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Into the Hinterland: The Middle Bronze Age Building at Toprakhisar Höyük, Altınözü (Hatay, Turkey)

Murat AKAR – Demet KARA*

Abstract

The recent salvage excavations conducted by the Hatay Archaeological Museum at Toprakhisar Höyük (Altınözü) in the highlands surrounding the Amuq Valley on its southwestern side have revealed architectural data regarding re-urbanization patterns in the Middle Bronze Age (2000-1600 BC, MBA hereafter). This archaeological data is discussed under the larger theme of materiality, function, and conscious symbolism in the use of space. It is argued that rural sites likewise contained administrative complexes with stylistic attributes similar to well-known and larger palaces from the urban centers of the region.

Keywords: Altınözü, Toprakhisar Höyük, Middle Bronze Age, Administrative Architecture, Palace Architecture, Center-Periphery Theory

Öz

Amik Ovasını güneybatıdan çevreleyen dağlık alanda yer alan ve Hatay Arkeoloji Müzesi tarafından gerçekleştirilen Toprakhisar Höyük (Altınözü, Hatay) kurtarma kazısında, Orta Tunç Çağı (MÖ 2000-1600) döneminde yeniden kentleşme olgusunu yansıtan bir yapı kompleksi açığa çıkartılmıştır. Mekan kullanımında maddesellik, işlev ve bilinçli sembolizm konusu çerçevesinde irdelenen arkeolojik veri üzerinden, kırsal yerleşimlerde görülen idari yapı komplekslerinin, kent merkezlerinden bilinen daha büyük ölçekteki sarayların stilistik özellikleri ile benzerlik gösterdiği savunulmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Altınözü, Toprakhisar Höyük, Orta Tunç Çağı, İdari Yapı Mimarisi, Saray Mimarisi, Kent-Kırsal Teorisi

Introduction

The functional and symbolic use of space in the MBA is reflected in the formation of multifunctional administrative structures that are generally defined under the term “palace”¹. A palace can be seen as a micro-space that encapsulates the intra-site characteristics of a settlement. For example, its spatial organization as well as its embedded materiality combined with the size of the structure is often used as a primary index marker for its identification as a “palace”. Yet, the term does not only apply to a designated space where the ruling authority is based, but also involves a number of parameters that expand the definition of a 2nd millennium BC palace to an administrative complex with economic, political, and symbolic attributes such as the

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¹ For a discussion on the concept of a palace in the Near East, see Postgate 1992, 141; Winter 1993.

three-dimensional representation of the power and prestige of MBA cities². However, in many cases, excavation strategies have in the past limited exposure of large-scale structures only to central mound sites and have not focused attention on smaller hinterland satellite sites³. Thus, it is not always easy or correct to apply the term “palace” by depending only upon the factor of its larger scale or without understanding inter- or intra-site settlement characteristics⁴. This is best noted in McClellan’s study of the Late Bronze Age households of Alalakh, where he argued that unless a palace was already evident, private houses could have easily been defined as palaces due to their size if found elsewhere in Syria⁵.

Thus, to avoid using the decisive word “palace” in this discussion of what we see as a peripheral settlement located approximately 15 km⁶ from the urban center Alalakh, the term “administrative complex” is preferred. This is due to the large amount of space dedicated to large-scale food processing within a single structure. Furthermore, both its architectural style and the use of space is strikingly similar to but smaller than the palaces in regional capitals such as Alalakh and Ebla. This micro-scale examination of the Toprakhisar MBA building contributes to our understanding of the symbiotic interaction in center and periphery dynamics and economies of scale. Furthermore, for the first time the Toprakhisar Höyük data allows the integration of textual evidence from the corpus of the MBA Alalakh Level VII texts regarding the subjects of land tenure, private property, and urban-rural interactions⁷ into a broader context using archaeological evidence.

Geographical Setting

Toprakhisar Höyük is located in the narrow river valley of Beyazçay, a tributary of the Orontes River whose source is the mountains of Yayladağ and runs through the Altınözü district of Hatay (Fig. 1). Beyazçay Valley is flanked by low hills (200-300 m) on its east and west that create a narrow passageway from the Avsuyu district in the Amuq to Toprakhisar Village in a southwesterly direction. Along with Classical and Byzantine period settlements, the number of mound-type sites with prehistoric occupations spotted during the recent surveys⁸ suggest that the site was along the route that connects the Amuq to highland valley sites in the southwest and to the Lower Orontes region in Syria, likely through multiple hilltop passages in the east⁹.

Today the hills around Toprakhisar Höyük are covered with naturally grown and cultivated olive trees, and the business of olive oil constitutes the main source of income for the region. The surveys conducted in the Altınözü region confirm that olive cultivation extends back to the Classical period, with substantial records of olive oil production centers¹⁰. Although no pre-Classical period olive production centers have been recorded yet, Middle and Late Bronze Age

² For a discussion on erecting royal monuments as symbols of power, see Ussishkin 1989; Bretschneider et al. 2007, 3.

³ For a discussion on the topic, see Adams 1965; Schwartz – Falconer 1994.

⁴ Trigger 1990, 119.

⁵ McClellan 1997.

⁶ This distance is calculated by following a route running along the Orontes and its estuary Beyazçay. It may vary depending on the choice of path, but the walking distance would not take more than a day.

⁷ Lauinger 2015, 16; Magness-Gardinier 1994.

⁸ Pamir – Henry 2018.

⁹ For connecting routes, see Mazzoni 2017.

¹⁰ Pamir 2010, 77; Tchalenko 1953, 422.

texts from Alalakh refer to specialized towns in the production of olive oil¹¹. The excavations both at Tell Atchana¹² and Toprakhisar Höyük¹³ have revealed evidence of olive consumption in their archaeobotanical and anthracological collections.

Located 140 m above sea level and about 60 m higher than the floor of the Amuq Valley, the mound gently connects with the piedmont of the hills to the north and can be defined as a hillside mound settlement (Fig. 2). The undisturbed section of the mound extends roughly across an area of 2 ha, but the exact expansion of the site is unclear due to significant human impact in the region. Heavily damaged by Toprakhisar village located on its top, it is also under threat from the Yarseli dam¹⁴ that was constructed in the 1980s. This became the primary motivator for the initiation of rescue excavations. The dam's reservoir supplies the yearly water demand for extensive agricultural activities, and it surrounds the site from south to northeast. Because of a cycle of completely dry periods and full ones with a high-water level of up to 10 m¹⁵, the dam has accelerated the erosion process that the site suffers along its southern and western sides. This annual erosion cycle causes the mound to recede around its edges (Fig. 3), consequently revealing archaeological finds that are picked up by locals.

The sharp crescent-shaped cut that exposed the entire south section of the mound at first sight was thought to be the result of twenty years of erosion created by the reservoir. This turned out to be a false interpretation when the declassified Corona satellite images¹⁶ taken prior to the construction of the dam were investigated (Fig. 4). The images showed that the site by that time had already acquired its current shape with a clear cut on the south and old river channels visible on its southern extension. This suggested the possibility that the site was cut progressively through time by high-density river flows. Weakened by the river cutting the site from its base, the process continued with the gradual collapse and erosion of its southern slope. This created a 90-degree section resembling a cliff on a seaside. The collapsed deposits were then swept away and buried by high-density river flows. It is striking to observe that no archaeological finds are visible in the reservoir beyond the 125 m contour line once the flat surface of the dam is reached (Fig. 5).

The current condition of the site and this unexpected distribution pattern of no finds necessitated the initiation of a geo-physical and geo-archaeological research program. A Ground Penetration Radar survey conducted in the reservoir area revealed high-density anomalies 2 m below the ground level that need to be ground-truthed in the future¹⁷. A sedimentary coring project, to be published elsewhere in detail, was conducted in 2017. It targeted the paleo-geomorphology and earthquake activity on a regional scale and the decomposition of the site at a micro-scale¹⁸. Fourteen sedimentary cores were taken around the southern and western

¹¹ Lauinger 2015, 85. The Alalakh texts also emphasized the importance of viticulture and viniculture in the region. See Dietrich – Loretz 1969; Lauinger 2015; for archaeological evidence, see Riehl 2010; Batiuk 2013.

¹² Riehl 2010, 130; Deckers 2010, 138.

¹³ Carbonized organic samples from Toprakhisar are under study by Asst. Prof. C. Pearson, Laboratory of Tree-Ring Research of the University of Arizona.

¹⁴ Karataş 2016, 118.

¹⁵ The depth was measured in May 2017 by the authors.

¹⁶ Declassified Corona images of Turkey can be acquired through <https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>.

¹⁷ The geo-physical research program is conducted under the supervision of Asst. Prof. Dr. A. F. Yüksel, Geophysical Engineering Department, Istanbul University.

¹⁸ The coring program has been conducted under the supervision of Asst. Prof. Dr. U. Aşar, Geological Engineering Department, Middle East Technical University.

perimeters of the site in an attempt to define the original extent of the mound. These confirmed the hypotheses that the site suffered through time from constant changes in the river bed. The closer we approached the site, the younger in terms of geological deposition that we encountered river deposits in sedimentary cores.

The intensive surface survey conducted on the eastern tip of the mound revealed ceramics corresponding to Amuq E, F, G, H, I, and J, thus expanding the settlement history from the Chalcolithic to the end of the Early Bronze Age¹⁹. The surface surveys conducted on top of the mound produced Amuq Phase N and O ceramics²⁰ dating to the Iron I and Iron II periods. Interestingly, no 2nd millennium BC finds were encountered during the site survey, again serving as a reminder of how surface data can be misleading in regional and chronological reconstructions of settlement patterns²¹.

The Rescue Excavations

Excavation System and Strategy

A UTM based North Oriented grid system of 100 x 100 m was established in a GIS platform that included the site and its surroundings, with 10 x 10 m units defined as squares. Due to the space limitations explained below, the excavations were not conducted in full squares. But the two excavation units are labelled according to their precise location within the squares to which they correspond in the digital-scape – 51.37 and 52.37²², respectively, in Area 1: a code used for the high mound²³ (Fig. 5).

In Area 1, due to private ownership, the rescue excavations were not able to begin from the top of the mound but in the adjacent nationalized property of the State Hydraulics Works. Here the top two meters of the mound with its gentle slope towards the west had previously been bulldozed to create a flat surface for the construction of a barn, which in time was demolished. The area was then backfilled to be used for small-scale agricultural activities.

The north-oriented excavation units in this area were placed along the line of the eastern terrace cut. The southern end of the excavation area is defined by the southern cliff of the mound. Here along the edge runs the pathway that leads to the other quarter of Toprakhisar village located on the other side of the river/dam. To avoid completely blocking the pathway, a 2 m space between the excavation area and the southern cliff was left to maintain the passage²⁴. The northern end of the terraced field was subject to another terracing operation and the construction of a mudbrick house. It was limited by a boundary wall on the west. Parallel to the boundary wall runs the street that leads to the village tea house (Fig. 6).

¹⁹ To be published elsewhere, this ceramic study and identification of the prehistoric survey assemblage is primarily based on the typology of Braidwood – Braidwood (1960).

²⁰ See Pucci 2010; Pucci 2013.

²¹ Banning 1996, 25.

²² Square 51.37 is about 9 x 7 m; Square 52.37 is 7.35 x 6.75 m. The total exposed area is about 112 m².

²³ The excavations have been conducted and recorded using the Locus and Lot system, the same methodology applied at the Tell Atchana Excavations; see Yener et al. in press. The consistent data collection between the two sites now allows the possibility of conducting cross-comparative analysis at a statistical level. Significant information can be extracted not only in the traditional way of approaching material culture but also in the technological framework of material science.

²⁴ The pathway disappears along the base of the eastern slope when the lower slopes of the mound are underwater, but villagers maintain transit using boats.

Due to the space limitations detailed above, the excavations initiated in Square 51.37²⁵ in 2016 expanded only towards the north and east, with the maximum extent reached in 2017 with Square 52.37²⁶. Following its documentation, the north balk of 51.37 was removed during this extension to get as much as possible from the limited space available. With both yielding a similar composition, the results are presented according to the overall stratigraphy acquired.

Since no excavations have been conducted on the highest part of the mound yet, a site-wide periodization remains to be explored. Nevertheless, section cleaning conducted on the 2-m high cut on the eastern terrace showed that during or after MBA, the site was abandoned and reoccupied during the Early Iron Age. This is defined by the profile of a pyrotechnical feature visible in the cut that yields Early Iron Age local simple and painted wares. No Late Bronze Age ceramics were encountered²⁷. Accepting the absence of a Late Bronze Age occupation with the current state of the data available, a comparison can be made with other Amuq sites. A similar change in the settlement patterns is observed in the shift from MBA to Late Bronze Age in the Amuq when many of the small and medium size MBA settlements were abandoned. Habitations then were concentrated in larger sites during the Late Bronze Age²⁸.

The Stratigraphy

The stratigraphy acquired from the two excavation squares are consistent and straightforward²⁹. The MBA building is defined as Local Phase 3, the earliest structure encountered within the excavation unit. Following this, Local Phase 2 above is defined by a series of MBA pits that indicate a change in the use of the area. The modern terracing and the remains of a barn represents the latest 20th century AD activities defined under Local Phase 1.

The structures encountered in each local phase have been given a building number with a coding system that consists of sequential numbers starting from “1” site-wide. Following this system, Building 1 is the remains of the 20th century AD barn; Building 2 is the MBA structure.

Local Phase 3

Building 2

The well-preserved remains of a northwest to southeast-oriented building complex was encountered in two excavation units. The excavations conducted in Square 51.37 revealed three distinct floor levels defined from latest to earliest as 3a, 3b, and 3c, whereas the excavations conducted in Square 52.37 were only able to reach to the latest surface, Local Phase 3a³⁰.

²⁵ The square supervisors in 2016-2017 were A. Deniz Çınar (Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University) and Onur Hasan Kırman (Mustafa Kemal University).

²⁶ The square supervisor was O. Omuzubozlu (Mustafa Kemal University).

²⁷ This statement may change in the future once the top of the mound is explored.

²⁸ Casana 2009, 2013. See also Bulu 2017 and Yener et al. 2017 for a recent re-evaluation of the 2nd millennium BC survey data applying the newly established Tell Atchana MBA-LBA pottery sequence.

²⁹ The stratigraphic data recording methodology involved the taking of daily aerial photos of the excavation area which are geo-referenced to their precise dimensions and location. This creates the possibility of reconstructing the daily stratigraphic progress in a digital environment. This comprehensive method of data collection is further supported by the creation of 3-D models of building phases. A full-time operational Total Station was also in use not only for plotting *in situ* floor content, but also for the materials from fill deposits (from objects to scientific samples). This strategy allowed spatially defining materials in a temporal deposition from the moment of abandonment to the decomposition and levelling of structures.

³⁰ This article presents Local Phase 3a, the latest floors encountered in the building. Once the earlier floor levels are reached and the sequence is completed, the results will be presented in a monograph dedicated to the MBA of Toprakhisar Höyük.

Belonging to Local Phase 3, the remains of another structure heavily disturbed by the pitting activity of Local Phase 2 was encountered in the outer space that possibly functioned as a passageway to Building 2. Multiple floors were not encountered in the passageway, which suggests that it was perhaps built and functioned throughout the last decades of the structure defined under Local Phase 3a³¹.

Building 2 can be spatially analyzed under five main sections: A) the outer space which possibly functioned as a street that leads to the passageway, B) the passageway, C) the narrow-butressed rooms constructed on a northwest-southeast axis, D) partially exposed rooms in the northeast, and E) courtyards in the south (Figs. 7-9).

The Architecture

Building 2 was constructed of mudbricks with no stone foundations. This is a similar technique when compared to Amuq sites in general. The walls were relatively easy to trace during the excavations, since mudbricks were made from a distinct composition of silt and sand matrix with white plastering applied on both sides. As a decorative addition, wall corners along doorways and buttresses were smoothed to be circular in shape by the application of mud mortar and a thin layer of white plaster that was renewed periodically. The mud mortar used in the binding of the bricks was also similar in composition, often making it difficult to distinguish individual bricks used in walls. The mudbricks vary in size³², but, strikingly, their distinct composition is identical to the mudbricks used in MBA Tell Atchana contexts³³. These are radically different from Late Bronze Age Tell Atchana and Early Iron Age Tell Tayinat mudbricks with their highly calcareous content³⁴. The selection of similar raw materials in making mudbricks in the Amuq and Altınözü regions in the MBA requires understanding whether this was widely accepted technological know-how or the result of environmental determinism. This question needs to be answered through the study of the ancient landscape and brick-making strategies in the future.

Floors were of beaten earth but also included a layer of cobble-sized stones underneath and alongside the courtyard walls. Here stable surfaces were needed for specialized activity areas such as heavy vessel storage or working with grinding tools. The floors seem to have traces of white-washed plaster, but the current evidence is inconclusive. From east to west, there is a gentle downward slope, suggesting that the building was constructed over a terraced surface. The floors are higher in the east than the west with up to an approximately 30 cm difference.

A. The Outer Space

On the southern side of the outer wall of Building 2, an open space was encountered that yielded indistinct waterlogged deposits mixed in its composition with ash, charcoal, and discards (L.22). Due to the slope angle towards the south, the depth reached in this area was

³¹ Due its fragmentary state and stratigraphic correlation, a decision has been given not to assign it an individual building number but to evaluate it as part of Building 2.

³² The majority of the bricks traced are 45 x 45 x 9 cm in dimension.

³³ For published MBA buildings contemporary with MBA building at Toprakhisar, see Yener 2015; Bulu 2016; Woolley 1955, 89-110.

³⁴ M. Akar actively participated in excavations at Toprakhisar Höyük and Tell Atchana and had frequent visits to Tell Tayinat so this statement is based on firsthand observation. The same observation was also provided by Woolley (1955, 91) for the final phases of the occupation at Tell Atchana.

lower in comparison to the northern end of the excavation area, where disturbance through Local Phase 2 pits and contamination from modern activity was higher. The ceramics retrieved from the outer space were high in number but fragmented into smaller pieces with worn surfaces. This indicates that they were exposed to natural conditions through time. There was also a significant percentage of Early Bronze Age sherds collected from this area. Although their condition was worn, they were easily distinguishable by their unique red and black burnishing, which suggests that the MBA building was constructed following the terracing of an Early Bronze Age surface.

B. The Passageway

Disturbed by both Local Phase 1 and 2 pits, the architectural remains were limited to a mud-brick wall corner (L.49 and L.50) laying in the southwestern end of Square 51.37. Standing up to two courses high, the walls were narrower in size and not physically adjoining the outer wall of Building 2. This structure functioned as a narrow passageway leading to Building 2, though it is unclear whether it was distinct or integrated into the building.

C. The Northwest-Southeast Oriented Narrow Rooms (1-3)

Three narrow rooms along an east-west axis were uncovered within the perimeters of Square 51.37. All connected through doorways, the eastern and western rooms (3 and 1, respectively) were partially excavated due to limitations of the excavation area. However, the central room (2) was completely excavated.

The major almost northwest-southeast oriented northern wall (L.19) was 1.30 m wide and buttressed, whereas the projecting southern wall (L.37) was slightly narrower (1 m) with no buttressing. Room spaces and doorways were created by the use of partition walls extending from the buttresses on the northern wall and two partition walls extruding from the southern wall. Heavily disturbed by Local Phase 2 and 1 pits, the thickness of the southern wall is defined through pit sections. But its extension towards the east was left unclear due to modern disturbance. Nevertheless, the overall wall thicknesses of the two projecting walls showed that the structure was likely to be two stories high.

Room 1 (L.29) yielded remains of a broken horseshoe-shaped hearth (L.41, further discussed below) in its southeastern corner with its back side extending into the western baulk. Since horseshoe-shaped hearths found in the adjacent courtyards were located along the wall faces, the extent of the room towards the west should not be greater, thus indicating that Rooms 1, 2 and 3 were approximately the same size (4 x 3 m). The presence of a hearth in Room 1 at first brought forward the possibility that the space was unroofed. The clean floor deposit, free from ash and charcoal except where the hearth was based, implied that it was an indoor space and the hearth was possibly used for reheating food with charcoal prepared outside. Around the hearth were the remains of two *in situ* ledge-handled cooking pots.

A doorway with a shallow step on its east side provided access to Room 2 (L.31). Heavily disturbed by Local Phase 2 pits, the beaten earth floor yielded few finds. Another doorway with a shallower step led to Room 3 (L.15). Within the small portion of the room excavated, the remains of a medium-sized jar which extended further into the baulk was found lying on its side, suggesting that it had perhaps fallen from a shelf nearby.

D. Partially Exposed Rooms in the Northeast (4-5)

Divided by a partition wall, two rooms with storage facilities were found in the eastern end of Square 52.37 extending partially to Square 51.37. Access to these rooms were likely provided from Courtyard 1, although this is unclear due to the presence of a Local Phase 2 pit cutting the mudbrick wall and the area where there might have been another doorway. Room 5 (L.28) was exposed in a very limited space, and thus its function is currently unknown. But based on its location, it is likely functioned as a connecting room/space between Courtyards 1 and 2.

A platform or a bench (L.59) was partially exposed along the eastern edge of the excavation area in Room 4 (L.26). This indicates that the room was smaller in size and possibly functioned as a cellar, since platform-like features are located along the wall faces or corners³⁵.

A no-discard policy was noted in the half-sunken jar (L.53) found inside the plastered platform that had been placed upside down and used for grain storage. Broken in antiquity and missing its lower body, the upper part of the jar was retained and continued to be used (Fig. 10). Prior to the placing of the jar on its rim, a basalt grinding stone fragment (another re-utilized object) was put on the ground as an insulator to prevent pest damage and provide humidity control. Since the wider body of the vessel was too wide to be covered by a ceramic lid, an organic material such as textile or leather must have been used to cover it. An unbaked clay weight found inside the jar was likely used as a weight for holding intact the textile wrapping around the jar. This arrangement shows that the vessel was used for short-term storage. Another medium-sized jar and fragments of a Syro-Cilician Ware pitcher were found in this room context.

E. The Courtyards (1-2)

Two courtyards in a row were exposed on the north side of Rooms 1-3. No doorways leading between the courtyards or Rooms 1-3 were found, indicating that circulation between the courtyards was provided through passageways and connecting rooms located on the west and east sides of the courtyards. Courtyard 1 (L.17) was completely exposed with access provided through Room 4 on the west, whereas only the southern half of Courtyard 2 (L.15) was found within the limits of Square 52.37. Assuming that the doorways were located close to walls ends, the two doorways traced in the eastern and western ends of Square 52.37 suggested that Courtyard 2 was slightly larger in size than Courtyard 1.

The most peculiar element in the organization of the courtyards was the layout of mudbrick benches with plastered side surfaces along the southern and western wall faces, which were complemented by bins or pits used for jar placement. Identical assemblages including storage jars, cooking pots, and grinding stones were found nearby horseshoe-shaped hearths. This indicates that both courtyards were organized according to the stages of food preparation (Fig. 11).

While signs of destruction were not encountered in the rooms, both courtyards were heavily burnt. The carbonized wooden planks exposed along the wall faces suggest that the courtyards were partially roofed to create shaded working spaces, which also prevented damage from unfavorable weather. No post-holes in the ground were found, which indicates that planks extended over the courtyards with supporting beams located over wall tops.

³⁵ For examples of MBII storage platforms from the region, see Gates 2000; Bulu 2016.

The slight inclination towards the north observed in the major buttressed wall (L.19) and the inclination towards the south in the partition wall (L.16) could be indicative of an earthquake that triggered the fire bringing the destruction (Fig. 11). This hypothesis can be checked once the analyses of the sedimentary cores are completed wherein traces of earthquakes can be spotted and plotted into a timescale.

Horseshoe-Shaped Hearths

Of the six horseshoe-shaped hearths, four were found as pairs of large (ca. 50 x 40 cm) and small (ca. 30 x 17 cm) in the courtyards. With one being small and easily portable, three horseshoe-shaped hearths (L.29, L.30, L.34) were recovered in Courtyard 1. They were placed along the northern wall looking south in line with storage jars, cooking pots, and grinding stones. This indicates that the cooking space where the hearths were placed had no physical separation from the rest of the courtyard. The portable horseshoe-shaped hearth (L. 34, ca. 22 x 15 cm) was found nearby stacked on top of a storage jar which was preserved to its neck. Contrarily, the two hearths (L.36, L.37) found in Courtyard 2 were located in a slightly elevated mudbrick bench (L.40) along the eastern wall (L.42, Fig. 12). Facing west, the cooking space was limited by the addition of a one-row wide mudbrick wall (L.41, Sq. 52.37) that created an isolated area. The hearth in Room 1 (L.41, Sq. 51.37), standing alone, was probably used for heating the space or reheating food with charcoal brought from outside. The elemental analysis³⁶ conducted with a portable XRF on the interior surfaces and floors of the hearths showed no traces of metal elements, therefore implying that they were primarily used for daily cooking activities.

The most distinctive aspect of the Toprakhisar horseshoe-shaped hearths is the application of decoration to their frontal faces. Four of the hearths were decorated. The decoration on the wet-smoothed surface is relatively simple and varies from two to three vertical grooves applied by fingers. The hearths found in Courtyard 2 and Room 1 have three vertical low grooves that create a flowing pattern (Fig. 12). In the largest and most well-preserved hearth (L.29) found in Courtyard 1, the front face, being wider, was first shaved to have a flat surface. Finger-width vertical grooves were then deeply applied from top to bottom, thus leaving the impression of the tip of a finger on the top. Going down, the lines become irregular towards the bottom and suggest a careless type of application (Figs. 13-14).

Ceramics

Ceramics (Figs. 15-16) retrieved from Building 2 share the same characteristics with MBA ceramic assemblages from Tell Atchana, which fall into the wider Northwest Syrian local ceramic tradition³⁷. Being utilitarian in its contextual setting, the assemblage is dominated by medium- and large-sized jars (Fig. 15.20-26) and cooking pots (Fig. 15.17-19) for storage and food processing as well as kraters (Fig. 15.12), cups (Fig. 15.4-6), and numerous bowls (Fig. 15.1-3, 7-11, 15) for serving. Although low in numbers and fragmentary in condition, painted Syro-Cilician Ware bowls, jars, and other close-shaped vessel fragments (Fig. 15.14-16) as well as Grey Burnished Ware bowls (Figs. 15.1-3; 16), are present.

The ceramic assemblage from Building 2 finds close parallels from stratigraphically excavated MBII contexts at Tell Atchana. Calcite-tempered cooking pots with ledge handle, Simple

³⁶ pXRF, Oxford Instruments X-MET 5100 was acquired from Mustafa Kemal University, MARGEM Laboratory.

³⁷ The MBA ceramics are currently being studied as part of a Ph.D. dissertation by M. Bulu (Koç University).

Ware s-curve bowls, rail-rimmed kraters, and medium- and large-sized globular jars are all known from the burnt kitchen context excavated below the Level VII Palace³⁸. Grey Burnished Ware hook-rimmed bowls, Simple Ware biconical cups, and short-necked jars are also common among the MBII assemblages of the site³⁹.

The region's MBA ceramic assemblage is relatively homogenous over a long period of time. So it is currently a difficult task to narrow down the changes in the shape and ware types into closer chronological spans or to cross-correlate the Toprakhisar Höyük sequence with other Amuq Valley sites, particularly with Tell Atchana. For instance, the frequently retrieved s-curve bowls and hook-rimmed bowls⁴⁰ cannot easily be correlated with the Atchana sequence, since they have been found throughout the MBA levels at the site⁴¹. Globular jars, on the other hand, are commonly found in MBII contexts of the Yener excavations but under-represented in the Woolley collections⁴². Syro-Cilician Wares, found in fragmentary condition at Toprakhisar, are predominantly decorated with geometric motifs, which cannot be used as an MBI-MBII chronological marker until an in-depth stylistic analysis is conducted⁴³.

The finer synchronism of MBA pottery assemblages can be established once the MBI and MBII distinction from Tell Atchana is fully explored⁴⁴. Although the majority of the ceramics found within the building are in accordance with late MBII data from Tell Atchana, the dating of the structure will remain ambiguous until the C¹⁴ and dendrochronological data is analyzed and cross-matched with the Tell Atchana sequence as part of a regional study.

While the in-depth study of Toprakhisar ceramics is in progress regarding nuances observed in pottery production in connection to its peripheral character, a macroscopic observation of Grey Burnished Ware should be briefly discussed here. Grey Burnished Ware is a distinct ware type with its fine clay and high burnishing and found at Tell Atchana from Level X onwards⁴⁵. Commonly seen in the bowl form with hook rims, it has been retrieved from habitational contexts, whereas examples of jugs are known from early Late Bronze I burials⁴⁶. It continued to be used in the Late Bronze I (Period 6) and has been suggested to be the predecessor of the lime-filled Black Impressed Ware⁴⁷.

Known as Black Burnished Ware, this ware is likewise defined as a specialized product at Tell Mardikh, Ebla, and appears in MBI and MBIIA contexts. Yielding a limited shape repertoire including bottles, juglets, carinated bowls, and hook-rimmed bowls, its function is proposed to be funerary based on the contexts revealed⁴⁸. At the Middle Euphrates site of Tuttul,

³⁸ Bulu 2016, figs. 6.1-9, 15, 7.19-20, 25; Bulu 2012, pl. 5.

³⁹ Horowitz 2015, 165-167, fig. 7.4.3-4, 8.

⁴⁰ The ceramic typology and terminology is based on that of the Tell Atchana Excavations. For a preliminary presentation of Tell Atchana typology, see Horowitz 2015.

⁴¹ Horowitz 2015, 165-166; Heinz 1992.

⁴² Horowitz 2015, 166. For examples of globular jars from Levels IX, X and XIII, see Heinz 1992, Taf. 44, 60, 62, 84.

⁴³ Gates 2000, 87.

⁴⁴ The recent excavations conducted by Yener at Tell Atchana have begun to explore the MBA sequence with soundings located below the Level IV and Level VII Palaces and squares located in previously unexplored sectors of the mound. The results from these operations will certainly improve and expand the understanding of the MBA settlement at Toprakhisar.

⁴⁵ Woolley 1955, 312; Heinz 1992.

⁴⁶ Yener 2011, 72, 80, fig. 3.

⁴⁷ Woolley 1955, 342-347; Acerol 2011.

⁴⁸ Nigro 2002, 303, 320.

Tell Bi'a, it first appears in MBI and continues to be used in MBIIA. The product is defined as "Dark Ware" and generally consists of hook-rimmed bowls. Existing in two main types, one varying from medium to coarse was frequently encountered, whereas the other made of a fine ware was found rarely⁴⁹. Accepted to have originated in North Syria, a variety of burnished wares were also found in the Euphrates, Balikh, and Habur Valleys⁵⁰.

Toprakhisar contexts revealed a limited collection of Grey Burnished Ware hook-rimmed bowls. Identical to Tell Atchana examples in terms of their shape, they completely differ in their coarser fabric, which suggests that they were local imitations. This may indicate that it was a product with a limited audience at Alalakh and intentionally copied and used at Toprakhisar.

Artifactual Data

The small finds from the fill and floor deposit of Building 2 are utilitarian and related to food processing. Grinding stones, pestles, weights, and chipped stones characterize the assemblage. Except for a needle found in the mudbrick detritus, metal artifacts or slags pointing to production are absent. The nonexistence of metal artifacts indicates the specialized usage of the spaces excavated as places where there was no need for metal tools. The presence of a clay mold found in an earlier floor level in Room 2 suggests that metal production was evident but attested somewhere either within the vicinity of the building or elsewhere at the settlement.

Discussion

The factors provoking the collapse of the Early Bronze Age centers and the gradual progress that led to the regeneration of urban centers in the MBA has become a favored topic in recent years⁵¹. The urban expansions observed in cities with the construction of fortification walls, ramparts, and palaces mark the beginnings of the MBA and are indicators of complex and organized settlements in Northwest Syria⁵². These large-scale constructions reflect the structural formation of society and the significant role of its administration systems. This growth must have required resource exploitation and provisioning strategies that connected a chain of networks with active participants from surrounding villages to specialized production centers. This seems to have become the governmental economic policy together with land tenure and agriculture⁵³.

The chain of networks which expanded over regional and interregional geographies seems to have also contributed to the formation of a shared embodiment of power in constructed spaces. Large-scale MBA structures in neighboring Oylum Höyük⁵⁴ in the Kilis region; Zeytinli Bahçe⁵⁵ in the Middle Euphrates; Üçtepe⁵⁶, Salat Tepe⁵⁷, Ziyaret Tepe, Giricano⁵⁸,

⁴⁹ Einwag 2002, 151.

⁵⁰ Einwag 2002, 152; D'Agostino 2014, 240.

⁵¹ See Schwartz – Nichols 2006.

⁵² Matthiae 1997, 379; Akkermans – Schwartz 2003, 297; Burke 2008; Akar 2006.

⁵³ Akar 2009.

⁵⁴ Özgen 2003; Engin – Helwing 2012.

⁵⁵ Balossi et al. 2007.

⁵⁶ Özfirat 2005.

⁵⁷ Ökse – Görmüş 2006.

⁵⁸ Bartl 2012.

and Hirbemerdon Tepe⁵⁹ in the Upper Tigris; or Central Anatolian palaces at Kültepe⁶⁰ and Acmhöyük⁶¹ reflect similar administrative, economic, and ideological traits in constructing spaces of power⁶².

The echo of complex administrative systems and interaction patterns is well documented in Northwest Syria, the Amuq and Islahiye Valleys as well as Eastern Cilicia in Turkey, all regions subject to political dominance or within the interaction zone of the Amorite Kingdom of Yamhad⁶³. Being subservient to Yamhad but granted autonomy, the Level VII Palace complex occupied by the Yarim-Lim Dynasty at Alalakh can be considered a remarkable example of how extra-site characteristics were adopted in its construction⁶⁴. The rectangular plan of the building with an inner court surrounded by long rooms parallel to the outer walls contrasts with the Old Babylonian architectural style⁶⁵ where the court is the most important place and circulation through rooms is provided through the central courtyard⁶⁶. Unlike the broad courtyard style, the Alalakh structure was incorporated into the defense system and was divided into residential, administrative, and workshop quarters from north to south over a terraced surface in the Royal Precinct. A large amount of space was dedicated to storage via narrow connecting rooms in the east that were backed by courtyards related to cooking, thus suggesting a self-sustained type of spatial organization.

The ground plan of the Alalakh Level VII Palace is almost identical to the Western Palace (Q) at Tell Mardikh, Ebla, one of the largest urban centers located within the realm of the Yamhad Kingdom. Both share the same design principles. The construction of the Western Palace dates back to MBI (2000-1800) but went through several repairs before being finally destroyed around 1600 BC⁶⁷. The rectangular plan of the Western Palace was formed along a major north-south axis for a length of 115 m with a width varying from 60 to 65 m. It stretched across an area encompassing nearly 7300 m², and the thickness of the outer walls reached 3.5 m. The northern and eastern sides of the building include a row of small rectangular rooms, and circulation between the rooms was provided by doorways located along a major line with a symmetrical orientation. These rooms created separate non-communicating wings that were probably used entirely for domestic purposes⁶⁸. The remarkable “Grinding Room”⁶⁹, where a series of grinding stones were placed, defined the extent of surplus grain that was produced, consumed, and stored at the palace.

Likewise, the Tilmen Höyük palace complex in Islahiye shares similar characteristics including the ground plan as well as the application of plain orthostats⁷⁰. Considering the similarities observed in these three palaces, Duru implied that standardization was evident in the palace

⁵⁹ Laneri et al. 2008; Laneri 2016.

⁶⁰ Özgüç 1999.

⁶¹ Özgüç 1968.

⁶² For an extensive review of MBA sites from southeastern and eastern Anatolia, see Laneri – Schwartz 2011.

⁶³ See Klengel 1992, 2011.

⁶⁴ Woolley 1955; Marchetti 2006, 281-282. See also Harmansağ 2007 for the early application of orthostats and von Räden 2017 for wall paintings.

⁶⁵ Matthiae 2002, 193.

⁶⁶ Margueron 1982, 465-498.

⁶⁷ Marchetti 2006, 281-282.

⁶⁸ Matthiae 2002, 193.

⁶⁹ Matthiae 1985, pl. 68.

⁷⁰ Duru 2013, 28-33.

architecture in the territories of Yamhad. He suggested the possibility of travelling professional masons who were in charge of public construction and moved from one city to another, satisfying their customers with accepted stylistic trends⁷¹.

On the western side of the Amanus Mountains in Eastern Cilicia, the harbor site of Kinet Höyük (Period 16-15) produced the partial exposure of a burnt MBII building complex incorporated into the defensive system. This shows that the very same architectural traditions reached beyond the mountains⁷². Being part of the major fortification system, narrow corridor storage rooms were divided by internal buttresses which also functioned as doorjambs. Although the building was explored only along a narrow north-south axis in its eastern wing (5 x 50 m) backed along the buttressed rooms, the exposure of courtyards separated by thin partition walls on its western wing revealed multifunctional activity spaces⁷³. Seven portable horseshoe-shaped hearths as well as a mudbrick bench with three basalt mortars similar to “The Grinding Room” at Ebla were found in the northern courtyard. This implies that an extensive amount of cereal processing, cooking, and storing took place⁷⁴.

The ground plan of Building 2 excavated at Toprakhisar Höyük strikingly shares the same construction principles with the structures discussed above, particularly with their sections dedicated to storage and large-scale cooking. The narrow, buttressed arrangement of the rooms along the outer wall of the building and the courtyards located at the back seems to be a distinctive marker that has been attested in all of the MBA administrative complexes excavated in the region.

In a hierarchically sized order of sites discussed above, Ebla was the largest urban center and followed by Alalakh, where a smaller copy of the Western Palace (Q) was adapted for the seat of the Yarim-Lim Dynasty. Due to its location as a buffer zone between Anatolia and North Syria, as well as its access to maritime networks through its port of Sabuniye⁷⁵, Alalakh also had access to foreign trends from a wide geographical area including Anatolia, the Aegean Islands, and Egypt, especially in the appreciation of wall-painting practices and stone, ivory, and metal production⁷⁶.

Kinet Höyük, on the other hand, represents a strong North Syrian influence in its material culture that is evident in its ceramics, cylinder seals, and metal tools⁷⁷. It seems to have also adopted certain extra-site characteristics in the arrangement of space that allowed it to be defined as an administrative building, perhaps a palace with rulers profiting from the business of shipping⁷⁸. Port power⁷⁹ promoted the site into a privileged stage where the boost in the economy is materialized in the administrative building with extensive storage⁸⁰, which shared stylistic and likewise symbolic similarities to the palaces of Alalakh and Ebla. It is currently unclear

⁷¹ Duru 2003, 32; Duru 2013, 67. See also Zaccagnini 1983 and Sasson 1968, 2008 for travelling craft specialists in the Near East.

⁷² See Gates 2000; Akar 2006, 2009.

⁷³ Gates 2000, 82.

⁷⁴ Gates 2000, 81.

⁷⁵ Woolley 1937; Pamir 2013.

⁷⁶ Yener 2007; Akar 2017.

⁷⁷ Gates 2000.

⁷⁸ Gates 1999, 303.

⁷⁹ See Stager 2001 for discussion on the organization of port power during the MBA.

⁸⁰ The building contained over 100 storage jars calculated to have a capacity of 5,000 liters; see Gates 2011, 185.

whether the territories of the Yamhad Kingdom expanded across the Amanus Mountains, but close contacts are certainly evident.

Toprakhisar blends into this economically connected landscape model by possibly being a town that specialized in the production of agricultural products. Convincingly, Toprakhisar Building 2 finds its best architectural parallel in Kinet Höyük's MBII building, not only in the arrangement of space presented by the narrow rooms and attached courtyards, but also in the usage of raw materials in construction. Both sites have no evidence of orthostats, which may indicate that it was above the capacity of the rulers to import raw materials and craft specialists, and thus only local materials were used (Fig. 17).

Kinet Höyük and Toprakhisar equally parallel the practice of using decorated horseshoe-shaped hearths, and both sites seem to have appreciated an identical style⁸¹. They almost have the look of being produced by the same craft specialist⁸². Decorated horseshoe-shaped hearths are not known from any of the Middle or Late Bronze Age contexts at Tell Atchana nor, to our knowledge, from Ebla. This decorated tradition, on the contrary, seems to be well appreciated at MBA Toprakhisar. Apart from *in situ* horseshoe-shaped hearths, several discarded hearth fragments were also retrieved from the fill and street contexts. The practice of using decorated hearths extends back to the Early Bronze Age when Transcaucasian influence was dominant at Toprakhisar Höyük with its distinctive anthropomorphic style⁸³. The MBA decorated hearths perhaps have their roots in the deeply embedded practice derived from the Early Bronze Age that is especially evident in regional sites such as Tayinat and Judaidah. This topic needs to be explored further once we reach earlier levels at the site.

The decoration applied to the horseshoe-shaped hearths unequivocally defines the extent of the interaction between the artifact and its user⁸⁴. In this respect, individuals involved in the act of making hearths or cooking at Toprakhisar and Kinet Höyük seem to have developed strong bonds with the living space and the utilitarian objects around them. This seems to be a nonexistent tradition in urban centers. This speculatively can be explained by the relatively free working conditions of the labor class in smaller towns, where visual aesthetics were not only limited to the ruling party but also to the members of the group involved in cooking. This likewise shows that consciousness in the use of space as a symbol of power and prestige was not limited to the ruling elite but also involved other groups who were actively involved in daily activities within the limits of the building.

Toprakhisar Höyük in its Regional Setting

It has always been a challenging task to create a distinction between village, town, or urban center, and in many cases restricted to the size of the settlement in regional surveys⁸⁵. The limitations on methods for identifying the urban nature and functional attributes of settlements have often misled scholars in interpreting archaeological evidence⁸⁶. Faust, in his overview of the MBA rural communities of the Southern Levant based on excavation and survey data,

⁸¹ Gates 2001, 219, fig. III.2. Horseshoe-shaped hearths with different decorations were also found in Upper Tigris excavations. For instance, see Aquilano 2016; Bartl 2012, 183, n. 42.

⁸² Personal communication with Marie-Henriette Gates.

⁸³ Işıklı 2011, 77.

⁸⁴ See Hodder 2012.

⁸⁵ Trigger 1972, 577.

⁸⁶ Parr 1972, 807; see also Banning et al 2017.

stressed that the separation between urban and rural settlements is primarily based on the size and density of the occupation⁸⁷. Rural settlements were identified by their relative lack of public buildings, with the exception of temples and boundary walls. The sites do not present any social stratification, and a small number of elite families maintained control over the villages. No specializations were observed as most of the inhabitants were agriculturalists, and evidence of foreign trade is limited⁸⁸.

This model of rural site definition would have been accepted for a small site like Toprakhisar located at a remote distance from the urban center of the region, if no excavations had been conducted. The current evidence acquired from the site contrarily shows that, although smaller in size, the site was granted certain privileges by perhaps being involved in the business of olive oil. This provided a unique character to the settlement since olive trees as an important Bronze Age trade product were never cultivated outside their natural habitation zone⁸⁹. Olive oil was easily accessible in its production zones based on the prices written on a text recovered from Ras Ibn-Hani, the port of Ugarit. But since it was highly prized as an import, olive oil was only used on certain occasions or was restricted to use by kings in Mesopotamian contexts⁹⁰.

The Alalakh Level VII texts are fascinating for understanding the urban-rural relations that Alalakh maintained through politically or economically dominating fifty-seven sites⁹¹. Multiple examples of interaction with its hinterland are mentioned since Alalakh maintained its economic affairs with private or state-owned villages/towns through taxation, exchange, and disbursement of grain rations to its inhabitants who lived in the hinterland in return for labor⁹². It is tempting to suggest that textual references to towns specializing in olive oil production that were located in close proximity and owned by Alalakh could indeed have included a site such as Toprakhisar Höyük.

An example of this vital economic connection with the highlands that produced olive products comes from the mention of the town of Murar in the Level VII Alalakh texts. This town was owned by King Yarim-Lim I of Alalakh through his exchange of settlements (including Alalakh) with his brother Abba-el. This indicates that it was owned by the state from the beginning of Level VII⁹³. In six other records, olive oil was delivered from Murar. The total amount exceeded 2,768 jars, thus indicating the specialized function of the city. Another record states that Murar was paying its debt through its own ration of oil. This text has been convincingly discussed by Lauinger who notes that Murar was owned by Alalakh, and olive cultivation was supervised under the management of an official from Alalakh. The people of Murar received rations from the yearly harvest⁹⁴. It is important to note that today landowners in Altınözü are practicing the same habit of distributing rations in olives in return for labor, which highlights the continuity of the practice and the specialness of the product.

⁸⁷ Faust 2005, 110.

⁸⁸ Faust 2005, 110.

⁸⁹ Malul 1987, 50; Knapp 1991.

⁹⁰ Malul 1987, 150; Knapp 1991.

⁹¹ Wiseman 1953, 1954; Magness-Gardiner 1994, 44.

⁹² Magness-Gardiner 1994, 44.

⁹³ AIT 1 and AIT 456. See Lauinger 2015, 133 for a discussion and bibliography.

⁹⁴ For extensive discussion and bibliography on Murar, see Lauinger 2015, chaps. 3, 6.

Murar is said to be located south of Alalakh near the border between the Late Bronze Age kingdoms of Mukish and Ugarit through its likely identification with the toponym Mira⁹⁵. While we have no intention of identifying Murar as Toprakhisar Höyük, it could also be one of the prehistoric sites identified within the Altınözü region that until now was excluded from previous regional studies. Nevertheless, texts concerning Murar indicate that officials from the court of Alalakh resided at the site and engaged in olive cultivation and production. This type of administrative practice clearly finds archaeological evidence at Toprakhisar, where a building with a large amount of storage and cooking facilities was exposed that perhaps functioned to feed the workforce and other personnel. But this is a topic that needs to be further explored in the future, especially when results of the botanical data become available.

Conclusions

The preliminary study of MBA Toprakhisar Höyük data has shown that Building 2 shared similar stylistic trends in the construction of spaces of power and prestige, where the blueprint of a “palace” was adopted from the urban centers of the region and constructed on a modest scale. The term “palace” has been avoided, as the evidence is fragmentary in nature. However, the large space dedicated to storage and cooking facilities dictated that it was part of a larger building complex containing spaces with specialized functions. Its close resemblance to administrative buildings in the region led us to feel confident about designating it as a possible administrative structure. The exposure of such an administrative structure at the periphery of Alalakh has shown that the Toprakhisar settlement had likely gained a special status and economic capacity. Alalakh MBA texts attest that sites which produced olive oil were granted certain privileges, and Toprakhisar Höyük may have been one of them.

Building 2 ended with a severe burning event. Although tempting, any correlation with the Ebla, Alalakh, and Tilmen destructions - generally associated with the early Hittite campaigns - have been avoided in this study⁹⁶. The synchronization among these palaces is still an open question and remains to be explored both from archaeological and textual perspectives. The dating of Building 2 will become clearer once the dendrochronological study is completed and cross-correlated with the data from sedimentary cores for the exploration of alternative scenarios such as earthquakes, which might have ended the building's life.

These preliminary results from the site have also shown that the Altınözü region will make a significant contribution to the understanding of Bronze Age economies with its special regional role as an olive oil production center. This needs to be further explored through archaeobotanical and regional environmental research programs.

⁹⁵ Lauinger 2015, 183.

⁹⁶ Bryce 2005, 96; Klengel 2011, 33. For an opposing argument on the destruction of the Alalakh Level VII palace, see also Gates 1981, 33; von Dassow 2008, 16, n. 36; Lauinger 2015, 203-214.

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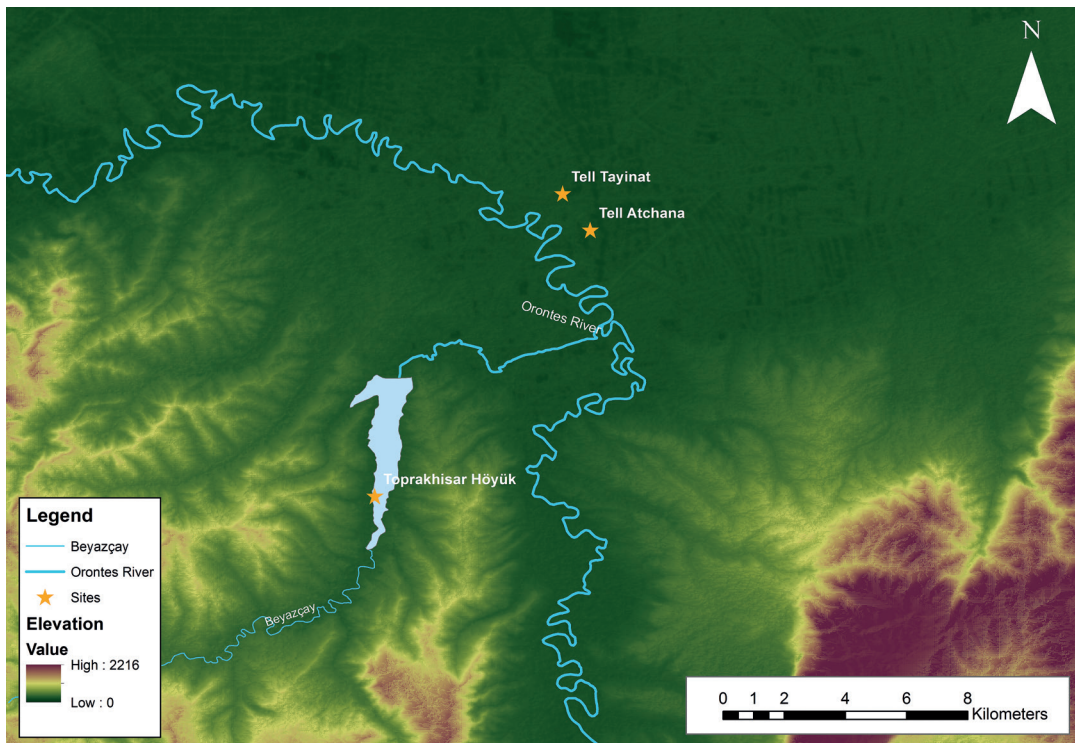


Fig. 1 Digital elevation model of Beyazçay and Amuq Valley with major sites plotted



Fig. 2 View of the site from north in relation to hills in the background

(Maps and Photographs by M. Akar unless otherwise noted)



Fig. 3 Comparative aerial photos of the site showing the dry season in August (L) and the wet season in May (R)



Fig. 4 Corona Image (December 2, 1970) acquired from www.usgs.gov



Fig. 5
Topographic map
of Toprakhisar
Höyük with squares
excavated in Area 1



Fig. 6
Aerial view
of the mound
showing the
excavation area
in relation to its
heavily disturbed
surroundings

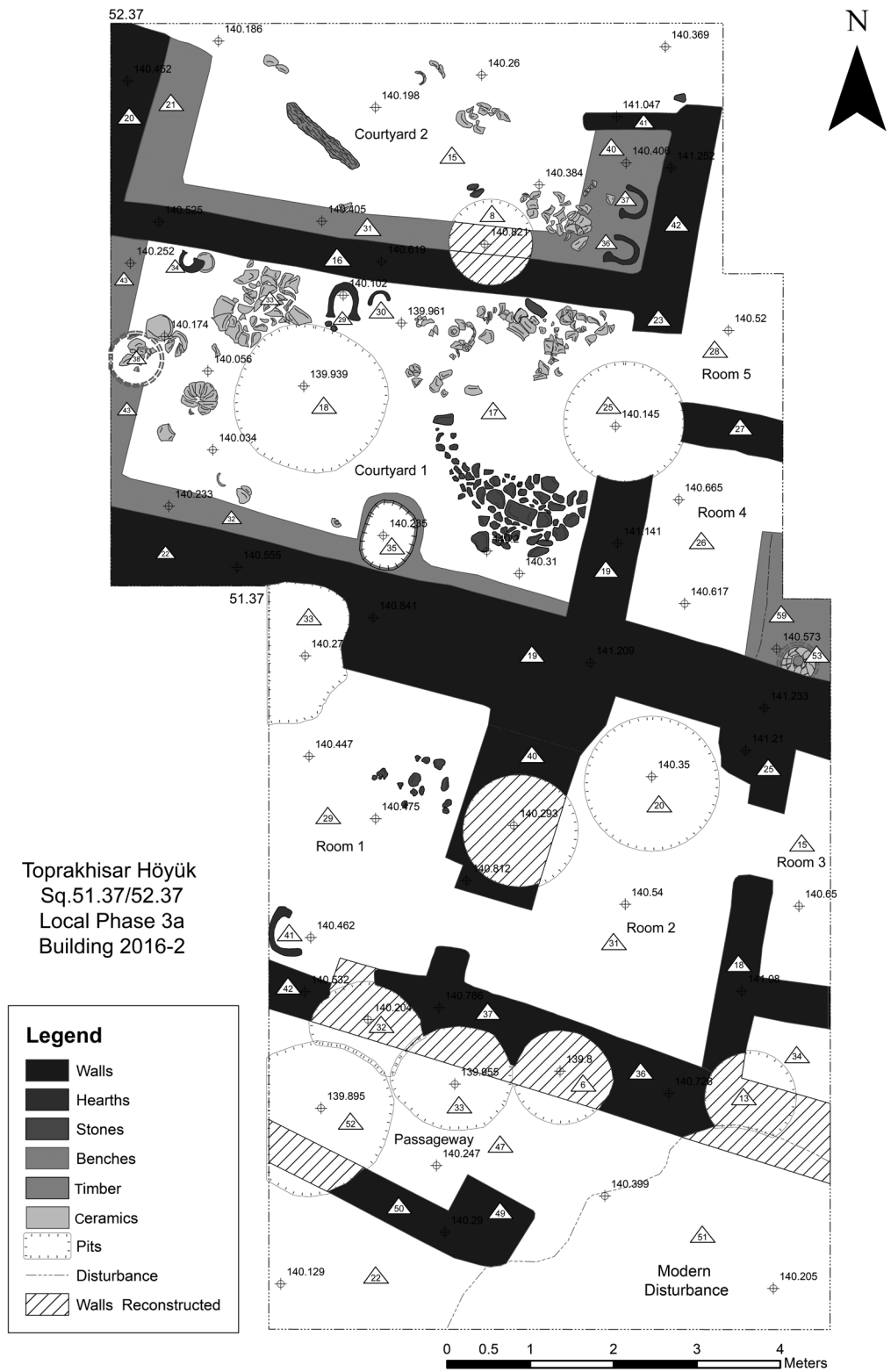


Fig. 7 Plan of Local Phase 3a, Building 2 in Squares 51.37 and 52.37
(Drawing by O. H. Kirman and O. Omuzobozlu)



Fig. 8 Aerial view of Building 2. Note that Local Phase 3a floor level can be seen in Courtyard 1 and 2 in Square 52.37 whereas earlier floor levels were reached in the rooms in the southern side of Square 51.37



Fig. 9 Aerial view of Building 2 from southwest



Fig. 10 Sunken storage jar (L.53) buried in platform (L.59) in Room 4



Fig. 11 Courtyards 1 and 2 in Building 2



Fig. 12 Horseshoe-shaped hearths L.36 and L.37 in Courtyard 2

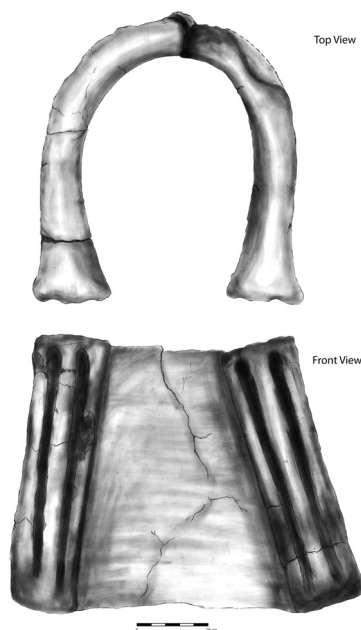


Fig. 13 Drawing of horseshoe-shaped hearth L.29 in Courtyard 1 (Drawing by O. H. Kirman)

Fig. 14 Horseshoe-shaped hearths L.29 and L.30 in Courtyard 1

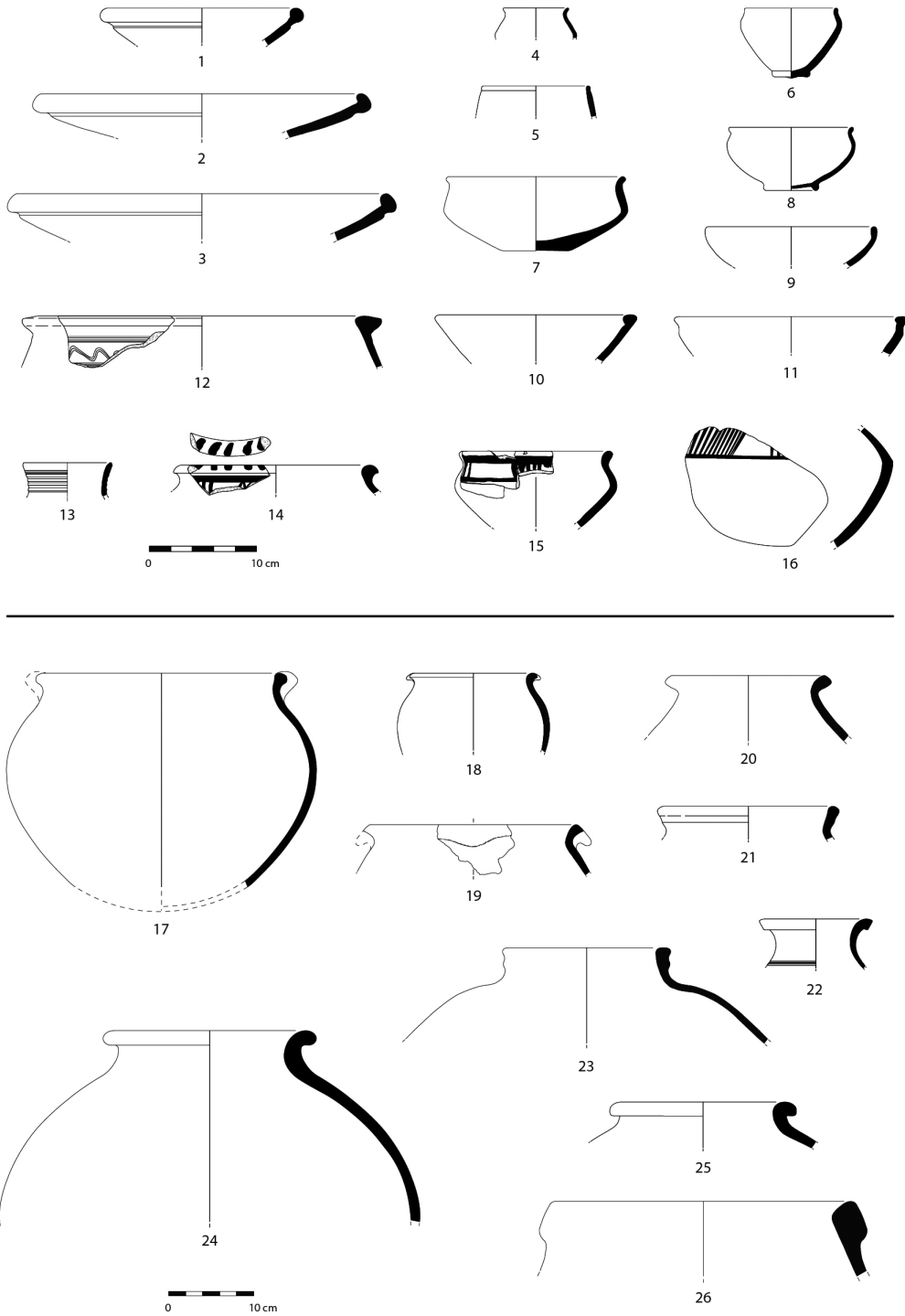


Fig. 15 A selection of pottery types from Toprakhisar Höyük Building 2. 1- TPH 222.2, 2- TPH 222.1, 3- TPH 228.1 (Grey Burnished Ware bowls); 4- TPH 364.1, 5- TPH 683.1, 6- TPH 410.1 (Simple Ware cups); 7- TPH 927.1, 8- TPH 694.1, 9- TPH 706.1, 10- TPH 285.2, 11- TPH 694.3 (Simple Ware bowls); 13- TPH 260.2 (Simple Ware short-necked jar); 14- TPH 692.1, 15- TPH 953.2, 16- TPH 364.3 (Syracusan Ware vessels); 17- TPH 694.2, 18- TPH 995.1, 19- TPH 285.1 (Cooking Pots); 20- TPH 408.1, 21- TPH 233.1, 22- TPH 1031.2, 23- TPH 255.1, 24- TPH 716.1, 25- TPH 357.4, 26- TPH 254.2 (Simple Ware jars) (Drawings by İ. Görmüş, G. Temizkan, G. Alkan, M. Mimaroglu and M. Bulu)



Fig. 16
Grey Burnished
Ware sherds from
Toprakhisar Höyük.
1- TPH 222.2,
2- TPH 228.1,
3- TPH 222.1

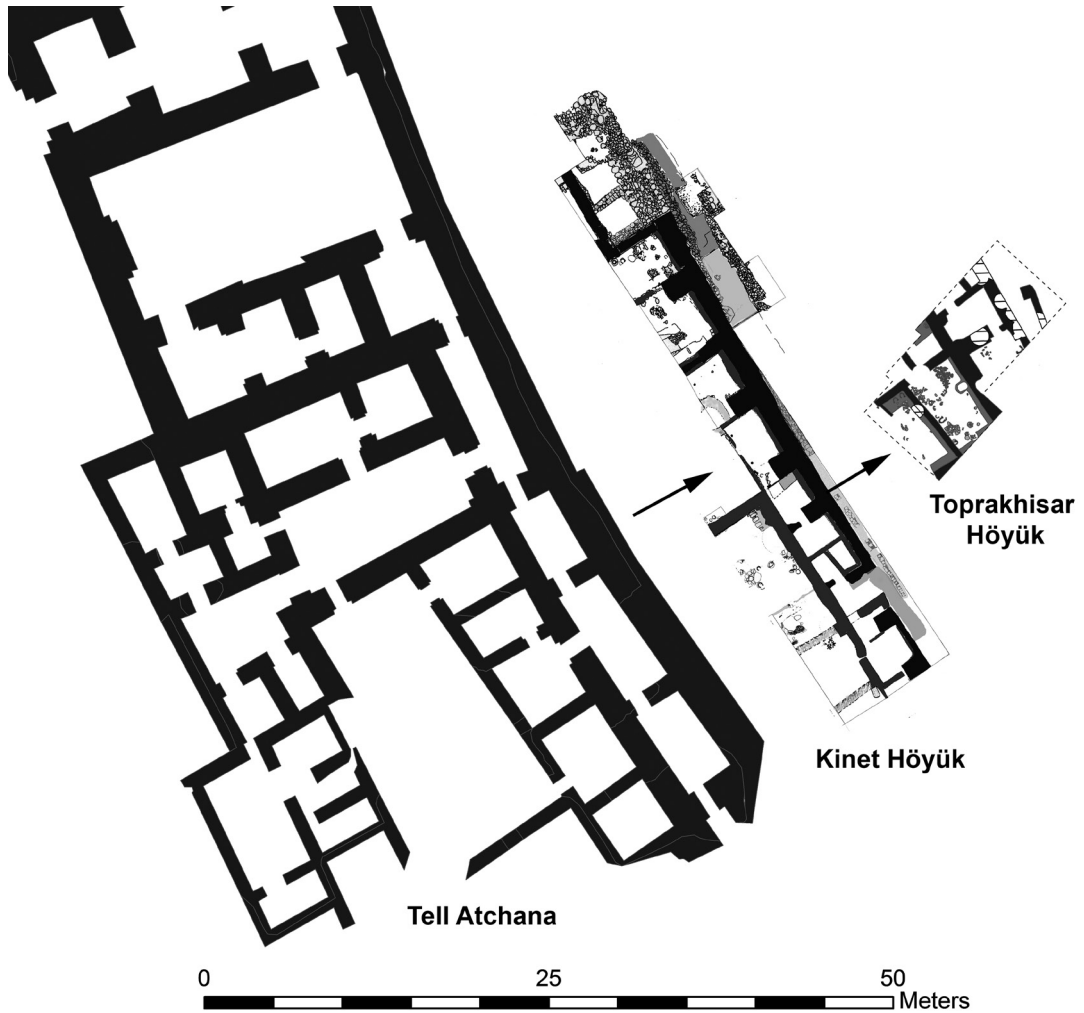


Fig. 17 Scaled comparative plan of Tell Atchana (after Woolley 1955, 93, fig. 35), Kinet Höyük (after Gates 2010, 314, fig. 3), and Toprakhisar Höyük buildings

