THE KİNET HÖYÜK MBII BUILDING
THE LEVANTINE PALACE TRADITION IN EASTERN CILICIA

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ABSTRACT

THE MBII BUILDING AT KİNET HÖYÜK
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Kinet Höyük with its 3.3 ha size, is a multi-period site located on the İskenderun Gulf of Eastern Cilicia .The research subject is: Middle Bronze II (1800-1600B.C) burnt building complex located in the east terrace of the mound. The part of the building that has been exposed is representing the general characteristics of the Levantine style monumental architecture of MBII with its 50m exposure. The primary goal of the thesis is to understand the function of this specific building in its local context and to compare the building with similar buildings in Anatolia, Syria and the Levant to see the cultural interaction that is visible in the architectural evidence. The widely accepted conventions for the mound size and the settlement activity patterns are re-examined in the final chapter on the basis of the contradictory relationship between the size of the settlement and the monumental architecture at Kinet Höyük.

Keywords: Kinet, Cilicia, Middle Bronze Age.

ÖZ

KİNET HÖYÜK ORTA TUNÇ II DÖNEMİ BİNASI
DOĞU KİLİKYA SARAY MİMARİSİNDE DOĞU AKDENİZ ETKİSİ

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Kinet Höyük Doğu Kilikya`da İskenderun körfezinde bulunan farklı dönemlere ait katmanları barındıran 3.3 hektarlık bir alana yayılı bir yerleşkedir. Araştırmanın konusunu höyüğün doğu terasında bulunan Orta Tunç Çağı II (M.Ö. 1800-1600) dönemine gelen yanmış bina kompleksi oluşturmaktadır. Binanın ortaya çıkartılan 50 m`lik kısmı O.T. II anıtsal mimarisinin Doğu Akdeniz sitiline iyi bir örnektir. Bu tezin ana amacı, bu binanın bulunduğu ortamdaki fonksiyonel yapısını anlamak ve mimari açıdan bu binayı Anadolu, Suriye ve Doğu Akdenizdeki diğer benzerleri ile karşılaştırarak kültürel etkileşimin düzeyini belirlemektir. Tezin dördüncü bölümünde Kinet Höyük anıtsal mimarisi ve yerleşkenin yüzölçüsel tezatlığı baz alınarak höyüğün yüzölçümü ve yerleşkesi ile orantılı olarak benimsenmiş genel söylemler tekrar incelenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kinet, Kilikya, Orta Tunç Çağı.

To My Parents

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Middle Bronze II (1800-1600) of the Levant is defined archaeologically as the period of re-urbanization owing to the appearance of a large number of rampart type settlements with palatial complexes, indicating the existence of a strong administration system established after a period of abandonment (Akkermans and Schwartz 2003: 291-326). The archives recovered from Ebla, Alalakh, Mari and Qatna attest to this statement and confirm the rise in the number of state kingdoms (Klengel 1992). The political and economic interaction between these state kingdoms increased by a considerable amount and manifested itself with an increase in trade items, resulting in a common aesthetic taste. The architectural evidence including ramparts, fortification walls, forts, gates and palaces began to present common characteristic features and a standardization pattern is observed for these specific constructional achievements (Kempinski 1992).

The MBII occupation at Kinet Höyük in Eastern Cilicia demonstrated similar patterns of re-urbanization with the exposure of a 50-m-long building complex indicating the revival of the city economy after an abandonment and depopulation observed in the MBI level. This single building with its sealed context presents a large number of pottery assemblages and objects that share the same stylistic features as Levantine cultures. This similarity is also observed in the architectural construction suggesting the possibility of an administrative complex.

The nature of the evidence from Kinet Höyük first requires an examination of the excavated site. In the first chapter, the function of the building is investigated in its local context and a preliminary identification is suggested through a study of the published and unpublished material regarding the building. In the second chapter, the contemporary evidence from other sites of Anatolia and the Levant

is used to support the identification of the building as an administrative structure, thus providing evidence of the role of Kinet Höyük in its interregional context.

In the third chapter, the relationship between the concept of urbanization and the physical attributions (site size models) are discussed in order to re-evaluate the nature of occupation in the MBII period of Kinet Höyük, which seems to contradict the general size-based site identifications.

Chronology

For the Southern and Northern Levant, there are two separate chronologies. In this study both of these assessments will be used where relevant. Although the building itself and the recent studies on the chronological issues of Near East (SCIEM) suggests the lower dates may be more accurate, this study was not intended to be a commentary on the chronological problems, and for these purposes the 1800-1600 B.C range was taken as the MBII period.

The Chronological timetable[1]:

Present Terms	**Other Terms**			**Dates B.C**
	Albright	Kenyon	Israeli	
Middle Bronze I	MBIIA	MBI	MBIIA	2000-1800
Middle Bronze II	MBIIB			1800-1650
		MBII	MBIIB	
Middle Bronze III	MBIIC			1650-1500

[1] Dever 1987: 149.

CHAPTER II

THE BURNT BUILDING

Encompassing an area of 3.3 ha. and 26 m of height, Kinet Höyük is the largest known site in Eastern Cilicia, and is located in Dörtyol on the eastern shore of the Bay of Iskenderun, 525 meters inland from the modern coastline (Gates 1998: 259, Ozaner 1994: 514) (Fig.2.1, 2.2).

2.1 Historical Evidence

The descriptions in Xenophon and Strabo make Kinet Höyük the best candidate for ancient Issos, where Alexander the Great defeated Darius in the Battle of Issos in 333 B.C. Xenophon's observations about Issos indicate that the site was an urban center at the end of fifth century B.C:

> Then he marched two stages, ten parasangs (55.5km), to the Psarus River, the width of which was three plethora (92.5m). From there he marched one stage, five parasangs (18.5km), to the Pyramus river, the width of which was a stadium. From there he marched two stages, fifteen parasangs (77.5km), to Issus, the last city in Cilicia, a place situated on the sea, large and prosperous. (Xenophon, Anabasis 1.4.2).

When Strabo made his visit to Issos, possibly the site was diminished in size and population:

> After Aegaeae, one comes to Issus, a small town with a mooring people, and the Pinarus river. It was there that the struggle between Alexander and Dareius occurred; and the gulf is called the Issic Gulf. (Strabo, Geography 14.5.9).

The classical name Issos is taphonomically associated with the Iron Age city *Sissu* from the Assyrian royal annals and with *Zise,* a Hittite city that Idrimi claimed to have conquered (Bing 1993:102-103) or Izziye where Quenn Puduhepa participated a ceremony at the seashore (Forlanini 2001:553-554). However, no no written documents have been recovered from the site to prove its original name.

2.2 The Excavations

The 15 years of archaeological work clarified the occupational history of the site and its significant role in regional and interregional contexts. The site's location and the geo-archaeological surveys confirmed the historical evidence that Kinets' inhabitants were involved in maritime-related activities. It is understood that the site controlled two harbors in ancient times; the south one on the river estuary and a natural bay on the north side (Ozaner 1994).

The Neolithic ceramics that were found at the bottom of an EBA trench on the west slope and the Chalcolithic Halaf ceramics coming from a non-stratified context in the east terrace present the earliest occupations so far discovered at the site. EBA trenches have been exposed for more than 15 architectural levels, followed by a poorly preserved MBI phase. The site seems to have expanded its area in the MBII, and again with the Hittite occupation in the LBA. The establishment of a lower town on the northern side of the mound must be dated to the late MBII / LBA. Kinet reached its largest size in the Iron Age when the mound itself functioned as the citadel with a lower town located in the northern field. After the Hellenistic levels, the site was abandoned and resettled in the Medieval Period which represents the latest occupation level.

In the last twenty years, Delta Petroleum, BP and Milangaz have installed their propane gas tanks on the bay around the site, which delimits the accessible part of the site only to the mound itself except on the northern side. In that sense, the Kinet excavation campaigns can also be seen as a salvage project.

2.3 The Burnt Building and its Stratigraphic Context (Fig 2.3, 2.4)

The MBII burnt building complex is located on the eastern slope of the mound, where a 50-m long zone of architectural remains has been exposed. The ruins of the building were discovered very close to the modern surface of the mound, immediately underlying Medieval occupation levels. The slope angle at that spot is not steep, in fact almost flat in comparison to the other sides of the mound. To understand the purpose and the context of the building, it is important to examine the stratigraphy of the east slope first.

In the 2001 excavation season, 6 soundings (K4, K5, K6, K7, K8, K9) each measuring 3 by 3m were opened over a 600m^2 area, 5 and 10 meters away from the east limit of the trenches (K, K2), which first exposed the building at the 12-m contour line of mound (fig 2.3). The primary purpose of these soundings was to see whether the MBA building continued towards the east, in which case would have helped to develop strategies for large-scale excavations in the following seasons. These soundings tested the stratigraphy of the east slope and the results provided sufficient information for understanding its settlement history. The soundings reached a depth of 3.5m, and demonstrated that there was no MBA occupation at this elevation east of 12m contour line of the mound, and that the stratigraphy of the eastern slope is more complicated than had been expected.

The latest occupational level exposed in these soundings is the Kinet Period 1 medieval walls and floors, revealing that the east slope was entirely occupied and terraced in the third and last medieval phase. Complete vessels abandoned on floors as in the other medieval trenches, attested the sudden destruction of Medieval Kinet (14th century A.D), which brought the occupation on the site to a complete end.

The preceding phases were buried under a thick erosion layer, which involved up to 1-1.5 meters of wash. The drop in elevation from east to west, the extensive medieval pitting activity and the continuous walls on top of each other made it difficult to understand the phasing from one sounding to the next. But underneath the wash deposit were four distinct levels exposed with floors, surfaces and walls giving a sequence from the Middle to early Late Iron Ages (Periods 9 to 6). The break between the Medieval and Iron Ages is clearly seen with this thick wash layer, which proved that there was no occupation at all in between, starting from east of 12-m contour line.

The soundings which were opened in the northern field beyond the mound reached to 5m deep (V1, V2, Z1, Z2, Z3, Z4), have also indicated that the site was densely occupied and lasted for more than four building phases in the Middle Iron Age. It indicates that during the Iron Age there was a lower city

covering the entire north and east fields, with its citadel located on top of the mound. This infers that, if it existed at all, the MB lower city is, in all probability buried more than 5m deep under the Iron Age levels, and that our burnt building was located on the outer limit of the MBA citadel on the eastern slope. That is the reason why we do not see any more MB remains in the eastern slope beyond the eastern edge of the 12-m contour line. The level difference between the MB mound and its possible lower town was filled with the later accumulations of succeeding levels, especially during the Iron Age. These results, when combined with the structural evidence from the building, lead us to think about the complex as part of a fortification system that enclosed the possible citadel of the MBA mound.

2.4 The Burnt Building Complex (Fig 2.5)

The ten-year excavations on the east terrace proved that the building was constructed as one single complex cut into a foundation trench thus disturbing poorly preserved MBI remains. The excavations so far have been conducted in a N-S orientation in 10 by 5m trenches along the 12-m contour line of the mound except for the trench K3 and western half of K2, which aimed to investigate the further western parts of the building. The rest of the trenches K, K2, K10, and K11 followed the N-S axis and eventually recovered the three major sections of the building and the northern end of the complex.

Earth was the predominant construction material used in this building. Mud bricks measuring 40 x 40 x 12 cm were used to raise the superstructure of the building. Wooden planks were used for roofing and to reinforce the brick walls, while cobble-size river stones were used for the foundation. Since the building was severely burnt, the bricks became more solid and resistant to the natural conditions, thus enabling us to understand the architectural layout more clearly. The level of preservation is extremely good, particularly in the northern part where the brick walls stand up to two meters in height.

The building has two major phases with distinct floor levels. A severe fire damaged the original construction phase of the building and most of the rooms were sealed with the collapse of the brick walls. The building was then

carelessly repaired: some partition walls were added, the floors were raised and it continued to function in its second phase. The Phase 2 building was again damaged by a heavy fire, which was probably provoked by an earthquake, ending the history of the building. The walls collapsed as one large piece on top of each other, the upper brick courses of the buttresses were tilted towards the sides and foundations shifted from their original orientation.

The large quantity of vessels (storage jars, Cilician painted wares), numerous production tools (axe molds, pounders and grinding stones) and large hearths and ovens coming from two phases of the building prove that this portion of the building functioned as a storage and service section, and as a workshop area. All this evidence in a large-scale building strongly suggests that this complex could be an administrative building with sections divided by functions from residential to administrative, industrial and storage and service areas. However, the increasing steepness of the slope and the later level accumulations have made it impossible for the project to expose the building in a more westerly direction. This prevents us from seeing other sections of the building, which most probably functioned as the residential and administrative quarters.

Following the fire in the second phase, this east section of the mound was abandoned and the building was later sealed under a deposit of sterile silt and waterborne gravel with a dense concentration of marine shells, which accumulated from flooding. This deposit of gravel is thicker in the southern part of the building and gradually gets thinner towards the north, which may prove that the flood came from a southern direction. Above this gravel layer are remains of a Hellenistic occupation (mostly pits), but more substantial architectural remains date to the Middle Ages (Kinet Phase I). In this area of the slope there seems to be no occupation after MBII until the Middle Ages.

2.4.1 MBII Building, Phase 1

Outer space

Ceramics excavated from beneath the floors of the original building level show that the building was cut into an earlier MB I deposit. This explains the difference in elevation of the surfaces inside and outside the building. The major

N-S oriented outer wall of the building has cobble-sized curb stones set against its outer face at approximately 10.50 masl[2]. The outer surface of the building is much higher in elevation than the floor level associated with the Phase 1 construction (9.80 masl), indicating that the building's inner space was cut into an earlier deposit rather than raising it above the MBII living surface. This building technique was most probably employed to reinforce the outer major wall, since it affords a more solid construction and a more resistant fortification system.

The general characteristics of the outer wall direct us to think about the building itself as part of the entire fortification system. The outer wall is approximately 1m wide and it is reinforced from inside by buttresses spaced at every 2.5 to 3.5 meters and numbering eight so far. These buttresses seem to have functioned as doorjambs but their primary purpose was to reinforce the outer wall and the possible second story of the building. The thickness of the outer wall and size of the buttresses suggest the walls of the building rose to a height of at least 6 meters. (Pers. Comm. Işık Süngü). Since this wall was located on the edge of MB II mound, it seems likely that the portion we excavated is the outer wall of the citadel, which was built in the manner of a rectangular enclosure with several access points surrounding the citadel. The large stone construction discovered in the northern end of the building may be served as one of these entrances.

The northern end of the continuous outer wall joins a massive stone structure divided into two compartments. Constructed from boulder-size river stones, the structures massive appearance suggests that the northern corner of the building was fortified with a tower. This tower was built in Phase 1 and continued to function in Phase 2 with the same purpose.

The outer space of the building, because of the slope elevation, is close to the modern surface of the mound and medieval disturbance in this area is very high. The medieval terracing wall at the eastern side of the outer wall also runs

[2] Meters Above Sea Level.

N-S and is at the same elevation as the MB wall, demonstrating in part the complex stratigraphic elements of the eastern terrace.

The inner space

Phase 1

The inner space of the building is characterized by three different sections. The southern part of the building was divided into two parallel sections: the east and west wings. The room dimensions and the architectural style are different in the northern part of the building, which from this point on we will refer to as the Northern Sector.

East Wing

The eastern wing is delimited by an inner wall running parallel to the outer wall with a N-S orientation. The space between these two parallel walls is divided into four rooms of equal size by the buttresses located inside the outer wall of the building. In the first construction phase the inner wall seems also to have buttresses, which were located across from the buttresses of the outer wall. These buttresses were eliminated in the second phase and a narrower inner wall was rebuilt in its place. This shows that the buttresses functioned as doorjambs and provided access between rooms in the earlier phase of the building. Evidence for this type of construction can only be seen in the northern portion of the east wing where the remains of two buttresses were exposed in the inner wall, facing the third and fourth buttresses of the outer wall.

The theory of doorjambs cannot be attested to the northern sector where excavations found no traces of any buttressing on the west walls of the rooms. The discovery of a doorway leading into the west wing of the building from the northern section indicates that it may have a different layout.

The floor of the Phase 1 building is at ca. 9.60 masl with a compact, cream-colored surface. The recovery of large pieces of charred wood and smashed jars lying at an angle suggest that the walls were lined with shelves for vessel storage. Some rooms did not produce any in situ remains for phase 1, which may be a sign of the material being re-used in the second phase of the

building. Some of the less damaged vessels had been moved from their original contexts; in particular those vessels used for storing non- flammable goods. These continued to be used in the second phase of the building, thus explaining the presence of identical pottery assemblages in both phases (Gates 2000).

West Wing

The excavations carried out in the west wing of the building only exposed the Phase 2 floor. The Phase 1 floor was not excavated here, so it is not known how the west wing was laid out in the original construction phase.

The Northern Sector

Beginning with room **39** in the northern quadrant, the architectural layout of the building becomes different. The major N-S oriented inner wall does not appear to extend into this sector, thus changing the rectangular pattern of the rooms. The last three rooms appear much wider than those in the east wing, as evidenced by the absence of a western wall and presence of a large oven in the middle of room **39**, half of which runs into the western balk.

The northern section is much less damaged by medieval pits and the level of preservation is very high. Phase 2 floors were partially preserved in the room **33** and to a lesser extent in room **28**.

2.4.2 Phase 2

The East Wing

The final phase is defined as a careless repair of the building. After the heavy fire that destroyed the original building phase, some of the surviving vessels and other furnishings were removed from the burnt deposit and a second floor (10.82 masl) was laid out above the collapsed fill. The rooms were subdivided by thin partition walls, and as a result became much smaller in size. In the original construction, square bricks 40 x 40 x 12 cm were used in the buttresses and walls. The phase 2 partition walls were built with rectangular bricks half the size of the earlier ones. The rooms in the southern part were divided into compartments and access between them was cut off. These new partition walls were carelessly built, some being composed of re-used bricks combined with stones and mud.

The additional partition walls in the east wing created eight rooms, which were used for food preparation and storage. As before, the rooms were full, with jars and tableware utilizing all available space. The interior brick work of some of the phase one walls had been dug out during the second phase and the space used as compartments for sunken storage jars in both the north and east parts of the building.

The West Wing

The only access between the three separate parts of the building was exposed in the western balk of Op K10, located in the northern section of the building. With the exception of this doorway there is no access between the north, east and west wings.

The west wing differs completely from the east and north sector in its function. This part of the building was probably an open space or courtyard and was used as a workshop area. The west wing is delimited by the inner N-S wall and an E-W wall at its exposed north end. No wall was traced in the western and southern sides except for the partition walls dividing the courtyard into separate work areas. The west wing was divided into three rooms with waist-high brick partition walls. The floor level was exposed at around 10.80 masl, and had remains of reed-like material on the floors' surface in the northeast portion. This material is possibly associated with a shade covering the outer space.

In total, seven portable horseshoe shaped ovens were exposed in this area. In the large north courtyard five of these ovens were located around a stone-lined well and the other two stood against the east wall of the court. The discovery of a broken stone mold for tool and weapon production and the existence of pyrotechnic installations proved that this was an industrial activity area.

The brick-built bench with three basalt mortars exposed in the NE corner of the west wing suggests that cereal processing took place here, although it is also possible that the mortars were being used to grind other materials. It is most likely that various forms of out-door industrial activity occurred simultaneously in this courtyard area.

2.5 The Room Descriptions

2.5.1 The East Wing (Fig 2.6, 2.7)

The southern section of the building was divided into two separate wings by the N-S inner wall, which ran parallel to the outer wall of the building. The eastern side of this inner wall functioned as a storage and service section. In the second phase of the building the rooms became smaller in size by the addition of partition walls which blocked the access between rooms, creating small compartments used for storage. The Phase 2 floors and the in-situ remains are best preserved in the southern part of the building. Although the rooms and the associated mud brick walls were heavily damaged by medieval and Hellenistic period pits, the results provide enough information to see the general characteristics of the second phase plan.

Phase 1 finds were found on the floors of rooms 115 and 103 only (other phase 1 floors had been cleaned out prior to Phase 2).

Room 115 (Phase 1 floor level: 9.30 masl. Fig 2.8)

This is the last room exposed in the southernmost corner of the building. The excavations recovered only a portion of it. The access from room **103** is blocked by the addition of partition wall **121** running E-W from the middle of buttress **116** to the major inner wall. Partition wall **121** has been split away from buttress **116**, which appears to be the result of an earthquake.

Medieval and Hellenistic pits disturb this corner. No phase 2 floor was traced in the room. All material recovered is associated with Phase 1.

Pottery

Storage Jar: 3

Room 103 (floor level: 9.61 masl. Fig 2.9)

The major outer and inner wall from E-W delimits this room. A doorway located on the west corner of partition wall **90** provides an entrance from passageway **78**. Although the partition wall **90** appears to be a later addition to the building, the floor level is contemporary with phase 1 occupation.

This single room contained 17 storage jars, the most densely occupied sector in the east wing.

Pottery

Storage Jar: 17

CPW pitcher: 4

One Handled Cup: 1

Spouted Casserole: 1

Pitcher: 2

Bowl: 1

Cooking Pot: 1

Objects

Bone Pin: 1

Spit support: 2

Loom Weight: 1

Room 78 (fig 2.10)

This room was divided into two small chambers by a partition wall **90** in the second phase of the building. A doorway located between rooms **76** and **78** gave access to this room from the south. The E-W orientated brick wall **82** was cut from its western end and the space between the major inner wall and the brick wall **82** functioned as a doorway. The southern entrance to the room was located in the space left between the partition wall **90** and the major inner wall. These two access points are placed at the opposite ends of the room.

Between the buttress **79** and the partition wall **82**, a small compartment was added in the second phase of the building. The partition wall **82** is plastered on its southern side, probably to protect the contents of the compartment from damp. The compartment seems to be cut into the large brick wall of the phase 1 building by taking out the bricks in the middle and leaving an enclosed space. Storage jars were then dug into the compartment. This room did not produce any materials related with the Phase 2 occupation except for the two storage jars sunk into the compartment **82**.

Objects

Loom Weight: 3

Room 76 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.61masl)

Medieval and Hellenistic pits disturbed the eastern outer wall of the building at this point. Preservation of this room is visibly poorer when compared to the other rooms excavated. The eastern outer wall is heavily disturbed and only stone foundations remain in some parts. The entrance is provided by a doorway, which connects with room **58**. The carelessly made brick wall delimits

the western side. A doorway is located in the southern end of this room, which affords an access to the southern rooms. The doorway is located between two buttresses, one of them taken down in Phase 2 and visible only from its stone foundations.

The pinkish plaster remains which were found positioned vertically, buried into the ground around the jars, could be an evidence for the use of plaster for coating purposes. The recovery of a horseshoe-shaped oven in this room indicates a fire-related activity in that spot.

Phase 2 Pottery	**Objects**
Storage jar: 5	Bone Tool: 1
Jug: 1	Loom Weight: 1

Room 57 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.82 masl. Fig 2.11)

In the second phase of the building, thin partition walls **61** and **62** were added to the original construction abutting the major outer wall **68**. The E-W partition wall **61** is plastered on its southern side and the N-S orientated partition wall is plastered on both sides. These two walls are composed of rectangular bricks and are one row in width. Their construction suggests a fast repair carried out after the fire that destroyed the first building level.

The southeast corner of this room, including the wall faces, was disturbed by the presence of a deep medieval pit. The general characteristics of the building suggest strongly that there must have been a buttress construction in the southeast corner since elsewhere in the room buttresses are employed approximately every three meters. In all probability a large part of the buttress collapsed in the fire that destroyed the first phase of the building. The builders took down the remains of this buttress in Phase 2 and transformed it into a thin partition wall and this new architectural element functioned as the southern enclosure wall of the room **57**. There are no doors that allow access to this room and the entrance is likely to have been via the ceiling. In the center of this room, there were large quantities of well-preserved wood charcoal which could be the remains of a ladder used for access.

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jar: 1	Stone Stamp Seal[3]: 1

The low quantity of furnishings in this room can be explained by its being used to keep valuable items which were then rescued from the second fire; used to store perishable materials; or even, rarely used at all.

Room 58 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.82masl.)

The E-W oriented partition wall **61** in the north, the parallel wall in the west and the partition walls **61** and **62** enclosed this room. A doorway with the remains of a socket is observed in the southern side of the room, providing access to the room **76**.

The context of rooms **58** and room **57** are the most disturbed and changed areas of the building. The phase 1 buttress was taken down and the standard plan of the building changed from single large rooms to small compartments. There are traces of mud brick buttressing in the inner wall, located exactly opposite the buttresses of the outer wall. Here the southwestern corner of the room has traces of a buttress, which was transformed into a thin wall. The space between the wall piece and the E-W orientated wall (original outer wall buttress) was left open, and provided access between the southern rooms.

Pottery

Storage Jar: 5

Red burnished trefoil pitcher: 1

CPW pitcher: 3

Two handled carinated cup: 1

Room 64 (Phase 2 floor level 10.30 masl.)

The buttress **68** on the outer wall and the buttress remains on the western inner wall created the doorway to enter this room from the northern room **66.** This room is enclosed from its southern side by the partition wall **61**, which blocked the far southern rooms and divided the east wing itself into two separate

[3] This stamp seal was found in the upper fill levels before the contour of rooms was clarified but from its location, it may be belonging to this room.

non-communicating areas. The buttress remains in the inner wall indicate that in the original phase 1 plan buttresses were used on both sides; creating doorjambs for that room. This is also the case for the northwest corner of room **64**.

The southern part of the room seems to be paved with river pebbles. Above these pebbles the concentration of burning is very high. This part might have been functioned as a hearth with pebbles insulating against the heat loss from the ground.

In the fill of this room, there were large numbers of spit supports/loom weights. It is noted that most of these clay objects came from the collapsed fill of the rooms, which may indicate that the rooftop or the possible second story of the building was used as an industrial area.

Phase 2

Pottery

Storage Jar: 5 (lids were also recovered) Undecorated pitcher:1

Red burnished priform pitcher: 1 Cooking pot: 1

CPW pitcher: 2 (one found inside the storage jar, used as a scoop, one found in a pisé container)

Gray brown burnished pitcher: 1

Objects

Grinding Stones: 2 Obsidian blade: 1

Pierced Weight: 1 Spit Supports: 12

Room 66 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.30masl.)

This room is located between the two buttresses labeled **68**. Two doorways located on its southern and northern sides provided access to rooms **64** and **44**. A medieval pit disturbed almost the entire area of the room. A large brick block **69** was recovered in the extreme north end of the building, which seems to be collapse from the north buttress.

Phase 2

Pottery

Storage Jar: 2 (one only preserved to its base, and one sunken)

Spouted Jug: 1

Juglet (reused as a scoop): 1

Leveling down in the room after the removal of the brick collapse **69**, excavators traced the original phase. The E-W oriented wall **79** was recovered on the northern end, which delimits and cuts off a connection with the further southern rooms. However, the vertical arrangement of the bricks on this wall may indicate the possibility of a collapsed piece. Further study is required to properly understand the architectural layout of this area.

Phase 1 Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jar: Fragmentary remains	Spit Support: 1
Loom Weight: 1	

Room\Compartment 80

With the exposure of phase 1 wall **79**, the northern side was changed into a small compartment. In the SW corner, remains of wall plaster were recovered relating to wall **79**.

Phase 1 Pottery

Storage Jar: 3 (two of them are fragmentary)

2.5.2 West Wing (Open Space/ Courtyard)

The west wing is situated on the western side of the major inner N-S wall. The excavations only recovered the 2nd phase floors. The evidence from the material culture and architectural data give the impression of an outdoor area devoted to industrial activities. The connection between the west wing and the other sections of the building exists only in the far northern room **44**, where a doorway is set into the western wall.

Room 109 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.15 masl)

This is the southernmost end of the building excavated to date in the west wing. This outdoor area is delimited by a bench **107** at its northern end. The western end of this area is not clear since bench **107** is extends into the western baulk. Debris on the floor included a high density of charcoal and charred wood remains, including a large plank (90 x 50 cm). These planks might have functioned as shelving. The presence of smashed jar remains on the ground probably resulted from the collapse of these shelves in the fire.

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jars: 2	Bronze Hook: 1
Large Clay lid: 1	
Juglet: 1	

Room 104 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.20 masl)

This room is enclosed from its north and south end by the E-W orientated benches **107** and **73**. A large medieval pit disturbs the center of this room. In the course of excavation, large fragments of plastered ceiling remains with reed prints were exposed. The plaster must have used to make this area waterproof against rainfall.

Close to its NE corner, a hearth **113** was exposed with cooking pot fragments set on top of a large group of spit supports, and a stone tripod bowl was found beside it. A large circular pyrotechnic feature **112** was excavated in the NW corner extending into the western baulk close to the feature **113**. It is severely damaged and has the traces of high temperature burning with ashy soil and yellowish melted bricks. In the upper fill of this feature were curved brick pieces, which may indicate the possibility of a domed feature. Between these two installations a terracotta figurine was found.

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jars: 2 fragmentary	Terracotta Female Figurine: 1
Basalt Tripod Bowl: 1	Spit Supports: more than 15
	Pestle: 1

Room 74 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.12 masl)

This room is located on the western side of the N- S oriented inner wall, repaired in the second phase of the building. The major N-S orientated wall as observed from the wall face at this point, consisted of two rows of rectangular bricks infilled. The western wall for this room is not clear because it was buried under the accumulations of later periods and has not yet been excavated. This area is enclosed on the south with an E-W oriented brick bench **73**. There is no

brick wall discovered that separates this area from room **58** in the north; the division may be recognized in vertically arranged charcoal remains which may be interpreted as a fence: a wooden partition with matting sunk into the floor.

An orthogonal MBII basin was discovered sunk into the floor of this room; its bottom was lined with river stones. A shell deposit within the basin is probably industrial in origin.

Objects

Loom Weight: 1

Spit Support: 1 Worked Stone: 1 Bead: 1

Room 58 + 59 (Phase 2 floor level: 10.86 masl. Fig 2.12, 2.13, 2.14)

The bench-like wall **73** on the southern side enclosed the courtyard area, while the northern part was closed off by the brick wall **64**. The remains of reed-like matter and minimal brick collapse in the room fill prove that this part of the building was unroofed and partially shaded. The rooms in the western wing do not have connecting doors, so the entrance to the west wing and access between the rooms must have been from the western part of the building.

In the northeastern corner of this room, abutting the major wall, a brick bench was discovered on which were placed three rectangular basalt mortars (saddle querns) each one with a loaf-shaped upper rubbing stone in-situ. This was therefore an area dedicated to grinding (and most probably, cereal processing activities). The height of this bench indicates that the individuals were kneeling while they were working in this area. The existence of a posthole next to the bench, suggests that this area was shaded.

In the center of this room five horseshoe fired clay ovens were discovered, surrounding a stone-lined well.

Two more ovens and a bin stood against the inner, major wall. A large oven with a circular arrangement of spit supports with burning traces at the base suggests that spit supports were employed as pot stands inside these ovens. Another oven was lidded with a square mud brick, and had two loaf- shaped grinding stones set next to it. The existence of a sandstone mold used for producing metal tools can be associated with these ovens. The water was

provided from the well and horseshoe ovens were used to provide the heat for re-melting and casting of metals.

From this quarter of the west wing, the existing pottery is distinct from that of the east and north sectors of the building. Spouted jars with basket handles and combed- decorated storage jars define this rooms' assemblage.

Pottery

Storage jar: 3

Two Handled pot: 1

Spouted Basket Handled jar: 2

Undecorated Pitcher: 1

CPW Two Handled Juglet: 1

Bichrome Juglet (Levantine Painted Ware): 1

Objects

Bronze pin: 2

Sandstone casting mold: 1

Spit Supports: 4

Room 72 (Phase 2 floor: 10.10masl)

In the northern end of the west wing, a brick wall **64** delimits the outdoor area. A portion of a small room was contained just inside the baulk, from which two ovens and several partially preserved pots were excavated.

Pottery

Bowl: 1

Jug: 1

2.5.3 Northern Sector

The northern wing is represented by four large rooms located at the far end of the building. The main reason why we examine this section separately is that the major N-S inner wall does not extend into this sector. The corridor layout of the east wing changes to the north of room **44**. Although these rooms share the general characteristics of the building with same arrangement of buttresses on the outer wall, rooms **39**, **33** and **28** probably cover a wider area, as evidenced by the absent inner wall. We don't know how far beyond the baulk the western wall that enclosed these rooms lies, but at the very least the configuration of the room sequence is substantially different here.

Room 44 (Phase 2 Floor: 10.35 masl, Phase 1 floor: 9.60 masl. Fig 2.15, 2.16)

This room is located between the buttresses **36** and **38**. All the walls have standing burnt mud-brick superstructure on top of their stone foundations, and are preserved up to two meters high. In the uppermost levels of the room fill, a series of vertically laid out mud bricks were exposed, which seem to be a good indicator for understanding the results of the severe destruction caused by the earthquake in the second phase. Those bricks represent the upper courses of the west wall **44,** which during the earthquake collapsed inside the room as one piece. The bin remains found together with these brick remains may also be a good indicator for understanding activities carried out on the rooftops. The rooftop would have functioned as a working area, which collapsed into the room as a result of the earthquake and fire. The face of wall **45** has square holes, into which were once inserted wooden beams as part of the architectural construction. These beam holes are 23 x 23 cm and the distance between them is around 98 cm. The depths of the holes are approximately 30 cm. On the floor, two postholes were exposed in the same line of beam holes, which suggest the possibility of shelving.

Flush with the west baulk of this room the inner (east) face of a brick wall was identified, with a doorway located in the middle. This is the only access point found so far between the three wings.

A very thin wall **52** running in an E- W direction separates the rooms **44** and **39**. This partition wall seems to have been added in the second phase of the building, which blocked the access between these rooms. The east end of this wall adjoins buttress **38**, making a corner. The west end of the wall abuts a feature identified as a large oven **51**, discovered in-between these two rooms.

In room **44**, a pyrotechnic installation was exposed close to the southern corner of buttress **38.** This hearth-like feature **53,** with river pebbles represents the level of the Phase 2 floor. Next to this feature, a duckbill axe was found, suggesting a metal casting activity.

Phase 2

Objects

Silver Tube: 1

Bronze Stamp Seal: 1

Stone Mold for Duckbill Axe: 1

Iron Lump: 1

Pot Stand: 2

Loom Weight: 1

Underneath hearth-like feature **53**, six storage jars were exposed with their rims cut off at the same level to flatten the surface for the Phase 2 floor. The Phase 1 floor was sealed with its remains in-situ and no apparent recovery attempt had been made during Phase 2. The rooms' contents were all buried deep under mud brick collapse.

Phase 1

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jar: 14	Pierced Stone Plaque: 1
CPW Spouted pot: 1	
CPW Two Handled Jar: 1	
Pot with Red Ochre: 1	

Room 39 (Phase 1 floor: 9.95 masl. Fig. 2.17, 2.18)

This room is situated between buttresses **38** and **42**. Its eastern side is delimited by wall **45** but no wall is traced for the western side, which seems to be located farther west, buried below the upper level accumulations. It is limited at its northern side by a two-phase wall **46-47**. A partition wall **56** added in the second phase set the limits to the southern end. A combination of erosion and earthquake damage has meant the outer line of the wall **45** is not straight; instead the stone foundation seems to have tilted, possibly due to the earthquake that destroyed the building. The non-existence of the western wall indicates that room **39** is different in formation from the rooms that were excavated in the east wing. The phase 1and 2 floors were very difficult to distinguish in this room. The complete pitchers and objects that were recovered from 10.90 masl suggest the existence of a second floor, but no compact surface with the associated finds was traced. Three sunken storage jars were excavated from between walls **46-**

47, and seem to be associated with the phase 2 occupation; the habit of setting jars inside the walls was first recognized in the east wing and this is another example of this secondary arrangement.

Phase 2

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jar: 3	Bronze Stamp Seal: 1
CPW Pitcher: 2	Spit Support: 3
CPW Juglet: 1	
Painted Two Handled Pot: 1	

The phase 1 occupation is represented by the typical repertoire of storage jars and small vessel assemblages, but the discovery of a large oven-like structure **51** makes this room different from all other rooms excavated so far. This domed feature faces buttress **38**, abutting the Phase 2 partition wall on its southern side. This feature is still under discussion for various reasons.

The discovery of this feature was first visible as brick-lined hollow, half of it running into the western baulk. When the excavators came down onto its sides, they found the lower mud brick configuration of the feature. Bricks of 40 x 25 x 10 cm were laid out into a vaulted shape. The problem stems from the condition of the bricks. Although the interior brick faces do present a different level of oxidation and burning results, the feature contained no ashy deposits. It was excavated down to the same level of the Phase 1 floor where it was noted that the pale cream color of the deposit is identical with the Phase 1 floor. A possible ventilation hole lined with a re-used jar rim was set into its face at floor level. With the evidence acquired so far I strongly believe that if this is a pyrotechnic installation, then its original floor level is buried further below, and it is more likely to have firing chambers associated with this domed section. Since it was getting dangerous to excavate the structure from inside, the domed section will need to be removed in order to test this hypothesis in coming excavation seasons.

Beam holes traced at floor level along the line of the buttresses in this room may imply the existence of shelving or be support columns for the ceiling.

If these beams functioned to create shelving then the small vessels would have fallen down and scattered around the floor during the fire. The highly burnt soil around the tilted storage jars suggests the possibility of oil storage in the vessels. Flotation samples taken in the course of excavation will be processed in future study seasons.

Phase 1

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jar: 4	Spit Support: 1
CPW Pitchers: 1	Loom Weight: 1
One handled pot: 1	

Room 28 (Phase 1 floor: 9.75 masl. Fig 2.19)

Buttresses **42** and **14** delimit its area to the east. Although the major N-S oriented wall originally abutted these buttresses and the possible rampart packing, the earthquake shifted their conjunction. Aligned with the northern edge of the buttress **14**, partition wall **63** enclosed the room at its northern end. A doorway with a plastered stone threshold in wall **63** provides access to room **33**. No definitive Phase 2 floor was observed due to the presence of large medieval pits. The phase 1 floor level is of compact clay in yellow, red and gray colors. There are large fragments of wood charcoal visible on the floor. A large wooden plank was used either for shelving purposes or as furniture. The floor also has postholes, which were filled with wood remains. This all shows that there was a wooden construction inside the room, probably a shelf, whose back was touching the eastern wall.

In the floor level, fragmentary hearths and ovens were exposed but no in-situ objects or complete vessels were found.

Room 33 (Phase 1 floor: 9.80 masl)

The doorway in partition wall **63** provides the entrance from the southern room **28**. The major N-S orientated wall extends and joins wall 21, delimiting the northern end. During excavations, a line of wall collapse was exposed that was related to the major N-S orientated wall. This large portion of wall collapse and the tilted condition of buttress **14** are illustrative of the destruction caused by the

earthquake. Three postholes on the northern end of the room again suggest the existence of shelves.

Except for a sunken storage jar, no phase 2 remains or floor were recovered in the building. Associated with the Phase 1 floor, a number of vessels and objects were found set against the north and eastern walls.

Pottery

Storage Jar: 6

CPW pitcher: 2

Red Gritty Ware: 1

Plain Pitcher: 1

Buff Colored fragmentary pot: 1

Cooking Pot: 1

Objects

Spit Supports: 5

Room 6 (Phase 2 floor: 11.35 masl)

To the west of the stone tower, a small portion of a room was exposed with its Phase 2 findings on the floor. The soil is yellowish and grey and less burnt than in the other rooms. This may suggest a lower ratio of timber use in its construction. This partially-excavated room corner seems to belong to a different quarter of the building but we do not as yet have enough evidence to give an argument on this point.

Pottery

Spouted Casserole Roasting pan: 1

Fragmentary vessels

2.5.4 Outer Space (Fig.2.20, 2.21)

The division between an outer and inner space became clear in the 2004 excavation season when it was realized that the outer stone line of the N-S orientated wall runs from the south and joins a massive stone structure at the northern end of the building. By reason of the size of its building stones and of its location, this structure has been identified as a stone tower, reinforcing the northern end of the building. The tower construction was located at an elevated level and built slightly higher than the Phase 1 and Phase 2 floors of the inner space; it remained in use during both phases. The outer stone lining of the major

wall demonstrates this fact; it was repaired and raised in the second phase and this can be seen in the northern end at the conjunction point with the stone tower.

Although two medieval pits disturbed much of the floor level, a burnt floor level was traced above the sunken stone foundation that stretched across the entire inner space of the tower. It seems that room 6 in the back is also associated with this tower construction since it has the same elevation.

Pottery	**Objects**
Storage Jar: 2	Stamp Seal: 1
CPW jug: 1	
Crude Shallow Bowl: 1	
Bichrome Juglet: 1	

2.6 Chronology

The radiocarbon samples taken from the sealed contexts of the building levels present low dates. This evidence corresponds with the presence of Cypriot pottery sherds (Gates 2001:89)

Phase 1: 1670 cal B.C.:1-sigma = 1725-1610, 2-sigma 1760-1525/16 = 1-sigma=1725- 1610 [Beta 137188: 3750+ - 50BP]

Phase 2: 1525 cal B.C.:1-sigma = 1625-1450, 2-sigma 1700-1410/ 16= 1-sigma=1625-1450 [Beta 137187: 3270+ - 70 BP]

2.7 Pottery

The activity pattern in each room is defined by evidence acquired from the material culture, mainly with the pottery collection. The repertoire recovered from the building is represented by hundreds of complete\near complete vessels. The condition of preservation enables us to link the architectural data with material culture.

The existence of special types, import wares and traditions from separate cultural periods in the same context directs us to look at the chronological problems of the 2nd millennium B.C of the Near East again. For example, the

existence of Cilician Painted Ware and Cypriot MCIII-LCI sherds from the same context questions the reliability of CPW for dating purposes.

The collection coming from the building has been already examined at a preliminary stage and four classes were attested (Gates 2000:83).

a- Storage jars

b- Cilician Painted and related tablewares

c- Assorted handled vessels

d- Imports

2.7.1 Storage Jars (Plate 2.1)

From almost all the rooms, storage jars were recovered in both phase 1 and phase 2. The majority of phase 1 jars (over 25) were found in the rooms of the northern sector. Most of them were completely smashed and these have a coarser fabric than the ones in the east and west wing. The phase 2 jars were discovered in a better condition in the rooms of the east wing.

There are two standard shapes that were in use. No functional distinction was made. Both types were used to store liquid and dry goods. They were all locally wheelmade, in a hard fired medium-coarse dark pink to buff fabric with pale to bright yellow slip (Ibid: 83). They were mostly sealed with clay and textile. The evidence of high burning around some of these jars showed the existence of oil storage. Some of them recovered with the charred seeds inside.

The most common type is the ovoid form. This type has a flat base with high collar, sharply everted rim and raised rib. Either combed incisions or finger-impressed bands were used for decoration. The second one has the same form but without decoration. It has squatter and broader proportions. Two loop handles were set on the shoulder. It is noted that the first type was locally made in the Western Syrian tradition. This type is contemporary with various examples from Tell Mardikh IIIA-IIIB and Tell Atchana X. The second type is more common in Cilicia with examples from Tarsus (Ibid: 84).

There are two imported jar types, which are distinctive with their fabric and style. The first one[4] is coilmade in a brown coarse fabric. It is in ovoid form with high collar, flaring rim and two large handles set below the shoulder. Although the fabric and the rims are not quite the same, it resembles southern Levant Canaanite jars (Ibid: 84). The second type had two examples, one from phase 1[5] and the other[6] from the Phase 2 floor of the east wing. These two vessels have an unusual fabric: greenish-white and porous with sand and ground shell inclusions with a thick white slip. Both of them are liquid containers. None of these examples can stand on their base (Ibid: 84).

The number of jars indicates that the east wing and the northern sector functioned for storage purposes mainly.

2.7.2 Cilician Painted Ware and Related Tablewares (Plate 2.2, Fig 2.22)

Cilician Painted Ware vessels are wheel made and they were designed for serving and consuming beverages. Three types are identified: pitchers, jugs and cups. There are four fabrics in use: 1) fine pale yellow with white slip, 2) fine-red brown with self slip, 3) medium red to dark brown, 4) coarse brown. The decoration includes horizontal bands, diagonal stripes, wavy lines and hatching. The paint in monochrome vessels is brown to black and the bichrome examples were red and brown. Eyes were painted on the trefoil and bifoil spouts of the pitchers (ibid: 85). No floral or animal designs were attested; geometric shapes, bands, zigzags are the common decoration.

These vessels were recovered in all sections of the building. Some of them are differing because of their unusual fabric and decoration. One example of a CPW two handled jar[7] has a very coarse fabric with gray core and thick light brown wash. This piece is decorated with thickly applied dark brown paint with a broad paintbrush and it is unusually crude and clumsy. This indicates that the traditional motifs were attested even in low quality products.

[4] KT 6471/room 66
[5] KNH 1053/room 115
[6] KT 6453/room 64
[7] KNH 1362/ room 44

This type of pottery was first studied by V. Seton Williams. She looked through examples from Cilicia through Western Syria. At Alalakh she noted that the lowest level for CPW was in XVI and the level VII palace was the last secure context for that type of pottery. There are examples from the very upper levels I, II, III but they don't appear to be in-situ finds (Williams 1953:60).

The Atchana collection has bird and goat motifs sharing the same style with Ebla examples coming from the Tomb of Lord of the Goats and the Tomb of the Princess (Matthiae 1989). These were all dated by the excavator to between the 19^{th} –18^{th} centuries. The earlier version of Cilician Painted Ware had more vivid patterns as part of the decoration. The bird and animal motifs seem to be discarded and more casual patterns were used in its second stage. A recent article by Tine Bagh about the connections between Levantine, Khabur and Cilician painted pottery, shows the wide geographical and stylistic range of Cilician Painted Ware and of local variations of its individual style along the east Mediterranean coast and inland to Western Syria (Bagh 2003). Variants of Cilician painted ware are found further south in Qatna, Ugarit, Hama and Ebla, however it is difficult to group all these examples into one time period. The Qatna and Ugarit groups come from LBI tombs, the Qatna tomb was presented a disturbed context because it seems to have been in use for generations making Qatna insecure for dating purposes (ibid: 226). Meanwhile the Ugarit Tomb LXXXV with its undisturbed context has been dated to post-MBII (Ibid: 229).

Although the origin of this style is not clear yet , the Cilician Ware is frequently called as Syro/Cilician Ware because of the evidence from Ebla. Lorenzo Nigro suggested that these vessels were made first in the Ebla-Aleppo region, based on the collection from the Tomb of the Princess at Ebla. He also pointed out that the cultural and economic changes following the rise of the Kingdom of Yamkhad and it is relation with the Syro Cilician Painted Ware is close (Nigro 2002:313). But we have to note that all the Ebla examples were coming from tombs. No evidence was traced about the daily use of this ware. This is also the case in Ugarit and Qatna.

2.7.3 Assorted Handled Vessels and Burnished Wares (Plate 2.3)

A large number of plain pitchers, serving vessels with handles, and burnished wares were recovered from the context of the rooms in the Kinet Burnt Building. They have similar forms with the CPW examples.

2.7.4 Imports (Fig 2.23)

Two juglets and 50 Cypriot sherds comprise the imports recovered from the building so far. A red burnished juglet with three sets of bichrome concentric circles is Levantine painted ware, which seems to have a wide range of distribution from the Southern Levant to Anatolia. The second one is a piriform red burnished juglet. They were both anciently broken and reused (Gates 2000:88).

The Cypriot import sherds (MCIII-LCI, 16th century and early 15th century B.C.) indicate the long life span of the building. No in-situ Cypriot type vessels are recovered but the sherds correspond to White Painted VI, Monochrome, and Base Ring types (ibid: 88).

2.8 Objects

Various objects were recovered from the building. For the problems and goals of this study, only the mold and the figurine will be presented. These two types of objects strongly indicate the Syrian influence on the production of daily use materials.

2.8.1 Mold for Duck Bill Axe (KNH 1334, Fig 2.24)

L: 8.2 cm
W: 5.25-6.1 cm
Th: 2.0-2.3 cm
Perforation Diameter: 0. 4 cm

Description: Olive-green stone. The cover of the mold (now lost) was held in place by 3 pins in the center back and on two sides near the blade edge. Metal was poured into a channel at the tip of the blade.

This type of axe is depicted in the Egyptian representations of Asiatics dating to the 12th dynasty. The earliest examples appear in the Levant in MBI contexts but the tradition seems to have continued in the MBII. The Tell Dab'a example comes from a Middle Kingdom context. Mari also produced these axes.

The tomb of the Lord of the Goats at Ebla provided a late 18th century example. The evidence of production for these tools comes with stone molds recovered in Ugarit, Byblos, Ebla and Kultepe and elsewhere (Graham 1989: 50)

The existence of a mold in the Kinet building proves that there was a local production of this weapon type. Since the duckbill axe is associated with a Syrian tradition, this evidence corresponds well with the architectural style of the building and supports the statement of Syrian impact at Kinet Höyük in the MBII period.

2.8.2 Terracotta Female Figurine (KNH 865, Fig 2.25)

Pres H: 11.0 cm
Pres w at elbows: 6.5 cm
W at hips: 4.7 cm
Max Thickness: 2.0 cm
Av thickness: 1.7 cm

Description: fine, red brown fabric with dense white inclusions. Slight chaff. Well fired. Surface self slipped. Some efforts at burnishing. Finger print smudging. Hand modelled with a two-dimensional approach with rounded edges. Nude female with elbows out and 3 fingered hands placed to express milk from breasts. Breasts and navel shaped with hollow center. Deep incisions separate the fingers from wrist. Pubic triangle outlined with incision and marked with four rows of punctuate impressions. Anciently broken.

This Syrian type figurine shares the features of the Orontes Valley group, type MA I, 1-2 in Badre's classification (1980). Its closest parallel comes from Ebla[TM83.G220](Gates2001:82).

CHAPTER III

URBANIZATION AND ARCHITECTURE

3.1 Historical Background

At the end of the 3rd millennium (2300-2000 B.C) the second cycle of urbanization in the societies of the Levant and Syria ended with the collapse of cities and the abandonment of sites, which is considered to be the end of the Early Bronze Age (Akkermans and Schwartz 2003:223). For the Palestinian settlements in this period it is understood as being a period of massive disruption of populations from urban centers and a reversion to a pastoral nomadic life (Dever 1987:149). The urban life of cities diminished, large mounds were all deserted and populations moved on to steppe zones. In Palestine alone, there are more than 1000 EB IV sites that have been discovered but most of them seem to be small, unfortified single-period sites (Dever 1997:287). For the destruction of the EB Syrian centers, the literary sources cite the Akkadian military campaigns led by Sargon of Akkad or Naram-Sin ca. 2350- 2300 B.C, but sites like Ebla, following this destruction do not appear to have lost their regional power and survived to the end of the third millennium B.C. (Matthiae 1997:379).

At the beginning of the 2nd millennium B.C., (MBI, 2000-1800 B.C) Northern Syria lacked political unity and a control mechanism. Further east, the city of Assur established a network connection with Anatolia and a trade system which has been understood with the discovery of the commercial suburb in Kanesh (Kültepe) (Özgüç 1986:16) and other central Anatolian sites: Alişar, Acemhöyük, Karahöyük–Konya and Hattusa. In this trade route, northwest Syrian sites and the area west of the Amanos Mountains in Anatolia (Tarsus Gözlükule, Kinet Höyük) did not appear to be part of the Assyrian System but rather a separate trade network seems to be established between Northern Syria and Anatolia, especially in the late MBII period. The EBA Syria- Anatolia

affiliation was considerable given the widespread presence of Syrian Bottles in many Anatolian sites and of Depas-type vessels of Western Anatolian origin in Northern Syria (Mellink 1989:322, Yağcı 1999:19). The evidence of Assyrian expansion in Syria and Anatolia is clear (Larsen 1967:119, Mellaart 1982:24.) but the appearance of Syrian-type vessels in Tarsus and the communication break with Anatolia at Yümüktepe can be the sign of the beginning of an extensive trade connection specifically with northern Syrian sites. However this does not necessarily make the Cilician Gates one of the major 'Assyrian' merchant routes as it has been referred to (Donbaz 1997:62).

In the EBA, the Akaddian King Sargon's claim on the silver mountains (Taurus) and the importance of cedar timber sources from the Amanos mountains seem to be the reasons for his campaigns in Western Syria (Ebla and Aleppo) and then possibly into Anatolia, showing the economic importance of Cilicia in the EBA (Köroğlu 2006:78). From an old Babylonian inscription belonging to Sargon[8] ;

> King of Kis, Sarru-Kin won 34 battles. He damaged the sea-side fortifications. He caused the Meluhha, Magan and Dilmun ships moored to Akkaddian piers King Sargon prayed God, Dagan in Tultul. Dagan gave him Mari, Yarmuti, Ebla the cedar forest and silver mountains in the upper continent.

Akaddian King Naramsin's claim;

> Powerful King, King of the four continents, Conqueror of Armanum and Ebla.

The relatively new surveys in the Taurus region plotted tin sources in the Bolkardağ district (Özbal and Yener 1987, Yener 1999), which might have been the interest of Assyrian merchants however no written documents from Assur or

[8] These epigraphic evidences are quoted form Emin Bilgiç's article 'Ebla in Cappodocian Inscriptions'

Kanesh about the tin trade of Assur (Oates 1972: 801, Veenhof 1977:110, Postgate 1999: 212) and no archaeological evidence about MBA metal activity from Kestel Mine and Göltepe excavations suggest the possibilities of Assur's metal trade over Zagros or from Susa and Elam (Postgate 1999: 212). The Syrian influence on the architecture and material culture in the Cilicia region and southeast Turkey might be associated with the rise of the Syrian States which may lead us to think about the disappearance of Assyrian dominancy in Anatolia as well. The documentary evidence from Kültepe in 'Ebla in Cappodocian texts' has proved this statement sufficiently[9] . In the MBII, the control of trade and the political balance seems to be shifting to Northern Syria and Beitzel explains this with Zimrilim of Mari's success over Isme Dagan of Assur, which was dated to 1768-63 B.C. (Beitzel 1992:57). The rise of the North Syrian states seems to be overwhelming the authority of Mesopotamian sites in Anatolia.

Except at Ebla where the fortifications and ramparts seems to date back to MB I, elsewhere in Syria, at Hama, Hadidi and Habuba Kabira, the decrease in the population or the abandonment of sites is clear from their archaeological records (Akkermans and Schwartz 2003:235). The same situation is visible at Kurban Höyük (Algaze 1990:383-384) in southeastern Anatolia and Kinet Höyük in Eastern Cilicia on the Iskenderun Gulf [10]. The MB II period (1800-1600) saw the reintroduction of urban life understood from literary sources and archaeological finds, with the construction of massive fortifications, palatial and temple complexes, all of which required a political unity and well-developed governmental organization.

This regeneration of cities and the appearance of city-states and regional powers are described in the tablets of Mari, Alalakh, Ebla, and Qatna.[11] The establishment of a new political power in Syria may have been related with the ethnic group called the Amorites. Their name is first mentioned in the archives of

[9] The name Ebla exists in four tablets which one of them mentioning about the copper trade of Ebla with Kanesh (Bilgiç 1992:62).
[10] So far the excavation carried out at Kinet Höyük by Bilkent University has exposed one level of poorly preserved MBI occupation level in the mound , altough EBIII and MBII are well attested.
[11] For the political formation of the Northern Syria refer to Klengel 1992.

the Southern Mesopotamian kings of the Third Dynasty of Ur as nomadic pastoralists presenting a major threat (Akkermans and Schwartz 2003:280) and the text refer to King Su-Sin who erected a wall to prevent Amorite migrations onto his lands (Köroğlu 2006:97). Amorites achieved political dominance over a broad area at the end 19th century but it is stated that their passage from semi-nomadic pastoral character to palatial organization was made it necessary to deal with cultural crises (Knapp 1988:133).

There is great debate about the arrival of Amorites in Western Syria and their migration to the southern Levant. Attempts have been made to explain the aesthetic unity (pottery, equipment) in the Levant, which is mostly due to the interregional economy, with the arrival of Amorites and other non-local communities and their migration down to Southern Levant. I have to admit, I feel skeptical about these migration theories such as the one stated below by Kenyon ;

> The archaeology shows that the Amorites of Bible arrived in Palestine ca 2300 B.C as nomads and destroyers of pre-existing urban civilization. In Syria their brothers and cousins had a similar way of life. But somewhere else in Syria, probably centered in Byblos, an amalgamation of these nomads and the pre-existing, more civilized population took palace and out of this the Canaanite culture emerged (Kenyon 1962:76).

The EBIII (IV) settlements of Palestine were characterized by large number of occupied small sites, which were concentrated in regions known as marginal zones. No evidence of public architecture has been recovered which may refer to an unstratified society (Gerstenblith 1980:66). With the reestablishment of urbanized society, the MBIIA became the subject of discussions of origin, the arrival of Amorites and the appearance of Canaanite culture. Conversely, non-migration models have also been proposed for the time and region.

> The MBIIA culture of Palestine is best explained in terms of indigenous development of the population in response to resumption of more favorable conditions, both climatic and economic which allowed the return to urban settlement (Tubb 1983: 59).

This statement above is also very convenient and should not be neglected since the evidence of interaction between cultures especially with the rise on the international affairs resulted with existence of similar identities in different cultures.

In Western Syria the Yamkhad Kingdom under Amorite rulers based its capital in Aleppo and controlled the area between the Mediterranean coast and the middle Euphrates (Redford 1992, Klengel 1992, Akkermans and Schwartz 2003). Qatna, as the second major center, seems to have controlled the central part of western Syria and other regional states like Hazor in Northern Palestine, while Mari and its successor Hana in the lower Euphrates were the regional powers in the MBII in Southeastern Syria. Ebla with its palaces and fortification systems was a ruling authority in the region but it is not clear whether it was independent or under the control of the Yamkhad Kingdom (Akkermans and Schwartz 2003:297). An argument was pointed out about Ebla and the newcomers by Frances Pinnock, stressing the fact that the Amorites nomadic character and their success in monumental architecture, which seem to be in conflict with the nature of a community claimed to be living a pastoral life (Pinnock 2001). But as stated above, the Amorite rulers must have taken control over existing communities who were already aware of civic life.

This historical issue was confirmed by excavations that have taken place at many sites in Syria and Levant. Following the Dark Age of the Near East, the revival of the large cities with massive fortification walls, ramparts and palaces marked the beginnings of the MBA. These large-scale constructions undoubtedly reflect the structural formation of the society and the significant role of the administration system, which must have required a successful use of resources and stability in the income of the cities. This must have made the cities dependent on business affairs, merchandise and trade, which seems to have become the governmental policy.

3.2 Use of architectural data as a methodology

The re-urbanization of the Levant is an issue that has been discussed by many scholars but as yet is not clearly understood. This sudden change has been

linked to the existence of an individual ruling authority who managed to establish his state and it has been linked with the arrival of a non- local community. The Amorites of Syria and the Canaanites of Levant and the Hyksos of Egypt have often been associated with this revival. The problem comes from the methodology attested for the time period. [12]

Dever stated the necessity of new way of study in his 'systematic approach model', which stresses that culture is the human adaptation to its environment so the way of study should include subsystems, which observe the human and his natural and cultural environment (Dever 1987:152). With the MBA a more complex system of organization was introduced; the idea of state, regional territories, the importance of economy and trade, all formed the new city and its culture. The complexity of the MBA requires an interdisciplinary model for understanding the reasons that shaped the formation of the societies. This is why it is necessary to follow an inter-disciplinary model, and it is crucial to start research from solid data and interpret this accurately to enable them to be set in a proper context. Therefore, the archaeological remains have to be understood well; the function of the buildings and the existing material culture have to be examined at a local level first, and within its social and environmental circumstances in order to understand the archaeological material in its wider context.

In that sense, the architectural data itself is crucial because in the case of the MBA, similar types of buildings at various contemporary sites began to appear in the Near East. The long distance trade enabled the societies to share the aesthetic developments made in the production of pottery, seals, figurines and other types of material culture. The existence of similar buildings introduces the possibility that a political unity was established in the MBA. Since the architectural data are solid and can be directly related to the culture, the

[12] The Biblical approach, which formed the shape of research in early twentieth century, was primarily related with the correlations of archeological evidence with bible; this prohibited the interpretation of the archeological evidence in an unbiased environment. The Biblical studies society inspired and funded various projects in Southern Levant and a generation was trained in this manner (Silberman 1999).

similarities in the construction styles may allow us to investigate the cultural relations from a different perspective.

The design of the palaces of the Levant, Syria and Anatolia in the MBA of Near East were dependent on their functionality. A large proportion of the palaces were dedicated to storage and archival purposes. This is because the palace was not just the residence for the ruling family but was also the economic and political center for the city. In that sense the economic developments, which are the main factor behind the re-urbanization, should be considered as a key feature for understanding the idea of royal architecture. The 'monumentality' aspect, as a major identifier of a royal building, undoubtedly demands abundant quantities of raw materials, which must have been provided with an international economy model.

The economic changes affected not just the design of the palaces. The growing cities became more attractive places for inhabitants. The growth in merchandise increased the income of cities and thus cities became obvious target for hostilities. This introduced the need of extensive fortification walls, glacis and rampart systems to the Levant and Syria. The existence of numerous city-states in close proximity must have resulted in the increase in the fortified urban centers (Trigger 1974:103). Almost all of the cities from large to small size were fortified and an enormous amount of mud bricks and earth was used to enclose these cities. These complex defense systems possess a sophisticated engineering technique and an industrial capacity. The labor force needed for this sort of monumental construction must have required a highly centralized system of planning and development of men and material (Dever 1987:154). Thousands of workers must have participated in these large scale building programs for centuries; and this required more inhabitants and workers, encouraging people to move into the large cities, which were safer and offered a better standard of living. Although it is not clear whether slaves and prisoners of war were used for these constructions, the increase in the income of the city must have provided enough supplies to maintain the slaves and prisoners of war who were assigned for public works (Gelb 1978). We should also assume that the standardization of

building design was the result of the mobilized presence of professional builders and engineers who were in charge of public constructions, moving from one city to another and building identical structures in different cities. The aesthetics and trends in the architecture were well-effected and repeated in different states with the help of these mobile settlers.

3.3 The idea of Harbor town

Kinet Höyük, by being a harbor town, played a major role in its regional territory as a maritime related industrial/business center (Gates 1999:303). Although the agricultural activity of the hinterland is the source for the survival (Redman 1978:216), trade was the most important source of income for the inhabitants of the city. The geographical boundary, the Amanos Mountains cut the access between the Syrian Plain and Cilicia (The mountain passages are difficult to cross and are open to possible attacks) and this made the sea trade more practical and by comparison, less dangerous.

Geographically the Mediterranean is not affected by tidal changes in the sea level and the gentle climate provided full year sea traffic (Karmon 1985:257). Together with its environmental benefits, maritime trade was more efficient and safer when compared with long distance overland traffic. The supplies were provided from harbors and were sent to inland cities with caravans, so land transportation was only needed for short distances.

Medieval Kinet Höyük on the Southeastern corner of the Cilician littoral was in use for the shipment of timber from the Amanos Mountains according to Arab geographers (Gates 1993: 193; 1999: 303-312). However, with the exception of Tarsus, Mersin and Kinet Höyük, we do not have much information about sea trade and the locations of other harbor towns because of the changes in the Cilician Littoral in the last 4000 years. Some of the towns situated far from the current coastal line may have been closer to the ancient coastline 4000 years ago and others of them must have been buried under the heavy river silt deposits (Yakar 2001:37). Taffet suggested that one could locate Cilician harbors by comparing the geography with other examples of Mediterranean coast where

major river estuaries with former lagoons were used for harbor settlements. (Taffet 2001:133).

The Braudellian approach stresses that the position of harbor town settlements along the Mediterranean coast served as transit points along a coastal roadway to provide supplies to the interior (Braudel 1993 [1966]: chapter 5). This explains the small ratio of imported materials in comparison to local industrial resources at Kinet as its primary role was not trade but the business of shipping goods (Gates 1999:309). The expanding cities demanded raw materials and this is why the ancient builders tried to develop techniques for establishing harbors even in impracticable places in order to achieve a continuous supply of merchandise (Raban 1988:185). The increase of harbor town settlements in the Southern Levant in the MBIIA proves this statement clearly and stresses the importance of maritime traffic (Marcus 2002: 250). This invites us to examine the economic relationship between the coastal and inland sites; the balance between coastal and inland sites; a factor of interdependency that molded their political and business relationships, which seem to be fully developed and well organized by the MBII period.

> The effectiveness of the port power accrued from the capability of the economic systems to penetrate diverse ethnic, cultural and political boundaries and to interconnect them with a minimal use of force (Stager 2001:629).

It is not yet clear whether Kinet was dependent on an inland city or not, but it is clear that there was a complex trade system observed in all occupation levels at the site which must have created an international environment and because of the harbor character of the town, a ruling authority was crucial for controlling the traffic of import and export materials.

After the end of EBA, the general MB phenomena outlined above are also present at Kinet. The MBI occupation was only represented by one level, which is poorly preserved. The re-urbanization of Kinet began again with MBII period. The burnt building itself is the best evidence for that, with its monumental size and the inventory of furnishing inside. Architectural data and material culture indicate that at that time, Kinet was again in touch with the

cultures of Syria and the Levant. The questions that we need to ask here are: what was the intensity of this interaction? Can it be said that Kinet was an independent harbor town in the Cilician Coast or was it under the control of a powerful Syrian State? No tablets have been discovered from the excavated areas so the lack of documentary evidence directs us to look for other methods to establish the position of Kinet in the MBII period.

The evidence from the material culture, already discussed in the first chapter, is an important indicator for Syrian and Levant interaction in this period and it is to be expected. But my concern is: how much evidence of interaction can we get from the architectural data? The building seems to have two functions that need to be discussed. First of all, since the Kinet building is located on the edge of the possible MBII citadel with 1.5 m thick brick walls and a tower in its northern end, it involved an aspect of protection and it appears that the building itself was incorporated into the fortification system. The second aspect involves the idea of the palace as the economic center. Depending on these two functions, the structural layout of the building seems to share the same trend of the palace and fortification designs of Syria and the Levant.

This statement has to be confirmed before moving on to the second step, in which we will look for the possible scenarios for the MBII of Kinet. The rest of this chapter from this perspective will focus on the fortification and palace systems of Syria and the Levant in order to evaluate the burnt building by comparison with contemporary examples. Additional examples will be evaluated through Anatolia as well, to understand the Burnt Building within its regional context.

3.4 A Selective look at the Fortification and Palace Systems of the Levant in the Middle Bronze Age

In this section, my intention is not to investigate fortifications or palaces separately, but their architectural associations with each other. The buildings located around the fortification walls are the focus point, which can be a good reference to understand the purpose of the Kinet building. This selective study in the end will guide us in the process of understanding the physical evidence in its

own environment: palace complexes on the edge of citadels incorporated into defense systems, which I intend to link with the MB II building of Kinet Höyük.

3.4.1 The idea of the Fortification Systems

Since the new methods of defense systems, ramparts and glacis, are associated and identified as the distinguishers of the MBII period (Herzog 1986:102), the Levantine archaeologists Kaplan (1975), Dever (1987) Bunimowitz (1992), Finkelstein (1992), Kempinski (1992), Herzog (1997), Burke (2004) went to great efforts to understand the origins and the functions of the fortification systems of the MBA sites of Levant.

The fortified rampart cities were investigated through several aspects, and three major functions were attested to their physical characteristics: civic, military and moral (Marcus 1998:7). Although the civic function is not the primary reason for their establishment, the elevated nature of the rampart settlements protected the city form inundation (Kaplan 1975:23). Physically, protection of the fortification walls from threats like battering rams and chariots represent the militaristic nature of these constructions but also the term psychological warfare (Dever 1987:157) can be used with respect to rampart settlements. The social impact comes from its monumentality. (Dever 1987:154, Bunimovitz 1992:227-8, Finkelstein 1992). The larger the ramparts become, the more power they symbolize when related to the ruling authority. Their physical attribution is not only vital to understanding the constructional achievements, but the fortified MB cities provided information on the structural organization of societies and the interaction of settlements and they are of vital importance to our understanding of regional patterns.

Before looking through the fortified sites, it is important to give explanations of the terminology of fortification systems that will be used in this section since some of them are still interpreted and used incorrectly while explaining the elements of defense. A city is fortified by a combination of the elements: fosse, ramparts, glacis, city wall, towers and a gate. The main problem occurs between the terms ramparts and glacis.

The Ramparts (fig 3.1)

The most common MB earthworks are the ramparts. They were created by using piles of earth to form an elevated area, which raised the city above the level of the plain. This type of engineering requires a method of dealing with the erosion damage that would occur. This was achieved by the layer fill technique in which layers of gravel were sandwiched between layers of soil in order to prevent erosion (Pennells 1983:58).

There are two types of ramparts that were commonly in use (Burke 2004:96):

Free Standing Ramparts (fig 3.2)

These ramparts were usually attested on the plain surfaces and they have both exterior and interior slopes. Since they formed a crater shape inside, they are easily distinguishable. (Ibid: 97).

Supplemental Ramparts (fig 3.2)

This type of rampart was used in the high hills or tells. Since there is already an existing elevation formed by the nature of tells, an enormous amount of energy was saved during construction. They were usually used to reinforce the existing fortification system (Ibid: 101). A 30-degree angle is the most common slope steepness for both types.

Glacis

The terms glacis and rampart are often confused. A Glacis is a sort of coating, which is mostly lime plaster but can also be stone cobbles intended to protect the sloping earth from erosion. Glacis can be applied either on the top surfaces of ramparts or on the natural slopes[13].

Settlement types in the Southern Levant

Typologically four settlement types were attested for the sites in the Southern Levant for the MBII by Ram Gophna and his colleagues. This

[13] Here I have to note that, the discussion that we had about the Kinet Building about the possibility of an existing glacis construction must be revised and instead we should ask as if we have any rampart construction in the east of the citadel? The existence of a retaining wall on the outer face of the building strongly suggests that this was used to prevent slope erosion. Although the construction technique is not freestanding or supplemental, it shares the same functional purpose. So it should be possible to find another line of retaining wall located a few meters away from the building. . This will be sorted out in the coming 2006 excavation season as long as there is not too much medieval interference.

classification was made depended on the preference of the settlement area and fortification systems that were in use (Broshni, Gophna 1986:88);

1- Rampart cities built over fortified EB II-III cities (e.g., Tel Poran, Tel Hagila)

2- Rampart cities built on virgin soil or unfortified EB II-III settlements. (e.g.,Tel Aphek and Tel Burga).

3- Settlements without rampart systems. (e.g.,Tel Poleg)

4- Unfortified sites.

The fortified settlements are still subject to research but the choice of sites was made by selecting those which made use of fortification systems within the context of public architecture.

Tell el Far'ah North (fig 3.3)

The city was located in the Samaria Hills about 9km away form the city of Schem. The EB levels were excavated by the French Expedition directed by de Vaux and the MB levels were later published by Mallet (1987, 1988); a later study of the site, establishing new site plans, was carried out by Herzog (1997). The excavators noted that the city was fortified during the end of MBA ca. 1600 B.C. The defense system includes a fortification wall with towers and a glacis. The MBII city was around 4 ha. and in the western area 170 m of the city wall were exposed during the excavations. The width of the wall varied from 2 to 4 m with large stone foundations and a city gate of four-pier type was located in the middle of the northern wall. From 30 m south of the city gate, inner buttresses of 1 to 2 m in width were located regularly in every 2-3meters and a 12 x 7 m rectangular tower extended out from the city wall, 50 meters south of the gate. In the northwestern corner, a 25x12m bastion with rounded corners joined the north and west walls of the fortification system. A stone glacis construction, restricted to the southern base of the wall was observed during the excavations (Mallet 1987:77-79). In the southern end of the excavation area, housings were located in the inner side of the fortification wall. Partition walls were added, leaning against the buttresses, which created a row of houses used as workshops and storerooms (Herzog 1997:153).

Workshops are usually located far from the city in order to prevent smoke, and the material produced in them was kept in storage sections next to these workshops. This type of organization is also seen in the Kinet building except for the fact that, in the phase 1, there were buttresses aligned in the same orientation in the inner wall as well. The practicality of using the city wall as part of the housing would save enormous amounts of energy. It has to be noted that by being attached to the wall itself, these buildings were afforded a better level of defense. Archers will attempt to shoot inside the city or at the towers located along the city wall; however, the buildings attached to the city wall will be out of the range of an arrow, and will be much more difficult to target (Pers. Comm. Ben Claasz Coockson, 2006). They also provided an elevated platform for the city defenders (Pers. Comm. Geoffrey Summers 2006).

Megiddo (Tell el -Mutesellim)

The site is located in the Jezreel Valley. The MBA levels were excavated by the Oriental Institute of University of Chicago under the direction of Gordon Loud. The MBA levels at Megiddo started from Stratum XIV and their fortification systems appear in stratum XIII (Loud 1948:6-7).

Stratum XIIIA (MBIIA, fig 3.4)

At stratum XIIIB, Megiddo was a small village with a cult center located in the middle (Herzog 1997:104). The site was first fortified in stratum XIIIA in the MBIIA period. The city wall at this stage was approx 1.80 m wide and had shallow buttresses located on the outer face. The gate was located on the western side of the city. A stairway leads to a gate chamber and one has to make a 90-degree turn to get inside the city. A tower with two chambers was part of the gate complex. The stairs and 90-degree angle indicate that this gate was the entrance to the citadel via a lower town. This was not designed for chariots or donkey caravans but donkey caravans can climb up the stairs, which shows they were accessible to caravans (Burke 2004:617). There is one building identified as a tower, partially abutting the city wall. A partially preserved staircase, mud brick bin and a bench, supports the idea that this place was occupied by the town defenders (ibid: 618).

In Area BB, the trenches in the south exposed a row of rectangular houses located along the orientation of the city wall. Here the stone foundation is wider than the mud brick wall and these houses do not touch the outer wall, since a cobble layer was located in between these two which probably functioned to reinforce the fortification system at that point (Loud 1948:84-87).

Stratum XII (MB IIA-IIB fig 3.5)

The city fortifications doubled in this level and new architectural features were added to the city plan. The earlier city wall expanded in width by an addition of a 1.50 m contiguous wall with outer buttresses located at greater intervals. The city gate located in the area AA was no longer in use and instead a residential quarter was constructed with various rooms and courtyards. The new city gate was not located by excavation however the reconstruction by A.Kempinski placed it next to this residential quarter.

Stratum XI (MB IIB, fig 3.6)

The earlier fortification walls were no longer in use. Instead a thin wall 1m wide with inner buttresses spaced every 1 to 2 meters was located on the northern part of the site. Again the houses were located at a distance from the city wall. This 8-meter of interval was filled with soil and small stones, probably, to function as an internal glacis (Herzog 1997:150).

Stratum X (late MB IIB, fig 3.7, 3.8)

The most interesting change at Megiddo is observed in this stratum. There is no longer a fortification wall enclosing the city, but instead houses were located around the edge of the mound in order to create an enclosed area. This method of fortification system became a common feature during LBA (Herzog 1997:150). A city gate of six pier type was located on the western side of the mound in Area AA. However, Burke disagrees with this attribution and describes Stratum X as not having a fortification system (Burke 2004: 623). Although the idea of the houses as a fortification system seems an exaggeration, we can at least say that they functioned as an enclosure to control traffic through the city.

Building 4031(fig 3.8), which is 25x20 m, is identified as a palace with a rectangular courtyard and rooms of various sizes located on all four sides. The

thickness of the walls on the north and east reached 4 meters. The symmetry of the rooms as well as the gold and ivory artifacts that were discovered in the context of the rooms strongly supports the argument of the building being a palace. The location of this palace is the most important change in the city planning system (Loud 1948:16). The building was located next to the city gate, which was most likely to have functioned as an economic center. This specific building probably controlled the income and outflow of the city. This can give us the evidence that during the late MBII, trade became a very important criterion for city economy and the non-existence of heavy fortification systems might be associated with the secure environment as well as with the establishment of a possible fortified lower city.

The Northern Levant

Close parallels to the Kinet building can be seen in Western Syria and in the Amuq Valley. The important sites, Ebla, Qatna, Umm-el Marra and Alalakh, provide promising evidence about the architectural correlations. It will be more appropriate to look at this region and the sites in more detail since the transactions between the Cilician plain, the Amuq Valley and Western Syria were already confirmed with the evidence coming from the material culture in considerable quantities.

Here, for the sites of the Northern Levant the way of approach will not just be dependent on the architectural relation between the fortifications and the palaces. For some sites, palaces will be investigated separately, and parallels made with the Kinet MB building.

3.4.2 The Idea of the Palace in the Middle Bronze Age

Palaces are the second most peculiar feature of the MBA. It is seen that during the MB II period, the palaces went through typological and functional changes, which in the end formed the general characteristics of BA palace architecture. Trigger defines the monumental aspect of the palaces;

principal feature is that its scale and elaboration exceed the requirements of any practical functions that a building is intended to perform (Trigger 1990:119).

Monumental architecture expresses and enduring the manner of the ability of an authority to control the materials, specialized skills and labor required to create and maintain such structures. The larger and the more ornate such buildings are the more power they express (1990:127).

Since the palace is associated with the ruler himself, the evidence acquired from these buildings provides information about the cultural and economic identities of the ruling authority. The palaces also represent highest local authority in the political structure, which at that point were provincial governors and dependent local princes (Winter 1993:29). However, the palace provides information only about the royal authority so the questions about cultures and origins of societies should not to be answered with the evidence acquired from these royal contexts.

The unity in the architectural tradition and in the formation of defensive systems throughout the Levant can be argued by identical constructions, however when palace architecture is discussed it is hard to argue a standardization pattern between the Southern and Northern Levant. E. Oren suggests that there was a unity in the palace architecture (the courtyard buildings surrounded or flanked by rooms), which has its origin in Mesopotamia and spread out to Northern Syria and Palestine (Oren 1992:115). As J. Kaplan states it in his article 'Mesopotamian Elements in the Middle Bronze II Culture of Palestine', we should accept that palatial architecture in Palestine and Syria was inspired from Mesopotamian palace tradition but this adaptation level does not appear to be the same for both regions. The Northern Syrian examples like Ebla differ with their complicated plans which seem to be a product of Northern Syria and distinct from Palestine examples. It is also difficult to argue a similar line of progress for both regions.

Ebla \Tell Mardikh (fig 3.9)

Ebla was already a major fortified center in the EBA with a monumental palace G located on the top of the Acropolis. The city plan and the organization

changed in the MBA and unlike the older town, there were two separated sectors in use: an acropolis fortified with an inner wall and a ring like lower town surrounded by an outer wall (Matthiae 1997:380).

The many years of excavations carried out at Ebla by the University of Sapienza team exposed a series of temple, palace and fortification constructions, which proved the interregional position of the site. A Hurrian –Hittite bilingual epic that was discovered in Hattusha\Bogazköy and the Karnak geographical list from Thutmose III (1490-1435) of the Egyptian Eighteenth Dynasty showed that Ebla's fame was at a considerable level at that time (Pettinato 1991:37). However the absence of the name Ebla in any archives from Mari and Ugarit still creates a gap for connecting these major Northern Levant sites (Ibid: 38).

The Amorite City

The erection of the new palaces and the re-urbanization of Ebla can be associated with a ruling Amorite dynasty. The historical evidence suggests that the city was subservient to the Yamkhad kingdom with its base established in Aleppo in the MBII period however the kings and the rulers of Ebla still had the power to erect large monuments (Akkermans and Schwartz 2003:298). The discovery of the statue of Ibbit-Lim (the founder of the Amorite Dynasty at Ebla) and the clear changes in the architectural tradition indicate that Amorites ruled for 400 years in Ebla (Pettinato 1991:25). The inscription on the statue is the most prominent Syrian document for this period but it gives very little information regarding the political history. It tells that Ibbit-Lim erected Ebla after the period of destruction. The text did not refer to any relationship with the Shakkanakku of Mari who was controlling the Euphrates Valley around Mari (Klengel 2000:43) but the Assyrian- Anatolian connections were mentioned in the archives where it is stated that Ebla merchants were getting involved into the Assyrian trade network by establishing relations with Urshu and Kanesh (Klengel 1989:263-270). They were getting Anatolian Copper and paid for it in Amorite silver (Bilgic 1992).

The Acropolis

The hill of the acropolis is located in the middle of the site and covers a surface of approximately 56ha. with a south-north axis of nearly 100m and east-west axis 700m. The acropolis itself is 150x150m - almost 3 ha. In the northern section the Palace E, Temple D and part of the access ramp were uncovered. In the south a small area with private houses and burials were associated with the temple and palace complex. (Pinnock 2001:13).

The Lower Town

The Lower Town was enclosed by an ellipsoidal fortification wall with four entrances located in the ramparts at quite regular locations, northwest, southwest, southeast and northeast. The most interesting aspect of the lower town comes from the arrangement of the public, secular and religious buildings. These buildings were erected near the base of the inner fortified wall, around the base of the citadel. This type of construction can be seen in Temple N, the Northern Palace P, Temple P2, Monument P3, the Western Palace Q, Temple B1, and the Sanctuary B2. There are also fortresses and arsenals and probably advanced towers on all sides for defense purposes (Matthiae 1997:380).

The Fortresses (fig 3.10, 3.11)

There are four fortresses uncovered on the line of the outer defense wall in the lower town, all of them measuring approximately 13x 23 m formed with two rows of parallel rooms. These structures were built at an average distance 300 m from one to another (Pinnock 2001:22). The presence of staircases in Western Fort and Fortress M may indicate that they have a second floor, raised above the height of the fortification wall (Ibid 26). In addition to their defensive character, the Western fort at least is associated with an administrative function. Production tools were found with trade related artifacts in the same context: stone implements, molds for weaponry, cylinder seals and clay bullae with seal impressions which demonstrate the economic and military character of these buildings. The recovery of an Old Babylonian text with a lexical list in the outside context of fort AA seems to be associated with an archival record system associated with the northwest gate and fort AA (Ibid 32-33).

Palaces of Ebla

There are three MBII palaces discovered so far, and two (palace Q and Palace P) were fully excavated. The Royal Palace E is located on the acropolis and the other two were located on the lower town.

The Royal Place E (fig 3.12)

The partially preserved Royal Palace E was located on edge of the citadel stretching from north to south. The northern portion of the building includes a series of rectangular rooms arranged parallel to outer wall with an open courtyard located to the rear. There are doorways located asymmetrically with buttress-like formations used as doorjambs (Ibid: 15). This palace is not fully uncovered yet but the excavated portion does share similarities with the Western Palace Q as well as with the Kinet building.

The Western Palace Q (fig 3.13, 3.14)

The construction of the palace dates back to MBI (2000-1800) but it went through several repairs before being finally destroyed at around 1600 B.C. Although this palace is fully excavated, the southern part of it was severely damaged by the removal of the stone courses of the foundation after the destruction. The southern part is identified as the entrance with a probable porch with columns. The thickness of the outer walls varied between 3-3.5 meters. The irregular rectangular plan of the building developed along a major north-south axis for a length of 115 meters with a width varying from 60 to 65 meters to form an area nearly 7300 m2 (Ibid: 384). The northern and the eastern side of the building include a row of small rectangular rooms and the circulation between these rooms was provided by doorways located along a major line with a symmetrical orientation. These rooms created separate non-communicating wings probably used for entirely domestic purposes. The inner courts are quite small and rectangular in shape and they are parallel to the outer wall of the building. The reception suite is located in the in the central area of the building and the movement was provided via a chain of small inner courts. Several

partially preserved staircases along the outer walls indicate that there was a second floor probably functioning as the residential quarter (Matthiae 1984:19). The in-situ collection from the second floor of the building, which corresponds to the beginning of the MBII period included remains of storage jars and monochrome kraters; both being North Syrian palatial products. A complete cuneiform tablet with its envelope and fragments of another tablet in a globular bowl are two important finds from the building. The complete tablet is a legal document of a silver loan and mentions the name Indilimgur, probably one of the last Kings of Ebla before the destruction. The names in the documents indicate that the majority of population was Hurrian living in Ebla along with the Amorites (Ibid: 22). The seal impressions on the provision jars refer to the son of Indilimgur. His name is also mentioned in the cuneiform tablet that was recovered from the building. This evidence supports the idea that this building was the residence of the Crown prince (Matthiae 1997:387).

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 style (Matthiae 2002: 193). In the Mesopotamian palaces the court is the most important place and the circulation through rooms is provided through the central courtyard (Margueron 1982: 465-98). This new style of palace construction represents the Old Syrian style of architecture, which can be seen in other Syrian sites: Alalakh Level VII, and Tilmen Hoyük (Ibid: 191). The second feature of the Syrian Palace was the use of long rooms, corridors, and courts one after other which provided a continuous nature and a peripheral position for the inner circulation (Ibid:194). The third feature of the Old Syrian palace is the audience suite which is usually formed in three parts with a central hall with longitudinal axis. The throne room is divided by a partition with a central post or posts into two distinct sectors: one in front and one in the back. The bent axis approach was attested for the throne room while the outer room functioned as a vestibule. The use of columns in the throne room seems to be

inspiring the formation of Bit Hilani palace tradition of LBA, where the entrance to the palace was made via a portico with columns[14] .

As presented above, the Syrian palace tradition was discussed and evaluated by Matthiae in his article 'About the Formation of Old Syrian Architecture' and it has been emphasized that there was a ventilation pattern that exists by having doorways and rooms located in a symmetrical and continuous way. In the excavated portion of the Kinet building, a series of rooms with rectangular form located on an orthogonal axis clearly involve the same architectural tradition that was in use in the Western Palace of Ebla. This area in Kinet was devoted to the storage, serving and for workshop purposes so the rooms shared the same domestic character. Some were connected to each other and some were divided by walls into non-communicating sectors. The room (L.3135) of the Palace Q includes another feature that corresponds to the Kinet Building. This square room included a bench which surrounded the room, and had grinding stones placed on top, identifying it as the Grinding Room (Matthiae: 1985: Pl68). A similar version of that type of furnishing is visible in the west wing of Kinet Höyük on a much smaller scale.

The Northern Palace P (fig 3.15)

The Northern palace extends over an area of 3500 m2. The east, west and southwest corners are completely lost. The building is 63 m across, and unlike the western palace it doesn't have a rectangular formation, but the idea of wings flanking the sides of the building is same as with palace Q. The northern wing is composed of medium sized rooms devoted to the preparation and serving of food. The southeast wing has larger rooms reserved for the officials and the King (Matthiae 1990:101, 1997:386). The west part is probably where the entrance of the building is situated as one passage leads from here to the northern wing and the other to the southeast wing. The throne room hall is 19.50 m long and 10.30 m large with one public and one royal entrance.

[14] Frankfort's definition on Bit Hilani : palace with two long narrow rooms both with their main axis parallel to the facade. The first room is a portico with from one to three columns, often placed at the top of a low flight of steps; stairs to the upper storey are set to one side of portico (Frankfort 1954:121).

The Ebla palaces are crucially important to our understanding of structure in the Old Syrian palace tradition. Since all of them are excavated at a horizontal expansion and present the general layout of the MB Syrian palace style, they provide a good comparative plan to identify palatial buildings in other sites, especially where one can only excavate limited portions of these monumental buildings.

Umm El Marra (fig 3.16)

The site is located in the Jabbul plain[15] east of Aleppo. It is relatively low 8-10 meters and 25 ha with an acropolis 150 by 150 meters located on the south. It has been excavated by the University of Johns Hopkins and University of Amsterdam under the direction of Glenn Schwartz. It is the largest Bronze Age tell in the Jabbul plain, and it is stated to be the regional economic center and the frontier establishing contacts between the sedentary and steppe zones. It has been identified, as a secondary center dependent on Ebla and the ancient city name Tuba is associated with the site itself. (Curvers et.al.2003:325) A hematite seal[16] discovered in the west area east of the outside the city wall, was dated to MBII from its depiction of a schematic group. This seal provided evidence on the identification of the site as ancient Tuba because the stylistic tradition seems to be contemporary with Alalakh's Aleppo group where the King of Tuba is presented in the same tradition as the example coming from Umm el Marra (Dunham 1997:229).

[15] The Jabbul Plain is between Aleppo and the Eupharates Valley , a connectory region between Syria and Mesopotamia. The survey of Jabbul plain conducted by Johns Hopkins and Amsterdam universities resulted with the discovery of 144 sites which proved the continuity of occupation in the region from Neolithic to Modern times. The prelimary results indicates that the abandonmet was visible during the early second millenium in the region. Of the 33 MB sites discovered,with only four are presenting MBI ceramic evidence. Refer to the survey results: (Schwartz,Curvers,Gerristesn, Maccormack, Miller , Weber 2000).

[16] Dunhams' definition: The seal (UMM95.G.002) includes a goddess approached by five men. The goddess stands at the left and wears a high cylindrical hat (polos) with horns and a long robe with a thick border. She holds a cup towards the men approaching her. The moon crescent and Egyptian ankh is located in front of the goddess. The man in front probably represents the King.

In the first centuries of the second millennium (MBI: 2000-1800), Umm el Marra was partially abandoned. The extensive occupation began again in MBII, and this is archeologically confirmed by the excavation with the exposure of large scale constructions. The revival of the city is associated with the Amorite Kingdom of Yamkhad and this historical issue is tested with MB trenches that are located on the acropolis and in the northwest of lower tell.

Acropolis (fig.3.17)

The trenches in the east of acropolis (Units 1302) exposed an enclosure wall six to eight row bricks wide (ca.2.6m) surrounding the MBII level of acropolis (Curvers and Schwartz 1997:213). This wall is fortified by two inner buttresses, about 4 bricks across and thinner walls have been constructed against it in order to form rooms which were identified as domestic. A gateway was exposed on the northern side of acropolis (Unit 1270\3936). The gate consists of two large piers or towers ca. 3.8 m wide with a passageway and a threshold of stone slabs between the two piers. A tower structure was added along the line of the gate and a brown clay glacis was located along the slope (Schwartz, et.al. 2003:341-342).

The North West Building (fig. 3.18)

The trenches in the northwest of the site in the lower town exposed a long building or buildings located at the backside of the major outer fortification wall of the city. The building collapsed with its contents in-situ. The outer wall is 4.5-6 bricks wide with exterior buttresses at regular intervals. The rooms in the back were formed by 1.5-2 bricks width walls with stone foundations and they seem to have functioned as a domestic quarter. The pottery repertoire includes a large number of complete and near-complete vessels dating into MBII-LBI transition. The inturned-rim bowls; jars with flaring necks; large, combed incised storage jars and kraters, and other cooking wares are the characteristic examples from this collection. A rim sherd of a Cypriot Red on Red bowl coming from the topsoil just above the outer city wall might be associated with the building as well (Ibid:344). The building seems to have been constructed in one phase, and again the orthogonal alignment with the major city wall can be seen as good

parallel for the Kinet building. Although no continuous alignment or inner buttresses were observed in this building the practice of using the city wall as part of the building construction must conform to a standardized pattern in the MBII period. The accumulations of later levels at the backside of the building probably prevent the excavators from recovering more of building.

Alalakh\Tell Atchana

The site was first identified by R. Braidwood in his Syro- Hittite survey of the Amuq Valley where it was listed as site AS.136. Later on Sir Leonard Woolley conducted extensive excavations on the site in two campaigns between 1937-39 and 1946-49. Woolley concentrated his excavations on the northern site of the tell where he exposed more than 15 levels of architecture dating from late LB to early MB. The northern part of the tell was occupied as the royal district where successive levels of palace and temple constructions have been excavated. In 2000, the restudy of the excavated materials and the surveys was conducted by a Chicago Oriental Institute team under the direction of K. A.Yener. The site plans were transferred into GIS maps and a more coherent plan of each level from O-VII was established (Yener et al. 2005). This effort now enables us to see each architectural levels at the site as part of the city (fig 3.19).

The city of Alalakh being historically the capital city of the Mukish Kingdom provided a tremendous amount of evidence for our understanding of the Bronze Age cultures of the Levant as well as Anatolia and the Mediterranean. The city's location in the center of the Amuq Valley provided a multicultural aspect to the character of the city. It`s political dependence to the Yamkhad and later on to Mitanni made the site itself a buffer zone between Anatolia and Syria. In its final levels, the city get under control of Hittites possibly functioned as a garrison for Hittite military establishments (Yener 2005). The archives found in the level IV and Level VII palaces confirmed its political importance and provided information on the synchronization of the cultures of the Levant. The site plays a major role in the debates about the high, middle and low chronology problems of the near east, an issue still in need of more documentation.

Possible connections between Kinet and Alalakh had been investigated throughout the MB-LB levels of Kinet Höyük. Since the distance between these two sites is around 100 km, and they are both economic centers, one inland and one coastal, one should assume that these two sites played a role in the interregional relations between Anatolia and Syria. The relatively small LB slope trenches in Kinet Höyük produced a few Nuzi Ware sherds as the only evidence of connection with Alalakh in the LBA (Pers. Comm. M.H.Gates 2005). Interaction seems to be more solid in the MBA. The Burnt Building of Kinet does share the same methods of construction and design with the Level VII palace of Alalakh but we do not have any written documents from Kinet, or from Tell Atchana, to prove this statement. So the architectural evidence may help us to understand the interaction between these two sites.

The Fortifications

The Level VII town, the last MB level of Atchana, was sacked and destroyed by Hattusili I in his campaigns to Syria (ca 1550 B.C). At this level, the site was approx 22 ha, with 19 ha inhabitable land (Yener 2000:185). This destruction level is evident in the town with the demolition of the city gate and the palace, where the mud brick remains are heavily burnt and vitrified. The evidence of a possible rampart construction came only from trench F; where an earlier rampart system was adapted to be used in Level VII. Woolley suggested the possibility of a lower town with a surrounding fortification system but no evidence has been found to support this as yet (Woolley 1955:132)[17]. He also suggested that the town defenses on the mound may have differed around the various parts of the site (Ibid: 135). The eastern wall of the Level VII palace with its thickness and location is very likely to have functioned as an enclosure system with a city gate located further to the NW. The combination of the palace, city wall and the gate was already discussed before and this type of formation can also be seen at Alalakh.

[17] Soundings are planned in the northern fields to test the lower town theory in forthcoming seasons of excavations at Tell Atchana.

Level VII Palace (fig 3.20)

The Palace depending on the archival records seems to be occupied by at least three generations: first by Hammurabi of Yamhad , his son Yarim- Lim and later on by Niqme- Epukh (ibid: :91). These three generations of Alalakh Kings, the time of their reigns and the date of the destruction of the Level VII palace are still a discussion point among the various scholars (Naman, Colon, Gates). Since this paper did not intend to focus on chronological issues I prefer to accept the date of ca. 1550 B.C for Hattusili's campaign and the destruction of the level VII palace.

The level VII palace was constructed on the northeastern portion of the site overlying the earlier palace constructions. The palace is aligned along the city wall and the eastern outer wall was incorporated into the defense system. The eastern wall of the temple abuts the western wall of the Level VII palace and expanded the the palace complex into the far south. The further western part of the palace was buried under later level accumulations. There is therefore a possibility that architectural elements that were contemporary and belonging to the palace complex extend under the Level IV palace (Pers. Comm. K.A.Yener 2004). At this point it is difficult to argue whether the temple and palace constructions were joined, and represented one section of a larger palatial complex.

Woolley indicates that the ground level of the palace slopes from SE to NW. This sloping surface of the mound had been terraced by the builders of Level VII palace and divided into three corresponding sections (Ibid: 92). The lowest terrace includes rooms 1-13. The rooms in that part of the building are large when compared with rooms in other sections of the building, and they were used for official purposes. The doorway from the courtyard (9) provided access to the audience chamber and the rooms at the far back functioned either for official or residential purposes. No clear evidence was recovered from the

excavations regarding the specific functions of these rooms[18] . In the northeast corner of the building a long narrow passage (3) was accessed through a small lobby (6), which has a slight upwards slope and a length of 3.50 m. Woolley indicates that the west wall of the lobby and the stair passage above ground level were heavily burnt and vitrified, which he attributed to a possible wooden staircase leading up to the second floor of the building. The thickness of the inner wall, which is 2.00 m wide, is large enough to support a second floor. It also suggests a possible tower-like construction located on the Northern section of the building, which makes sense if we accept that the eastern wall was incorporated into the defense system. This also caused Woolley to consider that the Northern section of the building could be a military establishment, lower rooms becoming official rather than residential (Ibid: 93). The rooms (13, 12, and 11) in the southern side of the courtyard with a single access point from room 13 functioned as the royal storeroom where a large number of business tablets and luxury materials were kept. This section is interpreted as a place where the gifts and tributes were kept since it was located on the way to the reception suite (Ibid: 93).

The southern section of the palace was entirely domestic in purpose. Its relatively small rooms were aligned at an angle to the main outer wall. The buttresses located on both sides of the walls functioned as doorjambs and probably served to reinforce the second floor. The only entrance between these two sections was provided by a staircase leading up to the lobby room 10, which gives access to the main courtyard (9). The first line of rooms (14, 9, 25, 9) is rectangular in shape and the mud brick walls are heavily burnt and vitrified. According to the finds, this wing of rooms and the back rooms were assigned as domestic, devoted to serving and storage purposes (Ibid 99-106).

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[18] Room 1 reconstructed in Woolley's plan, is actually buried under the remains of level IV palace. This sealed room is one issue that needs to be investigated in the coming seasons of excavations in Tell Atchana.

Of the southern section of the building the architectural layout and the existing material culture are closely similar with the Kinet building. The corridor arrangement of rooms and the courtyard at the back reflect the same alignment. This supports the idea of possible rooms located in the further western sections of the Kinet Burnt Building that were devoted to official purposes in the burnt building of Kinet[19] . The only difference between these buildings comes from the use of orthostats in the Level VII palace, which differs from Kinet, where river stones are employed in the foundations.

Qatna/Tell Mishrifeh

The site is located 18km northeast of city of Homs, in the plain between the steppes of the Palmyra Region near the Orontes valley in Syria. The location of the site on the major route from Anatolia to Palestine and Egypt; from Mesopotamia to the Mediterranean, geographically provided a strategic importance to the establishment (Al-Maqdissi, et.al 2002:7). The site had been occupied during the end of the EBA and continued to be in use until the end of the Iron Age. A village, built during the mid 19th century, was recently emptied due to the culture heritage management project in Qatna.

The MB occupation was identified as the urban era of Qatna when it was commercial center beside Aleppo and Mari (Ibid: 7-8). The site was at this time had been raised and surrounded by ramparts of 15-20 meters high, enclosing an area 110 ha (Ibid: 7).

The Bronze Age Palace (fig 3.21)

The palace was first excavated by Du Mesnil du Buisson of the French Expedition to Qatna between 1924-1929. The excavation techniques and recording system during the 1920's fell short of the modern archaeological standards so most of the brick walls were not recognized and the published plans were inaccurate. For that reason, the Joint Syrian-Italian-German Archaeological Research Project at Qatna focused on the Bronze Age palace to study the palace

[19] As it is referred in chapter one, there will be no excavation towards west in Kinet depended on the thickness of the later level accumulations in the east terrace. The idea of 'official quarters' for Kinet building is in this sense only a theoretical assumption based on relative data and there is no opportunity of testing it.

formation and its history in the MB of Western Syria. Du Mesnil du Buisson identified three buildings in the Palace district (Palace, Temple of Belet-Ekallim, and High Palace). The new excavations proved that they were actually part of a single building which seems to be inspired by the Mesopotamian palace tradition.

The intermediary location of Mari provided important evidence on the Bronze Age relations of Syria and Mesopotamia. (Margueron 1992:218). Qatna's role with both historic and archaeological evidence seems to share the position with Mari. The typological studies carried out at the palace of Qatna proved that the plan of the building was inspired from Zimrilim Palace at Mari with the same spatial organization and arrangement of the central representational wings. This similarity shows that the palace would have been constructed in the MBA; and it was the residence of the kings Is I-Hadda and Amut-Pi-EL known from the Mari archives (Novak and Pfalzner 2003:68). The Cypriot ceramics found in the floors of the palace suggest that the site was still occupied during the LBA.

Qatna's close affiliations with Mari seem to have affected the design of the palace and the tendency towards a Mesopotamian tradition was inspired from Zimrilim's palace. Although the use of columns in the doorways shares the same character of the earlier Bit Hilani tradition which was visible in Level VII palace of Alalakh, we can still say that the Qatna palace was heavily inspired by Mesopotamian palace tradition

3.5 A Selective look at the Palaces from Anatolia

Excavations on the mound of Kültepe and Acemhoyük uncovered large palatial constructions, which demonstrate the early palace tradition of central Anatolia. These MB palaces designate the formation of the Hittite and Anatolian approach to monumental architecture in the coming centuries. The Anatolian palace tradition seems to be inspired by, but not limited to Mesopotamian style. Due to environmental factors, there are two major differences: The cold winter weather is reflected in an arrangement of rooms without inner courtyards; and the more common use of timber allowed two story constructions with lower

administrative quarters and the upper story as the residential quarters (Pers. Comm. Geoffrey Summers 2006).

Kültepe\ Nesa (fig 3.22)

Although the citadel suffered from illegal and early excavations, Tahsin Özgüç and his team succeeded in understanding the stages of the palace architecture on the mound. Three palatial buildings were identified, which one of them was located on the terrace of the mound.

The Late Palace (M7\ KK IIa)

The square plan of the building with an interior courtyard surrounded by rooms, shares the same aesthetic trends of Mesopotamian palaces; but it appears that the palace was designed primarily to fulfill an economic role, because of its close affiliation with the trade center in the lower town. The written records indicate that the palace as the administrative center played a major role in the distribution of trade material to the markets (Özgüç 1999:60). The caravans first led up to the citadel and after certain transactions with the palace officials, the merchants were free to sell their goods in the market (Larsen 1967:155, Özgüç 1999:61).

The narrow rectangular rooms that were located on the sides of the building were identified as storerooms. The same type of finds from these rooms (bullae, storage jars) suggests that each room was separated to store the belongings of different merchants, each of whom had a relationship with the palace; this might have resulted with the yearly increase on the number of store rooms (Özgüç 1999:60).

The most significant aspect about the Kültepe palace comes from its association with the defensive architecture. The enclosure wall is 110 by 120 m with 4-meter-thick stone foundations. Horizontal crossbeams of timber were placed between the foundation blocks and small buttresses are bonded into the enclosure wall at 7m intervals. The outer wall of the palace served as the city wall and this is the first time that we see the elements of palatial and defensive architecture combined in one building in Anatolia. The natural shape of the citadel wall surrounded by the palace wall may direct us to believe that the

increase in the merchandise made it necessary to increase security and the response was building fortified palaces in the MBA.

Zeytinli Bahçe Höyük (fig 3.23)

The site is located 2 km away from Birecik/Şanlıurfa on the east bank of the Euphrates river. Salvage excavations at the site started in response to the Fırat dam construction, under collaboration of Urfa Müzesi, La Sapienza University and Middle East Technical University-Taçdam. Changes in the dam project design have meant the site is no longer at risk.

The 2.6 ha. site rises 14 m above the alluvial plain (Frangipane, Restelli 2005:29). The MB trenches opened at the base of the mound exposed part of a heavily burnt monumental structure (castle or palace) with walls 3 m thick. This building is thought to be a possible castle construction built along fortification system lines. There were a number of storage vessels uncovered which shows that while it had a defensive purpose it was also used as a storage unit and may well have an administrative function as well (Ibid: 36).

Tilmen Höyük (fig 3.24)

The site is located in the Islahiye Plain of Gaziantep. The earliest excavations at the site were carried out by Bahadır Alkım (1960- 1964, 1969-1972) and later on by his student Refik Duru (2002). The joint Turkish-Italian excavations started in 2003 under the direction of Nicolo Marchetti (Bologna).
The site with its 5 ha. acropolis and lower town was possibly the capital of a kingdom, subservient to Yamkhad and later to the Mitanni Kingdoms in the 2nd millennium B.C. The architectural remains and the material culture that have been exposed in the relevant levels possess Syrian cultural elements rather than Anatolian features and this is interpreted as reflecting close affiliations with the Syrian Kingdoms (Marchetti 2005:43).

Bronze Age Palace (fig 3.25)

The monumental BA palace has two building phases. The east- west oriented rectangular building located along the inner fortification system represents the original construction phase, which was ruined after a fire. The second phase, which also destroyed by a fire was constructed re-using the

preserved sections and the addition of new buildings (Duru 2003:20). The destruction levels are associated with Hattusili I and Mursili I 's campaigns over Syria (Ibid:34).

The major building (A) was enlarged with the addition of the building (E) and fortified with a Tower-Castle (H) located on the southwest of corner of the acropolis (Marchetti 2005:46). The south faces of these building functioned as a fortification system. The monumental gate was located close to the palace and reached by stairs from the lower town.

Tilmen palace shares an identical plan with the Tell Atchana Level VII palace, and Duru explained this by suggesting the possibility that the same builders were employed on both projects (Duru 2003: 32).

3.7 Unity in the architecture; causes and results

In this comparative study, nine MB sites were chosen based on the architectural composition of their existing buildings. The southern Levant examples; Megiddo and Tell el Farah, North, provide evidence for the unity of monumental and domestic architecture, which is believed to have originated from Syria, Anatolia and Mesopotamia. Rampart cities were first observed in major sites like Ebla and this tradition seems then to have spread to the southern Levant, where no real architectural connection was observed during the EBA. E. Oren indicates that the dominant influence on both private and public architecture was the traditional oriental house, which was built around a central unroofed courtyard. This plan seems to be integrated into palace architecture, in which the basic plan was composed of a rectangular shaped courtyard with rooms surrounding it on two or more sides (Oren 1992:105). But, as stated above the major difference between the Southern and Northern Levant palace tradition is seen in the use of complex designs in the North, while in the Southern Levant the tradition seems to follow a simple pattern.

Although the MBIIA [MB I] (2000-1800) is described archaeologically as being "poor", Megiddo provides evidence on the gradual expansion of the MBII cities. The slowly expanding settlement pattern of Megiddo transformed

the site into a large fortified town (Kempinski 1992:168). The most radical changes were observed in Stratum X, when a lower city was established in the final MB phases, and dwellings substituted for an enclosure in the citadel (rather than any fortification walls). These features characterized the town as an economic center, probably of political importance when the city came under the control of a new administrative system. The MBIIA-B [MB I-II] fortifications were no longer in use in the last phase and a market economy gained importance, as seen in the structural layout of the city. The Stratum X palace located alongside the defense system and next to the city gate rather than in the central temple district indicates that a new administrative center was formed composed of the palace and city gate; it suggests the rise of a completely independent elite faction with military and political institutions as its power base (Herzog 1997:153). These structures would have played a major role in controlling trade materials and merchant traffic, which probably required the palace to assume the role of economic center in addition to its military function (fortress) as part of the defense system. D.Ussishkin points out the fact that the erection of royal monuments (e.g. statues) inside gate houses was meant to symbolize the power of an authority which started in MBA and became a tradition in the LBA (Ussishkin 1986:485). If the palace itself is considered a royal monument then we can relate the habit of palace construction along the city gate as a power statement. This symbolic function was fulfilled with the combination of the rampart and the fortification walls.

MBII cities with their characteristic structural composition strongly suggest that ramparts and fortifications walls were adopted into the city system rather than being separate, independent elements. The use of fortification walls as part of either domestic or royal buildings is primarily a practical one; housing was attached to the city wall, a technique that saved a considerable amount of time, energy and resources.

The MBA sites, especially in the Southern Levant were excavated with a focus on public buildings and fortifications, so little attention was paid to the domestic architecture. This gap made it difficult to understand the city dynamic

as one large system. However, with the evidence acquired so far, it has been stated that the arrangement of domestic architecture was carried out by building contiguous walls in densely built areas in walled cities, thus economizing on building materials (Ben Dov 1992:99). In that sense, the domestic section exposed next to the city wall in Jericho is a good example of housing incorporated into a defense system (Ussishkin 1989:34). The workshops exposed in Tell el Far'ah North seem to represent the part of the industrial area where a number of workshops formed an individual district entirely devoted to craftsmen. This was located on the outer limits of the city in order to prevent dust, smoke, noise and the poisonous effects of any metalworking activity. This domestic and industrial plan of the city seems to have been shaped and properly established according to the additional factor of commerce. The workshops needed raw materials, which in many cases were imported from distant areas. The trade caravans bringing these supplies inside the city probably followed a roadway, which directed them into the industrial area without interfering with the city traffic.

These two southern Levant examples indicate that royal and domestic architecture was incorporated into the defense systems for two major reasons. The palace was both an economic and military center during the late MB, a reflection of the administrative system dependent on a market economy. Secondarily, workshops were located along the fortification wall, indicators of the industrial organization and separation into professional districts within city borders. These two functions can be identified with the Kinet Burnt Building along with its structural similarity. The excavated portion of the building and its material culture show that the building was dedicated to storage and service as well as workshop purposes. The monumentality of the building stresses the idea of a palace complex; a military and an economic institution where both industrial and commercial activities were taking place at once. In this setting it is very understandable to see workshops located close to the edge of the citadel since the unwanted effects of industrial production needed to be kept away from the residential quarters. The thickness of the walls and the tower construction on the

north edge surely demonstrate its military function, which protects and supports its economic and residential functions.

The Northern Levant sites, Ebla and Alalakh, have been identified as the sources for this development of the defensive and royal architecture, which then became widespread in the southern Levant (Oren 1992:105, Kempinski 1992:97). This attribution was investigated through several major inland and coastal sites in the Southern Levant (Megiddo, Hazor, Shechem, Gezer, Tell Aphek, Jericho, Tell el Farah South and Tell el Farah North, Tel Dan). However, no architectural correlations have been found or researched in Anatolian territory with the exception of Tilmen Höyük, where an inland trade route was observed connecting northern Syria and Anatolia along the Islahiye plain of modern Turkey.

The city of Ebla was identified as a subservient ruling state under the Yamkhad Kingdom. The prosperity of Ebla during the MBII period was displayed with the erection of royal palaces and large defense systems including a rampart, fortification wall, fortresses and a six-pier-type city gate built in the Syrian style. These same architectural features were evident on a relatively small scale at Alalakh. No palaces have been discovered as yet in Umm el Marra; however the structural formation of the city walls and its association with the back dwellings were yet again a reflection of palatial architecture in domestic use. The one common historical factor linking these cities was their affiliation with the Yamkhad Kingdom as subservient states.

By examining their geographical setting, we can see that these sites were located on the critical points of trade routes. Ebla, as the largest center in the environs of Aleppo controlled both hinterland surplus and international affairs between the Levant, Mesopotamia and Anatolia. Two documents from the site (Aret II 29TM.75.G.1753, TM.75.G.2420) mention the riverine-maritime trade of Ebla, although the site was neither a coastal or riverine site (Stieglitz 1985:7). This text provides us with the price of boats and a casual listing of trades. The second text is a treaty between the harbor city of Abarsila and Ebla. The relevant passages, lines 378-417 were translated by Sollberger as follows:

'Ebla shall do waterways trade with Abarsal; Abarsal shall do waterways trade with Ebla. Abarsal, the ferry-harbour and large, …, .. …. .(Abarsal) has received her… (and)….'

' Why does the harbor –master of Ebla return to Abarsal? Why does the harbor –master of Abarsal return to Ebla ? The..(of?) Ebla and Abarsal shall be built (?)…. . Every year (Abarsal) shall deliver one ox and one ram; if she does not deliver (them) she shall be cast out.'

This shows that Ebla was significantly involved in a riverine- maritime trade route, probably along the Euphrates and possibly via the port of Mari (Steiglitz 1985:8). The records about Amorite merchants, mentioned earlier, indicate that Ebla merchants were trying to involve themselves in the interregional networks by land, river or sea. One should assume that the expanding cities needed large supplies of timber for various constructions and other products necessary for the city. Geographically the nearest available source of timber is the Amanos Mountains; timber would have been shipped from Cilicia to coastal Syria and then by land to the cities located along the line of trade network. Kinet would be a suitable candidate for a related harbor town with its location 10 km west of Amanos range (Gates 1999:303).

The earlier relations of northern Syria with Anatolia seem to be reflected in the royal architecture. I strongly believe that the combination of defensive systems with royal architecture is something that gradually developed in northern Syria and spread from there both to the southern Levant. Starting with the earliest example at Kültepe, this tradition seems to be well illustrated in Zeytinli Bahçe and Tilmen Höyük in Anatolia.

To conclude this chapter, we can summarize the character of monumental architecture and Kinets' position in the MBA by four main points:

A- The regeneration of cities in the MBA represents itself in monumental architecture, a reflection of an administrative system relying on the spatial

organization of official and defensive structures. The increase in merchandise and the rise in the income of the cities forced kingdoms to develop a control mechanism which seems to have been achieved by locating administrative buildings next to the city gates. These buildings, when incorporated into the defense system fulfilled an official and a defensive purpose at the same time. Their symbolic function; that of displaying royal power was achieved by their monumentality and the choice of location.

B- This tradition seems to have spread from Northern Syria to Anatolia and Palestine as a result of the relationships that were established during the MBA. Although the diachronic nature of MBA prevents us from making any definitive statements, we should not ignore the international economy model which seems to be the primary reason for the unity in the architecture. It is more appropriate to investigate MBA from the perspective of an economic model rather than to focus purely on ethnic origin.

C- Kinet Höyük seems to integrate into this economy model and the close correlations in the architecture must have resulted from its affiliations with the major kingdoms of northern Syria. Using evidence from excavation and the comparative study, we can clearly state that Kinet's Burnt Building with its monumental size was incorporated into a defense system as an administrative center. For the convenience of the study, we can attribute the term 'Palace' to the building since it fulfills all its requirements.

D- As a theoretical statement, we may assume that Kinet had close relations with Yamkhad Kingdom and it may even be convenient to say that, Kinet served as a subservient state to Yamkhad Kingdom. The inland traffic and the connections with Anatolia were protected by having states along the Islahiye plain; the sea control and the shipping of precious raw materials (timber, tin) were perhaps controlled from the harbor towns of Cilicia. This scenario has been supported by the presence of Kinet's monumental-size Syrian-type building, but the lack of any written documents prevents us from documenting this in historical terms.

No King is truly powerful on his own. Ten to fifteen kings follow Hammurabi of Babylon, Rim Sin of Larsa, Ibal-pi-el of Eshunna or Ar Amutpi El of Qatna but twenty kings follow Yarim Lim of Yamkhad….

CHAPTER IV

THE SIZE AS THE PHYSICAL ATTRIBUTION

In chapters II and III an attempt was made to understand the function of a specific building in its local and wider contexts, which proved that the Cilician region was very much within North Syrian architectural tradition in the MBA. This chapter differs from these, and attempts to test certain archaeological conventions which associate the mound size and activity patterns of an ancient settlement.

The attribution of the definitions village, town or urban center is in many cases restricted to the physical criterion; the size of the settlement and it should not be used alone as an index for site definitions (Trigger 1972:577). The limitations on the methods for identifying the urban nature of the settlements have misled scholars interpreting the archaeological evidence. This can produce unreliable results in the process of understanding the history of the ancient settlement patterns (Parr 1972:807). Unfortunately, in most of the regions the ratio of excavated sites to the number of existing sites is very low, letting us see only a small portion of the settlement history. Regional survey projects do provide additional information but once again limitations on the methods (available surface collections, mounds buried with lower towns, non visible settlements) lead to imprecise results.

My attempt to examine the validity of the basic identifications was inspired by the contradictory evidence acquired from the excavations that have taken place at Kinet Höyük. Although Kinet seems to be one of the largest sites in Eastern Cilicia, its 3 ha. mound size forced a classification of the site as a village settlement based on the standard definitions. The existence of a 50m long building and the evidence of a lower town encourage me to develop an argument on the problems of site identification.

4.1 Size and Settlement

The hierarchical order of the settlements has been commonly demonstrated on the basic principles of rank- size models in which the size of the settlements is considered as the key determinant. One of the best known models using the size as the primary indicator is Christaller's central place theory which, in principle suggests that, towns (central places) are located at equal distances from one to other and each town as a market place holds the control of its own territory in which the small size settlements (villages, hamlets) were dependent on the market economy of the town center. The town controls the hexagonally shaped complementary region and small centers are nested within this system. In this hexagonal formation, transportation and administration are the two primary factors determining the settlement location (Johnson 1972: 769).

This theory was tested by G. Johnson in 'A Test of the Utility of Central Place Theory in Archaeology' where he used the Early Dynastic-I sites in the Diyala region. Distinctions between settlement types were identified on the basis of their proportions:

Large Towns: over 15 ha.

Towns: 6-15 ha.

Large Villages: between 3 and 5ha

Villages: between 1-3 ha

Hamlets: less than 1 ha.

The hierarchical order of the central place theory ranks the position of sites from 1 to 5: large towns are in the 1st place while hamlets are at the bottom of this system. From the very beginning of this model based on size, hierarchy eliminates the variations and development patterns of a settlement and thus the reliability is questionable.

Central place theory idealizes a model, which is sealed against any outsider activity in its own nucleus formation where the marketing principle and the trade networks form the structural base of the theory. The locations of the sites are plotted on the assumption of relations between hamlets to villages, villages to large villages, villages to towns and towns to large towns. So hamlets

have villages as central places, villages have towns as central places and so on. The sites are ranked according to their size and hierarchical order is established by this size classification. The theory was set up on the basis of transportation routes giving a transition character to the small size settlements located on the network. The loci are distributed in practice for the minimization of the energy output and time spent along the trade network. However for Diyala region, the textual evidence implies that during the EDI period overland transport was minimal and this may suggests that this model is wrong or the textual evidence does not provide enough information about the existing traffic. (Johnson 1972: 783).

If we apply the central place theory to the MBII of the Levant, it can be seen that certain facts make this model unreliable. The urbanism of the Levant in the MBA was modest in scale and centralization when compared to Mesopotamian towns (Falconer and Savage 1995) because the Levantine towns were not located at central intervals but rather as a line along the coast, and they were not large enough to establish a central dominance (Falconer 1994:125). The appearance of state kingdoms within close districts and the new ways of trading systems predict a more complicated model and the idea of a major center seems to be inadequate for the time and region. We should be aware of the fact that the appearance of harbor towns as being trade centers, incorporated into the system possibly served all different states rather than being part of the central government organization. Thus the harbor towns should have brought growth to the independent merchandise sector rather then being controlled under a central model as stated by D.Schloen in his book The House of the Father, Fact and Symbol (2001:84). The hierarchical model in that sense does not work as expected and we should assume that the rise in the number of inland state kingdoms must have been related to the rise in the number of harbor towns and the development of international affairs, which was then shaped by the trading principles of that era. The potential of the harbor towns as independent trade centers should be considered as a possible model for the MBA economies without any limitations based on size.

In all the centralized models, a hierarchical order has been recognized within the regional territories but since the size cannot be used to define the nature of the settlement, attention needs to be paid to the problems of site identification. The major differences between town and village settlements have to be examined carefully. The commonly accepted criteria for the separation of these two identities is physical, the size and the population, but no satisfactory threshold was established for a single region (Groove 1972:559). As Smith stated:

> Even if we ignore the variety of rural settlements, for which the ecological axioms that underlie this dichotomy imply a corresponding diversity of social systems, it is not always easy to distinguish village from town or town from city (Smith 1972:567).

So the second criterion, function of the site, should be investigated properly. The villages are associated with the economic activities where the inhabitants are involved in crafts like farming, fishing, forestry, mining but it is extremely difficult to distinguish them from towns in that we can attribute exactly the same functions to towns as well (Groove 1972: 559-560). According to the textual evidence, the villages in the ancient Near East were either dependent on the governmental and public sector (temple and the palace) or the private communal sector represented by individual families and village communities in which the hierarchical system of the hinterland seems to have two separate entities (Magness-Gardiner 1994:37, Zaccagnini 1997: 341). Basically, the villages that were under the control of a major town existed to accomplish agricultural tasks and an expansion or increase in the village size was only due to the rise of the quantity of supplies that the major town was asking for. The private, independent villages possibly had a tendency to expand and provide more evidence of foreign affairs and public facilities, due to private ownership of land rather than tilling of government property. So at this point even the village type settlements can vary depending on their administrative character and thus it is difficult to suggest a separation only from size and population criteria. S.E Falconer proposed another theory suggesting that the

difference between the urban and rural towns came from their ability or inability to become agriculturally self-sufficient (Falconer 1994:122). Urban centers with their increased population size were dependent on the agricultural surplus of the hinterland when its own agricultural activity was not sufficient to feed its population. This statement contradicts the nature of trade itself; for example when large quantites of non-local foods were introduced to the market economy not only to compensate for insufficient supply but also to increase variety in the diet. On this basis it is more appropriate to state that urbanism is a result of the increase in business affairs and trade which brought the city's life and economy into an international stage (Hayden 1994:198)

Groove suggested a division based on the levels of certain amenities that a settlement can offer to its inhabitants which may vary with the level of development and culture of the community (Groove 1972: 560). These include a wide range of public facilities like administrative structures, road systems, city walls, which all ensure the quality of life. Avraham Faust (2005), in his study of the rural communities of MBA, stressed that the separation between the urban and rural settlements is accomplished primarily by the size and density of the occupation and he combined the architectural evidence into this attribution, so that rural settlements were identified by their relative lack of buildings with the exception of temples and fortification systems (mostly boundary walls). The sites do not present any social stratification and very small number of elite families maintained control over the villages. No specializations were observed, most of the inhabitants were agriculturalists and the evidence of foreign trade is very limited. His definitions of architectural associations, temples as communal centers and a boundary wall resulting from collaborative work seem to attest to a village and can be applied to define the rural settlements. However the differentiation between the boundary walls and fortification systems should be emphasized here because the fortification systems are at some point more than defensive and public structures; they are a symbolic representation of administrative power and therefore provide important evidence regarding the nature of the settlement.

This statement requires further examination. The city defenses seen as public facilities with a prestigious element (the fortification systems includes: ramparts, glacis, walls) may allow us to define the nature of the settlement patterns even during the surveys where one can estimate the existence of a fortification system depending on the topography and the formation of the mound. This is of course problematic for many sites and regions since the multi-period nature of the mounds prevents the surveyors from making accurate statements about the dates and occupation history, but this model is applicable especially for MBA of Levant when many sites were established with rampart systems. The surveys in Palestine conducted by Ram Gophna followed this principle and very successful results were achieved for understanding the BA settlement patterns of the Southern Levant.

In the Southern Levant, it was understood that the BA settlement process involved the characteristics of the multi-period mounds, and the forms seem to have developed in two major time periods; the EB site formation and MB site formation. (Gophna 1984:24). The EB settlements were concentrated in the mountainous areas; the TransJordan and the Golan Heights, where sites with massive fortification systems were later abandoned and only rarely re-settled in the MBII period. The shift from inland to coastal sites and the appearance of freestanding ramparts formed the general mound shape of MBA and this protected its form for the coming ages. The increase in fortified settlements along the coastline of Palestine indicates that the choice of location seems to be partially caused by the shift in economic activity during the MBII period (ibid: 30); in other words, the tendency towards maritime activities influenced the formation of sites and gave them an urban character. The necessity of fortification systems became obvious with the increase in merchandise and when boats with luxury cargos anchored in the harbors. As a reaction it seems that even smaller settlements had an administrative structure and were fortified as a consequence of this economy related development. I think that with the increase in the number of harbor towns, the trade itself hastened the process of urbanization. In these circumstances it can be said that the correlation between

physical size and the volume of trade is insignificant. Eventually even small cities found themselves incorporated into the system whereby the administrative structure of the urban centers was performed in the small site settlements as well (Pers. Comm. Burcu Erciyas 2006). This statement also applies to center-hinterland relations, where the high-level administrative relations resulted in the development of complex systems even in small-scale prehistoric settlements (Kramer 2004:207).

4.2 Sites formation and Lower Towns

The distinct shapes of the mounds were created by the interaction of man with his environment. The site location and the direction of city expansion were achieved primarily by considering environmental factors (sun, wind direction, changes in the river beds, silting erosion, etc.), which were then shaped by structural features (houses, fortification walls, ramparts). All these factors combined, giving their distinct shape to the elevated settlements (Rosen 1982:24).

In archaeological surveys, mound settlements were identified on the basis of their location, size and the available surface collection of pottery and objects. This basic recording system gives us knowledge about the possible occupation levels on the site based on pottery evidence, and the location may allow us to understand the patterns of site distribution. But the size data itself is very misleading since it does not predict the real size of the occupation. All models based on any size criterion will be inaccurate; and thus for defining the nature of settlements, other agents like structural evidence, textual evidence, functional attributions, and environmental factors should be considered according to regional distinctions.

The model that I proposed for harbor towns fits our understanding of Kinet Höyük's MBA settlement nature. It can be seen that the site was fortified and the burnt building itself provided evidence for administrative structure on the site. The architectural evidence (Administrative Building) and the functional attribution (Harbor Town) give a satisfactory threshold for defining the urban nature of the settlement. As a further step, the excavations around the visible tell

exposed the presence of a lower town, which seems to be settled in the BA, and extends the territory of the site at least to the north. This proves that the urban character of the site was fulfilled with an administrative structure located on the acropolis and a domestic section on the lower town. Based on the standard definitions, if no excavations had been conducted on the site it would possibly be identified as a village type settlement where no administrative system or patterns of urbanism would be expected. Since the MB levels were sealed by later accumulations, it would have been almost impossible to think about the existence of city defenses and public architecture. So even a small site such as Kinet in the 'marginal' zone of Eastern Cilicia can and does demonstrate the urban pattern of the MBII of Eastern Mediterranean.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This preliminary study on Kinet Höyük's MBII building is concentrated on understanding the settlement history of Kinet and its interaction with the Levantine cultures. The efforts at synchronization of the Levant in the second millennium B.C are focused on the relations between the cultures of the Levant and the role of the neighborhood, the Cilician coast has barely been investigated or considered for understanding the Eastern Mediterranean traffic. The remains of a monumental building in the harbor town of Kinet inspired me to investigate the function of this structure and its particular importance within this interregional frame. This is achieved by examining the contemporary examples and with that evidence an argument is given for the role of Kinet within the urbanization process of the Levant. The architectural evidence is linked to the political and economic background and a model is proposed for the palatial organization. A discussion chapter was added for the size and activity pattern of a site, which underlines the inaccuracy of current site-size based models and it is linked with the MBA site formation of Kinet.

The burnt building is investigated in its local context and the function is suggested as an administrative center; possibly a palace located along the defense systems and close to a city gate for controlling the economic traffic. This statement is confirmed by the contemporary evidence from sites of Anatolia and the Levant. The stylistic parallels support this statement. The similarities between the sites claimed to be under the Yamkhad Kingdom's control direct me to mention the possibility of Kinet as being a satellite state to Yamkhad. This is a very hypothetical statement and I make no attempt to prove or defend it. My point was more on stressing the importance of access to raw materials. Since the re-urbanization of the Levant is archaeologically confirmed with the appearance of monumental buildings and public construction in the MBII contexts, and

historically associated with the Yamkhad Kingdom for Northern Syria, one should assume that control of the interregional trade network was established to ensure continued supplies. This provides a strategic importance to Kinet Hoyuk with its close location to valuable cedar supplies from the Amanos Mountains and its easy shipment and transportation by sea. As a result of this economic interaction, standardization (either intentionally or as natural process) is observed in the administrative and public structures and I think it is not dangerous to accept the Kinet Building as a palatial structure by comparing it with the contemporary examples. However, the model that I proposed in the second chapter was still based on limited evidence. First of all, I suggest a function for the Kinet Building but I do not have any solid evidence to prove it. Secondarily some of the sites that I mentioned that have affiliations with Yamkhad Kingdom archaeologically are not confirmed yet. The uncertainty at these points leaves some questions on the precision of the results but it still provides a strong argument that the nature of the MBII should be examined without neglecting the economic model, which presents itself in the royal architecture.

The last chapter stresses the inaccuracy of the size as a primary criterion for site identification. This has been linked with the first two chapters and the term urbanization has been associated with the economic nature of the occupation. From this it has been emphasized that the harbor town character of Kinet provided an urban nature to the site, regardless of the size of the settlement.

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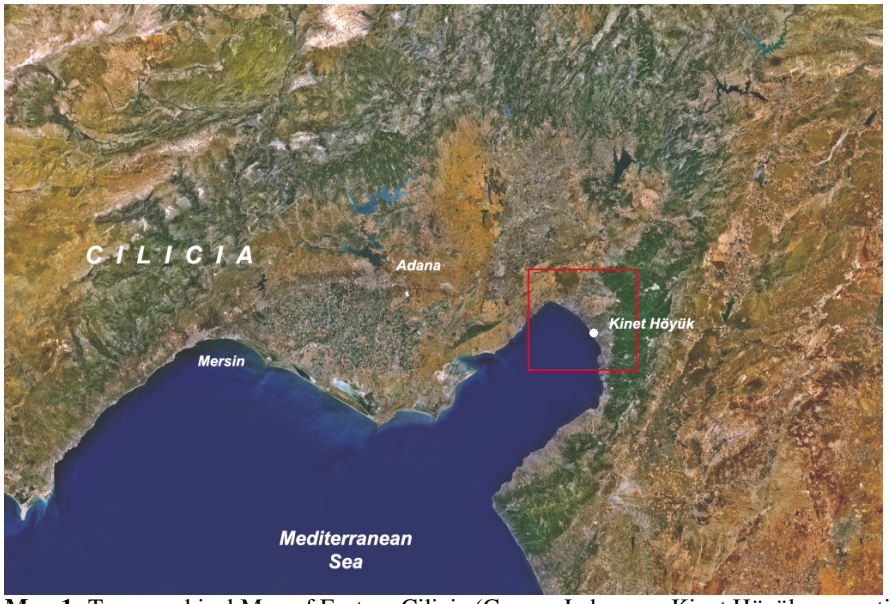
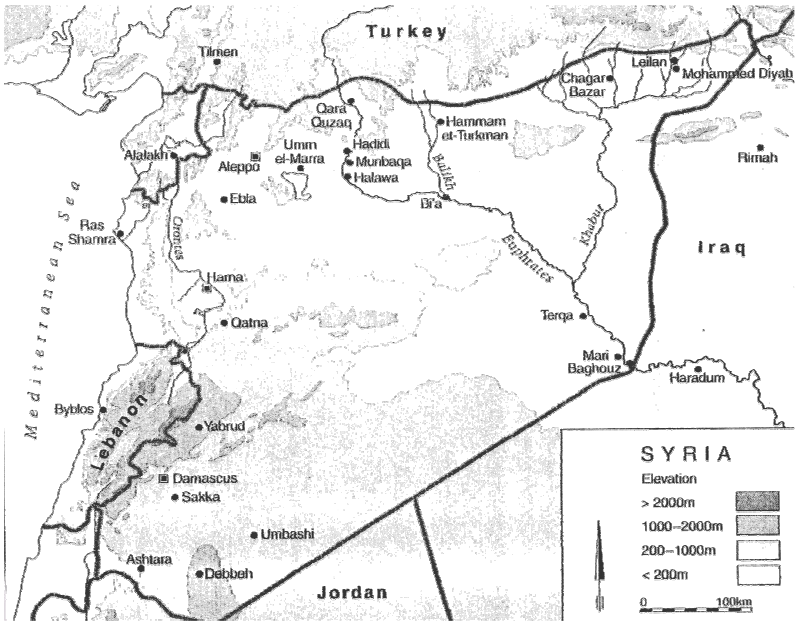
APPENDIX A

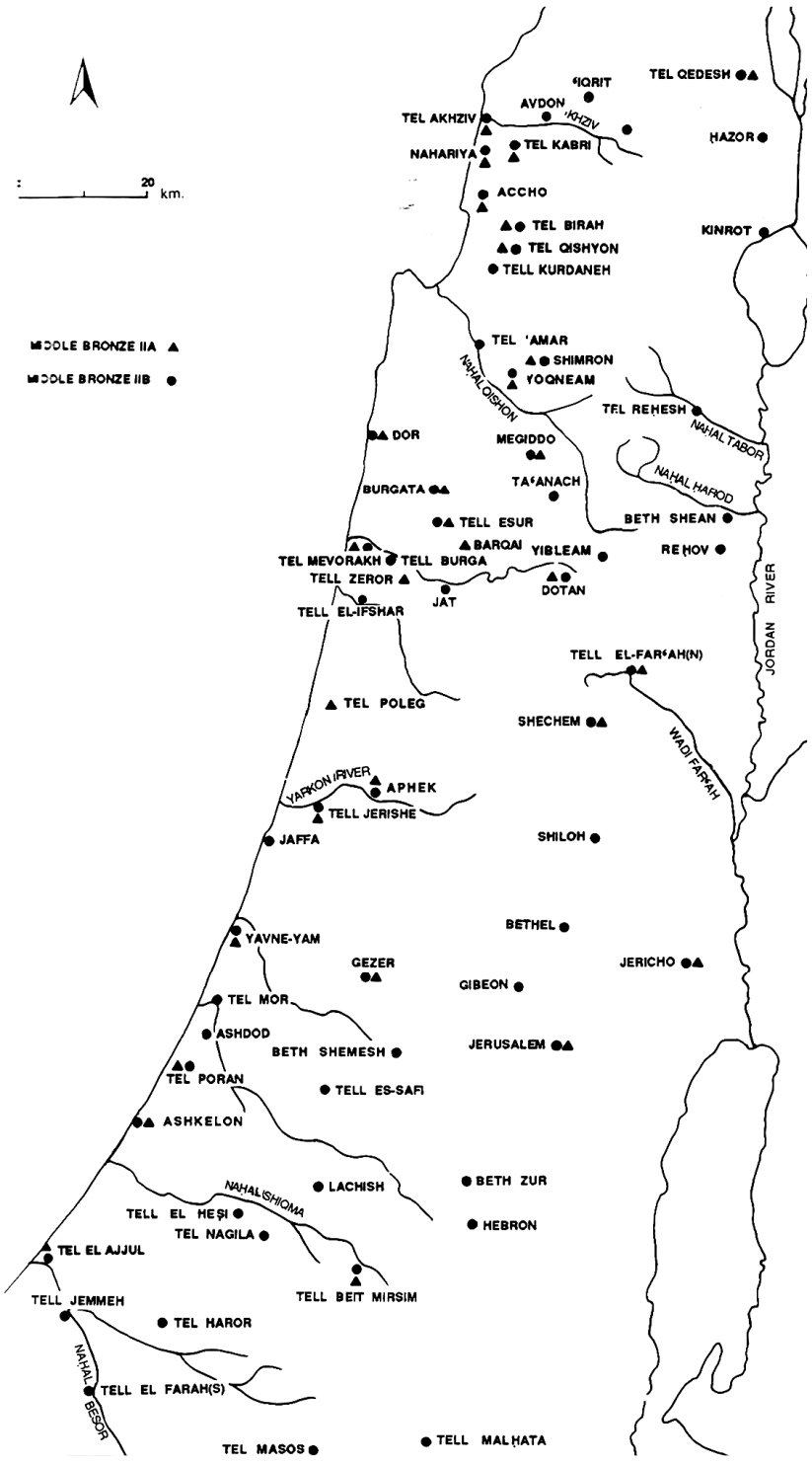
MAPS



Map 1: Topographical Map of Eastern Cilicia (Gunnar Lehmann, Kinet Höyük excavation archives).



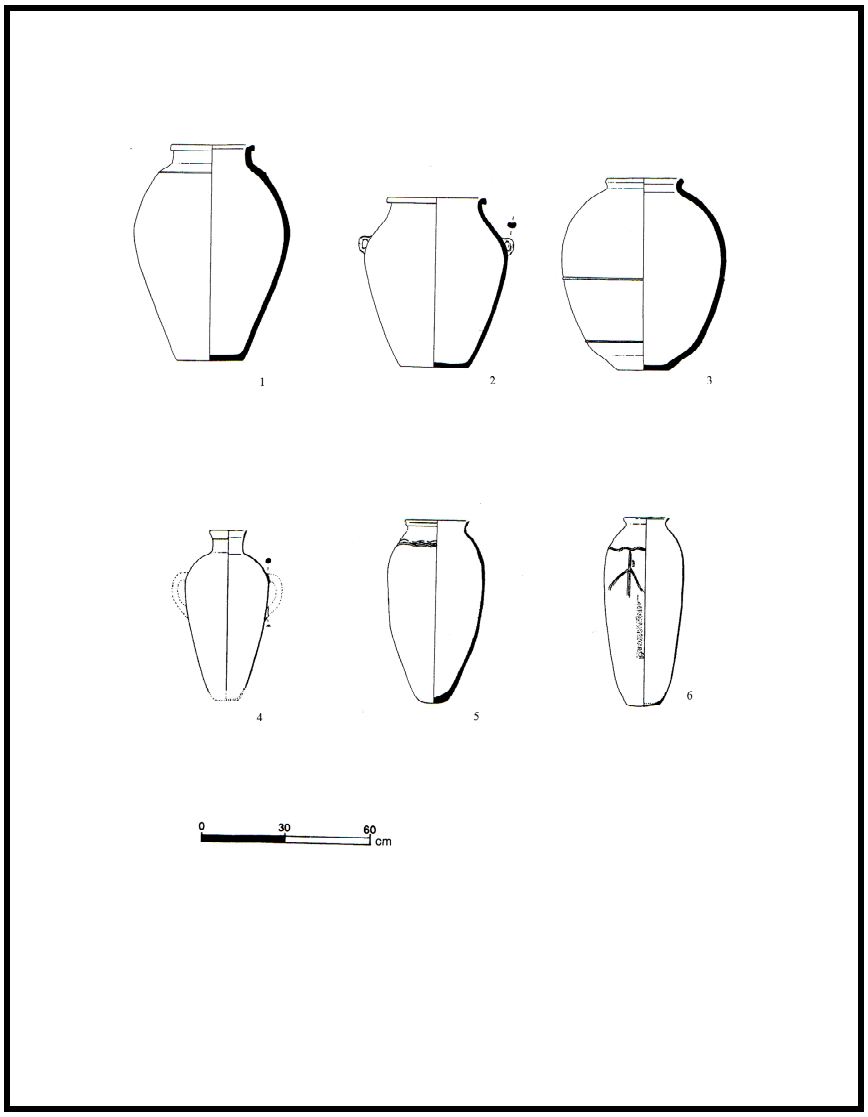
Map 2: Syria in the 2nd Millennium B.C. (Akkermans and Schwartz: 2003:234).



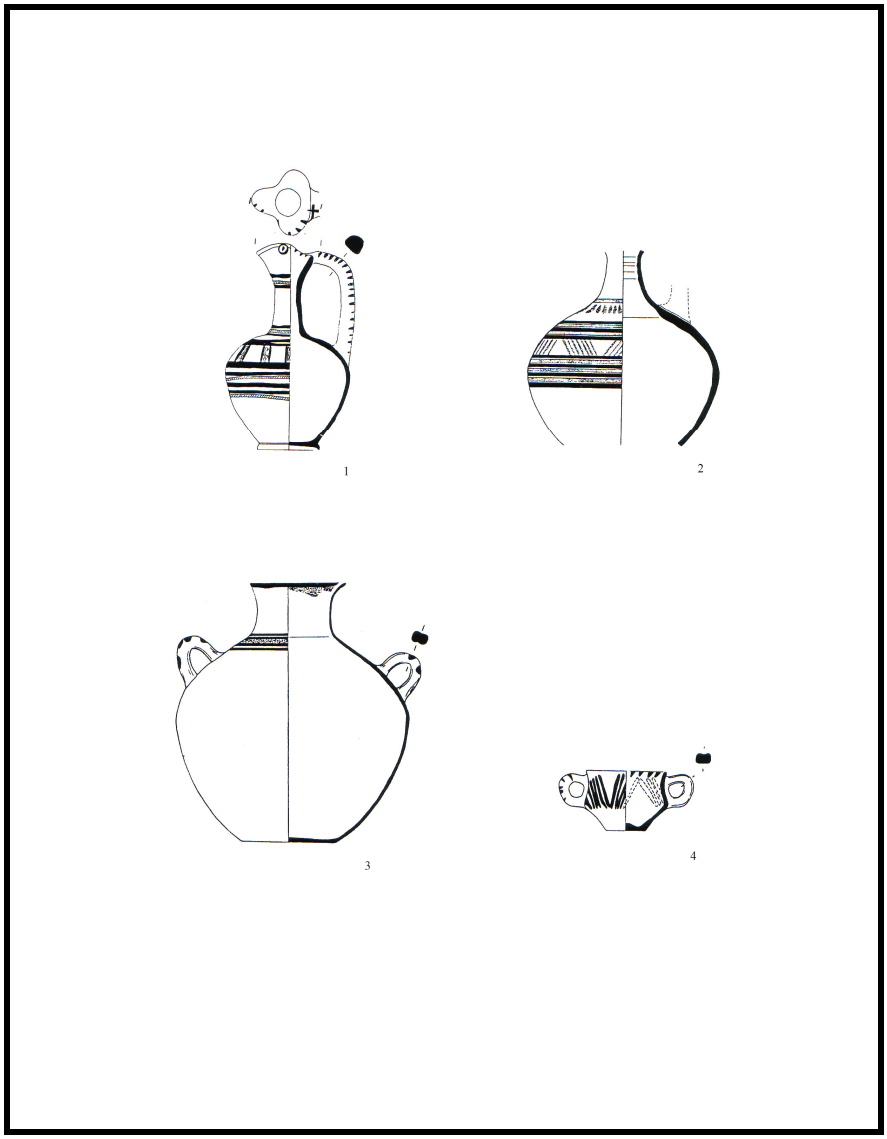
Map 3: MBII sites in the Southern Levant (Kempinski 1992: 167).

APPENDIX B

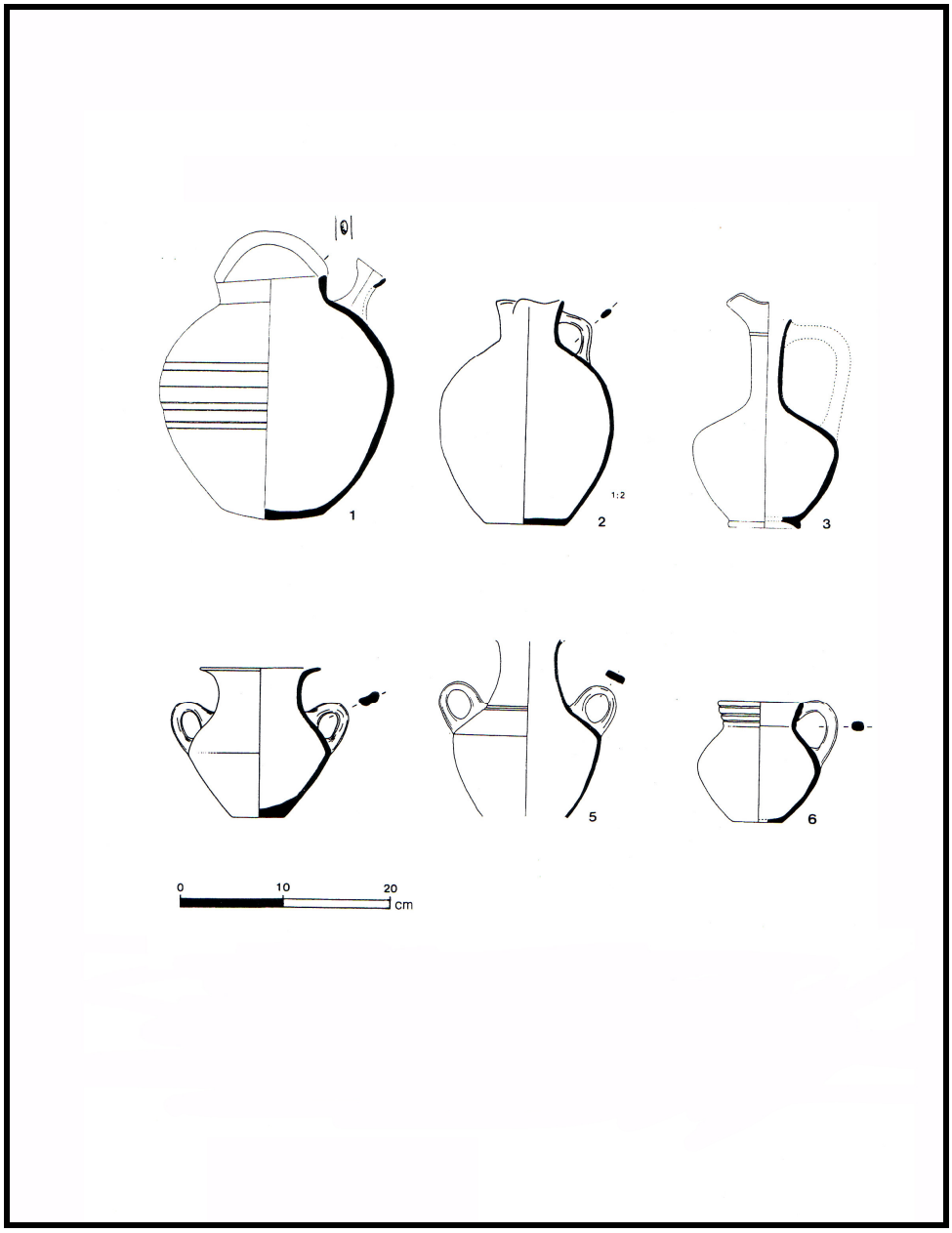
PLATES



PL 2.1 Storage Jars from the Kinet Höyük MBII Building (1-KNH 493, room 66, 2-KNH 532, room 58, 3-KNH 533, room58, Imported Jars: 4-KT 6471, room 66, 5- KT 6453, room 64, 6-KNH 1053, room 115).



PL 2.2 Painted Vessels from the Kinet Höyük MBII Building (1-KNH 488 room 64, 2-KNH 11356 room 103, 3-KNH 525 room 109).



PL 2.3 Assorted Plain and Burnished Wares from the Kinet Höyük Building (1-KNH 884 room 58, 2-KNH 948 room 103, 3-KNH 789 room 74, 4-KNH 939 room 58, 5- KT 6484 room 64, 6-KNH 1363 room 72).

APPENDIX C

FIGURES

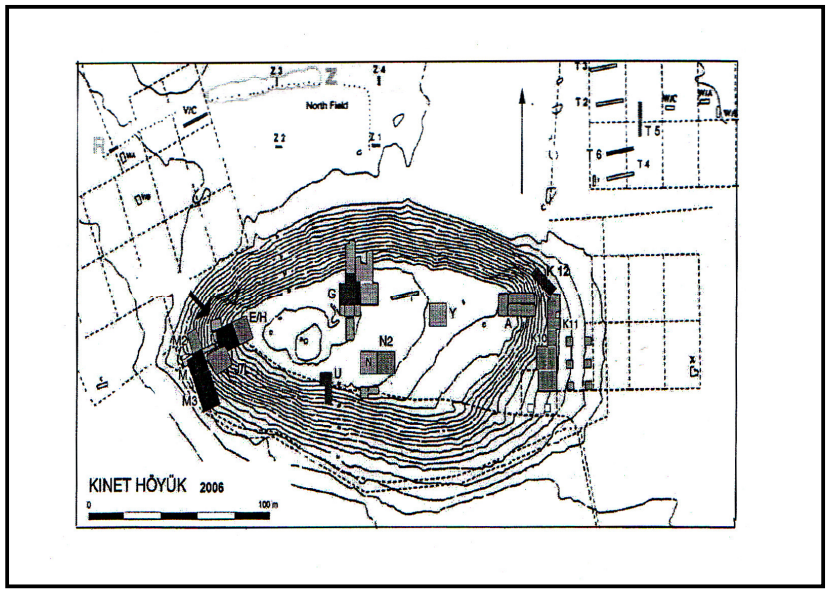


Fig 2.1: Topographical map of Kinet Höyük and its surroundings (Kinet Höyük Excavation Archives).

Fig 2.2: Aerial view of the site from West, with BP propone gas tanks in foreground (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

Fig 2.3: Kinet, aerial view with east terrace in foreground (after 2004 season)

Fig 2.4: Kinet, aerial of the southern end of the building, with test trenches in lower right (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

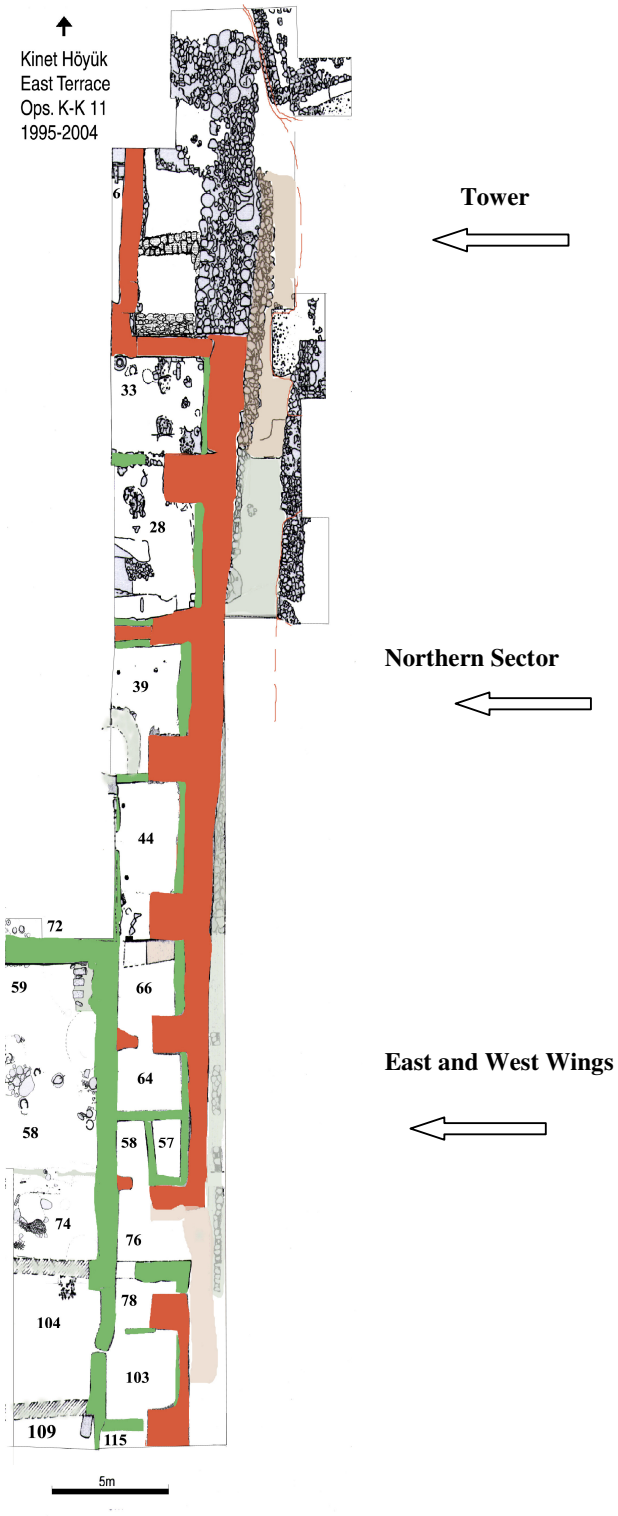


Fig 2.5: Kinet: plan of the MBII Building (Phase 1 walls in red and phase 2 walls in green color).

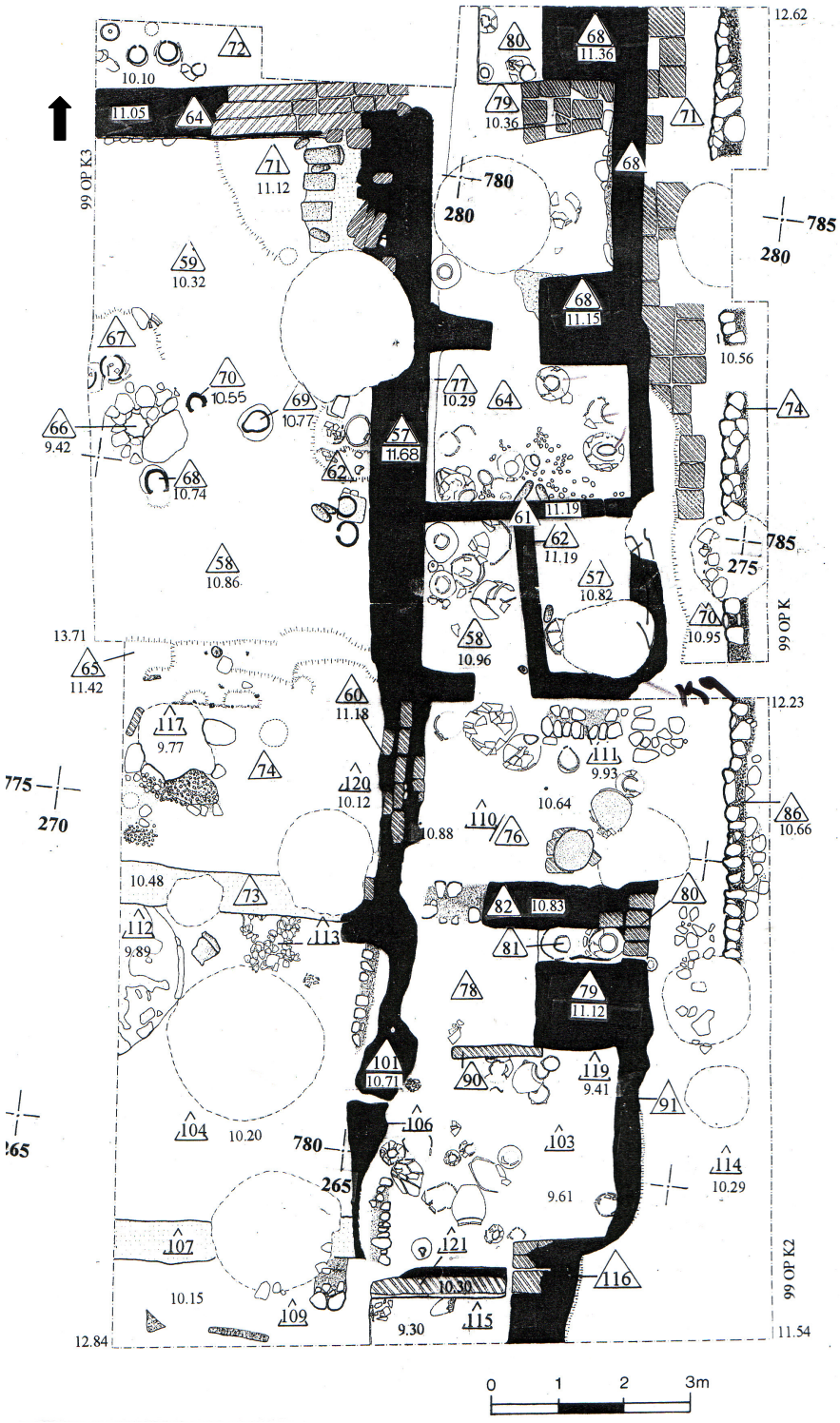


Fig 2.6: Kinet MBII building: plan of the east and west wings (Gates 2000).

Fig 2.7: Kinet MBII building: east and west wing in 1999, from N (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

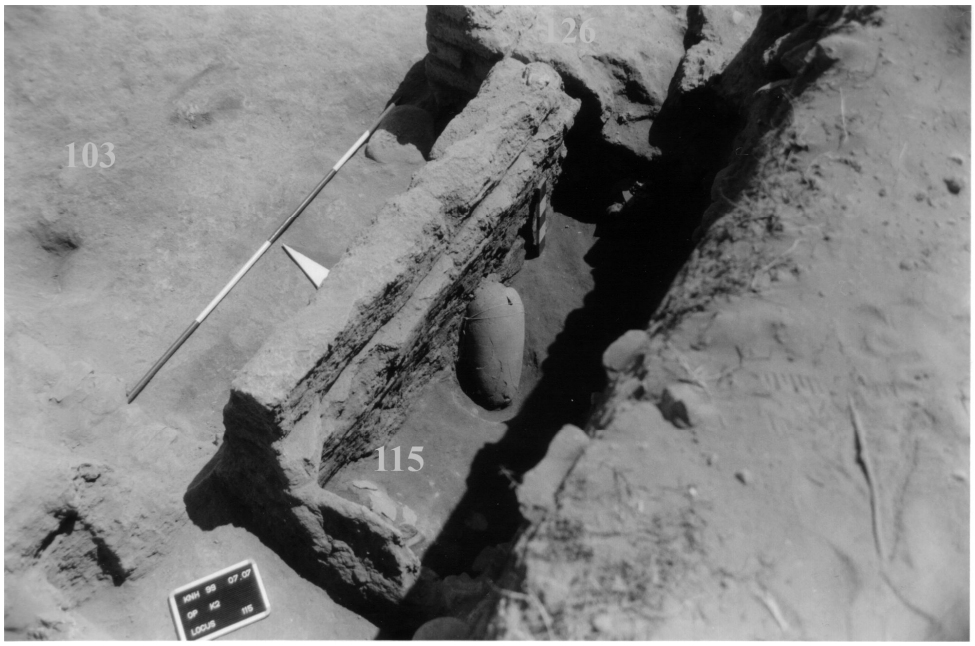


Fig 2.8: Kinet MBII building: Phase 1 floor/room 115 with in situ finds. (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

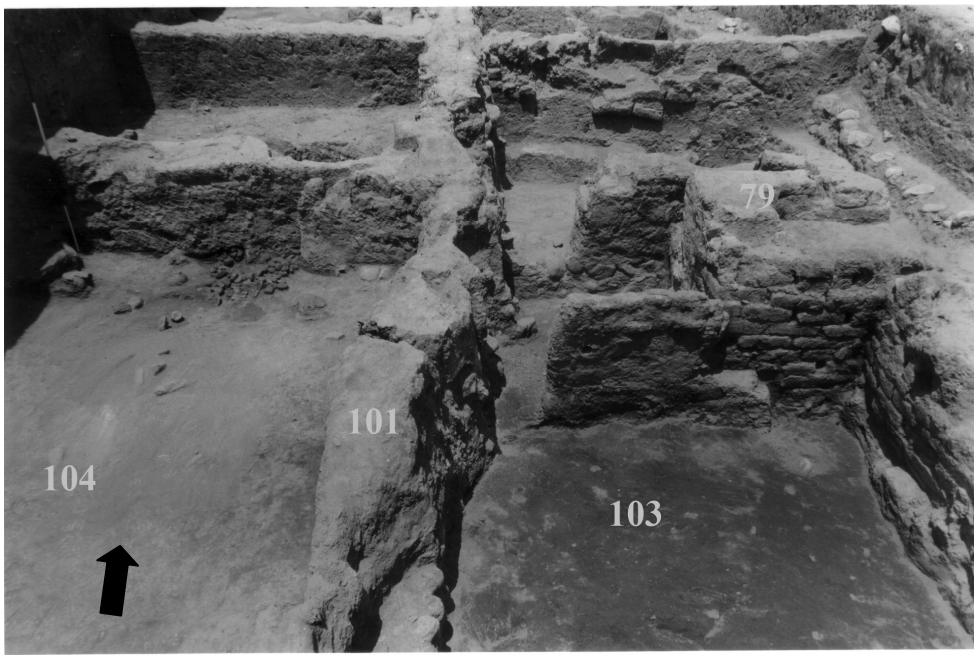


Fig 2.9: Kinet MBII building: Phase 1 floor level of the east wing (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

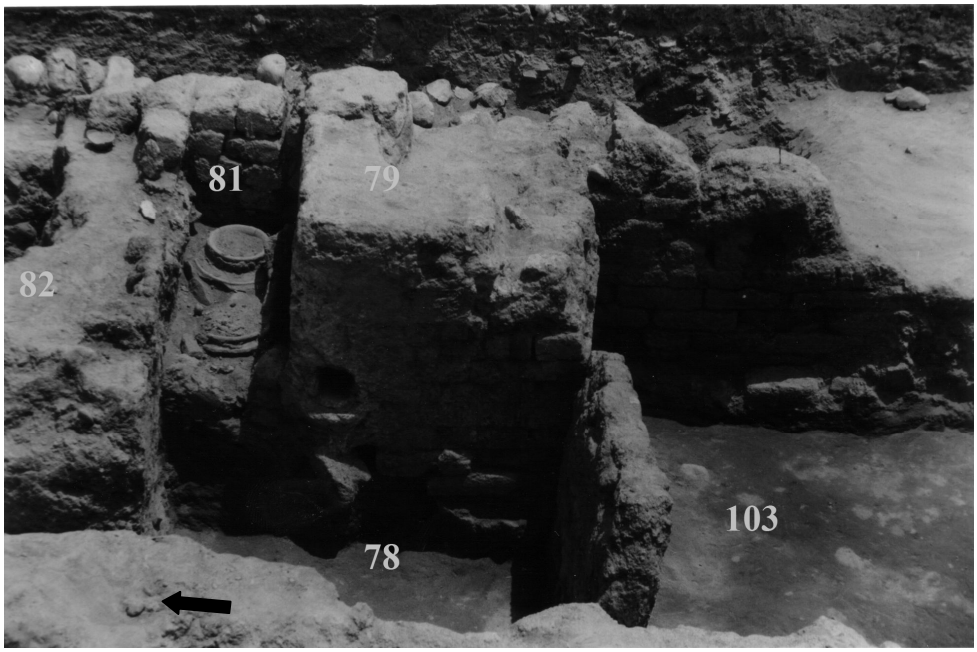


Fig 2.10: Kinet MBII building: Compartment 81, Phase 2 jars sunk into Phase 1 wall. (Photo M.-H.Gates).

Fig 2.11: Kinet MBII building: Phase 2 rooms 58, 57, and 64 from S (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

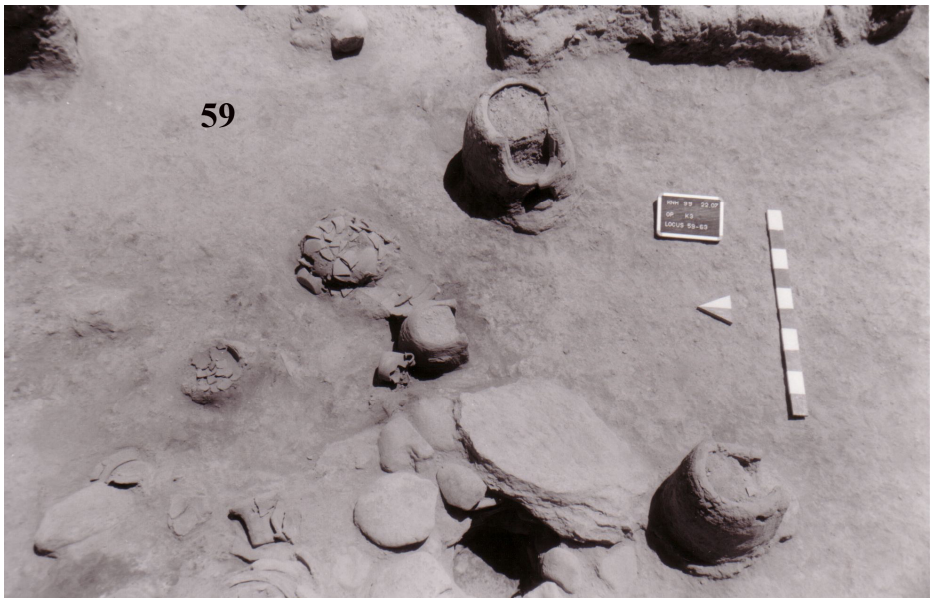


Fig 2.12: Kinet MBII building: west wing\ room 59, horshoe ovens, well and insitu remains on Phase 2 floor (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

Fig 2.13: Kinet MBII building: west wing room 59, brick bench with grinding stones on top (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

Fig 2.14: Kinet MBII building: westwing room 59, Phase2 features against wall 57 (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

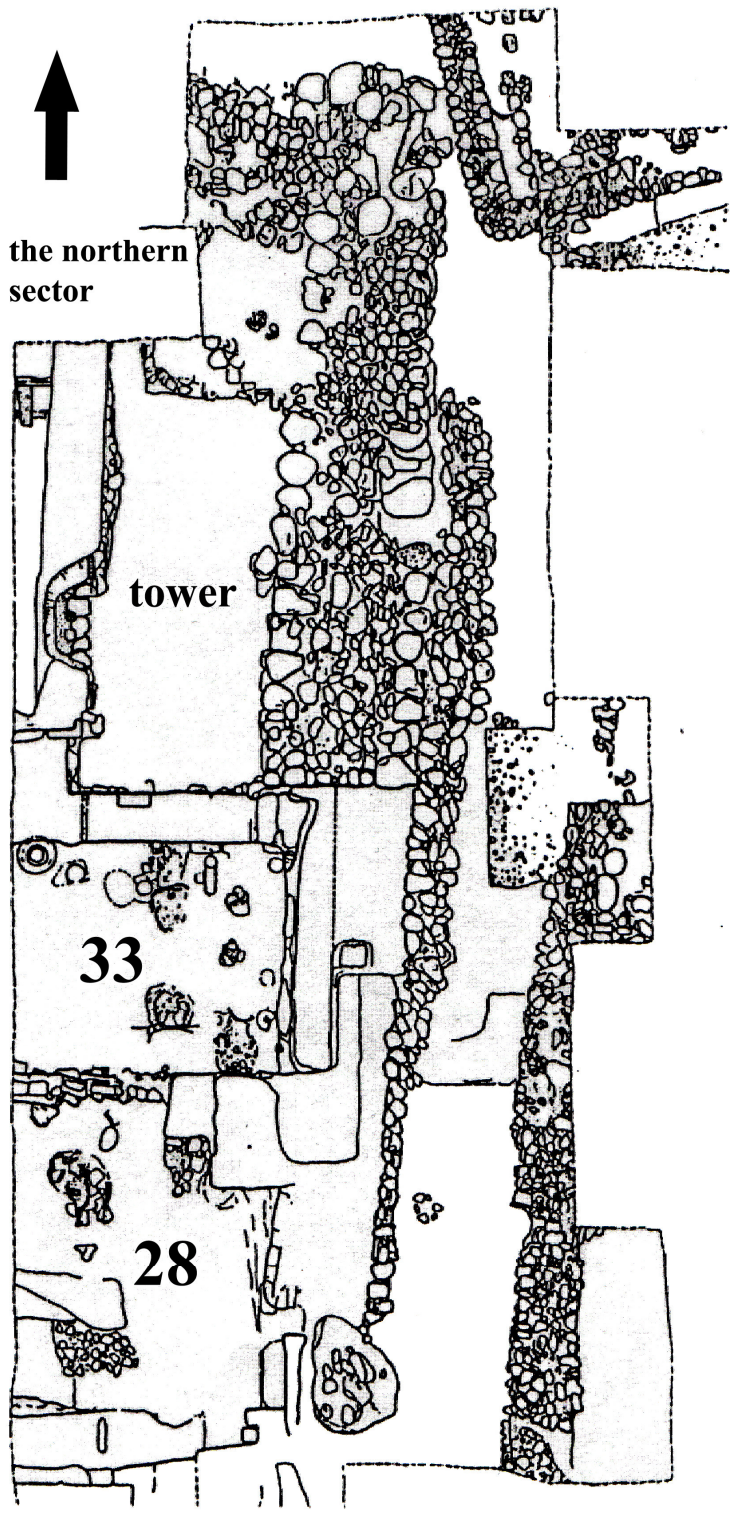


Fig 2.15: Kinet MBII building: plan of the northern section of the building.

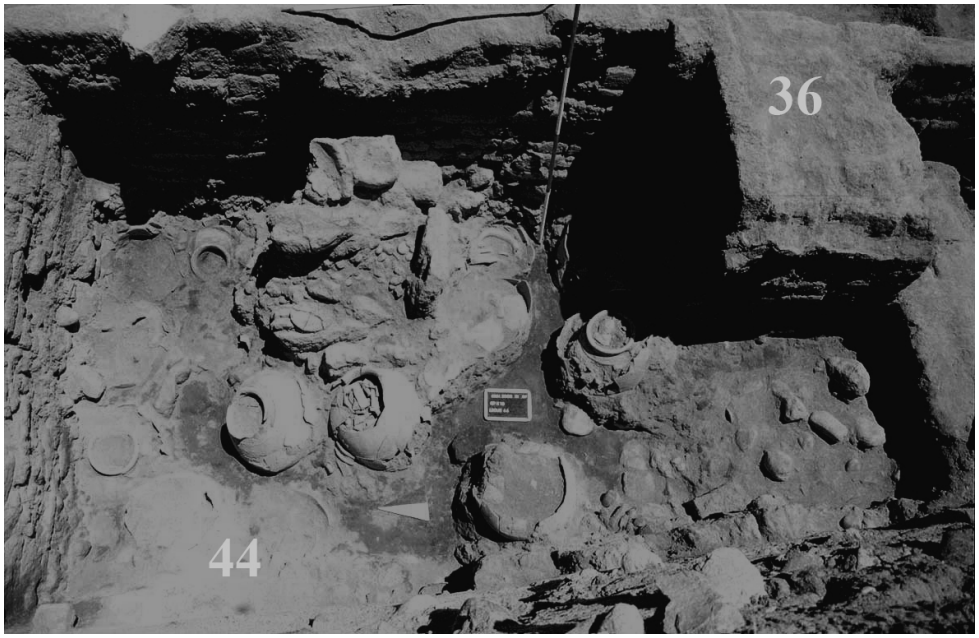


Fig 2.16: Northern Sector/ Room 44, phase 1 remains in situ (photograph taken by M. H.Gates).

Fig 2.17: Kinet MB II building: room 44, Phase 1 floor level (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

2.18: Kinet MBII building: rooms 44, 39 and domed feature 51 between them (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

Fig.2.19: Kinet MBII building: Phase 1, rooms 28 and 33 with Ekin Kozal as scale (Photo: M.-.Gates).

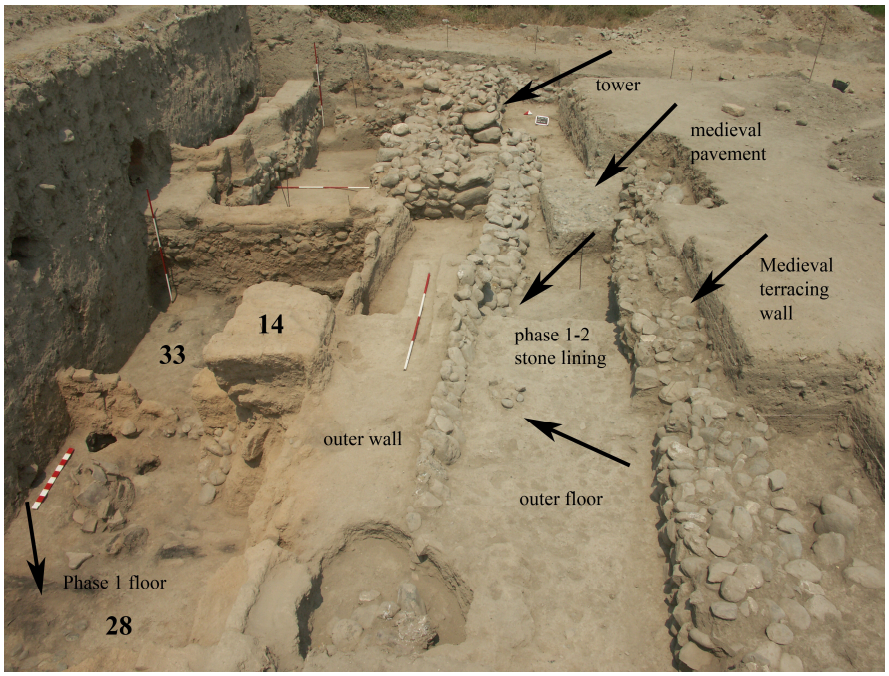


Fig 2.20: Kinet MBII building: Northern end from S (Photo M.-H.Gates).

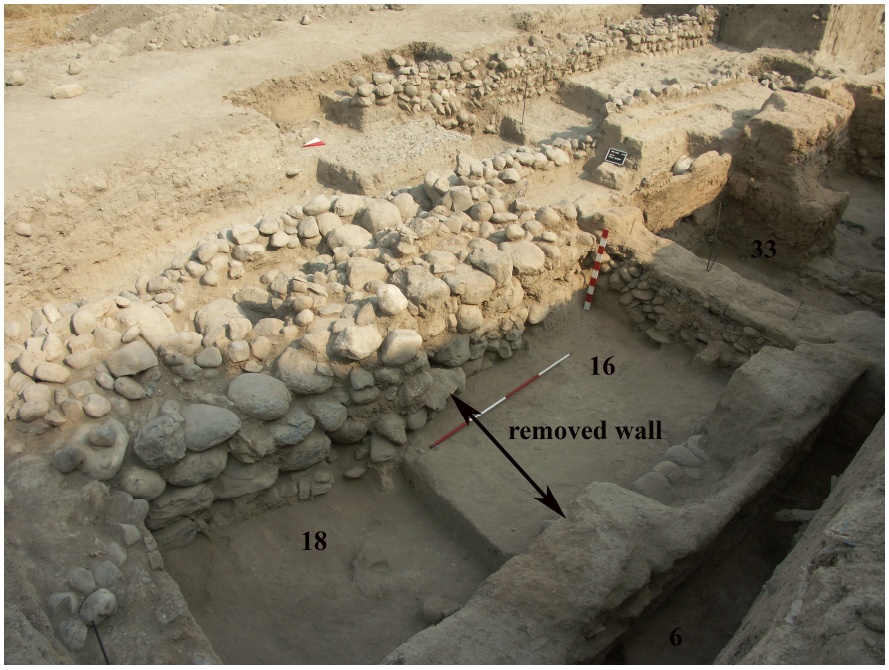


Fig 2.21: Kinet MBII building: tower construction at the northern end (Photo: M.-H.Gates).

Fig 2.22: KNH19269, room 44, CPW Two Handled Vessel.

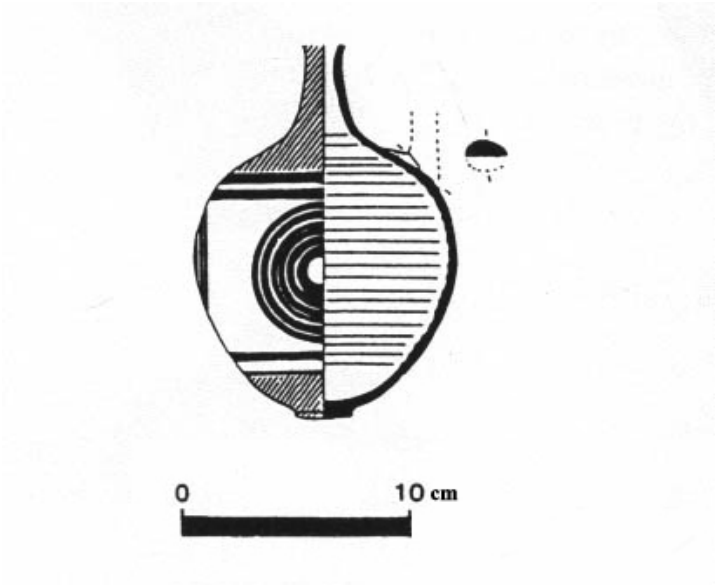


Fig 2.23: KNH 942, room 58, Levantine Painted Ware Juglet

Fig 2.24: KNH 1334, room 44, mold for duckbill axe.

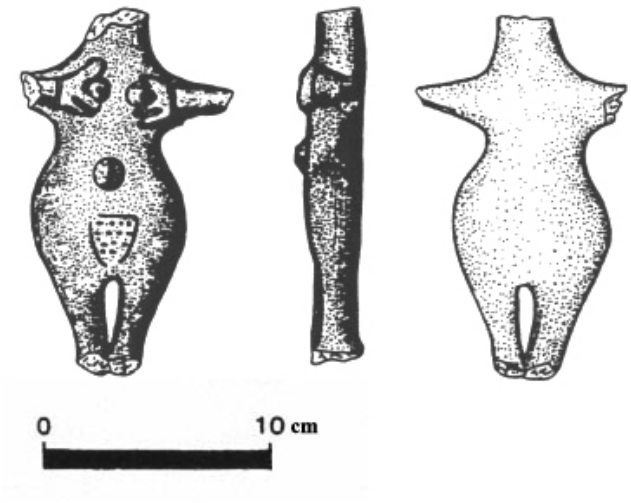


Fig 2.25: KNH 865 room 104, terracotta female figurine.

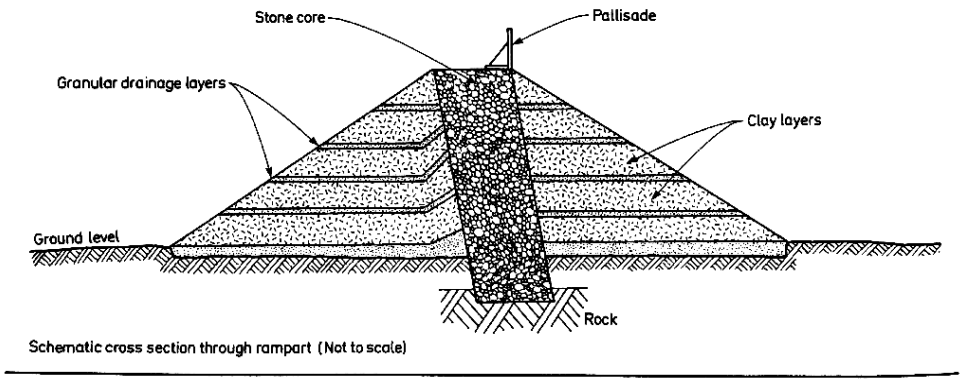


Fig. 3.1: Cross Section of a Rampart (Pennels 1983:58).

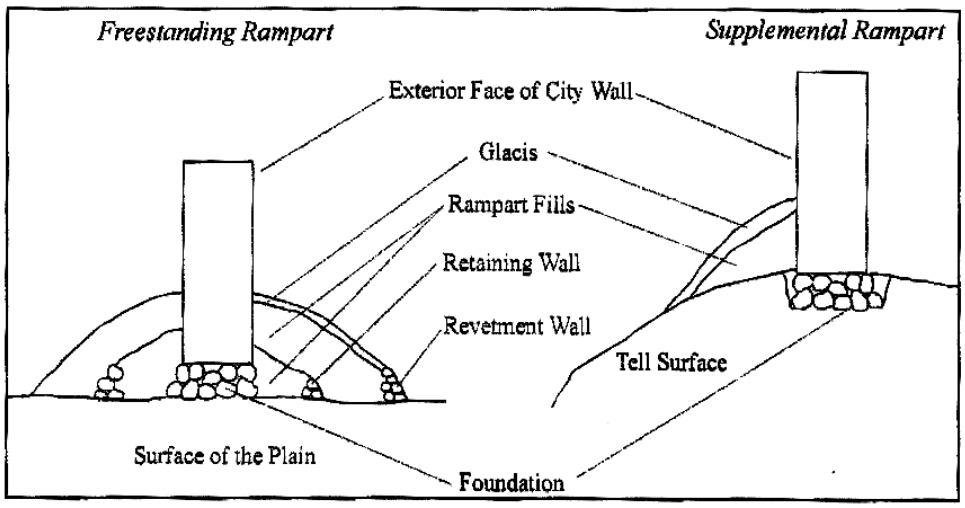


Fig. 3.2: Rampart Types (Burke 2004:97).

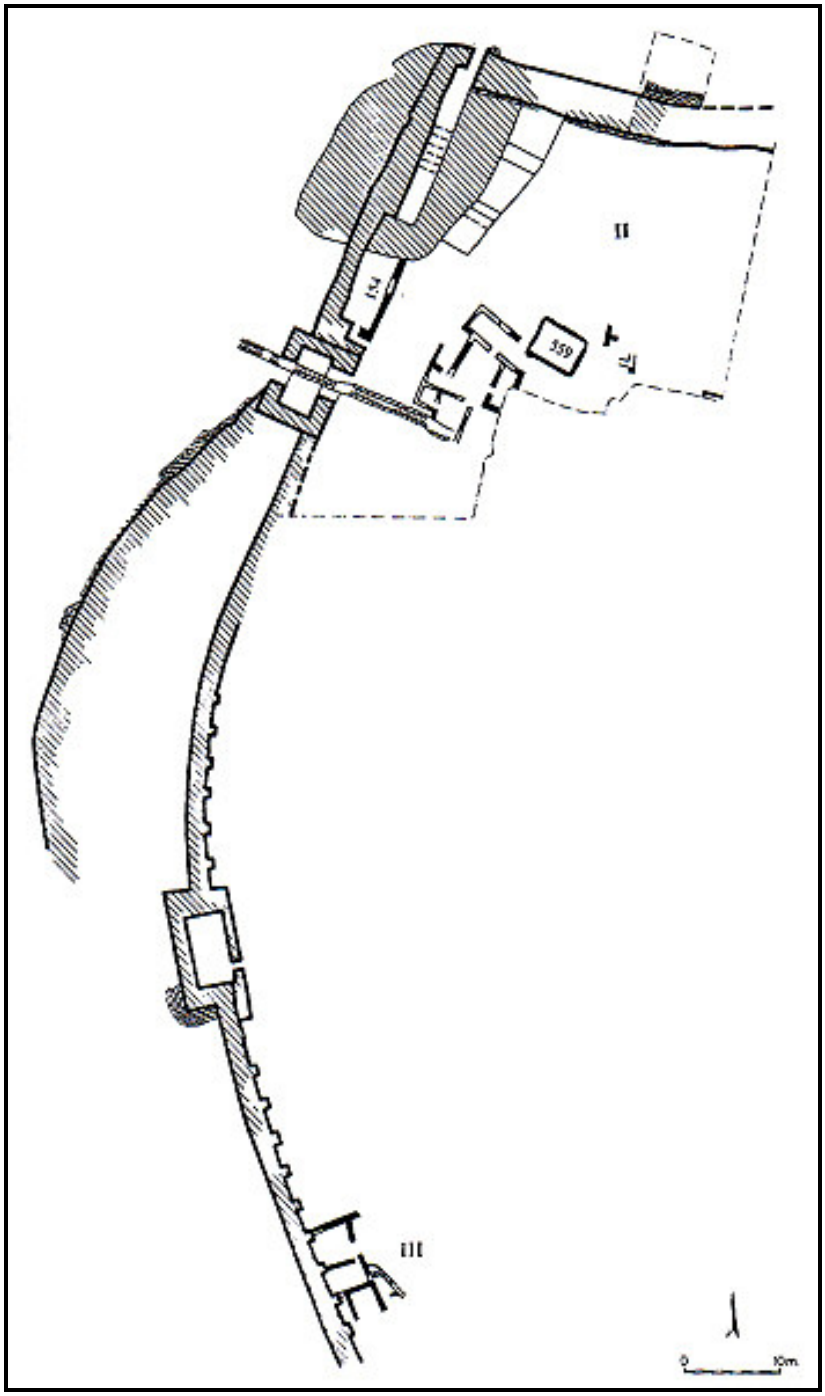


Fig 3.3: Tell el Far'ah North, site plan in MBIIB (Herzog 1977: 155).

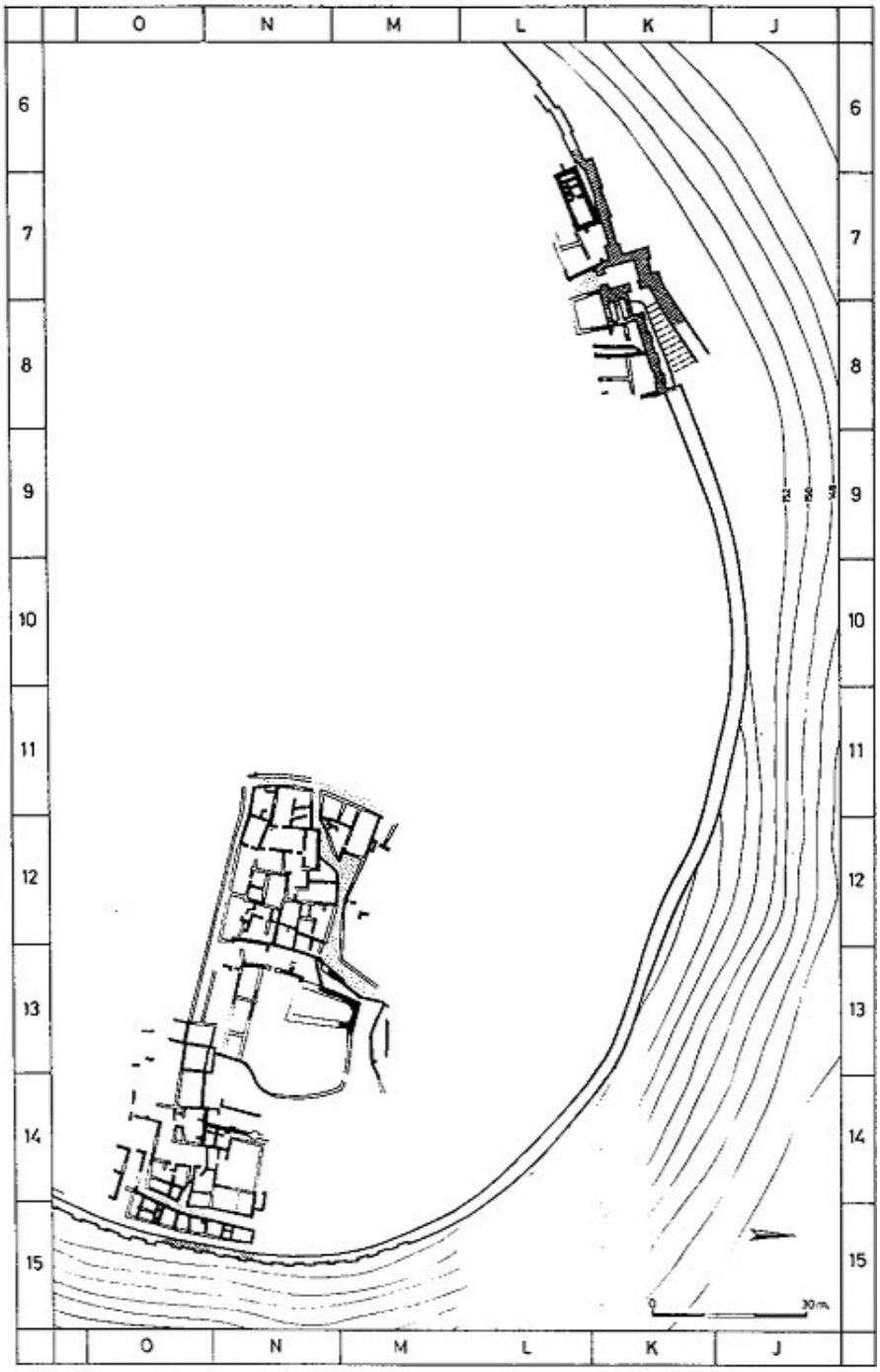


Fig 3.4: Megiddo, MBIIA stratum XIIIA (Herzog 1997: 105).

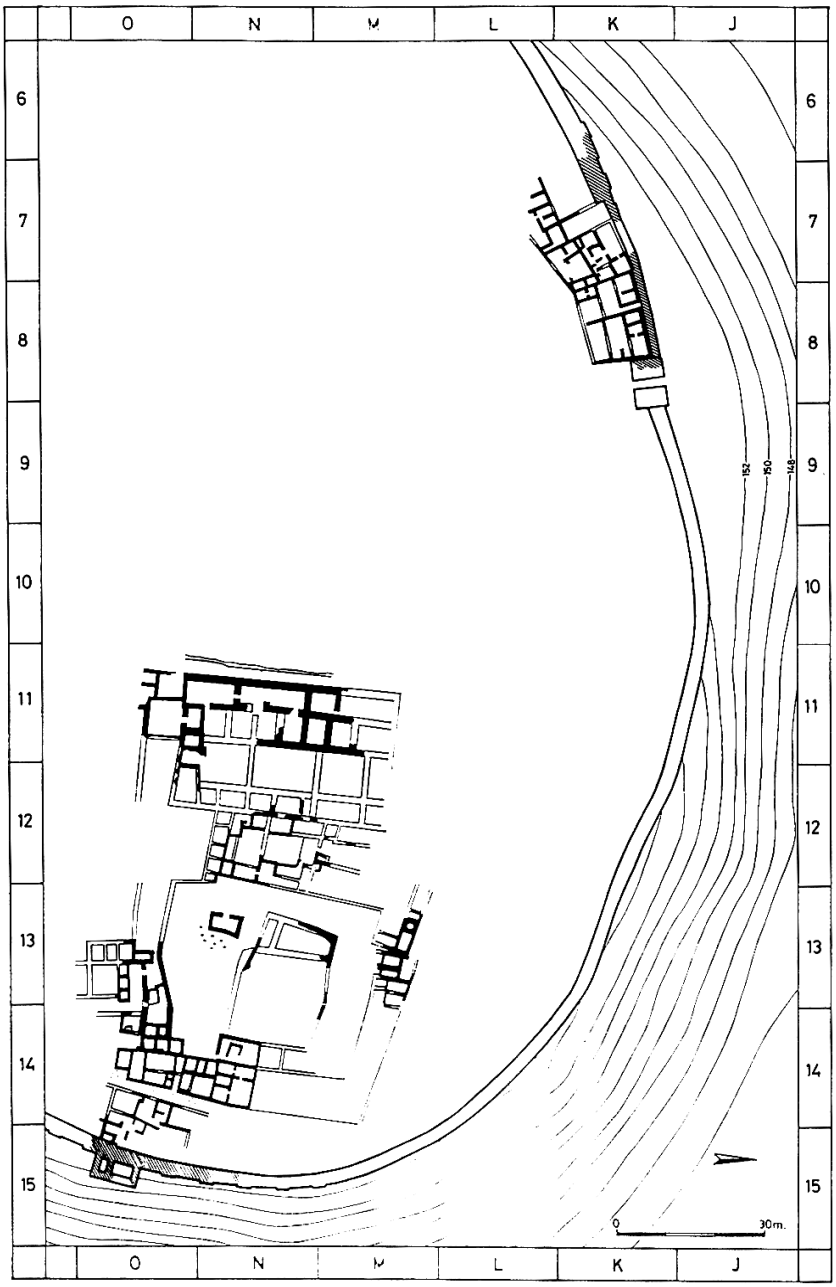


Fig 3.5: Megiddo, MBIIA stratum XII (Herzog 1997:106).

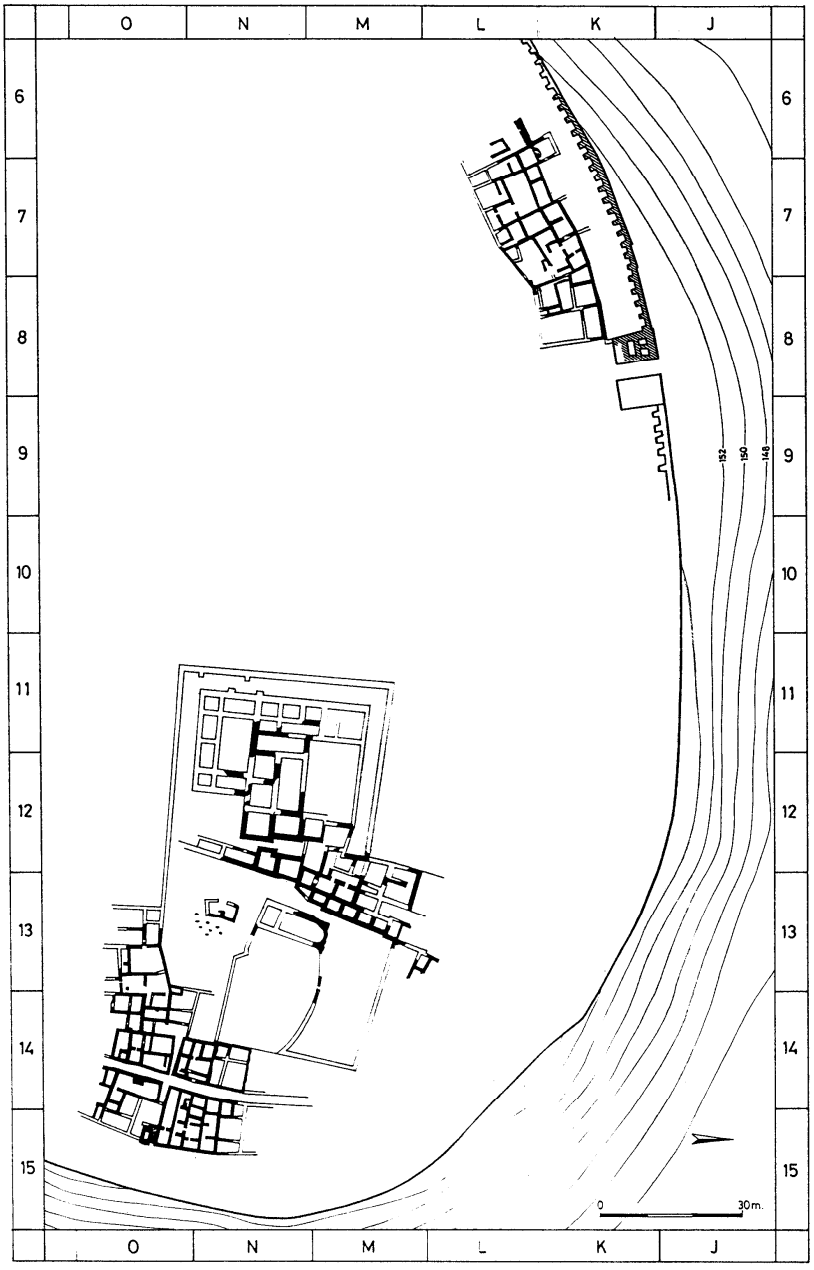


Fig 3.6: Megiddo, MBIIB Staratum XI (Herzog 1997:151)

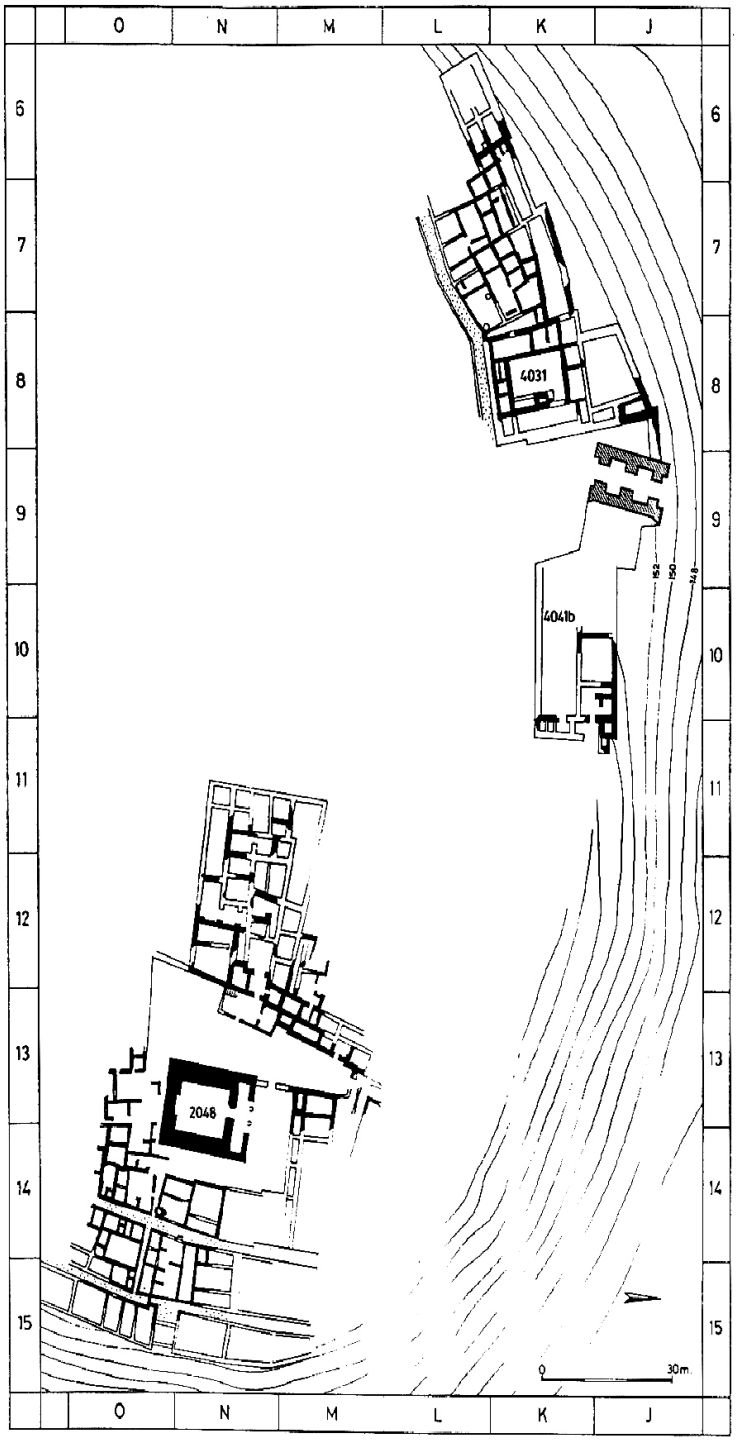


Fig 3.7: Megiddo, MIIB stratum X (Herzog 1987:152).

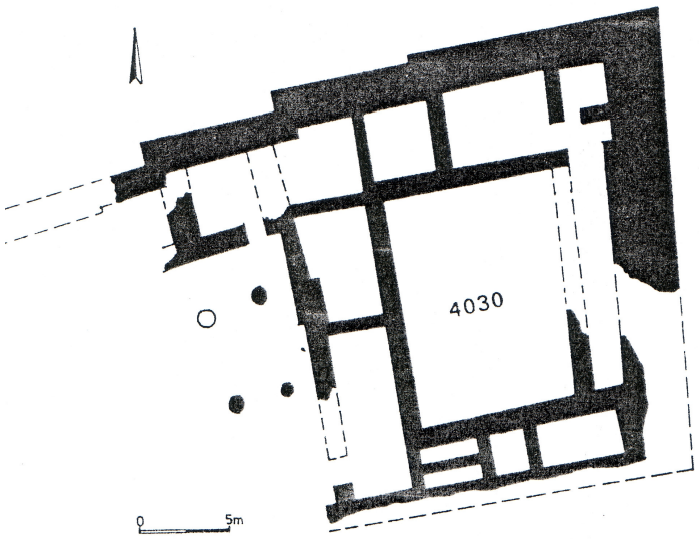


Fig. 3.8: Megiddo Stratum IX palace (Oren 1992:107)

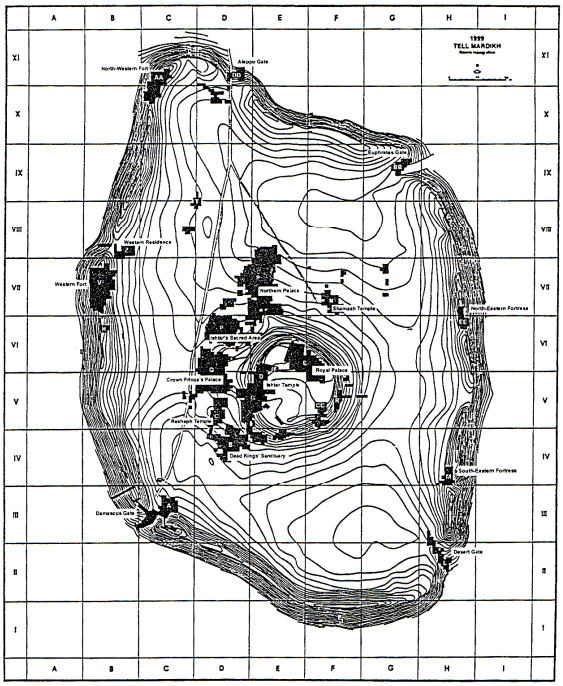


Fig. 3.9: Ebla site Plan (Pinnock 2001:14).

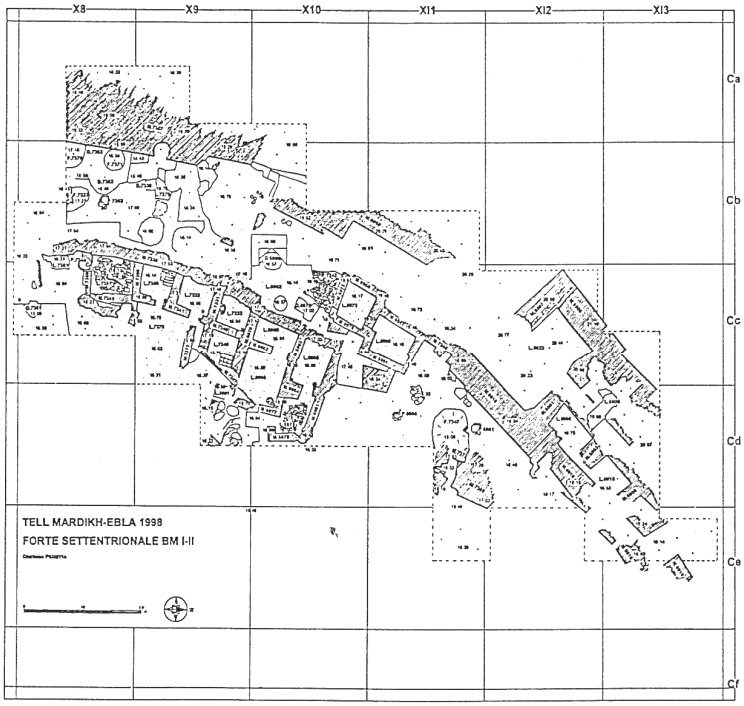


Fig. 3.10: Ebla, plan of the Northern Fort (Pinnock 2001:27).

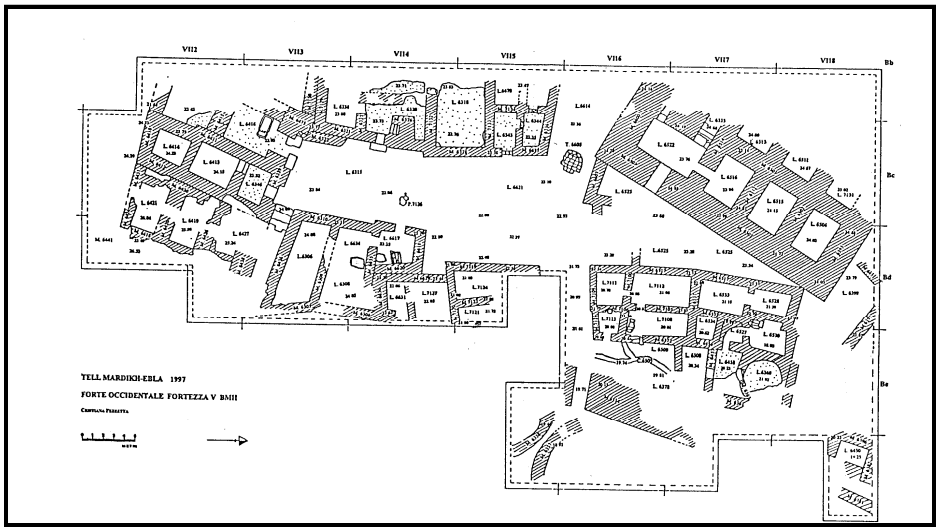


Fig. 3.11: Ebla, plan of the Western Fort (Pinnock 2001:28).

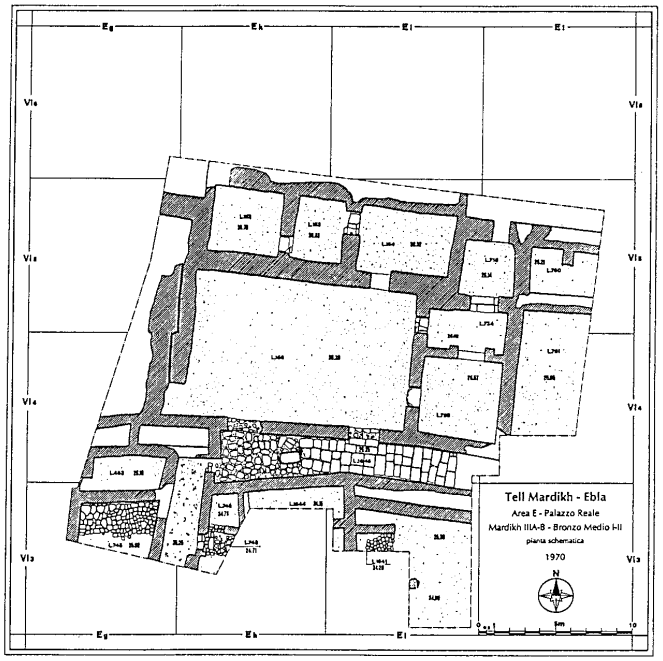


Fig 3.12: Ebla, Palace E on the acropolis (Pinnock 2001:15).

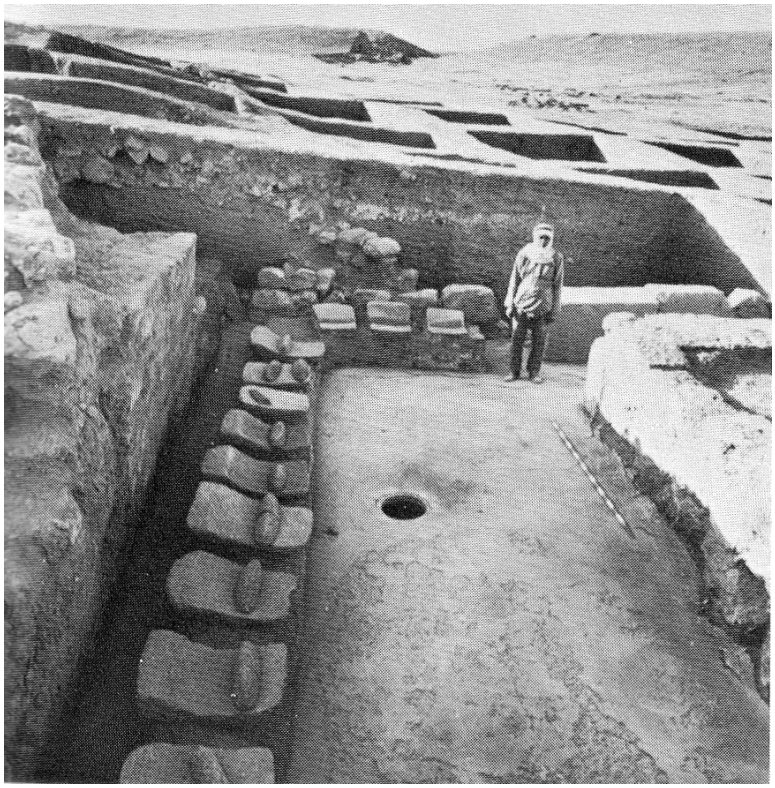


Fig 3.13: Ebla, Western Palace, grinding room (Matthiae 1985: Plate 68).

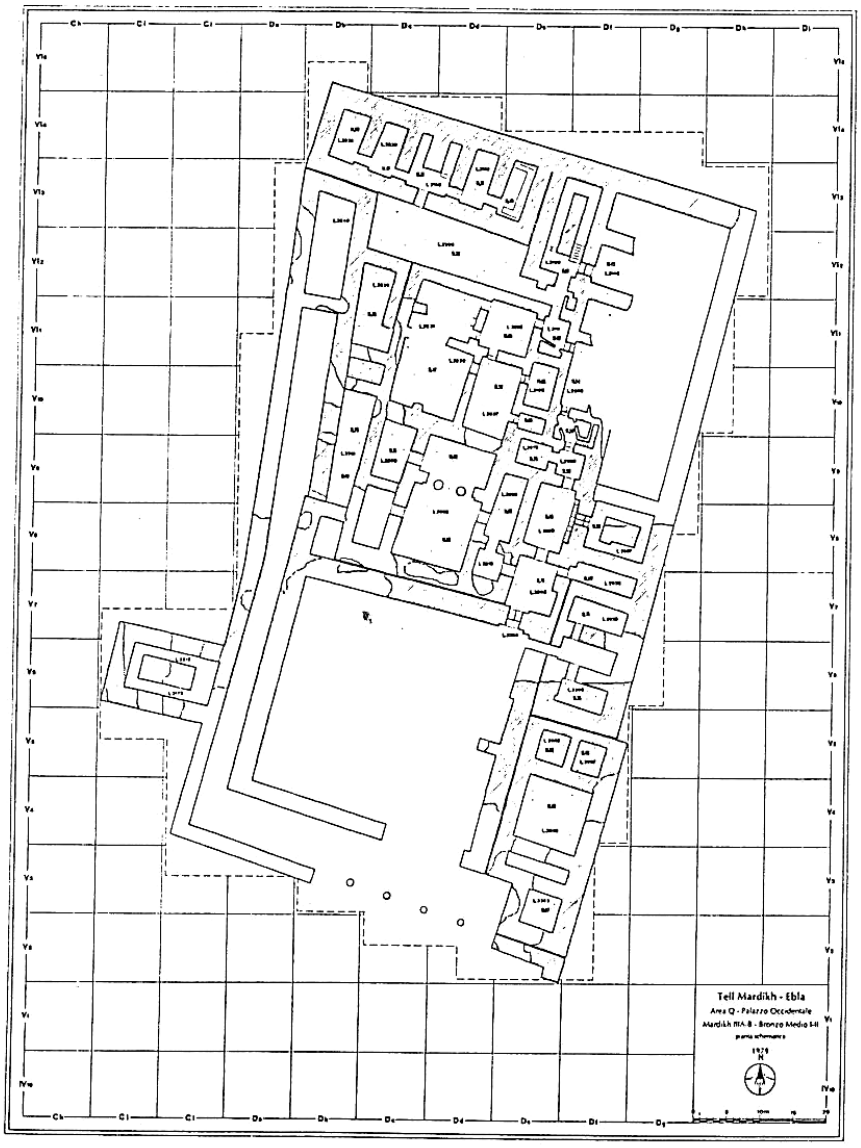


Fig 3.14: Ebla, Western Palace (Q) (Pinnock 2001:23).

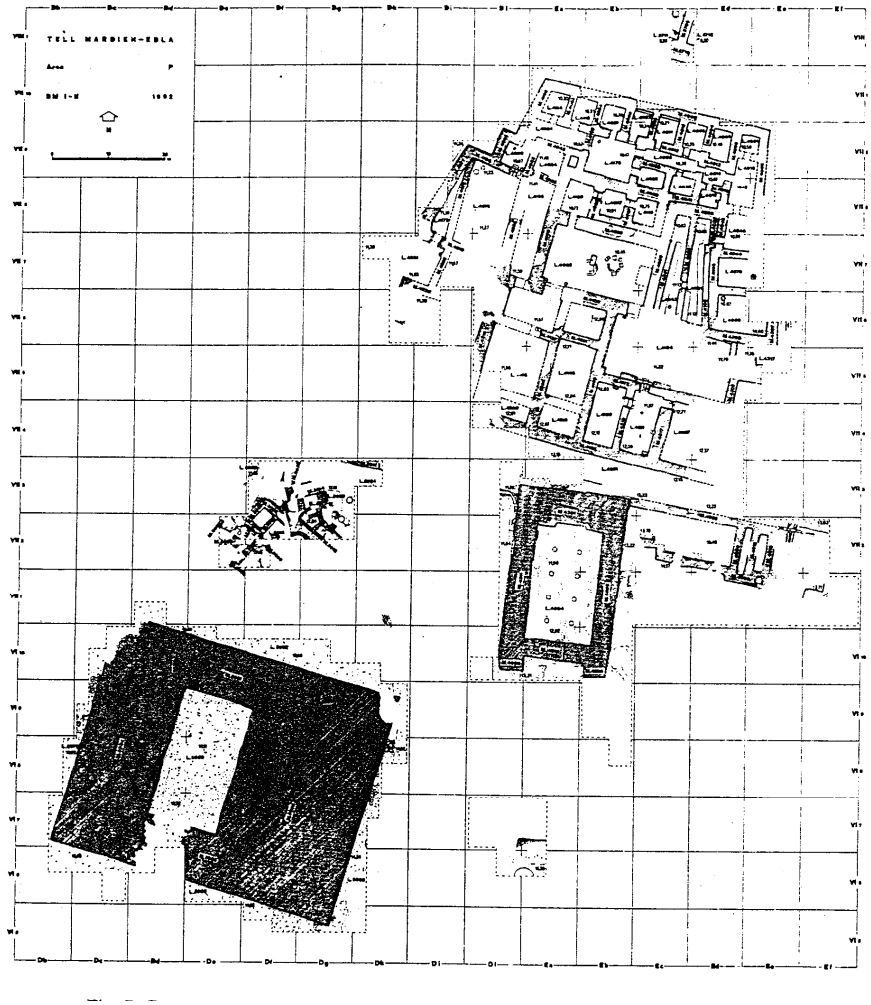


Fig 3.15: Ebla, Area P, the northern palace P (Pinnock 2001:20).

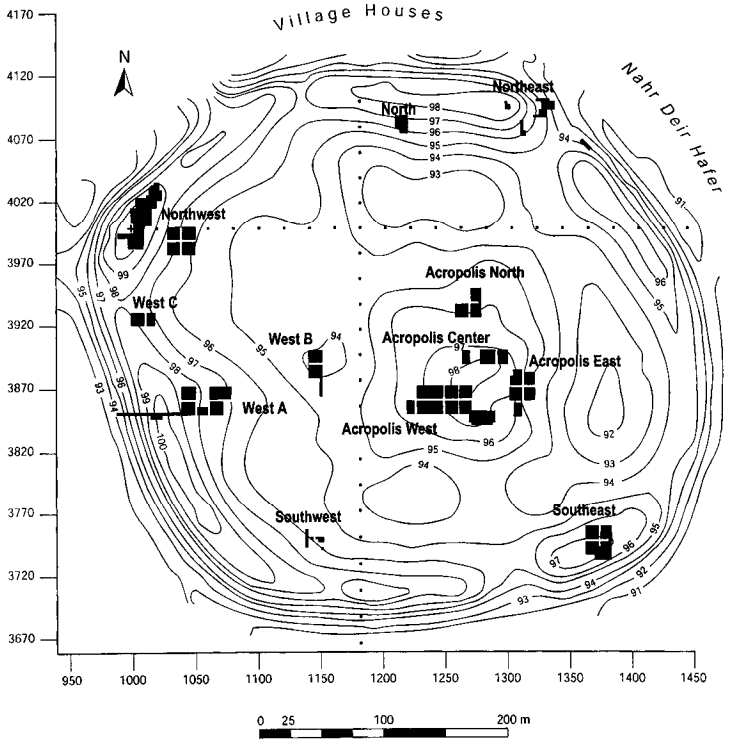


Fig. 3.16: Umm el-Marra, site plan (Schwartz et.al. 2000:420).

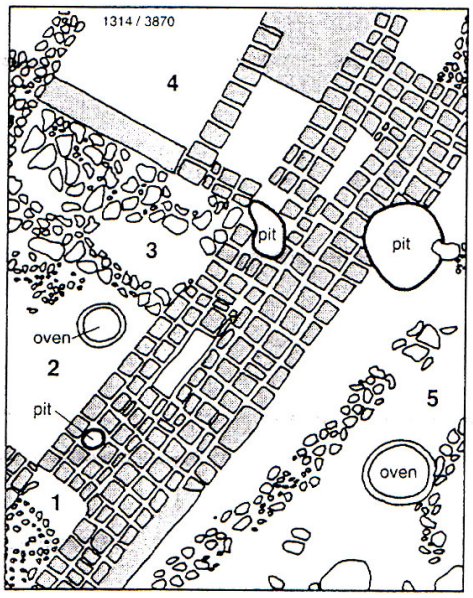


Fig 3.17: Umm el-Marra, MBA Acropolis -East (Schwartz ,et.al. 1997:215).

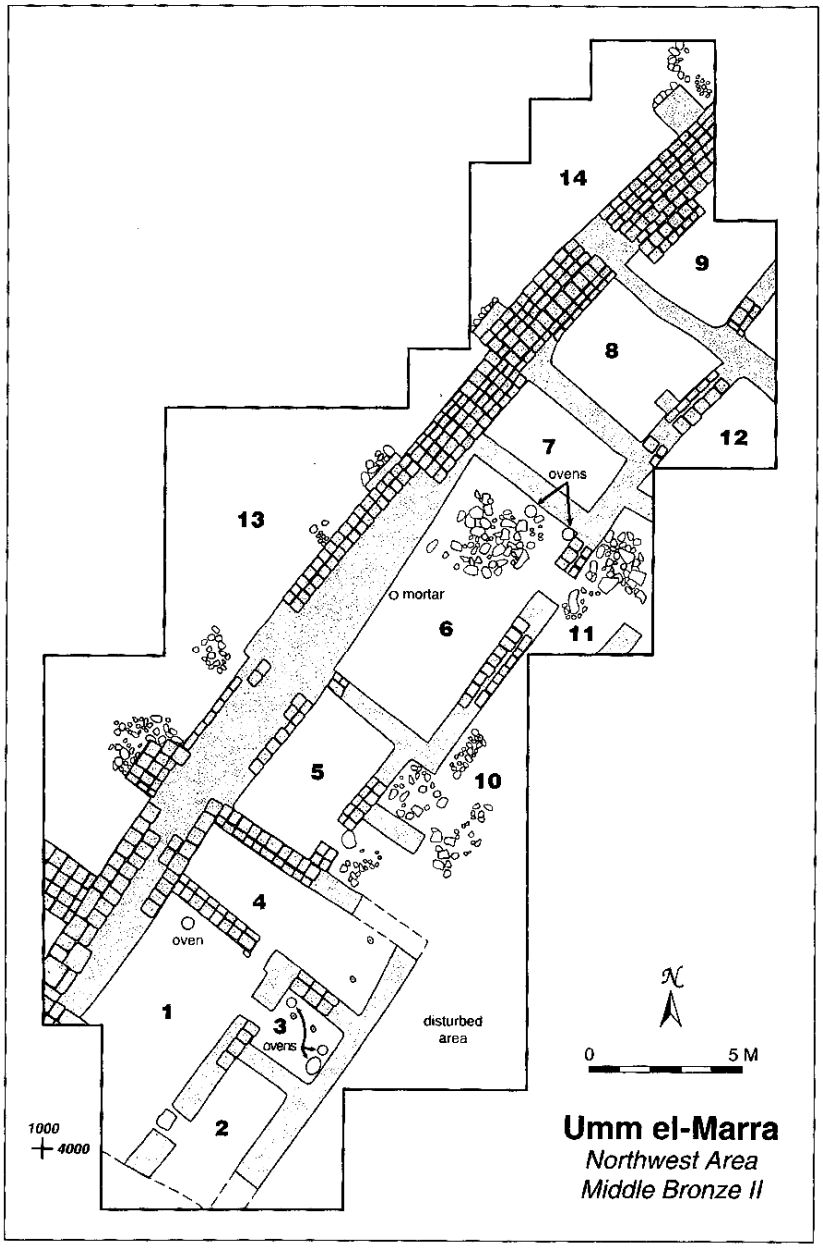


Fig 3.18: Umm el-Marra, MBII Northwest Building (Schwartz et.al. 2003:344).

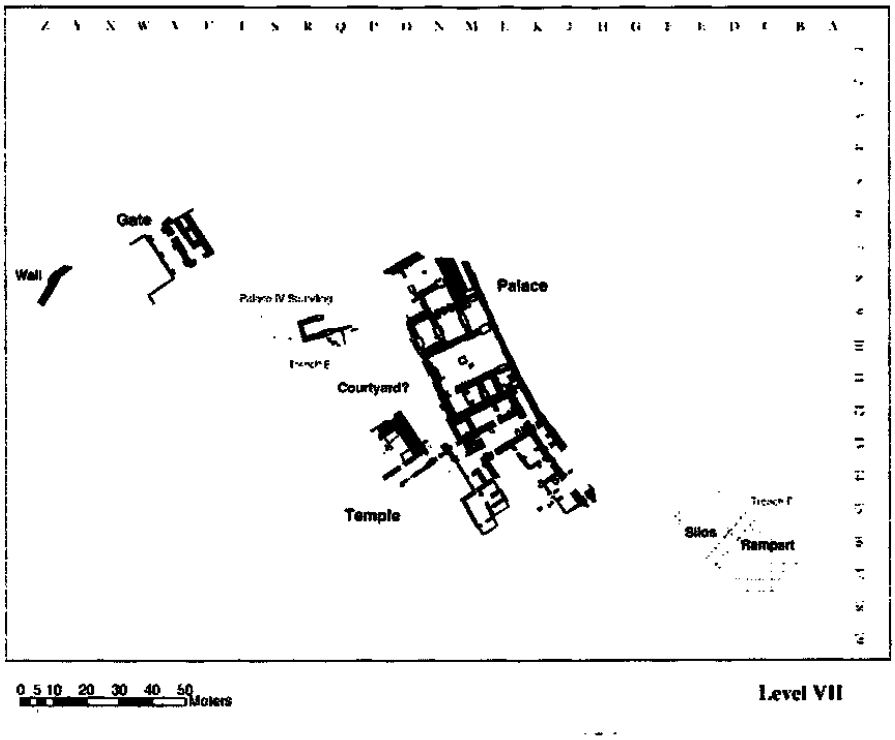


Fig. 3.19: Tell Atchana Level VII architecture (Yener 2005:138, illustration by A Burke).

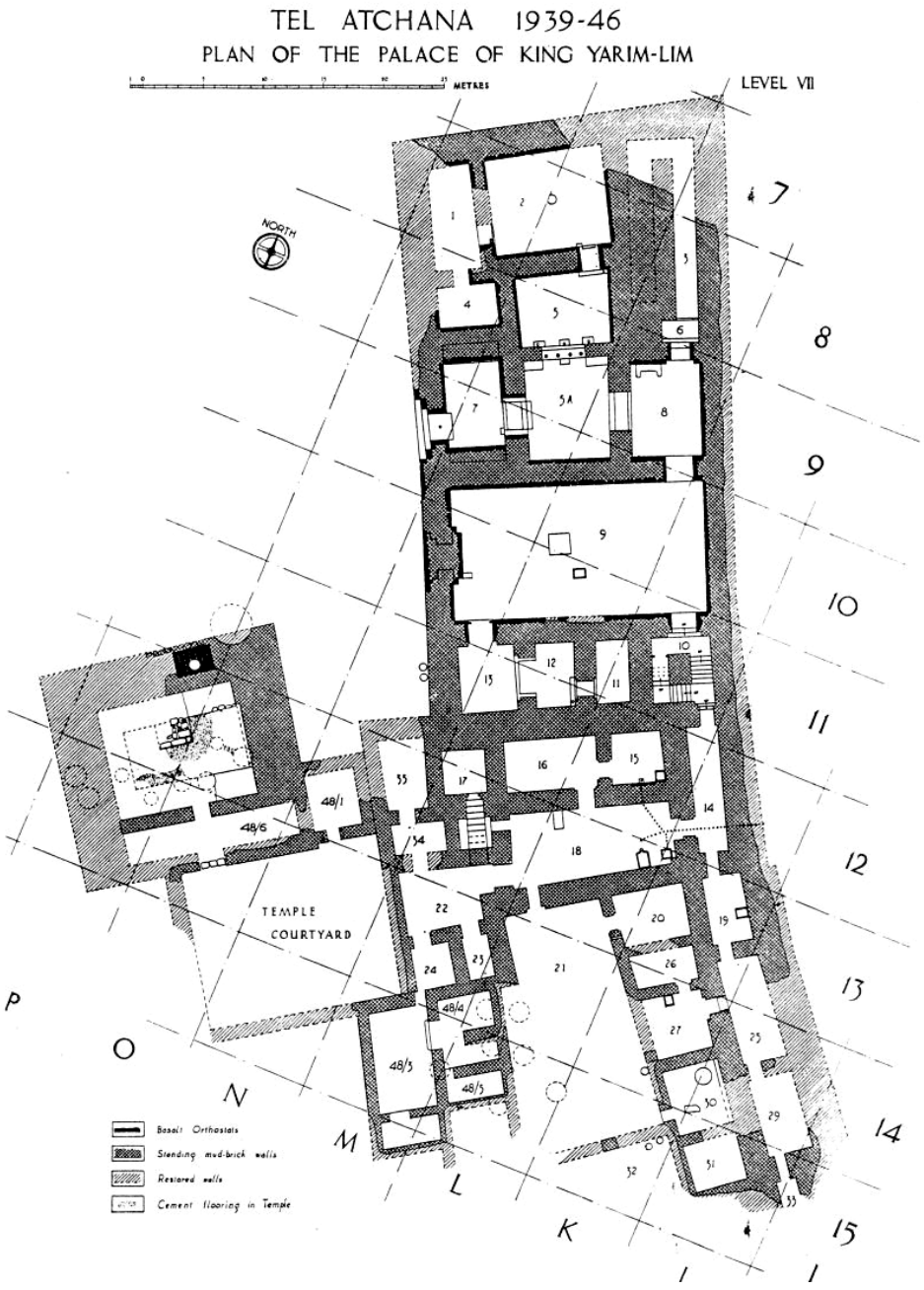


Fig 3.20: Tell Atchana, Level VII Palace (Woolley 1955:94).

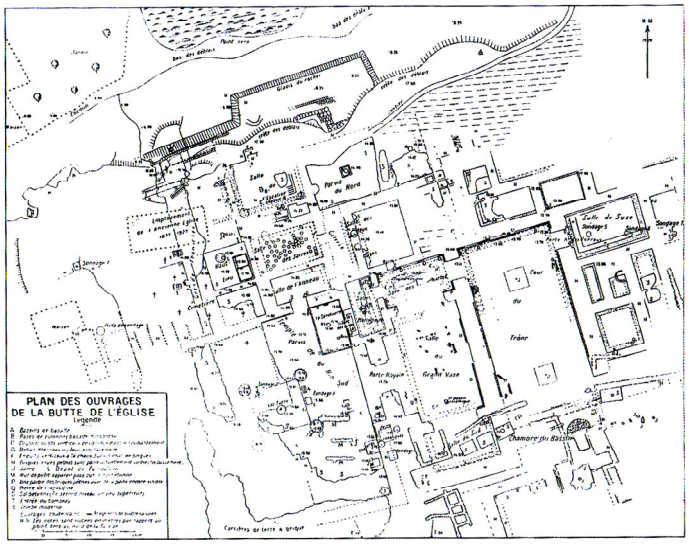


Fig 3.21: Qatna, Bronze Age Palace 1935 plan [Du Mesnil du Buisson] (Novak and Pfalzner 2002: 75).

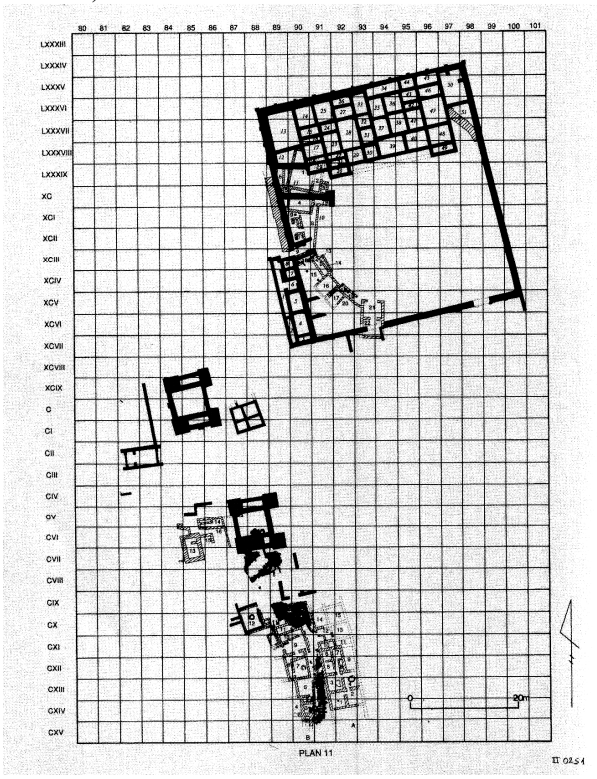


Fig 3.22: Kültepe\ Neşa, Acropolis Level M7, with the 'New Palace' in N (Özgüç 2003:70).

Fig 3.23: Zeytinlibahçe Höyük: MBII building (Frangipane and Restelli 2005: 36).

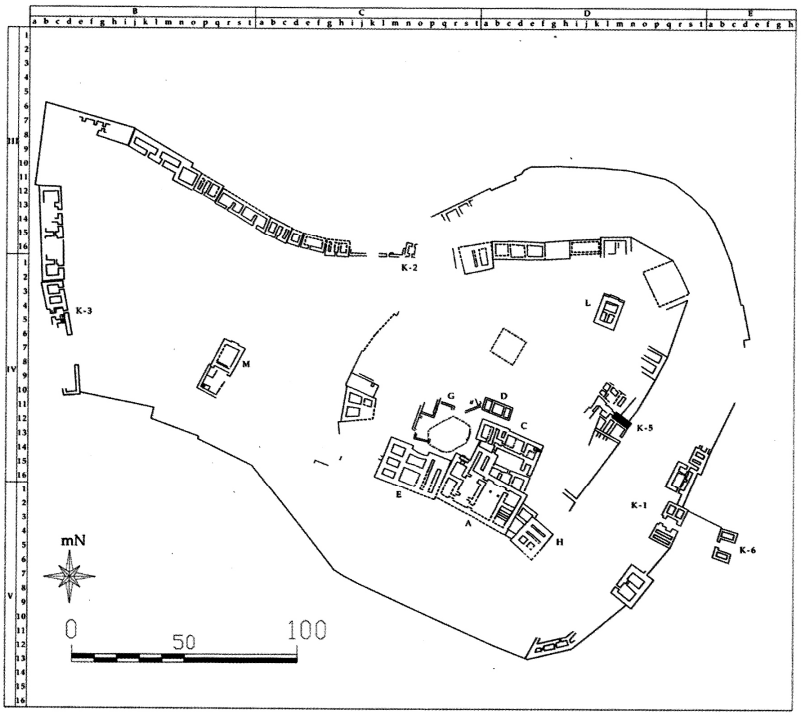


Fig 3.24: Tilmen Höyük, site plan, 2nd millennium B.C. (Marchetti 2005:47).

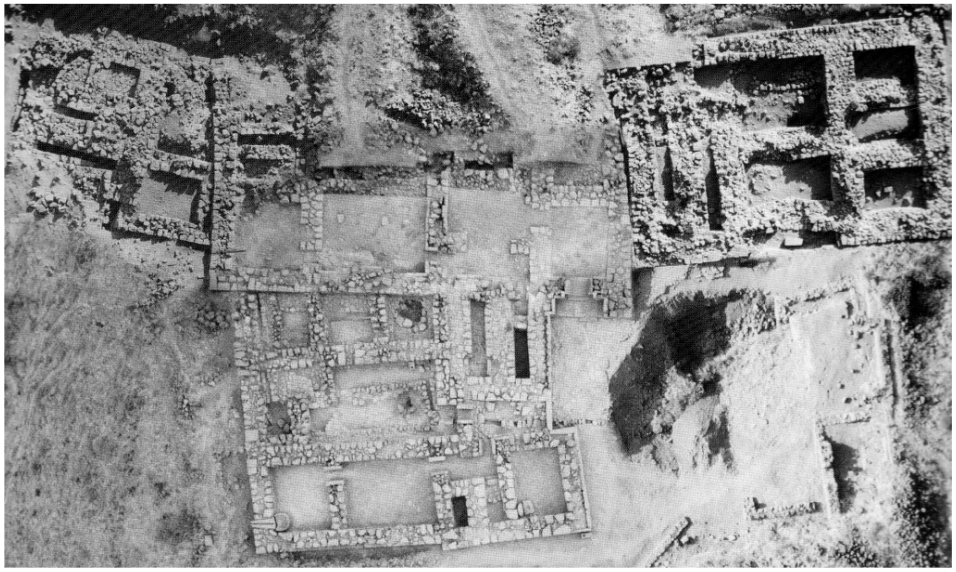


Fig 3.25: Tilmen: aerial view of palace (Marchetti 2005: 42).