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(20-24 iyul 2011-ci ildə keçirilmiş beynəlxalq simpoziumun materialları)

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NAXÇIVAN DİYARI BƏŞƏR SİVİLİZASİYASININ İLK BEŞİKLƏRİNDƏN BİRİ KİMİ

Photo 5

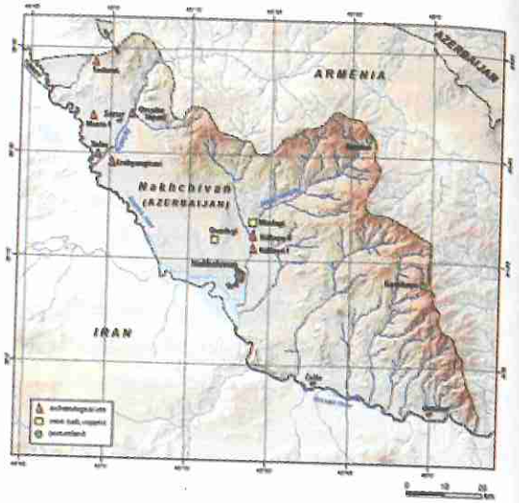

Fig. 2

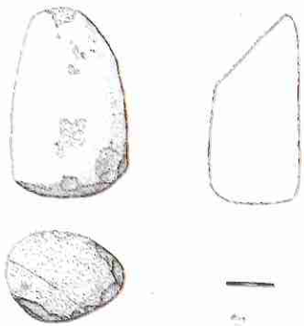

Fig. 2

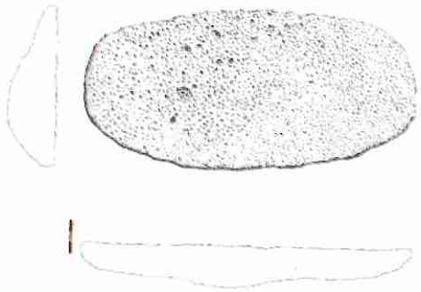

Fig. 3

Lauren RISTVET, Hilary GOPNIK,
Condidate of history,
University of Pensilvania and Emory
Veli BAKHSHALIYEV,
Correspondent member of ANAS
Nakhchivan section of ANAS
Safar ASHUROV
Condidate of history, Institute of
Archeologiy and Etnigraphy of ANAS

2010-2011 AMERICAN-AZERBAIJANI EXCAVATIONS AT OĞLANQALA

Perched atop the 50 ha Karatepe, Oğlanqala is probably the largest Iron Age fortress in Naxçıvan and one of the largest in the South Caucasus (fig. 1). The site is located in a position to control the fertile Şərur plain, the most agriculturally productive area in Naxçıvan, and the Arpaçay pass into the Lesser Caucasus. Excavations in 1988-1989 at Oğlanqala uncovered tantalizing evidence that the site was an important political center during the early and mid-Iron Age. [1] Four years of further excavation from 2008-2011 have confirmed this earlier hypothesis, providing new information indicating that Oğlanqala was probably an independent polity in the middle Iron Age with economic and cultural connections to neighboring Urartu, a fortress center at the end or just after the fall of the Achaemenid empire, and a wealthy fortified town in the last centuries BC.[2]

Our excavations have defined five periods, four ancient and one modern at Oğlanqala. The site was founded sometime between 1200 and 800 BC during the early Iron Age, Period V, but the architecture at the citadel dates to the Middle Iron Age, Period IV, between 800 and 600 BC and the Late Iron Age, Period III, between 400 and 250 BC. From 200 BC-100 AD (Period II) most of the mountain was covered by a large fortified town. During this period, the site may have been known as Olane, a town mentioned

[1] В.Б. Бахшалиев, "Археологические Раскопы На Поселении Огланкала " *Российская Археология* (1994).

[2] Lauren Ristvet et al., "2008 Excavations at Oğlanqala, Azerbaijan," *Azerbaycan Arxeologiyasi* (2009), Lauren Ristvet, V. Baxşəliyev, and Safar Aşurov, "Settlement and Society in Naxçıvan: 2006 Excavations and Survey of the Naxçıvan Archaeological Project," *Iranica Antiqua* 46 (2011), V. Baxşəliyev et al., *Naxçıvanda Arxeoloji Tədqiqatlar/Archaeological Investigations in Azerbaijan.* (Naxçıvan: Milli Elmlər Akademiyası, 2010).

by Strabo in his geography. [1] Finally, ephemeral architecture, pottery and graves dating to the Medieval and Modern periods cover much of the site (13th to 20th centuries AD), including glazed Ilkhanid pottery (Period Ib) and Russian Imperial coins (Period Ia) (table 1).

The Kurgan

Our first goal during the 2011 season, was the excavation of a small mound, 100m northwest of Oğlanqala (fig. 2). The mound has a diameter of 65 m and rises about two meters above the surrounding fields. During survey at this mound in 2008 and 2009, we found Xocalı-Gədəbəy sherds, similar to those known from elsewhere in Azerbaijan dating to the Early Iron Age, and one pillar figurine.[2] As a result, we hypothesized that the small mound was probably a kurgan or burial mound. We were particularly interested in excavating this burial mound, because it dates to the initial (Oğlanqala V) construction of the fortress. Learning more about the people buried in this mound would help us learn who built Oğlanqala, and perhaps why this large construction project was undertaken. During excavation we found a stone circle with a diameter of 3 m, which resembled other grave markers found elsewhere in the Caucasus (fig. 3). Excavation of the circle and elsewhere in the mound produced more period V sherds and a bird figurine, a type well-known from other graves. Unfortunately, no skeleton was found in the excavation, which stopped at 2.5 meters below the surface, due to the high water table.

The Northern and Western Fortifications

Our second goal during the 2011 season was the excavation of the northern fortification wall at Oğlanqala. Radiocarbon dates from the northwest circular tower, and one of the square buttresses of the northern wall in 2010 indicated that this structure was probably built around 800 BC. Oğlanqala 5 pottery was found here as well, but it seems to have been deposited before the wall was built. This means that the fortifications at Oğlanqala were built around the same time that Urartu (ca. 850-600 BC), an empire centered in Turkey's Van region, was launching military campaigns

[1] Daniel Potts, "Some Problems in the Historical Geography of Nakhchivan," *Ancient West and East* 1 (2002). Strabo 11.14.6.
[2] Lauren Ristvet et al., "On the Edge of Empire: 2008-2009 Excavations at Oğlanqala, Azerbaijan," *American Journal of Archaeology* 116, no. 2 (2012).

in the Caucasus and Northwest Iran.[1] We were interested in finding out more about the fortifications. Had Oğlanqala's fortification engineers built the wall according to Early Iron Age models? Or had they adopted Urartian techniques or construction models from their powerful neighbor? Urartian fortifications tend to be extremely standardized; they are characterized by regular buttressing, ashlar masonry and standard-sized mudbricks. [2] It seems likely that Urartian architects designed fortifications across the empire for the purposes of the state to assure this regularity.

Excavations at Oğlanqala's Northern Fortifications exposed this feature over 215 m (fig. 4). Our work showed that the fortifications generally resembled earlier Iron Age architecture, but may have also imitated certain Urartian features. Unlike Urartian walls, which are generally straight and right-angled and have no respect for topography, Oğlanqala's fortification wall conformed to the natural topography of Karatəpe. The Northern Fortifications exhibited a pattern of elaborate, but irregular buttressing. Two of the buttresses on the western side of this wall are quite regular, 7 m long, and 4 m wide, they are separated by a stretch of wall 15 m wide. Further to the east, however, this pattern breaks down. Instead of buttressing, the wall zigzags, with no regular pattern. Although buttressing is usually an Urartian feature, it does have antecedents in the architectural tradition of the South Caucasus, so it is not clear where the inspiration for this feature originated. This striking, angular wall, clearly visible from the nearby fortress of Qızqala would have been the first view of Oğlanqala for visitors coming from the north. There is no exact counterpart to the shape of Oğlanqala's Northern Fortifications at other fortresses in the area, emphasizing its unique nature.

The Northern Fortifications were made from roughly shaped limestone blocks with smaller stones used as chinking, to fill the cracks between the blocks (fig. 5). Stones in different parts of the wall ranged from carefully shaped to almost unworked. In some stretches of the wall, for example, like NW-C, NW-N, NW-O, and NW-Z most of the limestone was

[1] Mirjo Salvini, *Geschichte Und Kultur Der Urartäer* (Darmstadt: Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 1995).
[2] Paul Zimansky, "Urartian Material Culture as State Assemblage: An Anomaly in the Archaeology of Empire," *Bulletin of the American Schools of Oriental Research*, no. 299/300 (1995), ———, "An Urartian Ozymandias," *The Biblical Archaeologist* 58, no. 2 (1995), ———, "The Problem of the Urartian Frontier," in *Neo-Assyrian Geography*, ed. Mario Liverani (Roma: Università di Roma, 1995), Paul E. Zimansky, *Ecology and Empire : The Structure of the Urartian State*, Studies in Ancient Oriental Civilization :, (Chicago, Ill.: the Oriental Institute, 1985), Adam T. Smith, *The Political Landscape: Constellations of Authority in Early Complex Polities* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2003).

cut into roughly square or rectangular blocks, of similar sizes, between 30 and 70 cm^2, in other areas like NW-U and NW-V, several stones with little to no shaping were used. The Period IV masons generally took care to use well-shaped stones at the walls many corners, probably because these are obvious weak points, subject to erosion. Similarly the quantity and size of the small stones used for chinking also varied across this wall. This fortification wall was built on bedrock, but here again, there was evidence for great variation in building techniques. Generally, the vegetation on the bedrock was burned prior to its construction, resulting in a fine ash and charcoal layer immediately below this construction. Burning the vegetation on top of the bedrock changed the properties of the limestone, creating a crumbling, eroded surface that was often incorporated into the construction. Following this, the ancient masons either laid limestone blocks directly on the bedrock, or used a variety of strategies to create a level surface. We encountered several different leveling techniques along different stretches of the wall. First, a well-levigated, compact clay could be laid atop the bedrock. Alternatively, a gray mudbrick surface was sometimes built to even out the natural bedrock. Finally, a concrete mixture, of eroded limestone, mixed with pebbles also served to create a level foundation on top of the bedrock in certain places. Sometimes smaller stones were placed directly on the bedrock before the larger blocks were laid, although in other situations the larger blocks were laid directly on the bedrock. There were no signs of shaping the bedrock itself, as is the case in Urartian sites, with their rock cut staircases and stepped wall foundations. The variety of construction techniques in this single construction may tell us something about the architects or masons directing the project. It seems likely that there were several different individuals in charge of different parts of the wall, and no desire to standardize construction methods as we see in Urartian fortifications of the same period.

The stone foundations of the Northern Fortificiations were preserved up to 2 m high in places, although generally they were lower, between 1 and 1.5 m. On top of these foundations, large mudbricks were laid, usually measuring 40 X 40 X 20 cm (fig. 6). These added height to the wall construction, but also served as terracing walls. Behind the stone façade of the wall was rubble fill. A mudbrick superstructure has also been constructed atop the stone foundations. Survey of the northern side of Oğlanqala indicates that this entire area was terraced with mudbricks, rubble fill and retaining walls and formed, along with the fortification wall, a single massive construction, probably dating to ca. 800 BC. The terraced area had a width of 78 X 164 m, while the difference in elevation from the outer wall of the citadel to the fortification wall was 35 m. The labor involved in terracing this area, which comprises 2.42 ha and included the quarrying and working of large quantities of limestone and the construction and delivery of millions of mudbricks was immense; it would have required the labor of thousands of individuals. The monumentality of this building project emphasizes the strength of Oğlanqala's Period IV leaders. The imposing construction itself displays political power, but so does the ability to assemble a work-force to build and maintain it.

In front of the Northern Fortifications was an elaborate cobble footing. Like the wall itself, this construction was founded on bedrock. On top of the bedrock, layers of extremely hard, well-levigated clay were laid. Round river cobbles , usually with a diameter of 12-18cm were then pressed against this clay surface. In several places, these cobbles formed even rows, but in others they were placed haphazardly. Between the Northern fortification wall, and the cobble footing was rubble fill, similar to that found behind the stone façade of the wall.

We noted one area which may have served as a possible gate, near the northeast side of the wall. An 8.3m gap in the Period IV wall here may have been one of the original gates, leading to the citadel. The location of this feature, along one of the gentlest slopes on the northern side of the mountain may support this identification. Additionally, there was no cobble footing immediately in front of this installation, instead there was another type of paving, which combined rounded cobbles and chipped limestone in a mudpacking. A piece of bedrock with a hole drilled into it at the western edge of this gap may have served as a door-socket. This possible entranceway had been filled in during Period III, using a construction technique similar to that seen on the citadel (fig. 7). The last row of Period IV stones was covered with small, squared stones, perhaps to form a level surface. Two courses of mudbrick were placed on top of this construction and then three courses of larger stone blocks were laid. Most of these blocks were smaller than their Period IV counterparts, generally ranging in size between 20 and 30 cm^2 and exhibited less working, although there were still some squared off blocks incorporated into this construction.

Our work on the fortification systems also encouraged us to clear part of the Western Fortifications, south of the Northern Towers, in order to investigate if these fortifications were built using the same techniques. As a result, we exposed 70 m of this construction, beginning on the southern side of the Northern Towers. The stones used for the Western Fortifications were among the largest and best-shaped found at the site. This is particularly true for the northernmost expanse of the wall, which was probably built at the same time as the Towers. The limestone blocks used here were 60-70 m^2 and were generally worked into square blocks, with a few smaller stones

serving as chinking. One of the unusual features of this part of the fortification walls are the odd angles of the buttresses. For the first buttress, this angle is 60 degrees, rather than the expected 90 degrees. This buttress is 7 m across, however, and 4 m wide on its southern side, just like the few regular buttresses on the northern wall. Radiocarbon analysis and the presence of some rebuilding indicates that the wall was used over a period from ca. 800-250 BC, during Periods III and IV. Even afterwards, the fortifications would have been visible and may have been incorporated into later use of this site.

During our excavations along the Western Fortifications, we encountered a pithos burial dating to Oğlanqala II in the fill in front of the wall (fig. 9). The presence of a burial here may indicate that the area continued in use, long after construction and rebuilding efforts had ceased. This burial contained part of the skeleton of an older adult of indeterminate sex, whose bones were in very poor condition. Although the pithos jar itself, and probably a small jar with handles found just south of this burial are local to Oğlanqala, this individual had been buried with several luxury objects, most of which probably came from the Roman Empire (fig. 10). First, four coins, silver denarii, featuring portraits of Augustus were found in the burial. Although the coins were corroded and in some cases broken, it was possible to see that they were all of basically the same type, and contained two inscriptions. On the front, alongside a right-facing profile of Augustus wearing a laurel wreath was the inscription "CAESAR AVGVSTVS DIVI F PATER PATRIAE." On the back of the coin, were two images of Gaius and Lucius Caesar facing front, with their hands resting on round shields and with spears behind them alongside the inscription VGVSTI F COS DESIG PRINC IVVENT, C L CAESARES. The coins are well-known from numismatic research, three of them are of a kind that was minted from 2 BC to AD 12, while the remaining coin has a more limited date range from 2 BC to 4 AD.[1] Additionally, the individual wore five rings, one simple bronze ring and four with engraved stones, featuring two portraits, a cow and a medallion. Two complete pomegranate shaped glass bottles and shards of another one were also included in the burial, along with a Phoenician glass "eye" bead.

The Roman character of much of this material is intriguing. During his reign, Augustus managed to avoid war with the Parthians, and employed diplomacy to regain the Roman standards which had been lost by Crassus in 20 BC. His step-son Tiberius campaigned and intrigued in the South Caucasus during the same period. The material from the pithos grave indicates further and later Roman involvement in this area. It is unclear, of course, whether the individual buried here was a local or a foreigner, although further isotope analysis on his teeth may clarify this question. If he was a local, which seems most likely, the contents of his grave reflect Oğlanqala's contacts with the wider world and indicate that this frontier town participated in both the Roman and Parthian spheres.

[1]M.M. Расулова, *Торгово-экономические и культурные связи Кавказкой Албании с Античным и Эллинистическим миром: IV век до н.э.- III век н.э.* Баку: Mütərcim, 2008.

The Citadel

Our third goal during the 2011 season was the excavation of the citadel. This 1.2 ha area probably contains two buildings which formed the administrative core of this area from 800-250 BC, during Oğlanqala periods III and IV. The main citadel building is in the north and covers an area of about 4700 m^2. Work here during the Soviet excavations from 1988-1989 and our previous excavations during 2008-2010 had already exposed ca. 1800m^2 of this building (fig. 11). During 2011, we reopened excavations in two of the squares that were initially excavated at the very end of the 2010 season and also initiated excavations in a new 10X10m^2.

Radiocarbon analysis indicates that the citadel was first constructed around 800 BC at the beginning of Oğlanqala IV, coincident with the building of the fortification walls and towers.[1] The same construction techniques used in the fortifications were employed at the citadel, including the presence of worked limestone blocks between 35 and 90 cm^2. Similarly, these walls were founded on bedrock, which had sometimes been covered with a clay or concrete surface and had a mudbrick superstructure, although most of this had eroded away. Like the fortification walls, most of the citadel walls had a rubble core. They ranged in width from 1.7-2.5 m. The Oğlanqala IV building was arrayed around a very large square courtyard, 33 X 34 m, or 1122 m^2. This makes it almost identical in size and shape to the courtyard surrounding the temple at Altıntepe, Turkey.[2] The courtyard was probably one of the main public spaces in the citadel. Its imposing size would have displayed the political power of the ruler of the fortress. East of the courtyard were a series of long narrow rooms. Because of the height of the bedrock in this area, we only recovered their foundations and have little evidence for their function. It is possible that they were storage rooms or ot-

[1] Ristvet et al., "On the Edge of Empire: 2008-2009 Excavations at Oğlanqala, Azerbaijan."
[2] Tahsin Özgüç, *Altintepe*, Türk Tarih Kurumu (Ankara,: Türk Tarih Kurumu Bas*mevi, 1966), G.D. Summers, "Archaeological Evidence for the Achaemenid Period in Eastern Turkey," *Anatolian Studies* 43 (1993).

her offices for the palace. On the southeast side of the building was a lone square buttress, while a possible circular tower could be traced on its southwest side.

In the Period IV courtyard we found evidence of the administrative function of the building, in the form of large storage jars and the oldest writing found in excavation in Azerbaijan, cuneiform inscribed sherds. Although no complete storage jars were found, storage jar sherds with their arrow molded decoration and occasional cuneiform inscriptions were found in almost every area and context. The fragmentary signs found on the storage jars probably recorded vessel capacity. We can reconstruct numbers as well as the common signs a-q[ar] and ru, which likely came from the words aqarqi and terusi, two volume measurements.[1]

During the 2011 season, we focused our work on the eastern side of the building. Excavation at the end of the 2010 season had traced part of the Period IV Citadel Fortification on the east, exposing an unusual gap, where these walls turned west. The area between these walls was irregular, widening towards the east, from 6.5 to 7.5 m. It seemed possible that this construction was part of a recessed entrance, perhaps the main entry to the citadel. The western limit of this area was a Period III wall, W-S, which blocked the purported entrance. We opened excavations here to clarify the relationship between the eastern fortification walls and the palace. Below W-S we found an earlier wall that incorporated some of the finest masonry yet recovered at the site (fig. 12). Although most of W-S was built of standard, roughly-shaped limestone blocks, like those seen in other Period IV walls at the citadel and in the fortifications, this wall also incorporated seven carefully shaped ashlar blocks in two standardized of 90X60 cm and 45X60 cm. W-S returned off of W-A, and the southern corner of both walls was made from limestone ashlar blocks with square bosses. Similarly shaped blocks have been recovered at Urartian sites in Turkey and northwest Iran including Bastam, Toprakkale, Çavuştepe and Ayanis.[2] At Bastam and Çavuştepe these rusticated blocks, dressed evenly around the edges but with

[1] According to Payne's work on Urartian volume measures, the *aqarqi* was equivalent to 240–250 liters and a *terusi* is equal to 28–29 liters. Margaret Payne, *Urartian Measures of Volume*, Ancient near Eastern Studies. Supplement (Louvain ; Dudley, Mass.: Peeters, 2005), 80-82.

[2] Wolfram Kleiss, *Bastam*, Teheraner Forschungen Bd. 4-5 (Berlin: Mann, 1979), 54. Afif Erzen, *Çavuştepe : M.O. 7-6. Yüzyül Urartu Mimarlık Anıtlari Ve Ortaçağ Nekropolu* (Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu, 1978), Lev. XXIV, Wolfram Kleiss, "Aspekte Urartäischer Architektur," *Iranica Antiqua* 23 (1988), Kleiss, *Bastam*, 54, Afif Erzen, " Çavuştepe Yukarı Kale Ve Toprakkale 1976 Dönemi Kazıları," *Anadolu Araştırmıları* 4-5 (1976-1977): Lev. XII.

a rough boss in the center, are used as foundations of the outer walls of administrative buildings, as at Oğlanqala. At Toprakkale these blocks forms the platform upon which the temple of Haldi was constructed.[1] At Ayanis, such a technique was used for the foundations of the southern citadel fortification wall.[2] All of these sites are 7th century foundations, and Erzen dates this building technique to that period.[3] At Oğlanqala, it is possible that these blocks were taken from elsewhere to strengthen this corner during a 7th century (or later) reconstruction or repair of the citadel. It is possible that this area provided a platform for a major building that has unfortunately eroded away, or it could have been part of a gate construction. A least-cost analysis of the easiest path up the citadel shows that this would be a good place for a northern facing gate, but excavation south of W-S failed to locate the southern limits of this entry. Further work is needed in this area to clarify the plan of the Period IV palace.

The Oğlanqala citadel was probably abandoned briefly sometime after the 7th century. Our next evidence for occupation here dates to some time between 400 and 250 BC, when Period III architects rebuilt this palace. The Period III palace occupied the same area and followed the same general alignment as the earlier structure. Few of its walls are direct rebuilds of early Period IV architecture, although the northern, southern and eastern walls of the courtyard (W-A, W-C and W-E) were reused in the Period III building. In general, rooms in the Period III palace are smaller and more numerous. Period III masonry is also less impressive than its Period IV counterparts. Period III wall foundations are built of smaller, almost entirely unworked stones, set in a mud mortar. Smaller stones are no longer used as chinking, and walls are generally narrower than their Period IV counterparts, ranging from 1-2 m wide, but with most constructions closer to 1m. There is stratigraphic evidence that the Period III architects excavated down to bedrock in much of the citadel, disturbing earlier Period IV deposits. They then filled the space left between the Period IV foundation walls with either rubble fill or a mudbrick pavement and constructed the Period III walls on this surface, rather than on bedrock. Although the foundations looked less impressive than their earlier counterparts, there is evidence that the finished walls may have been more beautiful. Ashlar masonry has been

[1] C.A. Burney and D. Lang, *The Peoples of the Hills* (New York: Praeger, 1972), 162.

[2] Ömür Harmanşah, "Stones of Ayanis: New Urban Foundations and the Architectonic Culture in Urartu During the 7th C. Bc," in *Bautechniken in Antiken Und Vorantiken Kleinasien*, ed. Martin Bachmann (Istanbul: Deutschen Archäologischen Instituts Istanbul, 2009), fig. 7..

[3] Erzen, *Çavuştepe : M.O. 7-6. Yüzyül Urartu Mimarlık Anıtlari Ve Ortaçağ Nekropolu*, 25-6.

found in various places in this building, often providing a smooth facing to Period III walls like W-A and W-E. These ashlar blocks are generally made from tufaceous limestone or sandstone, not the marbleized limestone which comprises the bedrock of Karatəpə and that was used for most of the architecture.

The largest space and focal point of this building was a large room, in the same place as the earlier courtyard. This Period III room was slightly smaller than its Period IV counterpart, measuring 27X33m. There is some evidence, in the form of 29 column elements scattered in the northern half of this room, that the Period III architects had planned to construct a columned hall in place of the older open courtyard. These elements represent drums, bases, capitals and perhaps square plinths (or column blanks). None of the elements were finished; lifting bosses were still attached to the drums, and none of the elements had been smoothed, polished or prepared for final decoration. There are not enough column elements to provide full columns throughout this large space, in the manner of an Achaemenid apadana. Given their unfinished state, however, as well as the unfinished state of most of the building, it is hard to discern precisely how these columns would have been incorporated into this architectural space.

Columned halls are well-known from much of the Near East at this time, with several excavated examples from the Caucasus and Eastern Turkey. The Oğlanqala hall is smaller than those at Altıntepe and Erebuni, both of which were probably satrapal capitals, although its shape and dimensions are similar.[1] Despite the difficulties in finding exact parallels for the Oğlanqala column elements, given their unfinished state, two of the bell-shaped column bases are similar in size and general shape to those found at excavations in Qaracəmirli, Sarı Təpə, Gumbati, and Benjamin.[2] The other column elements, such as an unfinished torus and partially carved lower column drums, may have parallels from 2nd century contexts at Seleucid Nahavand, Iran and Seleucid/Greco-Bactrian Ai Khanoum, Afghanistan.[1] A post-Achaemenid context is probably a better fit for a site with stone column drums and capitals in addition to bases. Outside of the Achaemenid capitals in Fars, Satrapal and provincial capitals probably made do with wooden or mudbrick columns on stone bases, judging from the absence of other elements in excavated contexts. Our radiocarbon samples from the discontinuous ashy surface where most of the column elements were found and from the base of the Period III walls indicate a probable 4th or 3rd century date for this construction.

The radiocarbon dates, parallels for the columns and some associated pottery indicate that the reconstruction project could coincide with either of two historical periods, either the last 50 years of the Achaemenid Empire or the immediately post-Achamenid period when Seleucus was consolidating his empire. In this case, the abandonment of the project could result from the death of Darius III and the fall of the Achaemenid empire or alternatively from Alexander's unexpected demise. Second, it may date to the period immediately after the fall of the empire, during the chaotic decades at the end of the 4th century and the reorganization of this territory into Media Atropatene. Given the many local features of the citadel at Oğlanqala, it may be most likely that the construction of this building dates to the second period. Oğlanqala is strikingly different from other Achaemenid sites – including other sites in the Caucasus like Qaracəmirli, Gumbati and Benjamin, which often look very like sites in Persia itself. At Oğlanqala, certain symbols of authority – like the massive columned hall – were adopted but rendered in a local style. The person who ordered its construction may have been a local strong man seeking to consolidate his rule over the Şərur plains or perhaps a larger area. His ascendancy probably did not last long, and the building project, site, and indeed landscape of fortresses were abandoned. Iron arrowheads and slingshot stones were found in the ruins of this building, and highlight the probable violent destruction of this phase. Evidence for the strong influence of Achaemenid styles in the Caucasus after the fall of the empire has been clearly demonstrated, particularly in excavations in Colchis in Western Georgia like Vani. It is possible that Oğlanqala represents a parallel case.[2]

[1] Felix I. Ter-Martirossov, "The Typology of the Columnar Structure of Armenia in the Achaemenid Period," in *The Royal Palace Institution of the First Millennium Bc*, ed. Inge Nielsen (Athens: Danish Institute at Athens, 2001), Summers, "Archaeological Evidence for the Achaemenid Period in Eastern Turkey.", Özgüç, *Altintepe*, Aminia Kanetsyan, "Urartian and Early Achaemenid Palaces in Armenia," in *The Royal Palace Institution in the First Millennium Bc*, ed. Inge Nielsen (Athens: Danish Institute at Athens, 2001).

[2] I Babaev, I. Gagoshidze, and F. Knauss, "An Achaemenid „Palace'' at Qarajamirli (Azerbaijan). Preliminary Report on the Excavations in 2006," *Ancient civilizations from Scythia to Siberia* 131-132 (2007), Florian Knauss, "Caucasus," in *L'archéologie De L'empire Achéménide: Nouvelles Recherches*, ed. Pierre Briant and Rémy Boucharlat (Paris: de Boccard, 2005), Ter-Martirossov, "The Typology of the Columnar Structure of Armenia in the Achaemenid Period."

[1] M. Rahbar and S. Alibaigi, "The Hunt for Laodicea: A Greek Temple in Nahavand, Iran," *Antiquity* 83 (2009): fig. 7, O Guillaume, *Les Propylées De La Rue Principale: Fouilles D' Ai Khanoum 2*, MéMoires De La DéLéGation ArchéOlogique FrançAise En Afghanistan (Paris: de Boccard, 1983), fig. 8.

[2] O. Lordkipanidze, "Introduction to the History of Caucasian Iberia and Its Culture of the Achaemenid and Post-Achaemenid Periods," *Archäologische Mitteilungen aus Iran und Turan* 32 (2000).

The final evidence for construction at the citadel dates to Period II. More than 30 pits were cut into the ruins of the Period III palace. Their unusual contents may be related to feasting or other specialized activities and indicate that centuries after the abandonment of this building, the monumental architecture of the palace was part of the daily life of Oğlanqala's inhabitants. Geophysical analysis elsewhere on the mound indicates that from ca. 100 BC-100 AD, Oğlanqala was the site of a fortified town, perhaps Olâne, a town in the Caucasus which is mentioned in Strabo.[1] Large numbers of two room houses arranged on alleys and roads were visible on the magnetometry analysis, along with one larger house, perhaps a villa (fig. 13).

Pottery

The 2011 season gave us an opportunity to study all of the pottery excavated from 2008-2011.

The ceramics from Oğlanqala span all five periods of occupation, but it can sometimes be difficult to distinguish the remains of one period from that of another, due to extensive mixing during construction activities. This means that stratigraphy is not always a good guide for reconstructing the pottery chronology. Period IV storage jar sherds with their arrow-moulded decoration and occasional cuneiform inscriptions, for instance, were found in almost every context. They were unfortunately never found in a context that could be securely dated to the period in which they were made and used. These are very large and heavy pieces of pottery and could not have been washed down a slope; they must have been collected and used as part of the deliberate filling of the citadel area. In the Period II houses area, one large Period IV storage jar sherd was found lying on the floor of Structure 2, where it may have been collected and used as some type of tool. It is possible to tentatively identify a limited number of types with the Period II occupation based on the relative frequency of their occurrence in the Houses area or in Operation C of the 2008 season both of which were firmly dated to Period II. However it is more than likely that sherds from Period III which must have been scattered about the site when these houses were built were also incorporated into the remains of these areas. Comparisons with other sites are also difficult. Pottery from the late Iron Age through the Classical period in the Caucasus, Iran and Eastern Anatolia shows a great degree of continuity, and there are very few stratified sites with published pottery to refine these sequences.

[1] Supra, note 3.

Period V pottery has been found in surface collection prior to excavation and in two areas on the main mound, within the mudbrick platform associated with the northern fortifications and in small quantities at the citadel. We have not isolated period V phases of either of these constructions, rather it seems likely that these older sherds were incorporated into later building materials. The best collection of *in situ* period V pottery comes from the kurgan excavation. Period V pottery is generally made of gray-black wares, often with burnishing and occasional incised designs. At the kurgan, a plate form was particularly common, as were spouted jars and false handles, of types well-known within the Xocalı-Gedebey sequence and from Iron II contexts in Iran (fig. 14).[1]

There were no in situ deposits from Period IV, but much of the pottery from the site has close parallels to other sites of this date. The most recognizable Period IV sherds come from very large storage jars or pithoi, with diameters of over a meter and vessel wall thickness of up to 20 cm with distinctive arrow molding (fig. 15). This molding has no exact parallel at any other published site of this period, although molding of various other patterns is always found on Urartian pithoi where it serves to hide the join between the rim and the body.[2] As at Urartian sites of this period, four of the cuneiform inscriptions from the site were also impressed on sherds from these storage jars.[3] It is tempting to interpret the arrow motif as deliberately echoing the cuneiform wedges. If writing at Oğlanqala was a borrowed expression of the prestige of neighboring elites then the use of this motif may have emphasized this local claim to power. Other Period IV ware types include imported "Palace Ware," red polished ware and brown mottled ware, all of which have good parallels elsewhere. Other forms like simple rim bowls, plain flaring rim jars and club-rim jars may also date to this period.

Pottery from Period III is the hardest to identify, due to the unfinished nature of the citadel during this period and a lack of good parallels from nearby sites. In spite of the extremely well defined historical

[1] Veli Bahşaliyev and Andreas Schachner, "Das Kammergrab Von Yurdçu/Naxçivan. Ein Beitrag Zur Archäologie Der Früheisenzeit Transkaukausiens Und Ostanatoliens," *Studi Micenei ad Egeo-Anatolici* 43, no. 1 (2001), V. Baxşəliyev, *Naxçıvanın Erkən Dəmir Dövrü Mədəniyyəti. Bakı: Elm* (Baki: Elm, 2002), 7-123, Г. Асланов and С. Кашкай, "Погребени Некрополи Мунджуклутепе," *Советская Археология* 3 (1991): 221-23, Г. Асланов, В.И. Ибрагимов, and С. Кашкай, *Древные Некрополы Хараба Гилана* (Бакы: Нурлан, 2000).

[2] G. Kozbe, Ö Çevik, and H. Sağlamtimur, "Pottery," in *Ayanis I*, ed. A. Çilingiroğlu and Mirjo Salvini (Rome: Istituto per gli studi micenei ed egeo-anatolici, 2001), 82, fig 11; pl. VIII:13.

[3] Supra, note 10.

sequence of the Achaemenid Empire and the relative abundance of sites of the period, it has remained difficult to precisely isolate an Achaemenid ceramic assemblage. At Oğlanqala, there are few discrete loci that can be assigned to Period III. The identification of forms with this period rests almost exclusively on stylistic criteria and comparison to other sites, rather than on stratigraphy. Ceramics can be distinguished primarily by a number of distinctive forms in a grit tempered pink buff ware with a light red to pink buff slip. This was the most common ware at Oğlanqala and continued into Period II, but certain forms can probably best be associated with the Achaemenid period. These include carinated bowls, a type that is found across the Achaemenid empire from Pakistan to Sardis in Western Anatolia, shallow bowls with out-turned and in-turned rims, jars with moulded handles, and an imported zoomorphic handle (fig. 16a).[1] Triangle ware, a painted ware that occurs across Iran and the Southern Caucasus in the late Iron Age, may be associated with either Period III or Period II (fig. 16b). This painted form occurs in a Period III context at the citadel, but in a Period II context in one of the houses. It is most common in surface collections, so only further excavation will reveal its complex distribution.

Period II (200 B.C.E.-100 C.E.)

Our many stratified Period II contexts in the citadel pits and the houses make it easier to identify pottery of this period, although reuse of earlier sherds and poor preservation hamper these efforts. In the citadel area when it was possible to isolate the large Period II cooking pits, they contained primarily cooking pots, which tend to be so similar through time that they are not very useful for identifying period-specific types. In addition, the continuity of forms and wares from Period III to Period II makes it difficult to isolate discrete assemblages without a stratified sequence. It is nonetheless possible to identify certain forms with the later part of occupation at Oğlanqala. First, a red or orange slipped simple rim bowl with a ring base is probably the most common Period II type (fig. 17: 1-2, 4). The ring base of this vessel is not typical of bowls in Parthian period sites in Iranian Azerbaijan but does occur at Pasargadae and other western Iranian site, and

[1] Hilary Gopnik and M. Rothman, *On the High Road: The History of Godin Tepe, Iran* (Toronto: Royal Ontario Museum and Mazda Press, 2011), fig. 7.56-7.57, L. Khatchadourian, "Social Logistics under Empire: The Armenian "Highland Satrapy" and Achaemenid Rule, Ca. 600-300 Bc" (University of Michigan, 2008), 481-2, Summers, "Archaeological Evidence for the Achaemenid Period in Eastern Turkey," fig. 5.

at the late Hellenistic cemetery at Artashat.[1] Grooved ledge-rim bowls (fig. 17: 12, 15) with a lid (fig. 17:12) are one of the most common types found on the surface and are probably dated to this period. Folded ridged jar rims found in the late Achaemenid to Parthian Period in south-western and western Iran are also typical of Period II at Oğlanqala (fig. 17: 7, 8, 11).

Conclusions and Future Research Plans

Our first four years of excavation have provided important new information on political and economic developments within Naxçıvan during the first millennium BC and on the changing relationships between Naxçıvan and the larger Near East. Specifically, our work has focused on the foundation of Oğlanqala around 1000 BC, the construction of the citadel and fortifications around 800 BC, when it probably became the capital of a small polity on the Şərur Plains and its renovation between 350 and 250 BC, while it was incorporated into the larger Achaemenid and Hellenistic worlds. The 2011 season allowed us to investigate the relationship of Oğlanqala to the Parthian and Roman empires. Specifically, we learned that the inhabitants of the town employed elite Roman material culture in their burial practices, despite the local nature of the ceramics and houses. In the future we hope to continue our excavations in the citadel, to clarify further the relationship between this city and Urartu and the Achaemenid Empire. We also hope to excavate more houses from Period II, to find new information on the cultural and economic relationship between Naxçıvan and outside empires during the last few centuries BC. Our success so far has been made possible by strong support from the government of the Autonomous Republic of Naxçıvan, the Azerbaijan National Academy of Sciences and the National Science Foundation of the Unived States. We are grateful for their assistance and hope that the Azerbaijani-American excavations can continue for many more years.

[1] L.D Levine, "Excavations at Jameh Shuran, Iran," (Toronto: Royal Ontario Museum, N.D.), David Stronach, *Pasargadae. A Report on the Excavations Conducted by the British Institute of Persian Studies from 1961 to 1963* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1978), fig. 109: 5–15, E. Haerinck, *La Céramique En Iran Pendant La Période Parthe*, vol. 2, Iranica Antiqua Supplément (Gent: Iranica Antiqua, 1983), fig. 14:9, Ж.Д. Хачатрян, *Арташат Ии: Античные Некрополи (Раскопи 1971-1977 г г)* (Ереван: Исдательство Академии Наук Армянской ССР, 1981), pl. 13.

BC	Oğlanqala	Azerbaijan	Hasanlu (Urmia)	Iran	Periodization	Historical
1200-800 BCE	V	Xocalı-Gədəbəy	V-IV	Iron I-II	Early Iron Age	
800-600 BCE	IV	Mannaean	IIIb	Iron III	Middle Iron Age	Urartu
500-200 BCE	III	Late Achamenid/ Albania/ Media Atropatene	IIIa	Iron IV	Late Iron Age	Achaemenid and Hellenistic (Armenia/Media Atrapotene)
200 BCE-100 CE	II	Late Media Atropatene/ Caucasian Albania/ Arsacid	II	Parthian	Classical	Parthia/Armenia/Media Atropatene
1200 CE-1920 CE	I	Medieval-Modern	I	Medieval-Modern	Medieval-Modern	Medieval-Modern

Table 1: Oğlanqala Periodization.

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Fig.1: View of Oğlanqala from Qızqala. The northern fortifications and northwestern towers are visible on the sides of the hill. The citadel is located on the flat top of the hill.

Fig.,2: View of the kurgan mound from Oğlanqala.

Fig. 3: Grave circle at the kurgan.

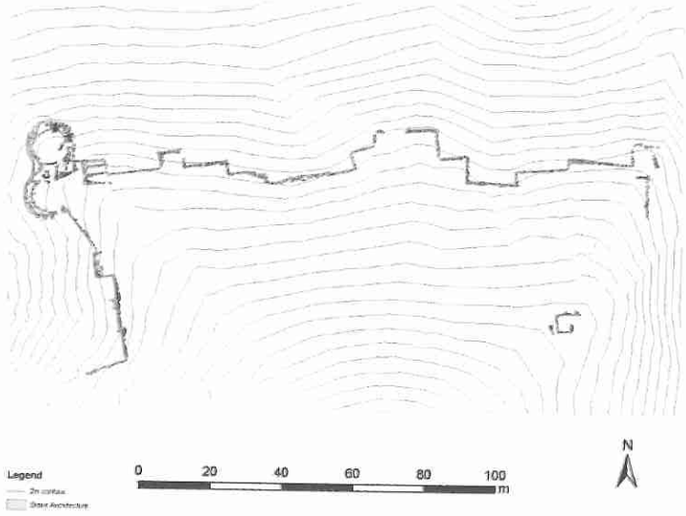

Fig. 4: Plan of the northern fortifications.

Fig.5: Construction technique photograph.

Fig. 6: Mudbrick terracing.

Fig.7: Possible gateway in North Wall.

Fig. 8: Western Wall.

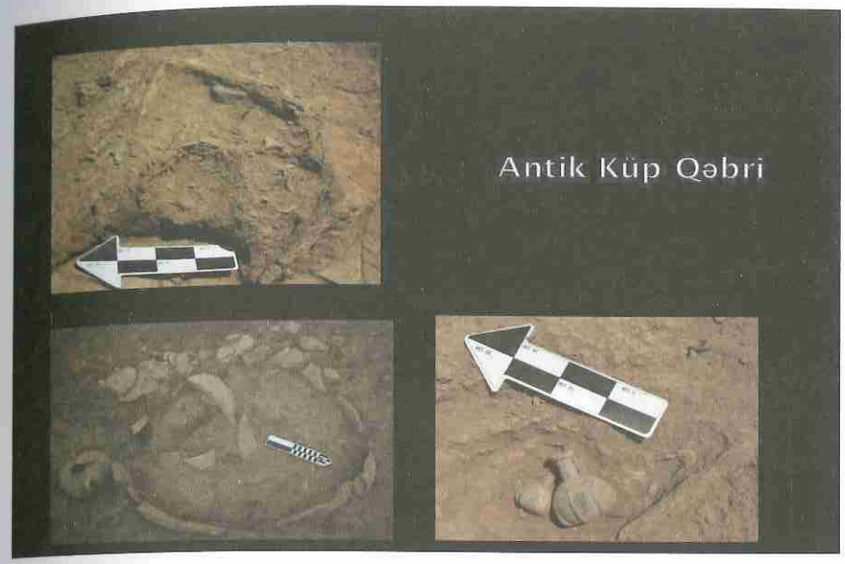

Fig. 9: Pithos grave.

Fig. 10: Objects from grave .

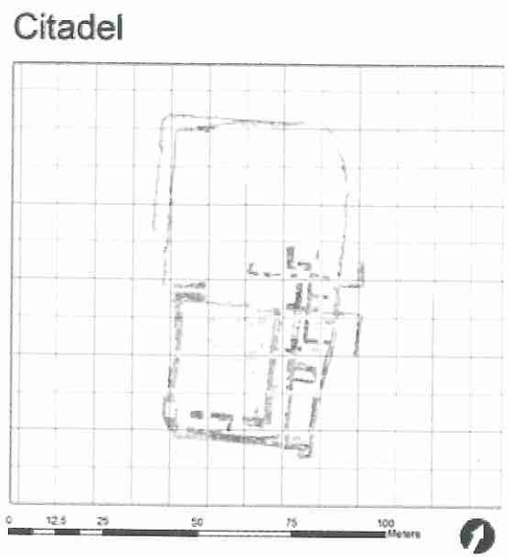

Fig. 11: Plan of the citadel.

Fig.12: W-S

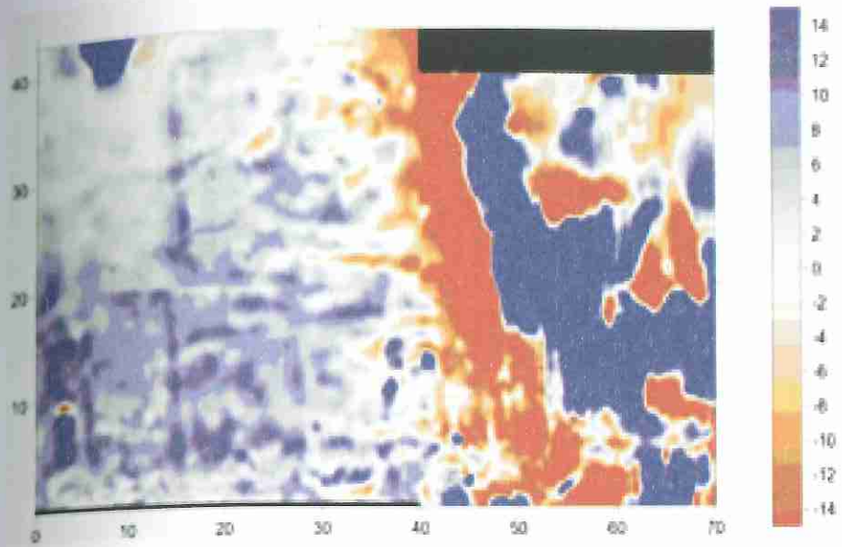

Fig.13: Magnetometry plan of houses.

Fig. 14: Period V pottery (photograph).

Fig. 15: Period IV storage jars (photograph).

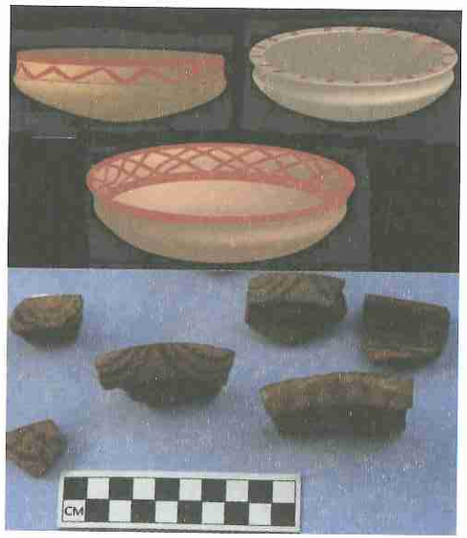

Fig. 16: Period III triangle ware: A) Reconstructed bowls, from surface collection; B) Triangle and festoon ware sherds.

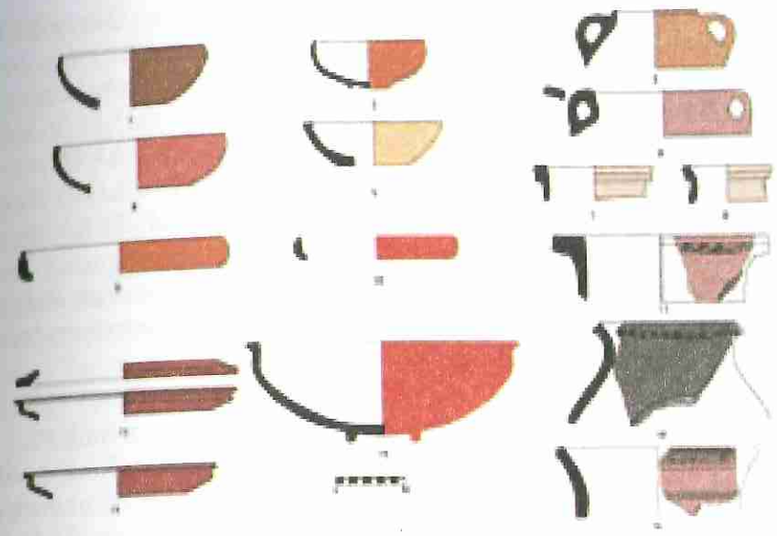

Fig. 17: Period II bowls and Jars .