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ایران

PAZHOSHESH-HA-YE BASTANSHENASI IRAN

P. ISSN: 2345-5225 & E. ISSN: 2345-5500

Homepage: <https://nbsh.basu.ac.ir/>

Vol. 14, No. 41, Summer 2024

Rereading of Neo-Assyrian Pottery in the West and Northwest of Iran

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Received: 2023/06/26; Revised: 2023/09/20; Accepted: 2023/10/30

Type of Article: **Research**

Pp: 159-191



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Citations: AmiriNejad, A. & Irvani Ghadim, F., (2024). "Rereading of Neo-Assyrian Pottery in the West and Northwest of Iran". *Pazhohesh-ha-ye Bastan Shenasi Iran*, 14(41): 159-191. doi: 10.22084/nb.2023.27987.2604

Homepage of this Article: https://nbsh.basu.ac.ir/article_5730.html?lang=en

PAZHOSHESH-HA-YE BASTANSHENASI IRAN
Archaeological Researches of Iran
Journal of Department of Archaeology, Faculty of Art and Architecture, Bu-Ali Sina University, Hamadan, Iran.

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Abstract

The Neo-Assyrian Empire, a significant power in the ancient Middle East during the first millennium BC, left behind a legacy of pottery types that serve as crucial archaeological evidence. Previous studies have categorized Assyrian pottery into two main groups: "Standard ware" and "Palace ware." This research focuses on identifying the characteristics of Neo-Assyrian pottery in the western and northwest regions of Iran. The examination of Neo-Assyrian pottery across the western, central, and eastern territories of the empire has been conducted and contrasted with that of Iron Age sites in the western and northwestern regions of Iran through the utilization of library research methodology. The inquiries that necessitate responses pertain to identifying the characteristics of Neo-Assyrian pottery in the western and northwestern areas of Iran, as well as determining the specific types of Neo-Assyrian pottery discovered in these areas. The findings demonstrate the presence of Neo-Assyrian "Standard ware" in the western, central, and eastern sectors, while "Palace ware" remains absent in the eastern territories. The analysis of Neo-Assyrian "Standard ware" typology and its comparison indicates its prevalence in the west and northwest of Iran. Given the significance of recognizing Neo-Assyrian pottery for scholars studying the Iron Age in these regions, a systematic and comprehensive typological framework for common and distinctive Neo-Assyrian pottery has been established in this study.

Keywords: Neo-Assyria, Pottery, West of Iran, Northwest of Iran.



Introduction

The Assyrians rose to power and built a vast empire towards the end of the Late Bronze Age, solidifying their dominance in the ancient Middle East during the first millennium BC. In its greatest extent, this empire reached from Egypt to western Iran, encompassing regions of Anatolia to the Persian Gulf (Frahm, 2017: 179-190). The pottery remains from this period provide valuable insights into the Assyrian presence in various parts of the Middle East, with Neo-Assyrian “Standard ware” and “Palace ware” being key classifications.

The pottery of this era stands out due to its unique features in both form and function, setting it apart from pottery produced in other periods. Additionally, different regions within the expansive empire exhibit specific characteristics in their pottery. This results in a blend of the empire’s distinct pottery style in the central region with local pottery, creating a type of pottery that is distinct from local variations and shares typological similarities with imperial pottery. By studying a combination of Neo-Assyrian and local pottery, researchers can gain a deeper insight into the Assyrian influence across the empire.

This research has developed a consistent and inclusive model for identifying and classifying prevalent and distinctive Neo-Assyrian pottery. Moreover, all the main types and sub-branches of Neo-Assyrian pottery resulting from field activities from the 19th to the 21st century have been introduced and compared with those of the sites in the west and northwest of Zagros.

The findings of this research could have been articulated in two manners: by verifying the existence of Assyrians in the western and northwestern regions of Iran based on textual and archaeological proof, such as the identification of unique Assyrian pottery, and by establishing a precise classification system for the shapes and features of common and unique Neo-Assyrian pottery for archaeological investigations in the western and northwestern regions of Iran.

Research Background and the Studied Area

With the end of the late Bronze Age and the reign of Ashur-dan II in 934 BCE, the Assyrians were able to expand their territory beyond the core region. This period, from 934 to 824 BC, marked the foundation of the empire. During this time, their presence in the eastern and western regions of the central territory was consolidated, and new provinces and agricultural infrastructure were established. At the end of this period, the regions of

Khabur, Middle Euphrates, and eastern Zab were occupied, and the buffer zones on the border with Urartu were strengthened (Frahm, 2017: 161-209). Assyria experienced a period of internal turmoil following the passing of Shalmaneser III, leading to an economic downturn from 824 to 745 BC. Nevertheless, there emerged a period of heightened Assyrian power from 744 to 631 BCE, encompassing territories from the east to the Salt Desert, Mount Bikni, and the Great Sea, and from the west to the Mediterranean Sea and Egypt, with the southern border reaching the Persian Gulf and the northern border extending to the foothills of the Taurus Mountains. During this time, Assyrian supremacy was undisputed, and threats from Elam, Egypt, and Urartu were successfully neutralized. The decline of the Assyrian Empire commenced with the demise of Ashurbanipal. Ultimately, Nineveh fell due to the combined forces of Babylon and Media in 612 BC, leading to the disappearance of the Assyrian Empire from the political landscape (Radner, 2006; Bagg, 2011; Frahm, 2017; Irvani Ghadim, 2017: 130-136).

In this study, significant settlements of the Neo-Assyrian in central, western, and eastern regions have been investigated. These areas include the central section known in ancient literature as Central Assyria or the Assyrian Triangle, consisting of the areas between the three cities of Assur, Nineveh, and Arbela. The geographical scope of this region encompasses from the east to the stretch of the Little Zab, from the south along the Tigris to the confluence of the Little Zab and the Tigris, from the north along Arbela to Khorsabad, and from the west to the eastern bank of the Tigris, terminating at Nineveh and Khorsabad. Notable urban centers within this locality include Assur, Kar-Tukulti-Ninurta, Nimrud, Khorsabad, Nineveh, and Arbela (Sarre et al., 1911; Parker, 2001; Altaweel, 2008; Radner, 2011; Harmanşah, 2012; Ur, 2013; Maul, 2017; Politopoulos, 2020).

The western regions in this study extend from the western part of the Assyrian Triangle to the Mediterranean Sea, encompassing the eastern Syrian territories and the Taurus Mountains in this area. The Neo-Assyrian Empire conducted a total of 67 military campaigns in these regions and established 21 provinces and administrative centers to control the western territories (Sader, 1987; Hawkins, 1995; Bagg, 2017). The eastern regions of the Neo-Assyrian Empire extend from the eastern part of the Little Zab to the western Zagros along the current political borders of Iran.

The studies on Neo-Assyrian potsherds began sporadically in 1954. In this study, Neo-Assyrian settlements in the tripartite regions were examined as follows:

The studies on settlements in the Neo-Assyrian Triangle included ancient sites such as Assur (1954, 2000, 2007, 2014)¹, Nimrud (1954, 1959, 1999, 2014, 2016)², Nineveh (1999, 2014, 2016)³, Kar-Tukulti-Ninurta (1999)⁴, Arbela (2007, 2008, 2012)⁵, Qasr Shammamokh (2008, 2010)⁶, Tel Gomel (2018), and Kikk Mish (2018)⁷.

The studies on settlements in the western region of the Neo-Assyrian Empire included ancient sites such as Sultan Tepe (1953)⁸, Khirbet Qasrij (1989)⁹, Tel Rima (1997)¹⁰, Khirbet Khatuniyah (1997)¹¹, Tel Bidar (1997)¹², Mosul Dam Rescue Excavations (1999)¹³, Tel Hoyuk (1999)¹⁴, Tel Ahmar (1999, 2012)¹⁵, Leader Hoyuk (1999)¹⁶, Tel Sheikh Hamad (2006)¹⁷, Ziyarat Tepe (2007)¹⁸, Carchemish (2014)¹⁹. The studies on settlements in the eastern region of the Neo-Assyrian Empire included ancient sites such as Bakrava (2011)²⁰, Ancient Shor (2012)²¹, Gerd-e Bazaar (2016)²², Satu Qala (2016)²³, Tepe Dinka (2019)²⁴, Nakor Plain (2019, 2020)²⁵, Darband Rania (2020)²⁶ (Table 1).

The western and northwestern regions of Iran have been of interest since the Early Assyrian period, but the first serious presence of the Assyrians occurred during the reign of Shalmaneser I. The Assyrian kings pursued a policy aimed at gaining war booty without a permanent presence in the region before the reign of Shalmaneser III. However, it was during the reign of Tiglath-Pileser III that the Assyrians established a permanent presence in the west (Kermanshah, Kurdistan, and Hamadan) and northwestern Zagros (Urmia Lake basin) with the establishment of provinces such as Parsua and Bit-Hamban and the reconstruction of the city of Nikur. This continued until the end of the reign of Ashurbanipal, during which eight cities²⁷ were established or rebuilt in the western and northwestern Zagros region (Fuchs, 1994: 390-445; Tadmor et al., 2011: 171-192; Grayson, 2012: 100-230; MacGinnis, 2020: 37-55).

In this study, data obtained from Iron Age settlements²⁸ in western²⁹ and northwestern Iran included Ziwiye (1965)³⁰, Babajan (1985)³¹, Godin (2000, 2011)³², Zindan-e Suleiman (2006)³³, Changbar Cemetery (2016)³⁴, Hasanlu (2011, 2013)³⁵, Tel Bary (2017)³⁶, Qaleh Jowshatooyi (2021)³⁷, and Sanqur Plain (2017)³⁸, Brisu Tepe (2015)³⁹, and Tel Karash (2018-2019)⁴⁰ were compared with Neo-Assyrian settlements in eastern and central Assyria. (The sources and related studies are in Table 1 and Table 7).

Until 2010, the focus of Neo-Assyrian pottery studies was primarily on regions such as the Assyrian Triangle and the eastern part of the empire, as seen in pottery atlases like the “Atlas of Assyrian Pottery” (Anastasio,

2010; Hausleiter, 2010). On the other hand, these atlases do not include new data, and there is not much attention given to eastern regions, particularly there is no mention of excavations in western and northwestern Iran.

With the initiation of excavations in the eastern part of the empire in 2011, a new chapter of Neo-Assyrian pottery studies began. Excavations by Radner and Cooper in Gerd-e Bazaar, Dinka, and Bestansur have effectively analyzed the connection of Neo-Assyrian pottery with the center of Assyria and the eastern empire (Radner et al., 2016-2017-2018-2019; Herr, 2018: 97-112; Cooper, 2019, p.174-175). However, there have been brief mentions of the western Zagros regions, and a comprehensive analysis of them has not been conducted. In this study, pottery from 43 archaeological settlements was evaluated (Table 1; Fig. 1).

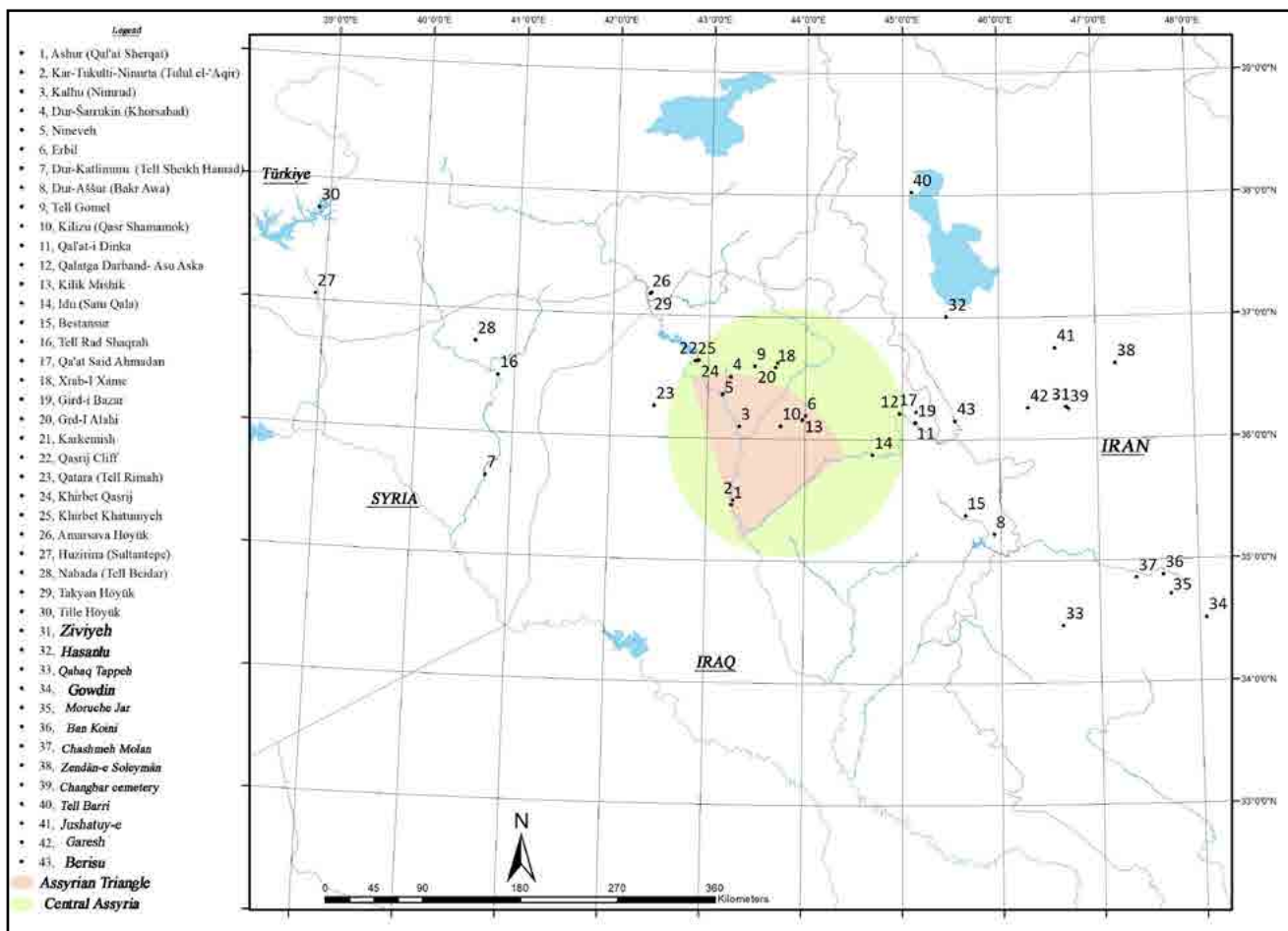


Fig. 1: Distribution of the Sites (Authors, 2022). ▲

Neo-Assyrian Standard Ware

The present investigation presents Neo-Assyrian pottery in two distinct categories: Standard Ware and Palace Ware. Neo-Assyrian Standard Ware encompasses the various types of pottery that were prevalent during the Neo-Assyrian era and served a wide range of purposes. These pottery types

References	Selected Sites with Neo-Assyrian Pottery
Lloyd & Gokçe, 1953	Sultantepe
Lines, 1954	Nimrud
Haller, 1954	Assur
Oates, 1959	Fort Shalmaneser
Muscarella, 1974	Tepe Dinkha
Goff, 1985	Baba Jan
Curtis, 1989	Qasrij Cliff; Khirbet Qasrij
Curtis & Green 1997	Khirbet Khatuniyeh
Bretschneider 1997	Tell Beydar
Postgate et al., 1997	Tell al-Rimah
Lumsden, 1999	Nineveh/Ninawa
Hausleiter, 1999	Kalḫu/Nimrud
Jamieson, 1999	Tell Ahmar
Blaylock, 1999	Tille Höyük
Green, 1999	Eski-Mosul Region
Schmidt, 1999	Kar-Tukulti-Ninurta
Müller, 1999	Lidar Höyük
Miglus, 2000	Assur
Kreppner, 2006	Tall Šēḫ Hamad, Dūr-Katlimmu
Matney, et al., 2007	Ziyaret Tepe
Beuger, 2007	Assur
Filipský & Pavelka, 2008	City of Arbil
Anastasio, 2008	Qasr Shamamuk
Hausleiter 2010	Neuassyrische Keramik im Kerngebiet Assyriens
Anastasio 2010	Atlas of the Assyrian Pottery of the Iron Age
Gopnik & Rothmann 2011	Godin Tape
Miglus, et al. 2011	Tell Bakr Āwa
Cooper, et al. 2012	Bestansur Tell
Algaze, et al. 2012	Cizre dam; Cizre-silopi Plain Survey
Jamieson, 2012	Tell Ahmar III
Van Ess, et al. 2012	City of Arbil
Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014	Karkemish; Yunus
Pappi, 2016	Satu Qala
Coşkun, 2016	Harran Plain
Radner, et al. 2016	Gird-i Bazar; Qalat-i Dinka
Gavagnin, et al. 2016	Nineveh
Pfälzner, 2016	The Eastern Habur Archaeological Survey
Othman, 2018	Tell Kilik Mishik
Bonacossi, et al. 2018	Gir-e Gomel
Radner, et al. 2019	qalat-i dinka
Koliński, et al. 2020	navkūr plain (Grd-I Alahi; Xrab-I Xame)
MacGinnis, et al. 2020	Darband-i Rania

◀ Table 1: Distribution of the Sites (Authors, 2022).

can be distinguished across the empire's territory based on their defining characteristics (Tables 2–4, 6). In contrast, Palace Ware is exclusive to the Neo-Assyrian period (Table 5), as it was not manufactured in the periods preceding or succeeding Neo-Assyria. This particular type of pottery was acquired in the central and western regions of Assyria.

The first step in recognizing Neo-Assyrian pottery is to understand its components. Generally, pottery vessels consist of three main parts: the rim, body, and base. Depending on the function and form of the vessel, it may also have a neck, foot, spout, and handle (Hendrix et al., 1997: 5-9). The most common and characteristic forms of Neo-Assyrian pottery rims (Table 2) include plain rim, dentate rim, hammered rim, raised rim, outward sloping rim, everted rim, triangular rim, rectangular rim, thickened rim, rounded rim, thick rounded rim, square rim, inverted rim, banded rim, narrowed rim, beveled rim, projecting rim, and molded banded rim. The most common and characteristic forms of Neo-Assyrian pottery bases (Table 3) include ring base, point base, button base, nipple base, spur-footed base, pedestal base, rounded base, concave grooved base, plain concave base, disc base, convex base, and flat or smooth base⁴¹.

Table 2: Neo-Assyrian Pottery Rims (Authors, 2022). ▶

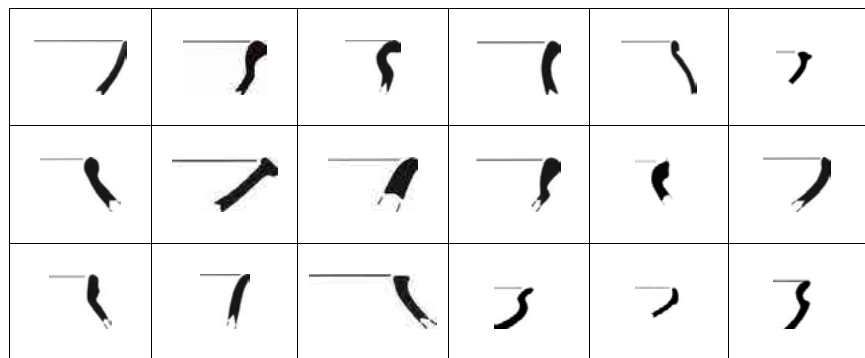
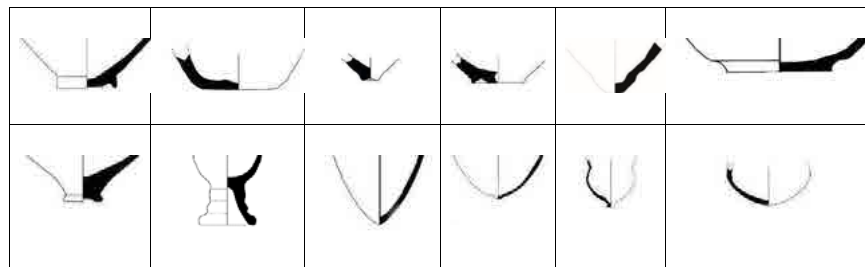


Table 3: Neo-Assyrian Pottery Bases (Authors, 2022). ▶



In pottery typology, particularly in Neo-Assyrian pottery, recognizing the form of pottery vessels is essential. Form is a combination of shape and size of a pottery vessel and, regardless of spatio-temporal dimensions, it is divided into two main types: open-mouthed and closed-mouthed forms (Hendrix et al., 1997)⁴². All types of Neo-Assyrian pottery vessels

are classified into these two groups, where bowls are categorized as the primary form and origin of open-mouthed vessels, and jars as the primary form and origin of closed-mouthed vessels. Other pottery vessels fall under the subcategories of these three primary forms. The second step in pottery vessel typology is determining the vessel's size (Hendrix et al., 1997: 26-28).

The size of open-mouthed vessels is calculated based on their maximum diameter and depth, determining the ratio of the maximum diameter to the height. Accordingly, small bowls have a diameter of 10 centimeters, medium bowls range from 10 to 14.9 centimeters, large bowls range from 15 to 24.9 centimeters, very large bowls range from 25 to 75 centimeters, and extra-large bowls exceed 75 centimeters. The depth of the bowl, based on the ratio of diameter to height, includes shallow bowls with a ratio of less than 20%, medium-depth bowls with a ratio between 20% and 74.9%, and deep bowls with a ratio of 75% to 100% (Hendrix et al., 1997: 31-37).

The common and characteristic open-mouthed forms in standard Assyrian pottery include: Simple bowl with a plain rim and a ring base (Table 4: Row 1)⁴³, simple bowl with a thickened rim and a ring base (Table 4: Row 2)⁴⁴, simple bowl with a dentate rim (Table 4: Row 3)⁴⁵, simple bowl with an outward-flaring rim (Table 4: Row 4)⁴⁶, angled bowl with an outward-sloping rim and a ring base (Table 4: Row 5)⁴⁷, angled bowl with a thickened rim and ring base and a groove on the rim (Table 4: Row 6)⁴⁸, angled bowl with an outward-flaring S-shaped rim, typically with a ring base (Table 4: Row 7)⁴⁹, angled bowl with a dentate rim (Table 4: Row 8a), angled bowl with a rounded rim (Table 4: Row 8b)⁵⁰, convex bowl with an outward-flaring rim (Table 4: Row 9)⁵¹, convex bowl with a hammered rim (Table 4: Row 10)⁵², convex bowl with a square rim (Table 4: Row 11)⁵³, and convex bowl with a triangular rim (Table 4: Row 12)⁵⁴.

Most Assyrian bowls are predominantly small to medium-sized and are made using pottery wheel techniques. Based on the study of Assyrian pottery from the examined areas, the temper used in the western regions consists mostly of straw, while in the central and eastern regions, it tends to be sandy or mineral-based (Curtis, 1989; Curtis & Green, 1997). The hue of the paste used for crafting bowls remains relatively consistent, predominantly appearing as buff with shades that span from yellow to green, often concealed beneath a layer of paste. Consequently, the surface of the bowl exhibits a slightly altered coloration due to the influence of heat. Assyrian open-mouthed vessels of standard design undergo firing at three distinct temperature thresholds: between 600 and 700 degrees

Celsius, the paste displays a brownish tinge with hints of red; when fired at 700-850 degrees Celsius, it transitions to hues of orange and buff; and finally, firing at 850-1000 degrees Celsius results in a more pronounced buff coloration (Othman, 2018).

Bowls originating from the central areas of Assyria typically consist of paste that varies in color from pink to brick-red, showcasing a surface that leans towards a pinkish-yellow tint. The predominant hue for the paste is buff with subtle undertones of orange, although in the western territories, the paste tends to exhibit a more pinkish-buff shade, whereas in the eastern regions, it tends towards reddish-yellow or pink (Jamieson, 2012; Bonomo & Zaina, 2014: 142; Othman, 2018: 137-139).

Assyrian potters commonly crafted simple and angled bowls in small to medium sizes with shallow to medium depth, dentated rims, and ring bases in buff color (Table 4: Rows 3-8)⁵⁵. These products were prevalent during the Assyrian Middle Period but became more common during the Neo-Assyrian Period. Shallow angled bowls with protruding and outward-turned rims, along with ring bases, made of sandy and medium to fine paste, are characteristic examples from the Nimrud region (Table 4: Rows 5-7)⁵⁶.

Other common types of open-mouthed vessels in Assyrian Standard Ware are bowls and cups, including a bowl with a straight profile and thinned rim and flat base (Table 4: Row 13)⁵⁷, a bowl with a curved profile and outward-sloping rim and flat base, known as a *istekan* (Table 4: Row 14)⁵⁸, a bowl with an angled profile, outward-sloping rim, and nipple base (Table 4: Row 15)⁵⁹, an angled cup with outward-sloping rim and tall base (Table 4: Row 16)⁶⁰, and an angled cup with outward-sloping rim and tall base (Table 4: Row 17)⁶¹.

Istekans are small drinking vessels that were widely popular in the 7th century BC and were found in most central and western areas of the empire, as well as in some eastern areas. Generally, cups and bowls are small to medium-sized drinking vessels with shallow to moderate depths⁶². The type with a nipple base was more popular in Nimrud (Table 4: Row 15)⁶³.

In this study, pots are classified as Assyrian closed vessels. The most common pots of this period include necked pots⁶⁴ decorated on the shoulder and with a rounded bottom (Table 4: Row 18)⁶⁵, neckless pots with raised edges (Table 4: Row 19)⁶⁶, and pots with loop handles (Table 4: Row 20)⁶⁷. The pots obtained from Assyrian settlements are wheel-made and have a medium texture, with their paste mainly being sandy and exhibiting a color

spectrum ranging from brown to reddish-brown.


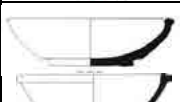



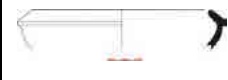

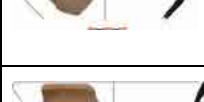

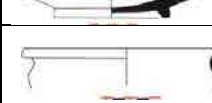
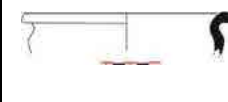

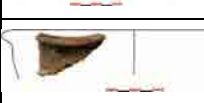
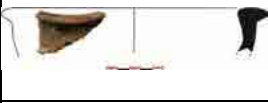





Standard closed-mouth vessels of the Assyrian period include neckless jars with angular rims (Table 4: Row 21)⁶⁸, neckless jars with dentate rims (Table 4: Row 22)⁶⁹, jars with a pear-shaped body and thickened rim with a button base (Table 4: Row 23)⁷⁰, jars with an elongated and tall body with a button base (Table 4: Row 24)⁷¹, necked jars with a thickened rounded rim (Table 4: Row 25)⁷², necked jars with a cornered rim (Table 4: Row 26)⁷³, necked jars with incised and added decorations on the shoulder (Table 4: Row 27)⁷⁴, and necked jars with a rounded bottom and decorations on the shoulder and neck (Table 4: Row 28)⁷⁵.















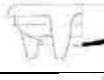

Storage jars were an essential part of transportation and storage practices in the Middle Assyrian period. These jars, which came in various forms including handled, handle-less, necked, and neckless, were crafted by hand using mixtures of straw, organic, and mineral materials. These types of vessels were commonly used during the Middle Assyrian period and continued to be prevalent. Moreover, tripod vessels and oil lamps were also uncovered in Neo-Assyrian settlements throughout the Assyrian Empire (Table 4: Rows 29-30)⁷⁷.

Palace Ware

In 1954, the initial classification of fine and eggshell potteries was established during the examination of pottery vessels from the northwestern palace of Nimrud, a category that became known as Palace Ware (Rawson, 1954). Subsequently, in 1959, Oates re-evaluated this classification in his analysis of pottery from the palace of Shalmaneser III, positing that Palace Ware was characterized by its thinness and a buff or greenish-gray hue. She identified two distinct categories of pottery, namely Palace Ware and Standard Assyrian Ware (Oates, 1959). Palace Ware serves as a representative and characteristic form of pottery from the Assyrian era, characterized by its brief period of prominence. Its creation began during the Iron Age and concluded with the decline of the Assyrian Empire, although a few instances persisted until 608 BC. According to Hunt, this type of pottery is attributed to the late 8th to 7th centuries BC (Hunt, 2014: 135). The main types of palace ware include: Necked cup with a thin outward-leaning rim, and button base, decorated with fingerprint impressions and regular incised lines (Table 5: Row 31)⁷⁸; Necked cup with a thin outward-leaning rim, and nipple base, decorated with fingerprint impressions (Table 5: Row 32)⁷⁹; Necked cup with a thin outward-leaning rim, and ring base, decorated with fingerprint impressions (Table 5: Row 33)⁸⁰; Necked cup

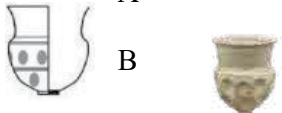



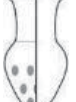



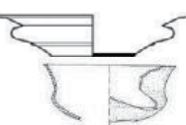
Table 4: Neo-Assyrian Standard Ware (Authors, 2022). ▼

References	Triple regions			Standard Ware	No
	West	HeartLand	East		
Cooper, et al., 2012, fig. 3.1; Jamieson 2012, fig. 3.2; Miglus, et al., 2011, Taf. 1: d-e; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.2; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 4.1; Curtis, & Green, 1997, fig. 29, fig 35; Lines, 1954: Pl. XXXVII.	*	*	*	 A  B	1
Gavagnin, et al., 2016, fig. 18; Pfälzner, 2016, pl. 9; Cooper, et al., 2012, fig. 13.1; Van Ess, et al. 2012, pl. 11; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.4; Anastasio, 2010, Pl.6; Pl.8; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 5, 10; Postgate, et al., 1997, Pl. 56; Jamieson, 1999, fig.1; Green, 1999, fig. 8; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 4; Hausleiter, 1999, fig. 4; Curtis, & Green, 1997, fig. 35; Curtis, 1989, fig. 26; fig. 28; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXV.	*	*	*	 A  B	2
Pfälzner, 2016, pl. 9; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.4; Cooper, et al., 2012, fig. 13.1; Anastasio, 2010, 89, pl. 6; Matney, et al., 2007, fig. 18d; Kreppner, 2006, taf. 4, 7; Schmidt, 1999, Abb. 6a; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 5; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 6; Bretschneider, 1997, Taf. II, 1. Postgate, et al., 1997, Pl. 56; Curtis, 1989, fig. 27; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXV; Haller, 1954, Taf. 6; Lloyd, & Gokçe, 1953, fig. 6.	*	*	*		3
Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 3; Cooper, et al., 2012, fig. 13.1; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.4; Gopnik, 2011, fig. 7; Goff, 1985, fig. 2; Curtis, 1989, fig. 23.	*	*	*		4
Radner, et al., 2019, fig. G1.3; fig., G1.2; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.4; Bonomo & Zaina, 2014, fig. 3; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 5; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 1, 12; Miglus, et al., 2000, Abb. 9k; 29c; 30f; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 5, 9. Blaylock, 1999, fig. 5; Anastasio, 2010, 97, pl.10. Pfälzner, 2016, pl. 9; Haller, 1954, Taf. 6; Green, 1999, fig. 6.	*	*	*	 A  B	5
MacGinnis, et al., 2020, fig. 29; Radner, et al., 2019, fig. G1.2; Anastasio, 2008, tav.V; Beuger, 2007, taf. 22, 23a; Gavagnin, et al., 2016, fig. 18; Othman, 2018, pl. 38; pl.40; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.4; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.3; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 3.	*	*	*	 A  B	6
Oates, 1959, pl. XXXV; Othman, 2018, pl. 34; pl.39; Curtis, & Green, 1997, fig. 56; fig. 28; fig. 33; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.3; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 3; Algaze, 2012, fig. 25; Cooper, et al., 2012, fig. 13.1; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.5.	*	*	*		7
Anastasio, 2010, 97, pl.13; Gavagnin, et al., 2016, fig 18; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 3; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.5; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 5; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXV; Coşkun, 2016, fig.5; fig. 2; Othman, 2018, pl. 38; pl. 39; Radner, et al, 2016, fig. D2.3.	*	*	*	 A  B	8
Bonacossi, et al., 2018, Fig. 41; Coşkun, 2016, fig. 5; fig. 2; fig 4; fig 7; Othman, 2018, pl. 34; pl. 36; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 48.4; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 3.	*	*	*		9
Othman, 2018, pl. 35; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 51; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.6.	*	*	*		10
Othman, 2018, pl. 35; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 1.	*	*	*		11
Radner, et al., 2016, fig. D2.2; Hausleiter, 2010, pl. 53: SF 8.3; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.6.	*	*	*		12
Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVI; Curtis, 1989, fig. 10, 33; Anastasio, 2010, pl.27; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.13; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 4, 1-2. 4-5.	*	*	*		13
Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVI; Curtis, 1989, fig. 10, 33; Anastasio, 2010, pl.27; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 4, 1-2. 4-5.	*	*	*		14

Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVI; Curtis, 1989, fig. 10, 33; Anastasio, 2010, pl.27; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 4, 1-2. 4-5; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.13.	*	*			15
Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.13; Müller, 1999. Abb.17; Miglus, et al, 2000, Abb. 30a; Anastasio, 2010, pl.16; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVII.	*	*			16
Matney, et al., 2007, fig. 16; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 10; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.13; Anastasio, 2010, pl.16.	*	*			17
Othman, 2018, pl. 44; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6; Radner, et al., 2019, fig. G1.3; fig. G1.5; Cooper, et al., 2012, fig.13.2; Radner, et al, 2016, fig. D2.6; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.12; Schmidt, 1999, Abb. 8.	*	*	*		18
Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6; Coşkun, 2016, fig.5; fig. 7; Radner, et al., 2016, fig. D2.6; Othman, 2018, pl. 41; pl. 42; pl. 43; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 5; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.12; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 3.	*	*	*		19
Radner, et al., 2019, fig. G1.5; Radner, et al., 2016, fig. D2.6; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.12; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.6; Schmidt, 1999, Abb. 7b; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 3; fig. 3; Goff, 1985, fig. 6.	*	*	*		20
Othman, 2018, pl. 46; pl. 47; pl. 48; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 30; Taf. 56; Muscarella, 1975, fig. 36; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 11.	*	*	*		21
Othman, 2018, pl. 47; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 11; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 7; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.12.	*	*	*		22
Anastasio, 2010, Pl. 6; Pl. 27; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 14; Taf. 24; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 9; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVIII; Pappi, 2016, fig. 6.	*	*	*		23
Pappi, 2016, fig. 6; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 9; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 14; Taf. 22; Lines, 1954: Pl. XXXVIX; Curtis, & Green, 1997, fig. 42; Curtis, & Reade, 1995, 159; Anastasio, 2010, Pl. 6; Pl. 24; Matney, et al., 2007, fig. 19.	*	*	*		24
Radner, et al., 2019, fig., G1.4; Radner, et al., 2016, fig., D2.5; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 12; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.18; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 7; Othman, 2018, pl. 50; pl. 51; Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6.	*	*	*		25
Othman, 2018, pl. 52; pl. 53; Bonomo & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6; fig. 8; Radner, et al, 2016, fig. D2.6; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 11; Cooper, et al, 2012, fig.13.1; Gopnik, 2011, fig. 7; Algaze, 2012, fig. 24; Bonacossi, et al, 2018, Fig. 41.	*	*	*		26
Radner, et al, 2019, fig. G1.13; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.20; Hausleiter, 1999, fig. 3; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 11; Gavagnin, et al., 2016, fig 18; Haller, 1954, Taf. 3f; Anastasio, 2010, Pl. 24; Bonacossi, et al., 2018, Fig. 42; Radner, et al., 2016, fig. D2.5.	*	*	*		27
Anastasio, 2008, tav. VII; Othman, 2018, pl. 49; pl. 50; pl. 54; pl. 56; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.17; Bonomo & Zaina, 2014, fig. 4; Hausleiter, 1999, fig. 6.	*	*	*		28
Lines, 1954: Pl. XXXVIII; Postgate, et al., 1997, Pl. 56; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.27; Hausleiter, 1999, fig. 2; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 4.	*	*	*		29
Miglus, et al., 2000, Abb. 29b; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 57; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 10; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.15.	*	*	*		30

with a thin outward-leaning rim, and nipple base, decorated with regular incised lines (Table 5: Row 34)⁸¹; Tall-necked cup with a thin outward-leaning rim, and button base, decorated with fingerprint impressions (Table 5: Row 35)⁸²; Necked jar with a thin outward-leaning rim, and flat base, decorated with fingerprint impressions (Table 5: Row 36)⁸³; Necked jar with a thin outward-leaning rim, and button base, decorated with fingerprint impressions and regular incised lines (Table 5: Row 37)⁸⁴; Tall-necked jar with a thin outward-leaning rim, flat base, and sometimes nipple, decorated with fingerprint impressions (Table 5: Row 38)⁸⁵; Angled bowl with thin outward-leaning rim, flat base, decorated with regular incised lines (Table 5: Row 39); Angled bowl with thin outward-leaning rim, without decoration (Table 5: Row 39)⁸⁶.

Table 5: Neo-Assyrian Palace Ware (Authors, 2022). ▼

References	Triple regions			Palace Ware	No
	West	Heartland	East		
Hunt, 2015, fig.3.12; fig. 4.22; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 97; Haller, 1954, Taf. 5u; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVII. Curtis, 1989, fig. 10, 42.	*	*			31
Hunt, 2015, fig.3.13; fig. 3.16; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 97; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVII; Miglus, et al., 2000, Abb. 30b; Anastasio, 2010, pl. 2.7.	*	*			32
Hunt, 2015, fig.3.12; Bonacossi, et al., 2018, Fig. 16b.	*	*			33
Hussein, el al., 2016, pl. 216c; pl. 216f. Curtis & Green, 1997. Fig. 51 ; Oates, 1959, pl.XXXVII; Bonacossi, et al., 2018, Fig. 16c.	*	*			34
Hunt, 2015, fig. 3.14; Oates, 1959, pl.XXXVII.	*	*			35
Hunt, 2015, fig. 3.16; Curtis & Green, 1997, Fig. 51; Oates, 1959, pl.XXXVII.	*	*			36
Hunt, 2015, fig. 3.16; Oates, 1959, pl.XXXVII.	*	*			37
Hunt, 2015, fig. 3.18; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.25; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVII; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 11.	*	*			38
Hunt, 2015, fig. 3.10; Jamieson, 2012, fig 3.25; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 10; Kreppner, 2006, Taf. 96; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVII; Curtis, 1989, fig. 31; Jamieson, 1999, fig. 6.	*	*			39

The Palace Ware has several distinctive features that distinguish it from other Assyrian pottery. These vessels include bowls, cups, and very small jars with a maximum diameter of 6–14 centimeters, a rim diameter of 6–14 centimeters, a base diameter of 0–8 centimeters, and an average wall thickness of 0.20 centimeters. (The thin eggshell wall is one of the key features of Palace Ware, with a thickness ranging from 0.15–3.5 centimeters, typically averaging 0.20 centimeters, regardless of the shape and size of the ceramic piece). The paste is very fine-grained and buff, with a slight greenish hue, and it has been fired at temperatures between 850 to 1100 degrees Celsius (The palace ware, characterized by its thinness, shares a similar surface and paste coloration with artifacts from Nimrud and Nineveh, which generally display a spectrum of colors ranging from olive to light brownish-yellow. The paste is composed of fine sand particles, including quartz, amphibole, and mica, and is subjected to firing temperatures ranging from 1100 to 1050 degrees Celsius).

Due to their outwardly protruding rims, these pottery vessels were largely incapable of accommodating lids. Furthermore, their small size and thin construction made them impractical for use in transportation or storage. However, it is conceivable that they were utilized for the conveyance of valuable materials such as refined oils, perfumes, and resins⁸⁷ (Freestone, 1989; Hughes, et al., 1997; Engstrom, 2004; Hunt, 2015).

Decorations of Neo Assyrian Pottery

Standard Assyrian ware is distinguished by its diverse decorative techniques, which encompass added, incised, impressed, and polished motifs. The hallmark decorations of this pottery type include glazed surfaces, painted imagery, incised circular designs, and linear patterns that are often geometric in nature. Conversely, Palace Ware is primarily adorned with delicate incised patterns of parallel lines and unique fingerprint impressions, which are specific to its surfaces.

Incised decoration: In most cases, horizontal or geometric lines are carved into the shoulder and body of Standard Assyrian ware utilizing a sharp tool, a practice that is frequently noted on larger and medium-sized closed-mouth vessels (Table 6: Row 40)⁸⁸.

Added decoration: This particular decorative style is seldom encountered in Standard Assyrian ware and is usually identified on large jars, where it manifests as impressions that mimic cords (Table 6: Row 42)⁸⁹.

Painting: The occurrence of painting on Assyrian pottery is an uncommon phenomenon, primarily observed in the central region of

Assyria. This artistic expression is typically manifested as horizontal bands on diminutive jars characterized by pointed or nipple-shaped bases. The painted motifs include horizontal bands, geometric designs, and undulating lines, utilizing a color palette that spans from reddish-brown to black, particularly on Standard Assyrian ware (Table 6: Row 41)⁹⁰.

Glaze: In the ancient cities of Nimrud, Assyria, and Nineveh, the occurrence of glazed vessels is notably infrequent. This scarcity is particularly striking given that glazed bricks are a defining characteristic of royal Assyrian architecture (Reade, 1963: 38-47; Irvani Ghadim, et al., 2015: 15-20). Conversely, glazed pottery is prevalent in northern Syria, suggesting that its production was limited in this area, likely due to the forced relocation of its population to the core of the Assyrian empire (Jamieson, 2012: 37). The glazes sourced from eastern territories exhibit a matte blue to slightly green hue, while the paste colors range from light yellow to cream, with specimens discovered in the Zagros Mountains of Iran (Hassanzadeh, 2016). However, glazed decorations featuring floral patterns on the shoulders of necked jars have been found in the central and eastern Assyrian regions (Table 6: Row 44)⁹¹. Glazes were produced for both aesthetic and functional purposes, as they could provide a good seal for ceramic vessels.






Stamped or molded decoration: These patterns are created by using a mold on the vessel when it is not yet fully hardened. Several examples of molded decorations have been found in Shalmaneser Qal'at (Table 6: Row 43)⁹².

Discussion and Analysis

Neo-Assyrian pottery has been identified through scientific excavations in the central and western regions of the Neo-Assyrian Empire, contributing to a detailed understanding of the stratigraphic sequence of this historical period (Irvani ghadim & Amirnejad, 2023: 97-123). This pottery can be classified into two main types: Standard Ware and Palace Ware. Standard Ware consisted of ordinary vessels used by common people, produced and utilized in various open-mouthed and closed-mouthed forms, along with their subsets. Generally, this type of pottery comprised a mixture of organic materials such as straw and plant fibers to mineral substances like sandstone, calcite, mica, and so on as temper.

Curtis believed that the standard pottery of the Neo-Assyrian Empire, based on pottery from the western and central regions, contained a straw mixture as temper. He also suggested that sand and fine sand mixtures were

Table 6: Neo-Assyrian Palace Ware (Authors, 2022). ▼

References	Triple regions			Decorations	No
	West	HeartLand	East		
Bonomo & Zaina, 2014, fig. 6; Curtis & Green, 1997, fig. 52; Hausleiter, 2010: Tafel 117; Curtis, 1989, Fig.36; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.30; Koliński, 2019, 257, PL.PP.020.1; Othman, 2018, pl. 60.	*	*	*		40
Othman, 2018, pl. 61; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.29; Hausleiter, 1999: fig. 6.	*	*	*		41
Othman, 2018, pl. 61; Curtis & Green, 1997, fig. 52; Radner, et al., 2019, fig. G1.6.	*	*	*		42
Curtis & Green, 1997, fig. 66; Schmidt, 1999, Abb. 6b; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.30; Curtis & Reade, 1995, fig. 57.	*	*	*		43
Curtis & Green, 1997, fig. 38; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.29; Radner, et al., 2019, fig. G1.7; Jamieson, 1999, fig.7; Blaylock, 1999, fig. 11.	*	*	*		44

used in later periods after the Neo-Assyrian period⁹³ (Curtis, 1989; Curtis & Green, 1997).

Palace Ware was mainly used by the ruling class and elites of Assyria unlike Standard Ware, which had general utility. Due to their distinctive features in form, these pottery items can be observed playing prominent roles in the Assyrian royal reliefs (Stronach, 2000).

This type of pottery exhibits five distinctive features, including thin walls, very fine-grained paste, uniform delicate color, low capacity, and impression of fingerprints. The characteristic form of this pottery includes necked bowls, jars, and angled bowls, which were primarily used for beverages and possibly in very limited instances for storing precious materials such as purified oil, perfumes, and resins (Hunt, 2015: 89).

One of the main objectives and questions of this research is related to the presence of Assyrian pottery in the western and northwestern Zagros region. Therefore, it is necessary to first investigate the presence of Assyrians in this area.

The written sources of the Assyrian Empire indicate that Assyrian presence in the region has been continuous since the time of Tiglath-Pileser III (744-725 BC). They mention the presence of Assyrians among the Medes living in the Iranian plateau, referred to as “bēl āli,” meaning local

rulers or small city lords. They were considered poor people, incomparable to the urban centers of Mesopotamia.

Between 716 and 713 BC, more than 28 local Median rulers paid tribute to Sargon II, and governors of the provinces of Kiššim and Harhar which were responsible for controlling and collecting tribute from these rulers. According to sources, we know that this region was directly or indirectly administered by the empire for more than a century (Fuchs, 2017: 263). Archaeological evidence such as seals, ivory objects, and reliefs also testify to the presence of the Assyrians in the western regions of the Zagros (Radner, et al., 2020; Alibaigi, et al., 2023).
























Despite textual and archaeological evidence, there has been no mention of Assyrian pottery in the region in the investigations and excavations conducted so far⁹⁴. The lack of awareness and familiarity among Iranian researchers with Assyrian pottery could be one of the significant factors contributing to the failure to recognize these ceramics in archaeological studies in the western and northwestern Zagros region. Therefore, this research, as the first comprehensive study on recognizing Assyrian pottery in the West and Northwest of Iran, could be a valuable aid to active researchers in the western and northwestern Zagros region.

With the onset of archaeological excavations in the 2010s by Radner and Cooper in the Gerd-e Bazaar, Dinka, and Bestansur sites in the eastern regions of the empire, a limited comparison of Assyrian pottery with the Hasanlu IV site has been conducted. However, these studies have not extended to other areas in the west and northwest.

This research focused on the typology of Assyrian pottery in the Ziwiye, Hasanlu, Godin, Changbar Cemetery, Zindan-e Suleiman, Qaleh Jowshatooyi, Tel Bary, Berisu, and Garsh Tepe sites (Table 7: Rows 45-56) and the archaeological investigation of the Sanqur Plain, including the Molanabad Tepe, Morcheh Jar Tepe, and Ban Kini Tepe (Ghannbari, 2017, Fig 4-17. 19. 27). The results indicate the presence of Standard Assyrian Ware.

The selection of study areas was based on the settlements within the territories of the tribes residing in the western Zagros and the Mana territories. This is because there is conclusive evidence of Assyrian presence in these areas. Considering the Assyrian presence in the region, it is necessary to classify the pottery obtained. Pottery typology indicates that in terms of form, the pottery corresponds to the Assyrian type. Although the presence of Standard Assyrian Ware has been confirmed in the western and northwestern regions of the Zagros based on the findings of this research,

Table 7: Neo-Assyrian Standard Ware pottery in the west and northwest of Zagros (Authors, 2022). ▼

References	Pottery	References	Settlements	Pottery	NO
Schmidt, 1999, Abb. 6a; Algaze, 2012, fig. 25		Young, 1965. Fig3.	Ziwiye		45
Cooper, et al., 2012, fig.13.1; Curtis, 1989, fig. 24;		Danti, 2011. Fig. 18; Gopnik, 2000. Pl. 7.	Hasanlu, Godin		46
Pfälzner, 2016, pl. 9; Haller, 1954, Taf. 6; Green, 1999, fig. 6; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 5.		Danti, 2011. Fig. 18.	Hasanlu		47
Gavagnin, et al, 2016, fig 18; MacGinnis, et al, 2020, fig.29; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.5.		Danti, 2013. Fig. 4.2; Gopnik, 2000. Pl. 6.	Hasanlu, Godin		48
Radner, et al, 2019, fig. G1.4; Gavagnin, et al, 2016, fig 18; Oates, 1959, pl. XXXVIII; Bonacossi, et al, 2018, Fig. 41; Radner, et al, 2016, fig. D2.5; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.6.		Danti, 2013. Fig. 4.3; Gopnik, 2000. Pl. 1.	Hasanlu, Godin		49
Anastasio, 2010, pl. 59		Hassanzadeh, 2009, fig. 33.3	Changbar Cemetery		50
Othman, 2018, pl. 56.		Thomalsky, 2006, 251A 9.	Zindan-e Suleiman		51
Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.4; Cooper, et al, 2012, fig. 13.1; Anastasio, 2010, 89, pl.6; Matney, et al, 2007, fig. 18d.		Gopnik, 2000. Pl. 8.	Godin		52
Radner, et al., 2019. Fig. G1.2		Mollazadeh, & Binandeh, 2021. Fig.10	Qaleh Jowshatooyi		53
Curtis, 1989, fig. 23; Anastasio, 2010. pl.6; Algaze, 2012. fig.24; Pfälzner, 2016. pl. 9.		Mollazadeh, & Binandeh, A. 2021. Fig.11	Qaleh Jowshatooyi		54
Othman, 2018, pl. 53-54.		Binandeh, et al, 2017. Fig 11.	Tel Bary		55
Radner, et al, 2016. fig D2.5; Cooper, et al, 2012, fig.13.1.		Binandeh, & Razmpoush, 2015. Fig. 6; Ahmadiania, et al. 2018-2019. Fig. 9	Berisu, and Garsh Tepe		56

so far, Palace Ware has not been discovered in the eastern regions of the empire and the western and northwestern regions of the Zagros.

Limited excavations in these areas could play a key role in the absence of Palace Ware findings. Additionally, the continuous presence of Assyria and the establishment of provincial centers, which indicate the presence of Assyrian elites as governors and high-ranking officials in the region (Rander, 2006; Morello, 2010), could be a reason for the existence of palace pottery.

Conclusion

Common and characteristic Assyrian pottery can be classified into two main groups: Standard Ware and Palace Ware. These are further subdivided into two primary types of vessels: open-mouthed and closed-mouthed. Standard open-mouthed Ware includes various types of simple bowls, angular bowls in different forms, phiale, and cups, while the closed-mouthed type consists of pots, jars, and pitchers. Standard Ware is wheel-made, with only limited examples of handmade jars. The pottery paste is composed of both organic and mineral materials, with larger vessels primarily using organic paste, while smaller and medium-sized ones contain more fine sand. The color of the pottery pastes ranges from buff, light red, gray, to brown, with slight variations in color compared to the paste. Decorations on standard pottery are rare, but examples of incised, added, glazed, stamped, and painted decorations can be found.

Palace Ware is emblematic of the empire. With the fall of the empire, the production of this pottery also ceases. It is very delicate and often referred to as eggshell pottery, with limited capacity, making it best suited for drinking vessels. Palace Ware typically has a buff paste color, with its surface primarily made of pottery paste.

In total, a study of pottery data from 43 sites within the imperial domain has classified them into two main types: Standard Ware and Palace Ware. Standard Ware comprises 30 subcategories, while Palace Ware consists of 9 subcategories. Additionally, the prominent and common decorations of Standard Ware have been classified into 5 decorative styles.

According to the findings of this research, it is possible to identify the Assyrian pottery indices based on tables 4 and 7 in western and northwestern Iran. Accordingly, 12 pottery types with Assyrian construction techniques and decorations can be introduced in the settlements of Hasanlu, Ziwiyeh, Godin, Changbar Cemetery, Qaleh Jowshatooyi, Tel Berisu, and some other settlements. These types undoubtedly have similar structures to

Assyrian specimens in the central and western regions of the empire, but the Palace Ware types and their specific decorations have not been found in the eastern regions of the empire and western and northwestern Iran.

Acknowledgments

We express our sincere gratitude to the Dr. Ahmad Aliyari for his technical consultation providing.

Observation Contribution

The authors of the article jointly participated in research and review, methodology and editing.

Conflict of Interest

The authors are sure of the originality of their work, declares that there is no conflict of interest.

Endnote

1. Haller, 1954; Miglus, 2000; Beuger, 2007; Hunt, 2014.
2. Lines, 1954; Oates, 1959; Hausleiter, 1999; Hunt, 2014; Hussein, et al., 2016.
3. Gavagnin, et al., 2016; Lumsden, 1999; Hunt, 2014.
4. Schmidt, 1999.
5. Beuger, 2007; Filipický, & Pavelka, 2008; Van Ess, et al., 2012.
6. Anastasio, 2008-2010.
7. Othman, 2018.
8. Lloyd, & Gokçe, 1953.
9. Curtis, 1989; FreeStone & Hughes, 1989.
10. Postgate, et al., 1997.
11. Curtis, & Green, 1997.
12. Bretschneider, 1997.
13. Green, 1999.
14. Blaylock, 1999.
15. Jamieson, 1999-2012.
16. Müller, 1999.
17. Kreppner, 2006.
18. Matney, et al., 2007.
19. Bonomo, & Zaina, 2014.
20. Miglus, et al., 2011-2013.
21. Cooper, et al. 2012.
22. Radner, et al., 2016.
23. Pappi, 2016.
24. Radner, et al., 2019-2016.
25. Koliński, 2019-2020; Koliński, et al., 2020.
26. MacGinnis, et al., 2020.
27. Bīt-Ḥamban (Radner 2006, 57); Ḥarḥar, Kar Šarrukīn (Morello, 2010); Parsua(š) (Tadmor 1994, 98; SAA VII 128); Kišessim, Kar Nergal (Reade 1995, 39; Fuchs 1994, 443); KārNabû, Kār-Sin, Kār-Adad, Kār-Ištar (Fuchs 1994).

28. 1000-600B.C.
29. The excavation of Quwakh Tapeh (Qabaq Tepe) in Kozran, Kermanshah, under the supervision of Alibaigi, is ongoing, but the Assyrian pottery of this settlement has not been published so far (Alibaigi, et al., 2023).
30. Young, 1965.
31. Goff, 1985.
32. Gopnik, 2000; Gopnik, & Rothmann, 2011.
33. Thomalsky, 2006.
34. Hassanzadeh, 2009- 2016.
35. Danti, 2011-2013.
36. Binandeh, et al., 2017.
37. Binandeh, 2021.
38. Ghanbari, 2017.
39. Binandeh, & Razmpoush, 2015.
40. Ahmadiania, et al., 2018-2019.
41. Studies of Neo-Assyrian Pottery from 1953 to 2020.
42. Hendrix et al., 1997.
43. Cooper, et al., 2012, fig.3.1; Jamieson, 2012, fig. 3.2; Miglus, et al., 2011, Taf. 1: d-e; Hausleiter, 1999, fig.2; Lumsden, 1999, fig. 4.1; Curtis, & Green, 1997, fig. 29; fig 35; Lines, 1954: Pl. XXXVII.
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93. According to the new archeological excavations in the central and eastern areas, the hypothesis of Curtis has been rejected.
94. The excavation of Quwakh Tapeh (Qabaq Tepe) in Kozran, Kermanshah, under the supervision of Alibaigi, is ongoing, but the Assyrian pottery of this settlement has not been published so far (Alibaigi, Et al., 2023).

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گونه‌شناسی سفال آشورنو و بازخوانی آن در غرب و شمال غرب ایران

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شناسه دیجیتال (DOI): <https://dx.doi.org/10.22084/nb.2023.27987.2604>
 تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۲/۰۴/۰۵، تاریخ بازنگری: ۱۴۰۲/۰۶/۲۹، تاریخ پذیرش: ۱۴۰۲/۰۸/۰۸
 نوع مقاله: پژوهشی
 صص: ۱۵۹-۱۹۱

چکیده

امپراتوری آشورنو، یکی از مهم‌ترین قدرت‌های هزاره اول پیش از میلاد در خاورمیانه باستان بود. یکی از شناخته شده‌ترین داده‌های باستان‌شناسی امپراتوری آشورنو، سفال‌های این دوره است. براساس مطالعات انجام شده، سفال‌های آشورنو در دو فرم اصلی سفال استاندارد و سفال کاخ طبقه‌بندی می‌شود. سفال‌های شاخص آشورنو از نظر فرم و کارکرد دارای خصوصیات مختص به خود است که آن را از سفال‌های ادوار قبل و بعد از آن متمایز می‌کند؛ این خصوصیات در هر منطقه از قلمرو گسترده امپراتوری دارای ویژگی‌های خاصی است، به طوری که سفال‌های شاخص امپراتوری در قلمروی مرکزی با سفال‌های محلی درهم آمیخته و گونه‌ای منحصر ایجاد می‌کند که با سفال‌های بومی متفاوت بوده و ارتباط گونه‌شناسی مشخصی با سفال امپراتوری دارد؛ این آمیختگی سفال شاخص آشورنو با سفال‌های محلی این امکان را برای پژوهشگر ایجاد می‌کند تا بتواند درک درستی از حضور آشوریان در سراسر قلمرو امپراتوری داشته باشند. شناخت شاخص‌های سفال آشورنو در غرب و شمال غرب ایران مسأله اصلی این پژوهش می‌باشد؛ در این راستا، سفال‌های آشورنو در مناطق غربی، مرکزی و شرقی امپراتوری به صورت کتابخانه‌ای مورد مطالعه قرار خواهد گرفت و با گونه‌های سفالی محوطه‌های عصر آهن در غرب و شمال غرب ایران مورد مقایسه قرار می‌گیرند تا به این پرسش‌ها پاسخ دهند که، سفال آشورنو در غرب و شمال غرب ایران دارای چه شاخص‌هایی است؟ سفال آشورنو در غرب و شمال غرب ایران در چه گونه‌هایی به دست آمده است؟ نتایج نشان می‌دهد که، سفال استاندارد آشورنو در مناطق غربی، مرکزی و شرقی شناسایی شده و سفال کاخ در مناطق شرقی به دست نیامده است؛ گونه‌شناسی و مقایسه سفال‌های استاندارد آشورنو نشان می‌دهد که، این گونه سفالی در غرب و شمال غرب ایران وجود دارد؛ از آنجا که شناخت سفال‌های آشورنو برای پژوهشگران عصر آهن در غرب و شمال غرب ایران دارای اهمیت بنیادین است. در این پژوهش الگوی گونه‌شناسی منظم و جامع از سفال‌های رایج و شاخص آشورنو تدوین گردیده است.

کلیدواژگان: سفال، آشورنو، غرب ایران، شمال غرب ایران.

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ارجاع به مقاله: امیری نژاد، امیر؛ و ایروانی قدیم، فرشید، (۱۴۰۳). «گونه‌شناسی سفال آشورنو و بازخوانی آن در غرب و شمال غرب ایران». پژوهش‌های باستان‌شناسی ایران، ۴۱(۴): ۱۵۹-۱۹۱. doi: 10.22084/nb.2023.27987.2604

صفحه اصلی مقاله در سامانه نشریه:

https://nbsh.basui.ac.ir/article_5730.htm-1?lang=fa

فصلنامه علمی گروه باستان‌شناسی دانشکده هنر و معماری، دانشگاه بوعلی سینا، همدان، ایران.

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