a list of the color plates. There are also a number of useful appendices. First, for sites that do not have new entries, the bibliographies have been updated to 2005; 240 entries were updated in this way. The compiling of almost 350 site bibliographies is no small feat and is very helpful for directing readers to more in-depth studies. After the bibliographies, probably the most useful section is the table listing all of the sites in all five volumes and giving the grid coordinates for all the discussed sites in Israel according to the new and old grid systems, combined with a matrix showing which periods are represented at each site. Sites in Jordan are listed separately and have only the chronological data. This will be a feature especially useful to students and nonspecialists. One caveat here is that because of the size of Jerusalem, and the many excavation areas it contains, its article is arranged first by topographic location, and then by period within location. A table somewhere in the article providing a summary of the archaeological periods represented in each location would have been helpful. The appendices also include a set of chronological tables, a glossary of terms, an index to persons mentioned in the text, and an index of sites mentioned in the text. The chronological tables have been modestly updated. This is most apparent for the prehistory and Egyptian sections. Gone now are the separate high and low chronologies for the New Kingdom pharaohs in favor of a slightly revised low chronology. Given the current debate about the chronology of the Iron Age, a set of high and low dates for this period might have been in order.

In any such major undertaking involving scores of contributors (163), there are bound to be some lapses and omissions. For example, although the Caesarea article is 28 pages, there is little on the Promontory Palace, and nothing is provided by the team that excavated most of the structure. A small point is the mixing of metric and non-metric units of measure; some articles use, for example, acres for area measurements and meters for linear distances. Probably enforcing a use of the metric standard throughout would have been the better course.

It is to be hoped that this will not be the last update to this venerable series. However, as the academic world
moves more and more toward web-based publication, it would be well to keep in mind that such reference works as this encyclopedia are perfect candidates for such projects. Already some of the entries are out of date. For example, Netzer’s discovery of King Herod’s tomb at Herodium occurred after the volume had gone to press. Other examples are the Tel Rehov apiary and the Tel Zayit abecedary (though the latter is mentioned in the introduction!). Ideally all the entries from the original volumes and this supplement should be integrated and placed online, with links to useful internal tables and a search engine. Once this effort has been completed, the primary duty of the new editor(s) would be to solicit future updates and contributions for new excavations and to maintain site bibliographies (hopefully with the help of those engaged in research on those sites). In the long term, this has the potential of keeping the entries current because excavators and other researchers could update the entries whenever new information became available, a form of Wikipedia. This is definitely a project that the Israel Antiquities Authority, the Department of Antiquities of Jordan, and Israel Exploration Society should spearhead with support from the various archaeological departments and programs in the region, and the rest of the world.

Despite the above caveats and recommendations, this volume is a wonderful resource, well produced and illustrated. We owe the editor, Ephraim Stern, our gratitude for once again shepherding such a useful tool through to its publication.

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A recent visit to The Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago reaffirmed the notion that some, if not most, museums bear witness to the unbridled acquisition of artifacts in the name of science during the early 20th century. James Henry Breasted, once director of the OI, obtained parts of the collection through scientific excavation, although sometimes, according to James Goode in Negotiating for the Past. Archaeology, Nationalism and Diplomacy in the Middle East, 1919–1941, acquisitions were somewhat suspect. “After WWI nationals in one country after another took action to limit what they considered to be the ‘theft’ of their heritage by foreign archaeologists” (p. 127) as the rising tide of nationalism inspired new leaders to put an end to the emptying of archaeological sites of their artifacts and monuments. Goode presents a succinct, thoroughly documented historical study, which offers insights into the role played by archaeology, archaeologists, and diplomacy in the rise of nationalism in Egypt, Iran, Iraq, and Turkey in the period between 1919 and 1941.

Archaeology’s relationship with nationalism is nothing new. They have been intertwined since nation-states were conceived in the aftermath of the French Revolution, and it could even be argued that nationalism was a key factor in the emergence of archaeology as a scientific discipline. When a nation is established, it requires a past, and what better way to uncover that past than through the practice of archaeology? Archaeology’s unique appeal is that it offers to fill the voids in historical records all the while creating tangible links to the past. While it grew out of antiquarianism, dilettante dabbling, and religious pilgrimage, archaeology played an increasingly important role in illuminating the historical underpinnings of newly forming states.

Archaeology often plays a crucial role in modern state identity formation, telling us who we are and where we come from. Community identity is reinforced and constructed through understandings of the landscape, the built environment, and the archaeological record. Goode’s detailed analysis demonstrates that Middle Eastern nations in the early part of the 20th century began to recognize the importance of their collective past and their cultural remains. Goode articulates how in the name of nation-building locals wanted to take charge of the interpretation and disposition of the material legacy of their nations. Initially the results of foreign archaeological projects were used to bolster indigenous land claims and establish a tangible connection to a long-distant past. Later, indigenous archaeologists deployed archaeology to counter imperial overtures by fostering national ownership claims and the rights of nation-states to “own” the antiquities found within their modern borders. Nascent states turned to their cultural heritage to create national narratives that brought the disparate constituencies closer together. “Whoever controlled history controlled the nation’s memory” (p. 12), according to Goode, who asserts that archaeology played a decisive role in linking the past to the present, providing a common history to the newly formed or reinvigorated states. The political and social life of a nation is inseparable from its archaeology, although many of the foreign archaeologists paid little or no attention to what their discoveries meant for the local citizenry.

Goode recounts that many local people in Iran, Iraq, Egypt, and Turkey felt that the cultural remains were “treasures left by ancestors to grandsons as symbols of their great civilizations” (p. 201), setting the stage for the establishment of national ownership laws that vested the state with ownership of all cultural material. Discontented with the legacy of the Ottoman Empire’s system of partage—the splitting of the excavation finds between the state and the often foreign archaeological project—these budding nations sought greater control over the disposition of the artifacts,