(e.g., the identification of an original capital from the Forum of Julius Caesar). While the volume is profusely illustrated, some expected drawings are absent. The only profile of the temple's cornice, for example, is found on a scaled-down drawing of a lateral section of the entire shrine. There is no measured drawing of the facade elevation, other than archival images sketched more than 50 years ago. The index provides only the names of sites and monuments.

Whether this book has established the last word on the Temple of Apollo in Circo remains to be seen. Viscogliosi's interpretation of the evidence is the result of many years of study and publication; his arguments are thoughtful and carefully rendered, and students of Augustan Rome should consider this effort a welcome addition to the documentation of this vital period in Roman architectural history.

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METROPOLIS AND HINTERLAND: THE CITY OF ROME AND THE ITALIAN ECONOMY 200 B.C.–A.D. 200, by *Neville Morley*. Pp. xi + 211, figs. 4, maps 3, table 1. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 1996. $49.95. ISBN 0-521-56006-3.

This book is another entry in the rapidly expanding literature concerned with the economic role of the city in the ancient world. It is surprising that the economic relationship between the ancient city of Rome and its hinterland has never been the subject of any comprehensive investigation, and the author, noting this fact, states that "the main aim of this book is to help fill this gap by offering a detailed study of the influence of the metropolis on one part of its empire [i.e., the Italian peninsula]" (7).

The book seeks to cover this vast and complex topic in seven chapters that add up to just 185 pages of text. In chapters 1 and 2, Morley sets the stage by reviewing scholarly thought on the concept of the "consumer city" from Bücher through Finley, and then examining the evidence for the population of Rome and the remainder of the peninsula. In chapter 3 he then lays out a model for agricultural development in Roman Italy that serves as the organizing basis for the material treated in chapters 4–6. This model is derived directly from von Thünen's model for the location of agricultural production, which holds that under ideal conditions a market town will be surrounded by distinct land-use zones as a function of the labor inputs and transport costs associated with various forms of agricultural production. Activities with high labor inputs and/or high transport costs will tend to be located close to the town, those with progressively lower requirements increasingly farther away. Morley is well aware that this is a highly idealized scheme, and endeavors to develop a more nuanced model by taking into consideration the specific geographic, technological, and ideological factors that would have conditioned the location of agricultural activity in Roman Italy. He concludes that "rather than zones of specialized production, we may expect zones of farming systems, differing in the number of farms whose production is oriented towards the market, and in the intensity of cultivation" (82).

In chapters 4–6, Morley then examines the literary and archaeological evidence for agricultural production in Roman Italy against the background of this model, discussing in turn what he sees as three distinct zones marked as such by their progressively greater distance from the *urbs*. These are Rome's immediate hinterland (the "suburbium"), its extended hinterland, and the remainder of the peninsula. Chapter 4 thus presents the evidence for the suburbium, which Morley identifies as the territory bounded by the Monti Sabatini, the Monti Sabini, and the Colli Albani. Agricultural activity in this area came to be dominated by the labor-intensive production of high-value items such as vegetables, game birds, honey, and flowers, principally for the urban market. In chapter 5 he then evaluates the evidence for agricultural production in Rome's extended hinterland, which he envisages as a zone stretching outward from the suburbium along the Tyrrhenian coast and up the Tiber valley into the interior of the peninsula. Agriculture in this area came to be characterized by medium-sized estates (the "*villa*") that exploited slave labor for the intensive production of grain, wine, and oil, a significant portion of which was destined for the urban market. In chapter 6, after invoking world-systems theory as a device for understanding the nature of the economic relationship between Rome and the more distant parts of the peninsula, Morley examines agriculture in these areas. Due to high transport costs, the impact of urban demand was less conspicuous here than in the other two zones, being limited in large part to stimulating the emergence in some areas of pastoral economies oriented on the supply of the urban market.

The seventh and final chapter examines two largely unrelated topics: the mechanisms for marketing agricultural produce in Roman Italy, and the economic impact that the urban market and the attractions of the city had on town life elsewhere in the peninsula. With regard to the former, Morley stresses the importance of the role played by middleman traders in mobilizing agricultural produce for provisioning the capital, and argues that low-order market towns were crucial in this process, serving as venues for the bulking of the foodstuffs destined for Rome.

While the author deserves credit for taking on this challenging and important topic and provides interesting and original insights in some areas (e.g., immigration to Rome from the remainder of the peninsula, the importance of urban demand in the expansion of Italian viticulture), this book fails to mobilize much of the material that might be used to develop a picture of economic relations between Rome and its hinterland. Among the topics given little or no consideration are Tiber navigation, the facilities that served for the marketing of agricultural produce at Rome (the *Portus Vinarius*, the *Campus Pecuarius*, and so forth), and the interrelation between agricultural production and the city's demand for construction materials, fuel, and craft

goods. Emblematic of this spottiness is the book's failure to mention even once the urban customs boundary, the feature that served as the formal economic barrier between Rome and not-Rome. Also to be lamented is the fact that there is virtually no discussion of economic relations between Rome and its hinterland during the early modern period, a surprising omission for a historian who in his discussion of the consumer city advocates a comparative perspective.

One may also question the appropriateness of the von Thünen model as the basis for an analysis of the development of Italian agriculture. This model is based on the assumption of a closed productive system, with agricultural produce marketed at a single town center and cost determined by distance from that central place in a simple, straightforward way. Yet, as Morley points out, Italian agriculture represented a radically different situation, involving production for both the local and the urban market, with the mobilization of goods for the latter involving a hierarchy of market centers and the participation of middlemen such as *negotiatores vinarii* and *mercatores bovarii*, who, among other things, regularly acquired goods at the farm gate rather than at market towns. It is on this account somewhat misleading to divorce, as the author has done, the discussions of production in Rome's extended hinterland and the more distant parts of the peninsula from that of the marketing institutions considered in chapter 7, since it was the latter that effectively determined the cost of the goods produced in these zones. In order better to understand patterns in the nature of agricultural production in these regions, it will be necessary to analyze more closely the activities of middlemen, considering how these are apt to have been conditioned by a complex set of interacting factors, only one of which would have been distance from Rome.

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Les amphores du Sado, Portugal: Prospection des fours et analyse du matériel, by *Françoise Mayet, Anne Schmitt,* and *Carlos Tavares da Silva.* Pp. 230, color pls. 14, pls. 40, figs. 32, plans 9, maps 16, tables 3. De Boccard, Paris 1996.

The study of amphoras has been developing fast in the last 30 years, including the growth of several specialized branches of investigation: amphora types; production or consumption centers; and typological, epigraphic, and petrographic analyses. Archaeological surveys of amphora-producing areas are a particularly important research avenue, of which the four-volume survey by Michel Ponsich of the Guadalquivir valley in southern Spain is probably the most comprehensive catalogue of sites, amphoras, inscriptions, and other artifacts.

This book, by French and Portuguese archaeologists, follows this lead, being the result of a long-standing research mission and forming part of a series of books on the archaeological exploration of the Sado River basin in southern Portugal. The book is divided into five main parts, beginning with an overall introduction to the aims of the project—the study of fish-sauce production in the lower valley of the Sado, around seven sites close to the river. There is also a brief introduction to the amphora types produced in the area, namely Dressel 14, Almagro 50, Beltrán 72, Almagro 51a–b, Almagro 51c, and Keay LXXVIII, and to its geographical setting. The authors emphasize that warm waters, an abundance of fish, and the presence of salt mines led to an environment favoring the installation of an "industrial district" (27).

The bulk of the book presents the results of the archaeological survey of the seven sites (29–119). Good maps, kiln plans and stratigraphic sections, lists of artifacts, and a comprehensive publication of amphora drawings enable the reader to become well acquainted with the whole area. Abul (Alcácer do Sal), originally a Phoenician site, witnessed the earliest amphora production in the Sado valley. This should probably be dated to the period of Augustus and Tiberius, for mass production is already in place by the time of Claudius (p. 57) and would continue actively up to the mid-fifth century A.D. The mass production implied that there were kilns solely for Dressel 14 lids at Pinheiro, although some sites, like Barrosinha, produced amphoras in family units (p. 38), while others, like Enchurrasqueira, produced a number of graffiti indicating that several workers were active at the same time (p. 50). At the conclusion of the survey, the authors suggest that, since the kilns were located on riverbanks, it was possible to send empty vessels to be used in the fish-sauce workshops at Tróia and Setúbal. The kilns explored are smaller than those known in Baetica but they continued exporting fish sauce for hundreds of years (mid-first to mid-fifth centuries A.D.). It is interesting to note that the differences in settlement pattern between the Baetis and Sado valleys are explained by several factors, not least the fact that olive-oil and fish-sauce production are subject to different constraints. What is remarkable, however, is that both settlement patterns can be related to large-scale export activities. Finally, petrographic analysis was carried out with a sample of at least 10 artifacts per site (121–65).

The authors also studied a consumption site, São Cucufate, a rural settlement with many amphora sherds and Samian pottery, and thus clearly linked to an urban market economy (167). Lusitanian amphoras are in the clear majority, with the most important imported amphora being the well-known Dressel 20 olive-oil vessel from Baetica. It needs to be emphasized that the investigators found 994 sherds of fish-sauce amphoras, and only 45 sherds of wine and olive-oil vessels, implying that a "villa in the hinterland could thus have as varied a diet as a villa on the coast or on a river bank. These sea products came from different provinces" (169)—mostly from Baetica and from North Africa. As might be expected, Lusitanian amphoras chiefly came from the Tagus and Sado valleys, areas not far from São Cucufate. Concluding this section, the authors pro-