Tombs, Tells & Temples: Excavating the Near East
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Cover image: Human and animal skeletal remains, Middle Bronze Age (1900-1500BC), from Tomb B35, Jericho. Acquired from the Jericho excavations through the British School of Archaeology in Jerusalem between 1952 and 1980. NM2008.158.

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INTRODUCTION

The development of a new permanent exhibition on the Near East presented an exciting opportunity to investigate the holdings from this region in the Nicholson Museum collection. Initial investigation revealed held material from a number of significant sites that were important for their contribution to the understanding of the cultures that inhabited and shaped the region in the ancient world. The sites chosen for research and exhibition were Jericho, Tell Brak, Nineveh, Nimrud, Ur, Tell el-Ajjul, Harappa and Pella.

Many of these sites were important to the development of archaeology as a discipline; a number of famous and pioneering archaeologists had directed these projects. Their stories, biographies, contributions to archaeology and to public and political life are also told. Those individuals in the exhibition are Dame Kathleen Kenyon, Sir Charles Leonard Woolley, Flinders Petrie, Sir Max Mallowan and his wife and assistant Dame Agatha Christie, Sir Flinders Petrie, Sir Austen Henry Layard, Sir Mortimer Wheeler and Basil Hennessy AO.

The interaction of the University of Sydney and the Nicholson Museum with these projects was also researched. In many cases, the University sponsored the excavations providing financial support in exchange for a portion of the finds. In this way, the collection of the Near East within the Museum is closely tied to scientific excavation, differing greatly from other areas of the collection, particularly material from Greece, Italy and Egypt, which have largely been acquired on the art market. One of the sites presented, Pella, has been a University of Sydney excavation, ongoing for more than 3 decades, further underscores the importance of the University in the archaeological investigations of the region.

Some material had not been on display in the museum for many years, and some not at all. Even key pieces that were regularly displayed can now be viewed in a new light – linked to the archaeological context and alongside other material from the same excavation. The contrasts between materials from different settlements and different eras are also made apparent.

By examining the material from the Near East in the context of the archaeological excavations the significance of the artefacts has been highlighted, along with of the ancient cultures, those that re-discovered them and the role of the University of Sydney..

Dr Elizabeth Bollen, Assistant Curator, Nicholson Museum
OVERVIEW

The cities and civilisations of the Ancient Near East flourished on the Levantine Coast (modern day Syria, Lebanon, Israel, Palestine and Jordan); in Anatolia (modern day Turkey); along the great river systems of Mesopotamia (modern day Iran and Iraq), and as far as India and Pakistan. This region was not united in antiquity – different cultures, languages, religions and artistic traditions existed, empires rose to power and were conquered, and migrants and the displaced clashed or intermingled with resident populations.

Although much of this area is sandy desert, the large rivers, their annual flooding and the presence of perennial springs and surrounding oases made for fertile zones. This encouraged the early development of a more sedentary existence, the domestication of animals and purposeful plantings of crops leading to the first agricultural economies and urban settlements.

The large rivers facilitated communication and trade across the regions which were augmented by both maritime and overland trade. The settlements of the Near East were interconnected; they had close ties with Egypt and traded into the Mediterranean. Those in charge were able to display their power and prestige through the accumulation and use of beautiful objects often imported from far afield. The rise of empires and their control of wider geographic regions encouraged the display of this wealth and power on a monumental scale, using a subservient workforce and highly skilled craftsmen.
The longevity of many of the settlement sites is remarkable and characteristic of the region. Building and rebuilding of the same town or city created mounds, or ‘tells’, that rise 25m or more above the surrounding plain. It was these large mounds that attracted the attention of the 19th century travellers and archaeologists, who initiated excavations across the region, and encouraged continued exploration through the 20th century.

The colossal and exotic materials that were found – the magnificent alabaster carvings from the Nimrud and Nineveh palaces, the beautiful and varied gold items from the Royal Tombs at Ur – captured the imagination of the British and European population, not least because so much of the material was shipped back to be displayed in the British Museum, the Louvre, and the Berlin Museum amongst others. Many of the cities were known from biblical texts and this increased the interest amongst Christian Europeans. The discoveries from the excavations were regularly reported in newspapers, the directors of excavations became household names, and their publications were best sellers.

The Nicholson Museum’s staff and students of the early to mid-20th century shared in this wonder. Our archives include letters to museums around the world requesting representative samples of materials from the excavations to add to our collection. Other pieces represent welcome donations from individuals, often associated with the excavations. The University of Sydney also contributed financially to overseas excavations with the quid pro quo benefit of receiving a consignment of objects at the end of each season.
NIMRUD

I think of it in the winter as a lofty island in a sea of mud; in the spring as a meadow gleaming in the sun; in the early summer as a torrid watch tower, remote and proud, in a pitiless solitude.
MAX MALLOWAN

The mound of Nimrud lies 35 miles south of ancient Nineveh (and modern Mosul) on the bank of the Tigris, near its confluence with the tributary river, the Great Zab. Nimrud is the Biblical city of Calah (or Kalhu), founded by Nimrud, the mighty hunter and grandson of Noah. Ashurnasirpal II (883–859 BC) made the city the capital of the Neo Assyrian Empire. After the capital was moved (first to Khorsabad and then to Nineveh), Nimrud remained an important administrative centre.

The site attracted the attention of Sir Austen Henry Layard who excavated from 1845–51. He located the north-west Palace, the royal residence of Ashurnasirpal II. The Palace was lavishly decorated with alabaster reliefs: mythical creatures, winged genies, the great Assyrian army conquering its enemies and the King in the midst of a lion hunt. Layard’s express purpose to get “the largest possible number of well-preserved objects of art at the least possible outlay of time and money” led him to tunnel along walls and remove the reliefs for shipping back to the British Museum.

In 1949–63 Max Mallowan returned to the site with different aims: firstly to find more of the ivories, already characteristic of the site and secondly to find the unbaked clay cuneiform tablets that had not been identified or collected by Layard.

The beautiful ivories in the Nicholson Museum (cat. 1-11) were found in the large complex known as Fort Shalmaneser, the arsenal of Nimrud which housed ‘the preparation of the camp (equipment), the mustering of the stallions, chariots, harness, equipment of war and the spoil of the foe of every kind ...’ (as described in an inscription found at Nineveh (Oates, 2001, p. 144)). In addition to the workshops, storage magazines (for horse trappings, armour and weapons) there were also the residential rooms of the senior official, the state apartments for the King, a quarter for the Queen’s residence and large open parade grounds.

Thousands of ivories were found. Many of the ivories had originally decorated wooden furniture, including thrones, tables and boxes, the wood of which had long since disintegrated. Originally the majority of ivories were overlaid in gold, which was probably removed by the plunderers during the destruction of the site, 614–612 BC. There are many different styles of carving represented: Assyrian, Syrian, Phoenician and Egyptian. While some had been brought back to Nimrud as tribute or booty,
other ivories were produced in the city by craftsmen who had themselves been brought from across the Empire.

Mallowan also found many cuneiform texts. A kiln was built beside the excavations so that the unbaked clay tablets could be fired and made more durable, before handling and research. The inscriptions revealed much about the uses of the rooms excavated and greatly enriched the interpretation of the site.

**Dame Agatha Christie**

Agatha Christie, British crime writer and wife of archaeologist Max Mallowan, not only accompanied him on his excavations but was very much part of the team. Her travels and experiences influenced much of her literature, including the novels *Murder in Mesopotamia* and *Death on the Nile*. Mallowan dedicated the publication of his excavations at Nimrud to his wife ‘who shared in the joys and trials of excavating Nimrud and lightened our labours through her imagination, her skill and her kindness’. (Mallowan 1966, p.3)

Christie photographed, documented and cleaned the Nimrud ivories. In her autobiography, she describes her methods: ‘I had my own favourite tools ... an orange stick, possibly a very fine knitting needle ... and a jar of cosmetic face cream, which I found more useful than anything else for gently coaxing the dust out of the crevices without harming the friable ivory. In fact there was such a run on my face cream that there was nothing left for my poor old face after a couple of weeks.’ (Christie 1983 p. 472)

1. Ivory plaque of seated female. [NM59.3](#)
2. Ivory lion. [NM59.10](#)
3. Bone ring fragment decorated with Hathor heads. [NM59.11](#)
4. Ivory plaque of female wearing a wig. [NM59.12](#)
5. Ivory plaque with cows and calves. [NM59.14](#)
6. Gypsum lion’s head. [NM59.15](#)
7. Birds nest bowl palette with sphinx. [NM59.4](#)
8. Ivory plaque with winged bull. [NM59.6](#)
9. Ivory plaque with lotus and winged male figure. NM59.8

10. Ivory plaque with asses. NM59.7

11. Ivory lion’s head. NM59.9

Cat. 11

All from Fort Shalmaneser, 9th–7th century BC. Purchased from the Institute of Archaeology, London 1959.
TELL BRAK

These strange flat figures, with large open eyes, compel our attention yet keep their silence. Who do they represent? What were they for? What power were they thought to possess?

Large numbers of these so-called eye idols were excavated by Max Mallowan, at Tell Brak in northern Syria in 1937–38. So numerous were they that they gave their name to the structure in which they were found, the Eye Temple. A series of temples (Mallowan identified four) were built one on top of the ruins of the other, creating a platform some 6m in height. The latest temple had a long narrow room, 18 x 6m, with chambers on either side and an altar or podium on the north wall.

The dedications that might once have been placed in the upper temple had been looted; the gold frame of the podium the only remaining indication of wealth. In the lower temples the dedications originally remained in situ, it may have been considered bad luck to remove material dedicated to gods. Later visitors were less pious: shafts and tunnels were dug into the mound to plunder the riches below.

Mallowan describes the mound as ‘honeycombed’ and it is these looters shafts and tunnels that he and his team re-excavated to enter the layers of the earlier temples (Mallowan, 1947, p.32). The excavators recovered masses of beads, amulets and eye idols, particularly in the third temple, the Grey Eye-Temple, named for the grey bricks with which it was constructed. Excavators worked by torch light and could only remain in the dark and airless tunnels for a maximum of 20 minutes before ‘one returned to the open air bathed in dirt and sweat … that we emerged unscathed is a tribute to the skilful workmanship of the Jemdat Nasr bricklayers’ (Mallowan, 1947, p. 52). The eye idols are dated to the middle of the 4th millennium BC.

Tell Brak is over 40m in height and 60 hectares in area. It dominates the landscape of the lower Wadi Jaghjagh. The site was well placed to control the roads leading to southern Mesopotamia and Assyria, west to the Mediterranean and north to the mineral resources of Anatolia throughout its occupation, which spanned the 5th to 2nd millennia BC.
In addition to the temple, Mallowan excavated the ‘Palace’ of Naram Sin of Akkad (2254–2218 BC), a large, impressive structure of 111 x 93m, combining courtyards and rooms for the storage of taxes and tithes. Tell Brak was an important administrative outpost of the Akkadian Empire.

Excavations from the 1970s have concentrated on the 3rd to 2nd millennia BC occupation of the site and currently on the 5th millennium BC urban development. Through these more recent excavations, Tell Brak has been identified as the ancient city of Nagar.

12–19. Alabaster eye idols. NM50.288, NM50.289, NM50.291, NM59.16, NM59.17, NM59.18, NM66.132, NM66.134

20. Alabaster eye idol with four eyes. NM50.293

21. Alabaster eye idol with high hat. NM50.287

Cat. 20

NINEVEH

Nineveh, a capital of the Neo Assyrian Empire, attracted the attention of mid-19th century archaeologists. Situated on the Tigris, near the modern city of Mosul in northern Iraq, the impressive main mound of Koyounjik measures 1500 x 400m and rises 27m above the plain. In 1842 Émile Botta, the French consul to Mosul, began excavations. In 1845 the Englishman, Austen Henry Layard, gained permission to excavate on the south of the mound where he uncovered the Palace of King Sennacherib (704–681 BC).

Layard revealed 71 halls, chambers and passages of the palace. He tunelled along the mudbrick walls, revealing the magnificent sculpted alabaster that decorated them. The relief scenes of the chariots and archers of the Assyrian army conquering their enemies, the king hunting lions, and the mythical creatures and deities brought the largely unknown Assyrians to popular attention. Layard removed much of the sculpture for shipment to the British Museum. One fragment of two archers with their bows bent is in the Nicholson Museum collection [cat. 44].

Who had built this impressive palace? Sennacherib, son of Sargon II, came to power in 704 BC and moved the Assyrian capital to the city of Nineveh. He set about building a capital worthy of the power of the Assyrian Empire. Not only did he build a palace and decorate it lavishly with scenes to impress and intimidate visiting dignitaries, but he also oversaw the construction of a pleasant urban environment for the large population. He planted botanical gardens, orchards and parklands. Through hydraulic engineering he extended the arable land and some of the aqueducts and dams of this period remain in use today. He restored temples and fortified the city walls. Sennacherib was killed in the palace by his own family, the result of intense rivalry among his progeny for succession. He was succeeded by Esarhaddon (681–669 BC) and then Ashurbanipal (668–627 BC).

In two rooms of the palace, over 24,000 cuneiform tablets piled 30cm deep were discovered. Often referred to as the Library of Ashurbanipal, archival documents were preserved but also many letters and reports detailing wars, funeral arrangements, health concerns, the weather and astrological reports, revealing much about the manner of thinking and the way of life of the ruling class of the Assyrian Empire.

In 1927–31 Campbell Thompson directed work at Nineveh employing a more refined system of excavation. Max Mallowan joined ‘CT’. Mallowan excavated a 25m deep trench into the Ishtar temple which traced the site back to the 6th millennium BC. Much of the Nineveh material in the Nicholson Museum comes from this excavation; some donated by the Ashmolean Museum Oxford, and some by
Mr Frank Turton who was the private secretary to Sir Charles Hyde, director of the Birmingham Post, who had privately funded the excavations.

Nineveh was destroyed in 612BC after a three month siege by a combined force of Babylonians and Medes. The University of California, Berkeley excavations in 1989–90 uncovered the remains of guards killed inside the Halzi Gate. After three months of occupation, and when the riches were safely transported out, the city was burnt to the ground.

In the 1960s the Iraq Department of Antiquities consolidated the walls and created a site museum of Sennacherib’s Palace.

...on the verge of irreparable loss and destruction

The site of Nineveh has been under serious threat during the last 20 years. The two US led invasions of Iraq (1991 and 2003) and the UN sanctions (1990s) have led directly to its looting. Operating with reduced resources, the Iraqi government pulled funds from ‘non-essentials’ (e.g. archaeological work and site guards), and foreign involvement in the excavation and documentation of the site came to an end. Some local people, desperate for additional income, sourced and sold antiquities from unguarded sites. Nineveh, located within the sprawl of Mosul remains a convenient target.

The appearance of wall carvings from Nineveh on the antiquities market alerted the world to the extent of the damage. Removed from walls (in a sad echo of Layard’s 1840s practices) and often cut into smaller scenes before being sold to dealers, their position in the palace and their context within a larger scene has been lost; their deeper meaning destroyed. The current location of these looted items is largely unknown.
With the increasing stability of the region, local and international archaeologists have returned to Nineveh to take stock and repair. However they face another problem: squatters are reported living in mud huts built amongst the ruins, particularly within the reconstructed Mashiki gate – some of the estimated 1.3 million displaced by war. (Al-Jawoshy, O., 2012, “Seeking to Preserve the Past, but Stumbling on the present”, *The New York Times*, March 15, 2012, p. A14)

![Image of an ancient artifact]

**Cat. 24**

**Sir Austen Henry Layard (1817–94)**

On an overland trip from England to Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), where he was to take up a position in the Civil Service, the 22 year-old Sir Austen Henry Layard was distracted by the rich history and impressive settlement mounds that he passed. Having never reached his intended destination, Layard returned to the Near East in 1845 and began excavations at Nimrud and Nineveh. Although his excavations lacked scientific method and consisted of tunnelling along the walls and removing the sculpted slabs for shipping to the British Museum, his meticulous illustrations of major finds remain impressive. Accounts of his adventures in serial form in *The Illustrated London News* and in his books were eagerly read by a Victorian audience hungry for stories of exotic places. Layard entered British politics in 1852 and was lampooned in Punch magazine cartoons as a winged-bull colossus, labelled "Layard of Nineveh" or "Baiting the Bull".

22. Clay cone with cuneiform inscription. 2100–2000 BC. **NM60.5**

23. Inscribed clay brick. Said to be from Sennacherib’s Palace. 700 BC. **NM97.112**
24. Lamp. 7th century BC. NM52.147
25. Bowl. 7th century BC. NM60.20
26. Alabaster pot. 8th–7th century BC. NM60.8
27. Female figurine. 8th–7th century BC. NM60.16
28. Clay tablet with cuneiform inscription. 7th century BC. NM60.10
29. Clay plaque with horse in relief. 700–612 BC. NM60.14
30. Stamp seal with cuneiform inscription. 7th century BC. NM60.30
31. Button seal. 7th century BC. NM60.31
32. Cylinder seal with sphinx. 7th century BC. NM60.33.1
33. Cylinder seal, haematite, combat scene. 8th century BC. NM60.38
34. Stamp seal, obsidian, human figure. 7th century BC. NM60.29
35. Black stone shell. NM60.41
36-43. Sherds of incised and painted pottery. 2500-2300 BC. NM52.302, NM52.303, NM52.304, NM52.309, NM52.310, NM52.311, NM52.317, NM52.318
44. Assyrian limestone relief with two archers. Late 7th century BC. NM51.323

HARAPPA

In 1856, British Railway workers, building a new line between Multan and Lahore, in modern day Pakistan, found a convenient source of ballast: a mine of beautifully made baked mudbricks. The workers dismantled an entire ancient settlement and started on a second before sense prevailed. Today, some 93 miles of train line rests on 4000 year-old mudbricks.

The railway workers had discovered a new civilisation – the Indus Valley Civilisation (2600–2000/1800 BC), often called the Harappan Civilisation: Harappa being the modern name of the second site they had uncovered and one of the two largest cities as yet excavated.

Harappa was excavated by the Archaeological Survey of India under Rau Bahadur Daya Ram Sahni, 1920–21. Sites of the same culture have been found in the modern states of Pakistan, India and Afghanistan, making it one of the most extensive of ancient civilisations, covering an area of around 1,260,000 km². The economy was agricultural and reliant on annual flooding for irrigation. Trade networks were widespread: Central Asia, the Arabian Gulf and Mesopotamia, including the city of Ur. Wheeled carts joined pack animals on the caravan routes (making this either the first civilisation, or the second after the Sumerians, to utilise the wheel), and river boats and sea ships facilitated trade.

Writing is essential for such a large cultural and commercial network. Around 400 symbols of the Harappan written language have been identified, but it has not yet been deciphered.

In the absence of a translated written record, the animal and human clay figurines evoke the spirit of the Indus Valley people. The child-like naivety of these figurines is appealing, but what exactly do they reveal? Some have interpreted the animal figurines as children’s toys and the human figurines as religious, as fertility goddesses. The archaeological evidence has not provided any answers: the figurines are varied in their appearance and are found in many different contexts.

The cities of the Indus Valley Civilisation were built with baked mudbrick. At Mohenjo-daro, Mortimer Wheeler excavated walls up to 5m high, a testament to the solidity of construction. The settlements were well organised with a grid-plan of streets and an impressive system of drains, sewers and wells.

Public buildings including large storage facilities, such as the granary excavated at Harappa, have been discovered. However no temples or palaces have been identified; the political and religious practices of these people remain a mystery.
The artefacts from Harappa were donated by the Government of India, in the tumultuous year of 1947, when the Indian Independence Act saw the end of the British Raj and the establishment of the two states of India and Pakistan. Amongst the unrest, riots and mass movement of people, the donation was processed and the objects arrived safely in Sydney in November 1947.

Sir Mortimer Wheeler (1890–1976)

Brigadier Sir Robert Eric Mortimer Wheeler was born in Glasgow, and studied at the University of London. He served in both the First and the Second World War. In-between he was the Director of the National Museum of Wales and then Keeper of the London Museum, where he directed a number of excavations in Britain and developed a grid system of excavation which increased the focus on stratigraphy – the subsequent layers of activity and occupation.

In 1944 he was appointed the Director General of the Archaeological Services of India, and it was during this time that he excavated at the site of Mohenjo-daro and oversaw the protection of Harappa and other Indus Valley Civilisation sites. After Partition, Wheeler helped establish the Pakistan Archaeological Department and the National Museum of Pakistan.

His books, including Still Digging: Adventures in Archaeology (1958), reached a wide audience and he regularly appeared on radio and television. His appearances on the television quiz show Animal, Vegetable, Mineral (1952–60) were so popular that in 1954 he was named British TV Personality of the Year.

45. Steatite stamp seal NM48.71.1
46–49. Ceramic pots NM48.28, NM48.29, NM48.30, NM48.44
50–52. Animal figurines NM48.42, NM48.43, NM48.45
53. Bird rattle NM48.51
54. Stone animal bead NM48.66
55–56. Female figurines NM48.46, NM48.47
57–59. Ceramic cart (in three parts) NM48.48, NM48.49, NM48.50

All objects from Harappa, Pakistan, 2250–1750 BC. Donated by the Government of India, 1947.
The city of Ur is located halfway between Baghdad and the Persian Gulf and was occupied from 5000–500 BC. It was an important religious centre with a major shrine dedicated to the moon god Nannar. In antiquity the city was located on a side-arm of the Euphrates which flowed into a lagoon and then into the Persian Gulf. This gave the inhabitants access to sea-trade, which is at least partially responsible for the wealth of the site. The mound, some 12m high, was identified and surveyed in the 19th century but first excavated in a joint venture between the British Museum and the University Museum, Pennsylvania, directed by Sir Leonard Woolley, 1922–34. The most impressive finds came from the cemetery.

Amongst the simple pit burials were 16 elite tombs, known as The Royal Graves of Ur (c. 2500 BC). These are chamber tombs, built of mudbrick or stone, with vaulted roof and an apsidal end. The principal body was accompanied not only by a wealth of material (gold, ivory, semi-precious stones) but also with numerous human companions.

The Grave of Pu-abi is amongst the most remarkable. In the first chamber the excavators came across the skeletons of five men, all with copper daggers at their waists; then, under matting, the skeletons of 10 women, laid out in two rows, with golden headdresses and necklaces; a decorated sledge chariot and the skeletons of the two oxen that pulled it; a lapis lazuli and ivory gaming board, golden tools and weapons, soapstone bowls and jugs and bowls and cups of copper, silver and gold. The next chamber housed six male and 19 female skeletons that accompanied the body of A-kalam-dug, the King of Ur, along with similar (partly looted) grave goods. Behind this lay the chamber of Lady Pu-abi. Her body was laid out on a wooden bed, a golden cup at her hand and her upper body almost completely covered in beads of silver, gold and semi-precious stones. On her head was a golden headdress and beside her a second headdress decorated with lapis lazuli beads and gold animal and rosette ornaments. Seashells, filled with cosmetic colouring, (like cat. 74–77), lay nearby. The remains of two female attendants were at her side.

In another grave, 74 bodies were recovered, 68 of them women, all beautifully dressed in bright red garments and all with lyres. Woolley believed that these were sacrificial victims, who had willingly gone to their deaths by poisoning, given their careful attire and ordered placement. More recently it has been proposed that the bodies may have been ‘saved up’ for re-burial with an important individual. The burials show that the society of Ur was hierarchical, and that women as well as men could enjoy lavish burials which reflected their political and religious power in life.

The economic wealth of Ur was translated into regional political power with the founding of the Third Dynasty of Ur (Ur III, 2100–1800 BC) under the leader Ur-Nammu. The city controlled much of southern Mesopotamia and the remains of written records show a heavily bureaucratic state. Ur-Nammu, and his
successor Shulgi (2094–2947 BC), initiated great building projects, particularly in the religious complex and not least the Great Ziggurat.

Still standing today, the Great Ziggurat of Ur is the best preserved of its type. It was built in three stages, one on top of the other, with each subsequent level smaller than the last. It was orientated to the points of the compass and measures 61 x 45.7m at its base. It is constructed of mudbrick with an outer layer of baked brick held in place with bitumen.

Woolley imagined each tier planted all over with trees, creating a sort of man-made mountain to a god. Although an idyllic vision, this is unlikely. The ziggurat was, however, constructed for the worship of a god and not as a tomb (as the pyramids were).

Although Ur lost its political influence, it became a cult centre of the moon god Nannar and his consort Ningal. Over the next 1200 years it continued to be furnished with donations, the last by Nebuchadnezzar II of Babylon in the early 6th century BC.

**Sir Leonard Woolley (1880–1960)**

Born the son of a clergyman in London, Woolley was educated at New College, Oxford. In 1905 he became an assistant director of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, working alongside Sir Arthur Evans. He gained excavation experience at the Roman site of Corbridge in Northumberland and then in the Sudan, before excavating the Hittite city of Carchemish in northern Syria (1912–14) alongside T.E. Lawrence (later to gain fame during the First World War as ‘Lawrence of Arabia’). After the First World War, Woolley began excavating the site of Ur, for which he became renowned partly due to the astounding finds that captured international attention. His books, including *Ur of the Chaldees* (1929)
and *Digging up the Past* (1930) were best sellers. Agatha Christie, who visited the excavations at Ur, included Woolley and his wife Katherine as characters in her novel, *Murder in Mesopotamia* (1936).

65-67. Clay grinder, clay sickle, 2 chert hoes, Al-Ubaid period, 6500–3800 BC [NM35.13.1, NM35.13.3, NM35.4.9]

68. Round bottomed pot, Archaic period, c. 2800 BC [NM35.38]

69-70. Clay cone with cuneiform inscription, Early Dynastic, 2900–2340 BC [NM35.60, NM35.61]

71. Clay model of a boat, Early Dynastic, 2900–2340 BC [NM40.12]

72. Stone bowl, Early Dynastic III, c. 2600 BC [NM35.92]

73. Shallow dish, Royal Cemetery period, c. 2500 BC [NM35.58]

74-77. Cockle shells, Early Dynastic IIib, 2500–2340 BC [NM35.6.1, NM35.6.2, NM35.6.8, NM35.6.9]

78-79. Cylinder seals, Ur III, 2100–1800 BC [NM40.6.1, NM62.773.1]

80. Tall pot, Larsa period, 1822–1763 BC [NM35.29]

81. Bronze arrow head [NM35.8.6]

82. Stamped brick, Neo-Babylonian period, 625–539 BC [NM40.11]

All objects from Ur. Cat. 71 and 77 donated by the Government of Iraq 1940. Other objects donated by the British Museum 1935. Cat. 79 was acquired before 1962.
PELLA

Since 1978 the University of Sydney has conducted excavations at Pella, directed by Basil Hennessy and from 1992 by Stephen Bourke. Located in the north of the Jordan Valley, Pella has been continuously occupied from around 8000 BC. Through occupation, destruction and rebuilding, over 20m of material has built up to create the main mound, Wadi Hammeh.

Located 3km north of the main mound is evidence of an even earlier settlement dating to the Natufian period (c. 10,000 BC). Two circular houses were excavated in 1983, containing flint tools, grinding stones, bone sickles and the mortar and pestle (cat. 102–103). Burials were found under the floors. This pre-pottery and pre-animal domestication period shows the beginnings of the progression from nomadic hunter gatherers to a sedentary life reliant on agriculture.

The earliest occupation of Wadi Hammeh began in the Neolithic period, (c. 8000–4000 BC). At this stage the large mound had not built up; the settlement was located on a small rise or hill that, most importantly, was located beside a perennial fresh-water spring, surrounded by rich agricultural land.

In the Bronze Age (3000–1100 BC) Pella became a strong, centralised power with massive fortifications, a large residence with plastered floors and a Middle Bronze Age (1900–1500 BC) temple to the Canaanite god El. The tombs of this period reveal the wealth of the individuals, often containing the beautiful pottery, called Chocolate-on-White ware (cat. 104-106).

The early Iron Age (c. 1100 BC) is associated with widespread decline across the Mediterranean, but the archaeological evidence suggests that Pella remained reasonably prosperous. An Iron Age temple and a nearby complex of over 20 rooms for food storage and weaving suggests that there was still a centralised power at Pella. Throughout its history, the location of the site encouraged economic prosperity, with both the north-south trade route through the Jordan Valley as well as the east-west route from the Mediterranean toward Jerash.

With the arrival of Alexander the Great in 333–332 BC, Pella came under the cultural influence of Greece – the lagynos and fish plate (cat. 97–98) are shapes associated with Hellenistic customs. It was at this time that the city received the name Pella, perhaps a corruption of the ancient name Pihilum, but a name that also commemorated the birthplace of Alexander.

Pompey the Great conquered Pella in 64/3 BC and it subsequently thrived as one of the ten cities of the Decapolis. Roman tombs provide beautiful examples of glassware, jewellery and ivory carvings. Architectural finds have been less impressive, due to the substantial building of the Byzantine period.
(4th–7th century AD) when Pella, still an administrative centre of the Empire and the seat of a Bishop, was adorned with three basilicas and a major fortress.
Basil Hennessy AO (1925–2013)

Basil Hennessy studied at the University of Sydney and was among the first students to graduate from the new Department of Archaeology, established by A.D. Trendall in 1948. Having completed his undergraduate studies under Trendall and J.R. Stewart, Hennessy travelled through Cyprus, Turkey, Lebanon, Jordan and Syria, where he studied material first hand and took part in excavations at Stephania, Cyprus and with Kathleen Kenyon at Jericho. He completed his doctorate at Oxford under Kenyon’s supervision.

After serving as Director of the British School of Archaeology at Jerusalem from 1965–70, he was appointed Edwin Cuthbert Hall Professor of Near Eastern Archaeology at the University of Sydney in 1973, where he remained until his retirement in 1990. Courses on Cyprus, Egypt and the Near East were accompanied by excavation seasons in Jordan, first at Teleilat Ghassul and then at Pella.

83. Incense burner. 3rd–4th century AD. NGA1985.1188
84. Lamp. Tomb 92. 5th–6th century AD. NGA1990.13
85. Lamp. Tomb 75. 5th–7th century AD. NM1998.19
89. Glass jar with bucket handle. Tomb 75. Late 4th century AD. NGA1990.8
90. Glass bowl. Tomb 54. 50 BC – AD 50. NGA1985.1210
91. Glass dish. Tomb 54. 50 BC – AD 50. NGA1985.1206
94. Glass grape flask. Tomb 92. 5th century AD. NGA1990.10
95. Glass juglet. Tomb 75. Late 4th century AD. NM1998.15
97. Fish plate. 1st century BC. NM1998.8
98. Black glaze lagynos with incised decoration. 2nd century BC. NM89.65
99-100. Pedestal bowls, buff painted. Tomb 89. 1200–1000 BC. NM89.63, NM89.64
101. Single nozzle saucer lamp. Tomb 89. 1200–100 BC. NM89.62


104. Chocolate-on-White jar. Tomb 62. 1550–1400 BC. NM89.51


Cat. 104

All objects from the Australian excavations at Pella, held in the Nicholson Museum and the National Gallery of Australia (NGA).
TELL EL-AJJUL

Tell el-Ajjul is situated just southwest of the modern city of Gaza. The town was located near well-trodden land and sea routes from Africa to Asia, and may have benefited from close associations with the Hyksos, an Asiatic people who had seized control of Egypt in 1630 BC. Gold jewellery and other metals were plentiful in the tombs and also, more mysteriously, in pots buried under walls and floors of houses.

Located on top of a mound, the settlement was fortified by a rampart and a deep ditch. From 1930–38 Flinders Petrie excavated a palace, a gate on the eastern side and domestic dwellings. Three distinct phases of occupation were found, spanning 2000–1400 BC.

The houses of the middle phase (the so-called City II, destroyed in the 16th century BC and preserved under a layer of ash) show poorer dwellings abutting larger dwellings, which typically enjoyed the benefits of a second storey. Both house types were built around courtyards. The architectural techniques of rammed-earth walls show strong Egyptian influence in the city.

Hoards of metal were found buried in pots under walls or floors of the larger homes. The pieces on display are from such a hoard (cat. 107–127). A seemingly arbitrary collection of material, from different places and of different date and with some bits purposefully bent, Petrie interpreted the collections as belonging to a ‘wandering Syrian trader’, destined to be melted down and reworked (Petrie, 1934).

Another explanation draws on the historical record. In 1521 BC the Hyksos rulers lost control of Egypt. The new pharaoh, Ahmose, set out on campaigns to reunite Egypt and also pursued the Hyksos enemy into Palestine, laying siege to a town called Sharuhen, destroying it completely. If Tell el-Ajjul is Sharuhen, the hoards may be the riches of households buried for safe keeping during the siege, never to be recovered once the city was burnt to the ground (Ben Tor, 1992, p.190–1). But why, then, would some of the pieces be purposefully bent?

The number of the hoards and the inclusion therein of leaf-shaped pendants associated with a fertility goddess (possibly Astarte), as well as star pendants associated with Ishtar, have led most scholars to conclude that the hoards are dedications placed within the foundations of the houses.

How did this material get to the Nicholson? A 1939 letter from Nicholson Museum Assistant Curator, S. Angus to Sir Flinders Petrie, expresses interest in material from various places in Palestine available for purchase. It is likely that some of the Tell el-Ajjul material was purchased by the University of Sydney soon after, to ‘increase the number of originals as far as the funds available permit’. A further 48 items of jewellery were offered to the Nicholson Museum by Lady Flinders Petrie in 1949.
**Sir Flinders Petrie (1853–1942)**

Flinders Petrie was born and raised in England. Grandson of the surveyor and navigator Matthew Flinders, who circumnavigated Australia (1798–1803), Petrie was educated from a young age in the practices and principles of surveying, and he put this knowledge to work in archaeology. Professor of Egyptology at University College London, he excavated over 60 sites, primarily in Egypt. The Nicholson Museum holds material from his Egyptian excavations at Tanis, Fayum, Abydos and Tell el-Amarna. He excavated the Near East sites of Tell el-Hesi, Tell el-Jemmeh and Tell el-Ajjul. He spent the last years of his life in Jerusalem.

Knighted in 1923, he was stubborn and obsessive, and his pro-eugenics opinions are controversial. In the field of archaeology he is credited as a pioneer of systematic methodology, including detailed recording and measuring. He also developed the relative dating technique known as seriation, which he used to examine changes in pottery styles and to date different styles in relation to each other, i.e. which is earlier or later – the basis of stylistic dating methods used today.

107. Electrum toggle pin. NM50.375

108. Crescentic gold earring. NM50.376

109. Pair of earrings, bronze and gold, corroded. NM50.72

110. Electrum ring and cylinder seal. NM50.82

111–112. Electrum amulets in the form of a fertility goddess. NM50.66, NM50.71

113. Silver nose or ear stud. NM50.42

114–115. Gold loop from a pendant. NM50.62, NM50.74

116. Three granulated bi-conical beads. NM50.64

117–119. Gold beads. NM50.75, NM50.76, NM50.80

120. Gold disc. NM50.81
121–126. Scrap silver. **NM50.36, NM50.37, NM50.38, NM50.39, NM50.40, NM50.41**

127. Fragments of sheet gold. **NM50.43**

All objects from Tell el-Ajjul. The items were buried in the 16th century BC. All from hoard 1299, except cat. 107 and 108. Purchased from Sir and Lady Flinders Petrie, before 1950.
So the people shouted when the priest blew with the trumpets ... [and] the wall fell down flat so that the people went up into the city ... and they took the city. And they utterly destroyed all that was in the city, both man and woman, young and old, and ox, and sheep, and ass, with the edge of the sword.

JOSHUA, CH. 6

So the Bible records the dramatic destruction of Jericho.

Since the first excavations in the 1860s of the tell in the rift of the Jordan Valley identified as Jericho, it has been this focus, to find Joshua’s city (1500–1400 BC), that has dominated investigations and public interest. The site became a test case for the historical accuracy of the Bible and the veracity of archaeological research. In 1951 Kathleen Kenyon re-examined pottery from Garstang’s 1930s excavation of Jericho, in which she found no evidence of 15th century BC and little 14th century BC pottery, thus throwing doubt on the identification of the biblical city. Kenyon diplomatically suggested that further archaeological work was required to settle the question.

By 1952 Kenyon was excavating in Jericho, a site located in a beautiful oasis of date palms.

She employed an improved methodological approach to excavation, implementing a system of 5 x 5m trenches, with a baulk between, removing layers of soil distinguished by colour and texture and thus allowing artefacts in each layer to be examined distinctly. The new system was strictly adhered to by the many student and professional archaeologists and local workmen who excavated the site.

Throughout the seven excavation seasons, Kenyon, a devout Christian, was troubled by the Jericho question, though in archaeological terms the results were clear: the evidence for biblical Jericho was scant, suggesting that at the time of the Israelite conquest the settlement was little more than a few simple huts with no associated town walls.

However, the excavation was not a wasted effort. The team uncovered evidence of over 12,000 years of occupation, tracing the urban development from a 10th millenium BC camp site to an Early and Middle Bronze Age (3000–1500 BC) urban centre, and allowing Kenyon to declare Jericho the “oldest city in the world” (Davis 2008, p. 129).

The Nicholson Museum contributed financially to the Jericho excavations and in return received over 1000 artefacts and 42 boxes of bones from the site.
**Jericho Tombs**

A short distance from the tell where Kenyon and her team were working, refugee Palestinians, who had left the recently formed Israel, had set up camp. During the 1952 season, a woman was digging for material to improve her shelter when she dug into a tomb. A scarab was taken from the camp to show the Great Sitt (as Kenyon was locally known), and promptly excavation began on a second front: the Jericho tombs. By employing the refugees to work in the tombs, Kenyon and her team were welcomed, despite the obvious disruption to the camp.

Tomb 35 is typical of the Jericho tombs and a selection of the material is on display (cat. 128–167). The rock-cut tomb (Middle Bronze Age, 1900–1500 BC) consists of a vertical shaft that leads down to a chamber door which was partially blocked by a large stone. The tomb did not house a single occupant, rather it was used over a long period of time for multiple and successive burials; the last moved unceremoniously aside and piled up with earlier remains, to make room for the next. The final burials in Tomb 35 still lay in situ, with their accompanying provisions: a large jar for drink, cups, dishes, juglets for perfumed oils and food.

The environmental conditions of the tomb allowed wooden furniture to be preserved, including tables which held food such as meat from animals (evidenced by the animal bones, and occasionally flesh) and pomegranates (with preserved seeds). Baskets and textiles could be identified but were often too decayed to excavate and preserve. Personal items such as hair combs were found, sometimes still holding the deceased’s hair in place.

The provision of food and other items indicates a belief in life after death. However no evidence was found, either in the tombs or in the settlement, for the worship of a particular god or goddess.

In some of the Jericho tombs, the final burial that lay in situ was a multiple, simultaneous burial of groups of individuals, all of whom died in quick succession, suggesting that some disaster had afflicted Jericho in the Middle Bronze Age. The remains do not suggest a violent death, thus war is not the likely cause, rather some kind of illness or disease.

Jericho, an early urban settlement, would have been one of the first to suffer from ‘crowd diseases’. In 2008, Dr Mark Spiegelman, on behalf of a joint Israeli-Palestinian-German research group, took samples from the bones held in the Nicholson Collection to test them for tuberculosis, leprosy, leishmaniasis, and malaria. The results of such research should reveal the cause of the widespread death in Jericho some 3500 years ago.
The Jericho Skull

In 1953 a skull appeared in the baulk of one of the Jericho tell trenches. Adhering strictly to her methodology, Kenyon insisted that the skull would not be dug out of the baulk.

On the last day of excavation, the area supervisor Peter Parr convinced Kenyon to bend the rules arguing that the skull might be damaged before the next season. As the soil was carefully removed from around the skull, he reported that there was something quite unusual about it, there seemed to be a layer of clay covering it. By the end of the day, he had an extremely unusual find: a human skull, coated with plaster, with shells for eyes and a nose moulded of clay.

In removing the first skull, two more had become visible. The excavation season was extended and seven skulls, all from males, were found between two walls. They are dated to 6000 BC. In all but one, the jawbone was not present, and the lower face was moulded out of clay.

The skulls were truly remarkable; nothing like them had ever been found before. Kenyon described them as “the earliest human portraits directly ancestral to modern art” (Kenyon, 1960, p.52). And what purpose did they serve? “I have personally always been convinced that they are the heads of venerated ancestors, largely owing to the impression they give of being portraits, and to the loving care which the skilful modelling of the features suggests.” (Kenyon, 1957, p. 63)
In the 1954 season, bodies without a skull, but with the jawbone, were discovered buried under the floor of a house. In the 1956 season two more moulded skulls were found. A series of telegrams record the offering of one of these skulls to the University of Sydney (cat. 168).

“I was very pleased to get your cable that your University would like to receive one of the new plastered portrait skulls discovered in our excavations. Your University has been a most generous supporter of our work, and the British School of Archaeology in Jerusalem is very gratified that it is able to offer you an example of our most outstanding class of find. These portrait skulls are an amazing illustration of the artistic and technical powers of a civilisation which was completely unknown before our excavations, and, dating perhaps from the sixth millennium BC, is infinitely earlier than any form of civilisation hitherto suspected”.
Kathleen Kenyon to S M Roberts, Vice Chancellor, 7 May 1956

Dame Kathleen Kenyon (1906–78)

The Jericho excavations made Kathleen Kenyon internationally famous. Her father, Sir Frederic Kenyon, was a biblical scholar and director of the British Museum. Kenyon read history at Oxford and was the first female president of the student’s Archaeological Society. She excavated in Africa and England and then in the Near East. Her excavation and recording methods, developed alongside her mentor Mortimer Wheeler, in which she excavated trenches set in a strict grid pattern and removed material by the layers of its deposition (stratigraphy), as well as the methods she employed in ceramic studies, modernised archaeological practice. Kenyon, an abrupt, no-nonsense woman, was renowned for being able to smoke and shovel simultaneously.

128–129. Wooden furniture leg fragments. NM57.24, NM80.77.1
130. Wooden bowl. NM53.36
131. Pomegranate seeds., NM57.29
132–137. Scarab amulets. NM53.263, NM53.266, NM53.267, NM53.276, NM53.270, NM53.272
138–141. Alabaster flasks. NM53.202, NM53.203, NM53.204, NM53.206
142. Bone inlay. NM53.32.1-13
143–144. Bronze pins. NM52.640.231, NM52.640.260
145–151. Piriform juglets NM52.640.291, NM52.640.359, NM53.212, NM53.198, NM53.199, NM53.201, NM53.216
152–153. Dipper jugs. NM52.640.61, NM53.210
154–158. Carinated bowls. NM53.225, NM52.640.56, NM53.226, NM53.221, NM53.227
159. Shallow bowl. NM52.640.219
160–161. Amphorae. NM53.604, NM53.218

162–163. Single handle jugs. NM53.214, NM52.640.282

164. Jar with looped feet. NM53.200

165. Bowl with looped feet. NM52.640.172

166. Painted squat storage jar. NM52.640.78

167. Human and animal bones. NM2008.175


All objects from Tomb B35, Middle Bronze Age (1900–1500 BC), except cat. 168. All objects acquired by the University of Sydney in exchange for financial support of the excavations at Jericho in the 1950s.
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