Archaeological Investigations at Anaqizli Tapeh – Chors, 2016

Sandra Heinsch-Kuntner1, Gholam Shirzadeh2, Ali Darvish-Zadeh1, Brigit Danthine1, Walter Kuntner1

Abstract: In 2016, a ten-days archaeological investigation at Anaqizli Tapeh, located about 9 km southeast of Bastam, was conducted aiming to define a broad chronological setting of the site settlement, in order to ascertain its meaningfulness to the research question posed by the “Spread of Urartu project”. The archaeological research at the Upper and Lower plateaus of the Anaqizli Tapeh has revealed a continuous occupation from the Middle Bronze to Late Iron Ages with a clear peak during the Iron 3 and Iron 4 periods. The geomagnetic prospection of the Upper Plateau yields the presence of two major building complexes A and B with divergent architectonic layouts, possibly indicating a chronological background.

Preliminary excavations in trench RGL3 concentrated on a remarkable structure located to the immediate south of building complex B, where the stratigraphy could examined before excavation thanks to a looters’ pit. So far, only the date for the final occupation of this structure into the Iron 4 period could be obtained. Its architectonical and chronological relations to the southern building complex B as well as its stratigraphic relation to the underlying ash and debris layer dating into the Iron 3 period awaits further investigation.

The results of our research confirm the significance of Anaqizli Tapeh for project aims. In addition to the expectable analogies to the ceramic assemblage of Bastam, the ceramic findings from RGL 3, show close typological relations to the Late Bronze Age as well as Iron 1 and Iron 2 assemblages of the Lake Urmia Region.

Keywords: Urartu, Biaini, Iron Age, Chors, Anaqizli Tapeh, Iran

Introduction
The first joint Iranian-Austrian excavation campaign at Chors, West Azerbaijan has been conducted within the frame of the International Project “The Spread of Urartu” from October 2nd to October 17th 2016. The main priority of the first campaign was the conduction of the geomagnetic survey on the so-called Upper Plateau of Anaqizli Tapeh (Fig. 1). The second aim was to get a first insight into the site...
Archaeological Investigations at Anaqizli Tapeh – Chors, 2016

Archaeology, No.2, Spring 2019

stratigraphy and, in particular, the Iron Age occupation sequence. In this regard, a looters’ pit in the site was cleared and enlarged near the building complex B revealed by the investigation at the southern part of the Upper Plateau in geomagnetic field no. 49.

The region of Chors is considered as one of the possible locations of the Avarayr battle between Sassanid Persia and the rebellious Armenians under Vartan Mamikonian in 451 AD. Likewise, in the Parthian period, the Khoy area acted as a gateway for the Roman army under Marc Antony during the Roman-Parthian War in 40-33 BCE (Balilan Asl and Jafari, 2013). The Qara Zia Eddin Plain, located about 37 km northeast of Khoy, has recently been emphasized by Dan (2010) as a paramount example of the landscape polity of the kingdom of Urartu. The archaeological investigations in Iranian Azerbaijan and most notably at the nearby Urartian site of Bastam, located ca. 10 km west of Chors, from 1967 to 1978, by Wolfram Kleiss from the German Archaeological Institute (DAI) documented the significant position of this plain (Kleiss, 1979; 1988). Noteworthy in this context, is the reconnaissance of a dense network of fortresses built along and across the main valleys and passes used by the Urartian kings to control and connect the fertile plains spread over the mountainous region delimited by the three Lakes of Van, Urmia and Sevan, which was aptly described by Zimansky as the "Urartian archipelago" (Zimansky, 1995: 9, 24).

According to the classification presented by Biscione (2012: 82-83), a group of seven fortresses, namely Qal’eh Haidari, Turki Tepe, Ashagi Korul, Allahverdikand, Uzub Tepe, Duchgagi and Qal’eh Oghlu is dependent on the major center of Bastam (Pl. 1). The geographical distribution of these sites shows a mainly west-east oriented alignment, which points to the existence of a route directly connecting Bastam.
to the capital Tushpa on the eastern shores of Lake Van across the Zagros Mountain Range. Recently Biscione (2012: 80) suggests that the unique size of Bastam could mean that this fortress was the main political centre of the Urartu kingdom in northwest Iran during the 7th century BCE. It connected and controlled the accessibility to both the capital Tushpa and the main north-south route from Livar in the Marand Plain and Seqendel in the Avar via the fortress of Verachram into the Ararat Plain to Erebuni, Karmir Blur, Armavir and further west to Altipente in Anatolia.

The fertile plains along the coastal regions west of Lake Urmia were an integrated part of the Urartian kingdom, since its earliest political formation in the late 9th century BCE (Salvini, 2009). Recently, the study of Neo-Assyrian cuneiform inscriptions about this region by Fuchs (2004) confirmed the hypothesis first proposed by Kroll (1984: 129) that the Zagros piedmont west of Lake Urmia was part of the homeland of the Urartian dynasty (Kroll, 2011). However, so far, there is hardly any archaeological evidence to confirm this suggestion which, if proven to be true, would constitute a revolutionary aspect for our understanding of the genesis and the character of the kingdom of Urartu especially compared to the urban culture of Hasanlu IVc/b (Danti, 2013: 16-23; Kroll, 2013), which is generally related to Manna.

One major reason for this lack of information is that the archaeological investigations on Urartu, since its beginning, has been strongly oriented towards the Urartian cuneiform writings. Although such an approach is essential for the contextualisation of the archaeological sources as well as for the reconstruction of the political history, it caused on the same time also an adverse restriction on politico-military and economic aspects. For the late 9th century BCE this restriction can be seen in the interpretation of the sites of Qal’eh Ismail Aqa (Silenzi, 1984), Qalatgah (Muscarella, 1971) or Tashtep (Salvini, 1984; Muscarella, 2012: 265-267), since essentially dated, on the basis of cuneiform inscriptions, to the period of the co-regency of Išpuini and Menua and have been, above all, considered in the debates on the date of the destruction of Hasanlu IVB (Magee, 2008).

The accentuation of archaeological research on architecture and especially on fortresses, as the most representative expression of Urartian governance, is finally reflected also in the focus of the investigations conducted by the German Archaeological Institute. In fact, although settlements were likewise surveyed, their evidence have not been taken equivalently into account in assessing the character of the Urartu kingdom, ultimately, probably because of a too-literary reading of the Urartian inscriptions. The mention therein of the destruction of several dozens of fortresses and villages, led scholars to interpret the spread of Urartian fortresses as a general cultural break. The beginning of the Iron III period was defined by this event, with the effect that the Iron II landscape has generally considered to cease to exist once captured by the victorious armies of Urartu. Yet, a careful reading of the Urartian inscriptions, especially when supplemented by the pictures emerging from the contemporary Assyrian inscriptions, clearly shows that the landscape of Urartu was at all times complex and multi-layered, comprising both hierarchically structured fortified and unfortified sites (Biscione, 2009; 2012; Kroll, 2005) and among sedentary, also nomadic communities (Lindsay and Greene, 2013). In this context, the, so far, unique unfortified estate of Haftavan III, which probably served as an administrative centre, is significant (Burney, 1972: 137-142; 1973: 164-165). First, because it offers a unique possibility to search, more comprehensively, for the relationship between the administration of the Urartu Kingdom and the peasant population, and secondly, because it constitutes, so far, the only settlement pre-dating the reign of Rusa II.

Despite the fact that over 80 Urartian sites are known today in the Iranian Azerbaijan (Kleiss, 2008), our knowledge on Urartian material culture, is almost entirely based on the fortresses founded by Rusa II in the first half of the 7th century BCE or more precisely from their destruction horizon, dated to around the middle
of the 7th century BCE. For Iranian Azerbaijan, these are most notably the findings from Bastam (Kleiss, 1979; 1988) and Agrab Tepe (Muscarella, 1973).

This quite sobering observation, namely, the unequal awareness of Urartian material culture in the 9th and 8th compared to the 7th century BCE, was recently underscored by the Kroll et al. (2012: 1-38) to generally affect the state of archaeological research of Urartu. In order to reach a more profound understanding of the Urartu kingdom, one should be aware of the complexity of interrelationship between Biainili, this is between the fortresses as mirror of the expression of the political power of the kingdom, and Urartu, distinguishing the rural settlements as the interlocutors of the common sections of societies (Stone, 2012; Stone and Zimansky, 2003; Zimansky, 2012).

The comparison of the abovementioned geographical context of Anaqizli Tapeh with the historical information, evinces firstly, by the stone inscription of Seqendel (Salvini, 1982) found next to the eponymous Iron II and Iron III fortresses (Kleiss and Kroll, 1980) and secondly, by the rock inscriptions of king Argišti II. (714-680 BCE) at Shisheh and Razliq (Khanzaq et al. 2001), that the Qara Zia’eddin Plain was under control of the Urartian kings, before the foundation of Bastam by Rusa II. It can be assumed, therefore, that Anaqizli Tapeh was located along one of the main communication routes since the beginning of the Urartu kingdom, whose policy has certainly affected the history of this site, which was continuously settled from the Middle Bronze Age to the Iron 4 period.

The site of Anaqizli Tapeh

The village of Chors is located 40 km north of Khoy and 8 km southeast of Qara Zia’eddin on the southern fringe of the eponymous plain in Western Azerbaijan at the northern foothills of Safar Dagh Mountain. The plained is traversed by the river Aghchay (Armenian: Deghmoud) originating in the Aktaş Dağı Mountain (2715 m) located 70 km east of at the border between Iran and Turkey. The archaeological site of Anaqizli Tapeh is situated 200 m north of the village of Chors on a natural rock platform (Fig. 2).

Anaqizli Tapeh was first investigated by Kleiss and Kroll during their excavations at the nearby site of Bastam (Kleiss and Kroll, 1975: 15, Abb. 1. Kroll, 2004: 45-46). The investigation of Anaqizli Tapeh was resumed by Heidari in 2002 within a survey project conducted in the regions of Salmas and Khoy (Heidari, 2002). In 2003 Anaqizli Tapeh was registered in the list of Iranian cultural Heritage under number 9418.

The term Anaqizli in Azeri language means “mother and daughter”. The site of Anaqizli Tapeh is oriented north-south and measures at its base 1000*600 m (Pl. 1). The area on top, hereinafter called the “Upper Plateau”, is ca. 350*200 m large and slightly protrudes to the north-west.
Along this edge, the surface shows a distinct soil colour probably indicating the presence of buried remains of an enclosure wall, which, if true, can be expected also along the western and southwestern edge of the plateau, where the slope merges into a ridge gradually sloping down into the plain on an altitude of 1170 m (asl.).

The ridge is flanked to the west by a second plateau (hereinafter referred to as the Lower Plateau), measuring 240×120 m (Fig. 3). The access from the plain to the Upper Plateau, laying on an altitude of 1210 m (asl.), takes place across the Lower Plateau from the south. Several years ago, the northwest flank of the hill was cut by a bagger for road construction, fortunately stopped by the authorities as soon as the significance of the site was ascertained because of the find of many ceramic fragments, bones and other archaeological finds in the section. The southern and eastern hillsides are marked by high cliffs and steep slopes, mostly covered by stones eroded from the cliffs. The plateaus are characterised by loamy layers of at least two metres thickness of clear anthropogenic origin. The pottery studied during the site visiting in 2015, was collected from the Upper Plateau and indicates a continuous sequence from the Middle Bronze to the Late Iron Ages.

The looters’ pits are mainly concentrated in the northeastern quadrant. The most recent pits are located in the middle of the Upper Plateau. In all cases, the pits are much deeper than their width, so it can be expected that the damages are relatively limited.

The archaeological site of Chors encompasses several additional clifftops and mounds located all around the main mound of Anaqizli Tapeh. Based on the satellite imagery (Digital Globe, 2016), at least eleven mounds can be detected on which rectilinear structures are discernible and where topography provides defence opportunities (Pl. II).

**Geomagnetic prospection**

The focus of the excavation campaign 2016 was primarily on the geomagnetic prospection of the Upper Plateau. The plateau was divided into 37 fields each measuring up to 50×25 m. The grid square was also used as geographic reference, while sampling the pottery sherds from surface (see below). The geomagnetic map reveals a generally dense occupation all over the plateau and, in particular, in the geomagnetic fields number 13, 14, 33-35 and 39 in the north and 1-4, 25, 26, 46, 48 and 49 in the south, hereinafter termed area A and B respectively (Pl. 3).

In the northern area A, the rectangular structure is likely surrounded by a circular structure, eventually representing a kind of encirclement. The structure joins to the northwest, an area along the rocky slope, which has been artificially flattened. Two stairs obviously mark the footbridge from the slope to the plain surface (Fig. 4). Continuing the path, a terrace built from cubic massive rocks, appears at the northwest edge. The path of the circular structure from the Upper Plateau to the terrace might represent a road pavement. However, no link is actually visible between the circular and the rectangular structures.

In the southern area B, the geomagnetic map again revealed an almost circular structure with a diameter of ca. 28 m, surrounded by two parallel-aligned structures each consisting of a regularly built chain of rooms measuring about 8×4 m. Near the southern junction, there is a remarkable structure surrounded by a chain of room aligned at a different angle. Trench RGL 3 was defined because of the surface finding suggesting a date for the building complex B mainly to the 7th to 6th century BCE.

**The stratigraphic results from test trench RGL 3**

The test trench RGL 3 was opened close to the southeast corner of the chain of rooms using an oval shaped, 4×2.5 m wide and ca. 1 m deep looters’ pit providing a first insight into the stratigraphy and assessment of the date of the building revealed by the geomagnetic prospection. The remains of a stone structure, aligned to the chain of rooms were spread on the surface. The archaeological deposits consist of a loose tipped soil, originating from the looters’ pit.
In the uppermost layer, named Layer 1 (d001), a carnelian bead (Pl. 11: 1), five fragments of zoomorphic figurines (Pl. 11: 2-3), a bronze ring, bones and a grinding stone were recovered. The following Layer 2 (d002) consists of the stone debris of the room walls collapsed on the cultural Layer 3 (d003). (Pl. 4).

In the southern profile of the looters’ pit, a L-shaped, 50 cm thick stone structure plastered with clay was found in relation with Layer 3. The cultural layer is about 30 cm thick and characterized by several thin mud-ashy layers sealed off by floor fills, which is covered by gravels and hand-sized stones. The only partially excavated stone structure is located ca. 2 m along the southern stone wall from where it diverts flush with the northern door jamb nearly 1 m wide into the room. The stone structure rests on a thick ash deposit of Layer 4, whose bottom line was not reached yet. The stratigraphic relation of Layer 4 to the stone walls of the room was not clarified within this campaign.

The stone walls of the room are built regularly and are about 1.60 m thick. They consist of an
inner and outer encasing filled with smaller stones and soil. The walls run parallel to each other at a distance of 4.30 m and are oriented north to northwest. The northern room wall was strongly damaged by the illegal excavations. However, the possibility that a doorway was once placed on this spot cannot be excluded. Nearly opposite to this spot is a 90 cm wide doorway in the southern room wall, which at a later period was walled up.

**Findings**

The archaeological finds from the first season of excavation at Anaqizli Tapeh are quite homogeneous in forms and production technology and fit well in the chronological context of the first millennium BCE. The assemblage consists of a total number of 425 pottery sherds found in the layers of trench RGL 3. Besides the ceramic fragments, there are few faunal remains.

The pottery assemblage from Anaqizli Tapeh falls into six categories, dating from the end of the Early Iron Age (Iron 2) until the Parthian period. The first category is a wheel-turned dark grey or black ware distinguished by a very high polish. The diagnostic forms of this ware are reminiscent of the specimens from Dinkha Tepe IV (Muscarella, 1974) and Kordlar Tepe IV (Heinsch, 2005), thus dating to the Early Iron Age. Category 2 consists of a wheel-made pottery with a light greyish surface. Based on our current results, these pottery fragments are dated to Iron 2 (Pl. 9: 1-2; Pl. 10: 1-4). Category 3 includes pottery sherds reminiscent of the ‘Urartian’ settlement of Anaqizli Tapeh. These sherds are wheel made and show a high quality slipped manufacture with the characteristic red engobe. Category 4 includes common brown wares, often decorated by incised decoration elements. Stratigraphically, this pottery type together with the ‘Urartian’s belong to the Iron 3 period. While, the red engobed pottery of category 3 was found exclusively in Layer 4, category 4 continues in the next layers 2 and 3. The fifth category of pottery, found at Anaqizli Tapeh, includes wheel made buff ware, which together with the category 6 pottery, represents the most characteristic ceramic wares of layers d003 and suggesting a Late Iron Age date for the stone walls uncovered in RGL 3. The pottery of
category 6 is plain buff to light orange colour and often appear with red or black paintings with geometric designs, most notably triangles. They are diagnostic for both the Achaemenid (Kroll, 2000) and Parthian periods (Adachi, 2005). The examples of categories 3 to 6 shown on plates 5–8 and are dated to Iron 3 and 4.

Survey Findings

Archaeological remains found during the survey were collected and catalogued according to the grid system defined for the geomagnetic prospection. The majority of the findings (98%) is pottery, the remainder are small findings, with a variety of terracottas, several stone tools including an obsidian arrow-head (Pl. 11: 4) and a silex saw (Pl. 11: 5), both tentatively dated to the Neolithic to Early Bronze Ages. In total, more than 2000 pottery fragments were collected along with 42 pieces of small finds. The majority of the small findings originates from the geomagnetic fields no. 8 to 11 in the northeast of the Upper Plateau. It is suggested that these finds indicate a stronger presence of burials.

Among the 2000 ceramic fragments, there are 878 diagnostic sherds including rim and
bottom as well as decorated body fragments. The ornaments are varied. These include positive structures (plastic structures such as fingerprints, grooves, puncture patterns and wheel-decorations), negative structures, plastic strips, beads and knobs and finally, polished designs and painting.

Based on the diagnostic pottery sherds, six groups of ceramic wares can be distinguished. In general, the ceramic wares found during the survey correspond to the categories defined on the basis of the pottery recovered from excavation in RGL 3.

The first ceramic ware group can be compared to category 1 of the RGL 3 classification and thus dates to the 10th/9th century BCE. It consists of a greyish-black ware with fine to medium mineral inclusions and a polished surface. Both fabric and polish confirm a high manufacture quality with high firing temperatures. The second ware group belongs to the so-called red-engobed “Urartian” pottery. The specimens from Anaqizli Tapeh are certainly local productions. The producers were familiar with the production techniques, but the local mineral soil supplements with a less amount of iron oxid gave a slightly more reddening
colour while firing, compared to the intensive red colour known from Lake Van-region. However, the pottery shapes are temporally related to the 8th/7th century BCE. The mineral inclusions are mainly middle and fine in texture.

The brownish to dark red pottery dates to Iron 3 and forms the third ware group, which is particularly often found in the shape of spouted cans. Compared to the brownish pottery of RGL 3, the survey specimens have more dark reddish surface colour. Most probably, this difference results from a secondary atmospheric impact.

The forth group from the 7th to the 5th century BCE consists of a buff ware. The mineral inclusions are middle fine to coarse. The most common shapes within this ware group are small and middle small bowls. This group corresponds to category 5 of the RGL 3 classification. The ceramic ware of the survey classification is a (light) greyish-brown often decorated with painted triangles, which dates to the 6th/5th century BCE.

The fifth ware group shows a well-made fabric with a very light brown colour. In general, the surface of the sherds is polished. The sixth and last ware group has, on the other hand, a light beige colour and the core is often reddish. While the former group shares more analogies to wares commonly dated to the 4th/3rd century BCE, the latter is generally found in 2nd century BCE contexts.

So far, the fifth category of the RGL 3 ceramic classification is not ascertained within the survey findings. The final evaluation of the results is, however, going on. The ceramic findings of Anaqizli Tepe correspond both, in shape and manufacture, to the Iron 2 pottery assemblages from Hasanlu, Kordlar Tepe, Dinkha Tepe, and in regard to the Iron 3 to the inventories of Bastam and Seqendel (Kleiss and Kroll, 1980: 33-61).

Here, two points are noteworthy; first, two painted fragments clearly dating to the Middle Bronze Age as well as fragments attributable to the Late Bronze Age. The painted decoration shows figurative and geometric patterns in typical black-brown colours. Second, the strong presence of Triangle Ware fragments attesting that Anaqizli Tepe continued to be settled in the Iron 4, despite the destruction of Bastam.

As shown in the following distribution charts, three main occupation areas can tentatively be discerned on the Upper Plateau during the Iron Ages. While the southern part of the Upper Plateau revealed mostly pottery sherds belonging to the 8th-6th century BCE (Iron 3), the northern part yielded mostly Early Iron fragments (Iron 2). A third occupation dated to the 5th-4th century BCE is mainly located along the eastern part of the Upper Plateau (Iron 4).

Conclusions
Examining the data from the survey and the first season of excavation at Anaqizli Tepe reveals that the site was first inhabited during the Middle Bronze Age and continued to be settled until the Late Iron Age (Iron 4). Thus, the site was settled before, during and after the existence of Bastam or more generically of the Urartu kingdom. Although there are many parallels to the material cultures of Bastam, Anaqizli Tepe shows a continuation of local Early Iron Age traditions, which persisted during the Iron Age despite the emergence of the Urartu kingdom.

However, the significance of this result must be further investigated before general conclusions made on the mutual relation between Anaqizli Tepe and Bastam.

Note:
1. The toponym **Ḫabīlīni** is of uncertain etymology (Salvini, 1967: 15-16). The Urartian kings used this term to refer to the lands under their control. The translation of this toponym into Assyrian is not consistent in the Urartian-Assyrian bilingual stelae. The stela of Kelišin dating to the period of the coregency of Išpuini and his son Menua in the last quarter of the 9th century BCE, uses the Assyrian toponym **Ḫabīrī** whereas in the Movana stela of Rusa I. (735-714 BCE) the toponym **Ḫabīrū** is used (Mayer, 2013).
2. Starting from the reign of the Assyrian king Ashurnasirpal II (883-859 BCE) until the fall of the Neo-Assyrian Empire in 612 BCE the mountainous regions north and northeast of Assyria were constantly referred, in the Assyrian inscriptions, by the toponym **Ḫabīrū**. The etymology of this term, attested in phonetical variants *since the time of Shalmaneser I* (1274-1245 BCE), is unclear. The same is true for its specific geographic and political meaning, in particular when compared to the other toponyms **Ḫabīrū** (Russel, 1984: 174-201) and especially **Ḫabīrī** likewise used in the Assyrian geographical vocabulary to refer to these regions (Salvini, 1998: 87-91). Although the terms **Ḫabīrī** and **Ḫabīrū** were preferably used before the establishment of the Urartu kingdom, it is unclear whether there is a nexus between the Assyrian standardization of naming and the state formation under...
Sarduri Lutipri sometime in the 30s of the 9th century BCE.

3. Recently, the editors of the symposium Biainili-Urartu held at Munich in 2009, suggested to make use of this terminological situation to describe the archaeological evidence and especially the dichotomy of the Iron Age material culture during the period of the Urartu kingdom. The term Biainili is suggested by the authors to be restricted to refer specifically to the kingship and its material culture (Zimansky, 1995). The term Urartu is understood, on the other hand, in its original meaning, namely as geographic term used as a hypernym for the manifold Iron Age cultural traditions of this region, hence including also Biainili (Kroll et al. 2012: 1), and in the specific case of north-west Iran, also the so-called “Western Grey Ware Horizons” as well as “Late Buff Ware Horizon” later renamed by Dyson as Iron I, Iron II and Iron III on the basis of the stratigraphic sequence ascertained at Hasanlu (Cuyler Young, 1965; Dyson, 1965). This concept is finally in accordance with Smiths renamed by Dyson as Iron I, Iron II and Iron III on the basis of the stratigraphic sequence ascertained at Hasanlu (Cuyler Young, 1965; Smith, 2004; Smith, 2012). Therein, the kingdom of Biainili-Urartu is considered to represent the climax.

4. ftors

Bibliography


Cuyler Young, T. 1965. A Comparative Ceramic Chronology for Western Iran, 1500-500 BC. Iran 3, 53-83.


Lindsay, J. A. Green. 2013. Sovereignty, Mobility and Political Cartographies in Late Bronze Age Southern Caucasus. Journal of Anthropological Archaeology 32, 671-712.


Muscarella, O.W. 1971. Qalatgah: an Urartian Site in


Pl. 1. Regional Context of Anaqizli Tapeh.

Pl. 2. Archaeological Survey in the surrounding of Anaqizli Tapeh.
Pl. 3. Geomagnetic Survey Areas on Anaqizli Tapeh.

Pl. 4. Trench RGL3.
Pl. 5. Ceramic fragments from RGL3 (Iron 3: 5-7; Iron 4: 1-3).

Pl. 7. Ceramic fragments from RGL3 (Iron 4).
Pl. 8. Ceramic fragments from RGL3 (Iron 4).
Pl. 9. Ceramic fragments from RGL3 (Iron 2: 1-2; Iron 3: 3).
Pl. 10. Ceramic fragments from RGL3 (Iron 2: 1, 4; Iron 4: 2-3).

Pl. 11. Selection of survey findings from Anaqizli Tapeh.