TIMELESS BEAUTY

Ancient Perfume and Cosmetic Containers

INTER-AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK
CULTURAL CENTER

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COVER:
Glass kohl tubes.
Israel, 3rd-5th centuries A.D.
TIMELESS BEAUTY

Ancient Perfume and Cosmetic Containers

Selections from the Collection of the Israel Museum, Jerusalem

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KOHL TUBE.
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Introduction

This exhibition, Timeless Beauty: Ancient Perfume and Cosmetic Containers, is part of the IDB’s tribute to Israel, a non-regional member of the Bank. In April of this year, Israel will host the IDB’s XXXVI Annual Meeting in Jerusalem.

The exhibition focuses on containers used to store perfume and cosmetics in ancient Israel and the surrounding area between the third millennium B.C. to the first centuries A.D. The objects in the exhibit come from the vast collections of the Israel Museum in Jerusalem.

Cultural Center staff visited the Israel Museum last year, accompanied by Mr. Moshe Gal, Alternate Executive Director for Austria, Croatia, France, Israel, Japan, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, and Switzerland for the IDB, and Mrs. Esther Schuminer of the Bank of Israel’s Office of External Relations. On behalf of the Cultural Center, I would like to express our deepest appreciation for their generous support and cooperation.

The Cultural Center takes pride in presenting this exquisite selection of ancient objects, on display in the nation’s capital for the first time.

Ana María Coronel de Rodríguez

Director of the Cultural Center
The quest for beauty is as old as humankind. To enhance and preserve their allure, peoples of the ancient East developed cosmetics, which then spread westward, first to Greece and then to Rome. Rich archaeological finds, written descriptions, and drawings show how important care of the body and the appearance were in antiquity. A 16th-century-B.C. Egyptian papyrus details recipes for ointments to remove blemishes, wrinkles, and other signs of age. To erase wrinkles, for example, it recommends an ointment of gum of frankincense, wax, fresh oil, and cypress kernels pounded and mixed with milk to be applied to the face for six days.

The climate of the East was harsh, and oils and ointments were commonly used to protect the face and body from the sun, dust, and dryness. These unguents were regarded not as luxuries but rather as necessities used by men and women from all levels of society. Pharaoh Seti I (c. 1318-1304 B.C.) increased his army's allocation of oils to keep them happy.

In ancient times ointments, perfumes, and makeup were derived from plants and resins mixed with vegetable oils or animal fats. All of these cosmetic substances were marketed in small quantities because they were so costly. An entire industry sprang up devoted to manufacturing tiny containers, which became handsomely fashioned luxury articles in their own right.
Body Care

In the hot, dry climate of the East, washing the body and anointing it with oil were hygienic necessities of the first order. The availability of water and a person’s social status determined the frequency of bathing.

The ancient Egyptians paid great attention to the cleanliness of the entire body and bathed daily. Bathing was a sort of shower performed in the bathroom, where the bather stood on a large stone slab raised slightly above the floor while his servant poured water over him through a sieve. A drain on the floor by the slab carried waste water away. In Mesopotamia, the common people bathed in rivers and streams, but nobles and wealthy citizens had special bathing installations in their palaces and mansions.

Although bathrooms were a rarity in ancient Israel before the end of the first millennium B.C., several earlier examples have been discovered. Of particular interest is a seventh century B.C. figurine found at the coastal site of Akhziv of a woman washing herself in a shallow tub.

Various vegetable or mineral substances were added to the bath water in antiquity. Jeremiah (2:22) speaks of washing with niter and vegetable alkali, both of which contain potassium. Although the potassium did indeed dissolve the dirt, it also caused an unpleasant skin irritation. To prevent the skin from drying and cracking after the use of such harsh minerals and to protect it in the hot, dry climate, it was customary to anoint the body with oil after bathing. In most countries of the ancient East, body oils were a basic commodity used by most of the population.

Hand and foot washing were common practices in the ancient East. Foot washing is mentioned in the Bible as a convention of hospitality that obliges the host to offer his guests water to wash the dust of the journey off their feet. The pottery footbaths known from ancient Israel in the ninth to eighth centuries B.C. were probably for this purpose. These normally oval basins

FIGURINE OF A
WOMAN BATHING,
pottery, Akhziv,
7th-6th century B.C.
were equipped with footrests on the inside and openings at the bottom for emptying the dirty water.

In the Greek world, body care was to a great extent tied to athletics. Before competitions, athletes would oil and powder their skin. Afterwards, this oily layer was removed with a strigil, a scraper made specifically for this purpose. In Greek vase paintings, athletes are depicted dribbling oil from special bottles called aryballos (singular: aryballos), which hang from their wrists by a cord. This type of pottery container began to appear in Greece in the seventh century B.C. Originally shaped like an amphoriskos, it was eventually made in a wide variety of forms, including those of women and animals.

The Romans adopted public baths from the Greeks and refined them further. In Rome, going to the baths was a social occasion and a central part of everyday life. Bathing was a form of entertainment that could go on for hours. Some baths, such as those of Caracalla and Diocletian in Rome, could accommodate up to two thousand people.

Under the influence of Hellenistic culture, bathing began appearing in ancient Israel, too, and not merely in the houses of the nobility. With the growth of the non-Jewish population in the country, the number of public baths increased, and the custom of visiting them began to be adopted by Jews as well. Pious Jews, however, avoided the baths, which were usually decorated with pagan symbols and statues.

The ointment and oil industry brought in its wake the manufacture of beautiful containers. In Egypt, these containers
were usually made of the translucent stone alabaster, which kept the contents cool and fresh. Alabaster was popular with the Egyptians undoubtedly because it is not only attractive but is also relatively soft and easily worked.

The necks of oil containers were usually narrow compared to their bodies so that they could be easily stoppered to prevent the liquid from leaking out. Ointment containers, on the other hand, tended to have wider necks that were closed with a flat stone lid wrapped in leather or fabric and bound with string.

The Egyptians exported containers, with and without their contents, to neighboring countries. Many of these containers were uncovered in Israel, where large numbers of pottery and alabaster pyxis boxes were also found. Used for holding ointments, the pyxis boxes date to the second half of the second millennium B.C.

The so-called lion bowls, which are from the ninth to seventh centuries B.C., were also uncovered in Israel and other parts of the ancient East. Most of these unusual vessels are made of stone and are characterized by a lion's head that rises just above the rim of the bowl. These bowls are equipped with special tubes that were originally inserted into some kind of skin bag or pottery container in which precious oils were stored. This construction made it possible to pour the valuable contents of the container directly into the bowl and to pour any remaining liquid from the bowl back into the container after use.

Many breathtaking pottery cosmetics vessels survive from the Classical world. Decorated with exquisite scenes, these containers gave potters and painters the opportunity to combine function with captivating beauty. Many of the containers imitate the shapes of stone receptacles. The smooth finish of these vessels ensured their impermeability and reduced the clay's absorption of odors. Many of them bear paintings that describe how cosmetics were used in antiquity. The lekanis, a shallow, lidded bowl with two horizontal handles, was highly popular in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. and was often given to women as a wedding gift.
Facial Care
and Makeup

The use of cosmetics to embellish the beauty of the face grew out of magic and ritual. In ancient Egypt, it was customary to cover the statues of gods with unguents and to make up their faces for a more lifelike look. Painting the face eventually became a part of everyday life commonly practiced by men and women alike.

Among the earliest known makeup implements are slate palettes used in ancient Egypt for grinding makeup ingredients. These palettes, which date to around 5000 B.C., are often shaped like fish or decorated with birds.

Besides being part of magico-religious ritual, painting the eyes also protected against eye diseases. The eye paint repelled little flies that transmitted eye inflammations, prevented the delicate skin around the eyes from drying, and sheltered the eyes from the glare of the desert sun. When women realized that the painted frame also emphasized the eyes and made them appear larger, they began using eye makeup to enhance their beauty. Egyptian women also rouged their lips and cheeks.

The Egyptians eventually began producing a wide variety
of special containers for the
eye paint commonly called
kohl. A typical kohl container
in use in Egypt during the first
half of the second millennium
and known in ancient Israel as
well was a squat alabaster pot
equipped with a flat lid. The
kohl tubes were made of
bone, ivory, and faience. These
tubes sometimes bear labels
such as "for daily use" that
indicate their purpose. Some
kohl containers were made
of four tubes, each of which
contained a different color
for each season of the year.
The most distinctive kohl
containers are those shaped
like monkeys.

Some containers were
found together with small sticks for applying the makeup. For
mixing the makeup ingredients, specially designed cosmetic
spoons made of stone or ivory were also used. Spoons are often
in the shape of animals such as ibex and oryx depicted with
their feet bound.

There is almost no knowledge of the makeup practices of
Hebrew women during the biblical period. But judging from the
many implements and accessories found in shapes that suggest
they were used for cosmetics, making up the face was most
likely customary in Israel during that time. These objects include
stone bowls with round hollows in the center for grinding and
mixing the makeup, as well as cosmetic palettes, both common
in the first half of the first millennium B.C.

There is widespread evidence, however, of facial care in the
early centuries A.D. By this time, makeup had become a regular
part of a woman's adornment. Jewish sources distinguish be-
tween makeup used for therapeutic purposes and makeup
meant for embellishing the eyes.

The kohl container characteristic of this period consists of
a long, narrow glass tube or tubes, presumably for different
colors. Many are decorated with glass threads and have basket
handles for hanging. Some of these containers were found
with the kohl sticks still inside them. These sticks, usually made
of bronze, are thickened at one end for applying the paint and
shaped like little spoons at the other to extract the paint from
the container.
Hair and Hairstyles

Like cosmetics, hairstyles have evolved through the ages. Prehistoric man allowed his hair and beard to grow wild. From the third millennium B.C., people started to take more pains with their appearance. Men began to cut their hair and shave their beards.

The Egyptians, who were very particular about personal hygiene, regarded long hair and beards as a sign of neglect and shaved their beards. They also shaved the hair of their heads or cropped the hair very short. Shaving was part of every man's daily routine. Each used his own personal implements, which included a metal razor kept in a special sheath.

Egyptian women generally wore their hair flowing down to the shoulders. Many of these coiffures must have been wigs, and, indeed, wearing wigs was customary on festive occasions. Egyptian wigs were usually made of human hair, but some were horsehair, wool, or plant fibers. Some were long and straight, and others, short and curly. Kings wore green or blue wigs.

The civilizations of Egypt and Mesopotamia have left many representations of hairstyles from various periods and popular among different circles, but mainly written sources exist for the
coiffures of ancient Israel. Women in Israel generally grew their hair long and let it fall to their shoulders. Hebrew men did not shave their hair and beards.

Under the influence of Greek culture, however, both men and women devoted much attention to hair care throughout the first centuries A.D. Women’s hair was mostly long and braided into plaits wound around the head. A wealthy woman would have her private hairdresser, while ordinary women arranged their own hair. Because some of the hairstyles were particularly intricate, it was forbidden to unravel or arrange the hair on the Sabbath.

In classical Greece, men and women let their hair grow long, and only servants and slaves or mourners cut their hair. One of the most favored hairstyles for women had a part in the middle with the hair combed to the sides. Hair braided into plaits would be wound around the head or gathered into a bun and secured with a gold pin or net.

Roman men customarily shaved their beards until the emperor Hadrian brought beards back into fashion in the second century A.D. Among Roman women, arranging the hair was a matter of great importance. The art of hair design reached its apogee in the Imperial period, when hairstyles became exceedingly intricate and exaggerated.
Hair treatment included washing, combing, dyeing, and oiling. Washing the hair regularly was also a way of getting rid of the lice that bothered most of the populace in ancient times. One way of fighting this infestation was by greasing the hair with oil to prevent oxygen from penetrating, thus suffocating the lice.

Combs, hairpins, and razors have survived from ancient Israel. The earliest combs were made of ivory and bone, but later they were primarily made of wood. Most are double-sided—one side with closely spaced teeth, probably for the removal of lice, the other with more widely spaced teeth.

Especially common among archeological finds are hairpins, which were used to secure or adorn the hair. These are made of bone, ivory, or metal, and their heads are generally carved in human, animal, or floral shapes.

Razors were used to shave both the beard and the head. Tweezers also formed part of the regular toilet equipment.

Mirrors were indispensable. They were made of metal burnished and polished until it was possible to see one's reflection. Most of the mirrors that have survived from the ancient East are made of copper or bronze. The majority were cast in one piece with a tang, which was then inserted into a handle of bone, ivory, wood, or alabaster. Only in rare cases has the handle been preserved.
Perfumes

In the ancient world, perfumes and spices were precious commodities. Their price often exceeded that of gold and silver. Perfumes were costly because production processes were complicated, only minute amounts could be extracted from plants, and transporting ingredients from afar was expensive.

Most of the perfumes in the ancient world were made on an oil base, unlike modern perfumes, which use an alcohol base. In ancient Israel, the base was most often olive oil, while in Mesopotamia it was sesame oil, and in Egypt, usually animal fat.

Just as the art of the perfumer required skill, refinement, and discriminating taste, so too did the art of fashioning vessels for the perfumes. Before the first century B.C., the most common perfume container was the small pottery bottle. These bottles were produced in the shapes of pomegranates, animals, and other intriguing forms. The aroma of the liquid could evaporate through the porous clay, however, thus diluting the perfume’s potency.

Stone was also used for making perfume bottles. One of the most popular containers of this type was the alabaston, named after the alabaster from which it was generally made.

As early as the middle of the second millennium B.C., the Egyptians began producing glass perfume bottles. Its impermeability and aesthetic allure made glass eminently suited to the perfume industry. But glass was still a rare and relatively costly commodity on a par with precious stones and metals. The exquisitely crafted glass perfume bottles of this period were beyond the reach of most people.

The earliest glass bottles, which imitated the forms of their
Perfumes

Pottery counterparts, were core-wound and made of multicolor glass. Between the sixth and fourth centuries B.C., small flasks made of colored glass spread to many sites along the Mediterranean coast.

The invention of blown glass in the first century B.C. brought about a revolution in perfume containers. The blowing technique made glass much more affordable, and the small glass flask soon replaced the pottery bottle as the distinctive receptacle for perfume, as it remains to this day. Called the candlestick bottle, the most widespread type has a long narrow neck, which helped reduce the evaporation of the perfume, and a small mouth, which allowed control in pouring the precious contents. The mouth was probably stoppered with a piece of cloth, parchment, or papyrus.

From the first and second centuries A.D. onward, flasks made of mold-blown glass in distinctive shapes became common. Among these are bottles shaped like fruits such as dates, which may have been intended to indicate the contents of the flask. Some containers were even shaped like human heads.

The cosmetic containers of antiquity—and the very use of cosmetic preparations in ancient times—represent the age-old desire of men and women both to pamper themselves and to enhance their beauty, pursuits that continue in our world today.

Michal Dayagi-Mendels
WORKS IN EXHIBITION

Body Care

For the peoples of the ancient East, bathing was important both to ritual and to personal cleanliness. The Babylonians washed the entire body in preparation for religious festivals. And the Bible mentions bathing for ritual purification. Most of the population might content themselves with washing the face, hands, and feet, but among the fastidious Egyptian nobility and well-to-do, daily ablutions were the rule.

After the bath, rich and poor alike applied oils and ointments to soothe and protect their skin. The growth of the unguent industry brought the manufacture of handsome vessels to contain them. Great numbers of boxes and pots of alabaster, faience, ivory, bone, bronze, and pottery have been found throughout the ancient East and the Mediterranean.

1. Footbath, Lachish  
   Pottery, 8th-7th century B.C.  
   H: 14, L: 52, W: 34 cm.

2. Figurine of a woman bathing, Akhziv  
   Pottery, 7th-6th century B.C.  
   H: 8.3, L: 10.8 cm.

3. Aryballos, Greece  
   Stone, 6th century B.C.  
   H: 7.4, Dia: 6 cm.

4. Oil bottle, Corinthian  
   Pottery, 7th century B.C.  
   H: 9.8, Dia: 5.3 cm.

5. Oil bottle, Corinthian  
   Pottery, c. 600 B.C.  
   H: 6.4, Dia: 6 cm.

6. Aryballos in the shape of a woman, Greece  
   Pottery, 6th century B.C.  
   H: 10.4, W: 7.5 cm.

7. Oil bottle, Proto-Corinthian  
   Pottery, 7th century B.C.  
   H: 7.2, Dia: 5.7 cm.

8. Vase in the shape of a hare,  
   Pottery, early 6th century B.C.  
   L: 17.5, W: 6 cm.

9. Aryballos  
   Glass, 1st-2nd century A.D.  
   H: 4.5, Dia: 4.8 cm.

10. Strigil, Nazareth  
    Bronze, Roman  
    L: 22, W: 10.2 cm.

11. Fish-shaped container, Greece  
    Bronze, c. 600 B.C.  
    H: 9.3, L: 13 cm.

12. Lion bowl, Tel Kinneret  
    Stone, 9th-8th century B.C.  
    L: 13.2, W: 11 cm.

13. Lion bowl, Ein Gev  
    Stone, 9th-8th century B.C.  
    L:10, W: 6.2 cm.

14. Pilgrim flask, Megiddo  
    Pottery, 11th century B.C.  
    H: 18.4, W: 10 cm.

15. Pilgrim flask  
    Pottery, 12th-11th century B.C.  
    H: 19, W: 11 cm.

16. Pot of ointment  
    Stone, 2nd mill. B.C.  
    H: 9.5, Dia: 16 cm.

17. Pot of ointment  
    Stone, 2nd mill. B.C.  
    H: 6.5, Dia: 12.5 cm.

18. Pot of ointment  
    Alabaster, 2nd mill. B.C.  
    H: 15, Dia: 9.2 cm.

19. Painted oil bottle  
    Pottery, 5th century B.C.  
    H: 11.7, Dia: 7.1 cm.

20. Bottle, Tel-Michal  
    Alabaster, Persian  
    H: 17, Dia: 5.1 cm.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Oil bottle, Tell el-Ajjul Alabaster, 1500 B.C.</td>
<td>H: 10, Dia: 7 cm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Pyxis, Dan Pottery, 14th century B.C.</td>
<td>H: 6.5, Dia: 8.5 cm.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Facial Care and Makeup

Cosmetics may have originated in ancient Egypt, where the statues of gods were painted to make them appear more lifelike. Women eventually adopted the practice to enhance their beauty, beginning with the eyes. The earliest evidence of use of eye makeup comes from graves from the Badarian period (c. 4000 B.C.), where makeup substances and grinding palettes were found. The use of kohl to paint the eyes eventually became widespread throughout the ancient East.

In Greece and Rome, women devoted hours to facial care, spreading various creams on the face and applying makeup in vivid, contrasting colors. The complexion was whitened with lead powder, even though lead's harmful properties were understood, and lips and cheeks were painted bright red.

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<th>No.</th>
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<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Grinding bowl, Meggido Stone, 8th-7th century B.C.</td>
<td>H: 5.4, Dia: 10.6 cm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Cosmetic container, Hazor Stone, 8th-7th century B.C.</td>
<td>H: 8.5, Dia: 6 cm.</td>
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<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Cosmetic palette</td>
<td>Stone, 7th century B.C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Cosmetic palette</td>
<td>Stone, 7th century B.C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Grinding bowl</td>
<td>Stone, 8th-7th century B.C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Inlaid eyes, Akhziv Glass and bone, 6th-5th century B.C. Eye 7.8, Eyyeb 9;</td>
<td>Eye 8.7, Eyyeb 9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
38. Cosmetic dish, Egypt
   Stone, 1500 B.C.
   L: 14.2, W: 8 cm.

39. Cosmetic dish, Egypt
   Stone, 1500 B.C.
   L: 13.2, W: 5.5 cm.

40. Kohl tube
    Egypt
    Ivory, c. 1500 B.C.
    L: 17, Dia: 2.5 cm.

41. Kohl container, Egypt
    Stone, c. 1500 B.C.
    H: 7.5, W: 4.7; stick L: 6.7 cm.

42. Kohl pot with lid,
    Tell el-Ajjul
    Alabaster, c. 1500 B.C.
    H: 5.7, Dia: 3.5 cm.

43. Kohl container, monkey
    shape, Gezer
    Stone, c. 1400 B.C.
    H: 7.4, W: 8 cm.

44. Cosmetic pot, Egypt
    Marble, 2nd mill. B.C.
    H: 5.3, W: 8.4 cm.

45. Cosmetic dish
    Rock crystal, c. 1500 B.C.
    H: 2.5, W: 7.5 cm.

46. Cosmetic box
    Alabaster, 7th-6th
    century B.C.
    H: 8.5, Dia: 8 cm.

47. Cosmetic box
    Alabaster, 2nd mill. B.C.
    H: 6.1, Dia: 6 cm.

48. Cosmetic container
    Alabaster, 2nd mill. B.C.
    H: 4.1, Dia: 6 cm.

49. Multiple kohl tube,
    Eretz, Israel
    Glass, 3rd-5th century A.D.
    H: 20.3, W: 5.6 cm.

50. Double kohl tube and
    kohl stick, el-Jish
    Glass, bronze, 4th century A.D.
    H: 19.3, W: 10; stick L: 16.5 cm.

51. Kohl tube
    Glass, 3rd-5th century A.D.
    H: 11.1, W: 6.5 cm.

52. Kohl tube
    Glass, 3rd-5th century A.D.
    H: 14.8, Dia: 4.9 cm.

53. Kohl tube
    Glass, 14th century A.D.
    H: 14.4, Dia: 5.2 cm.

54. Kohl tube, Bet Yerah
    Glass, 14th century A.D.
    H: 12, Dia: 2.5 cm.

55. Kohl container
    Bronze, 1st mill. B.C.
    H: 8.8, Dia: 2.5 cm.

56. Kohl container in shape
    of a woman
    Bronze, 6th-5th century B.C.
    H: 12.5, W: 2.1 cm.

57. Kohl stick
    Bronze, 1st mill. B.C.
    L: 8.8, W: 5.6 cm.

58. Kohl stick
    Bronze, 1st mill. B.C.
    L: 9.2, W: 5.8 cm.

59. Pair of kohl sticks
    Bronze, 1st mill. B.C.
    L: 8.2, W: 1; L: 8, W: 1.1 cm.

60. Cosmetic spoon, Jerusalem
    Bone, Roman
    L: 10, W: 2.2 cm.

61. Spatula
    Bronze, Byzantine
    L: 12.2 cm.

62. Double kohl stick
    Bronze, 1st century A.D.
    L: 11 cm.

63. Spatula, Ein Yahav
    Bronze, Early Arab
    L: 12.5 cm.
Hair and Hairstyles

Hairdresser and barber are among the most ancient of professions. Hairstyles for men differed from Mesopotamia to Egypt to Israel, but men and women alike might wear wigs on special occasions. Greek and Roman men usually wore their hair short.

Women of all cultures grew their hair long as an essential element of their beauty. “You are fair, my love... your hair is as a flock of goats coming down from Mount Gilead,” says the Song of Solomon (4:1). Long hair allowed the elaborate hairdos that could take hours to arrange. A wealthy woman might employ her own personal coiffeuse.

Although the Egyptians considered beards unkempt and shaved assiduously, in Israel, the long, well-groomed beard was a mark of distinction. Hebrew priests were forbidden to shave their heads or the edges of their beards.

Razors, combs, hairpins, tweezers, mirrors, and other tools of the hairdresser’s art have survived from sites throughout the ancient East, as have busts immortalizing changing tastes in coiffures.

64. Astarte figurine
   Pottery, 8th-7th century B.C.
   H: 15.9, W: 8.7 cm.

65. Female figurine, Akhviz
   Pottery, 7th century B.C.
   H: 21, W: 8.2 cm.

66. Female head, Mesopotamia
   Pottery, c. 1800-1700 B.C.
   H: 21, W: 17 cm.

67. Male head
   Stone, 3rd-2nd century B.C.
   H: 8, W: 7 cm.

68. Bare-headed man, Egypt
   Stone, 1st mill. B.C.
   H: 13, W: 8 cm.

69. Asiatic head, Egypt
   Stone, c. 1500 B.C.
   H: 12, W: 9 cm.

70. Female head, Egypt
    Wood, c. 1200 B.C.
    H: 13, W: 6 cm.

71. Female figurine
    Stone, 2nd mill. B.C.
    H: 8.2, W: 5.8 cm.

72. Head of Aphrodite
    Marble, 2nd century B.C.
    H: 17, W: 14 cm.

73. Comb, Ein Gedi
    Wood, Hellenistic
    L: 8, W: 8 cm.

74. Pair of tweezers
    Bronze, Roman
    L: 7.5 cm.

75. Comb, Egypt
    Wood, Coptic, 5th century A.D.
    L: 13, W: 6.5 cm.

76. Razor
    Bronze, c. 1500 B.C.
    L: 13.5, W: 2.5 cm.

77. Hair-curler
    Bronze, c. 1500 B.C.
    L: 12 cm.

78. Hair pin
    Bone, Roman
    L: 14 cm.

79. Hair pin, Beisan
    Bone, Roman
    L: 11.1 cm.

80. Hair pin, Sebastieh
    Bone, Roman
    L: 12 cm.

81. Hair pin, Sebastieh
    Bone, Roman
    L: 10.6 cm.

82. Hair pin, sheikh Abreiq
    Bone, 3rd-4th century A.D.
    L: 10.3 cm.

83. Hair pin, Ascalon
    Bronze, 1st century A.D.
    L: 11.6 cm.
84. Hair pin, el-Binneh
Bronze, Roman
L: 9.4 cm.

85. Hair pin, el-Binneh
Bronze, Roman
L: 10.1 cm.

86. Hair pin, el-Binneh
Bronze, Roman
L: 10.5 cm.

87. Hair pin, el-Binneh
Bronze, Roman
L: 9.7 cm.

88. Hair pin, el-Binneh
Bronze, Roman
L: 9.5 cm.

89. Hair pin
Bone, Arab
L: 11 cm.

Perfume Production

In antiquity, perfumes were often more precious than gold. Perfumers, who were usually organized into family-based guilds, guarded the secrets of their trade jealously and passed them as cherished birthrights from one generation to the next.

Just as the art of the perfumer required discriminating taste, so, too, did the design of bottles and jars for the costly scents. These elegant vessels were valued for their own beauty, as well as for the price of their contents. The earliest were made of pottery, but the invention of blown glass in the first century BC revolutionized perfume bottle production. Blown glass was much more affordable, and the small glass flask soon became the preferred receptacle for perfume, as it remains to this day.

90. Bottle
Glass, 6th century B.C.
H: 11.5, Dia: 3.5 cm.

91. Bottle, Beth Shean
Glass, 6th century B.C.
H: 9, Dia × 4.7 cm.

92. Bottle, aryballos
Glass, 5th-4th century B.C.
H: 6.6, Dia: 5 cm.

93. Pomegranate bottle
Pottery, 9th-8th century B.C.
H: 7.3, Dia: 7 cm.

94. Juglet
Pottery, 10th century B.C.
H: 10, Dia: 5.5 cm.

95. Juglet
Pottery, 10th century B.C.
H: 8.8, Dia: 5.9 cm.

96. Bottle, human face shape
Glass, Roman
H: 6.5, Dia: 3.7 cm.

97. Date-shaped bottle
Glass, 1st century A.D.
H: 9.3, Dia: 3 cm.

98. Bottle-sprinkle
Glass, Roman
H: 9.2, Dia: 6.4 cm.

99. Bottle-sprinkle
Glass, Roman
H: 9, Dia: 6 cm.

100. Bottle, human face-shaped
Glass, Roman
H: 5.8, Dia: 3.5 cm.

101. Bottle, human-shaped
Glass, Roman
H: 7.7, Dia: 5.2 cm.
102. Bottle Sidonian, Mishmar Haemek  
Glas, 1st century A.D.  
H: 8, Dia: 4.1 cm.

105. Bottle, Sidonian  
Glass, Roman  
H: 8, Dia: 4 cm.

104. Candle stick bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 19.1, Dia: 6.7 cm.

105. Candle stick bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 12, Dia: 4.5 cm.

106. Candle stick bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 16.2, Dia: 4.8 cm.

107. Candle stick bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 15.2, Dia: 6.2 cm.

108. Candle stick bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H 17, Dia: 6.3 cm.

109. Bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 12, Dia: 5.5 cm.

110. Bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 7.9, Dia: 1.6 cm.

111. Bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 8.2, Dia: 2.7 cm.

112. Bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 10, Dia: 5 cm.

113. Bottle  
Glass, Byzantine  
H: 6.8, Dia: 4 cm.

114. Bottle  
Glass, Byzantine  
H: 10.6, Dia: 3.8 cm.

115. Bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 12.4, Dia: 5.4 cm.

116. Bottle  
Glass, Roman  
H: 8.8, Dia: 1.9 cm.

Mirrors

117. Mirror, Egypt  
Bronze, c. 1500 B.C.  
H: 21, W: 12 cm.

118. Mirror, Tell el-Ajjul  
Bronze, c. 1500 B.C.  
H: 22.8, W: 12.5 cm.
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