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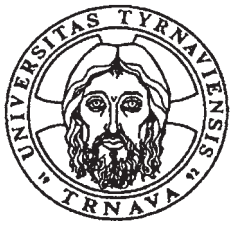

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Contents

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Cilician Iron Age settlements

Zafer Korkmaz

In memory of Barış Salman

Keywords: Settlement pattern, Cilicia, cultural phenomenon, Iron Age.

Abstract: *This study aims to describe, the cultural phenomena taking part in the period ranging from the migration of Sea Peoples to the arrival of Persians by means of archaeological data. This article embraces the views of the researcher that are based on the synthesis of the field experts' evaluations with the findings of the field literature regarding the findings obtained in Cilicia Iron Age settlements. The evaluation of the cultural phenomenon of Iron Age in Cilicia region is often limited within the hinterlands of the research, which is the main cause of this studyreviewing the region's Iron Ages with all aspects.*

Cilicia can roughly be defined as the region whose borders could be demarcated with Taurus Mountains in the north, Amanos Mountains in the east and the coast line between İskenderun and Gazipasa Counties in the south. Aproximetly 35 000 km^2, Cilicia comprises the provinces of northwest of Hatay, Osmaniye, Adana, Mersin and east of Antalya of modern Turkey. The large region that has been inhabited from the Neolithic period to the present day have land routes to Central Anatolia through Sertavul and Gülek (Ancient Cilicia Pylai) Gates, to Southeastern Anatolia through Bahçe Pass, and to northern Syria through Belen gateway. At the same time, this region has a coastline of an aproximate 620 km throughout which many cities and ports continue to be located on the sea routes to Cyprus and Eastern Mediterranean. Taurus Mountains serve as the natural borderlines of Cilicia in antiquity.

The Cilicia region in Strabon's Geographica is fundamentally evaluated in terms of two main topographical characteristics as Trachaia (rough or terrain) and Pedias (plain).[1] Strabo reported the border between Trachaia and Pedias as Lamas or Lamos (Limonlu Creek).[2] Pliny[3] and Strabo[4] provides information about the western boundary of Cilicia. Pliny starts the western boundary of Cilicia with Melas (modern Manavgat river) whereas according to Strabo this boundary starts with Korakesium (Modern Alanya). According to Skylax Cilicia's western border starts with Selinous city (Modern Gazipaşa). Eastern border of Cilicia is separated from the North Syria by the Amanos Range. Similarly but in a more detailed way, Pseudo-Skylax reports about cities and ports of Cilicia prior to Strabo and Pliny.[5] The description of the geography in the Iron Age is not as clear as the definitions given by the aforementioned authors. Assyrian and Babylonian sources do not provide detailed geographic information regarding this case. According to Assyrian and Babylonian sources, Cilicia is considered to consist of Que (all Çukurova today),

1 Strabo, Geographika, 14,5,1.

2 Strabo, Geographika, 14,5,1,3, 6-7.

3 Plinius, Naturalis Historia, 5,93.

4 Strabo, Geographika, 14,5,6.

5 Pesudo-Skylax, Periplous-Shipley, G. (http://www2.le.ac.uk./departments/archaeology/people/shipley/pseudo-skylax). The cites are at Syklax after Selinus; Charadrous (Modern Gazipaşa/ Yakacık town Charadros yada Cataracts creek), Anemourion (Modern Anamur), Nagidos (modern Bozyazı), Salon, Myous, Kelenderis (Modern Aydıncık), Holmoi, Sarpedon, Soloi, Zephyrion, Mallos, Adane, Myriandos Phoinikon and Thapsakos (Strabo reported that this cite is on Euphrates River (Strabon, Geographika, 16, 21, 23).

Hilakku (between the mountainous regions at East-South of Konya Plain and the mountainous region of North of Tarsus) and Pirindu (between Salluna and Calycadnos (modern Göksu River) in the Iron Age.[6] It is clear that topography is effective in the formation of Cilicia's regions in the Middle Iron Age, which is also valid for the Antiquity period.

The transition of Late Bronze Age to Early Iron Age in Anatolia and Eastern Mediterranean Region is associated with the migration of Sea Peoples. This migration is one of the most important political and cultural turning points in the history of these regions. The earliest historical sources about migration of Sea Peoples cover 18-22 dynasties in Egypt. Furthermore, this information has been confirmed by the archaeological researches carried out in Central Anatolia. It is clear that a large-scale destruction enacted in the Central Anatolia and Cilicia by the end of Late Bronze Age and at the beginning of Early Iron Age.[7] All the same, there exist no reported findings indicating the presence of foreign elements across Central Anatolia.[8] There have been survey results that report Mycenaean pottery samples pertaining to the end of the Late Bronze Age and the beginning of the Early Iron Age have been observed at Cilicia Region, in response to Central Anatolia. These cites in Cilicia comprise Antiokheia ad Kragos,[9] Tömük Höyük,[10] Dervişli Höyük,[11] Zeytinli Höyük,[12] Gavurköy Höyük,[13] Tenevardı I Höyük,[14] Domuz Tepe,[15] Misis,[16] Vesli Höyük,[17] Çitnoğlu Çiftlik Höyük,[18] İslamkadı/Kırtepe Höyüğü,[19] Hesiğin Tepe,[20] Soyalı Höyük,[21] Pascu Höyük,[22] Boz Höyük,[23] Sultantepe Höyüğü,[24] Alapınar Höyük[25] and Tilan Höyük.[26] In view of the distribution of these settlements, it is clear that in Cilicia Region Mycenaean cultural materials spread over a wide area. Two different groups have been identified in Mycenaean ceramic groups at Cilicia. The first group has North-East Peloponnese origin and belong to Late Helladic III A and III B period. The second group has Eastern Greek origin and belong to Late Helladic III C.[27] In the relevant literature, in addition to above mentioned antiques, the existance of "Native" Mycenaean ceramic samples in Cyprus style of Late Helladic III C period was also reported.[28]

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6 Erzen 1940, 46, 54-58; Zoroğlu 1994a, 301 vd.

7 Bittel 1983, 25-47.

8 Hermann 2013, 469.

9 Rauh 1999, 340, resim 7.

10 Gjerstad 1934, 155; Mellaart 1958, 324; French 1965, 181, Fig. 12, no. 6-14.

11 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 153; Mee 1978, 126.

12 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 174.

13 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 174; Mee 1978, 147.

14 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 170.

15 Seton-Williams 1954, 154.

16 Salmeri 2002, 42; 2003, 208-10.

17 Seton-Williams 1954, 172.

18 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 152, 154.

19 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 158; Mee 1978, 130.

20 Mee 1978, 129.

21 Mee 1978, 144.

22 Seton-Williams 1954, 135, 166; Girginer 2007, 179.

23 Seton-Willams 1954, 150; Girginer 2007, 176.

24 Seton-Williams 1954, 169; Mee 1978, 144.

25 Seton-Williams 1954, 148; Mee 1978, 124.

26 Gates 2000, 195; 2007, 691.

27 Gjerstad 1934, 193-96; Sherratt-Crouwell 1987, 325 vd., Sherratt 1998, 292; Salmeri 2003, 208-10. The sites are: Kazanlı, Yenice, Tanaverdi.

28 Mee 1978, 150; Slane 1987, 464-65.

Kinet Höyük

Kinet Höyük is located in the south of Erzin Plain that is 30 km from İskenderun in south of Hatay province. Also, Kinet Höyük, 8 km far from the west of Amanos Mountains Kinet Höyük was described as a Cilician city with a harbor by the Ancient writers.[29] Kinet Höyük served as a bridge for Iron Age Que connecting it to Amuq Plain and Syria through Amanos Mountains at Belen pass. This route covers many settlements involving Iron Age ceramics in the vicinity of Kinet Höyük.[30]

The first survey of the site was conducted by Seton-Williams[31] and revisited in 1991.[32] Excavations have been conducted until 1992. The stratigraphy of mound consists of Bronze Age, Iron Age, Hellenistic and Middle Age.[33] The transition from Late Bronze Age to Early Iron Age takes part in the period 12 of the level III: 3. Period 12's architecture has three phases with open spaces and pits rather than enclosed spaces.[34] The architectural nature of period 12 is scrapy in characteristic and it takes part in just above period 13 which collapsed intensely. Period 12 ceramic samples consist of Philistine Bichrome sherd and two Mycenaean IIIC types. This period also consists Early Iron Age handmade pottery which has similar features of Troy Vllb's "Buckelkeramik".[35] Two sources indicate a decline of the social-economic conditions.[36] The remains indicate an agropastoral community of the period 12 in Kinet Höyük. Early Iron Age settlement lasts in level III period 12. At the end of this period Middle Iron Age level III and periods 11-8 start.

The Middle Iron Age settlement consisted of a citadel and a lower town.[37] Periods 11 and 10 are built with a poor and fragmentary structure which dated to the 10th-9th centuries BC at citadel.[38] The hearths, slags, stones in terms of rich iron content and melting pots are indicates that Period 8 was used as a workshop.[39] The Neo Assyrian seals (9th and 8th century BC) and Mitanni seals (15th and 14th century BC) are important findings of this period. It is possible that a Neo Assyrian settlement could be the case in view of these findings.[40] Similarly, Neo Assyrian seals were found at the west of the mound with SOS Amphorae fragments also.[41] The Lower town, which is contemporary with the 10th to 8th periods of mound and dated from the 10th to the 8th century BC was detected at 100 m northwest of the mound.[42]

The Middle Iron Age pottery which starts with the period 11 is completely different from the period 12's ceramic material. Black on Red, White Painted and Bichrome groups constitute 25-30 % of whole ceramic material of this period and dated back to the 10th and 9th century BC.[43] It was reported that period 9 ceramic assemblage consists of local products, Greek Geometric, Phrygian Gray and Cypro-Cilician.[44] The Cypro-Cilician group observed until the period 7. But the usage of this group has a decline to the period 7.[45]

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29 Xsenophon Anabasis IV, 1; Strabon, Geographika, 5,2, 19; Gates 2013, 485.

30 Lehmann et al. 2006; 2008; Killebrew et al. 2009; Killebrew 2010; 2011.

31 Seton-Williams 1954, 161.

32 Gates-Özgen 1993, 389, 392-93.

33 Gates 2000, 193-97.

34 Gates 1999a, 263-65.

35 Gates 2013, 494-95, fig. 7, no. 1,4,5,6.

36 İkram 2003, 288, 290.

37 Gates 2003, 290.

38 Gates 1994, 196; 2000, 196; 2004, 407; 2005, 166.

39 Gates 2004, 407-8; 2007, 407; 2008, 288.

40 Gates 2004, 407; 2008, 289.

41 Gates 2000, 197; 2004, 407-8.

42 Gates 2012, 411.

43 Gates 2000, 196; 2006a, 368; 2009, 360.

44 Gates 2004, 408; 2005, 166.

45 Gates 2002, 58-9.

Late Iron Age at Kinet Höyük observed at the periods 7 and 6 in Layer III: 1 which is dated back to the 7th and the 6th century BC.[46] Architecture of period 7 constitutes small and independent spaces with courtyards and narrow compacted gravel streets. Pits and hearts was found in the courtyards. Iron tools, grinding stones, pestles, plenty amount of barley, wheat, lentil, chickpea, broad bean, pomegranate seed, grape seed, olive seed and pressed murex shells in a thick layer were found around the hearts.[47] The architecture of the period 6 consists of pits, hearts in courtyards and adjacent spaces and ceramic kilns[48] which are dated back to the late 7th century and the early 6th century BC.[49] Terracotta material and murex shells were found around and in the kilns. In the light of these findings, the kilns are assumed to be used not only for ceramic production but also for workshops that produce purple dye. The similar samples of this kiln were found at Tarsus Gözlükule.[50] The ceramic material of these kilns is dated back to 650-575 BC.[51] The "East Greek" vases began to appear in the period 7 and 6 at Kinet Höyük. East Greek wares consist of Banded wares, Ionian bowls, East Greek amphoras, SOS amphoras, bird bowls, and Wild Goat style vases. Apart from this group, Proto-Corinthian pottery samples were found in the period 7.[52] The East Greek ware constitutes 15-18 % of total ceramics and except for few pieces they were locally produced.[53]

The "fashion" of the East Greek centers such as Milet, Chios, Rhodos was observed at Kinet Höyük.[54] It is hard to propose that the settlement's economy rested merely on the production of fundamental needs or trade. Although the data secured by the site excavations indicate that Kinek Höyük had overseas trade connections, it would hardly be scientific to contend that the economy of this region was dependent on trade only.

The urbanization at Kinet Höyük in Iron Age restarted in the period 11 as a result of cultural and material exchange with the outside regions. The East Greek ceramics starts to increase in the 7th period. This period also shows the transition from Cypro-Cilician regional culture to East Greek or Ionian cultures. Aegean cultures are the dominant character of this transition.[55] It is clear that Kinet Höyük is a port of trade and a connection point both for merchants and consumers.[56] The production in Kinet Höyük is considered to depend on the sea trade and is again considered to have a secondary domestic commercial network. The most striking vindication of this presumed secondary network may be submitted as the ceramic materials with Greek and the East Aegean origin and purple dye production areas.[57]

The increase of East Greek pottery on the mound suggests the existence of the Eastern Aegean settlers. However, any other findings or any architectural elements do not provide information about the ethnicity of people at Kinet Höyük.

Tarsus

Tarsus Gözlükule mound excavations were carried out in 1934-1939 and 1947-1948 by Hetty Goldman. Mycenaean pottery samples were found on these excavations. This material was studied by H. Goldman, D. French, D. A. Slane and P. A. Mountjoy.[58] This pottery identifies

[46] Gates 2003, 285.

[47] Gates 1999a, 262; 2000, 196; 2003, 283-84.

[48] Gates 1999, 263, fig. 10 a/b.

[49] Gates 1994, 196; 1999a, 262; 2000, 196; 2003, 288.

[50] Gates 1994, 195.

[51] Gates 1999a, 262.

[52] Gates 2006, 369.

[53] Gates 1999a, 263.

[54] Arslan, 2010, 25-6.

[55] Gates 1999a, 263; 1999b, 308; 2000, 197.

[56] Gates 2006, 370.

[57] Gates 1999a, 261-62.

[58] Goldman 1956; French 1975; Slane 1987; Mountjoy 2005.

the first stage of Early Iron Age layer and the Late Bronze Age II B layer of the mound. At the third sub-layer of Late Bronze II B Mycenaean-style pottery becomes most common, together with "Hittite" monochrome wares. Section A is the excavation area of the mound which shows a continuity of occupation. This area has also a resettlement until the Hellenistic period. The stratigraphy of the post-destruction/Early Iron Age levels was very thin (0.5 m in depth). The post-destruction layer of the Section A was disturbed by contemporary Iron Age pits and the foundations of later layers.[59] Mycenaean imported pottery was observed very little during the period of Late Bronze II A in Level V in Section A. There are only a few examples of Late Helladic III A or early Late Helladic III B sherds in the Late Bronze II A levels.[60]

Daniel's initial declaration is that the Tarsian Mycenaean style pottery was produced in the Argolid.[61] Yet, there is a general consensus that the Mycenaean-style pottery from Tarsus cannot be directly linked with any stage of development on mainland Greece.[62] Goldman, Slane and Yakar attribute these wares to the Late Bronze II b, and connect them to the destroyed Late Bronze II A buildings.[63] Jean argues that the context of the earliest Mycenaean wares is not secure.[64] Sherratt draw attention to the similarity of linear-decorated bowl forms found at Tarsus, Kazanlı and Kition in different excavations, which propose stronger connections at Late Cypriot II C and Late Cypriot III A periodswith Cyprus than the Greek mainland. This stylistic criticism was made by writers concerning certain features of the pottery from Kazanlı also.[65]

French claims that the pottery belonging to Late Bronze II B settlement is a stock of Mycenaean artistic ideas and motifs rather than any specific regional connection. She proposes possible derivation from Late Helladic III B mainland Mycenaean style.[66]

Mee scrutinized the Tarsus flasks which is a form that generally appears in the imported Mycenaean assemblages from Levant. These flasks' octopus decoration may indicate Eastern Aegean, or more specifically Dodecanesian connections to Tarsus.[67] Mountjoy identifies the East Aegean jars which take place in the periods from early to middle Late Helladic III C. East Aegean octupus decorated jars are more popular in Rhodes than Crete although they are originated to Crete.[68] Accordingly, the range of stylistic features of Mycenaean-style wares from Tarsus appear to center around the Late Helladic III C middle, with some elements of Late Helladic III C early or possibly even Late Helladic III B derivation. The chronological window would therefore fall somewhere in-between the dates of 1150-1110 BC.[69] Yakar paid specific attention to the transitional levels at Tarsus. He claims that Early Banded wares may be labelled as local Anatolian while they are observed at Iron I Sakçagözü, Hama I-II and Tell Judeideh and dated back to early 12th century BC.[70] Late Helladic III C pottery is also found in Anatolian Plateu. The stirrup jar at Fıraktin dated to Late Helladic III C pottery[71] and also Cypriot imports which are open forms were limited.[72] The buildings of Early Iron Age has scratchy characteristic.

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[59] Jean 2003, 82.

[60] French 1975, 54-9; Mee 1978, 145; Mountjoy 2005, 84-5.

[61] Goldman 1956, 206.

[62] Sherratt and Crouwel 1987; French 1975; Mee 1978.

[63] Yakar 1993, 16-17; Slane 1987, 120.

[64] Jean 2003, 82.

[65] Sherratt and Crouwel 1987, 339.

[66] French 1975, 74.

[67] Mee 1978, 145.

[68] Mountjoy 1987, 60.

[69] Goldman 1956, 48; French 1975, 74; Mountjoy 2005, 83-134.

[70] Yakar 1993, 17.

[71] Özgüç 1955, 303; Mee 1978, 128; Bittel 1983, 34.

[72] Goldman 1956, 219-20.

Buildings with two or three rooms with courtyard and courtyard hearts were determined at sector B in Middle Iron Age layer. Only one building was used for storage in this layer. This layer is dated back to 850-700 BC and it collapsed due to fire.[73] Ceramic kilns was uncovered in an another excavation area (Sector A) that covers Middle Iron Age settlements.[74] Black on red, buff, white painted and coarse wares were unearthed in these kilns. This material is dated back to 800-750 BC. Black on red, buff and white painted groups are imitations of Cyprus ones.[75] The contemporary samples of this material were found at Kilise Tepe also.[76] Except for the samples which were unearthed at kilns the ceramic groups of Middle Iron Age layer were also found; Cypro-Geometric II-III,[77] Cilician White,[78] Bichrom III,[79] Black on Red,[80] local imitations of Cyprus ware groups,[81] Cilician Buff and Cilician White Painted,[82] Ionian, Rhodos, Hellas, Eastern Mediterranean, Assyrian and Cyclad.[83] In the light of this information it may be asserted that during Middle Iron Age relations with Cyprus and East Aegean increased whereas relations with East such as Assyria and Syria-Palestine are observed to be comparatively at lower levels.

Sennacherib's invasion in 696 BC is acknowledged to enact in the end of Middle Iron Age layer at Tarsus.[84] However, Sennacherib's military expedition at Tarsus embraces a number of problems. First and foremost, there exist no remains found in-situ relevant to this event. In the second place, the remains of the burnt layer of the whole trench were only observed at "Area under H" unit. Any brunt destruction remains were not mentioned in trench at the other units O, S, P and the eastern walls of J-K units.[85] In this case, one can conclude that the units J-K-O-S-P were not affected by fire. However, a fill containing ash was determined in the area between these units at the centre of the trench. There are several suggestion show the ashy fill occurred at the centre of trench. The first view is that the ashy fill may have been transported from a different area.[86] The second one is that a later building which had been terminated by a heavy fire transformed to an ashy fill.[87]

The ceramic material of the destruction layer consists of Cypro-Geometric III-IV,[88] Protokorinth, Cycladic and East Greek groups.[89] Hanfmann dated the ceramic material to 750-700 BC.[90] Boardman suggests that the material dates back to 700-650 BC[91] whereas Coldstream dated the material back to 725-650 BC.[92] The planning of Gözlükule of Late Iron Age layer is similar to the Middle Iron Age layer.[93] The common architectural feature of the Late Iron Age layer are rooms which were located around a courtyard. Nearly every courtyard has

[73] Goldman 1963, 8.

[74] Goldman 1963, 14-17.

[75] Goldman 1963, 121.

[76] Postgate and Thomas 2007, Fig. 397, no. 774; see also Matsumura 2005, lev. 116, Kl88, P 181, lev. 131, Kl89, P 148.

[77] Goldman 1963, 44; for comparison: Gjerstad 1948, Fig. 14, no. 4, Fig. 20, no. 8.

[78] Goldman 1963, 121, 200.

[79] Goldman 1963, 53.

[80] Goldman 1963, 121; the material have similar decoration with Kara Tepe: Darga 1986, 396-98.

[81] Goldman 1963, 208.

[82] Goldman 1963, 239-40, 243; the material have similar decoration with Kara Tepe: Darga 1986, 385-95.

[83] Goldman 1963 111, 113, fig. 75, no. 684, fig. 95, no. 1375, 1447.

[84] Goldman 1963, 8, 19.

[85] Goldman 1963, 7-8, 10, 114; Boardman 1965, 10.

[86] Goldman 1963, 116.

[87] Boardman 1965, 10; for detailed information see Forsberg 1995.

[88] Goldman 1937, 272.

[89] Goldman 1963, 116-17.

[90] Goldman 1963, 115-16, cat. no. 1448, 1506, 1507, 1511, 1514, 1519, 1396, 1606,1608.

[91] Boardman 1965, 9-12.

[92] Coldstream 2008, 321.

[93] Goldman 1963, Plan III.

an oven also. Tamped gravels were used in the construction of the pavements. The Late Iron Age layer of Gözlükule dates back to 650-615 BC.[94] The other feature of Late Iron Age level is the fortification wall. It was reported that the wall was 3.50 m wide and had been built with limestone blocks at facade and ruble inside.[95] The last period is 6th century BC layer. This layer was built in terms of the same plan of 7th century BC period.[96] As a result Tarsus Gözlükule has been a major settlement for its people and for communities from outside the region.

Kilise Tepe

Kilise Tepe is at a distance of 1 km to Kışla Village, Mersin Province, Mut County in the north. Kilise Tepe has an approximate length of 100 x 110 m and a height of 50 m from the banklevel of Göksu river.[97] Most probably in Hittite era Kilise Tepe served as one of the centers at the district of Tarhundassa. Kilise Tepe takes part in the route that connects central Anatolia to Silifke throughout Göksu Valley.[98] It also takes part in the route that connects central Anatolia to Aydıncık and its region (ancient Kelenderis) via Taşeli Platau. These routes were used for military expeditions against Pirindu Kingdom and Sallune City by The King Nereglissar.[99] Kilise Tepe was also investigated by Mellaart in 1950 and French in 1965. Excavations were carried out in two different periods from 1994 to1998, and from 2007 to 2013 by N. Postgate respectively.[100]

The stratigraphy of the Kilise Tepe covers Byzantine era (Layer I e-d periods), Late Roman era (Layer I c-b periods), Roman and Hellenistic era (Level I), Middle and Late Iron Age (Level II h-e periods), Early Iron Age – Late Bronze Age (Level II d-a periods), Late Bronze Age (Level III), Middle Bronze Age (Level IV) and Early Bronze Age (Level V).

The Level II of the periods g-h of the Late Iron Age was destroyed during the level I settlement.[101] The periods f and e of the level II consist of the rebuilt complexes and ceramic kilns which date back to 8th and 7th BC.[102] Two building complexes designated as Stela building and northwest building respectively were determined in d-a periods of the Level II. The excavation was also performed on the southwest slope[103] and on the east and south destinations of the mound.[104] The main Iron Age levels of Kilisetepe partake on the northwestern slope and the northern top of mound. Level II g-h periods which belong to Late Iron Age were smoothed out by the Byzantine settlers.[105] The architecture of the Period g-h involves mud brick walls and pits in multi-fragment shape presence.[106] Under these periods the Layer II f period was found. The Level II f consists of three spaces that were located diagonally to each other and two ceramic kilns in rectangular shape.[107] Level II f findings such as storage containers, grinding stone, spindle whorls, clay balls, iron nails and slag covering half of the floor revealed that space was used for household workplace.[108]

[94] Goldman 1963, 9-10, 134.

[95] Goldman 1963, 10.

[96] Goldman 1963, 11-14.

[97] Postgate 1998a, 128; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 10.

[98] Beal 1992, 69, foot note 4.

[99] Grayson 1975, 103; Beal 1992, 72; Bing 1969, 156; Zoroğlu 1994, 302; King reported in his annals that he collapsed Kirsu and reach to Mediterranean coast.

[100] Baker et al. 1995, 151-57; Postgate and Thomas 2007; Jackson and Postgate 2009, 207-33; Collon et al. 2010, 159-85; Jackson and Postgate 2011, 424-47; Şerifoğlu 2012.

[101] Postgate 1998b, 212.

[102] Postgate 1998b, 212; Jackson and Postgate 1999, 546.

[103] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 175-77.

[104] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 166-67.

[105] Jackson and Postgate 1999, 546.

[106] Postgate 1998b, 212; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 163.

[107] Postgate 1998b, 212; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 162.

[108] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 162-64.

The other ruins of this period are two ceramic kilns.[109] The material of these kilns consist of jugs in three forms; trefoil-jug, out rolled rim and nozzle spouted.[110] Vases are decorated with concentric circles, bands and linears. The vases which belong to Kilistepe can be compared with Karatepe and Tarsus Gözlükule Middle Iron Age samples in terms of forms and decorations.[111] These vases were found at Tarsus Gözlükule with kiln structures as in Kilise Tepe. In view of the present data, it is clear that the vases which reflect the characteristics of Middle Iron Age Cypriot pottery (Cypro-Archaic I – 750-650 BC) were locally produced in Cilicia.[112] The other ceramic groups which were obtained in this kiln belong to bare Cypriot Plain White IV ceramics. The form repertoire of vases are trefoil-jugs, out rolled rim bowls, flaring rim bowls and lids. The similar samples of these vases were found at Cyprus and Tarsus Gözlükule.[113] Level II-e period settlement pattern consists of adjacent buildings that were constructed with two or three building blocks and spaces between these blocks.[114] In this period, the ceramic repertoire consists of vases, jars, bowls, amphoriskos and pilgrim-flasks decorated with butterfly, concentric circles, bands, tongue rows, butterfly lattices patterns and diagonal lines which can be compare with Tarsus,[115] Alacadağ,[116] Porsuk Höyük,[117] Kaman Kale Höyük,[118] Boğazköy,[119] and Zoldura Höyük.[120]

The transition of Late Bronze Age to Early Iron Age was observed at Level II a-d period.[121] A Building Complex (Stela Building) which was built in adjacent order of sizes 18x15 m, with 10 rooms was determined in the periods a-d.[122] A stela and an altar was found in-situ in Room 3 of this building.[123] It is revealed that the Room 3 was used for courtyard, the room 9 for entrance, the rooms 1, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 were used for grain storage at Stela Building.[124] Cooper, stone and bone artifacts and burned creals, seals and terracottas were found in these rooms.[125]According to these findings Stela Building was used for worshiping, storage and administrative purposes.[126] It was reported that both Stela Buildings (from the c and d periods) were destroyed by fire.[127] The "East Building" is an other building which was built adjacent to Stela Building dated back to the Level II-c Period.[128] Findings of this building is similar to Stela Building.[129]

The other findings of this period consist of ceramic materials such as discs, whorls and different kinds of vases. The vases which have fabric properties similar to Late Bronze Age

[109] Postgate 1998a, 131-32; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 348; Collon et al. 2010, 165.

[110] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 348, fig. 394; Arslan 2010, 125, no. 88-9.

[111] Darga 1986, 389, lev. 5; Goldman 1963, 116, lev. 68, no. 445-46, lev. 74, no. 647-48.

[112] Goldman 1963, 118, 120; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 350; Arslan 2010, 78; Postgate 1998b, 213-14.

[113] Goldman 1963, 71, 1145, no. 934 a, no. 989; Gjerstad 1948, fig. XLIV: 2, fig. XLV: 15 a-b.

[114] Postgate 1997, 447; 1998b, 212; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 152-54, 156, 157.

[115] Goldman 1963, 191, fig. 121, no. 350, pl. 58, no. 116, pl. 60, no. 144.

[116] Laflı 2001, Abb. 6-1.

[117] Dupré 1983, lev. 41, no. 244, lev. 51, no. 50.

[118] Matsumura 2005, lev. 75, Kl 90, p 9, Kl 90, p 14, Kl 89, p 369, lev. 102, Kl 90; 2004, Kl 90; 2012.

[119] Seeher 1995, lev. 23, h.

[120] Bahar and Koçak 2004, Çizim 46, no. 4 (116.14.02.42).

[121] Postgate and Hansen1999, 111.

[122] Postgate and Hansen 1999, 111-12; Postgate 1997, 447-48; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 122; Collon et al. 2010, 168.

[123] Postgate 1998a, 134; 1998b, 215; Jackson and Postgate 1999, 544-45; Postgate and Hansen1999, 112; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 123-25.

[124] Postgate 1998a, 133-34; Jackson and Postgate 1999, 544-45; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 137.

[125] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 137.

[126] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 128, 130, 136-37, 442; Jackson and Postgate 2009, 212.

[127] Postgate 1998b, 215; Jackson and Postgate 1999, 543.

[128] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 138.

[129] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 139, fig. 393, no. 701, 140, fig. 404, no. 894, 143, fig. 403, no. 883.

ceramic material consist of storage jars, band and lattice decorated vases, trays, pithos, flasks and lids.[130] The "Kindergarten Ware" is a lattice decorated ceramic appeared in the early periods of the Level II.[131] The similar samples of this ceramic decoration were found at Zoldura,[132] Porsuk,[133] Bogazköy,[134] Kaman Kalehöyük,[135] Kululu,[136] Kinet Höyük[137] and Gözlükule.[138] The huge range of this decoration style makes it hard to determine the origin of its source. The only imported ceramic material of the Level II is Mycenaean ceramics whose samples were found only in 19 vase pieces.[139] These vases were confirmed in Period d's floor and fill. The material was compared to eastern Mediterranean and southern Anatolian ones in terms of form and decoration properties.[140]

However, the similar examples in terms of form and decoration were found in Tarsus.[141] The buildings are contemporary with Level II d-g periods which were found at K/L 14 grids on the southern slopes of Kilise Tepe.[142] The architecture of these trenches consist of adjacent courtyard houses and pit-storage structures of "surface 1" (contemporary with Level II f period).[143] Barley, wheat, grape and olive seeds, pulse residues and grinding stones were found in these buildings.[144] According to these findings the Middle Iron Age architecture of K/L 14 grid is planned for production and food storage purposes.[145] Ceramic material of this trench consists of White Painted IV, Bichrome and Black-on-Red groups.[146] Consequently, it can be claimed that Kilisetepe is an agropastoral site due to its findings. Chronological course of Kilistepe is comparable to general chronology of Anatolia because of its location.

Yumuktepe

Yumuktepe is an archaeological site at Demirtaş district of Mersin province. Yumuktepe is surrounded by Müftü stream and Demirtaş district from north and east. Mound has 22 m height from sea level, 300 m diameter and covers an area of approximate 4.9 hectares. First surveys of Yumuktepe was conducted by Gjerstad in 1930.[147] According to surface treatments 11 different ceramic groups were detected in the survey.[148] First and second excavation seasons of Yumuktepe were conducted by John Garstang in 1936-1939 and 1947-1948 respectively.[149] The third term of excavations started in 1993 and the researches continue, 33 periods were

[130] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 343.

[131] Postgate 1997, 446; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 258-59.

[132] Bahar and Koçak 2003; Çizim 3, 16.14.02.55.

[133] Dupré 1983, Tabaka IV, Pl. 45, Nr. 13, 14, Pl. 46, Nr. 15, 18, Pl. 47, Nr. 28, 29, Pl. 54, Nr. 67, 72.

[134] Genz 2004, 12.

[135] Matsumura 2005, 445, taf. 102, KL 90, P1. 46, P1. 47.

[136] Özgüç 1971, 39, resim 122.

[137] Gates 2001c: Kinet Höyük örnekleri yapı katı 12'de bulunmuş olup Erken Demir Çağı'na aittir.

[138] Goldman 1963, 35, 161, no. 8, 10.

[139] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 374.

[140] Postgate 1998a, 134-35; 1998b, 216; Postgate and Hansen 1999, 112, no. 4; Jackson and Postgate 1999, 545 fig. 5; Postgate and Thomas 2007, 374.

[141] Goldman 1956, 207-8, 220-21, no. 1259, 1272,1274 ; Mountjoy 2005, 110-11, no. 297-302.

[142] Collon et al. 2010, 163-64.

[143] Collon et al. 2010, 165; Jackson and Postgate 2011, 427.

[144] a.g.e. 428.

[145] Şerifoğlu 2012, 375.

[146] Jackson and Postgate 2011, 437.

[147] Gjerstad 1934, 158.

[148] Gjerstad 1934, 176-77, 181.

[149] Garstang 1953.

determined at these excavations. It is revealed that the last phase of Hittite settlement ended by a heavy fire at 5th period.[150] The following 4th and 3th periods which belong to Iron Age have no connections with 5th period.[151] Ruins of these periods consist of small scale spaces.[152] Huge amount of period 4th ceramic material belong to 8th century BC.[153] The ceramic material of the third period comprises east Greek bird bowl, east Greek plain foot bowl, Rhodos wild goat style dinos, krater, banded wares and Cyprus material. [154] Rhodos samples constitute imported pottery of Yumuktepe.[155]

Nagidos

Nagidos is in the Mersin District at Bozyazı province. The city is in the Middle Mountainous Cilicia. Nagidos excavations were performed between the dates of 1998-2002 and the excavation results were published in 2007.[156] Iron age settlement of the city was found at the east of the Sini Creek on Paşabeleni Hill. The ceramic findings consist of West Anatolian, Cyprus and Cilician painted ware groups. Local ceramic samples which correlate with these groups were also found.[157] According to relevant literature, in these excavations no artifact dating before Geometric period was found.[158] The earliest vases which were found at Nagidos consist of krater, Ionian bowl, skyphos, plate and Ionian and Cyprus amphoras. Cypriot amphoras dated back from the late 7th century BC to the early 6th century BC are classified in Cypro Archaic I samples.[159] It was remarked that Cypriot and Samian samples were found in krater and skyphos forms. Samples of local products related to Cypriot and Samian samples were also found in Nagidos.[160] It was reported that skyphos decorated with bands, lotus, zig-zag and concentric circles has a character of original styles of Cypriot Ceramic.[161] The Cypriot ceramic groups founded at Nagidos consist of Bichrome IV, White Painted IV, Black on Red II and Red Sliped groups.[162] These are seen as the evidences for the establishment of city in the early 7th century BC.[163] The other findings group of Nagidos is terracotta figurines. These are grouped under adorant, soldier-rider, animal figurines. It was detected that figurines have shown similarities with Samos, Cyprus and Gözsüzce in typology and style. Figurines date back from the middle of the 7th century to the late 6th century BC.[164] Cultural elements of Cyprus and Samos were found in Nagidos, but bird bowls, orientalizing and geometric ceramic, Cycladic and Corinthian imported ceramic samples were not encountered in the city.[165] It has been suggested that the

[150] Garstang 1939, 95-6; 1953, 239-40; Sevin 2001, 96; Sevin and Caneva 1996, 76.

[151] Garstang 1939, 99.

[152] Sevin and Caneva 1996, 76, 106-7.

[153] Garstang 1939, 98; 1953, 254-57, fig. 160; Caneva and Köroğlu 2008, 381; In the period 4 five Mycenaean sherds, one Sub-Mycenaean sherd which dated from the 11th to the 9th century BC and one protogeometric bowl were mixed with 8th century BC ceramic material.

[154] Garstang 1939, 99; Arslan 2010, no. 123-24, lev. 61, no. 456, lev. 16, no. 177-81, lev. 17, no. 189, lev. 17, no. 196, lev. 18, no. 204-5, lev. 24, no. 284.

[155] Garstang 1953, 254.

[156] Durugönül 2007.

[157] Durugönül 2007, 43.

[158] Durugönül 2007, 44.

[159] Durugönül 2003, 245; 2007, 43, 49.

[160] Durugönül 2007, 54.

[161] Durugönül 2007, 49.

[162] Durugönül 2007, 49.

[163] Durugönül 2007, 47.

[164] Durugönül 2007, 345-46.

[165] Durugönül 2007, 391.

local ceramic of Nagidos were produced via imitating Cyprus ones.[166] Nagidos is a trade center that has close relationships with Cyprus since its foundation.[167]

Kelenderis

Kelenderis is at Mersin province Aydıncık District. The city was in the Middle Mountainous Cilicia (Tracheia or Aspera) in the Ancient times[168], and in Late Iron Age (Neo-Babylonian period) it was located in the Kingdom of Pirindu.[169] Kelenderis takes place on the route between Rough Cilicia and Plain Cilicia. Also, the site is at the starting point of routes which begin from the Mediterranean Sea and reach to Mut (ancient Klaudiopolis), Ermenek (ancient Germanikopolis) and Central Anatolia.[170] Kelenderis's the "U" form Gilindire Bay is at the starting point of this road network. This natural harbor formed bay is one of the trading ports and stops of the sea routes between West Anatolia and Cilicia, Cyprus, Levant and Egypt in Iron Age and also in Ancient era.[171] This natural harbor has been in service since 8th century BC. The ancient settlement of the city is located on the peninsula to the west of this natural harbour.

The excavations have been conducted since 1987. In the light of these excavations the settlement of the city was determined to the period taking part in between the 8th century BC and the Late Ancient Age within a regular and uninterrupted stratigraphy.[172] Fragmentary architectural remains from the Iron Age have been identified in the "lower city – Aşağı Şehir" sounding at Kelenderis. It was reported that the achitecture consists of 'a series of weak fundamentals put up with a few, raw, simple, rough, round or flat stone'.[173]

Ceramic findings that are dated back from 8th to 6th centuries BC have similarities with Cyprus, Rhodos and Samos samples. All these findings were obtained in this fragmentary architecture and fill.[174] These ceramic consist of krater, deep bowl, amphora, jug, oinoche, kotyle, bird bowls, plate, aryballos, dinos, skyphos, olpe, Ionian bowl and banded wares. The material is decorated with zig-zag, wave line, hatched triangles or quads and "S" motifs. Basket handle amphoras create the other assemblage.[175] Kelenderis samples are dated back to the period taking part in between the 7th century and the first half of the 6th century BC. Also, together with these amphoras, East Greek, Cypriot and Protocorinth materials were found.[176] These amphoras were used for carrying olive oil in a large territory: Levant, Egypt, Crete, Milet, Rhodos, Kinet Höyük and also in Cilicia.[177] These material presents trade and relations about Kelenderis. Also, these containers give clues about trade of agricultural products like olive oil between Kelenderis, Levant and Cyprus. Besides, the adorant fıgurine that was found during "Acropol Hill" excavations provides information about possible cultural and trade relations of Kelenderis.[178] The handmade figurine that has a cylindrical body in praying position with raised hands was dated back to the period from the end of the 8th century to the early 7th century BC.[179] The similar ones of

[166] Durugönül 2007, 44.

[167] Durugönül 2003, 246.

[168] Strabon, Geographika, 14,5,3.

[169] Zoroğlu 1994a, 302-3; 1994b, 9, ve dipnot 22.

[170] Zoroğlu 1994b, 25-6, ve dipnot 25; 1997, 386-87, 390.

[171] Zoroğlu 1994b, 21, 29.

[172] Zoroğlu 1991, 309-10; 1992, 241-44; 1993, 165-68; 1995, 189-97.

[173] Zoroğlu 1995, 193-94.

[174] Arslan 2010, 89-90; Zoroğlu 1994a, 193-94; 1993,189-209, P. Mela (I, 13).

[175] Zoroğlu 1996, 269, resim 11; 2013, 20, 21.

[176] Zoroğlu 2013, 20, 24-5.

[177] Greene 2011, 62-3.

[178] Zoroğlu 2005, 335, fig. 3.

[179] Schmidt 1968, 93-8.

this figurine were found in Tarsus Gözlükule and Gözsüzce.[180] This figurine is one of the items with "East Greek" features in Kelenderis. At the same time, the figurin is another proof for the relationship of Kelenderis and Samos that started in the end of the 8th century BC.[181]

In conclusion, East Greek origin ceramics were found in Kelenderis. Furthermore, Kelenderis is cited as a colony of Samos in ancient sources. Still, there is a lack of the architectural evidence about the colonial settlement in the city. All these indicate an Ionian existence in Kelenderis. In that case the question arise: What was the reason for Ionians to chose Kelenderis as a colony? As it is known many reasons are suggested for the establishment of colonies. These may be listed as population growth, shrinkage of agricultural land, scarcity of raw materials, climatic factors and social events.[182] What is more, trade and agricultural factors are effective for the establishment of colonies.[183] Therefore, it is possible to assert the colonies which are based on trade activities is a result of sailor life of Helens. In addition, the shortage of land, the population growth and the production that cannot support enrichment may have been the additional reasons for Helens to establish colonies. As is acknowledged, most of the causes for formation of colonies rest on soil productivity and allocation of soil. However, topography of Kelenderis does not fit to the agricultural reasons. Also, there is no additional data that support trade save for pottery remains. Hence, the reason of Ionians to arrive to Kelenderis was not only to use it as a harbor or as an outpost for the pottery trade, but also to penetrate to the hinterlands of Kelenderis since Kelenderis is located at the starting point of the road network which enables an easy transport to Taşeli Plateau. Besides, the inner regions with two different routes are not distant more than 20 km from the city. Close position of the city to the sources of Taşeli Plateau and city's harbour may draw attention of East Greek (Samos) traders to the city.[184]

Soli Höyük

Soli Höyük, is in the ancient settlement of Soli/Pompeiopolis, approximately 11 km to the west of Mersin/Viranşehir district. Soli is a mound on the alluvion plain formed by Mezitli (Liparis) Creek and Müftü Creek. The first expeditions were in the 19th century.[185] Ceramics on the mound was dated back to the Bronze Age in the surveys of Gjerstad.[186] Soli was visited in 1936 by Seton-Williams.[187] Archaeological excavations started in 1999 and are currently in progress. It is suggested that Soli was an active trading port in the Bronze and the Iron Ages.[188] The stratigraphy of Soli Höyük dates from 15th century BC to the Roman period. The Iron Age Settlement was determined on the eastern slope of Soli Höyük.[189] It was identified that the Roman structuring on the mound gave considerable harm to the Iron Age settlement.[190] Therefore, Middle Iron Age layer has a fragmentary condition.[191] It has been reported that parallel wall structures reminds megaron were determined on the mound at trenches E7-E8 in the east-west direction.[192] This

[180] Goldman 1963, 333-34; Arslan 2001, 225-26.

[181] Zoroğlu 2007, 830 ed. seq.

[182] Hesiodos Op. 248-52, 37-9; Herodotos 4.150.

[183] Tsetskhladze 1994, 123.

[184] Basket handled Amphoras that found at Kelenderis are give clues about this matter (Zoroğlu 2013). The possibility should not ignore that Taşeli plateau can be the hinterland of Kelenderis in the Iron Age also. Kelenderis is defined by Plinius as a region (regio celenderitis) in ancient era (Pliny, Naturalis Historia 5, 27).

[185] Borgia 2003, 53-7.

[186] Gjerstad 1934, 158.

[187] Seton-Williams 1954, 168.

[188] Yağcı, 2001b, 159-62; 2003a, 2 vd.; 2013, 6-7.

[189] Yağcı 2001a, 260; 2003b, 516.

[190] Yağcı 2005, 416.

[191] Yağcı 2001a, 260.

[192] Yağcı 2004, 51-2.

architecture represents Geometric period samples, Cypriot White Painted IV and Bichrome IV groups, East Greek pottery like Rhodos Bird Bowls, Ionian Bowls, South Ionian Wild Goat Style samples, wave line amphoras, Samian or Rhodos lekythos samples and painted architectural terracottas.[193] This material is the most important physical records of the relations of the East Greek world with Soli. Architectural elements such as gutters and roof tiles in Cilicia have been interpreted as evidence for the existence of the East Greek community in the city.[194]

Settlement pattern at Cilicia

Topography and geographical location determines the formation of the cities in Cilicia. In terms of these criteria the settlement groups of the region may be listed as port cities, castle towns, flat settlements and plateau settlements. Mountainous Cilicia region's topography consists of the valleys formed by the rivers, and the hills between these valleys and the coastal plains. Due to this topography, the settlements in the Mountainous Cilicia were located on a narrow coast line comprising the bays that are used as harbors and small coastal plains. Plain Cilicia has a fertile terrain, rivers and mild climate contrary to the Mountainous Cilicia. The Plain Cilicia from the west to the east is fed by the rivers Cydnus (modern Berdan River), Saros (modern Seyhan River), Pyramos (modern Ceyhan River) and Pinaros (modern Deli Creek) respectively. The region is also on the routes between Anatolia, Northern Syria, Northern Mesopotamia and Eastern Mediterranean. We could remark that the Plain Cilicia settlements were formed at riversides as flat settlements and mounds. As for the settlements at estuaries, they were founded as a port cities and mounds. The settlement pattern of Plain Cilicia shows homogeneous distribution in the Iron Age.[195] None of these settlements of Cilicia (except for Sirkeli Höyük citadel[196] and Kara Tepe[197]) have fortifications in the Early and Middle Iron Ages, which is an another property of the settlement pattern of Cilicia.

In view of the findings and the architectural remains of the region, it is possible to suggest an impoverishment throughout the beginning of the Iron Age, which may be the cause for the lack of fortification in the region especially in this period. The fortification walls cannot be seen in the Middle Iron Age in the region also. However, the region was faced with Assyrian threats and invasions during this period. The Assyrian pressure itself may be the causefor this lack of fortification. All of the prominent and excavated settlements in the region were developed on the western shore of the rivers in the Middle Iron Age. This situation may be a simple defense precaution for an eastern threat. The cities in the region like Nagidos, Kelenderis, Tarsus, Sirkeli Höyük and Kinet Höyük were under the Persian rule with fortifications. The settlement pattern and economic system of Plain Cilicia in the Ottoman period used to consist of settled public, nomads and semi-nomads.[198] This situation gives important clues about the Iron Ages of the region. Kinet Höyük,[199] Tarsus Gözlükule[200] and Kilise Tepe[201] give information about this topic. The evidence of agro-pastoral living in Early Iron Age in Cilicia can be observed clearly. Also, the material culture remains of western Anatolia, Aegean Sea and mainland Greece were rarely encountered in the Early Iron Age when compared to the other Iron Age settlements in Cilicia.[202] It can be suggested

[193] Yağcı 2013, 7, 9-14.

[194] Yağcı 2013, 10-11.

[195] Seton-Williams 1954, Fig. 5.

[196] Hrouda et al. 1997, 96.

[197] Çambel 1999, 400; 2001, 292-93.

[198] Yakar 2001, 38.

[199] Gates 2013, 492-94.

[200] Goldman 1963, 109.

[201] Postgate and Thomas 2007, 128, 130, 136-37, 442; Jackson and Postgate 2009, 212.

[202] Postgate and Baker 1995, 176-77; Garstang 1953, 253-59; Momsen 2011, 912-13; Mee 1978, 150; Sherratt and Crouwell 1987, 325 vd.; Sherratt 1998, 292 vd.

that the trade started with individual and simple interchanges. It must have started in the period of the colonization or the establishment of emporios in Cilicia. Increasing trade and supply paved the way for local production of the imported Eastern Aegean material (especially ceramics). This material now constitutes the main feature of the Cilician Iron Age Culture.

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