

SCHRIFTEN DES ZENTRUMS FÜR ARCHÄOLOGIE UND
KULTURGESCHICHTE DES SCHWARZMEERRAUMES 13

IBERIA AND ROME

THE EXCAVATIONS OF THE PALACE AT
DEDOPLIS GORA AND THE ROMAN INFLUENCE
IN THE CAUCASIAN KINGDOM OF IBERIA



SCHRIFTEN DES ZENTRUMS FÜR ARCHÄOLOGIE UND
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Herausgegeben von

FRANÇOIS BERTEMES und ANDREAS FURTWÄNGLER

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Cover figure: Bone relief with a depiction of Skylla found at Dedoplis Gora

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Remarks

The abbreviations of greek and latin authors follow *Der Neue Pauly*, respectively *Liddell-Scott – Jones* for the greek, and *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae Index* for the latin authors. The citation of text passages follows the translation in the *Loeb Classical Library*.

Abbreviations used in the catalogs

GNM	Georgian National Museum
CGC	Simon Janashia Museum, Collection of Georgian Coins
CH	Simon Janashia Museum, Collection of Hoards
GC	Simon Janashia Museum, Glyptic Collection
FA	Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine Arts
FA-UC	Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine Arts, Uplistsikhe Collection

D.	depth
Diam.	diameter
H.	hight
L.	length
Th.	thickness
W.	width

approx.	approximate
aver.	average
cat. no.	catalog number
ch.	chapter
max.	maximal
min.	minimal
orig.	original
publ.	published
rec.	reconstructed

Preface

Following its Declaration of Independence in 1991, Georgia had to live through a deep political and economic crisis. Violent national and international struggles led to splitting off of parts of the country and to expulsion of entire sections of the population as well as to a considerable economic weakening of the country. Any financial means that had been allocated to universities and research centres by then, now nearly ran out. Accordingly, foreign help was required. Therefore, the more than ten-year collaboration between archaeologists of the Martin Luther University Halle-Wittenberg, and Georgian specialist colleagues has been developing since 1993 in the framework of a participation in the Kakhetian Expedition.

This fruitful exchange, in particular with K. Pitshelauri and I. Gagoshidze, went far beyond questions of current excavations in Kakhetia, and offered us the opportunity to participate in the vast experience of our colleagues in the field of Iberian archaeology. Special interest demanded the excavations performed by I. Gagoshidze in the 1980's in Dedoplis Gora and Dedoplis Mindori in Central Iberia. These highly interesting sites which are of extraordinary importance not only for the country's history, but also for the reconstruction of relationships between ancient Rome and Iberia, had been unable to be published in an appropriate way due to the aforementioned political circumstances. In this situation, the "International Association for the Promotion of Cooperation with Scientists from the New Independent States of the Former Soviet Union" (INTAS), founded by the EU as a non-profit association, offered financial support for the cooperation between a Georgian team of archaeologists, headed by I. Gagoshidze, and German members of the Kakhetian Expedition: Georgia's new archaeological recruits were to be supported on one hand, and collaborating German colleagues should be granted access to substantial material

from Dedoplis Gora in order to enable and ensure a joint scientific review of excavation results, on the other hand.

This publication "Iberia and Rome", presented here as a result – as the title already suggests – is to cover more than just the abundant material of Dedoplis Gora: finds related to different types of material are discussed, which are now presented in the Georgian National Museum in Tbilisi, but also originate from other sites in Georgia. These pieces, which are mainly unpublished so far, have been selected intentionally by I. Gagoshidze and his Georgian colleagues in order to broaden and extend our picture and views of the range of findings from the period of the Caucasian Kingdom of Iberia.

INTAS' financial support for review of material was granted for the years 1998 and 1999, however, it took some time longer to complete the compilation of pictures and contributions of several authors. For the Georgians', this was done by I. Gagoshidze. In particular, Soviet and Georgian references were taken into account in the scientific evaluation. On the request of our Georgian colleagues, this text is presented in English. A first version of translation however, required extensive review. Furthermore, considerable editorial support seemed advisable in order to enable a unified standard for the different contributions and catalogues in general, and in order to outline links between groups of material contained herein. All these works delayed a publication of this volume; however, they will substantially facilitate the use for any reader – as the editors hope for.

Language editing was done by R. Avila, A. Dittrich, D. Mauermann, M. Nenninger, and A. Slawisch. Overall scientific editing was monitored by H. Löhr, with collaboration of R. Avila, I. Gagoshidze, F. S. Knauß, and N. Ludwig.

Drawings were done by E. Gomareli, H. Löhr, A. Slawisch, and D. Wicke, and subsequently

digitally processed by R. Einicke, A. Mehnert, and T. Stingl. A major part of the photographs were provided by I. Gagoshidze. Other photos, in particular of small finds, were taken by

H. Löhr and T. Stingl. Finally, R. Einicke was responsible for typesetting and A. Mehnert for the picture layout. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all of them.

Andreas Furtwängler
Halle, December 2008

1. Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times. General Aspects

by Iulon Gagoshidze

Introduction

The arrival of Roman legions in the Near East was the prelude to one of the most consequential turning points in the history of the civilized world. Hellenistic states west of the Euphrates were conquered one after another: they were either made Roman provinces or came under Roman influence in some other diplomatic status. At the Euphrates, however, Rome was confronted with the newly-awakened and mighty Iranian state of Parthia, which, in its turn, was expanding westward. A long rivalry between Rome and Parthia began, which dominated the political history of the Near East for centuries.

The Kartlian kingdom, or Caucasian Iberia, as it is known in Graeco-Roman literary and historical sources, was drawn into this confrontation between the two empires. This small kingdom at the foot of the Caucasus Mountains was destined to play an important role in the struggle between the two giants, Rome and Parthia. Because of its favorable geographical situation, Iberia acted as a buffer between the nomadic cultures of the East European steppes and the civilized centers of the Near East: since they controlled the most important passes through the Caucasus, Iberian rulers could, to a certain extent, regulate not only the military, but also the peaceful commercial and economical relations between the nomads and the Near East – and therefore also with Rome's eastern provinces. This was of vital importance for both empires. For this reason, Rome as well as Parthia had to reckon with Iberia.

The Roman period is, for various reasons, an important one in Georgia's history. During this period, Kartli/Iberia made its appearance on the international scene. The establishment of domestic political institutions in the Kartlian kingdom, and of an internal administration – remnants of

which exist to the present – must have been initiated in Roman times. The Kartlian kingdom's foreign political priorities were also laid down during the Roman period, and their main orientation – directed westward – has not changed for centuries. Comparative analysis of the archaeological remains shows that almost every field of the material culture underwent marked change during Roman times. It is clear that most of these innovations were induced by Kartli's relations to the Roman world, and these changes affected its intellectual culture as well.

The history of Kartlian-Roman relations has long been studied, and this research is based not only on written sources, but on archaeological evidence as well – with the reservation that, until recently, the archaeological material of the Roman period found in the former kingdom of Iberia dated, for the most part, to the 2nd–4th centuries A.D.

During the last three decades of the past century, several important archaeological sites have been excavated in the central province of the Kartlian kingdom, Shida Kartli (Nastagisi, Aghaiani, Dedoplis Mindori, Dedoplis Gora, Takhtidziri, etc.). These excavations have yielded numerous significant archaeological finds of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. To date, only a part of this material has been published, and it has not been studied from the point of view of Kartlian-Roman relations. At the same time, it should be obvious that archaeological material of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. would reflect the changes in the material culture initiated by the appearance of the Romans in Caucasia; and the results of this cultural interaction are represented by the finds of the 2nd–4th centuries A.D. from Mtskheta-Armazi, Bori, Zhinvali, Zghuderi, and from other sites.

We therefore set the chronological framework of our research in the Early Roman period, i.e., from Pompey's invasion of Iberia (65 B.C.), up to and including the reign of the Flavians (69–96 A.D.). At this time, a period of transition from Hellenistic to Roman influence began, when Kartlian material culture reflected the adoption of innovations set in motion by the presence of the Romans in the Near East. By the end of this period, this process had already been completed, and the Kartlian kingdom, which had managed to benefit from the confrontation between Rome and Parthia, flourished politically, economically and culturally.

This publication focuses on the extraordinarily rich and varied archaeological find material excavated in the years 1986–1993 at Dedoplist Gora, an important archaeological site in the very heart of Kartli's historical territory, Shida Kartli. A greater part of these finds – pottery, metal and glass vessels, weapons, implements and tools, ornaments, gems and bullae, coins, game-figures – is published here for the first time. This material from Dedoplist Gora is a nucleus, around which we have gathered further archaeological material of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. found elsewhere in Georgia, especially gems, coins and glass vessels.

On the basis of this material, we highlight various aspects of the material culture of the Iberian kingdom and its relationship to contemporary Roman culture.

Furthermore, we discuss aspects of architecture, of construction methods, and of agriculture; a special article is dedicated to the official system of writing in ancient Kartli, the so-called Aramazian script. Our publication also includes an annotated list of Georgian archaeological sites of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

We deal with Kartli's historical geography and political history, and we make use of written sources, including epigraphical monuments, inasmuch as this is necessary for a better understanding of the evolution of the material culture and for presenting it in greater detail.

In this survey of Iberia's history in Roman times and of the military and political aspects of the relationship between Iberia and Rome, we consulted primarily the works of several generations of Georgian historians – I. Javakhishvili, S. Janashia, G. Tsereteli, G. Melikishvili, M. Inadze,

N. Lomouri, O. Lordkipanidze, and others – who have studied the period which interests us here in great detail.

The Contacts of Iberia with Classical Antiquity

For the earliest period in the history of the Kartlian kingdom, we have only few ancient literary sources at our disposal. Caucasian Iberia, isolated as it was from the sea, and situated on the far northern periphery of the Hellenistic world, could scarcely have stood in the center of Greek authors' interest. In Classical and Early Hellenistic Greek sources, there are only sparse allusions to "Iberia", and even in these few cases, it is often unclear whether Caucasian or western (i.e., Pyrenean) Iberia is meant. This would seem to indicate that the ancient Greeks had only very vague notions about Caucasia.¹

This, however, does not mean that Iberia was totally isolated from the West: recent archaeological excavations in Shida Kartli and the Borjomi Valley show that Greek imports, both ceramics as well as metal objects, easily reached inland Georgia as early as the Classical period.² It also becomes apparent that the Greek alphabet had already become known in Kartli at that time.³ And the Georgians had already adopted a custom as characteristically Greek as, for example, giving the deceased a coin – Charon's obolos – as a grave-gift.⁴ Taking the especially conservative nature of burial rites into consideration, we must conclude that acceptance of the new custom of the Charon's-coin indicates a long and, more important, continuous relationship between Georgians and Greeks. The same is suggested by the use of the Greek alphabet. But, unfortunately, this relationship was almost exclusively one-sided, and found no broad reflection in Greek historical sources.

As for the ancient Georgian written sources – *Moktsevai Kartlisai* ("The Chronicle of the Con-

1 Melikishvili 1970a, 425; Kaukhchishvili 1976, 67; Knauss 2006.

2 Gagoshidze 1997a; Licheli 1999.

3 Tskitishvili 1977, 88 f., fig. 3; Gagoshidze 1979, 63 f., fig. 5; Gagoshidze 1997a, 17.

4 In Kartli apparently at about the same time as in Colchis: in the 4th–3rd centuries B.C.: Ghambashidze et al. 1984, 18, 21 f., 27; Gagoshidze 1997a, 17; Licheli 1998, 34, 36.

version of Kartli")⁵ and Kartlis Tskhovreba ("The Lives of the Kings")⁶ – which recount the earliest period of Georgian history, are both medieval works, and were written down hundreds of years later than the events they recount. It is therefore obvious that drawing upon them as historical sources presupposes strict textual criticism. But a severely critical attitude toward these works, as represented by I. Javakhishvili, who, at the beginning of the 20th century, was extremely sceptical regarding their value as historical sources,⁷ has been replaced by a more "pragmatic" estimation. From the early 1940's on, a number of remarkable correspondences between these sources and facts established independently⁸ have been discovered.

The history of the Kartlian kingdom in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. is recorded more fully in the written sources contemporary with, or at least chronologically nearer to the Romans' first military encounter with the Iberians than the Old Georgian Chronicles. This occurred in the third war against Mithridates in which the army of Tigranes II took part.⁹ But after Pompey's campaign against Iberia (65 B.C.), above all, the Romans directed their attention to this region, and Iberia and the Iberians found more frequent mention in Greek and Latin written sources: Memnon, Strabo, Josephus Flavius, Pliny, Tacitus, Appian, Cassius Dio, and others. Their reports are supplemented by the evidence of epigraphical monuments. The most valuable among these are a Greek inscription in the name of the Roman Emperor Vespasian dating to the year 75 A.D.,¹⁰ the so-called Sharagas' stela, with an Armazian inscription of the 70's¹¹ and the bilingual – Graeco-Armazian – epitaph of Seraphita, daughter of the pitiakhsh Zevakh, the so-called "Armazian bilingua" of the 2nd century A.D.¹²

5 Moktsevai Kartlisai.

6 Kartlis Tskhovreba, 3–71.

7 Javakhishvili 1945, 103–107, 171–184; Knauss 2006, 109, with note 53.

8 Details in Melikishvili 1970d, 47–69.

9 Plut. *Luc.* 26.5; 31.5–6.

10 Tsereteli 1958.

11 Tsereteli 1962; cf. ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*, 254.

12 Tsereteli 1941; cf. ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*, 255.

State Borders of Iberia

In the 1st century B.C., when Iberia and the Iberians first appear in Greek and Latin sources, the Kartlian kingdom was considerably smaller and weaker than in the 3rd century B.C.

The 3rd century B.C. was the period of the gradual rise and flourishing of the newly-founded Kartlian kingdom, as is demonstrated by such archaeological monuments as those in Uplistsikhe, Urbnisi, Kavtiskhevi, Tsikhia Gora, Samadlo-Nastagisi, and so on. The first kings of Kartli – Parnavaz (Pharnabazes) and his direct successors – managed to extend their rule over a large territory comprising the Kura basin from its source to the mouth of the Alazani, the Chorokh and the Ajaristskali valleys, and the eastern part of West Georgia (Colchis); the Caucasian highlanders were also subject to the Iberian kings, who, therefore, controlled the passes through the Caucasus.¹³ According to Apollodoros, an author of the 2nd century B.C. cited in Strabo's works, the Iberians and the Armenians were separated by the river Araxes. This would seem to reflect the extreme southern extension of the Kartlian kingdom.¹⁴ That Iberia's south-western borders extended to the Euphrates valley is suggested by another passage in Strabo concerning Tigranes the Armenian, who "founded a city near Iberia, between this place and Zeugma on the Euphrates, ... and called it Tigranocerta".¹⁵ But in the 2nd century B.C., the political situation in the region was less advantageous for Iberia.

After Antiochos III's decisive defeat by the Romans in the battle at Magnesia in 190 B.C., and after the Apamaean treaty of 188 B.C., the Armenians freed themselves from Seleucid domination, and two Armenian states were formed south of Kartli under the rule of Artaxias (189–161 B.C.) and of Zariadres. According to Strabo, these first kings of Armenia captured the "slopes of the Pariadres, Chorzene and Gogarene, which lies beyond the Cyrus (Kura)" from their neighbour, Iberia.¹⁶ The Pariadres Mountains are identified with the Parkhal, a range situated in today's Turkey, running north to Satala and Bayburt and parallel to the Black Sea from Sebinkarahisar to the mouth of the Chorokh. Chor-

13 Melikishvili 1959, 290 ff.; 1970a, 455 ff.

14 Strab. 1.3.21; Melikishvili 1970a, 457.

15 Strab. 11.14.15.

16 Strab. 11.14.5.

zene (Khordzene), mentioned by Appian under the name of Chotene,¹⁷ is probably the Klarjeti of ancient Georgian sources, and it encompassed a large part of the historical Zemo Kartli or Meskheti in the Chorokh valley, all of which now lies in Turkey. Gogarene, or Gugark in ancient Armenian sources, is the southern part of the historical Kvemo Kartli, which included the territory on the right bank of the Kura south of Tbilisi to the Bambak range (in northern Armenia), and in the south-west, along the Kura to the Dzegamchai River in western Azerbaijan.¹⁸

The logical conclusion to be drawn on the basis of Strabo's information is that these territories (on the slopes of the Pariadre, Khordzene and Gogarene) had once belonged to the Kartlian kingdom before coming under Armenian sway, and it is also obvious that Iberian rulers would not have surrendered almost half of their territory without resistance. It may be assumed that the Armenian army reached the Kura, and it could have been responsible for the devastation of the Samadlo citadel, which is dated by archaeological material to the third or fourth decades of the 2nd century B.C. But in the mid-2nd century B.C., a new settlement arose on the ruins of Samadlo.¹⁹

Southern Borders of Iberia

There is no reason to believe that Iberia's foreign affairs improved in the 1st century B.C., because Armenia had reached the zenith of its political power under Tigranes II (95–55 B.C.), and would, of course, not have voluntarily given up the territories it had conquered. Appian informs us that Mithridates Eupator, after having been defeated by Pompey, escaped to the fortress Synorex (Synoria), accompanied by several riders and 3,000 infantrymen. The fortress was situated in the Karasu valley, at the source of the Euphrates, on the slope of Mount Kapidagi, 15 km to the north-west of the present city of Ashkala. Here, Mithridates paid his soldiers and took 6,000 talents for his own use. Then, in four days, he crossed the Euphrates and invaded Chotene in Armenia, where he defeated the Chotenians and Iberians. He then crossed the Apsaros (Chorokh),

entered Colchis, and spent the winter in Dioscurias.²⁰ It is therefore obvious that Khotene (Khordzene), situated somewhere between the sources of the Euphrates and the Chorokh valley, is in 66 B.C. still a part of Armenia, although it is also inhabited by Iberians: Mithridates was attacked by the native population, and not by the armed forces of the Iberian king, who at that time was allied with him.²¹

If Gogarene, i.e., the southern part of Kvemo Kartli, had been returned to Iberia in the 1st century B.C., Strabo could not have maintained that the route from Armenia to Iberia led through the gorges of the Cyrus (Kura) and the Aragus (Aragvi).²² In the spring of 65 B.C., Pompey passed through just these gorges and appeared before the citadel of the Iberian capital so unexpectedly for the Iberian king Artoces (Artoke), that he could neither prepare for battle nor fortify the narrow passes.²³ It is obvious that Pompey, who had apparently spent the winter of 66/65 B.C. in Armenian Gogarene, on the bank of the Kura (probably somewhere in today's Azerbaijan in the environs of Kazakh and Taus),²⁴ did not have to march for any great distance on enemy (i.e., Iberian) territory until he reached the gorges or passes mentioned, or Artoces (Artoke) would have had time to fortify them. On the river Kura, only 20 km to the south-west of Mtskheta, there is a gorge where Tbilisi now lies. Presumably, the border between the Iberian kingdom and Gogarene in Armenia closely paralleled this gorge on the south, possibly along the present border between Georgia and Azerbaijan.

The same pass was later crossed by Canidius during his invasion of Iberia in 36 B.C.²⁵ According to Strabo, the Kura flowed below this gorge down to Albania and then across the pastures between Albania and Armenia, while the whole Kura basin above the gorges mentioned was part of Iberia – except for the river's source, which was situated in Armenia.²⁶ It therefore becomes clear that the Georgian provinces located on the right bank of the river – Trialeti, Javakheti and

¹⁷ App. *Mithr.* 101.

¹⁸ Melikishvili 1970a, 456 f.; Berdzenishvili 1979, 16–23, fig. 1.

¹⁹ Gagoshidze 1979, 47, 99.

²⁰ App. *Mithr.* 101; Lomouri 1979, 183 f.

²¹ Lomouri 1979, 185.

²² Strab. 11.3.5.

²³ Cass. Dio 37.1.

²⁴ Lomouri 1966, 94–100.

²⁵ Strab. 11.3.5.

²⁶ Strab. 11.3.2.

Erusheti, as well as Artaani, which is situated on both banks of the Kura, were part of the Iberian kingdom.²⁷

Western Borders of Iberia

In 111–110 B.C., Mithridates Eupator, King of Pontus, conquered Colchis before sending Diophantes to march against the Bosporos;²⁸ the kingdom of Pontus, which was gaining in power at that time, extended its borders to the Iberian frontier.

G. Lordkipanidze may be right in his assumption that Mithridates' expansion in Colchis could not have taken place without any reaction on Iberia's part, because the eastern province of Colchis – Argveti – was part of the Iberian kingdom, and Iberia must have laid claim to regions of Colchis which lay further west as well.²⁹ But it is difficult to believe that Colchis was divided between Pontus and Iberia, as he assumes.³⁰ On the contrary, it is more probable that Iberia had also lost part of its possessions in Colchis, in particular, west of Meskheta, the frontier to Pontus in the Ajaristskali and, partly, the Chorokh valley.³¹ At the same time, Iberia must have lost the fortresses of Scanda and Shorapani, situated on the frontier between Colchis and Iberia, which, according to Georgian historical tradition, had been built by King Parnavaz. Strabo names Shorapani (*Σαραπανίς*) as a Colchian fortress, which permits entrance into Iberia, and from whence it is a four days' journey to the Kura along the wagon-road.³²

²⁷ According to Plutarch "the source of the river Cynrus [i.e. Kura] lies in the Iberian mountains" (Plut. *Pomp.* 34). The historic Georgian province of Kola would, therefore, have been part of the Iberian kingdom, but in this passage, Plutarch probably describes the situation in the 1st century A.D., when Iberia had freed its southern border region and had reconquered the lands occupied by the Armenian king Artaxias I.

²⁸ Lordkipanidze 1970, 17–19; Lomouri 1979, 7.

²⁹ Lordkipanidze 1970, 21.

³⁰ Lordkipanidze 1970, 21.

³¹ According to Strabo, these last also remained part of Colchis (Strab. 11.2.18); Lordkipanidze 1978, 22.

³² Strab. 11.2.17; 11.3.4. As evidence for the relationship of the Shorapani fortress to Iberia we can cite the fact that the ashlar blocks in the fortification wall of the earliest building level are fastened to one another by arrowhead-shaped clamps (I am indebted to V. Japaridze for showing them to me on the site): This type of clamp is known to date only from Iberian monuments of the 4th–1st centuries B.C.

The remains of the Shorapani fortress are located where the three main rivers – the Kvirila (according to Strabo, the Phasis), Dzirula and Chkherimela – flowing from the Likhi Mountains cross the Colchian plain and join. According to Strabo, the Phasis (Rioni and Kvirila) is navigable up to Shorapani, but above it, it is rapid and turbulent, and 120 bridges cross the river because of its meanderings. "This is the entrance from Colchis into Iberia, blocked by rocks, fortresses and rivers flowing through ravines".³³ This would seem to indicate that the Colchian mountains to the east of Shorapani, the valleys of the rivers Kvirila, Dzirula and Chkherimela (today the Sachkhere, Chiatura and Kharagauli districts) remained part of the Kartlian kingdom even after the occupation of Colchis by Mithridates Eupator. Strabo writes that "There is also a small city in Iberia, the city of Phrixus, the present Ideëssa (*Ἰδέεσσα*), well fortified, on the confines of Colchis".³⁴ I believe that we should not search for the remains of this city in the Chorokh valley,³⁵ but on the west slopes of the Likhi Mountains, in the valley of the Chkherimela, where the village Deisa lies.

According to Strabo, part of Meskheta (*Μοσχική*) belonged to Iberia, while the rest of it was divided between the Colchians and the Armenians.³⁶ Earlier, Strabo mentioned Meskheta in a context which suggests that he meant the part of Meskheta which belongs to Iberia: "Above the aforesaid rivers in the Moschian country lies the temple of Leucothea, founded by Phrixus, and the oracle of Phrixus, ...".³⁷ The "aforesaid rivers" are those in Colchis, in particular, the tributaries of the Phasis (Hippus and Glaucus) and the Phasis itself, the upper reaches of which Strabo supposes to lie in Iberia. At this place in Iberia, on the border to Colchis, he locates the city

(Samadlo, Tsitsamuri, Dedoplis Gora); Gagoshidze 1981a, nos. 604, 804; Apakidze 1963, 192, fig. 101; cf. ch. 3. *Dedoplis Gora and Architecture*, 59. G. Lordkipanidze (1970, 31; 1972, 22) believes that Shorapani became part of Iberia in 111–110 B.C., as a result of the "partition" of Colchis between Pontus and Iberia; it remained so to Pompey's invasion, and was thereafter returned to Colchis when Pompey appointed Aristarchus (64–48 B.C.) governor of Colchis (Lordkipanidze, G. 1972, 38).

³³ Strab. 11.3.4.

³⁴ Strab. 11.2.18.

³⁵ Ingorokva 1954, 438.

³⁶ Strab. 11.2.18.

³⁷ Strab. 11.2.17.

founded by Phrixus.³⁸ The temple of Leucothea is traditionally localized in the northern province of Meskheta, in Samtskhe, near the village Atskuri in the Kura valley, where there is a well-known cathedral.³⁹ V. Licheli, who has been carrying out archaeological excavations in Atskuri for several years, writes that no archaeological evidence for a temple of Leucothea has yet been found, but the very idea of building a Christian church on the former site of a pagan temple seems quite plausible.⁴⁰ According to medieval sources, there was a pagan temple in Atskuri, which was known as Sosangeti, the “Temple of the Idols”, and Andrew the Apostle came here to preach.⁴¹ G. Lordkipanidze assumes that the temple of Leucothea was situated in the mountains, in the Colchian part of Meskheta.⁴² Strabo, however, does not imply that it was located on Colchian territory, although he mentions it and *Μοσχική* while describing Colchis. But as soon as he concludes his description of Colchis and, so to speak, crosses the border, he assigns the upper reaches of the rivers to Iberia. His ascription of the found-

ing of the Leucothea temple and of the oracle (*μαντεῖον*) to Phrixus also indicates a connection to Iberia: Phrixus founded the *Phrixopolis* in Iberia.⁴³ It is noteworthy that “Phrixus’ oracle” is also mentioned by Tacitus in connection with Iberia and the Iberians.⁴⁴

Samtskhe is a region in Meskheta bordering on Colchis on the south-east, which has always been part of the Iberian kingdom. After Kartli converted to Christianity, a religious center for Samtskhe – an episcopal see – was founded in Atskuri. On the right bank of the Kura, on the site where a pagan shrine is supposed to have stood, we now find the ruins of St. Mary’s, one of the largest cathedrals in Georgia, and of a magnificent fortress. On the opposite bank of the Kura, archaeological excavations uncovered a settlement and a cemetery of the Classical period.⁴⁵ Samtskhe and especially the environs of Atskuri-Sosangeti had always been connected to Colchis by roads, on which not only goods imported from Greece were transported during the Classical period.⁴⁶ The so called “Meotido – Colchis arterial road” passed through south-western Iberia, the Meskheta region, and had presumably already been used by the Cimmerians,⁴⁷ while Meskheta itself was linked to Armenia on the one hand and Pontus on the other by roads leading through the passes. This arterial system of roads was frequently used by the Romans, who provisioned their troops in Armenia from Trapezus.⁴⁸ The greater share of Roman imports entered the Kartlian kingdom via Meskheta,⁴⁹ while the road along the Black Sea was very difficult to pass.⁵⁰ The settlements situated on the south-eastern coast of the Pontus Euxinus were specialized in cabotage navigation (Flavius Arrian conducted the inspection of Roman fortresses in the year 131 by sea⁵¹), while the main roads were far from the

38 Strab. 11.2.18.

39 Berdzenishvili 1964, 261.

40 Licheli 1998, 29.

41 Kartlis Tskhovreba 39. O. Lordkipanidze identifies Strabo’s Leucothea with the site of Vani (Lordkipanidze 1968b; 1972, 41; 1979, 214 f., etc.). His arguments, as was argued first by G. Lordkipanidze (1970, 35 f., 41), and then by D. Braund (1994, 148 f.), are not sufficient to support this hypothesis. The first leader of the Vani archaeological expedition in 1947–1963, N. Khoshtaria, supposed that Vani is the remains of the city known to Pliny (Plin. *nat.* 6.13) as *Surium* and mentioned by Claudius Ptolemy (Ptol. *Geog.* 9.6) as *Σούριον* (Khoshtaria 1959). This opinion found an excellent confirmation in 1985, when a bronze plate with a Greek inscription was found in Vani, in which the name of the city *Σούριον* is mentioned (Kaukhchishvili 1987). This find led O. Lordkipanidze to propose that Suris (Surium, Sourion) could be the local name of the city in which the temple of Leucothea stood (Lordkipanidze 1989, 303–307). Strabo writes of a Leucothea temple and, even more important, describes its location in Meskheta (*Μοσχική*) in detail: above the rivers flowing across Colchis (Strab. 11.2.17), while Vani is situated in the Colchian plain, on the lower reach of the Rioni (Phasis), where the Sulori river flows into it (Plin. *nat.* 6.4.13). Several toponyms and hydronyms with the root “sur” have survived in the region around Vani: the mountain range is called “Sur-ebi”, the river “Sul-ori” (“sur-ori”), the village “Tsikhe-Sulori”. This place must have been named Vani relatively late, probably as a result of the founding of the Medieval monastery (in Georgian: *vani*, *savane*) which supplanted the ancient citadel.

42 Lordkipanidze, G. 1972, 41; 1978, 22. The Colchian part of Meskheta must have lain in the basin of the Ajaristskali and perhaps of the Chorokh (Lomouri 1955, 63, map). G. Lordkipanidze (1978, 22) is of the same opinion.

43 Strab. 11.2.18.

44 Tac. *ann.* 6.34. Tacitus mentions Colchis in the same context. This could be evidence for the assumption that Classical authors were aware of an actual ethnical unity of the Colchians and the Iberians.

45 Licheli 1998.

46 Licheli 1999.

47 Melikishvili 1955, 212, 326.

48 Maksimova 1956, 77.

49 Cf. below, ch. *Rome and Iberia*, as well as ch. 4.7. *Jewelry* and 5.2. *Glass Vessels*.

50 Maksimova 1956, 281.

51 Arr. *Peripl.M.Eux.*

coast to avoid the impassable swamps in the Colchian plain, and further south, because of coastal cliffs, which made only narrow paths possible.⁵²

It is probable that the road through the pass between Colchis and Meskheta was also used by Pompey after marching through Colchis on his way to Albania – not by the direct route, by which he entered Colchis from Iberia, but via Armenia.⁵³ As we have mentioned above, Mithridates Eupator, when he escaped from Pontus, entered Colchis via Meskheta: Khotene (Khordzene), and the Chorokh valley are both part of Meskheta. The road passing through Meskheta (Samtskhe) must have been the most convenient one for Pharnaces and Mithridates of Pergamon when invading Colchis (in 48 B.C. respectively, 47 B.C.) and plundering the rich temple of Leucothea.⁵⁴ This foreign conquest of Colchis must therefore have been alarming for Iberia as well, but at the end of the 1st century B.C., after the invasions of the Armenians, of Mithridates of Pontus, and finally of the Romans, the Iberian kingdom seems to have been too severely weakened to be able to offer the necessary resistance.⁵⁵

The Iberians were allied with Mithridates of Pontus and with Tigranes the Armenian in their wars against Rome⁵⁶ and, according to the literary sources, it would seem that the Iberians entered into this alliance voluntarily.⁵⁷ Even G. Melikishvili, who does not rule out the possibility that Iberia, to a certain extent, was politically dependent on Armenia, assumes that the Iberians, in helping the Armenians in their struggle against the Romans, were, above all, defending their own country, which was also threatened by the Roman intervention.⁵⁸ But according to Memnon, Mithridates of Pontus had been allied

with the king of Iberia even before the first war against Rome,⁵⁹ when the Iberians were not directly threatened by a Roman invasion. In my opinion, it is probable that the mighty ruler of Pontus persuaded the Iberian king to become his ally, especially after Iberia had already been shown the example of Mithridates' conquest of Colchis.

Eastern Borders of Iberia

The opportunity of Iberia's comparative weakness in the 1st century B.C. must have been seized by its eastern neighbor, Albania, which, according to Strabo, deployed more soldiers than the Iberians.⁶⁰ Although there are no explicit reports in ancient literary sources of any kind of aggression by the Albanians against the Iberians, some allusions in these sources and the analysis of certain archaeological findings would seem to support such a supposition.

According to Strabo,⁶¹ the Armenians must have occupied Cambysene, on the left bank of the Kura, known from ancient Georgian and Armenian sources as *Cambechani* or *Cambechovani*. Today, this is the region to the north-west of the Mingeauri reservoir, between the Kura and the Alazani, on both sides of the river Iori. Strabo mentions both Khordzene and Cambysene as the northernmost regions of Armenia, near the Caucasian range and bordering on Iberia and Colchis. Strabo mentions Cambysene also as the part of Armenia, where "the Iberians and the Albanians border on the Armenians".⁶²

There is no further evidence for Cambysene's being part of Armenia. In the other chapters of his "Geography", Strabo describes Cambysene as a region in Iberia which is situated near the Alazani and borders on Albania. In describing Albania, Strabo writes, that "the pass from Iberia to Albania leads through the waterless and rugged Cambysene, to the Alazani".⁶³

If we compare this description with that according to which the "route [to Iberia] from Albania is first cut through rock and then leads

52 Javakhishvili 1948, 67.

53 Cass. Dio 37.3.3.

54 Strab. 11.2.17; Melikishvili 1959, 327; Lomouri 1979, 115 f.

55 G. Melikishvili (1959, 327, 335) also believes that the pillage of the Leucothea temple by Pharnaces and Mithridates of Pergamon was an act of aggression against Iberia; in a later work (1970c, 506 f.), however, he mentions this temple in connection with Colchis, though he cites Strabo's (11.2.18) information about the threefold partition of *Μοσχική* (where the Leucothea temple was located), one third of which was Colchian, the second Iberian, and the third Armenian.

56 Memn. 15.30.4; Plut. *Luc.* 26, 31; Plut. *Pomp.* 34.

57 Lordkipanidze, G. 1972, 21; Lomouri 1979, 183.

58 Melikishvili 1959, 323.

59 Memn. 15.30.4.

60 Strab. 11.4.5.

61 Strab. 11.14.4.

62 Strab. 11.4.1.

63 Strab. 11.4.5.

through the swamps watered by the Alazani",⁶⁴ then we may assume that Strabo sees Cambysene as part of Iberia: Iberia lies behind (to the west of) the Alazani swamps, but Cambysene is situated to the south-west of the Alazani. According to Pliny, the Alazani separates Albania from Iberia.⁶⁵ Cambysene therefore lies in Iberia according to Pliny as well. But according to Ptolemaeus Claudius, Albania also extends to the west of the Alazani.⁶⁶ This is hardly plausible for the 2nd century A.D., when Iberia had reached the height of its power under Parsman (Pharmanes) II. We therefore assume that Ptolemy describes in this passage not the contemporary situation, but makes use of information from earlier sources, probably of the 1st century B.C.⁶⁷

A noteworthy clue for drawing the border between Iberia and Albania in the mid-1st century B.C. is given by Cassius Dio. From his account, we learn that, in the winter of 66/65 B.C., the Romans, who had encamped in the Anaitis region of Armenia, on the bank of the Kirnos (Kura) – i.e., in the west of today's Azerbaijan, somewhere in the Tauz and Kazakh regions, which are separated from Cambysene by the Kura – and while they were celebrating the Saturnalia (December 17th), were unexpectedly attacked by "Oroeses, king of the Albanians, dwelling beyond the Cynus [i.e., Kura], ... impelled ... by the fear that the Romans would invade Albania".⁶⁸ If this was Albania, to the north of the Kura, then Cambysene must have belonged to Albania.⁶⁹

After invading Iberia and Colchis in 65 B.C., Pompey marched against Albania in the summer of 64 B.C. He had to cross the river Kura (probably at the ford where Oroeses crossed it the previous winter),⁷⁰ and then the river Cambyses (now the Iori). On the way to the Abas (Alazani) he did not face any opposition, but was terribly plagued by the heat and thirst together with his army. They took only water with them, because

they obtained everything else from the local residents, and in return, they did not oppress them.⁷¹ The battle against Osroes, began after the Romans had crossed the river Alazani.⁷²

In his commentary on this passage in Cassius Dio, N. Lomouri concludes that, as soon as Pompey's army had crossed the Kura, it set foot in Albania. This is indicated by the fact that Pompey was not attacked by the Albanians before he crossed the Kura, and the prisoners used as guides (presumably Albanians) had apparently led the Romans on a roundabout route. At that time, therefore, the territory of the Albanian kingdom extended in part to the west of the lower Iori (Cambyses).⁷³ According to Strabo as well, the Alazani flows into the Kura on Albanian territory.⁷⁴ But this means that at least part of Cambysene lay within Albania.⁷⁵

The Greek name for the south-eastern part of today's Kakheti – Cambysene – is an ancient Greek transcription of the local toponym Cambechani (Cambechovani), that was in use in Georgia to the 18th century and which doubtlessly originated in a Georgian-speaking environment.⁷⁶ We presume that this is sufficient evidence for the assumption that – from very early times (earlier than Strabo's at least) – Cambysene had been inhabited by a Georgian-speaking population.

The western part of Albania in the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C. must have lain within the borders of Iberia, which extended as far as the left bank of the Alazani, where the Kartlian kings Parnajom

⁶⁴ Strab. 11.3.5.

⁶⁵ Plin. *nat.* 6.11.29; Gamkrelidze 1973, 36.

⁶⁶ Ptol. *Geog.* 11.3; Lomouri 1955, 58, 60.

⁶⁷ Cf. Lomouri 1955, 61; Lomouri 1966, 111.

⁶⁸ Cass. Dio 36.5.41.

⁶⁹ Plutarch obviously believed that the right bank of the Kura, where Pompey's army camped for the winter, was part of Albania (Plut. *Pomp.* 34).

⁷⁰ Cf. Lomouri 1966, 110.

⁷¹ Cass. Dio 37.3.4–6.

⁷² Cass. Dio 37.4.1 ff.

⁷³ Lomouri 1966, 110.

⁷⁴ Strab. 11.3.2.

⁷⁵ D. Muskhelishvili (1997, 43) expresses the surprising opinion, that "along the route of Pompey's march this part of Cambysene/Cambechovani was inhabited by Armenians [sic!]" The fact that the local residents of Cambysene provided the Romans with food "voluntarily" does not provide any basis for defining their ethnical or political affiliations. It is obvious that D. Muskhelishvili presupposes an Armenian population in Cambysene because, relying on Strabo's information (Strab. 11.4.1), he believes that Cambysene was an Armenian province. But even if this supposition were correct (which I doubt, see above), we should not forget that a change of sovereignty over a region did not necessarily mean an exchange of population. One example would be that of Chotene (Khordzene), which belonged to Armenia, but was inhabited by Choteniens and Iberians (App. *Mith.* 101).

⁷⁶ Gagoshidze 1998.

and Arsaces (Arshak) built a city near the present Nekresi.⁷⁷ In the 1st century A.D., this territory was still held to be part of the Kartlian kingdom, but this was not the case in the 1st century B.C. We assume that Albania, re-united under the rule of a single king at this time,⁷⁸ profited from the decline of the Kartlian kingdom, and extended its power over Cambysene. It is interesting to note that, from the second quarter of the 1st century B.C. on, the Ialoilu-Tepe culture spreads throughout Kakheti.

As for today's Georgia, sites of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture seem to be concentrated only in the lower basin of the Iori and Alazani; in the middle reaches of these rivers, the frequency of material typical for this culture decreases, and only individual elements reach eastern Shida Kartli. In the basin of the Iori and the Alazani rivers, artefacts of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture cannot be derived from the previous local culture. There is no single site earlier than the 1st century B.C. in the Iori-Alazani basin which has produced any traces of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture.⁷⁹ But it is even more interesting that, with the beginning of the Christian Era, the Ialoilu-Tepe culture disappears as suddenly and – even more important – tracelessly, as it had appeared. Pottery of the first centuries in East Kakheti continues the traditions of Hellenistic pottery: vessels painted with white engobe, which were common in Kakheti in the 3rd-2nd centuries B.C., and spread from here to Shida Kartli, were still produced here.⁸⁰

The Ialoilu-Tepe culture is not defined solely by its pottery, but the burial customs are also very typical.⁸¹ This poses the question whether this culture was introduced by a new ethnic group. Where these people came from in the Iori-Alazani basin (in Cambysene), is quite clear: this is the central region of Azerbaijan, or historical Albania. The date of the migration is also clear – the 1st century B.C. – and it therefore seems obvious that an Albanian ethnical element was the carrier of this culture.

It is, however, difficult to imagine that a mass migration of a new population was a peaceful process. One of the conditions that proved favor-

able for this event could be a weakening of the Iberian kingdom. The question remains: what happened to the former inhabitants of the Iori-Alazani basin, which – ethnically – were either Iberian or perhaps Albanian (Strabo lists 26 languages), but strongly iberianized? It seems probable to assume that the newcomers met upon a strongly depleted local population, the reasons for which will be discussed below.⁸²

Northern Borders of Iberia

The Caucasus is usually held to be Iberia's northern border. In fact, the border of the Kartlian kingdom did not follow the main ridge of the Caucasus, but in places ran to the north of it; the most important passes from North- to South Caucasia, including the Dariali pass, used by the nomads of the East European steppes, are situated to the north of the Caucasus main range. They were always included within the borders of the Georgian state. In this part of the Caucasus, one and the same people lived on both of its slopes, as a rule, and a genuine boundary between south Caucasia and the steppes paralleled the side ridge in the north of the Caucasus, which is higher than the main ridge. The former can be crossed only by way of the river valleys, in contrast to the main ridge, in which there are many passes. The Kartlian kingdom therefore encompassed Dvaleti, the present Ardon basin in North Ossetia-Alania, which is linked to the north by a single valley; but 11 passes connect it to Georgia, in the south.⁸³ Khevi – the upper part of the Terek

77 Kartlis Tskhovreba 29, 33; Melikishvili 1959, 297-298.

78 Strab. 11.4.6; Melikishvili 1959, 296.

79 Pitskhelauri 1973, 201-202.

80 Pitskhelauri 1973, 202-205; Gagoshidze 1979, 79-80.

81 Nioradze 1940; Ismizade 1956.

82 Despite the fact that the sites of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture attracted researchers' attention from the end of the 1930's on (Nioradze 1940), this culture is still too little known in Georgia. There is no generally accepted definition of this culture, nor of its relation to the native culture: its chronology is still uncertain. It is probable that the Ialoilu-Tepe culture spread into Kakheti from the second quarter of the 1st century B.C. on: a burial in a cemetery in Kakheti, near Vachnadziani, Gurjaani district, which is dated by a Parthian drachm of Artabazes (88-77 B.C.) (Abramishvili 1974, 99), contained no Ialoilu-Tepe pottery, while in later burials of the same cemetery, this pottery was found together with local ware. The inventory of the aforesaid burial has not yet been published. The finds are in the Gurjaani Museum. On the other hand, it is also true that the upper layer (A) at Gumbati and contemporary burials, dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D. (Furtwaengler 1995, 180), yielded no Ialoilu-Tepe pottery at all, although Gumbati is situated in Kiziki, the historic Cambysene, and the chronology of layer A means that Ialoilu-Tepe culture remains were to be expected there.

83 Javakhishvili 1919, 6-9.

Valley with the well-known Dariali Pass – was also included in the Kartlian kingdom.⁸⁴ Claudius Ptolemaeus mentions Dariali as “the Gate to Sarmatia”.⁸⁵ According to Pliny, there is, on this side of the Gates to the Caucasus, which are also known as the “Caspian Gates”, an Iberian fortress called Cumania, built to fend off numerous tribes. At this spot, just opposite the Iberian town Hermastus, the world is divided by gates in two portions.⁸⁶ Pliny brings up the point of the Caucasian Gates once again, and writes that the pass in Iberia known as the “Gates of the Caucasus” is erroneously called the “Caspian Gates”.⁸⁷ The designation of the Dariali Pass as the “Caspian Gates (or: Way)” was apparently common use in Roman literature.⁸⁸

Control of the passes in the Caucasus, especially the Dariali Pass, secured not only Iberia’s might, but its very existence. And this circumstance was one of the major reasons for the Romans’ interest in Iberia.⁸⁹

Rome and Iberia. Military and Political Relations

This was the political situation in Iberia and neighboring lands before the Roman legions, led by Pompey, invaded Kartli in 65 B.C.

Plutarch, Appian and Cassius Dio describe Pompey’s invasion of Iberia differently; but a certain tendency is common to all three of these authors. They all try to convince the reader that Pompey’s invasion was provoked by the Iberians themselves. They imply that the Iberians had intended to support Mithridates of Pontus and to reject Pompey,⁹⁰ or the Iberian king Artoces (Artoke) had sent envoys to Pompey to offer him

friendship, in order to be able to attack him unexpectedly in peacetime;⁹¹ according to Appian and Cassius Dio, Pompey was compelled to fight against the Iberians as well as against the Albanians.⁹²

It is extremely doubtful that the Iberian king would have had any intention of fighting against the powerful Roman army, which had recently easily defeated Mithridates of Pontus and had brought Tigranes II of Armenia to his knees. With L. Aleksidze, we are of the opinion that the accounts in these sources are untrue (except possibly for the report of Artoces’ sending envoys to Pompey to offer friendship), and that they had been invented in order to justify Pompey’s march on Iberia and Albania. This was, of course, in Pompey’s interest, and would serve to make his triumph in Rome all the more impressive.⁹³

The Iberian king Artoces was defeated, and was compelled to give his children to Pompey as hostages and sign a treaty with him. The terms of this treaty are unknown, but we can agree with L. Aleksidze, that, in general, the relationship between Iberia and Rome was of the *foedus sociale* type, which implies not only “peace and friendship”, but also active assistance in war against a common enemy. But in this particular case, the agreement between Artoces and Pompey must have specified a type of *foedus sociale*, which ensued unequal rights – *foedera non aequa*, which meant that Rome did not really assume any responsibility for its “ally”, while the “ally” was dependent on Rome, and was obliged to provide military support. Such treaties were signed with defeated and not with tributary states. It is also noteworthy that, despite the fact that the Armenian king Tigranes II himself called upon Pompey as a sign of subordination and that Pompey recognized him as Rome’s “friend and ally”, Armenia was nonetheless deprived of parts of its territory, and Tigranes II was subjected to a burdensome tribute.⁹⁴ Iberia, on the other hand, did not have to pay tribute to Rome and its borders remained unchanged.⁹⁵

The battle at the confluence of the Kura and the Aragvi, in which the Iberian army was disas-

⁸⁴ Javakhishvili 1919, 9–10.

⁸⁵ Ptol. *Geog.* 5.8.11.

⁸⁶ Plin. *nat.* 6.30.

⁸⁷ Plin. *nat.* 6.40; Gamkrelidze 1973, 38.

⁸⁸ Tac. *ann.* 6.33.

⁸⁹ This is probably also the reason why the Caspian Gates are mentioned in the Greek epitaph of a Georgian prince – Amazaspus – that had been set up in Rome: “The King’s renowned son, Amazaspus, the brother of King Mithridates, whose native land lies at the Caspian Gates, an Iberian, the son of an Iberian, is buried here by the holy city ...” (Kaukhchishvili 1951, 236).

⁹⁰ Plut. *Pomp.* 34.

⁹¹ Cass. Dio 37.1.

⁹² Cass. Dio 37.1; App. *Mithr.* 103.

⁹³ App. *Mithr.* 103; Aleksidze 1957, 164–166.

⁹⁴ Strab. 11.14.10; Plut. *Pomp.* 33.3–4; App. *Mithr.* 104 f.

⁹⁵ Aleksidze 1957, 168–169.

trously defeated, was the only conflict described by the ancient authors during Pompey's invasion of Georgia. We therefore assume that, after being defeated by Mtskheta, the Iberians – since they already had the status of “Rome's friend and ally”, let Pompey's army pass through Kartli by way of the shortest route, and through the passes in the Likhi Mountains to Colchis. It seems that not only the Romans, but the Iberians as well were interested in bringing Pompey out of Iberia and into Colchis as peacefully and as rapidly as possible. This was apparently the actual course of events, and may be the reason why the archaeological sites of East Georgia, in particular, in Shida Kartli, show no trace of any destruction layer which could be brought into connection with Pompey's march.

Pompey did not meet with any serious resistance in Colchis: Cassius Dio writes that he passed through the lands of the Colchians and their neighbors at times by convincing and at times by intimidating them.⁹⁶

Other than in Iberia, where Pompey had not interfered in local affairs, he appointed a governor over Colchis – Aristarchus – perhaps one of the local dynasts.⁹⁷ There is a coin minted in 53/52 B.C., in the 12th year of Aristarchus' rule, bearing the inscription: Ἀριστάρχου τοῦ ἐπὶ Κολχίδος, βι.⁹⁸

According to Appian, the σκεπτοῦχος Olthaces was the only Colchian who was led as captive in Pompey's triumph, while “three chiefs of the Iberians, two of the Albanians” did so.⁹⁹ After the

triumph, Pompey returned the prisoners to their homelands at state expense.¹⁰⁰

In the war against the Romans, the Iberians had been defeated, but the results of Rome's victory over Mithridates and his allies and the presence of the Romans in the Near East turned out to be advantageous for the Iberian kingdom.¹⁰¹ Iberia had been freed of two powerful and aggressive neighbors – Pontus and Armenia; the kingdom of Pontus had been destroyed, and the once-vast Armenian kingdom had been gradually reduced to a less menacing status, and was no longer able to conduct an expansive policy at Iberia's and Albania's expense. The roles now reversed: Iberia had the opportunity to extend its borders at the expense of Armenia and of other neighboring lands, and seized it successfully: the 1st century A.D. was the period of the Iberian kingdom's rise to political and economical prominence.¹⁰² But this development began more than half a century after Pompey's invasion. Before Iberia could begin its rise to power and prosperity, it was threatened by a new danger in the form of the mighty kingdom of Parthia, which had allied itself with Armenia in its war against Rome.

The Helmet of Kvemo Kedi

Inasmuch as we are here treating Iberia's relationship to Rome in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., an accidental find which gives evidence for contacts with Rome in this period, and which could help clarify the chronology of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture in ancient Cambysene, is of particular interest.

In the Dedoplis Tskaro Museum of Local History, Economy and Tradition, there is a Roman bronze helmet, reportedly found in a grave in the village of Kvemo Kedi, together with pottery typical for the Ialoilu-Tepe culture.¹⁰³ This type of helmet is dated from the last quarter of the 1st century B.C.–beginning of the 1st century A.D. There are, however, no written reports of Roman military units stationed in Cambysene in Augustan times. Could this helmet possibly date to the earlier period? It is, moreover, made of bronze,

⁹⁶ Cass. Dio 37.3.2; Lomouri 1981, 109.

⁹⁷ App. *Mithr.* 114.

⁹⁸ Lordkipanidze 1970, 36–39.

⁹⁹ App. *Mithr.* 117. N. Khoshtaria (1960, 49) and G. Lordkipanidze believe that Pompey met with resistance in Colchis during the siege of Surium (now Vani). It was apparently a violent battle, as is indicated by the find of a bronze eagle – part of a vexillum found in Vani (it is well known which reverence Romans showed their standards), also a destruction layer of the 1st century B.C. on the site of Vani, in which a fragment of a Roman pilum and a massive iron catapult-arrow were found. Surium (Vani) had been well-fortified, and was prepared to defend itself. In the course of the excavation, numerous stone projectiles for a ballista were found, which were obviously not intended for civilian use. According to G. Lordkipanidze, Olthaces – who had taken part in Pompey's triumph – could have been the σκεπτοῦχος of Surium (Vani) (Lordkipanidze 1970, 31–36). O. Lordkipanidze (1989, 307) attributes the destruction of Vani to Pharnaces and Mithridates of Pergamon.

¹⁰⁰ App. *Mithr.* 117.

¹⁰¹ Melikishvili 1959, 337–338; Lomouri 1981, 115.

¹⁰² Melikishvili 1970b, 510.

¹⁰³ Published: Braund 1992; N. Ludwig in Furtwaengler/Ludwig 2004, 179–192.

while this type of “Imperial-Gallic” helmet was usually (but not always) made of iron.¹⁰⁴ Could it have come to Cambysene in 36 B.C., in the course of Publius Canidius Crassus’ march through Albania, on which occasion he was accompanied by the Iberian king Parnavaz (Pharnabazes) with his troops?¹⁰⁵

Iberia and Parthia

The first encounter between Parthia and Rome occurred as early as Pompey’s invasion of Armenia, and this attack ended with the Parthians’ defeat.¹⁰⁶ But in 53 B.C., the Roman army was ignominiously defeated by the Parthians by Carrhae in Mesopotamia.¹⁰⁷ This defeat halted the Roman advance eastward, brought about a political stalemate between Rome and Parthia, and determined Rome’s Eastern policy for quite a long time. One immediate result of the battle by Carrhae was even more disadvantageous for Rome: Armenia became Parthia’s ally, and Rome temporarily lost control of Syria-Palestine and Cilicia, and even of Asia Minor. But due to internal conflicts, the Parthians were soon forced to retire from the Roman provinces, and in 38 B.C., the army of a new triumvir – Mark Antony – under the command of Publius Ventidius defeated the Parthians in Asia Minor. The Roman dominance in the Near East had been completely restored.¹⁰⁸

Graeco-Roman sources provide no information which could shed any light on the role of the Iberians in the wars of the Parthians and Armenians against Rome. A medieval Armenian historian, Movses Khorenatsi, gives the impression that the Armenian king Artavasdes (Artavazd) (55–34 B.C.) “ordered to recruit ten thousands of troops in Atropatene, and among the Caucasian highlanders, the Albanians and the Georgians” and marched against Mark Antony in Mesopotamia.¹⁰⁹ It is certain, however, that this account reveals rather the tendency of the medieval historian to represent Armenia as dominating all of

Caucasia than to present the actual situation. At that time, Armenia was not able to subordinate Iberia or Albania, much less the highlanders of Caucasia. Even if such peoples actually took part in Artavasdes’ Syrian campaign, which, in itself, is doubtful, this could only be on the basis of an alliance of equals.¹¹⁰ But so much is obvious: both Iberia and Albania, which were inaccessible for Rome in 50–40 B.C., must have freed themselves from Roman dominance, and were then able to develop an independent policy toward Rome.¹¹¹ G. Melikishvili regards the fact that Iberia had to fight against Parnakes (Pharnaces) – against Roman interests – as well as against Mithridates of Pergamon, who, by Roman order, conquered Colchis in 48 B.C., and fought against the Iberians in Moskhike (Samtskhe) in 47 B.C.¹¹² as evidence for this hypothesis.

This was the reason why Mark Antony, who had intended to attack the Parthians, first had to invade Armenia, Iberia, and Albania and reconvert them to “friends” of Rome. As Cassius Dio relates, an army under the command of Publius Canidius Crassus, dispatched by Mark Antony, invaded Iberia in the winter of 36 B.C., defeated King Pharnabazes (Parnavaz) II, forced an alliance upon him, and then invaded Albania. He defeated the Albanians under King Zober and dealt with him in the same manner.¹¹³

Apparently, this was the last Roman invasion of Iberia – in contrast to Armenia, which became the scene of continual conflicts between Rome and Parthia. Other than Armenia, which usually took a pro-Parthian course in the wars between Rome and Parthia, the Iberian kingdom remained, as a rule, an ally and “friend” of Rome. Rome and Iberia were both equally interested in this alliance: Rome, which was no longer able to impose military control over the Iberian kingdom, was quite satisfied to have Iberia as a reliable ally. Iberia controlled the passes in the Caucasus, and was therefore able to stir up the northern nomads against Parthia and Armenia at any time; it considered its neighbor Parthia to be the more dangerous enemy than the much more distant Rome, and gained advantage from the wars between Rome and Parthia fought on Ar-

104 Bishop/Coulston 1992, 93, fig. 56.3.

105 Cass. Dio 49.24.

106 Plut. *Pomp.* 36.

107 Plut. *Crass.* 18–31.

108 Kuzishchin 1981, 169, 181.

109 Movses Khorenatsi, 2.22.

110 Movses Khorenatsi, 2.68.

111 Melikishvili 1970c, 508.

112 Melikishvili 1959, 335.

113 Cass. Dio 49.24.

menian territory.¹¹⁴ The political history of the Iberian kingdom during the whole of the 1st century A.D. illustrates this policy.

The difference between Rome's relationship to Iberia on the one hand and to Armenia on the other is reflected in the "Monumentum Ancyranum", in which the "deeds" of the Roman Emperor Augustus are summarized: "... the kings of the Albanians, Iberians, and Medians asked for friendship through ambassadors",¹¹⁵ but "I could make Greater Armenia a province after killing its king Artaxe (20 B.C.), but, like our ancestors, I preferred to assign this kingdom to Tigranes ... and I put the same people, who had revolted and turned away, pacified by my son Gaius, under the rule of King Ariobarzanus, son of the Median King Artabazes, and after his death, of his son Artavasdes".¹¹⁶

In a Greek inscription set up in the name of the Emperor Vespasian and his sons Titus and Domitian in 75 A.D., found near Mtskheta in 1867, the Iberian king Mithridates is mentioned as "a friend of Caesar and the Romans".¹¹⁷

Historical tradition has handed down some bits of information about Iberian participation in Roman military operations. We have already mentioned one such case: together with Publius Canidius Crassus, the Iberian king Parnavaz (Pharnabazes) II led his troops against the Albanians in 36 B.C.¹¹⁸ During the reign of the Emperor Nero, in 58 A.D., in Gnaeus Domitius Corbulo's campaign against Parthia and Armenia, the Iberians were apparently Roman allies: "Pharasmanes [the Iberian king], having killed his son Radamistus as a traitor, in order to confirm his devotion toward us [Romans], started more desperate action against the Armenians, who he had long hated".¹¹⁹ With the help of the

Iberians, Corbulo defeated "the Mardi, experienced in raids and robbery, who were protected by the mountains".¹²⁰ Corbulo banished Tigranes, the brother of the Parthian king Vologases (c. 50–70 A.D.) from Armenia, and put Tigranes, sent from Rome, onto the throne, while Rome's allies – the Iberian king Pharasmanes, the Pontian king Polemo, the king of Lesser Armenia, Aristobulos, and Antiochos, king of Commagene, were rewarded. They were granted "parts of Armenia, bordering on their states".¹²¹ The military alliance with Rome therefore proved to be advantageous for Iberia. M. Inadze postulates that Parsman (Pharasmanes) had been promised an aggrandizement of his territories for assisting the Romans in this war.¹²² In our opinion, the campaign of Parnavaz (Pharnabazes) II in Albania must have brought some benefit for Iberia as well, which had disputes with the Albanians over territories in Cambysene.

The Iberians fulfilled their responsibilities, to give military aid against common enemies (e.g., the Parthians) – even under the Emperor Traian: in the war between Rome and Parthia in 114–116 A.D., the Iberian army, under the command of Amazaspus, brother of the Iberian king Mithridates, fought on the side of the Romans, as is testified in Amazaspus' Greek epitaph.¹²³

But Iberia did not always conscientiously fulfill its duties as an ally, and the Romans sometimes even had to bribe their ally. In the reign of Tiberius (14–37 A.D.) Vitellius, the legate of Syria, on Tiberius' order, refrained from waging war against the Parthian king Artabanes (c. 10–38 A.D.) and tried to make peace with him.¹²⁴ At the same time, Tiberius bribed the Iberian and Albanian kings with a huge amount of money to move them to attack Artabanes. The kings themselves declined to wage war, but they granted the

114 Melikishvili 1959, 337.

115 *Res Gestae* 31.1.

116 *Res Gestae* 27.2; Melikishvili 1959, 337.

117 Tsereteli 1958, 14.

118 Cass. Dio 49.24.

119 Tac. *ann.* 13.37. Tacitus continues: "While the *Insochi*, most loyal of the tribes to the Roman alliance, were now won over for the first time, and raided the less accessible parts of Armenia" (Tac. *ann.* 13.37). The name of the tribe "Insochi", obviously distorted by the copyists, is restored by philologists and by Tacitus' translators as "Moschi". But G. Melikishvili suspects – as we believe, correctly – that here, Moskhs are named along with Iberians, (Moskhi-Meskhi is the Georgian name for the population of Iberia's south-western province). G. Melikishvili proposes that, in

Tacitus' text, the name of the tribe should be restored as "Heniochi" (Melikishvili 1959, 367). These are the Heniochs united in the same kingdom with the Macrons (Machelons). The kingdom of the Macrons and Heniochs was situated to the east of Trapezus and in 130/131 A.D., at the time of Flavius Arrian's inspection trip along the Black Sea coast, their king was Anchialus (Arr. *Peripl.M.Eux* 11; Kaukhchishvili 1983, 158; Melikishvili 1959, 353).

120 Tac. *ann.* 14.23.

121 Tac. *ann.* 14.26.

122 Inadze 1955, 315.

123 Melikishvili 1959, 352; see above n. 89.

124 Jos. *bell.Iud.* 18.96–101.

Sarmatians passage through their land, opened the Caspian Gates for them, and brought them to attack Artabanus. This happened in the year 36 A.D.¹²⁵ But when Tiberius held out the prospect to the Iberian king that he would put the Iberian prince, Mithridates, on the Armenian throne, the Iberian king Pharasmanes (Parsman) took up the battle and led the troops personally.¹²⁶

In the 1st century A.D., Iberia occasionally waged war against Armenia and Parthia independently, though in most cases this happened with the encouragement and the either covert or open support of the Romans. Rome, being aware of the ambitions of the resurgent Iberian kings to extend the borders of their country at the expense of their neighbors, especially of the Armenians, successfully managed to use Iberia to uphold its influence in Armenia.¹²⁷ The events of the 30's to 50's of the 1st century A.D. described above, are a good illustration of the workings of this relationship.

In the year 34 A.D., Arsaces (Arshak), son of the Parthian king Artabanus III (13–38 A.D.), became king of Armenia.¹²⁸ In response, Tiberius sent Roman legions under the command of Lucius Vitellius to the Euphrates in 35 A.D. Vitellius was accompanied by a certain Tiridates, brought up in Rome, as a claimant to the Parthian throne “in order to make it easier for Tiridates to take power, Tiberius wrote to Mithridates the Iberian to invade Armenia to make Artabanus, who would go to help his son, desert his country”.¹²⁹ It is plausible that Tiberius, as indicated above, had offered the Armenian throne to Mithridates for one of his sons. Armenia was invaded by a large Iberian army under the command of Mithridates' elder son, who had already succeeded to the throne of Kartli as Parsman (Pharasmanes) I. Parsman occupied the capital of Armenia, Artaxata, and put his younger brother Mithridates onto the throne. In preparation for this coup, he had bribed the courtiers of the Armenian king Arsaces, who then assassinated Arsaces.¹³⁰

Tiridates did not rule for very long after being enthroned in Parthia by the Romans. Artabanus soon gathered his forces and banished him. Then he sent his army to Armenia under the command of his second son, Orodes, to take revenge for Arsaces' murder. This prompted Parsman (Pharasmanes) the Iberian to invade Armenia in order to defend his brother's rights. Parsman was accompanied by auxiliary troops of Albanians and Sarmatians, while the Sarmatians who had been hired by the Parthians did not reach Armenia. The Iberians did not let them cross the Caucasus. They had blocked all of the passes. The only passage left on the Caspian Sea was flooded in the summer, and was impassable.¹³¹ The Parthians were severely defeated. In hand-to-hand combat, Parsman (Pharasmanes) seriously wounded Orodes.¹³²

But, as Tacitus relates, Artabanus soon set out to take revenge with all of the forces at his disposal. The Iberians fought more successfully because they were better acquainted with the terrain, but Artabanus had no intention of retreating, if it had not been for Vitellius, who gathered his legions and spread a rumour about intending to invade Mesopotamia. Artabanus was alarmed by this prospect, and retreated from Armenia.¹³³ The Iberian prince Mithridates was proclaimed king of Armenia. This was a great success for both the Iberians and the Romans. Armenia remained a satellite of Rome, while Iberia, besides bringing an Iberian prince onto the Armenian throne, doubtlessly regained the territories formerly occupied by the Armenians.

The Emperor Caligula (37–41 A.D.), for some unknown reason, called Mithridates to Rome and imprisoned him.¹³⁴ N. Lomouri assumes that Caligula suspected Mithridates of having supported a rebellion against Artabanus in Parthia, as a result of which Artabanus lost his throne.¹³⁵ If N. Lomouri is right, then Mithridates must

125 Mommsen 1949, 367.

126 Tac. *ann.* 6.32, 33.

127 Inadze 1955, 159, 314.

128 Tac. *ann.* 2.56; 6.31; Cass. Dio 58.26.

129 Cass. Dio 58.26.

130 Tac. *ann.* 6.32, 33.

131 Tac. *ann.* 6.33.

132 Tac. *ann.* 6.34, 35.

133 Tac. *ann.* 6.36.

134 Cass. Dio 60.8.1; Tac. *ann.* 11.8; Sen. *dial.* 9.11.

135 Artabanus had sent hostages to the emperor (Cass. Dio 59.27.3), but he would have to clarify his relations to the new king of Parthia. N. Lomouri cites H. Wilrich (Wilrich 1903), who postulates that Vitellius was called to Rome by Caligula and nearly sentenced to death for exactly the same reason – for supporting the rebellion against Artabanus (Lomouri 1981, 161–165).

have been imprisoned in 39 A.D., because Artabanus' abdication and Vardan's succession to the throne must have occurred in 38/39 A.D.¹³⁶

When Armenia was re-occupied by the Parthians, the new Roman emperor, Claudius (41–54 A.D.), immediately released Mithridates and sent him back to Armenia, to return to the throne. In this intention, he hoped to be assisted by his brother, Parsman (Pharasmanes) the Iberian: Parsman informed Mithridates that there was internal conflict in Parthia, and that they did not have time for other affairs.¹³⁷

Mithridates, as a result of the coordinated military actions of Rome and Iberia, managed to subordinate Armenia with relative ease. As Tacitus writes,¹³⁸ Roman military forces took over the fortresses, while Iberian troops raided in the plains. The Armenians ceased their resistance only after the Parthian prefect Demonax had been defeated in battle. Slight resistance was offered only by the king of Lesser Armenia, Cotys, who seems to have been a claimant to the Armenian throne,¹³⁹ and who had been supported by some of the Armenian noblemen. But Cotys also obeyed Caesar's order, and all of Armenia passed into Mithridates' hands.

In the year 51 A.D., Parsman (Pharasmanes) the Iberian waged war against Mithridates, whom he (Parsman) intended to oust from the Armenian throne to the advantage of his own son Radamistus. In this manner, Parsman was killing two birds with one stone: he was getting rid of "the heir to the throne, who was willing to take power, and who was supported by the people"¹⁴⁰ and hoped that, after making Radamistus king of Armenia, he could increase Iberia's influence there. Tacitus states clearly that Parsman wanted to occupy Armenia.¹⁴¹ But Mithridates was supported by the Romans there, and Roman garrisons were stationed in Armenian forts.¹⁴² Waging war against Mithridates also meant declaring war on Rome. Parsman, however, tried to contend that, although he attacked Mithridates, he was nonetheless defending Rome's interests; for

this reason, he had to invent a suitable *casus belli*.¹⁴³ No one, however, was deceived by this pretense, and the Iberian troops that invaded Armenia under Radamistus' command had to fight against the Romans as well.

This happened at the fort of Gorneae (modern Garni), which was occupied by a Roman garrison and in which Mithridates, exiled from the Armenian plains, found shelter together with his family. As Tacitus writes, Radamistus made several attempts at taking this fort by storm, and because they all failed, he besieged it.¹⁴⁴ The centurion Casperius, the garrison's commander, visited Parsman in Iberia and asked him to raise the siege; but Parsman detained him with false promises, and secretly sent a messenger to his son to order him to finish the matter immediately. Tacitus reports that Radamistus bribed the greedy Roman prefect Caelius Pollio, who took advantage of Casperius' absence to convince Mithridates of the necessity of making peace with Radamistus. Mithridates gave up his resistance against his nephew.¹⁴⁵ Soon afterward, he and his family were murdered on Parsman's order, and Armenia was occupied by Radamistus.¹⁴⁶

The Romans' reaction to Mithridates' – their ally's – death and to the occupation of Armenia by the Iberians is revealing. The East Roman authorities had reconciled themselves to the fact that Radamistus had usurped the Armenian throne, but in order to make provisions, just in case Caesar would decide otherwise, "messengers were sent to Pharasmanes, requesting him to evacuate Armenian territory and withdraw his son".¹⁴⁷ As they expected, Parsman ignored this demand. The procurator of Cappadocia, Julius Paelignus, then gathered the auxiliary troops in the province, and set off to reconquer Armenia. But his army was soon so radically decimated that he himself had to be defended against the attacking barbarians. Paelignus visited Radamistus personally and, bribed by Radamistus' gifts, even attended the enthronation ceremony. The legion, sent from Syria to Armenia, crossed the Taurus Mountains under the command of the

136 Bickerman 1975, 197.

137 Tac. ann. 11.8.

138 Tac. ann. 11.9.

139 Lomouri 1981, 165.

140 Tac. ann. 12.44.

141 Tac. ann. 12.45.

142 Tac. ann. 12.44, 45.

143 Tac. ann. 12.45; Melikishvili 1970c, 513.

144 Tac. ann. 12.45.

145 Tac. ann. 12.46.

146 Tac. ann. 12.47.

147 Tac. ann. 12.48.

legate Helvidius Priscus and, although success was within his reach, was suddenly called back in order to avoid war with Parthia.¹⁴⁸

The outcome of the struggle was that Rome, in the war for Armenia between Parthia and Iberia, chose the role of a bystander. Apparently, Rome had decided to abandon Armenia and to let the Iberian-Parthian conflict take its course, at the risk of strengthening the Iberian kingdom, and thereby of losing Iberia as a reliable ally.

The war between Parthia and Iberia over Armenia lasted until the end of 54 A.D., when the “disturbing news” reached the court of the new Roman emperor, Nero (54–68 A.D.), “that the Parthians had again broken out and were pillaging Armenia after expelling Radamistus; who, often master of the kingdom, then a fugitive, had now once more abandoned the struggle”.¹⁴⁹

Nero started preparing for war against Parthia, but in the following year, the Parthians again retreated from Armenia, as if they had intended to postpone military activities.¹⁵⁰

In any case, the Roman army invaded Armenia under Corbulo’s command in 58 A.D., and Parsman, his ally in this war, was afterward rewarded with the border region between Iberia and Armenia.

During Parsman’s reign (c. 36–70 A.D.), Iberia’s borders were probably extended to the east at the expense of Albania, most probably by conquest. We recall that the pretext for Parsman’s invasion of Armenia under Radamistus in 51 A.D. was that Mithridates had opposed the Roman assistance he (Parsman) had called for in the war against the Albanians.¹⁵¹ But Tacitus also writes that the Romans sometimes came to the aid of the Iberian king – “a friend of Caesar and the Romans” – in his wars.

G. Melikishvili is probably right in the assumption, that Albania – concerned as it was about Iberia’s rise to power – probably revised its relationship to Rome in the mid-1st century A.D., and became pro-Parthian. Albania could only appeal to Parthia to defend it against Iberian expansionism. If Albania had remained Rome’s ally, would

Parsman have dared to ask Rome for help against them?¹⁵²

On the other hand, Parsman’s request shows that the Romans made a practice of providing military assistance to their allies, in particular, to the Iberian kingdom, although there is no direct evidence for this in Classical sources – with the possible exception of Aelius Spartianus’ account, according to which the Emperor Hadrian (117–138 A.D.) gave the Iberian king Parsman II a combat elephant and a military unit of 50 men – *quinguagenaria cohors* – as a gift.¹⁵³ The same kind of assistance is probably meant in the Latin inscription found in 1948 on the coast of the Caspian Sea, near Mount Beiuk-Dash (70 km south of Baku), which had been cut into the rock by the centurion of the XIIth Legion *Fulminata*, Lucius Julius Maximus, in the reign of the Emperor Domitian (81–96 A.D.), but after Domitian had been lent the epithet “Germanicus” in the year 84 A.D.¹⁵⁴ G. Melikishvili supposes that this Roman legion had taken part in a war of the Iberian king against Albania.¹⁵⁵

In the year 63 A.D., a treaty was signed between Rome and Parthia, according to which the younger successor of the Parthian royal house ascended the Armenian throne, but he had to be lent the symbols of his power by Rome. Armenia was formally regarded as Rome’s vassal, but in fact it was moving in Parthia’s direction.¹⁵⁶

This treaty was certainly a hard blow for Iberia, because it was then left alone with its southern neighbour, with which it had territorial disputes, and which from then on was officially supported by Parthia.

G. Melikishvili is of the opinion that, at the turn of the 1st to the 2nd century A.D., Albania took a different position toward Rome than Iberia. In the reign of Traian (98–117 A.D.), after the Ro-

148 Tac. *ann.* 12.49.

149 Tac. *ann.* 13.6.

150 Tac. *ann.* 13.7.

151 Tac. *ann.* 12.45.

152 Melikishvili 1970c, 513. G. Melikishvili believes that Albania was hostile to Rome even during Corbulo’s invasion of Armenia, because after meeting Corbulo in 59 A.D., the Armenian king Tiridates did not return to Artaxata, but went either to Media or to the Albanians (Tac. *ann.* 13.41; Melikishvili 1970c, 523 f.).

153 SHA. *Hadr.* 10–12; Inadze 1955, 324; Melikishvili 1970c, 530; Braund 1994, 232.

154 Iampolski 1950.

155 Although he here cites Kudriavtsev’s opinion that the centurion had probably been sent to Albania on a diplomatic mission (Melikishvili 1970c, 522–524).

156 Mommsen 1949, 355.

mans had defeated the Parthians in the war of 114–116 A.D., they dethroned King Partamasir, who had been enthroned by the Parthians, and made Armenia a Roman province. They also occupied Media. On this point, Eutropius notes that Traian took Armenia back, “gave a king” to the Albanians, but that the Iberians, the Colchians and other peoples were put under his protection.¹⁵⁷ This is confirmed by Festus,¹⁵⁸ who names the Iberians among the peoples who voluntarily recognized Roman rule, but as for the Albanians, it became necessary to “give them a king”, i.e., to appoint a governor agreeable to Rome.¹⁵⁹

After the treaty of 63 A.D. began a period of approximate equilibrium and peace between Rome and Parthia, so that until 114 A.D., there were no serious military conflicts between them. Rome had no intention of endangering its relations to mighty Parthia for the sake of the small Iberian kingdom, and was therefore not willing to lend Iberia any military assistance – at least not openly. Kartli therefore had to defend its interests alone, and managed this quite successfully, even in the second half of the 1st century A.D. The history of the wars waged by Iberia against Armenia and Parthia during this period is recorded in medieval Armenian and Georgian sources,¹⁶⁰ but there are also contemporary sources which provide us with first-hand information. One of them is the Sharagas stela – an Armazian inscription in 14 lines, found near Mtskheta in Armaziskhevi, in the year 1940.¹⁶¹

The inscription issued in the 70’s of the 1st century A.D. recounts the victories won in Armenia by Sharagas, son of the pitiakhsh Zevakh, a pitiakhsh of the great king of Iberia, Mithridates, son of King Parsman (Pharasmanes). It names Armenia, and lists several toponyms – places occupied by the Iberians during this invasion.¹⁶²

In their wars against foreign enemies, the Iberians often sought aid from the nomads who inhabited the steppes north of the Caucasus, and who are mentioned by Classical authors either as the Sarmatians (Strabo, Pliny, etc.) or as the Alans (Tacitus, Josephus Flavius, Cassius Dio,

Suetonius, etc.). Traditionally, Iberia had maintained a close relationship to them, and presumably there existed an alliance of sorts, beneficial for both sides. Otherwise, it would be difficult to explain why the Sarmatians, who, time after time, wreaked havoc in Parthia, Armenia, and Asia Minor, did not invade Iberia once in the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.,¹⁶³ while joint military operations of the Iberians and the Sarmatians (or Alans) were quite frequent, and even when the nomads fought in the Near East, they were almost always supported by the Iberians.

As has been noted above, the Iberians and Albanians induced the Sarmatians to invade Parthia at Vitellius’ request, and troops of Albanians and Sarmatians fought in the army of the Iberian king Pharasmanes (Parsman) in Armenia against Parthia in the year 37 A.D.¹⁶⁴

Attacks of the Sarmatians – whom the Iberians had let pass over the Caucasus – against Parthia and Armenia were particularly frequent in the 60’s of the 1st century A.D. During these invasions, the Sarmatians apparently devastated Rome’s eastern provinces as well. For this reason, Nero organized a campaign directed at the “Caspian Gates” – i.e., at least in this case, the Dariali Pass –,¹⁶⁵ against the Sarmatians, but the preparations were stopped because of Vindex’s rebellion in Gaul.¹⁶⁶

The Sarmatian invasion in Media and Armenia in the year 72 A.D. caused especially severe devastation. Josephus Flavius writes that the king of Hyrcania let the huge Sarmatian army pass through it. The Sarmatians unexpectedly attacked Media, rich in all kinds of goods. No one dared to resist them, as the Median king Pacorus fled to remote and inaccessible regions, abandoning everything and everyone. He barely managed to ransom his wife and concubines, who had been taken captive, with 100 talents. Then the Sarmatians invaded Armenia and began to sack it mercilessly. The Armenian king Tiridates attacked and fought them, but only narrowly escaped being captured. The Sarmatians, made even more furious by this resistance, devastated

157 Eutr. 8.3.

158 Ruf. Fest. 20.

159 Melikishvili 1970c, 524.

160 Melikishvili 1970c, 516–522.

161 Cf. ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*.

162 Tsereteli 1962; Giorgadze 1991.

163 Kovalevskaia 1984, 87.

164 Tac. *ann.* 6.33–35.

165 Cass. Dio 63.1; Suet. *Nero* 19.

166 Tac. *hist.* 1.6.

the country and returned home with the booty and with numerous prisoners.¹⁶⁷

The king of Iberia is undoubtedly meant by Josephus Flavius as the king of Hyrcania who controlled “the pass blocked by an iron gate”.¹⁶⁸ Moreover, Movses Khorenatsi asserts active participation of the Iberians in this Alan raid,¹⁶⁹ while Kartlis Tskhovreba assumes that the Georgian kings initiated this attack.¹⁷⁰ Georgian and Armenian sources name – besides the Sarmatians (Kartlis Tskhovreba: *ovsi*) and the Iberians – also Caucasian highlanders as participants in the sack of Armenia.¹⁷¹ Strabo writes in his description of Iberia, that a “major part of the Iberians, who have a warlike character, occupy a mountainous region and lead a life similar to that of the Scythians and the Sarmatians, whose neighbors and kindred they are, though they are agriculturalists as well; and when there is some problem, they bring out many tens of thousands [of soldiers] from their own people and from that of the Scythians and Sarmatians”.¹⁷²

After Media-Atropatene and Armenia had been laid waste, the Parthian King Vologaeses, who was held to be the suzerain of both of the devastated countries, apparently asked Vespasian to help him in a war against the Sarmatians, and send an army led by one of his sons.¹⁷³ It is probable that the Sarmatians had plundered Roman provinces as well, and that Vologaeses was aware of the fact when he addressed the Roman Emperor with this request.

Vespasian did not respond to Vologaeses’ request, but it is obvious that he made some attempts at pacifying Iberia and at strengthening Rome’s weakened position there. The inscription of Vespasian mentioned above, issued in 75 A.D.,

is evidence for this assumption.¹⁷⁴ It relates that Vespasian, Titus and Domitian “fortified walls for the Iberian King Mithridates, son of King Pharsman and Iamasaspoi, a friend of Caesar and the Romans, and for the people”. It is obvious that the inscription means the construction or reinforcement of some kind of fortification (*τὰ τεῖχην ἐξωχύρωσαν*).

This inscription is a statement of good will on the part of the Romans toward its allied king and people, and is to be understood as follows: the Roman authorities sent engineers to Iberia, who had helped the Iberians improve their fortifications according to the then modern standards. This assistance does not imply the presence of Roman troops in Iberia.¹⁷⁵ However, Roman legions were here for at least a short time while they were working on the fortifications.¹⁷⁶

But the same inscription also permits the assumption that Roman troops were stationed in the capital of Kartli under Vespasian.¹⁷⁷ This may have been the case if these building activities of the Romans were a reaction to the Sarmatian invasion of Media and Armenia. Inasmuch as Iberians took part in these Sarmatian raids, and because the Sarmatians were extremely interested in these invasions, we may suppose that Iberia would not willingly terminate this military cooperation with the Sarmatians. Stopping this cooperation unilaterally on the part of the Iberians would probably be seen as a hostile act by the Sarmatians, which could have been answered in kind. The Sarmatians would try to destroy Iberia. It would therefore be prudent to reinforce Iberian fortresses along the road the Sarmatians used, and this was done with the Romans’ assis-

167 Jos. *bell.Iud.* 7.7.4.

168 Kulakovski 1899, 10; Manandian 1948, 69 f.; Inadze 1955, 317; Melikishvili 1970c, 517 f.; Kovalevskaia 1984, 85 f.

169 Movses Khorenatsi, 2.50.

170 Kartlis Tskhovreba, 4. Mention of Iberia as “Hyrcania” by Josephus Flavius is due to the fact that the old Iranian (Parthian and Persian) name for Georgia – *Virkan/Gurgan* – resembles the name of the province east of the Caspian Sea, the Graeco-Roman transcription for which is *Υρκάνου*, respectively, *Hyrcanus*. The names of Georgia and transcaspien Hyrcania are confused with one another also in old Armenian literature (Tsereteli, G. 1993).

171 Movses Khorenatsi, 2.50; Kartlis Tskhovreba, 45.

172 Strab. 11.3.3.

173 Suet. *Dom.* 2.

174 Tsereteli 1958; Inadze 1955, 320; Melikishvili 1970c, 520.

175 Melikishvili 1959, 348; Braund 1994, 229.

176 Melikishvili 1959, 351, no. 55. A. Apakidze made it clear that Vespasian’s inscription was set up at the place called Nakulbakevi, on the right bank of the Kura, 7 km south-east of the Mtskheta station. Here, the rocky slope of Mount Trialeti abuts the river bank at a right angle, and the road to Mtskheta can easily be blocked. In 1938, an ashlar wall was discovered during construction of a railway bridge. On 13 stones of this wall, now in the Georgian National Museum, one or two Greek letters (*Ψ, δ, Φ, Ο, Δ, Μ, ΦΨ, ΜΑ*) are incised. They are supposed to be the remains of the wall built by the Romans, and in which the slab with Vespasian’s inscription had been set. The wall continued on the left bank of the Kura to the spot where at present the Zemo Avtchala electric power station stands (Apakidze 1963, 130-134, 219, fig. 112, pl. 19.4; Kaukhchishvili 1951, 238-240, figs. 651-654).

177 Mommsen 1949, 358.

tance. But it is also probable that Rome tried to employ some means of compulsion, for instance, threatening with military action, in order to convince Iberia to break the alliance with the Sarmatians. In the year 75 A.D., Rome was definitely in a position to threaten and to put the threat into action, since the Judean rebellion had been suppressed by Titus, and, at Vespasian's order, additional legions were brought into Cappadocia, "because of the incessant attacks of the barbarians".¹⁷⁸ It seems logical that, if Iberia broke off its relations with the Sarmatians at Rome's demand, then it could request military assistance from Rome against the Sarmatians – which meant stationing Roman garrisons in Iberian forts.

We have made reference to the hypothesis that a detachment of the XIIth Legion – *fulminata* – which arrived at the Caspian Sea under the command of the centurion Lucius Julius Maximus, could have invaded Albania together with the Iberian army. If this assumption is correct, then we could further assume that, before marching into Albania, this detachment of Roman legionaries could have served as a garrison in one of the Iberian forts.¹⁷⁹ But we have no explicit information about the Roman occupation in Kartli, other than in Colchis, where Roman garrisons were actually stationed in the forts on the Black Sea – Apsaros, Phasis, Sebastopolis, etc. – which formed the so-called "Pontic Limes".¹⁸⁰ The question of the stationing of Roman troops on Iberian territory in the 1st century A.D. must therefore remain open. In the eyes of the Romans, it was apparently more convenient to retain Iberia as a reliable ally which would protect the Caucasus than to secure the Iberians' obedience by force. This latter alternative would mean maintaining armies in a remote land, which would require burdensome expenditures. Winning the hearts of the Iberian notables by means of diplomatic gifts and territorial grants (and this went at the ex-

pense of Rome's potential enemies) was probably much cheaper and easier to fulfill.

In general, if Roman garrisons had been stationed in Iberian fortresses at all, one of these could have been Cumania, mentioned by Pliny.¹⁸¹ In the 30's of the 2nd century A.D., the Cappadocian legate, Flavius Arrian, inspected the Caucasian Gates.¹⁸²

Pliny's Cumania could have stood where the remains of the medieval Dariali or Tamar castle stand – at the entrance to the Dariali canyon, on a high terrace, where it is easily possible to block the narrow pass with a gate. Here, at the lower level of the south wall, archaeological excavations revealed in 1963 pre-medieval masonry, while in the mixed cultural layer, archaeological material of the Hellenistic and Roman periods appeared.¹⁸³

The Dariali fortress has a strategically advantageous location. The ancient road passes through a narrow gap, situated between the fortress and the river terrace. The gate could easily be blocked. The modern name of this pass, "Dariali" is also evidence of its strategic importance: "dar-i-alan" is Persian for "the Alan Gates", or "the Gates leading to the Alans". This castle was of utmost strategic importance for Georgia during the entire Middle Ages, and this pass was of military importance even during World War II. The continuity of occupation here is the reason why the cultural layers have been disturbed and mixed; most of the ancient graves to the south of the castle have been opened and robbed.¹⁸⁴ In one of these disturbed stone-built graves dating to the 2nd–4th centuries A.D., L. Tsitlanadze found mortar. This is unusual for Georgia, and is known primarily from Bichvinta, where a Roman *castellum* stood. There, burials belonging to the Roman period were filled with mortar.¹⁸⁵ Unfortunately, the Dariali grave with mortar does not

178 Suet. *Vesp.* 8.4. These "barbarians" were probably the Sarmatians (Alans). About 50 years later, in the years 131–137 A.D., the legate of Cappadocia, Flavius Arrian, had to defend his province against Sarmatian (Alan) attacks. He even wrote a treatise, "The Organization [of Defense] against the Alans" (*Ἐκταξίς κατ' Ἀλάνων*) and a "History of the Alans" which last, however, has not survived (Kaukhchishvili 1983, 101, 129, 162–167, 209–214). According to Cassius Dio, "the Alani were not only persuaded by gifts from Vologaeses but also stood in dread of Flavius Arrian" (Cass. Dio 69.15.1).

179 Cf. Elnitski 1950, 194; Melikishvili 1959, 351.

180 Lekvinadze 1969; Lordkipanidze, G. 1991, 41 ff.

181 Plin. *nat.* 6.12.3. T. Todua writes in his doctoral thesis, "Although the presence of Roman garrisons in Mtskheta is doubtful because no tiles with legions' signs have yet been found there, the presence of a Roman garrison in the Dariali Valley is almost certain".

182 Lyd. *Mag.* 3.53; Mommsen 1949, 365; Melikishvili 1959, 359.

183 Tsitlanadze 1977, 93, 100.

184 Tsitlanadze 1977, 93, 99, 105.

185 Lordkipanidze, G. 1991, 132–144, 153.

permit us to draw any further conclusions, because it had been thoroughly plundered.¹⁸⁶

Whether Roman garrisons had been stationed in Iberia under the Flavians or not, one thing is obvious: measures which the Flavians had carried out in Iberia prevented the attacks of the Sarmatians on Parthian and Roman provinces by way of Iberia only temporarily. The Iberian king Parsman (Pharasmanes) II, a contemporary of Hadrian (117–138 A.D.) and Antoninus Pius (138–161 A.D.),¹⁸⁷ apparently renewed the traditional contacts to the Sarmatians and, according to Cassius Dio, in the last years of Hadrian's reign, again let them attack the Near East.¹⁸⁸ The Sarmatians not only plundered Media and Armenia, which were under Parthian rule, but also Albania and the Roman province Cappadocia. Only the bribes of gold offered by the Parthian king Vologaes III (111–146 A.D.) and the mobilization of the Roman army in Cappadocia induced the Sarmatians to stop their raid. Vologaes complained to Hadrian about Parsman, which makes it obvious that, despite the fact that Parsman (Pharasmanes) II pursued an active and sometimes anti-Roman foreign policy, Iberia was still – at least formally – held to be a Roman vassal.¹⁸⁹

The Sarmatians (or Alans) did not only undertake invasions of remote lands with the help of the Iberians. It is probable that Sarmatian or Alan mercenaries even occasionally served under Iberian kings. The excavations at Dedoplis Gora have provided archaeological evidence for this supposition. As is shown below, weapons, in particular spearheads with widened socket-blocks, previously known only from the Sauro-matian and Sarmatian cultures¹⁹⁰ were found there. Contacts with the nomads from the Eurasian steppes are also documented by the find of a bow in Dedoplis Gora, which had bone laths not only at the ends, but in the middle as well.¹⁹¹ In the 1st century A.D., such bows were used only by the Huns, and Hunnic mercenaries are the only possible source for such a bow in Iberia,

almost three centuries before the devastating attack of the Huns in Europe.

But at the end of the 1st century A.D., a balance of political power and a period of peace between Parthia and Rome reigned under the Flavians in the Near East. Seven legions, stationed in Roman Asia, were enough to discourage any Parthian aggression, but Rome neither intended, nor was it yet in a position to wage war again. Pontus was made a Roman province; the so called “Pontic Limes”, was built on the Colchian coast. But Armenia, reduced in territorial extent, was moving in the direction of Parthia, although it *de jure* remained a Roman vassal, and, under Vespasian, Roman garrisons were stationed there. Media-Atropatene also came under Parthian rule, and Caucasian Albania was apparently also drawn into the sphere of Parthian influence.¹⁹²

The legal status of the Iberian kingdom under Rome remained unchanged (“friend of the Romans”), but now Iberia had become a totally different country from that which Pompey's legions had invaded in 65 B.C. In the 1st century A.D., Iberia had established its own position in the surrounding world, had started to pursue an active foreign policy, and had managed to make use of the rivalry between Parthia and Rome for its own interests, without having to change its original pro-Roman course.

Iberia's diplomatic success was reflected in the extension of the country's borders. The Iberian kingdom expanded to the south at Armenia's expense. At the very least, it regained the territory occupied by Armenia before Corbulo's invasion; it even occupied border regions in Armenia (although we have no knowledge whether Iberia was able to retain this territory after the peace treaty between Rome and Parthia was signed in the year 66 A.D.). In the east, Iberia reduced the Albanian territory to a considerable extent, which may have been the reason for Albania's political re-orientation in favor of Parthia. The Iberian kingdom must have grown considerably toward the west as well, at the expense of the Colchians. A Royal Iberian local administration – *sapitiakhsho* – was even established in East Colchis. Although a silver plate with an Armazian inscription, “Buzmihir the mild pitiakhsh”, is dated to the 3rd century A.D., rich archaeological finds

186 Moreover, the chronology of the other cist-graves has not yet been established; Tsitlanadze 1977, 103.

187 Kartlis Tskhovreba, 50: “Parsman the Charitable”.

188 Cass. Dio 69.15.

189 Mommsen 1949, 365; Melikishvili 1959, 357 f.

190 Cf. ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, cat. nos. 20–22.

191 Cf. ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, cat. no. 17.

192 Mommsen 1949, 351, 355–359; Lekvinadze 1969; Lordkipanidze, G. 1991, 43; Schottky 1989, 435 ff.

from Bori, among which are numerous Roman imports, indicate that this administration had already existed here in the 1st century A.D.¹⁹³ The Iberian border to south-western Colchis lies very close to the sea: Pliny writes that at 140,000 paces from Trapezus, at the mouth of the river Apsaros (Chorokh) there is a fortress (Apsaros – Gonio), and that “Iberia lies behind the mountains”.¹⁹⁴ Part of Meskheta, therefore, formerly belonging to Colchis, was already under Iberian rule of a pitiaxsh.

Half a century later, in the reign of Parsman (Pharasmanes) II, Iberia gained access to the sea, which divided the Roman domain on the south-eastern coast of the Pontus Euxinus into two parts. Flavius Arrian writes in his “Periplous” that the kingdom of the Machelones and the Heniochi on the coast of the Pontus was bordered by the Zydritis and that they were subject to Parsman (Pharasmanes).¹⁹⁵ This would mean that Iberia reached the sea south-west of the mouth of the Chorokh and of the fortress of Apsaros (Gonio).

Iberia’s access to the sea is interpreted by some colleagues as a hostile act against Rome, and this view is not unfounded.¹⁹⁶ Rome probably saw it in the same light. A particularly large garrison – 5 cohorts – had been stationed in the Apsaros fortress, on the Iberian border. This may have been done in anticipation of danger from Iberia.¹⁹⁷ The Iberian King Parsman (Pharasmanes) II was conscious of his own might, and made a correct estimation of Rome’s and Parthia’s capabilities. His foreign policy was a demonstration of Iberian independence and of assertion of an equal status with other nations, including Rome. The most evident manifestation of this self-consciousness was the fact that Parsman never visited the emperor, neither in Rome nor in Cappadocia, in spite of Hadrian’s insistent demands.¹⁹⁸ Finally, in the 40’s of the 2nd century A.D., the Roman Emperor was forced to compromise, and officially recognized the Iberian expansion; Parsman, accompanied by his wife

and sons and a large retinue, visited Emperor Antoninus Pius (138–161 A.D.), who received him with great honors: “augmented his domains, allowed him to sacrifice in the Capitol, had an equestrian statue of him erected and supervised the military training of Pharasmanes, of his son and of other noble Iberians”.¹⁹⁹ This visit of the Iberian king, as an event of particular importance, is also reflected in official Roman chronicles: in Ostia, a marble slab with a Latin inscription – an extract of the fasti – was set up, in which Parsman (Pharasmanes) is mentioned.²⁰⁰

Rome obviously considered it important for the success of its Eastern policy to uphold “alliances” with Iberia, once established, at any cost, and if it was impossible or inexpedient to make use of military force to achieve this, it made use of diplomacy and gold. According to the *Historia Augusta*, Hadrian, on being visited by kings during his stay in Cappadocia, “treated these kings so that those, who did not visit him regretted it dearly. He did this mainly because of King Pharasmanes, king of Iberia, who arrogantly ignored his invitation”.²⁰¹ Hadrian “gave grants to many, but most of all to the Iberian king, who, besides other wonderful gifts, was given an elephant and a 50-man cohort”.²⁰² Though Pharasmanes still declined to visit him and the offended emperor, “receiving from Parsman correspondingly rich gifts, including cloaks woven with gold, sent 300 condemned criminals, dressed in these cloaks, into the circus arena”.²⁰³ At any rate, the emperor attained his main goal through diplomatic gifts: “Rome had reliable friends in the Iberians”.²⁰⁴

Examples of such diplomatic gifts sent to Iberia are well-known in Georgian archaeology. To begin with the Hellenistic period, a medal with a portrait of Antinous and Greek inscriptions, and

193 Tskitishvili 1955; see also ch. 6. *Catalog of Sites*, 260.

194 Plin. *nat.* 6.12.

195 Arr. *Peripl.M.Eux.* 11.

196 Melikishvili 1954, 354; Lomouri 1981, 192.

197 Melikishvili 1959, 376 f.

198 SHA *Hadr.* 13.9; Melikishvili 1959, 257 f.; Lomouri 1981, 195.

199 Cass. Dio 70.2.3; Inadze 1955, 326; Melikishvili 1959, 359; Lomouri 1966, 138 f.

200 Nesselhauf 1958; Melikishvili 1959, 359; Lomouri 1981, 198–202.

201 SHA *Hadr.* 13.9.

202 SHA *Hadr.* 17.10–11.

203 SHA *Hadr.* 17.12.

204 SHA *Hadr.* 21.13. In this passage, the author also mentions “Albanians”. But G. Melikishvili believes – I think, correctly – that here, as is the case in other Latin authors, “Albans” are mistakenly named instead of “Alans” (Melikishvili 1959, 358). An alliance with the Alans, and not with the Albans, who had been disastrously defeated by the Alans under Hadrian’s reign, was important for Rome.

a silver bowl with a medallion, also with a portrait of Antinous, were found respectively in Samtavro in 1920²⁰⁵ and in Burial 1 of pitiakhsh Asparuk in Armaziskhevi in 1940;²⁰⁶ also a 12-piece set of silver dishes was found in Armaztsikhe (Bagineti) in 1946; in the sarcophagus of a member of the Iberian royal family, there was a plate with a gold medallion with a relief portrait of Marcus Aurelius (161–180 A.D.).²⁰⁷ This excellent example of Italian toreutics dating to the 70's of the 2nd century A.D. could have come to Georgia only as a gift sent by the Roman Emperor himself.²⁰⁸ The practice of making diplomatic gifts to the Iberian kings probably began under the Late Republic.

As study of the gems found in ancient Iberia reveals, at the Turn of the Era, gems of high artistic quality, sometimes with royal portraits, and made at the court of the Ptolemies, were imported into the kingdom of Kartli.²⁰⁹ K. Javakishvili brings these objects into connection with Mark Antony's foreign policy. Rings decorated with the portraits of the Ptolemies played an important role in the political propaganda of the Lagidoi,²¹⁰ even for Mark Antony, who had married the last of the Ptolemies, Cleopatra.²¹¹ It is conceivable that he, besides using military force, employed diplomatic gifts to win Iberia and Albania as Roman allies and, more important, to preserve this alliance – a coup he was proud of.²¹² This would explain how the Hellenistic gems with excellent portraits of Arsinoe II and Ptolemy V came to Georgia.²¹³

It is probable that the gem with a portrait of Sextus Pompey – an active participant in the Roman Civil War – came to Georgia in a similar manner: it is well known that Pompey was look-

ing for allies in the East after being defeated by Naulochos.²¹⁴

Although we have no information from literary sources, we may assume that the recipients of diplomatic gifts were not only kings or members of the royal family, but occasionally individual Iberian noblemen as well. This is indicated by the fact that, in the graves of the pitiakhshs of Iberian kings, we sometimes find luxury goods of Roman provenance, which could hardly have been acquired on the market (e.g., a tray with a portrait medallion of Antinous).²¹⁵ This corresponds to one of the main principles of Roman foreign policy – *divide ut regnes*.

Probably the most significant advantage that Rome brought to the Near East was the *Pax Romana*, which had been proclaimed by the first Roman Princeps, Octavian-Augustus, in 27 B.C. However uneasy this peace may have been, it nonetheless gave rise to a more or less united geopolitical region – the Roman Near East, linked by regular commercial relations and a network of roads, with which Caucasian Iberia was apparently also closely connected. The roads were of vital importance for Rome as a means of rapid deployment for the Roman armies, and for the transportation of provisions, weapons, and other supplies. The presence of Roman armies in the Near East was necessary, above all, for keeping the “Roman peace”.

These comparatively safe roads proved to be advantageous for the development of international trade, which could be pursued on a regular basis in the 1st century A.D. Besides goods, these roads helped to spread new ideas and technologies, which were brought from one country to another by groups of skilled craftsmen, with surprising rapidity. The kingdom of Iberia soon engaged itself actively in these lively international commercial and cultural relationships.

205 Makalatia 1928, 177–185, fig. 5.

206 Apakidze et al. 1955, 33 f., no. 12.

207 Miron/Orthmann 1995, 315, no. 325, fig. 181; Apakidze 1973, 59.

208 Machabeli 1976, 51.

209 See ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, 192–200.

210 Treister 1985, 130.

211 Neverov 1977, 145 f.

212 Cass. Dio 49.24; Melikishvili 1959, 336.

213 Cf. ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems nos. 9, 16, 45. It is remarkable that Jores Khachatryan (1996, 120 f.) brings works of Hellenistic art and, among them, gems in Armenia into connection with Mark Antony's activities.

214 Cf. for more details ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems, no. 5, and ch. 4.3. *Scylla Relief*.

215 Cf. Machabeli 1970, 27; Lordkipanidze 1991, 174, pl. 58.2.

Monetary Circulation

The re-orientation of Kartlian foreign policy and the changed direction of foreign trade were also reflected in the monetary circulation in Iberia.²¹⁶ Study of the coins dating to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. found in Iberia presents a very remarkable picture, which is quite different from that of the same period in Kartli's nearest neighbors, Colchis, Armenia, and Albania.

Since the 2nd century B.C., the basis of the money economy in the Iberian kingdom had been the Parthian silver drachm. The circulation of Roman Republican coins begins at about the middle of the 1st century B.C., and this would seem to confirm the hypothesis that the greater share of Roman coins were brought to Kartli by Pompey's soldiers. The Parthian drachm still remains important in the Iberian money economy of the 1st century A.D., but now Roman coinage plays the leading role, and a large-scale influx into Kartli takes place under Augustus. At the end of the 1st century A.D., Roman gold and silver coins gradually displace local imitations of staters of Alexander the Great and of Lysimachos, as well as Parthian coins, except for the so-called drachms of Gotarzes. Iberia's monetary economy in the Roman period is characterized by the parallel circulation of denarii of Augustus and drachms of Gotarzes and by the absence of Roman copper coins.

In the eastern part of West Georgia (Colchis), which was then part of the Iberian kingdom, the monetary circulation was similar to that of Iberia as a whole, while in the coastal region of Colchis, where Roman garrisons were stationed, numerous Roman copper coins were found. Other than in Kartli, the basis of monetary circulation here was a coin minted in Cappadocian Caesaria.

The money economies of Armenia and Albania were also different: neither of them show a co-existence of denarii of Augustus and drachms of Gotarzes in long-term parallel circulation, which was so characteristic for the Iberian kingdom.

In Armenia, in contrast to Georgia, finds of denarii of Augustus are very rare (only 8 coins of Augustus have been found in archaeological excavations, and all of them were found in Garni). In general, the distribution of Roman coins in Armenia is far sparser than in Georgia.

But the most surprising fact is that not a single drachm of Gotarzes has been found in archaeological excavations in Armenia. In Albania, other than in Armenia, Parthian coins were the basis of the money economy, while Roman coins, denarii of Augustus in particular, were comparatively rare.

It is *communis opinio* that Roman coins, including denarii of Augustus, were imported to Iberia by way of Armenia and its capital Artashat (Artaxata), which was connected with Mtskheta by a trade route.²¹⁷ But the studies of Roman imports and monetary circulation in Kartli in the 1st century A.D. suggest other conclusions. Although the archaeology of Iberia's former south-eastern provinces (they are now a part of Turkey) is little known to us, the peculiarities of monetary circulation in Georgia mentioned above would seem to indicate that: first, the Iberian kingdom encompassed in the 1st century A.D. all of today's West Georgia (Colchis) except for the coastal area, where forts manned by Roman garrisons were situated. These, apparently, had almost no contact with inland Colchis.²¹⁸ And second: the roads leading into the Roman dominions, by which Roman coins were transported to the heart of the Iberian kingdom (Shida Kartli), did not pass through Armenia (Artaxata) nor through the Colchian Black Sea coast.

As for the Parthian coins, they probably reached Kartli from Parthia through Media, Atropatene, and Albania. The frequency of Parthian coins in Georgia indicates a traditionally intensive trade between Kartli and the eastern nations (Albania, Atropatene, Media, Parthia, India). Roman coins in Albania were probably imported through Iberia.

Trade Routes and Imports

Numerous goods were imported into ancient Iberia from Rome's eastern provinces, as well as from metropolitan centers.²¹⁹ Faience beads, figural pendants, and some of the gems are of Egyptian provenance; perfume was imported in Syrian glass vessels; the few imported pottery ves-

²¹⁶ Cf. ch. 5.3. *Monetary Circulation*.

²¹⁷ Lordkipanidze 1968a, 10, 70.

²¹⁸ Melikishvili 1959, 444; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 100.

²¹⁹ Cf. ch. 4.1. *Pottery*, 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*, 4.7. *Jewelry*, 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, 5.2. *Glass Vessels*.

sels stem mostly from Asia Minor, but the absolute majority of the bronze, as well as some of the glass vessels must have been imported from Italy.

Of course, at least some of the Syrian imports may have come by way of the ancient road leading from Artaxata (Artashat), the capital of Armenia, to Gogarene (Kvemo Kartli) and from there to Iberia's capital, Mtskheta.²²⁰

But when we take the differences in monetary circulation between Iberia and Armenia and the military and political situation in Armenia in the 1st century A.D. into account, it seems more likely that Syrian goods were imported (at least during this century) by a more westerly route, which led through Roman provinces only, and avoided Artaxata. The route could have followed the Euphrates into the Kura valley, and from there into Kartli. Egyptian goods were probably imported along the same route. The intensive use of this route in the 1st century A.D. is also demonstrated by the fact that, in Urnisi, the first city in Iberia on this road, a much larger and broader assortment of Syrian glass vessels of the 1st century A.D. was found in archaeological excavations than in Mtskheta, the capital of Iberia.²²¹ The same also holds true for a group of 1st-century A.D. gems, imported from Palestinian Caesaria.²²² The city of Urnisi, situated on this important trade route from Egypt via Syria and Palestine to Iberia and from Iberia to North Caucasia, had a cosmopolitan population typical for commercial centers. The Jews and Aramaeans from Syria-Palestine who lived in Kartli were probably engaged in international trade between their former and their new homes.²²³

Some of the precious silver vessels found in Georgia, for example, a phiala from sarcophagus no. 6 in Armaziskhevi with a medallion showing a bearded bust "of Hadrianic type", indicate contacts to Roman Syria.²²⁴ The phiala is dated to the 2nd century A.D., but we may certainly assume that toreutic products, ornaments, and precious vessels from Egyptian, Syrian and other

Near Eastern centers were imported by way of this trade route from the 1st century A.D. on. Two bronze batilla found at Dedoplis Gora in 1926 are dated to the 1st century A.D., and are probably of Syrian origin.²²⁵ The third find, an object of the same type, was discovered in Mtskheta in 1973.²²⁶ Western import, in particular Italian bronze vessels, may have arrived in Georgia by the same route;²²⁷ a number of such vessels was found in Dedoplis Gora.²²⁸ It is possible that they were transported to Syria by sea and then distributed throughout the East.

However, we also have goods from Italy which may have been imported by other routes. These are, for example, North Italian glass unguentaria which were found for the first time in Georgia in Dedoplis Gora.²²⁹ It seems unlikely that glass unguentaria were exported to such an important center of glass production as Syria, even for re-exportation. It is more probable that perfume shipped in glass vessels was brought from Italy to Trapezus by sea, and was then transported into Iberia over the road through the Taurus Pass²³⁰ and the Chorokh (Apsaros) valley, where this road joined the route between Syria and Iberia. The increase in traffic along this road in Roman times probably brought about the prosperity of Artanuj, the main center of Klarjeti (Khorzene, Chotene), a city mentioned by Claudius Ptolemy among the Iberian cities under the name of *Ἀρτανύσσα*.²³¹ Pliny hands down Varro's (116–27 B.C.) account, according to which an exploration under Pompey's leadership showed that it took 7 days to travel from India to Bactria.²³² The western part of the same Transcaucasian Road from Phasis, the Colchian commercial center, to the Kura via Shorapani is described by Strabo.²³³ Trade goods between Rome and India were certainly never transported over the Transcaucasian Road,²³⁴ but this route was

220 Manandian 1954, 126; Melikishvili 1959, 442; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 68.

221 Cf. ch. 5.2. *Glass Vessels*, catalog, and Saginashvili 1970, 44.

222 Javakhishvili 1972, 9.

223 Moktsevai Kartlisa, 117 f.; Chilashvili 1964, 137; Mgaloblishvili/Gagoshidze 1998, 50; Gagoshidze 1973, 80, 104.

224 Machabeli 1970, 40–60; Lordkipanidze, O. 1991, 174, pl. 58.4.

225 Gagoshidze 1973; Daremberg/Saglio 1877, 682–683.

226 Apakidze 1991, 82 f., pl. 199.1.

227 Lordkipanidze 1964.

228 Cf. ch. 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*.

229 Cf. ch. 5.2. *Glass Vessels*, cat. nos. 50–53.

230 Maksimova 1956, 77.

231 Ptol. *Geog.* 5.11.3; Lomouri 1955, 59 f.; Melikishvili 1959, 443.

232 Plin. *nat.* 6.19.52.

233 Strab. 11.2.17.

234 Meissner 2000, 186 f., 189, 192 f., 202 f.

rather of greatest importance for the inner-Iberian trade. This is indicated by the location of the most important cities in Iberia and Colchis.²³⁵

Since it took 4 days to arrive at the Kura from Shorapani by land,²³⁶ we must assume that the road passed through Argveti and reached the Kura by Urbnisi: from Shorapani to Urbnisi, it is about 80 km, which is a 4- to 5-days' walk, due to the mountainous terrain.²³⁷ Urbnisi's growth to a city in the Hellenistic period and its great prosperity in Roman times was apparently due to its location at the intersection of trade routes.²³⁸

The location of the Iberian capital, Mtskheta-Armaztsikhe, where the most important roads joined, was even more advantageous. More important still, Mtskheta was the point of departure for the great northern route, which led to Sarmatia via the Aragvi valley and the Gates of the Caucasus (Dariali Pass). As shown above, the Sarmatian troops passed over this road, but it was also used by trade caravans with destinations lying beyond the Caucasus. According to Strabo, the Aorsi and the Syracae (Syraci), who lived north of the Caucasus, between Lake Meotis and Caspia, "transported Indian and Babylonian goods by camel caravan, which had been obtained from the Armenians and the Medians".²³⁹ These caravans had to pass Mtskheta.²⁴⁰

Mtskheta was connected by trade routes with Armenia (Artaxata), as well as with Albania and Media-Atropatene;²⁴¹ from there, Parthian, Sogdian, Bactrian and Armenian coins came to Iberia,²⁴² as well as oriental semiprecious and precious stones and ornaments – for example, a hinged gold bracelet from Dedoplis Gora, parallels for which are known only from Central Asia.²⁴³

Mtskheta, as a commercial center and transit point, was also of great importance for Albania,

the capital of which, Cabala (Chabala), was connected with Iberia by an ancient trade route, and upheld its contact to the Mediterranean world by way of Mtskheta.²⁴⁴ In the opposite direction, Iberia's contacts with Media-Atropatene, Parthia, and the lands of South Central Asia apparently led over the same road and via Cabala in Albania.

Literacy

The only element of Roman culture that was not adopted in Iberia was Latin. Even the Roman Emperor Vespasian and his sons issued in the year 75 A.D. an inscription in Greek – other than in Armenia, where an extremely long Latin inscription was set up in the capital, Artaxata, in the name of the Emperor Traian in the year 116.²⁴⁵ In Georgia, there are no Latin inscriptions. Throughout the entire Roman period, until the 4th century A.D., the Greek and Aramaic languages were used parallel, and writing retained the tradition established in the Hellenistic period, if not earlier. Both Greek and Aramaic were *lingua franca* in the Hellenistic East, of which Iberia was a part. Greek was the language of the hellenization following Alexander's conquests, and Aramaic was that of two centuries of Achaemenian rule.²⁴⁶ In Iberia, Greek and Aramaic were not merely official languages used only by scribes. Both were apparently widespread, and it is probable that every educated Iberian was literate in both alphabets. This is indicated by Greek graffiti on pottery, among them, on the vessels from Dedoplis Gora,²⁴⁷ by Armazian inscriptions written by pilgrims on a stone altar in Dzalisa, and incised by gamblers (not by an artisan) on bone game-pieces, and on fortune-telling plates from Dedoplis Gora.²⁴⁸ The Romans, well versed in

235 Mtskheta, Dzalisa, Kaspi, Urbnisi, Shorapani, Vartsikhe, Suriium, Phasis, and others are situated along this road; Melikishvili 1959, 440.

236 Strab. 11.2.17. According to Varro (Plin. *nat.* 6.19.52), five days.

237 Nadiradze 1990a, 150 f.

238 Chilashvili 1964, 141–147.

239 Strab. 11.5.8.

240 Lordkipanidze 1957, 152; Melikishvili 1959, 443 f.

241 Lomouri 1958, 115–117; Melikishvili 1959, 441 ff.

242 Cf. ch. 5.3. *Monetary Circulation.*

243 Cf. ch. 4.7. *Jewelry*, cat. no. 17.

244 Ismizade 1962, 55.

245 Arakelian 1982, 19, pl. 4. The inscription deals with building activity carried out by the IVth Scythian legion.

246 Schlumberger 1985, 21. The introduction of the Aramaic language into Iberia was probably encouraged by the fact that Georgia's most important partner in foreign trade was Syria, and the native language of Syrian merchants was Aramaic. A specific, local type of Aramaic script, known as Armazian script, was adopted in Iberia (see ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*).

247 See ch. 4.1. *Pottery*, cat. nos. 11, 12, 70.

248 Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991, 71, no. 1. Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 21, 24, 31–32, 36, 41.

Greek, probably had no problems of communication with Iberian noblemen. "Skilled in the native arts"²⁴⁹ meant in Iberia knowledge of Greek and Aramaic. Further, Iberian noblemen, especially members of the royal family, could certainly speak Parthian, and possibly Middle Persian as well.²⁵⁰ Several facts suggest this conclusion: the names of Iberian kings – Artoces, Mithridates, Pharnabazus, Pharasmanes – are of Iranian provenance;²⁵¹ the kinship of the Iberian kings with the Arshakids, as reflected in Kartlis Tskhovreba;²⁵² and finally, the official religion from the Achaemenian period on was Iranian – Mazdian.²⁵³ Not only the temples in Dedoplis Mindori (the Main Temple seems to have been built in the name of Ardivi Sura Anahita – a deity of the highest Zoroastrian triad),²⁵⁴ but almost all the temples of the Hellenistic period excavated in historical Iberia are fire temples.²⁵⁵ In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora there was also a family shrine (Room 10), in which an *ateshgah* and a fire altar stood.²⁵⁶

249 Tacitus (Tac. *ann.* 12.44) relates that Radamistus, the son of Pharasmanes the Iberian, "was tall and handsome, of remarkable strength, and skilled in the native arts" ("*patrias artes edoctus*").

250 At the beginning of Kartlis Tskhovreba (Kartlis Tskhovreba, 16), it is recorded that in ancient times "in Kartli six languages were spoken: Armenian, Georgian, Khazarian, Assyrian, Hebrew and Greek. Every king of Kartli, men and women, spoke these languages". Although it seems convincing that this passage gives the actual combination of languages in ancient Kartli, mention of "Khazarian" here is obviously anachronistic, and the Iranian languages are missing completely. But King Mirian's comment in Middle Persian is included in the biography of St. Nino in *Moktsevai Kartlisai*, and is accompanied by a Georgian translation in the "Shatberdian" edition (10th century) of *Moktsevai (Moktsevai Kartlisai, 121*; see Aleksidze/Gvakharia 2000). Although Mirian ruled in the 4th century A.D., it seems permissible to project this Georgian king's knowledge of Persian to earlier times. As for the polyglottism of the Hellenistic East, we refer to the example of Mithridates Eupator, who is said to have mastered 22 languages (Kaukhchishvili 1959, 20).

251 Andronikashvili 1966, 433, 474–478, 496–500, 502–505.

252 Kartlis Tskhovreba, 30, 35, 44 f., 50.

253 Gagoshidze 1981b, 114.

254 Gagoshidze 1981b, 112 f.

255 Gagoshidze 1983, 3–7, figs. 4, 7–15.

256 See ch. 3. *Dedoplis Gora and Architecture*, 49. As indirect evidence for the Mazdian belief of Iberian kings, we can cite the rule of incest – marriage between close relatives. According to Tacitus, Mithridates, Pharasmanes' brother, was married to Pharasmanes' daughter, i.e. his niece; but Radamistus, Pharasmanes' son, was married to Mithridates' daughter, who turns out to be his cousin, and, perhaps, his niece as well (Tac. *ann.* 12.46). Although the

Iron Metallurgy

The number of iron objects found at Dedoplis Gora was surprisingly large.²⁵⁷ Besides the fact that iron was used for making household utensils, weapons, and parts of horse's tack which were uncovered in great variety, vessels (lamps, barrels, etc.), furniture (tables, chairs, a bed, a shelf, a chandelier, a candle-stick, etc.), various chains, hooks, rings, nails, and many other artifacts were also made of iron. Unfortunately, due to the intense heat of the fire which destroyed the Palace and to the tooth of time, the greater share of this mass of iron has rusted, and the search for material worthy of exhibition was presented with nagging and sometimes insuperable problems. But the amount of material which is preserved is still very impressive.

The broad range of weapons (armor plates, mail, dagger blades, spear- and arrowheads) seemed quite unusual for Roman Georgia, so that the question of a Roman garrison stationed in the Palace presented itself. But a comparison of these weapons with Roman weaponry soon showed that they, like most of the other iron finds, had been produced in Kartli – in contrast to the bronzes, which apparently had been imported, primarily from Italy.²⁵⁸

It is difficult to say exactly where the iron objects had been made. It is possible that the Palace had its own forge, as did the temples at Dedoplis Mindori. Four hundred meters north-west of the *temenos*, in the artisans' settlement, there were, besides masons, potters, tile- and brick-makers, also smiths, who had made hundreds of nails of different sizes, as well as braces and hooks for fastening roofing tiles, like those found at Dedoplis Mindori.

It is also probable that the same artisans served both the Palace and the temples. The Dedoplis Mindori temples had apparently been built

Zoroastrianism of the Iberian kings was not extremely orthodox, Pharasmanes II, the king of Kartli, invited to Rome by Antoninus Pius, refused to sacrifice in the Capitol (Cass. Dio 70.2.1). But if we judge according to numerous gems found in graves, Graeco-Roman cults seem to have been quite popular in Iberia at the beginning of the Christian Era, and these beliefs would certainly also have influenced the royal family (on gems, cf. ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*).

257 Cf. ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, 4.5. *Metal Implements* and 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*.

258 Cf. ch. 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*.

within the royal domain, and they had probably been financed by a fixed share of the income contributed by the surrounding villages, while the villagers, who constituted the temple congregation, were at the same time royal slaves.²⁵⁹

In Roman Iberia, iron metallurgy and smithery seem to have been quite highly developed, and iron tools and weapons were produced not only to satisfy the immediate local demand, but also for the market. It is certain that the – apparently royal – workshop complex excavated at Grdzeli Mindori was organized to produce goods for the market, and together with copper-bronze, gold and lead metallurgy, the most important occupation there was iron-smithing. Iron was mined nearby, and the smelting was also done near the mine.²⁶⁰ Iron and iron products, as well as other goods (wood, oil, madder), that were traditionally exported from Georgia in the Middle Ages, had probably already been exported in Roman times.

Climate and Agriculture

Plant Remains found in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora

In the course of the excavations at Dedoplis Gora, bunches of grapes, grape seeds, nuts and the stones of plums, peaches, and cornel cherries found in the corridor in front of Rooms 7 and 8 (and outside the Palace) indicated that the fire which had destroyed the Palace had broken out in the autumn, during the harvest, when grain had already been stored.

Grain was found in rooms 1, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, and in the corridor. Sacks of grain were found in Room 1. In Room 8 and in the corridor, in front of Room 13, grain had been stored in a wooden box. In the rest of the rooms, it had been stored in pottery vessels, though at the door leading from Room 11 to Room 12, there was a heap of grain 1 m in diameter and 20 cm high. Cereals had probably been stored in sacks here as well.

Inasmuch as only a quarter of the whole area of the Palace has been excavated to date, it would

be rash to try to calculate the amount of provisions stored there. We can, however, state that in Room 1, about 350 kg of wheat were kept in 7 sacks, and that about the same amount of flour was kept in the wooden box in the northwest corner of the room; about 3,500 liters of wine could have been stored in the wine vessels in the corridor in front of Room 9. This was obviously sufficient for the number of permanent dwellers in the Palace.

As the remains of the plants have been carbonized, but were otherwise unchanged, it was possible to study their morphological traits and specific composition.²⁶¹ A broad variety of cultivated plants was discovered. Among the fruits identified were grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.) walnuts (*Juglans regia* L.), peaches (*Persica vulgaris* Mill.), plums (*Prunus domestica* L.) and cornel cherries (*Cornus mas* L., perhaps the wild form); among the vegetables found were onion (*Allium cepa* L.) and peas (*Pisum sativum*). However, the cereals were the most plentiful group: soft wheat (*Triticum aestivocompactum*), hard wheat (*Triticum durum* Desf.), multi-rowed lamellar barley (*Hordeum vulgare* v. *hexastichon*), rye (*Secale cereale*), millet (*Panicum miliaceum* L.) and sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench). In 1986, T. Berishvili (with the assistance of I. Maisaia and T. Shanshiashvili) identified spelt or “German wheat” (*Triticum dicoccum* Schrank) among the grain from Room 1.

A culture of pure barley was found on the floor of Rooms 8 and 12, but different populations were obviously represented in these rooms, i.e., the grain finds come from different fields. Seeds of several kinds of weeds were mixed with the barley from Room 8. These were *Secale segetale* Zuk, *Chenopodium* and *Caucalis daucoides*. The presence of weed seeds in paleobotanical material often gives additional information about crops: *Chenopodium* indicates that the barley from Room 8 grew in soil rich in moisture and humus, i.e., on irrigated soil – as the size of the barley seeds also shows – while the barley from Room 12 definitely grew in soil which had not been irrigated. The population from Room 1 differs

²⁵⁹ Gagoshidze 1978, 72. This was the case throughout Iberia (Janashia 1952, 141).

²⁶⁰ In the ruins of the workshop complex, numerous semi-finished products of many kinds of tools and weapons, as well as finished products were found; Apakidze 1963, 208–213, figs. 105–108, 111, pl. 64.

²⁶¹ The plant remains were studied by the paleobotanist, Nana Rusishvili (see Appendix: *Analysis of Plant Remains*). After comparing archaeological data with N. Rusishvili's results and with those of palynological research by E. Kvavadze, we presented a joint report in the Archaeological Research Center of the Georgian Academy of Sciences in June 2000, and again in September of the same year; cf. Gagoshidze et al. 2000.

from both of these groups, and obviously grew under other conditions.

The situation was analogous in the case of millet found in Rooms 10 and 12. The populations are morphologically quite different. The average length of the millet seeds in Room 12 is 2.3 mm, while in Room 10, the seeds are – with an average length of 1.8 mm – extremely small. These two groups of millet therefore obviously belong to different populations, and that from Room 10 obviously grew in poor soil.

Grain from Rooms 12 and 13, and in front of Room 13 was particularly interesting. In all cases, we found cultivated rye mixed with wheat and with natural hybrids of rye and wheat, the so-called triticalloid, respectively secalloid forms. This type of grain is characterized by a combination of the morphological features of rye and wheat.

Rye found at Dedoplis Gora is noteworthy for a number of reasons. Rye is not sowed and has never been sowed as an independent culture in the plain of Shida Kartli or at Dedoplis Mindori. The culture of rye found in Rooms 12 and 13 is typical for more northerly countries and for mountainous regions, where wheat does not ripen rapidly enough. The rye from Dedoplis Gora must therefore have been brought here from colder regions.

We learn from the above results that each sort of grain stored in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora represents a different population, i.e., these populations come from different fields and, at the same time, these fields differed in the quality of their soils and in their microclimatic conditions. It is obvious that the Palace had several different sources of cereals.

In the Palace, agricultural implements of various kinds were found, among them three plows. This would seem to indicate that the Palace itself practiced agriculture, probably with the labor of “the common people, who are slaves of the king” (*οἱ λαοί, οἱ βασιλικοὶ δοῦλοὶ εἰσι*).²⁶² But it is also probable that agricultural products were collected as a tax or a tithe. Although we find no poor soil in the vicinity of Dedoplis Mindori, grain grown in poor soil was also found in the Palace. This may mean that the area under the Palace resident’s rule (or subject to his taxation) was probably very large. This is indicated by the

finds of rye, which had never been sowed on the plains of Shida Kartli as an independent culture.

Findings of rye in the Palace, particularly those in Rooms 12 and 13, next to the Main Gate also raise another question. Room 13 was definitely the Gatekeepers’ Room, as is shown by its plan and inventory. The supply of food found here probably belonged to the gatekeepers. Rye has not been found anywhere else in the Palace, and we may assume that it was provisions which palace guards brought from their home in the mountains.²⁶³ The highlanders did not have their own local lords and they subordinated directly to the central government. They were considered to be king’s serfs and usually the royal guard was formed by them. If the Dedoplis Gora Palace had been a residence of Iberian kings, as we believe, then it would be logical to assume that there were also highlanders among the palace guards.

Mixed sowing of wheat and barley, as documented in the paleobotanical material, was practiced in Georgia until recently, and was employed in dry regions.²⁶⁴ In mixed sowing, three parts of wheat and one part of barley are harvested. Barley forms a strong root system, grows rapidly, and binds moisture for the wheat. In this manner, a harvest is guaranteed, even on unirrigated soil. After a number of mixed sowings, the original proportion (3:1) shifts in favor of barley. In the Palace find, barley predominates over wheat in the mixed population, which means that this population had been sowed for several years, which is an indication for regular droughts. The fact that the fields were irrigated, as has been mentioned above, also points to droughts.

The presence of sorghum in the botanical material from the Palace is of particular interest. This is a culture of African provenance which had not been documented in Georgian archaeological sites to date. From Africa sorghum migrated to southwest Asia; in the Mediterranean countries, it has been known from Roman times on. Its in-

²⁶³ According to Strabo (Strab. 11.3.3), “the major part of the Iberian population with fighting spirit occupies the mountain regions and leads a life like that of the Scythians and the Sarmatians, although they practice agriculture as well, and when there is any kind of danger, they bring up many tens of thousands of soldiers”. The situation in the Georgian highlands remained almost unchanged to the 19th century A.D.

²⁶⁴ Menabde 1938, 120–122.

roduction in Georgia also falls within the Roman period.

But this discovery is significant for other reasons as well. Sorghum easily adapts to dry and salty soils, and is extremely drought-resistant. For this reason, it is known as a “botanical camel”, and is a reliable indicator for a hot and dry climate. Thus, the practice of mixed sowing of wheat and barley on the one hand and sorghum culture on the other point to the fact that – in the 1st century A.D. – the climate in Shida Kartli was warmer and drier than it is now.

Palynological Analyses

This conclusion agrees well with the results of palynological research carried out by Eliso Kvavadze in Kakheti.²⁶⁵

In Shiraki (Cambysene), on the Tsiskaraant Gora, from the 2.6 m thick sequence of cultural strata, palynological analysis of 37 samples taken every 5 to 10 cm revealed that, in the 8th–7th centuries B.C., a forest-steppe landscape predominated in Shiraki. Pine (*Pinus eldarica* Medw.) was the commonest tree in the sparse forests. Poplar (*Populus hybrida* M.B.), willow (*Salix*) and alder (*Alnus*) formed flood-plain forests. In Shiraki, the existence of a lake and a river is indicated by a large amount of fern and horsetail spores in the palynological spectrum (and that in “waterless and rugged Cambysene”²⁶⁶). Hornbeam-, beech-, oak- and elm-trees grew above 600 m above sea-level, i.e., on the mountain ranges surrounding Shiraki.

In the spectrum of fossilized flower pollen of this period, there is a large amount of pollen of those flowers, which are indicators for anthropogenic changes. These are, first of all, cultivated plants, especially cereals and the weeds which accompany them, as well as plants from habitats altered by human activities. The inhabitants of Shiraki in the 8th–7th centuries B.C. cultivated rye and wheat, millet and barley, and practiced gardening as well. Walnuts and figs were especially common.

Palynological analysis of the samples from the cultural strata of multi-layered sites at Tsiskaraant Gora (in Shiraki), Naomari Gora (in Ud-

abno) and Didi Gora (in the Alazani plain), showed that the gradual drying of the climate began in the 6th century B.C., and was accompanied by a drop of the average annual temperature at the outset; but at the beginning of the Christian Era, the average annual and especially the summer temperatures rose dramatically, as a result of which the dryness of the climate was greatly increased.

Of course, the flora reacted to the change of climate. In eastern Shiraki and the Alazani plain, a mesophilic variety of grass was displaced by feather-grass; the frequency of its pollen reaches a maximum in the strata of the 1st century A.D. This is a quite clear indication for a dry climate.

The climate change certainly influenced human life, and the type of agriculture that flourished in the 8th–7th centuries B.C. in Cambysene (Shiraki) gradually vanished, and was replaced at the beginning of the Christian Era by seasonal cattle-breeding, as is well-documented by the disappearance of cereal pollens and of the concomitant weeds from the palynological spectrum, and by an increase of pollen typical for a landscape influenced by a pastoral economy. The region was not permanently settled, as no pollen from ruderal plants was found in the pollen spectrum.

Archaeological investigations provide corroborating evidence: Shiraki was deserted in the 1st century A.D., while about 15 sites dating to the 8th–7th centuries B.C. were discovered there.

Excavations in two of these sites – Tsiskaraant Gora and Noname-Gora – revealed a gradual decline in population and activity in the 6th–4th centuries B.C., and abandonment of the settlements at the end of the 1st millennium.²⁶⁷

In the 1st century B.C., when settlements of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture appear on the mountain range dividing Shiraki from the Alazani plain, Shiraki had been depopulated. We assume that the dramatic decrease in population in Cambysene in the 1st century B.C. was one of the reasons that encouraged the settlement and spread of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture-bearers.

Climate change affected not only Cambysene. It was a global phenomenon, and Shida Kartli could not remain untouched by the gradual warming and dessication. But after the 4th century B.C., when population density in Cambysene gradually began to decrease, just the re-

²⁶⁵ Kvavadze 1997.

²⁶⁶ As it was in Strabo’s time (Strab., 11.4.5), and as it is again today.

²⁶⁷ Furtwaengler/Knauss 1997, 359 f.

verse development took place in Shida Kartli, with economic and demographic growth and an increase in political importance.

In the first century, Iberia was apparently densely populated. Even the poorer soils were cultivated there, as the paleobotanical material has shown.

Irrigation Systems

Even today in Shida Kartli, grapevines and fruit trees cannot be cultivated without regular irrigation;²⁶⁸ vegetables and even wheat fields are irrigated, where possible. In the warmer and drier climate at the Turn of the Era, one of the most important factors for population growth and economic prosperity in Kartli was irrigation. The organization of a system of irrigation in Shida Kartli is comparatively simple, because the Kura has numerous deep tributaries here, and does not require complex engineering construction. In the broad river valleys, and where the rivers enter the plain, any farmer can cut a channel into the riverbank and direct the water onto his plot of land.

In the plain, the situation is somewhat different. Supplying thousands of hectares of fertile land with water requires large-scale systems of irrigation, a project which could only be organized by a centralized government. Such irrigation systems had been built in Kartli as early as the Early Hellenistic period.²⁶⁹

In Shida Kartli, three extensive irrigation systems – Mukhrani, Tiriponi, and Urbnisi – built at the beginning of the Hellenistic period, are still in use. The Mukhrani system is fed by the river Ksani, those of Tiriponi and Urbnisi by the Liakhvi. The main canals of all three systems cross the lowest point in the plain in aqueducts built up as earthen walls.²⁷⁰ But the construction at the head of the canal did not require complex engineering works and, as a rule, was renewed

after the spring floods each year. The development of complex irrigation systems and their maintenance was probably one of the ruler's most important economic activities. The chronicle *Moktsevai Kartlisai* begins with a report about building a Nastagisi canal. Although the chronicle ascribes this feat to Alexander of Macedonia – who never came to Georgia – the information is remarkable in itself, because it mentions the appointment of special “canal men”, who must have been responsible for canal maintenance.²⁷¹

In the 1st century B.C., the arable land in Shida Kartli had been optimally adapted to irrigation, and the plain became the country's “bread basket”.²⁷²

Remains of ancient Georgia's most extensive irrigation system are preserved in Kakheti, in the Alazani plain. Oral folk tradition ascribes the Alazani canal – like almost every other outstanding achievement in Georgia – to Queen Tamar (1184–1207).²⁷³ But none of the written sources gives as much as a hint about the construction of this canal, and it is difficult to believe that it had actually been built under Tamar or,

268 Kikvidze 1963, 52.

269 On the irrigation systems of the Hellenistic and Roman periods, in particular, in Shida Kartli and Kakheti, see Kikvidze 1963, 51–109. My own account of these systems is deeply indebted to this work; cf. Gegeshidze 1961.

270 The Urbnisi earth-wall is 5 km long (overall length of the Urbnisi canal: 23–25 km), up to 8 m high, its original width at the base 30 m, original capacity 300,000 m³. I owe this information to A. Losaberidze, whose unpublished work is also drawn upon by I. Kikvidze (1963, 71 f.). The Tiriponi and Mukhrani earth-walls are even more impressive.

271 *Moktsevai Kartlisai* 81; Kikvidze 1963, 108. Remains of this canal are still preserved at Nastagisi. It once supplied the city of the 3rd century B.C. with irrigation- and drinking water. Study of the canal's course (according to the hydrologist A. Kipshidze) showed that this canal was one of the branches of the Mukhrani irrigation system: it branched off the Mukhrani earth-wall. We can therefore give the *terminus ante quem* for construction of the Mukhrani earth-wall (respectively, of the Mukhrani irrigation system) as the 3rd century B.C. (Gagoshidze 1967, 81–84).

272 It is no accident that certain regions in this plain, the Mukhrani plain in the east, and Dedoplis Mindori in the west, were united in a royal domain even during the Middle Ages.

273 The length of the Alazani main canal was 119 km, while its maximum capacity was 24 m³/sec. The canal irrigated the entire Alazani plain (53,000 hectares), so that the average consumption pro hectare was 0.45 l/sec. (this is also roughly the present capacity of the Alazani canal). The Alazani canal crossed a number of ravines, which must have made the construction of (perhaps wooden) aqueducts necessary. But no trace of such aqueducts nor of water-retention facilities is preserved. The canal's head lies 6.5 meters higher than the river level: apparently, the level of the Alazani has sunken in the course of time, because it is improbable that the Iberians could have constructed a device which could have transported the water to this height in such early times. We are greatly indebted to the hydrologist A. Losaberidze, who has investigated the entire course of the old Alazani canal from an engineer's point of view, and who in places examined the cross-section of the main canal by means of excavations (Losaberidze 1938, 211–221, 225–228).

for that matter, in the Middle Ages at all. I. Kikvidze estimates the date of the Alazani canal to “the 1st–3rd centuries A.D., when the Alazani Plain culture had developed and the Albanian state had been established”.²⁷⁴ The exact date of the Alazani canal is a problem which remains to be solved – when the archaeology of Kakheti, in particular, the Kakhetian sites of the Ialoilu-Tepe culture will have made further progress.

Architecture

Sacral Architecture – The Temples at Dedoplis Mindori

Eight temples, two gateways (“propylea”) and other constructions, built simultaneously according to a uniform plan, comprise an impressive complex, rectangular in plan, and of more than 4 hectares in area (225×180 m) (fig. 31–32).²⁷⁵ This building complex has been arranged around a quadrangular inner court of 1 hectare in area, and is oriented along a longitudinal axis from south to north.²⁷⁶ The plan has been carried out with amazing accuracy, adhering to the principles of strict symmetry and the proper relation of the parts to the whole. The capitals crowning the temple columns, finally, are decorated with elaborate ornaments, and the gateways give us reason to rank the Temple Complex at Dedoplis Mindori among the best-planned architectural complexes in the Hellenistic East.

The temples at Dedoplis Mindori belong to the many temples and other monumental buildings of the ancient East with a columned hall as a central architectural element. In religious architecture, this type of building was perfected during the Achaemenian period. Two examples

would be a fire temple at Susa, built under Artaxerxes II (404–358 B.C.) and Kuh-e-Khwaja in Sistan.²⁷⁷ Although it is disputable which path of development this type of building may have taken in Achaemenian Iran,²⁷⁸ the temples at Dedoplis Mindori are – at least typologically – comparable to Achaemenian temples. However, in the case of the Dedoplis Mindori temples, we do not have to do with a simple borrowing or copying of a model, but with a local development and adaption of Achaemenian traditions. As early as the Achaemenian period, palaces and temples in Iberia had been built according to the standards set in Persepolis, and this building tradition was continued here into the Hellenistic period. Examples are the palaces at Gumbati (Kakheti) and Sari-Tepe (in western Azerbaijan, on the territory of Gogarene – the historical Kvemo Kartli) of the 5th–4th centuries B.C., the columns of which stood on classical Achaemenian bell-shaped bases,²⁷⁹ a temple with *risaltos* in Samadlo (Shida Kartli), similar to the towers of Kaaba-e-Zardusht and Zendan-e-Suleiman,²⁸⁰ a bell-shaped base and a double-protome capital of the 4th century B.C., and a fire temple of the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C. from Tsikhia Gora.²⁸¹ The same tradition is continued in small temples of the 2nd century B.C. on the Samadlo cemetery and in the Ghartiskari fortress, to the north of Mtskheta.²⁸²

The indebtedness of the Dedoplis Mindori temples to Achaemenian traditions becomes evident not only in their ground-plan. The capitals (fig. 33) also recall Achaemenian bell-shaped bases by their form and their system of decoration: if we turn it upside down in our imagination, the capital has the form of an open lotus flower. But the capitals also differ from bell-shaped bases in their proportions. They are lower and broader. Every single element of the sculptured decoration on the abacus (rosettes, palmettes, double weave) has parallels in the toreutics and in the monumental sculpture of the

274 Kikvidze 1963, 100.

275 A system of channels crossing the courts was found. They led under the walls as ditches covered with flat tiles. At first, we thought that this system was a sewerage for draining off rain water, but since we have learnt that the climate of the 1st century A.D. in Kartli was drier and warmer than today (see above), we believe that these channels were used to water gardens (paradises) in the inner courts of the Temple Complex. It is possible that they were also used for collecting rain water, but other information indicates that Dedoplis Mindori in Late Hellenistic and Early Roman times was apparently being irrigated by the canal dug from the Western Prone river which entered Dedoplis Mindori by way of an earth-wall aqueduct.

276 Gagoshidze 1977b; Gagoshidze 1977c; Gagoshidze 1981b; Gagoshidze 1992; Kipiani 2000a, 40–52.

277 Schippmann 1971, 57–70; 266–274.

278 Schippmann 1971, 482.

279 Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996; Narimanov 1960; Knauss 2000.

280 Gagoshidze 1979, 51–53; Kipiani 2000a, 33–35; cf. Schippmann 1971, 185–199; 204–208.

281 Gagoshidze 1997a; Gagoshidze 2000a; Tskitishvili 1995a; Kipiani 2000a, 35–40.

282 Khimshiashvili 1995, 312 f.

Achaemenian period.²⁸³ The composition of these elements on the capitals, however, is not typical for Achaemenian art, and resembles more closely that of the stucco reliefs of Sassanian palaces.²⁸⁴

The capitals in Dedoplis Mindori were hewn of local, fine-grained sandstone at Dedoplis Mindori itself, where, 400 m to the north-west of the sanctuary, a settlement of construction workers and craftsmen (masons, tile-makers, smiths, etc.) was excavated. Inasmuch as these capitals have no direct parallels outside of Georgia, we may postulate the existence of a local school of sculpture in Late Hellenistic Kartli. This school was indebted to Achaemenian art; it is probable that decorative motifs of Iranian origin were the source of its inspiration, but it always interpreted borrowed shapes and ornamental elements in its own way, adapted them, and built no epigonic monuments, but monuments with an artistic value of their own.

The architecture in Dedoplis Mindori stands in an analogous relationship to Achaemenian architecture. This temple complex, above all, the Main Temple, is characterized by features which set it apart from all other foreign temples we know of (the plan of the ambulatory, the door in the rear wall of the cella, an open portico in the north of the temple, etc.). The same peculiarities show that the Dedoplis Mindori temple is an expression of Iberian culture, and that its architect was a talented engineer and designer, who managed to solve difficult architectural problems during the planning and construction of this impressive complex.

The monumental dimensions of the Temple Complex and its location in the geographical center of Iberia are an indication for the importance of the cults practiced here. It is obvious that it was the family sanctuary of the Iberian kings²⁸⁵ and, for that reason, the existence of another religious center of this size in Late Hellenistic and Early Roman Iberia would be unlikely. A capital in Shiomghvime, near Sarkine, with the same kind of lotus-like ornament as that on the capitals in Dedoplis Mindori, and of a plain capital of the same shape, but smaller, by Sarkine, prove that

there were similar buildings in Kartli.²⁸⁶ However, they have yet to be excavated.

Particular attention should be given to the perhaps most important feature of the Main Temple at Dedoplis Mindori. All of the comparable oriental temples known to us stand in an enclosed court, while the Dedoplis Mindori temple opens its rear wall onto the courtyard and its main (southern) entrance opens onto the outside. This may have been determined by the nature of the rituals practiced here, and it may indicate a fundamental difference in conception between Georgian and oriental temples. There are similar differences between Georgian and oriental residential buildings: Georgian houses always opened onto the outside, while life in oriental dwellings is centered on the enclosed inner court.²⁸⁷ But this is not the only "western" feature at Dedoplis Mindori, a supposedly purely "oriental" complex. The architect had good knowledge of Hellenistic architecture. G. Kipiani observes that the longitudinal ground-plan and the gabled, tiled roof give the Lesser Temple at Dedoplis Mindori a "Hellenistic" appearance. He also sees a similarity in plan between the Dedoplis Mindori complex and Hellenistic sanctuaries in the fact that here, temples and gateways (propylea) protrude into the inner court.²⁸⁸ The design of the North Portico—"opisthodomos" of the Main Temple is ascribed to Hellenistic influence; and the tiled roof is absolutely untypical for oriental temples.

This combination of "eastern" and "western" traits is quite usual in Georgia. While the temples in Dedoplis Mindori are, on the whole, rather oriental, there is also a purely Hellenistic style in the contemporary Iberian architecture.

Urban Architecture – Uplistsikhe

In the center of Shida Kartli, 7 km to the east of Gori, on the high, rocky left bank of the Kura, an absolutely unique monument cut entirely out of the rock has been preserved. It conveys an impression of the urban planning and of the residential and public buildings in Iberia in Late Hellenistic and Roman times. There is a hypothe-

283 Lukonin 1977, 85; Lukonin 1968, pls. 287, 299, 306, 318–320.

284 Ghirshman 1962, figs. 229, 231; Pope 1938, I, 611, fig. 188; IV, pls. 171.B, D; 178.E.

285 Gagoshidze 1981b, 113 f.

286 Gagoshidze 1978, 65; Kipiani 1987, 55–59; Gagoshidze/Kipiani 2000, 64, figs. 1.10–12.

287 Chubinashvili 1959, 63.

288 Kipiani 2000a, 45.

sis that the Uplistsikhe ensemble was originally intended to be a cemetery, and that the palaces cut in the rock are nothing but the places of eternal rest for the Iberian kings and nobles, analogous to the rock-cut graves in Media, Paphlagonia, Lydia, and Lycia.²⁸⁹

Even though, our interpretation of this ensemble as a city still remains unaffected, and, at least on the basis of the houses cut in the rock, it would be possible to use Uplistsikhe as a model for discussing the plan of actual settlements in Kartli in the Late Hellenistic and Roman periods. A grave – a house for eternity – cut into the rock, is usually an imitation of a real dwelling. If Uplistsikhe was a cemetery, it must have served this purpose in the 5th–4th century B.C. – i.e., in the Achaemenian period. The very beginning of the Hellenistic period – i.e., the end of the 4th century B.C. – would be the date of the only archaeological find complex discovered on the site of Uplistsikhe, which can be identified as a grave inventory;²⁹⁰ the parallels from Media, Achaemenian Iran and Asia Minor are dated to the 5th–4th centuries B.C. and earlier. In Hellenistic and Roman times, Uplistsikhe was definitely no longer a cemetery. It was a citadel, enclosed by a mudbrick wall 4 m thick, with towers footing on an ashlar socle, and surrounded by a moat 10–15 m wide and 10 m deep, provided with a secret tunnel leading down to the Kura, with a sewer system for draining rainwater, with working quarters and a stable.²⁹¹

At the approaches to Uplistsikhe, remains of ancient roads designed for use by wheeled vehicles are preserved. The most impressive is the road leading to Uplistsikhe from the north, part of which has been cut into the rock on a length of 120 m. The depth of the cutting reaches 10 m in places. A wagon-road leads to the east of the moat, near Uplistsikhe's main gate, in its east wall. It ends at the river bank. It is probable that the road crossed the Kura here.²⁹²

Uplistsikhe was inhabited for several centuries and the rock-cut structures experienced quite a few changes during this period, but the room-

complexes, which have preserved the plans and decoration of the Hellenistic and Roman periods, draw attention to the present.

The rocky massif into which Uplistsikhe has been cut is terraced, like the citadels of other cities in Kartli – Samadlo, Sarkine, Armaztsikhe – in Hellenistic and Roman times, and the terraces descend in steps from north to south, to the Kura. One-storied residential complexes and public buildings are lined along the streets and none of them, for understandable reasons, is open to the north.

The walls of the rock-cut structures of the Hellenistic and Roman periods are polished, so that there are no traces of chisel-work. The ceilings in several rooms are imitations of wooden ceilings, the walls of one of the rooms are decorated with pilasters. The “beams” in the ceiling can be rectangular as well as round in section.²⁹³ The hall or “palace” with two columns merits special attention. The ceiling construction imitated here – a thick beam resting on two columns with thinner beams laid crosswise – is an exact reproduction of the ceilings in the porticos of the Dedoplis Mindori temples.²⁹⁴ All of these rooms with a flat ceiling must have been hewn in the Hellenistic period (or earlier). The vault of the Hall (“Theatre”) with a pediment and with octagonal caissons, however, is definitely Roman.²⁹⁵ The pediment and the arch of the Hall at Uplistsikhe have been constructed in a peculiar manner: the arch has been cut into the pediment and opens toward the outside, which is unusual for Roman monuments. This would seem to be a creative Iberian adaptation of a Roman decorative element.²⁹⁶ And this “Iberian” element, which is combined with a Roman architectural member – a caissoned vault – in the Hall at Uplistsikhe, is a pediment of Greek inspiration and an oriental (Iranian) *ivan* which had been adopted in Iberia as early as the Hellenistic period. This recalls the open porticos of the temples and monumental gateways (“propylea”) at Dedoplis Mindori, and

289 Kipiani 1999, 14–18.

290 Kipiani 2000b, 82.

291 Khakhutaishvili 1964, 58 f., 66 f.; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 58–64. T. Sanikidze believes that, from the Hellenistic period on, Uplistsikhe was a religious center (Sanikidze 1987, 8).

292 Chubinashvili 1961, 5 f., fig. 1, pl. 2.

293 Chubinashvili 1961, figs. 3–5, 7. In one of the rooms, there are pairs of round “beams”.

294 Chubinashvili 1961, fig. 8, pls. 7–8, with notes.

295 The closest parallels for these caissons are, in Sh. Amiranashvili's opinion, those of the *Thermae* of Diocletian and Caracalla and those in the *Basilicas* of Maxentius and Constantine, although he also sees a difference: in Rome the caissons are set parallel, while in Uplistsikhe they are diagonal.

296 Amiranashvili 1944, 122 f., pls. 34–39.

the Ionic capital from Grdzeli Mindori, which may be evidence for a pedimented building. Arched *ivans* were especially popular in Parthian architecture (Ashuri palace, Hatra temples) and these examples closely resemble the caissoned *ivan* in Uplistsikhe, chronologically as well as typologically and, perhaps, functionally.²⁹⁷

Fortifications

Among the fortifications which Pompey supposedly encountered in Iberia and which are more or less well documented archaeologically, there is, first of all, the Mtskheta citadel (figs. 41-42). Opposite the confluence of the Kura and the Aragvi, on a high hill on the right bank of the Kura, an artificially terraced area of 30 ha was enclosed by a mud-brick wall built on an ashlar foundation. Reinforcements rectangular in plan and 8.8×4.5 m in area had been set into the wall at regular intervals, and there were towers square in plan (10×10 m). In especially rugged terrain, the wall was additionally reinforced by buttresses of 90×90 cm, every 3 meters between the supports. The thickness of the wall is 2.75 m, while the height of the stone socle, which ascends the slope in steps, varies from 90 to 155 cm, i.e., there are 3 to 5 rows of stone blocks in the socle. The hewn sandstone blocks in the socle masonry have the dimensions: length 40-119 cm; width 60-71 cm; height 20-40 cm, and are fastened to one another by swallowtail clamps.²⁹⁸ A. Apakidze believes this would make it more difficult to breach or to undermine the wall during a siege: the wall does not follow the highest ridge on the mountain, which lies within the wall, so that the natural rock additionally reinforces it from the inside.²⁹⁹

A mud-brick wall with an ashlar socle, analogous to that of the Armaztsikhe Wall, was discovered on the north slope of a rocky hill in the center of Gori in 1946, after a landslide. Here, the stones of the socle are also fastened to one another by clamps.³⁰⁰ Stray finds from the slope date the wall to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D.

The Tsitsamuri fortress – *Σευσάμυρα*, 16 stadia from *Ἀρμοζικὴ*³⁰¹ – was erected on the ridge of a high hill on the left bank of the river Aragvi. It was built in a technique similar to that of the Armaztsikhe Wall, but here, arrowhead-shaped clamps were used to fasten the ashlar blocks of the socle to one another. And clamps connect the blocks not only in the horizontal plane, but also vertically – in this direction, rectangular clamps were used.³⁰² The clamps in Armaztsikhe, Tsitsamuri, and Gori were made of wood.³⁰³

The Ghartiskari fortification system, which guarded the northern approaches to Mtskheta on the right bank of the Aragvi, is quite different from that of Armaztsikhe. It is built completely of mud-brick, without a stone socle. Instead of a socle, a layer of pebbles had been spread under the mud-brick masonry. In 1980 to 1985, the Ghartiskari Wall was exposed over a length of 1 km. Three-storied towers, square in plan (exterior dimensions: 9×9 m; internal dimensions: 4.5×4.5 m), had been built at intervals of 50-55 m, and protrude 1 m from the wall, the thickness of which is 2.8 m. The size of the mud-bricks is 52×52×12 cm. A. Apakidze dates the fortification to the 3rd century B.C., but on the basis of the pottery found there, we assume that a date in the 2nd century B.C. is more probable, and that the fortress was still occupied in the 1st century B.C. Obviously, Strabo means the Ghartiskari fortress when he writes: “From the country of the nomads on the north ... there is a narrow path in the narrow valley of the Aragus, a walk of about four days. The end of the path is guarded by a fortress which is difficult to capture”.³⁰⁴

The approaches to Mtskheta from the west through the narrow gorges of the Kura were barred by the fortification systems of Sarkine and Grdzeli Mindori. At Grdzeli Mindori, on the left bank of the Kura, 10 km from Mtskheta, a wall with mud-brick towers built in the 2nd century B.C. was investigated in 1954 to 1956. Just as in Ghartiskari, mud-brick masonry had been erected on a foundation-layer of pebbles.³⁰⁵

297 Schlumberger 1985, 105, 115-118, figs. 99, 104-108.

298 Apakidze 1963, 22, 181, figs. 2-5, 98.

299 Apakidze 1963, 24.

300 Apakidze 1963, 191.

301 Strab. 11.3.5.

302 Apakidze 1963, 191, figs. 100-103.

303 Apakidze 1963, 191.

304 Strab. 11.3.5; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1988, 43 f.

305 Apakidze 1963, 208.

The Greek Orders in Iberia

In 1954 to 1956, in a large workshop complex at Grdzeli Mindori, numerous small bits of hewn limestone and decorated architectural members, among them, a small capital of the Ionic Order, were found.³⁰⁶ Excavation of this ashlar building could not be completed, but by stylistic analysis of the Ionic capital, G. Kipiani dates it to the 2nd-1st centuries B.C.³⁰⁷ Finds of fluted columns or fragments of those are further evidence that the architecture of the Greek orders was widespread: a 3-meter high, fluted limestone column from Nadarbazevi (Mtskheta district), now in the Georgian National Museum – Shalva Amiranashvili Museum of Fine Arts, another fluted sandstone column from the ruins of the Early Medieval monastery near Satovle (Mtskheta district),³⁰⁸ and three fragments of fluted columns in the 7th-century church in Tsromi (Khashuri district).³⁰⁹ Recently, in the course of maintenance work in the yard of the Svetitskhoveli Cathedral in Mtskheta, various fragments of fluted columns, capitals and other architectural members were uncovered.

Unfortunately, none of the buildings to which these architectural fragments had originally belonged could be explored archaeologically. It is therefore impossible to date them, although it seems certain that some of them date to the Roman period.

In any discussion of the architecture of the Greek Orders, the Sairkhe Doric capitals (fig. 35) must take a prominent place, although neither the building they originally supported has been completely excavated and studied, nor could they be unequivocally dated as yet: from the 7th-1st centuries B.C.³¹⁰ Recently, G. Makharadze, under consideration of the stratigraphy and history of the site, came to the conclusion that a monument of this type could not have been built

earlier than the Hellenistic period, when stone architecture was introduced into Sairkhe. Correspondingly, the author dates the capitals to the 3rd-2nd centuries B.C.³¹¹ The latter date is very close to that proposed by G. Kipiani on the basis of stylistic analysis of the capitals: the Late Hellenistic period. Kipiani himself tends to the end of this period, and ascribes the capitals to the 2nd-1st centuries B.C.³¹²

The temple to which they originally belonged, whether it was of Hellenistic date or not, was certainly an Iberian structure. Argveti (Zemo Imereti), in which Sairkhe lies, has always been part of the Iberian kingdom from the very beginning, and it is surmised that Sairkhe was the political and administrative center of one of the Iberian provinces (*saeristavo*).³¹³

These capitals from Sairkhe are unique examples of Hellenistic architecture, in which decoration of Egyptian provenance (lotus-motif), is combined with and adapted to a Greek architectural system – the Doric Order.³¹⁴ This could only have happened in Iberia, where east and west met.

Capitals of the Doric Order and a fragment of an architrave hewn in basalt were found in Nastagisi, and are dated to the 3rd century B.C.³¹⁵

In the center of the settlement site of Urbnisi (Kareli region), on the Khizanaant Gora, by the bank of the Kura, and under a stone wall of the 4th-5th centuries A.D., remains of Hellenistic foundations were excavated in 1960. If we judge according to the tiles from this building, the majority of which belong to the type common in the 2nd-1st centuries B.C.,³¹⁶ we would conclude that this building still stood when the Romans first appeared in Georgia – in contrast to the Tsikhia Gora temple mentioned above, which seems to have been destroyed by the end of the 2nd century B.C.³¹⁷ Eighteen (out of originally approxi-

306 Apakidze 1963, 39, 208, 213, figs. 21–34, pls. 58–59.

307 Kipiani 1987, 24–33.

308 Leshava 1979, 19 f.

309 Chubinashvili 1969, 39, pls. 81, 87. The diameter is 44–46 cm. There are 19 flutes on each column.

310 Nadiradze 1990a, 99 ff.; Kipiani 1987, 15–23. One of the capitals from Sairkhe is part of a column with an upper diameter of 50 cm (the height of the capital is 50 cm, diameter of the echinus, 1 m), while the other stems from a half-column, and is smaller. Its height is 20 cm, the diameter of its echinus is 50 cm (the diam. of the half-column is 40 cm).

311 Makharadze 1997, 18: inclining toward the 3rd century B.C.

312 Kipiani 1987, 23.

313 Nadiradze 1990a, 152.

314 Kipiani 1987, 22.

315 Bokhochadze 1978a, 23.

316 Zakaraia 1965, figs. 7–8.

317 Gagoshidze 1972, 37, 112. During the excavations at Tsikhia Gora in 1971, we found a cultural layer which contained black-polished pottery overlying the ruins of the temple. This stratum is well dated to the turn of the 2nd to 1st centuries B.C.

mately 36) steps of a ceremonial stairway had been preserved at Urbnisi. The length of each step is 2.8 m, the width 60–65 cm, the height 15 cm. Only part of a wall 15 meters long and 2.75 m thick, bordering the stairway on the south, remains of the building. The stairway had been built of wood, but rubble, pebbles and mud-brick were used to build the wall.³¹⁸ We can only conjecture about the function and appearance of this building, however, it had been covered with red tiles, and – with this stairway – it must have been imposing.

Roofing Tiles

In his description of Caucasian Iberia, Strabo writes “... the greater part of Iberia is so well built up in respect to cities and farmsteads that their roofs are tiled, and their houses as well as their market-places and other public buildings are constructed with architectural skill”.³¹⁹

The Iberian “cities and farmsteads” in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. are archaeologically too little known for us to be able to describe the planning of streets, markets and other public facilities. However, red-tiled roofs, which attracted Strabo’s attention, were actually common in populated areas of Iberia. Such tiles are one of the technical innovations which appeared simultaneously in Iberia and in Colchis at the end of the 4th century B.C. Roof-tiles were undoubtedly introduced from Greece or from strongly hellenized regions of Asia Minor. This is indicated not only by the Georgian name for the tiles – *kramiti* – borrowed from the Greek *κεραμίς*, but Greek letters were also inscribed on the tiles produced in Iberia before firing, and their dimensions were based on the so-called long Attic foot of 326.54 mm.³²⁰ Iberian tiles of the Hellenistic

period have a peculiar shape, and differ from all other contemporary tiles we are know of – even from Colchian tiles. This could indicate that the origin of the Iberian tiles is different from that of the others. The provenance of Colchian, in particular of the Vanian, tiles is obvious: they are copies of Sinopian tiles.³²¹ This is not the case for the Iberian tiles, the model for which is to be found somewhere in Anatolia, where roofing tiles have a long history.³²²

In Iberia, as well as in the Hellenistic world, two types of roofing tiles were in use: a flat tile with turned-up sides (or solenos) and a semicylindrical tile (or calipteros). From the end of the 4th century B.C. on, a new form of tile was used in Iberia for covering the ridges of gable roofs – larger and broader calipteroi.³²³

The earliest examples of Iberian roofing tiles are also characterized by several features for which we as yet know no parallels outside Georgia. One of these is a projection on the ridge of the calipteros near the upper, narrow end. Its function is to keep the calipteros in the upper row from slipping. The form of the lower end of the solenos is also unusual: in early examples, the turned-up sides of the solenos are narrowed and provided with projections, which hold the sides of the tiles in the lower row. Solenoi of the Roman period have no projections on the sides, their sides are thinned.

As soon as the roofing tile had been introduced into Georgia, it found immense popularity, and as early as the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C., a local tile production had been organized in all of the more densely populated regions. In the rural areas, where suitable clay was easily found, it was apparently more convenient to produce the tiles locally, even if it was necessary to employ craftsmen from elsewhere, than to buy finished tiles and to transport them from distant production centers.³²⁴ The same held true in Iberia as far

318 Zakaraia 1965, 17–21.

319 Strab. 11.3.1.

320 Gagoshidze 1967, 76–80; Gagoshidze 1979, 62–64. Tiles become common also in Armenia and Albania in the Hellenistic period, but later than in Colchis and Iberia. In Armenia, the oldest tile was found in Artashat (Artaxata) and the opinion has been voiced that tiles were introduced there at the founding of the city, i.e. in 180–170 B.C. (Arakelian 1982, 28, pls. 25–26). In Albania, the oldest tile recorded from excavations in Cabala and Khinisli (by Shemakha) is approximately of the same date (Khalilov 1985c, 35, 41, pl. 3). The tiles from Artashat (Artaxata), Cabala and Khinisli differ from one another and from Iberian tiles as well, though several types of Albanian tiles (ca-

lipteros with projections) resemble their Iberian counterparts, and had apparently been inspired by them.

321 Lordkipanidze 1966, 128; Lordkipanidze 1970, 83.

322 In the layer of the Phrygian period in Boghazkoi a well-fired tile was found; Doerner/Goell 1963, 151, no. 19.

323 Gagoshidze 1979, fig. 4.

324 In Uplistsikhe, tiles similar to those from Samadlo date to the 3rd century B.C., but they had obviously been produced in other workshops (Khakhutaishvili 1970, 88–91; Khakhutaishvili 1964, pl. 1); similar tiles also in Kavtiskhevi – Tsikhia Gora (Tskitishvili 1977, fig. 3), in the lower

as pottery was concerned. Study of Iberian pottery of the Hellenistic and Roman periods by means of petrographic analysis has shown that the demand for pottery in all of the cities in Iberia (Mtskheta, Kaspi, Uplistsikhe, Urnisi, etc.) was met by local production. There was no large-scale surplus trade in pottery, bricks, and tiles within the kingdom.³²⁵

This was also the case in Dedoplis Gora. Almost all of the ceramic vessels had been made in a local workshop, and only few had been produced elsewhere in Georgia.³²⁶ Finds of imported pottery are also rare. In the interior of the country, imported pottery is seldom found, because the transport of comparatively inexpensive, but heavy and fragile vessels across land roads to be sold elsewhere would have been uneconomical. At Dedoplis Gora, only one imported lagynos (cat. no. 8) and six bowls which are likely to have been imported from Asia Minor or from the Balkans have so far been found (cat. nos. 9–14). Ceramic vessels for cosmetics found at Dedoplis Gora (cat. nos. 1–7) had also been imported from abroad, but are, strictly speaking, not imports of pottery, because it was their contents of expensive perfumes which were imported, and the vessels were merely the containers.

The Iberian roofing tiles of the Roman period are the direct descendants of local Hellenistic tiles, but are somewhat smaller, lighter and more uniform. Similar tiles were produced in different parts of Iberia, with none of the variability characteristic of the Early Hellenistic period. At the end of the Hellenistic period, the tile production in Iberia was “rationalized”. From this time on in Georgia, calipteroi were made on the potter’s wheel: a tube, which slightly narrows toward one end, is turned, and two calipteroi are made by cutting it lengthwise.³²⁷ In contrast to the tiles known in Georgian archaeological literature as “Samadloian”, “standardized” tiles of the later period are called “Mtskhetian”. Only the “Mtskhetian” tiles are used on buildings of the Late Hellenistic and Roman periods, and the

Georgian tile of the Middle ages is also a further development of the “Mtskhetian” type.³²⁸

The roofing tiles excavated at Dedoplis Gora belong to the so-called early “Baginetian” variant of the “Mtskhetian” type of tile, while those from the temples of nearby Dedoplis Mindori represent an intermediate stage between “Samadloian” and “Mtskhetian” tiles: the solenoi are of an early type, while the calipteroi are already made on a potter’s wheel. This difference is not surprising, because the Palace at Dedoplis Gora is a younger contemporary of the Temples at Dedoplis Mindori. The latter were built at the end of the 2nd century B.C., and the Palace in the 1st century B.C.

Construction Methods

In the partly excavated Palace at Dedoplis Gora, we have quite probably uncovered the residence of an Iberian nobleman of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. The architecture of this object is discussed in detail below.³²⁹ Here, we will limit ourselves to a concise description of the building techniques employed there. In Roman times, innovations in construction methods were introduced into Georgia which influenced the development of the local architecture for several centuries. One of these was mortar. But the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, although it is a monument of the Roman period, was built in the traditional manner, without the use of mortar.³³⁰

The walls of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, up to 2 m in height, are built in a technique similar to

layers of Sarkine and Grdzeli Mindori (Bokhochadze 1977, 95), from the first layer in Grakliani, Kaspi district (B. G. Mchedlishvili’s excavations, unpublished), and elsewhere.

325 Morchadze 1979, 82; Gagoshidze 1979, 79, 119, no. 123.

326 Zemo Imereti: see ch. 4.1. *Pottery*, cat. nos. 117, 124, 147.

327 Apakidze 1959b.

328 One type of late Hellenistic-Roman tiles, in particular, *calipteroi* with a finger-like projection found in Albania (Khalilov 1985c, pl. 3.2), is related to Iberian (Mtskhetian) tile-types, and we may assume that tiles were disseminated from Iberia to Albania. The Iberian kingdom was the land nearest to Albania where tiles were in common use from the very beginning of the Hellenistic period on.

329 Cf. ch. 3. *Dedoplis Gora and Architecture*.

330 It has been maintained that mortar was in common use in Georgia as early as the 3rd century B.C. (Apakidze 1963, 34–35). To date, however, we know of only one certain case of the use of mortar earlier than the Roman period, and that not in masonry, but in the mosaics of the 2nd century B.C. on the floor of one of the temples at Vani (Khoshtaria et al. 1972, 172 f.; Lordkipanidze 1978, 134). This was also the case in the Northern Black Sea region, where mortar was rarely used earlier than the 1st–2nd centuries A.D., and then only in special cases – for example, as a foundation for mosaics, or in building and plastering wine-presses (Karasev 1955, 189).

opus gallicum, or *murus gallicus* (figs. 11–14).³³¹ The front of the wall is faced with ashlar blocks or with rubble of approximately equal size.³³² This type of wall construction was common in Iberia in the Hellenistic period. Not only the Dedoplis Gora Palace, but also the walls bracing the terraces at Samadlo (4th century B.C.),³³³ the temples at Tsikhia Gora³³⁴ and Urbnisi,³³⁵ buildings at Sarkine³³⁶ and a “tower-temple” of the 4th–3rd centuries B.C. at Vani³³⁷ had been built in the same manner.³³⁸ The upper parts of the walls in all of these constructions consisted of mud-brick; at Dedoplis Gora, as well as in Armaztsikhe, mud-brick masonry was also interlaced with wooden beams in order to reinforce it.³³⁹ Vitruvius recommends setting lightly scorched beams made from olive trees transversally in the mud-brick wall so that the walls, bound from both sides, would retain their solidity “forever”.³⁴⁰

Mud-brick – formed of mud dried in the sun – has been known in Georgia since the Neolithic Period.³⁴¹ In the Late Bronze and Early Iron Ages, however, the usual method of construction for building houses was Wattle-and-Daub, which also has a long history in Georgia (from the 4th–

3rd millennia B.C. on).³⁴² Mud-brick became the preferred building material in Georgia again in the Achaemenian period due to the influence of ancient oriental, Achaemenian traditions:³⁴³ the oldest Achaemenian building in Georgia, the Gumbati palace in Kakheti, is built of mud-brick. There, the mud-brick masonry foots immediately on the leveled ground, without any foundation.³⁴⁴ But already in the tower-like building of the 5th–4th centuries B.C. at Samadlo, mud-brick walls had been set on a stone socle.³⁴⁵ From the Hellenistic period on, mud-brick walls of the more important buildings were, as a rule, built on a socle, a stone foundation which protected the wall from moisture. This is the case in Urbnisi, Tsikhia Gora, Samadlo, and elsewhere.³⁴⁶ From the Late Hellenistic period on, a new method of founding mud-brick masonry becomes common in Iberia: one or (rarely) two layers of pebbles were spread on the leveled ground, before the mud-brick wall was built. Buildings of the upper layer (2nd century B.C.) at Samadlo,³⁴⁷ the Temple Complex at Dedoplis Mindori,³⁴⁸ a mud-brick wall of the 2nd–1st centuries B.C. in Urbnisi,³⁴⁹ towers and a wall at Grdzeli Mindori³⁵⁰ and in Ghartiskari,³⁵¹ buildings in the 2nd century B.C.-settlement site at Sakanchia (Vani),³⁵² among others, are all founded on this type of layer.³⁵³ This method of

331 Wilsdorf 1986, 344; Bray/Trump 1970, 233. The supporting construction of this type of wall consists of wooden beams, laid lengthwise and crosswise at equal distances, and fastened to one another by means of notches. This forms a frame, which is filled with a mixture of pebbles and clay.

332 The facing can be attached to the wooden frame by two different methods: the ends of the transverse beams are either inserted into the facing, as in the walls at Samadlo and Tsikhia Gora, or these ends are sharpened and fitted into holes cut in the facing blocks, as is the case in Dedoplis Gora.

333 Gagoshidze 1979, 56 f.

334 Tskitishvili 1977, 88, fig. 2.

335 Zakaraia 1965, 19.

336 Bokhochadze 1976, 71.

337 Kipiani 2000a, 9, pl. 4.

338 None of the publications named give any such definition of the wall construction, but wooden beams and pebbles are mentioned in all of them, which permits us to assume that in all of these cases an identical construction is described. The melted pebble mentioned in the description of the Urbnisi and Vani temples is noteworthy: when such walls burn, not only clay, but even stones melt. Similar phenomena are known from Western Europe as well (*Vitrified fort*, see Bray/Trump 1970, 250).

339 Apakidze 1963, 22.

340 Vit. 1.5.3.

341 Javakhishvili 1973, 18; Kipiani 1997, 23.

342 Javakhishvili 1973, 121; Knauss 2005. This, apparently, was the origin for the type of Hellenistic fortification wall mentioned above (*murus gallicus*). Wooden walls plastered with clay were discovered in Vani, at the settlement site of Sakanchia, of Late Hellenistic date (Licheli 1991, 19).

343 Gagoshidze 1996, 130.

344 Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 367.

345 Gagoshidze 1979, 51.

346 Zakaraia 1965, 19; Tskitishvili 1977, 87; Gagoshidze 1979, 56.

347 Gagoshidze 1979, 56.

348 Gagoshidze 1992, 29.

349 Chilashvili 1964, fig. 24.

350 Apakidze 1963, 208.

351 Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1988, 43.

352 Licheli 1991, 19.

353 Against L. Chilashvili, who dates the buildings with mud-brick walls on a pebble foundation excavated in the first section of the Urbnisi settlement site to the 4th–3rd centuries B.C. (Chilashvili 1964, 34), at least, the pottery (black-polished vessels) found in this layer (Urbnisi section I) cannot be earlier than the 2nd century B.C. (Gagoshidze 1975b, 99–101). G. Narimanishvili (1991, nos. 806–807), places the vessels from Urbnisi section I in his 5th chronological group of Iberian pottery (1st century B.C.–1st cen-

foundation for mud-brick walls remained common in the Roman and later periods as well.³⁵⁴ However, founding mud-brick walls on a high ashlar socle had not been forgotten.³⁵⁵

These were the building techniques in use before Iberia came under Roman sway; Roman domination led to the introduction of mortar, rubble masonry, and the arch. The changes brought about by these innovations became particularly apparent in the 2nd century A.D., when Iberian nobles began to imitate their Roman counterparts' way of life in palaces built (perhaps by Mediterranean craftsmen) in Roman style. One such residence in Dzalisa was furnished with atria, mosaic floors, palaestra, baths and swimming pools and with a system of underfloor heating, as well as other luxuries.³⁵⁶

The first baths of Roman type were probably built in the 1st century A.D. in Armaztsikhe (Bagineti). It is quite different in plan from the baths of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. in Dzalisa and from those of the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. in Armaztsikhevi.³⁵⁷ In contrast to these, the Bagineti baths do not have three separate, axially arranged bathrooms – *frigidarium*, *tepidarium* and *caldarium*. It is a rectangular room of 35 m² area, at the rear right corner of which there is a small square bath plastered with hydraulic mortar. The floor of the heating system had been tiled, and was supported by columns made of rectangular and round bricks. Both, such tiles and fired bricks were innovations of the Roman period, and were in common use in Georgia in the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. Brick was widely used in Dzalisa as well.³⁵⁸

The most prominent building of the so-called Armaztsikhe-I building horizon, excavated on the first terrace of Bagineti, is a “columned hall” (fig. 40). The lower part of its walls is built of ashlar blocks to a height of 3.3 m, while the upper part is built of mud-brick. The hall, rectangular in plan (20.82×8.87 m), is divided into two

naves by a row of six columns. The ashlar blocks in the walls are not clamped to one another. This, perhaps, was not necessary on a well-leveled terrace, but it is noteworthy that the vertical joints between the blocks are mortared.³⁵⁹

This observation could be an additional argument for a dating of the “columned hall” not earlier than the 1st century B.C.,³⁶⁰ but it is certain that this hall was still in use in the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.³⁶¹ This date is lent additional probability by the find of the so-called faience beads in the hall, which first appear in Kartli in the 1st century A.D.³⁶² and an ivory plate of the Late Parthian period (2nd century A.D.) with a relief of a dancing woman.³⁶³

On the first terrace in Armaztsikhe, next to the “columned hall”, stands the so-called “double-naved building”, on the remains of an ashlar and mud-brick structure. During the excavation in 1890, fragments of wall paintings, now in the Georgian National Museum – Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine Arts, were found. We observed that pieces of burnt mud-brick with remains of painted plaster were mixed in the mortar. It is therefore obvious that wall-paintings had decorated the older building which was contemporary with the “columned hall”. The interior of the “columned hall” itself was richly decorated, as is attested by fragments of a gold foil found there.³⁶⁴

Fragments of the frescos were identified as a “Roman painting”. Thick lime plastering with an admixture of straw and red clay from crushed pottery, is covered with a thin coat of *leucas*, which serves as an undercoat. A diminutive representation of a goddess' head painted on a red background has been preserved. By stylistic analysis, E. Kavlelashvili concludes that this fresco from Armaztsikhe is comparable to the Pompeian third style, and must have been painted in the 50's of the 1st century A.D. The

ture A.D.). This pottery is surprisingly similar to that from Dedoplist Gora (see ch. 4.1. *Pottery*), so that these buildings from Urbnisi cannot be earlier than the 2nd–1st centuries B.C.

354 Chilashvili 1964, 91, fig. 43.

355 Cf. ch. 6. *Catalog of Sites*, Tsitsamuri, Armaztsikhe, Vani; Apakidze 1963, 22, 25; Kipiani 2000a, 11.

356 Bokhochadze 1976; 1977; 1978a; 1981b; 1984.

357 Apakidze 1963, 38, fig. 99, pls. 20–23; cf. Apakidze et al. 1955, 147–160; Bokhochadze 1977, 97–99, figs. 5–8.

358 Bokhochadze 1977.

359 At our request, the petrographer Dr. Mariam Khutchua analyzed a mortar sample by means of microscopy.

360 See Gagoshidze 1979, 49.

361 A. Apakidze (1963, 22 f., fig. 13) believes that the “columned hall” had been built earlier than the 3rd century B.C., while the structures overlying it are thought to have been built in the 3rd–1st centuries B.C.

362 Cf. ch. 4.7. *Jewelry*, 168.

363 Apakidze 1963, 26 f.

364 Apakidze 1963, 27.

plaster which forms the ground for the painting and which differs from that of both earlier (2nd–1st centuries B.C.) and later (end of the 1st–2nd century A.D.) periods in its composition and texture, as well as in its surface treatment, corresponds well to this date.³⁶⁵

It may be assumed that a Roman or Greek painter was commissioned with painting the frescos in Armaztsikhe, (just as later, in the 2nd century A.D., a Greek craftsman, Preiskos, was requested to set the mosaic in Dzalisa).³⁶⁶ As a matter of principle, it was the king's court who adopted everything foreign and new at first. This

is why mortar was used in Armaztsikhe – a royal residence – for the first time in Kartli.³⁶⁷

Mortar was an innovation which determined the development of Georgian architecture for many centuries. Georgian medieval architecture, which reached the peak of artistic perfection, is an architecture based on the use of mortar, of the arch, and of the dome (G. Chubinashvili).

An abundance of imported objects, in particular, of luxury goods in Dedoplis Gora, the high quality of the palaces at Armaztsikhe (Bagineti) and Dzalisa are indicators for the high standard of private life of the Iberian elite.

³⁶⁵ Kavlelashvili 1996.

³⁶⁶ Bokhochadze 1981, 77.

³⁶⁷ The workshop complex at Grdzeli Mindori, in which mortar was also used, dates to the same period. A. Apakidze and O. Lordkipanidze date this workshop to the 4th–3rd, or to the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C. (Apakidze 1963, 40, 207, 214; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 60). This is difficult to accept, not only because the use of mortar in Iberia is unlikely at such an early date, but also because the tile from Grdzeli Mindori is of a later type than those of the 4th–2nd centuries B.C. from Samadlo, Nastagisi, and Tsikhia Gora (cf. Apakidze 1963, 213; Bokhochadze 1976, 72). In the workshop at Grdzeli Mindori, among other things, hundreds of three-winged iron arrowheads with hafts were found, which become common in Iberia only from the 2nd century B.C. on, and remain unchanged to the 4th century A.D. (see ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, 126).

2. Dedoplis Gora – One of the Most Important Archaeological Sites on the Territory of the Ancient Iberia

by Iulon Gagoshidze

Dedoplis Gora is a 34 m high settlement mound located in Shida Kartli, not far from the geographical center of Georgia. It is situated on the left bank of a left tributary stream of the Kura River, the Western Prone (figs. 2-4, 15-18).

The mound's southern slope has been eroded by the river, so that its cultural strata, with a total thickness of 14 m, have been exposed here.³⁶⁸

The lowermost strata in Dedoplis Gora date to the Chalcolithic period, the Early and Late Bronze and Early Iron Ages. The next younger-in-time layer is formed by the ruins of a palace; these remains are covered by four horizons of Late Roman to Early Medieval cultural strata the latter dated to the 4th-7th centuries A.D. From the 7th century A.D. on, the mound was abandoned.

To the east and north of Dedoplis Gora, there are two further mounds which had once been inhabited; they are not quite as high as Dedoplis Gora, but their summits offer more room for settlement: the surface of the eastern mound has an area of roughly 2 ha, that of the northern one, 4 ha. In the eastern mound, only Late Bronze and Early Iron Age strata are preserved, but in the northern one – the stratigraphy of which had

been disturbed by construction – in 1979, we excavated Late Bronze Age and Early Iron Age houses and pits containing Early Bronze (Kura-Arax Culture) and Middle Bronze Age finds. To the north of these mounds, on the uppermost Kura-terrace, in a locality known as Dedoplis Mindori, lies an extensive cemetery, in which we in that same year investigated 13 graves dating to the first half of the 3rd millennium B.C., 41 pit burials of the 2nd-1st millennia B.C. and a Late Bronze Age (14th-13th centuries B.C.) tumulus containing a chariot. Bronze Age settlement remains were discovered to the west of these mounds as well – on the terrace of the Eastern Prone which unites with the Western Prone to flow into the Kura River.

On the left bank of the Eastern Prone, in the area known as Berikldeebi, there is a huge tumulus-cemetery in which approximately 50 barrows have been registered. Some of them were excavated in the years 1979-1990. Two of them apparently date to the Early Bronze Age (Bedeni Culture), five to the Middle Bronze Age, and one to the transitional period from the Middle to the Late Bronze Age (15th century B.C.). At the confluence of the Eastern Prone into the Kura, a sanctuary was excavated in the years 1979 to 1990, in which remains of Chalcolithic, Early Bronze Age (Kura-Arax and Bedeni Cultures), Late Bronze Age to Early Iron Age structures, and burials of Chalcolithic and Middle Bronze Age date were discovered.³⁶⁹

Since there is no other settlement of comparable extent in Shida Kartli, this must, in my opin-

³⁶⁸ The first sporadic excavations were carried out by a student of Geology, L. Titvinidze, in the south-western part of the hill in 1926. The finds are in the Georgian National Museum – Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine Arts (Gagoshidze 1973; Abramishvili 1977, pl. 8). The Urbnisi Archaeological Expedition of the Georgian National Museum made observations at Dedoplis Gora on several occasions from 1953 to 1963 (N. Berdzenishvili, G. Lomtadidze, P. Zakaraia) and in 1957 by the archaeologist O. Gambashidze. Sporadic excavations were carried out at Dedoplis Gora by the Shida Kartli Archaeological Expedition in 1972 and 1976, and regular excavations began in 1985, which unfortunately had to be interrupted in the years 1991 and (due to a lack of funds) 1993.

³⁶⁹ Gagoshidze/Shishkin 1980; Gagoshidze et al. 1986; Ghlonti et al. 1986.

ion, have been the central place of a large region during the Bronze Age.

At Dedoplis Mindori, about 3 km to the north of the mounds described above, a grandiose temple-complex of the 2nd century B.C.-1st century A.D. was excavated from 1972 to 1977 (see figs. 2, 31-32). It may have been the family sanctuary of the kings of Kartli or Caucasian Iberia, as recorded in Greek and Roman sources.³⁷⁰ We assume that a ruler must have resided in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora (which is contemporary with the temple-complex) who probably governed a royal domain in the environs of Dedoplis Mindori. Whenever the King of Kartli and the royal family went on a pilgrimage to the temples at Dedoplis Mindori, Dedoplis Gora would have been their temporary residence.

In the 1st century B.C., when construction of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora had begun, the hill was 10 m high, measured from the ground level at Dedoplis Mindori. But Dedoplis Gora had already been separated from Mindori (and from the other two mounds) by a 10 m deep trench dated to the Bronze Age, which indicates that – from a strategic point of view – the Palace-builders had chosen an easily defensible site for erecting their fortified palace.

According to the archaeological evidence, which has been confirmed by radiocarbon analysis, the Palace was destroyed at the end of the 1st century A.D., apparently at the same time as the Temple-Complex at Dedoplis Mindori.³⁷¹ The

Palace was destroyed by a catastrophic fire, and the arrowheads found in the ruins lead to the supposition that the Palace had been besieged and burnt down. The debris of the two- to three-storied palace-walls and of the tiled roof, which the intense heat has turned into a pumice-stone-like substance, has conserved the ground floor and all of the objects which survived the fire unscathed (fig. 10). A relatively large number of finds remained undamaged, because the heat of the fire was apparently less intense at this level: not only objects of metal, stone, clay and glass remained more or less well preserved, but organic material as well – objects of wood and bone, fruit seeds and pits, walnuts, grain and even textiles. It seems noteworthy that the fire and the siege apparently prevented abandoning the Palace, and after the fire had subsided, it was no longer possible to plunder it. For this reason, the finds excavated in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora are – even astoundingly – rich and varied, and include not only furniture, tableware, weapons and tools, but even remains of foodstuffs and the like. The archaeological finds give us the unique opportunity to study the daily life of a Kartlian nobleman, of the economy which sustained him, domestic and foreign affairs, even down to details of his education, leisure, religion, clothing and armor, which would have been difficult to reconstruct, even with the help of written sources. In a word, it makes even ethnological research possible.

The excavations revealed impressively the chaos that accompanied the final destruction of the Palace: objects were found scattered about; on the threshold to one of the rooms, a sealed sack full of wheat was found; a bronze amphora buried under wheat came to light in one corner of a room, while one of its handles was found in another corner on an ottoman, and so on.

After the destruction, the Palace was not rebuilt, nor were the Temples in Dedoplis Mindori. At the end of the 1st century A.D., far-reaching changes must have taken place in the Kingdom of Kartli, which may have affected the official religion of the Royal House and the country's administrative divisions.

earlier than the archaeological dating for the construction of the Temples and the Palace, namely to the 2nd-1st centuries B.C., even if we assume that – for the load-bearing construction elements in building – particularly sturdy timber from old trees was used (the beam from Dedoplis Mindori was 60 cm thick).

³⁷⁰ Gagoshidze 1977b; 1977c; 1978; 1981b; 1992.

³⁷¹ In the Radiocarbon Laboratory of the Tbilisi State University, the age of carbonized grains from the Palace was determined by A. Burchuladze (Sample TB-464) as – 1910±60, which corresponds to 40 A.D. Through calibration according to dendrochronological data, the age of the grains was corrected to –1867±33, which corresponds to 83 A.D. When we take the margin of error (±60 and ±33) into account, both of these dates overlap one another and lie close to the destruction date of the Palace indicated by archaeological methods (end of the 1st century A.D.). Several types of pottery found in the Palace (footed bowls with inturned and straight lips, jars, etc.) are identical to those found in the Temples at Dedoplis Mindori and in the workshops associated with them. Presumably, all of this pottery was made in the same workshop. Radiocarbon analysis also indicates the contemporaneity of the Palace and the Temples: The age of the burnt beam from the Palace (Sample TB-465) is – 2215±60, i.e., 265 B.C. (calibrated date –2210±49, i.e., 260 B.C.). Radiocarbon dating of the beam from the ceiling of the Main Temple at Dedoplis Mindori (Sample TB-93) gave approximately the same result: –2220±40, i.e., 270 B.C. Thus, the radiocarbon dates are about a century

In any case, Dedoplis Gora was abandoned and remained uninhabited for roughly two centuries. At the end of the 3rd or at the beginning of the 4th century A.D., Dedoplis Gora was resettled. The new settlers quite often laid the plaster floors of their dwellings over the Palace's mud-brick masonry, and incorporated the still standing sections of the Palace walls into those of their own huts.

This re-settlement at Dedoplis Gora existed until the 6th–7th centuries A.D., and a considerable cultural layer, ranging from 50 cm to 4 m in thickness in different places (fig. 10), accumulated there during these three centuries. Within these cultural strata, four building horizons can be clearly distinguished stratigraphically, whereby the fourth horizon can be further subdivided by two to four floors.

The settlement pattern of the 4th–7th centuries A.D. is completely different from that of the preceding (i.e., lower) stratum. Buildings of mud-brick on stone foundations are arranged around the summit of Dedoplis Gora, and seem to follow the plan of the rooms in the ancient Palace, forming a sort of wall around the top of the hill, surrounding a courtyard in the center.

There are quite a few pits of varying purposes: especially those in the lowest horizon seem to have been the work of treasure-hunters. The first settlers of the 4th century A.D. may by chance, in digging rubbish-pits, for example, have found objects of value in this area, which may have encouraged them to dig further in hopes of finding more. But fortunately for us, the contents of the Palace's ground floor were so well protected by the fused debris of its walls and roof that the treasure-hunters were not able to gain access to the ground floor – at least, not in the 12 rooms excavated to date. But in the Palace's inner court, much less debris had accumulated, so that this area was completely excavated. There must have been rich finds in the courtyard, to judge from the remains we found there: glass, stone and metal beads, bronze vessels – even a golden plaque (probably sewn onto clothing) and a golden stater coined by Lysimachos of Byzantium (beginning of the 2nd century B.C.).

In a hollow depression near the middle of the level summit of Dedoplis Gora stood a sanctuary during the 4th–6th centuries A.D. A number of altars were excavated here which, in their construction, recall those found on the northern

mound and in Berikldeebi dating to the Bronze Age and Early Iron Age. These are approximately 70 cm high, cubic, and are made of stone and clay and very accurately plastered, on top of which rectangular brasiers are set in. The brasiers are open to the front of the altar, and to their right, there is a deeper-cut groove for ashes which also opens onto the front of the altar. Usually, a clay vessel has been inserted into the step cut at the base of the altar.

The altars stand in small rooms enclosed by wattle and daub. In one of the best preserved altar rooms, two small wine vessels had been dug into the ground at the base of the northern front wall. The altars had been renewed repeatedly in the same room for three centuries.

The discovery of pagan altars of Early Medieval date at Dedoplis Gora deserves particular attention. In the first place, these altars raise the question of a continuity of religious traditions from the Bronze Age to the Early Middle Ages. They may indicate that no shifts of population had taken place here during the entire time. Secondly, the ancient Georgian astral fertility folk-cults had survived in Kartli, in spite of the fact that the official religion of the royal family – and probably of the ruling aristocracy as well – must have been a sort of Zoroastrianism since the time of Achaemenid rule. Evidence for this assumption are the fire-temples in Dedoplis Mindori and a Zoroastrian family chapel in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora. Furthermore, Kartlian kings and aristocrats took on Iranian-Zoroastrian theophoric names. And finally, the Early Medieval altars at Dedoplis Gora indicate that the spread of Christianity in Kartli was a slow and complicated process: although it was the state religion in the first third of the 4th century A.D., the peasantry in the lowlands as near as 50 km from Mtskheta still worshipped pagan gods as their ancestors had done.³⁷² Among the Early Medieval archaeological finds excavated in Dedoplis Gora, there is no sign of Christianity, except for a ring-seal of the 5th or 6th century A.D., on which a

372 The same hypothesis has been proposed as an explanation for finds in the vicinity of Uplistsikhe: the archaeological expedition of the Georgian National Museum – Museum of Fine Arts (T. Sanikidze, L. Akhalaia), excavating in a site of the 5th–6th centuries A.D. (Katlaniskhevi), also discovered a comparable pagan altar.

sort of cross with some ancient Georgian letters between its arms is depicted.

The Palace occupied the entire plateau of Dedoplis Gora, which means that its surface area must have been greater than 3,000 m²; after the destruction of the Palace, erosion cut a swath 5–10 m wide and 50–60 m long out of the south slope, taking with it the southern quarters of the Palace.

After the excavation campaigns of 1985 to 1993, about a fourth of the Palace's area had been unearthed: the western side of the court, which, as a whole, had been surrounded by a peristyle, the (smaller) western and the northern gates, as well as twelve rooms. The doors to eight of these rooms open onto the peristyle court. These rooms had no windows, nor were they connected to one another by doors. Their outer wall was also the Palace's outer – and therefore probably also fortification-wall. The ground plan of Room 1 as well as the thickness of its walls differs from that of the others: its outer wall protrudes from that of the Palace at the corner and it apparently must have been a tower.

As has been mentioned above, the Palace's plan follows the hill's relief; but the hill's summit is inclined from north-east to south-west, so that the floors of the various rooms lie on different levels. The floors are, of course, more or less horizontal, and sections of the colonnade floor outside of the rooms have been made as level as possible, so that wooden stairs had to be built in two places in the peristyle.

The construction techniques are typical for the Hellenistic period in Kartli.³⁷³ Weight-bearing constructions are built of beams. The foundation of walls and gates is a rectangular or square framework of beams set perpendicular to one another, the intervening space being filled with pebbles and adobe (similar to *opus gallicum*³⁷⁴).

373 Gagoshidze 1979, 56–57; Tskitishvili 1995a, 87, figs. 2–4.

374 Wilsdorf 1986, 344 f. Walls of this type – timber-laced ramparts – have been found in Troy II, in Minoan and Mycenaean buildings, in the Urnfield Culture in Central Europe (9th–8th centuries B.C.), in Hallstadt and La Tène; the original type of construction, *Opus Gallicum*, or the Gallic Wall, was described by Caesar in Gaul. No vertical beams are used in this construction; the framework is filled with pebbles and is faced with dry masonry, either rubble or ashlar. The ends of the beams are visible in the face of the wall. If this type of construction burns, this leads to the vitrification of the wall; see Bray/Trump 1970, 233. Cf. also Collis 1993, 102 f., fig. 78.

This type of wooden framework also serves as the foundation for mud-brick walls. Beams are fastened to one another by means of (matching) notches.³⁷⁵

The outer (and sometimes even the inner) face of the wall has been lined with sandstone ashlar blocks which had been fastened to one another and to the wooden framework by means of wooden clamps in the shape of arrowheads.³⁷⁶ (figs. 29–30) The walls, which, in places, are preserved to a height of 2–3 m, are coated with clay where they are not lined by ashlar masonry.

Judging by the find material excavated in the rooms mentioned and in the court, we may assume that the part of the Palace investigated thus far had primarily economic functions. In the courtyard there was a bakery. Flour was ground nearby; four pithoi for wine storage had been set up under the colonnade. Rooms on the ground floor in the western wing of the Palace (Rooms 1, 2, 5, 6, 7) were obviously used as storage rooms for provisions. Farming equipment, especially an iron plow and a spade in Room 8, indicate that the Palace at Dedoplis Gora was not only a sort of treasury where a tithe exacted from the local peasantry was stored, but that agriculture was practiced there, probably by royal slaves.³⁷⁷

The finds excavated in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora are extremely rich and varied, and reflect numerous aspects of the material culture of Kartli-Iberia in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

375 Vitruv (Vitr. 1.5.3) also recommended using scorched beams set as closely to one another as possible in the mud-brick wall, in order to make the fortification wall less susceptible to attack.

376 Clamps of the same type were also used in the walls of Zaden-Tsikhe (Tsitsamuri, Strabo's *Σευσάμορα* [Strab. 11.3.5]; Apakidze 1963, 192. The same clamps were found in the earliest layers of the Shorapani palace (*Σαραπανίς*; [Strab. 11.2.17]). I thank the archaeologist V. Japaridze for showing them to me in 1987. A bullet-shaped leather clamp was found at the site of Samadlo; Gagoshidze 1981a, no. 604. I have no information about the use of arrowhead-shaped clamps beyond the borders of historical Iberia.

377 Strabo writes that “there are also four castes among the inhabitants of Iberia.” (*τέτταρα δὲ καὶ γένη τῶν ἀνθρώπων* [sic] *οἰκεῖ τὴν χώραν*), among which “the fourth is that of the common people, who are slaves of king and perform all the services that pertain to human livelihood.” (*τέταρτον δὲ τὸ τῶν λαῶν, οἱ βασιλικοὶ δοῦλοι εἰσι καὶ πάντα διακονοῦνται τὰ πρὸς τὸν βίον*) (Strab. 11.3.6).

3. The Palace at Dedoplis Gora. A Survey of Transcaucasian Monumental Architecture in Hellenistic and Early Roman Times

by Florian S. Knauf

The Late Hellenistic-Early Imperial Building at Dedoplis Gora

At the western end of the steep hilltop of Dedoplis Gora, a prominent landmark 34 m above the banks of the nearby Western Prone (666 m above sea level; figs. 2–3, 15–18),³⁷⁸ an impressive architectural complex of Late Hellenistic to Early Imperial date has been unearthed under a series of thick cultural layers dating to Late Antiquity.³⁷⁹

The excavated remains are those of a building-complex with an irregular plan (figs. 3–4). In the north-west, west, and south-west, its massive outer walls follow the edge of the plateau. The building probably once occupied the entire hilltop surface of more than 3000 m². Strictly speaking, the hilltop is not a genuine plateau, as the built-over area shows significant differences in absolute level. The oldest floor level in the west (Room 1: 658.73 m above sea level), for instance, is more than 3 m lower than the earliest floor levels excavated in the easternmost trenches (Rooms 12, 13: 661.96/661.88 m above sea level). The architects refrained from leveling the surface before they started building the Palace, but rather adapted their construction to the lie of the site, just as they had done in the case of the building's plan. In the south, parts of the structure have been lost to erosion. The archaeological record

shows that, in the west, the northern and southern exterior walls met at an acute angle. They had not been built in a straight course, however. Although at first sight, the north-eastern part of the wall seems to turn south at a right angle,³⁸⁰ closer examination shows that it originally turned east, and followed the edge of the hill.³⁸¹

The steep slope of the natural hill on which the Palace of Dedoplis Gora is situated probably permitted access to the hilltop only by way of serpentine trails. For the building phase under discussion, an access road of this sort has not yet been discovered, but at least for mules or horses with heavy loads, it must have been absolutely necessary. Two entrances have been located, in the west and in the north-east. Their opening of 2½–3 m does not lend them an all too imposing appearance. Nevertheless, they were wide enough to enable riders or even small vehicles to enter the Palace.³⁸² A further gate in the east

378 A 10 m deep trench, which had been dug as early as the Bronze Age, provided additional protection in the north, where the terrain rises steeply.

379 For the Late Antique, as well as the Chalcolithic, Bronze Age, and Early Iron Age structures at Dedoplis Gora, see Gagoshidze 2001, 259 f., and above, ch. 2. *Dedoplis Gora*.

380 Room 14 seems to be a narrow corridor which might have led to another room in the south. The thickness of the eastern walls of Rooms 11 and 14 cannot be determined exactly, but it is significantly greater than that of the other interior walls.

381 To the present, there is a recognizable step in the slope. According to the local farmers, inhabitants of the environs came here even in recent times to dig for ashlar blocks, which they used for building purposes. During the excavations in the northern part of the Palace, the results were similar: most of the ashlar blocks that had once formed the facade of the building had been removed. The pits of such unauthorized excavations make clear that the glass-like slag which testifies to the final destruction of the Palace in all of its rooms (fig. 10) could also be found at the easternmost end of the plateau.

382 We have ample proof that there were horses inside the Palace; see below, 49 (Room 9). To supply a great number of permanent residents who, according to the often

would therefore be unnecessary, and, from a fortificatory point of view, would even be imprudent; in the south, the terrain excludes the possibility of a further entrance.

The interior rooms had been built directly against the exterior defensive walls or *enceinte*. There are, to date, two doorways and eleven rooms in a row without any doors connecting them. In the western wing of the Palace, there is a portico (Room 4) opening onto the Great Courtyard (fig. 4). Except for a number of ovens in the south-west, this courtyard had apparently been kept free of constructions.³⁸³ Rectangular pillars, which had supported the portico in the west, seem to be missing in front of Rooms 10 and 13. It is therefore uncertain whether the portico had originally surrounded the entire courtyard, or whether its eastern side had diverged from this plan.³⁸⁴ None of the rooms excavated is particularly large. Since the size of the building as well as the small finds from this site suggest that – at least from time to time – high-ranking individuals resided here, there should have been larger rooms of a more distinguished character somewhere. Some indications would seem to suggest that we have to look for such rooms above all in the eastern wing of the Palace. The distribution of the small finds shows that the most precious objects (gems, jewelry, etc.) come from rooms in the east. Room 6 and the connecting room to the south-east were relatively small and simple, and the extremely steep slope in the south leaves no space for large chambers. It is therefore most probable that the plan of the rooms was similar to that of those in the north (Rooms 2, 5, 7–10, and 13). The extraordinary width of the eastern (inner) walls of Rooms 11 and 14 might be a further indication for large rooms in the east. Of

precious small finds, were used to expensive tastes, beasts of burden or small vehicles were indispensable. For the latter, however, the slope was probably too steep. After the small fire altar had been set in the middle of the doorway, Room 12 was no longer an adequate entrance for the delivery of goods. Nevertheless, the gate remained in function until the end of occupation, cf. below, 50 (Room 12).

³⁸³ A large part of the courtyard remains to be excavated, however.

³⁸⁴ The significantly different character of the eastern wing will be dealt with in the context of a detailed treatment of the probable functions of the individual rooms (see below, 48–51. It seems possible that the plan of the East Wing was quite different from that of the rest of the Palace.

course, the possibility remains that all of the ‘luxurious’ chambers were on the upper floor.

We know that this building had originally had at least two stories. Luxury goods were found especially often in the debris of the upper floors. Although the walls were preserved in some cases to a height of 2 m and more, it was impossible to reconstruct the plan of the rooms on the upper floor.³⁸⁵ The construction of the ground floor suggests that the upper rooms had also been connected by a corridor above the portico. It may have been either closed or open to the courtyard like a gallery. In any case, the substantial differences in absolute level between the rooms make any reconstruction difficult (figs. 8–9). If one assumes that all of the rooms on the upper floor lay on one and the same level, those in the west must have been more than 3 m higher than the rooms in the east. Considering the small size of these rooms, that is very unlikely. If the difference in level had been retained in the upper floor, however, then the rooms above Rooms 6 and 1 would have lain at about the same level as Rooms 11–14 on the ground floor. Lack of evidence for the means by which the inhabitants gained access to the upper floor poses a further problem for any reconstruction in the third dimension.

A great number of terracotta roof-tiles gives an indication for the type of roof: it is uncertain whether this building had originally had a saddle or a pent roof. The latter, sloping inward, would be useful for gathering rainwater in the courtyard, but as far as the excavations show, there was no cistern there. On the contrary, the existence of cover-tiles smaller than the ridge-tiles leads us to suspect that they had covered a saddle roof. Because of its extent, the courtyard must have remained unroofed.

We cannot say with certainty how the Palace originally looked. There were no windows in the massive exterior walls on the ground floor, but it very much depends on the function of the building, whether this was also the case in the upper floors. The thickness of the *enceinte* walls is about the same everywhere, i.e., ca. 2.50–2.85 m. It is therefore possible that the wall coping was a battlement equipped with crenels and *marlons*, but, alternatively, the roof could have extended

³⁸⁵ Because of the relatively thin (ca. 1.00 m) inner walls, a third story seems unlikely. Room 1 is an exception; it most probably had a third floor.

to the outer wall. In the north-western part of the complex, there had once been a tower above Room 1 (fig. 8). From a military point of view, one would assume that there were towers on each corner of the building, at least in the north-east and south-east. However, only further excavations can verify such an assumption.

For a comparative study of the architecture at Dedoplist Gora, technical details, especially the masonry, are of major importance.

As has been noted above, the terrain had not been leveled before construction of the building as a whole, but before construction of the enceinte, a foundation trench had been dug, about 0.50–0.60 m wide and ca. 0.50 m deep. It was then filled with a thin layer of pebbles, which was covered with clay. The first layer of ashlar blocks supporting the exterior facing was set on this stratum. By the time of the Palace's destruction, even the second layer of ashlar blocks had been partly covered by the rising ground-level.³⁸⁶ The exterior facing – in the case of the Tower (Room 1), all of the exterior walls³⁸⁷ – is built of pseudo-isodomic masonry, with sandstone ashlars of regular size, but with an only coarsely dressed surface. The original height of the walls can only be estimated: in some places, they were preserved to a height of more than 2 m. While the height of each layer of ashlars is relatively uniform (0.36–0.54 m), their length varies between 0.40 and 1.28 m. The most remarkable element of this wall construction are the arrowhead-shaped wooden clamps used to join the stone blocks (figs. 29–30). They have almost no parallels outside of Georgia.³⁸⁸

The inner part of the walls, up to 1.50–2.00 m, was built as a timber revetment with rubble core – similar to the so-called *murus gallicus*.³⁸⁹ A

framework of wooden beams, laid alternately parallel and perpendicular to the wall's course, was filled with pebbles and clay. Above this construction, a normal mud-brick wall, strengthened by wooden beams, was built (figs. 11–14). At intervals of ca. 0.90 m, these beams were laid parallel and transversally, and were fastened to one another by angle- or mortice-and-tenon joints. Arrowhead-shaped clamps linked the beams to the ashlar blocks of the exterior wall. The square mud-bricks measure 48–52 cm on a side by 16 cm thick. At times, bricks measuring 60 by 60 cm were used, as were half-bricks. The face of the inner walls was coated with light-colored clay.

In Hellenistic times, such methods of construction (timber-laced revetments) were rather common in Iberia,³⁹⁰ but it is unknown where this technique originated. The possibility that it was a native Georgian invention must be kept open, but a derivation from Greek architecture, though possible, seems to be unlikely for chronological reasons.³⁹¹

All of the walls, except for those with ashlar facing, were plastered with clay. There are no traces of wall paintings. The floors on ground level had a simple mud surface, only in Room 9 had the west side of the floor been made level with layers of mud-bricks.

As mentioned above, it seems probable that none of the rooms on the ground floor had had any windows. Other means of illumination would therefore have been necessary: clay lamps,

³⁸⁶ Originally, the upper edge of this first course had been partly visible near the floor, but after almost two centuries, it was gradually covered with soil. During this period, the ground level rose by ca. 0.20 m. A layer with ashes and charcoal is the destruction level; the surface of the building period is covered with the debris from dressing the facing stones. It is clear that this had not been done before the ashlars had been set in place.

³⁸⁷ The door-frames of the northern gate had a stone facing on the inside as well (fig. 20).

³⁸⁸ Clamps for joining ashlars appear in Georgia for the first time in the late 4th or early 3rd century B.C. in Samadlo I; Gagoshidze 1979, 55 with n. 19; Gagoshidze 1981a, pl. 58.604; cf. below, 59 f.

³⁸⁹ In Room 1, the timber-laced revetment was not higher than about 1.00 m.

³⁹⁰ Already in the 4th–3rd centuries B.C., in the oldest buildings at Samadlo I (Gagoshidze 1979, 55–57), and, possibly slightly later, in Colchis, at Vani (unpublished), as well as at Tsikhia Gora in Central Iberia (Kipiani 2000, pls. 38.3; 41.1–3); cf. below, 55. The term *opus gallicum* (or *murus gallicus*) for such wall constructions in Georgia was used for the first time by Gagoshidze 2000b, 55; Gagoshidze 2001, 264. Strictly speaking, this term must not be used for the walls under discussion since vertical beams and iron nails are missing; cf. Piggot 1965, 216 f., figs. 119–120. For the construction principles of the so-called *murus gallicus*, the name of which was given by Julius Caesar (Caes. Gall. 7.23), see also Ginouvès/Martin 1985, 85, pl. 13.1–3; Nortmann 2002, 7 ff.

³⁹¹ In the Greek world, stone walls strengthened by wooden beams are known, for example, from the "Hall of the Votive Gifts" at Samothrace (Lehmann 1962, fig. 32a; Ginouvès/Martin 1985, pl. 13.5). According to Mueller-Wiener 1988, 66, however, it seems that they were in use even earlier.

as well as different kinds of metal lamps and candelabra, have been found.³⁹²

Before we attempt a general interpretation of the entire complex, it would be necessary to try to reconstruct the function of each individual room.

Room 3 (fig. 5), in the westernmost part of the building, had once been used as a doorway, but it was certainly not the main entrance. Although there is no archaeological evidence for this assumption, the comparatively gentle slope on the western flank of the hill indicates that access to the Palace may have been gained from this side. Here, the exterior wall met the western wall of Room 1 at an obtuse angle, thus forming a trapezoidal ante-chamber in front of the entrance to the Palace, which helped to protect this critical point. The portico had once been entered by another door. This can be inferred from the threshold in the doorway, which consists of large pebbles plastered with clay. A visitor entering the door-chamber saw a small, horseshoe-shaped hearth in the left back corner and two steps of an altar to his left. We will discuss this object in greater detail below. The small finds from this room - bronzes, pottery, a wooden box filled with bone plaques and phalangae as well as clay-bullae (fig. 25) - were obviously not intended to be stored here for any length of time. One could suppose that somebody had unsuccessfully tried to save these goods when the building caught fire.

Room 6, which is only incompletely preserved (fig. 5), and is situated next to the entrance, was probably a guard-room. Whether or not there was a small window looking out onto the gate - which would have been necessary for controlling passers-by - could not be ascertained. The small finds give no additional clues. South-east of Room 6, it was possible to trace an interior wall, behind which there must have been another room. The extremely fragmentary state of the findings in this area does not permit any interpretation of its function.

Room 1 (figs. 5, 9, 21) stands out among all others by the thickness of its interior walls, which seem to identify it as a kind of tower, rising above the surrounding walls. The massiveness of its walls (2.40–3.60 m) also indicates the particu-

lar fortificatory importance of this tower, built next to the gate. The recessed gate, furthermore, enabled defenders to take attackers under fire easily; at the same time, the protruding tower provided cover for the northern wall. There are no traces of a staircase, so we have to assume that wooden stairs or ladders were used.

The ground floor of the tower served as a store-room, and probably also as accommodations for the gate-keeper, who had to keep track of incoming and outgoing goods. There is quite a bit of evidence for this use: a three-legged iron table in the center of the room, and an iron chandelier, which had once hung from the ceiling, indicate that the room had been occupied at least frequently, if not continuously. To the right of the door stood a wooden couch with bronze legs which had protected four big glass bottles, which had been stowed in a wooden box, when the roof collapsed (figs. 22-23). These vessels are completely preserved. Among the other finds made near the couch are as diverse objects as jewelry, a coat of iron mail, a bronze amphora, incised and inscribed bone plaques, and phalangae.

In the right rear corner, the bone hinges of a burnt cupboard were found, the contents of which had fallen onto the floor (fig. 24). Among these, a bone stylus, a pair of bronze scales, and an iron ladle with a cast bronze handle in the form of a hippocampus are especially noteworthy, because they are a storekeeper's utensils. The three sacks of grain filled with wheat, oats, and spelt, and a box of flour at the back of the room, also agree well with this interpretation. All of them had been sealed. The bullae preserved, stamped with different seals, are testimony for a well-developed bureaucracy, as is typical for palace- or temple-economies. As opposed to all of the other rooms, which contained large amounts of pottery, only a single footed bowl was found in Room 1.

The adjoining Rooms 2, 5, and 7 (fig. 4) are more difficult to interpret. Only three sherds were found in the narrow, only 2.2 m wide Room 2. It may have been a staircase. Rooms 5 and 7 could, like the ground floor of the tower, have served as store-rooms. In the small Room 8, the remains of a number of tools, among them an iron spade and an iron plow, gave evidence for the fact that not only the peasantry's surplus was stored in Dedoplis Gora, but that the inhabitants

³⁹² See below, ch. 4.1. *Pottery*, 72 and 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*, 158 f.

themselves had engaged in agriculture, possibly with the labor of royal slaves.³⁹³

A number of architectural features make Room 9 (figs. 6, 19) being outstanding: two wide openings, separated only by a threshold of mud-plastered cobblestones, opened onto the portico. Further, the natural slope of the hilltop had been made level with up to two layers of mud-brick. Along the southern course of the western wall, over a span of 1.25 m, the uppermost layer of brick had been removed on the width of half a brick (0.25 m). This formed a rectangular depression 16 cm deep, into the northern end of which a box had been set. It had probably served as a drinking trough. The floor had been carefully plastered. Two wooden posts had been set up 1.50 m from the northern wall. Horses may have been tethered to them.³⁹⁴ Finally, against the northern (rear) wall, there is a bank, in which there are four holes separated from one another by ridges. Together with the iron cheek pieces found in this room, these troughs are the most conclusive evidence for horses in Room 9, which therefore must have been a stable.

The neighboring Room 10 had certainly served an entirely different purpose (fig. 6). Here, a three-stepped (fire) altar (fig. 27) was found,³⁹⁵ which obviously had been part of the original plan of the building. The altar had not been placed in the center of the room, but slightly to the west of it, which concealed it from the view of those passing the portico. Its alignment shows no relationship to that of the room itself, the altar's long axis being neither oriented on the course of the exterior walls, nor on any of the four points of the compass. Since the room is large enough, limited space cannot have been the reason for this deviation. In fact, careful measurements have shown that the altar's central axis had been oriented toward the point of sunrise on the summer solstice (June 22nd). The altar itself consists of two parts: an oven – the so-called *ateshghah* –, made of two large semi cylindrical tiles forming a cylindrical compartment lined with clay, once contained the fire. The second part was a three-stepped brick structure in the form of a chair with high back-rest. This was

obviously a Zoroastrian fire-altar.³⁹⁶ The (sacred) ashes from the oven were deposited on the second and third steps of the altar 'table', and each new layer was plastered over with clay. Weapons were also found in Room 10: parts of a compound bow, some 100 iron arrowheads in a quiver, an iron spearhead, and a knife. All of them must have been hung on the wall. Pottery, a hemispherical bronze bowl, an iron bowl with a handle, and four bullae, all impressed by the same seal with the representation of a deer, lay strewn about on the floor. Some of these finds support the interpretation of this room as a (private) chapel where the Zoroastrians among the inhabitants gathered for prayers and sacrifice.³⁹⁷ Pigs' ribs buried in the ashes at the foot of the oven are apparently the remains of just such an animal sacrifice.³⁹⁸ Weapons were also not inappropriate in a Zoroastrian chapel.³⁹⁹ Finally, the motif on the bullae recalls the numerous deers' antlers found in the south-eastern corridor of the "Ambulatory" of the Central Temple at Dedoplis Mindori. According to the hymn to Aredvi Sura, sometimes whole herds of deer were sacrificed to the goddess.⁴⁰⁰ Nevertheless, one might remark that certain details here are not quite typical for a Zoroastrian chapel, where hygiene was supposed to be of prime importance. These would be the proximity of the stables, as well as the animal bones. Still, as there is no archaeological evidence which would support a rather profane interpretation, e.g., as a forge, or the like, it seems not presumptuous to assume a room for worship and religious ceremonies. Zoroastrian customs may not have been strictly uniform everywhere.

393 On royal slaves in Iberia, cf. Strab. 11.3.6; Gagoshidze 2001, 264 with n. 10.

394 In this small room, there was no need to support the ceiling with wooden posts.

395 Gagoshidze 2001, 265, fig. 6.

396 This assumption is further supported by a number of fire temples dating to approximately the same period excavated at the nearby sanctuary of Dedoplis Mindori; Gagoshidze 1992, 28, 34, 36, 38, 46; Gagoshidze 2001, 260 f.

397 Of course, important rituals (on festive occasions) took place in the temples at Dedoplis Mindori, where they were performed by priests.

398 Every Zoroastrian was obliged to pray seven high holiday prayers, and also had to pray five times a day, as well as to make sacrifices to the household hearth. The fire sacrifice consisted of three elements, two of which – wood and incense – were of plant origin, but one (fat) was of animal origin. The same sacrifice was made to the temple fire. For Zoroastrian sacrificial customs, see Gropp 1969, 150–166; Boyce 1984, 41, 59–60, 86; Gagoshidze 2001, 265 f. with n. 12 f.

399 Gagoshidze 2001, 266.

400 Gagoshidze 1981a, 114; Aredvi Sura Anahita Yasht 21, 29, 33, etc. (after Lommel 1927).

A gate over 3 m wide was the northern entrance to the Palace at Dedoplis Gora (fig. 7). Rectangular gaps between the walls and the mud-brick doorstep indicate that not only the doors, but also the sockets had been made of wood.⁴⁰¹ A stone lintel with an engraved swastika was found in front of the gate chamber (Room 12). The entrance itself is slightly smaller than the western gate. Horses could have passed through it, but no vehicles. In contrast to the situation at the western gate, the gate-chamber is not flanked by a tower, but by two guard-rooms (Rooms 11 and 13) opening onto the gate-chamber. Originally, access to the courtyard was unobstructed. Later, a horseshoe-shaped altar was built of stone and mud-brick within the entrance (fig. 20), which made passing through the gate much more difficult. Large objects would have to have been lifted over the altar. This may actually have been a desired effect, in the sense that visitors were automatically purified on entering.

In the western gate (Room 3), there was a similar, but smaller altar. This altar within the entrance was not part of the original plan. A thin mud-brick wall which left only a small opening onto the portico was probably built in a late phase of the Palace. At this point, the northern gate lost its function as the main entrance, because it was now almost impossible to carry bulky goods through it. In the south-western corner, there was a solid platform made of large pebbles and plastered with clay, which apparently had been built against and together with a new wall. During the Middle Ages, pits dug for storing wine severely damaged the platform, but a groove along its northern edge nonetheless gives an important clue to its original function. Very similar grooves can be observed in Georgia on altars dating from the Bronze Age to Early Medieval times.⁴⁰² Near the altar, a jar full of grain had been leant against the western wall. Ten more clay vessels, two long-handled scoops, a small bronze scoop and a larger iron one, car-

bonized onions and large amounts of flowers and saffron were found nearby. Two wooden trays, four molten greenish glass bottles and a colorful amphoriskos were found lying on the floor. Near the eastern wall, where some clay bowls and jugs lay strewn over a pile of wheat, an iron crow-bar and – in the center of the room – an iron spit with a stand, as well as the remains of a large iron barrel, were found.⁴⁰³ Among the most interesting objects in this room were remains of a silver box, various kinds of jewelry, engraved bone plaques used for fortune-telling or as game-pieces, found together with astragals, phalanges, and bone dice.

Rooms 11 and 13 (fig. 7) were probably guard-rooms, because they can be accessed only through the gate-chamber (Room 12). Since the northern gate was architecturally less well protected than the western gate, these guard-rooms were a necessity for the presumed main entrance.

The eastern Room 11 also served as a store-room (fig. 26). Numerous small finds support this interpretation: jars filled with grain leant against the walls, and bowls of different sizes, a bronze oinochoe, iron knives, fragments of scale armor (*lorica squamata*), a wooden quiver filled with arrows, and two horse-bits were found on the floor.

In Room 13, to the west of the gate, there were also jars, jugs, and bowls, some of them still containing grain (wheat, millet, and barley). The storage vessels had been stopped with clay and sealed.⁴⁰⁴ Iron tools and weapons were also found in this room: a spearhead, a plow, an axe, an adze, a saw, knives of all sizes, sickles, scythes, and razors; further: a whetstone, the handle of a bronze bucket, a second, decorated handle, a bone pin or stylus, a pyxis, bone dice, an iron ring, and an iron padlock with its key. The latter was obviously used for locking the door to the entrance. The charred wooden remains of the door were found on the floor. The iron ring may also have been part of the door mountings. The weapons show that soldiers had occupied these rooms even after construction of the altar. Dice and gaming pieces are also not

⁴⁰¹ Surprisingly, no metal fittings which could be brought into connection with the gates were found in any of the gate-chambers, neither in pivot holes, nor as pivot caps.

⁴⁰² On the northern hillock of Dedoplis Gora, in the Bronze Age and Early Iron Age at Berikdeebi (Gagoshidze 2001, 262), in the Early Iron Age layers of Tkisbolo Gora (Mansfeld 1996, 371, fig. 11), as well as in the squatter occupation of the 4th–6th centuries A.D. at Dedoplis Gora (Gagoshidze 2001, 262 f., and above ch. 2. *Dedoplis Gora*).

⁴⁰³ See below, ch. 4.4. *Metal Implements*, at cat. no. 11 and Gagoshidze 2001, 266, 278, n. 15.

⁴⁰⁴ There were three groups of vessels in three of the room's corners. Each group was labelled with a different seal. Maybe each guard had signed his provisions with his own seal (cf. ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, 200).

uncommon property for soldiers.⁴⁰⁵ To judge according to the small finds, Room 13 apparently served as quarters for the gate-keepers. Any change of function in connection with the construction of the altar has, at any rate, not been reflected in the archaeological remains.

The plan and the function of Room 14 (fig. 7), which has been only partially excavated, are not clear. Since only a small part of the southern wall could be exposed, it is impossible to decide whether it is a door-frame or actually the wall itself – in which case, this room would be a narrow corridor leading south.

The extraordinary thickness of the eastern walls of Rooms 11 and 14 might indicate that they were bordering on a second tower, which would make sense, from a military point of view.

A few general remarks can be made with respect to a possible upper story. The finds made in the debris of the first floor indicate that these rooms had been furnished more luxuriously than those on the ground floor. Accordingly, private quarters or guest-rooms must have been located there. In the debris above the northern gate (Room 12), a silver box, cowry shells, glass beads, rock crystal pendants, Egyptian faience, bone pins, incised bone-plaques used for games or fortune-telling, astragals and phalangae were found. Also, in Room 13, a number of objects can be stratigraphically attributed to the debris from an upper floor level: a bronze bell, faience beads once kept in a wooden box, iron candlesticks with parts made of bone turned on a lathe, iron plaques of scale armor (*lorica squamata*), numerous pieces of bone, most notable among which are a carved head and a relief plaque with a representation of Scylla.⁴⁰⁶ The lamp-types very nicely illustrate the difference:⁴⁰⁷ while terracotta lamps and chandeliers were used on the ground floor, three-footed oil-candelabra and iron candlesticks were found in the debris of the first floor.

The courtyard had never been a level surface. Near the portico (Room 4), the differences in height were compensated by two wooden steps.

⁴⁰⁵ Gagoshidze 2001, 273, and see below, ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, 88.

⁴⁰⁶ For the head, cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 76; for the Scylla relief, see Gagoshidze 2001, 273, and below, ch. 4.3. *Skylia-Relief*, ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 90.

⁴⁰⁷ For more details on the lamps, see below, ch. 4.1. *Pottery*, 72 and ch. 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*, 158f.

In front of Room 9, four large pithoi of the type used for wine storage, with a total capacity of 3,500 liters, had been set into the floor (fig. 19). Although the vessel-type and the paleography of the inscriptions found on three of the rims would seem to contradict this supposition, the location of these vessels would suggest that they had been brought here some time after the foundation of the whole complex.⁴⁰⁸

In the south-western corner of the courtyard, there were four ovens, which had apparently been used for baking bread, as is suggested not only by their construction, but also by the grain stored nearby. Whether this 'bakery' had been fenced in and roofed, was not ascertainable.⁴⁰⁹ The ovens' construction was fairly simple, and can still be seen in similar form in Georgia today. The ovens are always open above (fig. 28). In two cases, two large ridge- or cover-tiles had been set at right angles and coated with clay. In the other cases, one of the ridge-tiles had been replaced by two or three pan-tiles. Even today, fire is made in such ovens, and the dough is slapped onto the oven's wall as soon as the wood has been burnt to ashes.

An important consideration for any fortification is securing the water supply. Even though the Western Prone flows directly below the Palace's southern walls, a well or cistern would have been necessary. The right place for either of these alternatives would have been the lowest point in the courtyard (i.e., in the south-west). There had obviously never been a cistern there, but a well somewhere along the southern slope cannot be ruled out.

No traces of the access road to the Palace have been found, so that our assumptions have to rely on the site's topographical features. These make its location in the north very likely.⁴¹⁰ The slope must have been quite steep, even in antiquity, which would have impeded any traffic with horse- or ox-drawn carts. Goods probably had to

⁴⁰⁸ See below, ch. 5.4. *Armazian script*, 255. The inscriptions support a date in the late 2nd or rather in the 1st century B.C.; cf. Tsereteli, K. 1993, 87; Gagoshidze 2001, 268, 275 with n. 19. However, we cannot rule out the possibility that these pithoi were somewhat older than the inscriptions.

⁴⁰⁹ Remains of wood have been found nearby. Even today, ovens are often situated in the open. A fence would by no means be necessary.

⁴¹⁰ According to the local farmers, there were once stone steps at the north-eastern foot of the hill.

be brought into the Palace by carriers or pack-animals.

The reconstruction of the building (figs. 8-9) must of necessity remain hypothetical. It is not clear whether there was a battlement or windows opening on the outside on the upper floor. If a walk had been built along the wall, it must have been very narrow.

Some of the above observations have a bearing on our interpretation of the Palace's function. The choice of location, on a hill standing out above its surroundings, emphasizes fortificatory aspects, especially because a 10 m wide trench had surrounded Dedoplis Gora since the Bronze Age. At least some elements of the architectural ensemble, such as the Tower (Room 1) and the Western Gate (Room 3) had been designed for defensive purposes. The same could also apply for the thickness of the (windowless?) enceinte. But in spite of these elements and in spite of the numerous weapons found there, the building has notable weaknesses – especially around the Northern Gate, which would seem to be rather unwise for a fortress of this period. The strong emphasis on religious facilities also gives evidence for a civilian component among the inhabitants. Above all, the value of some of the precious objects found goes well beyond anything one would expect of a military commander. The storage of large quantities of agricultural surplus points rather in the direction of a high official or local vassal residing in Dedoplis Gora. This, again, would require that the building met palatial requirements as well. The apparent lack of large, prestigious rooms is no problem in this respect, because they could have been situated on the upper floors or in the still unexcavated eastern wing. Although its architectural plan differs significantly from Late Hellenistic palaces we know, nevertheless, for the above-mentioned features the most appropriate designation for this building is palace (not unlike a medieval palatinate).

The Palace's geographic proximity to a sanctuary is also of importance for an interpretation of Dedoplis Gora. The impressive temple complex of Dedoplis Mindori, excavated between 1972 and 1977,⁴¹¹ lies 3.5 km further north (figs. 2, 31–32). Study of the small finds and of the 14C-dates has shown that the buildings had been con-

structed sometime in the 2nd–1st centuries B.C., and destroyed late in the 1st century A.D.⁴¹² The span of the sanctuary's use overlaps, for the most part, that of the Dedoplis Gora Palace. Both were destroyed at the same time, and possibly by the same catastrophe. The excavator has convincingly argued for the interpretation of Dedoplis Mindori as a family sanctuary visited by the Iberian kings. In this case, the Palace at Dedoplis Gora may have sheltered a royal vassal who administered the local royal domains. During visits of the kings in Dedoplis Mindori, it may have provided accommodations for the royal entourage or even for the royal family themselves.

As the destruction of Dedoplis Gora shows, the fortifications were inadequate. Siege technology had by this time developed so far that such constructions were useless.⁴¹³

Some Remarks on the Development of Monumental Architecture in Georgia from its Beginnings to the Arrival of the Romans

As early as the Late Bronze- and Early Iron Ages in Georgia, fortifications of considerable size with "cyclopean" walls are occasionally encountered, which often have the character of refuges.⁴¹⁴ But to date, we have no evidence for individual monumental buildings in these periods.⁴¹⁵

⁴¹² See above, ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*, 31; cf. Gagoshidze 1977b, 72–83; Gagoshidze 1977c, 102–108; Gagoshidze 1981b, 102–115; Gagoshidze 1992, 28, 34, 36, 38, 46; Gagoshidze 2001, 260–261 with n. 4.

⁴¹³ It must be admitted that in neither case does actual proof for violent military destruction exist; cf. Gagoshidze 1992, 28. Both the arrowheads from the southern slope and the skeletons lying in unclear stratigraphic position near the northern gate could be explained otherwise. The conflagration and collapse of the Palace could conceivably have been caused by an earthquake. The temples at Dedoplis Mindori were almost devoid of any finds. Severe earthquakes struck the region last in 1924 and 1940.

⁴¹⁴ Beshtasheni in Trialeti: Kuftin 1941, 108–109, pls. 116–117. – Nordevani and Gumbati in *Kvemo-Kartli: Mepisashvili et al.* 1987, 31 with figs. 16–21. Near Tsalka, a similar structure has recently been excavated by G. Narimanishvili (unpublished).

⁴¹⁵ An elongated (over 20 m long) building in Naomari Gora in the David-Garedshi-Steppe (Kakheti), which had probably been used as a store-room, is an exception (Miron/Orthmann 1995, 116, fig. 106 [Pizchelauri]). Because

⁴¹¹ Gagoshidze 1977b, 72–83; Gagoshidze 1978, 62–77; Gagoshidze 1981b, 102–115; Lordkipanidze 1991, 160 f.; Gagoshidze 1992, 27–47.

Early Iron Age architecture in Georgia – what we know of it – in West, as well as in Central and East Georgia, seems to be rather modest.⁴¹⁶ There were apparently as yet no large supraregional political institutions at that time, which would have been able to plan and construct monumental architectural complexes. We find only circular earth-works, which served as refuges, or as circuit walls around small sanctuaries.⁴¹⁷ Settlements, further, could be protected by a system of trenches.⁴¹⁸ The Urartian kingdom left no lasting impression on Georgia's material culture – least of all, on its architecture.⁴¹⁹

The situation changes radically in the period when Georgia found itself – in one form or another – under Achaemenian sway.⁴²⁰ At this time,

of its unpretentious construction, however, it cannot be cited as an example of monumental architecture. “A hall-like building with a ground plan of more than 120 m² area” dated to the second half of the 8th, or the first half of the 7th century B.C., in the settlement of Treligorebi (Miron/Orthmann 1995, 198 [R. & M. Abramishvili]) has unfortunately remained unpublished to the present. Buildings of considerable size may, therefore, already have existed at this time, but, like the Colchian wooden structures (Leshava 1978, 8–9, 17–18, pls. 33–42; Lordkipanidze 1991, 116 with fig. 56 and pl. 21), one would – in spite of their dimensions – not necessarily be inclined to call them “monumental”.

There is only very little information on settlements in Georgia from the period of the Middle Bronze Age Trialeti-Culture to the Iron Age. Only parts of the various settlements of the second half of the 2nd millennium and the beginning of the 1st millennium B.C. in Naomari Gora have been published (Miron/Orthmann 1995, 115 f. [Pitskhelauri]). On the other hand, however, some neolithic, respectively, chalcolithic settlements have been explored more thoroughly in Imiris Gora, Shulaveris Gora, Khramis Didi Gora (Kvemo-Kartli) and Arukhlo (Trialeti) (Miron/Orthmann 1995, 44–54 [Dshavakhishvili/Kighuradze]). For the subsequent Early Bronze Age Kura-Araxes-Culture, the excavations in Kvazkhelebi (Kvemo-Kartli) and Amiranis Gora (Meskheti) give us a good idea of the settlement patterns of this time (Munchaev 1994, 30–33 figs. 4.1–5; Miron/Orthmann 1995, 57–68 [Japaridze/Javakhishvili]).

- 416** Lordkipanidze 1991, 87 f.; Miron/Orthman 1995, 102, 105, 115 f. [Pizchelauri]; Mansfeld 1996, 371 f.; Morin 1997, 155–167; Furtwaengler/Knauss 1997, 378–383; Furtwaengler et al. 1998, 340–348; Furtwaengler et al. 1999, 263–268; Korfmann et al. 1999, 541–543; Knauss 2005, 187 ff.
- 417** Pitskhelauri 1984, esp. 38, 89–90, 92; Furtwaengler et al. 1999, 263–265, 267 f.
- 418** Korfmann et al. 1999, 542–543.
- 419** Gagoshidze 1964, 73; Kossack 1985, 166; Kleiss 1992, 94; Miron/Orthmann 1995, 27 [W. Orthmann]; Knauss 1999a, 96 f.; against Lordkipanidze 1991, 73, 83.
- 420** Licheli 2001, 256, calls this period “proto-Iberian (Achaemenid)”.

impressive complexes, which have no local precedents, are built at various places in Iberia⁴²¹ and in East Colchis.⁴²² In their ground plan and in various architectural details, they give undoubtedly evidence of immediate foreign – namely Persian – influence.⁴²³ In the rest of rainy Colchis, an autochthonous architecture in wood can be traced archaeologically from the Early Bronze Age on, which – in the 5th–4th centuries B.C. – occasionally produced buildings of considerable size.⁴²⁴ For Western, that is to say,

- 421** Central Georgia: Samadlo (Gagoshidze 1979, 51–53, pl. 5; Gagoshidze 1996, 130–131, fig. 3; Lordkipanidze 1991, 148–150; Kleiss 1992, 93–94, fig. 2; Licheli 2001, 249–251), Tsikhia Gora (Tskitishvili 1976, 60 f., pls. 16–19; Tskitishvili 1977, 87–93; Mepisashvili et al. 1987, 42, figs. 50, 52; Lordkipanidze 1991, 152–154 with fig. 72.1; Tskitishvili 1995a, 86–96; Gagoshidze 1996, 132 f.; Gagoshidze/Kipiani 1997, 8–11; Makharadze, Z. 1999, 57–66; Kipiani 2000, 35–36; Knauss 1999c, 180 f.; Gagoshidze/Kipiani 2000, 59–64; Licheli 2001, 251), Uplistsikhe (Kipiani 1999, 7–18: The tower-like structure modeled on an Achaemenian original, has to be interpreted as a burial-tower). Only few finds in the South Georgian settlement of Atskuri point to Iran; the unassuming architecture is founded completely on local traditions: Licheli 2000, 139–142; Licheli 2001, 252 f., fig. 3. – East Georgia: Gumbati (Furtwaengler 1995, 183–185, 188–194 [Knauss]; Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 367–369, 370–376; Furtwaengler/Knauss 1997, 353 f.; Knauss 1999a, 85–92; Knauss 2000, 119 ff., figs. 1–2; Knauss 2001, 126–133, figs. 3–4, 6).
- 422** Sairkhe: Leshava 1978, 18 f., pls. 43–48; Nadiradze 1990a, 98 f., 110–115, 163 f., pls. 44–46; Nadiradze 1990b, 213–222; Gagoshidze 1996, 131, 133; Knauss 1999c, 170, n. 39; Licheli 2001, 251 f. In spite of some impressive Achaemenid and “achaemenizing” finds, the corresponding architectural evidence is lacking in Vani to the present: Vani IV, 30–35; Kipiani 1977; Dshandieri 1987; Lordkipanidze 1991, 116 with fig. 3a–d; Tssetskhladze 1993/94, 11–24 (too generous with ascriptions to Achaemenid ateliers); Lordkipanidze, O. 1995, 372 f., 379, color pls. 5.1–4, 6.1; Gagoshidze 1996, 131 with n. 31; Gagoshidze 1997b, 134–136, figs. 23, 24.3–6; Kipiani 2000, 5–8, pls. 1–2; Knauss 1999b, 220.
- 423** Furtwaengler 1995, 192–194; Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 376–378; Knauss 1999a, 93–94, 100–105; Knauss 2000, 125 f.; Knauss 2001, 129–132. On Persian influence on ancient Georgian culture in general, cf. Gagoshidze 1996; Tssetskhladze 2001, 470–480. Cf. also approximately contemporary structures in neighboring regions: Sari Tepe (Narimanov 1960, 162–164; Babaev 1990, 39 f., pls. 1.1, 3–4; Knauss 1999a, 94–96, fig. 9) and Karacamirli Köyi in Azerbaijan (Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 374–376) and in Benjamin in Armenia (Ter-Martirossov 1996, 187; Ter-Martirossov 2001, 158–160, figs. 4 f.).
- 424** In Vani, there is a temple which has probably been built as early as the 5th century B.C. (Vani IV, 30–35, pls. 2–3, 133, 136–137; Kipiani 1977; Dshandieri 1987; Lordkipanidze 1991, 116 with fig. 56.3; Kipiani/Amashukely 1995, 32 with fig. 25; Kipiani 2000, 5–8 pls. 1–2), in nearby Mtidsiri, there is a fortified tower of the 5th–4th centuries B.C. (Gamkrelidze 1982; Lordkipanidze 1991, 116, fig. 56.2), in Simagre, a number of houses of the

Greek, influence on architecture, even in the immediate vicinity of the Greek settlements on the coast of the Black Sea, there are, on the other hand, only few indications.⁴²⁵

The palace complex of Gumbati in Kakheti, as well as the tower in Samadlo in southern Shida Kartli call Achaemenid structures directly to mind. The orthogonal ground plan, the floor plan, the ornamental subdivision of exterior facades and interior walls by bays and piers and offsetting, the use of sun-dried mud-bricks of a standard size, as well as – finally – the impressive architectural sculpture in the form of stone column-bases of the same type as in Persepolis (fig. 34), betray their oriental, often Achaemenian, origin.⁴²⁶

Architecturally, the palace at Gumbati differs significantly from all later buildings. The oldest known monumental building in Georgia had been built of sun-dried brick – without any foundation – on a leveled clay surface. In the case of the tower-ruin in Samadlo, on the other hand, a completely different manner of construction can

be observed. There, the outcropping rock had in places been chiseled away, in order to prepare a surface for the masonry in local gray sandstone. It is, however, to be surmised that the upper stories of the tower – like all of the later buildings in Samadlo – had been built of sun-dried mud-brick, even if there is no concrete archaeological evidence for this assumption. The minor architectural differences between the monuments in Gumbati and Samadlo can hardly be taken as chronologically significant. More probably, these differences are regional peculiarities brought about by the respective local conditions.⁴²⁷ While there are no earlier building phases in Gumbati,⁴²⁸ building activity in Samadlo reaches back to the 7th century B.C.;⁴²⁹ but houses or palatial buildings contemporary with the tower have not yet been discovered there.

Certain buildings in Tsikhia Gora (Kavtsikhevi), in Shida Kartli and in East Colchis, which also may have been local residences, probably date to the period of Achaemenian rule as well. Almost nothing of the building in Tsikhia Gora has been documented, but a sculptured stone fragment must once have belonged to a column base, which was typologically closely related to those from Gumbati.⁴³⁰ In this context, I allude to the well-known double steer-protome capital which is usually dated to the Early or High Hellenistic period.⁴³¹ The proponents of this dating

Early and Middle Iron Age (Mikeladze 1978, 73; Lordkipanidze 1991, 116, pl. 21) and recently, R. Papuashvili has uncovered a settlement of wooden houses also in Kulevi at the mouth of the Chobi, 13 km north of Poti, which had probably been inhabited from the mid-second millennium to the 5th or 4th century B.C.

- 425** At most, the shape of the capitals from Sairkhe, recalling archaic Doric originals (Boardman 1994, 221 f., fig. 6.52), could be understood in this sense; their ornamentation is, without doubt, of Persian origin. Nonetheless, it is not to be ruled out that there was genuinely Greek architecture in the Greek settlements on the Black Sea coast as early as the Early Classical period, because settlements in which Greeks presumably actually lived have been discovered archaeologically to date only in Eshera (Shamba 1980, 10–15), Gyenos (Voronov 1976, 45–52), and Pitchvnari (Tsetskhladze 1999, 20, 34–38; Mikeladze/Khakhutaishvili 1984).
- 426** For the models on which the Gumbati Palace may have been based, Knauss 2000, 125 f.; Knauss 2001, 129–132; cf. also the “Fortress” and House 736 in Megiddo and, above all, the “fortress north of Ashdod” (Stern 1982, 5–8, 19, 54, figs. 13–15, 54). Alone the “Palace Period” pottery found in Gumbati (Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 369 f.) contradicts the relationship to the Medes recently proposed by Kipiani 1998, 31–47, 113, and the date in the late 7th or early 6th century B.C. which this ensues.
- The tower in Samadlo resembles in its ground plan and in its system of niches in the exterior walls Achaemenian religious buildings like the Zendan-e Suleiman in Pasargadae or the Ka’bah-e Zardusht in Naksh-e Rostam (Gagoshidze 1979, 52 f. with n. 8; Gagoshidze 1983, 2–5; Gagoshidze 1996, 130; Knauss 1999a, 94; Kipiani 2000, 33–35, pl. 37.1, 2; cf. Stronach 1978, figs. 56–57, 68d–e, pls. 95–98; Stronach 1985, 605–627, figs. 2–4).

- 427** The site of the Gumbati Palace, in the middle of a broad alluvial plain, required no elaborate foundations. On the other hand, building stone for the architectural sculptures was not available there in the immediate vicinity, but had to be quarried some distance away. The situation of the Samadlo buildings on the slope, on the other hand, absolutely required solid foundations, as well as solid construction. Finding suitable building-stone was no problem there.
- 428** On the settlement mound of Naomari Gora, less than 300 m away, there was – according to the small finds – obviously a contemporary settlement, which unfortunately had not been documented during the excavations; Furtwaengler 1995, 177.
- 429** On top of the hill Samadlo III, there is a number of small religious buildings, which are older than the above-mentioned tower: Gagoshidze 1979, 41, 50 f., pl. 8.
- 430** Gagoshidze/Kipiani 1997, 8–11, 41, figs. 1–4. The reconstruction drawing presented there is not quite correct, because the leaf in Tsikhia Gora – in contrast to the parallels in Sari Tepe, Karacamirli Köyi, Gumbati and Benjamin – is convex; better would be: Kipiani 2000, pl. 44.1–3; Gagoshidze/Kipiani 2000, 59–64, fig. 2.1–3. These objections, of course, change nothing on the basic assumption that this fragment had been part of a column base.
- 431** 4th–3rd centuries B.C.: Lordkipanidze 1974, 948; Tskitishvili 1976, 60 f.; Tskitishvili 1977, 87–93. – 3rd–2nd centu-

always reconstruct the capital as crowning a central column in the main room of a building interpreted as a temple;⁴³² but the find circumstances show without any doubt that the capital had been kept in a side room as a spoil. In this case, the date of the building gives, at most, a *terminus post quem non*. Stylistic considerations, however, let a date of the capital in the Achaemenian period seem quite plausible.⁴³³

There are two leaf-overfall capitals from Saikhe (fig. 35) which B. Shefton has convincingly dated to the Late Achaemenian period.⁴³⁴ Further fragments of architectural sculpture indicate that an important complex must have stood here at that time. Unfortunately, we have only insufficient information about its ground plan and about the masonry technique.⁴³⁵

The monumental architecture just described, just as the constructional innovations mentioned, remained at first limited to very few complexes which one could most probably best interpret as administrative centers on the periphery of the Achaemenian Empire. They must have been per-

ceived by the local population as impressive foreign elements.⁴³⁶

Some of the places named above retained a prominent position, even in post-Achaemenian times. The structures and city-like settlements (Samadlo, Tsikhia Gora, Saikhe) then in construction can, in fact, not always be precisely defined as regards their function, but they may well be brought into connection with the rise of regional power centers which were being established at this time.⁴³⁷

For architecture of this period, we return to Samadlo, a city of several hills, and where, at the end of the 4th, or at the beginning of the 3rd century B.C., a series of buildings was erected on artificial terraces on one of its hills, and which had been surrounded by an enceinte.⁴³⁸ The buildings unearthed seem to have been warehouses for a palace or temple complex (fig. 37).⁴³⁹

ries B.C.: Kipiani 1987, 9–11, 62, pls. 4.1–3, 9.1–2; Lordkipanidze 1991, 152, fig. 72, pl. 40.2–3; Tskitishvili 1995a, 88, 95, figs. 5–6; Gagoshidze/Kipiani 1997, 41, figs. 3–4; Kipiani 2000, pls. 42–43.

432 Most recently Kipiani 2000, pls. 40.3, 44.4. The relationship of the (reconstructed) base with the steer-protome capital, cannot, in fact, be categorically rejected, but seems in view of the scattered find positions, which lay 30 m apart, and the completely unclarified architectural context, to be purely hypothetical.

433 Knauss 1999c, 180 f.; cf. Gagoshidze/Kipiani 2000, 62. One would have to ask oneself according to which prototypes an Iberian stonemason would have made this type of capital in Hellenistic times. The originals in Susa and Persepolis were then inaccessible, and this motif is scarcely common in Hellenistic art. And finally, it is not comprehensible why – especially in post-Achaemenian times – this sort of proximity to Persian models should be sought, if a close relationship (artistic as well) to the Persian Empire had not already existed here, at least in the Achaemenian period.

434 Shefton 1993, 178–186; Shefton 2000, 276 f., fig. 1; on the other hand: Boardman 1994, 221 f., fig. 6.52. On the dating, further: Pichikian 1979, 70 (7th–6th centuries B.C.); Makharadze 1997, 12–20; Makharadze 1998, 27 f. (3rd century B.C.); Kipiani 1987, 15–22, 63–65, pls. 6–13 (2nd–1st centuries B.C.).

435 Nadiradze 1975, 159–161, pl. 24; Leshava 1978, 18 f., pls. 43–48; Kipiani 1987, 63–65, pls. 6–13; Nadiradze 1990a, 98 f., 110–113, 163 f.; Nadiradze 1990b, 213–222; Gagoshidze 1996, 131, 133.

436 The architecture of Iberian houses remained at first uninfluenced by such buildings; cf. Knauss 2005. This view may be corrected by more recent excavations, because the architecture of settlements of the Achaemenian period has only rarely been investigated in Iberia. We would be very interested in learning more about the manner of construction of the settlement Khovle Gora, where Achaemenid influence manifests itself in the find material (Muskhelishvili 1978).

437 The striking changes in Iberia's material culture from the late 4th century B.C. on, which can be brought into connection with the spread of urban settlements, are – just as a series of innovations in East Colchis – considered by some of the Georgian colleagues (most recently Lordkipanidze 1991, 147 f.: “the Urbanistic Revolution”) to be the result of the expansion of East Georgian Meskhi-tribes. But since the Meskhi (Greek: *Μόσχοι*) cannot be clearly circumscribed, neither in Classical sources, nor in the archaeological find material, this assumption has to remain hypothetical. It is, on the other hand, conceivable that the Meskhi and other Georgian tribes brought innovations with them, with which they had become acquainted, for example, through contact with the Greek-influenced culture of Asia Minor. I can only urgently warn – in this context as well – against an all too positivistic interpretation of medieval sources.

438 Gagoshidze 1979, 30–41, pls. 5–6. The period designated here as “Early Hellenistic” corresponds approximately to the “Early Iberian period (Iberian I)” according to Licheli 2001, 256.

439 Samadlo I and II were originally one continuous hill, which – since the early 20th century A.D. – has been cut in two and, to a great extent, dug away to win clay for a brick-manufacture: Gagoshidze 1979, 6, 38. Since the most significant finds, such as the fragments of stone reliefs and the largest roofing-tiles, were made in the debris at the foot of the remaining hills, it must be assumed that the main buildings once stood on the – now lost – peak of the original hill: Gagoshidze 1979, 34, 37, 65 f.

These structures had been built in a completely new technique. The terrace walls had been – for the first time in Georgia – built as timber-laced revetments, the outer face of which had often been lined with ashlar masonry.⁴⁴⁰ Here, too, we find a technical innovation as compared with the older temple-tower in Samadlo III. The ashlar blocks are here (Sadamlo I) joined to one another by means of double arrowhead-shaped clamps made of lead (fig. 36).⁴⁴¹ In some cases, there were cellars behind the terrace walls built as timber-laced revetments. For construction of the buildings on the terraces, however, sun-dried mud-bricks had been used. All of the houses excavated had a tiled roof.⁴⁴² On Samadlo II, the remains of a tower, which had been part of the entire complex's fortification system, were excavated.⁴⁴³ The tower had been erected, like the above-mentioned buildings, during the early phase of the complex (4th–3rd centuries B.C.). It had been constructed of rubble set directly on the rock outcrop, however, in a quite similar technique to that of the (older) tower on Samadlo III.

Its upper stories – which have not been preserved – had probably been built of mud-brick, like all of the other structures in Samadlo.

In Nastagisi, not far from Samadlo, on the opposite bank of the Kura, an urban settlement had been developing since the late 4th or early 3rd century B.C., and could be interpreted as the municipality associated with the citadel of Samadlo. Even in the early phase of this settlement, there are remains of buildings made of sun-dried mud-brick on stone foundations, as well as a re-used Doric capital and roofing-tiles made of clay, which correspond exactly to those in Samadlo (I & II).⁴⁴⁴

In Tsikhia Gora, too, settlement continued into the Early Hellenistic period. An extensive building complex (fig. 38) is now defined as a temple precinct. But only two of these buildings had a religious function: a building usually designated as a fire temple, as well as the small building⁴⁴⁵ immediately to the west of it, which will be treated below. The conspicuous circuit wall surrounding the complex, with its square towers, is not necessarily evidence for a religious function.⁴⁴⁶ The ensemble of store-rooms and an extensive wine-cellar also speak in favor of a use as a palace. In Tsikhia Gora, however, we again encounter wood-and-earth wall constructions as in Samadlo I.⁴⁴⁷ The walls had been built in this manner to a height of 3 m and are, as there, faced

440 Recently, Kleiss 1996, 149–154, has made reference to the functional relationship between European wood-and-earth walls and oriental box-girder walls, and again made their fortificatory advantages clear. He has correctly (op. cit., 153) emphasized that, on the basis of such similarity alone, one may not assume (direct) influence, but rather that similar problems had been solved in a similar manner, by making use of the respectively different building materials available. Because the walls built in this technique in Iron Age Anatolia (Naumann 1971, 86–89, 91–108) have, in addition, a comparable stone facing on the exterior front to that of the wall in Dedoplis Gora, it seems logical to assume that the inspiration for this technique probably came from Asia Minor. The use of ashlar blocks is also not known in Georgia before the late 4th century B.C.; Gagoshidze 1979, 54.

441 Gagoshidze 1979, 55; Gagoshidze 1981a, pl. 58.604. Lime-mortar was introduced by the Romans; earlier, we find, at most, clay as a binding agent. Dissenting: Lordkipanidze 1985b, 84 f., but without concrete evidence; cf. also Tiratsian 1985b, 72.

442 The – still handmade – tiles used here belong to the oldest known to date in Georgia; Gagoshidze 1979, 61 f.; see above, ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*, 36 f. Roughly contemporaneous or only slightly later are the tiles from a building in Vani, presumably a temple (Lordkipanidze 1974, 932 with n. 71, fig. 20), which follow Sinopean originals. The calypteroi from Samadlo have a clearly different form: they had been cut straight along the upper edge. Because of the uncertain relative chronology, it is at present not possible to decide whether the tiles from Samadlo might be a local adaptation of the tiles made in Vani according to Sinopean models, or whether they had been developed even earlier and were of other origin.

443 Gagoshidze 1979, 40 f., pl. 7.

444 According to Bokhochadze 1977, 95, Nastagisi was at this time even Iberia's capital. Unfortunately, the city's architecture of the 3rd century B.C., as well as the finds mentioned, have not been adequately published to date; the construction method therefore also remains unclear. On the above-mentioned finds, and on the imported Attic and East Greek pottery, cf. Bokhochadze 1977, 93–95 (no illustrations); further: Lordkipanidze 1974, 944; Gagoshidze 1979, 41; Lordkipanidze 1991, 150; Mirianashvili 1999, 39–54.

445 Gagoshidze 1979, 21; Lordkipanidze 1991, 152, 154; Tskitishvili 1995a, 88; on the other hand, earlier: Tskitishvili 1977, 92. On the religious buildings in Tsikhia Gora recently and in detail: Kipiani 2000, 35–40, pls. 38–40.3. The plan of the "Fire Temple" is almost identical to that of a modern Zoroastrian fire temple in Teheran (Gropp 1969, 149, fig. 2). The associated settlement, as well as a necropolis, surround the somewhat higher lying complex of Tsikhia Gora (Lordkipanidze 1991, 152; Tskitishvili 1995, 96).

446 The rhythmization of the exterior facade by means of bays and piers, as it could also be observed on the palace in Gumbati, can be traced back to oriental models; Furtwaengler 1995, 184, n. 12; Knauss 1999a, 96.

447 Tskitishvili 1977, 88–89, figs. 1–2; Bokhochadze 1977, 93.

by a stone wall. Above this level, the walls had been built of sun-dried mud-brick.

On the site of the future capital, Mtskheta, no traces of a settlement which could be assigned to this period could be found.⁴⁴⁸ The earlier dating of Armaztsikhe I to the 4th-3rd centuries B.C. is now unanimously rejected.⁴⁴⁹

In Vani (Colchis), the first monumental stone buildings are erected at this time – for instance, a small “sanctuary”, of which only little more than the foundations made of pebbles have been preserved, and a fortification wall, which probably surrounded the entire complex (fig. 37).⁴⁵⁰ The settlement of Saqanchia associated with this “sanctuary” gives testimony of a striking break with Colchian architectural traditions and, at the same time, of strong Iberian influence.⁴⁵¹

Architecturally, these Early Hellenistic buildings still stand in some respects in the tradition of the older Achaemenid complexes, respectively, of those dating to the Achaemenian period, but now, the local elements are dominant. A fundamental difference to the architecture of the earlier periods consists in the fact that now, technical innovations from the West, from the Greek world, are increasingly employed. But neither in the case of the tiles, nor in that of the clamps are these innovations mere imports or exact copies of the originals. Because the results of architectural research, in particular, of the settlement of Nastagisi, have not been published to date, it is not possible to decide whether the monumental palace and temple complexes – at least in Central Kartli – had had any influence on the building methods of the common people, or whether they – like the buildings of the former Achaemenid foreign domination – had no influence worthy of mention.

At least in eastern Iberia, the common people seem to have upheld their Early Iron Age-, if not

Late Bronze Age-, traditions.⁴⁵² Monumental complexes in the regional power centers of Sairkhe, Tsikhia Gora, and Samadlo still show an obvious affinity to predecessors of the Persian period. This need not be surprising, because the then ruling class had probably already held its dominant position under the Achaemenids.

From the late 2nd century B.C. on, we find evidence of widespread and intensive building activity in Georgia. The complexes concerned have only rudimentary connections to the origins of monumental architecture on Georgian soil.⁴⁵³ In many of the former centers – Vani and Sairkhe in Colchis, Samadlo and Nastagisi in Iberia –, but above all, in a number of – until then – less important places in Iberia (Tsitsamuri, Shorapani, Dedoplis Mindori, Dedoplis Gora), new complexes in a previously unknown sophistication arise, which, however, now no longer remain isolated from their surroundings.⁴⁵⁴ Because the religion of the ruling class(es) in Iberia was quite obviously influenced by Persia, it can come as no surprise that sacral architecture received its decisive impulses further from Iran. The plan of the Main Temple at Dedoplis Mindori (fig. 32) recalls Achaemenian and Post-Achaemenian temples and gateways.⁴⁵⁵ The gate in the north of the

⁴⁴⁸ Cemeteries not far from Mtskheta, in Kamarakhevi and Mukhatgverdi, indicate, however, that there must also have been settlements there in this period; Lordkipanidze 1991, 154.

⁴⁴⁹ Apakidze 1968, 34; contra: Bokhochadze 1978b, 21 f.; Gagoshidze 1979, 102; Lordkipanidze 1985a; Lordkipanidze 1991, 154 with n. 869. Cf. n. 458.

⁴⁵⁰ Kipiani/Amashukely 1995, 10, figs. 1.6, 16-17; Kipiani 2000, pl. 4.1 (“Pebble-Temple”); Kipiani/Amashukely 1995, 3-6, figs. 1.1, 3, 6 (fortifications and gate).

⁴⁵¹ Licheli 1991; Braund 1994, 149 f.

⁴⁵² Furtwaengler/Knauss 1997, 378-383; Furtwaengler et al. 1998, 340-348; Furtwaengler et al. 1999, 263-268, and in detail: Knauss 2005, 187 ff.

⁴⁵³ Gagoshidze 1996, 134; Knauss 1999a, 110 f. This stage of development, in the following designated as “Late Hellenistic”, begins a bit later than the so-called “Iberian II period” after Licheli 2001, 256, i.e., a number of years before the middle of the 2nd century B.C., and lasts until Rome’s intervention under the Flavians – it therefore includes Licheli’s “Iberian III period” as well. The construction of the building complexes in Dedoplis Mindori and Dedoplis Gora falls chronologically still within his “Iberian II period”, and the present investigation has made clear that his assertion that “Hellenistic influence” had played an important role only in his “Iberian II” phase, cannot be upheld.

⁴⁵⁴ Numerous bridges and fortification walls are now built there, which indicate that there were conscious and consistent efforts to develop and control the country, cf. above, ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*. The probably most important architectural complex of this epoch, the Royal Sanctuary in Dedoplis Mindori, looks Hellenistic in its spaciousness, but a similar general concept can only be found in noticeably later Sassanian sanctuaries in Surh Kotal (Schlumberger 1969, fig. 26) and Kasr-e Shirin (Pope 1938, figs. 153-154; Vanden Berghe 1966, figs. 29-30).

⁴⁵⁵ Gagoshidze 1983, 4-7; Gagoshidze 1992, 38-44; Kipiani 2000, 41-44, pls. 48-51. On possible Iranian models:

Great Courtyard, as well as the small temples further north, reflect typologically much older Persian models, but also have – in the small building immediately to the west of the “Fire Temple” in Tsikhia Gora – an Early Hellenistic predecessor in simplified form (fig. 38).⁴⁵⁶ Without doubt, some architectural elements are still adopted from the West, but they now experience an unconventional local adaptation, which makes clear that an advanced Iberian building trade had developed in the meantime.⁴⁵⁷

The date of the first monumental buildings in Armaztsikhe I has not yet been conclusively determined. The Great Hall (fig. 40) was possibly built as early as the 1st century B.C., but even a later date, toward the end of the 1st century A.D., can at present not be ruled out. The Great Walls with square towers (figs. 41–42) which enclose the entire complex, were – like the Great Hall – built of mud-brick on a foundation of ashlar blocks. According to the present state of our knowledge, they probably date to Early Roman times, i.e., to the second half of the 1st century A.D.⁴⁵⁸

Schippmann 1971, fig. 38 (Temple by Susa); Schmidt 1953, figs. 51–52 (Persepolis: “Triple Gate”); Pichikian 1992, figs. 1a–b, 4a–c (Takht-e-Sangin, Oxus-Temple); Schippmann 1971, fig. 37 (Bard-e Nishande: Seleucid-Parthian temple).

- 456** On the lesser “temples” in the north of the sanctuary: Kipiani 2000, 47–52, pls. 48, 52.3, the Gateway in the north of the Court: Kipiani 2000, 45, pls. 48, 52.2, and on the typologically related “Little Temples” in Tsikhia Gora: Kipiani 2000, 39 f., pls. 38.1, 45; cf. the so-called “temples carrés” in Tshoga Zanbil (Vanden Berghe 1966, fig. 16; Ghirshman 1966, 105–107, fig. 60 Plan I–III, or some of the rooms in the so-called “Harem” in Persepolis (Schmidt 1953, figs. 102 f., 105). On the gates in the west and east of the complex in Dedoplis Mindori, Kipiani 2000, 45 f., pls. 48, 52.1.
- 457** This sort of unusual transformation can be observed, above all, in architectural sculpture, for instance, in capital types: Kipiani 1985, 105–110, pls. 18–24; Kipiani 1987, 48–59, 68–72, pls. 36–46; Gagoshidze/Kipiani 2000, 62–64, figs. 1, 9–12.
- 458** On the Hall and the “fortification walls” of Armaztsikhe I, see Apakidze 1963, 214; Apakidze 1968, 34–41, figs. 1–5, 8–9, pls. 4–11; Licheli 2001, 253 f. (Bagineti and Ghartiskari). Apakidze’s datings are, however, obsolete, cf. above, n. 449. According to a personal communication of the architecture historian, G. Kipiani, the latest investigations in Armaztsikhe (Bagineti) speak in favor of a beginning of construction not earlier than even the 1st century A.D. It could therefore be brought into connection with the fortificatory work of Roman engineers, who were employed in Mtskheta by order of Vespasian and Titus in the year 75 A.D., as is attested by inscriptions; Boltunova 1971, 213–222.

The settlement on the hill of Vani in Colchis experiences at this time its greatest expanse and its most magnificent building-phase.⁴⁵⁹ Even if the use of marble, tiled roofs, and the form of the capitals, the acroteria, antefixes, and lion-head water-spouts demonstrate strong influence from the Greek world, even here Iranic elements can still be found.⁴⁶⁰

The first Roman intervention, Pompey’s campaign in the year 65 B.C., had at first scarcely left any lasting cultural traces. As shown above, even the structures built in Iberia around the Turn of the Era present no radical architectural and conceptual changes. The – later – doubtlessly considerable influence of Rome on Georgia’s architecture does not begin before the late 1st century A.D.⁴⁶¹

Comparison and Classification of the Complex at Dedoplis Gora, and of Other Large Transcaucasian Buildings of the Hellenistic and Early Roman Periods

At the outset, we have to admit that there are no obvious parallels for the plan of the Palace in Dedoplis Gora in ancient Georgia or beyond its borders. As in the much older Urartian buildings, the enceinte follows the lie of the ground. Other than in those structures, however, we find inside the Iberian complexes no buildings with a regular, more or less rectangular, ground plan, but rather the rooms are here built directly onto the enceinte, and are irregular in form. This type of plan can be observed neither in palaces in the Near East nor within the Greek cultural sphere, least of all, in the Hellenistic period.⁴⁶² It is also unknown in Hellenistic fortifications.⁴⁶³ Only the

459 Kipiani/Amashukely 1995, 6–10, 32.

460 Namely, in the Great Temple on the Lower Terrace, which consists of a columned hall and a tower (Kipiani/Amashukely 1995, 7, figs. 1–2, 7–9). Kipiani interprets this, too, as a fire temple.

461 The temple in Sarkine is dated by Georgian archaeologists predominantly in the Late Hellenistic period (2nd–1st centuries B.C.: Licheli 2001, 254; Lordkipanidze 1991, 160. – Kipiani 1987, 24, 65, pls. 14–17, dates the Ionian capital with a central rosette in Sarkine even to the Early Hellenistic period).

462 Cf. Nielsen 1994; Hoepfner/Brands 1996; Nielsen 2001.

463 Winter 1971; Fossey/Van de Maele 1992.

fortifications of the city of Eshera by Sukhumi (fig. 43), which are dated to the 2nd-1st centuries B.C.,⁴⁶⁴ have features in common with Dedoplis Gora, inasmuch as there, too, rooms of varying dimensions have been built directly against the enceinte. On the other hand, the purpose of the rooms in Eshera must have been fundamentally different from that of the corresponding rooms in Dedoplis Gora. Presumably, the rooms in Eshera were "casemates",⁴⁶⁵ which are normal and purposeful for fortifications, while the investigations carried out in Dedoplis Gora have made clear that the rooms in the Palace had served military purposes, at most, only to a limited extent. A basic difference also consists in the fact that – in Dedoplis Gora – a sort of gallery adjoins the rooms on the inside, and surrounds the courtyard, whereby the walls in Eshera enclose a settlement with a much larger area. Even if there are no exact parallels, it seems to me that the porticus around the inner court, which probably also had a counterpart around the upper floor, can, in the final analysis, be derived from Macedonian-Greek peristyle courts, which we know well from Hellenistic palaces.⁴⁶⁶ Typologically as well as functionally, the so-called "batarejkas" (Russian: fortresses), as had been built, for instance, under Mithridates VI Eupator on the Taman Peninsula (fig. 44),⁴⁶⁷ may have served as models for the structures in Dedoplis Gora. Even if the complex in Dedoplis Gora, other than the Bosporan buildings, had not been built primarily for defensive purposes, the relative chronological and topographical proximity speak for the assumption that

the architectural inspiration came, with the greatest likelihood, from the Bosporan kingdom.

With regard to some architectural details, there are good parallels in the nearer and further environs. For example, the technique of fastening stone blocks to one another by means of clamps is – with almost complete certainty – an innovation adopted from Greek, respectively, Hellenistic architecture. The date of the earliest known clamps in Georgia is still controversial. The excavator, A. Apakidze, dates the tower-like structure in Zaden Tsikhe (Tsitsamuri) to the 4th century B.C., but serious doubts have rightly been voiced against this dating.⁴⁶⁸ About the turn of the 4th to 3rd centuries B.C. at the latest, however, double arrowhead-shaped clamps made of lead (fig. 36) are in use in Samadlo. The later specimens from Shorapani, Tsitsamuri and Dedoplis Gora,⁴⁶⁹ which are dated to the late 2nd, respectively, early 1st century B.C., are all made of wood. This type of clamp is almost completely unknown outside of Georgia.⁴⁷⁰ Whereas in the Greek world, clamps were always made of metal – with rare exceptions⁴⁷¹ – in Georgia, one, as a rule, used wood. Only in Samadlo, and later in Vani, the clamps are made of lead;⁴⁷² never, however, are they made of iron. The Π-shaped clamps used in Vani,⁴⁷³ however, even copy the shape of the

464 Shamba 1980, 10-15; Lordkipanidze 1991, 138

465 The "casemate-wall" type of construction can be observed in similar form also much earlier, in urban fortifications of the Achaemenian period, e.g., in Palestine, in Tel Megadim and Tel Mevorakh (Stern 1982, 47 with fig. 44, p. 50), where we find a row of rooms on one side, while the rest has a different plan. For Dedoplis Gora, we can, at present, only assume a corresponding plan. Cf. also the sectorially exposed fortification walls in Vani (Vani I, pls. 105-106, 117-118; Leshava 1978, 14, 22, pls. 87-88; Lordkipanidze 1991, 138; Kipiani/Amashukely 1995, 4-6), which had probably been built as early as the 3rd century B.C.

466 Cf. Heermann 1986, 424-426; Mueller-Wiener 1988, 178 f.; Nielsen 1994, 96.

467 Saprykin/Maslenikov 1995, 277-281 with figs. 2.1-2, 7-8. Braund 1994, 152-170, has recently re-emphasized the great importance of Mithridates' expansionistic policy for developments in Colchis and Iberia, and the conflicts with Rome which it brought about.

468 Apakidze 1963, 182-199; Apakidze 1968, 113, considers the masonry to be more archaic than the oldest strata in Armaztsikhe (Bagineti). The latter can no longer be dated into the 3rd century B.C., but are clearly later, and belong at the earliest in the 1st century B.C. – probably even in the 1st century A.D.; see above, n. 449; n. 458.

469 On the clamps in Tsitsamuri: Apakidze 1963, 193 f., figs. 101, 103, pl. 56.1-2; cf. also pl. 53.3. The excavations in Shorapani have been only insufficiently published to date: Japaridze 1990. In Tsitsamuri and Shorapani, clamps of this type are used solely for joining stone blocks to one another – only in Dedoplis Gora they are also used to join stone blocks to wooden beams (here: figs. 29-30).

470 A survey of the commonest forms in Ginouvès/Martin 1985, 108-112, pl. 28.1-9.

A. Ohnesorg (TU Munich) kindly drew my attention to the fact there are two finds of this type of clamp in the Cyclades (on Delos and Paros) in the Late Archaic Period; Fraisse/Llinas 1995, 236, fig. 887; Ohnesorg 2005, 54 with n. 284, pl. 22, 49.7 and pl. 49.6. It is, however, difficult to imagine how this type of clamp, which – in Greece – apparently fell into disuse after that period, could have been brought to Iberia toward the close of the 4th century B.C.

471 E.g., in the Athena Temple in Pergamon; AvP II, 20 f.; cf. Mueller-Wiener 1988, 82-84.

472 Gagoshidze 1979, 55.

473 Personal communication of J. Gagoshidze.

Greek originals. The same also applies for the swallowtail-clamps used in Armaztsikhe (Bagineti), in the fortifications of Ghartiskari by Mtskheta, and in Tsitsamuri.⁴⁷⁴

The roof-tiles used are helpful for dating purposes. Those from Dedoplis Gora are examples of the so-called “Bagineti-type”, which is a transitional form between the oldest type of Georgian tiles, the “Samadlo-type” of the 4th–2nd centuries B.C., and the tiles known from Mtskheta (1st–3rd centuries A.D.), turned on the potter’s wheel.⁴⁷⁵ Within this type, the roofing-tiles from Dedoplis Gora represent a typologically somewhat further developed stage than those used in Dedoplis Mindori.⁴⁷⁶ If the latter date within the 2nd century B.C., then the former are probably to be dated in the 1st century B.C., which would confirm the – on other grounds – suggested date for the beginning of construction of the Dedoplis Gora Palace. In any case, this also shows that the complex in Dedoplis Gora was a slightly later contemporary of the sanctuary in Dedoplis Mindori.

Analysis of the structure in Dedoplis Gora makes the fact obvious that this is native Georgian architecture, which shows only isolated elements of Greek influence.⁴⁷⁷ These, however, had already become, by the beginning of construction in the late 2nd or early 1st century B.C., integral components of Iberian architecture. Oriental influence in the field of architecture is limited to religious installations.⁴⁷⁸

In the neighboring land of Armenia, there is a number of individual archaeological investigations, but no up-to-date study on the history of architecture in post-Urartian times has yet been compiled. A. Kanetsyan and J. Khachatryan have recently given, on the basis of the buildings in Artashat, a concise survey of the architecture of the Hellenistic and Roman periods.⁴⁷⁹ In comparison with ancient Iberia, it turns out that the situation there was quite different. Since the period of Urartian occupation, there is a tradition of monumental stone construction in Armenia, long before we can grasp the first attempts in this direction in Iberia. In the period of Achaemenian domination, Urartian structures were sometimes re-used; but sometimes, new complexes were also built, which adopt individual elements of Achaemenian art, such as, for example, base types. But in view of their ground-plan concept, they are more original than contemporaneous buildings in Gumbati and Samadlo.⁴⁸⁰ Our conception of Armenian architecture remains, for the time being, unclear, because structures of this period, like those in Benjamin, have not yet been published in sufficient detail.⁴⁸¹ From the 1st century A.D. on, probably somewhat earlier than in Georgia, we find also in Armenia, besides a local, traditional manner of construction, immediate Western influence – above all, in sacral and fortificatory architecture.⁴⁸² From the 2nd century A.D.

astrian sanctuaries in Iberia); Kipiani 2000, 40–52, and see above, 57 f. and n. 455–456.

474 Apakidze 1963, 23, figs. 4–5 (Armaztsikhe); 29, fig. 10 (Armaztsikhe, “Great Hall”); Apakidze 1968, figs. 8–9, pl. 14.3 (Armaztsikhe). – Apakidze 1958b, 109 f.; Lordkipanidze 1991, 160 (Tsitsamuri).

475 Some of the youngest cover-tiles (calypteroi) in Dedoplis Mindori had already been turned on the potter’s wheel; Gagoshidze 1992, 36.

476 For detailed information on Iberian tile-types: Apakidze 1959a, 101–133; Gagoshidze 1979, 57–62; Dzeladze 1997.

477 The fully developed relations to the West, as they are documented by the imported objects made of bronze, glass, and ivory (s. above, ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*, and below, ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, 4.6. *Metal Vessels and Furniture*, 5.2. *Glass Vessels*), are not reflected here.

478 The temples and gates in Dedoplis Mindori, however, still stand clearly in the tradition of Iranian structures of Achaemenian and Hellenistic date, such as the Fire Temple by Susa, the “Triple Gate” (“Tripylon”) on the Great Terrace in Persepolis, or the Oxus-Temple in Takht-e-Sangin, among others; Gagoshidze 1992, 44–46 (who also makes reference to the long tradition of Zoro-

479 Kanetsian 1998, 3–94; cf. also Khachatryan 1998, 97–115; cf. further Tiratsian 1985a, 60–68; Tiratsian 1988, 88–101.

480 The plan of the Achaemenian palace in Benjamin has almost no features in common with that of the contemporaneous complex in Gumbati (Knauss 2001b, 130; Ter-Martirossov 2001, 158–160, fig. 4). Only the bell-bases are comparable (Furtwaengler 1995, 192; Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 374–378). On further structures of the Achaemenian period in Armenia: Kanetsian 2000, 103–110; Kanetsian 2001, 145–151, Ter-Martirossov 2001, 155–158.

481 Ter-Martirossov 1996, 187–189. The peripteral temple in Garni was certainly built in the Roman period (Santrout 1996, 190 f. [Ter-Martirossov]). The use of *opus caementitium* is scarcely conceivable before the 1st century A.D. The Armenian fortifications of the Hellenistic period have no striking similarities to the structures in Dedoplis Gora; Kanetsian 1998, 13–30, 33–35; Khachatryan 1998, 103–105.

482 Western – Greek and Roman – influence can be observed here in architecture during the Late Hellenistic period with much greater continuity than in Georgia; Kanetsian 1998, 75–86 (bases, capitals, etc.). For instance, only swallowtail clamps have been found there to date (Kanetsian 1998, 60 with fig. 55).

on, when Georgia also comes more strongly under Roman influence, we find obvious parallels, because the artisans in both nations orient their work on the same models.⁴⁸³

Our knowledge of Iron Age architecture in Azerbaijan is somewhat sparser. From the terse report by the excavator, I. Narimanow, we know of a once important palace complex of the Achaemenid period in Sari Tepe,⁴⁸⁴ which possibly had a counterpart by Karacamirli Köyi.⁴⁸⁵ The bell-base found there is an example of the same type known from Gumbati, Benjamin, and Sari Tepe. According to a detailed comparison, it is even very probable that it was hewn in the same workshop as the bases in Gumbati. The situation in western Azerbaijan at this time seems, accordingly, to have been comparable to that in East Georgia. But even for the subsequent post-Achaemenian period, there are no published examples of monumental architecture.⁴⁸⁶ Only in the first centuries B.C.–A.D. are – in Chabala, the capital of Albania at that time – large complexes documented, the simple construction of which, however, shows no parallels to contemporary Iberian architecture.⁴⁸⁷

483 Kanetsian 1998, 44 (baths), 52 (graves), 69 (roofing-tiles).

484 Narimanov 1960, 162–164, figs. 1–2; Khalilov 1985a, 44, fig. 16.2; Babaev 1990, 40, pl. 1, 3 f.; Kipiani 1993, 4–14, pls. 1–4; Furtwaengler 1995, 183 with n. 12; Knauss 1999a, 96, 101–103, figs. 9, 11. According to the excavator's report, there was a not insignificant predecessor complex in Sari Tepe, about the appearance of which we learn only little from the publications available to date (Khalilov 1960, 68–75). On architecture in Azerbaijan during this period, cf. further Khalilov 1985c; Achundov 1986, 165–171.

485 Furtwaengler/Knauss 1996, 374, 376, fig. 9; Knauss 1999a, 102 f., fig. 12.

Especially from the viewpoint of the Achaemenids, the region around the mid-course of the Kura and its tributaries beyond the medieval and modern boundaries between Georgia and Azerbaijan seemed to be relatively uniform. Due to a lack of pertinent studies of the material culture in south-western Azerbaijan, it is not possible to find more parallels with the palace complexes of eastern Georgia.

486 Cf. Khalilov 1985b, 94 f.; Babaev 1990, 54–61; According to Babaev 2001, 285 f., Chabala had prided itself on monumental municipal buildings as early as the 4th century B.C., but there is neither photographic nor graphic documentation of these structures, and the descriptions are not sufficient to give a concrete idea of their architecture.

487 Khalilov 1985b, 95, pl. 50.1; Achundov 1986, 218–221; Babaev 1990, 62–101, esp. 88 with fig. 14; Babaev 2001, 287–289, figs. 3–6; 289–292, fig. 9.

Later Developments and Conclusion

The Palace in Dedoplis Gora, as well as the structures in the sanctuary in Dedoplis Mindori, which had certainly been built in close association with it, illuminate in an impressive manner the sudden intensification of building activity in the Kartlian kingdom of Iberia since the end of the 2nd, respectively, beginning of the 1st century B.C. This can only be explained by a changed political and economic situation. It seems logical to bring the development of a central state authority, which controlled a great part of Georgia, into connection with this phenomenon. In this regard, it seems justified to ask whether the development of the Iberian state, set by Early Medieval Georgian tradition in the early 3rd century B.C. under the Pharnavazidae, should not be dated one and a half centuries later. The sudden, striking appearance of new sites could be explained most plausibly if one chose to accept the hypothesis that the founding of the Iberian state, which, for the first time, united a great part of modern Georgia, had taken place in the 2nd century B.C.⁴⁸⁸

From the late 1st century A.D. on, massive Roman influence makes itself felt in the region, in architecture as well.⁴⁸⁹ This extends far beyond the construction of Roman forts.⁴⁹⁰ With regard to architecture, baths with hypocaust-heating are the second – besides the *castella* – architectural innovation previously unknown in Georgia,

488 Cf. Knauss 2006, 109 f., with note 53; of other persuasion: Lordkipanidze 2000, 12–16. It should be emphasized that this historic process of the rise of the first state which encompassed a major part of Georgia has been only weakly illuminated by historical and archaeological research; cf. Kohl 1993, 37.

489 Lordkipanidze 1991, 162–164; Braund 1994, 171–201; and see above, ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*.

490 Roman *castella* have been discovered in Zikhisdsiri (Choshtaria 1962), Phasis (Braund 1994, 189–193), Dioskurias, Sebastopolis/Sukhumi (Apakidze/Lordkipanidze 1963; Braund 1994, 193–198), Pityus/Pizunda (Lekvinadze 1968b; Braund 1994, 198–200; Lordkipanidze, G. 1995, 306–310), Apsaros/Gonio (Lekvinadze 1961; Lordkipanidze et al. 1980; Braund 1994, 182–184; Plontke-Luening 1994; 23–28; Plontke-Luening/Fellmuth [forthcoming]); cf. also Lordkipanidze 1991, 162–164. The complex in Dedoplis Gora, as the present study has shown, cannot be defined as a fortress, but, at most, as a fortified palace, while the objects listed here primarily served military purposes.

which can be brought into connection with the Romans.⁴⁹¹ Elements of the Roman style of life seem to have enjoyed great popularity, at least among the ruling classes of the Roman vassal state. Unfortunately, the foundation dates of most of the Roman forts in Georgia are only insufficiently known. Nonetheless, it may be emphasized that architecture in Georgia, with re-

gard to construction techniques as well, changed markedly since the late 1st or early 2nd century A.D. The construction of buildings of this period demonstrates that now, Roman-trained artisans had played a not inconsiderable role. We now find such typically Roman elements as *opus caementitium*, fired bricks, arches, or mosaics as room decor.

⁴⁹¹ On this subject in general, Plontke-Luening 1995, 316–323; cf. on the individual sites: Armazistsikhe (Apakidze 1968; Lordkipanidze 1991, 167), Armaziskhevi (Lordkipanidze 1991, 168 with n. 73), Dzalisi (Lordkipanidze 1991, 170 f.). There are baths also in Shukhuti, Pizunda, and Zikhisdsiri.

4. The Finds of Dedoplis Gora and their Context

4.1. Pottery

by Tinatin Chanishvili

The most abundant and, at the same time, most varied objects among the finds from the Palace at Dedoplis Gora are the pottery and other ceramic products. The by far greatest share of the pottery is of local manufacture, only a small share of the ceramic inventory is imported. But inasmuch as imported pottery is quite rare in East Georgian archaeological sites of the Hellenistic and Roman periods,⁴⁹² the mere fact of the discovery of imported ware in the Palace is of great importance.

Imported Pottery (cat. nos. 1-13)

The forms of the imported pottery include balsamaria, two vessels for cosmetics, a footed jug (lagynos) and five bowls. All of these objects distinguish themselves from the local pottery normally found at Dedoplis Gora not only by their shape, but also through the color and other properties of their clay. In spite of the fact that these imported vessels have been damaged and discolored by fire, it can be demonstrated that they had not been made in any native Georgian pottery workshop.

Balsamaria (cat. nos. 1-5)

Of the five balsamaria excavated in the Palace, only two (cat. nos. 3-4) are more or less similar. The others differ from both of these and from one another in their shape as well as in the properties

of their clay. This means that four different variants of balsamaria can be distinguished, and that the differences observed between the variants could be evidence for different provenience.

Due to the fact that all of these balsamaria have been severely damaged by the fire that destroyed the Palace, details pertaining to the original color of their clay or to their surface treatment are difficult to determine reliably.

Variant I (cat. no. 1)

This vessel represents one of the less widespread variants of the bottle-shaped balsamaria. It resembles that excavated in the palace of the 1st century A.D. in Corinth,⁴⁹³ and the balsamarium from Bulgaria, found in Burial 1 of the cemetery by the Hellenistic city of Anchialos on the Black Sea coast. The tomb is dated to the Turn of the Era.⁴⁹⁴ The same type of unguentarium has been found in Israel, in contexts dated to the second half of the 1st century B.C.,⁴⁹⁵ as well as in Burial 24 in Dura-Europos, dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D.⁴⁹⁶ Unguentaria of this type have not as yet been found in the ancient centers on the Northern Black Sea coast. This type of balsamarium can probably be dated to the Turn of the Era, and must have been exported to Georgia from Syria or Palestine.

⁴⁹² Berdzenishvili 1963, 521.

⁴⁹³ Wright 1980, 159, fig. 99.

⁴⁹⁴ Balabanov 1979, 25, figs. 3b, 6b.

⁴⁹⁵ Amiran et al. 1963, 17.

⁴⁹⁶ Toll 1946, pl. 46.

Variant II (cat. no. 2)

This vessel belongs to a group of bottle-shaped balsamaria common throughout the Roman world in the 1st century A.D. Many scholars are of the opinion that the center of its production was located in Italy.⁴⁹⁷ The earliest bottle-shaped, flat-based balsamaria appear in the 1st century B.C., when the Hellenistic fusiform balsamaria began to become less common, so that these balsamaria can be interpreted as supplanting the latter.⁴⁹⁸

The shape cat. no. 2 resembles that of the balsamarium with white bands excavated in Corinth, in the stratum of the 1st century A.D. in the South Stoa.⁴⁹⁹ Vessels of the same shape appeared in Athens, in tombs dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., and in the Roman stratum in the Athenian Agora,⁵⁰⁰ as well as in the Burials 24 (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.) and 7 (1st–2nd centuries A.D.) in Dura-Europos. The balsamaria from Dura-Europos are held to be products of Western Mediterranean workshops.⁵⁰¹ The same type of balsamarium is also found in the ancient centers on the Northern Black Sea coast: in Mirmekion, associated with a coin of Mithridates VIII (39–45 A.D.), a Pergamean red-glazed vessel and a bowl dated to the beginning of the 1st century A.D.,⁵⁰² and in Burial 4 of the Tiritaka necropolis, together with a red-glazed jug dated to the first decade of the 1st century A.D.⁵⁰³ A similar balsamarium from Burial 7 in the Artjukhovo burial mound dates to the 1st century A.D.⁵⁰⁴ In Bulgaria, in the Chatalka cemetery (region of Stara Zagora), the same type of balsamarium was found in Burial 1, dated to the mid-1st century A.D., together with bronze objects similar to those from Dedoplis Gora.⁵⁰⁵

Variant III (cat. nos. 3–4)

Two balsamaria can be assigned to this variant. One of them (cat. no. 3) has corrugated, ribbed bands on the inside of the body and the neck;

these bands are typical for balsamaria of the Roman period. Similar red-burnt balsamaria with coarse-grained clay were found in Garnisi, Burial 3, dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.⁵⁰⁶ Balsamaria of the same type have been found in Mediterranean cities; some scholars assume that they were produced in Asia Minor in the 1st century A.D.⁵⁰⁷ and that this type of vessel apparently remained in use until the end of the century.⁵⁰⁸

Variant IV (cat. no. 5)

The fragmentary state of preservation of this balsamarium makes it difficult to date it with certainty. The quality of the clay, the rim-type – common on balsamaria – and the black glaze could possibly indicate that this is a relatively early specimen. But sherds with the same type of rim and neck were excavated in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. layer of the South Stoa in Corinth.⁵⁰⁹

Clay balsamaria are documented in Georgia from the very beginning of the Hellenistic period;⁵¹⁰ balsamaria dated from the end of the Hellenistic and the beginning of the Roman period were found in Samadlo, Zhinvali, Mtskheta and Urbnisi.

Vessels for Cosmetics (cat. nos. 6–7)

Two small, thin-walled vessels with a spherical body and a foot were excavated in the Palace. A similar vessel was found in Burial 37 in Dura-Europos, dated to the 1st century B.C.⁵¹¹ The sherds of such vessels from the Palace probably date to the same period.

Lagynos-like Vessel (cat. no. 8)

The particular position of the handle distinguishes this vessel from the lagynoi common toward the end of the Hellenistic period⁵¹² in the Mediterranean basin (Sardinia, Cyprus and elsewhere)⁵¹³ as well as along the Northern Black Sea

⁴⁹⁷ Hayes 1973, 463, 467.

⁴⁹⁸ Pogrebova 1961, 111; Hayes 1973, 463.

⁴⁹⁹ Hayes 1973, 467.

⁵⁰⁰ Boulter 1963, 127, 129, pls. 45–46.

⁵⁰¹ Toll 1946, 106, fig. 22, pls. 38, 46.

⁵⁰² Gaidukevich 1952, 17, fig. 67.

⁵⁰³ Gaidukevich 1952, 216 f., fig. 83.2.

⁵⁰⁴ Maksimova 1979, 131, fig. 63.

⁵⁰⁵ Buiukliev 1986, 45, 65, pl. 216.

⁵⁰⁶ Arakelian 1957, 53, fig. 21.

⁵⁰⁷ Hayes 1973, 467, fig. 243d.

⁵⁰⁸ Balabanov 1979, 27.

⁵⁰⁹ Hayes 1973, 467.

⁵¹⁰ Gagoshidze 1979, 43–45.

⁵¹¹ Toll 1946, 104, pl. 51.

⁵¹² Blavatski 1953, 54.

⁵¹³ Hayes 1998, pls. 28, 39.

coast (in Olbia, Panticapaeum, etc.).⁵¹⁴ In the course of time, the shape of the lagynos gradually changes,⁵¹⁵ and in the Roman period, lagynoi with a spherical body occur together with specimens with a biconical body.

In its general shape, cat. no. 8 resembles the red-engobed, bulging lagynoi common in the 1st century A.D. An exact parallel for the lagynos-like vessel from the Palace could not be found to date, but it resembles the lagynoi from the Northern Black Sea coast dating to the beginning of the 1st century A.D. It closely resembles the second group of lagynoi produced locally in the area of the Bosphorus as defined by Sokolova,⁵¹⁶ although it also differs from these vessels in the shape of its handle and in its – much larger – size.

Imported footed jugs and sherds of such jugs are known from Vani,⁵¹⁷ but lagynos-like vessels have not yet been found in Georgia. The lagynos excavated in Dedoplis Gora is the only such specimen discovered to date in a Georgian site of the Roman period.

Bowls (cat. nos. 9–12)

Four footed bowls with inturned lips, the fabric of which is obviously different from wares of local provenience, were found in the Palace of Dedoplis Gora. The bowls are of approximately equal size and good quality. On the base of two bowls (cat. nos. 11 and 12), there is an incised graffito – a Greek capital “A”.

All four of these bowls are completely different from the wares normally found in the Palace of Dedoplis Gora, and, in general, from the local pottery normally excavated in eastern Georgia. They differ in shape, color, and the composition of the clay, as well as in the method of production. The shape of the bowls is similar to that of black-glazed bowls of the E46 group from the Athenian Agora, as defined by H. Thompson, and which are dated to the last quarter of the 2nd century–beginning of the 1st century B.C.⁵¹⁸ But judging by the method of their production,

the bowls from the Palace are later, and seem to be more similar to bowls from Pergamon dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.⁵¹⁹ They also resemble specimens from Burial 46 (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.) and from the tombs of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. excavated in Dura-Europos⁵²⁰ as well as those from Burial 6 in Chatalka (Bulgaria), dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D.⁵²¹ Bowls of the type typical for the 1st century A.D. are most frequently found in the pottery centers along the Northern Black Sea coast (Ilurat, Scythian Naples, Belias, etc.). In general, a concentration of similar shapes can be observed in the centers in Asia Minor in the 1st century A.D.⁵²² A black-glazed bowl of comparable shape was found in the stratum of the 3rd–1st centuries B.C. in Sakhanchia in western Georgia.⁵²³ A similar red-glazed bowl was found in the vicinity of the Sukhumi castle, dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.⁵²⁴ The imported bowls found in the Palace of Dedoplis Gora can be dated to the 1st century A.D.

Footed Bowl (cat. no. 13)

This is the only vessel of its type known to date from the Palace at Dedoplis Gora. Its general shape resembles the bowl from Burial 49 in Dura-Europos, dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., although differing from it in individual details.⁵²⁵ Exact parallels for this bowl could not be found.

Local Pottery (cat. nos. 14–143)

Locally-made pottery is represented in Dedoplis Gora in all of the vessel forms and types known in Georgia during the Late Hellenistic and Early Roman periods. In eastern Georgia, the ceramic inventory of this time is known primarily from grave finds, and its typological spectrum is, therefore, limited. The pottery found in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora provides supplementary

⁵¹⁴ Shkorpil 1904, 149 f., fig. 46; Gaidukevich 1949, 382, fig. 65; Gaidukevich 1959, 216 f.; Hayes 1998, pl. 5.

⁵¹⁵ Marchenko 1956, 114. figs. 3, 8.

⁵¹⁶ Sokolova 1984, 133, 137, pl. 11.18.

⁵¹⁷ Khoshtaria 1979, 117, fig. 188.

⁵¹⁸ Thompson 1934, 431.

⁵¹⁹ Meyer-Schlichtmann 1988, pls. 46.2, 3.

⁵²⁰ Toll 1946, 109, fig. 37.

⁵²¹ Buiukliev 1986, 45, pl. 21.322, 323.

⁵²² Dashevskaja 1980, 90, fig. 4; Ksenofontova 1984, 139, pl. 6.1, 2.

⁵²³ Licheli 1977, fig. 24.6.

⁵²⁴ Puturidze 1965, 101, fig. 7.

⁵²⁵ Toll 1946, 109, fig. 40.

ceramic material, and with it, further information about the Late Hellenistic to Early Roman material culture of eastern Georgia.

In the scientific literature, the opinion that pottery vessels lose in importance as tableware made of silver, bronze and glass becomes much commoner during the 1st century A.D., is widespread;⁵²⁶ but the find material from the Palace at Dedoplis Gora reveals a general use of pottery vessels, which comprise a major share of the entire inventory.

The greater part of the pottery excavated in the Dedoplis Gora Palace can be dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D., even though some types and forms (bowls, jugs, pots, etc.) can also occur earlier, respectively, later.

By the end of the 1st century A.D., the Palace had been destroyed by fire.⁵²⁷ All of the Palace's contents, including, of course, the pottery, had been damaged by the blaze – only rarely did anything remain unscathed. Most of the pottery has been preserved as sherds which have been burnt, deformed, or – at the very least – coated with soot. It is therefore in many cases difficult to establish the original color of a vessel's clay, or to reconstruct its shape.

Most of the pottery from the Palace is wheel-made. Handmade coarse ware is seldom, and can be distinguished from wheel-made ware on the basis of the shapes as well as by the lack of wheel-marks. Various forms also differ in the properties of their clay: bowls are usually made of well-refined clay and turned on the wheel, whereas the clay of pots and jugs contains more admixtures of limestone, sand and mica. Since most of the pottery excavated in Dedoplis Gora has been discolored by fire, a classification according to color would be unreliable. In its present state, the greater part of the pottery has a light pink-colored clay, but the presence of black-glazed sherds may indicate that at least a part of the ceramic inventory had been originally made of black or gray clay. This is also illustrated by a group of bowls which are, in their present state, pink, and are decorated with bands polished by pressing a smooth object on the surface of the clay. This decorative technique is characteristic for black-fired pottery known from Georgian

archaeological sites (Urbnisi, Uplistsikhe, Kavtiskhevi and others), and never occurs on light-colored wares, which, on the contrary, are coated with a red slip.

Numerous vessels from Dedoplis Gora are decorated with red or brownish paint. Normally bowls, mugs and jugs are painted, although there is also one painted jar. The fact that the painted decoration of this jar shows a greater variety of motifs (stair- /step- and herringbone pattern, crosses) than that of the other painted vessels – which are usually decorated with straight or wavy and punched bands –, is noteworthy. This could indicate that this jar is a relatively early specimen: the use of red paint on pottery in Roman Iberia is a survival of Hellenistic tradition. But painted decoration of the Hellenistic period is more elaborate and varied than that of Roman times, and the production of painted pottery came to an end in Kartli in the 1st century A.D.⁵²⁸ The production of black-glazed ware apparently ceased here at about the same time, or possibly even a bit earlier.⁵²⁹

Incised and scratched decoration appears on only one pottery form: pots with rounded rims (e.g., cat. nos. 134–135).

Jars and pithoi are decorated with horizontal, simple or braided relief bands.

Vessels with a ribbed neck with one or two handles (the latter: amphorae) from Dedoplis Gora belong to a separate category. Jugs and amphorae with ribbed necks are typical for the Roman and later periods in Kartli, but the earliest known specimens date to the first half of the 2nd century B.C.⁵³⁰ It is surprising that three such jugs from Dedoplis Gora are painted; they are at present without parallels in Georgia.

The Palace at Dedoplis Gora has supplemented the ceramic typology of Early Roman Iberia by several forms not known here previously: vessels similar to the *luterion* (cat. no. 46), bowls like cat. no. 13, drinking vessels (cat. no. 69) and others.

Some of the less common types of vessels from the Palace are of particular interest: a jar with two ribs on the neck (cat. no. 101), amphora-like vessels (cat. nos. 65–67), large jugs (cat. nos. 50, 51), among others, because they find parallels

⁵²⁶ Lomtatidze 1977, 36.

⁵²⁷ See ch. 2. *Dedoplis Gora*, 42 and Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991, 47 f.

⁵²⁸ Narimanishvili 1991, 79.

⁵²⁹ Narimanishvili 1991, 64.

⁵³⁰ Mirianashvili 1983, 49.

only in the Kvirila valley – Sairkhe (Sabaduris Gora), which is a further indication that East Colchis may have been a part of Iberia (i.e., the Kingdom of Kartli).

In the Palace, we also found four pithoi, used as wine vessels (cat. nos. 116–117), three of which have Aramaic (Armazian) inscriptions incised on their rims.⁵³¹

Bowls (cat. nos. 14–46)

The commonest forms among the local tableware from Dedoplis Gora are the bowls, which were found in almost every room, but were especially numerous in Rooms 12 and 13.

All of the bowls have a stand-ring, and were produced by methods typical for Georgian pottery of the Late Hellenistic period. Two of them, however, (cat. nos. 44–45) seem to be imitations of contemporary imported bowls. They resemble imported bowls excavated in the Palace, but differ from these in certain details. Since all of the bowls have the same type of base, they are here subdivided according to the modeling of the rim. On the basis of this feature, we can distinguish two basic groups of bowls: those with an in-turned rim (cat. nos. 14–32),⁵³² and those with upright rims (cat. nos. 33–43), which are more or less angular. The latter group can be further subdivided into variants according to the type of rim, into bowls with simple and those with profiled rims.

As noted above, most of the pottery from the Palace in Dedoplis Gora shows traces of secondary burning, which makes determination of the original clay color difficult. Nonetheless, it is still possible to demonstrate that in both main groups of these bowls there is black-glazed pottery as well as light-colored ware.

Red-painted vessels are represented in both groups of bowls, but are much commoner in the first (cat. nos. 14–32) than in the second one (cat. nos. 33–43), in which there is only one bowl with a red-painted stripe inside.

Another type of decoration, strip-polish, made by pressure-polishing the pot's surface with a relatively narrow tool before firing, also occurs in both groups, but in inverse proportions: in the first group (cat. nos. 14–32), this decoration is found only on two black-glazed bowls (cat. nos. 20–21), but almost all of the bowls in the second group (cat. nos. 33–43) are decorated in this manner. According to our parallels, surface decoration by strip-polish is typical for black ware in Kartli. It is therefore possible that the bowls of the second group from Dedoplis Gora were originally black, and that their lighter color was a secondary discoloration caused by the fire.

Four bowls belonging to the first group of bowls (cat. nos. 30–32) are decorated with a rib relief line round the side. In Late Hellenistic Kartli, such decoration occurs only on black-glazed, footed bowls with splaying, profiled rims.⁵³³ The bowls from the Palace however, have rims bent inward, and have light-colored clay, if this color is not the result of discoloration caused by the fire which destroyed the Palace.

Our sole example of a luterion-like bowl (cat. no. 46) was found in Room 11 of the Palace. A variety of bowls with different types of lips and ranging in date from the Late Bronze to Early Iron Age has been documented in eastern Georgia; such bowls are also common in Hellenistic sites in Georgia. But although we find typical luteria in local as well as imported ware in western Georgia (Pichvnari, Vani, etc.),⁵³⁴ only luterion-like lip-bowls of local manufacture are known from the eastern part of the country (Kamarakhevi, Samadlo, Ghartiskari, etc.).⁵³⁵ The lip-bowl from the Palace suggests a continuity of several ceramic features (inward-bent rim, flat base) in eastern Georgia, and at the same time shows other characteristics (the protuberances, bulges, thick walls) which indicate that it may be an imitation of luteria common in the Hellenistic world.⁵³⁶ At present, we know of no parallels for this luterion-like vessel from eastern Georgia which date to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

⁵³¹ See ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*, 255.

⁵³² The earliest example of a footed bowl with an incurved rim known to me was found in the upper stratum in Samadlo, and is dated to the second half of the 2nd century B.C. At the end of the 2nd century and in the first half of the 1st century B.C., footed black-glazed bowls are common throughout Kartli; Gagoshidze 1979, 85, fig. 45.

⁵³³ Narimanishvili 1991, 43, figs. 707, 716, 720, 722.

⁵³⁴ Vashakidze/Kakhidze 1976, 75, pl. 34.1, 2; Lordkipanidze et al. 1983, 78 f., figs. 386–389.

⁵³⁵ Apakidze et al. 1978b, 105, 107, fig. 480; Gagoshidze 1981a, pl. 31.443–444, pl. 33.470, 475; Apakidze 1991, pl. 189.7.

⁵³⁶ Zeest/Marchenko 1962, 158–160.

Jugs (cat. nos. 47–63)

Under the term “jugs”, we classify a group of vessels with a bulging body, a flat base, a comparatively narrow neck and a single handle. They differ in size, type of orifice (round or trefoil), the position of the handle and the presence (or absence) of ribs on the neck.

Jugs with a circular orifice (cat. nos. 47–52) differ in size and therefore in capacity from the trefoil-mouthed jugs. They have a splaying rim, a spherical body and a flat base. The handle is elliptical in section, and runs from shoulder to rim, rising a little above the latter. Their clay is usually pinkish, rarely grayish. Only medium-sized jugs are decorated with straight, dotted or wavy bands in red paint on a rough surface. These jugs were probably used as containers for liquids. But the smaller specimens of the same shape (cat. no. 47) could have been tableware.

Jugs of this type are widespread in Georgia (finds from Samtavro, Uplistsikhe, Tsitsamuri, Aghaiani, Zemo Partskhma, and other sites). The presence of such jugs in western Georgia (Zemo Partskhma), however, is due to the influence of East Georgian (Iberian) culture.⁵³⁷ G. Narimanishvili assigns such jugs to his Vth chronological group (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.), but, in general, this type of jug exists in different variants throughout the Hellenistic period.

The larger jugs (cat. nos. 49–52) are uncommon in Georgia. A rim fragment and a body sherd of a jug excavated on Sabaduris Gora in Sairkhe and dated to the Hellenistic period, is the only possible parallel known thus far.⁵³⁸

A single fragment of a jug with a circular orifice was found in the Palace. In contrast to those just described, it has a handle which is elliptical in section, and is attached at the neck and the shoulder. Jugs with similar handles are found in East Georgian sites of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. (Aghaiani, Uplistsikhe, Bagis-Chala and others), but also occur in West Georgia (Partskhanakanevi). According to G. Narimanishvili's classification, comparable jugs are common only from the 1st century B.C. to the 1st cen-

tury A.D.⁵³⁹ They are rarely found in contexts of Early Hellenistic date.⁵⁴⁰

Six *jugs with trefoil orifice* were found in the Palace (cat. nos. 54–59).⁵⁴¹ These vessels have pinkish, well-refined clay. They are characterized by a slightly splaying neck, a spherical body and a wide, flat base; the handle, which is elliptical in section, runs from rim to shoulder. In reddish or brownish paint, the rough surface of four of these jugs (cat. nos. 54–55, 57–58) is decorated with motifs (wavy and dotted bands, etc.) typical for this period. The entire surface of the jugs, including rim and handle, is painted. The similarity in shape and decoration of the jugs with trefoil mouths from the Palace (cat. no. 54) and that from Burial 6 of the Rikianebis Veli cemetery (Aghaiani)⁵⁴² is very striking – as if they had been made by the same hand.

Jugs with trefoil orifice are quite common in East Georgia. The form appears in the 6th century B.C., and remains in use for a number of centuries.⁵⁴³ The trefoil-mouthed jugs from the Palace belong to different variants according to Narimanishvili's classification, but they all apparently belong to his Vth chronological group, and therefore date to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. Parallels for the jugs with trefoil orifice have been found in a number of sites in Georgia (Dablagomi, Tskheti, Kavtiskhevi, Aghaiani and others). But there is as yet no parallel for the large jug with a trefoil orifice excavated in the Palace (cat. no. 59).

The *jugs with ribbed necks* (cat. nos. 60–63) have been classified here as an independent group. They are all different in color, shape and size. Their clay is well-refined, but has an admixture of white particles (in the case of cat. nos. 60 and 62). Three jugs (cat. nos. 60, 61, 63) are decorated with the motifs typical for East Georgia in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. The decoration on one of these jugs (cat. no. 60) is a surprisingly exact reproduction of that on one of the jugs with a trefoil orifice (cat. no. 54) from the Palace. We

539 Narimanishvili 1991, 35, figs. 392, 399, 437, 443, 460 etc.

540 Narimanishvili 1991, figs. 509, 575, 577.

541 Trefoil-mouthed jugs were wine vessels and it would therefore be justified to designate them as *oinochoai*, Ivashchenko 1980, 75. In Georgia today, jugs with trefoil mouths are still used as wine vessels, and are also known as “saghvine”, it means “for wine”.

542 Mirianashvili 1983, 24 f.

543 Tolordava 1980, 48 f.

537 Tolordova 1980, 27.

538 Bragvadze 1993, fig. 6.1.

know of no exact parallel for the shape in other sites than the Palace.

Jugs with ribbed necks of the same shape as those with a circular orifice appear in archaeological sites in Kartli from the second half of the 1st century B.C.⁵⁴⁴

Vessels similar to the smaller jugs with ribbed necks unearthed in the Palace (cat. nos. 61–63) have been found in sites dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. (Aghaiani, Samtavro, Kavtiskhevi and elsewhere). Painted jugs with ribbed necks, like cat. no. 60, however, are as yet unknown from other sites in Georgia.

Two-handled Jars with Ribbed Necks (cat. nos. 64–68)

We here use the designation “amphorae” for this type of vessel. They are two-handled jars with profiled, slightly spreading rims and ribbed necks, as well as a bulging body and a broad, flat base. The double handles run from the rim to the shoulder; one jar (cat. no. 67) had one double and one braided handle. Almost all of the jars are of equal size; only one of them (cat. no. 68) is noticeably larger than the rest. All of them are red-slipped. One of the jars (cat. no. 64) had been “corked” with a clay stopper.

Jars of this type are not common in eastern Georgia. An exception is the comparatively small jar found in the site of Trelis,⁵⁴⁵ which resembles those from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora in some respects, but differs from them in its general shape.

Only vessels of this type have double handles, and in general, handles of this type are rather rare in the ceramic inventory of East Georgia. Double handles are characteristic for West Georgian Hellenistic pottery, and the appearance of such handles is ascribed to the influence of Greek imports.⁵⁴⁶ The jars from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora which have handles attached to the rib on the neck resemble the Roman amphora from Vani.⁵⁴⁷

Two-handled jars with ribbed necks may, therefore, be of western (Colchian) provenience, but no exact parallels for this type of jar have

been found to date in western Georgia. The vessels show a general resemblance to the Mediterranean amphorae.⁵⁴⁸

Mug (cat. no. 69)

This vessel differs strikingly from the drinking-vessels known thus far by its shape and by the unusual position of the handle. The mug has been made of local clay. No parallels for this mug are known to date.

Miniature vessels (cat. nos. 70–71)

Very few miniature vessels have been preserved undamaged in the Palace; more of them are preserved as sherds. The miniatures are made with or without handles, and, in general, they imitate the shapes of normal-sized vessels. Miniature vessels are very common in Georgia (finds in Kavtiskhevi, Partskhanakanevi, Abelia, Etso, Uplistsikhe, and in other sites).

Pots (cat. nos. 72–95)

Pots are the most common type of vessel in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, and numerous sherds of these vessels have been found in various rooms of the Palace. Most of the pots are fragmentary, which makes the definition and classification of their various shapes difficult and inevitably incomplete. One-handled, mug-like pots, with the handle running from the shoulder to the body, or limited to the vessel's body, are, in comparison, somewhat better preserved. Only one pot (cat. no. 95) deviates from this general scheme, and has a handle running from the rim to the shoulder. One-handled pots can have plain as well as rounded rims.

One-handled pots with plain rims (cat. nos. 72–86) were made in different sizes, but are similar in shape. They have a slightly splaying rim, a short neck on a spherical body, and a broad, flat base. The handle, which is elliptical in section, runs from the shoulder to the body of the vessel. Most of the pots have been fired pink, occasionally brownish or grayish. The clay normally has an admixture of coarse-grained white particles, but also of mica (cat. no. 88), possibly muscovite (cat. nos. 87, 90). The pots were normally turned on

⁵⁴⁴ Mirianashvili 1983, 49.

⁵⁴⁵ Abramishvili 1984, 33, pl. 37.

⁵⁴⁶ Tolordava 1980, 27.

⁵⁴⁷ Kuffin 1950, pl. 1.3.

⁵⁴⁸ Pirtskhalava/Kipiani 1986, 71, figs. 52.1–3.

the wheel, but among those from the Palace, there are also some coarse, hand-made vessels (cat. nos. 78, 82, 87). The surface of these pots is usually rough; only one (cat. no. 72) is red-slipped. Painted pots are – with only three examples – also rare. An interesting detail is the fact that a cross-pattern had been incised at the base of one pot's handle before it had been fired.

One-handled, mug-like pots are common in late Hellenistic and late Roman contexts in eastern Georgia (Trelis, Tsitsamuri III, Kavtiskhevi, Uplistsikhe and elsewhere). G. Narimanishvili assigns this type of pots to his Vth chronological group, and dates them from the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.⁵⁴⁹ Pots of the same shape and decoration occur in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. in East Colchis, Sabaduris Gora.⁵⁵⁰

The *one-handled pots with a rounded rim* (cat. nos. 88–94) are of approximately equal size. Two of these vessels (cat. nos. 88, 89) are painted with straight and dotted bands. This type of pot is relatively rare in find-contexts of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. in East Georgia.

Jars with Handles (cat. nos. 96–111)

These vessels can be sub-divided into two different groups: two-handled and four-handled jars. Two-handled jars have splaying rims, the four-handled ones have inturned rims. In contrast to the amphorae, the handles of these jars are always attached to the body of the vessel. All of them were probably used as storage vessels.

The *two-handled jars* can also be further subdivided into those with wide and those with narrow orifices – a feature which is probably determined by the respective vessel's function.

Only nine *two-handled narrow-mouthed jars* (cat. nos. 96–103) were excavated in the Palace. All of them are approximately equal in size and are similar in shape, if differing in details. These jars have high necks, sloping shoulders, bulging bodies and broad, flat bases. Handles, which are elliptical in section, are attached to the jar's body. All of the jars have pink fabric and are made of well-refined clay, and the outer surface is red-slipped. These jars are rather skillfully made, and seem to be the production of a single workshop.

The chronological "life-span" of this type of vessel would seem to be quite long. Similar jars have been found in East Georgian contexts reaching back as far as the Late Bronze and Iron Ages (12th–6th centuries B.C.).⁵⁵¹ After an apparent hiatus, similar jars – albeit in a different technique and with different decoration – appear in Samadlo, in the stratum of the 3rd century B.C. The decoration on these jars from Samadlo (a groove with a coat of white paint) is seen by I. Gagoshidze as a continuation of the ornamental traditions (narrow incised lines painted white) of the Late Bronze to Early Iron Age pottery of Kakheti.⁵⁵² The same tradition – and not the influence of the Ialoilu-tepe culture, which in the opinion of some is not excluded⁵⁵³ – can be seen in the shape and ornamentation of later vessels of the same type from Arkhiloskalo. According to G. Narimanishvili's classification, this type of jar belongs to the IIIrd and IVth chronological groups; he also postulates that the painted jars have an older scheme of decoration, which does not survive beyond the 2nd century B.C. But the undecorated narrow-mouthed jars persist into the IVth chronological group, and into the 1st century B.C.⁵⁵⁴

Jars of this type from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora differ in some features (undecorated, sloping shoulders) from the Samadlo and later variants (more massive heavier, broad base), which may indicate that the vessels from the Palace represent an independent variant (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.). Jars like those from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora are rather rare in other, contemporary archaeological sites.

Five of the two-handled narrow-mouthed jars (cat. nos. 99–103) are decorated with horizontal ribs around the neck. They are of almost the same size and of the same shape as the other two-handled jars. In all cases, their clay is pinkish and well-refined. One jar (cat. no. 101) is red-slipped. The rough surface of one jar (cat. no. 99) is decorated with straight, wavy and dotted bands – motifs characteristic for the pottery in Shida Kartli in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., but also with motifs which are new (cross, stair- and tree-patterns) for East Georgian vessels

⁵⁵¹ Narimanishvili 1991, 17.

⁵⁵² Gagoshidze 1979, 80.

⁵⁵³ Mirianashvili 1983, 19.

⁵⁵⁴ Narimanishvili 1991, 17.

⁵⁴⁹ Narimanishvili 1991, 24 f., 39 figs. 646–648, 653, 660 et passim.

⁵⁵⁰ Bragvadze 1993, 37, fig. 6.

in this period. One jar has an additional rib at the base of the neck (cat. no. 101). Two ribs are characteristic for the later period (3rd century A.D.).⁵⁵⁵ But since the two-ribbed jar from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora typologically clearly differs from that of the 3rd century A.D. just cited, the mere fact that both jars have a double neck-rib probably has no great chronological significance. A two-handled jar with neck-rib was also excavated in East Colchis, on the Sabaduris Gora (Sairkhe), in the upper layer of the Hellenistic settlement (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.); this vessel has been interpreted as evidence for influence of the Iberian culture in the Kvirila valley.⁵⁵⁶ Sherds of a similar vessel were found in Uplistsikhe,⁵⁵⁷ as well as in the stratum of the 1st century B.C., and among the pottery from Vani.⁵⁵⁸ Comparable jars have not as yet been found elsewhere.

The second type of *two-handled jar* (cat. nos. 104–109) comprises vessels *with broad, round orifices*, which are further characterized by a short neck, sloping shoulders, a spherical body and a broad, flat base. The handles are elliptical in section, and are attached to the body of the jar. The clay is grayish or brownish, and the surface of these jars is decorated with paint (wavy or dotted bands) as well as with incised decoration (wavy, finger-nail-like indentations). If this type of decoration should be typical for the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., it is nonetheless apparently rare on other vessel-types from the Palace. There are, as far as we know at present, no comparable jars from other archaeological sites dating to this period.

Only three *four-handled jars* with incurved rim (cat. nos. 110, 111) were found in the Palace of Dedoplis Gora. Their clay is pinkish-reddish and they have bulging bodies, and small, flat bases. Two small handles, elliptical in section, are attached to the shoulder, two large ones, with the same cross-section, are attached to the jar's body. The vessel's shoulder and body are decorated with seven broad, horizontal relief-bands.

Jars with incurved rim are a rare but very striking shape. Only sherds of this type of vessel have been preserved at Samadlo,⁵⁵⁹ Uplistsikhe⁵⁶⁰ and

Ghartiskari.⁵⁶¹ Painted fragments from Samadlo are the earliest of these (3rd–2nd centuries B.C.). The jars decorated with red bands found in Uplistsikhe would seem to be younger specimens of this type; Narimanishvili assigns them to his IVth chronological group, which would mean a date in the 2nd–1st centuries B.C.⁵⁶² The sherds from Uplistsikhe apparently stem from vessels quite similar to the jars from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora, but, other than these, are unpainted. Narimanishvili assumes that the size of these jars decreases with time and, finally, in the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., they are replaced by pots.⁵⁶³ But the jars from the Palace are large and the destruction date of the Palace of Dedoplis Gora is the 1st century A.D., which obviously contradicts this hypothesis.

Sherds from this type of jar found in various sites (Samadlo, Uplistsikhe, Ghartiskari) contribute little toward a reconstruction of these vessels; only the jars from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora provide the decisive evidence.

Jar-like Vessel (cat. no. 112)

Only one such vessel was found.

Pithoi (cat. nos. 113–117)

There are two types of pithoi. The smaller one (first type) was either placed on the floor, or was set into a hole in the ground which reached approximately up to the height of the first relief-band from the vessel's base. The larger (second type) were buried in the ground up to their rim. All of them were probably used as storage vessels.

Remains of the first pithos-type (cat. nos. 113–115), which were apparently used for storing grain, were scattered throughout the Palace in the form of small sherds, and were particularly numerous in Room 13. All of the pithoi of this type are characterized by a broad mouth with a splaying, faceted rim, a short neck, an ovoid body and a small, flat base. All of them have six or seven relief (sometimes braided) bands around the body of the vessel, but not at the base.

555 Mirianashvili 1983, 50.

556 Bragvadze 1993, 37.

557 Khakhutaishvili 1970, pl. 33.3.

558 Gigolashvili et al. 1979, 57, figs. 29–154.

559 Gagoshidze 1979, 89, pl. 13.318.

560 Khakhutaishvili 1970, 121, pl. 11.3.

561 Narimanishvili 1991, 18.

562 Narimanishvili 1991, 18.

563 Narimanishvili 1991, 18.

The clay is pinkish, grayish, or pinkish-brownish. Three of these vessels could be restored.⁵⁶⁴

Comparable pithoi date to the Turn of the Era at the earliest. Banded pithoi with short necks probably make their first appearance in the Roman period.⁵⁶⁵

Four pithoi of the second type were found in the Palace. The pithoi were left *in situ*. Only the fragments of the rims of two of them are kept in the Museum and are described in the catalog (cat. nos. 115, 116), because they had Aramaic inscriptions. They had been dug into the ground so that their rims lay at ground level. They are large, massive vessels. Their clay is coarse-grained and light pinkish. They have a broad mouth with a thickened, flattened, outcurving rim, and are further characterized by a short neck, an ovoid body and a small, flat base. Broad relief bands decorate the shoulder.

These pithoi from the Palace of Dedoplis Gora resemble to a certain extent a pithos from Samtavro⁵⁶⁶ dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., but the latter has no relief band and its rim differs from that of the pithoi from Dedoplis Gora. It has been proposed that pithoi with short necks and relief bands appear in the 1st century A.D., and are produced throughout the Roman period, and possibly even later.⁵⁶⁷ Sherds of the same type of pithoi with Aramaic inscriptions were found in Uplistsikhe in the stratum of the 1st–3rd century A.D.,⁵⁶⁸ but K. Tsereteli dates these inscriptions to the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C., because of the fact that they are rendered in State Aramaic.⁵⁶⁹ A date in the 3rd century can be excluded for the pithoi from Uplistsikhe, as well as for those from Dedoplis Gora, because the pithoi in Early Hellenistic Kartli were of a completely different type.⁵⁷⁰ But a date in the 2nd–1st centuries B.C. would be quite acceptable for the pithoi from the Palace, because pithoi were usually dug

into the earth during the construction of the building to which they belonged. The Palace in Dedoplis Gora must have been built at the very beginning of the 1st century B.C.

Lamps (cat. nos. 118–124)

Lamps were found in almost every room of the Palace. In form, they are small, bowl-like, and are provided with a lip. Two types of lamps can be distinguished: Lamps of type I (cat. nos. 118–121) are basically bowls with a rounded base, and an incurved rim with a lip. They are made of well-refined clay, with the exception of a single specimen (cat. no. 120), the clay of which has an admixture of white particles. All of them have been turned on the wheel and smoothed by hand. There are as yet no parallels for this type of lamp in East Georgia.

Lamps of type II (cat. nos. 122–124) have flat bases and incurved rims. Their clay is pinkish, and contains in some cases mica. Similar lamps were common in East Georgian sites (Samadlo, Mtskheta, Dzalisi and elsewhere) in the Hellenistic and Roman periods. The same kind of lamp is also found in Armavir and Garni in the 3rd–1st centuries B.C.⁵⁷¹

Lamps excavated in East Georgia date, for the most part, to the Early Hellenistic period, and most of them are found in tombs.⁵⁷² Thus far, only one fragment of a red-painted, imported Roman lamp with floral ornamentation in relief has been found – in Bargikaria, on a floor level dated to the 1st century A.D.⁵⁷³

In the Palace of Dedoplis Gora, vessels are often preserved only as fragments (rim and body sherd, base and body sherd, etc.), which makes determination of the original shape and classification difficult. Only particularly interesting specimens are presented here (cat. nos. 125–143).

⁵⁶⁴ Their height ranges from 60 to 74 cm; the diam. of the rim is 20–28 cm; the max. diam. of the body is 55–57 cm; and that of the base is 15.6–16 cm.

⁵⁶⁵ Bokhochadze 1963, 140.

⁵⁶⁶ Narimanishvili 1991, fig. 31.

⁵⁶⁷ Bokhochadze 1963, 141.

⁵⁶⁸ Khakhutaishvili 1964, 57; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 128, pl. 24.3, 4.

⁵⁶⁹ Tsereteli 1988, 138.

⁵⁷⁰ Narimanishvili 1991, figs. 1, 2, 4–21. The type of rim of the pithoi from Dedoplis Gora is untypical for Achaemenian and early Hellenistic pithoi.

⁵⁷¹ Tiratsian 1988, 119, pl. 34.6.

⁵⁷² Narimanishvili 1991, 20.

⁵⁷³ Apakidze 1991, 80.

Catalog (Plates 17–31)

1. Balsamarium

GNM FA A 142: 2628.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

H. 9.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 3 cm; Diam. of the neck 2.5 cm; Diam. of the body 7.1 cm; Diam. of the base 3.4 cm.

Burnt. Grayish clay, reddish in places, well-refined with an admixture of mica and sand. The surface damaged. Skillful work. Thin-walled. Bulging body, splaying rim and small, flat base.

Analogies: Toll 1946, pl. 46; Amiran et al. 1963, 17; Balabanov 1979, 25, figs. 3b, 6b; Wright 1980, 159, fig. 99.

2. Balsamarium

GNM FA A 142: 2629.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

H. 8.3 cm; Diam. of the neck 1.5 cm; Diam. of the body 3.9 cm; Diam. of the base 1.5 cm.

Burnt. Grayish clay, in places, reddish, well-refined with a slight admixture of mica. Outside four ribbed bands around the body. Fine work. Thin-walled. The rim broken and filed smooth in Antiquity. Small, flat base.

Analogies: Toll 1946, 106, fig. 22, pls. 38, 46; Gaidukevich 1952, 17, fig. 67; Gaidukevich 1959, 216 f., fig. 83.2; Pogrebova 1961, 111; Boulter 1963, 111; Hayes 1973, 463, 467; Maksimova 1979, 131, fig. 63; Buiukliev 1986, 45, 65, pl. 216; Hayes 1998, 86 f.

3. Balsamarium

GNM 27- 977: 1073.

Found in Room 3.

H. 14.8 cm; H. of the neck 5.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.3 cm; Diam. of the neck 2.0–2.6 cm; Diam. of the body 5 cm; Diam. of the base 3.3 cm.

Brown-reddish, coarse-grained clay with admixture of mica and sand. The surface rough and uneven. Inside and outside the surface decorated with four ribbed bands around the body. The same kind of bands inside the neck. Long, conical body, broad, flat base, long, tall neck and flat rim bent outward.

Analogies: Arakelian 1957, 53, fig. 21; Hayes 1973, 467, fig. 243d.

4. Balsamarium

GNM 27- 977: 6217.

Found in Room 13.

Pres. H. 9.6 cm; Diam. of the body 5.4 cm; Diam. of the base 3.8 cm.

Part of rim and neck missing. Brown-reddish, coarse-grained clay with admixture of mica and sand. The surface rough and uneven. Outside the surface decorated with ribbed bands around the body. Long, conical body and broad, flat base.

Analogies: See cat. no. 3.

5. Balsamarium

GNM 27- 977: 1195.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part.

Diam. of the rim 3.6 cm; Th. 0.2 cm.

Rim and neck sherds of grayish-brownish, well-refined clay. Thin-walled. Outside varnish-like, black-glazed band around the neck.

Analogies: Berdzenishvili 1963, 523 f., fig. 1; Hayes 1973, 467.

6. Cosmetics vessel

GNM 27- 977: 1194.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part.

H. 5.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 4.3 cm; Diam. of the body 6.2 cm; Diam. of the base 3.9 cm.

Rim-, base- and body sherds of grayish-white, well-refined clay.

Analogies: Toll 1946, 104, pl. 51.

7. Cosmetics vessel

GNM 27- 977: 6425.

Found in Room 13.

Pres. H. 6 cm; Diam. of the rim 4.6 cm; Diam. of the body 6.5 cm.

Rim and body sherds of grayish-white, well-refined clay.

Analogies: See cat. no. 6.

8. Lagynos-like vessel

GNM 27- 977: 6216.

Found in Room 13.

H. 27.5 cm; H. of the neck 8 cm; H. of the base 1 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.9 cm; Diam. of the neck 3.6 cm; Diam. of the body 18.9 cm; Diam. of the base 7.8 cm.

Badly burnt; in places, the clay almost vitrified. Brownish-reddish clay with admixture of glistening, white particles. Outside shoulder and base decorated with horizontal ribbed bands. Spreading, flattened rim, a long, narrow, cylindrical neck and a bulging body. The flattened double handle attached at the base of the neck and the shoulder.

Analogies: Farmakovski 1903, 53, fig. 57; Shkorpil 1904, 149 f., fig. 46; Blavatski 1953, 51, 52; Gaidukevich 1959, 382, fig. 65.5; Parovich-Peshikan 1974, 98, fig. 88.4; Sokolova 1984, pl. 2.18; Franchi dell'Orto/Varone 1994, no. 166; Hayes 1998, figs. 5, 6, 28, 39.

9. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6400.

Found in Room 14.

H. 7 cm; Diam. of the rim 16.2 cm; Diam. of the base 7.2 cm.

Reddish, well-refined clay. The inner and outer surface red-slipped and polished.

Bowls of the same type:

GNM 27- 977: 6385

Found in Room 11.

Burnt. Rim-, base- and body sherds of yellowish clay. Surface with a red slip and wheel-marks.

Analogies: Thompson 1934, 431; Toll 1946, 109, fig. 37; Babenchikov 1957, pl. 7.8; Silantieva 1958, pl. 4.1;

Puturidze 1965, 101, fig.7; Licheli 1977, fig. 24.6; Dashevskaja 1980, 90, fig. 4; Apakidze et al. 1982, 37, pl. 59.14; Ksenofontova 1984, 139, pl. 6.1, 2; Buiukliev 1986, 45, pls. 21.322, 323; Meyer-Schlichtman 1988, pl. 46, nos. 2, 3; Harrison 1992, 216, figs. 4-8.

10. Bowl

GNM 227- 977: 6414.

Found in Room 11.

H. 7 cm; Diam. of the rim 16 cm; Diam. of the base 7 cm.

Brownish, well-refined clay. The inner and outer surface red-slipped and polished. The base decorated with polished concentric bands.

Analogies: See cat. no. 9.

11. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 5496.

Found in Room 5.

H. 5.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 12.6 cm; Diam. of the base 5.2 cm.

Burnt and damaged. Yellowish-white, well-refined clay. The inner and outer surface red-slipped and polished. A graffito "A" incised on the base.

Analogies: See cat. no. 9.

12. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6485.

Found in the debris of the Palace.

H. 7 cm; Diam. of the rim 17.8 cm; Diam. of the base 7.2 cm.

Yellowish-gray, well-refined clay. The outer and inner surface red-slipped with wheel marks. A graffito "A" scratched on the base.

Analogies: See cat. no. 9.

13. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6413.

Found in the debris of the Palace.

H. 5 cm; Diam. of the rim 15.3 cm; Diam. of the base 5.4 cm.

Brownish clay. The surface brownish-slipped and polished. A small plate with a splaying rim and a low base.

14. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6401.

Found in Room 14.

H. 8 cm; Diam. of the rim 20.4 cm; Diam. of the base 9.4 cm.

Reddish-brown clay. The surface slipped.

Analogies: Gaidukevich 1952, 202, fig. 115.8; Chilashvili 1964, 40, fig. 18; Parovich-Peshikan 1974, 88, figs. 82.4, 5; Arsenieva 1977, 51, 79, pls. 19.4, 26.2, 27.1; Jinjikhshvili 1980, 56, pls. 41.4, 44.5; Kazakhashvili 1980, pls. 51.7; 54.5; 56.3; Tolordava 1980, 22 f., 32, pls. 15.4, 22.4, 30.4; Gagoshidze 1981a, 11, pl. 6.45; Apakidze et al. 1982, 37, pl. 59.15; Gagoshidze 1982, 37 f., pl. 3.3; Lordkipanidze et al. 1983, 50, 66, 68, figs. 176, 274, 295; Arch. USSR 1984, 91, pl. 50.9, 10;

Ramishvili et al. 1985, 58 f., pl. 89.10, 11; Bragvadze 1993, fig. 6.92.

15. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6291.

Found in Room 12.

H. 7.0 cm; H. of the base 0.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 23.2 cm; Diam. of the base 9.6 cm.

Burnt. Brownish clay. Decorated inside and outside with brownish-red, straight and wavy bands.

Bowls of the same type:

- GNM 27- 977: 1075.

Found in Room 3.

H. 7 cm; H. of the base 1 cm; Diam. of the rim 21 cm; Diam. of the base 7.3 cm.

Burnt and deformed.

- GNM 27- 977: 6197.

Found in Room 10.

Diam. of the rim 22 cm.

Rim-, base- and body sherds. Red-slipped.

- GNM 27- 977: 6231.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 18 cm; Th. 1 cm. Rim- and body sherds.

Pink clay. Uneven surface. The rim decorated with ribbed bands inside, the body with a yellowish-brown band.

- GNM 27-977:2632.

Found in Room 2, on the floor.

Diam. of the rim 18 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pinkish clay. The surface slipped.

- GNM 27- 977: 6484.

Found in Room 7.

Diam. of the rim 18 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pinkish-red clay. On the surface traces of red bands preserved.

- GNM 27-977:6232.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 14 cm. Rim, base and body sherds.

Burnt and deformed.

- GNM 27- 977: 1193.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part, in the wall debris.

Th. 0.5 cm.

Rim and body sherds. Pink clay. The surface slipped.

- GNM 27- 977: 2053.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part.

Diam. of the rim 21 cm.

Burnt. Rim and body sherds.

16. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6290.

Found in Room 12.

H. 7.5 cm; H. of the base 0.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 22 cm; Diam. of the base 11.4 cm.

Fragment. Pinkish clay with nonplastics. Decorated inside with one wavy and three straight brown bands and outside with a wavy broad reddish band.

Analogies: See cat. no.14.

17. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6331.

Found in Room 11.

H. 9.2 cm; H. of the base 0.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 20 cm; Diam. of the base 8 cm.

Inside the base decorated with a circle in high relief.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

18. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6292.

Found in Room 12.

H. 6.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 18 cm.

Rim and body sherds of light pink slipped clay with some nonplastics.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

19. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 2160.

Found in Room 1, at the western wall.

H. 7 cm; Diam. of the rim 16.8 cm.

Rim and body sherds of yellowish clay. Inside and outside decorated with brown bands.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

20. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 1191.

Found in Room 1.

Diam. of the rim 22.8 cm; Th. 0.6–0.7 cm.

Burnt. Rim and body sherds of black clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

21. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6303.

Found in Room 12.

Diam. of the rim 17 cm; Th. 0.5 cm.

Burnt. Rim and body sherds of black clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

22. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 1083.

Found in Room 3.

Diam. of the rim 24 cm; Th. 0.7 cm.

Burnt. Rim and body sherds of black clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

23. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 2247.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part, in the wall debris.

Diam. of the rim 11 cm; Th. 0.7 cm.

Rim and body sherds of grayish-black clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

24. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 2242.

Found on the courtyard, in the south, in the wall debris.

Diam. of the rim 15 cm; Th. 0.7 cm.

Rim and body sherds of grayish-black clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

25. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6149.

Found on the courtyard.

Diam. of the rim 11 cm.

Rim and body sherds of grayish clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

26. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6332.

Found in Room 11.

H. 4.5 cm; H. of the base 0.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 13.1 cm; Diam. of the base 6.4 cm.

Pinkish clay. The surface slipped.

Analogies: See cat. no.14.

27. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6289.

Found in Room 12.

H. 4.4 cm; H. of the base 0.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 12.4 cm; Diam. of the base 6.3 cm.

Pinkish-brown clay.

Analogies: See cat. no.14.

28. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6288.

Found in Room 12.

H. 3.6 cm; H. of the base 0.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.3 cm; Diam. of the base 6.5 cm.

Brownish clay with admixture of mica.

Analogies: See cat. no.14.

29. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6298.

Found in Room 12.

H. 5.6 cm; H. of the base 0.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.5 cm; foot Diam. 6.2 cm.

Burnished inside. Pinkish clay. Inside and outside slipped and polished.

Analogies: See cat. no.14.

30. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6330.

Found in Room 11.

H. 9.7 cm; H. of the base 0.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 22 cm; Diam. of the base 10.2 cm.

Pink clay. The surface slipped and outside decorated with narrow red bands.

Bowl of the same type:

GNM 27- 977: 6295

Found in Room 12.

H. 8.9 cm; H. of the base 0.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 19 cm; Diam. of the base 7.3 cm. Burnt and deformed. Pink clay. The surface slipped.

31. Bowl

GNM 27-977: 1074.

Found in Room 2.

H. of the base 0.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 19 cm; Diam. of the base 9.4 cm.

Base and body sherds of light pinkish clay. The surface slipped and inside polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 30.

32. Bowl

GNM 27-977: 6189.

Found in Room 10.

H. 9.5 cm; H. of the base 0.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 26.2 cm; Diam. of the base 10.2 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pinkish clay. The surface slipped.

Analogies: See cat. no. 30.

33. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6161.

Found in Room 9.

H. 4.5 cm; H. of the rim 2 cm; H. of the base 0.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 13 cm; Diam. of the base 6 cm.

Burnished inside. Pinkish clay. Inside decorated with polished lines.

Analogies: Koridze 1958, pl. 10.9; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 127, pl. 23.2; Mamuladze 1979, pl. 42.2, 3, 4; Tolordava 1980, 32, pl. 29.2, 3; Bokhochadze 1981, 23, 26, 34, figs. 52.1, 2, pl. 25.1; 58; Mirianashvili 1983, 40, fig. 58; Ramishvili et al. 1985, pl. 89.9; Apakidze et al. 1987, 50, pl. 93.1; Narimanishvili 1991, 43, figs. 806, 807, 809-816; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 65, 79, figs. 466, 471, 665, 678.

34. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6293.

Found in Room 12.

H. 4.8 cm; H. of the rim 2 cm; H. of the base 0.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 12.8 cm; Diam. of the base 6.8 cm.

Burnt. Pinkish clay. The surface covered with a red, uneven slip.

Analogies: See cat. no. 33.

35. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 1057.

Found in Room 2.

H. 5.6 cm; H. of the rim 2.5 cm; H. of the base 1 cm; Diam. of the rim 18.2 cm; Diam. of the base 9.1 cm.

The base burnished. Pinkish clay. The surface slipped and polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 33.

36. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6297.

Found in Room 12.

H. 5 cm; H. of the rim 1.8 cm; H. of the base 0.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 13 cm; Diam. of the base 6.1 cm.

Pinkish clay. The surface slipped and polished. The base inside decorated with incised, concentric circles. The center of the base slightly raised.

Analogies: See cat. no. 33.

37. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6298.

Found in Room 12.

H. 3.4 cm; H. of the rim 1.7 cm; H. of the base 0.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 7.8 cm; Diam. of the base 4.4 cm.

Inside burnished. Pinkish clay. The surface slipped and polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 33.

38. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 5491.

Found in Room 5.

H. 6.3 cm; H. of the rim 2.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 23.2 cm; Diam. of the base 10 cm.

Burnished. Light pinkish clay. The surface red-slipped and inside decorated with narrow, brownish-red painted, concentric bands.

Bowl of the same type:

GNM 27- 977: 6268

Found in Room 13.

Rim H. 2.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 21 cm.

Rim and body sherd of pinkish clay. The surface slipped.

Analogies: Chilashvili 1964, 38, fig. 40; Narimanishvili 1991, 43, figs. 726, 728, 730; Bragvadze 1993, fig. 6.92.

39. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6334.

Found in Room 11.

H. 5.8 cm; H. of the rim 3.1 cm; H. of the base 0.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 22 cm; Diam. of the base 11.2 cm.

Pinkish clay. The surface red-slipped and inside decorated with pale radial lines.

Analogies: See cat. no. 38.

40. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6296.

Found in Room 12.

H. 6.8 cm; H. of the rim 2.5 cm; H. of the base 0.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 23.6 cm; Diam. of the base 11.8 cm.

Pinkish clay. The surface slipped.

Analogies: See cat. no. 38.

41. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6235.

Found in Room 13.

H. 6.3 cm; H. of the rim 2.1 cm; H. of the base 0.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 19.4 cm; Diam. of the base 8.8 cm.

Light pinkish clay with admixture of silvery-glistening particles. The surface covered with a red slip and inside with weakly radial lines.

Analogies: See cat. no. 38.

42. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6334.

Found in Room 11.

H. 5 cm; Diam. of the rim 22.8 cm; Diam. of the base 10.5 cm.

Light pinkish clay. The surface red-slipped and inside decorated with weakly burnished radial lines.

Analogies: See cat. no. 38.

43. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 1056.

Found in Room 2.

H. 6.2 cm; H. of the rim 3.2 cm; H. of the base 0.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 21.6 cm; Diam. of the base 10.4 cm.

Burnt. Black clay. The surface polished.

Analogies: See cat. no. 38.

44. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6402.

Found in Room 14.

H. 8.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 17.6 cm; Diam. of the base 9.3 cm.

Brownish, well-refined clay. Outside and inside the surface decorated with broad bands of reddish paint.

Analogies: Knipovich 1953, 303, 315, figs. 3.6, 11.3, 4; Dashevskaja 1980, 94, fig. 4.10; Arch. USSR 1984, 91, pl. 50.13.

45. Bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6186, 6178.

Found in Room 10.

H. 6.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 13.5 cm; Diam. of the base 6.5 cm.

Burnt. Grayish clay. Outside traces of painted, brown bands preserved.

Analogies: See cat. no. 44.

46. Lipped bowl

GNM 27- 977: 6335.

Found in Room 11.

H. 10.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 28.4 cm; Diam. of the base 11.2 cm.

Made of light yellowish clay. The rim bent inward with a broad lip. The vessel deep, heavy and thick-walled. Two knobs set opposite one another on the sides of the vessel, possibly rudiments of handles. The lip decorated with two bulges on each side.

47. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6311.

Found in Room 12.

H. 18 cm; Diam. of the rim 6.6 cm; Diam. of the body 15.1 cm; Diam. of the base 10.1 cm.

Pinkish, well-refined clay with some nonplastics.

Jugs of the same type:

- GNM 27- 977: 6445.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 6 cm.

Rim and neck sherds of pinkish clay.

- GNM 27- 977: 6302.

Found in Room 12.

H. 9 cm; Diam. of the rim 5.5 cm; Diam. of the body 9.7 cm; Diam. of the base 6.7 cm.

Burnt and deformed.

- GNM 27- 977: 6230.

Found in Room 13.

Burnt and deformed.

Analogies: Koridze 1958, 59, figs. 18, 19, pl. 9.5, 6; Chilashvili 1964, 55, pl. 13.2; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 126, pl. 23.1; Kazakhashvili 1980, pl. 54.3; Tolordava 1980, 26 f., 30, 54, pls. 42, 26.1, 2; Mirianashvili 1983, 36-38, fig. 43; Narimanishvili 1991, 33, figs. 390, 394, 399, 417, 419, 421, 426 et passim; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 67, figs. 491, 510; Shatberashvili 1999, pl. 3.101-1.

48. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6180.

Found in Room 10.

H. 13.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 5.5 cm; Diam. of the body 13.4 cm; Diam. of the base 8.6 cm.

Burnt. Discolored. Outside traces of brown-painted bands preserved.

Analogies: See cat. no. 47.

49. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6338.

Found in Room 11.

H. 30 cm; Diam. of the rim 10.4 cm; Diam. of the body 27.8 cm; Diam. of the base 14.8 cm.

Pinkish-grayish clay.

Jugs of the same type:

- GNM 27- 977: 6246.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 12 cm.

Rim, neck and handle sherds of pinkish-yellowish clay.

- GNM 27- 977: 6339.

Found in Room 11.

H. 31.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 12 cm; Diam. of the body 28 cm; Diam. of the base 15 cm.

Yellowish clay.

- GNM 27- 977: 6228.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 12 cm; Diam. of the base 17 cm.

Burnt. Sherds of pinkish clay with white nonplastics.

- GNM 27- 977: 1060, 6133, 6236.

Found in Rooms 2, 7, 13.

Burnt and deformed sherds.

Analogies: Bragvadze 1993, pl. 6.1.

50. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6340.

Found in Room 11.

H. 34.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 10.4 cm; Diam. of the body 30.2 cm; Diam. of the base 17.2 cm.

Pinkish clay.

Analogies: See cat. no. 49.

51. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6411.

Found on the courtyard, south of the pillars in front of Rooms 1 and 2, on the floor.

H. 33.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.4 cm; Diam. of the body 27 cm; Diam. of the base 17 cm.

Pinkish clay.

Analogies: See cat. no. 49.

52. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6480.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 12 cm.

Burnt. Sherds of pinkish-brownish clay.

Analogies: See cat. no. 49.

53. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6312.

Found in Room 12.

Diam. of the rim 8 cm.

Rim, handle and body sherds of pinkish-yellowish, well-refined clay.

Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 85, pl. 51.3; 1970, pl. 31.1; Abramishvili 1976, 29, pl. 11.1; Nikolaishvili 1978, 97, pl. 47.29; Khakhutaishvili 1970, pl. 55.1; Tolordava 1980, 32, 74, pls. 45.1, 43, 28.1; Mirianashvili 1983, 37, fig. 35; Ramishvili et al. 1985, 59, pl. 89.1, 3; Narimanishvili 1991, 35, figs. 509, 575.

54. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6416.

Found in Room 11.

H. 24.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 10.2 cm; Diam. of the body 21.9 cm; Diam. of the base 13.1 cm.

Trefoil orifice. Thin-walled. Pinkish clay. Outside the surface painted with red lines of different shape.

Analogies: Makalatia 1928, 180, fig. 5; Kalandadze 1949, 284, fig. 3; Tolordava 1963, 142, pl. 5.2; Khakhutaishvili 1964, 91, pl. 51.1; Chilashvili 1964, 47, pl. 13.1; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 134, pl. 33.1; Mamuladze 1970, 85-90, pl. 39.2; Nadiradze 1975, 124, pl. 32.2; Jinjhashvili 1980, 42-59, pl. 41.1; Tekhov 1980, 102, pl. 50.1; Tolordava 1980, 32, 48, 49, pls. 33.2, 40.6; Mirianashvili 1983, 26 f., fig. 42; Narimanishvili 1991, 30, figs. 331-335, 337, 347-350; Bragvadze 1993, 37, fig. 7.93.

55. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6304.

Found in Room 12.

H. 13.1 cm; Diam. of the rim 6 cm; Diam. of the body 11.5 cm; Diam. of the base 6.8 cm.

Trefoil orifice. Pinkish clay with white nonplastics. Outside decorated with painted reddish-brownish bands.

Analogies: See cat. no. 54.

56. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6341.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 6.3 cm.

Trefoil orifice. Rim, handle and body sherds of yellowish-pinkish clay.

Analogies: See cat. no. 54.

57. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6403.

Found in Room 14.

Diam. of the rim 13.5 cm.

Burnt and deformed. Rim, handle and body sherds. Trefoil orifice. Outside the body painted with a wavy band and a stair motif.

Analogies: See cat. no. 54.

58. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6337.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 8 cm.

Burnt and deformed. Rim, handle and body sherds. Trefoil orifice. Pinkish clay. Outside the body painted with brownish bands and dots.

Analogies: See cat. no. 54.

59. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6225.

Found in Room 13.

H. 41.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 12 cm; Diam. of the body 34.6 cm; Diam. of the base 18.6 cm.

Trefoil orifice. Pinkish-grayish clay with admixture of white nonplastics.

60. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 5490.

Found in Room 5.

H. 22 cm; Diam. of the rim 10 cm; Diam. of the body 18.2 cm; Diam. of the base 11.4 cm.

Pinkish clay with some admixture of white nonplastics. Rough surface, outside decorated with bands and dots in red paint. Ribbed neck.

61. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6281.

Found in Room 13.

H. 17.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 8 cm; Diam. of the body 17.4 cm; Diam. of the base 9.8 cm.

Grayish clay. The surface slightly polished. Outside traces of straight and wavy painted bands preserved. The whole surface covered with fine wheelmarks. The neck ribbed. The jug had been corked with a ball of clay and was sealed (cf. cat. of bullae no. 3).

Analogies: Koridze 1958, pl. 22.1; Apakidze et al. 1978a, 53, fig. 310; Apakidze et al. 1978b, 141, fig. 678; Kazakhashvili 1980, pl. 56.2; Tolordava 1980, 48, pl. 40.5; Mirianashvili 1983, 43, figs. 38, 39; Ramishvili et al. 1985, 59, pl. 89.6; Nikolaishvili 1993, pls. 100.3, 102.1, 2; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 67, 80, figs. 492, 511, 686, 684.

62. Jug

GNM 27- 977: 6220.

- Found in Room 13.
H. 14.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 7 cm; Diam. of the body 13.6 cm; Diam. of the base 7.4 cm.
Burnt. Yellowish, well-refined clay with nonplastics. The neck ribbed.
Analogies: See cat. no. 61.
63. Jug
GNM 27-977: 6378.
Found in Room 11.
Diam. of the rim 12 cm; Th. 0.6 cm.
Fragment. Burnt. Yellowish clay. Wheel-marks. Outside traces of brownish painting preserved. The neck ribbed.
Analogies: See cat. no. 61.
64. Jug
GNM 27- 977: 6222.
Found in Room 13.
H. 30 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.2 cm; Diam. of the body 26.6 cm; Diam. of the base 16.6 cm.
Yellowish clay. The neck ribbed. Two twinned handles. Corked with a ball of clay (GNM 27- 977: 6206) and sealed.
Jug of the same type:
- GNM 27- 977: 6211. Found in Room 10.
Burnt and deformed. The neck ribbed. Two-handled.
Analogies: Kuftin 1950, pls. 1, 3; Abramishvili 1984, 33, pl. 37; Katcharava/Mjhavanadze 1986, 33, fig. 17.4; Pirtskhalava/Kipiani 1986, 71, figs. 52.1–3.
65. Jug
GNM 27- 977: 6343.
Found in Room 11.
H. 30 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.4 cm; Diam. of the body 24.4 cm; Diam. of the base 16 cm.
Burnt. Pinkish-yellowish, well-refined clay. Traces of a slip and of decoration in reddish paint preserved. Two-handled. The neck ribbed.
Analogies: See cat. no. 64.
66. Jug
GNM 27- 977: 6314.
Found in Room 12.
H. 24.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 10.2 cm; Diam. of the body 21 cm; Diam. of the base 13 cm.
Brownish-grayish, well-refined clay. The surface covered with a reddish slip, traces of painted decoration preserved. Two-handled. The neck ribbed.
Analogies: See cat. no. 64.
67. Jug
GNM 27- 977: 1055.
Found in Room 2.
H. 22.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 10.2 cm; Diam. of the body 21.2 cm; Diam. of the base 13.2 cm.
Burnt. Yellowish-grayish clay. Trace of reddish slip. Inside the rim decorated with an engraved band. Two-handled (one twinned and one twisted handle). The neck ribbed.
Analogies: See cat. no. 64.
68. Jug
GNM 27- 977: 6344.
Found in Room 11.
H. 40.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 13 cm; Diam. of the body 33.4 cm; Diam. of the base 19.2 cm.
Pinkish-grayish clay. The surface covered with a reddish slip. Two twinned handles. The neck ribbed.
Analogies: See cat. no. 64.
69. Mug
GNM 27- 977: 6412.
Found in Room 11.
H. 18.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 17.1 cm; Diam. of the base 7.6 cm.
Pink clay. The vessel walls tapering downward, the base sloping. The handle attached at the base.
70. Miniature vessel
GNM 27- 977: 6301.
Found in Room 12.
H. 6.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 5.7 cm; Diam. of the body 7.5 cm; Diam. of the base 5.2 cm.
Light pinkish clay. In places sooty. One-handled.
Vessels of the same type:
- GNM 27- 977: 6355.
Found in Room 11.
Diam. of the rim 6 cm.
Fragment of pinkish-brownish clay with admixture of white nonplastics.
- GNM 27- 977: 6274, 6425.
Found in Room 13.
Diam. of the rim 4 cm.
Fragment of a grayish clay with admixture of white nonplastics.
- GNM 27- 977: 6387, 6389, 6426.
Fragments.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 117, pl. 7.1–4; Mamuladze 1979, pl. 39.3; Kazakhashvili 1980, pl. 55.4; Tolordava 1980, pl. 38.3, 4; Lomtadidze 1989, pl. 14.8; Narimanishvili 1991, figs. 246, 247–249 and on; Nikolaishvili 1993, 57, pl. 73.1, 2; Shatberashvili 1999, figs. 101–102.
71. Miniature vessel
GNM 27- 977: 6354.
Found in Room 11.
Diam. of the rim 7 cm.
Fragment of reddish clay with admixture of white nonplastics. Coarse.
Analogies: See cat. no. 70.
72. Cooking-pot
GNM 27- 977: 6306.
Found in Room 12.
H. 11.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.9 cm; Diam. of the body 12.9 cm; Diam. of the base 8 cm.
Pinkish clay with nonplastics. The surface elaborated roughly. One-handled.
Pots of the same type:

- GNM 27- 977: 6221.

Found in Room 13.

H. 10.5 cm.

Burnt and deformed. One-handled.

- GNM 27- 977: 6360.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 21 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pink clay with admixture of white nonplastics. The surface slipped. Traces of painting preserved.

Analogies: Japaridze 1956, fig. 10; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 127, pl. 23.3; Nikolaishvili 1978, 97, pl. 50; Jinjikhashvili 1980, 44, 46 pls. 40.4, 43.1; Tolordava 1980, 32, 55, 56, pls. 28.3, 45.3, 46.2; Lomtadze 1989, 79, 80, pl. 14.7; Makharadze 1990, fig. 17, pl. 3; Bragvadze 1993, 37, fig. 6.92; Apakidze et al. 1995a, 49 f., fig. 325.

73. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6307.

Found in Room 12.

H. 12 cm; Diam. of the rim 10 cm; Diam. of the body 14.6 cm; Diam. of the base 8.5 cm.

Pinkish clay with admixture of white nonplastics. Rough surface. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

74. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6308.

Found in Room 12.

H. 11.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 9.8 cm; Diam. of the body 14.6 cm; Diam. of the base 9.4 cm.

Pinkish clay. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

75. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6219.

Found in Room 13.

H. 14.1 cm; Diam. of the rim 11 cm; Diam. of the body 15.6 cm; Diam. of the base 10.7 cm.

Brownish clay. Sooty. Rough surface. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

76. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6305.

Found in Room 13.

H. 9.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.6 cm; Diam. of the body 12.5 cm; Diam. of the base 8.1 cm.

Brownish clay. Sooty. Rough surface. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

77. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 2062.

Found on the courtyard, in the center.

H. 16 cm; Diam. of the rim 12.4 cm; Diam. of the body 19.6 cm.

Brownish-pinkish, porous clay with admixture of coarse white nonplastics. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

78. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6369.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 13 cm; Diam. of the body 20.6 cm.

Handmade. Burnt. Brownish-reddish clay, containing coarse-grained white admixture. Coarse. At the base of the handle a cross incised. One handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

79. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6309.

Found in Room 12.

H. 13 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.6 cm; Diam. of the body 12.4 cm; Diam. of the base 7.3 cm.

Handmade. Brownish-grayish clay with admixture of mica particles. Rough. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

80. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6336.

Found in Room 11.

H. 9.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 7.9 cm; Diam. of the body 11.3 cm; Diam. of the base 6.5 cm.

Grayish-brownish clay with admixture of white nonplastics. Rough surface. Coarse. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

81. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6218.

Found in Room 13.

H. 11.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 9.3 cm; Diam. of the body 14 cm; Diam. of the base 9.3 cm.

Light pinkish clay. Rough surface, outside with light red-painted bands and dots. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

82. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6282.

Found in Room 13.

H. 19 cm; Diam. of the rim 14 cm; Diam. of the body 20 cm; Diam. of the base 12.4 cm.

Handmade. Reddish-brownish clay with admixture of muscovite. Rough surface. Coarse. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

83. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6380.

Found in Room 11.

H. 18 cm; Diam. of the rim 12.6 cm; Diam. of the body 21 cm; Diam. of the base 14.2 cm.

Pink clay with admixture of coarse white nonplastics. One-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

84. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 1062.

Found in Room 2.

Diam. of the rim 12.6 cm; Diam. of the body 18 cm.

Fragment. Burnt and deformed. Pinkish-brownish clay with admixture of coarse white nonplastics.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

85. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6386.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 15.8 cm; Diam. of the body 24.4 cm.

Fragment. Pinkish clay with admixture of coarse white nonplastics.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

86. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6238.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 13.4 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pinkish clay with admixture of white nonplastics.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

87. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6325.

Found in Room 12.

H. 13.1 cm; Diam. of the body 14 cm; Diam. of the base 10.4 cm.

Handmade. Base, handle and body sherds of red-dish-pinkish clay with admixture of muscovite and white nonplastics. Coarse.

Analogies: See cat. no. 72.

88. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6181.

Found in Room 10.

H. 11.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.5 cm; Diam. of the body 13.4 cm; Diam. of the base 7.8 cm.

Brownish clay with admixture of mica. Outside the surface decorated with red-painted straight and dotted bands. An "A" incised on the base. Rounded rim. One-handled.

Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 127, pl. 23.3; Narimanishvili 1991, fig. 646.

89. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6167.

Found on the courtyard, south of the pillar in front of Room 9.

Diam. of the rim 14 cm.

Rim and neck sherd of pinkish-brownish clay. Outside the neck decorated with brownish straight and dotted bands. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 88.

90. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6365.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 14.5 cm.

Rim and neck sherds of pinkish-brownish clay. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 88.

91. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6454.

Diam. of the rim 15.5 cm.

Rim and body sherds of yellowish clay. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 88.

92. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6366.

Diam. of the rim 17 cm.

Rim and body sherds of yellowish clay. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 88.

93. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6367.

Diam. of the rim 12 cm.

Rim and body sherds of yellowish clay. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 88.

94. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6241.

Rim and body sherds of yellowish clay. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 88.

95. Pot

GNM 27- 977: 6194.

Found in Room 10.

Diam. of the rim 15 cm.

Fragment. One handle from rim to shoulder of brownish-reddish clay with some admixture of white nonplastics.

Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 133, pl. 31.4; Kazhashvili 1980, pl. 52.5; Narimanishvili 1991, figs. 632-645, 660.

96. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6382.

Found in Room 11.

H. 37.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 12 cm; Diam. of the body 30 cm; Diam. of the base 16.8 cm.

Pinkish, well-refined clay. The surface slipped. Two-handled.

Jar of the same type:

- GNM 27- 977: 6210.

Found in Room 10.

Diam. of the rim 12 cm.

Burnt and deformed. Two-handled.

Analogies: Nioradze 1940, 17, fig. 18, pl. 9; Ismizade 1956, 72, pls. 3.3, 12.1; Gagoshidze 1979, 80; Gagoshidze 1981a, pls. 4.11, 8.79, 20.238, 53.773; Mirianashvili 1983, 19, fig. 40; Ramishvili 1978, pl. 144.9; Nikolaishvili 1993, 16-19, pl. 24.11, 12; Chikhladze 1998, 58 f.

97. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6415.

Found in Room 5.

H. 37.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 10.8 cm; Diam. of the body 30 cm; Diam. of the base 18 cm.

Pinkish, well-refined clay. The surface slipped. Two-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 96.

98. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6204.

Found in Room 10.

H. 35.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 13.6 cm; Diam. of the body 32 cm; Diam. of the base 17.8 cm.

Pinkish, well-refined clay. The surface slipped. Two-handled.

Analogies: See cat. no. 96.

99. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6345.

Found in Room 11.

H. 37 cm; Diam. of the rim 12 cm; Diam. of the body 30 cm; Diam. of the base 16 cm.

Pinkish, well-refined clay with admixture of fine, white nonplastics. Outside red-painted decoration. Two-handled. The neck ribbed.

Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 134, pl. 33.3; Gigolashvili et al. 1979, 57, figs. 29-154; Mirianashvili 1983, 50; Bragvadze 1993, 37, fig. 7.93.

100. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6315.

Found in Room 12.

H. 37.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 13 cm; Diam. of the body 30.2 cm; Diam. of the base 17 cm.

Brownish-pinkish, well-refined clay. The surface red-slipped. Two-handled. The neck ribbed.

Analogies: See cat. no. 99.

101. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6346.

Found in Room 11.

H. 36.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 13 cm; Diam. of the body 27 cm; Diam. of the base 16 cm.

Pinkish, well-refined clay. On the surface traces of slip preserved. Two-handled. The neck double-ribbed.

102. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6212.

Found in Room 10.

H. of the neck 5 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.3 cm; Th. 0.6 cm.

Burnt and deformed. Rim and neck sherds of pinkish clay with some admixture of nonplastics. The neck ribbed.

Analogies: See cat. no. 99.

103. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6147.

Found on the courtyard.

H. of the neck 5 cm; Diam. of the rim 11.8 cm; Th. of clay 0.6 cm.

Rim and neck sherds of brownish-pinkish clay. The neck ribbed.

Analogies: See cat. no. 99.

104. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6223.

H. 35.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 17.4 cm; Diam. of the body 35.2 cm; Diam. of the base 19.4 cm.

Grayish clay. Around the neck a broad rib. Outside rim and shoulder decorated with dotted and straight red-painted bands. Two-handled. Broad, rounded rim.

105. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6283.

Found in Room 11.

H. 30 cm; Diam. of the rim 18.6 cm; Diam. of the body 29.8 cm; Diam. of the base 15.6 cm.

Grayish clay. The shoulder decorated with incised wavy and straight bands and notched dots. Two-handled. Broad, rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 104.

106. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6313.

Found in Room 12.

Pres. H. 34 cm; Diam. of the rim 17 cm; Diam. of the body 34 cm.

Incomplete. Brownish clay. The surface outside decorated with red paintings. Rounded rim.

Analogies: See cat. no. 104.

107. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6183.

Diam. of the rim 17.8 cm.

Outside the shoulder decorated with incised bands and dots. Broad, rounded rim.

Jars of the same type:

GNM 27- 977: 6185, 6244.

Analogies: See cat. no. 104.

108. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6227.

Diam. of the rim 15.5 cm.

Broad, rounded rim. Outside the shoulder decorated with incised bands and dots.

Analogies: See cat. no. 104.

109. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6455.

Broad, rounded rim. Outside the shoulder decorated with incised bands and dots.

Analogies: See cat. no. 104.

110. Jar

GNM 27- 977: 6347.

Found in Room 11.

H. 60 cm; Diam. of the rim 22.2 cm; Diam. of the body 49.2 cm; Diam. of the base 16.3 cm.

- Pinkish-brownish clay. Outside the body decorated with seven relief bands. Four-handled. Incurving rim.
Jar of the same type:
 GNM 27- 977: 6321
 Found in Room 12.
 Brownish clay. Incurving rim. Four-handled.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 121, pl. 11.3; Gagoshidze 1979, 89, fig. 13.318; Narimanishvili 1991, 18, figs. 119–121.
111. Jar
 GNM 27- 977: 6322.
 Found in Room 12.
 Diam. of the rim 23 cm.
 Pinkish-brownish clay. Four-handled. Incurving rim.
Analogies: See cat. no. 110.
112. Jar
 GNM 27- 977: 6267.
 Found in Room 13.
 H. 24 cm; Diam. of the rim 16 cm; Diam. of the body 22.4 cm; Diam. of the base 15 cm.
 Handmade. Reddish-grayish clay with admixture of gold-glistening muscovite. Simple rim, slightly bulging body and broad, flat base.
113. Pithos
 GNM 27- 977: 6349.
 Found in Room 11.
 H. 66 cm; Diam. of the rim 26 cm; Diam. of the body 51.6 cm; Diam. of the base 16.8 cm.
 Grayish-yellowish clay. Outside the surface decorated with twisted relief bands.
Pithoi of the same type:
 - GNM 27- 977: 6350.
 H. 74 cm; Diam. of the rim 28.6 cm; Diam. of the body 50.3 cm.
 Brownish clay.
 - GNM 27- 977: 6352.
 Found in Room 11.
 H. 60 cm; Diam. of the rim 25.5 cm; Diam. of the body 50.3 cm.
 Yellowish-brownish clay.
 - GNM 27- 977: 6351.
 H. 66 cm.
 Yellowish-brownish clay.
 - GNM 27- 977: 6229, 6253, 6254, 6269, 6277, 6323, 6328, 6376, 6396, 6397.
 Found in Rooms 11 and 13.
 Diam. of the rim 15–28 cm.
 Rim and neck sherds.
114. Pithos
 GNM 27- 977: 6348.
 Found in Room 11.
 H. 72 cm; Diam. of the rim 26 cm; Diam. of the body 54 cm; Diam. of the base 17.2 cm.
- Pinkish-grayish clay. Outside twisted relief bands around shoulder and body.
Analogies: See cat. no. 113.
115. Pithos
 GNM 27- 977: 2053.
 Found in Room 11.
 Diam. of the rim 16 cm.
 Rim and neck sherds.
Analogies: See cat. no. 113.
116. Pithos
 GNM 27- 977: 6164.
 Found between the pillars in front of Room 9.
 H. 137 cm; Diam. of the rim 36.1 cm.
 Light pinkish clay. Aramaic (Armazian) inscription on the rim: *agni*.
Pithoi of the same type:
 Two pithoi, still *in situ*.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 57; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 128, pl. 24.3, 4.
117. Pithos
 GNM 27- 977: 6491.
 Found between the pillars in front of Room 9.
 H. 140 cm; Diam. of the rim 45 cm; Diam. of the body 100 cm.
 Yellowish clay. Aramaic (Armazian) inscription on the rim: *naq*.
Analogies: See cat. no. 116.
118. Lamp
 GNM 27- 977: 6160.
 Found in Room 9.
 H. 2.6 cm; Diam. 10.8 cm.
 Yellowish clay. Rounded base.
Lamps of the same type:
 - GNM 27- 977: 5497, 6166, 6170, 6273.
 - GNM 27- 977: 6333.
 Found in Room 13.
 H. 2.8 cm; Diam. 10 cm.
 Burnt. Rounded base.
119. Lamp
 GNM 27-977: 6209.
 Found in Room 10.
 H. 1.4 cm; Diam. 11 cm.
 Brownish clay. Rounded base.
Analogies: See cat. no. 118.
120. Lamp
 GNM 27- 977: 6270.
 Found in Room 13.
 H. 3.3 cm; Diam. 6 cm.
 Grayish-white clay. Rounded base.
Analogies: See cat. no. 118.
121. Lamp
 GNM 27- 977: 5918.

Found in Room 5.

H. 2.8 cm; Diam. 10.4 cm; Diam. of the base 7.4 cm.

Light brownish clay. Flat base.

Analogies: See cat. no. 122.

122. Lamp

GNM 27- 977: 6300.

Found in Room 12.

H. 3 cm; Diam. 8.6 cm; Diam. of the base 5 cm.

Grayish clay. Flat base.

Lamps of the same type:

- GNM 27- 977: 6482.

H. 3 cm; Diam. 10.2 cm.

Grayish clay. Flat base.

- GNM 27- 977: 6159.

Found on the courtyard.

H. 2.3 cm; Diam. 11.2 cm; Diam. of the base 4 cm.

Black-grayish clay. Flat base.

- GNM 27- 977: 2240, 2449.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part, in the wall debris.

H. 1.8 cm; Diam. 10.4 cm; Diam. of the base 9 cm.

Pinkish clay with admixture of white nonplastics.

On the surface traces of a slip preserved. Flat base.

- GNM 27- 977: 6481.

H. 2.3 cm; Diam. 11 cm; Diam. of the base 5 cm.

Pinkish-brownish clay. Flat base, thick-walled and roughly worked.

- GNM 27- 977: 1992, 5918, 6124, 6424, 6444, 6483.

Fragments of six lamps.

Analogies: Apakidze et al. 1978a, figs. 122–125; Bokhochadze 1981, 40, pl. 44.1; Gagoshidze 1981a, 13, fig. 91; Tiratsian 1988, 119, pl. 34.6; Apakidze 1991, 80; Narimanishvili 1991, 20; Nikolaishvili 1993, pls. 11.5, 15.2.

123. Lamp

GNM 27- 977: 5495.

Found in Room 5.

H. 2.8 cm; Diam. 10.8 cm; Diam. of the base 6.2 cm.

Light pinkish clay with admixture of mica. The surface slipped. Flat base.

Analogies: See cat. no. 122.

124. Lamp

GNM 27- 977: 6182.

H. 3.1 cm; Diam. 10 cm; Diam. of the base 3.5 cm.

Flat base.

Analogies: See cat. no. 122.

125. Vessel of uncertain classification

GNM 27- 977: 6363.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 8.8 cm; H. of the neck 4.5 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pinkish-brownish clay with admixture of fine nonplastics. The rim decorated with a relief band and the neck with a double-ribbed band.

126. Vessel of uncertain classification

GNM 27- 977: 6441.

H. of the neck 6 cm; Diam. of the rim 13.5 cm.

Rim, neck, handles and body sherds of yellowish, well-refined clay with some admixture of white nonplastics. In places blackish (burnt). Outside decorated with reddish-brownish painted bands.

Analogies: Nadiradze 1990a, 16, pl. 21.1; Bragvadze 1993, pl. 6.

127. Vessel of uncertain classification

GNM 27-977: 6368.

Found in Room 11.

Diam. of the rim 11.5 cm; Diam. of the neck 8.4 cm; Th. 0.6 cm.

Rim and neck fragment of brownish well-refined clay with admixture of white nonplastics. On the rib traces of painting preserved.

Analogies: See cat. no. 126.

128. Vessel of uncertain classification

GNM 27- 977: 6452.

Diam. of the rim 16 cm.

Rim and neck sherd of brownish clay.

129. Jar (?)

GNM 27- 977: 6239.

Found in Room 13.

Diam. of the rim 13.7 cm; Th. 0.7 cm.

Rim and neck sherds of pinkish clay.

130. Jar (?)

GNM 27- 977: 6213.

Found in Room 10.

Diam. of the rim 11.7 cm; Th. 0.3 cm.

Rim and body sherds of pinkish clay.

131. Vessel of uncertain classification

GNM 27- 977: 6171.

Found in Room 10.

Th. 0.5 cm.

Body sherd of pinkish clay. Outside decorated with brownish paint.

132. Jar (?)

GNM 27- 977: 6456.

Diam. of the rim 14.3 cm.

Rim and neck fragment of a brownish-yellowish clay. Twisted relief band around the neck.

133. Jar (?)

GNM 27- 977: 2054.

Th. 0.7 cm.

Rim and neck fragment of yellowish clay. Twisted relief band around the neck.

134. Jar (?)

GNM 27- 977: 6244.

- Found in Room 13.
Th. 0.2–0.5 cm.
Rim and body sherd of brownish clay. Flat rim. Outside the neck decorated with horizontal incised bands and dots.
Analogies: See cat. no. 107.
135. Jar (?)
GNM 27- 977: 6185.
Found in Room 10.
Th. 0.5–0.7 cm.
Rim and neck sherd of brownish clay. Outside neck and shoulder decorated with incised comb-like bands.
Analogies: See cat. no. 107.
136. Pot (?)
GNM 27- 977: 1205.
Found in Room 6.
Diam. of the rim 14.4 cm.
Rim and neck sherds of pinkish clay.
137. Pot (?)
GNM 27- 977: 1206.
Found in Room 6.
Diam. of the rim 13 cm.
Rim and neck sherds of pinkish clay.
138. Vessel of uncertain classification
GNM 27- 977: 2057.
Found in Room 6.
- Diam. of the rim 13 cm.
Rim and neck sherds of yellowish clay.
139. Vessel of uncertain classification
GNM 27- 977: 6237.
Found in Room 13.
Diam. of the rim 11.8 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Rim and neck sherds.
140. Pot (?)
GNM 27- 977: 1207.
Found in Room 6.
Diam. of the rim 13 cm.
Rim and neck sherd of yellowish clay.
141. Pot (?)
GNM 27- 977: 6215.
Found in Room 10.
Diam. of the rim 19 cm.
Rim and neck sherd of yellowish clay.
142. Pot (?)
GNM 27- 977: 2058.
Found in Room 6.
Diam. of the rim 14.6 cm.
Rim and neck sherd of pinkish clay.
143. Pot (?)
GNM 27- 977: 6207.
Found in Room 10.
Diam. of the rim 22.4 cm.
Rim and neck sherd of brownish-pinkish clay.

4.2. Bone Objects

by Iulon Gagoshidze

Bone items⁵⁷⁴ were rather numerous in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora. There are boxes of different kinds, among them so called pyxides, styluses, pins, beads, dice, engraved plates, statuettes, a pipe and so on. Handles of metal implements (knives)⁵⁷⁵ and compound bow laths⁵⁷⁶ are also made of bone; ornamented bone plates of different shapes were used for incrustation of wooden furniture, carved bone pieces decorated stanchions of metal candelabra.

Besides the worked bone, people in the ancient world also used untreated or almost untreated bones. This is true for Dedoplis Gora as well, whose inhabitants used to play with sheep astragals, some of which are pierced. Apparently, phalanges of various animals (sheep, goat, pig, bear, etc.) were used for more complicated games, which were found in great amount at

Dedoplis Gora and some of which are pierced or signed with carved lines.

Bone pyxides, styluses and other round-stemmed articles, like pins, excavated at Dedoplis Gora are evidently made on a machine. Some of the bone articles are decorated with engraved or carved decor. The most common ornament are circles with a center, carved by a pair of dividers, but there is more complex geometrical ornament, too, as well as engraved and carved compositions.

All the bone articles excavated at Dedoplis Gora have been more or less affected by the fire which finally destroyed the palace. So, the color and structure of bone as well as the texture of the surface changed. This circumstance often complicates the definition of the type of bone, used as raw material. However, specialist G. Meladze is of the opinion that the majority of engraved plates (cat. nos. 21–75) and also a sculpture of a dog (cat. no. 77) are carved from antler. Taking into account the size of these objects, it is almost certain, that some of the items from Dedoplis Gora are made of ivory.

Mentioning ivory raises the question of the provenance of the articles. There is a great probability, that ivory items were imported. But it is not excluded either, that ivory itself was imported as raw material, if we consider a local, properly developed bone production.

In our case, it can be admitted, that playing and fortune-telling plates, probably made of antler, are of local production. This idea is, first of all, supported by the area of spreading of these plates and, secondly, by Armazian (Aramaic) inscriptions on them. We should assign the plate with the fighting scene of riders (cat. no. 92) to be a local product by the style of the engraved representation, which stands close to the above-

⁵⁷⁴ Quite hard and firm and at the same time workable, bone is submitted to both, hand carving and machine treating, and after working up, it can be polished well, obtaining an attractive texture. Exactly this physical-mechanical feature conditioned its popularity as a material for producing various implements, ornaments, boxes and other small articles. This popularity was favored by the availability and cheapness of the material. We imply tubular bones of domestic and wild animals and antler, but ivory has always and everywhere been rated highly. The only disadvantage of bone as raw material is: it is impossible to make a big object of it without using glue. Possibility of obtaining a big and thick plaque is limited for thickness of the firm structure of tubular bone and antler of the biggest animal of the temperate zone, which does not exceed several millimeters, and its diameter, which is also a couple of centimeters: according to the paleontologist Abesalom Vekua the maximal diameter of the antler of a red deer, recorded in Georgia, is only 4.6 cm. The only exception is again ivory, which does not have bone marrow of spongy structure, and so it is possible to produce rather big and massive articles, but elephants do not live in the temperate zone.

⁵⁷⁵ Cf. ch. 4.5. *Metal Implements*, cat. no. 33.

⁵⁷⁶ Cf. ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, cat. nos. 14–17.

mentioned plates, if not its size would make us presume, that it is made of ivory.

If so, then we can speak more certainly about Parthian provenance of this plate, which can be proved by the engraved scene – a scene of defeating a Roman; this theme is more suitable for the Parthian world, than to the Iberian one: let us remember Crassus' defeat and murder by the Parthians.⁵⁷⁷ Furthermore, this is the only plate at Dedoplis Gora, on which a rider with a long spear is depicted; the shoes of the rider are also different: He wears a soft boot with a round toe, while all the riders on the other plates have boots with a pointed toe.

A bone box (cat. no 89) must also be connected to the Iranian world in general. On one of its sides, a winged figure can be identified as Nike, but the manner of carving, which is far from classical, and a leopard and a rabbit, represented on the same box, make us suppose that the winged figure is the winged genius, which is more characteristic for the Iranian mythology. M. Rostovtzeff identifies this figure with the winged ones from paintings of Roman period crypts in the Northern Black Sea region.⁵⁷⁸

Bone pyxides and some other bone items show great similarity with proper items from the Northern Black Sea region on the one side, and from Balkan and Dura-Europos on the other side (cf. the catalog), though they are not identical and, therefore, it is difficult to discuss their origin. We rather assume that the pyxides, together with their content – perfume – were imported from the South. They are considered local production in the Northern Black Sea region.⁵⁷⁹

Bone items from Dedoplis Gora are discussed below in groups according to their function.

Objects for Playing and Fortune-Telling (cat. nos. 1–75)

One group of bone items, excavated in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, is related to various games. Connected with games of chance and fortune telling are dice, astragals, quadrangular bone plates and phalangae of ungulate animals and, perhaps some other things. For instance, a round bone plate from Room 12 (cat. no. 128) would have been considered a draughtsman for playing draughts or backgammon. It is similar to quadrangular bone playing or fortune-telling plates by its size and texture, and was found near a serial of these plates (cat. nos. 58–75) in the wall debris. A quadrangular bone plate, which is flat at the lower part and convex at the top might also be a draughtsman (cat. no. 129).

*Dice (cat. nos. 1–11)*⁵⁸⁰

Dice are one of the oldest attributes of games of chance. They are widely used as a necessary element of games, such as backgammon, and also as an independent item and, in general, are considered a symbol of games of chance. Both Georgian names for dice are of Arabic origin. The first – *zari* – comes from the Arabic word for bone – *al zahr*, while the other – *kamateli* – comes from the dual form of the Arabic word *ka'b* (cube) – *kabatein*.⁵⁸¹ According to this, it had been presumed that dice were brought to Georgia by the Arabs, i.e., not earlier than the 7th century A.D.⁵⁸² So far, on the territory of Georgia, there have been known only two dice, the oldest one of which – made of sandstone – is from the 6th–7th centuries A.D. cultural level of Urbnisi⁵⁸³, while the oldest bone dice from Dmanisi are dated to the 12th century A.D.⁵⁸⁴

However, at Dedoplis Gora, in Rooms 12 and 13, eleven bone dice appeared. Therefore, the

580 This part of the work has been performed and published by I. Gagoshidze and Z. Kvitsiani, cf. Gagoshidze/Kvitsiani 1999.

581 The Georgian word for “controversy” – *kamati* – is also derived from this word; Andronikashvili 1965, 315; Giunashvili 1967, 76 f.

582 Dice were first mentioned in Georgian sources only in the 12th century A.D.; Shota Rustaveli, 1616.4 and Visramiani, 80.18.

583 Chilashvili 1964, 129.

584 Kereselidze 1978, 79.

577 Plut. *Crass.* 31.

578 Rostovtzeff 1914, 344.

579 Peters 1986, 35 f.

“Arabian” version of introducing dice to Georgia must be withdrawn. Since the Palace at Dedoplis Gora is, so far, not only the first, but the only Roman-period site in eastern Georgia, where dice have been discovered, we may suppose that they were conveyed to Georgia by the Romans.

The only known archaeological dice from western Georgia was found in Sukhumi at the Sebastopolis castellum, where a Roman garrison was located in the 4th–5th centuries A.D. – the time to which the dice are dated.⁵⁸⁵

In Greece and Rome, playing with dice was very common from ancient times.⁵⁸⁶ For ordinary Romans, playing games of chance was the chief spare-time activity.⁵⁸⁷

At Dedoplis Gora, dice and astragals were found in the main north gate (Room 12) of the Palace and in Room 13, which was a bed-sit of the guards. Of course, the guards had lots of spare time.

All the dice at Dedoplis Gora are made of bone and one is a *tessera*-type.⁵⁸⁸ It is a specially carved and polished massive cube, on all six facets of which there are signs made with dividers – circles with central dots, from 1 to 6. On ten of the dice, these signs are arranged “canonically”, just like they are on modern dice, i.e., the sum of the dots on the opposite facets is seven (6+1, 5+2 and 4+3). But on one of them (cat. no. 1), the distribution of figures on the facets is different: Opposite the facet with six dots there are three and, consequently, the sum is nine; opposite the one with five dots there is one dot, but opposite the four dots two are engraved, i.e., in both these cases the sum of the dots is six. Such deviation from the rule can be observed on ancient dice from time to time.⁵⁸⁹

Astragals (cat. nos. 12–15)

In contrast to dice, it was very common to play with astragals in ancient times.⁵⁹⁰ In Greece and Rome, playing with astragals, both as sporting and exciting games, was not less popular, than dice, and it must be considered as a predecessor of dice. Consequently, astragals are frequently found in burials of teenagers.⁵⁹¹ In his publication of the 1st–3rd centuries A.D. burials at Samtavro cemetery, M. Ivashchenko notes that astragals were found only in three burials, in two of them there was one pierced astragal, and in Burial 63 there were 21 sheep astragals.⁵⁹² The Burial is well dated to the 1st century A.D. according to coins of Tiberius (14–37 A.D.) and Gotarzes (40–51 A.D.).⁵⁹³

Lots of astragals have been excavated in the Northern Black Sea region, at the Khersones and Panticapei cemeteries, usually in the burials of children, but of adults, too. In Burial 101 in Kerch, there were 184 astragals, filed on two sides.⁵⁹⁴

In Samtavro cemetery, among the material excavated by F. Bayern, there were lots of astragals, but it is difficult to judge about which burials they are related to.⁵⁹⁵ At least a part of them was probably found in the burials (cists) of the upper layer dated to the 4th–8th centuries A.D, there often occur astragals. For example, pierced sheep astragals were in Cist-Grave 1, in the south section of the cemetery, Cist-Graves 430 and 472 in the north section and so on.⁵⁹⁶ Astragals in cultural layers of the same period are numerous, suffice it to name the upper layer of the 4th–6th centuries A.D. at Dedoplis Gora, during the

585 Voronov 1969, pl. 32.30; Voronov 1980, 47, fig. 24.10.

586 Hdt. 1.94 ascribes the invention of games of chance to the Lydians. Even Alexander the Great played dice when he was ill (Plut. *De fort. Alex.* 11.6), and playing dice was not beyond dignity of even Roman emperors (Suet. *Aug.* 71.1–4).

587 Amm. Marc. 28.4.28. During working on dice and astragals, we followed Peters 1986, in which all the facts of discovery of these items in the Northern Black Sea region are concentrated and the data of written sources and proper special literature are summed up.

588 Peters 1986, 88.

589 In Etruria (Maiami 1966, 70), as well as in the Black Sea region in the 2nd–1st centuries B.C. (Peters 1986, pl. 19. 4, 8).

590 In archaeological excavations in Georgia, astragals are more numerous than dice, both in cultural layers and burials. However, often, such finds are not even mentioned in excavation reports.

591 Peters 1986, 79–83. Fifty or sixty years ago, in Georgia almost every little boy had sheep astragals in his pocket and those boys can still remember the names of all four sides of an astragal. The narrow, concave facet was called *alchu* and placing the astragal on *alchu* meant to win; the second flat, narrow facet was *tokhani*, and placing on *tokhani* gave chance for a repeated move, while the broad, concave facet – *chipi* – and, moreover, its opposite convex facet – *tapi* meant to lose.

592 Ivashchenko 1980.

593 Ivashchenko 1980, 98.

594 Ivashchenko 1980, 145; Shkorpil 1904, 91.

595 Ivashchenko 1980, 145.

596 Khakhutaishvili 1970, 37.

excavation of which just in the first two seasons there appeared two cow's and fourteen sheep's astragals. Two of the sheep's astragals were pierced and there was a trace of special processing on one of the cow's astragals.⁵⁹⁷

Near Uplistsikhe, in Burial 10 at the Bambebi necropolis, which, we suppose, is dated to the early Roman period,⁵⁹⁸ there were five sheep astragals, one among them had a hole with a silver ring pierced through.⁵⁹⁹ Here D. Khakhutaishvili brings up the discovery of 41 astragals in a hole, dug in the floor of the H-14 building at Koi-Krilgan-Kala, in Khorezm (six of them were pierced); nearby, in a small hole in the H-29 building, there were thirteen astragals hidden (two pierced), and in the C-16 building – fifteen astragals. The author believes that astragals, especially the pierced ones, were used not only for playing, but against the evil eye, too.⁶⁰⁰

At the Palace of Dedoplis Gora, astragals were found in Rooms 11 and 13. One astragal (cat. no. 14) appeared on the floor of Room 11, two more (cat. nos. 12–13) in the adobe wall debris, at 40–50 cm above the floor level. On the same level, near the astragals, cattle phalangae appeared.⁶⁰¹ All three astragals were pierced. In Room 13 were twelve astragals found, five of which pierced at the edge of the narrow, concave side (cat. no. 15). Nearby were found engraved playing and fortune-telling plates from bone (cat. nos. 49–57).

Phalangae (cat. nos. 16–20)

In Burial 10 of the above-mentioned Bambebi necropolis together with the astragals, there were 165 phalangae of front legs of ungulate animals (sheep, pig, goat, deer). One part of the phalangae is pierced, several ones are signed with a hole, the majority is not worked. D. Khakhutaishvili, who excavated and published the material, believes that the burial belongs to an artist-engraver (an engraved bone plate was also found

in the burial, see below) and that the phalangae are finished articles (pierced ones) and raw material.⁶⁰²

D. Khakhutaishvili was aware of numerous animal phalangae found in Burial 98 of the first half of the 1st millennium B.C., in the north section of the Samtavro cemetery. Among the inventory – pottery, an iron spearhead and knife, iron and bronze bracelets, a whetstone and carnelian beads – there were 97 phalangae of different animals, some of which had one, and some had two holes.⁶⁰³

We suppose that in either case the phalangae, put into the burial, were not the raw material for pendants and amulets, but they had another significance.

In Rooms 1, 3, 11, 12 and 13 at Dedoplis Gora 362 phalangae of various animals (pig, horse, goat, bear, deer) have been found, thirty of which are signed: fifteen have one hole in different parts; one has two opposed holes, five have one engraved line, eight have an engraved oblique cross, and one has a cross between two twinned lines.

In most cases phalangae appeared together with quadrangular bone plates, most of which have an engraved representation (see below). A number of 165 phalangae (partly pierced or with carved lines or crosses) were kept in Room 3 (cat. no. 17) alongside with twenty plates in a wooden box, sealed with four bullae (see below). Apparently, eight plates and 42 phalangae (one pierced, two signed with carved lines and one with a carved transverse cross) were kept in a wooden box in Room 1 (cat. no. 16).

In Room 13, two phalangae (cat. no. 19) and in Room 12, 160 phalangae (cat. no. 20) were found in the wall debris, filling the rooms, at 40–50 cm above floor level and nearby, besides them, on the same level, were also found bone plates (nine plates in Room 13 and 18 plates in Room 12). Here, too, the plates were put together with phalangae, like in the Rooms 1 and 3, but these boxes were on the upper floor of the Palace or above, on a shelf. In the above-mentioned burial at Bambebi, together with 165 phalangae (compare: In Room 3, in a sealed box, there were also 165

⁵⁹⁷ Inv. nos. of the astragals are the following (not in the catalog): GNM 27- 977: 1190, 1243, 1706, 2629, 2818, 2847, 3116, 3180, 3842, 4963, 5042, 5134, 6046. It would be useless to list the findings of sheep's astragals at medieval archaeological sites in Georgia.

⁵⁹⁸ Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991, 53.

⁵⁹⁹ Khakhutaishvili 1970, 33, pl. 46.

⁶⁰⁰ Khakhutaishvili 1970, 33 f.

⁶⁰¹ Not in the catalog below.

⁶⁰² Khakhutaishvili 1970, 33, 35, pls. 45–47.

⁶⁰³ Khakhutaishvili 1970, 36; their field number is 1979. Today, the phalangae cannot be found any longer: They have not been registered in the Museum.

phalangae!) there were five bone plates, similar to the ones from Dedoplis Gora, on two of which there are engraved representations, too.⁶⁰⁴

We consider engraved (and plain) bone plates to be plates for playing cards and fortune-telling (see detailed below). Phalangae, probably, played the role of chips in this presumable game, and the signs on them, perhaps, defined their relative “value”.

*Engraved Plates (cat. nos. 21–75)*⁶⁰⁵

Bone plates were excavated in four rooms (1, 3, 12, 13) of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora. In every case, the bones were accompanied by phalangae of ungulate animals (mainly pig, also sheep or goat) and, in several cases, of bear, but in the Rooms 12 and 13, alongside with plates and phalangae, also astragals and bone dice appeared. In the same rooms, plates appeared in the wall debris from the upper floor, or they used to be kept somewhere above, on a shelf. A pile of eight plates and 42 phalangae was found on the floor of Room 1, in the south-eastern part and, probably, all these were kept in a wooden box. However, in the western gate of the Palace (Room 3), at least twenty plates and 165 phalangae had been kept in a wooden box, which was sealed with four clay bullae.⁶⁰⁶ At the same time, the plates were put side by side, vertically, just like a pack of cards. The plates were taken and numbered in the same order, as *in situ*, and they are described below in the same way. Among the 55 plates, excavated at Dedoplis Gora, 41 are more or less certain, on 39 pictures are engraved, and on seven – even inscriptions; but among nearly 260 phalangae only a few have one or more carvings in different places, oblique crosses, one or two holes. Most of the phalangae are plain.

Considering the circumstances of discovering the plates, their size, subject and style of engraved representations, it is probable that we deal with five different sets of plates. Only the first set which was found in Room 3, in a sealed

box, is more or less complete. However, it is impossible to define the exact number of plates and phalangae of this set. Seventeen plates are certain, at least three more plates, nearby, were welded to each other, but even more may have been burnt in fire.

All the plates, without any exception, have different traces of fire.⁶⁰⁷ Considering mechanical damage (worn out, broken) and thermal deformation, it can be assumed that all the plates were of the same shape with slight variations. This is a slightly pointed quadrangle, the right side of which is a bit rounded, while the left side is obtained by linking two equal arcs; top and bottom have wavy jags. Several plates are cut straightly at the right side, but some have rounded top and bottom. The plates are more or less equal in size. Their average length is 4.44 cm; average height is 4.09 cm; and average thickness is 0.42 cm. The biggest plate (cat. no. 58) is 5.24×5.12×0.47 cm; the smallest (cat. no. 29) is 4×3.5×0.4 cm.

The plates cat. nos. 71–75 can be distinguished as a separate group by their, obviously, smaller average size of 3.69×2.77×0.25 cm as well as by their texture. They are harder, whiter and more polished than the other ones, which can be explained by the difference of the raw material. These plates are so small, that they could have been carved from tubular bone of cattle, while it is impossible to carve a flat plate of the size 5×5×0.5 cm (such are most of the plates from Dedoplis Gora) from the tubular bones of the animals, inhabiting the mild zone. For this either ivory, or horn of the Caucasian red deer is needed, diameter of the latter reaches 5 cm at the lower part. In fact, paleontologist Guram Meladze, who investigated the plates from the Rooms 1 and 3, concludes that the “structure of these items is identical to the one of deer horn and does not differ from that”.

Most of the plates are worn out because of frequent use, but the plate cat. no. 22 had broken and then had been stuck together – riveted with two pairs of copper plaques.

⁶⁰⁴ Khakhutaishvili 1970, 34 f., pls. 6, 45.

⁶⁰⁵ Some of these plates have already been published by the author, cat. nos. 21–48 with photos, cat. nos. 24, 26, 28, 30, 32–35, 41–45 with drawings (Gagoshidze 1992). In the catalog below, the shape of the plates is only discussed, if it differs from the here described “standard” and if it is not well-observed in the drawing.

⁶⁰⁶ Cf. ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of bullae nos. 15–18. See fig. 25.

⁶⁰⁷ All eight plates, excavated in the tower (Room 1), have gained gray color (cat. nos. 41–48), while in the western gate (Room 3), the box with plates was apparently burning in open fire, as a result of which they have become white and fragile (cat. nos. 21–40). The plates from the northern gate (Room 12) and from Room 13 are even more burnt. Many of the plates are cracked and deformed (cat. nos. 49–75).

All the plates had been specially polished from both sides. On one surface of most of them, and on both surfaces of two of them (cat. nos. 51 and 71), there are engraved representations; seven of them, as we mentioned above, have Armazian inscriptions (cat. nos. 21, 24, 31, 32, 36, 41, 44). Only few are left without engraved pictures (cat. nos. 22, 48, 66, 72–74). Apparently, one of them (cat. no. 22) had been mended in antiquity. Those plain plates may have had some definite function, like, for example, a joker in cards.

Most probably, these are sets of fortune-telling and playing cards, as playing and fortune-telling have always been connected to each other: Game of chance is actually connected with destiny. In the ancient world, besides simple games with astragals and dice, there also existed more complicated games. It cannot be excluded, that the plates from Dedoplis Gora were for playing a game like *gandjapa*, which was so popular in Medieval Georgia that, alongside with chess and backgammon, it regularly appears in the lists of trousseau, e.g., of the daughter of the Kartlian king Vakhtang V Shahnavaz (1667), Princess Anuka (1712), the daughter of the Ksani *eristavi* (governor) Helen (1713) and so on.⁶⁰⁸ *Gandjapa* was played with painted card-like bone plates, and it was forgotten in Georgia only after spreading cards.⁶⁰⁹ It is not excluded that the plates from Dedoplis Gora were for playing a game like *gandjapa*. One set of these plates was so specially kept together with phalangae in a box, sealed with four bullae, that, apparently, they had been highly appreciated and looked after. Therefore, I believe, that they were used more for fortune-telling. Telling the fortune by means of casting lots was an element of everyday life in ancient society.

Such an interpretation is also supported by the content of the inscription on the plate cat. no. 41: "This horse is dark and destroying (fatal). Winning (loot?) is one".⁶¹⁰

608 Iashvili 1974, 33, 47, 67, 165.

609 Grishashvili 1986, 184.

610 Tac. *Germ.* 10.1. Predicting future with the help of wooden signed plates, as Tacitus says, was common among ancient Germans, too: "To divination and the lot they pay as much attention as anyone: the method of drawing lots is uniform. A branch is cut from a nut-bearing tree and divided into slips: these are distinguished by certain marks and spread casually and at random over white cloth: afterward, should the inquiry be for the people the priest of the state, if private the fa-

In three out of six cases plates found on the territory of Kartli were burial inventory. This, just as in the case of the astragals, can be explained by their fortune-telling or playing, i.e., religious function.

Six of these plates were excavated in Mtskheta in 1938, in Tile-Burial 63, south sector of the Samtavro cemetery, which is dated by a coin of Tiberius (14–37 A.D.). These bone plates are similar to the ones from Dedoplis Gora both in shape and size, and on three of them, there are traces of engraved representations, though this matter remained beyond the attention of the excavators. In the burial there were also 21 astragals.⁶¹¹

In 1964, the Uplistsikhe archaeological expedition found one plain plate of the same shape and size in the cultural layer of the pre-feudal epoch, and in 1968, in the above-mentioned Burial 10 in Bambebi, was found the same kind of five plates, on two of which engraved designs of animals are shown – a wild boar on one and a fox and a goose on the other. In the same burial, there were 165 phalangae and five astragals. Some of the phalangae have the same kind of carvings and holes, as the ones from Dedoplis Gora. A clay black-polished one-handled pot and a footed bowl from Burial 10 at Bambebi, as well as a bone pyxis, are analogous to the material from Dedoplis Gora and, consequently, cannot be older than the end of the 1st century B.C. The Turn of the Era is the most proper date for this burial, though the excavator dates the burial to the 4th century B.C. and considers it a property of an artist-engraver.⁶¹²

Six diminutive bone plates of the same shape as the ones from Dedoplis Gora, but four times smaller and pierced, were dug in Burial 2 at the Nastagisi cemetery, dated to the 1st century A.D. Designs had been on all six plates, although they are, now, difficult to identify. On two similar plates, the designs are quite clear: On one of them a human face is engraved, performed in childish manner, on the other – an animal, directed leftward (on the plates from Dedoplis Gora only in the fighting scenes between a hu-

ther of the family in person, after prayers to the gods and with eyes turned to heaven, takes up one slip and at the time till he has done this on three separate occasions, and after taking the three interprets them according to the marks which have been already stamped on each:....".

611 Ivashchenko 1980, 145.

612 Khakhutaishvili 1970, 32–40, pls. 7.9, 11, 14, 16–17.

man and an animal, i.e., in cat. nos. 49–51, are left-directed figures). Two more, bigger bone plates appeared in Nastagisi in a pit, filled with material of the 1st century A.D. One of them is quadrangular, and a square is incised coarsely on its polished surface. The other plate has an ordinary shape and it bears an expressive representation of a fantastic animal: A horse with a raised tail, and a beak-like mouth; its body is filled with dots and has a bough-like wing on the back; it moves to the left. On the back of the plate signs are incised.⁶¹³

Thus, we can conclude that these magic plates were quite common in ancient Kartli in the 1st century A.D. We are not aware of engraved plates of exactly the same shape beyond the borders of Georgia. However, five engraved bone plates, excavated in Uzbekistan, near the site of Kurgan-tepe, in Tumulus 2 (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.) show certain similarity to the plates from Dedoplis Gora and, in my opinion, originally, they also should have had analogous function. On two bigger plates (13.5×10.5 cm), a hunting scene of knights and a fighting scene between cavalry and infantry are engraved, while a fight between two spearmen and a fight of a pair of camels with a vulture can be discerned on smaller plates (5.9×5 cm). It is remarkable that the armament of the knights and their garment are somehow similar to the ones on our plates, but the breed of horses, knights' faces and the design of hair and beard is absolutely different. That is quite clear, because, as G. A. Pugachenkova fairly defines, pictures on the plates are samples of Sogdian art and the Sogdian world was expressed on them with Middle-Asian types and long-legged, long-necked horses of light construction.⁶¹⁴

Small quadrangular bone plates with engraved representations and inscriptions are known from the West as well, particularly from Olbia. Their

function has not been clarified yet, though the blessing and magic character of Greek inscriptions functionally brings them closer to our plates. Olbian plates date to the 5th–4th centuries B.C.⁶¹⁵

We have mentioned above that playing and fortune-telling plates appeared in four places at Dedoplis Gora and, presumably, belong to five different sets. According to engraved representations, however, three groups of plates are singled out. Therefore, pictures on the plates found in Room 13 (cat. nos. 49–57), obviously, differ from the rest by the clearly primitive, naive sight of the artist-engraver. His picture is attractively right for its childish ingenuousness, while the plates from Rooms 1, 3 and 12 are the work of a professional, skilled craftsman. But, there is some difference between the latter groups, which is conditioned by different levels of talent and skill of the artists. No difference is noticed in style and manner of drawings between the two sets found in the Rooms 1 and 3 (cat. nos. 41–48 and 21–40), so that we are forced to admit that both groups of these plates are produced not only in one workshop, but they are performed by one and the same craftsman.

Drawing, made with the help of a very fine and sharp tool, covers the whole surface of the plates. The plastic, impressive line reveals the skill of an experienced, professional engraver, who is well-aware of the material, and who managed to engrave so many figures without a single mistake. The representation, full of expression, with balanced composition and lively figures is one more proof, that this professional craftsman was a talented artist, and had a good knowledge of both human and animal anatomy. He made precise drawings of garments, arms, elements of harness, parts of human and animal bodies and drew them with such accuracy, that the drawing acquires value of a piece of real material culture and, according to a couple of preserved details of animal's representation, it is possible to reconstruct the whole figure.

The graphical decor of the plates, belonging to the two sets excavated in Room 12 (cat. nos. 58–75) is not so homogeneous, though all these representations should be the work of the same school we mentioned above, which is evident in the similarity of iconography among them. Even

⁶¹³ I am grateful to the late leader of the Nastagisi expedition Aleksi Bokhochadze, who introduced me with the unpublished material, gained from the expedition and who gave me the right to publish the above given information, cf. Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991, 53 f., 57.

⁶¹⁴ Pugachenkova 1985, 521–531. G. A. Pugachenkova thinks, that the plates were decoration of armament or parts of armor. Actually, they have holes with iron rust in them, left from nails, by which they were attached to something. But we think that this is their secondary use, as the holes damage the design in several cases, which would not have happened, if the plates had been designed for attaching to something.

⁶¹⁵ Peters 1986, 63, fig. 38–39, pl. 12.28–33.

high-skilled drawings occur in these groups, such as, for instance, a hunting scene on the plate cat. no. 61, but, on the whole, these groups show a lower artistic level, than the first two. We have already discussed the plates from Room 13 (cat. nos. 49–57), which seem to be performed by a primitive artist, and which may give proof of a folk trend in Georgian art of the Roman epoch. The primitive artist of this group is also familiar with canonical iconography and tries to engrave desired scenes with maximal proximity, but he cannot manage this for the lack of knowledge in human and animal anatomy (cf. for example cat. nos. 53, 56, 59). His figures are static and non-proportional, though they also have, as I mentioned above, a peculiar charm of childish creative work, as, for example, a lion or a leopard on the plate cat. no. 52 – a calm and somehow astonished creature, with no sign of a furious beast. Similar are fighting scenes between a human and an animal on the plates cat. nos. 49–51, that look more like a peaceful, friendly meeting than a combat of opposing figures.

According to the number of figures, drawings can be divided into two groups: one-figured and multi-figured compositions.

On seven plates (cat. nos. 28, 35, 42, 44–46, 52) there are single figures, but on the plate cat. no. 71 one animal figure is engraved on both surfaces. Four of these nine representations are fantastic creatures: a lion with hoofs on its front legs (cat. no. 28), a winged horse (cat. no. 35), a griffin (cat. no. 42) and a horse-like animal with a short, raised tail, its short mane along the whole back and with a small, bearded head with long ears (cat. no. 46). On both surfaces of the plate cat. no. 71 real animals are depicted – a horse and a deer; the remaining three figures also look like real animals. It is an unusually foreshortened figure – a cat-like beast, viewed from above, is stretched on the ground with clawed paws and a long tail (cat. no. 44); a hen-like bird with a peacock's (?) tail, whose head is, unfortunately, damaged (cat. no. 45). And, lastly, again a cat-like beast on the plate cat. no. 52. In multi-figured compositions, a separated group is formed by fighting scenes between a human figure and a lion (cat. no. 49), a boar (cat. no. 50) and an unidentified animal (cat. no. 51), performed by a primitive artist; on the back of the plate cat. no. 51 a two-figured composition is engraved: A dog or a wolf, only the front part of which is situated on the plate, attacks a deer.

It is remarkable that only on the plates of this group the “canonical” distribution of engraved figures, characteristic for the plates from Dedoplist Gora, is broken:

1. On the plates cat. nos. 50 and 56, the designs are made on the back, i.e., the design is engraved so, that the side rib, which is formed of two arcs, is on the right, while in all other plates, this rib is on the left. There is no distinction between “face” and “back” on the plate cat. no. 51: There is a representation on both surfaces and both side ribs have a cut (formed of two arcs).
2. Only the plates cat. nos. 49–51 have figures, directed leftward. In two cases (cat. nos. 50–51), it is an animal, confronting a human figure, and on the plate cat. nos. 29 a human figure is represented in the left profile.
3. The garment of the men, represented on the plates cat. nos. 49–51 differs a little bit from the one of the knights (see below). In particular, they are dressed in tight trousers, which, in two cases (cat. nos. 43 and 51), are transversely striped, and in shoes with a rounded front (cat. no. 49). Beardless men are depicted on the plates cat. nos. 49–51, whose type is not of a knight, either (see below), if these circumstances are not explained by the lack of technical knowledge of an artist-engraver. Moreover, the knight's faces on the plates cat. nos. 53–55 are as if beardless and their faces, obviously, differ from the ones of the rest of the knights.

A fantastic scene, shown on the plate cat. no. 43, stands separately: An anthropomorphic creature, mounted on an eagle with its wings spread, is represented en face; it is holding a heavy, jagged baton in its left hand and a long spear in the right, by which it kills a monster, stretched along the bottom edge of the plate.

Myths, connected with killing a monster are widely spread all over the world.⁶¹⁶ The depiction on plate cat. no. 43 reminds us of the most popular deity of Indian mythology, *Indra*, to whom about 250 hymns are dedicated in *Rigveda*. Indra is one of the most anthropomorphized deities in Indian mythology and the aim of his birth was to kill the monster *Vritra*, a snake-like dragon, and by this to free the Waters (or the Sun); Indra's weapon is a baton with a hundred or thousand jags – *vajra* – and he is assisted by an

⁶¹⁶ Ivanov 1980.

eagle in the fight against *Vritra*; one of Indra's epithets is "Dragon killer" – *Vritrahan*.⁶¹⁷ The latter epithet occurs in *Avesta* too, but already as the name of an Iranian deity of War and Victory – *Veretragna*, one of his incarnations being a hawk or a kite – *Vargan*.⁶¹⁸ The corresponding Armenian name of this Indo-Iranian deity is *Vahagn* – deity of thunder, one of whose functions is to fight against the Dragon – *Vishap* and therefore its Armenian epithet is *Vishapakah* or "Dragon killer".⁶¹⁹

The theme of dragon-fighting is not unknown to Georgian mythology, either: The hero of the ancient Georgian epos – *Amiran* – fights against the black dragon, which comes out of the Black Sea and swallows the Sun.⁶²⁰

The Prince (the youngest brother), a hero of popular Georgian folk fairy tale, appears in nether world and kills a dragon, which blocked the water to the village; the Prince saves an eaglet of a mythical eagle, for which the grateful bird lets him sit on its back and brings him up to the earth.⁶²¹

One of the names or epithets of this ancient Georgian dragon-killer hero or deity could be *Vakhtang*, which is widely spread as a proper name only in Georgia, though its Iranian provenance cannot be doubted: *Kartlis Tskhovreba* gives a straight link of this name with the Iranian *Veretragna* while saying, that Queen *Sagdukht* gave her son, the further king of *Kartli Vakhtang Gorgassal* (5th century A.D.) the name, "which is in Persian *Varan-Khuasro-Tang*, but in Georgian – *Vakhtang*".⁶²² However, this link is connected with certain phonetic difficulties.⁶²³

Presumably, this archaic deity of Indo-Iranian provenance, assimilated by Georgians from early times, is represented on the plate cat. no. 43.

On all the rest of the plates, on which it is possible to recognize the subjects of engraved pictures, hunting scenes of horsemen are represented. There are 26 of such plates. Twelve of these horsemen hold short spears – javelins

(cat. nos. 21, 23–24, 26, 41, 53, 55, 58–60, 63–64), eleven of them are archers (cat. nos. 25, 29–34, 36, 54, 56, 61–62), and in two cases the weapons cannot be identified (cat. nos. 27, 57).

Only one of the horsemen is a loser, represented without any loot, all the others have one (19 plates), or two beasts killed (six plates: cat. nos. 26–27, 34, 36, 61–62); the bottom part of one plate (cat. no. 64), on which a hunted animal should have been depicted, is lost. The species of the hunted animal is obvious on 16 plates. It is a deer (cat. nos. 24, 30, 54, 56–57, 60–61, 63, two on the plate cat. no. 34), a boar (cat. nos. 41, 58–59, two on cat. no. 26), a wild goat (two on cat. no. 36), a roe (?) (cat. no. 61) and a bear (cat. no. 32).⁶²⁴ The identification of the animals on the rest of the plates is difficult, but, apparently, mostly horned animals are represented, nevertheless, some of them can be boars.

When the prey comprise two animals, they are always of the same species, except for one case: On the plate cat. no. 61, two killed animals are depicted, one is, apparently, a deer, but the other has no antlers, so it is difficult to claim, whether this is a female deer or some other animal, for example, a roe. It must be mentioned that the fur is drawn only along the back of the deer, while the body of another unidentified animal is filled with dots.

Drawings are "narrative" and they simultaneously show the beginning and the end of hunting: Both the moment of shooting and the result of this action are represented. The prey is drawn under the legs of a galloping horse with, as a rule, front legs bent under the belly, and straightened hind legs. The animals have an arrow or a javelin thrust at the back.

All the horses are represented in the so called "flying gallop", with a short-cut mane and a knotted tail, and all of them are of the same breed: comparatively small size, elastic, with a strong body and slightly thicker neck than usual, and a big head. The horse's body, just like bodies of deer and boars, are filled with dense dots.

617 Mial 1980; Toporov 1980a, 1980b.

618 Braginski 1980.

619 Arutunian 1980a, 1980b.

620 Javakhishvili 1979, 193; Chikovani 1980a.

621 Ghlonti 1974, 144–146; Chikovani 1980b.

622 Juansheri 1955, 143, 158.

623 Andronikashvili 1966, 467.

624 In all cases, when deer horns are clearly visible on the picture, it is red deer – *Cervus dama*: a single branch on each horn above the eyes and flat, vertically posed "oars" certify the truth of this attribution. Red deer was once widely spread in Mediterranean countries and in the Near East, including Caucasia, but already 2000 years ago, reduction of its population started as a result of intensive hunting. At present, it lives only in western Europe, where it was bred artificially.

On comparatively well-preserved plates, details of harness can be made out: bridle, rein, straps for fastening breast, horse-hair and saddle, a breast buckle, a bedding under the saddle and a saddle horn. On the plates cat. no. 24 and 26, two pairs of rein are clearly depicted, which points to the existence of an additional, so called larynx bit. However, in two cases (cat. nos. 34 and 61), it is obvious that a horse has a curb-bit in its mouth: The rein is not tied to the bit-ring, but a little lower under the jaw.⁶²⁵

A bit is fastened to the bridle with two straps, which is visible under a round buckle on the horse's jaw (cat. no. 26). A bigger round buckle is attached to the horse's breast strap (cat. nos. 24 and 26).

The knights are sitting on horseback quite easily, near the neck, with their feet (without stirrups) stretched below the horse's belly. All the knights are represented in the right profile. The riding bowmen are bent over the horse's neck, holding a bow in their left hand, which is stretched forward, while with their right hand, which is taken back and bent at an elbow, they are drawing a bow. Under the bellies of the horses of riding bowmen, near the hind legs, on a hidden side appears the end of a quiver. It has two parts – one is longer and slightly bent and must be a case of a broken bow; the other part is shorter and rectangular, it must be an arrow-case.

The horsemen armed with javelins are sitting straight, holding a rein in their left hand, which is stuck to the body, while in their right hand, which is taken back, raised and bent at an elbow, they are shooting a spear ahead, in the direction of the horse's movement.

The knights have a high, straight or slightly aquiline nose, large eyes, curly hair and a short beard. Their heads are covered with a small kind of a skull-cap, they are dressed in a long-sleeved,

high-collar robe, a short-sleeved, tight-fitting, short dress, open in the front, with a belt on the waist, long, wide trousers fastened below chins, and pointed boots.

The drawings on the plates from Dedoplis Gora are clearly distinguished from their contemporary samples of other eastern countries in terms of types and single iconographical details, expressed in compositions. For example, in hunting scenes, engraved on a 1st century A.D. ivory box, Bactrian archers are represented with long, sloping moustache, shaved beard and straight hair, fastened at the nape of the neck, without a headdress.⁶²⁶ In Parthian art, horsemen, in contrast to our plates, are, as a rule, depicted with their bodies frontal, which is, in general, characteristic for the Parthian art. Moreover, men are almost always depicted beardless.⁶²⁷

Finally, among pieces of work of Iranian (Parthian, Sassanian) art there is no representation of a horseman with a short spear, while this is common in Georgian art.⁶²⁸

Even this short review is enough to presume that the plates from Dedoplis Gora are of local, Georgian provenance. The inscriptions (on cat. nos. 21, 24, 31–32, 37, 41, 44) strengthen this assumption: They are performed in the type of Aramaic script, which was widely used in Georgia in the Roman epoch and which is usually called Armazian script.⁶²⁹

The inscriptions on the plates are incised with a pointed tool on the area, free from a picture, mainly behind the horsemen's backs. Apparently, the engraver of the inscription is not the same person, who made the drawing. Moreover, it is probable that not all the inscriptions were incised by the same person. The engraving of the letters is deeper than that of the drawing, and the nature of the engraved line is different. The letters are angular, the lines, forming the letters are sometimes missed and a bit elongated, often, the inscriptions overage the drawing. Moreover, the variability of separate letters is more than expected.

⁶²⁵ Strict larynx bit is put in a horse's mouth together with an ordinary bit for immediate restraining and quick controlling of a horse. The rein, fastened to the larynx bit hangs on horse's neck or saddle and is used only in special occasions. The same is the purpose of a curb-bit: The rein is fastened to a lower, descending end of the curb and while restraining it lets the bit turn in the horse's mouth, which presses horse's palate (Grabovski 1982, fig. 84). If the drawing is not misleading, these plates from Dedoplis Gora are the earliest evidences of using larynx bits and curb-bits I'm grateful for a consultation on harness by the writer and riding specialist Nodar Ebralidze.

⁶²⁶ Litvinski/Pichikian 1985, 515; Pichikian 1991, fig. 39.

⁶²⁷ Rostovtzeff et al. 1939, pls. 15, 43.2; Bauer/Rostovtzeff 1931, pls. 43.2, 42.1; Segal 1986, 79 f.; Schlumberger 1985, c. 107.

⁶²⁸ Gagoshidze 1979, pls. 6, 15–16.

⁶²⁹ Cf. ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*, 255.

The author and M. Tsotselia have already dealt with the description and transcription of all seven inscriptions.⁶³⁰ A translation was proposed, as long as the shortness and the, supposedly, magic content, as well as the state of preservation allowed it. Thus, it is difficult not only to identify some of the letters, but simply to notice them and to distinguish them from micro clefts of the bone.

Sculptures (cat. nos. 76–77)

Pan's Head (cat. no. 76)

In the wall debris of Room 13 at Dedoplis Gora, at 45 cm above the floor level, there appeared a round bone sculpture of a human head. The sculpture is vertically cut at the occiput, and it has a hole at the temples that points to the fact that it is a part of some object: It was, apparently, attached to a lid of a box or some other flat object. Despite the strong damage (the sculpture is cracked from heat and incomplete), it is obvious that this is a significant piece of work: The beardless young man has well-modeled brows, almond-shaped eyes, a straight nose with wide nostrils and a widely open mouth; his wavy hair is combed back; at one temple, a lock-like protuberance is visible.

The widely open mouth, as it is known, is characteristic for Pan's representations as this was the detail by which his one feature – producing terrifying sound causing panic – was emphasized. Pan was born with goat's feet and bearded, but beardless Pan's representations appear already from the Classical period on in sculpture, as well as in painting, vase-painting and glyptic.⁶³¹ Such representations are known in Hellenistic and Roman periods, too.⁶³² In Georgia, in the Mtskhetian Crypt, a bronze sculpture of young Pan was found dated to the 1st century A.D.; Pan is playing a double pipe.⁶³³

A terracotta mask from Sarkine of the end of the Hellenistic period should be ascribed to the same group of representations, which appeared together with terracotta busts of Dionysus and

Ariadne and some other masks of Dionysus' companions. The mask shows a beardless man's face with furrowed brows and a widely open mouth; his hair combed back, just like the one of our bone sculpture, is modeled with thin lines.⁶³⁴

Dog (cat. no. 77)

In contrast to the above discussed representation of Pan's head, a small bone (perhaps antler) dog's sculpture is an independent figure and not a part of any other object. The dog is sitting on its hind legs on a semi-oval support, raised, front legs held at the chest. It has a pointed nose and pricked up ears, its eyes are depicted with carved centered circles. This small sculpture is a skillful work, so that it is possible to discuss even the breed of the dog: It looks like an old Egyptian hound or a modern pharaoh's dog.⁶³⁵

It is more difficult to discuss the provenance and the function of this small sculpture. Without straight analogies we can only make presumptions. The only thing, that our dog's sculpture looks very like is Egyptian Anubis, but Anubis was, as a rule, depicted lying.⁶³⁶ However, in the late-Hellenistic and, moreover, the Roman period, we think it is not excluded to depict Anubis sitting on its hind legs. If this opinion is true, it would have some sense to speak about Egyptian provenance of this sculpture. And this sculpture would be one more piece added to the Egyptian collection of finds from Dedoplis Gora.⁶³⁷

Containers (cat. nos. 78–98)

Pyxides (cat. nos. 78–88)

In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora pyxides and their fragments, made of tubular bone of an animal, were excavated on the floor level of the Rooms 1, 10, 12 and 13 (eleven items in all). All of them belong to one type. They are characterized by a cylindrical body, expanding to the bottom, with a disc-like base inserted in it and a lid, which is a short profiled cylinder, cut of tubular bone, with

⁶³⁰ Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991.

⁶³¹ LIMC VIII, 923–941, nos. 36, 38, 40, 44, 49, 54, 59, etc.

⁶³² LIMC VIII, nos. 39, 42, 45, 47, 48, 50, 51, 52, 56, 57, 66, etc.

⁶³³ Lomtadize/Tsitsishvili 1951, 646; Miron/Orthmann 1995, 308, no. 312, fig. 176.

⁶³⁴ Lordkipanidze O. 1974, 943, fig. 32–33; Bokhochadze 1976, 73, pls. 32–34.

⁶³⁵ Swarovsky 1986, 277 f., figs. 1, 2.1.

⁶³⁶ Rubinstein 1980, 89, fig. on 423.

⁶³⁷ Cf. ch. 4.7. *Jewelry*, cat. nos. 1–29; ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. no. 1.

a decorated top inserted into it. On the top outer and the bottom inner edges steps are carved in order to hold the lid and the base. The same kinds of steps are on the sides of the lid, but both steps are inside. A lid is set in one, and the other is fitted on a pyxis. The décor is very simple. Circular grooves and rollers are used to decorate bodies, lids and bases. The pyxides are worked on a machine-tool that is obvious from the dot in the center of both sides of the discs of the base and the lid – the place of fixing to the machine-tool.

Pyxides of different material and shape were used for keeping perfumery and small objects. Bone pyxides were widely spread in the Northern Black Sea region in the Classical period. The production of these items particularly increased in the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. in this region, from where they were exported abroad.⁶³⁸

Nearest parallels of the pyxides from Dedoplis Gora are, in general, of the Classical period, though there is some difference between them in terms of decorating a disc of the body and the lid and its edges. Exactly, according to the decoration of the lid edges, the samples from Dedoplis Gora show more similarity to the bone pyxis from Chataalka, found in Burial 7 of the “Roshala Dragana” necropolis, dated to the second half or the end of the 1st century A.D.; also with the bone pyxides from Dura-Europos, Burials 13, 24 and 40, dated to the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D.⁶³⁹ Because of the availability of the material and the simplicity of their ornamentation, they were produced in other countries as well, included in the sphere of Roman culture, and, among them, in Georgia, too. However, finds of bone pyxides are not very often in Georgia. Besides Dedoplis Gora, there are three sites in Kartli, where they were found. Two pyxides with lids, made of tubular bone of cattle, were excavated in Burials 73 and 96 of Urbnisi cemetery. The burials are dated to the 3rd century A.D.⁶⁴⁰ The pyxides are of the same type, as the ones from Dedoplis Gora, but the lid of the pyxis from the Burial 73 was held with four straps, pierced through the proper holes. One more pyxis was

found near Uplistsikhe, in Burial 10 of the Bambebi necropolis, in which there were engraved bone plates, knucklebones and phalangae. The Bambebi pyxis, in contrast to the Dedoplis Gora one, did not have a lid but has two bulges on the edge; besides, the base is not inserted in a cylinder, but was fixed with six nails.⁶⁴¹ This fact points to the existence of a production center, different from the one of Dedoplis Gora. According to the inventory, Burial 10 in Bambebi is dated to the 1st century B.C.

Boxes (cat. nos. 89–94)

Bone and ivory were used for making boxes of different kinds and functions. Fragments of several boxes were found at Dedoplis Gora, too. Two of them are preserved in comparatively good condition and they allow us to reconstruct their original shape. One of them, found in 1926 and kept at the Georgian National Museum – Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine Arts (cat. no. 89), could possibly be made of ivory, as the back of the plates lacks the sponge-like structure of the inner layer of the bone, though the plates are quite thick. Four sides of the box have been preserved, while the bottom and the lid are lost. However, it is obvious, that the box had the shape of a pencil-box. The front short side is lower than the others, which have a special cutting for slipping the lid. All four sides of the box are covered with framed relief figures. One of the short sides shows a basket and on the other one a sheaf or a bunch of stems is engraved. Long sides represent more complicated compositions. One shows a lying leopard and some creature, perhaps a human figure, stretched in front of it. The other side depicts a winged genie and a rabbit are represented.

Decorating bone and ivory boxes (pyxides, etc.) with relief figures was quite common in the Hellenistic and Roman epochs in Classical countries as well as in the East.⁶⁴² Stylistic features of the relief of our box must be pointing to its eastern provenance, while an ivory plate with a relief representation of the Scylla group, found at Dedoplis Gora, which must also be a part of a box (cat. no. 90) and to which a special article is dedi-

⁶³⁸ Peters 1986, 68.

⁶³⁹ Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 139, pls. 14, 41, 54.

⁶⁴⁰ Javakhishvili K. 1972, 23, 65, 101, 130. Even though in the same burials, there were a 1st century A.D. glass vessel (Saginashvili 1970, nos. 44, 47) and an intaglio (Javakhishvili 1972, no. 4).

⁶⁴¹ Khakhutaishvili 1970, 34, pl. 15.

⁶⁴² Ivanova 1955, 430 f.

cated in this book,⁶⁴³ was undoubtedly imported from the west.

Another box from Dedoplis Gora is similar to the above-mentioned by shape and size, but it differs from that in its construction, as it is made from a tubular bone of an animal, and its surface is decorated with a plain carved ornament (cat. no. 91). The main elements of the ornament are concentric circles made with a pair of compasses – the most common means of decorating bone plated items in Georgia from Neolithic to late Medieval.⁶⁴⁴ This ornament also decorates figured bone plates for incrustation from Dedoplis Gora, which, apparently used to decorate wooden boxes (cat. nos. 96–97). The box was used for keeping pieces of jewelry, which were found next to the fragments.⁶⁴⁵

Plate with a Horsemen (cat. no. 92)

In the wall debris of Room 13 at Dedoplis Gora, at about 50 cm above the floor level, there appeared a rectangular bone – perhaps ivory – plate (9×5.5 cm), strongly damaged by the fire, cracked and deformed (cat. no. 92).

One side has an engraved representation, the opposite is enclosed with an elevated frame. This frame has a cylindrical deepening with a diameter of more than 1 mm near a corner. We may consider that this plate was the lid of a box and this hole helped to suit it to the edge of the box so that it was possible to fix the lid to the box movably. But this is not a convincing explanation, as together with this engraved plate, there appeared another one of similar width but shorter (5.5×7.5 cm), whose both surfaces are framed. It has a similar deepening of the same diameter, which is also cylindrical, but pierced through (cat. no. 93). If the first plate is the lid of a box, then there is no place for the other plate in this box (nearby were fragments of other analogous plates, some of which are probably sides of a box, cf. cat. no. 94).

On the other, frameless surface of the plate, an engraved scene of fighting riders is represented. The horsemen are depicted in the right profile and move right, behind each other. The last rider has a beard and curly hair (?). He is dressed in a

short-sleeved scale armor – *lorica squamata* – and wide, pleated trousers and, apparently, soft leather boots. His headdress is not visible: The plate is damaged at the place, where the upper part of the rider's head should be depicted. On the right side, a dagger or a short sheathed sword, with a round top of the handle, is hung on two straps. The horseman is holding a long spear in both hands and sticking it into the back of the previous rider. If we consider the size of the rider's figure (4.1 cm) in relation to the length of the spear (5.5 cm), the spear should, actually, be 2.20–2.30 m long. The spearhead seems a bit strange, only its back (lower) part being visible (the point is stuck into the back of the defeated rider): There is an impression that it is a trident, but it is more presumable that, here, a big, wide spearhead with a raised ridge is depicted, and the engraved lines, expressing the contour and the ridge, give the impression of a trident.

The previous rider, as well as the attacker, is dressed in a scale armor – *lorica squamata*. But his armor is a bit longer and has dots in the middle of the scales, which must be bulges or some other signs on a real armor. The trousers of this rider are tight and his shoes are laced, by which they look very like the ones of the 1st century A.D. Roman soldiers – *caligae*.⁶⁴⁶ The rider is bent over the horse's neck and covers himself up with a shield. No other weapon is visible. The shield is an elongated hexagon or, more likely, an oval (on the picture it is 2.3 cm; which corresponds to 1 m in reality), and a line goes along the longitudinal axis, which forms a rhomb at the place of *umbo*. Both the shape and the above-mentioned middle line are typical for the late Republican Rome. The same kind of shields was carried by the Roman soldiers, depicted on the altar relief of the so called *Domitius Ahenobarbus*, but they are infantrymen and not cavalrymen, holding shields in their left hands, as it is accepted, and not in the right, as it is on our plates.⁶⁴⁷ In the painting of Hellenistic and Roman period crypts in the Northern Black Sea region, armor and helmet are the elements of defensive equipment, but never a shield, which, as it is here, was carried only by the infantrymen.⁶⁴⁸

Both of the horses are represented in so called “flying gallop”. Both have small bodies, are stur-

⁶⁴³ Ch. 4.3. *Excursus: The Skylla Relief*.

⁶⁴⁴ Kereselidze 1978, 10.

⁶⁴⁵ Cf. ch. 4.7. *Jewelry*, 165.

⁶⁴⁶ Bishop/Coulston 1992, 100, fig. 61.

⁶⁴⁷ Bishop/Coulston 1992, 48, fig. 19; 58, fig. 49.

⁶⁴⁸ Rostovtzeff 1914, 328.

dily-built, strong horses. Their bodies are filled with strokes. The upper part of the back horse's tail is plaited, while the end is divided into two parts. Details of harness are noticed on both horses: Bit, reins, straps for chest, tail and saddle. The back horse has a big round chest buckle, while the front one does not. The back horse has two pairs of reins, one of which joins the chest buckle. On the front horse, behind the rider, saddle horns and an under-saddle rug are clearly visible. In shape, the saddle horns resemble a Roman saddle (cf. the 1st century A.D. saddle).⁶⁴⁹

Some peculiarities attract our attention: It refers to the shield of the front (defeated) rider, which is not a rider's shield neither by its size, nor by its shape and, what is more, the rider holds it in his right hand and not in the left hand, as it was expected. I think that it is not a simple mistake, because this kind of painting, in general, is characterized by accurate recording of ethnographical details. This drawing also bears skill of an experienced artist-engraver, who could not make such a mistake. If we take into consideration a clearly eastern type (Parthian) garment of the victorious rider (wide trousers and soft boots) and garment and armor of the defeated one, which is different from the other and, what is most important, its emphasized Roman accessories (referring particularly to shield and shoes), we may presume, that the artist aimed to express the scene of defeating a Roman, and a big shield of an infantryman must be shown only to underline ethnical belonging of the defeated and nothing else.

Plates for Incrustation and Application (cat. nos. 95–98)

In the north-eastern corner of Room 7 at Dedoplis Gora a wooden box was excavated, from which only two iron hinges were preserved, used for attaching the lid to the body of the box. The hinges have three holes with nails on both parts, which are movably connected to each other. Nearby, there were iron plates with nails for assembling the corners of the box. Near the same box, plates of six different shapes were found, made of a thin bone plaque (cf. cat. no. 96), which was obviously inserted into wood. It is probable, that these plates used to decorate the lid of the box, which stood there, but it is more presum-

able, that a much smaller box, which was decorated with these plates, was kept in this big box. This idea must be supported by the fact, that almost the same set of bone plates was also found in Room 12 (cat. no. 97). Two sorts of plates in both rooms are ornamented with a concentric circle. It is obvious that in the Rooms 7 and 12, there must have been two boxes of the same kind, incrustated by carved bone.

Round, rectangular and triangular bone incrustation plates, decorated with carved circles with centers, were found in Tile-Burial 186 at the Samtavro cemetery and are dated to the 3rd century A.D.⁶⁵⁰ But, in our opinion, this burial must be dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D., according to the pottery and the coins, found inside of it.⁶⁵¹ An analogous ornament decorates round bone plates from Dura-Europos, Burial 40. The same ornament is used in the decor of a quadrangular bone plate from Dura-Europos, Burial 24, while triangular bone plates from the same burial are decorated with double circles around a center, just like the round and drop-shaped plates from Dedoplis Gora. The above-mentioned plates from Dura-Europos were once attached to wood, which disappeared. The burials are dated to the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D.⁶⁵² In the catalog below, together with the incrustation plates, we will discuss disc-shaped plates, too, which are decorated with three circles, made by a pair of compasses. These plates were found separately from the other incrustation plates and might be knucklebones used in some kind of game, as for instance, draughts (cat. 98).

In contrast to the above-mentioned incrustation plates, the application plates (cat. no. 95), which were apparently attached to the surface of a wooden box or a piece of furniture, are decorated with a far more complicated carved ornament. The main elements of the ornament are figures similar to a double-volute capital, seemingly a stylized representation of a lotus flower. These elements are situated symmetrically back to back and are separated from each other by combinations of smooth and broken lines (on two plates) or by vertically ribbed flatnesses (on three plates).

⁶⁵⁰ Manjgaladze 1985, 68, figs. 396, 398.

⁶⁵¹ Ibidem, figs. 393, 395 (pottery); ibidem, 68, 69 (drachm of Artaban II [10–38 A.D.] and denarius of Augustus).

⁶⁵² Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 139, pls. 14, 54.

⁶⁴⁹ Bishop/Coulston 1989, 35, fig. 25.

Instruments (cat. nos. 99–127)

Styluses and Pins (cat. nos. 99–113)

In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora numerous bone objects were found, the major part of which is stem-shaped. In most cases, their one end is pointed, while the other end is decorated with some design or ornament. Two main groups were singled out: bigger, comparatively thick-stemmed objects and the ones with thinner stems. Objects of the first group were found in the center of Room 1 and in the wall debris of Room 13. In Room 1, the stems (cat. nos. 99–100, 103–106) were found in the center of the room, near an iron table. During the excavation there was an impression that we were dealing with a desk set, which lay on the table. Therefore, we consider the items of the first group as styluses.⁶⁵³ Two among them are pointed at both ends. One of these two has a tetrahedral stem (cat. no. 100), the other is round in section (cat. no. 99). The rest of the samples are pointed at one side and round in section. Their heads are decorated with different relief representations (human head, animals, pomegranate flower, shapes of a nail head). One of them, now fully restored, is of particular interest (cat. no. 101). It is a stylus with a relief representation of a human head at the top, found in Room 13. Its stem is round in section, smooth, while the cone-shaped spike is separated from the stem by a step. The same kind of tip was found among the fragments, excavated in the same room (cat. no. 102).

One more sample is noteworthy, which can be included in the styluses' group only conventionally, though its stem is smooth and thick and rather big (cat. no. 106). The head of this object is decorated with a double protome of an animal, mounted on an oval support. At the other end, there is a relief boot-like representation instead of a spike. On the bottom of the boot, there is a longitudinal partition. It creates the impression that the object is sawed and its end is lost. Quite an exact analogy of this object of uncertain function was found in Burial 263 at the Urbnisi cemetery (section XXV), dated to the 2nd century A.D. It is a bone stem of 18.1 cm; round in section, with ornamented heads at both ends. At the same time, one of these heads looks very similar to the or-

namented head ("double-protome") of our object.⁶⁵⁴ Unfortunately, this analogy does not allow us to identify the function of this object either. It must be mentioned that the exact analogy of this head, but without a stem, was found in Burial 9 of the Tsitsamuri III cemetery, on the chest of the deceased.⁶⁵⁵

The second group of stems is considered as pins (cat. nos. 107–113). These objects are characterized by stems, which are round in section, gradually thinning to one end and, apparently, ending in a spike. Sometimes, a stem is decorated with ribs that wind around it. There were cases of artistically decorated heads, too. For example, a bone stylus, which is round in section, was found together with a bronze inkpot in Mtskheta, in a tile-burial near Svetitskhoveli, dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.⁶⁵⁶ A similar object was found in the 1st century A.D. Tile-Burial 35 at the Baiatkhevi cemetery⁶⁵⁷ and in Tile-Burial 186 at the Samtavro cemetery (2nd century A.D.).⁶⁵⁸ A pointed bone stem with a stylized representation of an animal – a pin or a stylus – appeared in a mud-brick burial of the 4th century A.D. at Urbnisi.⁶⁵⁹ Stem-like bone objects are quite frequent in Georgia, particularly in Kartli, at the sites of the Roman period. Some of them are defined as styluses or pins by the excavators or publishers, but in several cases they are undoubtedly styluses.

Single objects were found in Mtskheta, in the Tile-Burials 35 of the Baiatkhevi cemetery⁶⁶⁰ and 186 of the Samtavro cemetery,⁶⁶¹ dated to the 2nd century A.D.; and a third stylus, round in section, was found together with a bronze inkpot in Mtskheta, near Svetitskhoveli, in Tile-Burial 6, dated to the end of the 1st century B.C.–beginning of the 1st century A.D.⁶⁶²

There are more stem-like bone objects – styluses and pins – in the cemetery of the Roman period at Urbnisi (section XXV). Among them, there is a bone stem of 16.5 cm with pointed

⁶⁵³ A bone pyxis was also found here (cat. no. 78). Thus, it is probable that at least one of these stem-like bone objects was a stem for taking ointment out of the pyxis.

⁶⁵⁴ Kereselidze 1978, no. 369, pl. 18.3.

⁶⁵⁵ Nikolaishvili 1995a, figs. 456, 60, 66.

⁶⁵⁶ Apakidze 1978, 72, fig. 447.

⁶⁵⁷ Nikolaishvili 1995b, 131, figs. 1099, 1286.

⁶⁵⁸ Manjgaladze 1985, 68, 172 f.

⁶⁵⁹ Chilashvili 1964, 76, fig. 35; Kereselidze 1978, no. 260.

⁶⁶⁰ Nikolaishvili 1995b, 131, figs. 1099, 1286.

⁶⁶¹ Manjgaladze 1985, 68, 172, 173.

⁶⁶² Apakidze 1978, 72, fig. 447.

ends, from Burial 269 of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. and a similar one of 18.8 cm from Burial 22 of the 3rd century A.D., which are styluses without any doubt.⁶⁶³ Bone stems, round in section, excavated in the 1st century A.D. Burials 110, 170, 189, 205, 234 and in the 2nd century A.D. Burial 142 are defined as pins. Some have only one pointed end, while the other end is crowned by a figured head.⁶⁶⁴ A spiky bone stem, decorated with a stylized representation of an animal, was found in Urnisi, too, in an adobe burial of the 4th century A.D.⁶⁶⁵ Such objects are represented at the sites of the Classical period in the Northern Black Sea region,⁶⁶⁶ in Middle Asia, in the Zaratepe complex,⁶⁶⁷ in Armenia, in the burials of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. at the Garni cemetery;⁶⁶⁸ single stems were found in the Burials 24 and 40 at Dura-Europos, dated to the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D.⁶⁶⁹

Pipes (cat. nos. 114–115)

Among the bone items of Dedoplis Gora, also bone pipes were excavated. We managed to restore two big fragments of pipes. In both cases, it is one half of a tube, expanded on one side, with two holes of each side at an interval of 2 cm.

Bone pipe is one of the oldest types of musical instruments; it is a wind instrument of the type of a modern oboe and a tube of conical or cylindrical shape with holes. The number of the holes on them varies from three to fifteen.

Pipes (*auloi*), which could be single or double (formed of two pipes), were widely spread in the ancient world, as well as in the Northern Black Sea region.⁶⁷⁰ A fragment of a bone pipe was found in the cultural level of the Roman period in the Garni castle.⁶⁷¹

Both pipe fragments from Dedoplis Gora have expanded ends. Their similarity (they are almost identical) and the fact, that both fragments were

found together allows us to presume, that they are bottom ends of a double pipe. In this connection, it is interesting to mention a gold pendant from Khaishi, Svaneti. It is a representation of a tower-like building with a gable roof, on the balcony of which two musicians are depicted. One of them plays on a double pipe. This is undoubtedly a local production and must not be dated later than the Turn of the Era.⁶⁷²

Pipes seem to be common in Georgia from ancient times on. In Mtskheta, in the northern part of the Samtavro cemetery, in Burial 27 (dated to the 13th century B.C.), among other objects, a pipe with three holes was found, made of swan bone and specially polished.⁶⁷³ We must also mention a Roman bronze figurine, excavated in the Mtskhethian Crypt: it is a part of furniture, expressing a bust of a young, nude Pan. According to the position of Pan's hands and mouth, it is presumable that he was playing on a double pipe, which is now lost. The crypt is dated to the end of the 1st century A.D.⁶⁷⁴

Handles (cat. nos. 116–118)

Bone and horn were used for making handles of various tools and implements from ancient times on. A bone-handled iron knife has been excavated at Dedoplis Gora, in the wall debris of Room 13,⁶⁷⁵ but the items discussed below (cat. nos. 116–117), though they undoubtedly were handles, too, are still different in their shape, and no analogous things have been found in Georgia, so far. The handles are, obviously, a pair, and they might be made of ivory. Their rectangular section and a narrow hole at the lower end for piercing a strap allow us to presume that these objects, probably, were handles of small instruments of medical or cosmetic function: Exactly, the instruments of such special function were stringed together in Georgia as well as in Roman Europe.⁶⁷⁶ The special function

663 Kereselidze 1978, nos. 258–259, pls. 13.8, 37.3.

664 Kereselidze 1978, nos. 251–255, 257.

665 Chilashvili 1964, 76, fig. 35.

666 Peters 1986, pl. 12.1–22.

667 Masson 1986, pl. 112.1–10.

668 Arakelian 1957, fig. 43; Arakelian 1951, 54, fig. 47.

669 Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, pls. 14, 54.

670 Peters 1986, 71, pls. 1–20.

671 Arakelian 1957, 75, fig. 42.

672 The first publisher dated it to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. (Javakhishvili A. 1958, 157), later he ascribed this pendant to the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. (Javakhishvili/Abramishvili 1986, 23, pl. 82).

673 L. 20 cm; Diam. 1.1–1.7 cm. Chubinishvili 1957, 34–40; Kalandadze 1980, 87–89.

674 Lomtadze 1955, 646; Miron/Orthmann 1995, 308, no. 312, fig. 176.

675 Cf. ch. 4.5. *Metal Implements*, cat. no. 39.

676 Riha 1986, pl. 9, fig. 8. For toilet articles cf. ch. 4.5. *Metal Implements*, 148.

of the handles is underlined by the fact that, despite of the damage, one of them (cat. no. 117) still bears an engraved representation: chest, shoulders, neck and part of the occiput of a richly dressed human figure can be seen. On the other broad blade of the same handle, there was a representation, but it is impossible to identify any design according to the single lines preserved on it.

To some extent, a pair of scalpels from Augusta Raurica are analogies to this pair of handles. The scalpels are almost of the same size (7.8 cm) and of tetrahedral shape, with the holes at the ends of the handles.⁶⁷⁷ It is remarkable that these handles are cut at the upper part. A small bone handle (cat. no. 118) from Room 11 at Dedoplis Gora is also cut at about two thirds of its length, from where a round hole goes to the center of the opposite facet. We presume this was also a handle of a medical or toilet instrument.

Key (cat. no. 122)

A key made of a tubular bone of an animal, found at the southern wall of Room 11, is so far a unique find in Georgia.⁶⁷⁸

Hinges (cat. nos. 123–127)

Cylinders, sawed from a tubular bone, with two opposed holes, were excavated at the eastern wall and in the center of Room 1 at Dedoplis Gora – three at each place. Three objects of the same kind were found in the wall debris of Room 12 and one fragment – in the wall debris of Room 13 (ten in all).

Considering this kind of things from the 2nd century B.C. Grave 1 of the Artukhovski kurgan, M. I. Maksimova notes that they were used to hinge the doors of cupboards and lids of boxes. The hinges were fixed to the body and the door of a cupboard and revolved on a wooden spindle, pierced through the hinges. The author gives parallels of this kind of boxes from the Geneva and Pompeii Museums (reconstruction) and a gypsum copy of the Boscoreale cupboard and remarks that such objects are quite often among the archaeological material from the Northern

Black Sea region, for example in Olbia and Panticapaeum.⁶⁷⁹

The hinges from Dedoplis Gora are quite big and, therefore, we suppose that they must rather be for a wardrobe, than a box. Actually, in Room 1, they were found on the place, where a wardrobe stood. No similar hinges have been found at any place throughout Georgia.

⁶⁷⁷ Riha 1986, 83, fig. 27.

⁶⁷⁸ For keys of analogous shape cf. Petrie 1917, 59, pls. 75.138, 76.211. Special discussion on keys, see ch. 4.5. *Metal Implements*, cat. nos. 51–53.

⁶⁷⁹ Maksimova 1979, 101 f., no. 35.

Catalog (*Plates 32–47*)

1. Dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6638.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris, at 30 cm above the floor level.

L. of the faces 1.1 cm.

Has been in fire, rust spots on the surface. One corner slightly peeled. Almost a regular cube, circles with central dots engraved on all six faces. Signs arranged non-canonical on the faces: 6 opposite 3; 5 opposite 1; 4 opposite 2.

2. Dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6637.

Found in Room 13, near the northern wall, in the wall debris, at 35 cm above the floor level.

Size 1.1×1×0.8 cm.

Well-preserved, polished surface. Cuboid, length of its sides not uniform. Circles with central dots engraved on all six faces. Signs arranged canonically on the faces: 6 opposite 1; 5 opposite 2; 4 opposite 3.

3. Dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6693.

Found in Room 13, near the western wall, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level.

Size 1×1×1 cm.

White, smooth surface. Cracked in two parts and glued. Almost a regular cube. Signs on the faces arranged canonically.

4. Fragment of a dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6694a.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 3.

Pres. face 1×1 cm; pres. Th. 0.7 cm.

Blackened and cracked by fire, coarse surface. Probably, cube-shaped. Signs on faces arranged canonically.

5. Fragment of a dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6694b.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 3.

L. of the pres. rim 1.1 cm.

White, polished surface.

6. Fragment of a dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6694c.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 3.

Pres. rims 1×0.78 cm; pres. Th. 0.4 cm.

Blackened by fire, coarse surface. Probably, cuboid-shaped. Signs on the faces arranged canonically.

7. Dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6718a.

Found in Room 13, at the entrance, in the wall debris, at 7 cm above the floor level.

Size 1.05×1×0.9 cm.

Cracked by heat, changed color – yellowish-spotted, though the surface is smooth. One corner broken. Cuboid-shaped. Signs on the faces arranged canonically.

8. Dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6718b.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 7.

Size 1.1×0.96×0.87 cm.

Broken in two parts and glued, one rim peeled, smooth surface. Cuboid-shaped. Signs on the faces arranged canonically.

9. Dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6718c.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 7.

Size 1.1×1×0.9 cm.

Cracked by heat, changed color, smooth surface. Cuboid-shaped. Signs on the faces arranged canonically.

10. Fragment of a dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6718d.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 7.

Pres. face 1.1×1 cm; pres. Th. 0.45 cm.

White, polished surface. Cuboid-shaped. Signs on the faces arranged canonically.

11. Fragment of a dice

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6718e.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 7.

Pres. face 1×0.9 cm; pres. Th. 0.55 cm.

Color changed by fire, coarse surface.

12. Astragal

GNM 27- 977: 6688.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris, together with a bone plate and a pig phalanga.

Size 2.6×1.6×1.3 cm.

Pierced at one corner.

13. Astragal

GNM 27- 977: 6687.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris, together with an animal phalanga.

Size 2.5×1.5×1.4 cm.

Pierced in the middle of one edge.

14. Astragal

GNM 27- 977: 6719.

Found in Room 11, on the floor, together with a phalanga (cat. no. 18).

Size 2.9×1.7×1.5 cm.

Pierced in the center of the largest side.

15. Astragals, 12 pieces

GNM 27- 977: 6676.

Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.

Max. L. 3.7 cm.

Five pierced, one of them twice.

16. Phalangae of various animals, 42 pieces

GNM 27- 977: 1038.

Found in Room 1, near the eastern wall, together with engraved plates (cat. nos. 41–48).

Max. L. 4.3 cm; min. L. 2.9 cm.

One pierced in the middle; two with transverse carvings; one with cross carvings.

17. Phalangae of various animals, 165 pieces

GNM 27- 977: 1141, 1142.

Found in Room 3, near the south-western wall, in a wooden box together with engraved plates (cat. nos. 21–40).

Max. L. 3.8 cm; min. L. 3.2 cm.

One pierced in the middle; seven pierced at the top; one pierced twice; two with transverse carvings; five with cross carvings; one with five transverse carvings and a cross carving; one with three transverse carvings (fragmented).

18. Phalanga

GNM 27- 977: 6686.

Found in Room 11, on the floor, together with an astragal (cat. no. 14).

L. 3.3 cm.

Pierced at the top.

Not illustrated.

19. Phalangae, 2 pieces

GNM 27- 977: 6687, 6688.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.

L. 2.7 cm and 2.5 cm.

Not illustrated.

20. Phalangae of various animals, 160 pieces

GNM 27- 977: 6644, 6677, 6680, 6681, 6682, 6683.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris, together with engraved plates (cat. nos. 58–75).

Max. L. 4.3 cm; min. L. 2.7 cm.

Four pierced at the top; one pierced in the middle.

21. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1106.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.8×4.55×0.42 cm.

Glued of four fragments, a small fragment in the middle lost, edges chipped. Yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation (highly worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer or a wild goat. Two lines of Armazian inscription in the top left corner: *hy/qwzt*.

22. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1107.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.75×4.05×0.4 cm.

Broken in two parts and mended in the past: two pairs of copper plaques with two holes each, riveted

with four copper nails through the pierced plate. Yellowish, dark spots. Firm, smooth surface. No engraved representation.

23. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1108.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.8×3.9×0.4 cm.

Glued of two fragments, edges chipped. Yellowish, dark spots. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation (highly worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer (?).

24. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1109.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.68×4.69×0.38 cm.

Broken by heat, glued of four fragments, bottom right corner lost. Yellowish, darker toward the edges. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer.

Along the upper edge of the plate, one line of Armazian inscription: *zl(?)wmq hrh*.

25. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1110.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.65×4×0.39 cm.

Cracked by heat, with drops of a melted mass on the surface. Dirty yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation (badly preserved): Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a deer (?).

26. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1111.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.13×3.85×0.34 cm.

Broken by heat and deformed, glued of many small fragments. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting two boars.

27. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1112.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.5×4.05×0.5 cm.

Cracked and deformed by heat. Yellowish, firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation (almost completely worn): Only the hoof of a horse's hind leg and 6 legs of 3 deer (?) preserved.

28. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1113.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.5×3.73×0.4 cm.

Glued of many small fragments, at the bottom left corner, a small part lost. Yellowish, with dark spots. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation: Fantastic animal, whose front legs end in a horse's hoofs, hind ones – in claws.

29. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1114.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.0×3.5×0.4 cm.

Glued of three pieces, edges a little chipped. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a wild goat (?).

30. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1115.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.5×4.2×0.34 cm.

Glued of five pieces, at the top, a small part lost. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface. Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a deer.

31. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1116.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.55×4.14×0.42 cm.

Bottom right corner lost, edges were chipped earlier. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface. Engraved representation (worn in the middle): Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a wild goat.

In the top left part of the plate, two lines of Armazian inscription: *wt šylks/swsy*. In the second line, *sūsyā* (horse) readable.

32. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1117.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.7×4.5×0.43 cm.

Broken by fire and deformed. Glued of several pieces, top edge chipped. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation (worn in the middle): Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a bear.

In the left part of the plate, four lines of Armazian inscription: *zn/pr'/'wh/b'r*.

33. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1118.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.28×3.8×0.46 cm.

Glued of four pieces, a small part in the middle lost. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface, damaged in some places.

Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a bow.

34. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1119.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.86×4.34×0.36 cm.

Broken by heat, glued of five pieces, surface of the top right corner chipped. Light yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.

Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a deer.

35. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1120.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.25×3.65×0.4 cm.

Broken and deformed by heat, glued of five pieces, a small triangular piece lost in the lower left part. Top and bottom edges were not jagged, originally, the right edge cut straight. Light yellowish, spotted. Firm, coarse surface.

Engraved representation: Fantastic animal – winged horse.

36. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1121.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 4.7×4.15×0.4 cm.

Cracked by heat, with drops of a melted mass on the surface. Light yellowish, dark rust spots. Firm, coarse surface.

Engraved representation (worn): Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a wild goat.

Behind the horseman's back and under the horse's belly (?), an Armazian inscription in two or three lines: *nhyst'/z'/hlq*.

37. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1122.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 40.

Size 3.74×3.74×0.41 cm.

Broken and deformed by heat. Glued of three pieces, the right edge cut straight. Light yellowish in the middle, reddish (rust) at the edges. Firm, smooth surface.

Representation not legible, if there was any.

38. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1123.

Place of finding see below.

Size 4.65×3.8×0.5 cm.

Burnt and welded. Light yellowish.

39–40. Plates, 2 pieces

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1124.

Place of finding see below.

Size 5.1×3.13×0.47 cm; 4.72×4.6×0.5 cm.

Burnt and welded, welded together. Light yellowish. Not illustrated.

The plates cat. nos. 21–40 were found together, in Room 3, at the south-western wall. They were put as a set of cards in a wooden box (size approx. 20×20×10 cm), which was sealed with four clay bullae (cat. of bullae nos. 15–18). Be-

sides the plates there were 165 phalanges of ungulate mammals (cat. no. 17).

41. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1030.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 4.35×4.15×0.5 cm.

Glued of four pieces, small part lost; top and bottom (partly) edges chipped. Gray. Firm, polished surface. Engraved representation (worn in some places): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a boar. Behind the knight and the horse, also at the boar's head, an Armazian inscription in eight lines: *h/trqwd/hbln/znh/swsy/hd/h/st (syn?)*. "It is / dark and / fatal (destroying) / this / horse / One / is / loot" (use, profit, kindness).

42. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1031.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 4.2×4×0.45 cm.

Glued of two pieces, edges chipped. Gray. Firm, polished surface;

Engraved representation (partly worn): Fantastic creature – lion-griffin with eagle's beak.

43. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1032.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 4.15×3.6×0.45 cm.

Glued of three pieces, edges chipped. Gray, dark spots. Firm, polished surface.

Engraved representation: Anthropomorphic demon with a club-like baton in his left hand, mounted on an eagle, killing a snake-bodied dragon with a long spear.

44. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1033.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 4×4.05×0.42 cm.

Glued of five pieces, edges chipped. Gray, bluish spots. Firm, polished surface.

Engraved representation: Long-tailed animal with a mane, stretched on the ground, unusually foreshortened, viewed from above. Four Armazian letters in the right corner of the plate, in two lines: *' / qdr*.

45. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1034.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 4.5×3.8×0.45 cm.

Glued of two pieces, edges chipped. Gray, with bluish spots. Firm, polished surface.

Engraved representation (worn): Hen-like bird.

46. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1035.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 4×3.75×0.5 cm.

Edges chipped. Gray. Firm, polished surface.

Engraved representation: Horse-like animal.

47. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1036.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 48.

Size 3.95×3.75×0.42 cm.

Glued of three pieces, edges chipped, bottom left corner lost. Gray, bluish spots. Firm, polished surface. Highly worn, only traces of the engraved representation visible.

48. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1037.

Place of finding see below.

Size 4.75×4.63×0.54 cm.

Gray, bluish spots, polished surface. Firm, glued of four pieces.

No engraved representation.

The plates cat. nos. 41–48 were found together, in Room 1, at the eastern wall, in the middle of the floor. 42 phalanges of ungulate mammals, mainly pig, were scattered nearby (cat. no. 16). Perhaps, the plates and the phalanges were kept in a wooden box.

49. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6724.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.

Size 4.45×3.9×0.37 cm.

Glued of three pieces, top and bottom edges chipped. White. Soft, smooth surface.

Engraved representation: Beardless man, armed with a spear, killing a rearing lion-like animal, that opposes him.

50. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6725.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.

Size 4.1×3.67×0.30 cm.

Glued of two pieces, top and bottom edges chipped. White. Soft, smooth surface. Notch on the right side of the plate.

Engraved representation: Man, armed with a spear, killing a rearing boar, that opposes him.

51. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6726.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.

Size 4.24×3.7×0.4 cm.

Glued of three pieces, deformed by heat. White. Firm, smooth surface. Notches on both right and left sides.

Engraved representations on both sides: Man, armed with a spear, killing an animal (boar?), that opposes him; a beast – dog or wolf – attacking a deer.

52. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6727.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.
 Size 4.5×4.15×0.43 cm.
 Glued of two pieces, edges chipped. White. Firm, smooth surface.
 Engraved representation: Big cat – leopard or lion.

53. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6728.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.
 Size 4.1×4.0×0.4 cm.
 Cracked by heat, edges slightly chipped. White. Firm, smooth surface.
 Engraved representation (worn in the middle): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a boar (?).

54. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6729.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.
 Size 4.96×4.48×0.4 cm.
 Glued of five pieces, edges slightly chipped. White. Soft, smooth surface, damaged.
 Engraved representation (partly worn): Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a deer.

55. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6730.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.
 Size 4.87×4.48×0.45 cm.
 Cracked by heat, edges and right corner chipped. White, yellowish spots.
 Engraved representation (partly worn): Horseman, armed with a bow, hunting a deer (?).

56. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6731.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 57.
 Size 4.57×4.31×0.4 cm.
 Glued of five pieces, top right corner separately, rather big triangular part in the top right lost. White, slightly yellowish. Firm, smooth surface.
 Engraved representation (highly worn): Horseman, probably armed with a bow, hunting a deer. Notch on the right side of the plate.

57. Fragment of a plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6732.
 Place of finding see below.
 Left bottom corner of a plate. White. Firm, coarse surface.
 Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer.

The plates cat. nos. 49–57 were found together, in Room 13, in the wall debris. The plates were scattered in the center of the room, at 40–50 cm above the floor level. Nearby, there were two pig phalanges (GNM 27- 977: 6763).

58. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6649.

Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
 Size 5.12×5.24×0.47 cm.
 White, with pinkish and yellowish spots. Soft, smooth surface.
 Engraved representation (slightly worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a boar.

59. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6653.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
 Size 4.04×4.09×0.44 cm.
 Glued of two pieces, top right corner lost. White, with pinkish, yellowish and rust spots. Firm, smooth surface.
 Engraved representation (worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a boar.

60. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6657.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
 Size 4.58×4.36×0.42 cm.
 Broken by heat and slightly deformed. Glued of one white and two grayish pieces. Firm, smooth surface, bone-texture visible.
 Engraved representation (worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer.
 An Armazian inscription (?) under the horse's belly.

61. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6647.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
 Size 5.03×3.94×0.4 cm.
 Glued of ten pieces. Top part, lower middle part and bottom right corner lost. White, one fragment grayish. Firm, polished surface.
 Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting two animals – deer and roe (?).

62. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6662.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
 Size 4.5×4.14×0.4 cm.
 Glued of two pieces, edges chipped. Dirty white, with a rust-colored spot. Firm, smooth surface. Edges rounded.
 Engraved representation (worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting two (?) animals.

63. Fragment of a plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6650.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
 Pres. size 2.9×4.5×0.47 cm.
 Left part of a plate. Glued of two pieces. Bluish white, with yellowish spots. Soft, smooth surface.
 Engraved representation: Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer.

64. Plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6651.
 Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.

- L. 4.38 cm; pres. H. 2.13 cm; Th. 0.5 cm.
Glued of two pieces. Whitish, with yellow and rosy spots. Soft, smooth surface.
Engraved representation (partly worn): Horseman, armed with a javelin, hunting a deer.
65. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6645.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
L. 4.4 cm; pres. H. 2.8 cm; Th. 0.48 cm.
Top half of a plate. Glued of three pieces. White, with yellowish spots. Firm, polished surface.
No engraved representation visible. Letter-like incisions visible, presumably accidental.
66. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6659.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
L. 4.5 cm; pres. H. 2.18 cm; Th. 0.42 cm.
Top or bottom half of a plate. Glued of three pieces. Yellowish white, with a rust-colored spot. Firm, polished surface.
No engraved representation visible. Disorderly incised lines accidental.
67. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6648.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Bluish white. Soft, polished surface.
Pres. size 2.95×1.95×0.47 cm.
Not illustrated.
68. Fragments of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6648.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Three fragments. Yellowish white. Firm, polished surface.
Bottom part of the plate (two glued fragments):
L. (fully pres.) 4.3 cm; pres. H. 1.8 cm; Th. 0.37 cm.
Top left corner: Pres. size 2.68×0.86×0.37 cm.
69. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6652.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Size 1.12×0.9×0.42 cm.
White. Soft, smooth surface.
Not illustrated.
70. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6656.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Size 2.32×1.84×0.33 cm.
Glued of two pieces. White. Firm, smooth surface.
Not illustrated.
71. Plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6656, 6658.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Size 3.9×2.6×0.25 cm.
White, small yellowish spots. Firm, polished surface.
Engraved representation on both sides: A horse galloping to the right; a red deer with turned head, directed to the right.
72. Plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6661.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Size 3.7×3×0.23 cm.
White, with yellowish spots. Firm, polished surface on one side, on the other side bone-texture visible.
No representation.
73. Plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6664.
Place of finding see below, at cat. no. 75.
Size 3.26×2.71×0.24 cm.
Glued of two pieces; bottom right corner lost. Yellowish white. Firm, polished surface on one side, on the other side bone-texture visible.
No representation.
74. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6663.
Place of finding see below.
L. 3.9 cm; pres. H. 3 cm; Th. 0.27 cm.
Bottom left part broken. White. Smooth, polished surface on one side, the other side firm, bone texture visible.
No engraved representation.
75. Fragment of a plate
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6663.
Place of finding see below.
Size 2.7×1.45×0.27 cm.
White. Smooth, polished surface on one side, the other side firm, bone texture visible.
No engraved representation.
Not illustrated.
- The plates cat. nos. 58–75 were found together, in Room 12, in the wall debris. The plates were scattered in the southern part, at 40–50 cm above the floor level. Together with them, there were 160 phalangae (and some fragments) of ungulate mammals (cat. no. 20).
76. Sculpture of a human head (Pan)
Ivory. GNM 27- 977: 6723.
Found in Room 13, near the northern wall, in the wall debris, 45 cm above the floor level.
H. 3.7 cm; W. 2.8 cm; Th. 2.0 cm.
Cracked by heat. Light brownish. Vertically cut at the occiput. Pierced through the temples. Beardless young man with well-modeled brows, almond-shaped eyes, straight nose with wide nostrils and wide open mouth; his wavy hair combed back.

77. Sculpture of a dog

Bone (antler?). GNM 27- 977: 1008.
 Found in Room 1, in the north-western corner.
 H. 5.2 cm; L. of the base 2.6 cm; W. 1.7 cm.
 Grayish-white. Polished in the bottom, coarse at the top owing to the fire.
 Figure of a dog on a semi oval base, sitting on its hind legs, with ears put up, pointed nose and circled eyes. No tail visible; forelegs broken.

78. Pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1013.
 Found in Room 1, in the center near an iron table, on the floor, together with bone styluses (cat. nos. 99-100, 103-106).
 H. 4.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 3 cm; Diam. of the base 3.4 cm; Diam. of the inserted bottom 2.9 cm; Th. of the wall 0.25 cm.
 Cylindrical shape, expanding to the bottom. Three encircled grooves at the base. Rim narrowed by a step for covering with a (lost) lid. Step also inside at the bottom, a separately made bone disc glued in there. Two concentric grooves along the edge of this disc from below. On both sides central dots.
Analogies: Urbnisi, Burial 73 (section XXV); bone pyxis with a lid; with four holes for straps; H. 2 cm; Diam. 1.6 cm; GNM 1- 59: 2395 (not published); Kereselidze 1978, no. 359, pl. 18.1; Khakhutaishvili 1970; 141, pl. 45; Peters 1986, 145, pl. 14, 25; Buiukliev 1986, 92, pl. 29, 390; Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 139, pl. 14, 41, 54.

79. Pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6702.
 Found in Room 12, near the eastern wall, on the floor.
 H. 3.05 cm; upper and lower Diam. 1.88 and 2.05 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2 cm; H. of the lid step 0.2 cm; Th. of the wall here 0.08 cm; H. of the base step 0.32 cm; Th. of the wall here 0.16 cm.
 Nearly a quarter of the sides lost. Fragile from heat. White. Polished surface, now coarse. Cylindrical shaped, expanding to the bottom. Two encircled grooves at the base. Rim narrowed by a step for covering with a (lost) lid. Step also inside at the bottom for inserting a (lost) base.
Analogies: See cat. no. 78
 The pyxis makes up a pair with the below discussed pyxis cat. no. 100.

80. Pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6717.
 Found in Room 12, at the eastern wall, on the floor.
 H. 2.99 cm; Diam. 1.88 and 1.9 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2 cm.
 Glued of three pieces, nearly half of it lost. White. Cylindrical shape, expanding to the bottom. Two encircled grooves at the base. Stepped at rim and bottom for (lost) lid and base.
Analogies: See cat. no. 78.

81. Fragment of a pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6753.
 Found in Room 10, in the northern part, in the wall debris.
 Size 3.4×2.5 cm; Th. 0.42 cm; Th. at the step 0.2 cm.
 Part of the top edge with lid step. White. Plain, polished surface. Cylindrical shape.
Analogies: See cat. no. 78.

82. Pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6708a.
 Found in Room 13, at the northern wall, on the floor.
 H. 5.65 cm; Diam. down 2.4-2.6 cm; Diam. up 2.1-2.2 cm; Th. of the wall 0.28 cm.
 Glued of five pieces. Deformed by fire. White. Polished surface, partly preserved. Uneven cylindrical shape. Stepped at rim and bottom for (lost) lid and base. Outside 5 pairs of encircled grooves.
Analogies: Peters 1986, 175, pl. 14.4.

83. Fragment of a pyxis-lid

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6708b.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 82.
 Diam. 2.5 cm; Th. 0.2 cm.
 One edge broken. Deformed by fire. White. Polished surface. Disc, rim stepped. Outside in the center, relief circles with central deepening. A central dot on the back.
Analogies: Peters 1986, 175, pls. 14.6, 18.

84. Fragment of a pyxis-lid

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6708.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 82.
 H. of the side 0.9 cm; Diam. 3 cm; Th. of the wall 0.25 cm.
 Glued of three pieces, less than half of the full circle. Slightly deformed by fire. White. Polished surface. Short cylinder. Outside, two encircled grooves, below, a row of vertical ribs.
 Inside, stepped on both edges. The lower step for covering the pyxis, the upper for holding a disc as roof of the lid. Probably, belonging to cat. no. 83.
Analogies: Buiukliev 1986, 92; pls. 29, 390.

85. Fragment of a pyxis-lid

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6708a.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 82.
 H. 0.9 cm; Diam. 2.7 cm; Th. of the wall 0.25 cm.
 Similar to cat. no. 84.

86. Base or lid plate of a pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6717b.
 Found in Room 12, together with a pyxis (cat. no. 80).
 Diam. 1.7-1.9 cm; Th. 0.2 cm; Diam. of the central ornament 1 cm.
 Deformed by heat. White. Outside in the center, two concentric grooves. Inside, a central dot.
Analogies: close analogies are found in materials from the Northern Black Sea region (Peters 1986, pl. 14.6, 18); it resembles them in the central orna-

ment, though, in contrast to them, it does not have a groove around the edge.

87. Base or lid plate of a pyxis

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6710a.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris.

Diam. 2.15 cm; Th. 0.1–0.2 cm.

Burnt and deformed, coarse surface. Yellowish white, with dark dots. Outside, two concentric grooves. Central dots on both sides.

88. Fragment of a pyxis-lid

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6710b.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris, near a disc (cat. no. 87).

Diam. 2.3 cm; H. 0.6 cm.

Short cylinder. Inside, stepped on both edges. Upper part broadened and profiled outside by two bulges. Above, a double groove.

Analogies: Buiukliev 1986, 92, pls. 29, 390.

89. Four side plates of a box

Bone (ivory?). GNM FA A 141: 2626.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size of the plates:

1. 8.7×2.3×0.7 cm; 2. 9.3×2.3×0.7 cm;

3. 4.5×2.3×0.7 cm; 4. 4.5×2.0×0.7 cm.

Broken by fire, partly preserved. White. Polished surface. Rectangular box (L. 9.3 cm; W. 4.5 cm; H. 2.3 cm). All four sides fragmentarily preserved, two long and two short, lid and bottom lost. Edges cut obliquely from inside to bind a box. Rectangular-framed deepening inside. At the bottom edge of the frame of all four sides, a groove to insert the bottom of the box, the same groove at the top of three plates to slide the lid through it. The fourth narrow side without deepening – the lid slid over it.

On the surface of all four sides, relief representations inside of rectangular relief frames. On one of the long sides, a big cat (leopard?) to the right, the fore-legs stretched ahead and covering some creature (human figure?) in front of it. (Partly preserved.) On the other long side, a winged Genius flying to the right: the left leg put forward and bent in the knee, right hand and leg put backward, the left hand is put forward. Opposite a sitting rabbit to the left.

On one short side, a basket, on the other side, a sheaf or a bundle of stalks fastened in two or three places by a lace.

90. Plate with relief of Scylla

Ivory. GNM 27- 977: 6721.

Found in Room 13, in the north-eastern part, in the wall debris, at 10–50 cm above the floor level.

W. 4.75–5 cm; L. 6.4–6.75 cm; Th. 0.5 cm.

Broken and deformed by heat. Glued of many fragments, middle part in the upper half (Scylla's head and chest) and several fragments at the right frame lost. Reddish-yellowish. Firm, polished surface. Rectangular plate with a hole (Diam. 0.5 cm) in the center, probably, for fixing a handle. Relief representa-

tion in a three-stepped frame, smooth back. At the edges, slanting holes (Diam. 0.2 cm) for fixing it to some support. The holes arranged in every 1 cm on three sides: 6 on top and bottom sides, 7 on the left side, but only 3 on the right side (20 in all).

The very skillful relief representation shows Scylla, kidnapping Odysseus' companions. Scylla with the torso of a naked women and three dog protomes instead of the legs. In the bottom corners, two dogs biting two young men on their knees. Scylla holding a scull in her left hand, with her right pulling out a helmsman on his hair from the bow of the ship behind her and handing him to the third dog, at the left edge of the plate. In the top right corner, Odysseus with a helmet.

Cf. ch. 4.3. Scylla Relief.

91. Fragments of a box

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1009.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

a. W. 2.3 cm; Th. 0.4 cm; pres. L. 2.9 cm.

b. W. 1.9 cm; Th. 0.4 cm; pres. L. 7.6 cm.

Fragmented, slightly deformed by heat. White or slightly yellowish. Both surfaces polished, on the inner surface, bone structure visible.

Rectangular box (L. 9.3 cm; W. 4.3 cm; H. 2.3 cm – reconstructed according to the ornament; compare with the size of the box no. 89). Plates of two kinds, different in width, preserved. At the end of both, triangular cogs for inserting the box walls into each other. Inside, along the wide plates, rectangular grooves at top and bottom, the edges of the narrow plates stepped from inside. Outer surface decorated with a carved ornament. Pairs of doubled concentric circles with a central dot, framed by grooves alongside the plates and connected to each other by diagonal grooves.

92. Plate with fighting scene of horsemen

Bone, probably ivory. GNM 27- 977: 6767a.

Found in Room 13, in the north-western corner, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above floor level. L. 9.4 cm; W. 5.6 cm; Th. including frame 0.3 cm; without frame 0.25 cm.

Broken and strongly deformed by fire, impossible to be glued. Ten pieces of different size, top right part and bottom edge lost. Reddish-yellowish, with white spots. Firm, polished surface. Rectangular plate with framed back (0.3–0.35 cm wide frame raised 0.05 cm). Engraved representation of a fight between two horsemen.

Could be the lid of a box: on the frame, a single hole (Diam. less than 2 mm) near one of the corners, by which the plate, was, probably, set on a spindle of the box. Probably, belonging to cat. no. 93.

93. Fragments of a box (?)

Ivory (?). GNM 27- 977: 6767b.

Found in Room 13, near the northern wall, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above the floor level, together with cat. no. 92.

Reconstructed size of one of the plates: L. 7.5 cm; W. 5.6 cm; Th. 0.15–0.3 cm; W. of the frame 0.3 cm. Burnt, deformed and smashed. Yellowish-brownish. Rectangular plate, framed on both sides. The frame at one corner pierced, beneath, a second hole, not pierced to the end. Probably, belonging to cat. no. 92.

94. Fragments of a box (?)

Ivory (?). GNM 27- 977: 6767c.
Found at the same place as cat. no. 93.
Pres. L. of one of the fragments 6 cm; pres. W. 2.5 cm; Th. 0.2–0.3 cm; W. of the frame 0.2–0.3 cm. Burnt and deformed. Yellowish-brownish. Rectangular plates, framed on one side. Several small holes, situated in a rectangular deepening.

95. Fragments of the decoration of a box, 7 pieces

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1010.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, on the floor.
a. L. 8.7 cm; W. 2–2.2 cm; Th. 0.2–0.27 cm.
b. L. 11 cm; W. 1.5–1.7 cm; Th. 0.2–0.27 cm.
c. Pres. L. 8.1 cm; W. 1.5–1.6 cm; Th. 0.24–0.27 cm.
d. Pres. L. 5.7 cm; W. 1.5–1.7 cm; Th. 0.15–0.3 cm.
e. Pres. L. 4.4 cm; W. 1.5 cm; Th. 0.24 cm.
f. Pres. L. 2.3 cm; W. 1.5 cm; Th. 0.25 cm.
g. Pres. L. 1.8 cm; pres. W. 1.3 cm; Th. 0.25 cm.
Fragmentary, only plates (a.) and (b.) fully preserved in length and width. Gray. Polished surface, back smooth, bone-structure visible. Flat rectangular plates, edges sometimes narrowed. Holes at each preserved narrow edge, probably, for fixing on some support.
Covered with a carved ornament. Main element: bundled stripes, scrolled to pairs of volutes in areas framed by straight lines and arranged symmetrically. At the narrow edges and between them zig-zag-lines, or (on a, d, e) a vertically ribbed area. On (c.) an area with 15 alternating straight and zigzag lines.

96. Incrustation plates, 31 pieces and fragments

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6672.
Found in Room 7, in the north-eastern corner, on the floor, near a wooden box.
White. Fragile, polished surface, on the back, bone-structure visible.
Six different shapes:
a. Longish, drop-shaped, with doubled concentric grooves, 11 more or less complete and several fragments.
L. 5.6–5.8 cm; W. 1.1–1.2 cm; Th. 0.25 cm.
b. Disc-shaped, with doubled concentric grooves, 1 piece.
Diam. 1.5 cm; Th. 0.25 cm.
c. Heart-shaped, plain surface, 6 pieces.
L. 1.1–1.5 cm; W. 0.6–0.9 cm; Th. 0.2–0.25 cm.
d. Narrow, rectangular with a longitudinal groove in the middle, 16 pieces and 14 fragments.
L. 1.9–2.2 cm and 3.2 cm; W. 0.4–0.5 cm; Th. 0.2–0.23 cm.
e. Plain, disc-shaped, partly preserved, 1 piece.
Diam. 1.7 cm; Th. 0.25 cm.

f. Fragment of a figured plate, ornamented with one concentric groove.
Pres. L. 1.6 cm; W. 0.5 cm; Th. 0.05–0.2 cm.

97. Incrustation plates, 20 pieces and fragments

Bone GNM 27- 977: 6654, 6692.
Found in Room 12, in the southern part, in the wall debris, at 10–30 cm above the floor level.
a. Longish, pointed drop shape, with doubled concentric grooves, 7 pieces and fragments.
L. 4 cm; W. 1.3 cm; Th. 0.2 cm.
b. Disc-shaped, with doubled concentric grooves, 2 pieces.
Diam. 1.6 cm; Th. 0.2 cm.
c. Heart-shaped, plain surface, 6 pieces.
L. 1.0–1.4 cm; W. 0.6–0.8 cm; Th. 0.1–0.15 cm.
Plates are the same as (a., b., c.) from Room 7 (cat. no. 96), there is a little differences in their size only.

98. Disc-shaped plates, 9 pieces.

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6669, 6769.
Found in Room 13, in the north-western corner, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above floor level (7 pieces) and in the north-eastern part, on the floor (2 pieces).
Diam. 1.3–1.5 cm; Th. 0.18–0.28 cm.
Yellowish and white. Fragile, formerly polished surface now coarse, on the back bone-structure visible.
Three grooved circles with dots in the center.
Fragmentary plate of this kind was found in Room 10, GNM 27- 977: 6739.

99. Stylus

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1012a.
Found in Room 1, in the center near an iron table, on the floor, together with the styluses (cat. nos. 100, 103–106) and a bone pyxis (cat. no. 78).
L. 16 cm; max. Diam. 0.5 cm.
Gray. Polished surface. Stem round in section, pointed at both ends.

Analogies: Nikolaishvili 1995b, 131, figs. 1099, 1286; Manjgaladze 1985, 68, 172–173; Kereselidze 1978, nos. 258–259, pls. 13, 37.3; Arakelian 1952, 54, fig. 47; Arakelian 1957, fig. 43; Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, pls. 14, 54; Peters 1986, pl. 12.1–22; Masson 1986, pl. 112.1–10.

100. Stylus

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1012b.
Found at the same place as cat. no. 99.
L. 17 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.5×0.3 cm.
Gray. Polished surface. Stem tetragonal in section, pointed at both ends.

101. Stylus

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6699.
Found in Room 13, in the south-eastern part, on the floor.
L. 14.8 cm; size of the head 1.5×1.0×0.7 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.5 cm; Diam. of the tip 0.15 cm.

- White. Polished surface. Stem round in section, with a relief of a human head at the top, oval from above: Sharp carving with almond-shaped eyes, brows, straight nose, lips, and round chin. Below the occiput, a rectangular protuberance. At the bottom end of the stem, a cone-shaped tip.
102. Fragments of styluses, 6 pieces
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6670.
 Found in Room 13, in the north-eastern part, in the wall debris.
 Diam. of the stem 0.5×0.3 cm.
 White. Polished surface. Stems round in section. On one stem a tip, separated by a step, preserved (as cat. no. 101).
 Not illustrated.
103. Fragment of a stylus
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1012c.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 99.
 Pres. L. 7.8 cm; size of the head 0.2×0.4×0.4 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.3×0.2 cm.
 Gray. Polished surface. Stem round in section, thinned at the head and thickened to the middle part, end broken. Head, separated by three encircled grooves, in shape of a mushroom cap.
104. Fragment of a stylus (?)
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1012d.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 99.
 Pres. L. 9 cm; size of the head 1.2×0.7×0.7 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.35 cm.
 Gray. Polished. Stem round in section, end broken. Head in the shape of a pomegranate flower.
105. Fragment of a stylus (?)
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1012e.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 99.
 Pres. L. 12.5 cm; Diam. of the head 0.5 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.4 cm.
 Gray. Polished surface. Stem round in section, end broken. Nail-shaped head, separated by a groove.
106. Stylus (?)
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1044, 1045.
 Found at the same place as cat. no. 99.
 L. 17.7 cm; head 2.5×1.2×0.4 cm; end 0.7×0.7×0.4 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.4 cm.
 Glued of several pieces. Gray. Polished surface. Stem round in section. Head in shape of a lyre. Boot-shaped bottom, separated from the stem by a step, a thin longitudinal rib along the bottom.
Analogy: Kereselidze 1978, no. 360, pl. 18.3.
107. Fragment of a pin
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6667.
 Found in Room 11, at the door.
 L. of the upper ornamented part 2.5 cm; W. 0.7–0.4 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.3×0.2 cm.
 Curved by heat, end lost. White. Polished surface. Stem round in section, with a complex ornamented head.
108. Fragment of a pin
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6716.
 Found in Room 11, at the south-eastern wall, in the wall debris, at 30–40 cm above the floor level.
 Size of the head 0.3×0.4 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.25 cm.
 White. Stem equally round in section, part lost. Ball-like head.
 Not illustrated.
109. Fragments of pins, 2 pieces
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6696.
 Found in Room 11, near the northern wall, on the floor.
 Diam. of the stem 0.4–0.2 cm.
 Whitish-yellowish. Stems round in section, curved and gradually thinning toward the ends. Trace of breaking at the top part of both. In the upper part of one, two round grooves, in the other only one.
 Not illustrated.
110. Fragments of pin stems, 3 pieces
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6764.
 Found in Room 13, in the north-western corner, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above the floor level.
 Diam. of the stem 0.4–0.3 cm.
 Whitish. Stem round in section, encircled by three or four grooves with intervals. Head and end lost.
 Not illustrated.
111. Fragments of pins, 9 pieces
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6700, 6714.
 Found in Room 11, at the door, together with a pin (cat. no. 107).
 Diam. of the stems 0.5; 0.4; 0.3; 0.2 cm.
 Whitish-yellowish. Curved, plain stems, round in section. One of them, part of a tip.
 Not illustrated.
112. Fragments of pins, 5 pieces
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6703.
 Found in Room 12, near the eastern wall, on the floor.
 Diam. of the stem 0.3–0.4 cm.
 Shape similar to cat. no. 111.
 Not illustrated.
113. Fragment of a pin tip
 Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6770.
 Found in Room 11, near the northern wall, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above floor level, together with scale plates.
 Diam. of the stem 0.1–0.3 cm.
 Brownish. Stem round in section, pointed end.
 Not illustrated.

114. Fragment of a pipe

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6697a.

Found in Room 11, near the door, on the floor.

Pres. L. 8.1 cm; Diam. 1.7–2.0 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2–0.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.25 cm; distance between the holes 3 cm.

Fragile, glued of several pieces, only part of the upper side preserved. White. Polished surface.

Analogies: Arakelian 1957, 75, fig. 42; Peters 1986, 71, pl. 1–20.

115. Fragment of a pipe

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6697b.

Found at the same place as cat. no. 114.

Pres. L. 6.7 cm; other measures identical to cat. no. 114.

Shape and condition similar to cat. no. 114.

116. Handle

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6765.

Found in Room 13, in the north-western corner, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above the floor level.

L. 8.5 cm; W. 1.5–1.6 cm; Th. 0.6–0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

Glued of four pieces. Well-polished surface, coarse now because of fire. White and yellowish. In the hole, where the tool was inserted, iron rust preserved.

Rectangular shape, narrowed toward the top. Small cavity, at the top rectangular in section, ending round in section. Near the bottom, a hole between the sides.

117. Handle, fragmentary

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6766.

Found near cat. no. 116.

Pres. L. 8.1 cm; W. 1.5 cm; Th. 0.7 cm.

Fragments, upper part lost. Surface partly burnt. Shape similar to cat. no. 116.

Remains of engraved representations: On one side, a human figure, parts of occiput, neck, shoulder and hand; chest frontal, head in right profile. Double line (from a headdress?) near the occiput, shoulders covered with a garment, ornamented with a rhombic net, which has a low collar, depicted by two double arcs. On the other side, only traces of vertical lines, linked with short, horizontal, oblique sections.

118. Handle

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6636.

Found in Room 11, in the center, on the floor, together with bow laths (cat. of weapons nos. 14, 17).

L. 3.6 cm; W. 1.2 cm; Th. 1.0–1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm; W. of the section 0.2 cm.

Slightly bent by heat. White, polished surface.

Rectangular shape, cut at two thirds of the length on one side, a round hole from the bottom of the cutting through the center of the opposite side.

119. Fragment of a furniture

Ivory. GNM 27- 977: 6722.

Found in Room 11, at the southern wall, on the floor. Size 2.8×0.6–3.1×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5–0.7 cm.

Fragmentary, burnt. Yellowish. Nearly conical-shaped, broken at the bottom. Covered by concentric horizontal ribs. Pierced lengthwise. Probably, belonging to cat. no. 120.

120. Fragment of a furniture

Ivory. GNM 27- 977: 6722.

Found in Room 11, at the southern wall, on the floor.

Pres. size: H. 4.7 cm; W. 1.7–3.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.8 cm.

Fragmentary, burnt. White with traces of yellowish surface. Nearly conical-shaped, broken at the top. Flat bottom, pierced lengthwise. Probably, belonging to cat. no. 119.

121. Fragment of a furniture

Ivory. GNM 27- 977: 6707.

Found in Room 13, in the north-western part, in the wall debris.

Pres. H. 3.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm.

Fragmentary, burnt. White. Conical-shaped. Flat, circular bottom, with a conical hole in the center.

122. Key

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6691.

Found in Room 11, at the southern wall, on the floor.

L. 22.5 cm; W. of the handle 2.1 cm; Th. of the handle 0.4–0.5 cm; W. of the stem 1.0 cm; Th. of the stem 0.6 cm.

Burnt. White. Flat handle, pierced at the end. Stem rectangular in section, with four cogs at the end.

123. Hinges, 3 pieces

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1039.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall.

a. H. 1.8–2.2 cm; Diam. 2.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm; Th. of the wall 0.3–0.4 cm.

b. H. 1.7 cm; Diam. 2.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm; Th. of the wall 0.4–0.5 cm.

c. H. 1.3–1.5 cm; Diam. 2.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2–0.5 cm.

Grayish-blackish. Short cylinders, sawed from a tubular bone, with two opposed holes. Two pieces obliquely cut, one partly preserved.

Analogies: Maksimova 1979, 101, fig. 35.

124. Hinges, 3 pieces

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1042.

Found in Room 1, in the center near an iron table, on the floor.

a. H. 1.7–2.2 cm; Diam. 3.0–3.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.25 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2–0.6 cm.

b. H. 1.6 cm; Diam. 2.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm; Th. of the wall 0.3–0.4 cm.

c. H. 1.0–1.3 cm; Diam. 2.6–2.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2–0.6 cm.

Shape similar to cat. no. 123.

125. Hinges, 2 pieces

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6709, 6713.

Found in Room 12, in the center, in the wall debris, at 30–40 cm above the floor level.

a. H. 1.5–1.7 cm; Diam. 2.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.6 cm; Th. of the wall 0.3–0.6 cm.

b. H. 1.5–1.6 cm; Diam. 1.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm; Th. of the wall 0.3–0.4 cm.

White. Shape similar to cat. no. 123.

126. Hinge

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6711.

Found in Room 12, in the center, in the wall debris, at 30–20 cm above the floor level.

H. 1.7–2.0 cm; Diam. 2.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.6 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2–0.5 cm.

White. Shape similar to cat. no. 123.

127. Fragment of a hinge

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6768.

Found in Room 13, in the north-western corner, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level, together with a pyxis.

H. 1.7–1.8 cm; Th. of the wall 0.2–0.4 cm.

Shape similar to cat. no. 123. One third of the cylinder, but no holes preserved.

128. Round plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6660.

Found in Room 12.

Diam. 4.1 cm.

Disc-shaped.

129. Quadrangular plate

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6688.

Found in Room 11.

L. 2.3 cm; W. 2 cm; Th. 0.5 cm.

Rectangular plate, convex at one side.

4.3. Excursus: The Scylla-Relief

by Florian S. Knauf

Among the small finds from Dedoplis Gora, the objects made of bone rank among those of highest quality. While the bone plates with incised representations of mounted hunters mentioned above are undoubtedly based on oriental models, a matchbox-sized relief, which shall be treated in detail on the following pages, gives evidence of close contacts to the Mediterranean world.⁶⁸⁰

Altogether, 31 fragments of a miniature bone relief have been found in Room 13 of the Palace.⁶⁸¹ The circumstances of their discovery make it seem probable that the relief fell from the upper floor together with some other objects when the Palace burnt down.⁶⁸² It was possible to join most of these fragments, so that the greater part of the original relief could be reconstructed. The dimensions of this rectangular plaque are 5×6.75×0.5 cm. The surface of the reddish-yellow bone⁶⁸³ is polished. The edges and bottom of the plaque have been carefully smoothed. Due to the immense heat, it has been cracked and deformed. Some fragments from the upper part of the relief are missing.

Holes which have been drilled obliquely through the edge of the plate on all four sides,⁶⁸⁴ indicate that the bone plaque, apparently fixed by dowels, had been part of a piece of furniture,

or, more likely, of some kind of receptacle. The large, neatly drilled hole in the center of the plate was probably intended to hold a knob. This would fit perfectly to a use as a box – for jewelry, for example.⁶⁸⁵ The hole does not seriously impair the composition, so that a secondary drilling seems quite unlikely. The lack of exact parallels makes it impossible to define the original function of the bone plaque more precisely at present.

The few bone plaques of similar type known⁶⁸⁶ do show thematic connections with this piece, inasmuch as they also depict scenes from Greek mythology.⁶⁸⁷ But all of them have been made rather later than the relief from Dedoplis Gora.⁶⁸⁸

The relief's field is framed by a border in high relief 4 mm wide. It is divided into a broad, smooth outer band accompanied on the inside by two thin astragals by means of small incisions. The relief's background has been cut about 2 mm deeper than this frame.

The subject of the representation is the climax of Odysseus' encounter with Scylla, as it has been

⁶⁸⁰ I am deeply indebted to St. Dimas, J. Floren and F. Hiller for suggestions and stimulating discussions, as well as to K. Kaniuth for reading the english manuscript.

⁶⁸¹ For the findspot, see ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 90. Illustration on the front page and on pls. 39, 47.

⁶⁸² See above, ch. 3. *Dedoplis Gora and Architecture*, 51.

⁶⁸³ Even though no scientific material analyses have been carried out, it is highly probable that this plaque has in fact been carved of ivory. Alone the size of the plate excludes almost any other material. On the problematics of identifying ivory, see Cutler 1993, 174 f. On ivory in general, see EAA 2. Suppl. I (1994), 575–585 see v. Avorio [E. Talamo] with comprehensive bibliography.

⁶⁸⁴ The distances between the holes vary.

⁶⁸⁵ Cf. Ferrari et al. 1998, 168 [A. M. Yasin].

⁶⁸⁶ Landesmuseum, Stuttgart, from Egypt: Pagenstecher, 1923, 68 f., pl. 27.5; Marangou 1976, 46 f., pl. 52d. – Benaki Museum, Athens, inv. no. 10315, from Egypt: Marangou 1976, 47 f., pl. 52c. – David and Alfred Smart Museum of Art, University of Chicago inv. no. 1967.115.455: Ferrari et al. 1998, 168 [A. M. Yasin]. – Cf. Benaki Museum, Athens, inv. nos. 18970, 18964, both from Egypt: Marangou 1976, 46 f., pl. 52a–b; Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, inv. no. 1890.641, from Egypt: Marangou 1976, 119. All of these pieces are comparable in size to the bone plaque from Dedoplis Gora, but there is one significant difference: None of the abovementioned pieces shows a scene of comparable complexity as that on the ivory relief from Georgia.

⁶⁸⁷ Marangou 1976, 46–48.

⁶⁸⁸ I.e., in the 2nd and 3rd centuries A.D.; cf. Marangou 1976, 48, 77; Ferrari et al. 1998, 168 [A. M. Yasin]. Only a plate from Corinth (Davidson 1952, 338, inv. no. 3782, cat. no. 2901, pl. 138) might be datable to the 1st century A.D. For the date of the relief from Dedoplis Gora, see below.

vividly described by Homer in the twelfth book of the *Odyssey*.⁶⁸⁹ Scylla is depicted in the center, with the naked upper body of a woman and three dog-protomes at her waist, beneath a short skirt of seaweed or fins. Her face is almost completely lost. It had apparently been shown *en face*, or slightly turned to her right. Only the contours of her hair are preserved, which falls in curls on both sides of her face. Scylla holds the steering oar in the bend of her left arm,⁶⁹⁰ while her right hand seizes a Greek sailor by his hair and lifts him out of the ship.⁶⁹¹ The ship's bow, which seems to pass behind Scylla, can be seen below this unfortunate victim. One of the dogs, shown in full profile, is already snapping at his prey. Two further sailors are depicted kneeling in the lower left and right corners, desperately trying to ward off the dogs. Their bodies are directed symmetrically outward, but their faces are turned back toward Scylla. They try to fend off the beasts with one arm, which is almost completely covered by the dogs; their other hand seeks hold on the ground.⁶⁹² The dogs, seen from above, have already sunk their teeth into their victims' hips, and grasp them with their paws. In

contrast to the normal pictorial tradition, there is no indication of the sea, and the two sailors apparently kneel on firm ground.⁶⁹³ In the upper right corner of the scene, a bearded man is shown moving to the right but looking back at Scylla. One can only assume that he is conceived as standing astern. Because he is wearing the pilos, he can easily be identified as Odysseus. He also wears the exomis, while all of his crewmen are beardless and naked. He holds his (unclothed) right arm horizontally in front of his body, his right hand and all of his left arm are missing.⁶⁹⁴ The upper left corner of the relief above Scylla's head has been lost, and cannot be reconstructed.

It also remains unclear what was depicted in the right part of the relief, between the steering-oar and one of Odysseus' crewmen. Comparisons with other representations of this subject in the minor arts⁶⁹⁵ let us assume a scaly fish-tail, which is held horizontally, and turns up at the end.

The find-circumstances give us a sound *terminus post quem non* in the late 1st century A.D. for the relief's date.⁶⁹⁶ The foundation of the Palace in the late 2nd or early 1st century B.C., on the other hand, does not provide a reliable *terminus ante quem non*. In order to obtain a more exact date, we therefore have to depend on iconographical and stylistic analysis.

The iconography of the scene on the ivory plaque from Dedoplis Gora is still very much indebted to Hellenistic traditions: The ship's bow can be seen in the foreground, whereas in the

689 Hom. Od. 12.201–259.

690 A Gallo-Roman relief appliqué of the 2nd century A.D. in Vienne (Déchelette 1904, II 283 Nr. 88; Andrae et al. 1974, 85, fig. 1; Andrae/Conticello 1987, fig. 47; Jentel 1997, n. 53) and contorniate medaillon types of the late 4th century A.D. (Andrae et al. 1974, fig. 35–36; Andrae/Conticello 1987, figs. 48–49; Jentel 1997, n. 56) are good parallels. The motif of Scylla holding the steering-oar in the bend of her left arm is definitely older. It already occurs on a 4th century B.C. bronze appliqué from Dodona, now in Athens (Jentel 1974, n. 68), but without Odysseus and his companions. I am convinced that the Sperlonga Scylla should be reconstructed in the same posture. On the latest (dubious) reconstruction based on a torso from Afyon, cf. N. Himmelmann, Eine Skylla für Sperlonga? Anmerkungen zur Rekonstruktion eines ebenso schönen wie bössartigen Monstrums, *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*, November 8th, 2000, 6. The previous reconstruction by Andrae/Conticello 1987, fig. p. 19, probably comes very close to the correct solution.

691 On Calenian phialae of the mid- or late 3rd century B.C., the earliest similar representation known to date can be seen, although, there, Scylla grabs Odysseus' companion by his leg (Pagenstecher 1909, 81 f., nos. 126a–e, fig. 36; Greifenhagen 1936, fig. 59; Andrae 1999, fig. 120). Exact equivalents can be seen on 'Megarian' bowls of probable Rhodian origin of the 2nd century B.C. (Greifenhagen 1963, figs. 46, 48, 50, 52; Andrae 1988, fig. 27; Walter-Karydi 1997, fig. 16) and on a clay model from Didyma (Tuchelt 1967, pl. 17.1–2; Andrae et al. 1974, figs. 37–38; Roma 1996, 151, cat. 2.64; Waywell 1996, fig. 15; Jentel 1997, n. 52).

692 The Greek sailor on the right seems to be holding onto something like a ring.

693 Cf. a bronze mirror in Berlin (Roma 1996, 150, cat. 2.62; Jentel 1997, n. 55a; Andrae 1999, fig. 137) or a bronze bowl or patera found near Boscoreale, now in the British Museum (Andrae et al. 1974, fig. 34; Jentel 1997, n. 54; Andrae 1999, 309, fig.), where Odysseus' companions are swimming. A close parallel can be found on the clay model from Didyma (Tuchelt 1967, pl. 17.1–2).

694 Even if it remains unclear what Odysseus is doing with his left hand, it seems obvious that he is not attacking Scylla with a raised spear, as he usually does on other small-scale representations, in which he often also carries a shield; cf. the Rhodian relief bowls (Greifenhagen 1963, figs. 46–52), the Calenian relief phialae (Greifenhagen 1963, fig. 59), the clay model from Didyma (Tuchelt 1967, pl. 17.1–2), the bronze patera or bowl from Boscoreale (Andrae et al. 1974, 85, fig. 1; Andrae/Conticello 1987, fig. 47) or the contorniate medallions (Andrae et al. 1974, figs. 35–36).

695 Again, the best parallel is the clay model from Didyma (Tuchelt 1967, pl. 17.1–2).

696 For the date of destruction of the Dedoplis Gora Palace, see above ch. 2. *Dedoplis Gora*, 42.

Late Hellenistic⁶⁹⁷ version, it would more likely be the stern (aphlaston).⁶⁹⁸ The posture of the two unfortunate victims in the lower half of the scene was conventional since Classical times,⁶⁹⁹ and was still common in the lively scenes of the Hellenistic Era.⁷⁰⁰ Again, exactly the same motif is depicted on the 2nd century B.C. clay model from Didyma.⁷⁰¹ There are no traces of Augustan Classicism, as were identified by B. Schneider with reference to plaques from Pompeii and Cologne, which she dates to the last quarter of the 1st century B.C., or the first quarter of the 1st century A.D.,⁷⁰² on the relief from Dedoplis Gora.

The choice of the actual moment depicted in the relief also owes much to Hellenistic tradition. The desperate resistance of Odysseus' companions is shown, the outcome of the struggle is still undecided. In Late Hellenistic ("nachhellenistischen") versions, such as the Sperlonga group, the fate of the crewmen is already sealed, and Odysseus has escaped.

For methodological reasons, any stylistic comparison of the relief from Dedoplis Gora should be based upon models of comparable size and of

the same or similar material. Unfortunately, only very few of these⁷⁰³ are preserved.

The composition is of great importance for dating this work of art. It is apparent that the whole scene as well as the individual figures are regularly distributed. This is especially clear in the case of the two crewmen in the lower half. According to the position of their legs, they would seem to be moving diagonally into the pictorial field, but their upper bodies are completely flat. The composition is rather decorative, i.e., the figures are evenly distributed around Scylla. While the lower part of the composition is perfectly symmetrical, Odysseus and his companion at the ship's bow only approximately balance one another in the upper part. The planarity of the composition seems to be quite well suited to the material, but was not determined by it. On the contrary, planarity was undoubtedly intended by the artist. This is demonstrated by the fact that he avoided overlaps and three-quarter views in spite of the relatively high relief, which would have made a rendering of spatial depth possible. This type of composition is characteristic of Late Hellenistic sculpture, as can be observed, for

⁶⁹⁷ According to Hiller's terminology (Hiller 1979, 280–289), this relief would be "nachhellenistisch".

⁶⁹⁸ From Early Imperial times on, the ship's stern is usually depicted, for instance, in the Sperlonga group (Andreae et al. 1974, pl. 29a–b; Roma 1996, 281 fig. [partially restored]), as well as on numerous works of the minor arts (e.g., Jentel 1997, nos. 53, 56). But it may occur already in Hellenistic times, for example, on a mosaic from Gubbio (Jentel 1997, n. 51; Andreae 1999, fig. 141), or on the bronze bowl or patera from Boscoreale (Andreae et al. 1974, fig. 34). Representations of the ship's bow predominate on Hellenistic works of art, so on the Calenian relief phialae (Pagenstecher 1909, fig. 36), on the clay model from Didyma (Tuchelt 1967, pl. 71.1–2) and on the Rhodian relief bowls (Greifenhagen 1963, figs. 46, 50–52). The latter show Odysseus in full armor behind the stern of another (?) ship; cf. Kunze 1996, 195, n. 200.

⁶⁹⁹ Cf. two well-known examples: the kneeling warrior on the funerary stele of Dexileos (Lullies 1956, fig. 191), as well as numerous vanquished combatants in the Amazonomachy friezes of the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus (Lullies 1956, figs. 201, 203 below).

⁷⁰⁰ Cf. for instance several figures on the great frieze of the Great Altar at Pergamum (Schmidt 1961, pls. 6.30, 33, 38).

⁷⁰¹ Tuchelt 1967, pl. 17.1–2 – The kneeling archer shown on the Calenian relief phialae (Pagenstecher 1909, fig. 36) and the Rhodian relief bowls (Greifenhagen 1963, figs. 46–52, 55, 57, 58) is not depicted here; cf. Kunze 1996, 192–194. It is uncertain whether the archer is depicted on some Imperial examples showing this variant (Kunze 1996, 192 f. with n. 190).

⁷⁰² Berke/Schneider 1990, 269.

⁷⁰³ Although a number of exhibition catalogs, proceedings and articles have been published (cf. Crawford 1962; Hill 1963; Strohecker 1983; Hellman 1984; Randall et al. 1985 [non vidi]; Drenkhahn 1986 [non vidi]; Hegemann 1988 [non vidi]; Berke/Schneider 1990; Krzyszkowska 1990; Fitton 1992; Talamo 1994; Caravale 1994; Bonacasa Carra 1995 [non vidi]; Mikler 1997; Deschler-Erb 1998; Ferrari et al. 1998), there is still no comprehensive study of Hellenistic and Early Imperial bone and ivory carvings; only Marangou 1976, esp. 69–82, gives a rough draft of the stylistic development within this genre.

Considering the relief's small size as well as its subject, the 'tabulae iliacaе' would seem to be an obvious choice for comparison – all the more so, because their date is well established. The earliest date to Augustan times, and, with one exception, all of them date to the Early Imperial Era (Sadurska 1964, 16 f., 37). But the composition of the scenes on the 'tabulae iliacaе' is in general less elaborate than that of the piece under discussion here. Unlike the ivory relief from Dedoplis Gora, the figures are often simply lined up without any decorative arrangement. Even symmetrical composition is rare and seems to be rather the result of chance, because the same patterns occur repeatedly; cf. the Augustan reliefs in the Museo Capitolino or in the Metropolitan Museum (Sadurska 1964, pls. 1–2). In comparison with our ivory relief, the inconsistent proportions of the human figures and the diffuse modeling to be seen on the 'tabulae iliacaе' makes the difference in quality obvious (ibid.). The tabulae are therefore of no great help for dating the ivory plaque.

example, on the bronze patera in London,⁷⁰⁴ or in the Scylla group from Sperlonga.⁷⁰⁵

An important characteristic of this relief is the excellent quality of its execution. This means far more than an attractive composition. The artist's talent becomes appreciable in comparison with similar ivories. In a relief of extraordinarily small size, the figures are carved with a great deal of refinement: in many cases, their extremities and faces are foreshortened; the heads of Odysseus' companions protrude strongly, in some cases, they are even slightly undercut. The sailors' wide eyes and open mouths express their fear of death. Considering the relief's size, the – occasionally – “soft” modeling of the bodies and hair is of only limited value for characterizing the style.

Recently, a number of publications on the subject of the Scylla-motif have appeared.⁷⁰⁶ In spite of this activity, a number of major problems posed by the monumental version of this subject from the cave in Sperlonga still remain unsolved. This publication is not the place to propose a solution or even to reopen the debate, but the close parallels between the Sperlonga group and the relief from Dedoplis Gora let it seem advisable to recapitulate the Sperlonga discussion briefly. The Sperlonga group, a work of the Rhodian sculptors Athanodoros, Hagesandros and Polydoros, had been set up on a roughly square base in the center of an artificial circular pool, and was surrounded by three further sculpture-groups showing scenes from the Odyssey. Andreea, in particular, maintains that it was in fact a Roman marble copy of a Hellenistic bronze original set up on Rhodes around 188/168 B.C. According to Andreea, the original may have been an official state monument for the victims of a Rhodian victory over pirates in the Aegean.⁷⁰⁷

704 Andreea et al. 1974, fig. 34.

705 Cf. Himmelmann 1991, 107; Himmelmann 1996, 28 f., n. 47; Kunze 1996, 205 f. On planar composition in Late Hellenistic (“nachhellenistische”) sculptural groups, cf. Hiller 1979, 280–295; Kell 1988, 114–116 and passim; Hiller 1989, 29–34; Himmelmann 1991, 111–113.

706 Cf., e.g., Himmelmann 1991; Andreea 1994; Coarelli 1996; Himmelmann 1996; Roma 1996, 108–119, 148–154 [G. B. Waywell], 280–297 [B. Conticello], 298–315 [B. Andreea/S. Bertolin], 342–375 [B. Andreea]; Kunze 1996; Jentel 1997; Walter-Karydi 1997; Bingoel 1998, 65–70; Walter-Karydi 1998; Andreea 1999, 205–215, 302–319.

707 Andreea et al. 1974, 83–87; Andreea/Conticello 1987, 38–42; Andreea 1988, 101–105; Andreea 1994, 97–105, esp. 103–105; Andreea 1999, 215 [Andreea]; cf. Lauter 1969, 162–173. Fundamental: Saeflund 1966, 73–83;

N. Himmelmann advocates an alternative view, according to which the model for the Sperlonga group was probably a Late Hellenistic painting or mosaic of the first half of the 1st century B.C.⁷⁰⁸ Chr. Kunze, taking a completely different approach, came to the conclusion that the Sperlonga group be a new creation of ca. 30/20 B.C.⁷⁰⁹ But it is undeniable that another monumental representation of this theme (albeit without the ship) – a marble group from Bargylia in the British Museum⁷¹⁰ – can be traced back to a High Hellenistic original,⁷¹¹ of which a number of later elaborations and adaptations exist.⁷¹²

Recently, E. Walter-Karydi has studied representations of Scylla in the minor arts, which have a much longer history than the monumental sculptural groups.⁷¹³ But even in these cases, the earliest depictions of the Scylla episode from Homer's Odyssey are not earlier than the Hellenistic period, i.e., the mid- or late 3rd century B.C.⁷¹⁴

With respect to the ivory relief under discussion here, we can safely assume that a representation on such a small scale does not necessarily presuppose a monumental model.⁷¹⁵ On the contrary, it looks very much as if “die in diesem Bereich [i.e., in the minor arts] entwickelten Darstellungen in einem Akt von Gattungsüberschrei-

Saeflund 1972, 56–63 had already proposed this hypothesis. Cf. Moreno 1994, II, 613–624.

708 Himmelmann 1991, 106 f.; Himmelmann 1996, 33–35. Cf. Roma 1996, 116 f. [G. B. Waywell]; Waywell 1996, 91–95.

709 Kunze 1996, 165–184, 199 f., 221 f.

710 Waywell 1996, 87, 91 f.; Roma 1996, 112 [G. B. Waywell] sees the Bargylia group as a depiction of the Scylla episode of the Odyssey, while Walter-Karydi 1997, 182; Walter-Karydi 1998, 275 is convinced that it represents no mythological scenes but solely Scylla as an isolated motif.

711 Roscher, ML IV (1909–1915) 1057 fig. 21 s. v. Scylla [O. Waser]; Waywell 1990, 386–388, fig. 1 pl. 58.3; Roma 1996, 112, fig. 4 [G. B. Waywell]; Waywell 1996, 75–119, pls. 59–66 with bibliography.

712 E.g., the sculptural group from the Villa Hadriani in Tivoli (Andreea 1957, 315 f., figs. 96–97). For further monumental representations, see Waywell 1996, 90 f., n. 62.

713 Walter-Karydi 1997, 167–189 with the earlier literature; cf. Schauenburg 1997, 365–369.

714 Tuchelt 1967, 184; Walter-Karydi 1997, 178.

715 Himmelmann 1991, 106; Himmelmann 1996, 7, 33 f. and passim; Kunze 1996, 190–198, esp. 193 f.; Walter-Karydi 1997, 179.

tung in großplastische Gruppen umgesetzt worden sind”.⁷¹⁶

As has been shown above, the relief from Dedoplis Gora, closely follows the small-scale renderings of the 2nd and 1st centuries B.C. with regard to its iconography and the principles of its composition. Many of its details therefore compare well to those of the Hellenistic clay model from Didyma (first half of the 2nd century B.C.). The decorative nature of the composition, however, as well as the spatial rendering of the figures, lead to the assumption that the relief had been carved toward the end of the Hellenistic Era.⁷¹⁷ There is no indication whatsoever that it was made later – in Early Imperial times, for instance. The quality of its execution suggests that it was produced in one of the leading workshops, probably in Rome or in Alexandria.⁷¹⁸

In the 1st century B.C., Scylla is depicted not only on the mosaic from Gubbio, on the bronze patera from Boscoreale and in the monumental group from Sperlonga, but also on the reverse of denarii coined by Sextus Pompey.⁷¹⁹ The isolation of the motif admonishes to caution in proposing hypotheses, but these coins nonetheless draw our attention to political circles which were closely associated with the ivory relief’s motif. In this connection, it may be relevant that, in 66/65 B.C., Cn. Pompey Magnus, Sextus’ father, was the first Roman commander who led an army to Trans-

caucasian Iberia, on which occasion he may have come into the vicinity of Dedoplis Gora.⁷²⁰ A few decades later, after his defeat at Naulochos, Sextus Pompey fled to the east, where he tried to find new allies. We do not know whether or not he expected to find them in Iberia, where the local nobility and members of the Iberian royal family had most probably met his father a few years earlier. An intaglio with a portrait of Sextus Pompey found in Svaneti in north-western Georgia⁷²¹ shows that such considerations are not completely unfounded. In 37/36 B.C., Marc Antony, while preparing his campaign against the Parthians, sent his general P. Canidius Crassus to Iberia and Albania.⁷²² Another century passed before the Romans under Nero (Corbulo) again played an active role in this region,⁷²³ as, a bit later, again under the Flavian emperors. With this historical background in mind, we could venture to assume that the ivory relief – as well as other precious small finds from the Palace at Dedoplis Gora – came to Georgia as diplomatic gifts for the Iberian king, or for one of his vassals.

It therefore follows that this relief had been carved either at the time of the Late Roman Republic, or in Neronian-Flavian times. The former dating would be in good agreement with its stylistic characteristics mentioned above. For this reason, and in spite of some elements of uncertainty,⁷²⁴ we propose a date in the mid-1st century B.C.⁷²⁵

716 Himmelmann 1991, 106; Himmelmann 1996, 34; cf. Kunze 1996, 194, 200.

717 I.e. “nachhellenistisch”. It is still very difficult to date reliefs of the 1st century B.C. correctly exclusively by means of stylistic analysis; cf. Schefold 1957, 187–196; Froning 1981, 4 and *passim*.

718 The deplorable state of knowledge on Late Hellenistic and Early Imperial bone carving workshops in general and those in Italy in particular would make any attempt at determining the relief’s provenience unwise. Although we have no knowledge of even a single Italian workshop dating to that time (Talamo 1994, 582–583), we do know that Alexandria was a renowned center of ivory carving; cf. Marangou 1976, 71 f. The significant increase of Egyptian imports in Transcaucasian Iberia since Late Hellenistic times (see ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*) might suggest an Alexandrian origin for this relief as well.

719 Sydenham 1952, nos. 1347–1349; Kent et al. 1973, pls. 27, 104–105. It is important to note that Scylla alone, or even only Scylla *pars pro toto* are shown on these coins; there is no direct reference to Odysseus.

720 Braund 1994, 152 f., 161–170.

721 See below, ch. 5.1 *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems no. 5.

722 Braund 1994, 170, 216 f.; cf. above ch. 1. *Kartli in Hellenistic and Roman Times*, 12.

723 Braund 1994, 224–227. The diplomatic relations between Rome and Iberia were upheld uninterrupted under the Roman emperors Augustus and Tiberius; Braund 1994, 217–219.

724 Two ivory plaques from Pompeii give ample proof of the still considerable insecurity among scholars concerning the stylistic development of ivories of the first centuries B.C./A.D. Servais-Soyez 1981, 227, n. 43 dates them ca. 50 B.C., while Simon (1984, 834, n. 314) and B. Schneider (Schneider/Berke 1990, 269) consider an Early Imperial date; cf. Kaminski-Menssen 1996, 189.

725 Due to the lack of securely dated parallels, it would be advisable to leave the possibility of a later date (mid-1st century A.D.) open. Analogies for the rounded contours can be found in that period as well as in the early and mid-1st century B.C.; cf. Kunze 1996, 204 with n. 220; 206–212.

4.4. Weapons

by Iulon Gagoshidze

Weapons at Roman period sites in Kartli and, generally, throughout Georgia are represented comparatively in small amounts. This situation makes the collection of weapons excavated at Dedoplist Gora even more remarkable, which includes both weapons (bow and arrow, spear, dagger) and defensive equipment-armors of different types. Bridles will be discussed here, too.

Bows and Arrows (cat. nos. 1-17)

Archery in the Roman army, apparently, played a secondary role,⁷²⁶ which is not true concerning the Parthians, whose attacking force of the army were archers: "The Parthians make not use of a shield, but their forces consist of mounted archers and pikemen, mostly in full armor. Their infantry is small, made up of the weaker men; but even these are all archers!"⁷²⁷ Riding archers of Parthians and Armenians - *ἵπποτοξόται* - are also mentioned by Arrian.⁷²⁸ Actually, in Parthian fine art representations of such riding archers, are quite a few, that makes Greek and Roman sources more convincing.⁷²⁹ The military system of the Iberians was, certainly, not like the one of the Romans and, if we believe Tacitus, it also differed from the Parthians': "Their (of Parthians) only force was cavalry, while Parsman (king of the Iberians) was strong by the infantry, too".⁷³⁰ Plutarch mentions "Iberian lancers".⁷³¹ Accord-

ing to Appian, Iberians used "arrows and slings" to block Mithridates.⁷³²

Strabo does not speak about the arms of Iberians, but in his description of Caucasian Albania he writes, that "they fight both on foot and on horseback, both in light armor and in full armor (*κατάφρακτοι*), like the Armenians" and that "the Albanians use javelins and bows; and they use armors and large oblong shields, and helmets made of the skins of wild animals, similar to those worn by the Iberians".⁷³³

Thus, according to written sources the Iberian army consisted of both cavalry and infantry, lightly armed and heavily equipped, but as for the weapons, the Iberians mainly used spears and bows and arrows.

The only weapon of riders, represented on painted pithoi of the Hellenistic epoch (3rd century B.C.), excavated at Samadlo, is a hand spear, a short spear (javelin), both in hunting and fighting scenes.⁷³⁴ A spear has not lost its importance for Iberian riders in Roman period, either. This can be proved by engraved bone plates excavated at Dedoplist Gora, which show hunting scenes of riders.⁷³⁵ Among 24 plates, on which types of riders' weapons are visible, twelve represent spearmen. This is not pure chance: Iberian lancers were the most trusted as the best fighters by Armenian king Tigranes.⁷³⁶ It is noteworthy, that, while searching analogies of the mentioned representations, we did not find any examples

726 Bishop/Coulston 1992, 81.

727 Cass. Dio 40.15. On the reverse of Parthian coins a sitting man is depicted with a drawn bow in his right hand, that, apparently, was thought as a heraldic symbol of royal power in Parthia. cf. Zeimal 1982, 48.

728 Arr. *takt.* 44; Kaukhchishvili 1983, 162.

729 Rostovtzeff 1931, 195-198.

730 Tac. *Ann.* 6.33.

731 Plut. *Luc.* 31.

732 App. *Mithr.* 101.

733 Strab. 11.4.4,5.

734 Gagoshidze 1979, 94, pls. 15-16; Gagoshidze 1981a, nos. 233-234.

735 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 21, 23-27, 29-34, 36, 38, 41, 53-64.

736 Plut. *Luc.* 31.

showing a riding spearman (armed with a shooting-spear); but on the rest of the plates from Dedoplis Gora the riders are holding a bow firing an arrow at a beast from a galloping horse. According to the more than 800 excavated arrowheads from Dedoplis Gora, bows and arrows were particularly popular.

The first three arrowheads were found separately in the courtyard during the excavations in 1988, and we thought that they belonged to the enemy and were fired toward the Palace during a siege, which was followed by a fire and destruction of the Palace (cat. nos. 8, 9, 10).

However, gradually, more and more arrowheads started to appear and it became obvious that those three arrowheads were not different from the other ones and certainly belonged to the guards of the Palace; therefore, the version of their foreign provenance remained open. Three other arrowheads were found separately, too (cat. nos. 5, 11–12), while the rest of the arrowheads was found in large groups in the Rooms 9–11 (two groups), 12 and 13. Among these groups the smallest contained fourteen arrowheads and the biggest 294 (Room 9, cat. no. 11).⁷³⁷

The arrows were kept in cases (quivers). At the western wall of Room 11, 161 arrows, bundled, with their heads upward, were found in a wooden barrel (cat. no. 3). This barrel is a cylinder made from one whole piece of wood, the bottom of which is formed of two semicircular pieces of wood.⁷³⁸

Fortunately, though carbonized, the arrow's shafts are still preserved. It became clear that the shafts are cut of wood pulp: in the broken place the age circles of the wood, crossing the cleft of the shaft, are visible. The circles are tightly positioned, which points to the fact that the shafts are made from some slow-growing hard wood pulp like, for example, cornel. The diameter of the shaft does not exceed 0.5–0.6 cm and is thinning toward the head, where the haft of the arrowhead (diam. 1–2 mm) is inserted into the shaft. The bottom end of the shaft is particularly interesting: it is 5 cm long and gradually thinning so

that the diameter of the tip is only 1 mm. It is obvious that this end, which is 5 cm, was fitted in a specially made wing-stabilizer, which did not survive. It evidently must have been thick enough for the arrow to catch the cord.

The end of the arrow shaft from Vindonissa of the Early Principate period is also thinning to the end, but the transition from the shaft to the thin end is abrupt and step like, while the shaft of the arrow from Dedoplis Gora is gradually thinning to the end. The length of the thinned end of an arrow shaft from Vindonissa is 4 cm and the maximal diameter of the section is at least three times less than the one of the shaft itself, which is 0.8 cm.⁷³⁹ It was impossible to estimate the length of the arrows.

Other groups of arrows excavated at the Palace, as it was mentioned above, were, presumably, packed in special quivers.⁷⁴⁰ In some quivers there could have been bows together with the arrows. A slightly bent end of exactly this kind of quiver can be seen below the bellies of the horses of riding archers on the engraved bone plates from Dedoplis Gora: evidently, quivers for bows and arrows were hung on saddles at the horse's left⁷⁴¹ or right.⁷⁴² It can be assumed that the arrows at the Palace were also kept in similar kinds of quivers. It is probable that a tetrahedral iron stem ending with a ring, which was excavated together with arrowheads in Room 12 (cat. nos. 5–6), belongs to the quiver. Besides arrows, also a bow could have been stored in the quiver, and taking the representations on engraved bone plates into account,⁷⁴³ the guards of Dedoplis Gora must have used short composite bows. Actually, in Room 10 and 11 alongside with arrowheads, four bone plates were found: laths of the ends of composite bows (cat. nos. 14–15). Four similar plates were found in Room 8 (cat. no. 16), in which no arrowheads have been found.

The lath is a 1 cm wide plate, which is flat on one side and convex on the other, round at the end, and with a notch for fastening a cord. Four such plates were necessary for each bow. These

⁷³⁷ The number of arrowheads, listed here, is much less than the real one, as all of them, without exception, have been in fire and have turned into rust. So, we are sure, that it was impossible to get all of them during the excavation, especially, when they occurred in welded ruins of walls.

⁷³⁸ Size: Diam. 33 cm; Th. of walls and bottom 1.8–2.2 cm; H. over 40 cm.

⁷³⁹ Unz/Deschler-Erb 1997, pl. 21, no. 389, Inv. no. 4860.

⁷⁴⁰ Apparently, there were several quivers in Room 9 and they were hung on the wall.

⁷⁴¹ Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 34.

⁷⁴² Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 61.

⁷⁴³ Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 30, 36.

laths were attached to both ends of the bow. The position of the notches for fastening a strap allows us to assume, that in all three cases there are complete sets of laths. In two cases (cat. nos. 15–16), holes of 2 mm diameter for attaching the lath to the bow are at the end of the laths, but usually laths were attached to the bows with glue. One of the bow laths from Carnuntum has the same kind of hole with a preserved dowel pressed through it.⁷⁴⁴ Thus, it becomes clear that at least three bows have been burnt by the fire in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora.

Besides Dedoplis Gora, such laths of composite bows have been found in other places of ancient Iberia, too, in particular in the cultural layer of the Roman epoch in Armaztsikhe (Bagineti).⁷⁴⁵ Similar laths were also found on the territory of ancient Bactria during excavations at Takht-e-Sangin (Tajikistan), accompanied with numerous trilobate arrowheads with iron hafts of the type which occurs in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora have.⁷⁴⁶ The increasing number of such bone laths in Sarmatian burials is related to the process of gradual replacement of a short Scythian bow by a long and strong long-range Sarmatian bow.⁷⁴⁷

In conclusion, it must be mentioned, that Roman bows of the 1st century A.D. had similar bone laths.⁷⁴⁸ Fragmentary bone or antler laths designed to stiffen the ends (ears) of composite bows are known from Oberaden and Dangstetten (Augustean), Velsen (Claudian), Waddon Hill (Neronian), Rißtissen (late Neronian/early Flavian) and Vindolanda (late Flavian).⁷⁴⁹ One of the laths of the early Principate period from Carnuntum has the same kind of hole for attaching it

to the bow at the end as two laths from Dedoplis Gora (cat. nos. 15–16).⁷⁵⁰

On the floor of Room 11 of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, two thin bone plates⁷⁵¹ were found together with bone laths of the bows. They are 1.7 cm wide in the middle part and are equally thinning to the ends; their ends are just 0.3 cm wide and rounded (cat. no. 17). At present, the plates are coiled as spirals and broken from heat but, originally, they should have had a shape of a long semi-oval. We think they must be laths of the middle part of a composite bow.

We did not find analogies in Europe or Asia Minor in Roman times, but exactly the same kind of laths covered the composite bows used by the Huns as well as by the nomads of Siberia and Central Asia from the 3rd century B.C. to the end of the 1st millennium A.D. These bows of the Nomads, by the way, had laths of the shape that was excavated at Dedoplis Gora, too. However, it must be noticed, that the laths of both middle parts and ends of the bows are longer than the ones from Dedoplis Gora.⁷⁵² It means that the composite bow used by the garrison at Dedoplis Gora was apparently shorter than the one of the Huns, whose length was about 1.5 m.⁷⁵³ The bow of the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D., which has bone laths only for the middle part and the ends (six laths in all), belongs to the first type according to the classification of the Huns' bows, and it is recognized that this one and the second type became basis for the further evolution of bows in the Middle Ages.⁷⁵⁴ Such an early penetration of the progressive construction of a bow in Georgia should be considered the result of tight contacts between Iberia and the Nomads of Eurasian steppes.

All the iron arrowheads from Dedoplis Gora are trilobate and have hafts. They differ from each other by the size and the shape of the ends of the sides: ends descend to form an acute angle in one part of arrowheads, while in the other they are cut horizontally or upward.

⁷⁴⁴ Bishop/Coulston 1992, 79, fig. 43.2.

⁷⁴⁵ Laths, together with recently excavated archaeological material, are kept in the depository of the Mtskheta Archaeological Institute. We are grateful to the director of the Institute, Acad. A. Apakidze and the leader of the Armaztsikhe expedition V. Nikolaishvili for providing us with the information and the material.

⁷⁴⁶ Archaeological finds from Takht-e-Sangin are kept in Dushanbe, in the Institute of History of Tajikistan Academy of Sciences and we were shown this material by one of the leaders of the expedition, late I. Pichikian, to whom we are grateful for the help.

⁷⁴⁷ Arch. USSR 1989, 197 f.

⁷⁴⁸ Dixon/Southern 1992, 52 f., fig. 21.

⁷⁴⁹ Bishop/Coulston 1992, 79.

⁷⁵⁰ Bishop/Coulston 1992, fig. 43.

⁷⁵¹ L. approx. 15 cm; W. 0.1–0.2 cm.

⁷⁵² Size of the laths for the middle part of their bows fluctuates between 22 cm and 40 cm. Cf. Khudiakov 1986, 26–30, 64–68, 126 f., 139–143, figs. 2, 3, 21–22, 57, 62.

⁷⁵³ Khudiakov 1986, 26.

⁷⁵⁴ Khudiakov 1986, 206.

Concerning size, there are two groups of arrowheads: small ones with the length of 3.4–5 cm; and big ones with the length of 5.6–7.9 cm; only one exception is 8.35 cm long (cat. no. 5). It is noteworthy that all the arrowheads with descending sides are small. Usually, there are mainly similar arrowheads in the single groups of finds. There is only one exception – Room 9, where the arrowheads of two different groups were found together (cat. no. 1): two quivers were hanging side by side, and only after the destruction of the Palace, the arrowheads were mixed: there are 294 arrowheads, which are too many for one set.

Trilobate arrowheads with hafts first appear in steppes of Eurasia already in the 5th century B.C.⁷⁵⁵ Between the 4th and 2nd centuries B.C. the Sauromatians replaced bronze socketed ('Scythian type') arrowheads by iron ones with hafts: since then, trilobate hafted iron arrowheads had become almost the only type in the Sauromate-Sarmatian world.⁷⁵⁶

We have already mentioned, that from the Hellenistic period trilobate hafted iron arrowheads begin to spread widely also in Middle Asia, in particular, in Bactria⁷⁵⁷ and this is actually the only shape in the Kushan empire until the 3rd century A.D.⁷⁵⁸ So far, such arrowheads have only been associated with the Sarmatians of the 1st century A.D. Since they are common in the whole of Eastern Europe, in Caucasia⁷⁵⁹ and in the Roman army, too,⁷⁶⁰ this argument becomes obsolete.

"Sarmatian type" iron hafted arrowheads in Iberia, just like throughout Transcaucasia, should have spread from the end of the Hellenistic epoch from the Sarmatians, inhabiting the north of Caucasia.

At the Turn of the Era, hafted arrowheads are widely spread in Caucasian Albania – on the territory of present Azerbaijan and south-eastern Daghestan.⁷⁶¹

Trilobate hafted iron arrowheads have been found on the sites of the Hellenistic epoch in

Armenia, in Armavir, Artashat, Karmir-Blur, Aigeshat, and they remain in Armenia in the first centuries A.D., too. However, the period they were most common should be considered the 2nd–1st centuries B.C.⁷⁶²

In Georgia trilobate hafted iron arrowheads become common from the 2nd century B.C. on⁷⁶³ and remain in use during the whole Roman period as the main type of arrowheads. In the 2nd century burial of a soldier in Kldeeti about twenty arrowheads of this type were excavated.⁷⁶⁴ In Bichvinta, a classical castellum of the Roman epoch, about thirty hafted iron arrowheads of the 3rd–4th centuries A.D. were found, but among them four different groups are distinguished: trilobate, trihedral, tetrahedral and rhombic.⁷⁶⁵

Trilobate iron arrowheads were also excavated in Urnisi, in the 5th century A.D. layer, but in this case they apparently belonged to the enemy, as they were stuck into the tower of the city wall from outside.⁷⁶⁶

The production of iron weapons and, among them, arrowheads, must have been common in Iberia of Hellenistic and Roman times. At the site of Sarkine (Grdzeli Mindori), a large building was excavated, which was defined as a workshop, where melting and processing of iron, copper, lead and gold occurred. Exactly in this workshop, several hundreds of iron hafted arrowheads were found rusted together as a whole mass.⁷⁶⁷ This workshop from Sarkine is contemporary to the Palace at Dedoplis Gora.

Spearheads and Butts (cat. nos. 18–25)

Spearheads appear in bigger amounts in the complexes of the Roman period in West Georgia: the spearhead from Chkhorotsku is dated to the end of the 1st century B.C.,⁷⁶⁸ five spearheads from Kldeeti,⁷⁶⁹ spearheads from Bandza and

755 Khazanov 1971, 35 f.

756 Smirnov 1961, 70.

757 Litvinski/Pichikian 1981, 206–209.

758 Kruglikova 1986, 43 f., 63, 75.

759 Smirnov 1961, 140.

760 Bishop/Coulston 1992, 79, figs. 43.5–8.

761 Khalilov 1985, 138 f.

762 Tiratsian 1988, 139 f.

763 Lordkipanidze 1976, 179 f.

764 Lomtadze 1957, 124, fig. 30.

765 Todua 1992, 1–4.

766 Chilashvili 1964, 124 f.

767 Apakidze 1963, 209–212.

768 Khoshtaria 1941, 81, pl. 3.

769 Lomtadze 1957, 15, 140–142, figs. 2, 29.

Dzevri⁷⁷⁰ are of the 2nd century A.D.; spearheads from the Chkhari cemetery belong to the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D.⁷⁷¹ and the ones from Sachkhere, Modinakhe cemetery, are of the 4th century A.D.⁷⁷²

All these spearheads belong to actually one type. They have an elongated, leaf-shaped, ribbed blade and a conical socket. This is a traditional Georgian shape of a spearhead common in East Georgia already in the Pre-Roman period: iron spearheads with conical sockets and leaf-shaped blades were found in burials of the 5th–3rd centuries B.C. at Tsinandali, Patardzeuli⁷⁷³ and Abulmugi.⁷⁷⁴ Among the five spearheads from Dedoplis Gora, only two belong to this type (cat. nos. 18–19).

The other three are different and unusual for Georgia (cat. nos. 20–22). Although the latter also have high-ribbed leaf-shaped blades, their long, tubular socket is widened to the lower end, it has a rather thick ring chased around. There are no evidences of such spearheads, so far, anywhere in Georgia or in Caucasia. Neither did the Romans use such a weapon. This spearhead with widened socket is considered as a Sarmatian weapon,⁷⁷⁵ and it is known from the Sarmatian burials of the Northern Black Sea region, the Don and the Kuban region, dated to the 3rd century B.C.–2nd century A.D.⁷⁷⁶ It is difficult to define the function of this widening. According to V. Blavatski, it should have obstructed deep penetration of the spearhead into the rival's body, so that the soldier, riding the horse, must have been able to manage to pull the spear out of the body and maneuver easily.⁷⁷⁷

Presumably, the spearheads with widened sockets which appeared in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora came from the Russian steppes. It is quite possible that they were brought here by hired Sarmatian soldiers serving for the Kartlian (Iberian) kings.

In Rome of Republican and Principate period, an iron butt – a conical pointed socket – was fitted, as a rule, over the lower end of the spear shaft, which would not only have provided a secondary weapon in the event of the head breaking off, but also protected the shaft when it was stuck into the ground.⁷⁷⁸

As it becomes clear, at least three spears from Dedoplis Gora had such butts. All three of them were found in the same room as the spearheads, and it is almost doubtless that the butt found in Room 10 (cat. no. 23) and the spearhead (cat. no. 18) belong to one and the same spear, as well as the butt (cat. no. 24) and the spearhead (cat. no. 20), found on the floor of Room 7, laying at the eastern wall. In Room 11, two spearheads and only one butt (cat. no. 25) appeared.

Conical iron butts are also known from other sites of Georgia. At the site of Vani, in the layer related to the 1st century B.C. fights, butts appeared alongside spearheads,⁷⁷⁹ three of such butts were found together with three spearheads in the complex of nine burials on Sukhumi mountain,⁷⁸⁰ as well as in the Nedzikhi burials of the 3rd century A.D. Here, too, three conical butts appeared together with three spearheads.⁷⁸¹

In the Hellenistic layer at Eshera and in the contemporary burials, iron butts were also found together with spearheads.⁷⁸²

Thus, it becomes clear, that in Georgia, as well as in Rome, iron butts were fixed to the lower ends of spear handles, even though there are cases where in closed archaeological contexts, burials contained only butts without spearheads. That allows us to suppose, that a conical butt could have been the top of some tool, like staff. This was recorded in Itkhvisi, in the 4th century B.C. burial and in the Pithos-Burial 5 at the Tsitsamuri III cemetery, dated to the 1st century A.D.⁷⁸³ The latter excavation gives a particularly essential argument to prove that at least in this case a pointed conical butt was not part of a weapon: Hellenistic and Early Roman pithos-burials on the territory of Colchis and Iberia belonged to a peaceful, non-militarized society, and

770 Puturidze 1959, 76, pl. 5.3, 10, 11.

771 Bragvadze 1997, 31, pls. 24.1, 26.2.

772 Nadiradze 1975, 58–59, pl. 20.1, 2.

773 Ramishvili 1959, 43 f., pl. 16.4, 17.5.

774 Kakhiani et al. 1991, 54, pl. 133.2.

775 Arch. USSR 1984, 189, pl. 84.11, 12.

776 Anfimov 1951, 182, fig. 12.1; Liberov 1965, pl. 18.1, 3, 9; Melukova 1975, 176; Arch. USSR 1989, pls. 81.27, 110.9, 10.

777 Blavatski 1954, 117.

778 Bishop/Coulston 1992, 52 f., 69, figs. 22.7–12, 35.17–24.

779 Lordkipanidze G. 1976, 177.

780 Kalandadze 1954, 30, 34, pl. 9.10–12.

781 Ramishvili et al. 1991, pl. 227.2.

782 Shamba 1980, 48 f., pl. 64.8–11.

783 Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 64, no. 21, figs. 431, 438.

among hundreds of pithos-burials excavated in Georgia, no weapon has been found in the inventory of any of them.⁷⁸⁴

Dagger (cat. no. 26)

A common weapon for the Roman army – *pilum*⁷⁸⁵ – is, so far, represented as a single item in Georgian archaeology: in Vani, in front of the gate, in the 1st century B.C. layer a fragment of an iron stem was found (length 32 cm; section 0.7 cm) with a pyramidal top of 4.5 cm.⁷⁸⁶ Considering the situation of finding, it is presumable that this *pilum* belonged to the enemy more than to the city defenders.

On a bone plate with the representation of a battle scene, the left rider, armed with a spear has a dagger fastened with a pair of laces to the right hip with a globular end of the handle.⁷⁸⁷ It should be noticed that spare daggers were also fastened to the hips with a pair of laces by the Sarmatian *cataphractarii*, armed with long spears or swords in the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.⁷⁸⁸

In all four burials of the 3rd–4th centuries A.D. excavated in Sachkhere, Modinakhe slope, whose inventory included also a dagger, this dagger was found at the right thigh of the buried man.⁷⁸⁹ A dagger was found at the right thigh of the skeleton in the Burial 4 of the 2nd century A.D. in Kldeeti.⁷⁹⁰

Thus, it is obvious that daggers were worn by Georgian soldiers in the Roman period as they were by the Sarmatians, which differs from the Roman way, according to which a dagger could be worn horizontally directly below the waist belt, over the belly.⁷⁹¹ But the scabbards of Roman daggers of the Principate period have two pairs of rings, pointing to the fact that, at this time, Romans used to fasten daggers with two pairs of laces, as it is depicted on the bone plate

from Dedoplis Gora, though the place of fastening to the belt could be different.⁷⁹²

G. Lomtadze mentions that among the inventory of the contemporary burials of the Kldeeti cemetery, known to him, there are fewer dagger blades than swords and spearheads,⁷⁹³ and he points to the cremation burial at Tsebelda, West Georgia,⁷⁹⁴ and the Armaziskhevi cemetery in East Georgia.⁷⁹⁵

Two daggers are known from the Armaziskhevi cemetery of the pitiakhshs, both have ceremonial function and are decorated with gold and semi-precious stones. One is dated to the 2nd century A.D., the other to the 3rd century A.D.⁷⁹⁶

Two dagger blades, dated to the 2nd century A.D., were excavated at the Kldeeti cemetery.⁷⁹⁷

The dagger from the Bandza pithos-burial is also dated to the 2nd century A.D.,⁷⁹⁸ while the Chkhari cemetery, where three dagger blades were found, is dated to the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D.⁷⁹⁹ The daggers from Sachkhere, Modinakhe cemetery, which we have already mentioned, are even later. We will just add, that here, in the Burial 36, the dagger is put into a sheath decorated with gold and this, too, was a ceremonial insignia, just like the daggers from the Burials 1 and 3 at Armaziskhevi.⁸⁰⁰ It should be emphasized, that the inventory of the burials of Armaziskhevi Pitiakhshs did not include any other kinds of weapons but the daggers decorated with gold.

Thus, it becomes clear that a dagger in Iberia of Roman times sometimes had special, ceremonial function and was regarded as sign of nobility.⁸⁰¹

Neither handle nor sheath were preserved of the only dagger excavated at Dedoplis Gora, and the haft of the handle is also incomplete (cat. no. 26). It can be presumed, that it was an ordinary

784 Tolordava 1980, 59.

785 Bishop/Coulston 1992, 49 f., 65.

786 Lordkipanidze 1976, 177 f., fig. 136.85.

787 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 116.

788 Arch. USSR 1984, 189, pl. 73.27.

789 Nadiradze 1975, 48–52, 56. Burials 7–8, 10, 36.

790 Lomtadze 1957, 139, fig. 23.

791 Bishop/Coulston 1992, 55, fig. 20.

792 Bishop/Coulston 1992, figs. 41–42.

793 Lomtadze 1957.

794 Gdzlishvili 1947.

795 Lomtadze 1957, 16.

796 Apakidze et al. 1955, 28, 48, no. 3, 55, pls. 1bis, 3, 37.12, 38.1, 40.2, 52.1; Apakidze et al. 1958, 32 f., 55 f.

797 One is 24.6 cm long and 4.7 cm wide; the other, respectively, 32 cm and 4.7 cm. Lomtadze 1957, 15 f., 142 f., no. 4, 197; figs. 2g, 26b; pls. 21.1e, 21.2v.

798 Puturidze 1959, 75.

799 Bragvadze 1997, 9, 14, 30, pls. 15.1, 2; 26.1.

800 Nadiradze 1975, 57, 75, pl. 40.3.

801 Argveti, eastern province of Colchis, where Sachkhere is situated, was included in the borders of Iberia.

weapon for fighting and it must have been the last hope of the warrior in case of losing or breaking a sword or a spear.

The blade is narrow and long, pointed to the top. The haft for attaching the handle is chased together with the blade and is four-faceted in section.⁸⁰² The blade has an iron coupling chased round at the handle, which must have supported a handle made from some organic substance (wood, bone etc.).

Blades of the Roman period, excavated at archaeological sites of Georgia, including Dedoplis Gora, are more or less similar and resemble the C-type blades of the Roman army of the Principate period, which are much narrower than the ones of the first two (A and B) types; they are more straight-edged, too. The shape of the hafts of C-type is also similar to the blades, common in Georgia.⁸⁰³

Armor (cat. nos. 27–38)

Among the items of defensive weapons, only body armor was found at Dedoplis Gora. There is no trace of a shield or a helmet. If the lack of shields can be explained by the fact that they were made mainly from organic substances – wood or leather – and they could burn easily in the fire, the same cannot be said about helmets, which should have been made of metal and they numerously appear in the Roman world.⁸⁰⁴ More suspicion emerges if we consider that no shields and helmets are traced at other 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. archaeological sites of Georgia. We are forced to literally believe Strabo's information that the Iberians, just like the Albanians, used helmets made of animals' skin.⁸⁰⁵

The only bone plate with an engraved scene of fighting riders, found in Room 13 of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora,⁸⁰⁶ was expected to have the representation of a helmet, too, but, unfortunately, the plate is damaged right at the place, where the rider's headdress should have been depicted,

while the other rider hides behind the shield and his head is not visible at all. The shield is a typical Roman elongated hexagonal one, used by the Roman legionnaires in the Late Republican period and, rarely, during the early Principate.⁸⁰⁷ Both riders are dressed in metal, short-sleeved armor formed of scale-shaped plates – *lorica squamata*, which covers the first rider's hips. The armor of the other rider is a bit longer.

The scale armor is the oldest and the most common type, and its remains were recorded in three different rooms of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora.

Scale Armor (cat. no. 27–36)

An armor, formed of scale-shaped plates, *lorica squamata*, was found on the floor of Room 1, between the table and the couch in the eastern part of the room (cat. no. 27). It was a whole mass of iron rust, occupying about half a square meter. The thickness of the mass was 4–7 cm. The plates must have been linked to each other with wired iron loop, though these rings have almost thoroughly rusted and disappeared. Two parts of the armor have been preserved,⁸⁰⁸ one of which is formed of mainly one smaller plate, and the other of a bigger one. Apparently, it was the lower edge of the armor, where, usually, bigger plates were used. The plates are arranged in rows and the left one overlaps the right one, so that the right pair of holes coincides with the pair of holes of the other plate. Such horizontal rows of plates overlap each other from top to bottom, like a tile, so that each plate of the armor is overlapped by three other plates.

Different parts of the armor are formed by plates of different size. Four different kinds of plates were managed to be distinguished. Length of the smallest plates (a.) is 3 cm; width 1.7 cm: they have four holes on the side edges at the top part of the plate.

Plates that are bigger than the first ones (b.) also have four holes. Length is 3.5–3.7 cm; width 2.5–2.7 cm; even bigger plates (c.), length of which is 5 cm; width 3.1 cm; have eight holes. The biggest plates (d.) have seven holes, though some of them can even have eight ones; length is 8 cm; width 3.5 cm.

⁸⁰² The end of the haft is broken, so it is difficult to discuss its original length.

⁸⁰³ Bishop/Coulston 1992, 74, fig. 39.6.

⁸⁰⁴ Bishop/Coulston 1992, 60 f., 93–96.

⁸⁰⁵ Strab. 11.4.5.

⁸⁰⁶ Cf. the description of the plate in ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 116.

⁸⁰⁷ Cf. Bishop/Coulston 1992, 48, 58, fig. 19, 49.

⁸⁰⁸ Cf. cat. no. 27.

Unfortunately, the armor is so rusted, that it is almost impossible to reconstruct. If considered its general size, it could have covered at least the torso of a soldier. Presumably, it was an armor with short sleeves, which covered chest and back of the soldier and descended below the waist. Knights, engraved on one of the bone plaques from Dedoplis Gora, wear the same kind of armor.⁸⁰⁹

Apart from this armor, nine groups of separate parts of armor were found in Rooms 13 and 11 near the north gate of the Palace (cat. nos. 26, 28). The concentration of these groups of plates in two areas at a distance of ten meters – in the south-western quarter of Room 13 and in the north-eastern corner of Room 11 allows us to presume, that these are not nine sets of armor, but only two.⁸¹⁰

Among the plates, excavated in the Rooms 13 and 11, only a few were rusted to each other, while the armor in Room 1 is represented as a whole mass of rust. This difference casts doubt, that in the Rooms 13 and 11 not whole armors were stored, but only separate plates, let us say, spare parts; moreover, the sum of the plates (about 750) is insufficient not only for nine or two, but even for a single armor. This assumption is supported by the fact that, besides the symmetrically arranged definite number of holes, some plates have bigger holes in different places with raised, uneven edges, which is difficult to fancy on a built armor.

Room 11 was a store, while Room 13 was a bed-sit for the gate guards and, supposedly, the guards used to keep spare plates for mending armors.⁸¹¹

In the process of excavation, the plates started to appear already in the mud-brick wall debris, which had filled the rooms at the height of 80 cm from the floor (Room 13) and at 40 cm (Room 11), but they were scattered right on the floor, too.

The plates have different shapes and size. They differ by the number and arrangement of the holes.

According to the shape, there are three kinds of plates. Their absolute majority is scale-shaped. Pentagonal plates, i.e., rectangles with one

pointed side (cat. nos. 29d, 30h), were found in less amount. The least in number are rectangular plates. Some of them have two cut (upper?) corners (cat. no. 32g).

The plates are flat, but the lower, rounded part of the smallest ones is usually convex (cat. no. 28a). However, the narrow and long pentagonal plates (cat. no. 30g) are rounded lengthwise.

In size, there are three main categories of plates: Big ones (length between 6.7 and 8.4 cm; width 3.5–4.3 cm), middle-sized ones (length 4–5.5 cm; width 3.3–3.5 cm) and small ones (length 1.9–3.7 cm; width 1.2–2.7 cm). Among the small-size ones, there are scale-shaped, slightly convex plates with four holes, which are particularly small. Their length is only 1.9–2.2 cm and width 1.2–1.4 cm. Among the middle-size plates, there is a separate group of narrow and long pentagonal ones with a width of 1.7–1.9 cm. They have 12 or 16 holes. We have not taken into consideration the big, quadrangular plates, which must have had some specific function in the armor.⁸¹²

The plates are made of iron. Their thickness is usually around 0.5 mm, only the narrow and long pentagonal and big quadrangular plates measure up to 1 mm.

According to the number of holes, there are the following groups:

Two holes (1.0): One hole at each top corner. They are scale-shaped and small. A single plate (1.1) with two holes, which might be rectangular, but its lower edge is damaged, so it remains uncertain.

Four holes (2.0): The holes are arranged in pairs along the side edges at the top corners. All of them are scale-shaped and small. A part of the plates (2.1) with four holes is particularly small and their bottom rounded part is even convex. A single plate with *five holes* (2.2) is connected with the ones with four holes (cat. no. 32c), which, apart from four 'canonical' holes, has the fifth one at the right bottom edge, where the roundness starts.

Seven holes (3.0): The holes are arranged in pairs in the middle of top and side edges, and the seventh one separately, at the rounded bottom, also

⁸⁰⁹ Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 116.

⁸¹⁰ However, below, in the catalog, we still describe plates in nine groups.

⁸¹¹ Cf. Robinson 1975, 153.

⁸¹² Cf. cat. nos. 32g and 32h.

in the middle. All of these plates are big in size and scale in shape.⁸¹³

Eight holes (4.0): The holes are arranged in pairs in the middle of all four sides. Most of them are big or middle-size and scale-shaped. Two of them have cut top corners. Middle-size pentagonal plates (4.1) have also eight holes.

Nine holes (5.0): Three holes are arranged at the top part of the sides and a pair of holes between them, in the middle; the ninth hole is at the rounded bottom, in the middle. All of these plates are middle-size and scale-shaped.

Ten holes (6.0): Two pairs of holes are arranged along the symmetry axis at the top and edges and three holes at the side edges, in the top part of the plate. Most of these plates are bottom middle-size and scale-shaped. Ten holes are also on one of the rectangular plates (cat. no. 30f). The arrangement of the holes is similar to the scale-shaped plates.

Twelve holes (7.0): All the plates are narrow and elongated pentagonal and slightly rounded. Holes are arranged in pairs, each pair along the symmetry axis of the plate, at the top edge and pointed bottom and two pairs in the middle and top part of the side edges.

Sixteen holes (8.0): All the plates are narrow and elongated pentagonal and slightly rounded. Holes are arranged in pairs: three pairs at the top part of the plate, two pairs in the middle of the side edges and three pairs at the bottom of the plate. The horizontal lines of the pairs are misarranged only on one plate with 16 holes (8.1): the middle pair at the top part of the plate is raised to the top edge, while the middle pair at the bottom is lowered to the pointed edge of the plate.

Fifteen holes (9.0) are on the rectangular plates with cut corners. The holes are arranged in one row along the edges of the plates: Six holes at the top (with cut corners), two holes at the side edges, in the middle and five holes at the bottom edge.

The big rectangular plates (9.1) must be singled out in a separated group with disorderly arranged holes along the edges. None of these plates are preserved as a whole piece; therefore, it is difficult to define number of holes.

⁸¹³ Some of these plates have additional holes, obviously, made later and rather coarsely.

Fragments of the oldest armor in Georgia, formed of metal plates, were excavated in the Early Bronze Age (end of the 3rd millennium B.C.) tumulus no. 40 in Trialeti; these are round copper plates, decorated with bulges and with a central hole for attaching.⁸¹⁴ But scale armors spread in Caucasia from the beginning of the 1st millennium B.C.⁸¹⁵ During the excavations in Shiraki in 1998, in the layer of the 8th–7th centuries B.C. at Noname-Gora, a copper plate of an Urartian scale armor was found.⁸¹⁶ The same kind of plates forms the armor of the Urartian king Argishti I (786–764 B.C.), found during excavations at Teishebaini (Karmir-Blur) in 1952, in Room 36.⁸¹⁷ During the excavations of Teishebaini, in the destroyed layer of Rooms 38 and 40 (beginning of the 6th century B.C.), there were several armors, formed of the same kind of iron plates, which, according to B. Piotrovski, are related to the Scythes.⁸¹⁸ From the 5th century B.C. on, armor of iron plates banishes those of copper, though the latter was preserved till the Roman period.⁸¹⁹ In the 5th–4th centuries B.C. layer at the site of Vani, 60 scale-shaped plates of iron were found during the excavations in 1962, whereas a soldier, buried in Burial 3 of the 2nd century B.C., excavated also in Vani in 1947, was dressed in an armor, formed of copper plates.⁸²⁰

An armor of iron plates was found in Sairkhe, in Burial 8, dated to the middle 4th century B.C.⁸²¹ and in the Hellenistic layer of the site of Eshera.⁸²²

The Palace at Dedoplis Gora is the first Roman-period site in Georgia, where an armor, formed of scale-shaped iron plates, was excavated. Some of the types of the armor plates from there (2.0; 3.0; 4.0) show similarities with the plates of Roman scale armor – *lorica squamata* – according to their shape, size, number of holes and their distribution, too, but some of them (5.0; 6.0) differ from the Roman ones by the number of holes and

⁸¹⁴ Kuftin 1941, 101, pl. 115.

⁸¹⁵ Pogrebova 1965, 15.

⁸¹⁶ Furtwaengler 1999, 257, fig. 25.

⁸¹⁷ Piotrovski 1955, 30–36.

⁸¹⁸ Piotrovski 1955, 20, 22, 36, pl. 14.

⁸¹⁹ Robinson 1975, 154.

⁸²⁰ Khoshtaria 1972, 89; Lordkipanidze 1976, 183.

⁸²¹ Nadiradze 1990, 52, 58.

⁸²² Shamba 1980, 50, pl. 66.4.

their distribution.⁸²³ The elongated, pointed plates with 12 and 16 holes from Dedoplis Gora (7.0; 8.0) look more like a *lamellar armor*, which was apparently more common in the East.⁸²⁴

Thus, similarity or difference of the plates from Dedoplis Gora with the Roman ones is not enough evidence for judging about the provenance of the armor from Dedoplis Gora. Scale armors were widely spread in the whole ancient world and in Parthia, too, where it was even more popular than in Rome. Suffice it to remember Cassius Dio's description of the Parthian army: "The Parthians make not use of a shield, but their forces consist of mounted archers and pikemen, mostly in full armor."⁸²⁵ But the Iberians, according to Strabo, "are dressed like the Armenians and the Medes" (*ἀρμενιστί τε καὶ μηδιστί ἐσκευασμένοι*),⁸²⁶ which, supposedly, means, that the armament of the Iberians should have been like the one of the Armenians and the Medes (= Parthians), too. Material evidence of this idea is an engraved bone-plate from Room 13, on which a scene of fight of two armed men is represented, therefore, apparently, the front, defeated one is a Roman, and the victorious persecutor a local or a Parthian.⁸²⁷

Mail (cat. no. 37)

Fragments of another type of armor – *lorica hamata* – were also found at Dedoplis Gora (cat. no. 37). They lay on the floor of Room 7. It is so far the oldest mail in Georgia. Mails of the Roman period are known from two more sites in Georgia: Two fragments of an armor formed by copper or bronze rings were found at Kldeeti, in a complex of the 2nd century A.D.,⁸²⁸ while one iron mail was found in Tagilon, in a rich burial of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.⁸²⁹ Fragments of a later (4th century A.D.⁸³⁰) iron mail were excavated in Nokalakevi and in Urbnisi (5th century A.D.⁸³¹),

and the Tsebelda mail is dated to the 6th–8th centuries A.D.⁸³²

H. Russel Robinson relies on Varro's information, according to which the Romans studied the skill of making mails from the Gauls, who this invention belonged to.⁸³³

In Georgia so far no mail is found of earlier than the Roman period and, therefore, we are allowed to relate the spreading of mail in Georgia to appearing of the Romans here. Yet, it does not mean that the mail from Dedoplis Gora was surely imported from Rome. It is quite possible that it was made locally, as there existed full technical and material possibilities for this in Georgia of Roman times.

In Rome of the Republican period mail must still have been a rather expensive armor if considered Polybius' information which says that mails were worn by wealthier legionnaires, whose income exceeded 10,000 drachms.⁸³⁴ In Georgia of the Roman period, too, mail seems to be related to nobility and wealth: mails appeared in rich burials both in Tagilon and at the Kldeeti cemetery. In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora a fragment of only one mail was found, while fragments of *lorica squamata* appear in large amounts.

A mail is made from small metal rings, each of them run through four different rings, two from upper and two from lower rows, and it needed high skill to produce such mails; after observing mails of the Roman epoch in Western Europe, it turned out that during its construction usually two kinds of rings were used: one was cut from a metal plate using two kerns of different diameters, while the other – linking rings – were made from pieces of wire, the ends of which, flattened and pierced in advance, were riveted during the

823 Cf. Robinson 1975, fig. 159.

824 Robinson 1975, 162 f.

825 Cass. Dio 40.15; Rostovtzeff 1931, 195.

826 Strab. 11.3.3.

827 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 16.

828 Lomtadze 1957, 14, pl. 8.1, 2.

829 Boltunova 1935, 37.

830 Information of the archaeologist D. Iomitashvili.

831 Chilashvili 1964, 94.

832 Voronov/Bgashba 1985, 84, figs. 94.16–19. In medieval Georgia mail seems to be the main type of armor. Anyhow, it was worn by the soldier buried in the dump of a tumulus of Middle Bronze Age in Zurtaket (Trialeti); this mail is completely preserved and is precisely dated to the 11th century A.D. according to a Byzantine golden coin (Chilashvili 1957, 96). Fragments of a mail were excavated at the site of Dmanisi, in the cultural layer of the 12th–13th centuries A.D. (Chilashvili 1957, 96). In the highlands of Georgia, particularly in Khevsureti, mails were in use until the 19th century A.D. (Cholokashvili 1956 and 1975).

833 Varro *ling.* 5.116; Robinson 1975, 164. M. C. Bishop and J. C. Coulston agree with this, too (Bishop/Coulston 1989, 20; Bishop/Coulston 1992, 59).

834 Pol. 6.23.; Robinson 1997, 164.

process of weaving the mail. This was the oldest and the fastest method of producing a mail.⁸³⁵

The fragment of the mail from Dedoplis Gora has been in fire and is strongly rusted, still the rings are distinct and it can be claimed that all the rings are made from wires of round section. We suppose that one part of the rings had been joined beforehand by means of riveting or, more presumably, hot chasing, the other part – the ones connecting the rows – were joined in the process of weaving the mail, probably using a rivet. Even though I am not able to check whether the Romans made rings of mails this way, too, still I consider that this probability cannot be excluded. Even if there do not appear such mails in Rome, it will not be an argument to deny the idea of spreading mails in Georgia from Rome. The Iberians were ancient metallurgists, smiths and, just like the Celts, they did not lack the capacity for inventing⁸³⁶ and could easily introduce novelties in mail production. The fragment of the mail from Dedoplis Gora is not an accidental piece of armor. It is a piece of a 15 cm wide right-angled line, and the completeness of its at least one edge is not broken. Therefore, it must be a part of scapula-pad, which protected back and shoulders of a soldier and was fastened at the chest.⁸³⁷

Laminated Armor – Lorica Segmentata (cat. no. 38)

The *lorica segmentata* – an iron narrow and long armor, formed of rounded plates – was considered a symbol of Roman legionnaires.⁸³⁸ In reports of excavations of Roman camps and forts, mostly the remains of such armors are recorded.⁸³⁹ We presume that fragments of such armors, too, were found at Dedoplis Gora. It is a bundle of plates of 20 cm long and 3.1 cm wide, strongly rusted and incomplete, found in the wall debris of Room 11, at 40 cm above floor level (cat. no. 38). If our presumption is true, it would be the first and so far the only case of excavating *lorica segmentata* in Georgia.

835 Robinson 1975, 153, 164.

836 Robinson 1975, 164.

837 Robinson 1975, 164.

838 Robinson 1975, 174.

839 Bishop/Coulston 1989, 32.

Finally, I would like to draw the reader's attention to one more object.⁸⁴⁰ It is an iron two-winged hinge with one characteristic, which, should not belong to it if it had been used to attach a door of a cupboard or a lid of a box. The stem linking the wings is movable: its one end is curved for holding in order to make it possible to move it away, i.e., to open the hinge and fasten it back. Besides, size and position of holes on the hinge-wings coincide with the ones of armor plates in surprising accuracy. We think this fact is a sufficient reason to ask a question: can this hinge be a clasp of an armor? This supposition can be supported by the situation that the hinge was found together with armor plates. Roman laminated armor of Corbridge type – *lorica segmentata* – had the same kind but smaller hinges.⁸⁴¹

Parts of Horse's Harness: Bits (cat. nos. 39–40)

Archaeological evidences prove that in the life of the tribes inhabiting Georgia horses are established from the beginning of the Middle Bronze Age as animals for harnessing to the battle cart and for riding; Georgians did not use horses much in economy. The oldest bits excavated in Georgia are dated to the end of the Middle Bronze Age, the 15th century B.C. These are two bronze bits with three-holed cheek-pieces worn by horses harnessed to a two-wheeled cart.⁸⁴²

From this time on until the 3rd century B.C., we can trace changes of the bit-shapes on the territory of Georgia. From the 15th to the 7th centuries B.C. including, the bit itself – a part of the bridle

840 Cf. ch. 4.5. *Metal Implements*, cat. no. 53.

841 Robinson 1975, 174; Bishop/Coulston 1992, 35, figs. 10, 14; Unz/Deschler-Erb 1997, 31, nos. 835–836, pl. 35.

842 Miron/Orthmann 1995, 257, no. 150. In the mentioned catalog, the date of bits is the 14th–13th centuries B.C., which is dubious. The ones of this period have different, wheel-like cheek-pieces. Two of such bits from the Sasireti treasure (Shida Kartli) are published in the same catalog. Four bits were found in Sasireti. (Miron/Orthmann 1995, 262, no. 167). Two of the same kind of bits with wheel-like cheek-pieces were in a tumulus at Dedoplis Mindori, near Berikldeebi, which is later than the tumulus no. 4 at Berikldeebi and must be dated to the 14th century B.C. (Gagoshidze et al. 1986, 65). The same type of bits was worn by horses harnessed to carts, excavated in the 14th–13th centuries B.C. Lchasheni tumuli in Armenia (Martirosian 1964, 100, pl. 8).

that is in the mouth of a horse – does not experience any serious development. It consists of two smooth bronze bars connected movably in the middle, nearly the same way as in a modern bit; only the shapes of cheek-pieces are changed.⁸⁴³

In the 6th century B.C., a new type of severe bit was introduced to Georgia, apparently from the Near East: the bit consists of two movably connected parts and these parts are cast together with cheek-pieces; the part of the bit in the horse's mouth is thick and covered with lots of pointed knobs.⁸⁴⁴

Making the bit so 'severe' can be related to the fact, that a horse then was used rather for riding than for harnessing. Anyhow, in rich burials of the 5th century B.C. at Itkhvisi and Sairkhe there were horses for riding and they wore this kind of bits. Sairkhean bits are slightly different from the Itkhvisian ones: parts of bits, cast together with cheek-pieces are linked to each other by an additional ring.⁸⁴⁵

In rich burials of the middle of the 4th century B.C. and later – the Akhlagori treasure, burials from Algeti, Kanchaeti, Itkhvisi (Burial 2), Sairkhe (Burial 1), Takhtidziri, etc. – also a very severe bit appears, but it is absolutely different in type. These are two or three-part bits with stem-like or flat cheek-pieces and with jagged wheels of different size strung on bit bars; moreover, some of such bits are already made of iron.⁸⁴⁶

Such bits were in use in Iberia in the 3rd century B.C., as it was substantiated in the excavations of the Takhtidziri cemetery, but it is difficult to prove how long they preserved, as in Georgia, so far, there has not been a single case of finding a bit of the 2nd-1st centuries B.C. There are not many finds of bits at archaeological sites of the 1st century A.D. in Georgia. The reason can be the fact that at this time, it was quite seldom to bury horses with the dead. From this point of view, the cemetery near Sokhta, on the river Liakhvi, in the Kartlian highlands is an exception, where in 1974–1976 several dozens of pit burials were excavated, among which six were accompanied

by horses; four of these horses were harnessed.⁸⁴⁷ The finds of the expedition, as far as I know, have not been published completely, but I am grateful to the excavator A. Slanov who gently showed me an iron bit excavated in 1974, in the Burial 2 at Sokhta cemetery. The bit is perfectly preserved, which made it easier for us to reconstruct the only bit found in Room 11 at Dedoplis Gora. The bit itself, which was put into a horse's mouth, has two parts. Each part is a short massive iron bar, rectangular in section and ending by rings at both ends. Furthermore, these rings of one of the parts of a bit are situated on one plane, while the rings of the other one are turned right-angled to each other. These parts of the bit are movably connected to each other and, therefore, one ring is open. Outer rings, bigger in diameter than the inner ones, are put through the central hole of a cheek-piece. Rings for holding reins run through those outer ones. The cheek-pieces have a horseshoe shape. In the middle they are flattened and pierced for connecting with a bit. At the ends of the horseshoe there are rectangular cuts for straps.

In the same Liakhvi valley, the bit buried in Burial 6 of the Monastery cemetery had wheel-like cheek-pieces. The bit itself has two parts and is very severe. The bars of the bit are covered with knobs and each cheek-piece, too, has four knobs inside. The burial is dated to the end of the 1st or the beginning of the 2nd century A.D. and this is so far the only bit in Georgia of Roman epoch and, it is likely to have been introduced here from the North Caucasus, where such bits are quite common in the Sarmatian period.⁸⁴⁸

An iron cheek-pieced bit was worn by one of the horses in Burial 10 at Rikianebis Veli cemetery in Aghaiani, but in this case the cheek-pieces are straight-barred, they have two holes each and run through the outer rings of the bit. The bit itself is almost the same as the one from Sokhta and reins were fastened to the rings running through the outer rings of the bit. The burial is dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D.⁸⁴⁹

⁸⁴³ Kuftin 1941, 61–63, fig. 56–57; Miron/Orthmann 1995, nos. 150, 167, 207, 350, 378–379.

⁸⁴⁴ Kuftin 1941, 61–63, fig. 58.

⁸⁴⁵ Gagoshidze 1968, 42, no. 15; Nadiradze 1990, 35 f., pl. 26.

⁸⁴⁶ Smirnov 1934, 52–56, no. 86; Kuftin 1941, 35, pls. 12, 12bis; Gagoshidze 1964, 54–59, pl. 8–9; Nadiradze 1990, 78 f., pl. 37.1.

⁸⁴⁷ Slanov 1975; Slanov 1977.

⁸⁴⁸ Gagloev 1980, 29–31 with bibliographical notes.

⁸⁴⁹ Mirianashvili 1983, 32, 70, fig. 99. N. Mirianashvili writes: "The bit to be discussed falls into the IIIrd group of bits according to I. Gagoshidze's classification" (Mirianashvili 1983, 70), which is not correct: In the work mentioned only the so called 'Akhlagorian' type of bits are discussed and 4 sub-types of this type are given (Gago-

Three bits have been found in all at Dedoplis Gora, all three on the floor of the Palace, one in Room 9, and two in Room 11. The one in Room 9 was so rusted that it was impossible to take it without damaging, but we measured it and made its schematic drawing locally. It is a simple, 18 cm long, quite modern-type bit, which consists of two bars linked with rings in the middle and ending by outer rings of 5 cm diameter. Bars of 4 cm length are hung on these rings with hooks, at the ends of which there are rectangular cuts for fastening reins.

As mentioned above, two bits were found in Room 11. One of them (cat. no. 39) is analogous to the one from the Sokhta cemetery, while the other one does not have any cheek-pieces and is probably of the same kind as the bit from Room 9, but it does not have the equipment for fastening reins.

Such a 'simple' bit of a not very much later period has also been excavated at other places in Georgia. Nearly of the same type are the bits of the 2nd century A.D. from the Kldeeti and Bori cemeteries⁸⁵⁰ and a diminutive silver bit from the Burial 6 at Armaziskhevi (end of the 2nd century A.D.).⁸⁵¹

In the stable of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora (Room 9), iron rings were found together with the bit, which certainly were parts of the bridle (cat. no. 40). The same kind of rings, 15 in all, was found in Rooms 11 and 13. It is probable that at least some of them were parts of the bridle, but it is difficult to assert it. Similar rings were found in the above-mentioned Burial 10 at Aghaiani together with the bit, and there is no doubt that they belonged to a horse's harness.⁸⁵²

Other parts of a horse's harness of the 1st century A.D., especially made of organic substance (wood, leather, felt, fabric), have not been preserved, neither at Dedoplis Gora, nor anywhere else in Georgia, but engraved bone plates, excavated in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, with riders' representations may give us an impression.⁸⁵³ In those pictures the details of harness are clear, which allows us to conclude, that the 1st century

shidze 1964, 57), while the Aghaiani bit is a completely different type.

850 Ivashchenko 1938, 18; Lomtadze 1957, 19, no. 9, fig. 2, pl. 21.1.

851 Apakidze et al. 1955, 78, fig. 42, pl. 74.

852 Mirianashvili 1983, 32, fig. 99.

853 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 21, 23–27, 29–34, 36, 41, 53–64.

A.D. Georgian horsemen rode horned saddles,⁸⁵⁴ under which there lay a wide, quadrangular saddle-cloth. The saddle was fixed with the girth, breast band and breeching. At the junction of the straps metal buckles were attached. Shoulder buckles can be seen particularly clearly. The bridle consisted of several straps and here, too, buckles were fixed to the junctions.⁸⁵⁵ Stirrups and horseshoes were not in use in the 1st century A.D. Kartli.⁸⁵⁶

It is remarkable, that engraved pictures on bone plates from Dedoplis Gora give additional information about bits. As we saw above, two types of bits were excavated at Dedoplis Gora, requiring bridles of different construction: one a cheek-pieced bit, apparently, continues old, local tradition of bits, while the other one, without a cheek-piece is a new, Roman period innovation, as it does not essentially differ from simple bits common in the Roman world.⁸⁵⁷ Observation on pictures makes us presume that other types of bits were also used in the 1st century A.D. Kartli. On two plates,⁸⁵⁸ reins start under the horse's jaw, a little lower and not right from the jaw. We suppose the horse wore a curb-bit. Such bits had been used in Rome since the times of the Emperors: while pulling reins, caught on a curb-bit, the bit in the mouth of the horse used to turn round and strongly press the horse's palate which made the horse obey the rider more easily.⁸⁵⁹

On several plates,⁸⁶⁰ two reins are depicted, one of which lays on the horse's neck, in front of the

854 Cf. Connolly et al. 1991.

855 Cf. Dixon/Southern 1992, 68–75, fig. 35.

856 Unz/Deschler-Erb 1997, pl. 78, no. 2356. Our discussion on horse's harness in Iberia of the Roman epoch would be more complete if it had been possible to consider metal (iron, bronze, silver) parts of harness from Burials 3–4 and 6 of the Kldeeti cemetery. There are various cheek-pieces, buckles, clasps, pendants, etc., the whole consideration of which would give us new information about horse's harness. But, unfortunately, some of the descriptions in the publication of the Kldeeti cemetery are not accompanied by illustrations, and the author has not tried to reconstruct the harness from the preserved pieces. At the moment, it is – for objective reasons – impossible to study the problem on the basis of the whole material. This must be delayed to the future (Lomtadze 1957, 119–121, 134–137, 153–159, nos. 178–181, 187–192, 233–236, 242–252).

857 Cf. Dixon/Southern 1992, 63, fig. 31.

858 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 14, 41.

859 Hyland 1990, 136–138; Dixon/Southern 1992, 63, fig. 32; Unz/Deschler-Erb 1997, 50, pl. 67, no. 1939.

860 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 24, 26, 116.

saddle. We presume, this points to the existence of an additional, so called 'larynx-bit'. The larynx-bit was fastened to a horse together with the ordinary one and was used for instant stopping and maneuvering it.

We should consider stirrups among harness, which surely was the necessary element of the rider, especially during the fight, when both hands were occupied with arms and the rider had to conduct the horse with his feet.⁸⁶¹ No stirrups have been excavated at Dedoplis Gora, although they were found at several sites in Georgia. So far, the oldest are the ones from Burial 8 in Takhtidziri (beginning of the 3rd century B.C.).⁸⁶² Chronologically closer to the material from Dedoplis Gora are the stirrups from Burial 10 of the Rikianebis Veli cemetery in Aghaiani, dated to the 1st century A.D.⁸⁶³ Together with a diminutive silver bit there also was a pair of diminutive bronze stirrups in Burial 6 of the Aramaziskhevi cemetery of the pitiakhshs (end of the 2nd century A.D.).⁸⁶⁴ The Aghaiani stirrup is a semi-elliptically bent iron bar, which has a pointed swelling on the convex side. Mtskhethian stirrups are similar to them, but they (Mtskhethian) are preserved with the equipment for attaching them to shoes. The ends of the stirrups are curved; two dowelled plates, bent in two, are connected to each of them by means of rings. Straps for fastening the stirrups to shoes should have been attached to these plates. Buckles for tying these straps have also been preserved.⁸⁶⁵ In Rome of the Republican and Imperial times, similar stirrups were common.⁸⁶⁶

⁸⁶¹ Dixon/Southern 1992, 63.

⁸⁶² Material of Takhtidziri cemetery is not published. It is kept in the Georgian National Museum – Simon Janashia Museum, inventory nos. 7–997.

⁸⁶³ Mirianashvili 1983, 32, 70, fig. 99.

⁸⁶⁴ Apakidze et al. 1955, 79, no. 129.

⁸⁶⁵ Apakidze et al. 1955, 79, pl. 74.

⁸⁶⁶ Cf. for Republican stirrups Bishop/Coulston 1992, 63, figs. 32.2–4 and for stirrups from Vindonissa Unz/Deschler-Erb 1997, nos. 1962–1964, pl. 69.

Catalog (*Plates 48–54*)

1. Arrowheads, 294 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6502, 6507, 6508.

Found in Room 9, at the northern wall, on a rack and before it, on the floor.

There are 30 complete samples of such arrowheads:

L. 6.5–6.9 cm; L. of the haft 2.5–2.7 cm; max. W. of the wings 1.6–2.3 cm.

Trilobate, hafted. Two groups distinguished in terms of size and shape of the ends of wings. The arrowheads of the first group, less in number, bigger in size and characterized by the ends of wings cut horizontally or folded upward.

The rest of the arrowheads form the second group. They are smaller in size, the ends of wings descending with acute angle:

L. 3.4–4.8 cm; L. of the haft 1.3–1.7 cm; max. W. of the wings 1–1.4 cm.

Analogies: Lomtadze 1957, 143 f., fig. 30, pl. 19.2, 4; Apakidze 1963, 209–212; Chilashvili 1964, 124 f.; Lordkipanidze 1976, 179 f.; Bishop/Coulston 1992, 79, fig. 43.5–9.

2. Arrowheads, 249 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6512, 6515, 6516, 6520.

Found in Room 10, in the wall debris, at 20–50 cm above the floor level; nearby four bow laths (cat. no. 15).

Big ones: L. 7.3–7.9 cm; L. of the haft 2.8–3.2 cm; W. of the wing 1.8 cm.

Small ones: L. 5.7 cm; L. of the haft 1.8 cm; W. of the wing 1.8 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings folded upward. Nearly similar in size, several pieces a little smaller.

3. Arrowheads, 161 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6586.

Found in Room 11, near the western wall, in a wooden barrel that stood on the floor; carbonized wooden shafts of arrows are preserved (cf. cat. no. 13).

L. 4–4.8 cm; W. of the haft 1.6–1.8 cm; W. of the wings 1.2–1.4 cm.

Big one: pres. L. 5.1 cm; pres. L. of the haft 1.3 cm; L. of the wings 3.8 cm; W. 1.9 cm.

Trilobate, comparatively small size, descending wings. Except for one, with wings folded upward and bigger in size. The end of the haft chipped off.

4. Arrowheads, 70 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6595, 6600.

Found in Room 11, in the north-eastern part, in the wall debris and on the floor; nearby there were bow laths (cat. nos. 14, 17).

L. 4.3–6.1 cm; L. of the haft 1.5–2.4 cm; W. of the wings 1.3–1.5 cm.

Arrowhead with descending wings: L. 4.3 cm; L. of the haft 1.4 cm; W. of the wings 1.5 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings folded upward – except for one with descending wings.

5. Arrowhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6526.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level (cat. no. 6 was found nearby).

L. 8.35 cm; L. of the haft 2.3 cm; W. of the wings 2 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings cut horizontally. The biggest among the arrowheads from Dedoplis Gora.

6. Arrowheads, 30 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6530.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level (cat. no. 5 found nearby).

L. 5–5.6 cm; L. of the haft 1.8–2.1 cm; W. of the wings 1.2–2 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings folded upward. Small. On one group an iron plate, ending with a rusted ring (part of a quiver?).

7. Arrowheads, 14 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6581.

Found in Room 13, in the wall debris, at 25–30 cm above the floor level.

L. 4 cm; L. of the haft 1.4 cm; W. of the wings 1–1.1 cm.

8. Arrowhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6565.

Found on the courtyard, in the south-western part, on the floor.

L. 4.2 cm; L. of the haft 1.6 cm; W. of the wings 1.3 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, descending wings.

9. Arrowhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6496.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part near the bakeries.

L. 4.2 cm; L. of the haft 1.6 cm; W. of the wings 1.2 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, descending wings.

10. Arrowhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6497.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part near the bakeries.

L. 5.7 cm; L. of the haft 2 cm; W. of the wings 1.9 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings folded upward.

11. Arrowhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6498.

Found in Room 7, on the floor.

L. 5.4 cm; L. of the haft 1.6 cm; W. of the wings 1.8 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings folded upward.

12. Arrowhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6564.

Found in the corridor, in front of Room 13, on the floor.

Pres. L. 4.6 cm; L. of the wings 4.1 cm; W. 1.2 cm.

Trilobate, hafted, wings folded upward.

Not illustrated.

13. Lower part of an arrow-shaft

Wood. GNM 27- 977: 6586a.

Found in Room 11, at the western wall.

Pres. L. 6.3 cm; Diam. 0.5 cm; L. of the thinned part 5 cm.

Analogy: Unz/Deschler-Erb 1997, pl. 21, no. 389, inv. no. 4860.

14. Laths of bow-ends

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6635.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

Pres. size: (1) L. 5.40 cm; W. 1.4 cm; Th. 0.1–0.2 cm; W. of the deepening 0.7 cm.

(2) 4.5×1.3×0.1–0.2 cm; W. of the deepening 0.6 cm.

(3) 8.2×1.0×0.1–0.2 cm; W. of the deepening 0.5 cm.

(4) 3.3×1.25×0.1–0.2 cm.

White, burnt, broken. Thin, narrow and long bone plates, convex at one side, smoothed. Lower side flat and in some places visible bone structure. All four laths of one bow preserved. Ends of all four of them rounded, semicircular deepening carved on one side for catching the cord.

Analogies: Arch. USSR, 1989, 197 f., pl. 81.30, 31; Bishop/Coulston 1992, 79; fig. 43.1–4; Dixon/Southern 1992, 52 f., fig. 21.

15. Laths of bow-ends

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6706.

Found in Room 10, in the north-eastern part, in the wall debris, at 60 cm above the floor level.

Preserved size: (1) 3.7×1.4×0.3 cm; W. of the deepening 0.5 cm; Diam. hole 0.4 cm.

(2) 5.7×1.3–0.9×0.3–0.25 cm.

White and yellowish, burnt, broken (26 fragments). Shape analogous to cat. no. 14. Among them fragments of rounded ends of two bow laths. One of them with a hole in the middle, near the rounded end for attaching to the bow, and a semicircular deepening carved at one side for catching the cord. On the fragment of the other end a part of the semicircular deepening preserved.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

16. Laths of bow-ends

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6771.

Found in Room 8, in the center, in the wall debris.

Size of the plate with a deepening: L. 9.1 cm; W. 1.4–1.2 cm; Th. 0.3 cm; W. of the deepening 0.7 cm.

White, burnt (4 fragments). Shape analogous to cat. no. 14. A deepening for catching a cord and a hole for attaching to the bow preserved. Rounded end broken.

Analogies: See cat. no. 14.

17. Laths of the middle parts of bows

Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6635.

Found in Room 11, on the floor, together with laths of bow-ends (cat. no. 14).

W. 1.7–0.3 cm; Th. 0.1–0.15 cm.

Broken. White. Thin, narrow and long bone plates, narrower to the rounded ends. Coiled like spirals because of the fire.

Analogies: Khudiakov 1986, 26, 64, 126, 139, figs. 3, 22, 57, 62.

18. Spearhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6511.

Found in Room 10, in the wall debris.

Pres. L. 31 cm; W. 4.5 cm; L. of the socket 9 cm; Diam. of the socket 3 cm.

The top broken. Leaf-like blade, with a socket.

Analogies: Khoshtaria 1941, 91, pl. 3; Lomtadidze 1957, 15, 140-142, fig. 2829; Puturidze 1959, 76, pl. 5.3, 10, 11; Mamaishvili 1980, 119, pl. 32.2; Ramishvili et al. 1991, 92, pl. 227.5; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 64, fig. 446.

19. Spearhead, 2 fragments

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6578.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level.

Pres. L. of the fragments: (1) 12 cm; (2) 6.5 cm; Diam. of the socket 2.7 cm.

Leaf-like blade, with a socket.

Analogies: See cat. no. 18.

20. Spearhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6493.

Found in Room 7, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

Pres. L. 31 cm; L. of the socket 14.5 cm; W. of the blade 4 cm; Diam. of the socket 3.8 cm; Diam. of the socket hoop 5.2 cm; inner Diam. of the socket 2.5 cm. Incomplete. Massive, with a leaf-like blade, long tubular socket, widened at the bottom.

Analogies: Anfimov 1951, 182, fig. 12.1; Liberov 1965, pl. 18.1, 3, 9; Melikova 1975, 176; Arch. USSR 1989, pls. 81.27, 110.9-10.

21. Spearhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6494.

Found in Room 7, at the northern wall, on the floor.

Pres. L. 31 cm; W. of the blade 5.5 cm; Diam. of the socket 4.5 cm; Diam. of the socket hoop approx. 6 cm; inner diameter of the socket 2.8 cm.

Incomplete.

Analogies: See cat. no. 20.

22. Spearhead

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6547.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris, at 30 cm above the floor level.

Pres. L. 28.5 cm; W. 5 cm; L. of the socket 8.5 cm; Diam. of the socket 3.8 cm.

Hoop-like widening lost.

Analogies: See cat. no. 20.

23. Butt.

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6513.

Found in Room 10, at the northern wall, in a pot.

L. 16.5 cm; Diam. 2.8 cm.

Equally thinned to the end. Round in section. A socket with a hole for a dowel.

Probably belonging to the spear-blade cat. no 17.

Analogies: Kalandadze 1954, 30, 34, pl. 9, 10-12; Lordkipanidze 1976, 177; Ramishvili et al. 1991, pl. 227.2.

24. Butt

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6611.

Found in Room 7, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

L. 13.8 cm; Diam. 1.6 cm; Diam. of the socket 5.5 cm.

Pointed to the end, with socket. Probably belonging to the spearhead cat. no. 19.

Analogies: See cat. no. 23.

25. Butt

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6531.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

L. 7.5 cm; Diam. 2 cm; Diam. of the socket 4 cm.

Conical. Open socket; pointed to the end.

Analogies: See cat. no. 23.

26. Dagger

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6537.

Found in Room 11, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

Pres. L. 23 cm; W. at the handle 3.8 cm; W. of the handle 2 cm; W. of the blade 3 cm.

Long, triangular blade, two-edged. Handle with a hoop around. Big part of the handle haft and the top of the dagger broken.

Analogies: Apakidze et al. 1955, 28, 48, nos. 3, 55, pls. 1, 3, 37.12, 38.1, 40.2, 52.1; Lomtadidze 1957, 15 f., 142 f., nos. 4, 197, figs. 29, 26b, pls. 21.1e, 21.2v; Puturidze 1959, 75; Bragvadze 1997, 9, 14, 30, pls. 15.1, 2; 26.1.

27. Scale armor (*lorica squamata*)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 956-957.

Found in Room 1, in the eastern part, on the floor.

Two pieces of thickness 4-7 cm. One triangular, base L. 52 cm; H. 32 cm; the other quadrangular 35x34 cm.

Formed of scale-shaped plates, linked with iron wire loops. This wire has disappeared at present. The armor must have fallen down folded in two, so four layers of plates are visible at the fold.

The plaques different in size, in the triangular piece, on the whole, smaller, than in the quadrangular one, which, apparently, is the lower part of the armor.

Four different kinds of plates could be distinguished:

a. Scale-shaped plates with four holes. L. 3-3.1 cm; W. 1.7-1.8 cm. Occuring only in the triangular piece.

b. Scale-shaped bigger plates with four holes. L. 3.5-3.7 cm; W. 2.5-2.7 cm. Occuring in both pieces.

c. Scale-shaped, middle-size plates with eight holes. L. 5 cm; W. 3.1 cm. Occur only in the quadrangular piece.

d. Scale-shaped, big plates with seven or eight holes. L. 8 cm; W. 3.5 cm. Occur only in the quadrangular piece.

28. Armor plates, 75 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6529.

Found in Room 13, in the wall debris, at 60–80 cm above the floor level.

- a. Most of the plates (72), scale-shaped and small, with four holes. L. 2–2.2 cm; W. 1.3–1.4 cm.
- b. One plate with a fifth hole in the middle of the top part. L. 2.2 cm; W. 1.3 cm;
- c. One bigger. L. 2.8 cm; W. 2 cm;
- d. Bottom rounded part of a scale-shaped, middle-size plate, probably with nine holes. W. 2.5 cm; pres. L. 1.5 cm.

29. Armor plates, 483 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6568.

Found in Room 13, on the floor and in the wall debris, at 29 cm above the floor level.

- a. Most of the plates (475), scale-shaped and small, with four holes. L. 2–2.2 cm; W. 1.3–1.4 cm.
- b. Three plates a little bigger. L. 2.8 cm; W. 1.8 cm.
- c. One plate with two holes. L. 3 cm; W. 2 cm.
- d. Four plates pentagonal (with a pointed end), with eight holes. L. 5.2–5.5 cm; W. 3.2–3.5 cm.

30. Armor plates, 33 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6535.

Found in Room 11, at the northern part of the eastern wall, in the wall debris.

- a. Scale-shaped, small, with four holes, part lost. At the bottom a bigger, fifth hole, made later, with uneven edges. L. 3 cm; W. 2 cm.
- b. Fragment of a rounded end of a big, scale-shaped plate, with only one preserved hole. Had probably seven holes. W. 4 cm; pres. L. 4.2 cm.
- c. Eleven big, scale-shaped plates with eight holes, among which only one is certain. L. 7.4 cm; W. 4 cm.
- d. Seven middle-size, scale-shaped plates with eight holes (five certain). Two of these plates have an additional ninth hole, which is made later and is bigger, with uneven edges. L. 4.5–4.7 cm; W. 3.3–3.5 cm.
- e. Middle-size, scale-shaped plate with nine holes. L. 4.05 cm; W. 2.95 cm.
- f. Ten middle-size, scale-shaped plates with ten holes (seven certain). L. 4.1–4.6 cm; W. 2.6–3.1 cm.
- g. Rectangular plate with ten holes; L. 4.3 cm; W. 2.5 cm.
- h. Narrow and elongated pentagonal plate (one pointed end) with 16 holes. L. 4.8 cm; W. 1.9 cm; Th. 0.1 cm.

31. Armor plates, 14 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6539.

Found in Room 11, on the floor and in the wall debris.

- a. Three big, scale-shaped plates with eight holes. L. 7.4–7.6 cm; W. 3.2–3.7 cm.
- b. Fragment of a big, scale-shaped plate. Three holes preserved in the middle of the right side, one hole at the left side, one at the top right corner and two holes at the bottom. Among these two, the right one seems to be made later, though its edges are smoothed. Pres. L. 7.2 cm; W. 4 cm.

c. Three middle-size, scale-shaped plates with eight holes. L. 4.6–5 cm; W. 3.5–3.6 cm.

d. Middle-size, scale-shaped plate with eight holes. L. 4.1 cm; W. 2.9 cm.

e. Six middle-size, scale-shaped plates with ten holes. L. 4–4.6 cm; W. 2.9–3.4 cm.

32. Armor plates, 48 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6553.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

- a. 25 small, scale-shaped plates with two holes. L. 2.9–3.3 cm; W. 1.7–2.7 cm.
- b. Three similar plates with four holes. L. 3.2–3.5 cm; W. 1.9–2.5 cm.
- c. similar plate, but with an additional fifth hole in the lower part of the right side; L. 3.6 cm; W. 2.7 cm.
- d. Big, scale-shaped plate with seven holes. L. 8.2 cm; W. 4.3 cm.
- e. Fragment of a middle-size plate (upper part), with six holes arranged in pairs (must have been eight holes).
- f. Four middle-size, scale-shaped plates with ten holes. L. 4.4–4.6 cm; W. 2.9–3.1 cm.
- g. Two rectangular plates, with two corners cut. Both fragmented, but the reconstruction of its original form is managed; it must have had fifteen holes, arranged as follows: there are three pairs of holes along the edge (upper?) at the corners, along the opposite side two pairs near the corners and one in the middle, five in all; in the middle of the right and left edges, there are one pair of holes (at the right edge of one plate holes are arranged asymmetrically). L. 5 cm; W. 5.5 cm.
- h. Rectangular plate, with disorderly holes of different size along the edges (fourteen holes preserved) L. 8 cm; W. 6.2 cm.

33. Armor plates, 13 fragments

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6558.

Found in Room 11, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

- a. Middle-size, scale-shape plate, with ten holes, part lost. W. 3.4 cm; pres. L. 3.5 cm.
- b. Bottom part of a middle-size, scale-shaped plate with two holes. W. 3.4 cm; pres. L. 2.7 cm.
- c. Fragment of a long and narrow plate with pointed end (pentagonal). A pair of holes at the pointed end and one preserved hole at the edge. Probably had twelve holes. W. 1.9 cm; pres. L. 2.2 cm.
- d. Fragments of big iron quadrangular plates.

34. Armor plates, 70 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6571.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris, at 20–40 cm above the floor level.

- a. Thirteen small, scale-shaped plates, convex at the bottom, with four holes. L. 1.9–2.1 cm; W. 1.2–1.4 cm.
- b. Five big, scale-shaped plates with five holes. (one certain); L. 8 cm; W. 4.3 cm.
- c. Same kind, smaller, but with cut upper corners. L. 7 cm; W. 3.3 cm.

- d. 25 big, scale-shaped plates with six holes. L. 7.5 cm; W. 3.6–3.7 cm.
- e. Nine middle-size, scale-shaped plates with eight holes. One with a bigger tenth hole made later, with uneven edges; L. 4.5 cm; W. 3.6 cm.
- f. Fifteen middle-size, scale-shaped plates, with ten holes. L. 4.1–4.6 cm; W. 2.9–3.2 cm.
- g. Four pentagonal (pointed rectangular) plates with eight holes. L. 5–5.5 cm; W. 3.3–3.5 cm.
- h. Small, rectangular plate with two holes (?), part lost. W. 2 cm; pres. L. 3.2 cm;
- i. Fragment of a long and narrow rectangular plate with five pairs of holes preserved (probably had a pointed end and twelve holes).
- j. Five fragments of a big quadrangular (?) plate. W. of one fragment 6.2 cm.

35. Armor plates, 47 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6572.

Found in Room 11, at the northern wall, on the floor.

- a. Fragment of a big, scale-shaped plate, with one hole at the bottom rounded end; trace of two more holes at the side edges visible; it probably had seven holes; W. 4 cm; pres. L. 3.8 cm.
 - b. Twenty fragments of big, scale-shaped plates with eight holes. W. 3.4–4 cm; pres. biggest L. 4.7 cm.
 - c. Middle-size, scale-shaped plate with 10 holes. L. 4.3 cm; W. 2.9 cm.
 - d. Five fragments and three certain plates, narrow and long pentagonal (with one pointed end) with twelve holes. L. 4.1–4.4 cm; W. 1.8 cm.
 - e. Five fragments and one certain plate of the same shape with sixteen holes. L. 4.1 cm; W. 1.7 cm.
- It is difficult to define which variant the remaining twelve fragments of plates of the same shape belong to (d.) or (e.).

36. Armor plate

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6612.

Found in Room 11, at the door, in a pile of wheat.
Middle-size, scale-shaped plate with 10 holes;
L. 4.5 cm; W. 3 cm.

37. Fragment of an armor (*lorica hamata*)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6495.

Found in Room 7, on the floor.

L. of the fragment 22 cm; W. 12.5 cm; Th. 0.5–5.3 cm.
Diam. of the rings 0.55 cm; section of the wire 0.1 mm.

Has been in fire, rusted. A 15 cm wide line formed of iron rings, one end of which is open and the other folded. Rings of the armor made from wires that are round in section.

38. Fragment of an armor (?) (*lorica segmentata*)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6582.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level.

L. 20 cm; W. 3.1 cm; Th. 1–1.3 cm; Th. of the plate 0.17 cm;

Has been in fire; strongly rusted. A bundle of rounded plates, arranged as a spring of a vehicle. Remains of six plates preserved on one side, while on the other side only three. Length of the plates incomplete at both ends.

39. Bit with cheek pieces and rings for catching reins

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6587.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

L. 16.1 cm; Diam. of the inner ring 2.7 cm; Diam. of the outer rings 4 cm; L. of the cheek-piece 7.5 cm; height of the cheek-piece 7.5 cm; Diam. of the rein ring 4.3 cm.

Consisting of two parts, each a massive bar ending with rings. The outer rings running through the middle hole of horseshoe-like cheek-pieces; at the ends of horns of cheek-pieces a quadrangular hole for straps. In the outer rings of the bit rings for catching reins put through. The bit broken and incomplete.

Analogies: Slanov 1975; Slanov 1977.

40. Ring (part of a horse's harness)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6538.

Found in Room 9.

Diam. 5 cm; inner Diam. 3 cm.

Made from wire, round in section.

Similar rings – 15 pieces – were found in Room 11 together with bits.

Analogies: Mirianashvili 1983, 32, fig. 99.

4.5. Metal Implements

by Iulon Gagoshidze

Dedoplis Gora is one of the few sites in ancient Iberia where plenty of agricultural implements, as well as tools and toiletries of the Roman period were excavated. The iron articles from Dedoplis Gora are preserved in extremely bad condition, because, often, the iron is entirely rusted; therefore, the articles are somewhat deformed and sometimes even incomplete, which complicates their attribution.

Agricultural and Household Implements (cat. nos. 1-44)

Ploughshares (cat. nos. 1-3)

Three ploughshares were excavated at Dedoplis Gora, belonging to one type. The only difference is that one (cat. no. 1) has a flat, triangular blade, while the blades of the others (cat. nos. 2-3) are slightly concave and rounded in the upper part.

All three ploughshares are quite big (49 cm; 45 cm; 41 cm). The present weight of cat. no. 1 is 5.5 kg (including the weight of oxygen in iron rust), therefore, its original weight must have been at least 4 kg. The shorter one weighs 4 kg, while the longer one is only 3.250 kg (their original weights must have been 3 kg and 2.4 kg respectively).⁸⁶⁷

The greater size and weight of the ploughshares from Dedoplis Gora suggests that they

were used for cultivating heavy ground⁸⁶⁸ and if so, several pairs of oxen must have been yoked to the plough.⁸⁶⁹

Ploughshares of the Roman period in the territory of Georgia are known from two other sites in Eastern Georgia: Aghaiani (Rikianebis Veli cemetery)⁸⁷⁰ and Katlanikhevi⁸⁷¹ and in Western Georgia from Chkhari, Tsikhura and Atara.⁸⁷²

Iron ploughshares of earlier periods did not yet appear in Eastern Georgia in contrast to Western Georgia, where examples belonging to the Hellenistic period were found at Sairkhe,⁸⁷³ Vani,⁸⁷⁴ Svaneti (two samples) and Guadikhu. Examples belonging to the 5th-4th centuries B.C. are known from Jvari⁸⁷⁵ and earlier, in the 7th century B.C.,

⁸⁶⁷ The tip of cat. no. 2 is broken, the size of 41 cm is obtained from the graphical reconstruction. For comparison: the length of hafted ploughshares from the Northern Black Sea region of the same time is between 24 cm and 36 cm; while the length of those with turned-up sides is only 17 cm; Arch. USSR 1984, 154; the length of the one from Katlaniskhevi site is 35 cm; Khakhutaishvili 1966, 86.

⁸⁶⁸ Heavy grounds are common for Shida Kartli.

⁸⁶⁹ Ethnological studies have estimated the relationship between tractive force and the weight of the ploughshare: accordingly a plough with one pair of oxen should have had a ploughshare of 1-1.5 kg; by increasing the weight of the ploughshare the tractive force will be increased too, Jalabadze 1986, 280. Thus, the plough with the 4 kg ploughshare excavated at Dedoplis Gora was pulled by at least three pairs of oxen.

⁸⁷⁰ The ploughshare was found under Burial 10, dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D., Mirianashvili 1983, 71, fig. 102.

⁸⁷¹ Dated to the 1st century A.D., Khakhutaishvili 1964, 86-88, pl. 52.2.

⁸⁷² Dzidziguri 1994, 134.

⁸⁷³ The ploughshare was found in Argveti (belonging to Sairkhe). It can be dated to the Late Hellenistic period and represents the same type as the ploughshare from Dedoplis Gora. This part of Western Georgia is considered to have been included in Iberia (Kartlian kingdom) at this time. This ploughshare has not been published and we are grateful to G. Makharadze, who informed us about it.

⁸⁷⁴ Lordkipanidze 1978, 951.

⁸⁷⁵ Dzidziguri 1994, 135.

ploughshares are often part of Colchian burial-inventars.⁸⁷⁶

All of the above-mentioned ploughshares excavated in Georgia, despite the slight difference in shape, belong to a comparatively simple breaking plough.⁸⁷⁷ Exactly this kind of a plough – *aratrum* – was common in the Roman world, both in Western Europe and the Northern Black Sea region.⁸⁷⁸

In Southern Georgia, the kind of ploughshare found at Dedoplis Gora survived until the 20th century A.D. under the name *jilgha*.⁸⁷⁹

In Room 8 were found 10 iron sockets with rings (cat. no. 4) together with a ploughshare (cat. no. 1). They were fixed to the ends of wooden bars (Diam. 4.5 cm) and firmly attached with two nails each. There are no archaeological analogies for them, but because the socket of one example is rusted onto the ploughshare it is certain that they belonged to the ploughshare. Perhaps these bars, equipped with rings at both ends, were used to connect yokes of oxen to each other allowing them independent movement. In Georgia, sometimes up to the 20th century A.D., a wooden lath has been used instead of straps for joining yokes – the *kvanti*.⁸⁸⁰ The length of this present-day *kvanti* is 110 cm and it has holes at the ends to connect them to each other and to the yokes.

876 For example, in Burial 12 of the Nigvziani cemetery, about three dozen implements were found, with three ploughshares among them. Burial 1 of the cemetery 3 at Ergeta contained eighteen iron ploughshares, Mikeladze 1985, 77 – a unique phenomenon in archaeology, Mikeladze 1985, 92. Other sites of this time where ploughshares were found are the cemeteries of Pichori, Dghvaba and at Bomboni Valley, Dzidziguri 1994, 133.

877 White 1967, 126. This type differs from a modern turning or moldboard plough: it did not turn the slice of earth to one side, but cut it and turned the upper slice over.

878 White 1967, 128; Vjihareva 1956, 33; Semionov 1974, 236; Arch. USSR 1984, 154, pl. 55.

879 *Jilgha* is the last, transitional stage of development of symmetrical ploughs, which precedes the asymmetrical moldboard plough. The plough-beam, on which the ploughshare is fixed, is widened at the end and therefore, it not only breaks the ground, but turns it, too, though not to one side, as a moldboard plough (asymmetrical plough), but on both sides. *Jilgha* does not have a moldboard, although it already has a fore-carriage, but, unlike the moldboard plough, it is equipped with wheels of equal diameter, Chitaia 1930, 277; Jalabadze 1960, 40; Jalabadze 1986, 278–279; Chitaia 1997, 68–71.

880 The word *kvanti* is explained in Sul Khan-Saba Orbeliani's (1658–1725) dictionary, Orbeliani 1949, 299 and some examples are preserved at the Georgian National Museum, as well.

The second *kvanti* in each pair used to be attached to a yoke.⁸⁸¹ If one assumes this type of construction, the plough from Dedoplis Gora (Room 8) was pulled by three yokes of oxen: three yokes were connected to each other by four *kvantis*, while the fifth one joined the first yoke to the fore-carriage.⁸⁸² The difference between the *kvantis*, found at Dedoplis Gora and the present-day ones mentioned above is the use of special iron sockets at both ends to fasten them to each other and to the yoke, while the 20th century A.D. *kvantis* are simply pierced at the ends.

Spades (cat. nos. 5–7)

Three spades of two different types were excavated in Dedoplis Gora, of which two (cat. nos. 5 and 7) have a massive triangular blade and differ only in the shape of their shoulders. The other spade (cat. no. 6) also has an open socket, but the blade is round and the shoulders are asymmetrical. It might have been used as a shovel, too.

Dedoplis Gora is the only site in Georgia where spades were excavated. There is only one other known example from Armavir⁸⁸³ in Armenia, but it belongs to another type of spades.⁸⁸⁴

In modern Georgia, triangular spades still exist. These spades always have long handles and wooden foot-rests, just like a Roman *bipalium* or Italian *vanga*.⁸⁸⁵ It is difficult to say if the spades of the 1st century A.D. in Dedoplis Gora possessed such a foot-rest, because wooden parts of the spades did not survive. The modern Georgian spades differ from the examples excavated at Dedoplis Gora in the construction of the socket: it is open at the back and not at the inner side. Sockets of European spades of the Roman period are open at the back, too.⁸⁸⁶ So far, no di-

881 It is impossible to join two yokes with one whole *kvanti*, as in this case it would become difficult to turn the plough at the end of the furrow, Jalabadze 1960, 55.

882 So the 10 sockets found in Room 8 would belong to five *kvantis*. It must be noted, that the modern *jilgha* (mentioned above), too, was usually pulled by three or four yokes, Chitaia 1930, 273; though four and five yokes are also mentioned in literature, Jalabadze 1986, 278.

883 Tiratsian 1988, 137, fig. 34.

884 It is an ironshod wooden spade – *pala cum ferro* – which appears to have been very common in Italy and Britain, Semionov 1974, 207, fig. 22, 26.5.

885 White 1967, 20.

886 Cf. Petrie 1917, pl. 67, fig. G21; White 1967, 17, fig. 1, pl. 1a; Gaitzsch 1985, pl. 8.

rect analogies have been found to the spades excavated at Dedoplis Gora.

Mattock (cat. no. 8)

In the center of Room 13 of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora a mattock, which is one of the oldest pieces of agricultural equipment,⁸⁸⁷ was found together with other agricultural implements.⁸⁸⁸

Metal (bronze) mattocks first appear in Georgia in the Early Bronze Age (3rd millennium B.C.). The bronze mattock is regarded as one of the defining implements of the Colchian culture in the Late Bronze Age.⁸⁸⁹ Even the appearance of a plough with an iron share did not diminish the demand for mattocks. On the territory of Colchis at the sites of the 7th–6th centuries B.C., plenty of iron mattocks occur.⁸⁹⁰ In Eastern Georgia iron mattocks appear even earlier than in the western parts: the ones from Bakurtsikhe are dated to the 10th–9th centuries B.C.⁸⁹¹ Although there are fewer examples iron mattocks were still used and can be found at the western Georgian sites of the Hellenistic period, in particular at Eshera and Vani.⁸⁹² Iron mattocks of the Roman period are known only from the extreme north-western corner of Western Georgia, where the custom of burying implements inside the burial was pre-

served until the Roman epoch,⁸⁹³ and from Eastern Georgia only in Dedoplis Gora.

Axes (cat. nos. 9–10)

Two axes were found at Dedoplis Gora. Both have the same shape, but differ in size and proportions. Such iron axes start to appear in Georgia in the 7th century B.C.⁸⁹⁴ It can be presumed that older Colchian bronze axes of similar shape are their predecessor.⁸⁹⁵

These axes are massive and heavy and they were undoubtedly used for household purposes. Because of the wedge-like and narrow blade such an axe is ideal for chopping and cutting wood.⁸⁹⁶ In Kartli during the Roman period, exactly this kind of axes were common, too, and many of them have been excavated.⁸⁹⁷ Comparatively lighter axes of this kind were used as weapons.⁸⁹⁸

Crowbar (cat. no. 11)

In Room 12, near the eastern wall, in a pile of wheat laid a long and massive iron bar, round in section, presumably a crowbar.⁸⁹⁹ Unfortunately, exact analogies exist neither among archaeological nor modern crowbars to confirm this assump-

887 Mattocks have not lost their importance in Georgia up to the present. A mattock is suitable not only for cultivating sowings and plantations, in which it is a necessary tool, but is used in primary tillage as well – digging and loosening the soil and inversion of the sod; White 1967, 14, 36 and on; Dzidziguri 1994, 43–46, 62–64, 68–74, 120–128.

888 This implement could have been defined as an adze, too. It is used for cutting or shaping large pieces of wood and has about the same shape, but an adze, considering its function, must have a straight blade, while this tool from Dedoplis Gora has a rounded blade, which is more characteristic for a mattock. Mattocks of similar shape were excavated in Abkhazia, in women's burials, Voronov 1969, 64, A 220, pl. 37.2–31. This context gives indubitable evidence for defining them as mattocks: A tool used in orchards, like the mattock, better fits a woman's sphere of life than an adze – used for shaping wood.

889 A particularly large variety of bronze mattocks is represented on the territory influenced by the Colchian culture, which also includes Shida Kartli; Dzidziguri 1994, 73.

890 For instance, 200 iron mattocks were excavated at the Nigvziani cemetery in Western Georgia, Mikeladze 1985, 24; Dzidziguri 1994, 121.

891 Abramishvili 1961, 367, pl. 13.2.

892 Shamba 1980, 45, pl. 58.2.

893 Voronov 1969, 61–64, pl. 36.27–30, 37.2–7; Dzidziguri 1994, 127.

894 Abramishvili 1957, pl. 1.4; Abramishvili 1961, 374, pl. 19.2; Tekhov 1985, 12, 25, 29, 43, 46, pls. 114.1, 141.2, 150.3, 182.2, 187.5; Dzidziguri 1994, 107.

895 Rekhviashvili 1948, 109–113; Kuftin 1949, 37; Abramishvili 1961, 375; Dzidziguri 1994, 109.

896 The sophisticated and efficient shape of this axe has not changed over the centuries and has survived in Georgia until now under the name *kartuli tsuli* (Georgian axe), Rekhviashvili 1948.

897 For instance, such an axe was found in Armaziskhevi, in Tile-Burial 3, contemporary to rich burials of the pit-akhshs, dating to the 2nd century A.D., Apakidze et al. 1955, 130 f., pl. 108, and found in Urbnisi by accident, Chilashvili 1964, pl. 13.4.

898 Gagoshidze 1968, 34 f. Caucasia is believed to be the place of origin of this type of fighting axes, common in the Scythian world, Krupnov 1960, 277–279; Pirtskhalava 1978, 38–41, and it is not excluded that they were probably exported from Caucasia to Scythia in the 6th–5th centuries B.C.

899 This distinction is not sure, because the clearly indicated haft for setting into a wooden handle seems absolutely unsuitable for a crowbar.

tion.⁹⁰⁰ In the center of the same room an iron spit with stand was found.⁹⁰¹

Cutting Implements with Curved Blades – Sickles, Scythes, Knives (cat. nos. 12–34)

Among agricultural implements, a separate group is formed by metal curved knives with a single cutting edge, used for harvesting – mowing, reaping, pruning, cutting grapes and so on. According to size and function, three main groups can be separated: sickles, scythes and pruning knives. Actually, a sickle and a scythe have the same function, but they are used in very different ways, which is reflected both in their shape and the way the handle is set. The blade of a sickle is generally smaller and it is more curved than a scythe, while a pruning knife is even smaller than a sickle. Though there are some remarkable exceptions: some implements, defined as scythes in the catalog below, are shorter than some sickles, while the curved knife (pruning knife) is longer.

Sickles,⁹⁰² scythes

Three sickles (cat. nos. 12–14) and six scythes (cat. nos. 15–20) were found at the Palace of Dedoplis Gora. The three sickles are strongly curved, pointed tools. One of them is smaller and the curvature is semicircular (cat. no. 14), while the others are longer and less curved (cat. nos. 12–13). One (cat. no. 12) possesses two holes for nails at the widened end and one nail is preserved: Apparently, this end of the sickles was set into a wooden handle and was attached with nails. The handle formed an angle with the sickle, as it is in modern sickles, or as it is in the Roman *serrula ferrea*.⁹⁰³ It is probable that the other two sickles had the same kind of handles, too. From the 1st millennium B.C. on, iron sickles became common in Georgia. The oldest iron sickles were found in Burial 119 (1939) at Samtavro, in a cist-grave from Tumulus 3 at Santa and in Burial 28 at

Tak-Kilisa, which are dated to the 10th–9th centuries B.C.⁹⁰⁴ From the Hellenistic period, we know sickles from Guadikhu⁹⁰⁵ and Akhali Atoni.⁹⁰⁶

Five among the six scythes⁹⁰⁷ from Dedoplis Gora (cat. nos. 15–20) have one feature in common: a relatively long and thin haft strongly curved and attached to the blade. In one case (cat. no. 19), it is attached so tightly that only a small hole left at the rear of the blade points to the original existence of a curved haft.⁹⁰⁸ All the scythe-blades are a bit less curved and thinner in section compared to the sickles. The sizes of the scythe-blades differ from each other.⁹⁰⁹

Ancient Georgian written sources do not mention a special term for scythe, neither the old Armenian language, where *mangal* means both a sickle and a scythe,⁹¹⁰ nor old Latin, in which one term – *falx* – covers a wide variety of iron implements with curved blades.⁹¹¹ I. Javakhishvili presumes that the Georgian term for a scythe (*tseli*) appeared in Georgia relatively late, but not later than the 9th century A.D.,⁹¹² which is confirmed by archaeological finds: so far, scythes are known only from medieval sites.⁹¹³

The closest analogies to the sickles and scythes of Dedoplis Gora can be found in neighboring Armenia, at Armavir in the Hellenistic – Early Roman period.⁹¹⁴ Due to the lack of other comparable evidence, it is possible that this kind of implements has its origin in Caucasia.

⁹⁰⁰ For instance, crowbars from Pompeii and Memphis, considered by F. Petrie, have nothing in common with our piece, Petrie 1917, 4.

⁹⁰¹ Cf. Gagoshidze 2001, 266.

⁹⁰² The sickle is one of the oldest tools found in Georgia. A metal (copper) sickle was already found in an Early Bronze Age context. Although sickles with flint insets were used alongside with metal ones until Late Bronze–Early Iron Ages, Kikvidze 1972, 77, fig. 1, 16, pl. 10–11.4.

⁹⁰³ White 1967, 81, fig. 55.

⁹⁰⁴ Abramishvili 1961, 367, pl. 8.2; Artalakva 1976, 100.

⁹⁰⁵ Trapsh 1969, 232 f.

⁹⁰⁶ Dzidziguri 1994, 143.

⁹⁰⁷ Item cat. no. 17 is incomplete and it might as well be a piece of a sickle.

⁹⁰⁸ The haft is not visible on the drawing: the rusting process promoted its final merging to the blade.

⁹⁰⁹ The longest is 51 cm; the shortest is only 22 cm; see the catalog.

⁹¹⁰ Javakhishvili 1935, 87, 89.

⁹¹¹ White 1967, 72.

⁹¹² Javakhishvili 1935, 90.

⁹¹³ Bokhochadze 1973, 77.

⁹¹⁴ These iron sickle-like tools are slightly curved, one of them (no. 9) has a hole at the end, Arch. USSR 1985, pl. 32.5–10. For sickles and tools of other geographical origin see Petrie 1917, 46, pl. 54–55; Jacobi 1897, 144; White 1967, 71 and on; Arch. USSR 1984, 154, pl. 55.

*Knives (cat. nos. 21–34)*⁹¹⁵

Most iron knives from Dedoplis Gora have curved blades and flat hafts, comparable to the sickles and scythes described above. Their size and the intensity of blade-curving differs.⁹¹⁶ Such knives were an obligatory element of burial inventory in Eastern Georgia from the Achaemenian period to the Roman epoch. They were found in settlements of the same period, too.⁹¹⁷ In Western Georgia they are also known from archaeological sites.⁹¹⁸

In addition to the curved knives found at Dedoplis Gora, there are a few with a straight blade; for instance cat. no. 31 has a flat and narrow haft. It resembles a dagger with its wide and massive blade, but it has only one cutting edge, which is the reason why it appears among the knives.

A knife with a bone handle (cat. no. 33) could have served for a special purpose – as a scalpel, or it might have been used as a toiletry article.⁹¹⁹ In shape, the blade cat. no. 32 is similar to cat. no. 33.

In academic literature curved knives are often considered to have been used for grape-pruning and cutting bunches of grapes.⁹²⁰ Moreover, in present-day Georgia, curved knives are used for

exactly this purpose.⁹²¹ But such knives were also found in mountainous regions, e.g., Kazbegi and Ghebi, where viticulture is not common.⁹²² So curved knives could have been used for other purposes, too.⁹²³ The Sarmatians did not practice viticulture either, but in their burials, independent of sex and age, there occurred knives with curved blades alongside with ones with straight blades.⁹²⁴ The situation is similar in ancient Georgia, where curved knives were found together with straight-bladed ones.

Falx Arboraria (cat. nos. 35–36)

Two implements comparable to a type of the old Roman *falx arboraria*⁹²⁵ were found at Dedoplis Gora. In the Northern Black Sea region, in the 2nd century B.C.–2nd century A.D. this kind of tool was used in viticulture.⁹²⁶ In Georgia, such implements for chopping are only known from sites situated in the north-western part of Colchis.⁹²⁷

The shape of these implements can still be found in a tool which is called *tsaldi* in Georgia and is in use up to the present time. Its specific function is cutting and pruning branches, shrubs and thorns. The beak of a *tsaldi* – a hooked point – perfectly protects the cutting edge from touching the ground and stones.⁹²⁸ In Western Georgia (Colchis), *tsaldi* has been common since the Bronze Age.⁹²⁹ Several iron *tsaldis* were found on

⁹¹⁵ In general, it looks like a curved (pruning) knife, but its point is rounded and its convex edge is sharp, but not the concave one. Curved knives with sharp convex edges have been used from old times both for flaying and for processing skin and cutting; such knives were used by cobblers in old Tbilisi. The rounded point of the knife and the lack of a sharp point guaranteed the protection of leather from accidental damage.

⁹¹⁶ One of these knives (cat. nos. 27) is even bigger in size than the sickles and some scythes from Dedoplis Gora and could perfectly well have been used for pruning thin branches of fruit trees. Other knives (cat. nos. 22–24) are smaller and more curved. They probably must be defined as grape pruning knives.

⁹¹⁷ Apakidze et al. 1955, 131; Gagoshidze 1968, 34. For example, curved iron knives were found in 37 burials of 156 at Kamarakhevi cemetery of the 4th–3rd centuries B.C., Jgharkava 1982, 141. Curved knives from Shavsak-dara are of the same period, Ramishvili 1959, 51. Curved knives of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. have been found at such sites as Rikianebis Veli, Mirianashvili 1983, 35, 43, 69, figs. 15, 24, 104–106, and Sakaraulo Seri cemeteries, Jinjikhshvili 1980, 45, pl. 42.5; Bambebi settlement, Khakhutaishvili 1964, 73, pl. 42.1 and Chumlaki burial, Nioradze 1940, 89–92.

⁹¹⁸ For instance: Dablagomi (5th–4th centuries B.C.), Kuftin 1949, 40; Sachkhere (5th–4th centuries B.C.), Nadiradze 1975, 114, pl. 33.5; Eshera (3rd–2nd centuries B.C.), Kuftin 1941, 80, 86, 87, pl. 6.; Kldeeti (2nd century A.D.), Lomtadze 1957, 18.

⁹¹⁹ Compare Milne 1907, 31, pl. 7.6–7; Boon 1991, fig. la.

⁹²⁰ Kuftin 1949, 37.

⁹²¹ Rekhviashvili 1953, 153, fig. 103, 105.

⁹²² Lomtadze 1957, 181.

⁹²³ Puturidze 1959, 78.

⁹²⁴ Arch. USSR 1989, 189.

⁹²⁵ White 1967, 85.

⁹²⁶ Kruglikova 1984, 67.3, 6, 9.

⁹²⁷ One comes from the site of Guadikhu, dated to the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C., Kalandadze 1954, 84; Dzidziguri 1994, 139. Eight pieces of the Roman epoch are also known, Dzidziguri 1994, 139, pl. 19.5; and a similar implement, excavated at Atara and Bombori Valley, dated to the 6th century A.D. and the Early Middle Ages, Khotelashvili 1974, 40, 42, pl. 5.6, 13.

⁹²⁸ Rekhviashvili 1953, 150 f., figs. 92, 93, 95; Rekhviashvili 1957, 324 f. *Tsaldi* is an invaluable implement for walking through bushy woods like the ones in Western Georgia. In Colchis, the *tsaldi* is used in viticulture (in Colchis, grapevine is often put forth onto the trees) as a universal tool, Kuftin 1949, 37 f.

⁹²⁹ Koridze 1965, 96; Kakhidze/Kakhidze 1993, 200, fig. 3.1. The *Tsaldi* obtained its completed shape in Late Bronze Age and an iron *tsaldi* is just a copy of a bronze one, although made with a new technology-chasing.

Sukhumi mountain, in the cultural layer of the 5th–3rd centuries B.C.⁹³⁰

In Eastern Georgia, the *tsaldi* is not so common. Besides Dedoplis Gora, it was excavated in Aghaiani in a burial of the 1st century A.D. at Rikianevis Veli cemetery⁹³¹ and in the village Mtskhetisjvari, Khashuri region, of uncertain date.⁹³²

The Ancient Romans are not familiar with *tsaldi*, despite a large variety of curved, “beaked” implements that were common.⁹³³ We know only three places outside Georgia where *tsaldi* were excavated: in the village Dobroe in the Crimea (3rd century A.D.),⁹³⁴ in the small village Rassvet on the Taman peninsula (2nd–3rd centuries A.D.)⁹³⁵ and in Armavir in Armenia (3rd–1st centuries B.C.).⁹³⁶ It can be assumed that all three had been imported from Georgia.

Shears (cat. no. 37)

One sample of shears was found at Dedoplis Gora. Shears have been known from about 300 B.C. and they are believed to be an Italian invention.⁹³⁷ A shear – an implement with a spring – could be used in a variety of ways both in agriculture (sheep-shearing, collecting grapes, pruning, etc.) and in everyday life: before pivoted scissors were perfected, not earlier than the 1st century A.D.,⁹³⁸ shears were used for cutting beards and, probably, hair.⁹³⁹

The oldest shears in Georgia (2 pieces) were recorded in the cultural layer of the Hellenistic period at Eshera.⁹⁴⁰ Chronologically, they are followed by the ones from Dedoplis Gora.

Later shears are known from Bori, 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. and Bichvinta, 3rd–4th centuries A.D.⁹⁴¹ Shears have been excavated in Abkhazia⁹⁴² and Armenia, too.⁹⁴³ In the 1st century A.D. springed shears were put to extensive use at Kuban and Tanais.⁹⁴⁴

The shears from Dedoplis Gora were found in the rubble of Room 13, at 50 cm above the floor level, which indicates that they were probably kept on the first floor. It is difficult to imagine that a household tool – like a sheep-shearing device – was kept on the first floor. So it is more probable that these springed scissors were used for cutting hair and beard.

Saw (cat. no. 38)

Two fragments of a saw were found in the opening of Room 13 at Dedoplis Gora. Both fragments belonged to the same saw. Despite the length of the fragments (together 17 cm) and the width of the plate, this seems to have been the edge of a big framed saw.

Metal saws have been in use since the Bronze Age and the inhabitants of Georgian territory were undoubtedly familiar with them. There are evidences of sawed wood, bone and so on. Therefore, it is surprising that the fragments from Dedoplis Gora are the only examples of this implement in Georgian archaeology.

Chisels (cat. nos. 39–40)

Two iron objects, defined as chisels, were found together in Room 13. Both are cylindrical, massive iron stems flattened to the (cutting) edge, but one of them (cat. no. 39)⁹⁴⁵ has a cylindrical hole

930 Kalandadze 1954, 42 f., fig. 17, pl. 10.7–10.

931 Mirianashvili 1983, 43, 71, fig. 24, 101.

932 Kakhidze/Kahkidze 1993, 200.

933 Semionov 1974, 268, fig. 49.

934 Kakhidze/Kahkidze 1993, 198, 201.

935 Tsvetaeva 1979, 581.

936 Tiratsian 1988, 137, pl. 40.1.

937 Petrie 1917, 48.

938 Petrie 1917, 491.

939 White 1967, 119. The ancient scissors, excavated in Georgia, are dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D., Mamaishvili 1980, 120, pl. 32.4, but a blacksmith’s tool of a similar kind, used by two hands – tongs – appears in Georgia (Vani) already in the 1st century B.C., Lordkipanidze 1976, 189, fig. 144.

940 Shamba 1980, 52, pl. 69.1, 2.

941 Found in the fourth tower, in the seventh cultural layer, Pitunt 1977, 133, fig. 25.5; Todua 1992, 12, pl. 11.3.

942 Found in Burial 13 of the first half of the 4th century A.D. at Tsebelda, Abgidzrahu, Trapsh 1971, 163, pl. 7.11; and at the cemetery Baranovka 3, which is generally dated to the 4th century B.C.–5th century A.D., Voronov 1969, 43, A3, pl. 46.17.

943 Shears were excavated at the Garni necropolis, dated to the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D., Khachatryan 1976, 85, fig. 29.9.

944 They start to appear, though rarely, in burials all over the area of the late Sarmatian culture (2nd–4th centuries A.D.), Arch. USSR 1989, 199, pl. 78.62–63.

945 This chisel looks like a spear butt (see ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, cat. nos. 23–25), but the butts are pointed to the end and not flattened, their socket is deeper with thinner walls, in addition they have a hole pierced through for setting a spear handle into it. Cat. no. 39 has no pierced hole (a

at the upper end for setting a handle, the other (cat. no. 40) does not have such a hole.

Chisels of the Roman time with straight blades are known from Salzburg⁹⁴⁶ and from Wederath-Belginum (dated to the Principate period).⁹⁴⁷

Awl (cat. no. 41)

In the north-western corner of Room 11, an iron rod was excavated, round in section, which narrows evenly toward one end and ends in a point. At the moment of discovery, the length of the item was 13.5 cm; but it was impossible to preserve it completely.⁹⁴⁸ This object can be defined with equal probability both as an awl and as a punch, which could have been used, for example, for piercing armor plates.

Whole iron awls (without a wooden handle) were produced and used in Georgia until the 20th century A.D.⁹⁴⁹ But neither awls nor such punches were excavated at archaeological sites of the Roman period in Eastern Georgia. In Kartli awls could be found only at Late Bronze Age sites.⁹⁵⁰ In Western Georgia, a similar tool was found at the site of Eshera in an Hellenistic layer⁹⁵¹ and in Sukhumi castle in a layer of the 3rd–4th centuries A.D.⁹⁵² However, they are rectangular in section and not circular like the one from Dedoplis Gora.

Steel (cat. no. 42)

In the north-eastern corner of Room 7, an iron object of uncertain function was found. Analogies to this object are unknown and the context in which it was found allows no assumption of its function.⁹⁵³ We can only presume that it was a steel used for striking fire from a flint. In terms of

size, this object is convenient to hold and has a hole for hanging.

A steel and a flint, used to ignite fire, are mentioned in ancient Georgian written sources,⁹⁵⁴ but no cases of their discovery are known to us at archaeological sites neither in Georgia nor in Caucasia. The steel that has survived in Georgian ethnography has a different shape.

It is mentioned in literature that an iron steel was found in one of the pile-dwellings in Switzerland and in a burial of Iron Age in Scandinavia.⁹⁵⁵ The Romans, apparently, got fire with the help of a steel and a flint, too, at least since the 1st century A.D.⁹⁵⁶ P. Vergilius Maro mentions forms and striking sparks from flint (*silici scintillam excudere*) and M. Tullius Cicero already speaks about igniting fire by striking stones (*ignem elicere conflictu lapidum*).⁹⁵⁷

Strainers (cat. nos. 43–44)

In the ruins of Room 13, two round iron plates were found. Both are completely covered with closely set fine holes. At the edge of one plate, three symmetrically positioned long nails are preserved, by which the plate probably was once nailed to a wooden cylinder (cat. nos. 43). The third similar strainer was found in the south-eastern corner of Room 11.

Bronze strainers in large quantities have been found at Pompeii and Herculaneum and other Italian sites; quite a lot of silver strainers are known, too.⁹⁵⁸ Only one silver strainer is known from Georgia. It belongs to a rich complex of the 1st century A.D. at Bogvi, Tetrtskaro district.⁹⁵⁹ But all these examples differ from the ones found at Dedoplis Gora. So far, they remain without any analogies.

chisel would not need one). Besides, it must be mentioned that no spearhead was found near cat. no. 39.

⁹⁴⁶ Jacobi 1897, pl. 28.13–14.

⁹⁴⁷ Gaitzsch 1985, pl. 4.

⁹⁴⁸ The drawing represents the present situation, the preserved length is only 8 cm.

⁹⁴⁹ Rekhviashvili 1953, 118.

⁹⁵⁰ For instance in Samtavro, Kalandadze 1980, 29, 54 f. and so on.

⁹⁵¹ Shamba 1980, 52, pl. 71.6–8.

⁹⁵² Trapsh 1969, 346, pl. 52.14.

⁹⁵³ The object was found together with iron parts of a big wooden box, bone incrustation plaques, iron spearheads and three nets.

⁹⁵⁴ Abuladze 1973, 205, 375.

⁹⁵⁵ Anuchin 1923, 36.

⁹⁵⁶ Ebert 1925, 279.

⁹⁵⁷ Verg. *Aen.* 1.174; Cic. *nat. deor.* 2.25.

⁹⁵⁸ Oliver 1977, 113, no. 73; *ibid.* bibliography.

⁹⁵⁹ Margishvili 1992, 74–76, pl. 22.3, 25.1–3.

Toiletry Articles (cat. nos. 45–50)

Razors (cat. nos. 45–46)

Two similar diminutive knives were found together in the north-western corner of Room 11. Both meet the criteria for razors in general and, particularly, razors from the Roman period: they are small and of delicate construction, their blades are wide and rounded and do not have a point that could be dangerous while shaving, and the triangular flat iron haft is comfortable to hold while shaving.⁹⁶⁰ There are no analogies to these knives, though their blades exhibit certain resemblances with some European razors.⁹⁶¹

In archaeological literature, razors are never mentioned in Georgia, or even in the whole Caucasus region,⁹⁶² while many publications are dedicated to razors excavated in Western Europe.⁹⁶³ The reason may be that men in Caucasia traditionally wore moustache and beard, while shaving has already been a common habit in Western Europe since the Bronze Age; or maybe in Caucasia razors were used that did not differ much in shape from knives.⁹⁶⁴

According to Roman sculptures, portraits on coins and written sources, Roman men used to shave regularly at least until Hadrian's reign, when shaving became out of date following the

example of the emperor.⁹⁶⁵ A priori, it can be assumed that, living in the sphere of Roman influence, certain representatives of the Iberian aristocracy tried all the same to follow top fashion, dictated by the metropolis (Rome). Therefore, it is not unexpected to excavate razors at Georgian archaeological sites of the first centuries A.D. like Dedoplis Gora.

Spatulas (cat. nos. 47–48)

In Room 11, an iron knife-like instrument was excavated (cat. no. 43). Its blade is flat without a sharp edge: both edges and a rounded end are of the same thickness. Therefore, it must be defined as a spatula. Near this piece, a bigger fragment of another similar tool was excavated (cat. no. 44).

Spatula seem to have had various uses both in medical and toilet procedures.⁹⁶⁶ For Georgia, the examples from Dedoplis Gora are the only finds of such instruments.

Tweezers and ear-cleaner (cat. nos. 49–50)

In Room 13 near the door, a tweezers and an ear-cleaner were found side by side on the floor.⁹⁶⁷ The ear-cleaner is a thin bronze stem ending in a small spoon similar to the type of ear-cleaners called *specilla orycularia*.⁹⁶⁸ It is different from Georgian ones of the Hellenistic period.

⁹⁶⁰ Rhia 1986, 28–31; Boon 1991, 21.

⁹⁶¹ Compare, for example, razors from Dalmatia, Boon 1991, fig. 3–4; from the Sandy Roman base camp in Bedfordshire, Milne 1907, 30, pl. 7.4 and from Zurich, Vouga 1925, 70 f., pl. 22.9.

⁹⁶² An exception are 1898 round-point copper knives found in north-western Caucasia, on the bank of the river Phars, near Stainitsa Novosvobodnaia (former Tsarskaia), in a polyhedral dolmen excavated by E. D. Felitsin in 1884 and in a famous dolmen-like burial, excavated by N. I. Veselovski, which were compared by Kuftin to the same kind of a knife from the Kostromskaia tumulus. He mentioned that these are replicas of Sumerian razors of the 4th millennium B.C. from Kish; besides, Kuftin uses the word “razor” in inverted commas, Kuftin 1949, 307, fig. 65.4, 67. The same knife from the polyhedral dolmen is considered a razor by V. Markovin, too, but he mentioned that this object is unusual for Caucasian antiquities and finds analogies in the Mediterranean archaeology, Markovin 1978, 257, fig. 129.5.

⁹⁶³ Jockenhövel 1971; Peroni 1979; Jockenhövel 1980; Gedl 1981; Weber 1996.

⁹⁶⁴ For example, a hafted thin copper knife with wide blade and rounded end (L. 16 cm; W. of the blade 3.5 cm; L. of the haft 4 cm; Th. 0.3 cm) from Burial 49 (14th century B.C.) at Tserovani II cemetery, Sadradze 1989, 107, fig. 740. There are lots of similar examples.

⁹⁶⁵ Boon 1991, 28.

⁹⁶⁶ Milne mentions a spatula while describing Greek and Roman medical instruments, Milne 1907, 18.

⁹⁶⁷ Toilet articles like tweezers, ear-cleaner, tooth-cleaner, etc., found in Georgia, were, as a rule, carried fastened together since the Achaemenian period, Kuftin 1941, 42, fig. 39; up to the 19th century A.D., Songhulashvili 1935. For instance, the ear-cleaners from Samadlo and Tokhliauri also have holes at the top part for piercing a ring through it, Gagoshidze 1979, 73, fig. 6. This is why it can be assumed that some of the pointed, stem-like items, excavated at archaeological sites of the Achaemenian epoch, which have holes at the ornamented, thickened ends and which are usually regarded as pins, may actually be toilet articles – nail and/or tooth-cleaners. Two such pin-like items, excavated at Beshtasheni, were bound together on a bronze ring, Kuftin 1941, fig. 39: it is pointless to attach pins to a ring. The situation is similar at the Kainairakhevi cemetery, where, apart from such “pins” there appear ear-cleaners, too, Jgharkava 1982, 160–162, 164, figs. 1138–1139, 1155, 1162, 1196–1198. The same habit of fastening toilet articles together was common in Rome, too, Riha 1986, 26 f., fig. 8, pl. 9.71–78

⁹⁶⁸ See Milne 1907, 78, pl. 18.8.

The tweezers was cast. At the upper end, it have a peculiar handle like tweezers from Trier.⁹⁶⁹ There are finds of tweezers in Georgia that can be dated as far back as the beginning of the Bronze Age,⁹⁷⁰ but in all known archaeological material from Georgia, no exact analogies to the ones from Dedoplis Gora could be found. It can be assumed that these toiletry articles were imported from Rome.

Locks and Keys (cat. nos. 51–53)

A large iron key was found in the corridor in front of Room 9 (cat. no. 51). Such keys and matching locks, which F. Petrie considers as a rather developed type of locks, were commonly used in the Roman period.⁹⁷¹ A similar key from the Tamanze peninsula is dated to the 1st century A.D.⁹⁷²

The key made of bone, found near the south-eastern corner of Room 11, belongs to a different kind of locks.⁹⁷³ This type does not need any cogs forming an angle toward the stem.

In the western gate of the Palace at Dedoplis Gora (Room 3) near the western wall, an iron lock was found with an iron key stuck inside (cat. no. 52). Unfortunately, only the outer plate of the lock has been preserved, but the locking mechanism itself is lost. The end of the key is also lost. Therefore, it is difficult to discuss the construction of the lock. The double plate and the fastening dowels are strong and quite long. Thus, it must have been rather a door lock, the fastening nails project about 4 cm from the back of the plate before distorting: this must be the thickness of the wood, to which it was attached.

Following the archaeological evidence, metal locks and keys in Georgia and, generally, in Caucasia, start to appear at the end of the Hellenistic and the beginning of the Roman period.⁹⁷⁴

In the rubble of Room 11, an iron two-wing hinge was found (cat. no. 53). This kind of hinge, quite a “modern” one, is the first found at a site of the Roman epoch in Georgia. This hinge might be an armor clasp.⁹⁷⁵

⁹⁶⁹ See Riha 1986, 38, fig. 14.

⁹⁷⁰ Trapsh 1970, 161; Davlianidze 1983, 167, pl. 19.15; Davlianidze 1985, 36, fig. 160; Apakidze et al. 1989a, 10 f., fig. 82.

⁹⁷¹ Petrie 1917, 59, pl. 75–76, nos. 155–165; Ulbert 1970, pl. 18, no. 285; Boucher et al. 1980, 72 f., nos. 361–367.

⁹⁷² Sokolskii 1967, 114 f., fig. 43.1.

⁹⁷³ See ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 122. For similar wooden keys see Petrie 1917, 59, pl. 75.138, 76.211.

⁹⁷⁴ Compare for instance the iron keys from the site of Eshera dated to the 2nd–1st centuries B.C., Shamba 1980,

52, pl. 67.23; or the same kind of key from Vani belonging to the 1st century B.C., Lordkipanidze 1970, 137, pl. 4.4.

⁹⁷⁵ See ch. 4.4. *Weapons*, cat. no. 38.

Catalog (Plates 55–59)

1. Ploughshare

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6606.

Found in Room 8, near the south-western corner, in the wall debris, at 70–20 cm above the floor level.

L. 49 cm; L. of the blade 27.3 cm; W. 15 cm; W. of the socket 14 cm; H. 9 cm.

Triangular blade with an open tubular socket.

Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 86, pl. 52.2; Trapsh 1970, 232; Khotelashvili

1974, 36 f., pl. 1.2; Lordkipanidze 1976, 184 f., fig. 140.2, 3; Mirianashvili 1983, 71, fig. 102; Kruglikova 1984, 154, pl. 55.8; Chartolani 1989, 106, pl. 29; Dzidziguri

1994, 135, pl. 18.7.

2. Ploughshare

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6580.

Found in Room 13, at the northern wall near the door, in the wall debris.

Pres. L. 37 cm; L. of the blade 18 cm; W. 13 cm; L. of the socket 19 cm; W. 12 cm; H. 8.5 cm.

Triangular blade with an open tubular socket. Broken point.

Analogies: See cat. no. 1.

3. Ploughshare

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6523.

Found in Room 13, near the northern wall, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level.

L. 45 cm; L. of the blade 27 cm; W. 14 cm; L. of the socket 20 cm; W. 12.5 cm; H. 7 cm.

Triangular blade with an open tubular socket.

Analogies: See cat. no. 1.

4. Details of carriage (?), 10 pieces

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6607.

Found in Room 8, in the wall debris, together with a ploughshare (cat. no. 1).

L. 14–17 cm; Diam. of the ring 8–9 cm; inner Diam. of the rings 6 cm; Diam. of the socket 4–6 cm.

A socket with two nails ending in a ring.

5. Spade

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6605.

Found in Room 8, together with a ploughshare (cat. no. 1).

L. 34 cm; L. of the blade 20.5 cm; W. 19 cm; W. of the wing 6 cm; L. of the haft 13.5 cm; inner Diam. of the handle hole 5.7 cm.

Triangular blade with horizontal shoulders and an open tubular socket.

6. Spade

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6574.

Found between the Rooms 12 and 13, in the door.

L. 26 cm; L. of the blade 12 cm; W. 13.5 cm; L. of the haft 14 cm; inner Diam. of the handle hole 4.5–3 cm.

Rounded blade with an open tubular socket. Asymmetrical shoulders: the right horizontal, the left sloping.

7. Spade

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6603.

Found in Room 13.

L. 35 cm; L. of the blade 20 cm; W. 19 cm; L. of the haft 14 cm; inner Diam. of the handle hole 4.5 cm.

Incomplete. Triangular blade with an open tubular socket. The blade bent, the shoulders a bit sloping.

8. Mattock

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6541.

Found in Room 13, in the center, on the floor.

L. 18 cm; W. of the blade 9 cm; L. of the blade 10 cm; W. of the haft 4.7 cm.

Massive quadrangular head with an oval hole for the handle and a narrow, triangular, rounded blade, widened at the rear.

Analogies: Voronov 1969, 61–64, pls. 36.27–30, 37.2–7.

9. Axe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6596.

Found in Room 13, at the northern wall, on the floor.

L. 25 cm; L. of the blade 15 cm; W. 10.5 cm; Th. of the haft 7 cm.

Massive wedge-shaped blade and hammer-like haft. Quadrangular hole for the handle.

Analogies: Apakidze et al. 1955, 130 f., pl. 108; Lomtadze 1957, 18, fig. 2g, pl. 21.1g; Chilashvili 1964, pl. 13.4; Vorontsov 1969, 59 f., 62, pl. 36.11, 12; Jgharkava 1982, 172, fig. 1384; Dzidziguri 1994, 118, pl. 16.4.

10. Axe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6506.

Found in Room 9, in the wall debris.

L. 21 cm; W. of the blade 9 cm.

Similar to cat. no. 20, but smaller.

Analogies: See cat. no. 9.

11. Crowbar

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6532

Found in Room 12, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

L. 116 cm; max. Diam. 4.5 cm; L. of the haft 25 cm; Diam. of the haft 2.5 cm.

Massive stem, round in section, with a haft of even thickness, pointed at the end. The biggest section near the haft, becomes thinner to the end.

Not illustrated.

12. Sickle

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6549.

Found in Room 13, near the eastern wall, on the floor.

L. 22 cm; W. 5 cm.

Curved blade with two holes for nails. One nail preserved in one hole.

13. Sickle

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6548.
 Found in Room 11, at the western wall near the door, on the floor.
 Pres. L. 22 cm; W. 4 cm.
 Curved blade. Broken point.
Analogies: See cat. no. 12.

14. Sickle

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6545.
 Found in Room 11, in the north-western corner, on the floor.
 L. 13.5 cm; W. 3 cm.
 Strongly curved blade.

15. Scythe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6550.
 Found in Room 11, at the western wall near the door, on the floor.
 L. 22 cm; W. 4.3 cm.
 Slightly curved blade with a curved haft.

16. Scythe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6544.
 Found in Room 12, at the eastern wall, in a pile of grains.
 L. 24 cm; W. 4.2 cm.
 Slightly curved blade.
Analogies: See cat. no. 15.

17. Scythe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6503.
 Found in Room 9, at the northern wall, on the floor.
 Pres. L. 29 cm; W. 5.5 cm.
 Slightly curved blade with bent haft. Broken point.

18. Scythe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6540.
 Found in Room 12, at the threshold to Room 13.
 L. 42 cm; W. 6 cm.
 Slightly curved blade with bent haft. Broken into two pieces.

19. Scythe

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6575a.
 Found in Room 12, at the western wall, on the floor.
 L. 48 cm; W. 6 cm.
 Slightly curved blade with bent haft.

20. Fragment of a scythe (?)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6575.
 Found in Room 12, at the western wall, on the floor.
 Pres. L. 20.5 cm; W. 4.5 cm.
 Point of a single-bladed implement, could be a sickle too.

21. Knife

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6510.

Found in Room 10, at the northern wall, on the floor.
 L. 31 cm; W. 5.5 cm.
 Slightly curved, with flat haft.
Analogies: Lomtadze 1957, 16, fig. 2a, pl. 21.1b.

22. Knife (pruning hook)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6552.
 Found in Room 13, at the eastern wall, on the floor.
 L. 15.5 cm; W. 3.5 cm; L. of the haft 4 cm.
 Curved with flat haft.
Analogies: Nioradze 1940, 89, 92; Lomtadze 1957, 16, fig. 2b, 21.1a; Ramishvili 1959, 51; Khakhu-taishvili 1964, 173, pl. 42.1; Jinjikhashvili 1980, 45, pl. 42.5; Shamba 1980, pl. 60.1-5; Jgharkava 1982, 141.

23. Knife (pruning hook)

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6562.
 Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.
 L. 9.8 cm; W. 2.5 cm.
 Strongly curved, with flat haft. Broken.
Analogies: See cat. no. 22.

24. Knife

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6577.
 Found in Room 13, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above the floor level.
 L. 10.5 cm; W. 2.7 cm; L. of the haft 1.5 cm.
 Slightly curved, with flat haft.
Analogies: See cat. no. 22.

25. Knife

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6551.
 Found in Room 13, at the southern wall.
 L. 15 cm; W. 2.5 cm; L. of the haft 3.5 cm.
 Slightly curved back, straight blade, with flat haft.
Analogies: Mirianashvili 1983, 36, 43, fig. 16, fig. 24, pl. 105.

26. Knife

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6559a.
 Found in Room 11, at the western wall near the door, on the floor.
 L. 10.6 cm; W. 1.7 cm.
 Slightly curved back, straight blade, with flat haft.
Analogies: See cat. no. 25.

27. Knife

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6556a.
 Found in Room 11 in the center, in the wall debris, at 10-15 cm above the floor level.
 Pres. L. 9 cm; W. 1.8 cm; L. of the haft 4.3 cm.
 Curved back, straight blade, with flat haft. At the bottom of the haft a hole for the nail. The point is broken.
Analogies: See cat. no. 25.

28. Knife

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6559b.

- Found in Room 11, at the western wall near the door, on the floor.
L. 9.5 cm; W. 2 cm.
Curved back, straight blade, with flat haft.
Analogies: See cat. no. 25.
29. Knife
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6536.
Found in Room 11, at the north-eastern corner, on the floor.
L. 12.8 cm; W. 2.4 cm.
Straight blade. Fragmentary.
Analogies: Shamba 1980, pl. 60.6.
30. Knife
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6556b.
Found in Room 11, in the center, in the wall debris, at 10-15 cm above the floor level.
L. 13.5 cm; L. of the blade 8 cm; W. 2 cm; L. of the nail 1.5 cm.
Triangular blade, wide and flat haft with three holes for nails. One nail preserved in one of the holes.
31. Knife
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6546.
Found in Room 11, near the northern wall, in the wall debris.
Pres. L. 13 cm; W. of the blade 3.5 cm; L. of the haft 4 cm.
Curved back, straight blade and a narrow flat haft. The point is broken.
32. Knife
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6556.
Found in Room 11, in the center, in the wall debris, at 10-15 cm above the floor level.
Pres. L. 10 cm; W. 1.7 cm; L. of the haft 3 cm.
Triangular blade, with flat haft.
Analogies: See cat. no. 33.
33. Knife
Iron. Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6573.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.
L. of the knife incl. the handle 18.7 cm; L. of the handle 10 cm; L. of the knife 15 cm; L. of the haft 6.5 cm; W. of the knife 2 cm; Diam. of the handle 1.9 cm.
Straight blade and long narrow haft, fitted into a handle of a tubular animal bone. In the upper part of the handle (at 0.7 cm) a hole for nail preserved.
34. Fragment of a knife for working leather (?)
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6560.
Found in Room 11, near the door, on the floor.
L. 6.5 cm; W. 1.7 cm.
Fragmentary. Curved blade, the convex side sharp. Rounded end.
35. Billhook (*tsaldi*)
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6590.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris, at 60-70 cm above the floor level.
Pres. L. 25 cm; L. of the blade 20 cm; W. 5.5 cm; inner Diam. of the socket 2.1 cm.
Massive, curved, single-bladed cutting implement. Socket round in section, incomplete.
Analogies: Petrie 1917, 47; Kalandadze 1954, 84; ANRV 1975, pls. 6.12., 7.13; Gaitzsch 1985, pl. 7-8; Dzidziguri 1994, 139, pl. 19.5.
36. Billhook (*tsaldi*)
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6542.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris, at 70 cm above the floor level.
L. 29 cm; W. of the blade 7.5 cm; H. of the haft 6 cm.
Massive hooked blade. Socket round in section, attached to the back of the blade.
Analogies: Tsvetaeva 1979, 58; Mirianashvili 1983, 43, 71, figs. 24, 101; Tiratsian 1988, 137, pl. 40.1; Kakhidze 1993, 200.
37. Shears
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6555.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris, at 50 cm above the floor level.
Pres. L. 17 cm; pres. L. of the blade 10 cm; W. 3.6 cm.
Fragmentary. Triangular scissors with two flat blades and a spring.
Analogies: Petrie 1917, 48, figs. 2, 11, 17, 19; White 1967, 119 f., figs. 95-96; Voronov 1969, 43, A3, pl. 46.17; Trapsh 1971, 163, pl. 7.11; Khachatryan 1976, 85, fig. 29.9; Pitius 1977, 133, fig. 25.5; Shamba 1980, 52, pl. 69.1-2; Todua 1992, 12, pl. 11.3.
38. Saw, 2 fragments
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6522.
Found between the Rooms 12 and 13, at the door, in the wall debris, at 40 cm above the floor level.
Pres. L. (a) 12 cm; (b) 5.5 cm; W. 6 cm.
Thin plates, notched at one side.
39. Chisel
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6583.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.
L. 17.5 cm; W. 2.5 cm; W. of the blade 1.5 cm; D. of the socket 4.8 cm; inner Diam. of the socket 1.5 cm.
Stem, round in section, flattened at the rear. Hole for the handle at the upper end.
Analogies: Jacobi 1897, pl. 28.13-14; Gaitzsch 1985, 4.
40. Chisel
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6584.
Found in Room 13, at the same place as cat. no. 22.
Pres. L. 11.5 cm; Diam. 1.8 cm.
Stem, round in section, flattened at the rear.
41. Awl
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6568.
Found in Room 11, in the north-western corner.

- L. 13.5 cm.
Stem, round in section, tapering and ending in a point.
42. Steel
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6610.
Found in Room 7, at the eastern wall.
Pres. L. 8.5 cm; max. W. 4 cm; Th. of the blade 0.5 cm; L. of the haft 4.1 cm; size of the hole 0.4×0.5 cm.
Uncertain object with curved blade, straight back and a flattened haft. Hole through the blade.
Analogies: A fragment of the same kind was found nearby.
43. Strainer
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6554.
Found in Room 13, at the western wall, on the floor.
Diam. 4 cm; Th. 0.1 cm; L. of the nails 1.0 cm.
Round plaque with holes. At the edge three long nails preserved, regularly positioned.
44. Strainer
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6554a.
Found in Room 13, at the western wall, on the floor.
Diam. 4 cm; Th. 0.1 cm; L. of the nail 1.0 cm.
Fragmentary. Round plaque with holes.
45. Knife, razor (?)
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6543.
Found in Room 11, at the north-western corner.
L. 7 cm; L. of the blade 3.2 cm; W. 1.7 cm; W. of the haft 1.5 cm.
Rounded blade and elongated, triangular, flat haft.
46. Knife, razor (?)
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6543.
Found in Room 11, at the north-western corner.
L. 6 cm; L. of the blade 3.2 cm; W. 1.5 cm; W. of the haft 1 cm.
Rounded blade and elongated, triangular, flat haft.
47. Spatula
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6556.
Found in Room 11, in the center, in the wall debris, at 10–15 cm above the floor level.
L. 17.8 cm; L. of the blade 12 cm; W. 2.3 cm.
Flat blade, one side sharp, one rounded, with long haft, round in section.
48. Spatula
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6556.
Found in Room 11, in the center, in the wall debris, at 10–15 cm above the floor level.
- Pres. L. 9.5 cm; W. 2.3 cm.
Fragmentary.
Analogies: See cat. no. 27.
49. Tweezers
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6576.
Found in Room 13, at the door, on the floor.
Pres. L. 6.8 cm.
Top and ends lost. Arms quadrangular in section. Thickened step in the upper part, becoming thinner toward the bottom. A thin wire is coiled at the connection to the round handle.
50. Ear-cleaner
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6576.
Found in Room 13, at the door, on the floor.
Pres. L. 7.7 cm; Diam. of the stem 0.3 cm; Diam. of the scoop 0.5 cm.
Stem, round in section and ending in a thin scoop. The upper part broken at the beginning of a thickening. Might have a hole for hanging.
51. Key
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6632.
Found in front of Room 9, on the floor.
L. 9 cm; Diam. of the handle ring 2 cm; H. of the notches 2.7 cm; W. 2 cm.
Stem, ending in a ring on one side. Key bit with three cogs, forming the Latin letter “E” at a right angle toward the stem.
52. Lock and key
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 1128.
Found in Room 13, at the western wall, on the floor.
Size of the lock 11.6×6.5×0.8 cm; size of the hole 2.0×0.5 cm; head of the nail 2 cm; pres. L. 5.3 cm; pres. size of the key 5.8 cm.
Quadrangular doubled plate with six holes for nails, which are all preserved, and one oblong hole. Flat dowel with a large hole.
53. Hinge
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6735.
Found in Room 11, at the eastern wall, in the wall debris, at 80 cm above the floor level.
H. 9–10 cm; W. 8.7 cm; L. of the rod 10.8 cm; Th. of the plaque 0.1 cm; Diam. of the ring in head of the rod 1 cm.
Damaged. Double-winged hinge, joined with a movable rod. Four pairs of holes along the outer edges of both wings. One more pair of holes in the middle of the upper edges. In addition, one bigger hole on the left wing and three on the right one. The rod round in section and its upper end bended to a grasp for taking it out and fitting it back.

4.6. Metal Vessels and Furniture

by Henryk Löhr

Bronze Vessels (cat. nos. 1–15)

Rich finds of Roman bronze vessels have been made in Dedoplis Gora. Some specimens are quite prestigious in character and belonged to the semi-luxurious standard of the Roman inventory. On the periphery of and among the peoples neighboring on the Roman Empire, they were very popular as grave-gifts.⁹⁷⁶ In Kartli, too, a number of vessels was found in this use, primarily jugs and paterae.⁹⁷⁷ The finds from Dedoplis Gora are exceptional, because they – at least a part of the inventory – were obviously in daily use, and because they represent a broad spectrum of forms.

Almost none of them has been preserved completely. The destruction of the Palace by fire has strongly deformed the remaining fragments, and has partially melted them. Nonetheless, it is still possible to reconstruct the forms – at least approximately – and to assign them to certain types on the basis of analogies.⁹⁷⁸

Parallels are usually found to be widely distributed, but the center of their production can be localized in Campania,⁹⁷⁹ most of the vessels from Dedoplis Gora may have been imported from that region.

⁹⁷⁶ Cf. Raev 1986, Shelov 1982, Shelov 1983.

⁹⁷⁷ Cf. Lordkipanidze 1964 under the place-names Nichbisi, Bori, Kldeeti, and Mzcheta; Miron/Orthmann 1995, 309 f., nos. 316–318.

⁹⁷⁸ For the documentation, the form of reconstruction drawings was chosen (in some cases supplemented by photos of the actual state of the objects), because this method of reproduction seemed the most reasonable under the given circumstances. The preserved parts of the vessels, even if they are in a deformed state but can be restored graphically, are drawn in continuous lines; broken lines indicate the reconstruction of missing parts on the basis of parallels. For making the inc-drawings, I would like to thank A. Slawisch.

⁹⁷⁹ Willers 1901, 203–214; Oettel 1991, 23.

The existence of close comparisons for almost all of the identifiable vessel-types found in the cities destroyed by the Vesuvius eruption in 79 A.D. gives an indication for the date of the forms, but long periods of production and of use make an exact dating for the costly and durable vessels difficult. Mass production of these vessels is, however, concentrated on the 1st century A.D.,⁹⁸⁰ which agrees well with other evidence for the date of the Palace. Together with other components of the Roman inventory, such as the couch and a fulcrum described below, the bronze vessels are obviously evidence for pronounced Roman influence on the local aristocracy.

Noteworthy is, first of all, a large amphora (cat. no. 1), which could be completely reconstructed from the fragments preserved. It has the typical form of the Campanian amphorae (Tassinari A 3220/Eggers 129),⁹⁸¹ numerous specimens are known, not only from Pompeii. The separately cast handles which, in this case, are decorated with a relief mask of Dionysus under stylized floral motifs, are characteristic.⁹⁸² This makes the amphora of Dedoplis Gora one of the more elaborately worked examples, since figural decoration on the handles is not the usual case. Most of the fragments were found in a heap of grain in the southwestern corner of Room 1, which suggests a use of the amphora for apportioning the grain.

Only the lower part of a second, similar vessel (cat. no. 2) has been found. Other than is the case on the amphora, the vessel wall rises from the

⁹⁸⁰ Tassinari 1995, 96.

⁹⁸¹ For the classification of forms, the catalog of bronze vessels found in Pompeii compiled by S. Tassinari (Tassinari 1993) is primarily consulted. The older typology proposed by H.-J. Eggers (Eggers 1951) is also taken into consideration, whenever applicable.

⁹⁸² A very similar mask in Tassinari 1993, 153, pl. 114.5.

base in a straight – instead of a convex – line. This corresponds to the type Tassinari B 1222, so that the vessel may originally have been a large, one-handled jug.

Another important and widely distributed vessel-type is documented in the remnants of two basins with handles of the form Tassinari S 4111–4322 (Eggers 100). A slightly conical stand-ring and an omega-shaped handle (cat. no. 3) which, to judge from their immediately neighboring find-spots *in situ*, must have been part of one and the same vessel, are typical for this form. The ends of the handle are usually modeled in the shape of animals' heads – in this case, perhaps dogs' heads, seen from above.⁹⁸³ A rim (cat. no. 4) found in another room was not part of this basin, but its diameter and profile point to a vessel of the same type. Detailed investigations of this vessel-type's lifespan – according to which the earliest examples date to the second quarter of the 1st century A.D., the latest in the first quarter of the 2nd century A.D. – have been carried out.⁹⁸⁴ These basins were used as laundry tubs, which confirms the interpretation of the fragment cat. no. 2 as a jug; it was found next to the basin cat. no. 3.

Unfortunately, the extremely fragmentary state of another, apparently basin-like vessel (cat. no. 5), which stands out because of its size and elaborate decoration as an object of luxury, permits no certain classification. The fragments of cat. no. 5a all have the same evidently high lead content, which sets them apart from all other bronze finds in Dedoplis Gora. For this reason, it is probable that all of the fragments stem from the same vessel. Obtusely set off clawed feet can be found on candelabra from Pompeii,⁹⁸⁵ but the rim fragment is too large for that of a lamp-bowl. A rim profile which turns inward instead of bending outward can be found only on monumental craters, the rims of which have a corresponding diameter.⁹⁸⁶ A crater from Pompeii has the same decoration of tongue pattern and Lesbian kymation.⁹⁸⁷ The wall fragment preserved gives evidence of a deep vessel; if the fragment groups all belong to the

same object, this would exclude a shallow bowl in any case. Some of the fragments, however, are difficult to bring into connection with a monumental crater, and this sort of vessel would be unexpected here, in spite of all of the obvious affluence of the Palace's other furnishings. One could also assume that it was a brazier or a thymiaterion, which can have a similar shape,⁹⁸⁸ but the similarities are not great enough to make a certain classification possible.

Clearly identifiable are, on the other hand, the fragments of a metal jug (cat. no. 6); the restorable depressed-bulging form assigns it to the numerous examples of the type Tassinari E 5220 (Eggers 128). The coarsely worked metal strip between the neck and the handle was obviously a patch.⁹⁸⁹

Two further metal vessels can be identified. At cat. no. 7 the basic shape of the bucket is still recognizable, in spite of its deformation, and can be assigned to the type Tassinari X 1612 (Eggers 39).⁹⁹⁰ Simple shallow bowls like cat. no. 8 are quite common, and can be found, dated by a secure chronology, since the mid 1st century A.D.⁹⁹¹

The fragments of a grip (cat. no. 10) were not found during the excavation, but are a stray find of the year 1926. They probably once belonged to a patera, and resemble in their simple form the type Tassinari H 1100.

Other identifiable objects are a casserole (cat. no. 9), a turned base of uncertain classification (cat. no. 11), a spoon with a long handle (cat. no. 12), probably another small spoon (cat. no. 13), and a small bowl (cat. no. 14).

Bronze Instruments (cat. nos. 16–20)

Chance finds made in the year 1926 are two remarkably well preserved bronze shovels (cat. nos. 15–16), now kept in the Georgian National Museum – Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine

983 Cf., e.g., Tassinari 1993, 231 no. 4226 and no. 23762, pl. 60.1–2; Bieber 1915, no. 410, pl. 53; Stupperich 1988, 377.

984 Petrovsky 1993, 117; there cited as type XV, 1a, pl. 4.

985 Pernice 1925, figs. 53–55, 68; Oettel 1991, nos. 34–35.

986 Pernice 1925, figs. 50 f.; Oettel 1991, no. 1; clearly discernible in Tarbell 1909, pl. 71, fig. 117–118.

987 Pernice 1925, pl. 12.

988 E.g., a hellenistic thymiaterion from Pompeii (Pernice 1925, pl. II), or a specimen from Clazomenai, van Beek/Beelen 1999, 424 f., pl. 36 d (detail). A drawing of the complete vessel can be found on the website of the excavation-project, <http://www.klazomeniaka.com/08-02resim.html> [Feb. 5th 2007].

989 The vessel Radnoti 1938, pl. 52, no. 3 from Brigetio is very similar.

990 Radnoti 1938, pl. 9, no. 48 comes nearest to this form.

991 Petrovsky 1993, 121, pl. 4; there cited as type XVI, 2.

Arts.⁹⁹² Shovels of this type are known from Pompeii,⁹⁹³ more commonly, however, from the East.⁹⁹⁴ They are brought into connection with the Classical *batillum*, and are therefore assumed to have served ritual purposes.⁹⁹⁵

Two scales (cat. nos. 18–19) with their scale-pans have been preserved. In this simple form, they are known in numerous examples.⁹⁹⁶ Both of them were found in the remains of a cabinet which had stood in the north-western corner of Room 1, and had obviously contained a custodian's working material.

The almost completely melted remnants of a further bronze implement (cat. no. 17) stem from the upper story above Room 13. With reservations, one could identify it as a Roman balance (beam scales), which, however, cannot be assigned directly to any known type.⁹⁹⁷ The tapering form of the rod lets it seem to be suited for use as a scales-arm, but I know of no fluted examples, and no scale graduation is recognizable. To judge by its shape, the dolphin had certainly served as a hook, but this use cannot be verified, neither for a balance, nor for any other instrument. It recalls the hooks in the form of swans' heads on scales of the type Valle Ponti.⁹⁹⁸ Within this type, a variant with hooks in the form of snakes' heads – probably from Asia Minor – is, at any rate, not unknown.⁹⁹⁹ Chains ("Fuchschwanzketten") held together by a spoked ring, on the other hand, are to be found on scales of the type Pompeii.¹⁰⁰⁰ Both types were in use in the 1st century A.D.¹⁰⁰¹ and their distribution concentrates on Italy.¹⁰⁰² It should, therefore, be

conceivable that combinations and variants of these types could occur this far east.

The carefully turned disk (cat. no. 20) seems to be the remains of a mirror-cover.¹⁰⁰³

Furniture (cat. nos. 21–32)

Part of the Palace's furnishings can be reconstructed from numerous bronze and iron fragments. Various forms of iron lamps, which are treated separately, have been well preserved. An iron table (cat. no. 21) found in Room 1, on the other hand, is so badly corroded that its original shape could be reconstructed only with the help of the planum drawing (fig. 5).

The remains of a couch (cat. no. 22), and of a fulcrum (cat. no. 23) – which, to judge by its find-location, was not part of the couch – have also been preserved. The couch's legs had been supported by an iron rod, the decorative elements made of bronze had probably been mounted on turned wooden parts, like those found in Herculaneum.¹⁰⁰⁴ The structure follows the basic design of couch legs preserved from Roman times,¹⁰⁰⁵ but the legs are clearly slenderer.

The fulcrum is, comparatively, a quite small and relatively plain specimen, the horse-protome mounting and the medallion with a winged mythical being are typical decorative elements.¹⁰⁰⁶ With the greater part of the frame, the spandrel has also been lost, the contour of which is the surest criterion for assignment of the fulcrum to a form-type.¹⁰⁰⁷ Other details of the design, however, make a classification as Form II and an early dating probable. The entire fulcrum has been cast in one piece, which – according to Faust – occurs only on early examples of Form II.¹⁰⁰⁸ Horse protomes are also typical for Form II,

992 Already published by I. Gagoshidze (Gagoshidze 1973).

993 Real Museo Borbonico 1834, pl. 64; Tarbell 1909, pl. 104, figs. 238, 137.

994 Richter 1915, 235 f., nos. 658–660 (from Hawran, Syria); De Ridder 1905, 287, no. 470 (529) (from Ascalon or Ghaza); Leveque 1952, 102, G. 105 (60), pl. 39 (from Sidon); Dussaud 1912, 37, no. 19; 71, no. 85 (from Palestine); Musée Lavigerie 1900, 213 pl. 31; 26 pl. 4.3 (from Carthage).

995 Daremberg/Saglio 1877, I, 682 f.; Richter 1915, 236; Dussaud 1912, 37.

996 E.g., Oettel 1991, pl. 32; Boucher et al. 1980, 81, no. 391.

997 On the typology of beam scales (Roman balances), see Franken 1993.

998 Franken 1993, 73 fig. 2.

999 Franken 1993, 76 f., 107 (London, BM).

1000 Franken 1993, 79 fig. 4.

1001 Franken 1993, 75, 78 f.

1002 Franken 1993, 76 fig. 3; 80 fig. 5.

1003 Cf. Boucher et al. 1980, 96 f. nos. 456–459 and Deimel 1987, 87, no. 641.

1004 Mutz 1972, 166.

1005 So Boube-Piccot 1960, 262, with numerous examples; in drawing, also Faust 1989, 25 fig. 2; Tarbell 1909, figs. 19–22 (partially falsely restored).

1006 Faust 1989, 71 ff. (horse protomes), 104 ff. (winged mythical being).

1007 Faust defines fulcra with a volute in the spandrel as Form II, those with a double spur, as Form III.

1008 Faust 1989, 41, no. 50: on the examples of fulcra of Form III known at present, the medallions are always cast separately (an exception, however, is no. 192 pl. 18, 3). It is noteworthy that, in the case of our fulcrum, the

but the fact is striking that the panther-skin usually shown lying on it is missing.¹⁰⁰⁹ The regular, parallel rows of the strands of the horse's mane bring this piece into connection with two examples, in London and Vienna, which are dated to the first half of, or to the mid-2nd century B.C.¹⁰¹⁰

The medallion with the bust of a winged boy also supports the early dating. The closest parallels, in Perugia and from the art trade in Zurich, are fulcra assigned to the Form II.¹⁰¹¹ A probable date in the first half of the 2nd century B.C. would presuppose a long period of use for our fulcrum, which, however, in the case of fulcra as a luxury good, is neither surprising nor unusual.¹⁰¹² A longer persistence of conventional forms in a provincial atelier, which – on the basis of the find locality and the peculiarities of the design – is to be assumed as the origin of this piece, is also conceivable.

Numerous fittings from wooden chests have been preserved, as was evidence of other furnishings. The distribution of the fragments in Room 13 permits no certain judgment whether they had originally been part of a single, or of several different chests. The small head in relief (cat. no. 25), the omega-shaped handle (cat. no. 26), and the fragments cat. no. 27 with the lock-plate certainly belong together. The head with a Phrygian cap is probably to be interpreted as Attis, corresponding to a comparable head in the British Museum.¹⁰¹³ It had served as a nail-head-covering, as a very similar specimen – preserved complete with the underlying washer and nail – in the Bakony-Museum Veszprem shows.¹⁰¹⁴ The fact that it once belonged to a chest also follows out

filling was also cast together with the rest. According to Faust, there are only two early examples of this method (Faust 140, nos. 409, 495, pl. 5.2).

- 1009** Faust 1989, 71. The only bronze horse head fittings on which the panther-skin is missing (London, nos. 185–186, pl. 17.1, 2.) are, in Faust's opinion, modern (Faust 72 f.).
- 1010** Faust 1989, 72 f., no. 401, pl. 6.2; no. 188, pl. 37.2. Later, the mane is modeled more agitatedly and more plastically.
- 1011** Faust 1989, 104–106, no. 295, pl. 10.1; no. 503, pl. 11.2. Later winged beings on fulcra of the Form III depict – somewhat more grown-up – youths.
- 1012** Faust 1989, 147.
- 1013** Manning 1985, 185, M 1025. Pict: LIMC, Attis 381; Similar, too: Boucher et al. 1980, 60, no. 310.
- 1014** Gaspar 1986, 278, no. 1356, pl. 325.

of its proximity *in situ* to the other parts. Omega-handles are quite common as chest-handles.¹⁰¹⁵

A second group consists of the fragments of handle-elements for drawers or the like, summarized under cat. no. 28, which – according to their find position – must have come from a room in an upper story. Disks (cat. nos. 29a–b; b. is probably to be interpreted as the remains of a lock-plate),¹⁰¹⁶ and a foot (cat. no. 29c), as well as other, no longer classifiable bronze fragments, are probably to be assigned to one of these two groups. A further omega-handle (cat. no. 32) was found in Room 1, the cotter pin preserved shows that it, too, had originally been part of a wooden chest.

Iron Vessels (cat. nos. 33–38)

Besides numerous iron implements,¹⁰¹⁷ a number of iron vessels and lamps have also been found in Dedoplis Gora. Because of their – often – poor state of preservation and their – normally – relatively simple design, such objects are rarely published, which makes their classification difficult.¹⁰¹⁸ For four large ladles (cat. nos. 34–37) of different shapes, therefore, parallels are scarcely to be found,¹⁰¹⁹ although they certainly had not been particularly rare utensils. They were found near entrances, which could indicate a use as a measure for apportioning grain. A large iron barrel (cat. no. 33), riveted together out of plates, and for which there are no parallels, was also found near the entrance.

Iron Lamps (cat. nos. 39–48)

The iron lamps found in Dedoplis Gora show a broad spectrum of forms. Even if – due to corrosion – all of the elaboration of details can no longer be recognized, some examples nonetheless

- 1015** Gaspar 1986, pls. 300–305, with numerous examples.
- 1016** Cf. Gaspar 1986, no. 1056, pl. 204; no. 359, pl. 206 – as in the case of this example, the keyhole would have to be restored eccentrically; Deimel 1987, 60, pl. 41.7.
- 1017** Cf. ch. 4.5. *Metal Implements*.
- 1018** Cf. Gaitzsch 1980, Introduction, 3.
- 1019** Similar specimens: Waldbaum 1983, 60, no. 221, pl. 16 (bowl with the base of a handle, Early Byzantine); Manning 1995, 204 no. 36, ill., 203 (long handle with part of the bowl's rim).

show interesting forms. These objects cannot compare with the varied and elaborate design of bronze lamps, but they also do not imitate any of those forms. They were apparently the less expensive, but nonetheless prestigious substitute. The state of publication certainly does not reflect the actual distribution of iron lamps, which – partially – may be due to their often poor chances of preservation.

The simplest lamps consist of nothing more than a shallow bowl with a slightly protruding (cat. no. 48) or trough-like offset snout (cat. no. 45); the others had various holders for the wick. Cat. no. 47 had been set on feet, cat. no. 44 had a functionally simple but pleasantly shaped handle. Cat. nos. 46 and 43 had been equipped with a means of suspension; in the case of cat. no. 43, this feature can be reconstructed to a great extent, and is quite elaborate.

Also one of the few figural decorative objects among the bronze finds, a hippocamp modeled in the round (cat. no. 42), had served as a handle for an iron saucer lamp, onto which it must have been riveted by means of tabs at the sides. The means of fastening can no longer be determined, because the bowl is incomplete in this area, but the animal's legs had apparently reached into the inside of the bowl. There are no immediate parallels for this conception, only a sea-panther in the Louvre resembles this hippocamp and seems, in its turn, to have been mounted as a handle.¹⁰²⁰ Some horse-protomes of bronze, of which one seems certainly to have been used as an attachment on a closed bronze lamp, appear to be related.¹⁰²¹

None of the above specimens finds close parallels among the few lamps published from Roman find-localities.¹⁰²² In the Caucasian region, however, quite similar round suspension lamps with three chains were found in contemporary graves

in Mtskheta.¹⁰²³ The chains and the means of suspension are there admittedly simpler than those of our lamp.

Three further examples (cat. nos. 39–41) preserved in remnants have the shape of candelabra with lamp-bowls instead of candles. Even if iron tripods are only rarely published,¹⁰²⁴ wide distribution of these practical objects has to be assumed. In the region under discussion, a large candelabrum was found at the Rikianebis Veli cemetery near the village Aghaiani from late-hellenistic times¹⁰²⁵ and a small, unpublished candelabrum in a grave near Takhtidziri (3rd century B.C.). Besides several bronze examples were found in graves of the 1st century B.C. – 1st century A.D. in Mingetschaur and in Armenia.¹⁰²⁶

1020 De Ridder 1913, pl. 60, no. 1017.

1021 Comstock/Vermeule 1971, 348 f. no. 489 (attachment on a lamp); Menzel 1986, 164 f. no. 460 pl. 141; Leibundgut 1980, 119 no. 150 pl. 151.

1022 For examples of iron lamps in general, see Loeschke 1919, 141 pl. 12, nos. 1067–1071 (several examples with pronounced nozzles; Fingerlin 1986, 426, ill. (round suspension lamp with three twisted suspension rods); Manning 1985, pl. 44, P3–5, pl. 50, P32 (open saucer lamps); Deringer 1965, pl. 12, no. 397 (open lamp in the form of an “8”).

1023 Apakidze/Nikolaishvili 1994, 44 f., fig. 29 with references to further examples.

1024 Waldbaum 1983, 104, nos. 613–614, pls. 39–40 (two high iron tripods with a lamp-bowl of Early Byzantine date); Richter 1915, 374, nos. 1304–1306 (tripods with hooks, from an Etruscan grave), 370, no. 1292 (tripod fragment); Deringer 1965, pl. 12, no. 393 (tripod with a lamp-bowl, 3rd–4th centuries A.D.).

1025 Cf. Mirianashvili 1983, 20, fig. 4.

1026 Trever 1959, 148 f., fig. 6: candelabrum from Mingetchaur, with further references.

Catalog (*Plates 60–64*)

1. Amphora

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 958/959.

Found in Room 1, on the floor, in a pile of grain.

H. approx. 48 cm; Diam. approx. 28 cm.

Cast and worked on the lathe. The base, a large part of the body, and both handles preserved, one of them still connected to a part of the rim. On this basis, the form completely ascertainable. Narrow neck, beneath strongly splaying. The foot set off from the body, and curving slightly inward, with turned decorative concentric ribs. The rim thickened. The handles soldered on and decorated with sawtooth-like *Acanthus* leaves running down the sides, ending in volutes. Under each of them, a mask of Dionysus, characterized by an ivy wreath in his hair, with two umbels arranged symmetrically above his forehead, and a large leaf on each side.

2. Base of a jug (?)

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1096.

Found in Room 3, at the southern wall, on the floor.

Diam. of the base 10 cm.

Cast and turned on the lathe. The base and parts of the body, up to 8 cm high, preserved, badly dented and partially melted. On the under-side of the base, concentric decorative ribs.

3. Basin with handles

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1099 (handle), 27- 977: 1097 (base).

Found in Room 3, at the southern wall, on the floor.

H. approx. 13 cm; orig. Diam. approx. 33 cm.

Cast and worked on the lathe. A handle and the foot with the transition into the (badly dented) body preserved. The foot a low ring-base, decorated with concentric ribs on the outside. On the inside, two concentric grooves. The axially symmetrical handle with three torus-rings in the middle, ending at the soldering in dogs' heads.

4. Rim of a (handled?) basin

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1051.

Found in Room 1.

Diam. approx. 34 cm

Only some fragments of the profiled rim with the transition into the body preserved. Find locality argue against attribution to the basin cat. no. 3, but originally must have been a similar vessel.

5. Fragments of a large vessel

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1144.

Found in Room 1, at the entrance, on the floor.

Diam. approx. 42 cm

A large piece of the rim, an eagle's-talon foot, several other profiled, and numerous body fragments (on the whole, about 1,000 cm² in area) preserved, all of them cast. The upper diameter measurable, but the shape of the vessel not recognizable. The elaborately

modeled, incurving rim lavishly decorated: A row of beads encircling its upper surface, a tongue pattern frieze engraved on the vessel wall, below a Lesbian kymation. The bronze has an evidently high lead content.

5a. Fragments of a vessel

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1098

Found in Room 3, near the south-western wall.

A profiled torus, a fastening decorated with palmettes, a foot profile, and numerous body fragments (on the whole, 600 cm² in area) preserved. The composition of the metal corresponds to that of the fragments of cat. no. 5.

6. Jug

Bronze or copper. GNM 27- 977: 6782.

Found in Room 11, in the north-western corner, in the wall debris.

Orig. H. approx. 16.5 cm; orig. Diam. 18 cm.

Thin metal-sheet, handle cast. The neck with part of the body and the handle, as well as the base with the transition into the body preserved. Badly broken and deformed, but unequivocally identifiable as a jug. Above the offset foot, a broad ellipsoidal vessel body ascertainable, ending at the neck in a sharp bend. The cloverleaf-mouth originally closed by a hinged lid. The neck and the shoulder decorated with turned grooves encircling the vessel. The (cast) handle forked at the jug's mouth (the ends lost), and soldered onto the vessel's shoulder by means of a rhombical base. Two hinge-sleeves set at the mouth (between which the lid fastened by means of a pin). Its highest point decorated with a boss. A metal strip surrounding the neck and handle, its ends fastened with two rivets.

7. Bucket

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6794.

Found at the entrance to Room 12.

Diam. approx. 28 cm; H. 27 cm.

Thin metal-sheet. The base and a third of the body up to the rim and some fragments preserved, badly deformed. The vessel ascertainable on this basis. The ovoid body attaining its maximum diameter in the upper third. The rim bending at first sharply inward, and then splaying outward, to end in a vertical ring. In the middle of the base a small drill-hole. On one of the rim fragments, remains of a loop-like handle attachment discernible. An iron pin hammered to a thin, pierced disk, riveted onto the vessel's rim. The end of the pin bent and broken.

8. Bowl

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6788.

Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.

Lower Diam. 20 cm; H. 4 cm.

Thin metal-sheet. The base completely preserved, including the transition into the body, in places, up to its original height. The vessel rim not thickened, but simply folded, in order to strengthen it. Just be-

low the rim, a total of three iron rivets preserved, which probably served – in pairs – to fasten a handle. A further fragment consisting of a curved piece of copper, wrapped in one and a half turns of copper foil.

9. Handle attachment from a casserole

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6783.

Found in Room 11, near the eastern wall, on the floor.

W. of the handle 2 cm.

Cast. The original diameter not ascertainable on the basis of the short pieces of rim preserved. A decorative groove just below the rim on the outer wall. The handle, cast in a single piece with the bowl. Its upper surface slightly curved upward, bordered by two rounded ribs.

10. Handle

Bronze. GNM FA A 127: 2612

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Diam. at the rim 3 cm.

Cast. Both ends preserved, the middle part missing. The original length of the handle not ascertainable. The handle consisting of a hollow, round tube with a wall thickness of 2 mm, the mouth strongly thickened outward. At the attachment to the vessel's body, the handle ending in a broad torus with an oblique, convex, semicircular connecting plate. On each side, a drill-hole for fastening it to the vessel wall.

11. Base of a vessel

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6785.

Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.

Pres. Diam. 8.5 cm.

Cast and turned. Convex vessel base, outer edge irregularly broken, concentric ribs on the underside and decorative grooves inside and out.

12. Long-handled spoon

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6784.

Found in Room 11, on the north side, near the door, on the floor.

Pres. L. 18 cm; orig. Diam. 6–9 cm.

Part of the handle, the transition into the bowl, and a (bent) part of the rim preserved. The length, diameter, and depth determinable only approximately. The handle rectangular in cross-section, broadening at the base, and merging gradually into the bowl. The rim slightly thickened.

13. Rim fragment: from a spoon (?)

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6777

Found in Room 10, in the wall debris.

W. 5.2 cm.

Several small bronze fragments can be pieced together to part of an oval rim, the wall curving bowl-like inward. The bottom and about a third of the circumference missing.

14. Small bowl

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6786.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

Diam. 7 cm; H. 0.5 cm.

Completely preserved. Small, very shallow. The base merging in a gentle curve into the rim. Undecorated, but with a small hole in the middle.

15. Shovel

Bronze. GNM FA A 125: 2610.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

L. 30.4 cm; W. 9.2 cm.

Completely preserved, handle no longer firmly fastened. The blade surrounded by a ridge on three sides, the upper and lower rims profiled, the ridge beginning on the sides in the form of an arch. Ear-like projections, decorating the upper rear corners. The handle round in cross-section, decorated with a regular pattern of torus-pairs. At its end a pommel, decorated with a pattern of diagonal relief stripes and a low, offset bead in the middle.

16. Shovel

Bronze. GNM FA A 126: 2611.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

L. 30.6 cm; W. 12.5 cm

Completely preserved. The blade surrounded on three sides by a ridge, decorated at the blade's surface and just under the upper rim by relief strips. The front edge accentuated by arched reserved spaces. At the handle, broad, concave troughs alternate with narrower, convex toruses. Its end decorated with a molding, ending in a broader plate.

17. Beam Scales (?)

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6749.

Found in Room 13, near the western wall, in the wall debris.

Numerous melted and fused fragments, which permit no certain reconstruction:

a. Several pieces of slightly tapering, fluted rod, which altogether result in an overall L. of ca. 35 cm. In profile, two narrow rods alternating with a broader one.

b. A hook in the shape of a stylized dolphin. Only the head, with recessed eyes, modeled in the round. The lower end deformed and bent to a loop.

c. A total of roughly 60 cm of chain ("Fuchschwanzkette"), in numerous separate pieces, one of them with a ring at the end.

d. A ring with four spokes. Pieces of chain still preserved in three of the eyes.

18. Scales

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 968.

Found in Room 1, near the eastern wall, on the floor, among the remains of a cabinet.

L. 53 cm; Diam. 16 cm.

The beam and badly bent fragments of the scalepans preserved. In the middle, the beam octagonal

in cross-section, tapering strongly, and changing into a round cross-section toward the profiled ends. In the middle, a vertical hole for suspension. The pans with a flat bottom, and a slightly upturned rim. Four holes in the rim used for fastening the suspension cords. On the inside, the center of the pans accentuated by a shallow depression and a circular groove.

19. Scales

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 969, 970.

Found in Room 1, near the eastern wall, on the floor, among the remains of a cabinet.

L. 17.5 cm; Diam. 13 cm.

The slightly bent beam and the greater part of the pans preserved, the latter "baked" together by corrosion. The beam octagonal in cross-section, thickens in the middle, and provided with a suspension-loop. Its ends somewhat broadened and curving upward, holes for suspending the pans opening obliquely outward. The pans slightly rounded, with a low rim, which has four holes for the suspension cords.

20. Disk

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6785.

Found in Room 1, near the eastern wall, on the floor. Diam. 14 cm.

Cast and turned. The disk almost completely preserved. The flat plate merging into a profiled ring-base. Inside and out decorated with turned concentric ribs.

21. Table

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 952.

Found in Room 1, in the center, on the floor.

Diam. approx. 40 cm.

The manner of construction ascertainable from the planum drawing: three splaying legs connected to form a central support. These parted again to form three connecting bars, holding a ring. The table-top – also made of iron – set into this ring.

See fig. 5.

22. Legs of a couch

Bronze and iron. GNM 27- 977: 954.

Found in Room 1, on the floor.

Rec. H. 27 cm.

Numerous fragments preserved – remains of four legs, all of them strongly corroded. The core, in each case, consisting of an iron rod, round in cross-section. Bronze decorative elements, they, too, with a round cross-section, have been rowed up on it and form a profiled covering. In the lower part, a sphere between two chalice-shaped elements can be made out; Above it a further object of hardly recognizable form. The upper end a square iron plate, above which the iron rod projects, which (as at the lower end) is to be fitted into the wooden frame.

23. Fulcrum

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6693.

Found in Room 12; the horse-protome in the wall debris, the medallion on the floor.

Diam. of the Medallion 5 cm; rec. L. approx. 25 cm.

The fitting and the medallion preserved, each with remains of the profiled frame and the filling. The spandrel missing, the surface damaged by corrosion. The fulcrum cast in one piece. The mounting modeled in the form of a horse-protome without any other accessory. Set off from the frame by a double arch in relief (transitional element). The medallion decorated with the bust of a winged boy with a wreath around his neck.

24. (Furniture-?) handle

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6795.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris.

L. 7.5 cm; H. 3.5 cm; Diam. 0.7 cm.

U-shaped grip, round in cross-section. The ends thickened. On one side, the end of a peg, which probably served to fasten it, preserved.

25. Appliqué of a man's head

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6641.

Found in Room 13, on the floor, together with cat. nos. 26–27.

H. 3 cm; W. 2.5 cm.

Beardless masculine head wearing a Phrygian cap. The contours of the left half of the face defaced by corrosion. The head cast as a hollow relief. No traces of fastenings discernible.

26. Handle

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6642.

Found in Room 13, on the floor, together with cat. nos. 25, 27.

L. 9.5 cm.

Handle made of bent wire with a rhombic cross-section. The profiled ends bent in the form of an omega. A piece of cotter pin, bent in the form of an "S", remains of the fastening, hanging in one of the ends.

27. Parts of a fitting

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6792.

Found in Room 13, on the floor, together with cat. nos. 25–26.

W. of the metal foil 1 cm

Remains of a lock-plate with two rectangular eyelets and a decorative profile on the opposite side. Remains of a plate with a movable flap and remnants of two cotter pins.

28. Parts of a fitting

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6747, 6755, 6756.

Found in Room 13, at the northern wall, in the wall debris.

Remains of three disks, each with a knob in the center, decorated with concentric grooves. By means of a staple, a ring, fitted exactly around the knob, fastened to each of the disks. Two larger rings, one of

- them with the cotter pin preserved. A curved handle with holes at the ends.
29. Parts of fittings (?)
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6801.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.
a. Fragment of a disk with upwardly curving rim (Diam. approx. 10 cm).
b. Fragment of a lock-plate decorated with concentric grooves (Diam. >6 cm).
c. Fragment of a small foot made of bronze foil with a frieze of oval knobs at the lower end. The upper end has been broken off (pres. H 2.5 cm).
30. Disk
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6758.
Found in Room 13, in the north-western corner, on the floor.
Diam. 5 cm.
Round, slightly convex bronze disk.
31. Plate (fitting?)
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6738.
Found in Room 12, in the wall debris.
W. 2.2 cm.
32. Handle
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1046.
Found in Room 1, in the center, on the floor.
L. 11 cm.
Arched wire handle, rhombic in cross-section, distorted. The profiled ends originally bent in the form of an omega. A cotter pin hanging from one of the ends.
33. Barrel
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6800.
Found in Room 12, in the center, on the floor.
Diam. approx. 36 cm; pres. H. 25 cm.
Part of the bottom and of the wall preserved, besides several other fragments. Badly dented and corroded. The barrel riveted together out of a number of metal plates. The round base consisting of a single piece, including an upright strip of wall. Overlapping plates, approx. 13 cm high, riveted onto the inside of this strip. At least a second row of these plates adjoined with overlap above. A slightly tapering ring originally attached to the vessel's upper rim by means of a loop with curved ends.
34. Ladle
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 1101.
Found in Room 3, near the western wall, on the floor.
Diam. approx. 16 cm; H. approx. 6 cm; L. approx. 56 cm.
Parts of the bowl (the bottom missing) and of the handle have been preserved (badly corroded). Bowl and handle forged in one piece. The rim of the bowl slightly tapering. Under the rim zone, the wall bending sharply inward. The long handle straight. At the end, the start of a bend preserved.
35. Ladle
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 1100.
Found in Room 3, near the eastern wall, on the floor.
Diam. approx. 14 cm; H. approx. 7 cm.
The bowl and part of the handle preserved, badly corroded. Bowl and handle one piece. The bowl's wall broadening and then bending into a curve. The preserved part of the long handle straight. The end missing.
36. Ladle
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6799.
Found in Room 12, near the eastern wall, on the floor.
Diam. approx. 17 cm; H. approx. 9 cm; L. approx. 58 cm.
The bowl and part of the handle preserved, badly corroded. Bowl and handle one piece. The bowl's wall broadening slightly and then bending into a curve. The long handle straight. At the end, the start of a bend preserved.
37. Ladle
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6798.
Found in Room 12, near the western wall, on the floor.
Diam. approx. 13 cm; H. approx. 5 cm; L. approx. 50 cm.
A great part of the bowl and of the handle preserved, badly corroded. The bowl and the handle one piece. The bowl's wall tapering slightly downward and then bending into a curve. The preserved part of the handle straight, the end missing.
38. Two hemispherical bowls
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6780.
Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.
Diam. approx. 7 cm.
The bowls badly corroded, distorted and, in places, broken. A roughly hemispherical shape retained. Their diameter not determinable exactly, but seems to differ slightly between both of these bowls, so that they could have been joined together to form a spherical container.
39. Candelabrum
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6789a.
Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.
Diam. approx. 12 cm; L. approx. 38 cm.
About half of the bowl, the stand in several parts, the middle part of the tripod, and one leg in its entirety preserved, all of them badly corroded. The smoothly curved bowl welded onto a stand. The stand round in cross-section, thickening slightly in the middle ("entasis"), and decorated with a rope pattern. Its lower end inserted into a hole in the tripod. Its legs made of plain bands, at the end broadened to an arch and tapering to a point.

40. Candelabrum

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6789b.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.

Diam. approx. 14 cm; L. approx. 45 cm.

The lamp-bowl completely preserved, the stand in three parts, further, the middle part, and a tripod leg to the transition into the foot. The lamp-bowl with a flat base and an upturned rim. The stand, originally welded onto it, consisting of a bar with a square cross-section, the lower end riveted to the tripod. The tripod made of plain bands bent downward toward the ends, broadened markedly at the root of the foot. The feet themselves missing. In the center, a hole for inserting the stand.

41. Candelabrum

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 1052.

Found in Room 1, near the entrance, on the floor.

L. at least 25 cm.

Badly corroded remains. Ascertainable a rod, round in cross-section, broadening to a lamp support. Two of the three feet preserved, round in section, forming an arch, and tapering slightly to end in a point. The lamp-bowl missing.

42. Lamp with a hippocamp handle

Iron (lamp-bowl); Bronze or Brass (hippocamp). GNM 27- 977: 960.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner, on the floor.

Lamp-bowl: H. 2.2 cm; Diam. 14.5 cm.

Hippocamp: L. 10.2 cm; H. 6 cm; W. 6 cm.

The hippocamp completely preserved, the lamp-bowl to about three-quarters. The handle fastened onto the lost part of the bowl. The bowl with a flat base and an obliquely rising rim; as far as preserved, perfectly round. The hippocamp with an upright, turned and undivided tail-fin, the foreparts of a horse with head held high, with a hint of a mane. The sprawling forelegs extending over the lamp's rim, onto which the hippocamp must have been riveted by means of a plate. Under the horse's body at the sides, tabs with a hole for fastening the handle. The hippocamp carefully modeled, but completely lacking finer rendering of details.

43. Saucer-lamp with suspension

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 955.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

Diam. 18 cm.

The lamp-bowl and parts of its suspension preserved, badly corroded. The round bowl with flat base, out of which the rim forged upward in a smooth curve. Three iron strips, bent in the form of loops, riveted at regular intervals onto the outer wall of the bowl at the edge of the base. Their ends resting on the bowl's rim. An iron ring hanging in each of these loops, and further chain-links in each of the rings. Four articulated links of one chain preserved, each made of a piece of wire, opening to loops at the ends.

Fragments of a rod, once holding the chains together and guiding them in a single, central row also preserved. It consists of three rods, round in section, curving outward in the shape of a cloverleaf and joining together at regular intervals in a knot. There is evidence for a minimum length of five such knots, or about 50 cm.

44. Saucer-lamp with handle

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6778.

Found in Room 1, near the entrance.

Total L. 15 cm.

Completely preserved, slightly corroded. The bowl almost perfectly round, slightly elliptical. The spout protruding slightly, the bowl shallower on the spout side than on that of the handle. The wall sharply set off from the base. The handle made of a strip of iron, bent in the form of a ring, the base of which welded to the inside of the bowl's wall, the apex extending above the rim.

45. Saucer-lamp

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 5670.

Found in Room 5.

Diam. 14 cm.

Completely preserved, badly corroded. Flat base. The broad rim sharply set off from the bowl, pinched to a spout for holding the wick.

46. Saucer-lamp with suspension

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 965.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

Diam. approx. 16 cm.

Three fragments of the lamp's bowl preserved, badly corroded. The diameter determinable only approximately. The round bowl with a flat base, the wall rising to the rim in a smooth curve. Remains of iron strips from an originally three-point suspension, which had been welded onto the inner wall, preserved.

47. Footed saucer-lamp

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 966.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, on the floor.

Diam. approx. 12 cm.

Four fragments of the lamp's bowl preserved, badly corroded. Their diameter determinable only approximately. The round bowl with a flat base, the wall rising to the rim in a smooth curve. The nozzle protruding slightly. Two iron-foil strips – probably remains of originally three feet – welded under the base.

48. Saucer-lamp

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 9779.

Found in Room 1, near the eastern wall, in the wall debris.

Diam. 11.5 cm.

Completely preserved. Round lamp-bowl, very shallow, with a slightly protruding spout.

4.7. Jewelry

by Nana Gogiberidze

In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, on the plastered floors of its rooms, gold, silver and bronze jewelry, as well as thousands of faience, glass and stone beads and pendants were excavated. As a result of the strong fire, most of these objects were badly damaged or broken, and their color and texture have changed.

Room 1 deserves special interest. Here, separate groups of jewelry were discovered in the north-eastern corner and in a bone box (a gold necklace, bracelets, paste iotas, stones and other items), fragments of which were found nearby.¹⁰²⁷ In both cases, these groups of objects were accompanied by clay bullae for sealing their containers.¹⁰²⁸

Other finds of jewelry came from the threshold of Room 1 or were found on the plastered floor of the corridor¹⁰²⁹ in front of the room. Fragments of bronze vessels and different ornaments were scattered on the threshold of Room 1, at the entrance and on the corridor. It seems that these objects had been gathered in a bronze vessel and were dropped while being carried away. All these objects were found right on the plastered floor or in the small-grained layer of the ruin. In Room 9, numerous beads were broken and molten in the plastering of the floor. Rooms 11 and 12 are also outstanding in the number of jewelry found there.

The second important group of jewelry was excavated in 1926 by L. Titvinidze in the south-western part of the Palace.

Faience Pendants (cat. nos. 1–13)

Fourteen faience amulets of different shapes were found at Dedoplis Gora (cat. nos. 1–13). From the 3rd century B.C. on, samples of faience pendants appear on the Black Sea coast, and the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D. is considered the period of these objects appearing everywhere. Actual differences between Late Hellenistic and Roman material cannot be observed.¹⁰³⁰ Pendants of this time mainly repeat Egyptian themes and are connected to the religious concepts of Egypt of the Classical period. Some of them bear a hieroglyph, though those have vanished by the first centuries and survive only on scarabs in simple representations of a snake.¹⁰³¹

It is possible that such faience pendants were produced in Syrian and Phoenician centers and have been imported to Georgia.¹⁰³² Mentioning the spreading of glass production throughout the Classical world, Alekseeva considers Egypt to be the manufacturing center of amulets as suggested by their traditional shapes, hieroglyphs and pure Egyptian themes.¹⁰³³ This opinion seems plausible and is supported by the fact that at Dedoplis Gora, together with the amulets polychrome black and white beads were found, which are also supposed to have been produced in Egypt.¹⁰³⁴

1027 All items in this group were initially damaged or parts were missing. Presumably, these objects had been prepared to be taken to a craftsman. For the box cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 91.

1028 Cf. ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of bullae nos. 12, 27.

1029 In front of the door, at a distance of about a meter, different ornaments were scattered, among them a silver ring with Arsinoe's portrait; see ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems no. 1.

1030 Alekseeva 1975, 28.

1031 Alekseeva 1975, 25.

1032 Mirianashvili 1983, 79.

1033 Alekseeva 1975, 25.

1034 Haevernick 1981, 21.

As to how the Egyptian amulets came to Georgia, we can assume that Sinope played the main role in spreading Egyptian faience, and right from here, it was exported both to the Northern Black Sea coast, from where it was spread into Northern Caucasia, and to Transcaucasia by way of the Georgian Black Sea shore.¹⁰³⁵ The role of Sinope as a medium in trade between the Roman world and the Black Sea countries is firmly established. There are numerous proofs of straight contacts between Transcaucasia and Sinope that were carried out by sea and by land, via the Tauros passes.¹⁰³⁶ It is noteworthy that at Dedoplis Gora amulets of Egyptian faience were excavated together with beads, which have no analogies among the finds in the Northern Black Sea region. This fact, presumably, means that we can rule out the northern and the sea routes, especially as among the archaeological material of Western Georgia no Egyptian amulets have been discovered. Egyptian blue faience beads in the Bronze, Early Iron and Achaemenian sites of Trialeti¹⁰³⁷ strongly point to the fact that there existed traditional overland routes, which, as a rule, continued to function for thousands of years. We consider that the import of these objects was carried out straight from Egypt via Syria, especially as this was the way that some groups of glass vessels¹⁰³⁸ and gems were imported.¹⁰³⁹

Patek (cat. no. 1)

The representation on the amulet from Dedoplis Gora has no head, but according to the details of the body, position and a number of other features, it is related to Patek, which, as Alekseeva assumes, was characteristic of the archaeological sites of the Northern Black Sea region in the 1st-3rd centuries A.D.¹⁰⁴⁰

Patek belongs to the dwarf deities, like Bes. It is connected to African cults and it appears in Egypt in the predynastical period.¹⁰⁴¹ At different times, these kinds of demons were supposed to

be protectors of families, children, women or family life. They are usually found together with women's clothes and household items. Quite often, they are found in the burials of children, too.¹⁰⁴²

Scarab (cat. no. 2)

The scarab is the most prevalent type of Egyptian amulets and is characteristic within a wide chronological range. Samples of different periods differ from each other by texture of material, color, complexity of representations on the face and on the back. A typologically exact analogy to the scarab from Dedoplis Gora has not been found in Georgia, though scarabs have been discovered in a number of archaeological sites throughout Georgia of the 1st century B.C.-3rd century A.D.¹⁰⁴³ The more or less suitable analogies from the Black Sea coast – from Panticapeion and Olbia – to this scarab from Dedoplis Gora are dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D.¹⁰⁴⁴

Fly (cat. nos. 3-5)

Three such amulets appeared at Dedoplis Gora. They are comparable to the variants 01a and 02b of Alekseeva's division of the material from the Northern Black Sea region, which are dated to the 1st century B.C. and the 1st century A.D.¹⁰⁴⁵

Turtle (cat. no. 6)

The amulet from Dedoplis Gora shows much resemblance to variant 02b of Alekseeva's classification, which is dated to the end of the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D.¹⁰⁴⁶

¹⁰³⁵ Piotrovski 1958, 24 f.

¹⁰³⁶ Maksimova 1956, 77; Gagoshidze 1979, 49.

¹⁰³⁷ Kuftin 1941, 100, pls. 32, 22.

¹⁰³⁸ Saginashvili 1970, 6-7.

¹⁰³⁹ Javakhishvili 1972, 20.

¹⁰⁴⁰ Alekseeva 1975, 39, type 37.

¹⁰⁴¹ Budge 1904.

¹⁰⁴² Alekseeva 1975, 38.

¹⁰⁴³ Cf. cat. no. 2, *Analogies*. Scarabs of the same time come from the Sakaraulo Seri cemetery, which can be dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D., Jinjikhshvili 1980, 58. In our opinion, Burial 7 of this cemetery, where scarabs were found, must be dated to the 1st century A.D. according to painted ceramics and a set of beads, Jinjikhshvili 1980, pl. 44.

¹⁰⁴⁴ Alekseeva 1975, 41-42; pls. 9-18.

¹⁰⁴⁵ Alekseeva 1975, 43. The variant 01a corresponds to cat. nos. 3 and 4 of our description, and the variant 02b to cat. no. 5.

¹⁰⁴⁶ Alekseeva 1975, 44.

Genital (cat. no. 7)

According to the sites of the Northern Black Sea shore, such pendants are dated to the end of the 1st century B.C.–3rd century A.D.¹⁰⁴⁷ Considering the material from Georgia, the earliest date of their appearing does not go beyond the 1st century B.C., while the latest coincides with the early Roman period.¹⁰⁴⁸

Bunch of grapes (cat. nos. 8–10)

The pieces found at Dedoplis Gora correspond to variants 01a and 02b of Alekseeva's classification, which date from the 3rd century B.C. to the beginning of the 3rd century A.D. The material found in Urn-Burial 9 of the Eastern Georgian Sakaraulo Seri cemetery is very similar.¹⁰⁴⁹ In this grave, a drachm of Artabanos II (88–77 B.C.) was found.

Seed Vessels (cat. nos. 11–12)

Items from Dedoplis Gora exhibit strong resemblance to the variant 02 of Alekseeva's classification, dated to the 1st century B.C.–4th century A.D., though the majority of them are dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.¹⁰⁵⁰ Georgian analogies were found from the 1st until the 3rd centuries A.D. There is a strong resemblance to the material of Burial 10 from Rikianebis Veli cemetery, dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D.¹⁰⁵¹

1047 Alekseeva 1975, 29.

1048 We also have two specific dates – Burial 10 of the Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Mirianashvili 1983, 78, pl. 3; and Burial 218 of the Urbnisi cemetery. Both sites are dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D. It is noteworthy that in both cases, they were excavated together with scarabs.

1049 The date of the cemetery is generally considered to be the 1st century B.C.–beginning of the 1st century A.D., Jinjikhshvili 1980, 58. The material belonging to this grave is close to the one found at Dedoplis Gora, for instance the shape, size and decoration of the pithos, used as a burial, the painted vessels, the glass unguentarium, which M. Saginashvili dates to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D., the shape of rings, a whole set of necklaces (cylindrical beads decorated with black and yellow wind-like ornament), the drop-shaped pendant, the faience amulets with a bunch of grapes and the bone triangle with a hole in the center.

1050 Alekseeva 1975, 34.

1051 Scarabs and genitals were also found in this grave, Mirianashvili 1983, 33, pl. 3.

Fist (cat. no. 13)

The chronological range of such pendants on the Northern Black Sea shore covers the period from the 1st century B.C. until the 2nd century A.D.¹⁰⁵² In Georgia, a faience fist was found in Burial 10 at the Rikianebis Veli cemetery together with scarabs, genitals and amphoras. The burial is dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D.¹⁰⁵³

Beads (cat. nos. 14–144)

Like the faience amulets, faience beads and some polychrome glass beads, for example spherical black beads decorated with a white cross line (cat. no. 54), as well as cylindrical black beads decorated with a white spiral-like line (cat. nos. 52, 53),¹⁰⁵⁴ seem to have been imported over the same route straight from Egypt by land, via Syria.

It must be noted that among the beads of Dedoplis Gora, many have parallels neither in the Northern, nor the Eastern Black Sea regions. Yet, one group of objects was singled out – the gold-lined beads (cat. nos. 38, 41–43), which were produced in Western Georgia. They were excavated in Vani and its environs and in the basin of the river Supsa, at late Hellenistic sites.

It is rather difficult to discuss the origin of stone beads. Alekseeva believes, that the stone beads found at the sites of the Northern Black Sea region, are completely imported from Near and Middle Asia, Egypt, India. In India, near Allaha-bad, 2nd century B.C.–2nd century A.D., workshops have been excavated, where rock crystal, cornelian, jasper and other sorts of stone beads were manufactured. From the time of the marches of Alexander the Great, the amount of precious and semi-precious stones has increased. Egyptian, Anatolian, Iranian, Indian production come together in one world market. Determining the distribution of this mass according to its origin is rather difficult today.¹⁰⁵⁵ These processes are clearly illustrated in Georgia, situated at the junction of main trade roads, on the basis of other

1052 Alekseeva 1975, 47.

1053 Mirianashvili 1983, 33, pl. 3.

1054 According to Haevernick, these beads are of Egyptian origin, Haevernick 1981, 21.

1055 Alekseeva 1982a.

archaeological data as well. But for the stone beads, we have evidence of local production and all kinds of stones used are found in Georgia. Considering this, we admit that stone beads are partly of local production. On the other hand, the glass beads are completely imported.

Faience (cat. nos. 14–29)

In Dedoplis Gora, faience beads were found as separate strings and also as elements of the string, sometimes together with Egyptian faience amulets.

The faience beads are characterized by their variety of shape. These are mainly simple geometrical shapes, sometimes decorated with bulges or ribbed. By color and texture, these objects resemble the ones of the later chronological group offered by Alekseeva, which seem to have been widely distributed in the Northern Black Sea region from the second half of the 1st century A.D. on.¹⁰⁵⁶

Short cylindrically-cut beads are particularly numerous. They were arranged in four lines forming thick strings of round shape. Several fragments of such strings are preserved. Short cylindrical beads are one of the oldest types of this kind of object. Hair-nets, composed of such beads, as well as ornamented bands and necklaces, arranged in several rows, were common in Egypt. This type of beads is one of the most popular in the Northern Black Sea region and occurs from the second half of the 6th century B.C. to the 4th century A.D., though most such beads date to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.¹⁰⁵⁷

An interesting group was formed by beads with longitudinal ribs.¹⁰⁵⁸ The time of distribution of analogous material to the faience beads of Dedoplis Gora in the Northern Black Sea region occurs in the 1st century A.D. or the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.¹⁰⁵⁹ At Dedoplis Gora, there are tur-

quoise and brownish ribbed beads. Alekseeva singles out brown beads as a separate type. Their color is explained by the author as accidental, because this color is not common for Egyptian faiences.¹⁰⁶⁰ Analysis of the Georgian sites, where ribbed beads were excavated, showed that the chronological range of their prevalence covers the period between the 3rd century B.C. and the 3rd century A.D. Pit-burials and Cist-graves from the Sakaraulo Seri cemetery are dated to the 3rd century B.C.–1st century A.D.,¹⁰⁶¹ though it is possible to define Burials 4 and 15 of this cemetery more precisely on the basis of ceramic material and sets of beads – they must be dated to the 1st century A.D. As an upper chronological border, we have an exact date for Tile-Burial 193 of Samtavro cemetery – the 2nd century A.D.¹⁰⁶² Presumably, other sites of Samtavro, including such beads, do not go beyond the 2nd century A.D. The burial in Aghaiani, excavated in 1986 and dated to the 2nd–1st centuries B.C.,¹⁰⁶³ is very close to the material of Dedoplis Gora by its beads and set of pendants, though ceramic production and a bezel ring look rather earlier and are connected to Hellenistic material. It is noteworthy that the sets of beads from Dedoplis Gora show obvious resemblance to the corresponding material from Burial 7 (middle of the 1st century A.D.), Burial 3 (first half of the 1st century A.D.) and Burial 10 (second half of the 1st century A.D.) of the Rikianebis Veli cemetery.¹⁰⁶⁴

An interesting find alongside the Roman-period faience beads, is a piece decorated with a herring-bone ornament (cat. no. 29), parallels of which are found in Cist-Graves 1 and 2 of the Gomareti cemetery, 4th–3rd centuries B.C.¹⁰⁶⁵

Gold-lined (Metal-lined) Glass Beads (cat. nos. 30–45)

The collection of gold-lined beads from Dedoplis Gora is quite varied. In Georgia, they were found in 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. complexes.¹⁰⁶⁶ Some of these beads from Dedoplis Gora (cat. nos. 31, 38, 39) have been found only at

1056 In the corresponding material from the Northern Black Sea region, Alekseeva singles out three chronological groups: the first, earlier group occurs in the 6th–5th centuries B.C.; the second group in the 4th–2nd centuries B.C.; later, the most numerous and varied group in the 1st–3rd centuries A.D., Alekseeva 1975, 28.

1057 Alekseeva 1975, 32.

1058 Alekseeva differentiates several types among them according to their general shape, shape of ribs, diameter of the hole, texture and color and notes that some of them are rougher in Roman times, Alekseeva 1975, 33–35.

1059 Alekseeva 1975, 33–35.

1060 Alekseeva 1975, 35.

1061 Kazakhishvili 1980, 67.

1062 Ivashchenko 1980, 42.

1063 Mirianashvili 1995, 114, fig. 202.

1064 Mirianashvili 1983, 24, 27, 33, fig. 7, fig. 5, fig. 12.

1065 Davlianidze 1983, 154.

1066 Jinjikhashvili 1980, 33, 46; Tolordava 1980, 53; Mirianashvili 1983, 33.

sites of the 1st century A.D. It is noteworthy that biconical, twinned beads with bulges have no analogies in the Northern Black Sea region.¹⁰⁶⁷ In Egypt, manufacturing of gold-lined beads started in the 4th century B.C.

Polychrome Glass (cat. nos. 46–66)

Polychrome beads from Dedoplis Gora are rather varied. The excavation of just two similar beads is quite rare here. In general, such a variety of sets of beads is characteristic for the 1st century A.D. in the Black Sea region.¹⁰⁶⁸ In Dedoplis Gora, we distinguish different types among them.¹⁰⁶⁹ Several kinds of ornament have been revealed in the decoration of the beads: wing-like (with scallops), lengthwise wavy, cross-wise wavy, spiral-like, 8-shaped and eyes-like ornaments.

Production centers of such beads have not been confirmed yet. One of the traditional centers is still supposed to be Egypt, in particular Alexandria, though, by the 1st century A.D., Egyptian technology had already been used in the workshops of Syria and Italy.¹⁰⁷⁰

The chronological range of the beads analogous to the ones excavated at Dedoplis Gora, extends from the 2nd century B.C. to the 4th century A.D. Parallels of the 4th century A.D. come from the complexes of the Northern Black Sea region, while local parallels date from the 3rd century B.C. to the 1st century A.D. In this case, the upper chronological border is provided by Burial 12 at Baiatkhevi.¹⁰⁷¹ In this burial, together with gold-lined beads, other finds included a pyramid-shaped polychrome glass pendant, a gold ring typical for the 1st century A.D., and gold objects, which are very common for the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. sites. Therefore, we assume that this burial must be dated to the beginning of the 2nd century

1067 Alekseeva separates two chronological groups among them: Hellenistic (produced separately, ends of the hole are smooth) and Roman (more massive, rough, varied in shape, produced as a whole tubular chain, which was then separated; they are characterized by an elongated structure and jags around the hole), Alekseeva 1978, 27–28.

1068 Alekseeva 1982a, 48.

1069 As mentioned before, the beads from Dedoplis Gora are badly damaged. Sometimes, it is difficult to identify any ornament on them.

1070 Alekseeva 1982a, 42.

1071 Nikolaishvili/Giunashvili 1995, 102.

A.D. Hence, the upper chronological border of this type of beads in Georgia must be the same period. In two cases (cat. nos. 64 and 65), the lower chronological border of distribution of these beads does not exceed the 1st century A.D.

Monochrome Glass (cat. nos. 67–85)

Most of the monochrome beads from Dedoplis Gora have a lengthwise structure and jags around the hole. The variation of differently colored beads is remarkable, which is typical for the 1st century A.D.¹⁰⁷² Chronological borders of monochrome glass beads extend from the 2nd century B.C. to the 4th century A.D. In addition, the chronological border of five among nineteen types does not exceed the 1st century A.D. Two samples (nos. 74, 81) do not have parallels in the Northern Black Sea region.

Clay (cat. no. 86)

No analogies were found for the only clay bead.

Volcanic Rocks (cat. nos. 96–103)

Straight analogies to these beads could not be found.

Limestone (cat. nos. 104–116)

The limestone beads have many different shapes and are quite numerous, but only for two of them, parallels could be found. One (cat. no. 110) can be dated to the 1st–4th centuries A.D. and the other (cat. no. 113) to the 2nd century B.C.–4th century A.D. In the Northern Black Sea region, the chronology of limestone beads ranges between the 6th century B.C.–4th century A.D.

Jet (cat. no. 117)

Parallels of the single jet bead found at Dedoplis Gora are found on sites of the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. in the Northern Black Sea region.

Cornelian (cat. no. 118–121)

Cornelian beads of Dedoplis Gora are mostly made from pinkish cornelian with white veins and are worked rather roughly. Light color,

1072 Alekseeva 1978, 62.

white veined cornelian beads are very common for the Roman period, particularly in the 1st-2nd centuries A.D.¹⁰⁷³ Among the beads from Dedoplis Gora, cornelian ones are quite small in number. The same can be said about the Northern Black Sea region: in the Roman period cornelian beads do not form a separate necklace any more, though they are widely spread.¹⁰⁷⁴

Pebble (cat. nos. 126, 127)

Shapeless, pierced beads of pebble must be local. Like cornelian beads, they were made according to the patterns common in the Roman world of that period. Pebble beads of simple shape have been found in the Northern Black Sea region, at sites of the 1st-2nd centuries A.D. and are also considered to be of local production.¹⁰⁷⁵

Half-finished Products (cat. nos. 130-133)

The discovery of half-finished products of different kinds of stones and a piece of ribbed sandstone for polishing beads (cat. no. 141) is of utmost importance. It provides evidence that stones beads were probably produced locally. Moreover, semi-precious stones are found in large amounts in Dedoplis Gora.

Bone (cat. nos. 134-140)

The whale-like pendants (cat. no. 138) are quite common in Georgia and the Northern Black Sea region in the 1st-2nd centuries A.D.¹⁰⁷⁶ An exact date can be derived from Pithos-Burial 110 of Samtavro cemetery, where, together with a whale-like pendant, Arshakid drachms of the 1st century B.C. were found.¹⁰⁷⁷ In the same grave, another pendant resembling a fish was found, comparable to one of Dedoplis Gora (cat. no. 136).

Pendants made from animals' teeth (cat. no. 138) are known from the Northern Black Sea region, where they are found in 1st century A.D. sites, as well as in Georgia, for instance in Burial 3 of the Rikianebis Veli cemetery, dating to the first half of the 1st century A.D.¹⁰⁷⁸

¹⁰⁷³ Alekseeva 1982a, 15.

¹⁰⁷⁴ Alekseeva 1982a, 14.

¹⁰⁷⁵ Alekseeva 1982a, 26, 28.

¹⁰⁷⁶ Alekseeva 1982a, 32, pl. 45.28.

¹⁰⁷⁷ Tolordava 1980, 53.

¹⁰⁷⁸ Mirianashvili 1983, 24.

Shells (cat. nos. 141-143)

The discovery of shells of the species *Cypraea moneta* in the archaeological material of Georgia is quite common, starting from the Early Iron Age. They were probably imported from the coasts of the Indian Ocean.¹⁰⁷⁹ All species of *Cypraea mollusces* live near the coast of south-eastern Asia.¹⁰⁸⁰ Presumably, they were imported to Iberia from the south, together with beads.

Metal Jewelry (cat. nos. 145-185)

Most of the metal jewelry is imported, mostly from Rome, which shows close commercial relations between Iberia and Rome.

If we take into consideration the long and rich traditions of jewelry in Georgia, we might suppose that some articles were produced locally. Moreover, the construction of some of them is quite simple. Chronological frames of the discussed objects are sometimes very wide. Some of them are connected to the 4th-3rd centuries B.C. directly or by their elements, while some still exist in the Early Medieval epoch in Georgia.

We must also consider that the Dedoplis Gora Palace probably might have been a royal dwelling, so that its owners could have inherited some of the objects as family jewelry from their ancestors, who could have acquired these things at a time when the Palace had not existed yet.

Some objects have direct analogies, which give us an absolute date. Of the 42 considered items of jewelry found, six are dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D., and in five cases, the lower chronological border is the 1st century A.D. In most cases, we could discuss only separate details of ornaments due to the lack of direct analogies.

Necklace (cat. no. 145)

One gold necklace was found at Dedoplis Gora. A direct analogy could not be found, but some details are typical of Hellenistic and Roman jewelry.

The habit of decorating different ornaments with gold flat disc-like plaques has been asserted

¹⁰⁷⁹ Krupnov 1960, 207.

¹⁰⁸⁰ Zenkevitch 1968, 25.

in materials from Vani,¹⁰⁸¹ Akhlagori,¹⁰⁸² Dablagomi,¹⁰⁸³ Samadlo,¹⁰⁸⁴ Aghaiani,¹⁰⁸⁵ Gonio and Lo treasures,¹⁰⁸⁶ Armaziskhevi.¹⁰⁸⁷ Structurally,¹⁰⁸⁸ the pendants of the necklace are identical to the earrings of a goddess represented on a medallion from Dedoplis Gora (cat. no. 153), on which exactly the same kind of bead appears as on the wire of a necklace. The same principle of coiling the wire is used in a 1st–2nd centuries A.D. pendant with a garnet stone from Chersonesos, on which three pendants with wires are hung.¹⁰⁸⁹

Considering the structure, the Dedoplis Gora necklace is close to the group of jewelry of the Roman period. It is remarkable that the method of coiling the ends of the main stem of the ornament on the stem itself is used in bracelets with twisted ends. This method does not appear in early Classical or Hellenistic jewelry and has obviously been used since the Roman period.

Crescent-like Pendants (cat. nos. 147–152)

Gold and silver crescent-like pendants are quite common in the archaeological material of Georgia. The oldest among them was found in Bebnisi in Tumulus 4, which is dated to the 15th century B.C.¹⁰⁹⁰ Crescents of different shapes and size were found in Vani,¹⁰⁹¹ Dapnari,¹⁰⁹² Dablagomi,¹⁰⁹³ Akhlagori.¹⁰⁹⁴ According to researchers, this ancient eastern motif, which is supposed to be originated from Mesopotamia, enjoyed immense popularity as an amulet.

Among the material of Dedoplis Gora, six crescent-like pendants have been excavated so far. We must single out a flat gold pendant with paste, set in an oval bezel, and with coarse granules at the ends (cat. no. 147), the closest parallel of which originates from Erythraea and dates back to the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C.¹⁰⁹⁵ However, in contrast to the pendant of Dedoplis Gora, its ends are thinned. Researchers assume that this variant of crescent-like pendants is mainly typical for Greece.¹⁰⁹⁶

A separate group is formed by three crescent-like pendants, which are all massive with ribbed, tubular hafts. On the ends of two pendants (cat. nos. 149–150) are granules, while the ends of the silver one (cat. no. 151) are flattened. Two samples (cat. nos. 149–150) have a ball, brazed under the haft. The pendants are extremely rounded. Such a design seems to be common for Italian samples.¹⁰⁹⁷ They have many parallels in the late Hellenistic and Roman period material, though the rhombic section could be proved only in some cases.¹⁰⁹⁸ One pendant, kept in the Staatliche Museen zu Berlin Stiftung Preußischer Kulturbesitz, Collection F. L. v. Gans, is identical to the pendants from Dedoplis Gora and is dated to the Roman period.¹⁰⁹⁹ A gold crescent from Burial 7 at Roshava-Drigana, in Chatalka, has the same shape and is dated to the second half or the end of the 1st century A.D.;¹¹⁰⁰ as well as a silver crescent from the 1st century A.D. layer of Artashat.¹¹⁰¹

Decoration with a ball under the haft is also very common for this kind of ornaments. Examples include the above-mentioned sample from the Collection F. L. v. Gans, a pendant from Herculaneum,¹¹⁰² and two gold pendants from Naples Museum (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.). A rhombic section is characteristic for the crescent-like pendant from Chatalka (Burial 7). It

1081 Chkonja 1981, 113, fig. 76.

1082 Smirnov 1934, pl. 2.5.

1083 Tolordava 1976, 69; fig. 96.

1084 Gagoshidze 1979, 74, pl. 2.

1085 Bokhochadze 1981, 34; pl. 30.1; Mirianashvili 1983, 21, 42.

1086 Lordkipanidze et al. 1980, 27, pls. 21–25, 27–29.

1087 Apakidze et al. 1955, 46, fig. 112.

1088 A long stem of a pendant with a plaque, passing through the haft, the end of which is coiled on the stem itself; also the fact of stringing beads on it.

1089 The pendant is kept at the Hermitage, Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 267 f., pl. 54.14.

1090 Miron/Orthmann 1995, 259, no. 158.

1091 Lordkipanidze et al. 1972, 205 f., fig. 167; Katcharava/Mjhanavadze 1986, 24 f., fig. 13; Lordkipanidze, O. 1995, 96, fig. 180.

1092 Kiguradze 1976, 33–35, pl. 41.1.

1093 Kuftin 1950, 47, pls. 96, 13.

1094 Smirnov 1934, 49, pl. 10.72, pl. 2.11.

1095 It is a flat gold pendant, with an oval garnet set in a bezel between shoulders, and coarse granules, Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 237, pl. 9.

1096 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 209.

1097 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 209.

1098 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 259, pl. 48.1.

1099 The Pendant has a rhombic section, a massive tubular haft, rounded shoulders and bulges under the haft and at the ends, Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 249, pl. 30.4.

1100 Buiukliev 1986, 45, fig. 375.

1101 Arakelian 1976, 83 f.

1102 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 250, pl. 32.2.

has a massive, cylindrical haft, under and at the ends of which there are small balls. The complex is dated to the second half or the end of the 1st century A.D.¹¹⁰³

A tubular haft is characteristic of a gold pendant from Pompeii¹¹⁰⁴ and the sample from the Collection F. L. v. Gans, also of a gold pendant from Erythraea, entirely granulated, under the haft of which an oval garnet is set (3rd-2nd centuries B.C.).¹¹⁰⁵ Such hafts are common for flat pendants with rosettes and those with rhombic section.

A silver crescent-like pendant was excavated at Dedoplis Gora only in fragments. Therefore, it is difficult to discuss its general shape and decoration (cat. no. 152), but, obviously, it was made from a wire, round in section, with small balls on the thinned ends. These two elements make it similar to the above-mentioned analogies from the Collection F. L. v. Gans, from Pompeii and Herculaneum. Chronological frames of all mentioned parallels fit in the 1st century B.C.-2nd century A.D.

Pendants, analogous to the flat, plain, gold crescent-like one from Dedoplis Gora, are found in Armenia, in the Sisian crypt, dating to the 1st century B.C.¹¹⁰⁶ and at the cemetery of Garni in burials of the 1st-2nd centuries A.D.¹¹⁰⁷ B. Arakelian considers them to be men's earrings.¹¹⁰⁸

Although crescent-like pendants similar to those from Dedoplis Gora can be found from the 3rd century B.C. on, only the flat pendant with a stone (cat. no. 147) can appropriately be dated that early (3rd-2nd centuries B.C.). The mass of these pendants rather belongs to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D. when such pendants were very popular.

Medallions (cat. nos. 153-156)

Four medallions were found at Dedoplis Gora: three golden and one silver. The gold medallions are made of a thin plaque. A woman's head is

depicted on them. The medallions vary in size and their representations. The medallion with a goddess, with a crescent over her head (cat. no. 153) is the most remarkable among them. Apparently, the goddess of fertility is depicted, maybe Ardvi-Sura Anahita whose cult became common from the beginning of the 4th century B.C. and whose representations have been found in different archaeological contexts in Georgia.¹¹⁰⁹ Outstanding features of our medallion are wired earrings, separately hung, with small bluish paste-beads. The wire of this earring is coiled on a stem in the same way as on the sections of the gold necklace (cat. no. 145). The small beads are exactly the same as on the above mentioned piece. Such beads, welded together, were found together with the necklace in a bone box.¹¹¹⁰

On two other golden medallions, (cat. nos. 154-155) we can see a human head, whose hairstyle recalls that of women's sculptures from Palmyra.¹¹¹¹ The silver medallion (cat. no. 156) is badly damaged, but it was possible to identify the representation on it. Presumably, it is a Gorgon.

Such medallions became fashionable at the end of the 1st century B.C., and they lasted until the 3rd century A.D. They were the most common ornament in Egypt, Syria, Asia Minor and the Northern Black Sea region.¹¹¹²

Close, but not exact parallels to the samples from Dedoplis Gora are plaque, stamped medallions from Armavir, dated to the 1st-2nd centuries A.D., on which busts are represented.¹¹¹³

Applications (cat. nos. 157-160)

A separate group is formed by ornaments with hafts on the back. They were probably sewn on clothes or belts. These are a gold medallion-buckle with a central bezel (cat. no. 157), a sheet of an eight-pointed star (cat. no. 158), a hemispherical button (cat. no. 159) with raised edges and a rosette (cat. no. 160), decorated with a floral ornament.

The medallion-buckle (cat. no. 157) belongs to the group of ornaments, which, according to

1103 Buiukliev 1986, 45, fig. 375.

1104 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 263, pl. 54.2.

1105 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 237, pl. 9.2.

1106 Arakelian 1976, 81.

1107 Arakelian 1957, 49, fig. 48.

1108 Arakelian 1976, 83.

1109 For instance in the rich burial of Algeti and Samadlo, Gagoshidze 1979, 118.

1110 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 91.

1111 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, pls. 52.2, 53.

1112 Piatishveva 1956, 58.

1113 Arakelian 1976, 86, pl. 22.

portraits from Palmyra, frescoes from Dura-Europos and sculptures and terracotta from Egypt, are dated to the 1st–3rd centuries A.D.¹¹¹⁴ The sample from Dedoplis Gora shows some resemblance to the buckles, decorated by false-granules, from the Tagilon treasure;¹¹¹⁵ to the gold buckle with Helios' head from Usakhelo, Lechkhumi;¹¹¹⁶ to the buckle with Artemis' representation from the Hermitage, the gem of which is also dated to the 1st century A.D.;¹¹¹⁷ and to the gold buckle from Akhaldaba (Akhmeta district). While the central gem of the latter is dated to the end of the 1st century B.C.–beginning of the 1st century A.D., the complex itself is dated to the first half of the 1st century A.D.¹¹¹⁸ A gold buckle, decorated with almandine stones, from the Mtskhethian Crypt also belongs to this group and dates to the end of the 1st century A.D.¹¹¹⁹ Stylistically, it is quite different from the buckle from Dedoplis Gora, because it is more massive, refined and perfect.¹¹²⁰ It must also be noticed, that the false-granulated wire of the Dedoplis Gora medallion is identical to the wires between the tubes of the gold bracelets (cat. nos. 161–162). These object may have formed one set.

The chronological range of distribution of hemispherical buttons (see cat. no. 159) on the territory of Georgia covers the period between the middle of the 5th century B.C. (Vani, Burial 11¹¹²¹) and the 2nd century A.D. (Armaziskhevi, Burial 1; middle or second half of the 2nd century A.D.¹¹²²). Among contemporary monuments to Dedoplis Gora, we must single out Burials 3 and 14 of Rikianebis Veli cemetery, the date of which is the first half to the middle of the 1st century A.D.¹¹²³

The gold button (cat. no. 160) with a spiral-like design has analogies among the material from Vani. Here, two buttons were found by accident, resembling the item in shape, one of them has

three hafts on the back, and the other – just like the one from Dedoplis Gora – two. Such ornaments were common for burials and cultural layers of the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C.¹¹²⁴

In shape and ornamentation, this button resembles the semipalmette details of a gold necklace from the Tsikhisdziri treasure,¹¹²⁵ which shows resemblance to a necklace with an ivy leaf from Pompeii (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.). The latter is considered to be the earliest sample of necklaces formed by homogeneous pendants with floral decoration.¹¹²⁶

Bracelets (cat. nos. 161–165)

Five bracelets have been excavated at Dedoplis Gora – two gold and three bronze ones. The gold bracelets (cat. nos. 161–162) were found with the fragments of the above-mentioned bone box.¹¹²⁷ A close analogy to these objects was found in Delverzine-tepe, which is dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D.¹¹²⁸ The analogous bezel appeared between the elements of a gold necklace of the 1st–3rd centuries A.D. with a butterfly pendant from Kherones.¹¹²⁹ In the Gonio treasure, there are similar bezels with analogous hafts, on which gold shells are hung,¹¹³⁰ and similar bezels form a gold diadem with almandines from Burial 6 of Armaziskhevi cemetery, dated to the 2nd century A.D.¹¹³¹ The same kind of bezels with cornelian insets appear on a gold necklace from Burial 1 of the Chatalka cemetery. The complex is dated to the middle of the 1st century A.D.¹¹³² All this gives us reason to assume that the bracelet under discussion belongs to the metalwork of the Roman period, most probably dating to the second half of the 1st century A.D., according to the analogy from Delverzine-tepe.

1114 Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 209.

1115 Boltunova 1935, 18, pl. 3.3.

1116 The gem is dated to the middle of the 1st century A.D., Pridik 1914, 19, pl. 1.1.

1117 Boltunova 1935, 63 f., fig. 33.

1118 See ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems no. 14.

1119 Lomtadze/Tsitsishvili 1951, 641.

1120 Inv. no. 28–51/1; Diam. 5.4 cm.

1121 Lordkipanidze et al. 1972, 227.

1122 Apakidze et al. 1955, 40, pl. 39.

1123 Mirianashvili 1983, 24,38.

1124 Chkonia 1981, 86, figs. 208–209.

1125 Inaishvili 1993, 25, pl. 4.1.

1126 Inaishvili 1993, 25.

1127 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. no. 91.

1128 It is a gold pectoral, which, according to its construction, shape and technique, is identical to the mentioned bracelet. The bezel with almandine inset is the central detail of the pectoral, Pugachenkova 1978, 100, 102, pl. 79.

1129 Sokolov 1973, 138, fig. 148.

1130 Dated to the 1st century A.D., Lordkipanidze et al. 1980, 27, pls. 53–54.

1131 Apakidze et al. 1955, 77, fig. 34.

1132 Buiukliev 1986, 45, pl. 4.35.

One of the bronze bracelets (cat. no. 163) is massive, with a cut end, thickened in the middle part. The chronological range of plain bracelets without ornaments is extremely wide.

As for the bronze bracelets with twisted ends (cat. nos. 164–165), this type of ornament is quite common in territories of Classical Antiquity and it is also characterized by its wide chronological range. For example, there is a silver bracelet with twisted ends from Parthian times, on which a crescent-like flat, bulged silver pendant is hung.¹¹³³ Burial 6 of Novo-Otradnoe, including the same kind of bracelet, can also be dated to the 1st century A.D.¹¹³⁴ An analogous bracelet from Burial 43 of the same cemetery is dated to the second half of the 1st century A. D.,¹¹³⁵ to which a gold bracelet from Taxila can be dated as well.¹¹³⁶ Alekseeva considers these bracelets to belong to the materials of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.¹¹³⁷ Similar bracelets on the territory of Georgia were found at Vasastskaro cemetery, dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.;¹¹³⁸ in the 1st century A.D. burials of Aghaiani;¹¹³⁹ in the materials of Kldeeti, 2nd century A.D.;¹¹⁴⁰ Mogvtakari, 1st–3rd centuries A.D.;¹¹⁴¹ Armaziskhevi, middle of the 2nd century A.D.;¹¹⁴² and Samtavro, 3rd–4th centuries A.D.¹¹⁴³ This type of bracelet even appears in complexes of the Early Middle Ages.¹¹⁴⁴

Rings (cat. nos. 166–179)

Fourteen rings have been excavated at Dedoplis Gora: one gold, five silver, six bronze and two iron ones. Some of them are badly damaged,

hardly allowing any considerations concerning their shape.¹¹⁴⁵

Most remarkable is a silver ring with the portrait of Arsinoë II on a garnet intaglio (cat. no. 166).¹¹⁴⁶ The ring has a wide hoop, flat inside, convex outside, which expands and transfers into a bezel. This type of ring is typical for Hellenistic rings, for instance in the 3rd century B.C.¹¹⁴⁷ There's a ring in F. H. Marshall's catalog (no. 367), which is set with a cornelian gem with Arsinoë II. It was produced in Egypt.¹¹⁴⁸ The garnet gem in a silver ring from Dedoplis Gora is contemporary to the ring.

A gold ring from Dedoplis Gora (cat. no. 167) is deformed, though, according to its general shape, it probably belongs to the type of the Augustan times, end of the 1st century B.C.–beginning of the 1st century A.D.¹¹⁴⁹

One of the complete bronze rings from Dedoplis Gora (cat. no. 168) has an oval flat bezel and a thin hoop, oval in section. Two oblique ribs are visible on it. As it is known, bezel rings were common in Classical and Hellenistic times, though it is difficult to find exact analogies to the ring examined here. Compared to the above mentioned rings, it looks lighter, it has a sheet bezel and the shape of an elongated oval. By this feature, it shows a resemblance to a bronze bezel ring from Burial 3 of the Neron-Deresi cemetery.¹¹⁵⁰ The cemetery is dated to the 1st century B.C.¹¹⁵¹

All the rest of the rings from Dedoplis Gora have bezels and belong to the so called Graeco-Roman period (1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D.).¹¹⁵² There are numerous parallels in Georgia, as well as elsewhere, for example in Samtavro,¹¹⁵³ Urbnisi,¹¹⁵⁴ Karsniskhevi,¹¹⁵⁵ Garni,¹¹⁵⁶ Tanais¹¹⁵⁷ and other contemporary sites.

1133 Seibert 1974, 62, fig. 111.

1134 Arsenieva 1970, 90, pl. 8.4.

1135 Arsenieva 1970, 111, pls. 13, 15.

1136 Pugachenkova 1978, 96, fig. 74.

1137 Arch. USSR 1984, pl. 167.17.

1138 Japaridze 1956, 197.

1139 Bokhochadze 1981, 34, pl. 32.2; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, 42.

1140 Lomtadidze et al. 1997, 19.1.

1141 Sikharulidze/Abutidze 1985, 109, 131, fig. 654.

1142 Apakidze et al. 1955, 114, pl. 83.3,3a.

1143 Manjgaladze 1985, 108, figs. 236, 577.

1144 Khetsuriani 1985, 159.

1145 Rings with gems, excavated at Dedoplis Gora, are studied by K. Javakhishvili, cf. ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems nos. 1, 55, 73, 83. We use her data in relation with rings and thank her for consultations.

1146 See ch. 5.1. *Engraved Gems*, cat. of gems no. 1.

1147 Marshall 1907, 67, nos. 365–367, fig. 74, pl. 11.

1148 Richter 1968, 134, figs. e, f.

1149 Henkel 1913, pl. 7, nos. 119, 123; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, pl. 68, no. 409.

1150 Lordkipanidze 1969, pl. 1, no. 54.

1151 Gagoshidze 1982, 28.

1152 Marshall 1907, nos. 396–398; Henkel 1913, pl. 43.

1153 Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 326–372.

Square gold plaques (cat. no. 180)

Plain and engraved gold plaques were found together with Classical, Achaemenian and Hellenistic material at Takht-e-Sangin on a Greek-Bactrian period floor, which is dated to the 70's–50's of the 2nd century B.C.¹¹⁵⁸ Several engraved plaques have been found in the Oxus-treasure.¹¹⁵⁹ On the territory of Georgia, engraved plaques appeared in Vani, in the so called “treasure”, which is dated to the 2nd–1st centuries B.C.¹¹⁶⁰ In all cases, they are connected to temple treasures and are considered to be votive objects.

1154 Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 10–11.

1155 Nikolaishvili 1993, pl. 9.

1156 Arakelian 1957, fig. 49.

1157 Arsenieva 1977, pl. 32.

1158 Pichikian 1991, 108, fig. 12.

1159 Dalton 1926, nos. 48–100; Zeimal 1979, 20–22, nos. 49–100.

1160 Pirtskhalava/Kipiani 1986, 78, fig. 64.

Catalog (Plates 65–76)

1. Figure of Patek

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1005.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Pres. H. 2.3 cm; W. 1.8 cm; Th. 0.2 cm.

Dark turquoise glass-like surface. The head lost. Squatting dwarf with clearly depicted features: hands resting on the knees, feet put together, big belly and buttock, muscular chest, legs and arms.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 39.

2. Scarab

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1005.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

L. 1.3 cm; W. 1.1 cm; H. 0.5 cm.

Dark greenish surface. Bug with plain wings, on an oval base. On the flat side, an incised representation of the god Amun with two plumes on his head and uncertain hieroglyphics. Pierced lengthwise.

Analogies: Javakhishvili 1972, 83, fig.14; Alekseeva 1975, 41 f., pls. 9, 18; Jinjikhshvili 1980, 58, pl. 44.1; Ivashchenko 1980, 136; Mirianashvili 1983, 78, pl. 3.

3. Fly

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1005.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 1.1×0.7×0.5 cm.

Greenish-grayish surface. Realistic representation on a flat base, pierced across.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 43, variant 01a.

4. Fly

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1005.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 1.2×0.2 cm.

Bluish-grayish, worn surface. Summarized representation.

Analogies: See cat. no. 3.

5. Fly

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1161.

Found in front of the door of Room 1.

Size 1.1×0.6×0.4 cm.

Blackish, polished surface. Realistic representation, pierced across.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 43, variant 02b.

6. Tortoise

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1161.

Found in front of the door of Room 1.

Size 1.5×1.4×0.5 cm.

Burnt. Dark turquoise surface, pierced lengthwise. Comb-shaped tortoiseshell, raised head, striped feet on a flat base.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 44, variant 02b.

7. Genital

Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1005.

- Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.8×1.3×0.5 cm.
Grayish-greenish surface. Pierced haft.
Analogies: Kuftin 1941, 28, fig. 30.5; Alekseeva 1975, 47; Apakidze et al. 1989b, 45, 49, fig. 303.
8. Bunch of grapes, single.
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1005.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.8×1.6×0.6 cm.
Greenish surface. Pierced haft.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 46.
9. Bunch of grapes, single
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1161.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Size 2.2×1.2×0.6 cm.
Burnt. Light greenish surface. Pierced haft.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 46, variant 01a ; Urbnisi, Burial 195, GNM 1- 62: 3694 (unpublished).
10. Bunch of grapes, triple
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1161.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Size 1.7×1.2×0.6 cm.
Greenish surface. Pierced haft, broken.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 46, variant 02b; Jinjikhashvili 1980, 58, pl. 45.9; Apakidze et al. 1989b, 49, fig. 303.
11. Seed vessels, 2 similar samples
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1161, 6058.
Found in front of the door of Room 1 and in Room 11, in the north-western corner, at the door.
Size 2.3×0.8 cm.
Greenish-grayish surface. Fluted body, knob-like bottom, flat rim. Pierced haft.
Analogies: Arakelian 1951, 49, fig. 49; Lomtadze 1957, pl. 17.1; Alekseeva 1975, 46; Ivashchenko 1980, 136; Bokhochadze 1981, 34, pl. 32.2; Mirianashvili 1983, 33, pl. 3; Urbnisi, Burials 15, 152, 218, 230 (unpublished).
12. Seed vessel
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1161.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Pres. size 2.0×1.2 cm.
Greenish-grayish surface. Fluted body, knob-like bottom, flat rim. Pierced haft, broken.
Analogies: See cat. no. 11.
13. Fist
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 6056.
Found in Room 1, in the wall debris.
Pres. H. 1.7 cm.
Burnt. Greenish surface. Parts of the fingers lost.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 47, pl. 7.22; Mirianashvili 1983, 33, pl. 3.
14. Bead
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1173.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 0.8×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Greenish surface. Barrel-shaped.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 31, pls. 5, 6.
15. Bead
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1176.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Size: 1.1×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Burnt. Grayish-greenish surface. Spindle-shaped.
Analogies: Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 139, pl. 50; Arakelian 1957, fig. 56.
16. Beads
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1176.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Size 1.5×0.25 cm; 0.7×0.3 cm.
Greenish surface. Tubular.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 33; Gagloev 1979b, 177 f.; Kazakhishvili 1980, 62, 67; pl. 52.3, 9; Urbnisi, Burial 116, GNM 1- 62: 2820 (unpublished).
17. Beads
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1175.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Aver. size 0.4×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.4 cm.
Burnt. Flattened-spherical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 31 f.
18. Beads
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 998, 6064, 6081.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall; in front of the door of Room 1; in Room 13, on the floor and hundreds in the wall debris, molten as strings and piles.
Aver. size 0.5×0.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Greenish surface. Short cylindrical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 32.
19. Beads
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 998, 1177, 6069; GNM FA A 146: 2634.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall; in front of the door of Room 1; in Room 12, in the wall debris and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Greenish and grayish surface. Short cylindrical.
Analogies: See cat. no. 18.
20. Iotas
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1177.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Greenish surface. Short double cylinders with vertically attached sides.
21. Beads
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 995, 1173, 1174.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in front of the door of Room 1.

- Max. size 0.5×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.3 cm.
Greenish surface. Biconical shape, different sizes.
Analogies: Koridze 1958, 52, pl. 18; Alekseeva 1975, 33; Jinjikhashvili 1980, 58, pl. 44; Mirianashvili 1995, 114, pl. 202; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995a, 60, 65, fig. 473.
- 22. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1176.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Size 0.7×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Light greenish surface. Spherical with long cross knobs.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 28, pl. 49.2; Alekseeva 1975, 35.
- 23. Beads, 3 pieces**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 1172, 991, 6059.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in Room 11, in the north-western corner near the door, on the floor.
Size 1.5×1.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm; 1.4×1.5 cm; 1.2×1.5 cm; 1.2×1.0 cm.
Burnt. Dark greenish surface. Spherical, ribbed lengthwise.
Analogies: Makalatia 1928, 171, pl. 8.10; Tekhov 1971, 260, fig. 96.12; Gagloev 1977, 177 f.; Ramishvili 1979, 108, pl. 401; Ivashchenko 1980, 142; Kazakhishvili 1980, 58, pl. 44; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, 27, 33, fig. 7, fig. 5, fig. 12; Mirianashvili 1995, 114, fig. 202; Urbnisi, Burial 136, GNM 1- 60: 2854 (unpublished).
- 24. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 6059.
Found in Room 11, in the north-western corner near the door, on the floor.
Size 1.6×2.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm.
Deformed and cracked. Light greenish surface. Flattened-spherical, ribbed oblique and uneven lengthwise.
Analogies: See cat. no. 23.
- 25. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 6072.
Found in Room 11, near the door, on the floor.
Size 1.7×2.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7–0.9 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Greenish-brownish surface. Flattened-spherical, ribbed oblique and uneven lengthwise.
Analogies: See cat. no. 23.
- 26. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27-977: 6075.
Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.
Size 1.1×1.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.8–0.5 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Dark reddish surface. Flattened-spherical, ribbed oblique and uneven lengthwise.
Analogies: See cat. no. 23.
- 27. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 6057.
Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.
L. 1.4 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Bluish-greenish surface. Flattened-spherical, ribbed oblique and uneven lengthwise.
Analogies: See cat. no. 23.
Not illustrated.
- 28. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 6067.
Found in Room 12, on the floor.
Size 1.3×1.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm.
Burnt. One part lost. Dark greenish surface. Flattened-spherical, ribbed irregular lengthwise.
Analogies: See cat. no. 23.
- 29. Bead**
Faience. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.1×1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Burnt. Blackish-grayish surface. Biconical, herring-bone ribbed ornament.
Analogies: Davlianidze 1983, 154, 470, pl. 19.11.
- 30. Beads**
Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Max. size 1.0×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Transparent yellowish glass. Flattened-spherical, different size.
Analogies: Jinjikhashvili 1980, 33, 46, pl. 44; Tolordava 1980, 53; Mirianashvili 1983, 33, fig. 12.
- 31. Beads**
Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Max. size 1.0×0.9 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Transparent yellowish glass. Barrel-shaped, different sizes.
Analogies: Japaridze 1956, 197, fig. 5; Alekseeva 1978, 30, pl. 26.7; Tolordava 1980, 53; Apakidze 1991, 81, pl. 186.3; Nikolaishvili/Giunashvili 1995, 102.
- 32. Beads**
Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Max. size 0.4×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Transparent glass. Biconical, different sizes.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 31, pl. 26.15, 16.
- 33. Beads**
Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.2×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Transparent yellowish glass. Ring-shaped, single and double.

Analogies: Japaridze 1956, 197, fig. 4 ; Alekseeva 1978, 30 f., pl. 26.17.

34. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 994; GNM FA A 146: 2634.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size 2.2×0.4 cm; 1.6×0.15 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.

Transparent yellowish glass. Tubular, different sizes.

Analogies: Arakelian 1951, 49, fig. 49; Alekseeva 1978, 33, pl. 26.78; Ivashchenko 1980, 211, fig. 222; Mamaia-ashvili 1980, 123, pl. 32.16; Kazakhishvili 1980, 66; Mirianashvili 1983, 33, fig. 11; Nikolaishvili 1993, pl. 108.3; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, fig. 582.

35. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 994; GNM FA A 146: 2634.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size of a section 0.6×0.3 cm; 0.6×0.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1cm.

Transparent yellowish glass. Tubular, subdivided into barrel-like sections.

Analogies: Arakelian 1951, 49, fig. 49; Alekseeva 1978, 33, pl. 26.76; Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 222; Mamaia-shvili 1980, 123, pl. 32.16; Kazakhashvili 1980, 66, pl. 51.2, 5; Nikolaishvili 1993, 89, pl. 107; Nikolaishvili 1995a, 75.60, fig. 582; Urbnisi, Burial 165, GNM 1- 61: 3326 (unpublished).

36. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 994.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size of a section 0.2×0.2 cm.

Transparent yellowish glass. Tubular, subdivided into barrel-like sections.

Analogies: Lomtadidze 1957, 57, pl. 18.2; Alekseeva 1978, 33, pl. 26.73.

37. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 1176.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size of a section 0.3×0.4 cm; 0.2×0.4 cm.

Burnt. Tubular, subdivided into flattened-spherical sections.

Analogies: Urbnisi, Burial 176, GNM 1- 61: 3326 (Saginashvili 1970, 53); Tolordava 1980, 53; Nikolai-shvili 1993, 89, pl. 107.3.

38. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 1176.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size of a section 0.2×0.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

Burnt. Tubular, subdivided into four flattened-spherical sections, ribbed lengthwise.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 31, pl. 26.49; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, 29, 33, fig. 5, fig. 12; Pirtskhalava/Kipiani 1986, 74, pl. 48.5.

39. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 995.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 1.0×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.

Opaque yellowish-white glass. Cylindrical with separated ends, ribbed lengthwise .

Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 31, pl. 26.46.

40. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 995;

GNM FA A 146: 2634.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size 0.5×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

Opaque white glass. Cylindrical, ribbed lengthwise.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 31, pl. 26.43; Tolordava 1980, 53.

41. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 993.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 0.9×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

Transparent yellowish glass. Astragal-shaped.

Analogies: Japaridze 1956, 197; Alekseeva 1978, 32, pls. 26, 24, 27; Apakidze 1978, 42, 53, fig. 226; Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 239; Jinjikhshvili 1980, 58, pl. 42.3; Tolordava 1980, 33, 53, pl. 31.4; Gagoshidze 1982, pl. 2.25, 26; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, fig. 5; Urbnisi, Pithos-Burial 110, GNM 1- 60: 2800; 148, GNM 1- 60: 3243 (unpublished).

42. Bead

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 1176.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size 1.3×1.0-0.5 cm; Diam. of the edges 0.7 cm.

Burnt. Yellowish-grayish glass. Barrel-shaped, flattened with disc-shaped and separated ends.

Analogies: Japaridze 1956, fig. 5, 189, 197; Alekseeva 1978, 32, pl. 26.70; Tolordava 1980, 33, pl. 31.4; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, fig. 5.

43. Beads

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 995, 1175, 1176.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in front of the door of Room 1.

Size 0.4×0.8 cm; 0.4×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

Burnt. Biconical, knobs around.

Analogies: Koridze 1958, 52; Vashakidze 1973, 83, pl. 10.3; Alekseeva 1978, 31, pl. 26.53; Tolordava 1980, 29, 33, pls. 24.4, 31.4.

44. Bead

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 1176.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size 0.5×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.

Burnt. Flattened-spherical, ribbed lengthwise.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 31, pl. 26.50.

45. Bead

Glass, gold-lined. GNM 27- 977: 1176.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 0.7×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Burnt. Two rows of six round knobs.

46. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.3×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm.
Blackish-bluish opaque glass with a yellow wing-like ornament. Cylindrical.
Analogs: Jinjikhshvili 1980, 49, 58, pl. 45.8.

47. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.6×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Blackish, dark greenish glass with spirally white lines. Cylindrical.
Analogs: Lomtadze 1957, 56, pl. 11.2a. (These beads differ with the color of ornament).

48. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.6×1.9 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Bluish glass with colored wavy lines, iridescent. Spindle-shaped.
Analogs: Japaridze 1956, 190, 197, fig.5; Alekseeva 1978, 50, pl. 29.26–28; Mirianashvili 1983, 80, pl. 4.

49. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 3.0×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Bluish glass with colored wavy lines, iridescent. Spindle-shaped.
Analogs: See cat. no. 35.

50. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.4×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Grayish glass with green and brownish wavy lines. Barrel-shaped.
Analogs: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 82, pl. 48.19; Apakidze 1978, 38, 53, fig. 197; Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 221; Tolordava 1980, 53; Sikharulidze/Abutidze 1985, 131, fig. 644; Apakidze et al. 1987, 47, pl. 92.2; Nikolaishvili 1993, 80, 89, pl. 105.6; Apakidze et al. 1995b, 88, fig. 175.4; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995a, 63, fig. 429; 60, 65, figs. 468, 473–474; Urbnisi, Burial 255, GNM 1- 63: 4107 (unpublished).

51. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.1×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Grayish glass with white, bluish, greenish and brownish spirally lines. Barrel-shaped.

Analogs: Japaridze 1956, 189, 197, fig. 4; Alekseeva 1978, 47, pl. 29.68–73; Apakidze 1978, 38, 53, fig. 197; Tolordava 1980, 53; Nikolaishvili 1993, 80, 89, pl. 105.6.

52. Beads

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992;
GNM FA A 146: 2634.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Size 1.0×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Black glass with a spirally white line. Barrel-shaped.
Analogs: Alekseeva 1978, 4; Tolordava 1980, 53; Haevernick 1981, 186, pl. 1.1.

53. Beads

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.0×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Black glass with a white line around. Barrel-shaped.
Analogs: Japaridze 1956, 189, 197, fig. 4; Alekseeva 1978, 40; Tolordava 1980, 53; Lordkipanidze et al. 1983, 109, fig. 46; burial, excavated in Tetritskaro by Schultz, GNM 11- 02: 2324 (unpublished).

54. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.8×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Burnt. Blackish opaque glass with a white line around, partly divided in two lines. Flattened-spherical.
Analogs: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 28, pl. 45.2; Alekseeva 1978, 411, pl. 28.5; Mirianashvili 1995, 114 f., fig. 202.

55. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.7×1.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.6 cm.
Blue glass with lots of white glass circles. Spherical.
Analogs: Alekseeva 1975, 70, pl. 15.48, 49.

56. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.7×1.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Burnt. Whitish glass with blue dots in brownish-whitish circles intersecting each other. Spherical.
Analogs: Khakhutaishvili 1970, 28, pl. 45.2; Alekseeva 1975, 67, pl. 14.23; Gagloev 1979b, 177 f.; Urbnisi, Burial 54, GNM 1- 59: 2276 (unpublished); Kazbegi cemetery, GNM 2- 02: 357 (unpublished).

57. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.3×1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4–0.2 cm.

Burnt. Reddish opaque glass with greenish spots. On one side a whitish dot in a green circle. Polished surface. Spherical.

58. Bead

Glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.6×1.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm.
Greenish glass with blue relief dots in white circles. Barrel-shaped.
Analogies: Tolordava 1980, 53; Kazbegi cemetery, GNM 2- 02: 359 (unpublished).

59. Beads

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.5×1.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5×0.4 cm.
Greenish glass with bluish spots and white dots in brownish-reddish circles. Spherical shaped.

60. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.8×1.1 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Blackish-brownish glass with yellowish circles. Flattened-spherical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 55, pl. 27.97.

61. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.0×1.2 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Blackish-purple glass with blue dots in yellow circles. Flattened-spherical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 65, pl. 16.15.

62. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27-977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.6×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Blue glass with white and yellow circles. Barrel-shaped.

63. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.0×1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Whitish opaque glass with whitish-grayish dots in brownish-reddish circles. Flattened-spherical.

64. Bead

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 991.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.3×1.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Bluish-whitish glass with an ornament of square white dots, framed by blue and white lines, arranged in one line. Spherical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, 69, pl. 15.22.

65. Beads.

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 999, 1000.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
L. 1.2 cm.
Deformed. Dark red-colored glass with a gray 8-shaped ornament. Flattened-spherical.
Analogies: Beads with this kind of ornament, but of different colors were found in Mtskheta and Aghaiani, see: Apakidze 1978, 41, 53, fig. 225; Mirianashvili 1983, 33; Apakidze 1991, 80 f., fig. 186.5; Apakidze et al. 1995b, 88, fig. 175.4.

66. Pendant

Polychrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 6053.
Found in Room 11, in the north-western corner.
Size 1.5×1.5×0.5–0.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Transparent olive glass, with blue and white opaque wavy lines. Tetrahedral pyramid-shaped, pierced crosswise at the top.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 43, pl. 27.60–65; Ramiashvili 1979, 108, pl. 40.1; Jinjikhshvili 1980, 58, pl. 44; Tolordava 1980, 53; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, 33; Apakidze 1991, 81, pl. 186.8; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995a, 60, 65, 70; figs. 468, 473–474, 582; Nikolaishvili/Giunashvili 1995b, 102.

67. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 6083.
Found in Room 13, at the western wall.
Size 0.9×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Bluish-greenish transparent glass. Spherical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 64.

68. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.9×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Yellowish semitransparent glass. Spherical.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 64, pl. 33.1.

69. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.7–1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Yellowish semitransparent glass. Flattened-spherical.
Analogies: See cat. no. 68.

70. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 6072.
Found in Room 11, near the door, on the floor.
Size 1.1×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Greenish opaque glass. Ovoid.

71. Bead.

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 1176.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Pres. L. 1.9 cm; Diam. 0.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Yellowish transparent glass. Fragmentary. Tubular.

Analogies: Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 53, 139, pl. 45.34; Alekseeva 1978, 68, pl. 33.14; Urbnisi, Burial 181, GNM 1- 61: 3448; Burial 218, GNM 1- 62: 3798 (unpublished).

72. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.5×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Brownish-reddish opaque glass with greenish patina. Tubular.
Analogies: Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 139, pl. 50; Alekseeva 1978, 67, pl. 33.14; Ivashchenko 1980, 142, figs. 222, 249, 255; Gagoshidze 1982, 28, pl. 8; Apakidze et al. 1986, 81, pl. 186.4; Nikolaishvili 1993, 80, 89, pl. 105.5.

73. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.9×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Tubular, subdivided into two flattened-spherical sections.
Analogies: Japaridze 1956, 197, fig. 4; Alekseeva 1978, 33, pl. 26.74; Tolordava 1980, 55.

74. Beads

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 993.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size of a section 0.5×0.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Whitish-yellowish transparent glass. Tubular, subdivided into barrel-shaped sections (double and triple).
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 33, pl. 26.77: exhibits much similarity with the gold-lined beads of the same shape and color (cat. no. 22).

75. Beads

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 996, 1176, 1177.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in front of the door of Room 1.
General size 0.9×0.3 cm; size of a section 0.2×0.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Grayish-bluish opaque glass. Tubular, subdivided into flattened-spherical sections, quadruple and triple.
Analogies: Rostovtzeff et al. 1946, 53, 139, pl. 45.23, pl. 51; Japaridze 1956, 197, fig. 4; Khakhutaishvili 1964, 111, 82, pl. 49.4; Alekseeva 1978, 65; Apakidze 1978, 53, fig. 311; Gagloev 1979b, 177 f.; Tolordava 1980, 55; Nikolaishvili 1993, 80, 89, pl. 105.7.

76. Beads

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 996; GNM FA A 146: 2634.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Size of a section 0.1×0.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.

Blue opaque glass. Tubular, subdivided into flattened-spherical sections of different numbers.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 82, pl. 49.14; Alekseeva 1978, 65; Urbnisi, Burial 110, GNM 1- 60: 2800; Burial 165, GNM 1- 61: 3326 (unpublished).

77. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.6×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Greenish transparent glass. Oval.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 28.

78. Bead.

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 995.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.6×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Purplish transparent glass. Barrel-shaped, rough edges.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 65.

79. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 995.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.5×0.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Brownish opaque glass. Barrel-shaped, rough edges.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 65.

80. Beads

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 995.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.4×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm; 0.5×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Blue transparent glass. Biconical.
Analogies: Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 60, 65, figs. 468, 473.

81. Bead

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 999.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall.
Diam. 0.5–0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Bluish-purplish semi-transparent glass. One part lost. Reel-like shape.

82. Beads

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 997, 1177; GNM FA A 146: 2634.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner, on the floor; in front of the door of Room 1 and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Blue, yellow, pale blue or green transparent glass and black, yellow or white opaque glass. Small beads of different size and shape.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1978, 67; Tolordava 1980, 53 f.

83. Beads

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 1000.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.5×1.1–0.3×1.3–1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

2.0×0.8×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Burnt and deformed. Cylindrical, bulged on one side.

Analogies: Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 267.

84. Pendant

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 6080.

Found in Room 13, on the floor.

Size 1.8×0.8 cm.

Burnt and deformed. White semi-transparent glass. Drop-shaped, pierced at the top.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1975, pl. 18; Tolordava 1980, 53; Mirianashvili 1983, 21, pl. 4; Apakidze 1991, 82, fig. 197.13; Mirianashvili 1995, 114, fig. 202; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995, 65, 60, figs. 468, 473–474; Urbnisi, Burial 230, GNM 1- 62: 3910 (unpublished).

85. Pendant

Monochrome glass. GNM 27- 977: 6079.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.

Drop-shaped. Broken haft. At the break, a part of the metal haft is visible.

Analogies: Nikolaishvili 1978, 96, pl. 50.44; Mirianashvili 1983, 21, 30, pl. 4; Apakidze et al. 1987, pl. 92.1; Apakidze/Nikolaishvili 1996, 32, pl. 36.3; Urbnisi, Burial 162, GNM 1- 61: 3305 (unpublished).

86. Bead

Ceramic. GNM 27- 977: 1002.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 4.5×2.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.8 cm.

Light brownish color. Polished surface. Uneven cylindrical.

87. Bead

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 6060.

Found in Room 11, at the door.

Size 1.5×2.1 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.

Semi-transparent. Flattened-spherical, ribbed lengthwise.

Analogies: Lomtadze 1957, 182, pl. 15.2; Gagloev 1979b, 177 f.; Alekseeva 1982a, pl. 35.33.

88. Beads

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 1166;

GNM FA A 146: 2634.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size 1.3×1.2×1.8 cm.

Scarab-shaped, nearly quadrangular. In the cross section unevenly oval and slightly flattened, with two longitudinal ribs on opposite sides, pierced from one side.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 9.

89. Beads

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 1163, 6053;

GNM FA A 146: 2634.

Found on the floor, in front of the door of Room 1; in front of the Room 9, molten into the plaster of the floor and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size 1.4×0.8×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3–0.1 cm.

Flattened-oval, pierced from one side.

Analogies: Tolordava 1980, 53; Alekseeva 1982a, 9.

90. Bead

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 1166.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size 1.4×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.1 cm.

Flattened heart-shaped, pierced from one side.

Analogies: Arakelian 1951, 49, fig. 49; Gagloev 1979b, 178, pl. 74.10; Alekseeva 1982a, 9; Mirianashvili 1995, 114, pl. 202.

91. Bead

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 1166.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size 1.2×0.8×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.1 cm.

Slightly-flattened ovoid-shaped, pierced from one side.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 9.

92. Bead

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 1166.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size 1.0×0.9–0.5×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3–0.1 cm.

Truncated pyramid-shaped, unevenly faceted, pierced lengthwise.

Analogies: Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 213; Alekseeva 1982a, 9; Urbnisi cemetery, Burials 109, 110, 116 (unpublished); for the dating of these burials, see: Saginashvili 1970, 53; Javakhishvili 1972, 61.

93. Bead

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 989.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 1.0×1.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3–0.2 cm.

Transparent. Cone-shaped, pierced lengthwise.

Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 7.

94. Pendant

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 6948.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

Size 4.0×2.7×1.5 cm.

Irregularly shaped, one side flat. Set in a wired silver bezel.

Analogies: A rock crystal in a bronze wired mounting was found in Burial 230 of the Urbnisi cemetery (unpublished).

95. Pendant

Rock crystal. GNM 27- 977: 6074.

Found in Room 11, on the floor.

Uneven pentahedral prism-shaped, pyramid at one end. Set in a metal wired bezel.

Analogies: See cat. no. 92.

96. Bead

Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 989.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Size 2.0×3.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 1.0 cm.

- Black polished surface. Septagonal prism-shaped, one side rounded, pierced lengthwise.
97. Bead
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.6×2.5–1.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm.
Black polished surface. Truncated hexahedral pyramid with a plain rounded base, pierced lengthwise.
98. Bead
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.0×1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm.
Blackish polished surface. Flattened-spherical, pierced lengthwise.
99. Bead
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 1176.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 0.7×0.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Black polished surface. Cylindrical.
100. Bead
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 3.3×1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Grayish color. Spindle-shaped, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Cornelian beads of this shape were found at Samtavro cemetery, in the complexes of the 8th–7th centuries B.C., as well as of the 1st–3rd centuries A.D., Lemlein 1948, 16, 27, pls. 3–5, 10.
101. Bead
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.8×1.4–0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Grayish color. Spindle-shaped with hexahedral facets, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Lemlein 1948, 26, pls. 5, 11, 12.
102. Pendant
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 3.0×0.6–1.7×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Grayish color. Axe-shaped. Crosswise ribs on the bottom, pierced in the upper part.
Analogies: Sard pendants of the same shape were found in Burial 76 of the Samtavro cemetery, 8th–7th centuries B.C., Lemlein 1948, 23, pls. 4, 17.
103. Bead
Volcanic rock. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.4×1.1×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Whitish-pinkish surface, dark red inside. Barrel-shaped, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Samtavro cemetery, Burial 94, 8th–6th centuries B.C., Lemlein 1948, 23, pls. 4, 7; Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 10, second half of the 1st century A.D., Mirianashvili 1983, 33, fig. 12.
104. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 6052.
Found in Room 9.
Pres. size 0.7×2.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.9–0.7 cm.
White color. Disc-shaped, broadened around the middle-hole. Fragmentary.
105. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 6071.
Found in Room 13, in the center, on the floor.
Size 1.9×2.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
White, with a grayish polished surface and crystalline whitish inner surface. Spherical, pierced lengthwise. Fragmentary.
106. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1168.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
L. 2.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Whitish-yellowish, with a polished surface. Spherical, pierced lengthwise.
107. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Diam. 1.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Whitish-grayish. Spherical, pierced lengthwise.
108. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 6055.
Found on the wall between Rooms 10 and 11.
Diam. 2.3 cm; L. 1.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3–0.1 cm.
Whitish-yellowish, with grayish veins and circles. Flattened-spherical, pierced lengthwise.
109. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1168.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 2.0×3.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Whitish-yellowish. Flattened-spherical, pierced lengthwise. Deformed, with a piece of adobe welded on.
110. Beads
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 6671, 1168.
Found on the courtyard, in the center, in the wall debris and in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 3.1×1.9 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.7 cm.
Whitish, polished surface. Barrel-shaped, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 29, pl. 44.28–32.
111. Bead
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1168.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 1.9×1.4 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.

Whitish-yellowish. Barrel-shaped, pierced lengthwise. Burnt, with pieces of adobe welded on.

112. Beads

Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1171.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Max. size 2.0×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2cm; min. size 0.5×0.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1cm.
Whitish-yellowish. Barrel-shaped, different size, pierced lengthwise. Burnt.

113. Bead

Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1102.
Found in Room 3, at the north-western wall.
Size 2.1×1.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Whitish-yellowish. Cylindrical with uneven facets, pierced lengthwise. Burnt.

114. Bead

Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1102.
Found in Room 3, at the north-western wall.
Size 3.0×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Whitish-yellowish. Cylindrical. Burnt.

115. Beads

Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1170.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Max. size 1.0×1.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.1 cm.
Whitish-yellowish. Spherical and flattened-spherical, different size, pierced lengthwise.

116. Bead

Limestone breccia. GNM 27- 977: 1043.
Found in Room 1, in the center, near a table.
Pres. L. 4.0 cm; max. Diam. 1.5 cm; min. Diam. 0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Grayish with dark red veins. Spindle-shaped, pierced lengthwise. Fragmentary.

117. Bead

Jet stone. GNM 27- 977: 989.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.5×2.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 1.0 cm.
Ring-shaped, curved.
Analogies: Nikolaishvili 1993, 89, pl. 105.6.

118. Bead

Cornelian. GNM 27- 977: 1167.
Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Size 0.2×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Dark red. Flattened-spherical.

119. Bead

Cornelian. GNM 27- 977: 6048.
Found in Room 5, in the ground.
Size 0.5×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Orange. Biconical.
Analogies: Jinjikhashvili 1980, 49; Tolordava 1980, 53; Urbnisi cemetery, Burial 155 (unpublished).

120. Beads

Cornelian. GNM 27- 977: 995; GNM FA A 146: 2634.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner and in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Different size.
Pinkish, with white veins. Spherical and flattened-spherical, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 15.

121. Bead

Cornelian. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.9×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.9×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Reddish-pinkish. Cylindrical shaped, pierced lengthwise.

122. Beads

Chalcedony. GNM 27- 977: 995.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Grayish, yellowish, bluish and whitish. Flattened-spherical. Lengthwise pierced.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 11.

123. Bead

Agate. GNM 27- 977: 992.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.8×0.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.15 cm.
Pinkish-whitish. Barrel-shaped, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 82, pl. 44; Alekseeva 1982a, 11, pl. 37.1.

124. Bead

Agate. GNM 27- 977: 6063.
Found in Room 12, in the south of the altar, on the floor.
Size 1.7×0.7 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2–0.1cm.
Grayish with black, gray and white round lines.
Uneven cylindrical, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 82, pl. 44; Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 192; Alekseeva 1982a, 20.

125. Pendant

Agate. GNM 27- 977: 6065.
Found in Room 11, at the eastern wall near the door.
Size 1.5×0.4×0.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Grayish with black, gray and white round lines.
Wedge-shaped, pierced at the top.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 20, pl. 36.19.

126. Bead

Pebble. GNM 27- 977: 6071.
Found in Room 13, in the center, on the floor.
Size 0.8×1.5–1.3 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.3 cm.
Grayish. Uneven triangular, pierced lengthwise.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 26, 28.

127. Bead

Pebble. GNM 27- 977: 6071.
Found in Room 13, in the center, on the floor.

- Size 0.5×2.2–2.0 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm.
Grayish-brownish. Flat triangular.
Analogies: See cat. no. 126.
128. Stones, 2 pieces
Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 987.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box (cf. cat. no. 145).
Size 1.8×0.4 cm; 0.9×0.5 cm.
White. Cabochon.
129. Stones, 2 pieces
Jet (?). GNM 27- 977: 987.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box (cf. cat. no. 145).
Size 1.0×0.4 cm; 0.8×0.2 cm.
Black. Cabochon. Porous and cracked.
130. Bead (?)
Agate. GNM 27- 977: 988.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.0×3.5×2.2 cm.
Grayish-brownish. Uneven, oval cabochon with a flat back. Half-finished product.
131. Bead (?)
Agate. GNM 27- 977: 988.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 1.4×1.9–1.5 cm.
Blackish-brownish. Uneven cylindrical, thickened edges around the front-ends. Half-finished product.
132. Bead (?)
Cornelian. GNM 27- 977: 988.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 0.7×1.2 cm.
Whitish, red at the bottom. Spherical cabochon, flat back. Half-finished product.
133. Beads (?)
Pebble. GNM 27- 977: 988.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Whitish-pinkish and grayish-greenish. Uneven oval. Half-finished products.
Analogies: Lomtadidze 1957, 67.
134. Bead
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1001.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 4.5×2.5 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.1 cm.
Flat quadrangular with cross ribs on the edges and a ribbed concentric ornament on both flat sides, pierced crosswise twice.
135. Bead
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6666.
Found in Room 11, at the door.
Size 2.3×1.0×1.5 cm; Diam. 1.0×0.8 cm; Diam. of the hole (1) 0.9×0.7 cm; (2) 0.25×0.2 cm.
- Barrel-shaped, ends subdivided by circles, with a small hole on one and a wide hole on the other side. Not illustrated.
136. Bead
Bone. GNM 27-977: 6695.
Found in Room 11, at the northern wall, on the floor.
Size 1.0×0.8×0.15 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.5 cm.
Barrel-shaped, ends subdivided by circles. Engraved concentric ornament on one side.
Not illustrated.
137. Bead
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 6665.
Found outside the wall of the palace, in the north-east.
Diam. 1.1 cm; Th. 0.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.2 cm.
Disc-shaped, pierced eccentrically.
138. Pendants, 3 pieces
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1003, 6062, 6621.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner; in Room 11, near the door and in Room 12.
Size 2.3×0.9×0.6 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Whale-shaped, thickened at the end, concave in the middle, pierced at the quadrangular tail.
Analogies: Koridze 1958, 52, pl. 14; Tolordava 1980, 53; Alekseeva 1982a, 32, pl. 45.28; Mirianashvili 1983, 21, 32, 33, pl. 4; Apakidze et al. 1987, pl. 92.1–2.
139. Pendant
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1162.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
Size 4.0×0.8×0.2 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.15 cm.
Representation of a fish, flat, with a pierced eye, concentric circles in three places on the body. Not illustrated.
Analogies: Tekhov 1971, 260, figs. 96.2–4; Tolordava 1980, 53.
140. Pendant
Bone. GNM 27- 977: 1004.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 2.0×1.2–1.8 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.4 cm.
Animal's tooth, pierced.
Analogies: Alekseeva 1982a, 32, pl. 45; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, fig. 5.
141. Shell (*Cyprea moneta*)
GNM 27- 977: 6084.
Found in Room 8, on the floor.
Size 1.9×1.4 cm.
Analogies: Khakhutaishvili 1964, pl. 46.6; Gagloev 1980, 27; Ivashchenko 1980, fig. 246; Jinjikhshvili 1980, 58, pl. 57; Nakaidze 1980, 40, pl. 28.5; Alekseeva 1982a, 31; Mirianashvili 1995, 114, pl. 202; Urbnisi cemetery, Urn-Burial 2 (unpublished).
142. Shell (*Cyprea moneta*)
GNM 27- 977: 6068.

Found in Room 12, in the wall debris.
Size 1.0×0.5 cm.
Analogies: See cat. no. 141.

143. Shell (*Rissoidae?*)

GNM 27- 977: 1161.
Found in front of the door of Room 1.
L. 1.7 cm; W. 0.5 cm.
Pierced.

144. Stone, fragment

Limestone. GNM 27- 977: 1188.
Found on the courtyard, in the southern part.
Size 7.0×11.0×7.0 cm.
A device, used for making (grinding and polishing) stone beads with parallel ribs on one side.
Analogies: Gogadze et al. 1990, 226, 233.

145. Necklace

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 972.
Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box (cat. of bones no. 91).
L. of the tube 0.5 cm; plaque Diam. 0.6 cm; L. of the pendant 1.2 cm.
Formed of 53 identical pendants, each consisting of two elements: A round, flat plaque hang on a plain cylindrical tube. A wire, round in section, brazed on it, holds a small grayish paste bead. The wire is threaded through the haft of the tube, its end coiled on a stem above the bead. Color changed by fire.
Together with this necklace were found: a gold bead (cat no. 185), gold bracelets (cat. nos. 161–162), a silver medallion (cat. no. 156), stone beads and half finished products (cat. nos. 128–129), a pile of molten small beads (cat. no. 60), a glass gem (cat. of gems no. 55) and a bulla (cat. of bullae no. 27).

146. Pendant

Gold. GNM FA A 138: 2623.
Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Size 2.6×2.4 cm.
Small figurine of a horse with a flat haft on the back. Legs and tail attached separately. Eyes and a thin nose visible on the head.

147. Pendant

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 975.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
H. 2.0 cm; W. 2.9 cm; Th. 0.2 cm; size of the bezel 1.2×0.7 cm; Diam. of the haft 0.7 cm.
Crescent-shaped. Made of a thick golden plate. Middle part: Flat paste inset placed in an ovoid bezel, surrounded by wire, decorated with false granulation. Pyramids on both ends, formed of coarse granules. Haft massive and ribbed, back flat and plain.

148. Pendant

Gold. GNM FA A 137: 2622.
Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size 2.0×3.0 cm; Th. of the plate 0.15 cm.
Crescent-shaped. Lamellar, with a flat lamellar haft.
Analogies: Arakelian 1957, 49, fig. 48; Arakelian 1976, 83.

149. Pendant

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 6087.
Found in Room 13, in the wall debris.
H. 2.5 cm; W. 2.7 cm; max. Th. 0.4 cm; W. of the haft 0.5 cm.
Crescent-shaped. Massive, strongly rounded, rhombic in section with a flat, ribbed haft. At the haft and at one end round knobs. Knob on one end lost. Undergone fire, color has changed.
Analogies: Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 249, pl. 30.4; Arakelian 1976, 83 f.; Buiukliev 1986, 45, fig. 375.

150. Pendant

Silver, partly gilded. GNM 27- 977: 976.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
H. 3.5 cm; W. 3.2 cm; Diam. of the haft 0.8 cm; W. 0.4 cm; Th. 0.15 cm.
Crescent-shaped. Rhombic in section, thinned at the ends. Flat, ribbed tubular haft, balls under the haft and at the ends. The haft with a ball and the ends plated with gold. Two symmetrically positioned gold bands on the shoulders. Marked by fire and broken.
Analogies: See cat. no. 149.

151. Pendant

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 979.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
Size 4.1×4.5 cm; Th. of stem 0.7–0.3 cm; Diam. of the haft 0.7 cm; W. 0.4 cm.
Crescent-shaped. Rhombic in section, with ribbed tubular haft, the ends flattened and disc-shaped.

152. Pendant, 2 fragments

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 977.
Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.
W. of stem 0.5–0.3 cm; Diam. of the bulge 0.4 cm.
Crescent-shaped. Made of a stem, round in section, with balls at the ends.
Analogies: Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 249–251, 255, 259, 264, pls. 30.4, 32.2–4, 40.2, 45.2, 62.2.

153. Medallion

Gold. GNM FA A 133: 2618.
Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Diam. 3.2 cm; H. of the relief 1.0–0.1 cm.
Circular, with a relief head and neck of a goddess, stamped with a poinçon on the edge, with a double lamellar haft. The face rounded, features are clearly shown: eyes, thick nose, lips. The hairstyle rounded; two rosette-like curls depicted on the forehead, above the eyes (a diadem?). Right above the head, under the haft, there is a crescent-like hoop. A necklace, formed by poinçon, decorating the neck. Earrings threaded through the pierced ears – small blu-

ish-grayish paste-beads hanging on the wire, its ends coiled on the stem.

Analogies: Arakelian 1976, 86, pl. 22.

154. Medallion

Gold. GNM FA A 134: 2619.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Diam. 3.5 cm; H. of the relief 1.0–0.1 cm; L. of haft 0.5 cm; Diam. 0.5 cm.

A man's (or woman's) face, stamped, poinçons on the edge, double lamellar haft attached to the edge.

An oval face with clearly depicted features: eyes with pupils, thick nose, short, wavy, fluffy hair, which is combed up obliquely on the sides, descending in sections on the forehead and cut with a cross line above the forehead (diadem?).

Analogies: See cat. no. 153.

155. Medallion

Gold. GNM FA A 140: 2625.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Diam. 2.9 cm; H. of the relief 0.3–0.1 cm.

Circular stamped woman's (or man's?) face in a hatched border. An oval face with clearly depicted features: eyes, nose and lips. The short, wavy, fluffy hair is divided into four strands. Broken haft, but a haft found separately probably belongs to it.

Analogies: See cat. no. 153.

156. Medallion

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 978.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box (cf. cat. no. 145).

Diam. approx. 5 cm; Th. 0.1 cm.

Circular relief representation in the middle (presumably a Gorgon), with a relief ornament around the edge (so called "astragal"), concave representation from the back to the middle part. Flat haft. Burnt and deformed.

Analogies: See cat. no. 153.

157. Plaque

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 6492.

Found at the door of Room 1.

Diam. 3.7 cm; Diam. of the bezel 0.9 cm; Th. 0.15 cm.

Circular, lamellar, with a lamellar bezel in the center. A false granulated wire bordering edges and the bezel. Three wire hafts placed at the back. The plaque is partly broken, the stone lost. Undergone fire. Deformed.

158. Button

Gold. GNM FA A 136: 2621.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Max. Diam. 2.5 cm.

Lamellar, eight-pointed star. Wire haft at the back.

159. Button

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 6085.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part, in the wall debris.

Diam. 0.7 cm; H. 0.2 cm.

Lamellar, stamped, hemispherical, a convex edge. Wire haft at the back.

Analogies: Apakidze et al. 1955, pl. 37.17; Lordkipanidze et al. 1972, 227; Lordkipanidze 1972, 62; Puturidze et al. 1972, 116; Arakelian 1976, 80, pl. 16; Apakidze 1991, pl. 186.1.

160. Button

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 1185.

Found on the courtyard, in the southern part, in the wall debris.

Size 0.7×0.5×0.1 cm; Diam. of the haft 0.2 cm.

Lamellar, bent, with a relief spiral at the end, two small hafts from inside.

Analogies: Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 271; Arakelian 1976, 80, pl. 16; Chkonia 1981, 86, figs. 208, 209; Inaishvili 1993, 25 f., pl. 4.1.

161. Bracelet

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 973.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box (cf. cat. no. 145).

Diam. of the bracelet 7–5 cm; W. 1.1 cm; Th. 0.5 cm; Diam. of the bezel 1.2 cm; H. 0.5 cm.

Formed of two semicircles, connected to each other by a hinged almandine bezel. Each semicircle made from three tubes brazed lengthwise, the ends of which tied with brazed cuffs (fixed by a nail, too). In the groove between the tubes a ribbed wire inserted. Two short tubular hafts brazed on two sides of the low cylindrical bezel, on one cuff of each semicircular part there are three similar hafts, between which the hafts of the bezel are set and fixed with gold nail-like stems. The clasp of the bracelet has an analogous construction, but there is one haft on one cuff and two on the other. The fastened bracelet nearly circular.

Analogies: Pugachenkova 1978, 100, 102, pl. 79.

162. Bracelet

Gold. GNM 27- 977: 974.

Found in Room 1, at the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box (cf. cat. no. 145).

Forms a pair with no. 161. One semicircle, broken in two, and a bezel with stone preserved. Fragmentary.

163. Bracelet

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 980.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Diam. 6.6–6 cm; Diam. of the section 0.5–1 cm.

Stem, rounded outside and flat inside, thickened in the middle part. Rounded to a circle. One end lost.

164. Bracelet

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 981.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Diam. 5.8–5.1 cm; Diam. of the wire 0.3–0.2 cm.

Wire, round in section and thinned at the ends, rounded to a circle, the ends overlapping and twisted, so that the bracelet can be both widened and lessened while putting it on and taking it off.

Analogies: Apakidze et al. 1955, 114, pl. 87.3,3a; Japaridze 1956, 197, pl. 4; Lomtadze 1957, pl. 19.1; Bokhochadze 1981, 34, pl. 32.2; Mirianashvili 1983, 24, 42; Manjgaladze 1985, 108, figs. 236, 577; Sikharulidze/ Abutidze 1985, 109, 131, fig. 654.

165. Fragment of a bracelet

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 982.

Found in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Section of the stem 0.2 cm.

Forms a pair with no. 164.

166. Ring

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 1149.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

H. 2.4 cm; L. 2.9 cm; W. 3.0 cm; W. of the hoop 1.0-0.5 cm; size of the intaglio 2.5×1.8 cm.

Hollow hoop, flat inside, rounded outside, expanding upward, with perpendicular shoulders. Elliptical bezel with a large garnet intaglio (Arsinoe's portrait; see cat. of gems no. 1).

Analogies: Marshall 1907, nos. 365-367, 381.

167. Ring

Gold. GNM FA A 139: 2624.

Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.

Size 2.2×2.0 cm; H. of bezel 0.2-0.3 cm.

Rounded hoop. Quadrangular raised bezel.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, nos. 119, 123; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 409.

168. Fragment of a ring

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1157.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size of the bezel 2.0×1.4 cm; Th. 0.5 cm.

Remains of a hoop flat inside, rounded outside. Flat oval bezel. Incised representation, impossible to identify.

Analogies: Gagoshidze 1982, 28.

169. Ring

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 6088.

Found in Room 10, in the wall debris near the floor.

Size 2.3×2.5×1.2 cm; size of the bezel 1.4×1.0×0.4 cm.

Rounded hoop, slightly expanding upward. Plain oval bezel with thickened edge.

Analogies: Marshall 1907, nos. 396-398; Henkel 1913, no. 42; Javakhishvili 1972, 81, fig. 13; Arakelian 1957, pl. 32; Ivashchenko 1980, figs. 326-372; Nikolaishvili 1993, pl. 109.

170. Fragment of a ring

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 1152.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size of the bezel 1.3×0.9 cm; section of the hoop 0.25×0.15 cm.

Remains of a rounded hoop. Plain oval bezel with thickened edge, brazed to it.

Analogies: Javakhishvili 1972, 81, fig. 13. The type of rings, see Henkel 1913, no. 1119.

171. Fragments of rings (?)

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 1153.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size of the bezel 1.5×1.1 cm; Th. 0.1 cm; Diam. of the wire 0.2 cm.

Analogies: See cat. no. 169.

172. Ring

Silver. GNM 27- 977: 1154.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size 1.8×1.9×0.7 cm; size of the bezel 0.9×0.6×0.3 cm.

Hoop flat inside, rounded outside. Plain oval bezel with thickened edge.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, nos. 128, 1109; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 431.

173. Fragment of ring

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 1158.

Found in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.

Size of bezel H. 0.4 cm; W. 1.3 cm; L. 0.7 cm; Diam. of stem 0.1 cm.

Remains of a hoop flat inside, rounded outside. Plain oval bezel with thickened edge, white paste inset.

Analogies: See cat. no. 172.

174. Fragment of a ring

Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6091.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.

Size 2.0×1.3×0.3 cm; Th. of the hoop 0.15 cm.

Remains of a plain hoop, expanding upward. Plain nearly circular bezel with thickened edge.

Analogies: See cat. no. 169; Marshall 1907, no. 422; Henkel 1913, nos. 1454, 1456.

175. Fragment of a ring

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6092.

Found in Room 11, in the wall debris.

Size 1.6×1.0×0.2 cm; Th. of the hoop 0.1 cm.

Remains of a thin hoop, flat inside, rounded outside, expanding at the shoulders. Plain oval bezel.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, no. 1141.

176. Fragment of a ring

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6093.

Found in Room 13, in the south-western corner, on the floor.

Size 1.2×0.9×0.15 cm.

Remains of a flat hoop. Plain nearly circular bezel with thickened edge.

Analogies: See cat. no. 174.

177. Fragment of a ring

Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6094.

- Found in Room 12, at the western wall near the door, on the floor.
Size 1.3×1.0×0.7 cm.
Remains of a flat hoop and an oval bezel.
Analogies: See cat. no. 174.
178. Fragment of a ring
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6096.
Found in Room 12, in the wall debris.
Size 1.5×1.3×0.2 cm.
Remains of a round hoop. Plain oval bezel with thickened edge. Molten blue glass inset.
Analogies: See cat. no. 174.
179. Fragment of a ring
Iron. GNM 27- 977: 6095.
Found in Room 12, in the wall debris.
Size 2.2×1.4×0.4 cm.
Burnt. Remains of a flat hoop. Plain oval bezel with thickened edge.
Analogies: See cat. no. 174.
180. Plaques, 2 pieces
Gold. GNM FA A 131: 2616.
Found in the south-western part of the hill in 1926.
Size (a) 3.3×2.4×0.1 cm; (b) 3.2×2.6×0.1 cm.
Gold plaques, rectangular, plain, with a hole in the middle of one narrow edge.
Analogies: Pichikian 1991, 108, fig. 12.
181. Spiral
Bronze. GNM 27- 977: 6949.
Found in Room 13, in the south-western corner, on the floor.
Diam. 2.2 cm; Th. at the head 0.2 cm; Th. of the bow 0.15 cm; max. W. 0.8 cm.
- A flat stem thinning at the end with a stylized representation of an animal with a mane, lengthwise lines with cross ribs.
182. Pendants, 2 pieces
Silver. GNM 27- 977: 6990.
Found Room 11, on the floor.
Size L. 4.7–4 cm; section 0.3–0.15 cm.
Partly burnt and damaged. Stem, round in section and thickened in the center, with a hole at the top and a bulge at the end. In the hole of one sample, a ring is preserved.
183. Uncertain object, fragments
Silver. GNM 27- 977: 6089.
Found in Room 11, on the floor.
Diam. of the stem 0.3 cm.
Stem with hooked head, through which a twisted wire is pierced.
184. Plaque
Gold. GNM 27- 977: 6051.
Found in Room 9.
Diam. 0.9 cm; Diam. of the hole 0.6 cm; Th. of the plate 0.1 cm.
Round plate, middle-hole with raised edges. Object of uncertain function.
185. Bead
Gold. GNM 27- 977: 972.
Found in Room 1, in the eastern part, among the fragments of a bone box (cf. cat. no. 145).
Diam. 0.4 cm.
Barrel-shaped, inside hollow.
Analogies: Common in Achaemenian and Hellenistic sites in Georgia.

5. Selected Archaeological Material of the Roman Period from Whole Iberia Including the Finds of Dedoplis Gora

5.1. Engraved Gems and Impressions of Seals on Clay Bullae

by Ketevan Javakhishvili

The gems and more than fifty clay bullae excavated in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora are invaluable for the study of the nature and use of gems in Kartli in the 1st century A.D.

The great majority of seals found in Kartli, which are from the beginning of the 1st century B.C., had been cut by local artisans. These are bezel rings made of metal, which had been common from the 4th century B.C. on.¹¹⁶¹ Their shapes and representations were simplified at the Turn of the Era,¹¹⁶² noticeable also on some small stone¹¹⁶³ and glass¹¹⁶⁴ scaraboids with schematic representations. Stamp seals appear in the 3rd century B.C. and are still in use at the beginning of the 1st century A.D. They are made of thick, quadrangular and triangular bronze plates which have no analogies in shape and style of representation among their contemporary foreign material.¹¹⁶⁵ Representations on these seals (usually various animals, a human figure, a horseman) are distinguished by their common style and manner of execution: engraving is rather deep. Somewhat stylized figures, summarily engraved, cover the entire surface of the seal. An equiangular bone

seal is also related to this group of seals.¹¹⁶⁶ The appearance of such seemingly archaic seals with a crude shape and representation is quite unexpected and is difficult to explain, as in Kartli by this time (4th–3rd century B.C.) bezel ring-seals of metal were already widespread, and were much lighter, more attractive, and more convenient to wear.¹¹⁶⁷

The so-called “blue glass polyhedron seals” actually could not have been seals, because they were mass-produced (more than eighty well-known polyhedrons were cast in only nineteen different molds), so that they were presumably used as ornaments or amulets.¹¹⁶⁸

From the beginning of the second half of the 1st century B.C., Hellenistic and Roman gems appeared in Kartli, and first co-existed with those of local production, which were then displaced by Roman gems of the second half of the 1st century A.D.

1161 Lordkipanidze 1969, 38–42, pls. 4–5; Lordkipanidze 1981, pls. 2–3, nos. 1–14.

1162 Lordkipanidze 1969, 102 f., nos. 70–72, fig. 49a; Gagoshidze 1982, 87, pls. 2, 3.10.

1163 Lordkipanidze 1969, 119, nos. 104–107, figs. 50.1, 51.1; Gagoshidze 1982, 87, pls. 2, 3.12.

1164 Japaridze 1956, 199.

1165 Gagloev 1979a, 77–79, pl. 49. 4.

1166 Javakhishvili 1997, 220–231, pl. 1–2, nos. 1–11.

1167 Javakhishvili 1997, 229.

1168 Gagoshidze 1975b, 90–96; Javakhishvili 1975a, 25.

Hellenistic and Roman Gems and Impressions of Gems

One Hellenistic (cat. no. 1) and three Roman (cat. nos. 55, 73, 83) intaglios were excavated in the Palace at Dedoplis Gora. The first occurrence of such gems in Kartli in the second half of the 1st century A.D. results of the relations to Rome,¹¹⁶⁹ which were quite definitely initiated by Pompey's campaign.

No Hellenistic gems were found in Hellenistic archaeological sites; there are only few in Roman archaeological complexes. In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora (1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.) were found one gem (cat. of gems no. 1) and two impressions of gems in bullae (cat. of bullae nos. 19–20). Another one (cat. of gems no. 2) was found in a 2nd–3rd century A.D. burial in the Zghuderi cemetery.¹¹⁷⁰ Both sites were nobles' residences in Shida Kartli (Kareli region). These objects are remarkable works of Hellenistic glyptic art. In addition to the fact that they are works of high art, it seems probable that all of them show portraits of royalty, three of them (cat. of gems nos. 1–2, cat. of bullae no. 19) of the Ptolemies Arsinoe II, Arsinoe III (?), and Ptolemy V (?), and one (cat. of bullae no. 20) of a Parthian Arsacid (Mithridates I?).

Portrait of Arsinoe II (cat. of gems no. 1)

The intaglio depicts the bust of a young woman in right profile. Her somewhat idealized face of a proud, vigorous woman – judging by her diadem undoubtedly a royal – is a work of high art. According to the stylistic features, the gem must be the work of Hellenistic glyptics. Comparison with the portraits on coins of the Hellenistic period¹¹⁷¹ makes clear that a Ptolemaic queen must be depicted. Like the woman on this gem, three queens represented on coins wear veils on their heads: Arsinoe II,¹¹⁷² Berenike I¹¹⁷³ and Arsinoe III.¹¹⁷⁴

Arsinoe III can be excluded from the outset, because she has a very distinctive depression between her forehead and her aquiline nose.¹¹⁷⁵ Although the portraits of Arsinoe II and Berenike II resemble each other at first sight, they actually differ in several details, as well as in the features portrayed. Both queens wear the same hair-style, the so-called *Melonenfrisur*, Arsinoe II wears a high diadem (*stephane*) decorated with zigzags; Berenike II wears a lower or a plainer diadem which holds her hair.¹¹⁷⁶ Arsinoe II's veil covers the back of her head, so that a part of the head is visible between the diadem and the veil; on portraits of Berenike II, the veil has been set directly at the diadem; there is an obvious difference between the slender, beautiful, but severe face of Arsinoe and the rounded, more romantic features of Berenike II. All the features of portraits of Arsinoe II depicted on coins can also be seen on the intaglio from Dedoplis Gora. If we take the fact into account that, according to H. Kyrieleis, some of the physiognomic characteristics of the portrait from Dedoplis Gora (a slightly receding lower lip, the profile between the nose and the mouth, etc.) are characteristic features of Arsinoe II,¹¹⁷⁷ we must assume that this Egyptian queen is represented on the garnet gem from Dedoplis Gora.

Berenike I and Arsinoe II were the first queens to be honored with coin portraits.¹¹⁷⁸ As for the glyptic portraits of women, some scholars merely assume that they are portraits of Arsinoe II. All of them differ from this queen's coin portraits. A carnelian gem in the British Museum is supposed to be a portrait of Arsinoe II by the majority of the colleagues.¹¹⁷⁹ Stylistically, this gem closely resembles that of Dedoplis Gora. But only the garnet intaglio from Dedoplis Gora is really comparable to Arsinoe II's coin portraits.¹¹⁸⁰ We may, therefore, assume that this is the only un-

¹¹⁶⁹ Maksimova 1950, 225.

¹¹⁷⁰ Nemsadze 1969, 53; Javakhishvili/Nemsadze 1982, 129–134, pl. 8.1, 2.

¹¹⁷¹ Morkholm 1991, 294–296, 299, 307 f.

¹¹⁷² Visconti 1809, pl. 54.2; Babelon 1950, pl. 10.1, 5; Morkholm 1991, pl. 18.294–296, 299, pl. 19.308; Kyrieleis 1975, pl. 70.1, 2.

¹¹⁷³ Visconti 1809, pl. 54.5; Babelon 1950, pl. 10.4; Morkholm 1991, pl. 19.3, pl. 20.313; Kyrieleis 1975, pl. 82, 1–4.

¹¹⁷⁴ Kyrieleis 1975, pl. 88.3: Kyrieleis (p. 78) recommends that, in order to define the characteristic features of portraits of Arsinoe II, one should compare the portraits of Arsinoe II, Berenike II, and Arsinoe III.

¹¹⁷⁵ Kyrieleis 1975, 104.

¹¹⁷⁶ Kyrieleis 1975, 95.

¹¹⁷⁷ Kyrieleis 1975, 79.

¹¹⁷⁸ Ranovich 1950, 177 f.; Neverov, 1974, 109; Boardman/Vollenweider 1978, 79, no. 283.

¹¹⁷⁹ Marshall 1907, no. 367; Walters 1926, no. 1185; Richter 1968, no. 633.

¹¹⁸⁰ Except for the ram's horn on the ear, which is shown on every coin portrait of Arsinoe II.

doubted portrait of Arsinoe II currently known in Hellenistic glyptics. The resemblance between the queen on the gem and Arsinoe II's coin portraits is so close that they may have been inspired by the same model, or the engraver might simply have used a coin portrait of Arsinoe II as a model. This leads us to assume that the intaglio from Dedoplis Gora, as well as the coins with portraits of Arsinoe II, had been cut, resp. struck after 270 B.C.

Portrait of Ptolemy V Epiphanes (cat. of gems no. 2)

On this intaglio, there is the bust of a young man in right profile. The style of the portrait on this gem itself, the youth's hair-style, the diadem, and the general character of the portrait point to a Hellenistic date, and suggest that a Hellenistic king is represented. The prime inspiration for this portrait were indisputably the portraits of Alexander the Great, particularly the type represented on the coins of the Thracian king Lysimachos (306–281 B.C.).¹¹⁸¹ Alexander and his portraits were so popular that they served as models for those of other Hellenistic kings. This influenced the iconography of Alexander's successors so strongly, that it is nearly impossible to identify their portraits.¹¹⁸² For a long time, all of the portraits of Hellenistic kings were held to be portraits of Alexander. However, attempts have been made to analyze the iconography of Hellenistic kings.¹¹⁸³ We can compare the portrait on the Zghuderi gem with portrayals of Ptolemy V Epiphanes, king of Egypt (205/4–181 B.C.) on the coins on which the king is shown wearing a plain diadem¹¹⁸⁴ and also with his portraits on gems.¹¹⁸⁵ On coins and objects of glyptic art, Ptolemy V is represented as a very young man with a somewhat gentle and romantic expression. An excellent carnelian intaglio in the Hermitage, described as a portrait gem of Ptolemy V, deserves special attention in this regard: The youth depicted on it has the same kind of receding forehead, a slightly protruding brow, a long straight nose; the shape of the open lips and chin, and the agitated expression are also the same as

those depicted on the gem from Zghuderi. We, therefore, conclude that the person depicted on the gem from Zghuderi must be Ptolemy V Epiphanes, king of Egypt.

Portrait of Arsinoe III (cat. of bullae no. 19)

This bulla shows the impression of an intaglio of superb workmanship, the bust of a middle-aged woman in profile. Its shape and size, the general effect of the impression and the woman's hair-style lead us to assume that the original seal must have been the work of Hellenistic glyptic art and the portrait of a definite person. The woman's coiffure resembles closely that on the portrait of Arsinoe III, queen of Egypt, on coins and gems.¹¹⁸⁶ Coins with her portraits appeared around 204–203 B.C.¹¹⁸⁷ Of special interest for us are octodrachms from Alexandria, on which the queen is depicted unveiled.¹¹⁸⁸ Some of the details of Arsinoe III's portraits on these coins can also be observed on those from Dedoplis Gora: a very typical hair-style, a high forehead, and a projecting, rounded chin; unfortunately, on the impression the shape of the nose – a very important detail – is not discernible. This feature could confirm our identification of the person, because it is well-known that Arsinoe III, in her portraits, had a very typical aquiline nose. We must also take the fact into consideration that the woman on the Dedoplis Gora impression does not wear a diadem. It is, therefore, not certain that the woman portrayed is really Arsinoe III. In glyptic art, however, – for example, on two bezel-rings from Panticapaeion – women depicted without diadems are supposed to be Arsinoe III, identified on the basis of the coiffure characteristic for this queen.¹¹⁸⁹ As for representations on gems, that from Dedoplis Gora can be compared to three intaglios with portraits of Arsinoe III: one has been cut on a ruby in the Vienna Historical Museum,¹¹⁹⁰ two on garnet, one of which is in the Hermitage at Petersburg,¹¹⁹¹ the other in the Brit-

1181 Babelon 1950, 66 f., pl. 3.8.

1182 Neverov 1972, 86.

1183 Neverov 1968, 235–238; Neverov 1969, 172–175; Kyrieleis 1975; Morkholm 1991.

1184 Visconti 1809, pl. 54.8.

1185 Neverov 1976a, no. 61; Richter 1968, no. 624.

1186 Visconti 1811, pl. 54.7; Babelon 1950, pl. 10.2; Morkholm 1991, pl. 20.322; Kyrieleis 1975, pl. 88.1, 2.

1187 Morkholm 1991, 110.

1188 Babelon 1950, pl. 10.2; Morkholm 1991, pl. 21.322; Kyrieleis 1975, 102 f., pl. 88.3.

1189 Neverov 1974, 111, figs. 17a–b, 18a–b.

1190 Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 32.

1191 Neverov 1976a, no. 60.

ish Museum.¹¹⁹² With regard to her age, the queen depicted on the last mentioned gem seems to resemble the woman on the Dedoplis Gora portrait more closely. Besides the artistic quality of the representation, the size of the Dedoplis Gora impression also has to be taken into consideration. Compared to other (about 15) gems with portraits of Arsinoe III, it is the second largest.¹¹⁹³ If we assume that the original seal of the impression from Dedoplis Gora had been cut on some semi-precious, semi-transparent mineral – garnet, amethyst, topaz, beryl, or the like – which were especially popular in Hellenistic times and, in particular, at the court of the Lagidae, the intaglio must have been exquisite and very impressive. It seems unlikely that an ordinary mortal was depicted on it, and not a member of the royal family. And according to the coiffure, this must have been Arsinoe III. We, therefore, assume that Arsinoe III is depicted on the impression from Dedoplis Gora.

Portrait of Mithridates (cat. of bullae no. 20)

This gem-impression represents the bust of a bearded man in right profile. With its conspicuous features – a particularly large head and an aquiline nose – it is undoubtedly a portrait of a definite person, too, and the diadem points to royal standing. The style of the intaglio is Greek-Hellenistic, but the portrait type (large round head, aquiline nose and beard) absolutely differs from the portraits of Hellenistic kings, which are characterized not only by their elegance, but also by iconographic imitation of their predecessor with the typical hair-style. They are not characterized by a long beard, while every Parthian king, except for Arsaces (247–211 B.C.), is bearded.¹¹⁹⁴ The resemblance of the Dedoplis Gora portrait to the large, bearded heads of the first Arsacid kings, presumably to the portrait of the Parthian king Mithridates I, is obvious at first glance.¹¹⁹⁵

The first Parthian kings which supported Greek culture called themselves “philhellenoi” and even minted coins according to Greek mod-

els until the 1st century A.D.¹¹⁹⁶ The early coins of Mithridates I, minted at the Hekatomphilos mint, still show the characteristics of Parthian coins. On the coins minted in Bactria, Ekbatana and Seleucia-on-Tigris since 150 B.C., an ordinary Hellenistic king is depicted.¹¹⁹⁷ It is remarkable that Mithridates I calls himself a “philhellenos” for the first time in the inscription on the tetradrachms minted in Seleucia. Precisely the coins minted in Seleucia (141, with short interruptions, to 138 B.C.) show a more strongly hellenized portrait, and, in our opinion, the portrait on the bulla from Dedoplis Gora has close resemblance to this portrait in the shape of the head, the beard, the nose and the diadem. Noteworthy is the fact that, on the early coins, Mithridates, like all the Parthian kings, is shown in left profile, but on the coins minted in Ekbatana and Seleucia since 150 B.C., in right profile,¹¹⁹⁸ as the absolute majority of coin portraits of Hellenistic kings. Presumably, this further supports the assumption that the man depicted on the Dedoplis Gora bulla in right profile is Mithridates I. It seems possible that the gem impressed on the Dedoplis Gora bulla had been cut in Seleucia by a Greek engraver between 141 and 138 B.C.

It is remarkable that, although there are no portraits of the Parthian kings on gems, there are two carnelian gems in the Vienna Historical Museum with a portrait of Mithridates I, which are held to be works of Greek glyptic art.¹¹⁹⁹ The impression of the portrait seal from Dedoplis Gora is by no means of lesser artistic quality than the Vienna gems; it is, moreover, twice as large as they are, and will, therefore, have been even more impressive.

It seems unlikely that gems of this quality were objects of trade; it is more probable that they had been brought to Kartli as diplomatic presents. It is remarkable that, in neighboring Armenia, monuments of Hellenistic art, including glyptics,

1192 Marshall 1907, pl. 12, no. 383; Walters 1926, pl. 17.1186.

1193 Richter 1968, no. 635.

1194 Koshelenko 1971, 82.

1195 Babelon 1950, pl. 14.1, 3–6, 8; Ghirshman 1962, 114 f., figs. 135–137.

1196 Porada 1963, 183; Lukonin 1977, 104; Koshelenko 1972, 85.

1197 Koshelenko 1972, 98.

1198 Koshelenko 1972, 82–85, 87.

1199 Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, 42 f., nos. 33–34. There is a further gem (jacinth) with an excellent portrait of a Persian king, who, according to Furtwaengler, is Mithridates I (Furtwaengler 1900, II, 245 f., pls. 55.50, 61.57). This portrait differs from those on Mithridates' coins and on the gem in the Vienna museum, and, above all, from that on the Dedoplis Gora bulla.

have been excavated in archaeological complexes of the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D. J. Khachatrian brings their presence into relation with the activities of the Roman triumvir Marc Antony in Armenia.¹²⁰⁰

During his war against the Parthians, Marc Antony sent his commander-in-chief, Publius Canidius Crassus, to Iberia. Crassus defeated the Iberian king Pharnabazos II in the winter of 36 B.C., persuaded him to become his ally, and invaded Albania with him.¹²⁰¹ It is not to be ruled out that this alliance with Iberia, on which Marc Antony prided himself, required gifts as well. It is quite possible that this was the source of the Hellenistic gems with portraits of members of the Ptolemaic royal family in Kartli. Marc Antony had close relations to the Ptolemies, and making presents of rings with portraits of kings and queens to retainers, ambassadors, and political and military officials was an accepted practice at the Ptolemaic court.¹²⁰² Treister is of the opinion that such gems served as political propaganda for the Lagidae.¹²⁰³ We recall that, in Rome during the Civil War, gems were also used for purposes of political propaganda.¹²⁰⁴ Obviously, this method of political propaganda was employed in the East by Marc Antony as well.¹²⁰⁵

Other gems excavated in Iberia can also be brought into connection with Marc Antony's activities in Transcaucasia – for example, a glass intaglio from the Rikianebis Veli cemetery near Aghaiani, with an exquisite representation of a staggering Dionysos (cat. of gems no. 45). In 186 B.C., the Roman Senate prohibited the cult of Dionysos on Roman and allied territory, and, as Boardman notes, it was only due to the fact that Marc Antony styled himself as “the New Dionysos”, that representations of that god could be reproduced in early Roman art.¹²⁰⁶ It is, therefore, not to be ruled out that the gem depicting Dionysos excavated in Kartli is to be brought into connection with Marc Antony.

We turn our attention to a golden ring, found in a rich, 2nd–3rd century A.D. burial of a member

of the Kartlian royal house in Mtskheta (cat. of gems no. 9). It is decorated with a beautiful amethyst cameo¹²⁰⁷ showing a child's or an Eros' head, with a very characteristic plait drawn from the forehead to the back of the head. This cameo in bas-relief, finely rendered, must be dated to the 1st century B.C. Among the numerous, widespread representations of this kind,¹²⁰⁸ special attention is due to two cameos: one, excavated in Cairo, now in the British Museum¹²⁰⁹ and the other in Paris, in the Cabinet des Médailles. The latter is set in a golden medallion, on the mounting of which two letters – “M” and “A” – can be seen. According to Boardman and Vollenweider, the cameo's find-locality, Cairo, could point to the Ptolemaic court, and the letters on the Parisian cameo could be Marc Antony's initials. They, therefore, assume that the children depicted on these cameos could be those of Marc Antony and Cleopatra.¹²¹⁰

A beautiful carnelian intaglio with a representation of Serapis and Isis (cat. of gems no. 16), excavated at the Rikianebis Veli cemetery, could also be connected with Roman Egypt. A detail of this intaglio, the fact that Serapis' normally curly beard is relatively long, parted in the middle, and spirally coiled like the stylized beard of Egyptian pharaohs leads us to assume that this gem might also be of Egyptian provenance, and might, therefore, also stand in relation to Marc Antony.

Despite the comparatively small number of objects, the glyptic material excavated in Kartli reflects the principal tendencies of Roman glyptic at the Turn of the Era. The abundance of glass gems is characteristic for this epoch: small, mass-produced casts with various depictions (cat. of gems nos. 19–20, 27, 31–32, *et passim*) and portraits of historical personages (cat. of gems nos. 3–4) on the one hand and large intaglios with artistic representations (cat. of gems nos. 26, 45) on the other hand. There is a comparatively small number of particularly outstanding, flawlessly engraved stone gems with representations characteristic for this epoch (cat. of gems nos. 16, 21–22, 29, 42, *et passim*).

1200 Khachatrian 1996, 120 f.

1201 Melikishvili 1959, 336; Lomouri 1981, 131.

1202 Treister 1985, 130 f.

1203 Treister 1985, 130.

1204 Neverov 1971b, 60; Neverov 1977, 145.

1205 Neverov 1977, 145; Khachatrian 1996, 120.

1206 Boardman 1968, 27, 30 f., 95.

1207 Apakidze/Nikolaishvili 1994, 36.

1208 Walters 1926, no. 3480; Boardman 1978, pl. 59.358; Neverov 1988, nos. 18–25 – all of them carnelian.

1209 Walters 1926, no. 3480.

1210 Boardman 1978, 104 f. no. 358; Neverov 1988, 19, 43.

A small but interesting group of gems found in Kartli are the portrait gems dating to the period of the Roman Civil War, which is considered to be one of the outstanding phases of Roman portraiture. Such small gems with realistic portraits, often of historical personages and mostly made of glass paste, were widespread in Rome in the 1st century B.C., during the Civil War. Besides sculptural and painted portraits, such on coins and gems were used as a medium of political propaganda by representatives of the various factions. This is demonstrated by numerous intaglios – replicas of portrait gems, hundreds and probably thousands of which are preserved in the world's museums.¹²¹¹ Among the glyptic material from Kartli, there are several examples with portraits of historical personages, participants in the Roman Civil War: Julia, Caesar's daughter and Gnaeus Pompey's wife (cat. of gems no. 3), the young Octavian (cat. of gems no. 6), Sextus Pompey (cat. of gems no. 5), Gnaeus Pompey junior (cat. of gems no. 4) and other exquisite portraits as well (cat. of gems no. 7).

Portrait of Julia (cat. of gems no. 3)

On this gem, a bust of a young woman in right profile is depicted. Her hair-style resembles that depicted on a glass cameo preserved in Fol's collection in the Historical Museum of Geneva¹²¹² and on a glass intaglio in the Berlin Museum.¹²¹³ The same kind of hair-style is worn by a Nike on a Roman denarius of the 1st century B.C.¹²¹⁴ and the women from the Oslo Museum.¹²¹⁵ M. L. Vollenweider supposes that the woman on the cameo from Fol's collection must be a member of Roman high society contemporary with Cicero, Pompey, and Caesar – presumably either Julia, Caesar's mother, or Julia, Caesar's daughter of the Aurelian dynasty, whose portraits undoubtedly existed, as they played an important role as a protagonist in the Roman Civil War.¹²¹⁶ We assume that Julia, Caesar's daughter and Pompey's wife, is depicted on the intaglio from

Rikianebis Veli, and that the intaglio must consequently be dated to 60–50 B.C.¹²¹⁷

Portrait of Gnaeus Pompey Junior (cat. of gems no. 4)

The bust of a young man in left profile, represented on this gem, has such characteristic, individual features, that he must indisputably be a prominent individual. The same person is probably depicted on a cameo from Fol's collection,¹²¹⁸ as well as on the carnelian intaglio in the Copenhagen Museum.¹²¹⁹ Besides the characteristic features – the hair-style was worn by members of Pompey's family –, the distribution of these portraits leads M. L. Vollenweider to suppose that they had belonged to combatants in the Roman Civil War – in particular, to Gnaeus Pompey the Great's elder son, Gnaeus Pompey Junior. Vollenweider, however, concedes that her hypothesis is not conclusively proven, but is nonetheless quite plausible.

The gem was found in a burial of the 3rd century A.D., without a setting, in a small wooden box, together with other ornaments.¹²²⁰

In 42–40 B.C., Sextus Pompey issued coins on the obverse of which he himself is depicted, on the reverse, the profiles of his father Pompey the Great as young man and of his elder brother, Gnaeus Junior, while both of them were already killed in the battles of the Civil War.¹²²¹ On the basis of a comparison with these portraits, Vollenweider is of the opinion that Gnaeus Pompey Junior is depicted on the above-mentioned gems, and dates these portraits to 42–40 B.C.¹²²² We assume that the same person is portrayed on two intaglios preserved in the Cabinet des Médailles in Paris,¹²²³ and on the carnelian signed by the

¹²¹¹ Neverov 1977, 144 f.

¹²¹² Vollenweider 1961, 45, no. 3, pl. 5.1.

¹²¹³ Vollenweider 1961, 51, pl. 3b; Furtwaengler 1896, no. 5188; Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 47.45.

¹²¹⁴ Vollenweider 1961, 45, pl. 3a on 51; Grueber 1910, II, 388 f., pls. 1–4.

¹²¹⁵ Vollenweider 1961, 45.

¹²¹⁶ Vollenweider 1961, 45.

¹²¹⁷ The burial in which the intaglio was found can be dated to the second half of the 1st century B.C., according to the coins of Tigranes II (83–69 B.C.) and Orodes (57–37 B.C.) and other grave-gifts (Mirianashvili 1983, 37 f.).

¹²¹⁸ Vollenweider 1960, 142, no. 18, pl. 5.18.

¹²¹⁹ Vollenweider 1960, 142, pl. 5.18b; Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2340.

¹²²⁰ Javakhishvili 1972, 23 f., no. 4.71, no. 106, fig. 7–8.

¹²²¹ Grueber 1910, 561; pl. 120. 9, 110; Kent et al. 1973, pl. 26.103, pl. 2.103; Sear 1928, 81, no. 340.

¹²²² Vollenweider 1960, 142, no. 18, figs. 18, 18a.

¹²²³ Richter 1971, 79, no. 458 f.

engraver Agathangelos in the Berlin Museum.¹²²⁴ The same characteristic profile with a low forehead, a pronounced aquiline nose, receding mouth and chin is shown on these gems, as well as on those described by Vollenweider. In our opinion, these portraits resemble more closely those of Gnaeus Pompey the Younger than those of Sextus Pompey.¹²²⁵ Vollenweider's opinion seems to me to be quite plausible. Because the person shown on the Urbnisi gem resembles the one depicted on the above-mentioned gems,¹²²⁶ we conclude that this is probably another portrait of Gnaeus Pompey Junior, and that it is, therefore, to be dated to 42–36 B.C.

Portrait of Sextus Pompey (cat. of gems no. 5)

This gem is considered to be a masterpiece of Late Hellenistic Greek glyptics by S. Barnaveli, who dates it to the 1st century B.C.¹²²⁷ It seems obvious that a portrait of a specific person is depicted on the gem. In our opinion, the same person is portrayed on an exquisite amethyst intaglio in the Hermitage,¹²²⁸ on the aquamarine gem with the gem-cutter's signature Agathopus in the Archaeological Museum in Florence,¹²²⁹ and on a glass intaglio in the British Museum.¹²³⁰

Some authors identify various protagonists in the Roman Civil War with the person shown here. O. Neverov assumes them to be portraits of Sextus Pompey.¹²³¹ On the basis of our own comparison of these portraits with the coin portraits of Sextus Pompey,¹²³² we find O. Neverov's interpretation convincing. We, therefore, assume that Sextus Pompey is depicted on the gem from Svaneti.¹²³³ As shown on the Svaneti gem, Sextus

Pompey appears to be younger than in the portraits on the three above-mentioned gems. Glyptic works of art have preserved excellent portraits of Sextus Pompey, one of the major combatants in the Roman Civil War and the last proponent of the Senate's party. The Svaneti gem takes a prominent place among them.

Portrait of Octavian (cat. of gems no. 6)

On this gem, a young man's head is depicted in right profile. It seems to be a portrait that can be compared with that on the coins of Octavian of the year 42 B.C.,¹²³⁴ as well as on numerous gems, among them, glass intaglios in various museums in the world. There are alone twenty intaglios with portraits of this person in the Berlin Museum,¹²³⁵ four in the Geneva Museum of Art and History,¹²³⁶ four in the Hermitage¹²³⁷ and so on. The authors agree that they are portraits of Octavian. These gems are dated to about 44–42 B.C.¹²³⁸ We can add the portrait intaglio from Rikianebis Veli to this group, and date it, too, to 44–42 B.C.

A. Furtwaengler noted that, in the Augustan Age and during the Early Empire, gem-engravers often depicted motifs of Classical Greek paintings and the compositions of monumental sculpture created by famous artists.¹²³⁹ There are excellent depictions of well-known masterpieces by famous Greek artists also among the glyptic material from Kartli.

Portrait of Alexander the Great or Mithridates Eupator (cat. of gems no. 8)

This garnet with a high-relief bust of a young man from Mtskheta, which must have been inspired by the head of Alexander the Great by Lysippos, is also very impressive. The cameo is undoubtedly a portrait with somewhat idealized features. In certain details and by its general nature, this representation reminds us of those of Alexander the Great, but less of the portraits on

1224 Richter 1971, 135, no. 634; Vollenweider 1966, 39, 102, pl. 29.1. Vollenweider identifies them as portraits of Sextus Pompey.

1225 Kent et al. 1973, pl. 26.103; pl. 2.103.

1226 Vollenweider 1960, no. 18 and Richter 1971, no. 458 f.

1227 Barnaveli 1971, 20–23.

1228 Neverov 1977, 148, no. 26.

1229 Vollenweider 1966, 122, pl. 90.1, 2.

1230 Walters 1926, 307, no. 3225.

1231 Neverov 1977, 148.

1232 Grueber 1910, pl. 120.5–8.

1233 It is remarkable that S. Barnaveli, who does not identify the person on the gem from Svaneti, compares this man's coiffure and features with those of the marble statue of Gnaeus Pompey the Great preserved in the Uffizi Museum (Barnaveli 1971, 20).

1234 Vollenweider 1960, 142, pl. 6, 196.

1235 Furtwaengler 1896, pl. 36.5097–5116.

1236 Vollenweider 1960, 142 f., pl. 5.19–22.

1237 Neverov 1977, 147 f., figs. 9–10.

1238 Vollenweider 1960, 142 f., nos. 19–22.

1239 Furtwaengler 1900, III, 331–333.

gems and coins than in sculpture, particularly the famous marble head of Alexander from Pergamon, which is held to be a late copy of a work by Lysippos,¹²⁴⁰ or is seen to be related to him.¹²⁴¹ The man's wavy hair, combed back from the forehead in the middle, the asymmetry of the face, the shape of the open lips, the head bent to the left (Alexander's physical defect) and the general physiognomical resemblance of the cameo from Mtskheta to the head from Pergamon, as is recognizable especially in profile (in spite of the fact that the nose of the Pergamenian head is broken), lead us to suppose that the cameo had been modeled on Lysippos' Alexander portrait.

It is well known that the characteristic features of Alexander's portraits were endlessly repeated in representations of Hellenistic kings, from the Diadochoi and Epigonoï on, including Mithridates Eupator, King of Pontus (120–63 B.C.). The latter, who considered himself to be Alexander's heir on his mother's side,¹²⁴² tried to imitate his famous ancestor in everything. In Mithridates' portraits on gems,¹²⁴³ numerous coins and sculptures¹²⁴⁴ the real or desired resemblance to Alexander's portraits is obvious. Mithridates Eupator's appreciation of art, especially of colorful stones and gems, is widely known.¹²⁴⁵ According to O. J. Neverov, prominent artisans worked at Mithridates' court;¹²⁴⁶ M. L. Vollenweider surmises that the famous gem-cutter Solon may have been occupied at Mithridates Eupator's court.¹²⁴⁷ Mithridates' dactyliotheque was supposed to be the best collection of gems.¹²⁴⁸ Many objects decorated with gems belonging to Mithridates had been captured by the Romans;¹²⁴⁹ among them were excellent gems with portraits of Mithridates.¹²⁵⁰ It is noteworthy that Mithri-

dates Eupator established friendly relations with Iberia from the very beginning, and even concluded a trade agreement with this country. During the Mithridatic Wars, Iberia was, for a time, one of Pontus' allies. For instance, in the battle against Lucullus near Tigranocerta in 69 B.C., Iberian archers fought on Mithridates' side.¹²⁵¹ Mithridates often made presents of rings with his portrait to people he trusted.¹²⁵² So Poseidonius relates that Mithridates gave to Ariston, who had been sent by the citizens of Athens on a mission of friendship, a ring with a gem showing his portrait.¹²⁵³ For this reason, we may assume that the Mtskhethian gem came to Kartli as a diplomatic gift in connection with the alliance between Mithridates and Iberia (it is less probable that an adornment of this quality could have been an object of trade), it was inherited from one generation to another, and later, set in a ring, it was laid in a burial of members of the Iberian royal family. But this is conjecture, and we cannot prove whether the Mtskhethian cameo represents Alexander or Mithridates. We can only hypothesize that it had been made under the influence of the Lysippan head from Pergamon. It is well known that artisans of the Augustan period very often quoted works of Classical art in their creative work.¹²⁵⁴ The shape of the ring is the type of the 2nd–3rd century A.D.¹²⁵⁵ The ring must have been made expressly for this cameo, probably somewhere in Iberia, where granulated adornments were in great favor during the Roman period.¹²⁵⁶

Representation of Athena (cat. of gems no. 10)

An exquisite garnet intaglio from Ertso may be the work of Hyllos, a prominent engraver of the Classicist school during the Augustan period. It shows a free interpretation of Pheidias' Athena Lemnia.

It is well-known that the gem-engravers of the Augustan period often drew upon works of monumental art of the Greek Classic. They not

1240 Waldhauer 1907, 219, fig. 7, pl. 5; Waldhauer 1923, 16, fig. 26.

1241 Blavatski 1939, 146, fig. 129.

1242 Neverov 1971a, 87.

1243 Furtwaengler 1900, pls. 32.29, 49.5; Walters 1926, pl. 16.1228; Neverov 1973b, fig. 43.

1244 Neverov 1972, figs. 1–7.

1245 Plin. *nat.hist.* 7.10, quoted in Neverov 1969, 175.

1246 Neverov 1969, 175.

1247 Vollenweider, 1966, 49.

1248 Plin. *nat.hist.* 37.11; Neverov 1973b.

1249 Neverov 1973b, 42.

1250 Neverov 1973b, 42.

1251 Lordkipanidze G. 1970, 21; Lomouri 1981, 83, 99.

1252 Neverov 1972, 111.

1253 Poseid. 5.212.d, quoted according to Neverov 1972, 175.

1254 Furtwaengler 1900, III, 333.

1255 Marshall 1907, pl. 14, no. 478; Lordkipanidze, M. 1958, figs. 14–15.

1256 Mtskheta I, pl. 1.7, 9; pl. 1bis, 2–7; pl. 4 *et passim*; Javakhishvili/Abramishvili 1986, nos. 45–47, 51, 65, 70 f., and many others.

only made exact depictions, but interpreted them as well. Most noteworthy are women's busts with heads in the Pheidias style. One of the most popular among them is Pheidias' Athena Lemnia.¹²⁵⁷ Furtwaengler wrote that a cameo from Paris, on which Athena is shown without a helmet, with an aegis obliquely draped from the right, and with long, loose hair encircled by a diadem, was inspired by Pheidias' Athena Lemnia.¹²⁵⁸ The same can be said of the representation on the Ertso gem, which is probably an illustration of Pheidias' masterpiece. Pheidias' original is not preserved, but if we judge according to Roman copies, and in spite of a somewhat free interpretation (long hair, earrings, the snakes), it is obvious that the Athena Lemnia was the model for the Ertso gem. Except for the long hair at the back of her head, the coiffure with the tight, plain diadem, and the direction of the waves of hair indicated by parallel lines reproduce the coiffure of Pheidias' Athena Lemnia.¹²⁵⁹ The obliquely draped aegis also points in the direction of the Lemnia.¹²⁶⁰

The fact that Hyllos depicted Classical masterpieces (Pheidias, Scopas) in his creative work seems well-documented.¹²⁶¹ Among the five gems signed by Hyllos, one (in the Hermitage) depicts a bust of Apollo.¹²⁶² It is distinguished by its strict, laconic, somewhat graphic style and the manner of rendering hair as parallel lines.¹²⁶³ A group of gems characterized by these stylistic traits is believed to have been cut by Hyllos.¹²⁶⁴ We believe that the Ertso gem, too, can be related to this group. It remains to be noted that a gem depicting Fortuna (in the Hermitage), attributed

to Hyllos,¹²⁶⁵ on which, however, the goddess is depicted *en face*, in the manner of representing the hair, and especially in the alignment of its waves, shows great resemblance to the Ertso Athena, and both of them to the Athena Lemnia.

Representation of Athena (cat. of gems no. 26)

On a large Augustan glass intaglio from Uplistsikhe, a group of figures is shown – Athena, casting lots for Orestes. Some authors believe that the depiction of Athena casting lots is a central motif of a lost Classical monumental wall-painting,¹²⁶⁶ possibly by Timanthos.¹²⁶⁷ Reconstruction of this masterpiece is possible with the help of representations on four gems, four marble reliefs, silver ware, and numerous clay lamps of the second half of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.: on the right, behind Athena, stands Orestes (or Apollo), then Electra and the disappointed Pylades with his back to her; on the right, two Erinyes, the goddesses of revenge.

Among the Roman gems found in Kartli, the most numerous are mass-produced, which – to judge by the manner of execution, style, and motif – are indistinguishable from those widespread throughout the Roman world. In the 1st century B.C., probably from the second half on, they co-exist with local seals (Dedoplis Gora). In earlier contexts, there are only local seals and the bullae with their impressions. Later, in the 1st century A.D., they vanish, and Roman seals replace them.¹²⁶⁸ Particularly broad proliferation of the Roman gems is assumed to have taken place after the middle of the 1st century A.D., as, for example, the 1st century A.D. rings with gems from the Urbnisi cemetery,¹²⁶⁹ are dated to the reign of Vespasian.¹²⁷⁰ Under Vespasian (69–79 A.D.), Kartli's relations to Rome were at their most cor-

1257 Furtwaengler 1900, III, 333.

1258 Furtwaengler 1900, III, 333, 348, fig. no. 177.

1259 Chubova 1962, fig. 7.

1260 Chubova 1962, fig. 8. It is noteworthy that Athena's acorn-shaped pendants are found in different ornaments of the 5th–4th century B.C. Cf. Marshall 1911, pl. 46.2322–2323; Coche de la Ferte 1956, pl. 20.2; Chkonia 1981, 29, figs. 8.16, 9.16.

1261 Neverov 1973a, 43–46.

1262 O. Neverov has demonstrated that the gem showing a bust of Apollo in the Hermitage was cut to show a sculpture by Scopas (Neverov 1973a, 44; Neverov 1976a, no. 113).

1263 Vollenweider 1966, 71, pl. 81.1, 3; Neverov 1973a, 45, fig. 44.

1264 Vollenweider 1966, pl. 79.7; pls. 2, 4, 5; Neverov 1976a, nos. 113–121.

1265 Maksimova 1926, 47; Richter 1971, no. 710; Neverov 1976a, no. 119.

1266 Furtwaengler 1900, III, 332; Maksimova 1926, 96; Vaulina 1962, 240 f.

1267 Neverov 1988, 46.

1268 Rikianevis Veli Cemetery: Mirianashvili 1983; Samtavro: Maksimova 1950; Urbnisi: Javakhishvili 1972, etc.

1269 Javakhishvili 1972, nos. 6, 10, 23–24 *et passim*.

1270 Henkel 1913, 261.

dial,¹²⁷¹ which, undoubtedly, promoted the import of Roman goods.

The catalog below does not include all of the mass-produced Roman gems of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. Only typical examples from the different sites in Kartli are treated here.

Bullae

Most of the bullae excavated at Dedoplis Gora are comparatively small, only roughly spherical clay balls (cat. of bullae nos. 15–17, 31–33), with traces of thick (cat. of bullae nos. 24, 31) or thin (cat. of bullae nos. 2, 16, 23) suspension cords. There are traces of thick, double, twisted, and sometimes flat cords as well.

A second sort of bullae comprises flat pieces of clay of irregular shape, which apparently had been attached to boxes or other containers. Traces of cords are also discernible on some of these bullae. In the Palace at Dedoplis Gora, pottery containing foodstuffs were usually stopped with clay balls. On one of these balls, impressions of seals are preserved.

All of the bullae have been burnt by the fire which destroyed the Palace, but, because the clay is coarse-grained, the impressions are difficult to recognize. On about fifty bullae, hundred impressions have been preserved, 35 of which are impossible to discern. There are cases of several impressions of one and the same seal on a single bulla (cat. of bullae nos. 4, 8, 12) and sometimes on different bullae (cat. of bullae nos. 9–11). Some of the impressions on the bullae had been made by seals of local production, but impressions of Hellenistic and Roman gems are more common. It is difficult to determine the shape of the local seals which had been impressed on the bullae, due to a lack of the corresponding archaeological material, except for the fact that they were large, elliptical or circular seals. Some impressions of a rectangular seal were also found (cat. of bullae nos. 1, 30–31), which might be impressions of the bronze seals mentioned above. On one bulla, beside the impression of an intaglio, there is an impression of the hoop of a finger-ring decorated with transverse grooves. Most of the representations on the local seals are very schematic, crude, and lacking in details. Quite common are depic-

tions of various animals: a bear with its cub (cat. of bullae no. 12); a Caucasian goat (cat. of bullae nos. 3, 10, 31); a deer (cat. of bullae nos. 9–11); a roe (cat. of bullae no. 6); a frog (cat. of bullae no. 14); a crab and a marine worm (*Oligochaeta*) (cat. of bullae nos. 15–18); a centipede (cat. of bullae no. 18); griffins (cat. of bullae nos. 6–8). Representations on some impressions must be connected to local beliefs, for example, two deer with a snake between them; also anthropomorphic depictions: a scene of two human figures in a sexual intercourse (cat. of bullae nos. 2–5) and three human figures *en face* with raised hands (cat. of bullae no. 18).

¹²⁷¹ Melikishvili 1959, 348; Lomouri 1981, 175 f.

Catalog of Gems (Plates 77–81)¹²⁷²

1. Garnet intaglio in a silver ring

GNM GC 1353.

Dedoplis Gora, in front of the door of Room 1.

Intaglio 24×18×5 mm.

Elliptical, slightly convex face, flat back. The engraving not deep, but clear, refined and skillful. The field and the engraving polished.

Bust of a young woman in right profile. On her head a “triangular” diadem (*stephane*), decorated with a zigzag line. The hair below the diadem, around the forehead, combed straight; above the diadem, the slightly wavy hair combed back. A veil of thick cloth covering the back of the head descending to the neck in soft, heavy folds. Under the veil, at the back of the head, the contours of a voluminous chignon. At the woman’s neck, the neckline of a tunic. The face delineated with exquisite skill, a fine profile with the classical lines of the forehead and the long, straight nose, small, delicate lips (the lower lip slightly receding) and a rounded, prominent chin. Probably a portrait of Arsinoe II (cf. the text above).

After 270 B.C.

Analogies: Marshall 1907, nos. 365, 381; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 32.**Ring** inside 18 mm; outside 25 mm; H. inside 15 mm; outside 28 mm. Cat. of jewelry no. 166.3rd century B.C.

2. Ruby intaglio in a gold ring

GNM GC 1192.

Zghuderi (Kareli district), cemetery, Wooden Sarcophagus 3.¹²⁷³**Intaglio** 17×14 mm.

Strongly convex, almost hemispherical. Carefully engraved and polished face.

Bust of a young man in right profile, framed by a slightly curved line below the shoulders. Rounded forehead, a slightly protruding brow, a long, straight nose. The small but full, half-open lips and the rounded chin recede slightly with respect to the nose. Short, curly hair held by a plain, narrow diadem, the ends of which hanging loose at the back of the head. The engraving very skilful, sophisticated, but so shallow and sensitive, that it does not impair the curvature of the stone’s surface. Obviously the engraver appreciated the beauty of the stone well enough not to break the form by cutting too deeply – the form, which perfectly revealed the stone’s splendid texture and color. Exploitation of all of the effects possible for a stone was common practice in the Hellenistic period, when the greatest importance was attached to the material used for gems.¹²⁷⁴

¹²⁷² Except for the complete rings, illustrations show impressions of the intaglios. If not stated otherwise, the scale is 1:1.

¹²⁷³ The burial is dated to the beginning of the 3rd century A.D., according to Nemsadze 1969, 53.

¹²⁷⁴ Nikulina 1977, 55.

Probably a portrait of Ptolemy V Epiphanes (cf. the text above).

Beginning 2nd century B.C.*Publ.*: Nemsadze 1969, 51; Javakhishvili/Nemsadze 1982, 129–134; pl. 8.1, 2.**Ring** 29×27 mm.

The large ring made of gold plate, probably hollow. The shoulders of the ring flat inside, convex outside, broadening into the elliptical bezel and decorated with fan-like ribs. Zigzag lines incised around the bezel.

Probably end of the 2nd–beginning 3rd century A.D.¹²⁷⁵

3. Brownish-yellow transparent glass intaglio in an iron ring

GNM GC 1250.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹²⁷⁶**Intaglio** 13×11 mm.

Elliptical, convex face. Cast.

Bust of a young woman in right profile. A rather complicated hair-style: a tuft gathered from behind the ears is stretched in the middle of slightly fluffy hair to the back of the head, while the second parallel part of hair combed back ends in a chignon. The shoulders shown as two bulges. On one of them, part of a garment is depicted as short straight parallel lines. It is impossible to identify every detail and individual portrait features because of the damage to the intaglio. What can be discerned is that she has a straight nose and rounded cheeks. Probably a portrait of Julia, Caesar’s daughter and Pompey’s wife (cf. the text above).

60–50 B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 37.**Ring**

The hoop sloping down from the shoulders, narrow in the middle, broadening toward the shoulders and merging into the bezel. The bezel cut into the ring. Corroded.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, no. 1443–1444 (1st century B.C.).

4. Brownish-yellow transparent glass intaglio

GNM GC 988.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 96.¹²⁷⁷**Intaglio** 14×12×2 mm.

Elliptical, flat face and back. Cast, not very sharp.

Bust of a young man in left profile. Short hair, a low forehead, a very much characteristic large, protruding, aquiline nose, a receding mouth and chin with a short beard. A mantle, held by a fibula, covering the

¹²⁷⁵ Javakhishvili/Nemsadze 1982, 133.

¹²⁷⁶ In the burial were found a ring with a gem (cat. no. 77) and seven stones (five carnelian, one garnet and one glass), five of which are gems (cat. nos. 3, 6, 18, 47, 69), two drachmes of the Parthian king Gotarzes (40–54 A.D.), and two denarii of Augustus (2 B.C.–14 A.D.); the burial is dated to the middle of the 1st century A.D. (Mirianashvili 1983, 77).

¹²⁷⁷ Found in a small case together with, among other ornaments, cat. no. 40.

shoulders. Probably a portrait of Gnaeus Pompey junior (cf. the text above).
42–36 B.C.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.4.

5. Chalcedony intaglio

Svaneti (West Georgia), donated to the Lagurka church.¹²⁷⁸

Intaglio 18×16×4 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. The engraving quite deep, very skilful, the modeling refined and soft.

Head of a man in right profile, ending below the neck. Very young face, a low forehead, a horizontal wrinkle visible above the eyebrow, the eye deep-set. The nostril of the straight nose receding, the face, including the lip below the nose, protruding, but the lower lip and the chin receding. Short, wavy hair arranged in parallel rows, only above the forehead several waves uncombed. Below the man's chin, the letters "I. A."¹²⁷⁹ Probably a portrait of Sextus Pompey (cf. the text above).

40–30 B.C.

Publ.: Barnaveli 1971, 19–26, pl. between 20 and 21, figs. 1–2.

6. Light greenish, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1251.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹²⁸⁰

Intaglio 10 mm.

Round, convex-faced. Cast, the engraving quite superficial.

Head of a young man in right profile, ending below the neck. Well-shaped round head, short hair, a thin neck. The features difficult to distinguish, but it can still be identified as the portrait of a definite person, probably the young Octavian (cf. the text above).

44–42 B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 37, fig. 110.

Ring Diam. 15 mm; H. 19 mm.

7. Red jasper intaglio with yellowish dots in a silver ring

GNM GC 1114.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Burial 1.

Intaglio 15×11.5 mm.

Flat, elliptical face. Cracked.

1278 The intaglio is lost. A gypsum impression made by S. Barnaveli is preserved in the Glyptic collection of the GNM.

1279 S. Barnaveli assumes that the letters inscribed so crudely and misplaced immediately beside such an important work of art ruin the general impression, and could have been added posterior, but he compares it with two gems of Republican times published by A. Furtwaengler (Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 47.24, 43) with inscriptions immediately in front of the face (Barnaveli 1971, 22).

1280 Cf. cat. no. 3.

Bust of a young man in right profile, ending below the shoulder in a S-curve. Disorderly hair, shown by short, thick, curved grooves, combed back from the forehead, longer at the back of the head and hanging down to the nape of the neck. A portrait with very characteristic, individual features: a slightly aquiline nose, small mouth with compressed lips, a narrow chin, and a large, wide-open eye.

Analogy: Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 344 (carnelian in Vienna, 60–50 B.C.) A high degree of resemblance between these two portraits, presumably one and the same person represented.

Ring inside 16×12 mm; outside 22×17 mm.

The hoop broad, flat inside, convex outside, the elliptical bezel cut into it. Two deep grooves running down from the sides. The stone set into a narrow golden rim, the grooves gilt. Slightly corroded.

Analogy: Henkel, 1913, nos. 205–206 (2nd century A.D.).

8. Garnet (almandine) cameo in a gold ring

GNM GC 905.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Burial 905.¹²⁸¹

Cameo 21×14×9 mm.

High relief.

Head of a young man *en face*, ending below the neck. Carefully dressed, wavy hair, thick in the middle, combed back from the forehead, slightly projecting ears. A classical Hellenistic profile, a fine line connecting the nose with the brow; short, pleasing nose. Eyes plastically rendered, the left one more pronouncedly than the right one. Thick lips, as if slightly open. Oval of the face narrows almost imperceptibly to the chin. The head turned slightly to the left (so that the face is somewhat asymmetrical – the left eye lying lower than the right one). Forehead, cheeks and neck rendered as uniform planes. The highly polished surface and brilliance of the stone make this relatively unexceptional work particularly effectual. Portrait of Alexander the Great or Mithridates Eupator (cf. the text above).

Second half of the 1st century B.C.–first half of the 1st century A.D.

Publ.: Apakidze/Nikolaishvili 1994, 36, no. 26, fig. 23, no. 26, fig. 24, no. 26.

Ring inside 18×16 mm; outside 33×23 mm.

The large ring made of gold plate, probably hollow. The hoop strongly convex outside, less so inside. The irregular elliptical bezel cut into the upper, broader part, encircled by a golden wire attached from the outside. Because the cameo has no level surface typical for high relief cameos, a thin gold plate is soldered inside the bezel along the edge of

1281 This grave, in which two women had been buried, is dated to the end of the 2nd–beginning 3rd century A.D., and is held to be a burial of members of the Kartlian royal family. Among the jewelry, toreutics, and many other objects excavated in the burial, there was a Syrian cylindrical steatite seal of the 2nd millennium B.C. and a pyramidal chalcedony seal made in Achaemenian Iran in the 5th century B.C. (Apakidze/Nikolaishvili 1994, 52 f. figs. 33–34. nos. 52–53.). Cat. no. 9 was found in the same burial.

the cameo to hold it. With its uneven edges this is of less quality in comparison with the cameo, which is a work of art. The ring is obviously younger than the cameo, which presumably had originally been part of some other object.

2nd–3rd centuries A.D.

Analogies: cf. the text above, 204, n. 1255.

9. Amethyst cameo in a gold ring

GNM CH 2700.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Burial 905.¹²⁸²

Cameo 14×17×6 mm.

High relief.

Head of an infant or Eros *en face*. Very characteristic hair-style: slightly wavy hair that covers the ears, rendered as fine lines, and falling on both sides of a thick, straight plait that runs from the center of the forehead to the back of the head. Pleasing, round head and oval face, finely modeled cheeks, slightly curved line from the nose to the brow, wide-open eyes, eyelids as crescent-shaped ridges. A slightly snub nose, small full lips and a spheroid, rounded chin: a very well-executed representation. This excellent work is one of the best examples of the numerous representations of infant's heads of this type.

1st century B.C.

Publ.: Apakidze/Nikolaishvili 1994, figs. 23–24, no. 27.

Analogies: Walters 1926, no. 3480 (sard); Boardman/Vollenweider 1978, pl. 59.358 (carnelian); Neverov 1988, nos. 18–25 (all carnelian), representation of the face, cf. no. 25; hair-style, cf. nos. 18, 21, 24.

Ring inside 15.5×12 mm; outside 29×32 mm (without stone).

The large ring made of gold plate, probably hollow. The hoop round in section, broadening toward the shoulders. The elliptical bezel cut into the ring.

1st–2nd centuries A.D.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, nos. 145–146 (1st century A.D.).

10. Elliptical garnet in a gold ring

GNM GC 1229.

Ertso, v. Magraneti (Tianeti district), Kushanaant Gora cemetery II, Burial 10.¹²⁸³

Intaglio 15×10 mm.

Slightly convex face.

Bust of Athena in right profile. The head tightly encircled by a broad, plain diadem. Long, slightly wavy hair, drawn back, rendered by fine, parallel lines. Part of the hair falling on her back in thick waves, part laid on the forehead in waves arranged along the diadem. A quite feminine, classical profile: a pleasing short nose, small, full lips, the face a softly rounded oval on a long, graceful neck. The wide-open eyes and eyelids plastically rendered.

Part of the aegis to the right of Athena, its opposite side lying under her breast, and following the line of her shoulder to her back. On the breast and especially behind the back, curls of goat's hair clearly visible. Under the aegis, broad folds of her chiton falling onto her shoulder. The aegis bearing a central gorgoneion, from which four thin, coiled snakes with their heads reared up at the left, and one at the right shoulder. A further snake above the right shoulder, at the neck. Probably a masterpiece of Hyllos with a free interpretation of the Athena Lemnia (cf. the text above).

1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.¹²⁸⁴

Publ.: Ramishvili 1979, 50, 96, pl. 3, fig. 15.

Ring inside 19×16 mm; outside 25×21 mm.

Faceted hoop and small, horizontal shoulders – a common shape in the 3rd century A.D.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 219.

11. Garnet (pyrope) in a silver ring

GNM GC 1058.

Urbnisi, cemetery, accidentally found.

Intaglio 12×11×3 mm.

Elliptical, convex face, flat back.

Bust of Athena in right profile, wearing a long-plumed Corinthian helmet.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 2.32, 11.32.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 6944 (carnelian), no. 6945 (red jasper); Walters 1926, no. 1376; AGDS 1969, no. 369 (plasma), no. 370 (garnet).

Ring inside 14×12 mm; outside 21×18 mm.

The hoop round in section, uniformly thick, broadening at the shoulders. The elliptical bezel soldered onto it.

Corroded, edges broken.

Analogies: Henkel, 1913, nos. 1132, 1140 (bronze, 1st century A.D.).

12. Greenish transparent glass with a fragment of an iron ring

GNM GC 978.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 55.

Intaglio 11×8 mm.

Elliptical, flat face and back.

Bust of Athena in right profile, wearing a Corinthian helmet, folds of himation on the shoulders. Long earring, long braid down the neck.

1st–2nd centuries A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 4.66.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 4874 (black glass paste); AGDS 1969, no. 3691; AGDS 1972, no. 3164 (brown glass paste).

Ring Only a rusted fragment preserved.

¹²⁸² Cf. cat. no. 8.

¹²⁸³ The burial had been plundered in Antiquity (Ramishvili 1979, 47).

¹²⁸⁴ The first author who published this gem, R. Ramishvili, adopted the opinion of M. Lordkipanidze, who dates it to the 2nd century B.C., and holds it to be the work of a famous Greek artisan (Ramishvili 1979, 50).

13. Three-layered glass cameo

GNM GC 856.

Akhaldaba, accidentally found burial.

Cameo 32×27×6 mm.

Elliptical. Cast.

Bust of a winged Nike in left profile. The background purple, the bust and wings white, hair and garment, brown. Hair in thick waves resembling a floral ornament, tied in a bun at the back. Fine profile, eyelids, the long, well-formed neck adorned with a necklace made of long pendants, and a long earring. The feathers on her wings indicated by small round waves, the folds of the peplos, by fine lines. Cast – small waves of hair that appear in the white layer visible in front of and behind the ear. The outer contours trimmed with the chisel. Part of the wings and the peplos broken off.

End of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.*Publ.*: Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 5, 7.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 11184–11187; Babelon 1897, pl. 14.15, no. 132; Pannuti 1983, fig. 103, color fig. no. 5.

Found in the same burial as cat. no. 14, and presumably mounted in the same kind of medallion.

14. Three-layered glass cameo in a gold medallion

GNM GC 855.

Akhaldaba, accidentally found burial.

Cameo 33×27 mm.

Bust of Nike, identical but laterally inversed to cat. no. 13, a pair.

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1961, pls. 5, 6.**Medallion** Diam. 55 mm.

The medallion formed of a thick, round, gold plate. The cameo set into its center, in an elliptical, toothed bezel, encircled by a row of thick granules. Around the bezel twelve round and smaller elliptical bezels in which garnet and dark purple glass are set (five are lost). Between these bezels S-shaped volutes of thin, notched wire. The medallion encircled by a thin, notched wire. On the back, nine hooks soldered onto it for sewing it onto a garment.

End of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

Analogies: Pridik 1914, pl. 1.1, 2; Lordkipanidze 1961, 6–8, 63; Neverov 1976a, no. 136; Anfimov 1987, 217; Lomtadze/Tsitsishvili 1951 (1st century A.D. medallion, decorated with stones, from the Mtskhethian Crypt).

15. Amethyst intaglio in a gold medallion

GNM GC 863.

Tsilkani (Mtskheta district), accidentally found tile-burial.

Intaglio 28×22×8 mm.

Elliptical, convex face and back.

Bust of Ariadne in right profile, ending below the shoulder. Long, wavy hair, shown as very fine, superficial lines, drawn from the temples to the back of the head, while the long ends falling on the shoulders in loose curls. A relatively long, straight nose, the nostril clearly shown. Small, full lips, the face a

soft oval. Long, well-formed neck, the wide-open eye and the eyelids rendered very plastically. An ivy wreath surrounding the head, a broad fillet decorating the forehead. A long, two-piece earring, the folds of the garment rest obliquely on the shoulder. The engraving clear, plastic, refined, the background remarkably well-polished. Superb workmanship. On the back of the stone, a long Greek inscription in diminutive, but clearly written letters: twenty lines from left to right in the middle, five lines from top to bottom respectively on the left and on the right. It seems to be a magic inscription.¹²⁸⁵

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D. Inscription: 3rd–4th centuries A.D.

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1961, figs. 8–12, pl. 3.20 (dated to the reign of Hadrian); Kaukhchishvili 1955, 211–218, figs. 1–4 (inscription dated to the 3rd–4th centuries A.D.); Neverov 1979, pl. 5, fig. 47a (representation dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.); Brentjes 1967, 137, fig., 132 (2nd century A.D.).

Analogies: Depictions of Ariadne are very common in Roman glyptics. Cf. Augustan glass intaglios: Walters 1926, no. 2945 (imitation of amethyst), no. 2947 (transparent green glass), no. 2950 (imitation of amethyst). The representation on the Tsilkani gem in various details – the hair indicated by thin lines, the number and arrangement of the leaves and fruit in the ivy wreath, a broad band on the forehead – bears the closest resemblance to no. 2945. All three intaglios and the Tsilkani gem are probably works of art inspired by a single original. The portrayal is somewhat matter-of-fact, and is to be dated later than the glass intaglios.

Medallion 69×30 mm.

Made of an elliptical plate, inside encircled by a plain, broad band. Around the outer edge, twenty-four large, hollow beads. On the upper part an eye soldered onto the plate, on the lower, a golden rod with two golden beads and a large, elliptical pearl. The edge of the intaglio broken, fallen out of the bezel.

16. Orange carnelian intaglio

GNM GC 1254.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹²⁸⁶**Intaglio** 20×18×2 mm.

Elliptical, flat face and back, perfectly engraved and polished.

Busts of Serapis and Isis in left profile. The representation somewhat superficial, the bust of Serapis cut a bit deeper, and brought into the foreground, while that of Isis engraved shallowly, and receding into the background. Serapis' hair indicated by fine lines, compactly arranged on his head, which is encircled by a broad diadem. His hair falling in long, loose waves on the nape of his neck. His beard, rendered as small, rounded curls, divided by a long, spirally stylized beard similar to that of Egyptian pharaohs.

¹²⁸⁵ Kaukhchishvili 1955, 211–218, figs. 1–4; Lordkipanidze 1961, 26–29, fig. 8–11; Neverov 1979, 102, no. 47; pl. 5, 47b.

¹²⁸⁶ Cf. cat. no. 3.

His head crowned by a high calathos rendered as longish bulges in two rows. Isis' hair, loosely curling around her face, combed to the back and fastened by a diadem. Long cow's horns with a sun-disc between them on her head. Both profiles characterized by classical Hellenistic forms, fine and sophisticated work. Second half of the 1st century B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 38, 75.

Analogies: Very popular motif, cf. Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2628 (carnelian); Walters 1926, no. 1791 (sard); Richter 1968, no. 638 (golden bezel-ring), no. 639 (garnet, stylistically similar), no. 640 (amethyst); AGDS 1968, nos. 374–375 (sard), no. 376 (garnet), no. 378 (garnet); Richter 1971, no. 204 (sard). Bust of Serapis (cf. hair-style and the manner of rendering hair): Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 203 (sard); Neverov 1978, no. 7 (bronze ring), nos. 8–9 (carnelian).

17. Light greenish transparent glass intaglio

GNM GC 723.

Bori, Burial 2.¹²⁸⁷

Intaglio 11×9.5×2 mm.

Elliptical, flat face and back.

Bust of Apollo Kitharodos in right profile. Long, curly hair falling on the shoulders, the head encircled by a laurel wreath tied by a narrow fillet, the ends of which hanging at the back of the head. The kithara shown in front of him. Good quality.

1st century B.C. (Italic.)

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 4.

Analogies: Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 168 (carnelian); Dimitrova-Milcheva 1980, no. 52 (sard), both stylistically different; Walters 1926, no. 1322 (sard), no. 1318 (sard). Apollo shown here with a laurel branch, but the style resembles that of the Bori intaglio.

18. Reddish-orange carnelian intaglio

GNM GC 1253.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹²⁸⁸

Intaglio 8×7×2 mm.

Elliptical, trapezoidal in cross-section, both surfaces flat.

Bust of Apollo in right profile. The hair around the face and on the back of the head curly, the head decorated by a narrow diadem, the ends of which falling on the back. The chlamys, fastened by a fibula, covering the shoulders. In front of the face, a laurel branch. The engraving quite deep, but crude. Hair and garment rendered as straight, thick lines.

1st century A.D.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 38, 74, fig. 113.¹²⁸⁹

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 2668, 2663 (white and purple paste), no. 6934 (sardonyx); nos. 6935–6937 (carnelian; Apollo with short hair); Walters 1926, no. 1317 (amethyst); nos. 1318, 1320 (sard); Hamburger 1968, pl. 1.16; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 413 (aquamarine), no. 414 (red jasper; stylistically

close); Boussac/Starakis-Rosscam 1983, 40, no. 8, fig. 7 (red jasper); Pannuti 1983, 44, no. 62 (carnelian).

19. Light greenish-yellow transparent glass intaglio in an iron ring

Tskhinvali Scientific Research Center.

Kvemo Monastery (Tskhinvali district), cemetery, Burial 16.¹²⁹⁰

Intaglio 11×9 mm;

Elliptical, convex.

Bust of Apollo in right profile. The hair curling around the face, a lock falling onto the nape of the neck. The head decorated by a double crown (made of leaves?). A mantle, held by a round fibula on the right, covering his shoulders. A laurel branch in front of him.

1st century A.D.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 2662–2663 (white and purple glass paste); Fossing 1929, no. 1055; Kibalchich 1910, pl. 4.200.

Ring 18×21 mm.

The hoop flat inside, convex outside, narrow in the middle, broadening at the shoulders and merging into the bezel. Rusted.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1535 (2nd century A.D.).

20. Light yellow transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

Tskhinvali Scientific Research Center.

Kvemo Monastery (Tskhinvali district), cemetery, Burial 43.¹²⁹¹

Intaglio 11×9 mm.

Elliptical, convex face.

Bust of Apollo, exact parallel of cat. no. 19, may have been cast in the same mold.

1st century A.D.

Analogies: See cat. no. 19.

Ring 23×20 mm.

The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders and merging into the elliptical bezel.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, nos. 1184, 1188 (1st century A.D.); Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 11.40, 42.

21. Reddish jacinth intaglio with a deep-red, drop-shaped spot in a silver medallion

GNM GC 318.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Tile-Burial 224.

Intaglio 11×13×2 mm.

Elliptical, both surfaces flat.

Bust of Perseus in right profile. On his head Hermes' cap, ending in an eagle's head with a wing on the side. Pleasant features, curly hair surrounding the face, falling on the nape of his neck. In front of the

1287 Together with cat. no. 39.

1288 Cf. cat. no. 3.

1289 Here the representation was identified as Athena.

1290 The monastery cemetery was excavated by R. K. Gagloev. The author classified this find for him in the eighties. I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Gagloev for permitting me to publish the gem.

1291 Cf. cat. no. 19.

face, a spear, with which he had killed the Medusa. On the shaft of the spear, beside Perseus' chin, a head of a snake. A strongly plastic representation. 1st century A.D.

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1954, pl. 1.2.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 1827 (sard); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 38.14 (smaragd plasma); Walters 1926, no. 1183 (lapis lazuli); AGDS 1972, no. 2217 (carnelian).

Medallion – a narrow silver band, the stone inserted. Broken into four parts.

22. Dark orange carnelian intaglio in an iron ring

GNM GC 1051.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 193.

Intaglio 15×13 mm.

Elliptical, both surfaces flat, well-cut and -polished.

A fantastic creature: a Gorgoneion on three feet. Like a tuft of hair, a flame flares up from Gorgo's head, on each side of which an ear of wheat. Such representations originated in Sicily, on Hellenistic coins of Panormus (Palermo) and on the Roman Republican coins struck in Sicily in 49 B.C. This emblem is a symbol of the sun's energy. On gems, it becomes quite common.¹²⁹²

Second half of the 1st century B.C.–first half of the 1st century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 3.43, 11.43.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 6616 (carnelian); Grueber 1910, II, 558, III pl. 120.1–3 (Sicilian coins); Richter 1956, no. 557 (carnelian); Boardman 1968, no. 42 (carnelian).

Ring 22×35 mm.

The hoop thin, broadening at the shoulders and merging into the bezel. The bezel cut into the ring. Rusted and broken, part of the hoop lost.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, pl. 58.1520 (1st century A.D.).

23. Yellow transparent glass intaglio in a gold ring

GNM GC 727.

Satsikhuri (Terjola district), accidentally found.

Intaglio 11×10 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. Slightly corroded.

Three masks: in the center, *en face*, a tragic mask, on the right, in profile, a comic mask, on the left, in profile, a bearded Silenus. The masks resting on a long, narrow support.

1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1961, 17, fig. 4, pl. 1.8.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, glass intaglios no. 5296 (brown), no. 5300 (black), no. 5302 (brown); Fossing 1929, nos. 1261–1268, 2289.

Ring outside 25×26 mm; inside 19×17 mm; bezel 15.5×14.5 mm.

The large ring was probably filled with paste. The hoop broad, flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders and merging into an open, elevated bezel. The bezel sharply set off from the hoop and

surrounded by a narrow band, which is firmly attached to the edge of the stone.

24. Dark red-colored, transparent glass intaglio in a fragment of an iron ring

GNM GC 278.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Pithos-Burial 110.¹²⁹³

Intaglio 12×11 mm.

Elliptical, strongly convex face.

A comic mask of an old man in right profile.

Second half of the 1st century B.C.

Publ.: Maksimova 1950, 241, no. 2.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 5264 (brown glass paste); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 26.51 (carnelian); AGDS 1968, nos. 515, 517 (carnelian), no. 516 (onyx); Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 322 (carnelian), stylistically most similar.

Ring

The hoop broad, flat inside, convex outside, the bezel cut into the ring. The hoop sinking almost vertically from the sides of the bezel. Large part lost.

Analogy: The exact shape of the ring is difficult to reconstruct, in our opinion, it could be compared to Marshall 1907, nos. 1291, 1297.

25. Light yellow transparent glass intaglio in a silver ring

GNM GC 1348.

Tbilisi, accidentally found.

Intaglio 13×11 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. Broken.

Cut by "Gryllos": a bust of Athena in right profile. Her helmet is rendered as two Silenus-masks.

1st century A.D.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, pl. nos. 5332–5334 (flat glass paste: two blue, one brown), nos. 7809–7810. (carnelian); Kibalchich 1910, pl. 7.215 (sardonyx); AGDS 1968, no. 503 (carnelian); Krug 1980, no. 234 (heliotrope).

Ring

The hoop hollow, merging into an elliptical bezel. In the bezel, the intaglio surrounded by a thin golden band. Broken, a large part of the hoop lost.

26. Light green transparent glass intaglio

GNM FA-UC 457: 7–117.

Uplistsikhe, citadel, main entrance.¹²⁹⁴

Intaglio 31×24×4 mm.

Elliptical, convex face, flat back. Cast.

Athena, casting lots for Orestes, standing statically, the body slightly turned to the right, the head in strict left profile. On the head a Corinthian helmet

¹²⁹³ In this burial, a Parthian drachm of Phraates III (70–57 B.C.) was found (Maksimova 1950, 241).

¹²⁹⁴ I would like to express my gratitude to the keeper of the Uplistsikhe collection, Georgian National Museum – Shalva Amiranashvi Museum of Fine Arts, Nazi Kundadze, for giving me an impression of the gem, and for allowing me to publish it.

with a very high, long plume. On the left side, a long spear and a large shield with relief-decoration of a Gorgoneion. Dressed in a long aegis, the edge of which running below the breast and onto the arms. A large Gorgoneion attached to the aegis. Under the aegis, a long chiton, falling in straight, thick folds, covering the right side of the body below the waist and leaving the left side exposed. The curved border of the mantle draped over the shoulders falling on the right hand and (indicated as two faint, curved lines) resting on the shield. The left hand at the waist, the right hand casting a lot into an egg-shaped urn with a narrow neck on a high stand. A long, coiled snake above the right hand (as if it were rising out of the urn), with its head directed toward Athena. Ground line.

Cast (no trace of the chisel), the representation lacks sharpness. The original must have been of superb workmanship on which details had apparently been worked very accurately and softly (refined rendering of the fingers of the left hand, anklets, etc.).

Augustan period. Probably a depiction of a masterpiece of painting (cf. the text above).

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 58.4 (sardonyx), 58.8 (sardonyx); Maksimova 1926, 96; Vaulina 1962, 240 f., figs.10–11; Richter 1971, no. 335; Neverov 1971b, no. 36; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 418 (carnelian); Neverov 1988, no. 30.

27. Greenish-yellow transparent glass intaglio in an iron ring

GNM GC 279.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Pithos-Burial 27.

Intaglio 14×11×3 mm.

Elliptical, convex face, flat back. The glass corroded. Winged Nike in left profile. Naked, except for the lower legs. A dolphin in the hand.

1st century B.C.

Publ.: Maksimova 1950, pl. 1.1.

Analogy: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 1486. On the basis of comparison with this gem, Maksimova concludes that the Samtavro and the Berlin gems must have been cast after the same original.¹²⁹⁵

Ring inside 16×18 mm

The hoop merging into the bezel. A thin bronze plate laid under the intaglio. Rusted and broken, the inset fallen out of the bezel.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1421 (iron, without stone).

28. White transparent glass intaglio

GNM GC 943.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 7.

Intaglio 16×8 mm.

Elliptical, flat face, convex back. Corroded, representation damaged.

A dancing Maenad. Naked, except for folds of the thin garment covering only the shoulders, falling from the raised right hand and visible on the low-

ered left hand. One end of a diadem at the back of the head. A thin line on the right may be a thyrsos. On the left, at the feet, an unidentified object (probably an animal). Ground line.

1st century B.C.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.2.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2302 (amethyst); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 38.16; Walters 1926, no. 1630 (sard); AGDS 1969, no. 446 (amethyst).

29. Garnet (pyrope) intaglio in a silver ring

GNM GC 1044.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 189.¹²⁹⁶

Intaglio 16×13 mm.

Elliptical, convex face, flat back.

Probably Aphrodite. A naked woman in three-quarter view from behind, the head turned to the right, the left elbow resting on a high column, the right hand stretched forward and holding a spear. The head surrounded by a plain diadem, the ends of which falling onto the shoulders. Ground line.

End of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D. (Italic).

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 1.3, 10.3.

Analogies: Richter 1956, no. 159 (carnelian), Aphrodite holding a spear(?). Stylistically different. AGDS 1972, no. 3177 (green glass paste).

Ring 22×28 mm; 16×17 mm.

The hoop thin, broadening gradually to the shoulders and merging into the high bezel with slightly open edges. The ring corroded and deformed. The inset fallen out of the bezel.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, no. 128 (gold, 1st century A.D.); more similar to AGDS 1972, no. 2534.

30. Dark red-colored, transparent glass intaglio in a silver bracelet

GNM GC 1285.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 16.¹²⁹⁷

Intaglio 8×6.5 mm.

Elliptical, strongly convex face. The glass corroded. Athena, wearing a long garment and a Corinthian helmet with a long plume. The left hand outstretched. On the right, at the feet, a shield. Near the shoulder, a spear(?). Thick ground line.

Second half of the 1st century B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 39 f., figs. 21, 81.

Analogy: Zakharov 1928, pl. 8.149 (glass).

Medallion 17×14 mm; bracelet 80×62 mm.

The intaglio inserted in an elliptical, case-like medallion. The bracelet made of two stems round in sec-

¹²⁹⁶ Together with cat. nos. 37, 65, 80.

¹²⁹⁷ In this burial, in a ceramic sarcophagus, the deceased had an imitation of a stater of Lysimachos in his mouth, a Parthian silver drachme of Orodes II (58/57–38/37 B.C.) in the hand, four coins of Synanthruces (77–70 B.C.), and several Roman Republican denarii (87 B.C., 60 B.C., and 28 B.C.). The burial is dated to the second half of the 1st century B.C. (Mirianashvili 1983, 39 f. figs. 21, 81).

tion. One thickened and faceted end of each stem attached to the medallion by a dowel so that it can move; the other tapering endings engage one another, wrapped around the stems.

31. Carnelian intaglio in the fragment of an iron ring

GNM GC 1022.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 170.¹²⁹⁸

Intaglio 12×10 mm.

Elliptical, level face. An edge of the stone chipped. Athena, standing, wearing a long plumed Corinthian helmet and a long chiton, holding a spear in the left hand, and a bowl in the outstretched right hand. At the feet on the left, a relief shield. Ground line. End of the 1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 3.38.

Analogies: Zakharov 1928, pl. 8.141 (carnelian), 8.49 (glass); Fossing 1929, no. 601 (nicolo); Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 14 (carnelian); AGDS 1969, no. 457 (carnelian); Richter 1971, no. 96 (red jasper).

Ring

Only a rusted fragment preserved.

32. Colorless glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1091.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 256.

Intaglio 8×6 mm.

Elliptical, slightly convex face. Athena, standing, dressed in a long chiton and a helmet, leaning on a spear which she holds with the left hand, a bowl in the outstretched right hand. A relief shield by the feet on the left. Ground line. Fine work.

1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 2.18.

Analogies: Cat. no. 31. Stylistically, very close to Zakharov 1928, pl. 8.141.

Ring

The hoop – a thin wire of uniform thickness, ribbed on the outside. A low, elliptical bezel soldered onto the ring.

Analogies: Only local parallels for this ring in the available literature: Javakhishvili 1972, 10, nos. 7-8, 17-19, 36, fig. 1; pl. 10.7, 17 (Urbnisi cemetery, six rings found in burials of the 1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.), cf. cat. nos. 37-38, 65.

33. Light orange carnelian intaglio in a silver ring

GNM GC 1015.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 16.

Intaglio 17×11×5 mm.

Elliptical, convex face, faceted back.

Winged Nemesis in right profile, dressed in a long, sleeveless chiton. A fillet in the hair. Holding the end of the chiton in the left hand, and a branch in the right. Ground line.

1st century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 6.105.

1298 Together with cat. nos. 38, 42.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 2906-2907 (carnelian), no. 2908 (sardonyx); Walters 1926, nos. 1695, 1698 (both sard); Richter 1956, no. 369 (sard); AGDS 1970, nos. 870-871.

Ring

Only small fragments preserved.

34. Greenish-white, transparent glass intaglio.

GNM GC 1287.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 3.¹²⁹⁹

Intaglio 14×10×2 mm.

Elliptical, convex face, flat back. Iridescent glass. Two Nemeseis face to face, dressed in long chitons, in a very characteristic pose: each holding an end of the chiton at the shoulder, in the other hand, the sistrum of Isis.

1st century A.D.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 75.

Analogies: Richter 1956, no. 371 (carnelian). The same motif is also found on Roman coins from Smyrna, and is, presumably, a depiction of the well-known sculpture set up in that polis.¹³⁰⁰

35. Colorless, transparent glass intaglio in an iron ring

GNM GC 1063.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 205.

Intaglio W. 11 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. Lower part lost.

Syncretic deity with the attributes of Nike, Fortuna, and Athena: dressed in a chiton, wearing a Corinthian helmet, a large wing on her back. Holds an ear of wheat and a poppy capsule in the right hand. Leaning on a steering oar, a cornucopia in the left hand.

1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 2.30.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2898 (purple glass paste); Walters 1926, no. 1727 (chalcedony); Fossing 1929, nos. 670-675; Dimitrova-Milcheva 1980, no. 91 (rock crystal), no. 93 (carnelian), no. 94 (jasper).

Ring

The hoop merging into the bezel. Rusted, greater part of the hoop lost.

36. Light yellowish-green, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1100.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 272.

Intaglio 9×8 mm.

Elliptical, slightly convex face. Slightly iridescent glass. Fortuna, standing, dressed in chiton and mantle, holding a cornucopia in the left hand and leaning on a steering oar with the right hand.

1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 2.24, 10.24.

1299 Together with cat. no. 79.

1300 Richter 1956, 85.

- Analogies:* Walters 1926, no. 1728 (sardonyx); Fossing 1929, nos. 658–359, 662; Maksimova 1950, pl. 1.23 (emerald plasma), 1. 24 (carnelian); Lordkipanidze 1954, pls. 1.4 (carnelian), 1.9 (blue glass), 2.18 (carnelian); Richter 1956, no. 366 (red jasper), no. 367 (carnelian); Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 2.13 (red jasper), pl. 4.31 (chalcedony); Lordkipanidze 1967, pl. 7.57 (carnelian); all stylistically different; Hamburger 1968, pl. 3.3 (onyx).
Ring inside 19×17 mm; outside 24×23 mm.
The hoop thin, broadening to the shoulders, the elliptical bezel cut into the ring.
Corroded.
37. Colorless, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 1041.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 189.¹³⁰¹
Intaglio 8×6 mm.
Elliptical, flat face.
Artemis of Ephesus.
1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.7.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 3593–3595 (brown glass pastes); Kibalchich 1910, pl. 3.85 (glass); Walters 1926, nos. 1336, 1338 (sard); Neverov 1978, fig. 23 (glass).
Ring H. 11 mm.
Greater part lost.
Analogies: See cat. no. 32.
38. Light yellow, transparent glass intaglio in a fragment of a bronze ring
GNM GC 1023.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 170.¹³⁰²
Intaglio 7×5 mm.
Elliptical, flat face.
Artemis of Ephesus.
1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 3.36.
Ring
Greater part lost.
Analogies: See cat. no. 32.
39. Light gray, transparent glass intaglio
GNM GC 725.
Bori, Burial 2.¹³⁰³
Intaglio 11×9×2 mm.
Elliptical, flat face and back. Edges slightly damaged, representation worn.
Leda and the swan. Subtle work.
1st century A.D.
Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 18.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 478 (prase), no. 6852 (carnelian); Richter 1956, no. 424 (nicolo); AGDS 1972, no. 2215 (carnelian); Dimitrova-Milcheva 1980, no. 154 (carnelian).
40. Amethyst intaglio
GNM GC 987.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 96.¹³⁰⁴
Intaglio 10×8×4 mm.
Elliptical, convex face and back.
Muse, sitting on a throne with a high backrest, dressed in a long chiton, the right hand resting on the chair. Holding a mask in the left hand. Ground line.
1st–2nd centuries B.C.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 6.106.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 1522 (sard), no. 2457 (prase); Richter 1956, no. 284 (carnelian); Richter 1971, no. 240 (carnelian); Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 463 (carnelian); Guiraud 1988, no. 58 (prase).
41. Reddish-brown carnelian intaglio in an iron ring
GNM GC 1265.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Burial 2 (Tile-Burial 1).
Intaglio 18×15×3 mm.
Elliptical, slightly convex face and back. Edges of the stone cracked.
Winged Nike, driving a chariot, drawn by two galloping horses, holding the reins in the right hand and a crown in the left. Ground line.
1st–2nd centuries A.D.
Analogies: The motif is not very common: Fossing 1929, no. 1705; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 219 (carnelian). More frequently, Nike holds a whip,¹³⁰⁵ or a palm-branch (Richter, 1956, no. 361 (plasma)).
Ring
The hoop merging into an elliptical bezel.
Rusted and broken. Greater part of the hoop lost.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, pl. 58.1506 (1st century A.D.).
42. Sard intaglio in a silver ring
GNM GC 1021.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 170.¹³⁰⁶
Intaglio 14×11 mm.
Elliptical, flat face.
Nike in a chariot, drawn by two horses, holding the reins in the right hand and a whip in the left. Ground line.
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 3.37, 9.37.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 8413; Walters 1926, nos. 1723–1724. (sard); Fossing 1929, no. 635, 638; Hamburger 1968, pl. 3.69 (carnelian); AGDS 1970, no. 917 (carnelian); Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, nos. 216–217 (both carnelian); Guiraud 1988, no. 64 (carnelian).
Ring inside 19×16, 5 mm; outside 25×22 mm.
- 1301 Together with cat. nos. 29, 65, 80.
1302 Together with cat. nos. 31, 42.
1303 Together with cat. no. 17.
1304 Cf. cat. no. 4.
1305 Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, pl. 37.216–218; Walters 1926, pl. 23.1723–1724 (both sard).
1306 Together with cat. nos. 31, 38.

The hoop thin, broadening considerably to the shoulders, the elliptical bezel cut into the ring. The hoop broken into three pieces, the bezel slightly damaged.

Analogies: Henkel 1913, no. 1446 (iron, 1st century A.D.); Marshall 1907, no. 422.

43. Carnelian intaglio in a fragment of a silver ring
GNM GC 1025.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 172.¹³⁰⁷

Intaglio 15×12 mm.

Elliptical, flat face and back. Edge of the stone cracked.

A charioteer in a quadriga, gripping the reins and whipping the horses. Ground line.

1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.14.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 4585–4601 (all glass paste); Walters 1926, no. 2121 (sard); Fossing 1929, nos. 964–972 (all glass paste; no. 972 is best comparable); Richter 1956, no. 458 (black jasper); Guiraud 1988, no. 163.

Ring

Shape not reconstructable.

44. Dark red-orange carnelian intaglio in a gold ring

GNM GC 1224.

Zhinvali (Dusheti district), Aragvispiri cemetery, Burial 13.¹³⁰⁸

Intaglio 19×14 mm.

Elliptical, flat face.

Dionysos, standing *en face*, with the right elbow resting on a pillar, the left raising to the head, holding a rhyton(?). On the head a taenia, one end falling onto the left shoulder, while the other, longer end reaches to the hip. Naked, only the left leg draped. A kantharos standing on a high pillar on the right. Ground line. Clear, refined engraving, both the background and the representation well polished. Skillful work. 2nd–1st centuries B.C. (?).

Analogies: Representations of Dionysos *en face*, leaning against a pillar, are quite common on Hellenistic gems, cf. Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 1043–1044; Furtwaengler 1900, pls. 34.33 (brown glass paste, Dionysos with thyrsos and kantharos), 34.34 (brown glass paste, Dionysos with his hand to his head), 27.67 (Dionysos with thyrsos and a bunch of grapes), 34.21 (carnelian, Dionysos with thyrsos), 34.22 (carnelian; Dionysos with thyrsos and kantharos), AGDS 1968, no. 566 (transparent brown glass paste, Dionysos with thyrsos and panther), no. 567 (brown glass paste, Dionysos with thyrsos and panther), no. 568 (brown glass paste). We know of no comparable de-

piction on which a kantharos stands on a pillar, as on the Aragvispiri gem.

Ring inside 22×22.5 mm; outside 28×25 mm; Diam. of the hook 3 mm.

The hoop round in section and of uniform thickness. An oval bezel and a single bulge on each side soldered onto the hoop.

Analogies: Marshall 1907, no. 629 (two bulges on the shoulders). This shape is common at the end of the 3rd–4th centuries A.D.

45. Grayish-purple, transparent glass intaglio in a silver ring

GNM GC 1246.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 5.¹³⁰⁹

Intaglio 22×16 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. The glass iridescent.

Dionysos, staggering, holding a jug in the raised right hand, and a thyrsos(?) in the left. Naked, except for a light mantle draped over the shoulders, falling in loose, thick folds on the right, and covering the arm on the left. Ground line. The well-proportioned, muscular body plastically rendered. Superb workmanship.

Augustan period.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 31–33, 74, fig. 107.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 36.34; Boardman 1968, no. 31 (carnelian); AGDS 1969, no. 445 (stylistically very similar).

Ring inside 22×18 mm; outside 30×26 mm.

The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders, becoming round in section, and merging into a high, elliptical bezel. The bottom of the bezel cracked.

Analogy: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 4152.

46. Garnet (pyrope) intaglio in a golden ring

GNM GC 613.

Mtskheta, Stalin Street, Tile-Burial 1.

Intaglio 13.5×11.5 mm.

Elliptical, flat face.

Hermes Psychopompos, in the one hand holding the kerykeion, with the other pulling a naked youth – a human soul. The youth stretching out his hands to Hermes, who will escort him to the underworld. Hermes with long hair and beard, naked, except for the mantle slung over one shoulder, which falls in long folds. Ground line. Subtle and fine work.

1st century B.C. (Italic).

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1954, pl. 1.1

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 440 (sard); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 21.67–71; Walters 1926, no. 954

1309 In this burial, in which two persons had been buried, about 35 coins were found. Near the one deceased, where cat. no. 45 was found, there was an imitation of a stater of Alexander. Near the other, where cat. no. 74 was found, there were Parthian drachms of the 1st century B.C., denarii of Augustus of 14–12 B.C. and 2–4 A.D., and a coin of Tiberius (14–37 A.D.). The burial is dated to the first half of the 1st century A.D. (Mirianashvili 1983, 30–33).

1307 Together with cat. nos. 58, 78, 81.

1308 It is a rich pit-burial, in which various works of art in gold and silver were found, as well as coins, the latest of which is an aureus of Valerian (254–260 A.D.), dated to the last years of the 3rd century A.D. according to Ramishvili 1975, 14.

- (sardonyx), no. 955 (sard); Richter 1956, no. 90 (agate); Richter 1971, fig. 118 (agate).
Ring inside 20×16 mm; outside 22×25 mm.
 Plain, probably hollow, and filled with paste. The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders. The bezel cut into the ring.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, nos. 166–167 (1st century A.D.).
47. Dark brownish-orange carnelian intaglio
 GNM GC 1256.
 Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹³¹⁰
Intaglio 16×13×6 mm.
 Elliptical, convex face and back.
 Hermes in a statuary pose. Naked, except of a mantle, slung over his left hand, in which he holds the kerykeion, in his right, a purse. The muscular body shown clearly.
 1st century A.D.
Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 38, 75.
Analogies: Kibalchich 1910, pl. 4.111(carnelian); Maksimova 1950, pl. 1.8 (green glass), 1.31 (carnelian); Lordkipanidze 1967, no. 44 (carnelian); Hamburger 1968, pl. 3.22–23, 26; AGDS 1972, nos. 2513–2514 (carnelian), no. 2515 (red jasper); Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.6 (carnelian), pl. 2.31 (glass), pl. 5.82 (black glass); Boussac/Starakis-Roscam 1983, 26, no. 9, fig. 8 (red jasper); Richter 1956, no. 287 (different motif).
48. Colorless, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
 GNM GC 322.
 Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Tile-Burial 5.
Intaglio 8×6.5 mm.
 Elliptical, slightly convex face.
 Hermes in a statuary pose. Naked, except of a chlamys, hanging from his left arm, in which he holds the kerykeion, in his right, a purse.
 1st century A.D.
Publ.: Maksimova, 1950, pl. 1.8.
Analogies: Quite common motif on gems of the Roman period, cf. Fossing 1929, no. 573 (brown glass paste, stylistically very similar).
Ring inside 16×14 mm; outside 21×19 mm.
 The hoop flat inside, convex outside, narrow in the middle, broadening to the shoulders and merging into the bezel. The bezel cut into the ring.
Analogies: Henkel 1913, nos. 1191–1192 (1st century A.D.); Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 529.
49. Light green, transparent glass intaglio in an iron ring
 GNM GC 1061.
 Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 20.
Intaglio 13×10 mm.
 Elliptical, convex face, flat back.
 Hermes in a statuary pose. Naked, except of a chlamys, hanging from his left arm, in which he holds the kerykeion, in his right, a purse. A head of a ram at the feet on the right. Ground line.
 1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 2.31.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 2700–2701 (both white glass paste), pl. no. 2702 (carnelian); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 44.55 (prase); Walters 1926, no. 1395 (nicolo), no. 788 (glass paste, imitation of sard); Fossing 1929 nos. 566, 570, 575 (all red glass paste).
Ring
 Only a rusted fragment preserved.
50. Light green, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
 GNM GC 1092.
 Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 258.
Intaglio 14×11 mm.
 Elliptical, convex face. The glass iridescent, the representation worn.
 Asclepius in a statuary pose, draped in a long mantle, his left hand resting on the chest (holding a bowl?), his right on the staff, around which a serpent coils. Ground line. Originally, presumably good workmanship.
 1st century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 4.68, 12.68.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2357 (prase), no. 8390 (nicolo); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 44.45 (prase).
Ring inside 19×16 mm; outside 25×22 mm.
 The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders, the elliptical bezel cut into the ring. The hoop broken.
Analogy: Marshall 1907, no. 423.
51. Light yellow, transparent glass intaglio in a silver ring
 GNM GC 973.
 Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 51.
Intaglio 11×9 mm.
 Elliptical, convex face, flat back. The edge chipped.
 Amor and Psyche, standing face to face, stretching out their hands to one another. Lower legs not shown. Cast.
 1st-beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 3.41.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2403 (prase), no. 3068 (chalcedony); Kibalchich 1910, pl. 9.289 (glass paste); Walters 1926, no. 1465 (sardonyx); Fossing 1929, no. 782 (red glass paste); AGDS 1972, no. 3089 (black glass paste).
Ring inside 18×14 mm; outside 20×18 mm
 The hoop of the ring thin, flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders, the elliptical bezel cut into the ring. Broken, part of the bezel lost.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1164 (1st century A.D.).
52. Colorless transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
 Tskhinvali Scientific Research Center.

Kvemo Monastery (Tskhinvali district), cemetery.¹³¹¹

Intaglio 11×9 mm.

Elliptical, convex face. Glass iridescent, representation worn.

Eros riding a lion: "Amor, the lion-tamer", i.e., love tames the wild beast – a motif associated with Hellenistic painting.¹³¹²

1st century A.D.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 57.1 (sardonyx cameo); Walters 1926, no. 1486 (sard intaglio); AGDS 1972, no. 3079 (yellow glass paste), no. 2288 (striped agate); Neverov 1988, no. 363 (pale stone).

Ring

Only a small fragment preserved.

53. Colorless transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

Tskhinvali Scientific Research Center.¹³¹³

Kvemo Monastery (Tskhinvali district), Burial 49.

Intaglio 12×10 mm.

Elliptical, slightly convex face. Glass chipped in places. Hercules and the Nemean Lion. Behind the hero, his club.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Analogies: Fossing 1929, no. 867 (light red glass paste); AGDS 1972, no. 2720 (red jasper).

Ring outside 23×22 mm.

Made of a thin plate, the hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders and merging into the bezel.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1164 (1st century A.D.).

54. Yellowish transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1011.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 165.

Intaglio 8×7 mm.

Elliptical, convex face. Cast. Glass iridescent.

A naked boy, carefully holding a coiled snake (lizard?) in his outstretched right hand.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili K. 1972, pl. 2.20.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 8276–8277 (nicolo).

Ring inside 11×9 mm; outside 14×18 mm.

The hoop thin, flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders. The bezel cut into the ring. Corroded.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1157 (1st century A.D.).

55. White, transparent glass intaglio

GNM GC 1353.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1, near the eastern wall, among the fragments of a bone box.

Intaglio 12×10 mm.

Elliptical, flat back, slightly convex face.

¹³¹¹ Cf. cat. no. 19.

¹³¹² Neverov 1978, 141, no. 363.

¹³¹³ Cf. cat. no. 19.

A bearded centaur with his head turned back, an Eros riding on his back. Probably Chiron.

The edge of the intaglio cracked.

1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

Analogies: Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 262 (carnelian).

56. Green transparent glass intaglio in a silver medallion

GNM GC 1257.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.¹³¹⁴

Intaglio 22×17 mm.

Elliptical, strongly convex face. The glass iridescent, the representation worn, damaged, edges cracked.

A horseman with his right hand raised (holding a spear?). The horse in motion, with a long tail.¹³¹⁵

1st century B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 30, 73, fig. 114.

Analogies: Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 316 (carnelian); Boussac/Starakis-Roscam 1983, 472, no. 43, figs. 42a–b (brownish-red glass paste). According to the authors, this gem probably resembles sculptural representations.¹³¹⁶

Medallion 26×20×11 mm.

Mounted in an elliptical silver medallion, a so-called "box-setting", on each of its two short opposite sides, an elliptical loop is soldered. Corroded.

Analogies: Ruxer/Kubczak 1972, 268, nos. 10–11, pl. 44.

57. Greenish-white, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1074.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 129.

Intaglio 9×8 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. The glass iridescent.

A horseman, with his right hand on the horse's croup and the reins in his left, dressed in a short, folded garment fluttering behind his back. Ground line.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D. Asia Minor (?).

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 8.133, 14.133.

Analogies: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 8.131–132, 134 (glass intaglios).

Ring inside 17×15 mm; outside 20×21 mm.

¹³¹⁴ Together with other grave-goods, the glass gem cat. no. 64 and some coins as well: the deceased had a gold coin, an imitation of a stater of Lysimachos, in its mouth, and two more in his right hand; in a purse, there were silver coins of Tigranes II, king of Armenia, struck in 83–69 B.C. in the mint in Antioch; one drachm of Mithridates III (57–54 B.C.) and six Roman Republican denarii – two of them struck in 86 B.C. in the mint in Rome, one in 93–92 B.C. in the mint in Gaul, and three in 32–31 B.C. in one of the mints in the East (Mirianashvili 1983, 28, fig. 115, 1.7.).

¹³¹⁵ According to the excavator, the horseman holds a whip in his raised hand and wears a Phrygian cap; the horse's mane is agitated (Mirianashvili 1983, 73); it is difficult to recognize these details now.

¹³¹⁶ Cf., e.g., Kaehler 1965, pl. 1.3–4; 23b.

- The hoop thin, flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders, the bezel cut into the ring. Broken.
58. Dark orange carnelian intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 1029.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 172.¹³¹⁷
Intaglio 8×7 mm.
Elliptical, flat face. Slightly chipped.
A horse to the right, with a palm branch in its mouth. Ground line.
1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 1.10, 10.10.
Analogies: Osborne 1912, pl. 27.13; Walters 1926, no. 2402 (red jasper); AGDS 1972, no. 2410 (carnelian); Pannuti 1983, no. 256 (carnelian).
Ring inside 17×14 mm; outside 22×20 mm.
The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders, the bezel cut into the ring.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1184 (1st century A.D).
59. Green transparent glass intaglio in a silver ring
GNM GC 1295.
Zakhori, accidentally found burial.
Intaglio 20×16 mm.
Elliptical, flat face. Cast. Pierced lengthwise, i.e., it must be a seal, secondarily mounted into a ring. Glass broken into two pieces, surface slightly chipped.
A (roaring?) lion to the right. Ground line.
1st century B.C.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1987, 77–79, pl. 11.2–3.
Analogies: Khachatrian 1976, 130, fig. 46. (purple glass seal of the same shape from Garni, Armenia, Burial 114, with the same motif. According to style and the accompanying material dated to the 1st century B.C.); Javakhishvili 1987, 78 f., pl. 11.4. (seal of green glass, Yerevan Historical Museum 1663:31, very similar in material, color, shape, size and motif, probably cast according to one and the same original); Kaziev 1960, 26, pl. 44.6. (same kind of glass seal, from a pit-burial in Mingechaur, Azerbaijan, with the representation of a dog). All examples are so similar to one another in shape, size, material and style, that they must have been cut in the same atelier, probably located somewhere in Transcaucasia.¹³¹⁸
Ring inside 17×13 mm; outside 22×23 mm.
The hoop flat inside, convex outside, a facet lengthwise, broadening and merging into small, horizontal shoulders. A high elliptical bezel soldered onto the shoulders.
3rd century A.D.
Analogies: Henkel 1913 nos. 219–220 (3rd century A.D.); Maksimova 1950, 253 f., fig. no. 6.
60. Yellow transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 273.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, north sector, Urn-Burial 18.
Intaglio 7×5 mm.
Elliptical, flat face. Glass iridescent.
A lion running to the left.
Second half of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.
Publ.: Maksimova 1950, no. 5.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 3217; Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 45.22 (carnelian intaglios).
Ring 19×22 mm
The hoop thin, flat inside, convex outside, broadening slightly at the shoulders and merging into a high, elliptical bezel. The ring's shoulders slope steeply; intaglio pressed slightly out of the bezel.
61. Green transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 983.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 84.
Intaglio 9×6 mm.
Elliptical, flat face. Cast. Glass iridescent.
A lion on the back of a kneeling deer.
1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 2.33, 11.33.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 3225–3227 (all glass paste: two brown, one light blue), no. 5337 (green glass), no. 5338 (white glass); Fossing 1929, no. 1286 (blue paste).
Ring inside 17×15 mm; outside 22×19 mm.
The hoop thin, flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders, bezel cut into the ring. Slightly rusted.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1172 (1st century A.D).
62. Yellow transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 632.
Tbilisi, Ghrma Ghele, accidentally found.
Intaglio 11×9 mm.
Elliptical, flat face.
A feline (lion?) in profile, kneeling on its forelegs, head frontal. Ground line.
1st century B.C. (Italic).
Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 1.9.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 5341 (purple glass paste).
Ring
The hoop broadening to the shoulders and merging into an elliptical bezel. Rusted, deformed, large part of the hoop lost.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1111 (1st century B.C.).
63. Green transparent glass intaglio, with a broad, white, transverse vein, in a bronze ring
GNM GC 953.

1317 Together with cat. nos. 43, 78, 81.

1318 Javakhishvili 1987, 78 f.

Arkneti, Vasastskaro cemetery, Burial 4.¹³¹⁹

Intaglio 13×10 mm.

Elliptical. Cast. Glass iridescent.

A sheep to the left, with a lamb in its mouth. Ground line.

Second half of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 5587 (brown glass); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 45.14.

Ring inside 19×15 mm; outside 22×21 mm.

The hoop flat inside, convex outside, narrow in the middle, broadening to the shoulders, the bezel cut into the ring.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 122 (gold, 1st century B.C.).

64. Yellowish-brown glass intaglio in a fragment of an iron ring

GNM GC 1245.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.¹³²⁰

Intaglio 13×11 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. Glass iridescent.

Wild boar to the right. Ground line.

Second half of the 1st century B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 30, 73.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 3264 (white glass); Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 45.37; AGDS 1970, no. 886 (carnelian agate); AGDS 1972, no. 2847 (carnelian).

Ring

Only a rusted fragment preserved.

65. Colorless transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1042.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 189.¹³²¹

Intaglio 10×7 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. Glass iridescent.

A dog, running to the right. Above it, Greek letters. In the impression, only *νδ* discernible.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.8.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 8553; Osborne 1912, pl. 28.14; Walters 1926, no. 2419 (sard), no. 2420 (onyx), no. 2421 (chalcedony); Richter 1956, no. 518 (sard).

Ring exterior H. 19 mm

Greater part lost.

Analogies: See cat. no. 32.

66. Reddish-brown carnelian, in an iron ring

GNM GC 3000.

1319 Several contemporary burials excavated at Vasastskaro cemetery can be dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. according to the grave contents and to Parthian coins found in one of the burials: two of Sinatruces (77–70 B.C.), one of Phraates III (70–57 B.C.), and two of Orodes I (57–37 B.C.). Japaridze O. 1956, 189–197, fig. 6.

1320 Cf. cat. no. 56.

1321 Together with cat. nos. 29, 37, 80.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Tile-Burial 242.

Intaglio 19×15 mm.

Elliptical, convex face.

A cow, nursing a calf. On the left, a deciduous tree, with its branches bent toward the cow. Ground line indicated by a broken line. Representation plastic and clear. Excellent work. Under the ground line, in the field, a Greek inscription which can be read in the impression as *KOYAK*. The first four letters under the cow's legs, the last, due to a lack of the space, set apart. The inscription was engraved in a conspicuous place in block letters, and must therefore be the name of the ring's owner,¹³²² presumably a woman.¹³²³

End of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.

Publ.: Lordkipanidze 1954, 32, pl. 3.27 (dated to the 2nd century A.D.).

Analogies: Walters 1926, no. 2362 (sard); Richter 1956, no. 513 (light blue glass), no. 514 (black jasper); AGDS 1972, no. 2259 (prase intaglio of the Augustan period; stylistically analogous as well); Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 383 (carnelian, 1st century B.C.).

Ring

Rusted, broken. Presumably, the hoop merged into the bezel. The bezel cut into the ring.

67. Sardonyx intaglio with a transverse white vein in a silver ring

GNM GC 1013.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 167.

Intaglio 18×11×3 mm.

Elliptical, flat back and face.

A high-footed vase with a bird perched on it. A goat with raised head, standing in front of the vase. Ground line. Partly worked a globolo.

1st century B.C. (Italic).

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 6.104, 10.104.

Analogies of the style: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 6585 (sardonyx with a transverse vein); Walters 1926, no. 2379 (sard); AGDS 1969, no. 430 (black jasper).

Ring outside 25×17 mm.

Made of a thick plate. The hoop convex outside, concave inside (grooved), broadening to the shoulders and merging into the low, elliptical bezel, soldered onto the hoop. The bezel lost.

68. Garnet (pyrope) intaglio in a gold ring

GNM GC 651.

Zemo Avchala, Tile-Burial 1.

Intaglio 15×13.5 mm.

Elliptical, convex face.

Two birds (parrots?) face to face, perched on a large krater. Background well-polished, representation worn.

1st–2nd centuries A.D.

Publ.: Zakharov 1928, pl. 5.156; Lordkipanidze 1961, pl. 2.33.

1322 Lordkipanidze 1954, 31.

1323 Kaukhchishvili 1951, 259, no. 692.

- Analogies:* Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 5836, 6020 (both brown glass paste), no. 7915 (rock crystal); Walters, 1926, no. 2638 (red jasper); Fossing 1929, no. 1496: AGDS 1970, no. 898 (sardonyx, with three birds); Dimitrova-Milcheva 1980, no. 233 (red jasper); Guiraud 1988, pl. 55.831A (glass paste), nos. 832A, 833A (red glass paste).
Ring inside 15×13 mm; outside 27×24 mm. Made of a gold plate, probably hollow. The hoop convex inside and outside, broadening markedly to the shoulders, elliptical bezel mounted into it. Partly damaged.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 145 (1st century A.D.).
69. Dark green transparent glass intaglio
GNM GC 1255.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹³²⁴
Intaglio face 15×12 mm; back 20.5×17 mm; Th. 2 mm. Elliptical, flat face and back. Cast.
An eagle with spread wings perched on a large sphere, head turned to the left.
End of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.
Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 38, 76, fig. 114.
Analogies: AGDS 1972, no. 2437 (carnelian); Guiraud 1988, no. 731A (grayish stone), no. 732A (black jasper).
70. Blue opaque glass intaglio with a black transverse vein in a bronze ring
GNM GC 1248.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, above Burial 5.
Intaglio 11 mm.
Circular, convex face. Cast. An edge broken.
An eagle with spread wings, head turned to the left.
1st century A.D.
Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 74.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 5708. AGDS 1972, no. 3407, 3409 (blue, light brown glass paste); Fossing 1929, no. 1449 (sardonyx); Zakharov 1928, pl. 9.224 (rock crystal).
Ring inside 20×17 mm; outside 22×21 mm. Corroded.
71. Greenish transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 1101.
Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 272.¹³²⁵
Intaglio 10×8 mm.
Elliptical, flat face. Cast. Glas iridescent.
An eagle, clutching a rabbit in its claws.
1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.
Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 2.23, 10.23.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 5749–5750 (brown and purple glass paste); Kibalchich 1910, pl. 3.72 (carnelian); Walters 1926, no. 2436 (red jasper), no. 2437 (chalcedony); Fossing 1929, nos. 1441–1442; AGDS 1970, no. 904 (carnelian); Javakhishvili 1982, pl. 9.6 (carnelian).
- Ring**
The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders. The bezel cut into the ring. Corroded.
Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 1190 (1st century A.D.).
72. Rock crystal intaglio in a fragment of a bronze ring
GNM GC 626.
Zemo Avchala, Burial 4.¹³²⁶
Intaglio 7×5 mm.
Elliptical, strongly convex face.
A bee (fly?). A clear, fine, diminutive representation. Second half of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2139 (amethyst), no. 6601 (carnelian), no. 6604 (sard), no. 7076 (sard); Walters 1926, no. 2566 (sard); Dimitrova-Milcheva 1980, no. 222 (carnelian).
Ring
The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the strongly slanting shoulders and merging into a high bezel. Large part of the hoop lost.
73. Carnelian intaglio in a fragment of a bronze ring
GNM GC 1355.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, in the north-eastern corner.
Intaglio 5×4 mm.
Elliptical, flat face.
A bee (fly?). Superficial engraving, lacking in detail.
1st century A.D.
Analogies: See cat. no. 72.
Ring Diam. 13 mm.
The hoop broadening to the shoulders and merging into the bezel. Traces of fire discernible. Both the intaglio and the ring broken into two pieces. Part of the ring lost.
74. Light greenish-blue, transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring
GNM GC 1247.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 5.¹³²⁷
Intaglio 6 mm.
Round, strongly convex face. Glass iridescent.
An insect (butterfly?). Very schematic representation.
1st century A.D.
Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 33.
Analogies: See cat. no. 72.
Ring Diam. 14 mm.
The hoop thin, broadening slightly at the shoulders and merging into a low, round bezel. Large part of the hoop lost.
Analogies: Henkel 1913, no. 1119 (1st century A.D.); Javakhishvili 1972, 81, fig. 13.
75. Dark orange carnelian intaglio in a silver ring
GNM GC 1073.

1324 Cf. cat. no. 3.

1325 Together with cat. no. 36.

1326 Together with cat. no. 76.

1327 Cf. cat. no. 45.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 224.¹³²⁸

Intaglio 10×7 mm.

Elliptical, convex face.

A steering oar. Partly worked a globolo.

1st century B.C. (Italic). Set in a younger ring.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, 22, pls. 1.1, 11.1.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 29.10–11; Fossing 1929, no. 16; Richter 1956, no. 537 (sard), no. 538 (agate); AGDS 1970, no. 56923 (carnelian); Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, no. 153 (carnelian, stylistically similar), no. 154 (sard); Guiraud 1988, no. 843 (glass intaglio: steering oar and cornucopia).

Ring outside 18×18 mm; inside 12×13 mm.

The hoop thin, round in section, broadening slightly at the shoulders. A low, elliptical bezel soldered onto it.

2nd century A.D.

76. Rock crystal intaglio in a fragment of a bronze ring

GNM GC 625.

Zemo Avchala, Burial 4.¹³²⁹

Intaglio 7×5 mm.

Elliptical, strongly convex face.

A pomegranate-bough with two branches and a fruit. Fine, diminutive work.

Second half of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.

Analogy: Richter 1956, no. 573 (carnelian).

Ring

The shape exactly corresponding to cat. no. 72, found in the same burial.

77. Brownish-orange carnelian intaglio in a gold ring

GNM GC 1252.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.¹³³⁰

Intaglio 7×5 mm.

Elliptical, flat face.

A bunch of grapes. Quite deep engraving, fine work. 1st century A.D.

Publ.: Mirianashvili, 1983, 38, 74, fig. 109.

Analogies: Kibalchich 1910, pl. 2.58 (carnelian); AGDS 1969, no. 509 (red jasper).

Ring inside 14×12 mm; outside 20×18 mm.

The hoop round in section, comparatively narrow in the middle, broadening gradually to the shoulders. A rather broad, flat bezel soldered onto it.

Analogy: Marshall 1907, pl. 12.405.

78. Carnelian intaglio in a fragment of an iron ring

GNM GC 1027.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 172.¹³³¹

Intaglio 12×10 mm.

Elliptical, flat face and back.

In the center, a kalathos containing ears of wheat and poppy capsules. On each side of it, cornucopias. Ground line.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.15.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 6153 (brown glass paste), no. 6154 (bluish-white glass); Fossing 1929, nos. 1617–1618; AGDS 1972, no. 3467 (light brown glass paste).

79. A bronze ring with a rhombic bezel

GNM GC 1286.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 3.¹³³²

Bezel 11×10 mm; ring inside 17×17 mm; outside 22 mm.

An open hand.

The hoop of the ring flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders and merging into a rhombic bezel. Part of the hoop lost.

Second half of 1st century B.C.

Publ.: Mirianashvili 1983, 41, fig. 111.

Analogy: AGDS 1969, no. 508 (garnet).

80. Light blue transparent glass intaglio in a fragment of an iron ring

GNM GC 1043.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 189.¹³³³

Intaglio 11 mm.

Elliptical, flat face. Broken and incomplete.

A hand, holding a bunch of poppy capsules and ears of wheat.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.9.

Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, no. 2262 (sard), nos. 6112, 6115–6117 (brown glass paste); Kibalchich 1910, pl. 3.81 (sardonyx).

Ring

Only a rusted fragment preserved.

81. Milky chalcedony intaglio in an iron ring

GNM GC 1028.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 172.¹³³⁴

Intaglio 12×10 mm.

Elliptical, flat face.

Four ears of wheat.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.

Publ.: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 1.16.

Analogies: Fossing 1929, no. 1605; Maksimova 1950, pl. 2.59 (carnelian); Lordkipanidze 1958, pl. 2.11 (sard).

Ring

Only a rusted fragment preserved.

1328 The burial is dated to the 2nd century A.D. (Javakhishvili 1972, 22).

1329 Together with cat. no. 72.

1330 Cf. cat. no. 16.

1331 Together with cat. nos. 43, 58, 81.

1332 Together with cat. no. 34.

1333 Together with cat. nos. 29, 37, 65.

1334 Together with cat. nos. 43, 58, 78.

82. Green transparent glass intaglio in a bronze ring

GNM GC 1064.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 205.¹³³⁵**Intaglio** Diam. 8 mm.

Round, convex face.

Two ears of wheat. Fine work.

1st–beginning 2nd century A.D.*Publ.*: Javakhishvili 1972, pls. 2.29, 10.29.*Analogies*: Zakharov 1928, pl. 5.159 (carnelian);

Fossing 1929, no. 1605; Maksimova 1950, pl. 2.59

(carnelian); Lordkipanidze 1958, pl. 2.11 (sard).

Ring inside 17×13 mm; outside 21×18 mm.

The hoop flat inside, convex outside, broadening to the shoulders. The bezel cut into the ring. Slightly corroded.

Analogy: Henkel 1913, no. 148 (gold, 1st century A.D.).

83. White stone (onyx?) intaglio with a trace of a white horizontal line

GNM GC 1353.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, on the floor.

Intaglio face 9×5 mm; back 17×12 mm; H. 7 mm.

Elliptical, convex face. Traces of fire.

Capricorn, the sign of Zodiac. Diminutive, superficial representation.

1st century A.D.*Analogies*: (a goat/Capricorn? with various attributes) Furtwaengler 1896, nos. 6055, 6062 (brown glass paste), no. 6619 (sard); Richter 1956, nos. 400, 402 (carnelian), no. 401 (agate); Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 6.95–96, 107 (carnelian); AGDS 1973, no. 2356 (onyx); Henkel 1913, nos. 160, 162, 1174–1175.

Catalog of Bullae (Plates 82–83)

Bullae with Impressions of Local Seals

1. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1388.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 12, in the wall debris.

Bulla 45×34×13 mm; pres. W. of impression 38 mm.

Pinkish-gray clay.

Impression of a rectangular, flat-faced seal. The lower part and the right upper corner lost.

Three human figures *en face* with raised hands.

2. Rounded bulla

GNM GC 1390.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 12, near the eastern wall, on the floor.

Bulla 40×35×23 mm; impression 31×24 mm.

Light grayish-yellow clay. Pierced, trace of a thin cord.

Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (cracked).

Two figures, standing, in sexual intercourse.

Beside the man on the left, a discus. Same scene as on cat. nos. 3–5.

3. Bulla

GNM GC 1391.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, in the eastern corner, together with a jug (cat. of pottery no. 61).

Bulla 80×72×46 mm.

Black, burnt clay. Pierced, trace of a cord. According to the shape, formerly attached to the mouth of the jug.

Three impressions of one and the same seal, cracked, impressions difficult to make out.

Same scene as on cat. nos. 2, 4–5.

Not illustrated.

4. Large chunk of clay

GNM GC 1402.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, in the north-western corner, among the fragments of a pithos.

Bulla 130×73×46 mm; impression 31×24 mm.

Pinkish-gray clay. Formerly attached to the corner of some container.

Three impressions of one and the same elliptical, flat-faced seal (two of them chipped off).

Same scene as on cat. nos. 2–3, 5.

Not illustrated.

5. Thin piece of clay

GNM GC 1403.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, near the north-western corner, among the fragments of a jar.

Bulla 34×24×5 mm.

Grayish-pink clay. Formerly attached to a flat object.

Fragment of an impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal.

Same scene as on cat. nos. 2–4.

Not illustrated.

1335 Together with cat. no. 35.

6. Fragment of a rounded bulla

GNM GC 1387.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 12, in the wall debris.

Bulla 71×60 mm; impressions a.: 25 mm; b.: 24 mm.

Yellowish-gray clay. Trace of two thick, twisted cords.

Two different impressions of round, flat-faced seals.

a. Two confronted griffins standing on their hind legs, with short tails, small wings, and crescent-shaped horns. An animal (a feline?) lying under the griffins' front legs.

b. A roe with small horns, a fir tree in front of it, a smaller animal between its legs (a kid?), above it, birds(?).

7. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1394.

Dedoplis Gora.

Bulla 38×28×20 mm.

Pinkish-gray clay, once attached to some flat object, trace of a thick cord.

Fragment of an impression of a seal.

A griffin.

Fragment of the same impression as on cat. no. 6(a.).

Not illustrated.

8. Rounded bulla

GNM GC 1367.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1, in the center near a table.

Bulla 70×55 mm; impression 34 mm.

Pink clay. Incomplete, formerly attached to a flat object, trace of a thick, twisted cord.

Three impressions of one and the same round, flat-faced seal (two of them incomplete).

Griffin with a long, bent horn and a long, folded, raised wing, feet with long claws. Hexagonal star in front of it.

9. Piece of clay

GNM GC 1377.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 10, on the floor.

Bulla 75×68×41 mm; impression 52×51 mm.

Black clay. Formerly attached to the corner of some object. Trace of a thick cord.

Two impressions of one and the same elliptical, flat-faced seal (both incomplete, but complement one another).

Two deer, one behind the other. The one leading, with a raised head and long antlers, is a stag. The other, with small horns, a doe. A snake hanging from the stag's mouth(?). At the back of the deer following him, a round object.

Fragment of the same impression as on cat. nos. 10-11.

10. Piece of clay

GNM GC 1379.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 10, in the center, on the floor.

Size 60×56×24 mm.

Black and brown clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Trace of a thick cord.

Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).

Two deer. Fragment of the same impression as on cat. nos. 9, 11.

11. Piece of clay

GNM GC 1380.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 10, in the north-western corner.

Bulla 62×36×25 mm.

Yellowish-pink, in places, gray clay. Formerly attached to the corner of some object. Trace of a thick cord.

Fragment of an impression of a seal.

Two deer. Fragment of the same impression as on cat. nos. 9-10.

Not illustrated.

12. Elliptical bulla

GNM GC 1356.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Bulla 30×20 mm; impression 17×14 mm.

Black, in places, pinkish-gray clay. Pierced, trace of a thin cord.

Three impressions of one and the same elliptical seal.

A bear, a little cub under it, apparently nursing? A motif characteristic for "Graeco-Persian" gems.

Analogy: a blue glass polyhedron from Dmanisi, GNM GC 1339.

13. Rounded bulla

GNM GC 1397.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, near the southern wall, on the floor.

Bulla 35×32×17 mm; impression Diam. 15 mm.

Yellowish-pink clay. Pierced, trace of a thin cord.

Impression of a chain of rings.

Impression of a round, flat-faced seal.

A spirally coiled caterpillar (or centipede), with a large, round head and 16 legs.

14. Piece of clay

GNM GC 1383.

Dedoplis Gora, in front of Room 10, on the floor.

Bulla 67×52 mm; impression 51×35 mm.

Pink, in places, gray clay. Formerly attached to some flat object.

Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal. Incomplete.

A frog stretched out. Behind it, a cross.

15. Egg-shaped bulla

GNM GC 1368.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 3, near the north-western wall.

Bulla 60×44×29 mm; impression 41×32 mm.

Pinkish-white clay. Pierced, trace of a very thin thread.

Impression of an elliptical seal.

A crab and, above it, a worm (*Oligochaeta*).¹³³⁶

Same impression as on cat. nos. 16-18.

1336 The fauna was identified by N. Ninua, Zoological Department of the Georgian National Museum.

16. Bulla

GNM GC 1369.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 3, near the north-western wall, on the floor.

Bulla 60×41×27 mm; impression 37×32 mm.

Similar to cat. no. 15 in clay-color, shape, and motif.

Same impression as on cat. nos. 15, 17–18.

Not illustrated.

17. Bulla

GNM GC 1370.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 3, near the north-western wall, on the floor.

Bulla 60×41×27 mm; impression 37 mm.

Similar to cat. no. 15 in clay-color, shape, and motif (partly broken).

Same impression as on cat. nos. 15–16, 18.

Not illustrated.

18. Fragments of a bulla

GNM GC 1371.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 3, near the north-western wall, on the floor.

Similar to cat. no. 15 in clay-color, shape, and motif.

Same impression as on cat. nos. 15–17.

Cf. cat. no. 30(a).

Not illustrated.

Bullae with Impressions of Hellenistic and Roman Gems

19. Flat piece of clay

GNM GC 1360.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1.

Bulla 130×80 mm; impressions 29×24 mm.

Yellowish-gray clay. Trace of a twisted cord.

Five impressions of seals, three of them small (representation unclear). Two larger ones of an elliptical, convex-faced seal. Both impressions damaged, but complement one another to a certain extent.

Bust of a middle-aged woman in profile, framed by the oval of a gem-stone below her shoulder. The representation comparatively superficial, but clear, executed realistically and plastically. The woman has an attractively-shaped and proudly raised head; wavy hair wrapped around the head, being combed to the back of her head in a chignon; full cheeks, a rounded chin, a short, pleasing, if relatively thick neck; a high forehead; a very weak engraved brow and the root of the nose are visible on the impression; a plastically rendered shoulder covered by a chiton is clearly shown. Probably a portrait of Arsinoe III (cf. the text above).

End of the 3rd century B.C.

20. Piece of clay

GNM GC 1358.

Dedoplis Gora, Palace, in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Bulla 65×45 mm; impression 28×23 mm.

Reddish-colored clay. Formerly attached to the corner of some object.

Impression of a convex-faced seal. Representation damaged.

Bust of a bearded man in right profile. Conspicuous features are a particularly large head and an aquiline nose. Probably a portrait of Mithridates I (cf. the text above). 141–138 B.C.

21. Fragment of a rounded bulla

GNM GC 1396.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, on the floor.

Bulla 40–38 mm; impression 21×15 mm.

Pink clay. Formerly attached to a flat object.

Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal.

Bust of a middle-aged man in profile, wearing a plain diadem.

1st century B.C.

22. Fragment of a hemispherical bulla

GNM GC 1357.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1, in the north-eastern corner.

Bulla 58×39 mm; impression a. 11×8 mm;

b. 11×8 mm; c. W. 9 mm.

Pink clay. Formerly attached to the corner of some object. Trace of a thick cord.

Three impressions of different elliptical, flat-faced seals.

a. Bust of a man in profile, with a low, rounded cap.

2nd–1st century B.C. (?).cf. the coins of Princes Autophradates I or Autophradates II of Fars.¹³³⁷b. Bust of a man in profile, with his hair curling around his head and wearing a winged(?) hat (Hermes with *petasos*?)1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

c. Bust of a woman (man?) in profile (incomplete).

1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

23. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1389.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, near the north wall, on the floor.

Bulla 29×22 mm; impression: pres. L. 22 mm; W. 16 mm.

Light yellow clay. Trace of a thin cord on the back.

Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).

Mask of long-bearded Silenus, decorated with ivy leaves. The same impression as on cat. nos. 24–25.

Second half of the 1st century B.C.*Analogy:* Walters 1926, pl. 21.1577–1580; Boardman 1968, fig. 93; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, pl. 57.329–330.

1337 Babelon 1950, 80 f. pl. 12.5. J. Babelon does not say precisely who issued the coin – Autophradates I or Autophradates II. The dates of the reign of these two princes are not given. They must have lived in the 2nd century–1st century B.C. (Fraai 1972, 280 f., no. 95).

24. Fragment of a rounded bulla.

GNM GC 1393.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 12, on the floor.
Bulla 51–40 mm; W. of impression 16 mm.
Yellowish-pink clay, trace of a thick, twisted cord.
Impression of an elliptical seal, incomplete.
A Silenus-mask. The same impression as on cat. nos. 23, 25.
Second half of the 1st century B.C.
Not illustrated.

25. Rounded bulla

GNM GC 1401.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, near the northern wall, on the floor.
Bulla 27×25 mm; W. of impression 16 mm.
Yellowish-gray clay. Trace of a thick cord.
Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).
A Silenus-mask. The same impression as on cat. nos. 23–24.
Second half of the 1st century B.C.

26. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1385.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 12, near the eastern wall, on the floor.
Bulla 44×42 mm; impression 16×8 mm.
Grayish-yellow clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Pierced, trace of two thin cords.
Three impressions of one and the same elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).
Omphale, walking with her head bent down, shouldering Hercules' club. Naked, except for the skin of the Nemean lion draped over her. Well-proportioned, plastically rendered body.
Second half of the 1st century B.C.–beginning 1st century A.D.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, pl. 26.3087–3088; Furtwaengler 1900, pl. 37.13–14; Walters 1926, pls. 30.2989, 31.3168; AGDS 1969, pl. 84.473; AGDS 1972, no. 3118; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, pl. 80.487.

27. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1359.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1, near the eastern wall.
Bulla 25×18×12 mm; impression 12×9 mm.
Reddish-colored clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Pierced, trace of a thin cord. Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal.
A goddess (Fortuna?).
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Not illustrated.

28. Rounded bulla

GNM GC 1374.
Dedoplis Gora, in front of the door of Room 1, on the floor.
Bulla 35×28×12 mm; W. of impression 9 mm.

Reddish-brown clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Pierced, trace of a thin cord. Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).
A goddess (Fortuna?). Probably the same impression as on cat. no. 27.
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Not illustrated.

29. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1386.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, on the floor.
Bulla 31×29 mm; impression 12×10 mm.
Grayish-yellow clay.
Two impressions of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (one incomplete, representation unclear).
Fortuna standing with her right hand resting on a skull, with a cornucopia in her left hand.
End of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Analogy: Javakhishvili 1972, pl. 4.53.

30. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1363.
Dedoplis Gora, at the door of Room 1.
Bulla 43×24 mm; impressions a.: 14×12 mm; b.: 11×7 mm.
Dark pink clay. Formerly attached to the corner of some object. Trace of a thick cord.
Two impressions of seals.
a. impression of a rectangular seal: a Caucasian goat (*Capra Caucasica*).
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. (?); local.
b. impression of an oval seal: Fortuna, resting her right hand on a skull (details unclear).
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Same impressions as on cat. no. 31.

31. Fragment of a rounded bulla

GNM GC 1364.
Dedoplis Gora, at the door of Room 1.
Bulla 25×18×12 mm.
Dark pink clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Trace of a thick cord.
Two impressions of seals.
Same impressions as on cat. no. 30.
Not illustrated.

32. Fragment of a bulla

GNM GC 1365.
Dedoplis Gora, at the door of Room 1.
Bulla 34×26 mm; impressions 13×10 mm.
Pink clay. Trace of a thick cord.
Two impressions of one and the same elliptical, flat-faced seal.
Two confronted deities – Hygieia and Asclepius.
Same impression as on cat. no. 33.
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Analogies: Walters 1926, pl. 22.1689; AGDS 1972, pl. 240.2596.

33. Fragment of a bulla.

GNM GC 1366.

- Dedoplis Gora, at the door of Room 1.
Bulla 30–28 mm.
Dark pink clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Trace of a thick, twisted cord.
Impression of an elliptical seal.
Same impression as on cat. no. 32.
34. Rounded bulla
GNM GC 1400.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, near the northern wall, on the floor.
Bulla 29×28 mm; impression 14×11 mm.
Pinkish-gray clay. Pierced, trace of a thin cord. On the back, impression of some coarse fabric. Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).
A naked(?) male figure on the left. Indiscernible motif on the right.
Not illustrated.
35. Elliptical bulla
GNM GC 1373.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 3, at the north-western wall, on the floor.
Bulla 27×19 mm; impression 14×9 mm.
Yellowish-white clay. Trace of a cord.
Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).
A recumbent sphinx with outstretched forelegs.
Second half of the 1st century B.C.
Analogy: Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, pl. 45.264.
36. Elliptical bulla.
GNM GC 1372.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 3, at the north-western wall, on the floor.
Bulla 27×23 mm; intaglio 11 mm.
Grayish-black clay. Pierced, trace of a thin cord inside the hole. Wide flat cord on the back.
Impression of a strongly convex, round seal (incomplete).
A griffin with a long, spread wing.
Second half of the 1st century B.C. (?).
37. Fragment of a bulla
GNM GC 1406.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, on the floor.
Bulla 48×49 mm; impression 16×14 mm.
Grayish-yellow clay. Formerly attached to some flat object. Pierced, trace of two twisted cords.
Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (only the edges of three more impressions).
Two heads of a species of Caucasian goat, one behind the other.
38. Fragment of a bulla
GNM GC 1407.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, on the floor.
Bulla 61×29 mm; impressions 13×9 mm.
Yellowish-pink clay. Cylindrical. Pierced lengthwise, trace of a thin cord.
Five impressions of one and the same elliptical, convex-faced seal (incomplete).
A grasshopper.
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, pl. 53.7075; Walters 1926, pl. 29.2546; Zwierlein-Diehl 1973, pl. 90.535 (among other representations).
39. Bulla
GNM GC 1398.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 13, on the floor.
Bulla 28×24×17 mm; impression 13×10 mm.
Pinkish-gray clay. Trace of a cord.
Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (incomplete).
An eagle with spread wings, head turned to the left.
Ground line (or a thunderbolt?) at its feet.
1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.
Analogies: Furtwaengler 1896, pl. 39.5736, 5745; Walters 1926, pl. 28.2433; Richter 1956, 62.521; AGDS 1972, pl. 220.2433.
40. Fragment of a bulla
GNM GC 1399.
Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11, near the northern wall, on the floor.
Bulla 32×23 mm; W. of impression 8 mm.
Black clay. Formerly attached to a flat object. Trace of a thick cord.
Impression of an elliptical, flat-faced seal (a small fragment preserved).
A bird (eagle?) perched on a high, cylindrical altar, only the feet preserved.
Analogies: AGDS 1972, pl. 221.3438–3439.
Not illustrated.

5.2. Glass Vessels

by Mariam Saginashvili

The oldest glass vessels on the territory of Georgia appear in the 5th century B.C. in burials of Greek settlers of the Colchian coast of the Black Sea in Pichvnari near Kobuleti. There were excavated almost all well-known types of glass vessels widespread in the Greek world: alabastra, amphoriskoi, aryballoi, oinochoai.¹³³⁸ From here, they are spread first to inland Colchis – Vani¹³³⁹ and Sairkhe¹³⁴⁰, then to the highlands of Colchis – Brili¹³⁴¹ and to eastern Georgia – Enageti.¹³⁴² In the same period Mesopotamian-Achaemenian ware is being imported in Georgia: colorless glass phialae, excavated in the Algeti Valley¹³⁴³ and Sairkhe¹³⁴⁴, glass unguentaria, the so called kohl-tubes, from Kushchi,¹³⁴⁵ Vani,¹³⁴⁶ Shavsakdara II¹³⁴⁷ and Takhtidziri cemeteries, also two colored drinking vessels from the Vani Burial 11.¹³⁴⁸

Hellenistic glass vessels excavated in Georgia are rare, only two can be named: a 3rd century B.C. kohl-tube from Takhtidziri and a fusiform alabastron from Tbilisi, dated to the 2nd-1st centuries B.C.¹³⁴⁹

But from the beginning of the Roman epoch, the amount of imported glass vessels in Georgia briskly increases. In the 1st century B.C. glass was mainly imported from the eastern provinces of

Rome, particularly from Syria. Though, recent researches show that glass vessels in Iberia were imported from the western Roman provinces as well. In the 1st century A.D. glass vessels, of which the majority was imported, were widely spread in Iberia, and they are found in all more or less important centers. In the Palace of Dedoplis Gora, eleven glass vessels were excavated (cat. nos. 15, 33, 50-53, 60-64), some of them fragmentary. They are imported both from Italy and from Syria.

The technique of production of the imported glass vessels varies. There are specimens which show manufacture techniques of hellenistic tradition, and there are those made by using a blowing tube; the latter is the technique that created a new era in glass production.

Glass vessels imported to Iberia in the 1st century A.D. are divided into four groups according to the technique of producing: I – vessels made by casting and pressing, II – by mosaic method, III – blown in the mold and IV – free-blown vessels.

Mold-pressed Vessels (cat. nos. 1-5)

In group I, three types of vessels are united: a single plate (cat. no. 1), three bowls of different types (cat. nos. 2-4) and a beaker (cat. no. 5).

The plate (cat. no. 1) must be cast in a two-part mold that can be observed by the concentric lines covering both inner and outer surfaces. Obviously, the mold itself had the concentric lines; hot substance was poured into the lower part of the mold and pressed by the other part; prints of the concentric lines stayed on the glass. The same method must have been used for the production of a bowl (cat. no. 2), which resembles the plate by color and texture as well as its decoration. The

1338 Chkhaidze 1974, 40-46, pl. 1.1-5; Chkhaidze 1979, 38-40, pl. 6.1.

1339 Pirtskhalava 1983, 81-83, nos. 392-395.

1340 Nadiradze 1990a, 42, pl. 40.4.

1341 Gobejishvili 1959, 198.

1342 Lordkipanidze 1994, 156, fig. 17.

1343 Saginashvili/Gagoshidze 1973, 81-98.

1344 Makharadze/Saginashvili 1999, 11-17.

1345 Kuftin 1948, 8 f.

1346 Pirtskhalava 1983, cat. 396.

1347 Margishvili 1992, 61-63, pl. 17.5.

1348 Pirtskhalava 1983, nos. 397-398, pl. 37.

1349 Saginashvili 1977, 126-128, fig. 1.1.

analogies to both types of vessels are very rare in the material and special literature familiar to us. Apparently, they were not common. They are considered Italian production and date back to the first half of the 1st century A.D.¹³⁵⁰ The Mtskhethian Crypt, where these two vessels were found, is dated to the end of the 1st century A.D.¹³⁵¹ It is known that, after inventing the blowing tube (middle of the 1st century B.C.), the technique of molding and pressing was used side by side with the one of blowing in the mold. Blowing in the mold eventually banished the method of molding and pressing, as the former appeared to be far easier to produce glass vessels.

A greenish-white and a brownish-reddish glass bowl decorated by vertical ribs (cat. nos. 3 and 4) are also cast in a mold. They were found in Uplistsikhe in the cultural layer of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.¹³⁵² Its comparatively scanty analogies from the Northern Black Sea coast are usually dated to the 1st century A.D. Such bowls, as the specialists presume, were cast in a mold, the sides of which had grooves for obtaining vertical ribs.¹³⁵³

The third vessel from the Mtskhethian Crypt, a beaker (cat. no. 5) must have been also cast in a mold, but so far, we do not possess an exact analogy of it. It is supposed that the production of the vessels of this shape started from the end of the 1st century A.D. The dated vessels belong to the end of the 1st century A.D. or the 2nd century A.D.¹³⁵⁴ As for the centers of production, it is considered to be Egypt or Syria.¹³⁵⁵ The burial, in which the vessel appeared, is perfectly dated according to other inventory and coins to the end of the 1st century A.D.

Millefiori (cat. nos. 6–8)

The group II includes the vessels produced by the technique of the so called “millefiori” (cat. nos. 6–8). A vessel was made in the following way: glass canes of different colors were bunched together and welded until forming one colored stick; it was cut in different directions and the plaques, obtained by cutting, were put into the mold, in which the main color of glass was poured; then the mold was heated and after pressing the desired vessel was acquired, after taking the vessel out from the mold, the surface was polished. At first glance, the thick-walled bowls, produced by the technique of “millefiori”, were difficult to distinguish from the ones made of colored stones. Even this short description shows the difficulty of producing vessels by this method. It was practiced during the 1st century A.D. as well, until this technique was changed by a comparatively easy method (see below). After the 1st century A.D. “millefiori” was used in making beads.

Mold-blown Vessels (cat. nos. 9–32)

Vessels of the group III are already blown in the mold. This group includes relief unguentaria and tetrahedral bottles. The relief unguentaria – small flasks often in form of amphoriskoi – make quite an interesting and peculiar group (cat. nos. 9–28). They are decorated with different relief ornament but the technique of producing is the same; each of them is made of colored glass and is blown in a two-part mold. Vertical relief lines, observed on all of them, point to this. Parts of the mold sometimes do not coincide while matching, as a result of which the vessel is deformed (cat. no. 18).

A trefoil rim jug – oinochoe – (cat. no. 29) is also decorated with a relief ornament, which differs from the above mentioned unguentaria not only by shape and ornament, size and function, but also by the technique of production; it is made in one whole mold. All the vessels decorated with relief ornament are Syrian.

Tetrahedral bottles are blown in an open mold. One of them (cat. no. 30) has a stamp on the bottom and was presumably imported from the west, while the other two (cat. nos. 31–32) are Syrian.

1350 Kunina 1997, no. 63; Harden 1987, 45; Grose 1989, 254.

1351 Lomtatidze/Tsitsishvili 1951, 641–643; Lomtatidze 1952, 142; Lomtatidze 1959, 305.

1352 Khakhutaishvili 1970, 75.

1353 Nimpheion 1999, no. 190.

1354 Isings 1957, 37, form 21.

1355 Isings 1957, 38.

Free-blown Vessels (cat. nos. 33–65)

The last group IV is much more varied and numerous. The most outstanding of them is a mosaic amphoriskos, which is a unique find for Georgia (cat. no. 33). The technique used in producing this amphoriskos – technique of motley surface¹³⁵⁶ – was first described by the German scientist F. Fremersdorf: a mass of monochrome transparent glass was taken with a blowing tube and blown into a bubble – a half-finished product. Then, it was put into a vessel full of small, opaque colored glass bits. As a result the bits were glued to the walls of the bubble. Then, the bubble was specially rolled on a flat surface in order to fix the bits into the walls of the bubble. After this, the half finished product was put into the oven and, heated to high temperature, was blown to receive the desired shape. During the blowing, the bits of colored glass stretched and stayed on the surface of the vessel as spots and stripes of different size and shape;¹³⁵⁷ thus, a mottled surface was obtained, which, actually, was the imitation of a semi-precious stone of a jasper type. This was craftsmen's aim.

This method of producing mosaic glass was adopted after inventing a blowing tube. Apparently, this was the technique of making polychrome glass vessels, which replaced the older, "millefiori" one, already described above.

Most of the scientists ascribe the invention of mottled glass vessels to the North Italian craftsmen of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., because the majority of these vessels has been found in North Italy and its environs.¹³⁵⁸

Among free blown vessels, the most numerous are pyriform or bulging unguentaria. Two groups were distinguished according to their origin: Syrian and western – or Italian – production. The latter is of bluish-white transparent glass and comparatively big (cat. nos. 48–55); these are flasks with wide bodies, which are obviously different from the widespread Syrian flasks (cat. nos. 56–64) by color and texture of glass, as well as their size and shape.

Most of the glass vessels, described in the catalog, were imported to Iberia from Syria. It is

known, that in the 1st century A.D., Syria was the main provider of glass vessels in the world market. The great number of Syrian glass products excavated in Iberia points to the fact that this country had lively commercial-economical relation with Syria. To Iberia glass vessels were imported from Syria apparently by land. The last part of this road followed the Javakheti Kura, and it is remarkable that two figured unguentaria were found right in Javakheti (cat. nos. 11, 22).

Imports to Iberia from the west were not occasional and did not appear accidentally, as it was considered before, but were the result of regular relations. These relations, however, might have not been so close and intensive as with the eastern provinces of Rome, particularly Syria.

There are no signs of western imports in Armenia and Azerbaijan, which must point to the fact that, in the 1st century A.D., Georgia's relations with the west were realized by sea. How straight and regular these relations were, is difficult to assert.

1356 Kunina 1984, 150.

1357 Fremersdorf 1938, 118.

1358 Fremersdorf 1938, 120 f.; Simonett 1941, pl. 10.5, from the left, pl. 11.3, from the left, pl. 11.4 (two vessels from the left); Berger 1960, pl. 4.60–62.

Catalog (*Plates 84–90*)

1. Plate

GNM, Archaeological exhibition.
Mtskhétian Crypt.
H. 2.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 16.9 cm; Diam. of the foot 14.1 cm.
Dark blue, semi-transparent glass of high quality, thick-walled. Both surfaces polished. Part of the rim broken. Slightly iridescent.
Short, straight sides, rounded rim. Flat, footed base. A groove outside on the rim. A relief circle with a bulge in the center on the bottom, three concentric circles on the base. Both, inner and outer surfaces covered with circular lines (must be the imprints of the mold).
First half of the 1st century A.D. North Italy.
Analogies: Kunina 1997, no. 63; Harden 1987, 45, no. 2.21; 47, no. 23; Grose 1989, fig. 136–137.

2. Bowl

GNM, Archaeological exhibition.
Mtskhétian Crypt.
H. 3.0 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.1 cm; Diam. of the foot 5.2 cm.
Dark blue, semi-transparent glass of high quality, thick-walled. Both surfaces polished and covered with concentric lines. Slightly iridescent.
Rim folded outward. Short body with sharply sloping sides. Flat, low-footed, concave base. A narrow, concentric groove encircles the inside of the rim, the same kind of grooves on the outer surface, a small concentric circle with a relief dot on the base.
First half of the 1st century A.D. North Italy.
Analogies: Saldern et al. 1974, no. 292; Grose 1989, fig. 138; Hoericht 1986, 36, form 11.

3. Fragment of a bowl

GNM FA UC 236: 7–57.
Uplistsikhe.
H. 4.7 cm.
Bluish-white transparent glass, thick-walled. A rather big fragment, must have been hemispherical. Decorated with vertical ribs in thick relief.
1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.
Publ: Khakhutaishvili 1964, pl. 49.1–2; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 75, pl. 23.6.
Analogies: Kunina 1972, 155, fig. 5.11; Kunina 1997, nos. 54–56; Boriskovskaia 1999, no. 190, Isings 1957, 17 f., form 3a; Bucovala 1968, 37, no. 28; La Baume 1973, no. c2, pl. 7.2–3; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 254, 258; Weinberg 1973, 41, nos. 39–40, 42.

4. Fragments of a bowl (two pieces)

GNM FA UC 236: 7–57
Uplistsikhe.
Brownish-yellowish glass, thick-walled. Slightly iridescent.
Flat rim. High, thick ribs, starting below the rim at 2.1 cm and descending vertically. Inside, at 2.3 cm below the rim, two concentric grooves.

1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.
Analogies: See cat. no. 3.

5. Beaker

GNM, Archaeological exhibition.
Mtskhétian Crypt.
H. 12.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.2 cm; Diam. of the base 3.3 cm.
Colorless transparent glass, thick-walled. Restored, parts missing. Iridescent.
Wide rim, folded outward. High body, narrowing toward the bottom. Short, footed base. The rim encircled with a relief line. The body decorated with two friezes of relief ornament, located between two concentric lines. On the friezes almond-shaped deepening, inserted into each other with tips. The deepening of the lower frieze bigger. Upper and lower part of the body and the area between the friezes plain. Outside on the base, a knob with a flat head.
End of the 1st century A.D. Syria or Egypt.
Analogies: Isings 1957, 38.

6. Fragment of a bowl

GNM 48- 975: 24.
Sarkine.
H. 6.2 cm; Th. at rim 0.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 13.0 cm.
Transparent light and dark green glass with yellowish coils, thick-walled. A rather big fragment of the rim and the side. Both surfaces similar and polished. Must have been straight-rimmed, with the sides sloping to the bottom. Rather deep.
First half of the 5th century A.D. Italy.
Analogies: Shelkovnikov 1962, fig. 6; Kunina 1997, nos. 86–87; Saldern et al. 1974, no. 314; Grose 1989, figs. 143, 449–450, 454.

7. Fragment of a bowl

GNM 17- 978: 54.
Sarkine.
H. 4.3 cm; L. of the rim 3.0 cm; Th. 0.3 cm.
Brownish glass with white stripes.
Must have been straight-rimmed. The rim encircled by a narrow band, decorated with white vertical lines.
Beginning of the 1st century A.D. Italy.
Analogies: Saldern 1968, fig. 15; Grose 1989, fig. 102.

8. Fragment

GNM 3- 978: 24.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.
H. 0.3 cm; W. 1.8 cm; Th. 0.3 cm.
Decorated with white and brown lines. In the middle a white circle with a brown line.
Beginning of the 1st century A.D. Italy.
Analogies: See cat. no. 5.

9. Diminutive flask

GNM 12- 54: 11927.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Burial 264.

H. 8.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.5 cm; Diam. of the base 2.0 cm.

Light purple transparent glass of high quality, thin-walled. A small part of the rim broken. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, unevenly folded inward. Short neck and tall, cylindrical body, rounded to the neck and to the bottom. Separated, flat base. It was single-handed with a blue figured handle, which is lost. On the body three friezes: Upper and lower friezes vertically grooved, central frieze much taller, decorated with floral ornament – relief pattern of a laurel branch with leaves and fruit.

Second half of the 5th century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: Ivashchenko 1980, 188, no. 85; Honey 1946, 25 f., no. 5; Neuburg 1962, fig. 36; Israeli 1964, fig. 6, 36; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 441–442.

10. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 62: 3897.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 230.

H. 7.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.6 cm; Diam. of the base 1.9 cm.

Brownish transparent glass of high quality, thin-walled. Restored, parts missing. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, unevenly folded inward. Tall, cylindrical neck and ovoid body. Separated, flat base. Two brown handles. On the body three friezes: Upper and lower friezes vertically grooved, central frieze separated by twinned relief grooves, decorated with intersectional relief coils. Deep relief with comparatively thick lines.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 2; Saginashvili 1985, 70, pl. 10.2; Saginashvili 1988, 53, pl. 1.

Analogies: Jinjikhashvili 1980, 43, pl. 41.5; Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 107–111; Kunina 1973, 118–122, figs. 16–17; Kunina 1997, nos. 140–141; Zouhdi 1964, 53, no. 63, fig. 40; Smith Collection 1957, no. 75; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 413–415.

11. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 59: 2288.

Urbnisi, cemetery, sector XXV, Burial 57.

H. 6.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.3 cm.

Light purple transparent glass, thin-walled. One side, rim and neck broken. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, folded inward. Tall, narrow neck and uneven, ovoid body. Separated base, concave in the center. Two handles: One colored like the vessel itself, the other dark purplish-blackish. On the body three friezes: Upper and lower friezes with vertical lines, central frieze separated by a single relief groove. Decorated with relief coils, connected to each other with angular stems.

Second half of the 6th century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 1; Saginashvili 1985, 69, pl. 10.1.

Analogies: See cat. no. 8.

12. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 64: 5044.

Urbnisi, cemetery, sector XXV, in a burial.

H. 8.1; Diam. of the rim 2.5 cm; Diam. of the base 2.1 cm.

Light purple transparent glass of high quality, thin-walled. Iridescent in places.

Outplayed, uneven rim, folded inward. Tall neck and ovoid body. Separated, flat base. Two blue handles. On the body three friezes: Upper and lower friezes vertically grooved, central frieze separated by rather thick relief lines, decorated with relief coils joint to each other. Relief quite deep.

Second half of the 5th century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1982, 154 f., pl. 11.1; Saginashvili 1985, 70, pl. 10.3.

Analogies: See cat. no. 8.

13. Amphoriskos

GNM 9- 2000: 1.

Totkhami (Javakheti region), accidentally found.

H. 7.3 cm; Diam. of the base 1.8 cm.

Light blue transparent glass. Neck and rim deformed. Handles iridescent, body iridescent in places.

Outplayed, uneven, oval rim. Tall neck and ovoid body. Separated, rounded base. Two brownish handles. On the body three friezes: Upper and lower friezes grooved, separated from neck and base by single relief circles. Central frieze separated by twinned relief circles, decorated with relief coils joint to each other. Deep relief.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1988, 53, fig. 1.

Analogies: See cat no. 8.

14. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 57: 1551.

Urbnisi, cemetery, accidentally found.

H. of the neck 1.7 cm; Diam. of the base 2.4 cm.

Brownish transparent glass, thin-walled. Neck and rim partly broken. Iridescent.

Tall, narrow neck and almost spherical body. Separated, flat base. Two handles, one brownish, the other blue. On the body three friezes: Upper and lower friezes vertically grooved. Central frieze separated by relief lines, decorated with a rhombic ornament. Deep relief.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 3; Saginashvili 1985, 71, pl. 10.4; Chilashvili 1964, pl. 14.3.

Analogies: Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 113–114; Khachatryan 1976, 54, fig. 20.1, 3; Eisen/Kouchaki 1927, 271, pl. 54; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 416–417.

15. Diminutive jug

GNM 27- 977: 68 10.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11.

Diam. of the neck 1.5 cm.

Light purple transparent glass. Neck, part of shoulders and body, small fragments of relief frieze and handle preserved.

Short neck and cylindrical body. Separated, flat base. Single-handled. Body must have had two friezes, the lower frieze grooved. Shoulders and middle part of the body must have been decorated with relief ornament – probably a floral one.

1st century A.D. Syria.

16. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 58: 1910.

Urbnisi, Burial 20.

H. 7.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.5 cm.

Dark blue semi-transparent glass, thin-walled. Restored, some parts missing. Slightly iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded inward on one side (protuberances on opposite sides). Tall, narrow neck and ovoid body, horizontally ribbed. Rounded bottom. Two purple handles.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 9; Saginashvili 1985, 77, pl. 12.1.

Analogies: Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 120; Kunina 1973, 126 f., fig. 20; Smith Collection 1957, 65, no. 85; Spartz 1967, no. 37, pl. 37; Saldern et al. 1974, no. 420; Hayes 1975, no. 85; Kunina 1997, nos. 142–143.

17. Amphoriskos

GNM 9- 02: 56/2139.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery.

H. 8.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.0 cm.

Dark purple transparent glass, thin-walled. Well-preserved. Iridescent in places.

Outsplayed rim, unevenly folded inward. Tall, cylindrical neck and elongated body, horizontally ribbed. Rounded bottom. Two handles, one purple, the other greenish.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Chantre 1887, pl. 25.10.

Analogies: See cat. no. 16.

18. Diminutive jug

GNM 1- 61: 3464.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 187.

H. 6.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.4 cm; Diam. of the base 2.1 cm.

Light purple transparent glass of high quality. Slightly iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded inward. Tall, cylindrical neck and spherical body, vertically ribbed. Separated, flat base. Single handle of whitish transparent glass.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 5; Saginashvili 1985, 75, pl. 11.2.

Analogies: Marconi 1932, 39, fig. 7; Aslanov 1955, 64, fig. 26.6; Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 116–118; Kunina 1973, 123 f., fig. 18; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 426–428; Khachatrian 1976, 53 f., pl. 13.3; Nuriev 1981, pl. 3.5; Kunina 1997, no. 139.

19. Diminutive jug

GNM 1- 62: 3737.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 207.

H. 7.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.5 cm; Diam. of the base 2.2 cm.

Purple transparent glass. Iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded inward. Tall, narrow neck and spherical body, vertically ribbed. Separated, flat base. Single-handled, flat with thickened sides of blue glass.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 6; Saginashvili 1985, 75, pl. 11.3.

Analogies: See cat. no. 17.

20. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 62: 3724.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 205.

H. 7.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.7 cm; Diam. of the base 2.3 cm.

Bluish transparent glass of low quality, containing bubbles of different shape. Partly iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded inward. Tall, narrow neck (neck and rim lean on one side) and ovoid body, vertically ribbed. Separated, uneven base. Two bluish-white handles.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 4; Saginashvili 1985, pl. 11.1.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: See cat. no. 17.

21. Polyhedral amphoriskos

GNM 1- 58: 1889.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 15.

H. 5.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.2 cm.

Yellowish transparent glass, thin-walled. Sides broken. Slightly iridescent.

Outsplayed rim. Cylindrical neck and polyhedral body (14 facets). Separated edge at the base. Two handles of brownish glass, attached to the rim and to the shoulders. Septagonal rather big side facets, decorated with relief circles and a hardly noticeable relief dot in the center. The rest of the facets plain.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 7; Saginashvili 1985, 79, pl. 12.2.

Analogies: Eisen/Kouchaki 1927, pl. 54; Maksimova 1950, 249, fig. 5; Smith Collection 1957, 65, fig. 87–88; Ugrelidze 1961, pl. 7; Lordkipanidze 1968, pl. 11.2 (in the middle); Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 122–124; Kunina 1973, 124–126, fig. 19; Saldern et al. 1974, no. 437; Saginashvili 1970, nos. 7–8; Saginashvili 1985, 79–82, pl. 12.2; Kunina 1997, no. 137.

22. Polyhedral amphoriskos

Moscow, State Historical Museum 55738.

Urbnisi, Uvarova's excavations.

H. 7.1 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.7 cm.

Greenish transparent glass, thick-walled. Iridescent. Flat rim folded inward. Tall, deformed neck and polyhedral body. Rounded base. Two handles of

blackish-bluish glass. On the side facets single relief circle without a dot.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: MAK 4 (1894), 142, fig. 125; Chilashvili 1964, pl. 14.2; Saginashvili 1970, no. 8.

Analogies: See cat. no. 20.

23. Polyhedral amphoriskos

GNM 12- 54: 10648.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south section, Burial 148.

H. 7.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.5 cm; L. of the base 1.4 cm;

Yellowish-brownish transparent glass.

Outplayed rim, folded inward. Tall, narrow neck and polyhedral body (16 facets). Sharp edge at the base. Octagonal side facets, decorated with two relief circles and a small bulge in the center. The rest of the facets plain. Two handles of blue glass attached to the neck and the facets, decorated with circles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Maksimova 1950, 249, fig. 5; Ugrelidze 1961, pl. 7; Lordkipanidze 1968, pl. 11.2 (middle).

Analogies: See cat. no. 20.

24. Polyhedral amphoriskos

GNM 9- 2000: 2.

Totkhami (Javakheti region), accidentally found.

H. 6.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.6 cm.

Light green transparent glass. Traces of iridescence on some places, handles strongly iridescent.

Outplayed, rounded rim, folded inward. Tall, cylindrical neck and polyhedral body (16 facets). Uneven edge at the base. Octagonal, rather big side facets, decorated with relief circles. The rest of the facets plain. Two dark greenish handles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1988, 53 f., fig. 2.

Analogies: See cat. no. 20.

25. Flask

GNM 12- 54: 11928.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Burial 264.

H. 7.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 1.5 cm; base 0.8×1.2 cm.

Yellowish transparent glass, thin-walled. Rim broken (a small part preserved), body broken in two places, one handle broken (its trace visible on the neck). Iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck and round body with flattened sides. Separated, quadrangular, flat base. Both sides of the body decorated with concentric relief circles. Between the circles on one side an octagonal convex rosette, on the other side a heptagonal flat one. Two grayish figured handles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon).

Publ.: Ugrelidze 1961, pl. 6.

Analogies: Kisa 1908, 63, fig. 268; Eisen/Kouchaki 1927, 254, 271, pl. 54; Israeli 1964, 41, fig. 16; Saldern 1968, no. 32; Saginashvili 1970, no. 10; Saldern et al. 1974,

no. 436; Neverov 1980, no. 278; Saginashvili 1985, 82 f., pl. 11.4; Kunina 1997, no. 128.

26. Flask

GNM 1- 61: 3354.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 170.

H. 7.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.6 cm.

Dark reddish-purplish transparent glass, thick-walled. Small part broken. Traces of iridescence in places.

Outplayed rim, folded on one side. Tall, cylindrical neck and round body with flattened sides. Separated, quadrangular, flat base. Two grayish-bluish handles. Both sides of the body decorated with relief ornament. One side with flat surface, decorated with a heptagonal rosette and a relief dot in the center. The other side with a convex surface, decorated with an octagonal rosette. On both sides, the rosettes set in two concentric relief circles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria (Sidon).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 10; Saginashvili 1985, 82 f., pl. 11.4.

Analogies: See cat. no. 24.

27. Date-shape unguentarium

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 01- 6: 75- 4742.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 4.

H. 8.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.6 cm.

Yellowish, transparent glass of high quality, thin-walled.

Outplayed rim, unevenly folded inward. Short, cylindrical neck and elongated body. Rounded bottom. On the body longish relief zigzags. Comparable to a dried fruit of a date palm.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, 69, no. 152, fig. 410, 428.

Analogies: Marconi 1932, 39, fig. 7; Smith Collection 1957, no. 256; Tiratsian 1959, 75 (2nd fig. on the left in the 1st row); Neuburg 1962, pl. 15.50; Zouhdi 1964, no. 37, fig. 30; Spartz 1967, pl. 8.36; Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 127-129; Kunina 1973, 128, fig. 21.1-2; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 476-477; Hayes 1975, nos. 87-89; Kunina 1997, no. 146.

28. Date-shape unguentarium

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 01- 6: 108- 4750.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 6.

H. 8.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.1 cm.

Brownish glass of high quality, thin-walled.

Outplayed rim, folded inward. Short, cylindrical neck and elongated body, ending in a pointed bottom. On the body deep relief zigzags. Comparable to a dried fruit of a date palm.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, 71, no. 168, figs. 422, 429.

Analogies: See cat. no. 26.

29. Oinochoe.

GNM 1- 58: 1905.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 20.

H. 11.6 cm; Diam. of the base 3.9 cm; L. of the rim with lip 4.9 cm.

Dark red transparent glass. Restored, parts missing. Wide trefoil rim. Tall neck and bulging body, tapering to the bottom. Flat, footed, slightly concave base. Single-handled, finishing in a loop-like end above the rim. Body decorated with a relief ornament: On upper and lower parts double rows of small bulges. Between them a central frieze of big, intersectional circles, small bulges in the centers of the circles.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 12; Saginashvili 1985, 84 f., pl. XIII.

Analogies: Eisen/Kouchaki 1927, 602, pl. 146 (first row, first on the left); Saldern et al. 1974, no. 488; Neverov 1980, no. 261 (not illustrated); Kunina 1997, nos. 123–125.

30. Tetrahedral bottle

GNM 1- 62: 3990.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 230.

H. 19.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 4.9 cm; base 7×6.8 cm.

Bluish transparent glass, bubbled, thick-walled. Slightly iridescent.

Outsplayed rim. Cylindrical neck, sharply separated from tall, tetrahedral body. Slightly concave, square base. Single flat handle, thickened on the sides. On the neck shallow concentric ribs incised. Bottom decorated with five relief circles, four in the corners and a bigger one in the center.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Western Europe, Gallia/Rhine region(?)

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 16; Saginashvili 1985, 85–88, pl. 12.3;

Analogies: Vessberg 1952, pl. 6.5; Isings 1957, 66, form 50b; Vanderhoeven 1961, nos. 69, 70; Sorokina 1965, 226–231, fig. 12, lower row 18–20; Charlesworth 1966, 35, fig. 18; Kunina 1972, 155, fig. 5.28; Sorokina 1980, 93–95, figs. 2, 6; Kunina 1997, no. 165a–b.

31. Tetrahedral bottle

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 4743.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 4.

H. 14.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.4 cm; base 7×7 cm.

Pale bluish-whitish transparent glass, thick-walled. Iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded inward and raised. Tall, narrow, cylindrical neck on a rounded shoulder. Short, tetrahedral body. Flat, square base. Single flat handle with thickened sides.

Middle or second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, 69, 150, fig. 408.

Analogies: Sorokina 1957, 42, pl. 12.4; Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 135; Kunina 1972, 155, fig. 5.27, 158, figs. 6.20, 23; Kunina 1997, nos. 163, 164.

32. Tetrahedral bottle

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 4744.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery I, Burial 4.

H. 13.4 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.3 cm; base 7×7 cm.

Pale bluish-whitish transparent glass, thick-walled. One side broken. Iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded and raised, profiled. Tall, broad, cylindrical neck on a rounded shoulder. Tetrahedral body. Flat, square base. Single flat handle with thickened sides.

Middle or second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, 69, fig. 407.

Analogies: See cat. no. 29.

33. Amphoriskos

GNM 27- 977: 6811.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 11.

H. 11.0 cm; Diam. of the body 7.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.0 cm.

Yellowish transparent glass, thin-walled. Surface covered with red, pale blue and white opaque glass lines (on the neck) and spots (on the body). Fragmentary, deformed in fire.

Outsplayed rim, unevenly folded inward. Long neck, must have had a bulging body. Convex bottom. Two bluish transparent handles extending from the rim to the shoulder.

First half of the 1st century A.D. North Italy.

Analogies: Saldern 1968, 15, fig. 23; Saldern et al. 1974, no. 392; Auth 1976, 60, no. 55; Platz-Horster 1976, no. 46; Neverov 1980, no. 265 (without illustration); Kunina 1984, 151, nos. 3–5, pl. 1.3–5; Kunina 1997, nos. 188–190.

34. Bowl

GNM 1- 58: 1901.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 20.

Diam. at the shoulder 8.9 cm; Th. at the rim 0.1 cm.

Pale blue transparent glass, thin-walled. Middle part, rim and fragment of the base preserved. Iridescent.

Convex rim and hemispherical body. Thick, convex bottom. A rather big rib encircles the shoulder, with disorderly coiled white painted narrow stripes. White painted spiral on the bottom. Vertical white painted lines with rounded heads on the body, beginning from the end of the rib.

First half of the 1st century A.D. North Italy.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 11.

Analogies: Sorokina 1962, 214, fig. 2.6–6a; Spartz 1967, pl. 3.27; Bucovala 1968, 39 f., no. 32; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 260, 262; Kunina 1984, 152 f., nos. 7–9; Kunina 1997, no. 204.

35. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 61: 3352.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 170.

H. 5.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.1 cm; Diam. of the base 1.3 cm.

Dark blue opaque glass, thin-walled. Rim broken on one side. Slightly iridescent.

Outsplayed rim, folded inward. Tall neck and ovoid body. Footed, concave, uneven bottom. Two handles of the same color.

First half of the 1st century A.D. North Italy.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 15.

Analogies: Saldern et al. 1974, no. 548.

36. Amphoriskos

GNM 1- 61: 3257.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 152.

H. 7.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.3 cm; Diam. of the base 1.7 cm.

Light blue semi-transparent glass, containing hardly noticeable bubbles. Well-preserved. Almost not iridescent.

Outplayed rim, folded on one side. Tall, narrow neck on sharply sloping shoulders. Tall body tapering downward. Small, rounded base. White opaque glass knobs attached to the shoulders, which are broken – might be the remains of handles, though there are no signs of attaching of handles on the neck and the rim.

1st century A.D. Italy (?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 14.

Analogies could not be found.

37. Diminutive jar

GNM 1- 58: 1914.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 20.

H. 4.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.3 cm; Diam. of the base 2.1 cm.

Whitish-pinkish semi-transparent glass, thick-walled. Restored, parts missing. Iridescent. Broad rim, bulging body. Small, flat base.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Western provincial.

Publ.: Isings 1957, 88, form 68; Saldern et al. 1974, no. 578; Gushchina/Sorokina 1984, 48 f., figs. 1–11.

38. Aryballos

GNM 1- 61: 3541.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 193.

H. 14 cm; Diam. of the rim 4.8 cm; Diam. of the base 4.8 cm.

Yellowish-brownish transparent glass, thin-walled. Restored, parts missing. Partly iridescent. Broad rim, stepped and folded. Tall, cylindrical neck and spherical body. Concave base. Body decorated with horizontal flutes: Double flutes on upper and lower parts, three in the middle. Two brown, semitransparent handles.

1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean (Cyprus?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 45.

Analogies: Vessberg 1952, pls. 7.10, 23.20, 24.110; Isings 1957, 90, form 70; Ugrelidze 1961, pl. 9; Hayes 1975, no. 146; Sorokina/Gushchina 1980, 95 f., 6, figs. 2–7; Kunina 1997, nos. 214–216; Boriskovskaia 1999, nos. 200–201.

39. Aryballos

GNM 1- 61: 3542.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 193.

H. 11.8 cm; Diam. of the rim 4.5 cm; Diam. of the base 6.1 cm.

Greenish transparent glass, thin-walled. Restored (rim broken on one side). Covered with thin layer of white iridescence.

Broad rim, folded. Tall, cylindrical neck and spherical body. Concave base. Body decorated with en-

graved horizontal grooves: Double grooves on upper and lower parts, single in the middle. Two handles.

1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean (Cyprus?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 46.

Analogies: See cat. no. 38.

40. Aryballos

GNM 9- 02: 56a/2138.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Bayern's excavations.

H. 8.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.2 cm; Diam. of the base 2.0 cm.

Greenish-white transparent glass, thin-walled. Slightly iridescent.

Broad rim, folded. Tall, cylindrical neck and spherical body. Rather small flat base. Double grooves around the body. Two handles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Publ.: Chantre 1887, pl. 25.8.

Analogies: Isings 1957, 78–81, form 61; Vanderhoeven 1961, 81 f., pl. 20.87; Bucovala 1968, 81, no. 129;

Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 72; Saldern et al. 1974, no. 518; Sorokina 1987, fig. 2–4, 6; Kunina 1997, no. 228.

41. Aryballos

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 4741.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 4.

H. 8.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.3 cm; Diam. of the base 2 cm.

Whitish-greenish transparent glass, thick-walled. Rim partly broken.

Broad rim, folded and stepped. Tall, cylindrical neck and spherical body. Rather small, flat base. Two handles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, fig. 409.

Analogies: See cat. no. 40.

42. Amphoriskos

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 01- 6: 73- 4740.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 4.

H. 5.1 cm; Diam. of the rim 1.6 cm; Diam. of the base 2.2 cm.

Colorless transparent glass, thin-walled. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, folded. Tall, narrow neck and ovoid body. Footed base, convex, with rounded edges. Two handles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, fig. 413.

Analogies: Saginashvili 1970, no. 56; Kunina 1997, no. 358.

43. Amphoriskos

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 01- 6: 193.

Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 13.

Diam. of the rim 2.0 cm; Diam. of the base 2.4 cm.

Yellowish-brownish transparent glass, thin-walled. Broken in the middle, parts missing. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, folded. Short neck and elongated ovoid body, tapering downward. Round, footed base. Two purple handles.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Analogies: See cat. no. 41.

44. Aryballos

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 01- 6: 106- 4748. Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery I, Burial 6. H. 6.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.3 cm; Diam. of the base 2 cm.

Dark blue transparent glass, thin-walled. Traces of iridescence.

Outplayed rim, unevenly folded inward. Tall, narrow neck and spherical body. Rather small, slightly convex base. Two whitish-grayish handles. Rim slightly deformed.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, fig. 423.

Analogies: Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 61; Saginashvili 1970, nos. 49-50; Saldern et al. 1974, nos. 541-542; Hayes 1975, no. 122; Kunina 1997, no. 342.

45. Aryballos

Archaeological Institute of Mtskheta 01- 6: 71- 4738. Mtskheta, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Burial 4.

H. 4.5 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.2 cm; Diam. of the base 0.1 cm.

Light purple transparent glass of high quality, thin-walled. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, narrow neck and spherical body. Small flat base, slightly concave in the center. Two dark blue handles, attached to the neck and to the shoulders.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Publ.: Mtskheta II, fig. 411.

Analogies: Mtskheta II, fig. 315; Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 65; Saginashvili 1970, nos. 52-54.

46. Diminutive jug

GNM 1- 62: 3898.

Urbnisi, Burial 230.

H. 6.1 cm; Diam. of the rim 2 cm; Diam. of the base 1.9 cm.

Light purple transparent glass, thin-walled. Partly iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, narrow neck and spherical body. Concave base. Single yellowish-purplish handle. Second half of the 1st century A.D. Italy (?).

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 55.

Analogies: Simonett 1941, fig. 124.17; Isings 1957, 31 f., form 14; Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 58-59.

47. Beaker

GNM 12- 54: 10649.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Burial 148.

H. 10.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 8.1 cm; Diam. of the base 4.8 cm.

Whitish-bluish transparent glass, thin-walled. Restored, parts missing. Slightly iridescent.

Broad, outplayed, slightly thickened rim. Tall body, tapering downward. Footed, concave base.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Analogies: Sorokina 1957, 42, pl. 12.1; Ugreldze 1961, pl. 5; Spartz 1967, pl. 34.127; Bucovala 1968, 50, no. 52; 51, no. 54; Kunina 1997, no. 300.

48. Diminutive flask

GNM 12- 54: 9164.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Burial 63.

H. 2.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 1.0 cm; Diam. of the base 0.6 cm.

Yellowish transparent glass, thin-walled. Iridescent. Outplayed rim. Tall, narrow neck and low, bulging body. Flat base.

Second half or end of the 1st century A.D. North Italy (?).

Analogies: Makalatia 1928, 176, pl. 11.2; Simonett 1941, 97, fig. 79.11; Chilashvili 1964, 51, figs. 27.2, 3; Saginashvili 1970, nos. 18-41; Kunina 1972, 170, fig. 11.16; Jinjikhshvili 1980, pls. 17.6, 7; 49.3; Mirianashvili 1983, 72, fig. 155.2; Alekseeva 1982b, fig. 56.6; Kunina 1997, no. 3.

49. Diminutive flask

GNM 12- 54: 10647.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, south sector, Burial 148.

H. 3.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 1.0 cm; Diam. of the base 0.8 cm.

Whitish transparent glass, thin-walled. Highly iridescent.

Outplayed, flat rim. Tall, narrow neck and sloping body, rounded to the bottom. Flat base. Neck sharply separated from the body.

Second half or the end of the 1st century A.D. North Italy (?).

Analogies: See cat. no. 48.

50. Flask

GNM 27- 977: 963.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1.

H. 18.6 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.6 cm; Diam. of the base 4.1 cm.

Greenish transparent glass of low quality, containing bubbles of different size, thick-walled. Large part of the surface damaged. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck and pear-like body. Broad, flat base. Neck separated from the body by a narrow groove.

1st century A.D. Italy.

Analogies: Dusenbery 1967, 42, figs. 22-23; Pompeii 1973, 109, no. 130; Auth 1976, 114, no. 133; Platz-Horster 1976, no. 121; Buiukliev 1986, no. 354, pl. 27.

51. Flask

GNM, 27- 977: 961.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1.

H. 17.1 cm; Diam. of the rim 4 cm; Diam. of the base 3.8 cm.

Whitish-bluish transparent glass, thin-walled. Body restored, parts missing. Slightly iridescent. Outplayed rim. Tall, broad neck and bulging body, broadening to the bottom. Flat base. Neck sharply separated from the body.

1st century A.D. Italy.

Analogies: Bucovala 1968, 56, no. 63; La Baume 1973, pl. 56.1, no. 13; Auth 1976, 210, no. 395; Buiukliev 1986, pl. 27.359; Hoericht 1986, no. 212 (El 151).

52. Flask

GNM 27- 977: 962.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1.

H. 16.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 4 cm; Diam. of the base 4.6 cm.

Pale bluish transparent glass of low quality, containing bubbles of different size, thick-walled. Some parts of the surface damaged. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck and sloping body, broadening to the bottom. Broad, flat base. Neck separated from the body by thin grooves. On neck and shoulders small black dots.

1st century A.D. Italy.

Analogies: Faider-Feytmans 1952, pl. 58, R. 92, 159; Spartz 1967, pl. 6.6; Bucovala 1968, 57, no. 65; Saginashvili 1974, 167, pl. 11.2; Auth 1976, 209, no. 393; Platz-Horster 1976, no. 119; Hoericht 1986, no. 214 (E 587); Buiukliev 1986, pl. 27.353, 355.

53. Flask

GNM 27- 977: 964.

Dedoplis Gora, in Room 1.

H. 14.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.8 cm; Diam. of the base 3.9 cm.

Pale bluish transparent glass of low quality, containing bubbles of different size and shape, thin-walled. Surface partly damaged. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck and unevenly bulging body. Slightly concave base.

1st century A.D. Italy.

Analogies: See cat. no. 51.

54. Flask

GNM 13- 24: 8.

Zemo Avtchala, Burial 2.

H. 15 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.4 cm; Diam. of the base 6 cm.

Bluish-greenish transparent glass of low quality, containing lots of extended bubbles, thick-walled. Slightly iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck and bulging body, broadening to the bottom. Broad, flat base.

1st century A.D. Italy.

Publ.: Makalatia 1928, 176, pl. 9.3.

Analogies: See cat. no. 51.

55. Flask

GNM 9- 51: 22.

Kldeeti.

H. 18.3 cm; Diam. of the rim 4.5 cm; Diam. of the base 7.0 cm.

Greenish-bluish transparent glass, thick-walled. Iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall cylindrical neck and bulging body. Flat base.

1st century A.D. Italy.

Publ.: Lomtadze 1957, 23 f.

Analogies: See cat. no. 51.

56. Flask

GNM 1- 62: 3882.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 230.

H. 15.2, Diam. of the rim 2.9 cm; Diam. of the base 3.8 cm.

Greenish transparent glass, thick-walled. Strongly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, folded on one side. Tall, cylindrical neck and conical body. Slightly concave base.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 72.

Analogies: Edgar 1905, pl. 8.32640; Harden 1936, pl. 20.797; Toll 1946, pl. 7; Bucovala 1968, 148, fig. 7; Kunina 1972, 151, figs. 3.15, 37; 152, figs. 4–9; 155, figs. 5.1–4; Kunina 1997, no. 362.

57. Flask

GNM 1- 61: 3480.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 189.

H. 11.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.4 cm; Diam. of the base 4.2 cm.

Green transparent glass, thick-walled. Highly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, folded inward. Cylindrical neck and conical body. Slightly concave base.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 74.

Analogies: Edgar 1905, pl. 8.32643; Harden 1936, pl. 20.797; Toll 1946, pl. 44.12; Isings 1957, 42 f., form 28b; Bucovala 1968, 148, fig. 8; Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 20; Kunina 1997, no. 361.

58. Flask

GNM 1- 61: 3545.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 193.

H. 9.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.4 cm; Diam. of the base 3.7 cm.

Whitish-bluish transparent glass of low quality, thick-walled. Iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall neck and short conical body. Flat base.

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 110.

Analogies: Toll 1946, pls. 53 (Burial 40), 56 (Burial 46); Hayes 1975, no. 165; Auth 1976, no. 426; Kunina 1997, no. 364.

59. Flask

GNM 1- 61: 2547.

Urbnisi, cemetery, Burial 193.

H. 9.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.5 cm; Diam. of the base 4.8 cm.

Dark green transparent glass, thick-walled. Restored. Iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall neck and short conical body. Flat base (on the base trace of a blowing tube preserved).

Second half of the 1st century A.D. Syria.

Publ.: Saginashvili 1970, no. 125.

Analogies: Edgar 1905, pl. 8.32665, 61.32697; Toll 1946, pls. 41.9; 53 (Burial 40); Kalandadze 1949, pl. 4; Filarska 1952, 194, pl. 44.4; Lordkipanidze 1968, fig. 2.1, 3; Arakelian et al. 1969, no. 2.

60. Flask

GNM FA A 142a: 2627.

Dedoplis Gora, south-western part of the hill (found in 1926).

H. 15.7 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.1 cm; Diam. of the base 3.8 cm.

Green transparent glass, thick-walled. Covered with an iridescence layer.

Outplayed, uneven rim. Tall, cylindrical neck, bulging body, broadening to the bottom. Rather small and slightly concave base.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: Saginashvili 1970, nos. 99, 103–104; Arakelian et al. 1969, nos. 23–25; Kunina 1972, fig. 2.2, 9, 12; Edgar 1905, 52, pl. 8.32643.

61. Fragment of a flask

GNM FA A 143a: 2630.

Dedoplis Gora, south-western part of the hill (found in 1926).

Diam. of the rim 3.8 cm; Diam. of the neck 6.8 cm.

Light green transparent glass, thick-walled. Rim, neck and shoulders preserved. Highly iridescent.

Outplayed rim, triangular in section. Tall, cylindrical neck, body must have been bulging. Flat base.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: See cat. no. 60.

62. Fragment of a flask

GNM FA A 143b: 2632.

Dedoplis Gora, south-western part of the hill (found in 1926).

Diam. of the rim 3.4 cm; Diam. of the neck 5.5 cm.

Light green transparent glass, thick-walled. Rim and neck preserved. Iridescent.

Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck, body must have been bulging.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: See cat. no. 60.

63. Fragments of a flask

GNM FA A 143e: 2643.

Dedoplis Gora, south-western part of the hill (found in 1926).

Diam. of the rim 3.6 cm.

Green transparent glass, thick-walled. Fragments of rim and neck preserved. Iridescent.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: See cat. no. 60.

64. Flask

GNM FA A 143b: 2631.

Dedoplis Gora, south-western part of the hill (found in 1926).

H. 10.2 cm; Diam. of the rim 3.0 cm; H. of the neck 4.4 cm.

Green transparent glass, thick-walled. Highly iridescent. Outplayed rim. Tall, cylindrical neck and bulging body. Flat base.

1st century A.D. Syria.

Analogies: See cat. no. 60.

65. Guttus

GNM 1- 59: 2575.

Urbnisi, accidentally found.

H. 8.0 cm; W. 9.9 cm; Diam. of the rim 2.9 cm; Diam. of the base 4.9 cm.

Whitish transparent glass of low quality, thick-walled.

Outplayed, unevenly folded rim. Tall, broad neck and bulging body, one side stretched and ending with a hole – comparable to the shape of a duck. Concave base.

1st century A.D. Eastern Mediterranean.

Analogies: Neuburg 1949, pl. 18.61; Filarska 1952, 159 f., pl. 35.3; Bucovala 1968, 78 f., fig. 123, 126;

Saginashvili 1970, no. 169; Kunina 1997, no. 380.

5.3. Monetary Circulation in Iberia in the 1st Century B.C.- 1st Century A.D.

by Medea Sherozia

Archaeological excavations in the territory of ancient Iberia have brought instructive numismatic finds to light. The evidence provided by these coins is of great importance for the study of the kingdom's commercial and economic situation, as well as for dating archaeological monuments and contexts.

It is *communis opinio* that the united East Georgian kingdom was founded in the 4th-3rd centuries B.C.¹³⁵⁹ But the local currency of this epoch has not yet been identified. The money economy in Iberia seems to have been only rudimentarily developed at this time. The absolute majority of the Classical and Hellenistic coins excavated here was international currency, and their occurrence can be explained by the trade route passing through Georgia, which connected East and West, and further, as G. Melikishvili notes, "... besides this route, ancient Iberia was obviously crossed by an entire network of trade-routes. Four arterial roads mentioned by Strabo were also trade routes which connected Armenia, Albania, Colchis, and the North Caucasian nomads. Besides Mtskheta, other populous centers, particularly in the Kura Valley, were situated along these arterial roads".¹³⁶⁰

Classical and Hellenistic Coins

The most interesting finds in the list of Classical and Hellenistic coins from East Georgia (see below) are those of Colchian triobols; twelve specimens were found in six different localities. The most remarkable of these are the finds made

in cemeteries (the Tsnisi Gorge cemetery, Bornighele, Takhtidziri. They lead us to reconsider current conceptions of the distribution of Colchian coins (and, therefore, of Colchian culture) and to include South Georgia in this sphere, in particular, the Borjomi-Akhaltsikhe region and western Shida Kartli, which apparently participated in Colchian commerce and monetary circulation.

The monetary economy in Iberia must have been still quite rudimentary in the 2nd century B.C., and intensive circulation of coinage does not begin here until the end of the 2nd century B.C., to expand in the 1st century B.C., especially in the mid-1st century B.C.

Parthian Coins

The basis of monetary circulation in the Kartlian kingdom in the 2nd century B.C., and at the turn of the 2nd to the 1st century B.C., was Parthian coinage. It is obvious that, at this time, Iberia's political and economical orientation was directed eastward. Numismatic evidence confirms the information provided by the authors of Kartlis Tskhovreba about the Georgian kings' pro-Parthian orientation in the 2nd century B.C. They were trying to win the Parthians as allies in order to be able to defend themselves against Armenia.¹³⁶¹ Moreover, Parthia was the most powerful state in the Near East at the end of the 2nd century B.C., especially under Mithridates II (123-88 B.C.). Its territory at this time reached from the Euphrates to the Indus. And the Parthian kings continued to conquer other lands. The objects of their interest were West-Iran, Armenia, and the rich cities in Mesopotamia. Later, especially from the

1359 Melikishvili 1970a, 444.

1360 Melikishvili 1970b, 452.

1361 Kartlis Tskhovreba, 28; Melikishvili 1970b, 467.

mid-1st century A.D. on, as a result of Roman expansion, the political orientation of the Georgian kings changed, and they turned away from Parthia. In spite of this reversal, Parthian coins retained their former importance, and formed the basis of the monetary economy in the Kartlian kingdom throughout the 1st century B.C.

The list of Parthian coins (see below) gives a clear impression of the particular importance of Parthian currency in Iberia's monetary economy. The area of its distribution coincides with the borders of the Iberian kingdom. A regular inflow of Parthian coins has been recorded since the reign of Mithridates II (138–88 B.C.). Coins of Orodes II (57–37 B.C.) and of Gotarzes II (40–51 A.D.) are the most numerous. During their reigns, no particular changes in the political relations between Parthia and Georgia were made.

Parthian monetary policy was quite conservative, which is probably the reason for the long circulation of Parthian coinage. Coins minted in the 1st century B.C. remain in use until the end of the 1st century A.D., as is shown by their occurrence in later burials. Drachms of Orodes II, which are common in burials of the 1st century A.D.,¹³⁶² remain in use even longer, and, although they become less frequent in find-complexes of the 2nd century A.D., they still remain in circulation. In Mtskheta, for example, in the Baiatkhevi cemetery, near the Samtavro cemetery, where burials primarily of the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. were excavated in 1986, mostly drachms of Gotarzes II and denarii of Augustus were found. This is typical for find-complexes of the 2nd century A.D., but a drachm of Orodes II was also found there.¹³⁶³ Drachms of Gotarzes II remain in circulation for quite a long time. The reasons for this persistence are quite complicated, and will be discussed below.

1362 For example, Tsitsamuri III: most of the burials in this cemetery, which was excavated in 1986, are dated to the 1st century, or to the turn of the 1st to the 2nd century; in these burials, we normally find drachms of Orodes II (e.g., Burial 12, with five drachms of Orodes II and a denarius of Augustus [nos. 01/4-III-39–44]).

1363 Burial 35 (no. 01/35-I-1986): two drachms of Gotarzes and one of Orodes II (nos. 71–73).

Roman Republican Coins

At the beginning of the 1st century B.C. in the lands situated to the south of Georgia, events of great political importance take place. These nations come into the growing sphere of Roman influence. Rome takes up an active and successful struggle against Pontus and Armenia. Historical sources report that the Iberian kingdom was allied with both of these kingdoms. This alliance was the reason for Pompey's campaign in Transcaucasia, in particular, in Iberia. This campaign, as G. Melikishvili notes,¹³⁶⁴ was not only intended to enlarge the Roman Empire, but the Romans were interested in Transcaucasia as a region of strategic importance.

Their particular interest in Georgia also finds its expression in the country's money market. From the beginning of the 1st century B.C. on, but more intensively in the middle of the century, Roman coins start to circulate in the monetary market. The earliest well-dated archaeological complex in which Roman currency has been found is the Burial 12 of the Rikianebis Veli cemetery in Aghaiani, in which a silver tetradrachm of Mithridates Eupator struck in 72–71 B.C. had been placed in the mouth of the deceased; in his right hand, he held a denarius of the Roman Republic, coined in Rome in 86 B.C. The excavator, N. Mirianashvili, dates this burial to the middle of the 1st century B.C.¹³⁶⁵ Burial 6 (11), with the earliest coins, in which there were a Cappadocian drachm of Ariarathes IV (220–162 B.C.) struck in 187 B.C., Parthian drachms of Mithridates II (123–88 B.C.), and of Phraates III (70–57 B.C.), must also be dated to the end of the 1st century B.C.; the youngest coin was that of Orodes II (51–37 B.C.).¹³⁶⁶

It is noteworthy that the earliest Roman coin – a denarius coined in Rome in 118 B.C. – was found in a grave dated at least one century later. In Burial 39 (63) at Nastagisi, excavated in 1979, the earliest of the seven coins found is a denarius of Augustus, struck in Lugdunum in Gaul between 2 B.C. and 4 A.D. Evidence that this coin had been in use for a long period of time is the fact that it had been equipped with a mounting, i.e., it had been used as jewelry.

1364 Melikishvili 1970c, 501.

1365 Mirianashvili 1983, 35 f.

1366 Mirianashvili 1983, 33 f.; Dundua 1987, 159 f.

These finds show that Roman Republican coinage circulated in Georgia from the middle of the 1st century B.C. on. Some assume – not without foundation – that the major share of this Roman currency must have been brought here by Pompey's soldiers, because it no longer appears in the monetary circulation of the 1st century A.D.

The money market of the 1st century A.D., especially from the second half of the century on, has a completely different character. But before we discuss these new aspects, it would be necessary to consider the role and function of local imitations of staters of Alexander and of Lysimachus in Georgian numismatics, in particular, their role in the monetary circulation in Iberia. Because the circulation of imitations is a secondary aspect, and was preceded by intensive circulation of the originals, we give some statistics.

In Georgia, 37 staters of Alexander the Great and eight staters of Lysimachus have been found. Of these, as should be clear from the list below, two original staters of Alexander the Great were found in East Georgia – one in Mtskheta¹³⁶⁷ and one in Takhtidziri,¹³⁶⁸ (pl. 91, no. 1) while only one stater of Lysimachus (a posthumous issue) was found – at Dedoplis Gora (pl. 91, no. 2). But the circulation of these coins in East Georgia must have been more intensive than it appears. Otherwise, it would be difficult to explain what could have caused such an extensive production of local imitations of these coins in Iberia, where over 37 imitations of staters of Alexander have been found to date¹³⁶⁹ (Mtskheta: nine coins; Aghaiani: one coin; Java: one coin; Bori, Zestafoni district: two coins; Ilemi: one coin; Kldeeti: 13 coins; Imereti: two coins), and eight imitations of staters of Lysimachus¹³⁷⁰ (Tbilisi: one coin; Aghaiani: five coins; Gori: one coin; Sakobiano, Akhmeta district: one coin).

If these coins had ever played a role in the commerce or monetary circulation in Iberia at any time, then only at the end of the 1st century B.C. From the end of the 1st century A.D., they were probably withdrawn from circulation, although there is one instance in which an imitation of a stater of Alexander was found together with a

coin of the 2nd century A.D. of Hadrian (117–138): in Kldeeti, Burial 4. A. N. Zograf's and G. Dundua's research has shown that imitation of staters of Alexander began in Georgia in the 1st century B.C., or at the beginning of the 1st century A.D., and was preceded by imitation of staters of Lysimachus.¹³⁷¹

The purpose of these imitations is still unclear. S. Makalatia is of the opinion¹³⁷² that the imitations were not genuine currency, but had ritual function, and were coined only to be used as grave-gifts. S. Makalatia's hypothesis is not categorically rejected by G. Dundua, who believes that production of these imitations cannot be attributed to the royal authorities of Colchis or Iberia, and that it was initiated in one of the centers of West Georgia. Workshops producing them then took up work elsewhere as well, at first in East Colchis and later in Iberia.¹³⁷³ D. Kapanadze sees no reason to doubt that imitations of these coins had served as legal tender.¹³⁷⁴

Roman expansion also changed the political and economic situation in historical Iberia. Pompey's campaign in Transcaucasia (65 B.C.) resulted, on the one hand, in establishing Aristarchus' (65–45 B.C.) rule, whereupon Colchis had apparently been subordinated to the kingdom of Pontus. In 63 A.D., Nero made Pontus and, with it, Colchis, Roman provinces. From this time on, Colchis was dependent on Asia Minor, in particular, on Cappadocia, both politically and economically. From the point of view of monetary circulation, it was divided into two regions: the Black Sea coast and its environs, where the basis of monetary circulation was the coinage struck in Cappadocian Caesarea (the main source of this currency was Roman garrisons in sea-ports) and the hinterland (historical Argveti), which gradually comes into the sphere of the Iberian Kingdom's political influence.

Pompey's campaign also resulted in Iberia's being subordinated to Rome, but in a different status than that of Colchis. Furthermore, Iberia intended to shake off this subjugation, an objective which was fostered by the ever more complicated political situation in Rome, as well as by

1367 Apakidze et al. 1955, 49.

1368 Gagoshidze 1998.

1369 Apakidze et al. 1955, 85.

1370 Apakidze et al. 1955.

1371 Zograf 1935, 90, 182; Zograf 1945, 34, 54 f.; Dundua 1987, 94.

1372 Makalatia 1952, 181.

1373 Dundua 1987, 102.

1374 Kapanadze 1953.

the strained relations between Rome and Parthia. In 53 B.C., in the battle by Carrhae, the Parthians defeated the army of the "First Triumvirate" (Pompey, Caesar, Crassus), which stopped Rome's expansion in the East and brought about a new political equilibrium between Rome and Parthia¹³⁷⁵ – which, of course, was advantageous for the Iberians. There was nonetheless a further Roman invasion in Iberia (36 B.C.), after which Rome remained militarily reserved for a longer period.

Apart from the positive foreign political situation, progress in the country's economic life is noticeable from the very beginning of the 1st century A.D. on. With the blossoming of the economy, Kartli's capital, Mtskheta, and its environs become especially rich and powerful, and from this time on, its pre-eminence is obvious. According to the grave inventories of the Samtavro cemetery, the level of prosperity of an average Mtskhethian citizen must have been relatively high. "Burials of the first three centuries A.D. at Samtavro are supposed to be richer and, therefore, the population must have been more prosperous than that of Panticapaeum in the same epoch ... It must be added that in the necropolis of Panticapaeum, we find only copper coins, while in Samtavro they are of silver and even gold".¹³⁷⁶ These are the observations of the archaeologist M. Ivashchenko, who carried out investigations in Mtskheta for a number of years.

As we noted above, changes occur in the monetary circulation within the Iberian kingdom. In the first half of the 1st century A.D., the basis of the money economy were the Parthian drachms of Orodes II (57–37 B.C.), local imitations of staters of Alexander and of Lysimachus, and Roman Imperial gold and silver coins, which begin to find their place in the Iberian economy.

Roman Imperial Coins

From the end of the 1st century B.C., the imitations disappear from circulation. Two issues become clearly predominant in circulation: one of these is a denarius of Augustus (27–14 B.C.), on the averse of which the portrait of Augustus wearing a laurel wreath is shown in right profile,

with a Latin inscription surrounding it; on the reverse, there are representations of Gaius and Lucius Caesar, also with a Latin inscription surrounding them.

To date, more than 350 examples of this denarius have been found in Georgia. This is more than half of the coins of this period found here. In spite of this coinage's homogeneity, it is nonetheless possible to distinguish several variants. H. Mattingly,¹³⁷⁷ distinguishes a main type with four variants (a–d). This classification is based on the occurrence of religious symbols – simpulum and lituus – on the reverse, and on the presence of the sign "x" under these symbols.

On the main type of the coins, the simpulum is usually on the left, and the lituus is on the right, confronting; on variant a, the simpulum is on the left, and the lituus on the right, but back to back; on variant b, the simpulum is on the left, the lituus on the right, confronting, with the letter "x" beneath them; on variant c, the lituus is on the left, the simpulum on the right, with an "x" beneath them; on variant d, the lituus is on the left, the simpulum on the right. As for the "x", it often occurs on early Roman coins, and gives the coin's denomination: "10". But from the 2nd century B.C. on, signs giving the denomination disappear from Roman coins. They reappear in the Byzantine period.¹³⁷⁸ M. Grant presumes that these variants of denarii of Augustus were probably coined for a certain limited region, and proposes that this was Germany.¹³⁷⁹ The widespread occurrence of this variant in Georgia makes this hypothesis seem doubtful.

Among the coins excavated in Georgia, we find not only variant a, but others as well. The great majority, however, is of the main type (i.e., simpulum on the left and lituus on the right, confronting).

Some suppose that this type was coined in 2 B.C.–4 A.D., as the title on the obverse (*Pater Patriae*) was assumed by Augustus in 2 B.C., and the Emperor's adopted sons, Gaius and Lucius Caesar, shown on the reverse, had died by 4 A.D.¹³⁸⁰ Mattingly assumes that this type was coined in 2 B.C.–11 A.D. in the mint at Lugdunum (Lyon), because it was the only mint issu-

¹³⁷⁵ Melikishvili 1970c, 507.

¹³⁷⁶ Ivashchenko 1980, 209.

¹³⁷⁷ Mattingly 1923, 88.

¹³⁷⁸ Kazamanova 1969, 45.

¹³⁷⁹ Grant 1954, 79.

¹³⁸⁰ Mashkin 1949, 419.

ing coinage for the entire Empire.¹³⁸¹ This is based on Strabo's information that Lugdunum was the official center for gold and silver issues.¹³⁸²

M. Grant believes that this type could have been struck in 2 B.C.–14 A.D., which is debatable; as for the mint, he assumes that these coins are the issues of three or four different mints¹³⁸³. This hypothesis is supported by the Russian numismatist M. Golenko. He proposes that this type could be the production of two or three mints, that it was issued for quite a long time, and in large emissions.¹³⁸⁴ This hypothesis is supported by numerous finds of this coinage, both in Rome itself, as well as in the provinces, especially in Spain, the Balkans, Central Europe, the Near East, India¹³⁸⁵, Caucasia, and elsewhere.

The popularity of this type, and of Imperial coins in general, was promoted by the policy that, on January 13th, 27 A.D., the Roman provinces were divided into those subject to the Senate and those governed immediately by the Emperor. The provinces on the Empire's borders formerly governed by the Senate were now subject to the Emperor. In these provinces, troops were stationed which Augustus held well under control. The Emperor, of course, paid his soldiers.¹³⁸⁶ If we take the fact into consideration that the boundaries of the Roman Empire extended to Armenia, and, in addition, that the conflict between Parthia and Rome led to a concentration of Roman legions in this area, we may conclude that this type of coin most probably came to Caucasia in such large amounts by way of the Roman legions.

As noted above, more than 350 denarii of Augustus have been excavated in the historical Kartlian kingdom of Iberia. The distribution of this coinage is as follows: plain of Shida Kartli with Mtskheta and environs (Tsitsamuri, Natakhtari, Zemo Avchala, Nichbisi, Naoza, Aghaiani, Zghuderi, Ruisi, Urbnisi, Akh'algori), Tbilisi (Dighomi, Vake, Didi Lilo, Ghrma Ghele, Nadzaladevi); South Georgian highlands: Dmanisi, Avralo, Tsalka; Tetriskaro district: Jorjiash-

vilebi; historical Gare Kakheti: Magraneti-Kushanaantgora, Trani; historical Kakheti: Cheremi; East Georgian highlands: Dusheti (Sakatmeebi, Taltebi, Bagi-Chala), Zhinvali; West Georgia (Argveti): Bori, Kldeeti.¹³⁸⁷ The numerical distribution of the coins listed below is as follows: approximately 200 of them, i.e., more than half, have been found in Mtskheta and environs. The next greater concentration is that in the Aragvi Valley, in particular, in the environs of Zhinvali with 47 samples, Sghuderi with 31, Ertso-Tianeti with 15, Kldeeti with 14, Urbnisi with nine, and in the rest of the places cited, one or two specimens each were found. Most of these coins have been found in the later complexes of the 2nd–3rd centuries. Burial 12, excavated in Tsitsamuri, Section III, by the Mtskheta Archaeological Expedition in 1986, in which there were five drachms of Orodes II and one denarius of Augustus, is well dated to the 1st century; Burial 24 contained a denarius of Augustus and a drachm of Phraates III (?). The Mtskhetian Crypt, in which, among other coins, there was a denarius of Augustus, is dated to the second half of the 1st century B.C.

Denarii of Augustus were found together with earlier coins also in Aghaiani: in Burial 3 – Phraates IV (37–2 B.C.) and a denarius of Augustus; in Burial 7 – Orodes II (57–37 B.C.), two denarii of Augustus and a Caesarean drachm of Caligula; in Burial 10 – imitation of a stater of Alexander, Phraates IV, three coins of Orodes II, two denarii of Augustus, one drachm of Phraates III (70–57 B.C.).¹³⁸⁸

Excavation results show that the denarius of Augustus was particularly widely distributed in the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. (burials in Armaziskhevi, the Mogvtakari cemetery, Zhinvali and elsewhere). The popularity of this currency apparently also led to a spate of local imitations.

Along with denarii of Augustus, the so-called drachm of Gotarzes gradually pervades the Iberian money economy. Due to the fact that the history of the Parthian kingdom in general, and of Parthian currency in particular are too little known, attribution of the coinage has to be based on outdated literature. The greatest problem is trying to ascribe a coin to an "anonymous" ruler. This concerns above all an emission of great in-

1381 Mattingly 1923, 88.

1382 Grant 1954, 185.

1383 Grant 1954.

1384 Golenko 1964, 42.

1385 Zograf 1945.

1386 A legionary earned a little less than one denarius a day under Augustus: Grant 1954, 175.

1387 Information obtained from the inventory of the Georgian National Museum.

1388 Kapanadze, D. 1955, 18 f.

terest, which, according to J. G. Le Rider,¹³⁸⁹ is to be attributed to Artabanus II, who reigned in 10/11–38 A.D. Le Rider, however, could not prove his opinion convincingly, and therefore most numismatists still adhere to W. Wroth's attribution.¹³⁹⁰

A. Sellwood¹³⁹¹ distributes "Gotarzes coinage" over three different kings: Artabanus II (10–40 A.D.), Gotarzes II (40–51 A.D.) and Artabanus III (80–81 A.D.).

The chronological distribution of drachms of Gotarzes in Iberia coincides with that of the denarii of Augustus, although it is possible that the latter came into circulation a bit later. The topographical distribution of these two issues also coincides. According to the information available, 235 examples of "Gotarzes-type" coins have been found in ancient Iberia. Most of them were excavated in Mtskheta and environs, but they are also common in the Aragvi Valley; in the Zhinvali necropolis, 90% of the denarii of Augustus and of the drachms of Gotarzes, taken together, were found in contexts dated to the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D.

Our present knowledge leads to the conclusion that, during the first three centuries A.D., the leading role in the money economy was played by the denarius of Augustus and the drachm of Gotarzes. These two coin issues were in parallel circulation, both of them were available to the masses of the population. This is indicated by their prevalence in "middle class" burials. This, however, is the situation in Iberia, and is not typical of other Transcaucasian countries, in particular, of Armenia or Albania. Their money market was quite different: co-existence of denarii of Augustus and of drachms of Gotarzes is unknown there.¹³⁹² This fact prompts us to challenge the opinion according to which the introduction of Roman and Parthian coins into Georgia supposedly took place by way of Armenia. One assumes that these coins came to the Armenian border through international trade and with Roman soldiers, who served and later settled there. From the capital of Armenia, Artashat, coins circulated into Iberia by way of the routes shown on Castorius' map.¹³⁹³ Parthian coinage

came from the south-western coast of the Caspian Sea into Azerbaijan and Armenia. From here, it was spread through the Kura Valley into Georgia, and, first of all, to its commercial and administrative center, Mtskheta.

It would be difficult to support this opinion on the basis of the finds known at present. In Armenia, 37 denarii of Augustus (with Gaius and Lucius Caesar on the reverse) have been found, of which 29 are casual finds. In most cases, moreover, their find-circumstances are quite poorly known, and only eight of these coins have been found in graves – all of these in Garni.¹³⁹⁴

It is noteworthy that in the hoard of Roman coins of the 1st–2nd centuries A.D. excavated in 1955, in which there were 49 coins ranging from Vespasian (69–75 A.D.) to Commodus (180–192 A.D.) and his wife, there was not a single denarius of Augustus.

Since 1937, there have been regular excavations in Dvin, one of the historical capitals of Armenia, which also had been an important center in Roman times: a pagan temple had been built there. In the center of the capital, an extensive Roman cemetery with a very interesting inventory was excavated, in which, however, not a single Roman coin has been found.¹³⁹⁵ Kh. Meshegian lists only three Roman coins dating to the Early Imperial period among the casual finds. One of these was a denarius of Augustus of the type which interests us here.¹³⁹⁶

The results of the excavations in Artashat, the capital of Armenia in Late Hellenistic and Roman times, are particularly important. During eight excavation campaigns there between 1970 and 1977, 86 coins were found, but no denarius of Augustus.¹³⁹⁷

In view of these facts, it is difficult to accept the assertion of Kh. Mushegian that "the broad distribution of denarii of Augustus permits us to assume that Armenia was one of the countries in the East, where silver coins with Augustus' portrait were struck".¹³⁹⁸ The opinion of G. Sarkisian seems much more credible; he wrote that "on the basis of the material known at present, it would be necessary to revise established conceptions on

1389 Le Rider 1965.

1390 Wroth 1903.

1391 Sellwood 1967; Sellwood 1971.

1392 Sarkisian 1979; Sarkisian 1986.

1393 Sarkisian 1979.

1394 Sarkisian 1979, 250.

1395 Kafadarian 1982, 146.

1396 Mushegian 1975, 9.

1397 Arakelian 1982.

1398 Mushegian 1975, 10.

the circulation of denarii of Augustus in Armenia, although it should not be denied that these denarii played a definite role in Armenia's economy ... The present material does not enable us to determine the place of their production and the time-span of their circulation in Armenia".¹³⁹⁹

We should agree with this author that, on the basis of the material known today, it is not possible to ascertain which role the denarius of Augustus played in Armenia's monetary circulation, or how such coins were brought to Armenia. All of these considerations cast doubt on the established opinion that these coins were introduced into Iberia from Armenia, and from there into eastern Colchis through the Surami Pass. This is improbable, as is shown by the fact that Iberia's money economy in Roman times, according to the material found, was far richer and more varied, both in Roman and in Parthian coinage, than Armenia's. According to the documentation of the Armenian State Historical Museum, the total number of Roman coins of the 1st–3rd centuries A.D., including the hoard (49 objects) of the 2nd century A.D. from Garni, is a bit more than 100, while, according to incomplete data, more than 350 denarii of Augustus alone have been found in Georgia. Alone in Mtskheta and environs, more than 500 Roman coins have been found. If we add the material from other regions, we would obtain a quite respectable figure.¹⁴⁰⁰ As for the drachms of Gotarzes, the situation is even more interesting: excavations in Armenia have to date not brought a single coin of Gotarzes to light. Among the 35 drachms of Gotarzes in the collection of the Armenian State Historical Museum (in Shida Kartli alone more than 200 such coins have been found), which have been donated from different parts of the world, we discovered only one – which had been provided with a mounting, and had apparently been used as jewelry – accompanied by the sparse information that it had been found in 1965 somewhere near Erivan. This leads us to the supposition that drachms of Gotarzes played no important role in Armenia's monetary circulation in Roman times,

and apparently did not co-exist with denarii of Augustus, as was the case in Iberia.

We can gain information about the distribution of Parthian coins in Armenia on the basis of a hoard excavated in Artashat in 1972, which included the following coins of the 2nd–1st centuries B.C.: two drachms of Mithridates I (171–138 B.C.), one drachm of Artabanus I (128–124 B.C.), five drachms of Mithridates II (124–88 B.C.), and one drachm of Sinatruces (77–70 B.C.).¹⁴⁰¹ This is augmented by similar material, which leads us to suppose that, in the Late Hellenistic period, Parthian coins were in circulation in Armenia, while in Roman times, however paradoxical it may seem with regard to the historical situation (the Armenian kings were vassals of the Arsacid royal family), Parthian coins played no important role in Armenia's money market. This consideration alone would seem to exclude the Armenian route into Iberia for Parthian coins, at least under the Roman Empire. Other than in Armenia, the basis of monetary circulation in the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D. in Caucasian Albania (today's Azerbaijan) was Parthian coinage,¹⁴⁰² and the frequency of drachms of Gotarzes is also obvious here (though not as strongly as in Iberia); but in contrast to Georgia, denarii of Augustus are comparatively rare in Albania: only five of these coins have been reported,¹⁴⁰³ and only two of them were grave-finds. No denarius of Augustus has been found associated with a drachm of Gotarzes II.

The peculiarities of the Iberian money market lead us to assume that there must have been some other method of bringing Roman and Parthian coins into circulation in Iberia, which differed from the mechanisms in Armenia and Albania. It may be that the international trade route which connected the Black Sea with the Caspian Sea, and led from there to India, was the means of distribution.¹⁴⁰⁴ This hypothesis is supported by the number of denarii of Augustus found in India, whether as isolated specimens, or in hoards.¹⁴⁰⁵

1399 Sarkisian 1979, 250 f.

1400 The relatively small number of coins found in Armenia can be explained by the fact that only North-east Armenia – the present Republic of Armenia – has been studied archaeologically. But it is also true that all three capitals of Armenia in Late Hellenistic, Roman, and Early Byzantine times – Artashat, Dvin, and Valarshapat – are located there, and have been thoroughly explored.

1401 Arakelian 1982, 52.

1402 Pakhomov 1926, 17.

1403 Pakhomov 1938, no. 342; Pakhomov 1940, no. 766; Pakhomov 1949, no. 1039; Pakhomov 1954, no. 1549; Pakhomov 1957, no. 1737.

1404 Iampolski 1956, 16; Lordkipanidze 1968a.

1405 Mattingly, 1923, 77.

Catalog

List of Classical and Hellenistic Coins

1. Achaemenian *shiqu* (shekel), 6th–4th centuries B.C.
Near Surami, presumably now in the Hermitage [Pakhomov 1926, 36.2]. Together with 3 Colchian triobols.
2. Athenian tetradrachm, 5th–4th centuries B.C.
Sakire (Dmanisi district) [Pakhomov 1949b, 7.1310].
3. Olbian AE, 4th century B.C. GNM CH 9562.
Nichbisi [Dundua 1987, I, 36]. We consider this coin to be later, and date it to the 2nd century B.C.
4. AU-Stater of Alexander the Great, 336–328 B.C. GNM CH 7798.
Mtskheta, Japaridze Street 9, in a Roman burial. In the same burial: Parthian drachm of Gotarzes and denarius of Augustus, 2 B.C.–4 A.D.
5. AU-Stater of Alexander the Great, 336–328 B.C. GNM CH 25238. (*pl. 91, no. 1*)
Takhtidziri, Burial 8. In the same burial: a poorly preserved, presumably Colchian coin.
6. AU-Stater of Lysimachus (306–282 B.C.), Byzantium, beginning of the 2nd century B.C. GNM CH 25237. (*pl. 91, no. 2*)
Dedoplis Gora, in the courtyard, in the burnt layer (found 1986). Shows traces of damage by fire.
7. Colchian triobol.
Armaztsikhe, near the ruins of the bath [Mtskheta I, 179].
8. Colchian triobol. GNM CH 729.
Atskuri (Akhaltzikhe district), accidentally found.
9. 3 Colchian triobols. GNM CH 23307, 23308, 23309.
Tsnisi (Akhaltzikhe district), Tsnisiskhevi cemetery (4th–3rd centuries B.C.), Burial 21.
10. Colchian coin. GNM CH 23306.
Tsnisi (Akhaltzikhe district), Tsnisiskhevi cemetery (4th–3rd centuries B.C.), Cist-Grave 28.
11. Colchian triobol. GNM CH 23310.
Tsnisi (Akhaltzikhe district), Tsnisiskhevi cemetery (4th–3rd centuries B.C.), Cist-Grave 44 [Ghambashidze et. al. 1984, p 18. 22].
12. Colchian triobol.
Bornigheli cemetery (Akhaltzikhe district), Burial 3 (4th–3rd centuries B.C.), in the mouth of the deceased [Ghambashidze/Ghambashidze 1986, 21, 27].
13. Egypt, Ptolemy III (247–222 B.C.). GNM CH 2262.
Near Mtskheta, by construction of a bridge.
14. Cappadocia, drachm of Ariarathes IV (220–163 B.C.). GNM CH 16914.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 6 (1st century B.C.) [Mirianashvili 1983, 33; Dundua 1987, 159].
15. Syria, AE of Demetrius I. Soter (150–145 B.C.). GNM CH 8707.
Dighomi (suburb of Tbilisi) (found 1937) [Dundua 1987, 145].
14. Tetradrachm of Antiochos Euergetes (138–129 B.C.). Tskhinvali Museum.
Tskhinvali (found 1943) [Dundua 1987, 145].
16. Sogdiana, imitation of a tetradrachm of Euthydemus I, 1st century B.C.
Near Pasanauri (found 1959) [Dundua 1987, 145].
17. 6 bactrian AR, present whereabouts unknown.
Tbilisi, by construction of the Women's Gymnasium (found 1874) [Dundua 1987, 145].
18. Cilicia, Soli, 2nd–1st centuries B.C.
Tbilisi (found in the 1890's) [Dundua 1987, 145].
19. Pontus, Amisos (111–105 B.C.). GNM CH 7483.
On the road between Akhaltzikhe and Bogdanovka [Dundua 1987, 145].
20. Pontus, AE, 111–105 or 105–90 B.C. GNM CH 10020.
Mtskheta [Dundua 1987, 145].
21. Pontus, Sinope, AE, 111–105 or 105–90 B.C. GNM CH 9959.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery [Dundua 1987, 145].
22. Pontus, Amisos, AE, 80–70 B.C.
Mtskheta, Armaztsikhe, present whereabouts unknown [Dundua 1987, 146].
23. Pontus, AE, 80–70 B.C. GNM CH 11004.
Mtskheta [Dundua 1987, 146].
24. Pontus, Amisos, AE, 1st century B.C.
Mtskheta [Dundua 1987, 146].

25. Pontus, Amastris, AE, 105–90 B.C. GNM CH 10556.
Tbilisi, in the bed of the Kura River [Dundua 1987, 146].
26. Pontus, AE, 111–105 or 105–90 B.C. Mtskheta Museum 11250.
Mtskheta, by excavations at the Gate [Dundua 1987, 146].
27. Pontus, 2 coins of Polemon I (14–9 B.C.).
GNM CH 9270, 9271.
Mtskhetian Crypt.
28. Cappadocia, drachm of Ariobarzanes I (96–63 B.C.).
Mtskheta Museum 11244.
Mtskheta, at the Gate [Dundua 1987, 146].
29. Armenia, 3 tetradrachms of Tigranes II (95–55 B.C.),
83–69 B.C. GNM CH 16878, 16879, 16917.
Aghaiani.
30. Armenia, tetradrachm of Tigranes II (95–55 B.C.),
Erivan Historical Museum 17426.
Takhcha (Akhalkalaki district) [Dundua 1987, 135,
146; Mirianashvili 1983, 28, 37].

List of Parthian coins

Mithridates I (171–138 B.C.)

1. Environs of Gori.
Gori Museum 8065/1.

Artabanus I (128/7–123 B.C.)

1. Takhtidziri (Kareli district), Burial 27.
(*pl. 91, no. 3*)

Mithridates II (123–88 B.C.) – 9 coins

1. Aghaiani, Rikianevis Veli cemetery, Burial 6 (11).
GNM CGC 16912. In the same burial: Cappadocia: Ariarathes IV (220–163 B.C.), 187 B.C., GNM CGC 16914; Parthia: Phraates III (70–57 B.C.), GNM CGC 16913; Orodes II, GNM CGC 16915 [Dundua 1987].
2. Gori.
Gori Museum 8052/10.
3. Environs of Kutaisi.
Kutaisi Museum 4398.
4. Mtskheta, in Pithos-Burial 5
Mtskheta Museum 9411. [Abramishvili 1974].

5. Mtskheta, Akhali Armazi, Burial 11.
(*pl. 91, no. 4*)

6. Mtskheta-Narekvavi III.
In the same burial: 4 drachms of Orodes II.¹⁴⁰⁶

7. Mtskheta-Svetitskhoveli I, Burial 12.
In the same burial: drachms of Orodes II and of Gotarzes.

8. Skhliti (Znauri district), found 1951.
Gori Museum.

9. Zhinvali, in Burial 264.
GNM CGC 25353.

Artabanus II (88–77 B.C.) – 11 coins

1. Aghaiani, Rikianevis Veli cemetery.
- GNM CGC 15565, Burial 27. In the same burial: 7 drachms of Orodes II and 2 drachms of Phraates IV (38/37–3/2 B.C.).
- 2 coins. GNM CGC 18820, 18821, Burial 3. In the same burial: 17 drachms of Orodes II and a drachm of Phraates III (70–57 B.C.).

2. Kemperi (Khashuri district).
Gori Museum 7552/9.

3. Mtskhetian Crypt.
2 coins. GNM CGC 9219, 9266.¹⁴⁰⁷

4. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery (found 1938).
GNM CGC 9960.

5. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, cultural layer (found 1940).

6. Shroma (Vachnadziani, Gurjaani district), Burial 15.
Gurjaani Museum [Abramishvili 1974].

1406 Coins excavated in Mtskheta since 1975 were temporarily transferred to the Mtskheta Museum. They were classified by G. Dundua and M. Sherozia. While studying the material, we consulted the inventory list and indicate the number of coins where appropriate.

1407 In the Mtskhetian Crypt, dated to the end of the 1st century A.D., there were, besides coins of Artabanus II, 49 Parthian drachms one each of Sinatruces, Phraates III and Phraates IV, three of Mithridates III, and 43 of Orodes II), two drachms of Polemon I, king of Pontus, a denarius of Augustus, aurei of the Emperors Tiberius, Nero, Vitellius, and Vespasian, and five local imitations of staters of Alexander the Great – in all, 63 coins and one coin-like discentury

7. Tsromi (Khashuri district).
Gori Museum 7613/5.

Sinatruces (77–70 B.C.) – 11 coins

1. Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 5.
2 coins. GNM CGC 16902, 16888. In the same burial: an imitation of a stater of Alexander, a drachm of Phraates III, a drachm of Phraates IV, 9 drachms of Orodes II, 10 denarii of Augustus and one of Tiberius (14–37 A.D.).
2. Arkneti (Znauri district), Vasastskaro cemetery, Burial 2.
2 coins. GNM CGC 10075, 10076.
3. Dighomi (Gardabani district), in a burial.
GNM CGC 9348.
4. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Pithos-Burial 209.
GNM CGC 10030.

5. Mtskhetian Crypt.
GNM CGC 9220.

6. Vani.
GNM CGC 11126.

7. Zhinvali (Dusheti district), Burial 423.
GNM CGC 25404.

Phraates III (70–57 B.C.) – 11 coins

1. Abisi, Kareli district.
GNM CGC 10586.
2. Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery.
- GNM CGC 16893, Burial 5.
- GNM CGC 16913, Burial 6.
- GNM CGC 18809, Burial 3.
3. Mtskhetian Crypt.
GNM CGC 9221.
4. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery.
- GNM CGC 9964, North Section, Tile-Burial 7.
- GNM CGC 9965, North Section, Pithos-Burial 10.
- GNM CGC 9978, South Section, Pithos-Burial 110.
- GNM CGC 9989, North Section, Burial 120.
5. Mtskheta-Tsitsamuri III, Burial 24.¹⁴⁰⁸

1408 W. Wroth proposes an hypothesis about this coin-type of Phraates III (Wroth 1903, 51).

6. South Ossetia Archaeological Expedition.
GNM CGC 10074.

Mithridates III (57–54 B.C.) – 7 coins

1. Mtskhetian Crypt.
3 coins. GNM CGC 9229, 9232, 9247.
2. Stirfazi (Java district), Burial 6.
In the same burial: an imitation of a stater of Alexander and a denarius of Augustus.
3. Takhtidziri, in Burial 23.
GNM CGC 25740. In the same burial: a drachm of Orodes II.
4. Mokhisi (Kareli district).
GNM CGC 22600.
5. Zhinvali (Dusheti district), Burial 254.
GNM CGC 25354.

Orodes II (57–37 B.C.) – 170 coins

1. Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery.
- 7 coins. GNM CGC 15560, 15561, 15562, 15563, 15564, 15567, 15568, Burial 27.
- GNM CGC 15559, Burial 26. In the same burial: an imitation of a stater of Lysimachus.
- 2 coins. GNM CGC 16872, 18805, Burial 2. In the same burial: 2 denarii of Augustus and 1 of Caligula.
- 9 coins. GNM CGC 16892, 16894–96, 16899–16901, 16805, 16906, Burial 5.
- GNM CGC 16915, Burial 6.
- 3 coins. GNM CGC 16918, 16920, 16921, Burial 8.
- GNM CGC 16922, Burial 9. In the same burial: coins of Gotarzes and Augustus.
- 16 coins. GNM CGC 18810–18818, 18822–18828, Burial 3.
2. Akhaldaba, in a pit-burial.
GNM CGC 11483.
3. Arkneti (Znauri district), Vasastskaro cemetery, Burial 2.
2 coins. GNM CGC 10077, 10078.
4. Bagichala (Dusheti district).
- GNM CGC 25440, Burial 9.
- GNM CGC 25441, Burial 10.
- 3 coins. GNM CGC 25442, Burial 12.
- GNM CGC 25439, Burial 32.
5. Bolnisi.
GNM CGC 9089.

6. Dzegvi (Mtskheta district), Tsikhedidi Khevi cemetery, Bargikaria, Burial 7.
7. Dzveli Dmanisi (Dmanisi district).
8. Eki (Senaki district).
9. Gori, accidentally found.
Gori Museum 2867.
10. Environs of Gori (found 1900–1910).
11. Kavtiskhevi, in a burial.
2 coins. GNM CGC 10160, 10161.
12. Kavtiskhevi.
13. Kodistskaro (Kaspi district).
14. GNM CGC 1864.
Kojori (Gardabani district), in the ruins of the Koroghli fortress.
15. Kvemo Aranisi (Dusheti district), in a disturbed burial.
GNM CGC 25476.
16. Kvishkheti (Khashuri district).
GNM CGC 4805.
17. Mokhisi (Kareli district).
8 coins. GNM CGC 22601–22608. In the same burial: a drachm of Phraates IV.
18. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery.
- 2 coins. North Section, Pithos-Burial 6.
- GNM CGC 9988, North Section, Burial 120.
- 1 coin, Burial 425.
19. Mtskhetian Crypt.
43 coins. GNM CGC 9222–9228, 9230–9231, 9233–9246, 9248–9265, 9267–9268.
20. Mtskheta, Karsniskhevi, Burial 12.
21. Mtskheta-Svetitskhoveli I.
- 1 coin, Burial 6.
- 2 coins, Burial 13.
- 1 coin, Burial 12. In the same burial: a drachm of Gotarzes.
22. Mtskheta-Narekvavi II.
- 1 coin, Burial 2.
- 4 coins, Burial 3.
- 2 coins, Burial 4.
23. Mtskheta-Narekvavi III, Burial 12.
3 coins. In the same burial: a drachm of Mithridates II.
24. Mtskheta-Baiatkhevi, Burial 35.
In the same burial: a drachm of Gotarzes.
25. Mtskheta-Tsitsamuri III.
- 1 coin, Burial 1.
- 1 coin, Burial 9.
- 5 coins, Burial 12. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
26. Mtskheta, at the Gate, Burial 1.
Mtskheta Museum 3942/1, 3942/2.
27. Mtskheta, at the Gate, Tile-Burial 2.
2 coins. Mtskheta Museum 4307, 4308.
28. Pereta (Vani district).
Vani Museum.
29. Ruispiri (Telavi district).
30. Shaumiani (Marneuli district), Double Burial 2 of a burial mound 9 km from the settlement.
GNM CGC 11646.
31. Takhtidziri. (*pl. 91, nos. 5–8*)
- GNM CGC 25351, Burial 21.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 25440, Burial 510.
- GNM CGC 25441, Burial 10.
- GNM CGC 25442, Burial 12.
- GNM CGC 25439, Burial 32.
32. Tbilisi, Magnitogorsk Street, accidentally found.
33. Tbilisi, Government Palace, accidentally found.
34. Urbnisi.
GNM CGC 11046.
35. Uplistsikhe.
GNM FA.
- 1 coin, Burial 6.
- 3 coins, Burial 8.
36. Zghuderi, in the backdirt over the cemetery.
GNM CGC 11786.
37. Zhinvali (Dusheti district).
- GNM CGC 25351, Burial 279.
- 2 coins. GNM CGC 25420, 25421, Burial 510.
- GNM CGC 25473, Burial 168.

38. Zhinvali-Bagichala (Dusheti district).
GNM CGC 25439.

39. Dusheti, accidentally found.
GNM CGC 25435.

Phraates IV (37–2 B.C.) – 18 coins

1. Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery.
- GNM CGC 15569, Burial 27.
- GNM CGC 15570, Burial 28. In the same burial:
a denarius of Augustus.
- GNM CGC 16911, Burial 5.

2. Bori, Orjonikidze (Kharagauli district), accidentally found.
Together with a Colchian triobol, an Olbian coin, an imitation of a stater of Alexander, Roman denarii and Parthian drachms.

3. Dzevera (Gori district).
Archaeological Laboratory of the Tbilisi State University.

4. Gori, Chavchavadze Street (found 1951).
Gori Museum 6431/1–2.

5. Khovle (Kaspi district).

6. Kodistskaro (Kaspi district).

7. Korbouli (Sachkhere district).
GNM CGC 3063.

8. Mokhisi (Kareli district).
GNM CGC 22609. Together with eight drachms of Orodes II.

9. Mtskhethian Crypt.
GNM CGC 9269.

10. Mtskheta, Tsitsamuri III, Burial 1.

11. Nastagisi, Burial 15. (*Phraates IV*?)

12. Nastagisi, Burial 39 (63).
2 coins. In the same burial: a Roman Republican denarius from 118 B.C., a denarius of Augustus from 19–16 B.C., a Roman denarius struck in Rome in 19–12 B.C., a denarius of Augustus from 2 B.C.–4 A.D.

13. Tbilisi, accidentally found.
2 coins.

14. Vaziani (Mtskheta district).
Together with a denarius of Augustus and a drachm of Gotarzes.

15. Zhinvali (Dusheti district).
- GNM CGC 25355, Burial 279.
- GNM CGC 25443, Burial 17.
- GNM CGC 25470, Burial 165.

Artabanus III (10–40 A.D.)

1. Kodistskaro (Kaspi district).

Gotarzes II (40/41–51 A.D.) – 235 coins

1. Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 9.
2 coins. GNM CGC 16919, 16922.

2. Aranisi (Dusheti district), Burial 7.
GNM CGC 25324.

3. Avchala (found 1924).
2 coins. GNM CGC 3056, 3057.

4. Bori (Orjonikidze district) (found 1907).
3 coins, GNM CGC 3064.

5. Dighomi (Gardabani district) (found 1924).
GNM CGC 9350.

6. Dighomi (Gardabani district), in a disturbed burial (found 1969).
Together with a denarius of Augustus.

7. Gori, Chavchavadze Street (found 1938).
Gori Museum.

8. Gori, Chavchavadze Street (found 1940).

9. Environs of Gori (found 1900–1910).

10. Environs of Gori (found 1925).
GNM CGC 730.

11. Gremi (Kvareli district) (found 1938).
GNM CGC 3559.

12. Ilemi (Zestafoni district), in a accidentally discovered burial.
GNM CGC 2227a. Together with an imitation of a stater of Alexander.

13. Karaghaji (Sighnaghi district), Burial 13.
GNM CGC 10237. In the same burial: a drachm of Shapur I the Sassanian (241–272 A.D.).

14. Environs of Kaspi, cist-grave.
GNM CGC 9344.

15. Khachini (Bolnisi district) (found 1940).
- 1 coin, Burial 5.
- 1 coin, Burial 12.
16. Kldeeti (Zestafoni district), Burials 2 and 4.
GNM CGC 9306, 9308–9312, 9314–9316.
17. Kvemo Aranisi (Dusheti district), Zandukliant Kari, Burial 11.
GNM CGC 25323.
18. Larebi (Borjomi district) (found 1941).
19. Lilo (Gardabani district) (found 1941).
Together with a denarius of Augustus.
20. Didi Lilo (Gardabani district), in a burial.
GNM CGC 10124.
21. Magraneti (Tianeti district), Ertso Veli, Kushanaant Gora, Burial 14.
GNM CGC 12166.
22. Magraneti (Tianeti district), in the backdirt over the cemetery (found 1967).
GNM CGC 12164.
23. Magraneti (Tianeti district), cemetery II, Burial 20a.
4 coins, GNM CGC 12171, 12172, 12175, 12176.
24. Mtskheta, Armaztsikhe
- GNM CGC 9162, Burial 3.
- 11 coins, GNM CGC 9168–9178, Burial 6.
25. Mtskheta-Armaziskhevi.
- GNM CGC 11002, Tile-Burial 3.
- 1 coin, Burial 1.
- 4 coins, accidentally found 1946.
- 1 coin, in the cultural layer (found 1947).
26. Mtskheta-Baiatkhevi,
- 2 coins, Tile-Burial 32.
- 2 coins, Burial 35.
- 1 coin, accidentally found 1986.
27. Mtskheta-Karsniskhevi,
- 1 coin, Burial 13.
- 2 coins, Burial 27.
- 1 coin, Burial 35.
28. Mtskheta-Mogvtakari
- 1 coin, Burial 8. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- 1 coin, Burial 11.
29. Mtskheta-Natakhtari I, near Burial 8.
30. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery.
- 1 coin, Burial 186.
- 1 coin, Burial 164.
- 1 coin, Cist-Grave 263. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- 15 coins, Burial 905. In the same burial: 15 denarii of Augustus, a half-denarius of Trajan, 2 aurei of Nero, an aureus of Hadrian.
31. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, North Section.
- GNM CGC 10069, Tile-Burial 3.
- 1 coin, in the cultural layer (found 1941).
32. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 9954–9955, Tile-Burial 32. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- GNM CGC 9956, Tile-Burial 63. In the same burial: a denarius of Tiberius.
- 3 coins, GNM CGC 9967–9969, Cist-Grave 83.
- GNM CGC 9971, Burial 84.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 9979, 9980, Tile-Burial 116. In the same burial: denarii of Augustus.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 9986, 9987, Tile-Burial 120. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- 3 coins, GNM CGC 9990–9992, Burial 121.
- 3 coins, GNM CGC 9999–10001, Cist-Grave 140.
- 3 coins, GNM CGC 10002–10004, Cist-Grave 144.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 10026, 10027, Tile-Burial 177.
- GNM CGC 10028, Tile-Burial 182. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- 9 coins, GNM CGC 10031–10039, Cist-Grave 212. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- GNM CGC 10048, Burial 228.
- GNM CGC 10049, Tile-Burial 242.
- 1 coin, in the backdirt (found 1938).
33. Mtskheta-Svetitskhoveli I.
- 1 coin, Burial 4.
- 1 coin, Burial 12.
34. Mtskheta-Tsitsamuri II, Pit 1 (found 1986).
2 coins.
35. Mtskheta-Tsikhedidiskhevi, Burial 32 (found 1989).
2 coins.
36. Mtskheta, Cist-Grave 1 (found 1958).
GNM CGC 11012. In the same burial: a fragment of an unidentified AE and a denarius of Augustus.

37. Mtskheta, Tile-Burial 6 (found 1958).
3 coins. GNM CGC 11005–11007.
38. Mtskheta, Burial 28 (found 1980).
39. Mtskheta, Lenin/Aragvi Street, Burial 15.
Mtskheta Museum. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
40. Mtskheta City, Japaridze Street, in a burial, accidentally found.
GNM CGC 7802. Together with 3 denarii of Augustus and a stater of Alexander.
41. Mtskheta, Stalin Street 102, in a tile-burial (found 1967).
2 coins. Mtskheta Museum. 2722, 2723.
42. Mtskheta, at the Gate, Burial 1.
Mtskheta Museum. 3942.
43. Naoza (Mtskheta district), Burial 1.
GNM CGC 10056. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
44. Nastagisi.
- 1 coin, Burial 6 (30).
- 2 coins, Burial 50 (74). In the same burial: 2 denarii of Augustus.
45. Nichbisi (Mtskheta district), in a burial (found 1936).
GNM CGC 9127–9132.
46. Tbilisi, accidentally found.
2 coins, GNM CGC 10521, 10522.
47. Tbilisi-Dighomi, Burial 2.
GNM CGC 25447. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
48. Tbilisi, accidentally found.
GNM CGC 25736.
49. Trani (Tianeti district), Burial 3.
GNM CGC 12189–12193.
50. Environs of Tsalka (found 1949).
51. Environs of Tsalka.
52. Tskhinvali, in a burial (found 1939).
GNM CGC 29338. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus, a curse-imitation of an aureus of Numerian, and a drachm of Gotarzes.
53. Vashlajvari (Gardabani district).
GNM CGC 10082.
54. Vaziani (Mtskheta district) (found 1939).
55. Urbnisi, Burial 215.
GNM CGC 11049.
56. Urbnisi, in the cultural layer (found 1961).
GNM CGC 11050–11052.
57. Zahesi, accidentally found.
GNM CGC 11797.
58. Zemo Avchala (found 1923).
GNM CGC 9356.
59. Zghuderi, Gochaant Kari, in an accidentally discovered burial.
5 drachms, GNM CGC 11477–11481. In the same burial: an aureus of Commodus, 4 aurei of Caracalla (211–217 A.D.) and a denarius of Augustus.
60. Zghuderi, Gochaant Kari (found 1964).
2 coins, GNM CGC 11579, 11580.
61. Zghuderi, Burial 3 (found 1964).
GNM CGC 11553–11557. In the same burial: 28 denarii of Augustus.
62. Zhinvali (Dusheti district).
- GNM CGC 25329, Burial 18.
- GNM CGC 25332, Burial 258.
- GNM CGC 25338, Burial 266.
- GNM CGC 25339, Burial 269.
- GNM CGC 25343, Burial 278.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 25348, 25349, Burial 279.
- GNM CGC 25347, casual find (found 1979).
- 5 coins, GNM CGC 25385, 25386, 25388, 25393, 25394, Burial 355.
- GNM CGC 25387, Burial 361.
- GNM CGC 25403, Burial 436.
- GNM CGC 25405, Burial 455. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- GNM CGC 25408, Burial 456.
- GNM CGC 25412, Burial 483.
- 2 coins, GNM CGC 25414, 25415, Burial 558.
- GNM CGC 25416, Burial 527.
- GNM CGC 25419, Burial 524.
- GNM CGC 25418, Burial 525.
- GNM CGC 25423, Burial 507. In the same burial: a denarius of Augustus.
- GNM CGC 25426, 25427, Cist-Grave 550.

- GNM CGC 25429, Burial 558.
- GNM CGC 25430, Cist-Grave 518.
- GNM CGC 25431, Burial 7.
- GNM CGC 25432, Burial 13.
- GNM CGC 25434, accidentally found.
- GNM CGC 25438, Burial 488.
- GNM CGC 25467, Burial 145.
- GNM CGC 25468, Burial 159.
- GNM CGC 25471, Burial 51.
- GNM CGC 25472, Burial 165.

Vardanes I (40/41–45 A.D.)

1. Zhinvali (Dusheti district), Burial 279.
GNM CGC 25352. In the same burial: a drachm of Orodos II.

Vologaeses I (51–77/78 A.D.) – 7 coins

1. Kaspi, in Rukhis Ubani.
GNM CGC 10177.
2. Kldeeti (Zestafoni district), in a burial.
GNM CGC 9307, 9313
3. Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, Tile-Burial 159.
GNM CGC 10014, 10015.
4. Zhinvali (Dusheti district).
- GNM CGC 25383, Burial 330.
- GNM CGC 25413, Burial 486.

Vologaeses II (77/78–146/7 A.D.)

1. Zhinvali (Dusheti district), Burial 21.

Mithridates IV (130–147 A.D.) – 2 coins

1. Nichbisi (Mtskheta district), accidentally found (1936).
GNM CGC 9126. Together with a drachm of Gotarzes.
2. Kvemochala (Kaspi district).

List of Roman Republican Coins

1. Denarius, 118 B.C. GNM CGC 25378.
Nastagisi, Burial 39 (63). It has a mounting, and had apparently been used as an adornment.
2. Denarius, Italy, 93–92 B.C. GNM CGC 16883.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.

3. 2 Denarii, Rome, 87 B.C. GNM CGC 16876, 16877.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.
4. Denarius, Rome, 87 B.C. GNM CGC 18807.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 2.
5. 2 Denarii, Rome, 86 B.C. GNM CGC 16876, 16881.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.
6. Denarius, Rome, 86 B.C. GNM CGC 16927.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 7.
7. Denarius, Rome, 72 B.C. GNM CGC 18831.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, accidentally found.
8. Denarius, Rome, 67 B.C. GNM FA A 124–146.
Dedoplis Gora (found 1926).
9. Denarius, Rome, 60 B.C. GNM CGC 11647.
Shaumian (Marneuli district) (found 1965).
10. Denarius, Rome, 60 B.C. GNM CGC 18806.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 2.
11. Denarius of Lucius Iunus Brutus, Rome, 59 B.C.
GNM CGC 8250.
Tbilisi, Nikoladze Lane 5 (found 1948).
12. Denarius, under the name of Gaius Julius Caesar in 54–51 B.C., Gaul. GNM CGC 16882.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.
13. Denarius, under the name of Lucius Plautius Planca 47 B.C., Rome. GNM CGC 8699.
Abisi (Kareli district) (found 1934).
14. Denarius of Marius Gordius Rufus, Rome, 46 B.C. GNM CGC 10162.
Kavtiskhevi.
15. Denarius, Rome, 36–29 B.C. Mtskheta Museum 11247.
Mtskheta, at the Gate (found 1967).
16. Denarius of Lucius Livineius Regulus, Rome, 39 B.C. GNM CGC 18808.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 2.
17. 3 denarii, under the name of Mark Antony 32–31 B.C. from an Eastern mint.
GNM CGC 16884, 16885, 16886.
Aghaiani, Rikianebeis Veli cemetery, Burial 4.

18. Denarius of Augustus, 14–12 B.C., Gaul.
GNM CGC 16890.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 5.
19. Tetradrachm, under the names of Antony and Cleopatra from Antioch.
Near Gori (found 1900–1910).
20. Denarius of Augustus, 19–16 B.C., Spain.
Nastagisi, Burial 39 (63).

List of Roman Coins of the 1st century A.D.

Augustus (27 B.C.–14 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 14596.
Mtskheta (found 1902).
2. More than 350 denarii found in different sites.

Tiberius (14–37 A.D.)

1. Denarius, GNM CGC 16907.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 5.
2. Denarius, GNM CGC 9957.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, Tile-Burial 63.
3. Aureus, GNM CGC 9214.
Mtskhethian Crypt.

Caligula (37–41 A.D.)

1. Denarius, GNM CGC 16871.
Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli cemetery, Burial 2.

Nero (54–68 A.D.)

1. 2 aurei, GNM CGC 9163.
Mtskheta, Burial 6 and 7.
2. 2 aurei, GNM CGC 9185, 9186.
Mtskheta, Armaziskhevi.
3. Aureus, GNM CGC 9215.
Mtskhethian Crypt.
4. 2 aurei.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Burial 905.

Galba (68–69 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 9164.
Mtskheta, Armaziskhevi, Burial 6.

Vitellius (69 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 9216.
Mtskhethian Crypt.

Vespasian (69–79 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 9200.
Mtskheta, in the Bagineti Sarcophagus.
2. Aureus, GNM CGC 9217.
Mtskhethian Crypt.

Titus (79–81 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 9141.
Mtskheta, Armaziskhevi, Burial 1.
2. Aureus, GNM CGC 9201.
Mtskheta, in the Bagineti Sarcophagus.

Domitian (81–96 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 11524.
Zghuderi, Burial 3.
2. Aureus, GNM CGC 9140.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, Cist-Grave 378.
3. Denarius, GNM CGC 9940.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, Cist-Grave 1.

4. Denarius, GNM CGC 9972.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, Tile-Burial 86.

5. Denarius. With a mounting for use as jewelry.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, accidentally found 1976.

Trajan (98–117 A.D.)

1. Aureus, GNM CGC 9142.
Mtskheta, Armaziskhevi, Burial 1.
2. Aureus, GNM CGC 9205.
Mtskheta, in the Bagineti Sarcophagus.
3. Denarius, GNM CGC 10012.
Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section, Cist-Grave 144.

4. Denarius.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, South Section,
Cist-Grave 250.

5. Denarius, GNM CGC 25322.

Kvemo Aranisi, Burial 1.

6. Denarius, GNM CGC 9345.

Near Tbilisi, in the bed of the Kura River (found 1954).

7. Quinarius.

Mtskheta, Samtavro cemetery, Burial 905.

5.4. The Armazian Script

by Grigol Giorgadze

The Armazian script is a type of Aramaic script, and was first published by G. Tsereteli, who named it after its place of discovery, a district of Mtskheta, the ancient capital of Georgia.¹⁴⁰⁹ Its origins lie in the Official or State Aramaic of the Achaemenian epoch. State Aramaic is represented in Georgia only by the inscriptions from Uplistsikhe, dated to the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C.¹⁴¹⁰ The Epigraphic monuments of the following periods are mainly executed in the so-called Armazian script and date to the 1st century B.C.–4th century A.D. It is possible, that this script was used specifically to record documents in the local language.¹⁴¹¹ The Armazian script passed a long way of development and was very common on the territory of Georgia, being found on buildings¹⁴¹² as well as on household objects,¹⁴¹³ jewelry,¹⁴¹⁴ or on gaming plates.¹⁴¹⁵

Of utmost interest are two stelae with Armazian inscriptions, excavated in the Crypt 4 in Armaziskhevi. One, the so called “Armazian Monolingua”, contains a monolingual Aramaic (Armazian) inscription of the time of Mithridates the Iberian, 1st century A.D. This inscription is one of

the oldest sources for the political history, social life and state system of Iberia. The decipherment and translation of the text are difficult and we have not reached a complete understanding of it. In the first of the 14 lines of the inscription “king Mihrdat the Great, son of the king Parsman¹⁴¹⁶ the Great” is mentioned. This is Mithridates the Iberian, i.e., Mithridates the II, to whom the Roman emperors Vespasian, Titus and Domitian fortified walls of the kingdom and erected a stela with a Greek inscription, in which, besides Mithridates, his father Parsman (Parsman I, son of Mithridates I) and mother are mentioned.¹⁴¹⁷ Therefore, the “Armazian Monolingua” can be dated to the middle of the 70s A.D.¹⁴¹⁸

The story in the text is told by “Shrgs, pitiakhsh of Mihrdat [the Great], son of Zevakh” (Zevakh must have been a man of position). Pitiakhshs were in charge of military functions too, as Shrgs (to be read “Shargas” or “Sharagas”) performed military operations, after the successful ending of which he reported to the Great king (i.e., Mihrdat): “I gained this victory for you, my King”. In another part of the inscription he says: “I gained this victory for you, Basileus”, thus using the Aramaic word *mlk* (king), and the Greek word “Basileus” (in Aramaic script – *bzls*) interchangeably.

Special attention must be paid to the sixth line, which reads: “King Mihrdat, who was earlier sent to the land of Armenia”. Considering the

1409 See ch. 5.4. *Catalog of Sites* (Mtskheta). Tsereteli 1942.

1410 They are considered contemporary with the inscriptions found in Sevan and Teghut (Armenia); Tsereteli 1991b. See also ch. 5.4. *Catalog of Sites* (Uplistsikhe).

1411 Tsereteli 1992a, 56.

1412 So on the temple wall of Dzalisi; Gagoshidze 1991, 47. See also ch. 5.4. *Catalog of Sites* (Dzalisi).

1413 For instance on pithoi from Dedoplis Gora and Urbnisi, on a bowl from Bori, a cup from Samtavro, a spoon or on a saucer found in Zghuderi; Borisov 1947, Chelidze 1990; Tsereteli 1992b.

1414 For instance on a ring and a bracelet found in Armaziskhevi; Giorgadze 1999. See ch. 5.4. *Catalog of Sites* (Armaziskhevi).

1415 So in Dedoplis Gora; Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991. Cf. also ch. 5.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 21, 24, 31–32, 36, 41.

1416 “Parsman the Great” is understood as Parsman I, son of Mithridates I, who marched into Armenia, conquered its capital Artaxata and defeated the Parthians, who had invaded Armenia. During the reign of Parsman I and his father Mithridates I (30–50s A.D.), Iberia took back not only the lands occupied by the Armenians, but in turn undertook to conquer the whole of Armenia.

1417 Tsereteli 1958, 19 f.

1418 Tsereteli 1962.

fact, that “king Mihrdat” is not mentioned as “great”, he must apparently be another “Mihrdat”, presumably Mihrdat (Mithridates) I of Iberia, who lived in the first half of the 1st century A.D. It is not excluded, however, that “king Mihrdat” was actually the son of the Mihrdat I, who was intended to become the king of Armenia by his father Mithridates I, as well as his brother Parsman I. As it is known, the Roman government passed the Armenian throne to the son of the very Mithridates I and brother of Parsman I, Mithridates the Younger in approximately 36 A.D.

The Armazian “Monolingua” is also interesting for the fact, that ancient Georgian toponyms ending in suffixes -it-, -et- seem to be mentioned in it: *Tbit-/Tbet-* may be Georgian “Tbeti”; *Msknit-/Msknet-*, is probably Georgian “Mtskneti”, *Msikit-*, which is identified by some scientists with “Mtskheta”, and so on.¹⁴¹⁹

The other stela found in Armaziskhevi is the famous “Armazian Bilingua”, written in Greek Aramaic. An epitaph dates it to the 2nd century A.D.¹⁴²⁰

The ten-line Greek inscription reads: “Serapitis, daughter of pitiakhsh Zevakh the Minor, wife of Iodmangan, son of pitiakhsh Publikios Agrippa, a multi-victorious epitropos of Xefarnug, great king of Iberians. Died young, in her 21st year, she, who had inimitable beauty”.¹⁴²¹

Below the Greek text are eleven lines in Armazian script. Its translation is not difficult, though the interpretation of some passages still varies:

“I am Serapitis, daughter of Zevakh, minor pitiakhsh of king Parsman, wife of Iodmangan, a powerful and victorious epitropos of Xefarnug, son of Agrippa, epitropos of king Parsman. Sorrow of sorrows. She, that was young and so kind and beautiful, that there was no one as beautiful as she and died at 21”.¹⁴²²

1419 Giorgadze 1991.

1420 Tsereteli 1948b; Tsereteli 1948a; Apakidze et al. 1955, 59–62, 68–73. The Aramaic text of the “Bilingua” was interpreted by G. Tsereteli and published in Russian, Georgian and English; Tsereteli 1941; 1942; 1943; Altheim/Stiehl 1959.

1421 Translation by G. Tsereteli.

1422 Translation by G. Tsereteli. There exists a slightly different interpretation from K. Tsereteli and G. Gior-

Comparing the Greek and Aramaic texts, it becomes clear, that they are not identical: the Greek text is shorter and some titles of persons differ.¹⁴²³ There is theory, that the Armazian/ Aramaic text was written by a local artist, since there are some differences in the grammar used.¹⁴²⁴

Other important epigraphic monuments in Aramaic or Armazian script, excavated in East Georgia, are:

1. An Aramaic inscription found during excavations in Urbnisi. On the fragment of a small pithos (rim and side), a word of four letters is incised. There exist two possibilities of interpreting the inscription: *d w z n* - gift (to the deity / sacrifice (for the deity) or *d w k n* - a place for sacrifice, a holy place. The inscription is dated to the 2nd century A.D.¹⁴²⁵
2. In 1963, during archaeological excavations in Uplistsikhe, two fragments of different pithoi were found. The signs on them look like Armazian, but differ paleographically. One of the inscriptions must be related to Aramaic, of the 3rd century B.C.–1st century A.D. The words may be interpreted as *hzn* and *bzwk* - man's proper names. The script of the Uplistsikhe in-

giorgadze: “I [am] Serapitis, daughter of Zevakh the Minor, pitiakhsh of king Parsman, wife of Iodmangan, [who] had victories and did more heroic affairs [and is] the epitropos of king Xefarnug, son of Agrippa, the epitropos of king Parsman, [who] defeated the defeaters, that could not be fulfilled by Parnavaz. And so, [Serapitis] was kind and beautiful, like who there was nobody and she died at 21”; Giorgadze 1986; Tsereteli 1992b.

1423 So is the king Xepharnug mentioned in the Aramaic text without the epithet “great” and he is not considered as a king of “Iberians”. In the Greek version Agrippa is a *pitiakhsh*, while in the Aramaic one he is an *epitropos*. The “Bilingua” shows clearly, that one and the same king - Parsman II - had both a *pitiakhsh* (Zevakh the Minor) and an *epitropos* (Agrippa) in his service, which points to the fact, that these two terms should not be understood to be identical (the mentioning of Agrippa as a *pitiakhsh* in the Greek version of the Bilingua may be a mistake of the scribe); Giorgadze/Schifman 1988.

1424 This shows in proper names of foreign origin; the use of adjectives only in a simple (masculine) form, despite the feminine gender of the noun; the use of nouns without an article in all cases, even when this is absolutely necessary in Aramaic; the tendency of expressing vowels in the vowelless text, such as - “a” is expressed by *alef*, and “e/I” - by *iod*.

1425 Chilashvili 1964, 54; Tsereteli 1989.

- scriptions is considered the direct predecessor of the Armazian script.¹⁴²⁶
3. The inscription on the silver cup of the so called Kazbegi treasure contains five signs and dates to the 5th century B.C. It has not yet been deciphered, but K. Tsereteli considers it a proper name, which must be interpreted as *ddbyd* or *dzbyr*.¹⁴²⁷
 4. Three minor Aramaic inscriptions come from Dedoplis Gora. They were found during the excavation of a wine-cellar, in which three of the four pithoi had Aramaic inscriptions on their rims. The signs are Armazian, though again it is difficult to interpret them. One of them contains four letters and may read: *'agny*, which is “bowl” or “wine vessel” in Aramaic, so it must be translated as “pithos” in this case. The second reads most likely *n't* - a proper name, and the letter on the rim of the third fragment - *d* (') - might be an abbreviation or a hallmark. These three inscriptions are so far the oldest ones made in Armazian script.¹⁴²⁸
 5. During excavations in the village of Zghuderi, several objects were found with Aramaic, Armazian and Greek inscriptions dated to the 2nd-3rd centuries A.D. The inscription on one vessel contains the six letters *'t r p t*, probably the old Iranian proper name Atropat (“protected by fire”). A bilingual inscription on another vessel is in Greek and in Aramaic. The latter can be read as 13 's ('s = “as” - a measurement of 14 grams) and interpreted as following: *q y t n y*, to be translated as “my mug (bowl)”. On a silver spoon, found in a burial, there is another bilingual inscription in Aramaic and Greek. The Aramaic *k 'd* here corresponds to the Greek *x e d*.¹⁴²⁹
 6. An inscription from Bori in a clearly expressed Armazian script is of special interest: *b w z m y h r b y t y ' h s t b'* “Buz-Mihr, a kind pitiakhsh”. The inscription belongs to the 3rd century A.D., by which time the Armazian script must have been well-developed.¹⁴³⁰
 7. Armazian inscriptions were also found on a gold ring and bracelets, during the excavations in Armaziskhevi in 1944. A four-letter inscription is incised on the ring, and the same ductus is used in a larger text on the two gold bracelets, divided into 13 small plaques each. On each of them separate words of the text are written, the content of which is unfortunately not understood. G. Tsereteli considers these inscriptions to be dedicational.¹⁴³¹
 8. Lastly, Armazian inscriptions occur on gaming plates found during excavations at Dedoplis Gora.¹⁴³² They are short and damaged, and seem to be magic. A decipherment of only one, the longest inscription, could be managed: *h tzq w[d] hbln znh swsy hbh st*, translated as: “Dark and destroying is this horse. One is winning.” The language of these inscription is Aramaic, but a Georgian influence is obvious as the verb “to be” is used in the infinitive, and the first sentence begins with a predicate, which is unusual for Aramaic, but is common for Georgian.¹⁴³³

1426 Khakhutaishvili 1964, 57; 1970, 28.

1427 Tsereteli 1991c, 7 f.

1428 Tsereteli 1995.

1429 Nemsadze 1969, 52; Chelidze 1990.

1430 Borisov 1947.

1431 Apakidze et al. 1955, 119 f.; Tsereteli 1990, 64; Giorgadze 1999.

1432 Cf. ch. 4.2. *Bone Objects*, cat. nos. 21, 24, 31-32, 36, 41.

1433 Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991.

6. Catalog of Sites

by Iulon Gagoshidze

Abelia (43).¹⁴³⁴ An ancient settlement and cemetery in Kvemo Kartli, near the village of Abeliani, Tetrtskaro district. In 1954 and 1966, a settlement from the turn of the 4th to the 3rd millennium B.C. and a cemetery of the 3rd–1st centuries B.C. were excavated (G. Lomtadidze). Short stone cists, in which the deceased were buried in a squatting posture, included ceramic vessels, bronze and iron bezel-rings and bracelets with concave backs, beads of different material. In the burials, dated to the 1st century B.C., three blue glass polyhedrons and a jet scarabaeoid with a deer depicted on it, were found, along with the other material.

References: Lordkipanidze 1969, nos. 94, 105; Gagoshidze 1982, 21; Lomtadidze et al. 1997, 27.

Aghaiani, Rikianebis Veli (40). Remains of a city and a cemetery of the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. are situated in Shida Kartli, Kaspi district, on the Mukhrani plain, west of the village of Aghaiani (540 m above sea level). It was excavated in 1975–1978 (A. Bokhochadze). Remains of Late Hellenistic stone and mud-brick buildings covered with tiled roofs, pithoi, household pits and so on were found there. Nineteen pit-burials of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., one pithos-burial and one of the oldest ceramic sarcophagi excavated in Georgia, were also found. The burials provided us with rich and varied material: black-polished, also red-burnt and painted ceramic vessels, glass unguentaria, silver- and bronze ware, an iron candelabrum and scales, gold, silver, bronze and iron ornaments – earrings, rings, bracelets, beads of different material and 97 coins: local golden imitations of Alexander's and Lisimachos' staters, tetradrachms of Mithridates VI of Pontos and Tigranes II the Ar-

menian, drachms of several Parthian kings of the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D., Roman Republican denarii, denarii of Augustus and Tiberius, a Caesarian drachm of Caligula.

References: Bokhochadze 1981; Mirianashvili 1983; Mirianashvili 1984.

Akhaldaba (74). A village in Kakheti (Akhmeta district), on the bank of the river Khodashnis-Khevi, the right tributary of the Alazani (760 m above sea level). A cemetery of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. was excavated there in 1948–1949 (T. Chubinshvili). Before the excavation a rich burial was found there by accident, in which, among other things, there were two glass cameos of Augustan times with a representation of Nike (one of the cameos is set in a gold medallion), a bronze jug of the same period, a silver cup, gold pendants and bead-tubes, a drachm of the Parthian king Orodes II (58–39 B.C.). The finds are kept in the Georgian National Museum (nos. 31–57).

References: Lordkipanidze 1961, 14–17, nos. 6–7; Lordkipanidze 1964, 205; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 84.

Anakopia (2). A medieval fortified city on the Black Sea coast, on the territory of present-day Akhali Atoni (Abkhazia), first mentioned in Georgian historical sources around 730–740 A.D. in connection with the Arab invasion. As a result of archaeological excavations (M. Trapsh) remains of Eneolithic, Late Bronze Age and Hellenistic settlements were found; a city of the 7th–12th centuries A.D. was unearthed, which occupied 7 ha and was enclosed by a turreted wall. On the territory of the city residential and household buildings, ruins of a temple, a street, glass and ceramic ware, iron weapons and tools, coins, etc. were found.

References: Trapsh 1961; Lekvinadze 1968a.

¹⁴³⁴ The number in parentheses represents the number on the map of Kartli, pl. 1.

Archaiopolis – See Nokalakevi.

Arkhioloskalo (77). A village in the Dedoplistskaro district, on a range of mountains dividing the Alazani valley and the Shiraki plains. Seven pit-burials of the 1st century B.C. and the 1st century A.D. have been excavated. In the burials, along with iron curved knives and bronze bracelets, rings, bells, etc., were found ceramic vessels typical of the Ialoilu-tepe culture.

Reference: Nioradze 1940.

Arkneti – See Vasastskaro.

Armazi – See Armaztsikhe.

Armaziskhevi (53). The site is situated on the right bank of the Kura, 3 km west of Mtskheta. Between 1937 and 1946 the Mtskheta archaeological expedition (I. Javakhishvili, S. Janashia) excavated remains of the palace and the baths of the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D., rich burials of the 2nd–4th centuries A.D. and an ordinary cemetery of the 6th–9th centuries A.D. belonging to the residence of the pitiakhshs of Iberian (Kartlian) kings. Among other finds two lapidary inscriptions are of special interest – one is the so-called Armazian bilingua with Greek and Aramaic inscriptions dated to the 2nd century A.D., and the other is a stele with an Armazian (Aramaic) inscription, dated around 70–80 A.D.¹⁴³⁵

References: Tsereteli 1941; Nyberg 1946; Tsereteli 1948b; Apakidze et al. 1955, 60–62; Metzger 1956; Apakidze 1963, 147–157; Giorgadze/Schifman 1988; Tsereteli 1992a.

Armaztsikhe, Armazi, Bagineti (64). This site is the acropolis of the ancient capital of Georgia – Mtskheta – and it is situated on a high hill on the right bank of river Kura, opposite to the mouth of the Aragvi. Strabo mentions a fortified town on the bank of the Kura, on a rock, as *Ἀρμοζική*,¹⁴³⁶ Plinius – *Harmastis*,¹⁴³⁷ Ptolemy – *Ἀρμάκτικα*,¹⁴³⁸ Dion Cassius – *Ἀκρόπολις*.¹⁴³⁹ Minor excavations were carried out in 1890 (D. Kutateladze). At this time a stone stepped socle of a mud-brick outer wall was revealed and a so-called two-celled

building was cleared. Along with other things, a fragment of a 1st century A.D. fresco with a woman's bust was found. Large-scale excavations of Armaztsikhe were carried out between 1944 and 1948 (A. Apakidze), after the observative works in 1937 and 1940. Excavations were renewed in 1985 and are still going on. As a result, it was asserted that in the first centuries A.D. an outer wall with towers, built of stone and mud-brick, enclosed the top of the hill and the northern slope, 30 ha in all. The territory inside the wall was terraced. Buildings with mud-brick walls on stone socles belong to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D., the most important sample of which is the so-called columned hall. The outer wall with quadrangular towers, built in the same style, must be from the Early Roman period.

Baths of the 3rd–4th centuries A.D., a hexagonal temple and a 3rd century A.D. sarcophagus, in which a member of the royal family was buried with rich inventory (a bed with silver legs, gold ornaments, Roman silver set, etc.), were also excavated here. On Armaztsikhe several Armazian (Aramaic) and Greek inscriptions were found, in which they mention Great King of Iberia Amazasp, queen Dracontessa, Armenian king Vologez, officials of the royal court and so on. The upper layer of Armaztsikhe belongs to the Early Medieval epoch (7th–8th centuries A.D.).

References: Lordkipanidze 1957, 127–129; Apakidze 1958a; Apakidze 1963, 21 ff.; Kavlelashvili 1996; Kaukhchishvili 1996; Kaukhchishvili 1998; Lordkipanidze 1985b, 80–82.

Bagineti – See Armaztsikhe.

Bagischala (68). A place in the valley of Sashaburoskhevi, the right tributary of the river Aragvi (Dusheti district), where a multi-layer site was revealed in 1981–1982 (R. Ramishvili). Ceramics and remains of the settlement of the lower level are dated to the Late Bronze period. The Late Hellenistic layer is represented by sites – ruins of a mud-brick wall on a pebble basement and fragments of red slip ceramics. In the ruins of a Late Hellenistic wall there were 35 pit-burials of the Roman period, among which most important were the 1st century A.D. burials with horses' skeletons and a big variety of inventory: ceramics (footed bowls, jugs), iron weapons (curved knives), ornaments (gold earrings and so on), Parthian coins, iron bits, etc.

¹⁴³⁵ For both inscriptions see ch. 5.4. *Armazian Script*.

¹⁴³⁶ Strab. 11.3.5.

¹⁴³⁷ Plin. *nat.hist.* 6.23.

¹⁴³⁸ Ptol. *Geog.* 5.10.3.

¹⁴³⁹ Cass. Dio 37.1.3.

References: Ramishvili 1984, 427–428; Ramishvili et al. 1985, 58.

Baiatkhevi (60). A gorge in Mtskheta, north of the **Samtavro** plain. On the left edge of the gorge remains of the 1st–3rd centuries A.D. settlement and a cemetery of the 2nd–4th centuries A.D., which had been arranged on the ruins of the settlement, were excavated in 1986 (G. Giunashvili). In all, 35 burials have been unearthed – pit-burials (8), tile burials (17), burials made of ceramic slabs (4) and stone cists (6), which contain quite a big variety of inventory. The inventory of the 2nd century A.D. tile-burial, in which there were a chalcedony decahedral seal and a blue glass polyhedron, is of utmost interest. The discovery of a 1st century A.D. imported (Roman) lamp among the ceramic material of the site has much importance.

Reference: Nikolaishvili/Giunashvili 1995.

Bambebi (32). A settlement and cemetery, situated to the west of **Uplistsikhe**, at 0.5 km, on the left bank of the Kura. In 1958–1969 the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. burials and a settlement were excavated (D. Khakhutaishvili). A big variety of ceramic material, among them a Colchian amphora (Room 1), were found too. The inventory of Burial 10 is most interesting, which included bone plaques for playing and fortune-telling, pig phalanges and sheep astragals, a clay conical seal and black-polished ceramic vessels, dated to the 1st century B.C. In other burials blue glass polyhedrons and coins of Orodos II (58–39 B.C.) were excavated.

References: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 69–82; Khakhutaishvili 1970, 22–55; for the dating see: Gagoshidze 1975b, 92 f.; Gagoshidze 1982, 14; Gagoshidze/Tsotselia 1991, 53; Narimanishvili 1991, nos. 333, 991.

Bargikaria (51). A cemetery on the right bank of the Kura, at the mouth of the Tsikhedidis-Khevi, to the north of the Dzegvi railway station. In 1944 a burial was found here accidentally, the inventory of which (a gold earring, a silver cup and fragments of bronze vessels, a ceramic jug) is dated to the 1st century B.C. In 1946 (N. Ghambashidze) and in 1983–1984 (L. Khetsuriani) several burials, dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., were excavated here. In the burials there were black and red burnt clay vessels, among them jugs with ribbed necks, silver tem-

ple circles, an iron arrow-head, glass beads and a drachm of Orodos II (58–39 B.C.).

Bezhanbaghi (75). A place to south-west of village Gadrekili (Gurdjaani district), where a pit-burial was excavated in 1971 (K. Pitskhelauri) with the following items: ceramic ware (two-handled pots, etc.), iron weapons (a sword, arrow-heads, a spear-head, a curved knife, a sickle (?), scissors and so on), a bronze ring, a head of a spindle-like pin and so on. The burial was dated to the 1st–2nd centuries A.D.

Reference: Mamaishvili 1980.

Bitchvinta, Pitunt (1). A village in Abkhazia, Gagra district, on the Black Sea coast, to the east of the estuary of the river Bzipi, on the Cape of Bitchvinta. It is first mentioned by Strabo,¹⁴⁴⁰ as “Great Pitunt”. Strabo used the information of the 2nd century B.C. Greek geographer Artemidoros of Ephesos. Excavations held between 1952 and 1990 (A. Apakidze, G. Lordkipanidze) revealed a 1st–6th centuries A.D. city-site, containing two parts: *castellum* and *canaba*. In the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D. a Roman garrison was camping in the Bitchvinta castle – a vexillation of the XV legion. On the territory of the site were discovered a pretorium, a bath, a wine cellar, an oven, a plumbing system, churches, numerous local and imported ceramic ware, metal vessels, ornaments, fragments of a mosaic floor, hoards of coins. To the west of the site over 500, 2nd–4th centuries A.D. burials of different types were excavated, in which there were gold and silver ornaments, coins, local and imported ceramics, among them terra sigillata.

References: Apakidze 1975; 1977; 1978; Lordkipanidze, G. 1991.

Bogvi (47). A village in Tetrtskaro district, in the middle part of the valley of the river Algeti. In 1984 some silver and bronze tableware was found accidentally (a silver two-handled bowl, wine presser, spoons, a bronze scoop, a jug, drachm of Phraates IV, 38/37–3/2 B.C., etc.), which at first became known as “Bogvi treasure”. But later it became clear, that it belonged to the burial inventory. The material is dated to the 1st century A.D.

Reference: Margishvili 1992.

Bori (14). A village in Imereti (Kharagauli district), at the feet of the Meskheta mountain-range (400m above sea level). It is supposed to have been a residence of a pitiakhsh of the Kartlian kingdom. In 1902–1903 and 1907–1909 the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. archaeological objects were accidentally found here, but in 1938 (M. Ivashchenko) and 1963 (G. Tskitishvili), during the archaeological excavations it became clear that in Bori and its environs there were several family necropolises of the 1st century B.C.–3rd century A.D. with pit-burials and pithos-burials. Inside them gold ornaments, silver, bronze- and glassware were revealed. Excavation of six bronze south Italian jugs of the 1st century A.D. (among them 4 oinochoai), three pateras and scoops, also two Italian intaglios of the 2nd–1st centuries B.C. is most remarkable. On one of the silver cups of the 2nd century A.D., on the medallion of which a horse in front of the altar is depicted, an Armazian (Aramaic) inscription is engraved, mentioning a kind pitiakhsh Buzmihir. Bronze and silver ware are kept in the Hermitage in Petersburg (inv. no. K3 5509, 5585–5593), but the gems in the Georgian National Museum (inv. nos. 723, 724).

References: Pridik 1914, 102 f.; Tskitishvili 1955, 303; Lordkipanidze 1961, 13 f., nos. 4–5; Lordkipanidze 1964, 205–211, 214 f., 218–220; Tskitishvili 1964, 87; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 84–86, 88–90, 94 f., 97–99.

Chanakhas Mitsa (34). A settlement and cemetery in Shida Kartli, on the right bank of the Kura, east of the Uplistsikhe cave-complex and, apparently, a settlement connected to it. In 1984 and 1986 an area of 200 sq. m was excavated (T. Sanikidze), which revealed remains of a dwelling, built of mud-brick on a pebble-stone base, and six burials (two pit-burials, one pithos-burial, three burials in ceramic vessels – two jars and one pot), dated to the end of the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. Red and black fired ceramic vessels, iron and bronze ornaments and glass beads were found there.

Reference: Nikolaishvili 1997.

Chkhari (11). A village (Terjola district) on the upper part of the river Chkhari; 280 m above sea level. It is mentioned in written sources from the 17th century A.D., as a commercial and handicraft settlement. In 1994–1995 on Okoni hill, near the village, fifteen pit-burials were excavated

(Z. Bragvadze) – there were bronze buckles, silver belts, gold, silver and bronze earrings, pendants, rings, coins of Augustus and Septimius Severus, iron swords, daggers, spearheads, arrowheads, ceramic vessels found. The burials are of the Roman epoch, mainly of the 2nd–3rd centuries A.D.

Reference: Bragvadze 1997.

Darcheti (76). A village in Kakheti (Gurjaani district), on the southern slope of the Gombori range (880 m above sea level). In 1974 a 1st century B.C. pit-burial was excavated here (N. Mamaishvili), in which were found a ceramic hemispherical phiala, a two-handled vessel, common for the Ialoulu-tapa culture, a bronze torque and bracelets with concave backs and an iron double-pointed spit – *obelon*.

Reference: Mamaishvili 1974.

Dedoplis Gora (24). A multi-layer settlement in the plain of Dedoplis Mindori.

Dedoplis Mindori (23). A part of the Shida Kartli plain, Kareli district, between two left tributaries of the Kura – the East and the Middle Prone (2500 ha, 650–680 m above sea level). Archaeological excavations in 1972–1993 (I. Gagoshidze) revealed archaeological monuments of different times from Stone Age to Late Medieval epoch. Most important is the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. temple complex, excavated in the center of Dedoplis Mindori, which has been defined as a family sanctuary of the Iberian (Kartlian) kings. The area of the temple complex, built with a common plan, is over 4 ha. Buildings were built with mud-brick on pebble base and were covered with tiles. Roofs were supported by wooden columns, mounted by ornamented bell-shaped stone capitals. At the distance of 400 m from the temple complex, to the north-west were excavated houses and workshops of the builders of the temple, where mud-bricks, tiles, pottery, iron nails and stone capitals were produced. On Dedoplis Mindori there are remains of a village and a cemetery, contemporary to the temple (see **Mozvleulebi**), and a palace (see **Dedoplis Gora**).

References: Gagoshidze 1977b; 1977c; 1978; 1981b; 1992.

Dioskuria – See Sokhumi.

Dzalisi (45). A city-site, situated in Shida Kartli, on the Mukhrani plain, on the territory of the village of Dzalisi (Mtskheta district). It is mentioned by Claudius Ptolemy.¹⁴⁴¹ During the excavations in 1971–1986 (A. Bokhochadze) it became clear that the city existed here between the 2nd century B.C. and the 4th century A.D. and it occupied the area of about 70 ha. The city reached its acme in the 2nd–4th centuries A.D. Most of the buildings excavated at Dzalisi belong to this period: palaces and therms, a swimming pool, a temple, mosaic floors, water pipes and a sewer system and so on. Mortar is used in building, while in the cultural layer of the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. remains of buildings with mud-brick walls have been excavated. The city, which was robbed and burnt in the 4th century A.D., continued to exist till the Arab invasion (7th–8th centuries A.D.).

References: Bokhochadze 1977; 1981; Bokhochadze et al. 1991, 96–98.

Eshera (3). A village in Abkhazia, on the Black Sea coast, on the right bank of the river Gumista, 13 km from Sukhumi (30 m above sea level). In 1934 and 1957 a group of dolmens of the 3rd–2nd millennia B.C. were excavated (B. Kufin, O. Japaridze). In 1967–1985 a site of the 6th–1st millennia B.C. was unearthed (G. Shamba); a 2nd–1st centuries B.C. fortification building was revealed – there were tools and weapons, local pottery (pithoi, pots, bowls, cups and so on) and imported vessels (Attic black-figured ceramics, Chiotian and Synopian amphorae) found.

References: Voronov 1972; Shamba 1980.

Etso (48). A place 1.5 km to the north-west of Tetriskaro, at 1.5 km, on the left bank of the river Chivchavi. A 4th–1st centuries B.C. cemetery was excavated in 1986–1988 (Z. Shatberashvili), where two of the burials were dated to the 1st century B.C.

Reference: Shatberashvili 1999, 57–63.

Ghartiskari (61). A fortress at the northern end of **Mtskheta**, on a hill at the right bank of the Aragvi (550 m above sea level). In 1984–86 the Mtskheta expedition (A. Apakidze) revealed a fortification system, which bordered Mtskheta from the north in the Late Hellenistic and Late Roman periods. A 2.80–3.0 m wide mud-brick

wall on a stone base has been excavated, with quadrangular towers in ground plan, at the distance of 52–53 m from each other. In the enclosed area of 30 ha temple and other buildings (palace?, mill) have been excavated. The Ghartiskari fortification system was apparently connected to the walls on the opposite side (left bank) of the Aragvi (see **Tsitsamuri**).

References: Apakidze et al. 1987, 48; Nikolashvili 1990, 2–6; Narimanishvili 1991, 107.

Ghrmaghele (71). A district in Tbilisi, in the north part of the city, on the left bank of the Kura. In 1936 and 1957–1961, during land works, the 1st century B.C.–2nd century A.D. cemetery was damaged. In the Georgian National Museum some items from this cemetery are preserved: ceramic jugs with ribbed necks, a bronze bracelet and five glass vessels, among them the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. spindle-shaped, colored glass alabaster.

References: Koridze 1958, 75 f.; Saginashvili 1977.

Gomareti (35). A village in Kvemo Kartli (Dmanisi district). In 1962 (D. Tushabramishvili) and in 1975 (T. Davlianidze) 26 cists and pit-burials with varied inventory (pottery, painted blackish, grayish and red, bronze and iron ornaments, iron weapons) were excavated on the territory of the village. Most of the unearthed burials are dated to the 4th–3rd centuries B.C. Cist-Grave 12 is of the 1st century B.C., the inventory of which contains a blue glass polyhedron, glass beads with gold and silver lining, a hemispherical bead and so on.

References: Gagoshidze 1982, 14–18; Davlianidze 1983, 118, 159–164.

Gori (30). A city in Shida Kartli, at the mouth of the Liakhvi and the Kura (588 m above sea level). It was named after a high rocky hill in the center of the city (“gori” = hill), on which a huge Medieval castle – Goristsikhe – was erected.

In written sources Gori is not mentioned until the Middle Ages, but archaeological data prove that the city had appeared by the end of the 1st millennium B.C., at the juncture of trade and transit roads, of which the remains of old bridges on the Kura and the Liakhvi are a reminder.

During building activities on the city territory, Late Hellenistic and Roman period burials with remarkable inventory were accidentally excavated. In 1946, on the northern slope of Goris-

tsikhe, a fortress wall of the 2nd-1st centuries B.C., built of stone and mud-brick, and some cultural layers were revealed as a result of a landslide. On the southern slope of the hill and at its foot, on the territory of the ancient city, remains of an ashlar wall are noticeable, which must be of the Roman epoch. A stone sculpture of a human head of eastern type was excavated, which is kept in the Gori State Archaeological-Ethnographical Museum alongside other local archaeological material. The material is not published.

Reference: Gvritishvili 1954.

Grdzeli Mindori (49). A site, situated on the left bank of the Kura, enclosed by gorges on two sides, on a riverside plateau opposite the village of Dzegvi (Mtskheta district). During the excavations in 1946 (N. Ghambashidze) ornamented limestone architectural details, lots of iron products and half-finished products (massive pick-axes, axes, nuggets and so on) found here give us reason to assume that the city of Sarkine (meaning the place of iron production), mentioned in ancient Georgian sources, was located here. The excavations of 1954-1956 (A. Apakidze) in the center of Grdzeli Mindori revealed not only an iron workshop, but lead and copper manufacture centers and a goldsmith's workshop, too, situated in one large building. There were hewn limestone blocks and some other architectural details, among them an ionic capital. The whole territory of Grdzeli Mindori (9 ha) is enclosed by a mud-brick wall with square towers. Excavations in 1976 (A. Bokhochadze) proved that buildings on Grdzeli Mindori are situated on four terraces and that a town was founded here already in the Hellenistic epoch. But the capital of Grdzeli Mindori is not earlier than the 2nd-1st centuries B.C. As well as iron three-winged arrow-heads with hafts, found here, the use of mortar in building points to the fact that the building of a "workshop" was completed not earlier than the 1st century A.D. (see **Sarkine**).

References: Apakidze et al. 1955, 5; Apakidze 1963, 31-40, 208-214; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 60; Bokhochadze 1979, 112-117; Gagoshidze 1979, 23; Kipiani 1987, 24-33.

Karakhtini (16). A place at the border of villages Sairkhe and Koreti (Sachkhere district). There were excavated (G. Makharadze) a layer of the site, a center of metal production and burials of later period, arranged in the layer of the 8th-5th

centuries B.C. Five pit-burials were excavated – there were found brownish and reddish burnt pots, a jug with a trefoil rim, a footed bowl with the rim inward, a bronze pin, a spindle-shaped glass pinhead and so on. The burials were dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D.

Reference: Makharadze 1990, 32-39.

Karsniskhevi (65). A complex monument of the 1st century B.C.-4th century A.D., situated near Mtskheta, to its south, on the lower part of the right tributary of the Kura – Karsnis Khevi. In 1975-1977 the Mtskheta archaeological expedition (A. Apakidze) excavated a settlement, ceramic workshop and cemetery. The lower (third) layer of the settlement, which exhibited red-slip vessels, a block of workshops, and several burials – Tile-Burial 12, Pithos-Burial 30, Pit-Burials 29 and 35 – in which there were ceramic black-polished jugs, jars with ribbed rims, Syrian glass unguentaria, drachms of Orodes II and Gotarzes and Augustus denarii, are dated to the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D.

References: Apakidze et al. 1978a, 19-31, 39 f., 52-83; Apakidze et al. 1978b, 81, 95; Nikolaishvili 1993, 8, 26-47, 76-78, 82 f.

Katlanikhevi (31). A site and a cemetery of the 2nd century B.C.-3rd century A.D. in Shida Kartli, on the left bank of the river Kura, to the west of **Uplistsikhe**. It was excavated in 1957-1963 (D. Khakhutaishvili). Finding of an iron plough in the layer of the Turn of the Era is of utmost interest. Ceramics, ornaments, Parthian and Roman coins were found in the burials.

Reference: Khakhutaishvili 1964, 83-92.

Katsitavana (54). A fortress, which defended Mtskheta from south-west. Situated to the west of Mtskheta railway station, on a hill at the mouth of Armaziskhevi, the right tributary of the Kura (700 m above sea level). Minor excavations in 1984-1985 revealed remains of Hellenistic, Roman and Early Medieval epoch fortification buildings. The fourth layer from above is dated to the Turn of the Era.

Reference: Apakidze et al. 1987, 49; Nikolaishvili 1990, 6.

Khaishi (7). A village in Svaneti (west Georgia), in the Enguri valley (730 m above sea level). In 1948 several objects were found accidentally: three silver drinking vessels of similar shape,

with two handles, footed, one of which is decorated with a relief floral ornament, a gold torque, the ends of which are decorated with fantastic animals and a gold pendant representing a diminutive tower with a balcony. Two figures, playing a pipe and a bow instrument are sitting on the balcony; on the roof there are granulated representations of birds. The vessels must be the production of the Augustan period from an eastern Roman province, while the gold objects are of the same period local production, continuing the earlier Georgian tradition of metalwork.

References: Javakhishvili 1958; Javakhishvili/Abramishvili 1986, 23.

Kldeeti (12). A cemetery dated to the 2nd century A.D., which was partly excavated in 1941–1942 (D. Lomtadze), in Imereti, in the village of Zeda Kldeeti (Zestafoni district; 350 m above sea level). In the pit-burials rich inventory was found: ornaments, vessels, weapons and armor, coins (Gottarzes drachms, Augustus denarii, imitations of staters of Alexander the Great). A bronze patera from Kldeeti, the handle of which ends in a stone ram's head, is dated to the 1st century A.D., and oinochoai to the 4th century B.C. A bulging glass unguentarium of the 1st century A.D. must be an Italian production. It is remarkable that in one of the burials a dagger was excavated, the handle of which was decorated by a 1st century A.D. gem with an eagle and a representation of Victoria, set in an electrum mounting.

Reference: Lomtadze 1957; Lordkipanidze 1964, 211, 213; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 91, 94.

Manglisi (37). A village in Trialeti (Tetrtskaro district), in the Algeti valley (1200 m above sea level). One of the oldest centers of eparchy of Georgian Orthodox church. First mentioned in written sources in connection with events in the first third of the 4th century A.D. In 1908 a necropolis of Late Hellenistic – Early Roman period was excavated (Weissengoff).

References: Melikset-Beg 1924, 82–87; Kuftin 1941, 27 f.

Martaziskhevi, Sangriskhevi (52). A cemetery at the mouth of the Martazis (or Sangris) Khevi, the right tributary of the Kura, 4.5 km to the west of Mtskheta. Among the burials, excavated in 1951, 1963, 1967, 1969 and 1974, there are the ones, dated to the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. In a pithos-burial at Martaziskhevi the most remark-

able find is a bowl with four engraved palmettes represented on the bottom, which is so far unique for Georgia.

Reference: Apakidze et al. 1955, 5; Lomtadze/Ugreliidze 1964, 9–10; Ugreliidze/Amiranashvili 1971; Narimanishvili/Manjgaladze 1989; Narimanishvili 1991, 108.

Mogvtakari cemetery (56). A 1st–3rd centuries A.D. cemetery in Mtskheta, on the right bank of the Kura, to the south of the railway station. In 1995 and 1997 there were excavated (A. Apakidze, A. Sikharulidze) eleven tile-burials, two pit-burials and one stone cist. In the burials, oriented to NNE-SSW the dead were buried on their sides, with bent arms and legs. The inventory – ceramic jugs, a glass drinking vessel and unguentarium, gold earrings, silver and bronze rings, iron and chalcedony finger-rings, a bronze mirror, bronze bells, beads of different materials, Parthian and Roman coins – is kept in the Mtskheta Archaeological Museum.

Reference: Apakidze et al. 1981a, 126–130.

Mogvta Khidi, Pompey's Bridge (57). An old bridge over the Kura, which was left under water after the building of the dike of Zemo Avtchala electric power station on the Kura in 1927. The bridge, which was fundamentally renewed in 1848, is supposed to have been built by Kartlian king Vakhtang Gorgassal (second half of the 5th century A.D.). It was called "Pompey's bridge", because the bridge, which is mentioned by Cassius Dio in the description of Pompey's war in Kartli, was situated in the same place: Iberian king Artoke moved away from Pompey, crossed the river and burnt the bridge, but when Pompey intended to cross the Kirnos (the Kura), Artoke sent ambassadors to him with the request for agreement and promised him to restore the bridge, a promise which he kept.¹⁴⁴²

References: Kvezereli-Kopadze 1947; Apakidze et al. 1955, 7.

Monasteri (27). A village in Shida Kartli, in the Liakhvi valley, 6 km to the north of Tskhinvali (920 m above sea level). In 1975–1976 the 2nd century B.C.–2nd century A.D. pit-burials were excavated near the village, in which the dead lay on their sides, with bent arms and legs. Two twinned burials were found, in one case with a

¹⁴⁴² Cass. Dio 37.1.4 and 37.2.1.

harnessed horse buried inside. In the burials there were ceramic vessels, a bronze open-work belt, bracelets, rings, Aucissa fibulae, beads and pendants of Egyptian faience, glass, including gold-lain glass beads, a bracelet with shells (*cauri* – *Cypraea moneta*), an electrum imitation of an Alexander stater and Parthian silver drachms (Orodes I, Phraates III, Gotarzes and so on).

References: Gagloev 1976; Gagloev 1977; Gagloev 1980; Gagloev 1985.

Mozvleulebi (22). A settlement and cemetery of the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. at **Dedoplis Mindori**. It was excavated in 1972 and 1983 (I. Gagoshidze). In the burials there were red-burnt and painted jugs and footed bowls, a black-polished ceramic jar, a bowl and phiala, a bronze concave bracelet and beads of different materials. Most remarkable are a Colchian pithos and black varnished vessels of Late Hellenistic times, which is rare for East Georgia.

Reference: Gagoshidze 1975a, 68.

Mtskheta (55). City museum, administrative center of Mtskheta district; religious center of Georgian Orthodox Church, residence (together with Tbilisi) of the head of the church, the Catholicos-Patriarch; ancient capital of kingdom of Kartli (Iberia) before the 5th century A.D. Situated 20 km north of Tbilisi, at the junction of the Kura and Aragvi, on both banks of the Kura and on the right bank of the Aragvi, at 450 m above sea level.

According to Kartlis Tskhovreba, Mtskheta was built in ancient times by Mtskhetos, son of an ethnarch of Georgians, Kartlos.¹⁴⁴³ In foreign written sources Mtskheta is first mentioned by Claudius Ptolemy¹⁴⁴⁴ as *Μεσσητήτα* (according to C. Müllers' conjecture: *Μεσχήτα*).¹⁴⁴⁵

Archaeological excavations started in 1874 and are still going on. Present excavations are carried out by the Mtskheta Archaeological Institute of Georgian Academy of Sciences (director A. Apakidze).

Archaeological monuments of different periods – from the Early Bronze Age (3rd millennium B.C.) to the Late Medieval epoch – have been excavated. In the center of the modern city, in the Stalin Street, at the gate, a meter-thick cultural

layer of the 2nd–1st centuries B.C. was excavated in 1980; red painted footed bowls with turned-in rims and other ceramic ware were found there.¹⁴⁴⁶ On the territory of Mtskheta several 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. archaeological sites are situated: **Armaztsikhe, Karsniskhevi, Mtskhethian Crypt, Samtavro cemetery, Svetitskhoveli cemetery, Mogvta Khidi, Ghartiskari, Tsitsamuri, Katsitavana, Armaziskhevi.**

References: Mtskheta 1–9; Lomtadidze 1945; 1955; Lordkipanidze 1957; Apakidze 1959a; 1963; Apakidze et al. 1982.

Mtskhethian Crypt (62). A burial-building of the last quarter of the 1st century A.D. It is situated in Mtskheta, on the right bank of the Kura, at the foot of the mountain near the railway station. It was excavated in 1951 (G. Lomtadidze). A one-cell crypt with an arch is located in a yard, enclosed with a wall. A gable roof is covered with tiles. The eastern front with a pediment is faced with sandstone. A right-angled door was built up with flat stone. The vault of the cell and walls are plastered with hydraulic mortar. The floor is made of hewn stone. An adult, with his head directed to the west, and a child were buried in the crypt. Despite the fact that the burial had been robbed before, some interesting material was found there: more than 15 glass vessels (two blue glass plates and salt-cellars, a drinking vessel of cut glass, unguentaria), a bronze statue of Pan, a piece of furniture, fragments of silverware, a cast gold medallion, hundreds of golden beads, pendants and buttons (rosettes), gems, lots of colored and precious stones, paste, carneol, jet and glass beads, remains of a wooden sarcophagus, put together with bronze nails and iron bands (fragments of silver belonging to the legs of a burial bed), ceramic bowls covered with red slip, 63 gold and silver coins (five local imitations of Alexander staters, auri of Tiberius, Nero, Vitellius and Vespasian, 51 Parthian drachms of 88–37 B.C., two drachms of Polemon I of Pontus and Augustus denarii), a gold, coin-like discus (half finished coin?), etc.

References: Lomtadidze/Tsitsishvili 1951; Tsitsishvili 1954; Apakidze et al. 1955, 6 f.; Kapanadze, B. 1955, 82 f.; Apakidze 1963, 107.

Nakulbakevi (Devis Namukhli) (67). A site between Tbilisi and Mtskheta, on the right bank of

¹⁴⁴³ Kartlis Tskhovreba, 9.

¹⁴⁴⁴ Ptol. *Geog.* 10.3.

¹⁴⁴⁵ Lomouri 1955, 46, 60.

¹⁴⁴⁶ Apakidze et al. 1982, pl. 59.14–16.

the Kura, where rocky mountain comes near to the river (caves are cut into the rock) and where, during the building of the road between Tbilisi and Mtskheta in 1867, a sandstone plaque with Greek inscription of 75 A.D. was found, which tells that the Roman emperor Vespasian, together with Titus and Domitian, strengthened walls for Iberian king Mithridates, son of Pharasmanes, friend of Caesar and the Romans, and for the people of Iberia. The fortification wall, in which this inscription must have been installed, was, apparently, extended to the other (left) bank of the Kura (see **Zemo Avchala**). The inscription is kept in the Georgian National Museum.

References: Bartolomey 1869; Boltunova 1927; Kaukhchishvili 1951, 257 ff.; Apakidze et al. 1955, 6; Tsereteli 1958; Apakidze 1963, 125–134.

Nastagisi (44). Settlements and cemeteries of the 7th century B.C.–7th century A.D., situated at the junction of the Kura and Ksani (on the left banks of the rivers), near Ksani village, Mtskheta district (490 m above sea level). In the written sources it is first mentioned in the context of the 4th–3rd centuries B.C. In the Middle ages it was a village, in the 3rd–2nd centuries B.C. a city. It was excavated in 1972–1980 (A. Bokhochadze). The cemetery of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. is of utmost importance; here 164 burials have been excavated, which provided many archaeological objects, among them imported ones (glass, ceramics).

References: Bokhochadze 1976; Bokhochadze 1977, 93–95; Gagoshidze 1979, 17–19, 25–30; Bokhochadze et al. 1979; Bokhochadze et al. 1980; Bokhochadze et al. 1981; Bokhochadze et al. 1982; Lordkipanidze 1985b; Bokhochadze et al. 1987; Narimanishvili 1991, 109 f.

Natakhtari (63). A village in Shida Kartli, to the north of Mtskheta, on the river Aragvi. On the Mukhrani plain, near the village, five 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. pit-burials, covered with pebble-stone piles were excavated in 1984–1985.

Reference: Apakidze et al. 1987, 50.

Neron Deresi (29). A 1st century B.C. cemetery is situated west of the village of Santa, Tsalka district, on the left bank of the river Neron Deresi. In 1936 and 1937 the Trialeti archaeological expedition, led by B. Kuftin, excavated eight stone cists, which included black polished and red burnt ceramics, bronze concave bracelets, glass and

stone beads, blue glass polyhedrons, and so on. The deceased lay on their right sides, with bent arms and legs. On the territory of the cemetery a Cyclopean building has been cleared, which is impossible to date exactly, but it is obviously later than the cemetery. Archaeological material is kept in the Georgian National Museum (inv. nos. 178–65).

References: Kuftin 1941, 30–34; Gagoshidze 1975b; Gagoshidze 1982, 7–40, 65–94.

Nichbisi, Zemo Nichbisi (41). A village in the Mtskheta district, in the valley of Nichbisi, the right tributary of the Kura, 23 km from Mtskheta (900 m above sea level). In 1936 a burial was accidentally found here, the part of the inventory of which – two bronze jars of Italian origin, dated to Augustan times or not later than the first quarter of the 1st century A.D., a silver buckle and rings, glass finger-rings, eight Augustus' denarii and Gotarzes' drachm – is kept in the Georgian National Museum (inv. nos. 9–58).

References: Lordkipanidze 1964, 199–204; Lordkipanidze 1968a, 77–83.

Nokalakevi, Tsikhe-Goji, Archaiopolis (8). Remains of one of the oldest castles and towns, capital of Lazian (Egrisi) kingdom; situated on the left bank of the Tekhura, right tributary of the Rioni, on the place where the river flows out of the gorge to the Colcheti valley. It is mentioned as *Ἀρχαίωπολις* by the Byzantine emperor Justinianus (527–565 A.D.).¹⁴⁴⁷ Justinianus' contemporary historian Procopius Caesariensis characterizes it as well-fortified and the biggest city of the country of Lazis.¹⁴⁴⁸ Ancient Georgian written historical tradition ascribes its building to the governor of Egrisi-Kuji (first quarter of the 3rd century B.C.).

The site occupies an area of 15 ha. Above the ground a large towered wall of the citadel and of the city is preserved, which is triple in the parts that are easy to get to; also the 6th century A.D. church in the city and some other buildings of Early Medieval and Medieval epochs. Archaeological studies started in 1930–1931 (A. Schneider) and were renewed in 1973 (P. Zakaraia). It was proved that an important settlement existed here already in the 8th–7th centuries B.C., but the city reached particular prosperity in the 4th–6th

¹⁴⁴⁷ Novell. Just. 31.

¹⁴⁴⁸ Proc. *Bello Persico* 2.29; 3.13.

centuries A.D. There have been excavated remains of a church and a royal palace, a bath and some other buildings of this period. Tombs of the 5th–4th centuries B.C., 3rd–2nd centuries B.C. and 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. were also excavated, which belonged to ordinary residents of the city and in which there were ceramics (among them imported), metal ornaments, beads and coins. The material is preserved in the Georgian National Museum.

References: Georiga II, 33–36, 101, 182; Nokalakevi I, II, III.

Patardzeuli (73). A village (Sagarejo district), 40 km from Tbilisi, 800 m above sea level. To the east of the village in 1953 a hill-site (Makhari-kaangora) was revealed (N. Berdzenishvili). In the south-eastern part of the village, near the church, a pit-burial was found in 1974 with the following inventory: a pinkish burnt jug, pots, a phiala, bronze bracelets, a temple ring, paste beads, a paste mosaic pendant. The burial is dated to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D.

Reference: Narimanashvili 1999, 68–70.

Pitiunt – See Bitchvinta.

Pompey's bridge – See Mogvta Khidi.

Prtena, Ptena (18). A village in Javakheti, Akhalkalaki district, on the left bank of the river Paravani (1690 m above sea level). In 1944 a 1st century B.C. burial was found here accidentally, in which, along numerous beads, there was an agate decahedral seal with a deer represented on a lower facet.

References: Barnaveli 1945; Gagoshidze 1982, 17.

Rikianebis Veli – See Aghaiani.

Sabaduris Gora (17). A site of the 8th–1st centuries B.C., one of those 15 hill sites that were revealed in Zemo Imereti, to the south-west of village **Sairkhe**. In 1982–1986 a 8th–7th centuries B.C. site, rich burials of the 5th–4th centuries B.C. and a 3rd–1st centuries B.C. cultural layer were excavated here (J. Nadiradze). Ceramic material of the latter layer is clearly different from the earlier Colchian one and exhibits similarity with Hellenistic and Early Roman East-Georgian (Iberian) ceramics (**Samadlo**, **Aghaiani**, **Uplistsikhe**, **Dedoplis Gora** and so on).

Reference: See Sairkhe.

Sairkhe (15). A village in Zemo Imereti (Sachkhere district), on the left of the river Kvirila, 560 m above sea level. It attracted archaeologists' attention first in 1957, when in Lominauri remains of a temple were excavated (N. Ghambashidze) and limestone bases, decorated with lotus ornament, were found. From 1966 on there have been regular excavations (J. Nadiradze, G. Makharadze). It became clear that here, already in the 8th–7th centuries B.C. there existed a strong settlement, on the basis of which a city grew in the 5th century B.C. This city was perhaps the center of one of the territorial-administrative unit of the Colchian kingdom in the 5th–4th centuries B.C., and the rich burials, excavated at Sairkhe, in **Sabaduris Gora** must have belonged to its governors. From the 3rd century B.C. on Zemo Imereti is unified into a newly formed Iberian kingdom and the city gradually loses its former importance, though municipal life continues to exist here in the first centuries A.D. According to J. Nadiradze, this must be the city of *Σαράκη*, mentioned by Claudius Ptolemy.¹⁴⁴⁹ (see also **Karakhtini**, **Sabaduris Gora**).

References: Lomouri 1955, 39–65; Nadiradze 1975; Nadiradze 1990a; Bragvadze 1993.

Sakaraulo Seri (39). A 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. cemetery in Shida Kartli, on the right bank of the Kura, near the village of Kavtiskhevi, Kaspi district, north of Chochevi **Tsikhia Gora**. In 1971–1972 thirty pithos-burials, fifteen pit-burials and four stone cists were excavated here (G. Tskitishvili), in which remarkable archaeological material was found, including Syrian glass unguentaria, the so-called Egyptian faience pendants (scarabs), a blue glass polyhedral seal, painted ceramic vessels and so on.

References: Jinjikhashvili 1980; Kazakhashvili 1980.

Samtavro cemetery (59). A multi-layered archaeological site, one of the biggest ancient cemeteries in Caucasia, is situated on the Samtavro plain (18 ha), in Mtskheta, on the right bank of the Aragvi, at 500 m from the mouth of the river, to the north. The name was taken from the 11th century A.D. episcopal church at the south end of the plain. Excavations were started by the German natural scientist Friedrich v. Bayern and are still going on. More than 4000 burials of different times have been cleared and studied, which are

¹⁴⁴⁹ Ptol. Geog. 9.6.

arranged in several layers. The oldest ones are Bronze Age tumuli (first half of the 2nd millennium B.C.); most numerous are Late Bronze and Early Iron Age pit-burials (second half of the 2nd millennium–6th century B.C.); the 5th–4th centuries B.C. burials are comparatively fewer, and no burials of the 3rd century B.C. were found until now. On Samtavro cemetery pithos-burials are common for the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D., tile-burials and stone-burials are widespread in the 1st–3rd centuries A.D. A majority of the 4th–9th centuries A.D. burials are stone-burials (family crypts), in which, as a rule, several people are buried. Pit-burials occur in all epochs. In the 2nd–4th centuries A.D. in the southern part of Samtavro members of the Iberian royal family were buried. The territory to the north of the royal family burials was, apparently, destined for the foreigners living in Mtskheta; this is proved by Hebrew and Greek epitaphies excavated here. On the Samtavro plain there was excavated also a settlement of the so called Kura-Araks culture of the Early Bronze Age and, in the north of the plain, a cultural layer of the 2nd–1st centuries B.C., where red-painted tiles and painted and decorated ceramics were excavated.

The 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. pithos-burials, tile-burials and stone cists include varied materials: ceramic vessels, glass unguentaria, numerous ornaments (gold, silver and bronze bracelets, rings, earrings, pendants, stone, jet, amber and glass beads), Parthian and Roman coins and so on.

References: Tolordava 1963; Ivashchenko 1980; Tolordava 1980, 47–53.

Sarkine (50). A city, mentioned in ancient Georgian written sources as one of the oldest cities in Kartli. Located 8 km to the west of Mtskheta, on the left bank of the Kura. Here, on the slopes of a western hill of the Svaneti mountain range, observations in 1946 (N. Ghambashidze) proved the existence of a city-site. In 1954–1956 a mud-brick tower and an iron-chased door were excavated at the foot of the hill (G. Gobejishvili). As a result of excavations in 1971–1976 (A. Bokhochadze) it became clear that the buildings, covered with tiles, were situated on terraces. Wood, stone and mud-brick were used in building. The territory of the castle-city, approximately 20 ha, was enclosed by a mud-brick wall, one part of which, from the gate to the range, was excavated in 1980 (A. Apakidze).

Among the archaeological finds, the most important are glass trays made in the mosaic technique, a *terra sigillata* tray and phialae from Asia Minor, stone and faience vessels, terracotta busts of Dionysus and Ariadne and masks of the personages of the Dionysean circle. There were also excavated fragments of Megarian bowls and amphoriskoi from Asia Minor, gold beads, pendants and rosettes, iron arrow-heads, nails, etc., dated by the 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. The second part of Sarkine was, apparently, situated to the west of the citadel, on a riverside plateau (see **Grdzeli Mindori**).

References: Moktsevai kartlisai, 17; Bokhochadze 1976, 70–73; Bokhochadze 1977, 95; Bokhochadze 1979, 107–112; Gagoshidze 1979, 24; Apakidze 1985.

Sebastopolis – See Sokhumi.

Shorapani (13). A small town in Imereti (Zestafoni district), at the extreme east end of the Kolkheti plain, at the confluence of the rivers Kvirila and Dzirula (170 m above sea level). It is first mentioned by Strabo,¹⁴⁵⁰ as a border fortress of Colchis with Iberia – *Σαραπανίς*, which lies on the river Phazis on the place up to which the river is navigable, and it can accommodate the population of the whole city; from Shorapani to the Kura was four days' journey. In Classical and Medieval epochs Shorapani was the center of one of the territorial-administrative unit Argveti. Shorapani fortress maintained its strategic importance until the 19th century A.D. The old city consisted of two main parts: the city itself, situated on the cape junction of the rivers, and a citadel, built on a rocky hill. Archaeological excavations have been held since 1985 (V. Japaridze). Along with other material, a cultural layer of the 1st century B.C. and remains of the building were revealed. In the building, for joining minor limestone blocks they had used clamps with the shape of double arrowheads, the same kind as was used in the walls of the Palace at **Dedoplis Gora**.

Reference: Japaridze 1990.

Shulaveri (72). An Early Bronze Age and Chalcolite settlement on a hill, on the right bank of the Khrami, at 2.5 km south-west of the village of Imiri, Marneuli district. An archaeological expe-

¹⁴⁵⁰ Strab. 11.2.17; 11.3.4.

dition of the Georgian National Museum (A. Javakhishvili) excavated five pit-burials of the second half of the 1st century B.C. and beginning of the 1st century A.D. in 1965. In the burials there were red-fired ceramics, among them a hemispherical phiala, bronze and silver bracelets and ear-rings, glass beads (some are gold laid). The material is kept in the Georgian National Museum.

Reference: Davlianidze 1975.

Sokhta (21). A village in the valley of the Patsa, the right tributary of the Liakhvi (1320 m above sea level). To the south-east of the village there is the 1st–4th centuries A.D. site and cemetery. 37 pit-burials were excavated in the cemetery in 1926 (E. G. Pchelina), 1974, 1976 and 1977 (A. Slanov), in which the deceased lay on their sides, stooped, with their heads to the north. At five of the burials a horse was buried. The inventory in the burials is varied: clay and glass-ware, bronze belts, fibulae, rings, bracelets, beads, coins – Augustus' denarii, drachms of Parthian kings Orodes II (57–38 B.C.), Phraates IV (38–3 B.C.) and Gotarzes (41–51 A.D.). Excavation of iron bits with horse-shoe-shaped curbs is of particular interest, as they are the closest analogy of the bits from **Dedoplis Gora**.

Reference: Kuftin 1949, 21–23; Slanov 1975; Slanov 1977; Slanov 1980.

Sokhumi, Dioskuria, Sebastopolis (4). Capital of Abkhazia and one of the oldest cities of Georgia. It was the center of Tskhumi Saeristavo (Tskhumi province) in the Medieval epoch, and the residence of the Abkhazian princes from the 18th century A.D. on.

It is situated on the Black Sea coast, where, in the 6th century B.C., Milesian Greeks founded the colony of Dioskuria. In the 1st century A.D. Romans build here a castellum called Sebastopolis, where there camped first Roman, and then Byzantian garrisons.

It is first mentioned in by the 4th century B.C. Greek author Pseudo-Scylax,¹⁴⁵¹ as a city in Colchis. Strabo mentions Dioskuria as a commercial city in Colchis, where about 70 (in other sources 300) tribes are gathered.¹⁴⁵² But Flavius Arrian writes in his "Periplus" in 130–131 A.D., that

"Sebastopolis, which was formerly called Dioskuria, is a Milesian colony".¹⁴⁵³

Archaeological excavations, carried out since 1885 (V. Sizov, A. Miller, A. Bashkirov, M. Ivashchenko, D. Soloviov, M. Trapsh, A. Kalandadze, A. Apakidze and so on), have revealed settlements and cemeteries of the Stone, Bronze and Iron Age, also of the Classical, Hellenistic and Roman epochs. Remains of the Roman castellum were also excavated – there were found metal vessels, ornaments, tools, weapons and ceramics, among them terra sigillata. In 1895 in Sokhumi a Latin lapidary inscription was found, in which Flavius Arrian, who had carried out fortification works here, is mentioned.

References: Kaukhchishvili 1957; Kaukhchishvili 1967; Trapsh 1969; Voronov 1980; Kaukhchishvili 1983.

Stirfaz (28). A village in Java district, on the upper part of the Didi Liakhvi, on the right bank (1250 m above sea level). In 1955–1964 several burials of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. were excavated (B. Tekhov, R. Gagloev). In the burials, along with other things, there were Gotarzes drachms, Augustus denarii, imitations of Alexander's staters. The material is kept in the Tskhinvali Museum.

References: Tekhov 1974, 18; 1980; Gagloev 1976, 485.

Svetitskhoveli cemetery (58). Situated in Mtskheta, to the west of Svetitskhoveli cathedral, at a distance of 30–40 m outside the outer wall. In 1975 and 1978 four tile-burials of the 1st century A.D. were excavated, in which there were ceramic jars with ribbed necks, glass unguentaria of Syrian origin, gold and silver ornaments, two Parthian drachms, two Augustan denarii, three local imitations of the denarii of Alexander the Great, etc. There were excavated also six 2nd–1st centuries B.C. pithos-burials with ceramic jugs, bronze and silver concave bracelets and temple rings, a bronze ink-pot, bone styloi, carneol, jet, glass (among them gold-laid) beads and so on.

References: Apakidze et al. 1978a, 64–77; Apakidze et al. 1981b, 158.

Tagiloni (6). A village in West Georgia (Gali district), on the right bank of the Inguri (60 m

¹⁴⁵¹ Scylax 81.

¹⁴⁵² Strab. 11.2.14.

¹⁴⁵³ Arr. *Peripl.M.Eux.* 10.

above sea level). In 1930 a rich man's burial was found by accident, in which there were fragments of an iron helmet and a set of armor, parts of a horse's harness, a gold sculpture of a deer and 14 silver vessels of Italian production, among them a tray with an emblem. The burial is dated to the end of the 1st century or the beginning of the 2nd century A.D. The material is kept in the Zugdidi Museum.

Reference: Boltunova 1935.

Takhtidziri (25). A village in Shida Kartli, Kareli district, in the eastern Prone valley (710 m above sea level). In the north of the village, on the left bank of the river, there were remains of the 4th and 2nd-1st millennium B.C. settlements and remains of the 5th century B.C.-1st century A.D. site; also cemeteries of the 3rd millennium B.C., 4th-2nd centuries B.C. and 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D.

In 1996-1997 remains of settlements and cemeteries of different period (4th millennium B.C.-1st millennium A.D.) were excavated (I. Gagoshidze), among them eleven pit-burials of the 1st century B.C.-1st century A.D., in which the deceased were buried on their sides, with bent legs and their heads to the south. Among the inventory of the burials, there were black and red burnt pottery, glass unguentaria, silver and bronze bracelets and rings, beads of different materials, etc.; also six 2nd-1st centuries B.C. Parthian drachms (Artabanus I, Orodes II, Mithridates III). The material is kept in the Georgian National Museum.

Reference: Gagoshidze 1997a.

Telatgori (42). A village (Kaspi district) on the right bank of the river Kavtura. To the North of the village there is a hill "Napuzrebi", where in 1977 a multi-layer monument was revealed (G. Tskitishvili): pit-burials of Late Bronze - Early Iron Age, Hellenistic site and burials of the Roman period, arranged on the hill. Pit-burial 4 was dated to the 2nd-3rd centuries A.D., but its inventory (a footed jug with the rim inward, a glass unguentarium, a glass spindle-shaped pin-head, etc.) allows us to date the burial to the 1st-2nd centuries A.D.

Reference: Kvitashvili 1990, 40-45.

Totkhami (19). A village in Javakheti (Akhalkalaki district; 1700 m above sea level). In 1976 two glass Syrian figured unguentaria of the sec-

ond half of the 1st century A.D. were accidentally found here.

Reference: Saginashvili 1988.

Treli cemetery (70). The 1st century B.C.-3rd century A.D. cemetery near the mouth of the right tributary of the Kura - Dighmistskali, east of the village of Dighomi (Mtskheta district). In 1968-1970, 25 burials were excavated (R. Abramishvili): one stone cist and one pithos-burial, the rest pit-burials, in one of which (no. 1) a wooden sarcophagus was laid. Archaeological material - ceramic vessels (hemispherical phiala, bowls, jugs), iron and bronze bracelets, bronze bells, a bezel-ring, a blue glass polyhedron, an Augustus coin, etc. is kept in the Tbilisi Archaeological Museum.

Reference: Nikolaishvili 1978, 93-105.

Tsebelda (5). A historical-geographical region in Abkhazia, on the middle and upper part of the river Kodori (Gulripshi district), the central settlement of the country of the Apsilii. It is first mentioned by the 6th century Byzantine author Procopii Caesariensis¹⁴⁵⁴ as *Tsibilius*, in connection with the war between Byzantium and Persia. Tsebelda is rich with architectural and archaeological monuments. There have been archaeological excavations at intervals since 1927 (M. Ivashchenko, V. Strazhev, L. Soloviov, M. Trapsh, G. Shamba, I. Voronov, M. Gumba). Fortification buildings, churches, a bath, a vast 2nd-8th century A.D. cemetery have been excavated with varied material - ceramic and glass ware, ornaments, tools and weapons, coins, etc.

Reference: Kaukhchishvili 1965; Voronov 1969, 60 f.; Trapsh 1971; Voronov/Bgashba 1985.

Tsikhedidi (46). A fortress, mentioned in ancient Georgian written sources among the oldest castle-cities. It was a village in Medieval times. Archaeologically it is not studied. But, presumably, the fortress was situated on the right bank of the Kura, east of the village Dzegvi (Mtskheta district), at the mouth of the Tsikhedidis-Khevi, a tributary of the Kura, on the place where the Kura gorge starts. Nearby, on the left bank of the Kura there was **Sarkine**. In 1970-1972, during building the vaccine and bacteriophagic complex, about 51 m of old fortification wall was destroyed. In 1972, on the right bank of the Tsikhe-

didis-Khevi a stone-cist with inventory from the second half of the 1st century B.C. was excavated (I. Gagoshidze).

Reference: Moktsevai Kartlisai, 81; Kartlis Tskhovreba, 17; Aleksidze/Burdjanadze 1964, 251; Gagoshidze 1975a, 63 f.; Gagoshidze 1979, 22.

Tsikhe-Goji – See Nokalakevi.

Tsikhia Gora, Kavtiskhevis Tsikhiagora, Chochetis Tsikhia Gora (38). A hill near the village of Kvemo Chocheti (Kaspi district), in Shida Kartli, on the Kavtura, the left tributary of the Kura (510 m above sea level). As a result of excavations (I. Gagoshidze, M. Tskitishvili, Z. Makharadze), which started in 1971, it became clear that the hill was inhabited from the Early Bronze Age to the Middle Ages. Most remarkable is the excavation of a post-Achaemenian double-protomed capital with calves and a bell-shaped base. In the Hellenistic period a temple and its household buildings were situated on the hill, enclosed with a mud-brick wall. The remains of the temple are covered with the 1st century B.C. cultural layer, which exhibited black polished ceramics.

Reference: Gagoshidze 1972; 1974; 1997; Tskitishvili 1977; 1995a; 1995b; Makharadze 1994.

Tsitsamuri (66). An ancient fortress near Mtskheta, on the left bank of the Aragvi. It is mentioned by Strabo, as *Σευσάμορα*, a fortified city, situated on the Aragos (Ἄραγος) and 16 stadia from another fortified city Ἄρμολικὴ on the Kura (Κύρος) (see **Armaztsikhe**).¹⁴⁵⁵ Here, on the top of the hill east of the village of Tsitsamuri, remains of a tower-like building (round in plan), made of ashlar, were excavated in 1953 (A. Apakidze). A. Apakidze considers this masonry more archaic than that of the lower level of Armaztsikhe. In 1985–1986 the Mtskheta expedition (A. Apakidze) excavated remains of a fortification wall and settlement of the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. to the south of the village, on the terrace of the Aragvi, as well as some burials (pithos-burials, pit-burials, some with wooden sarcophagus). In 1981, during excavations of the 1st century A.D. sanctuary, among other things they found a handle of a bronze Roman oinochoe and a bronze batillum.

Reference: Apakidze 1958b; 1963, 182–199; 1968, 113; 1991, 81–83; Apakidze et al. 1987, 50; Nikolaishvili/Narimanishvili 1995.

Tskheti (10). A village on the territory of historical Lechkhumi, in Tsageri district, 15 km south of Tsageri. To the north-west of the village, in 1962, fifteen pit-burials were excavated (G. Gobejishvili) with varied inventory: ornaments (bronze bracelets with concave backs, with twisted ends, fingerings, earrings, beads); items connected to clothes (fibulae, pins, among them a spindle-shaped glass pinhead, etc.); iron weapons (knives, arrowheads, spearheads) and pottery (red-burnt jars, jugs with trefoil rims, pots, etc.). Two chronological groups of burials were singled out: (1) 2nd–1st centuries B.C.; (2) 1st–4th centuries A.D.

Reference: Sulava 1996.

Uplistsikhe (33). A cave ensemble in Shida Kartli (Gori district), on the left bank of the Kura, 10 km east of Gori. In ancient Georgian written sources it is mentioned as being among the oldest castles in Kartli. It was one of the residences of Georgian kings in the 10th–12th centuries A.D.

The caves of Uplistsikhe are cut in a rocky sandstone massif of 9.5 ha, which is unreachable from the south and west (it descends vertically several tens of meters); from the north and east it is enclosed by an artificial moat 10 m deep and 10 m wide; from the same side Uplistsikhe was protected by a wall with towers, which used to be made of ashlar and mud-brick in Hellenistic and Roman epochs, but in Medieval times of mortar.

During the archaeological excavations, which started in 1957 (N. Chubinashvili, T. Karumidze, D. Khakhutaishvili, T. Sanikidze), it became clear that this massif had already been inhabited in the Bronze Age, but the most important cave complexes of Uplistsikhe (pedimented facades, imitation of wood constructions for roofing, caissons, etc.), are of the Late Hellenistic and Roman epochs. Most of them were used even in the Medieval epoch, when several new complexes were cut too; some caves were used for dwelling till the 19th century A.D.

In Hellenistic and Roman times Uplistsikhe was an acropolis for the settlement surrounding it (see **Chanakhas Mitsebi, Bambebi**).

¹⁴⁵⁵ Strab. 11.3.5.

Rich and varied archaeological material, excavated in Uplistsikhe and its environs, is kept in the Georgian National Museum of Fine Arts.

Reference: Khakhutaishvili 1964; 1970.

Urbnisi (26). A village in Shida Kartli (Kareli district), on the left bank of the Kura (640 m above sea level), an episcopal seat of the Georgian Orthodox church. In Georgian written sources it is mentioned among ancient cities of Kartli. The 1953–1963 archaeological excavations (G. Lomtadze, P. Zakaraia) proved that territory of Urbnisi had been inhabited since the 4th millennium B.C.; in the Hellenistic epoch Urbnisi became a city and continued to exist until the Arab invasion (7th–8th centuries A.D.). Before coming to Mtskheta, Saint Nino stayed in Urbnisi, in a local Jewish district. In the 6th century A.D. a large basilica was built here and an episcopal seat was established. In Urbnisi there were excavated remains of fortifications, living and religious buildings and cemeteries. Among them there are sites and burials, excavated on sections I, XVI and XXV, which belong to the Late Hellenistic and Early Roman epochs. The most significant material has been found in the north-eastern part of the Urbnisi site (section XXV), where in 1956–1962 303 burials of the 2nd century B.C.–3rd century A.D. were excavated (D. Koridze), seven of which were pithos-burials, and the rest pit-burials. In the pits, directed east-west, the deceased were mostly in straight positions, with their heads to the east. In some burials wooden sarcophagi were found. The burial inventory included mostly ornaments (rings, earrings, beads) and glass unguentaria. The Ceramic ware is light-colored and some are painted red. Urbnisi cemetery presented especially large amount of the 1st century A.D. Syrian glass unguentaria, also the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D. Italian and Roman glyptic material and imported ceramic unguentaria.

Reference: Javakhishvili/Ghlonti 1962; Chilashvili 1964; Zakaraia 1965; Saginashvili 1970; Javakhishvili 1972; Kikvidze 1972.

Vani (9). Center of a district in western Georgia, on the Kolkheti plain, on the left side of the river Rioni. It drew attention with its archaeological excavations already in the last century. Regular excavations were carried out between 1947 and 1963 (N. Khoshtaria). In 1966 the excavations were renewed and are still being carried out

(O. Lordkipanidze). Remains of an old city were revealed, which grew on the basis of a Colchian settlement in the 8th–6th centuries B.C. and turned into one of the most important centers of the Colchian kingdom. Rich burials of the aristocracy of this period have been unearthed. Urban life reaches its acme in the 3rd–1st centuries B.C., when, according to O. Lordkipanidze, it was a temple city. Besides the citadel, enclosed by the wall, which was situated on the Akhvledianebis Hill, in the same period there was an urban settlement at the bottom of the hill too, on the other, right bank of the river Sulori, at the place called Sakanchia. In the citadel mainly temples were excavated, while in the lower city residential, commercial and manufacturing buildings were revealed. In the 1st century B.C. the city was raided twice, but life here continued in the Roman epoch, too. In the Medieval epoch there was a monastery here, from which its present name (Vani) must survive. According to N. Khoshtaria, the city excavated at Vani is the same as the one which is mentioned as *Surium* by Plinius,¹⁴⁵⁶ while Claudius Ptolemy calls it *Σούριον*.¹⁴⁵⁷ In the Greek inscription, found at Vani, the city of *Σούριον* is mentioned.

Reference: Vani 1–8; Lordkipanidze 1973; 1984; 1995; Braund 1994, 122–151.

Vasastskaro, Arkneti (20). A cemetery, situated in Shida Kartli (Kornisi district), in the Prone valley, near the village of Arkneti (885 m above sea level). The 2nd century B.C.–1st century A.D. pithos-burial and six pit-burials were excavated in 1951 (O. Japaridze), with ceramic vessels, blue glass polyhedron “seals”, scarabaeoid, glass and carnelian beads, bronze bracelets, etc. Five parthian drachms of 77–37 B.C. were found in Pit-burial 2. In 1975 three other pithos-burials and eight pit-burials were excavated here (A. Slanov), which are dated to the Roman period.

Reference: Japaridze 1956; Abramishvili 1974, 99–101, nos. 17, 25, 39; Slanov 1976; Tolordava 1980, 59; Narimanishvili 1991, 24.

Zakhori (36). A village in Shida Kartli (Akhalgori district), in the Lekhura gorge (1100 m above sea level). In 1974 a burial was excavated, in which, among other things (a bronze buckle, a fibula, beads of different materials, a silver Gotarzes

¹⁴⁵⁶ Plin. *nat.hist.* 6.13.

¹⁴⁵⁷ Ptol. *Geog.* 11.6.

drachm), there was a silver ring of the 3rd century A.D. with a glass seal pierced lengthwise – a scarabeoid of the 1st century B.C.

Reference: Javakhishvili 1987.

Zemo Avchala (69). A settlement between Tbilisi and Mtskheta, on the right bank of the Kura. Here, in 1938, during the building of the railway bridge over the Kura, was found a wall, built of large hewn blocks of sandstone, perpendicular to the river. Greek letters M, TH, Ψ, Φ, Δ, MA, O, ΦΨ, E, etc. are engraved on the blocks. As a result of searches (A. Apakidze), other remains of

the wall were discovered to the north. Greek Δ is engraved on one block, and it became clear that the wall extended to the mountain foot. It is thought that this wall is a part of the fortification system which used to close (defend) narrow parts of the Kura gorge to the south of Mtskheta and to which must have been connected the Greek inscription of Vespasian, which was found nearby, on the opposite (right) bank of the Kura in 1867 (see **Devis Namukhli**). The 1st century A.D. inventory was also excavated in Zemo Avchala.

Reference: Kaukhchishvili 1951, 218–240; Apakidze et al. 1955, 5 f.; Apakidze 1963, 219.

Appendix: Analysis of the Plant Remains of Dedoplis Gora

by Nana Rusishvili

A wide variety of species was discovered during the study of the paleoethnobotanical material from Dedoplis Gora (see table I). In all, seven samples have been analyzed. The plant material has been completely carbonized by fire.

On the floor of Room 12, a pure barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) culture was found. The barley is hulled and multiple rowed (pl. 92, fig. 1).¹⁴⁵⁸ The size of the grains varies markedly (see table II).

Multiple rowed, hulled barley was identified in Room 8, too, but was found associated with several types of weeds. These are rye (*Secale segetale*), *Chenopodium sp.* and *Caucalis daucoides*. The presence of weeds in the paleoethnobotanical material often provides additional information about sowings. In this particular case the presence of *Chenopodium* is very interesting, because it grows in moist soil rich in humus.

The barley finds from Rooms 8 and 12 therefore represent different populations and were taken from different sowings.

Among the paleoethnobotanical material there is one case of a mixed sowing of wheat and barley (Label 75). According to its morphological features, the wheat belongs to the species "bread wheat" (*Triticum aestivo-compactum*) (see table II). The ventral groove is deep, the dorsal side is smooth, and the embryo is clearly visible (pl. 92, fig. 2). The barley is hulled and multiple rowed (pl. 92, fig. 3). As a result of mixed sowing, three parts of wheat and one of barley are obtained. Barley develops a strong system of roots and provides wheat with moisture. In time, the ratio shifts in favor of barley.¹⁴⁵⁹ In this case, barley predominates, which leads us to the assumption

that this population had been sown for a number of years.

No.	Context	Species
1	Room 12, in a jar	Barley - <i>Hordeum vulgare v. hexastichon L.</i>
2	Room 8	Barley - <i>Hordeum vulgare v. hexastichon L.</i> Rye - <i>Secale segetale (Zhuk) Roshev</i> <i>Chenopodium sp.</i> <i>Caucalis daucoides</i>
3	Room 9	Barley - <i>Hordeum vulgare v. hexastichon L.</i> Bread wheat - <i>Triticum aestivo-compactum</i> Pea - <i>Pisum sativum L.</i>
4	Room 12	Millet - <i>Panicum miliaceum L.</i> Onions - <i>Alium cepa L.</i> Rye - <i>Secale segetale (Zhuk) Roshev</i>
5	Room 10	Millet - <i>Panicum miliaceum L.</i>
6	Room 9	Sorghum - <i>Sorghum bicolor L.</i>
7	Outside of the palace, near the northern entrance.	Cornel - <i>Cornus mas L.</i> Plum - <i>Prunus domestica L.</i> Vine - <i>Vitis vinifera</i>

Table I

In Room 12, there were also piles of carbonized wheat and cultivated rye. In the ratio rye (*Secale cereale ssp. cereale*) to wheat, wheat predominates. The wheat grains are characterized by a specific shape of the embryo: it is pointed, which leads us to presume that this could be an indication for the crossbreeding of rye with wheat, as a result of

¹⁴⁵⁸ On the ventral side, a groove which narrows toward the embryo is visible. On the dorsal side, there is a trace of a lamella.

¹⁴⁵⁹ Menabde 1938.

which the so-called “secalloid” forms of wheat developed.

In Room 13, hard wheat (*Triticum durum* Desf.) was also found.

Species	Context	Length in mm			Width in mm			Depth in mm			Indexes			
		Average	min.	max.	Average	min.	max.	Average	min.	max.	L / W %	W / L %	D / L %	T / W %
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> v. <i>hexastichon</i>	Room 12	6.34	4.5	8.0	2.56	2.0	3.0	1.83	1.5	2.0	2.48	40.38	28.86	71.48
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> v. <i>hexastichon</i>	Room 9 (label 75)	6.65	5.5	8.0	2.96	2.0	4.0	1.98	1.5	2.3	2.25	44.51	29.77	66.89
<i>Triticum aestivo-</i> <i>compactum</i>		6.12	4.0	6.0	3.4	3.0	4.0	1.92	1.5	2.3	1.51	66.41	37.50	56.47
<i>Sorghum bicolor</i>	Room 9	4.1	3.5	4.5	3.02	2.8	3.3				1.36			
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> v. <i>hexastichon</i>	Room 8	6.58	5.5	8.1	3.3	2.5	4.0	2.18	1.8	2.8	1.99	50.15	33.13	66.06
<i>Secale segetale</i>		5.1			1.5			1.5			3.4			

Table II

Millet (*Panicum miliaceum* L.) was found in the Rooms 12 and 10. The specimens differ clearly in their morphological features (see table II) and they belong to two different populations.

The presence of sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L.) among the botanical material from Dedoplis Gora is of great significance (pl. 92, fig. 4). This is a culture of African origin and was unknown in archaeological sites in Georgia until now. Information dating to the early 20th century A.D. shows that sorghum was then no independent culture in Georgia, but was recorded as a mixture in sowings of maize.¹⁴⁶⁰ This last is possibly a case of secondary introduction, together with maize. But there are findings which indicate that there must have been sowings of sorghum in Georgia before maize was introduced.

According to S. Orbeliani (18th century A.D.), sorghum was known as “jikura” or “Indian Mil-

let”.¹⁴⁶¹ Sorghum migrated from Africa to South West Asia. Paleoethnobotanical material shows that it was known in the Mediterranean countries since the Roman period.¹⁴⁶²

The existence of sorghum in Georgia in the 1st century A.D. is of interest for the study of its migration.

At the outer wall of the Palace (Label 23) were found grape seeds,¹⁴⁶³ plum stones and cornelian cherry.

¹⁴⁶¹ Javakhishvili 1930, 371 f.; Zhukovski 1971.

¹⁴⁶² Zohary/Hopf 1988. In the modern world sorghum is one of the most important cereals. It ranks fourth in importance after wheat, maize and rice. Sorghum adapts well to dry and salty soil, and is nicknamed “the botanical camel”, because it can survive droughts so well.

¹⁴⁶³ The length of the grape seed is 4.89 mm, and that of the beak is 1.34 mm. According to its ampelographical features, it belongs to the species *Vitis vinifera*.

Several fragments of walnut shells and onion bulbs came from Room 12. According to the nervation of the walnut shells, two types could be distinguished.

Among the granular cultures (Label 75), there are several seeds of pea as a mixture. Their approximate diameter is 6.0 mm. According to their morphological features, they can be identified as *Pisum sativum*.

Investigation of the paleoethnobotanical material from Dedoplis Gora therefore provides well-founded information about cultivated plants in this region in the 1st century A.D. One of the plants excavated in this site (sorghum) has been recorded for the first time in Georgia, and it is not improbable that its introduction took place at this time, because there is to date no earlier evidence for sorghum in this country.

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Abbreviations

In the bibliography, the abbreviations of periodicals and publications follow the principles of the Deutsches Archäologisches Institut, published in Archäologischer Anzeiger 2005/2, 309–399 and on the website of the DAI*. Furthermore, for Russian and Georgian periodicals the following abbreviations are used:

DzM

Dzeglis Megobari.

Matsne

Sakartvelos SSR metsnierebata akademiis matsne. Istoriis, arkeologiis, etnografiisa da khelovnebis istoriis seria.

Moambe

Sakartvelos SSR metsnierebata akademiis moambe.

SKSMN

Sakartvelos khelovnebis sakhelmtsipo muzeumis narkvevebi.

SSIS

I. Djavakashvilis sakhelobis istoriis institutes shromebi.

SSMM

Akad. S. Djanashias sakhelobis Sakartvelos sakhelmtsipo muzeumis moambe.

SSMAE

Sakartvelos sakhelmtsipo muzeumis arkeologiuri ekpeticsiebi.

TSUS

Tbilisis sakhelmtsipo universitetis shromebi.

АО

Археологические открытия (Москва).

ВДИ

Вестник Древней Истории (Москва).

ГАИМК

Известия Государственной Академии Истории Материальной Культуры имени Н. В. Марра (Москва/Ленинград).

ИАК

Известия Императорской Археологической Комиссии.

ИФЖ

Историко-филологический журнал.

КСИА

Краткие Сообщения Института Археологии Академии Наук (Москва)

КСИИМК

Краткие Сообщения о докладах и полевых исследованиях Института истории материальной культуры Академии наук (Москва/Ленинград).

МИА

Материалы и исследования по археологии (Москва/Ленинград).

МКА

Материальная культура Азербайджана.

ПАИ

Полевые археологические исследования (Тбилиси).

СА

Советская Археология.

СГЭ

Сообщения Государственного Эрмитажа (Ленинград).

ТГЭ

Труды Государственного Эрмитажа (Ленинград).

ТИИ

Труды Института Историй Академия наук Грузинской ССР им. И. А. Джавахишвили.

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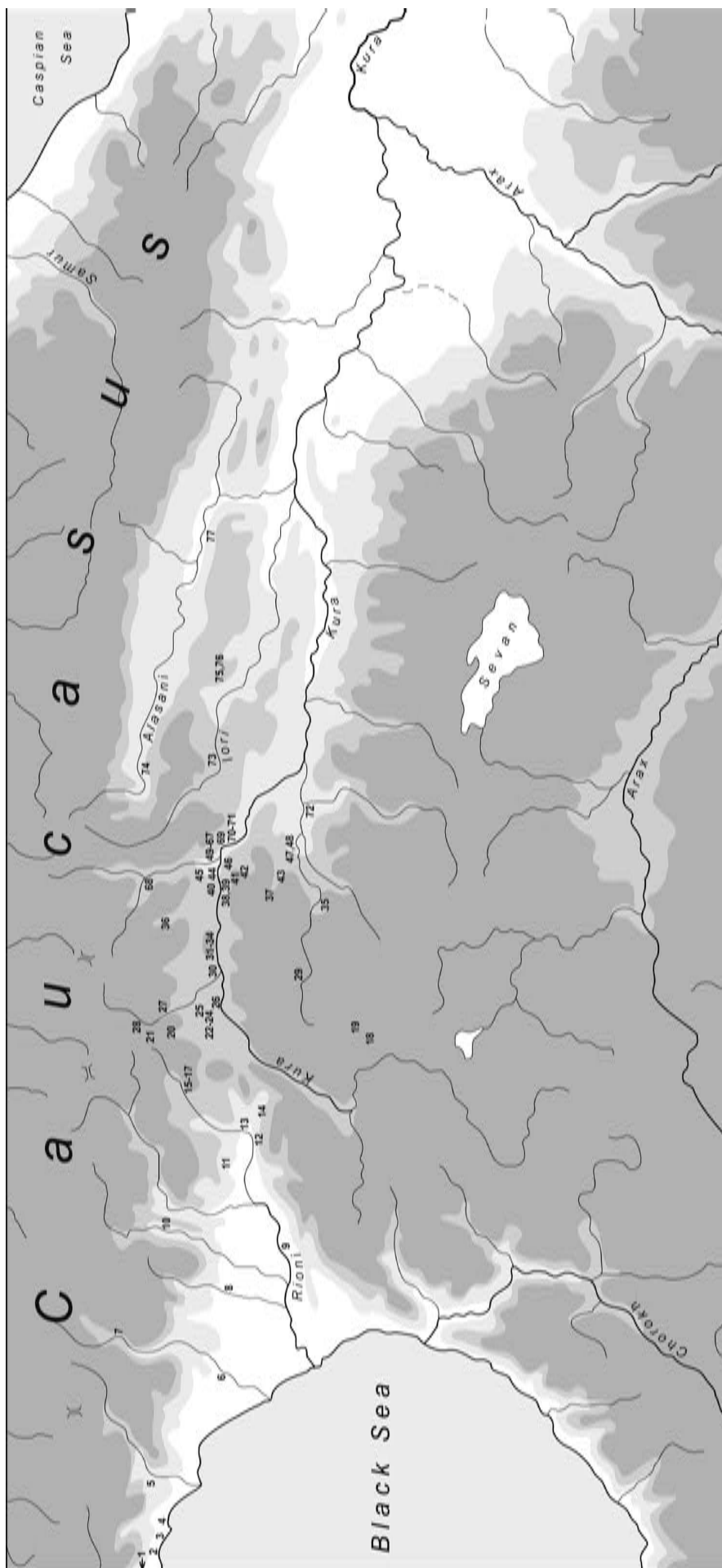
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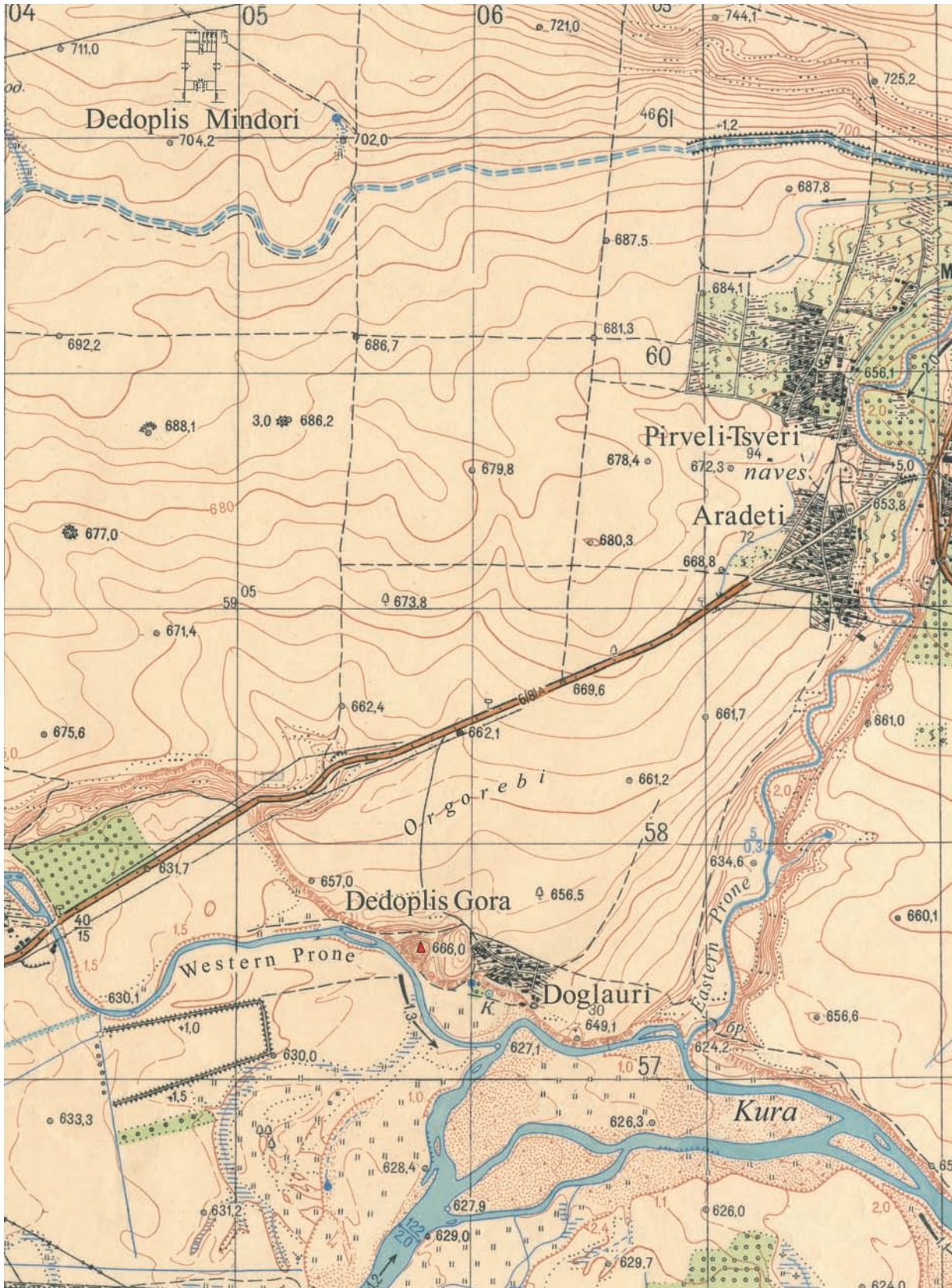
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Plates

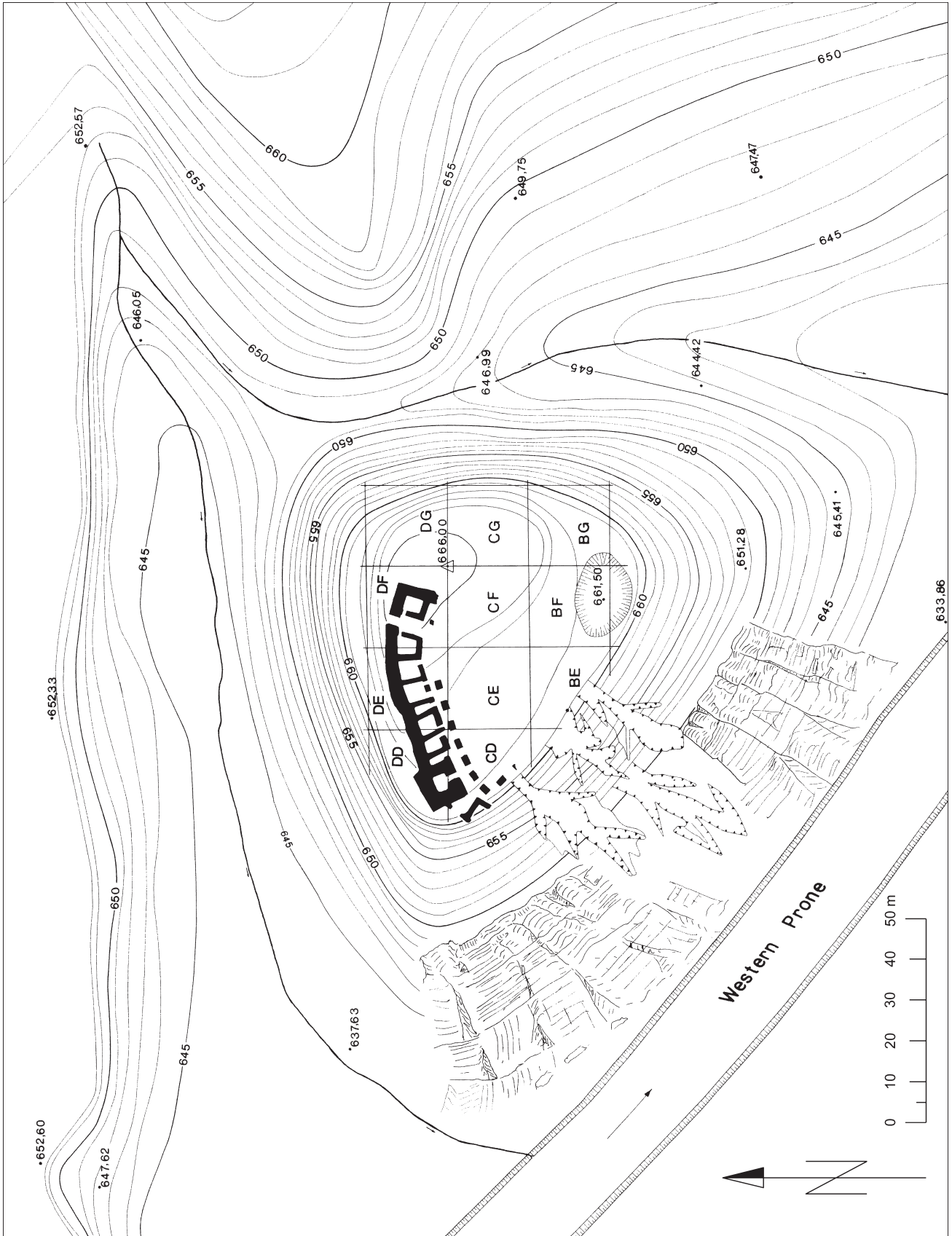


- 1 Bitchvinta, 2 Anakopia, 3 Eshera, 4 Sokhumi, 5 Tsebelda, 6 Tagiloni, 7 Khaishi, 8 Nokalakevi, 9 Vani, 10 Tskheti, 11 Chkhari, 12 Kideeti, 13 Shorapani, 14 Bori, 15 Saitkhe, 16 Karakhtini, 17 Sabaduris Gora, 18 Prtena, 19 Totkhumi, 20 Vasastkaro, 21 Sokhta, 22 Mozvleulebi, 23 Dedoplis Mindori, 24 Dedoplis Gora, 25 Takhtidziri, 26 Urnisi, 27 Monasteri, 28 Sturfaz, 29 Neron Deresi, 30 Gori, 31 Kattanikhevi, 32 Bamebi, 33 Uplistsikhe, 34 Chanakhas Mitsebi, 35 Gomareti, 36 Zakhori, 37 Manglisi, 38 Tsikhia Gora, 39 Sakaraulo Seri, 40 Aghaiani, 41 Telatgori, 42 Nichbisi, 43 Abelia, 44 Nastagisi, 45 Dzalisi, 46 Tsikhedidi, 47 Bogvi, 48 Etso, 49 Grdzeli Mindori, 50 Sarkine, 51 Bargikaria, 52 Martaziskhevi, 53 Armaziskhevi, 54 Katsitavana, 55 Mtskheta, 56 Mogvtakari, 57 Mogvta Khidi, 58 Sveitiskhoveli Cemetery, 59 Samtavro, 60 Baiatkhevi, 61 Ghartiskari, 62 Mtskhethian Crypt, 63 Natakhtari, 64 Armaztsikhe, 65 Karsniskhevi, 66 Tsitsamuri, 67 Devis Namukhli, 68 Bagistichala, 69 Zemo Avtchala, 70 Treli, 71 Ghrmaghele, 72 Shulaveri, 73 Patardzeuli, 74 Akhaldaba, 75 Bezhanbaghi, 76 Darcheti, 77 Arkhiloskalo

1. General map of Kartli with numbers according to the catalog of sites.



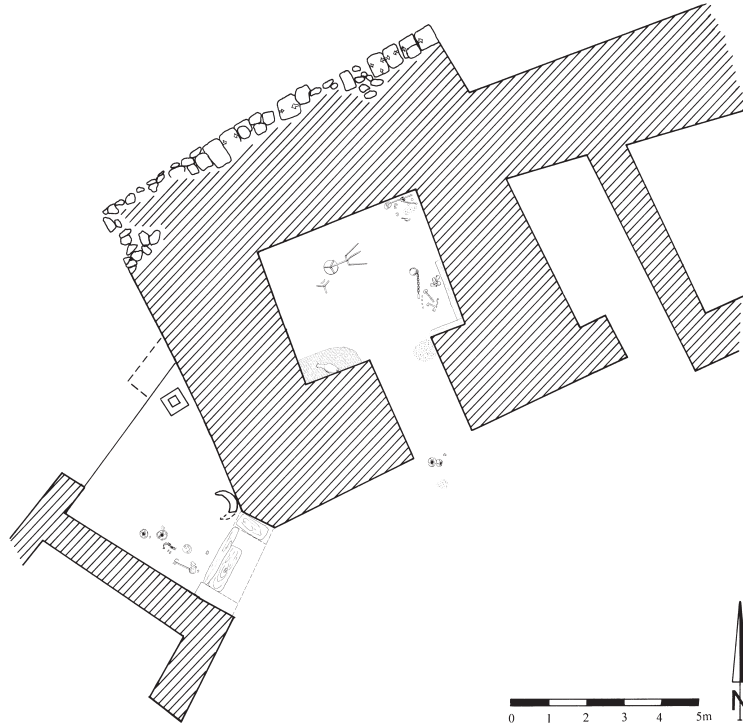
2. Environment of Dedoplis Gora and Dedoplis Mindori.



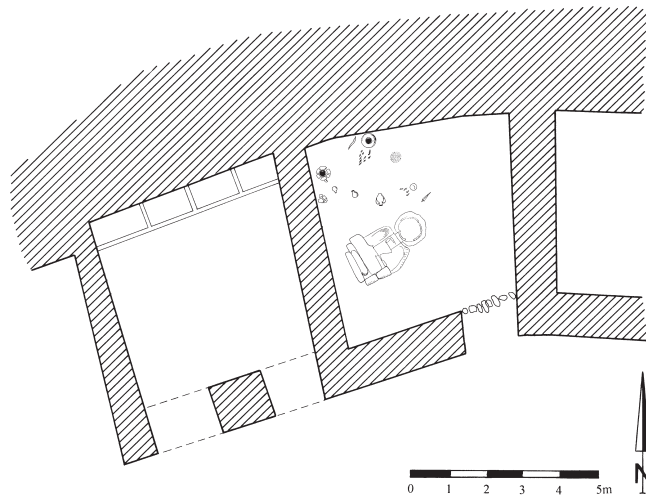
3. Dedoplis Gora, plan of the hill with the excavations.



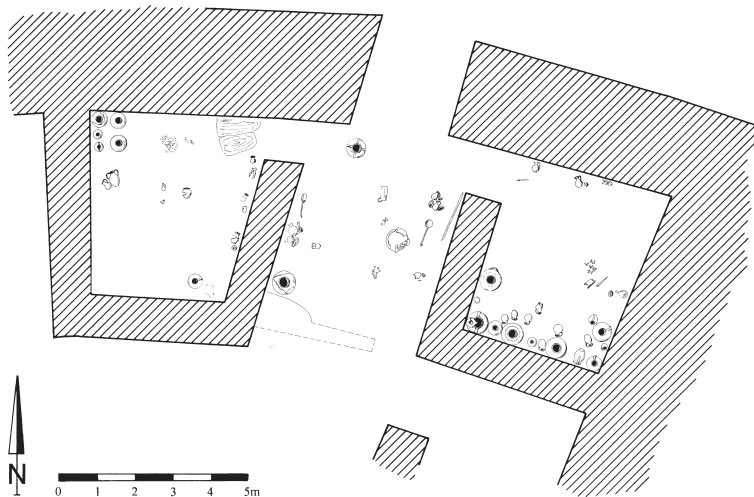
4. Ground plan of the excavations at Dedoplis Gora.



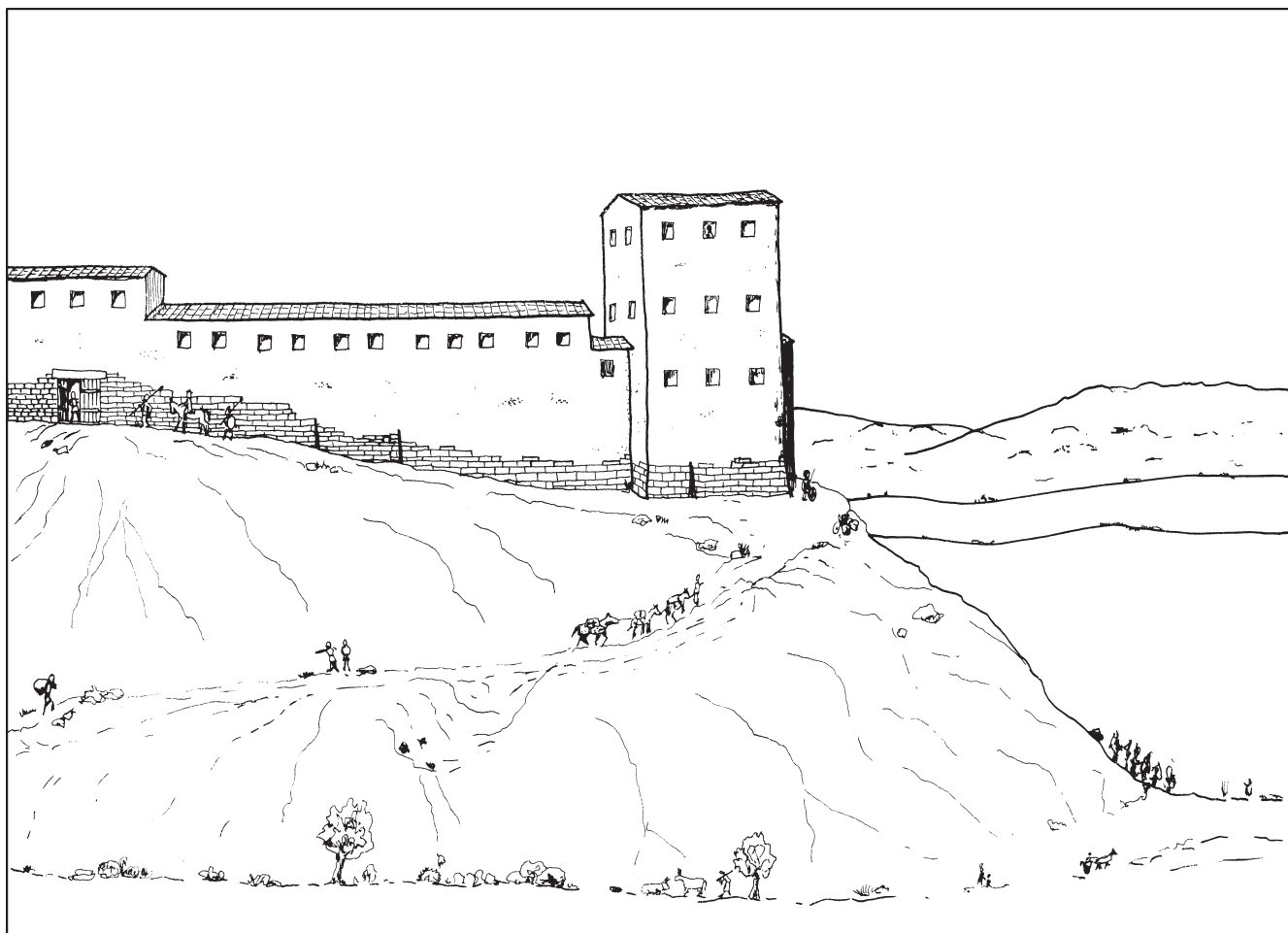
5. Plan of the Rooms 6, 3, 1, 2.



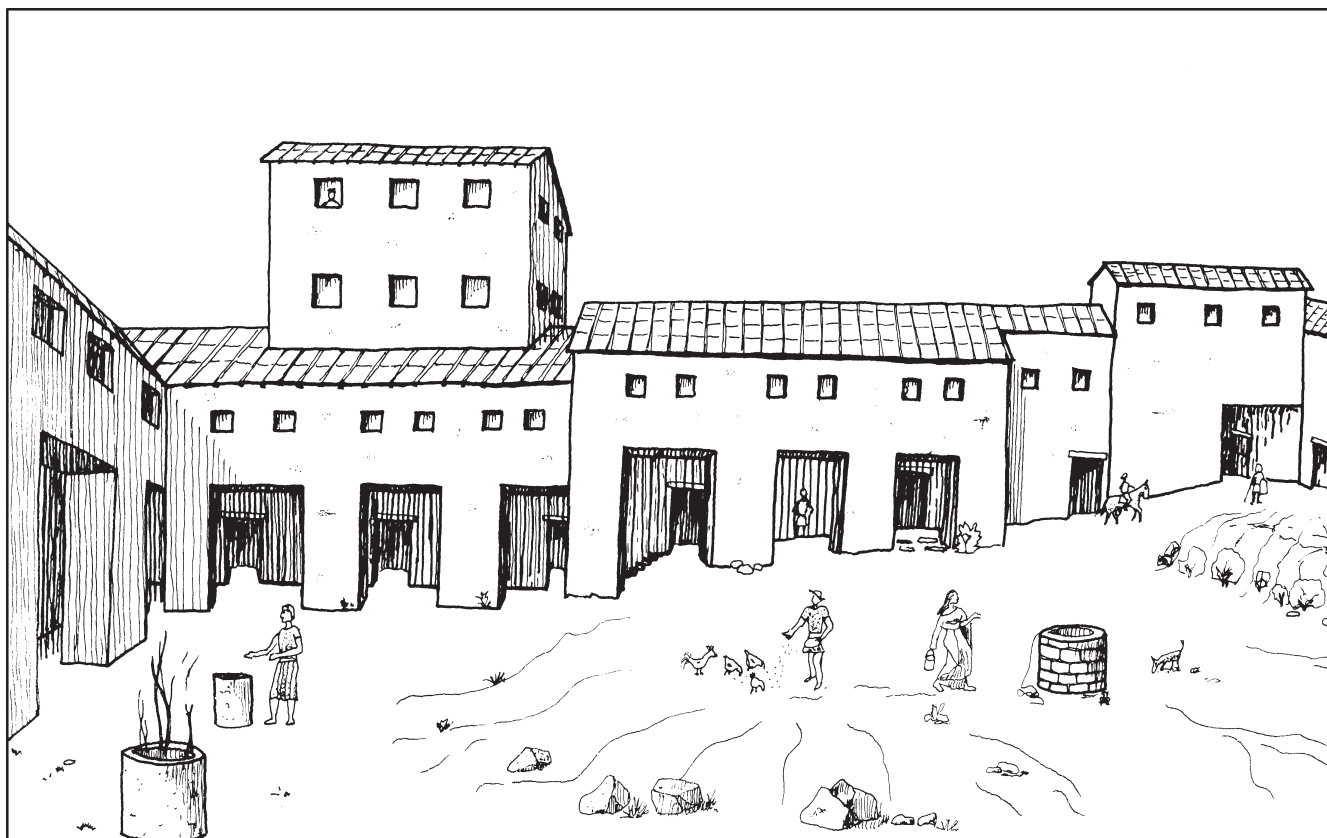
6. Plan of the Rooms 9, 10.



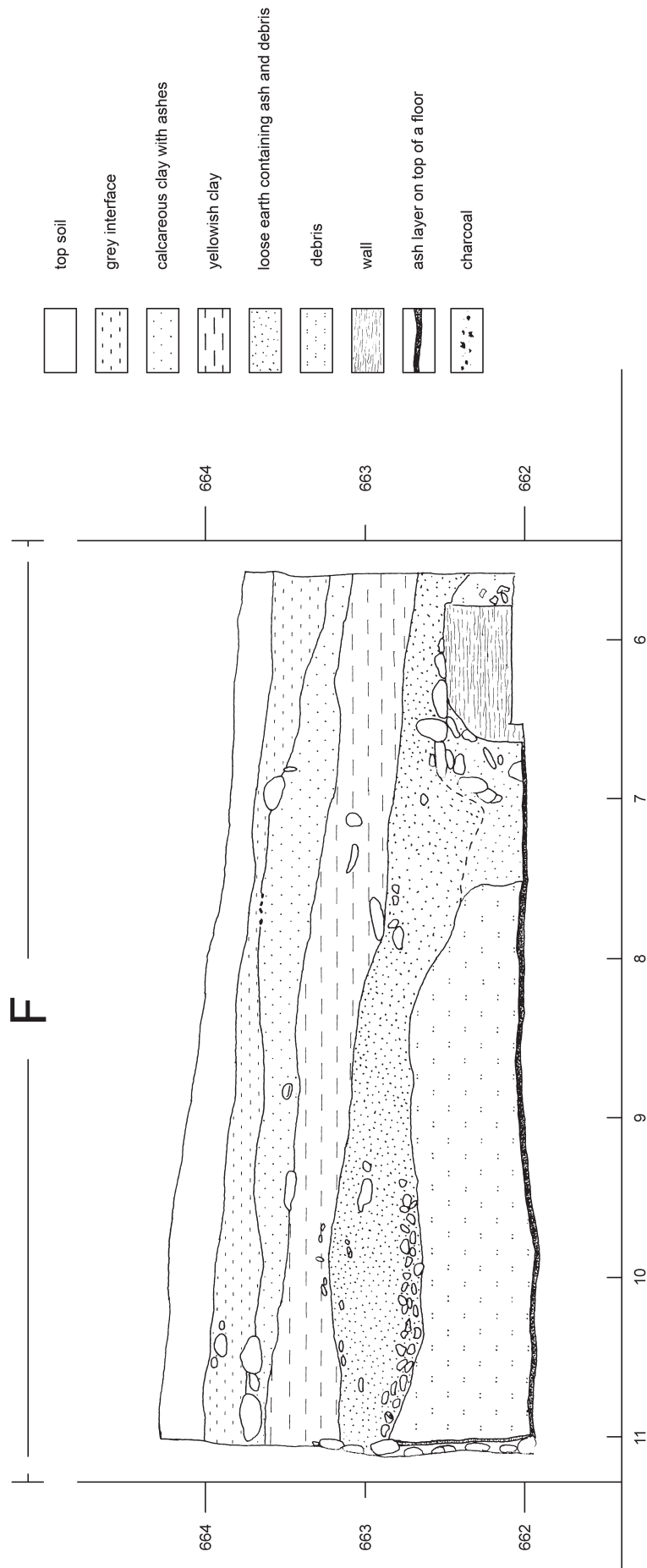
7. Plan of the Rooms 13, 12, 11, 14.



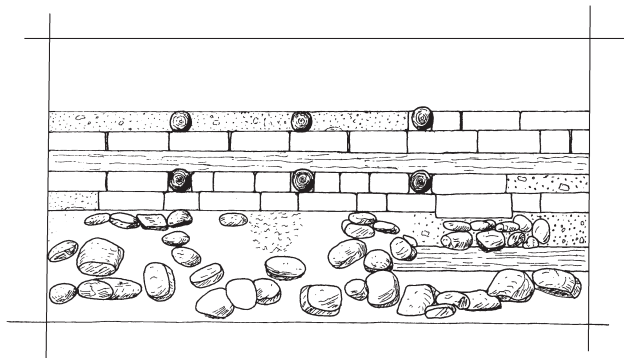
8. Reconstruction of the Palace (from outside).



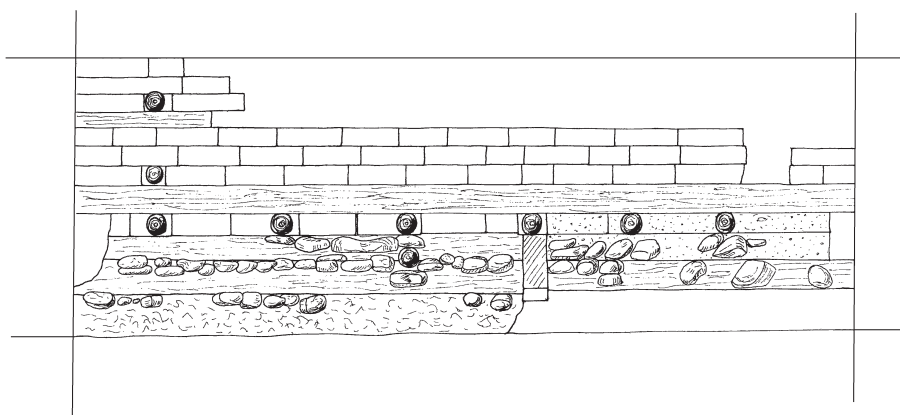
9. Reconstruction of the Palace (from inside).



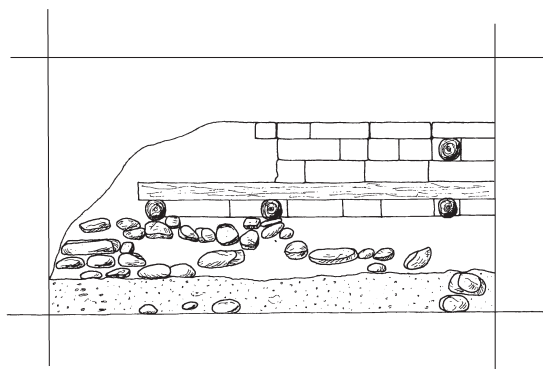
10. South-Profile of Room 14 with the exterior wall on the left side.



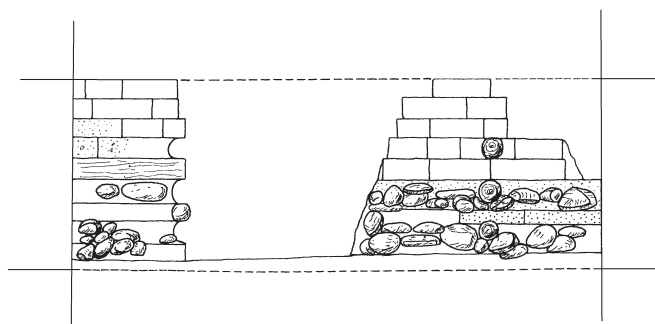
11. Wall construction of Room 1, West-Profile.



12. Wall construction of Room 1, North-Profile.



13. Wall construction of Room 1, East-Profile.



14. Wall construction of Room 1, South-Profile.



15. View from Dedoplis Gora to the river Western Prone and the river Kura in the mid-ground; in the south – the mountains of the Small Caucasus.



16. Air view to Dedoplis Gora from the south.



17. Dedoplis Gora from the west.



18. Dedoplis Gora from the north.



19. Rooms 7, 8, 9 and corridor with wine storage.



20. Northern gate with altar.



21. Room 1 from the south.



22. Room 1 from the west.



23. Room 1, south-western corner with glass bottles and other finds.



24. Room 1, north-western corner with the remains of a cupboard and its content.



25. Room 3, remains of a wooden box with bone plates, phalanges and bullae.



26. Vessels in Room 11.



27. Fire altar in Room 10.



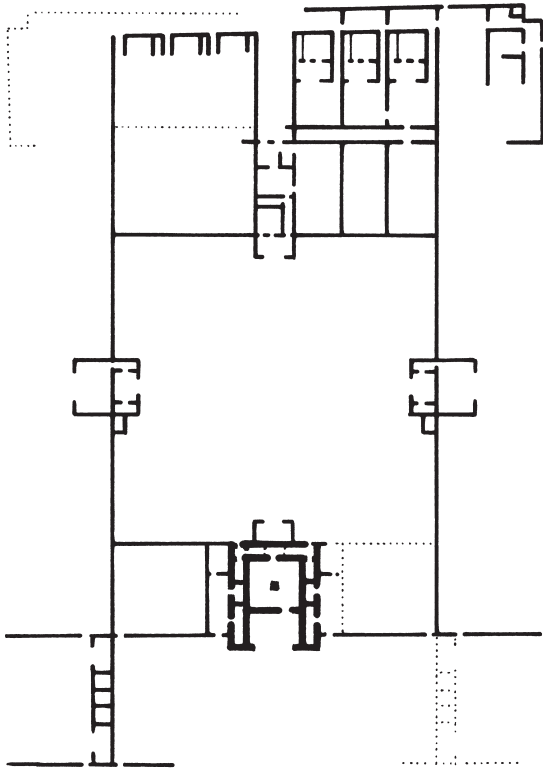
28. Oven in the courtyard.



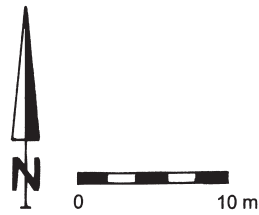
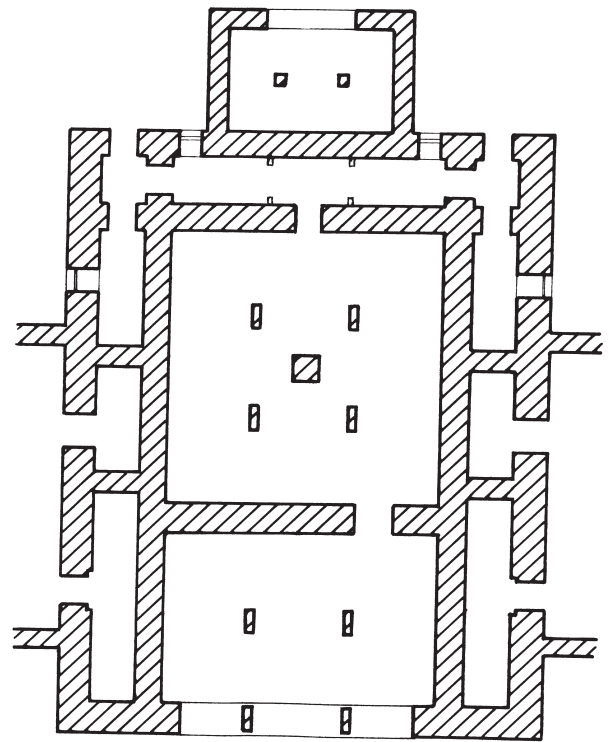
29. Ashlars with inserts for clamps.



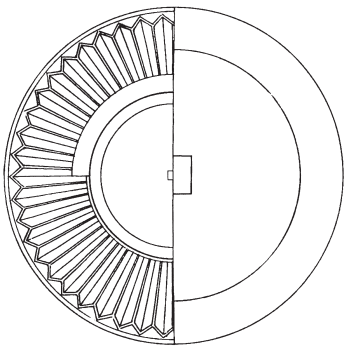
30. Ashlar with an insert for a clamp.



31. Ground plan of the temple-complex at Dedoplis Mindori.



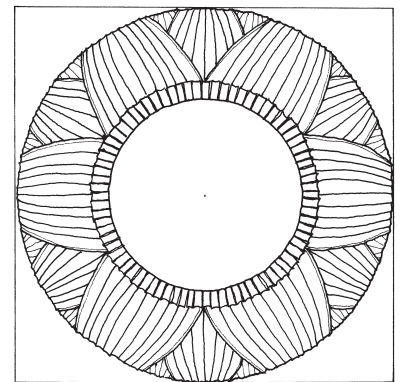
32. Main temple at Dedoplis Mindori.



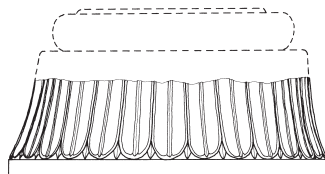
33. Dedoplis Mindori, capital (1:20).



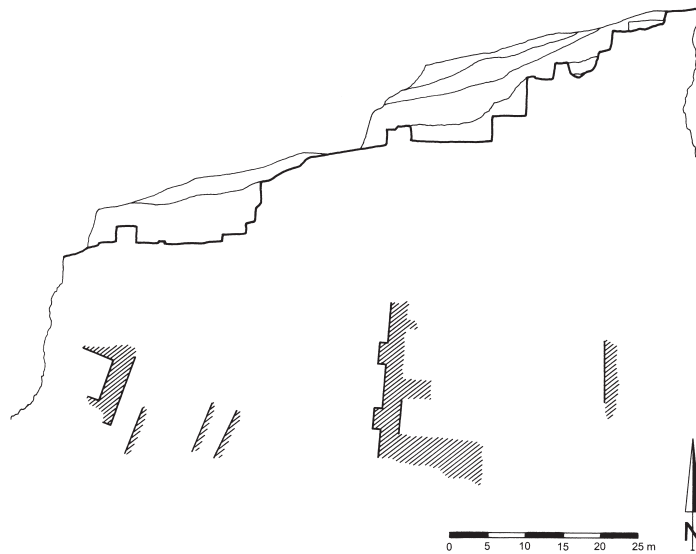
36. Samadlo, clamp.



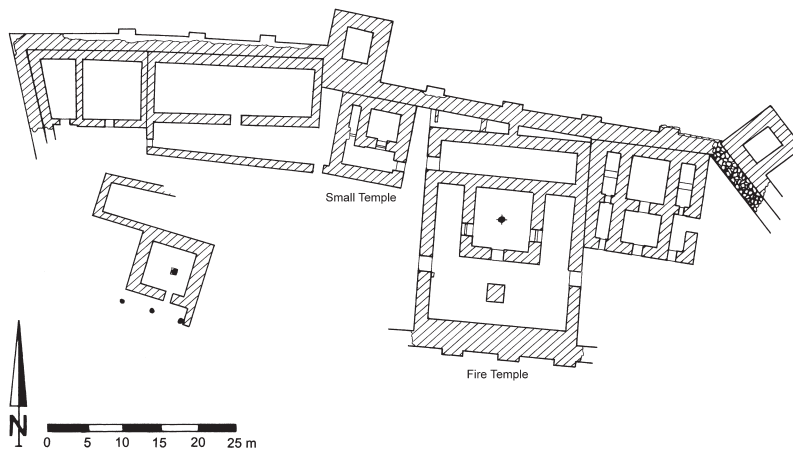
35. Sairkhe, capital (1:20).



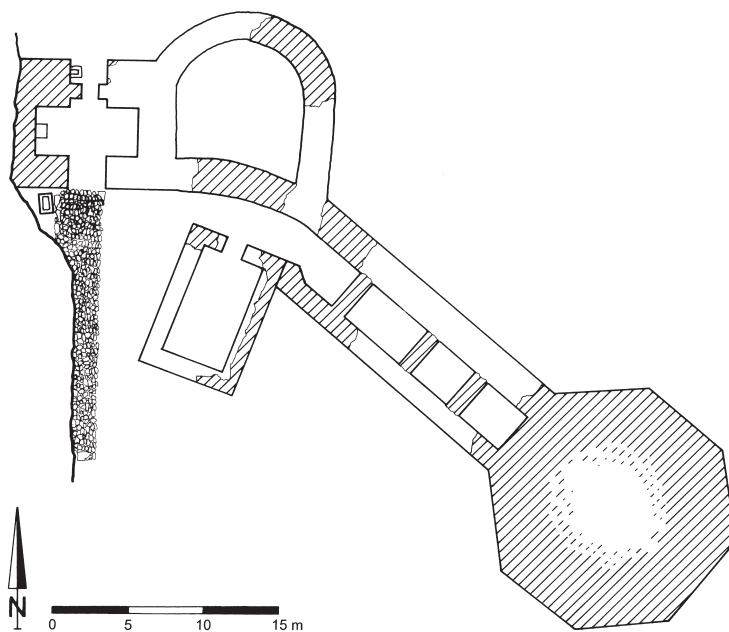
34. Gumbati, column base (1:20).



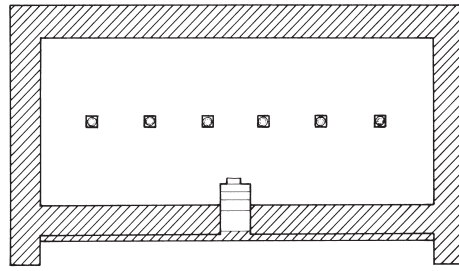
37. Samadlo, warehouse.



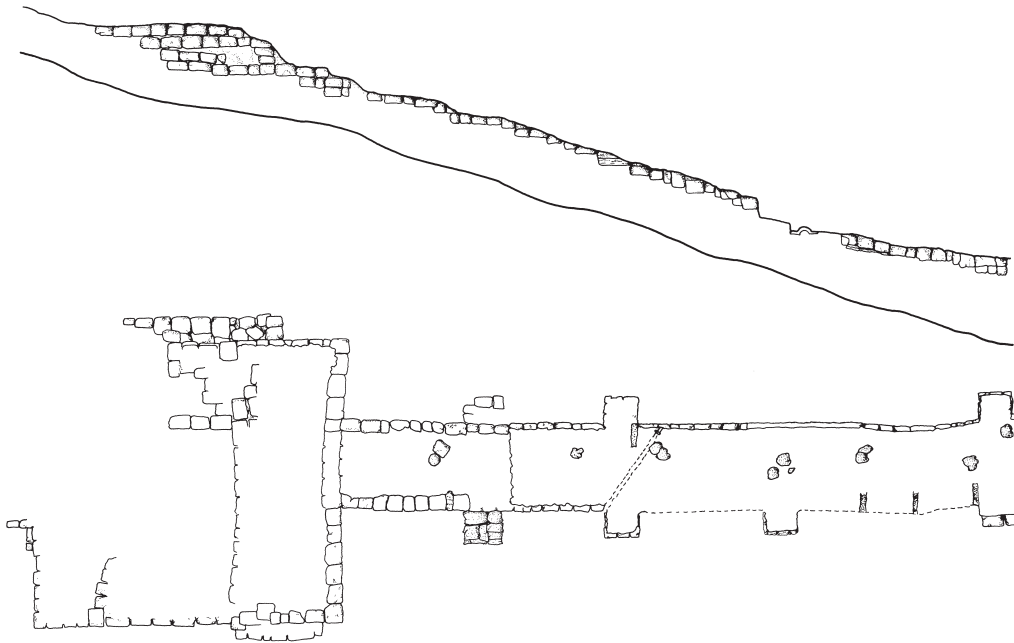
38. Tsikhia Gora.



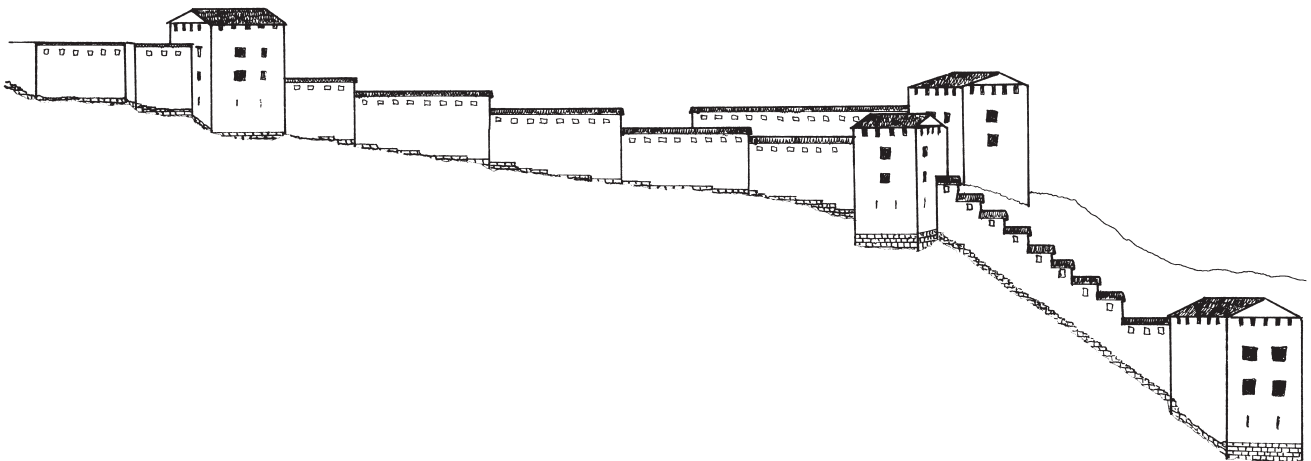
39. Vani, fortification wall and city gate.



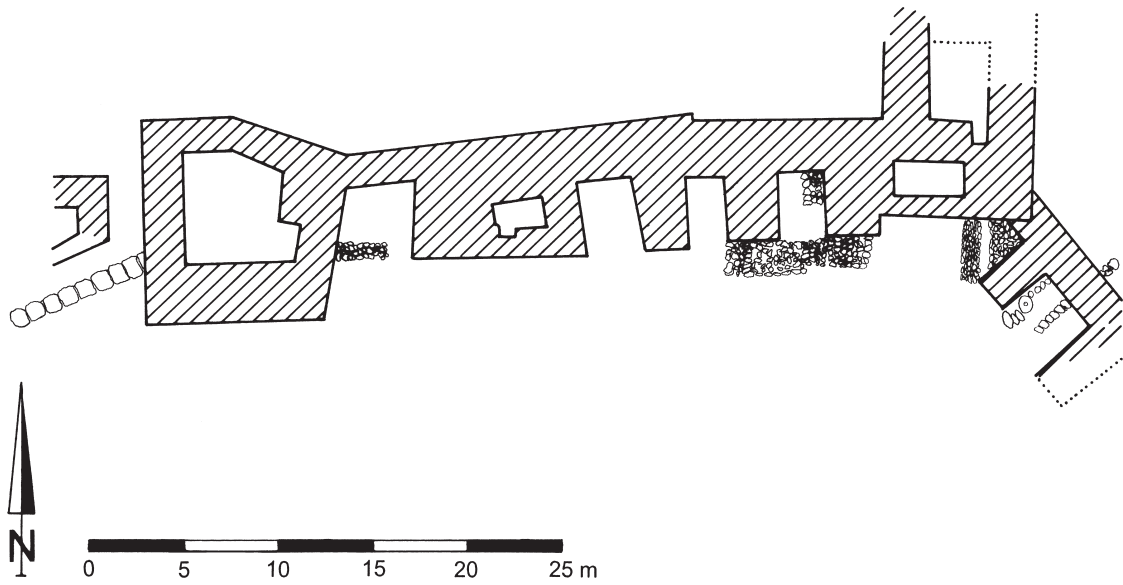
40. Armastikhe, Great Hall.



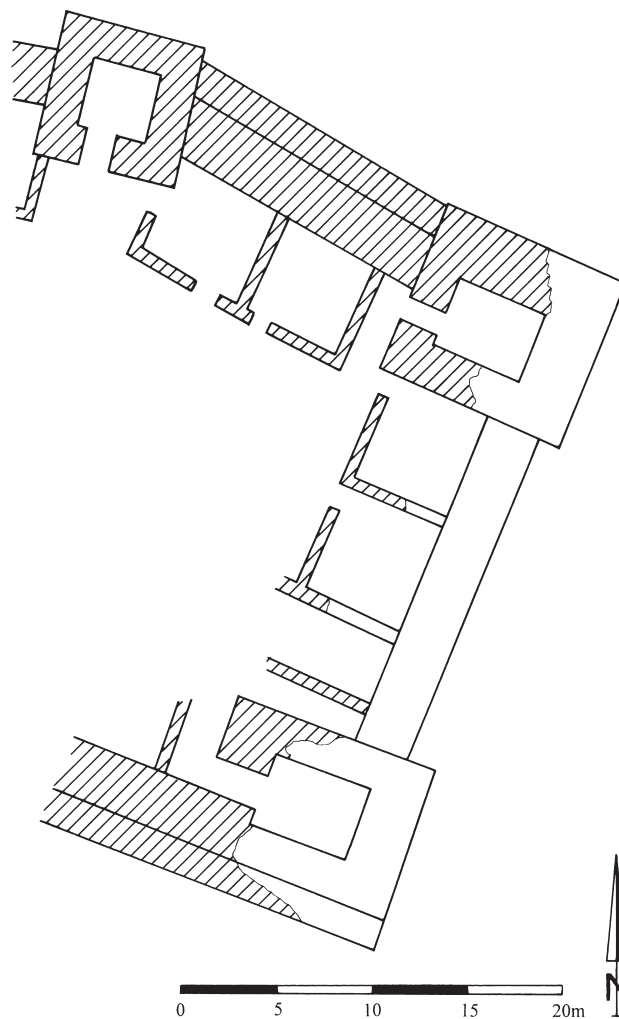
41. Armastikhe.



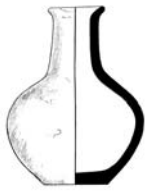
42. Armastikhe, reconstruction.



43. Eshera.



44. Taman, batareika.



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 2



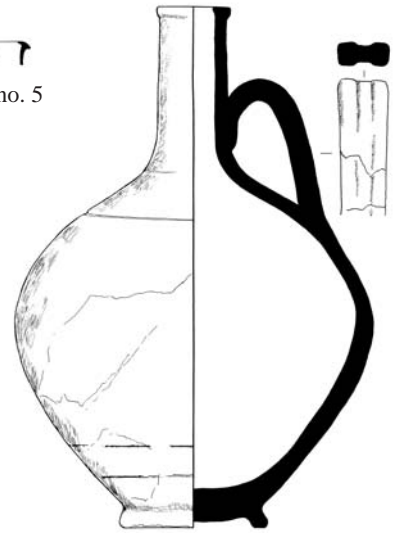
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Cat. no. 4



Cat. no. 5



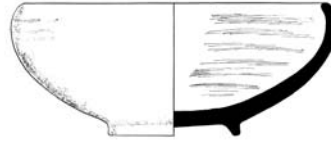
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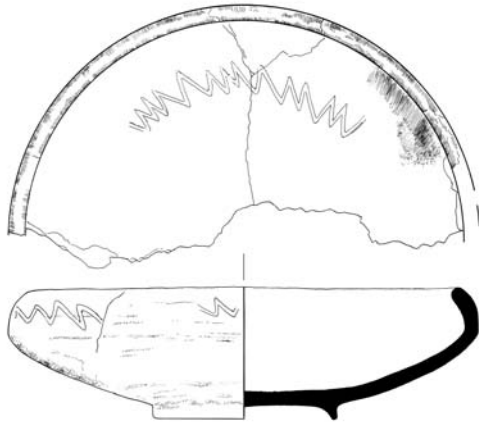
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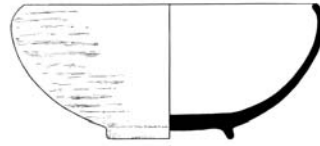
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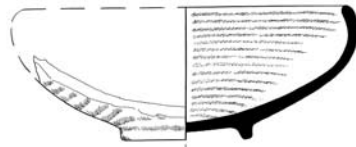
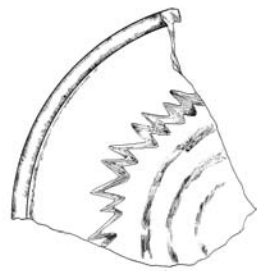
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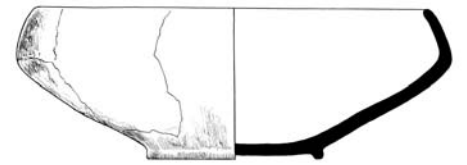
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Cat. no. 14



Cat. no. 16



Cat. no. 13



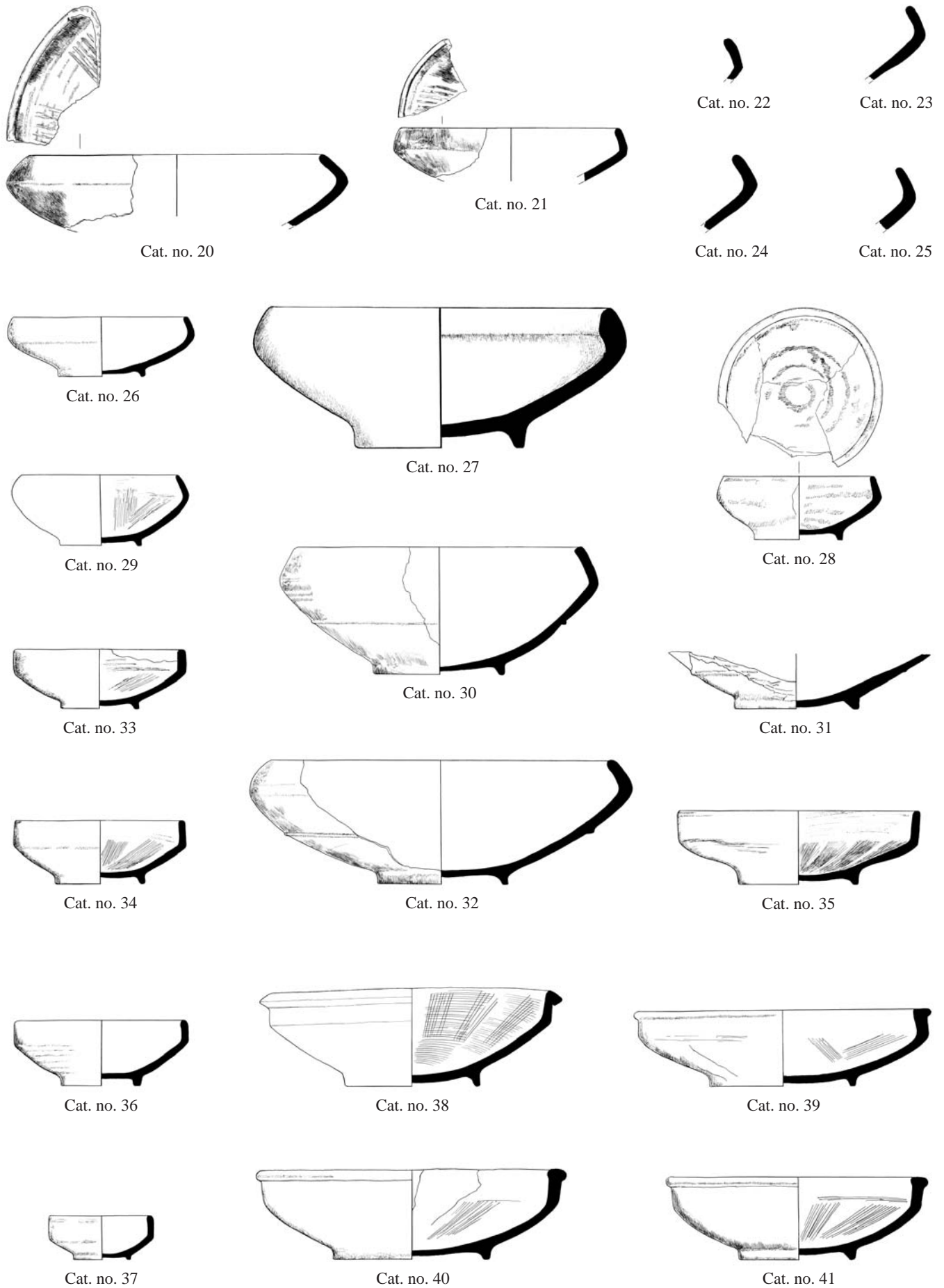
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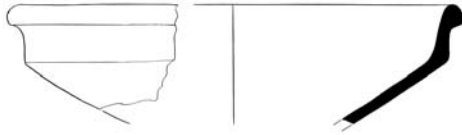
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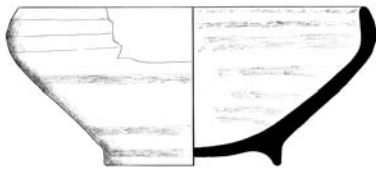
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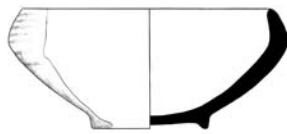
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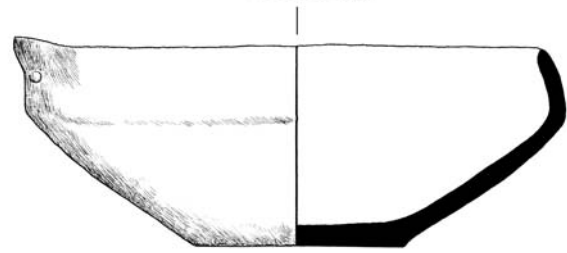
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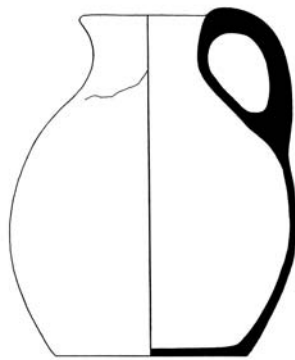
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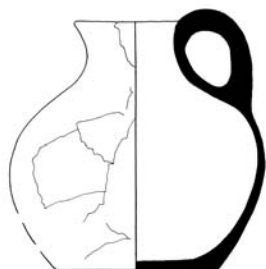
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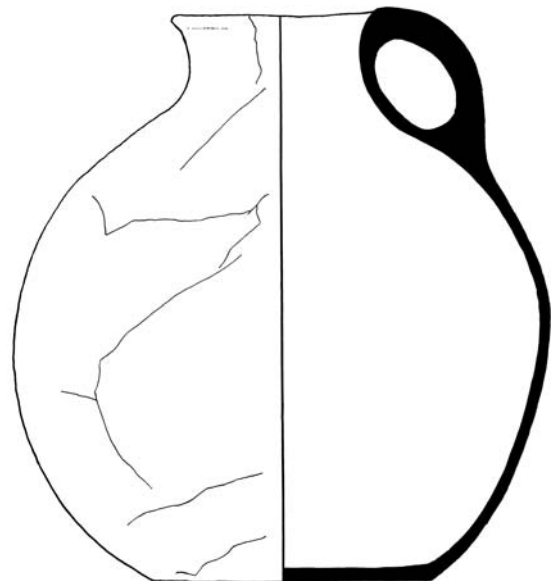
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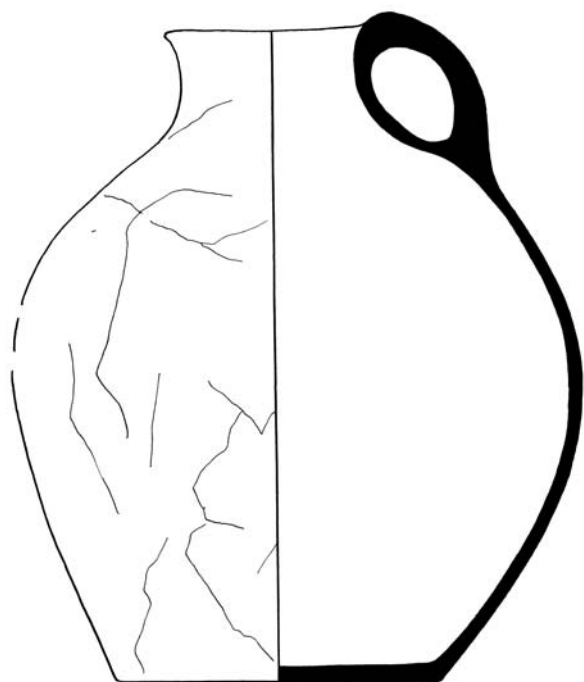
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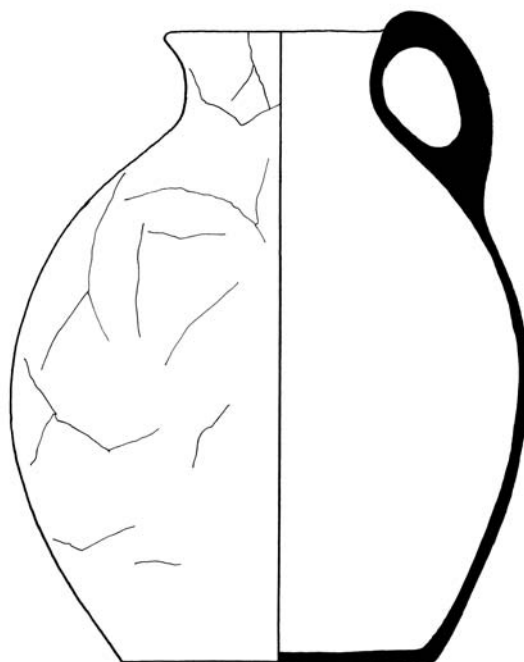
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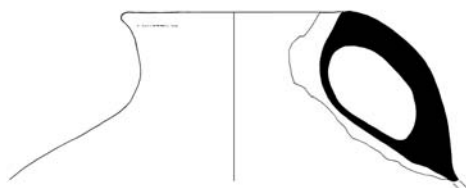
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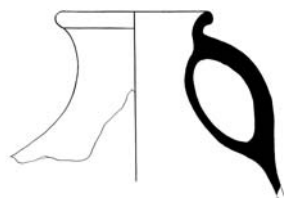
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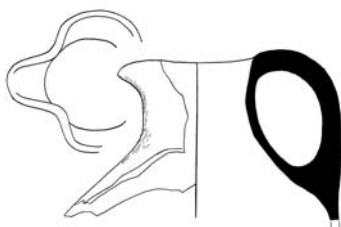
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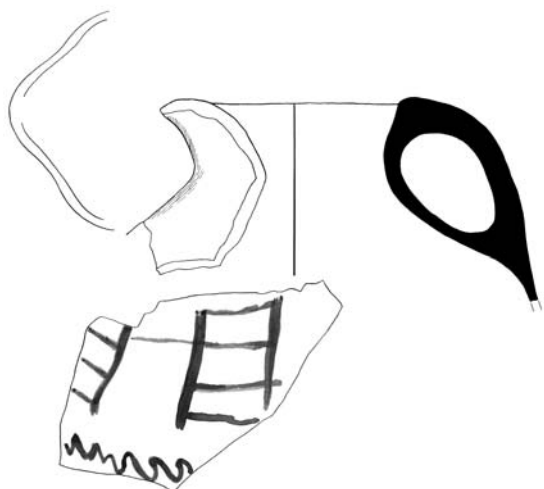
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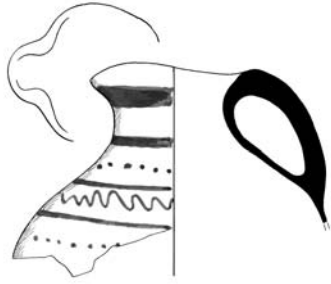
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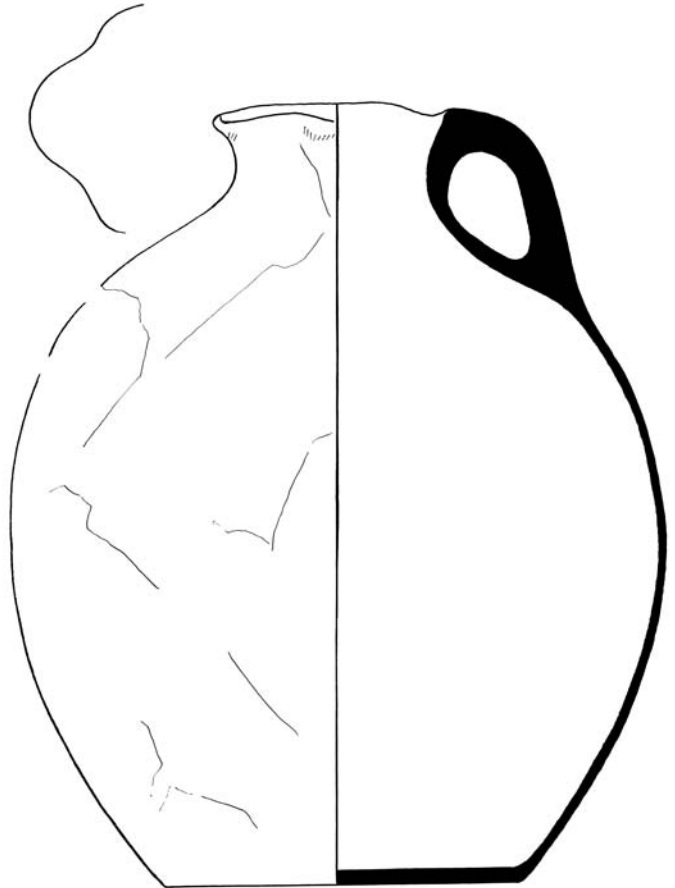
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Cat. no. 60



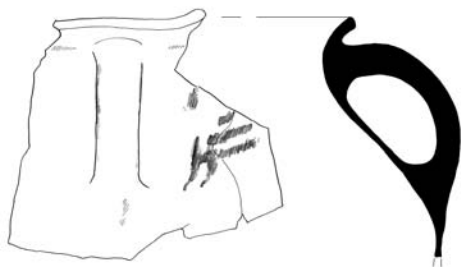
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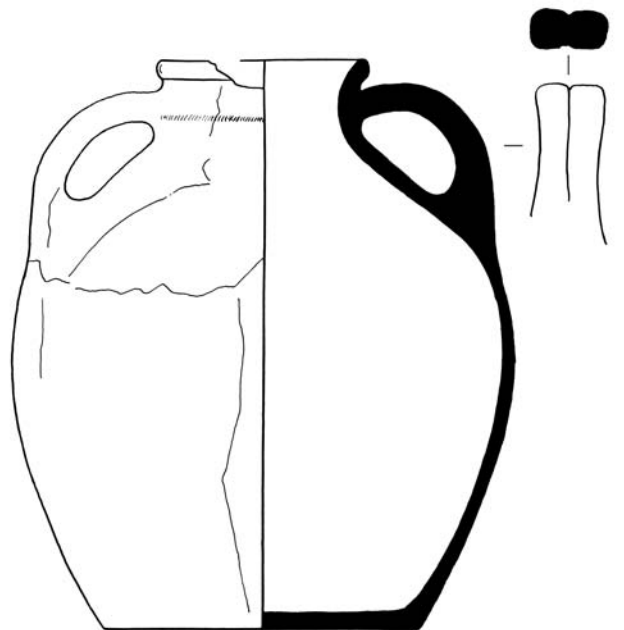
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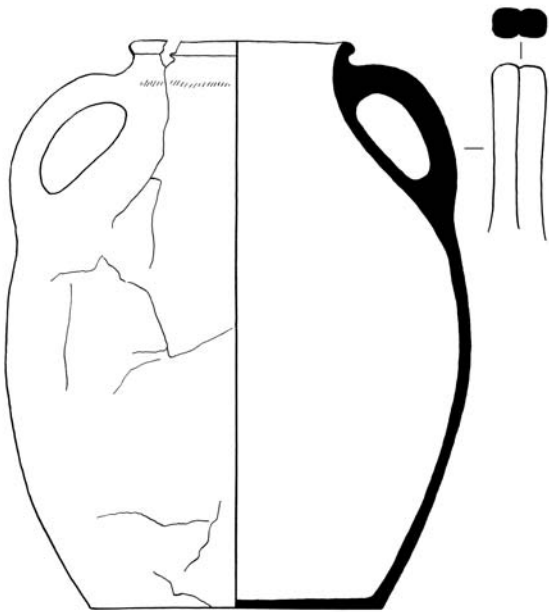
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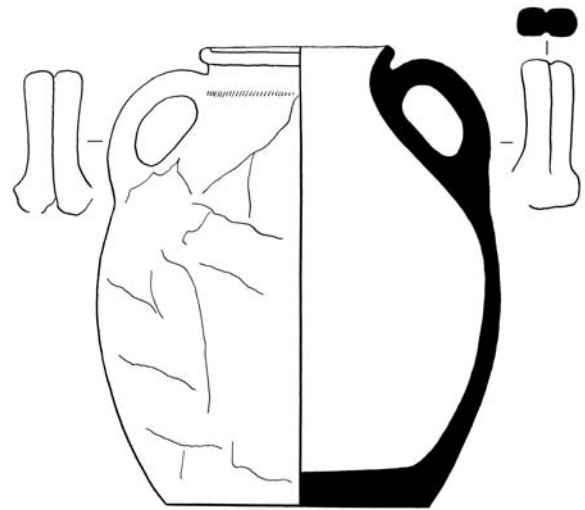
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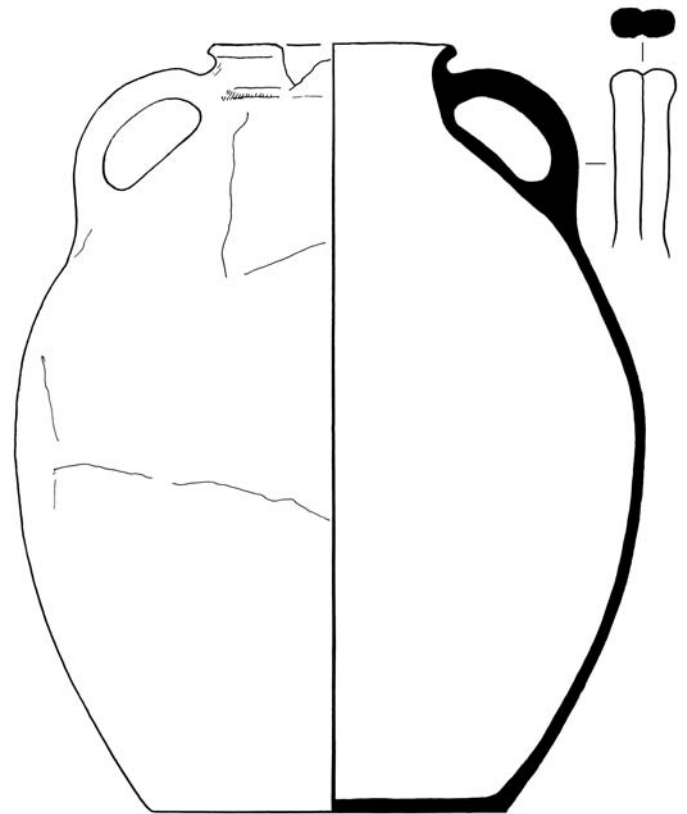
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Cat. no. 66



Cat. no. 67



Cat. no. 68



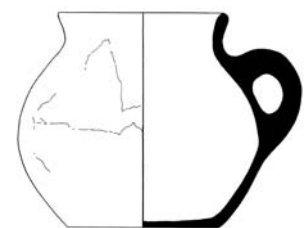
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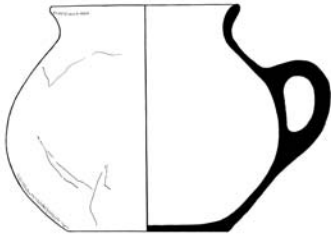
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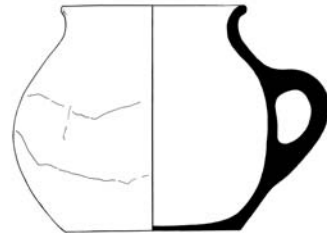
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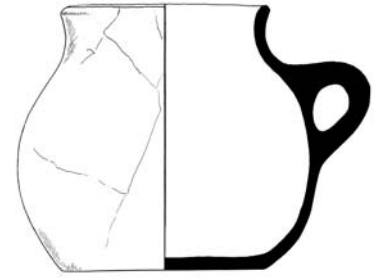
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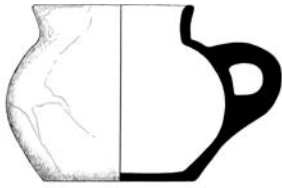
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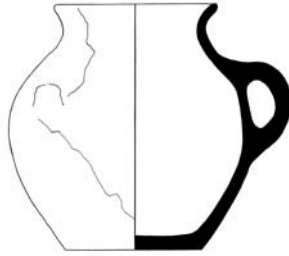
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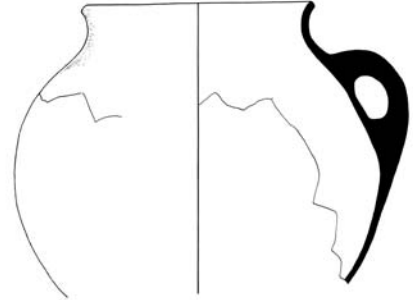
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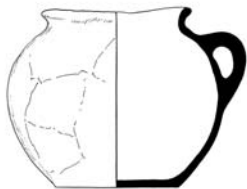
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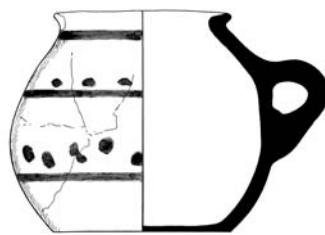
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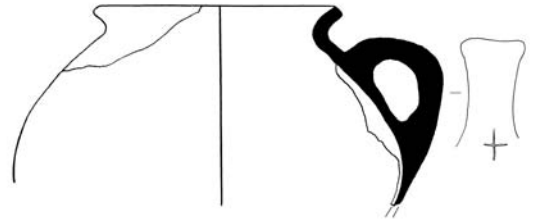
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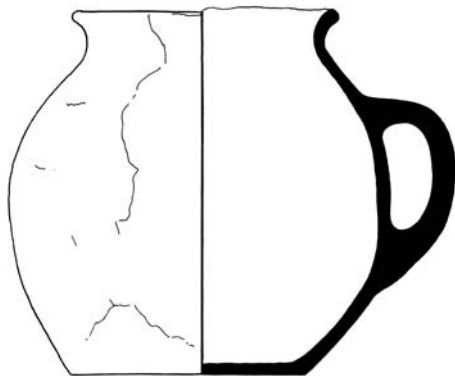
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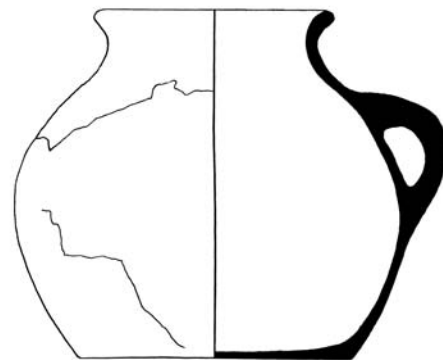
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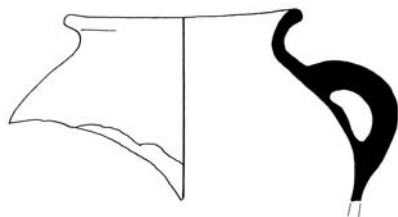
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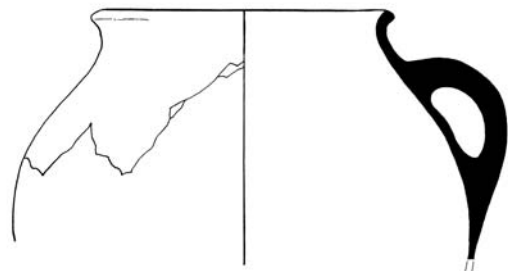
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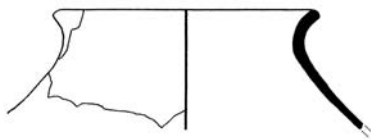
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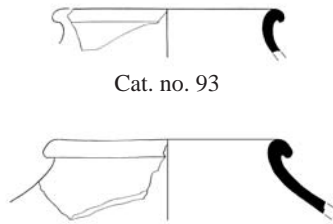
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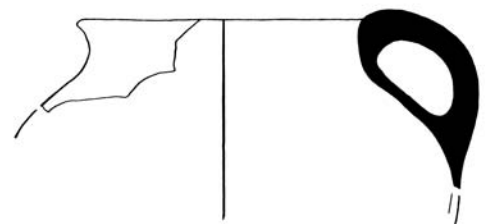


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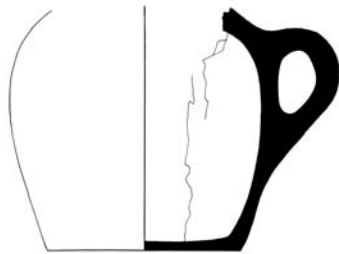


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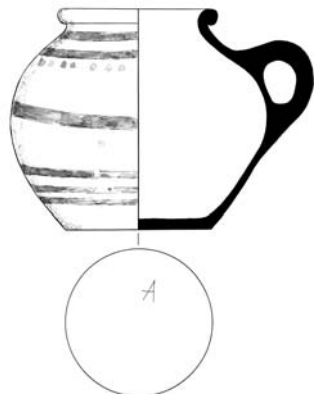
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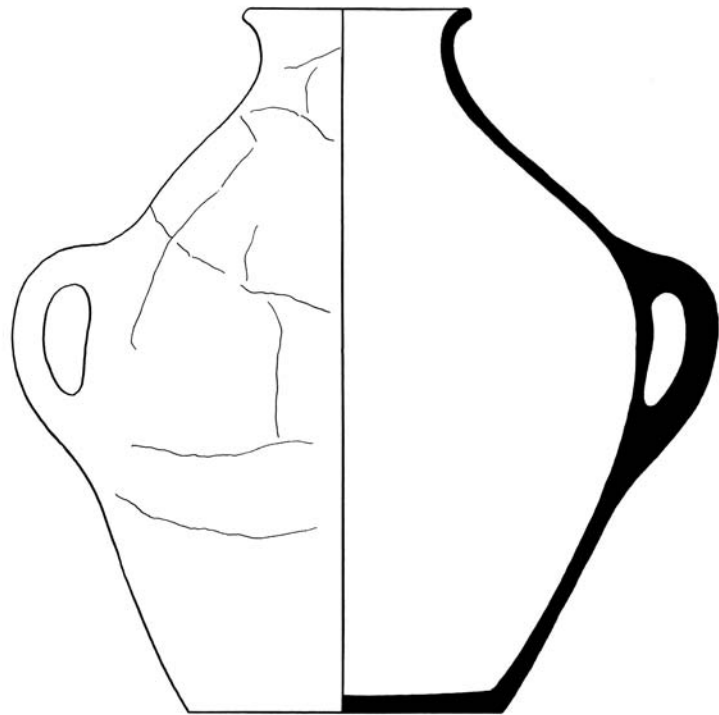
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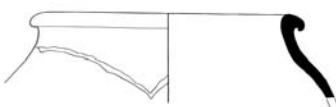
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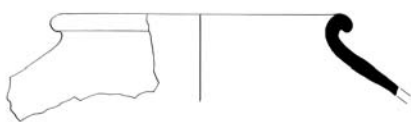
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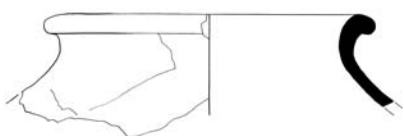
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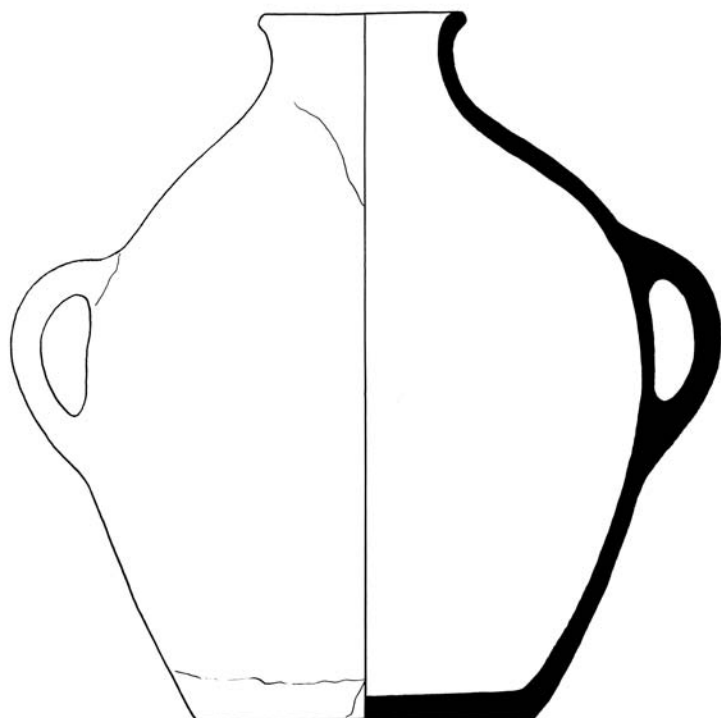
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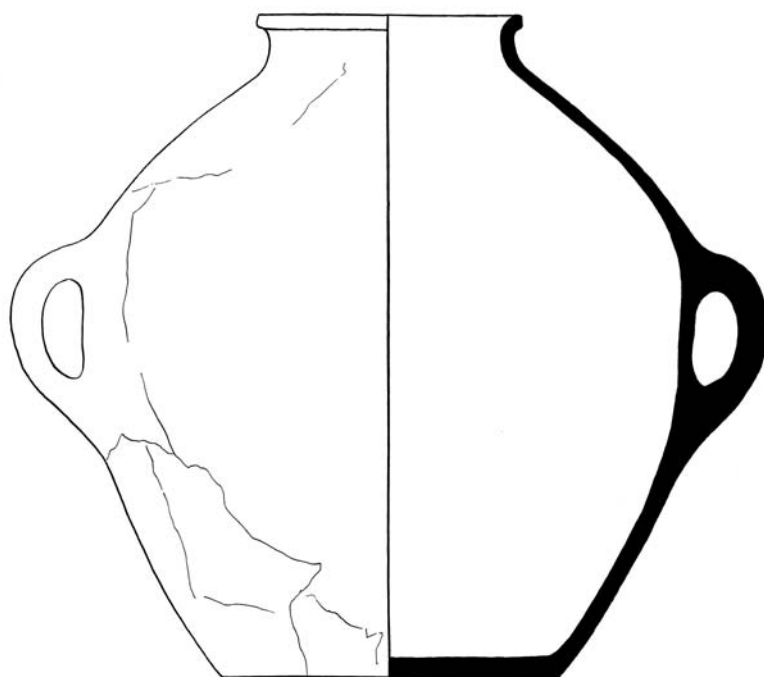
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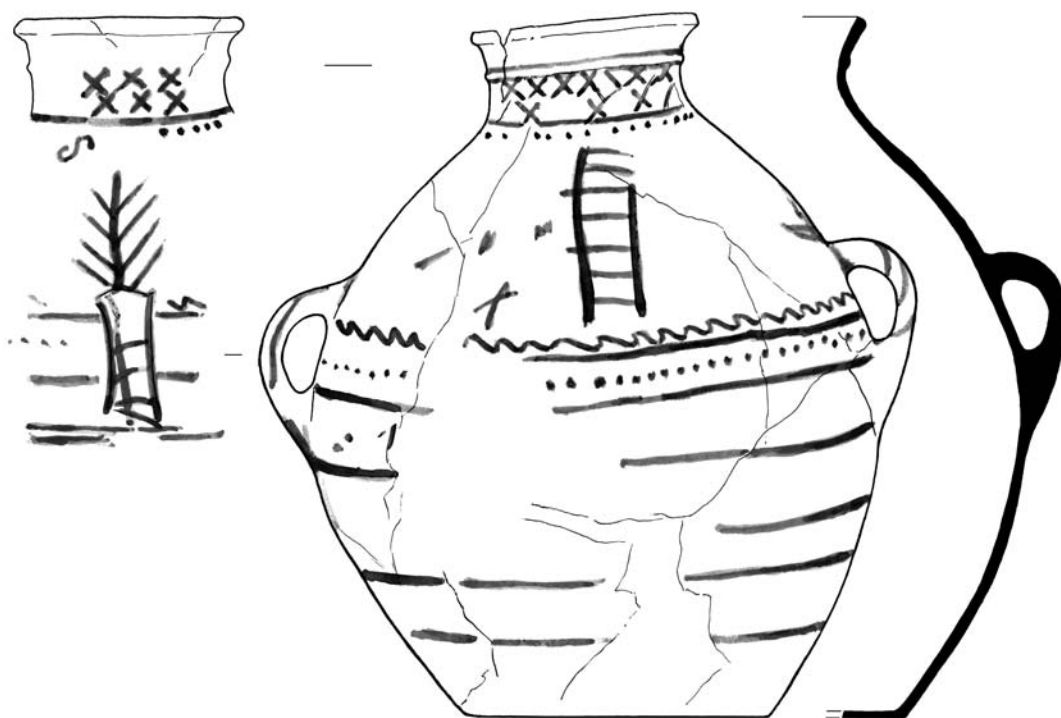
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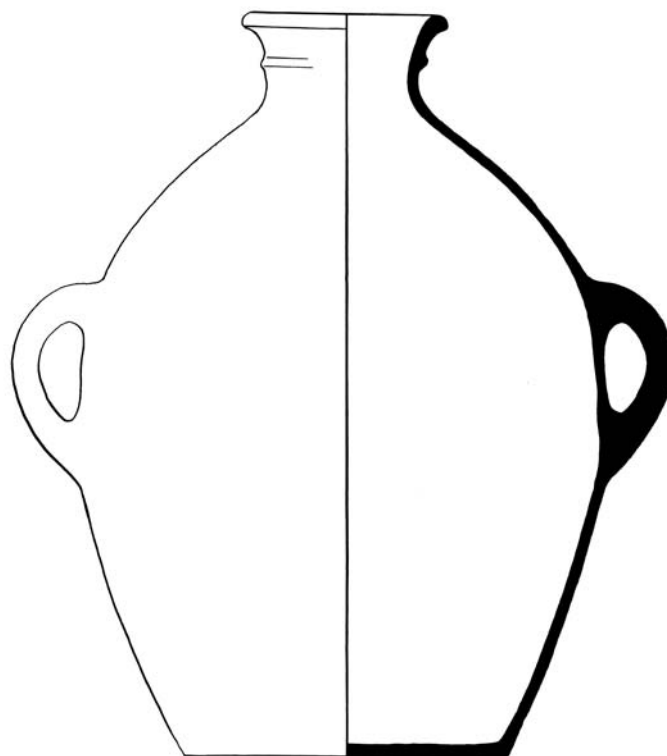
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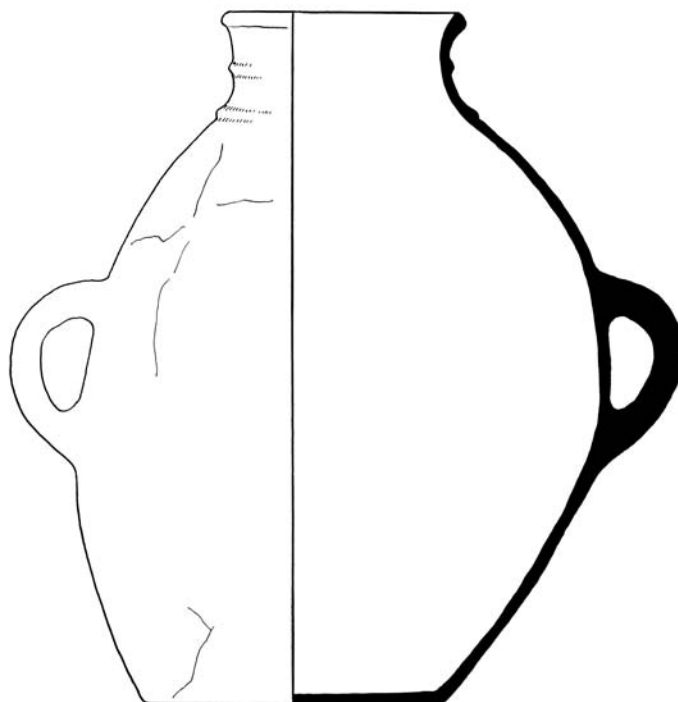
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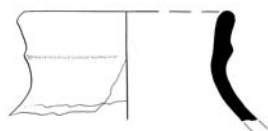
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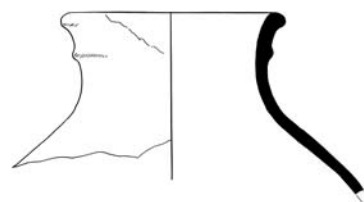
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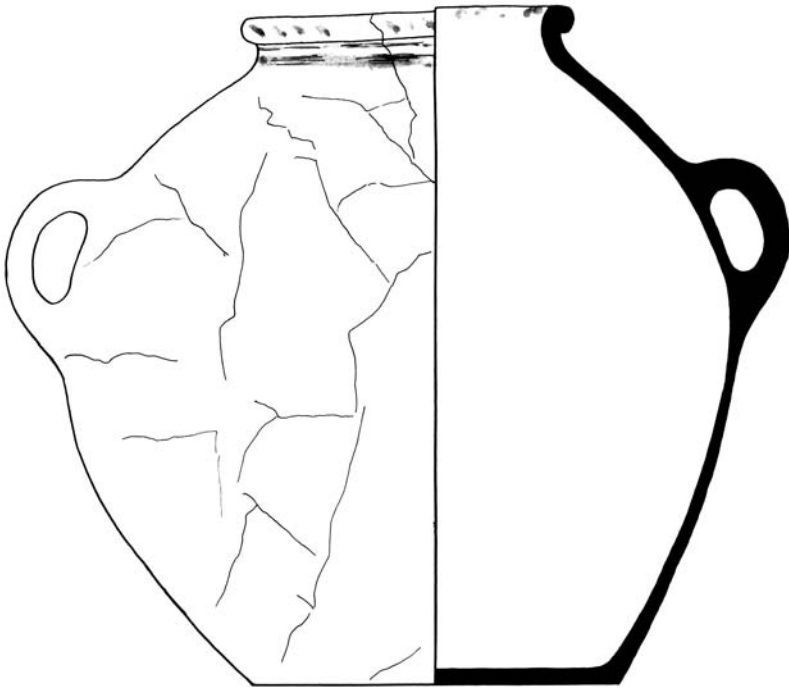
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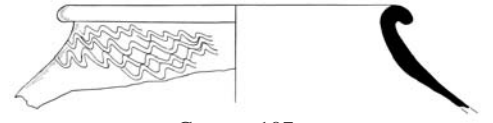
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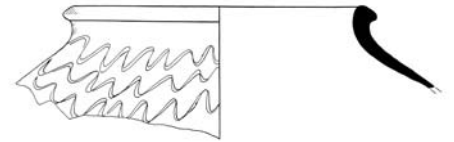
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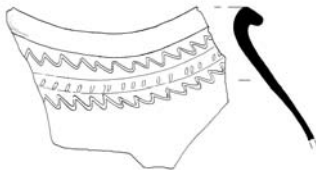
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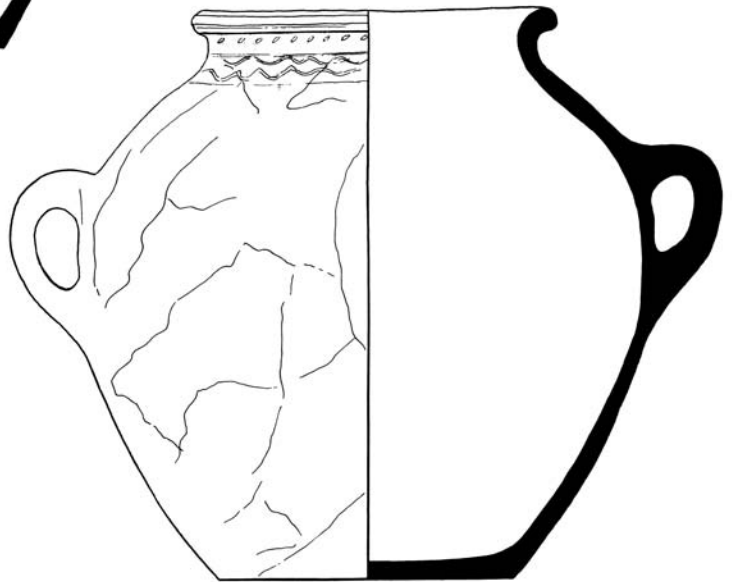
Cat. no. 107



Cat. no. 108



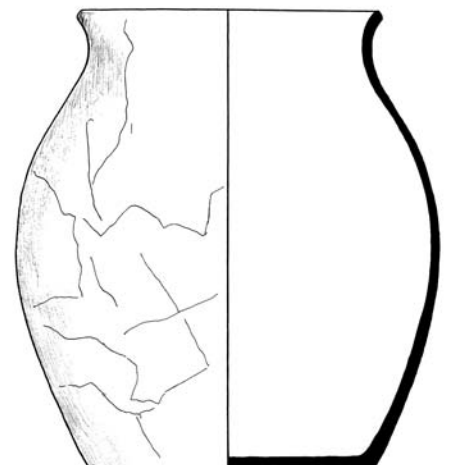
Cat. no. 109



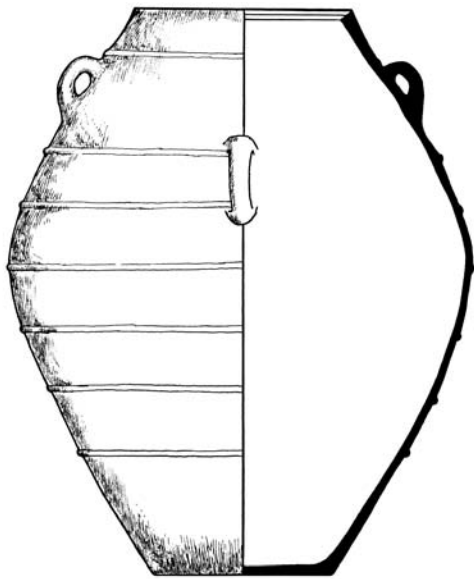
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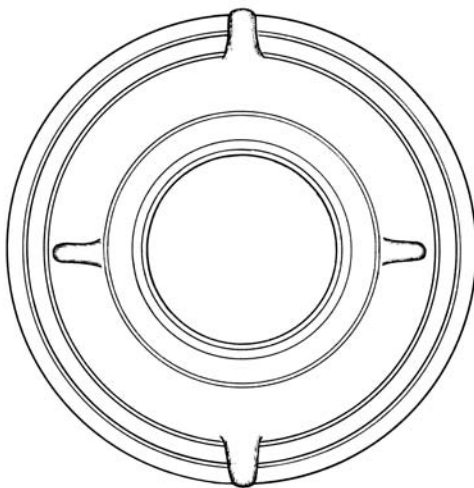
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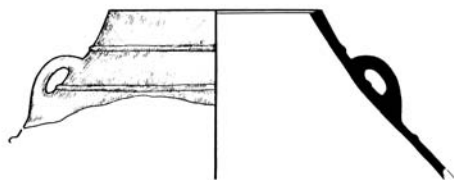
Cat. no. 112



Cat. no. 110



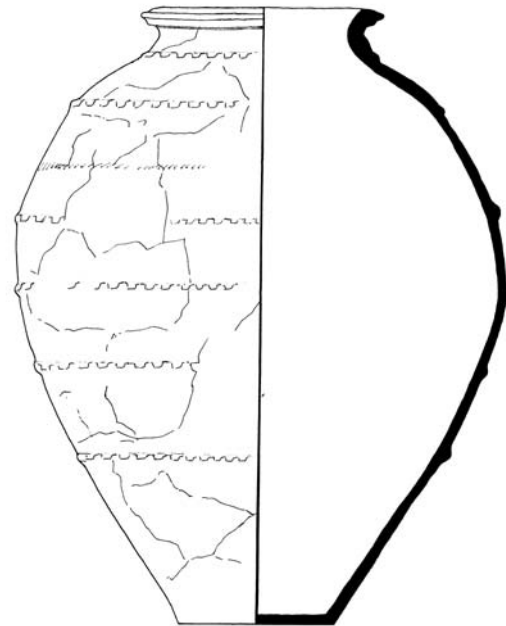
Cat. no. 111



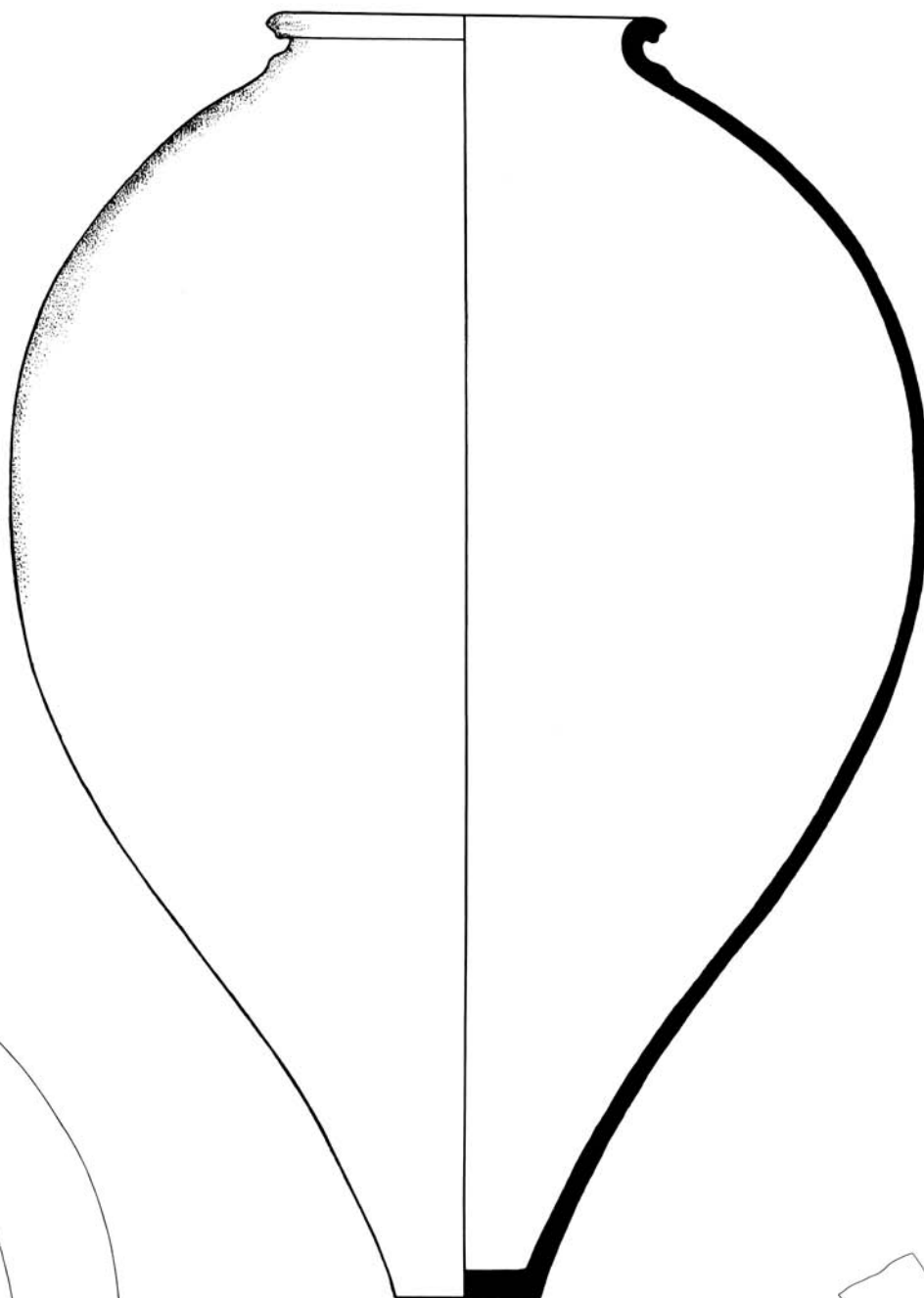
Cat. no. 115



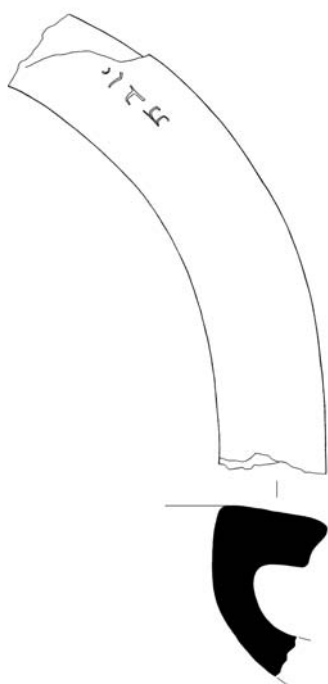
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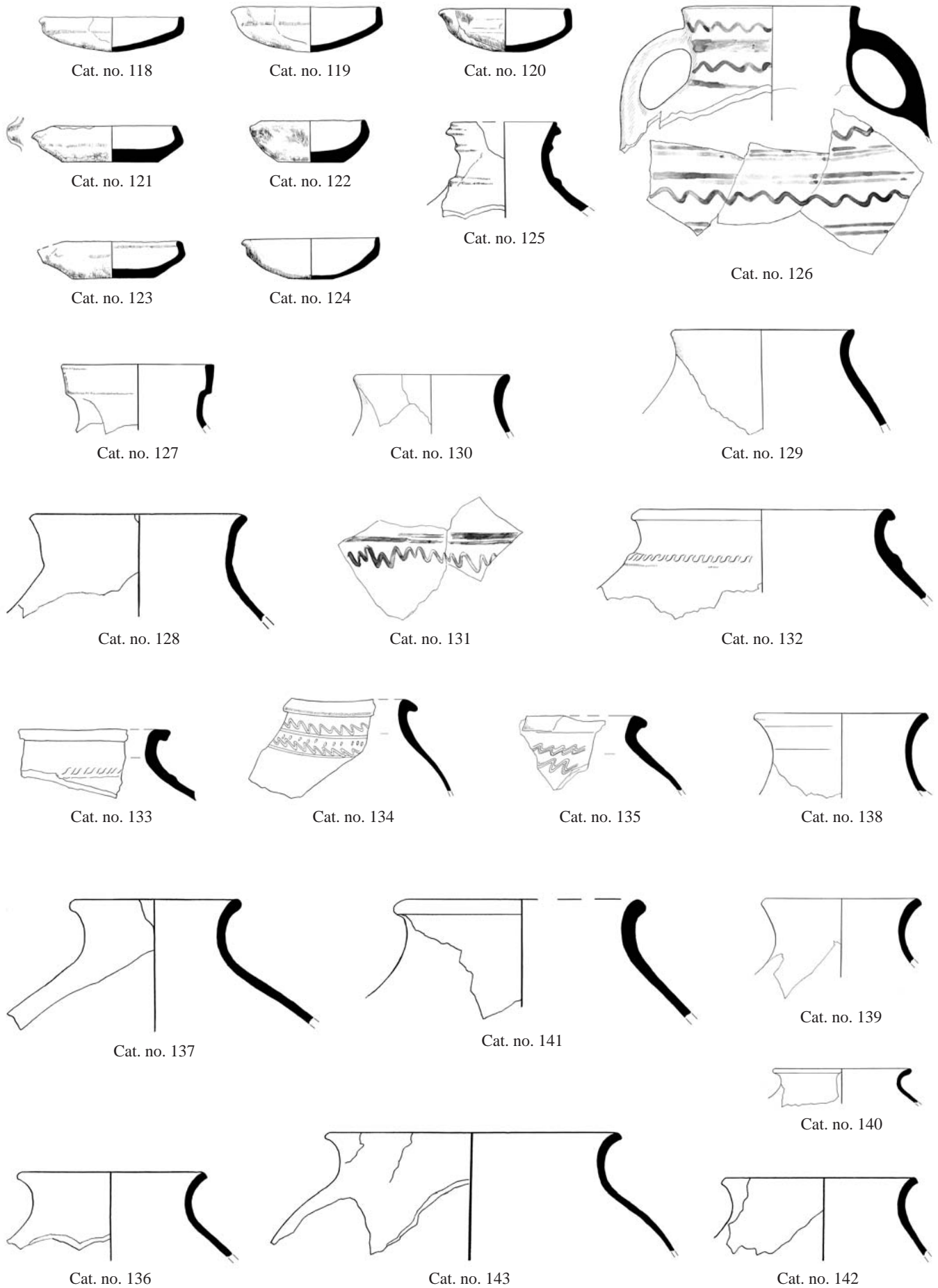
Cat. no. 117



Cat. no. 116



Cat. no. 117



Cat. nos. 118-143 scale 1:8.



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 2



Cat. no. 3



Cat. no. 8



Cat. no. 9



Cat. no. 13



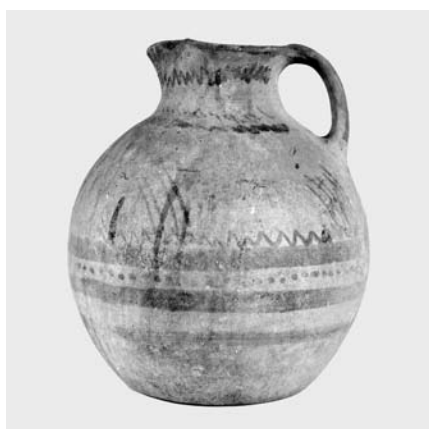
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Cat. no. 38



Cat. no. 46



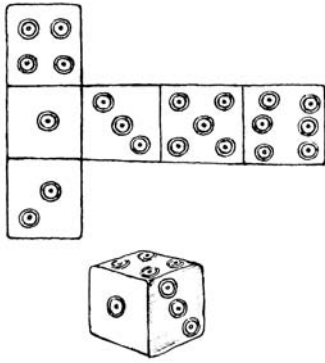
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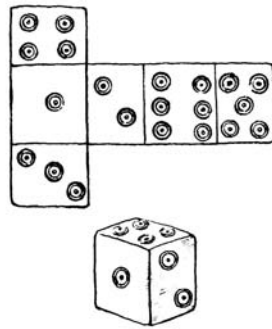
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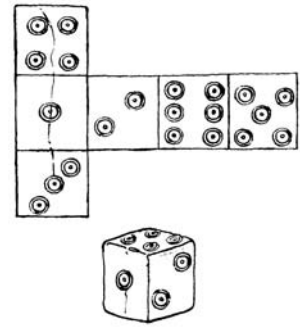
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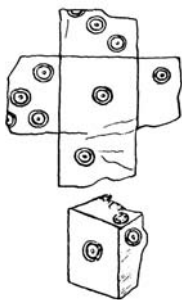
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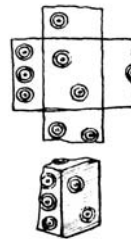
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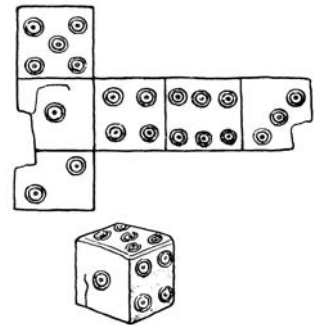
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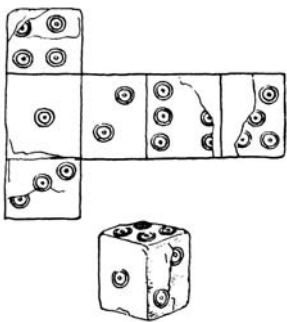
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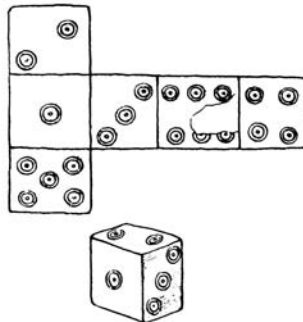
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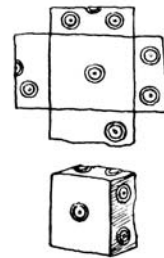
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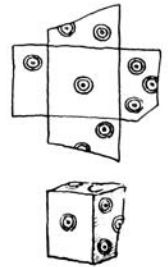
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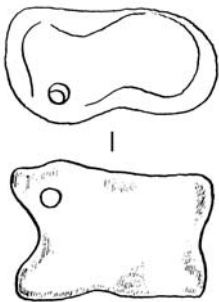
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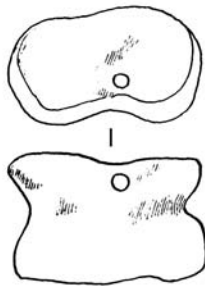
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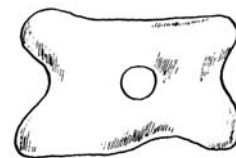
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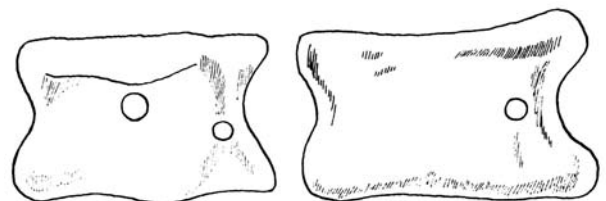
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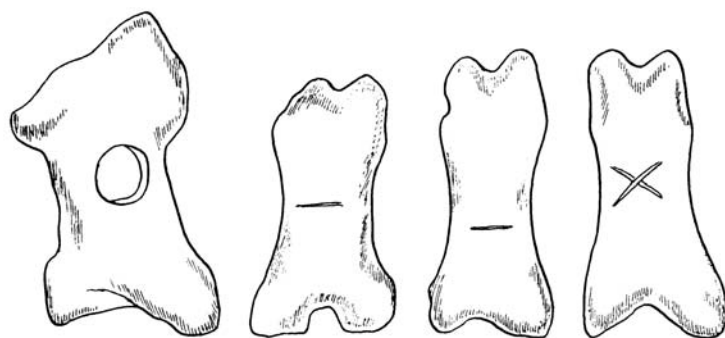
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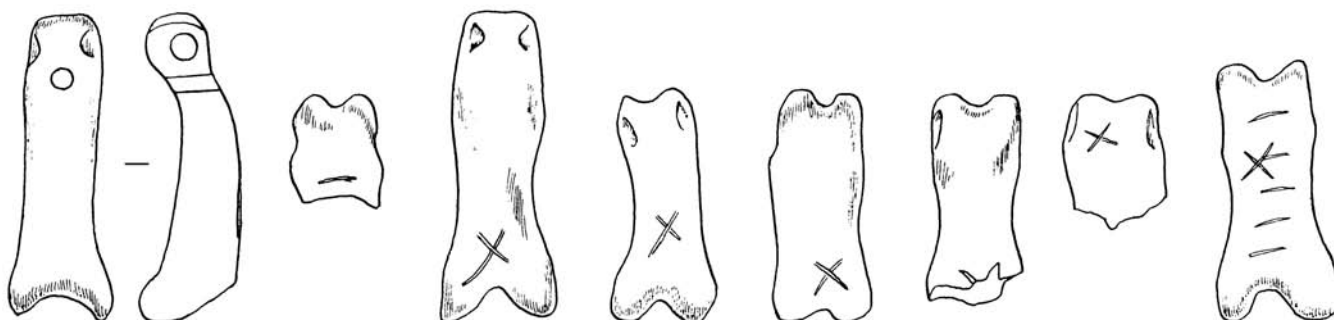
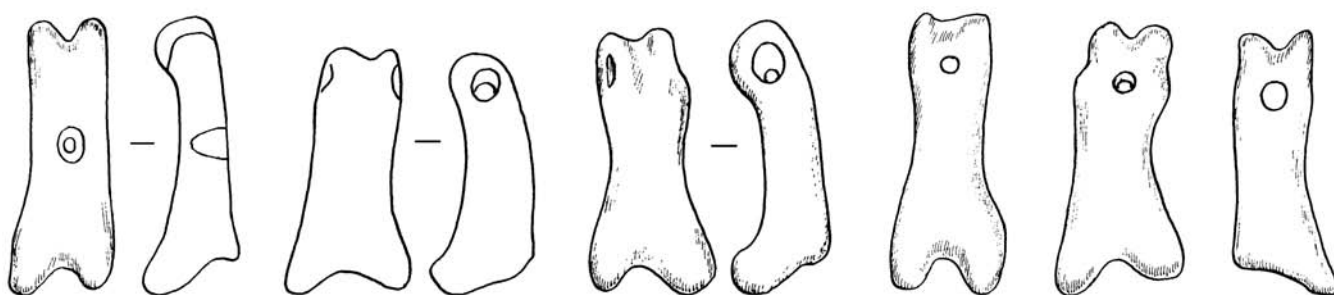
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Cat. no. 16



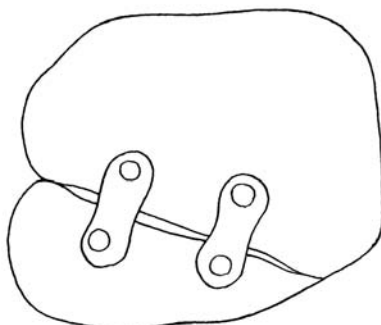
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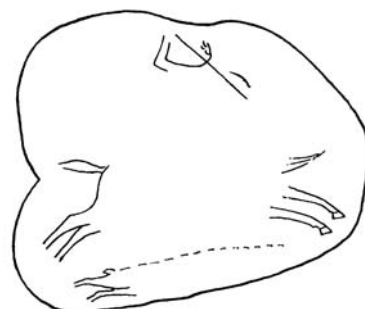
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Cat. no. 22



Cat. no. 23



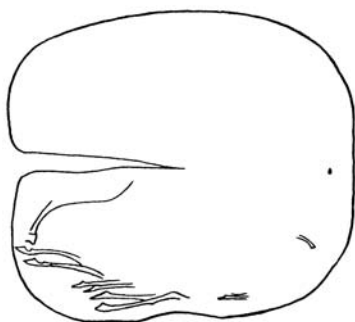
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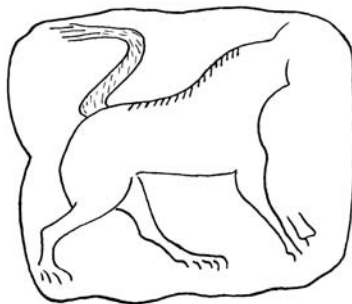
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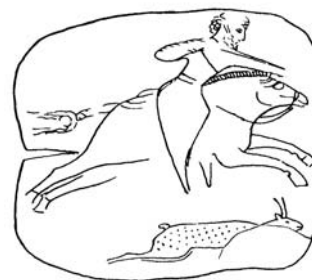
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Cat. no. 27



Cat. no. 28



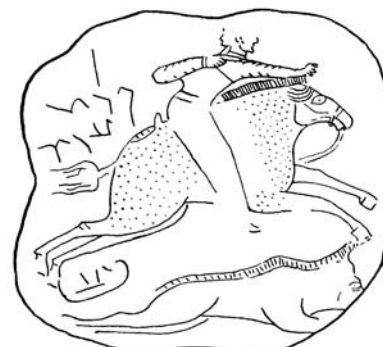
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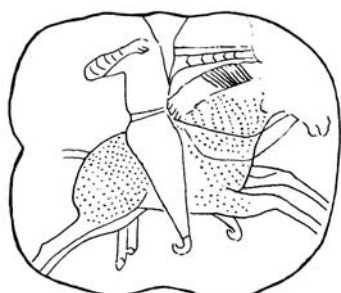
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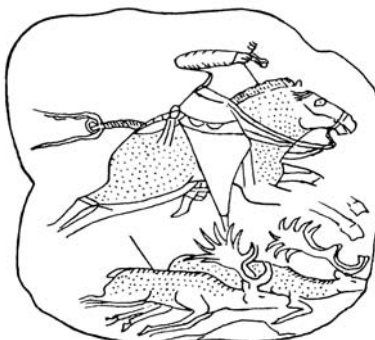
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Cat. no. 32



Cat. no. 33



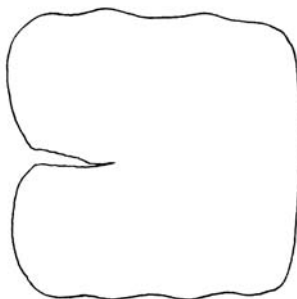
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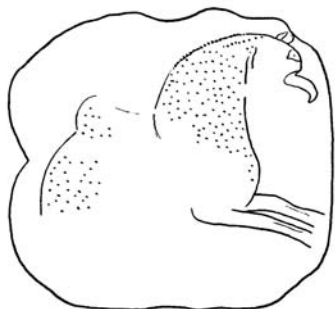
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Cat. no. 37



Cat. no. 41



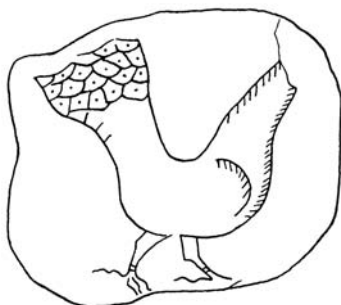
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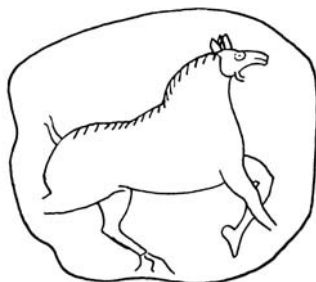
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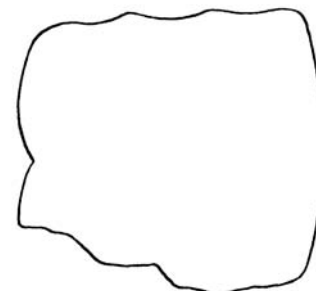
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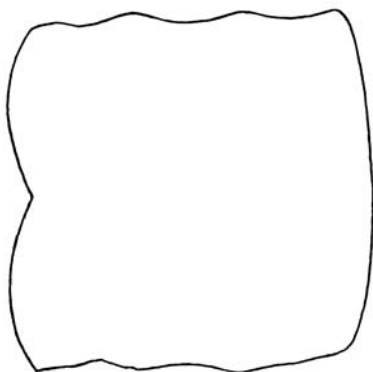
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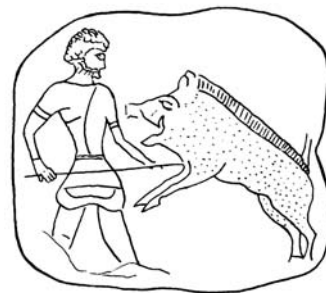
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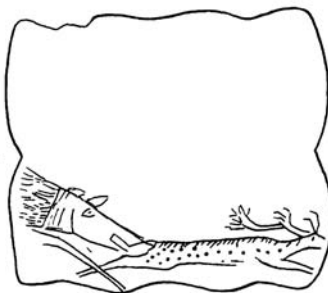
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Cat. no. 49



Cat. no. 50



Cat. no. 51



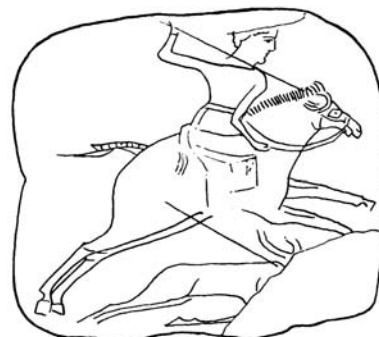
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Cat. no. 53



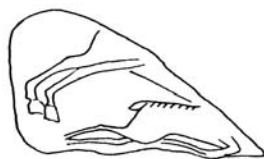
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Cat. no. 55



Cat. no. 56



Cat. no. 57



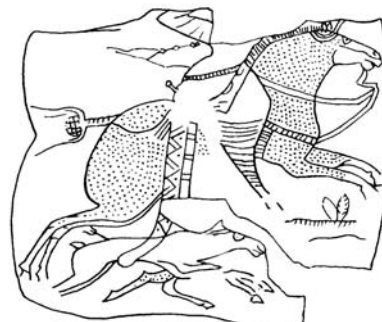
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Cat. no. 59



Cat. no. 60



Cat. no. 61



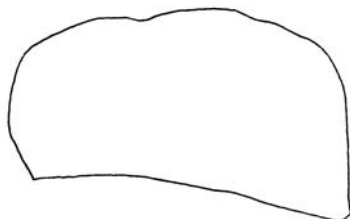
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Cat. no. 63



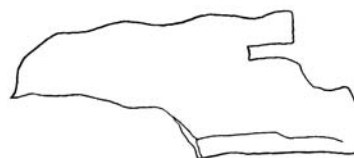
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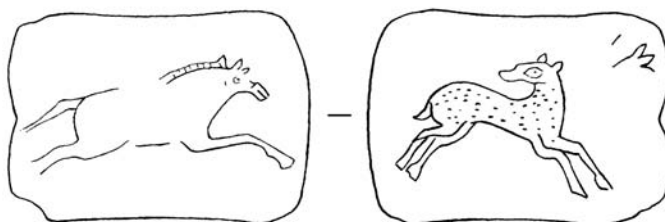
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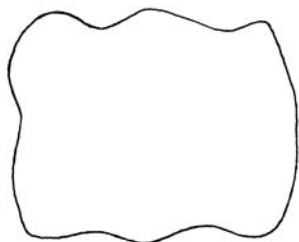
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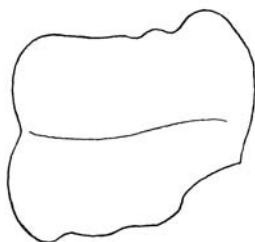
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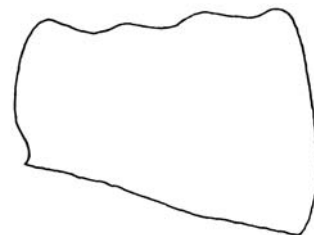
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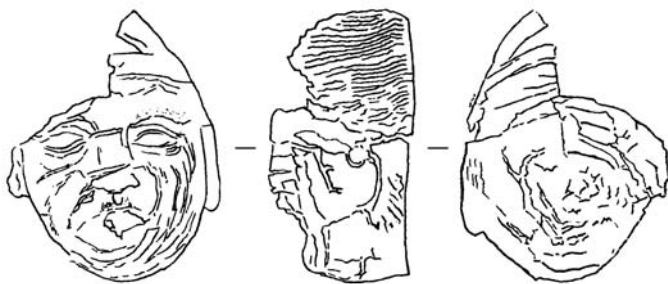
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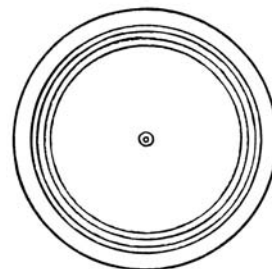
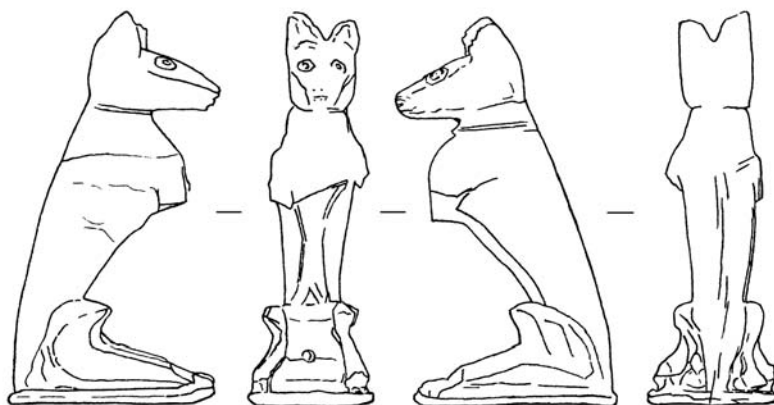
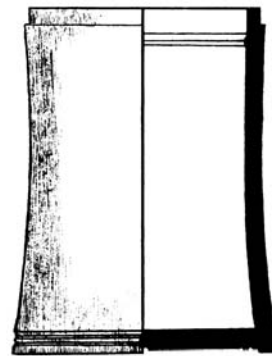
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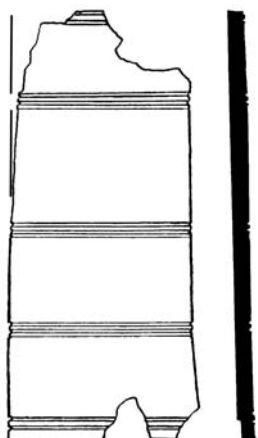
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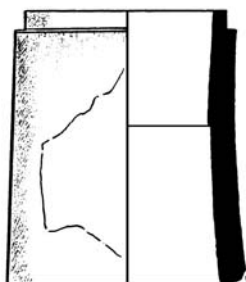
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Cat. no. 82



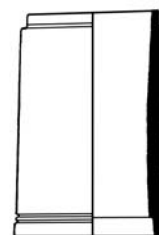
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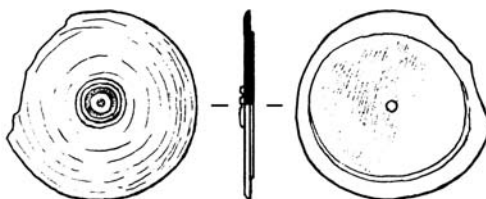
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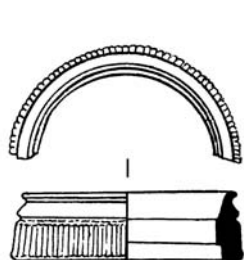
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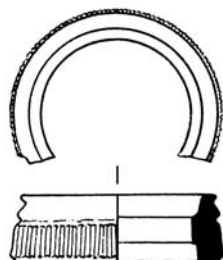
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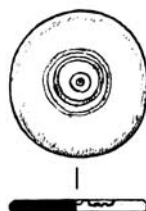
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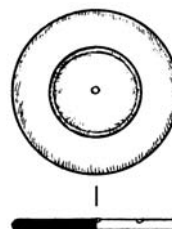
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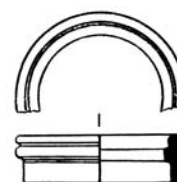
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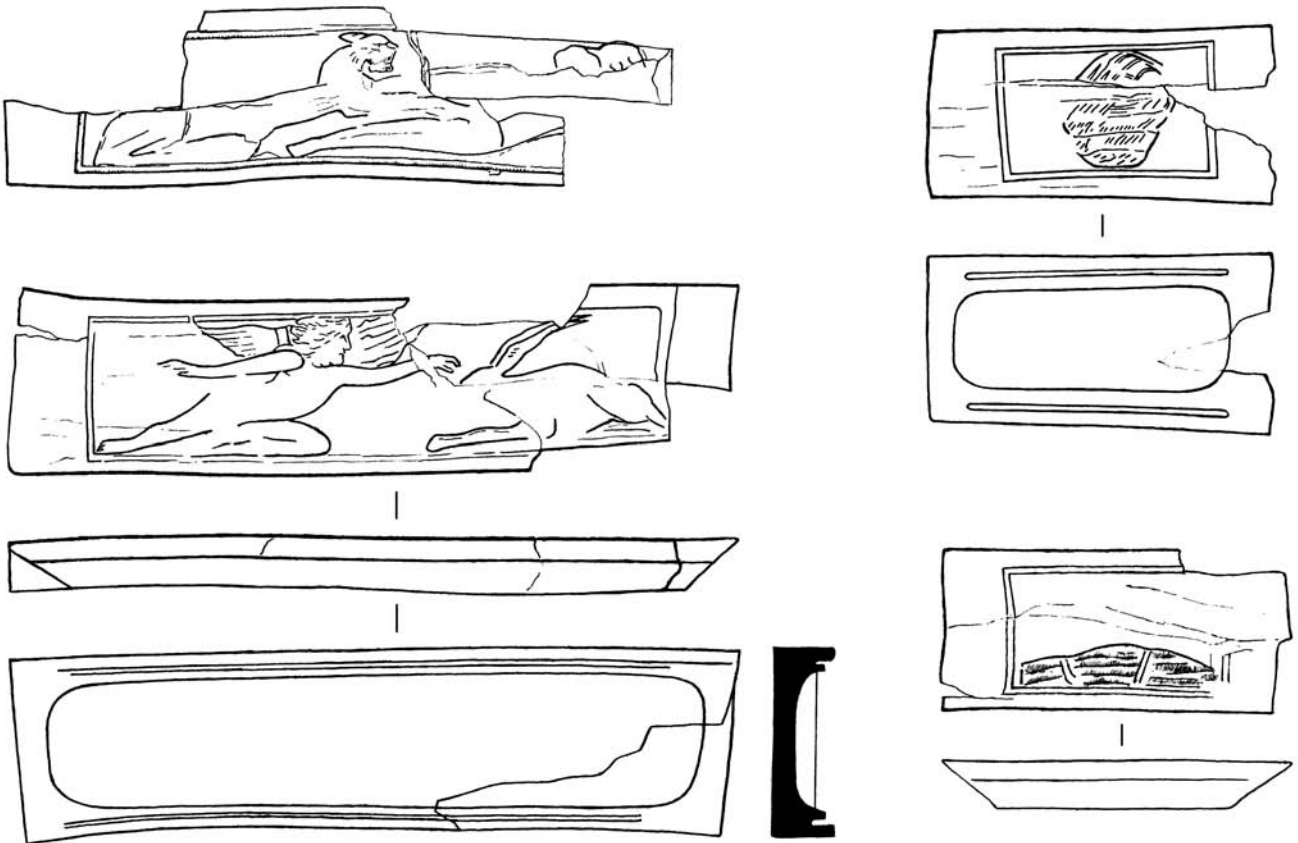
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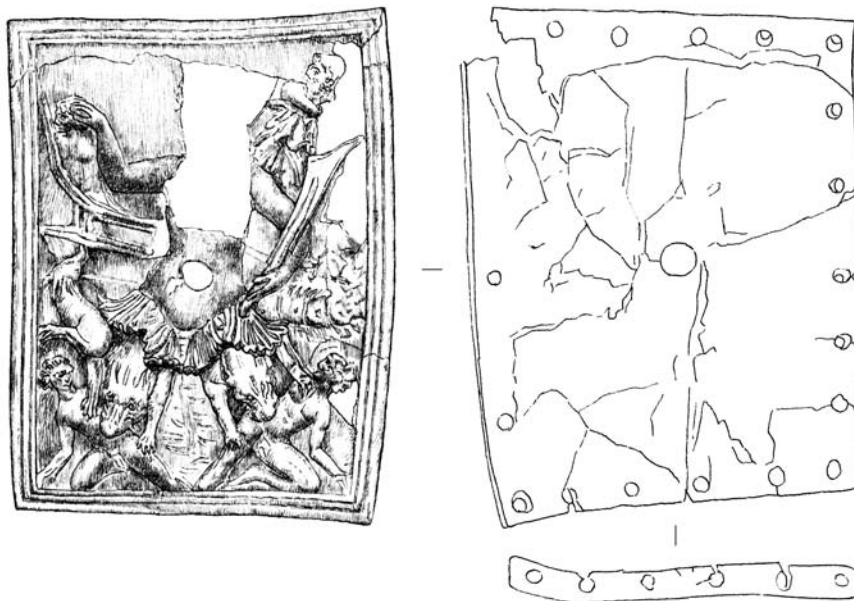
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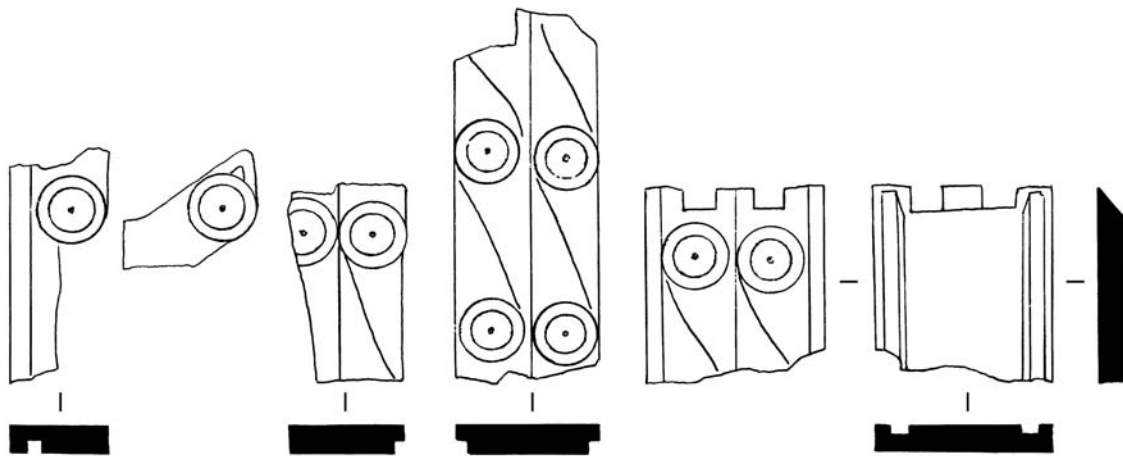
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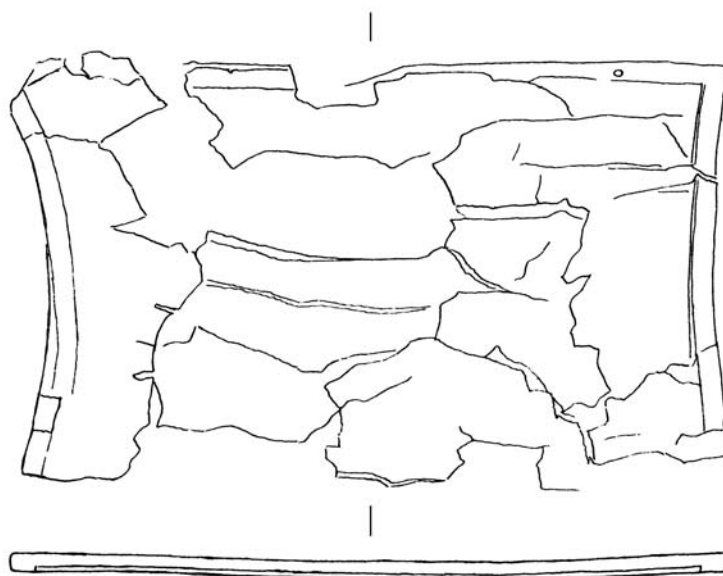
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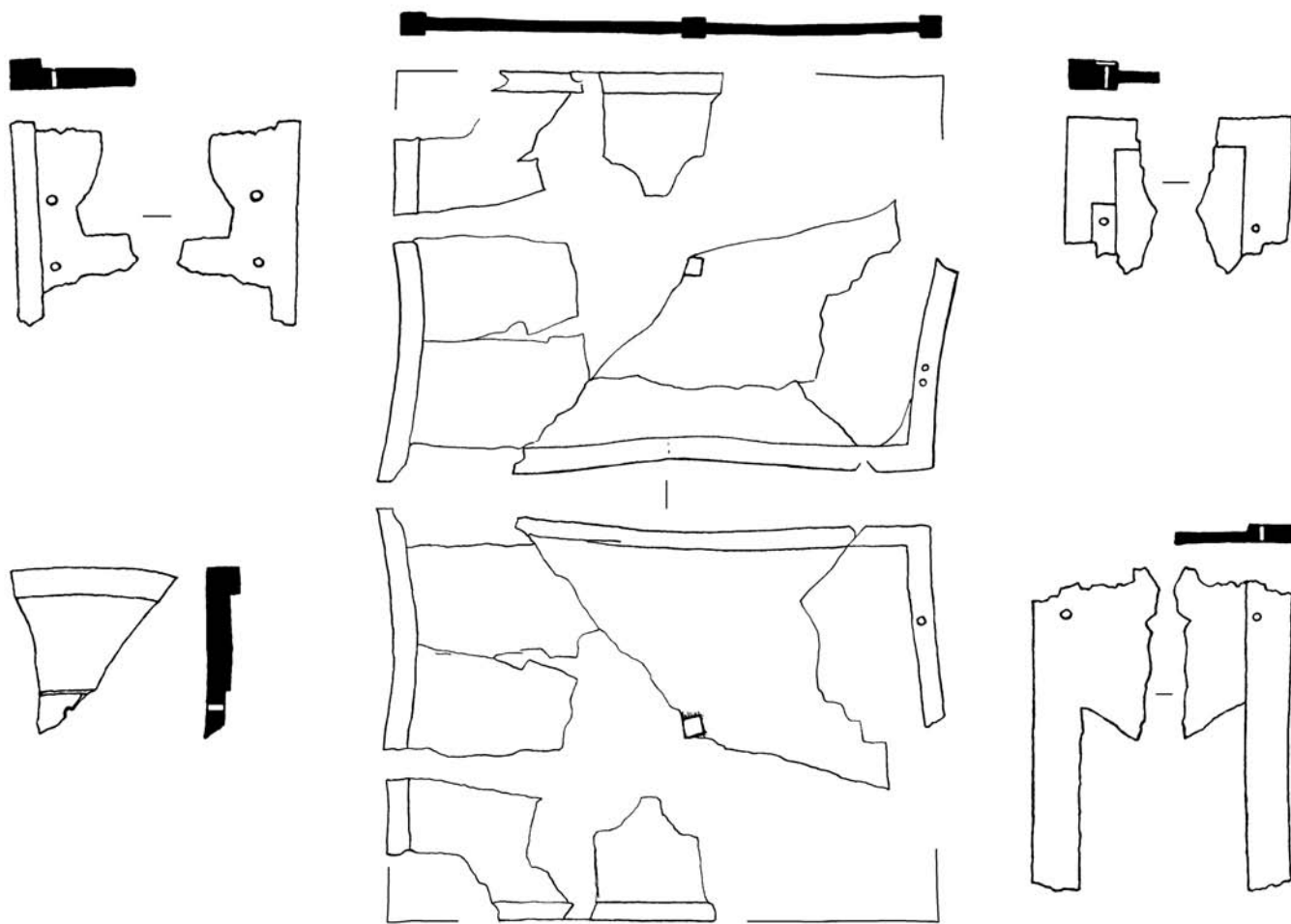
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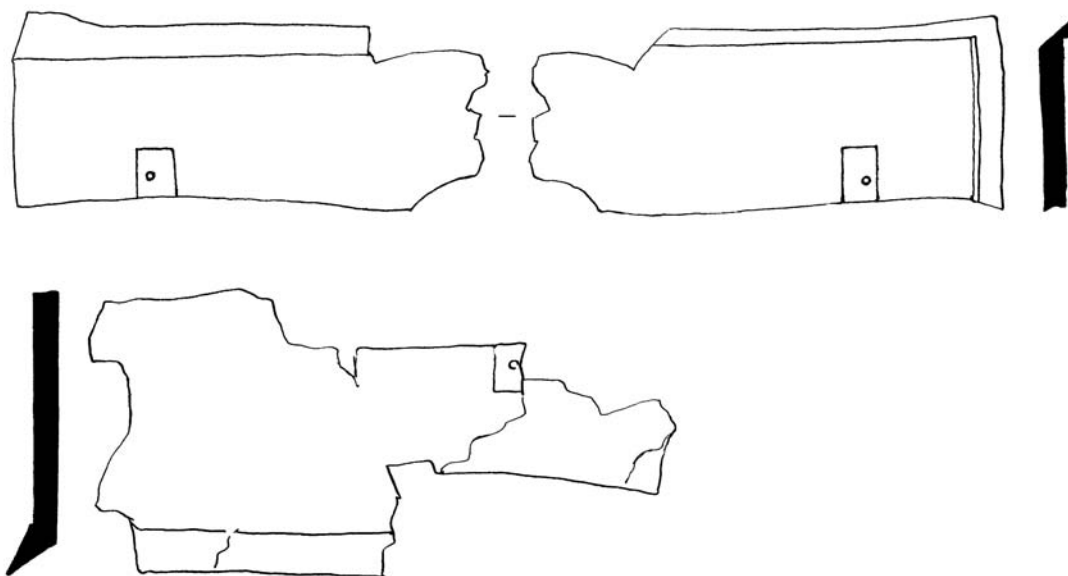
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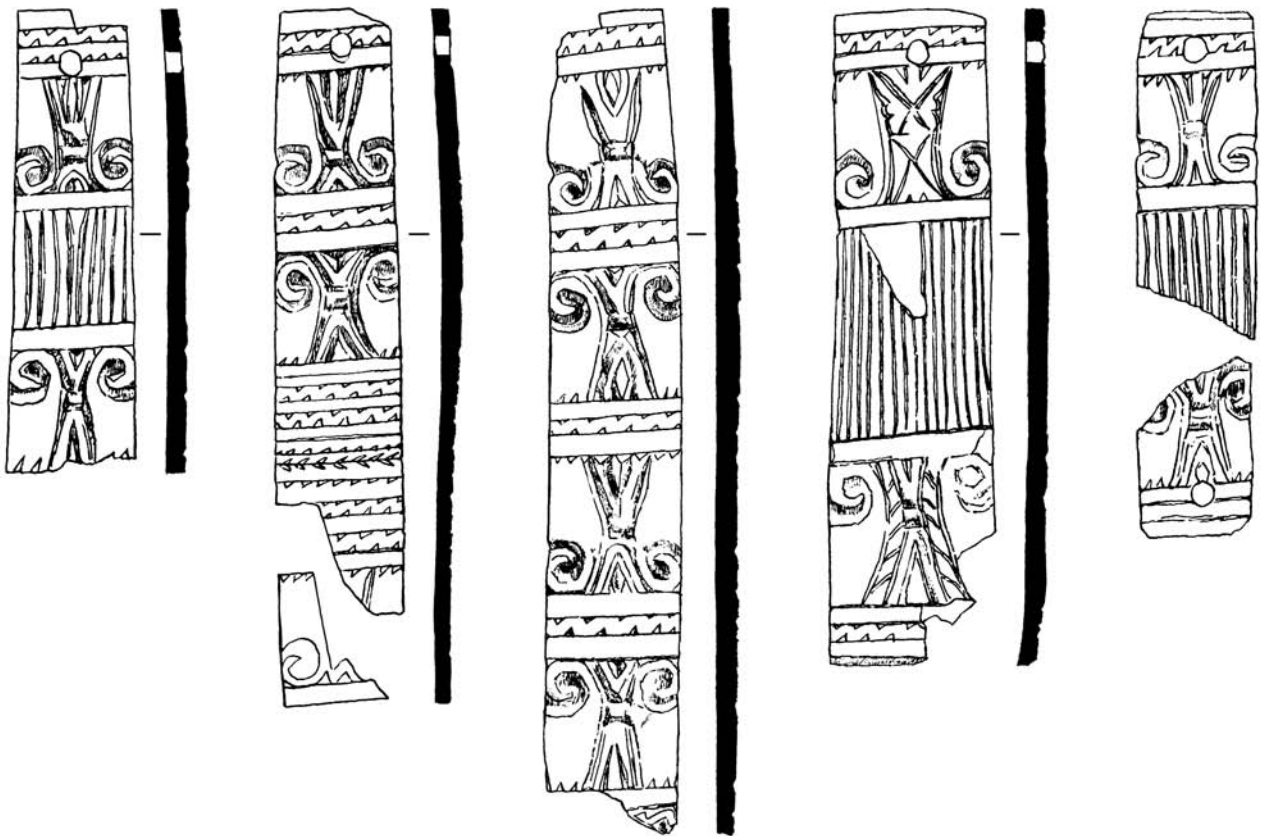
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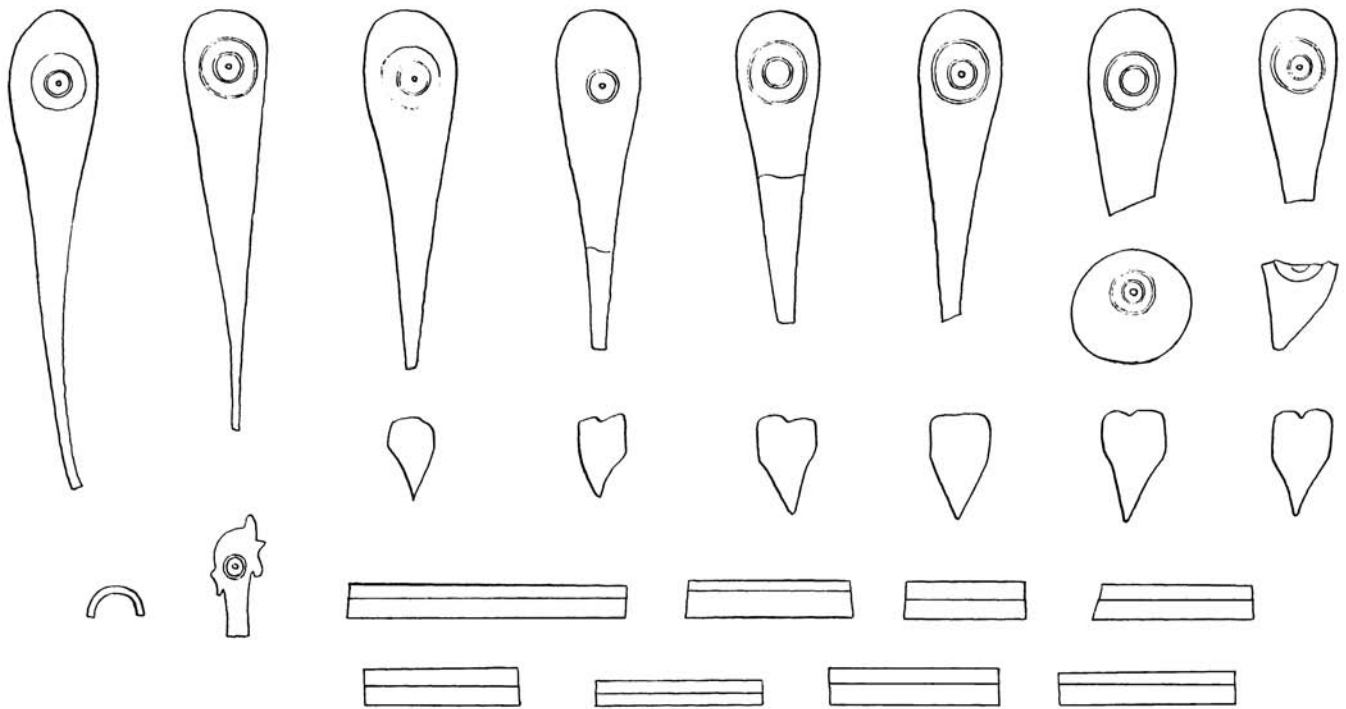
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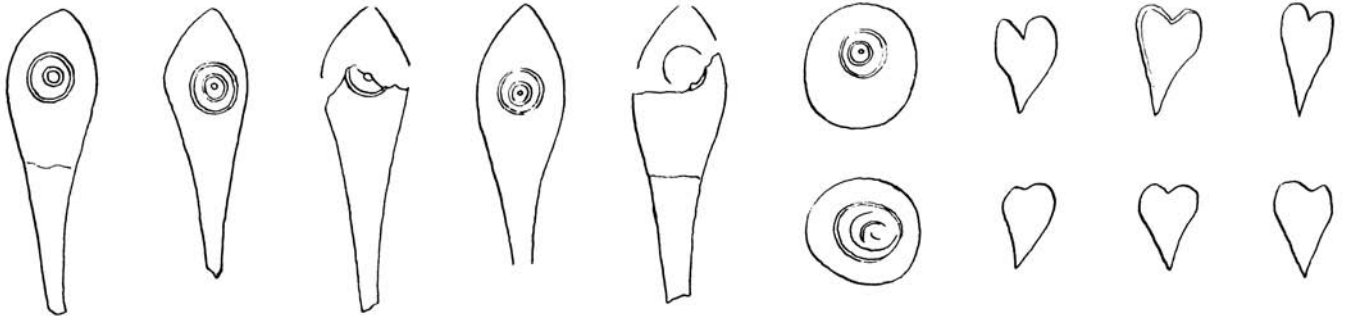
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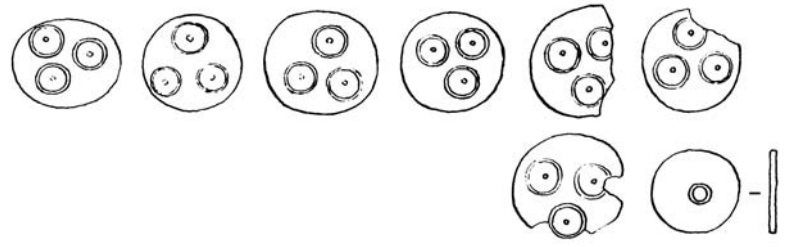
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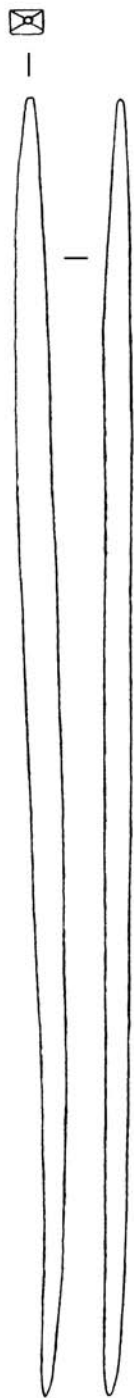
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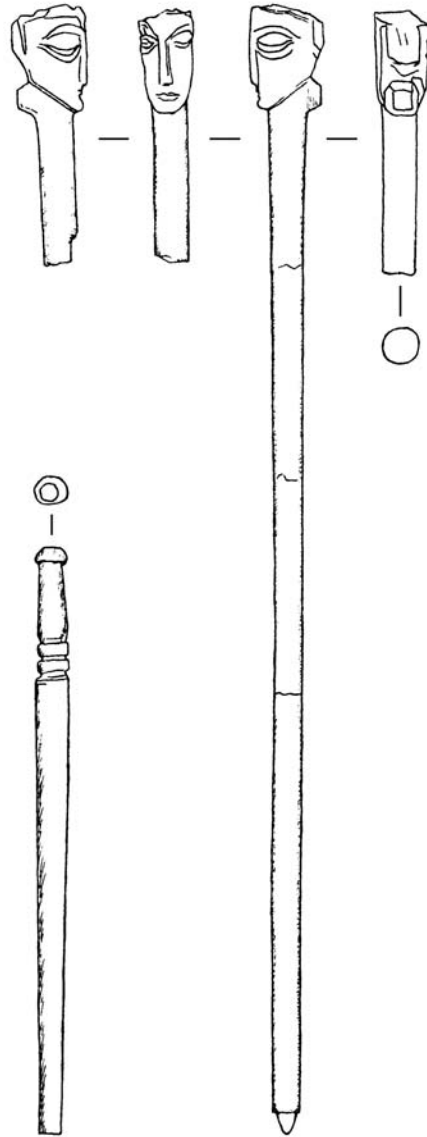
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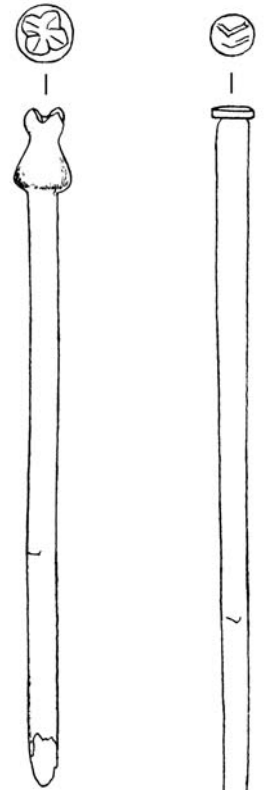


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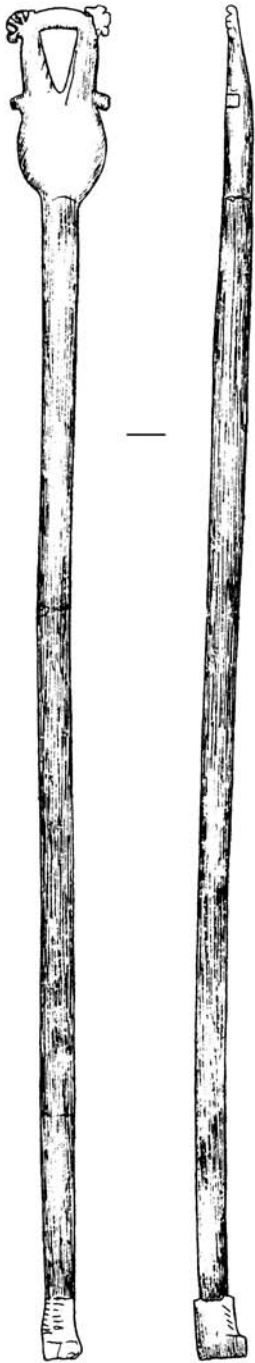
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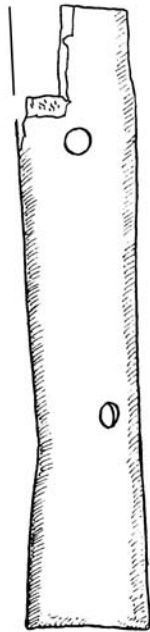


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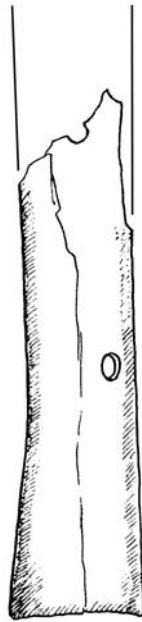
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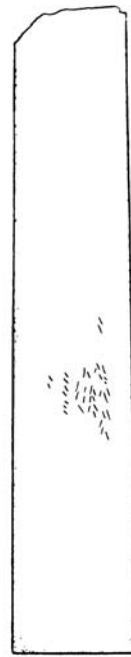
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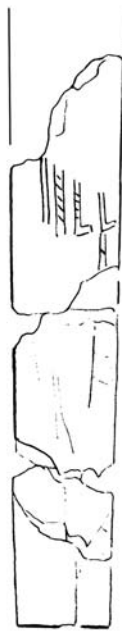
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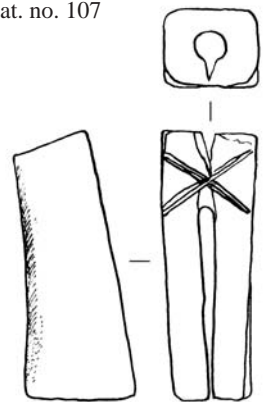
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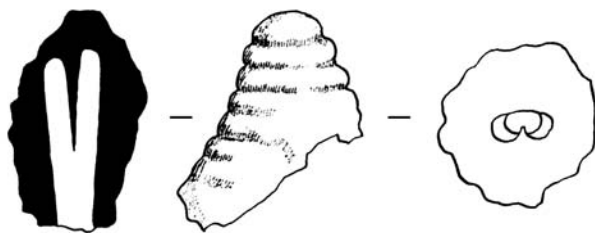
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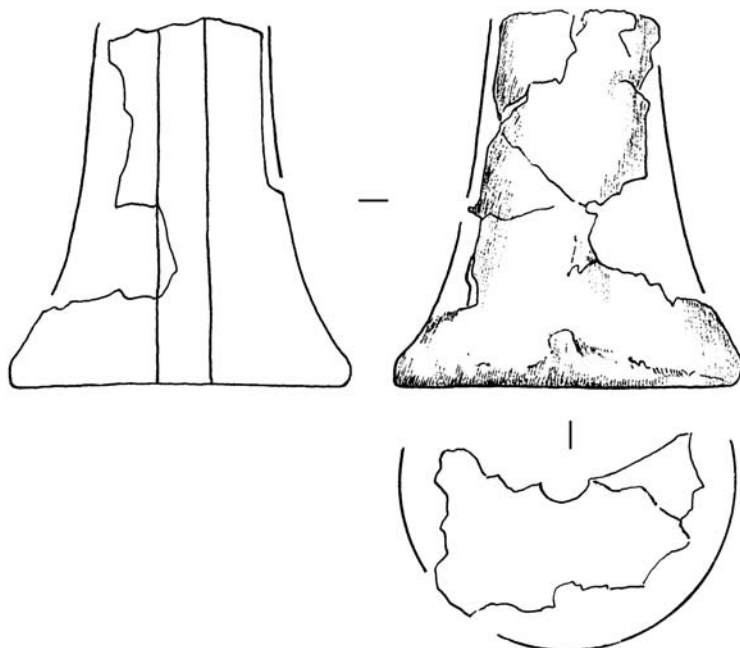
Cat. no. 107



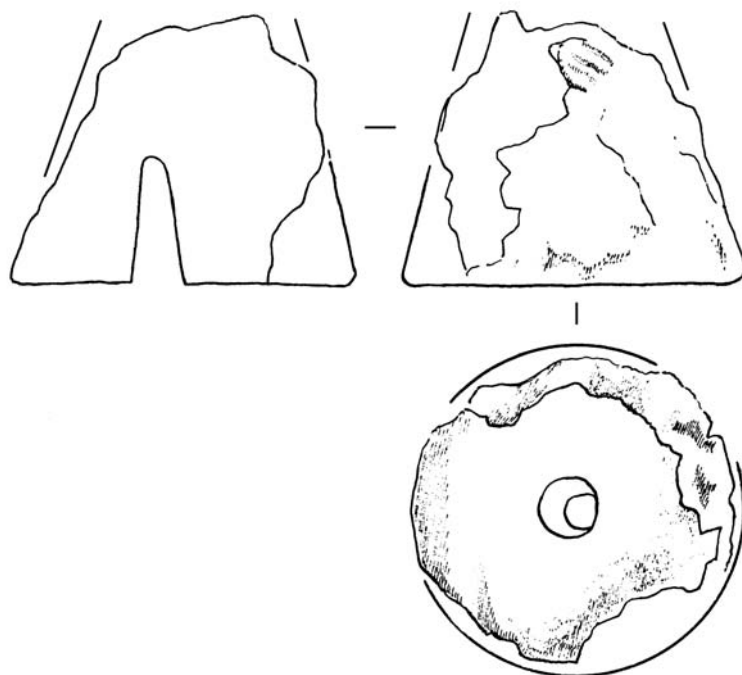
Cat. no. 118



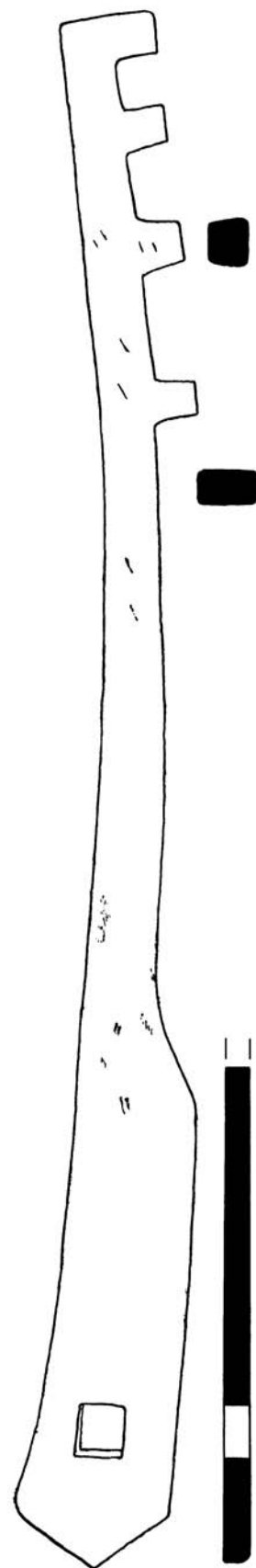
Cat. no. 119



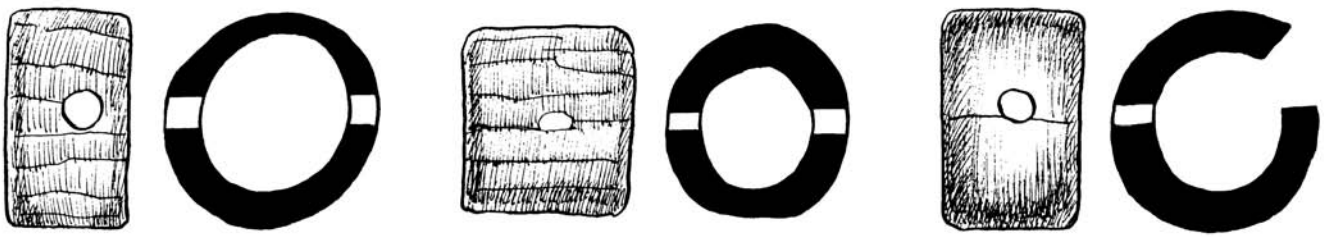
Cat. no. 120



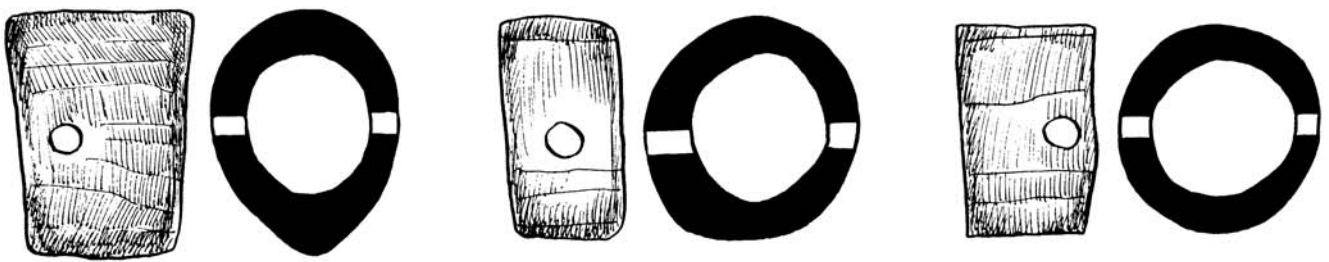
Cat. no. 121



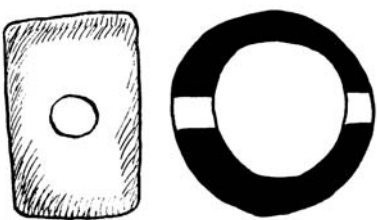
Cat. no. 122



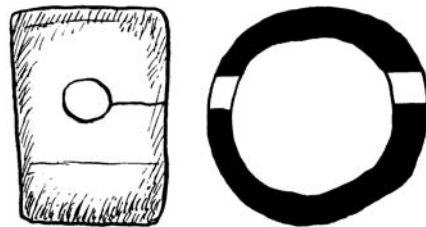
Cat. no. 123



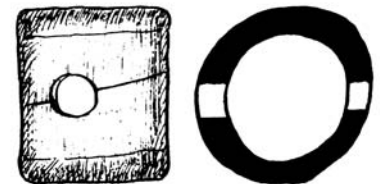
Cat. no. 124



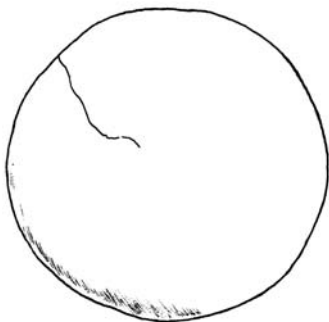
Cat. no. 125



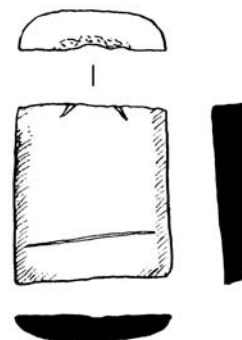
Cat. no. 126



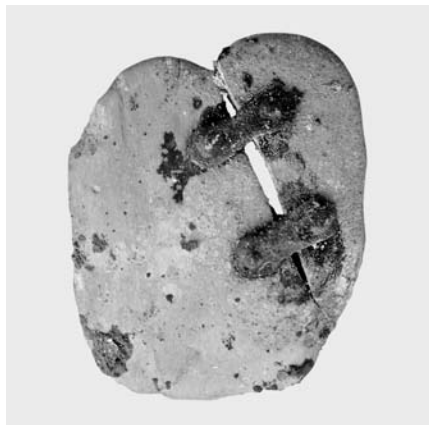
Cat. no. 127



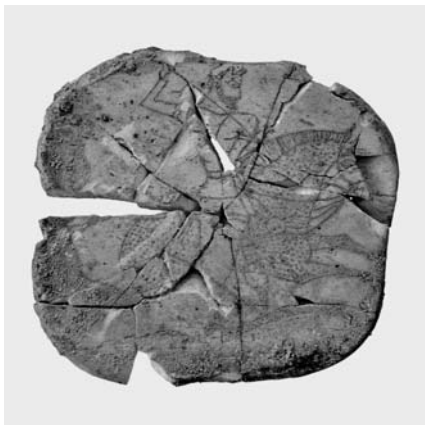
Cat. no. 128



Cat. no. 129



Cat. no. 22



Cat. no. 26



Cat. no. 49



Cat. no. 52



Cat. no. 76



Cat. no. 77



Cat. no. 78



Cat. no. 89



Cat. no. 90



Cat. no. 95



Cat. nos. 99-100, 103-106

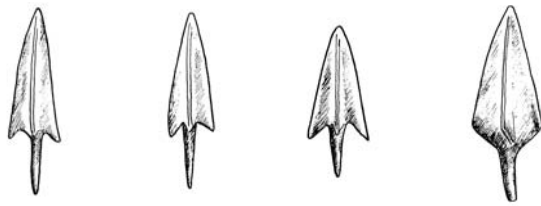


Cat. no. 122

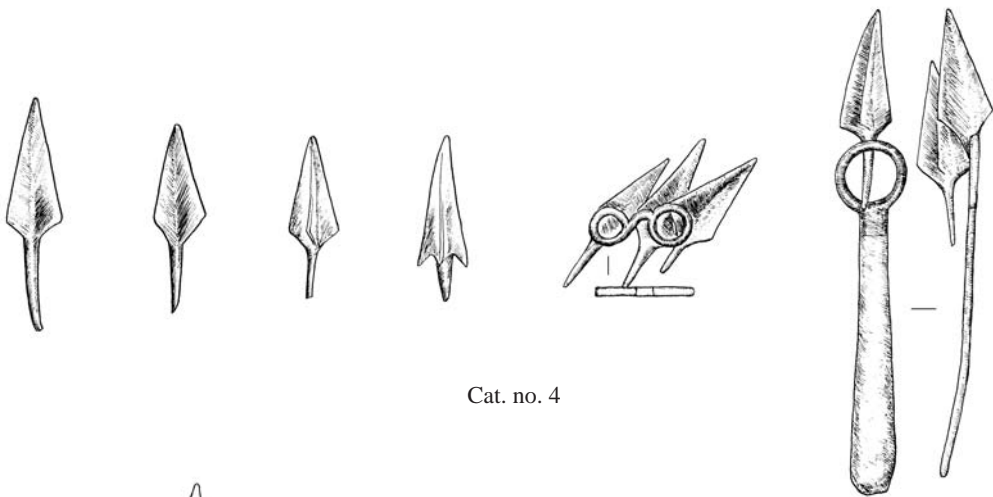


Cat. no. 1

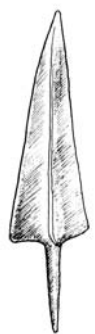
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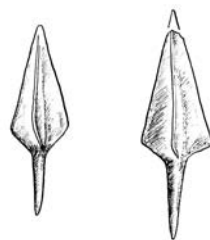
Cat. no. 3



Cat. no. 4



Cat. no. 5



Cat. no. 6



Cat. no. 7



Cat. no. 8



Cat. no. 9



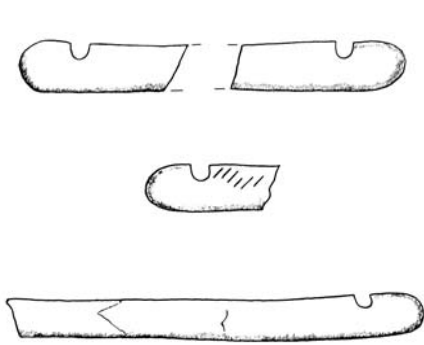
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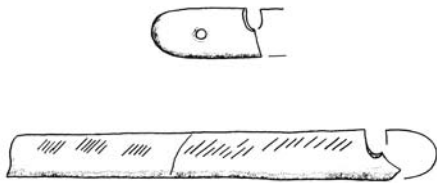
Cat. no. 11



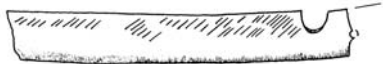
Cat. no. 13



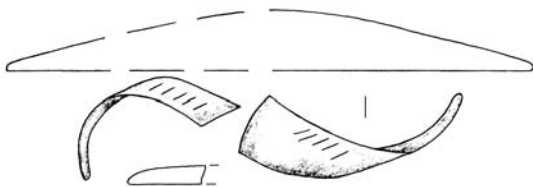
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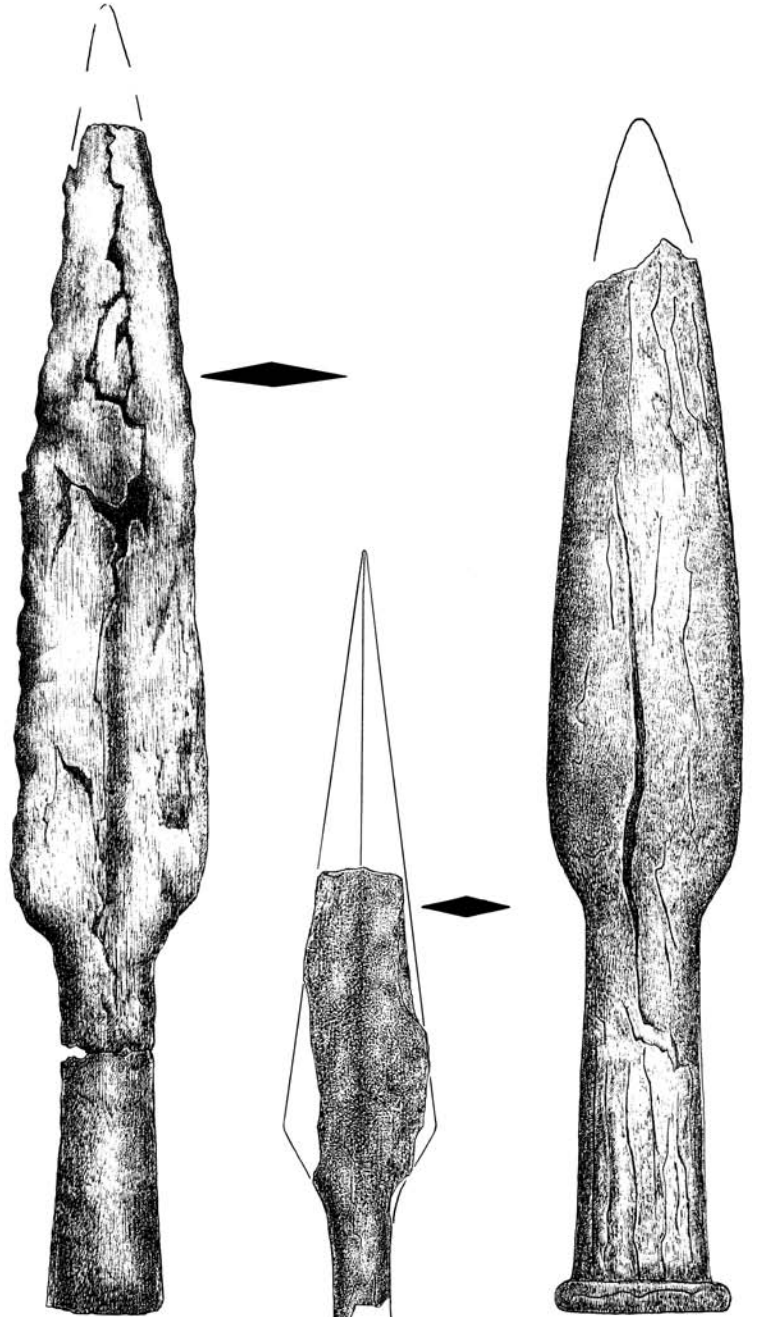
Cat. no. 15



Cat. no. 16



Cat. no. 17



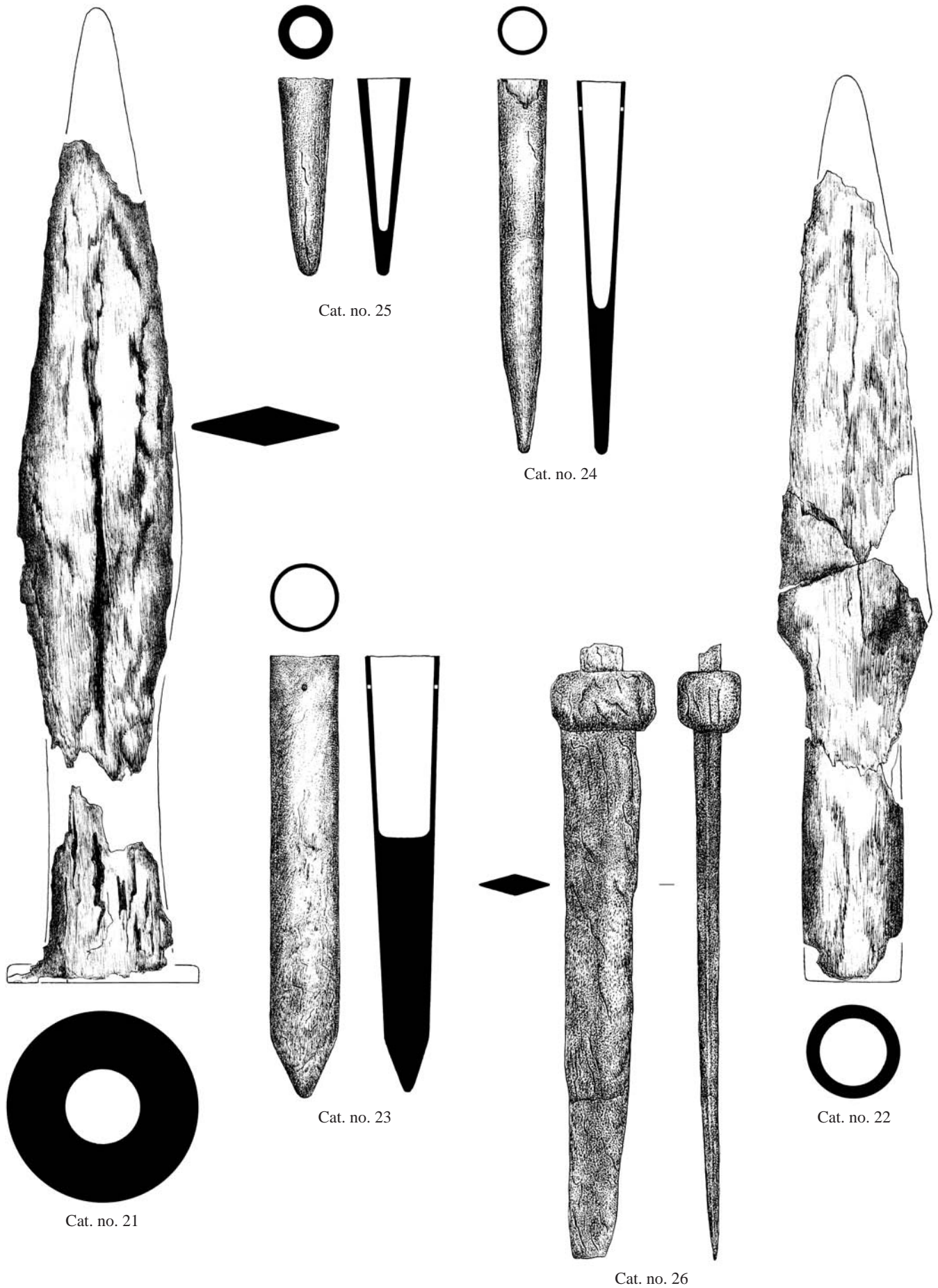
Cat. no. 18



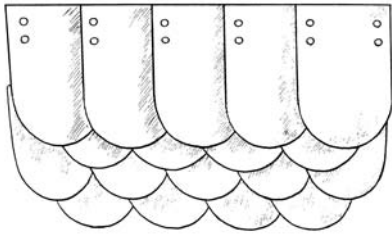
Cat. no. 20



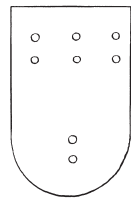
Cat. no. 19



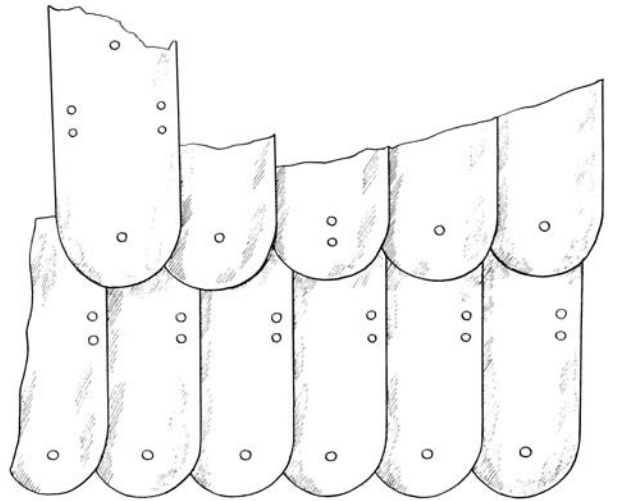
Cat. nos. 21–26 scale 1:2.



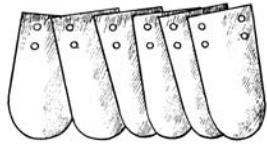
Cat. no. 27a



Cat. no. 27c



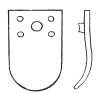
Cat. no. 27d



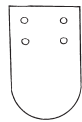
Cat. no. 27b



Cat. no. 28a



Cat. no. 28b



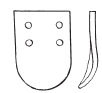
Cat. no. 28c



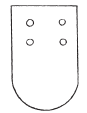
Cat. no. 28d



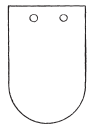
Cat. no. 29a



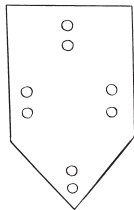
Cat. no. 29a



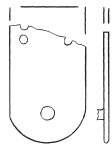
Cat. no. 29b



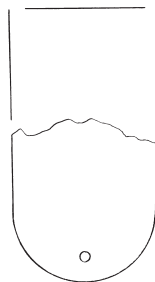
Cat. no. 29c



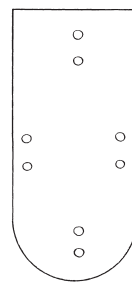
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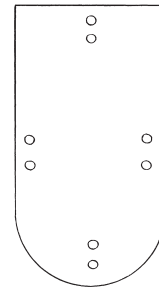
Cat. no. 30a



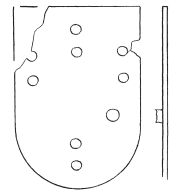
Cat. no. 30b



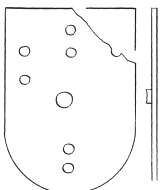
Cat. no. 30c



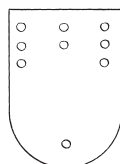
Cat. no. 30c



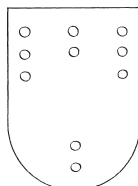
Cat. no. 30d



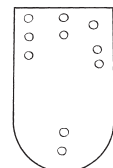
Cat. no. 30d



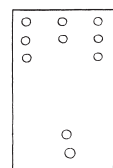
Cat. no. 30e



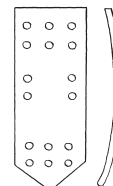
Cat. no. 30f



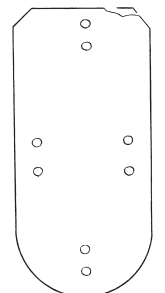
Cat. no. 30f



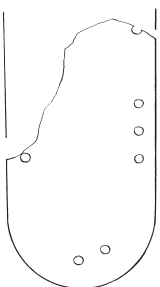
Cat. no. 30g



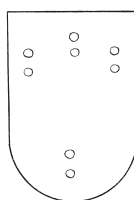
Cat. no. 30h



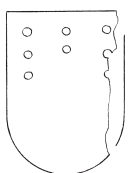
Cat. no. 31a



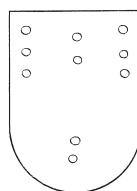
Cat. no. 31b



Cat. no. 31c



Cat. no. 31d



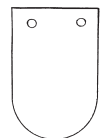
Cat. no. 31e



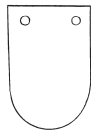
Cat. no. 32a



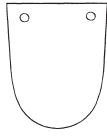
Cat. no. 32a



Cat. no. 32a



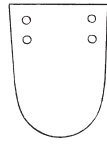
Cat. no. 32a



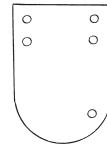
Cat. no. 32a



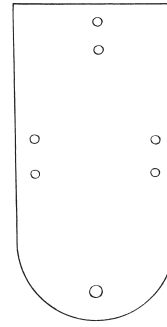
Cat. no. 32b



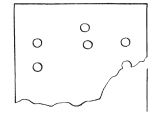
Cat. no. 32b



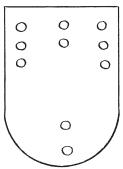
Cat. no. 32c



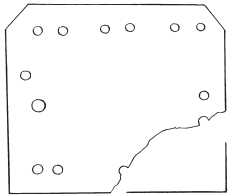
Cat. no. 32d



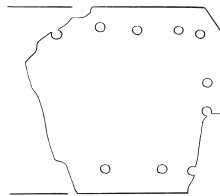
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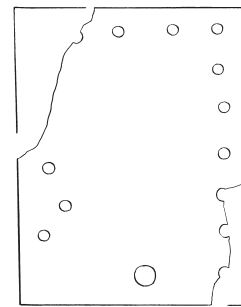
Cat. no. 32f



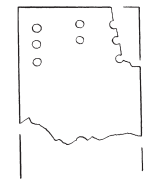
Cat. no. 32g



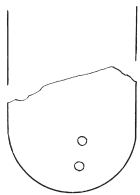
Cat. no. 32g



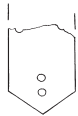
Cat. no. 32h



Cat. no. 33a



Cat. no. 33b



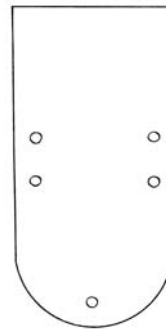
Cat. no. 33c



Cat. no. 33d



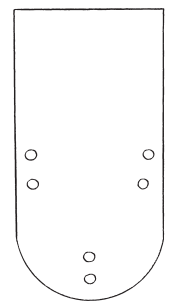
Cat. no. 34a



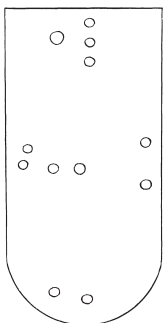
Cat. no. 34b



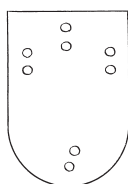
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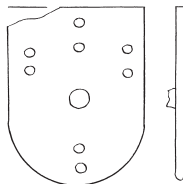
Cat. no. 34d



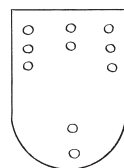
Cat. no. 34d



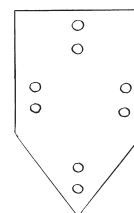
Cat. no. 34e



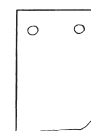
Cat. no. 34e



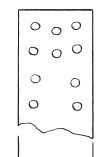
Cat. no. 34f



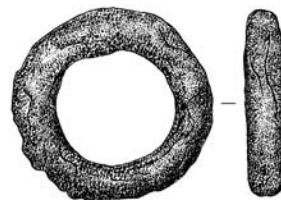
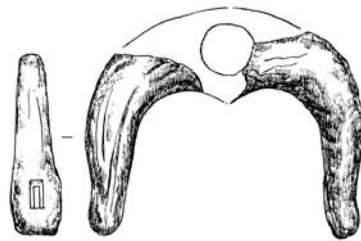
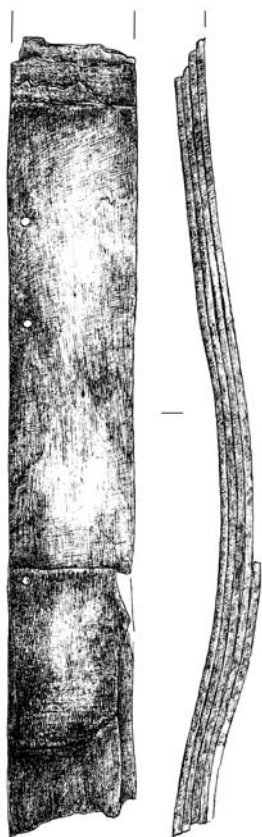
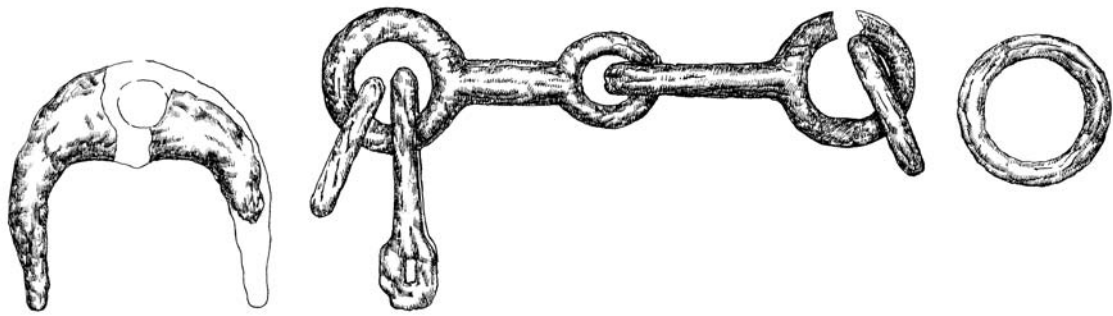
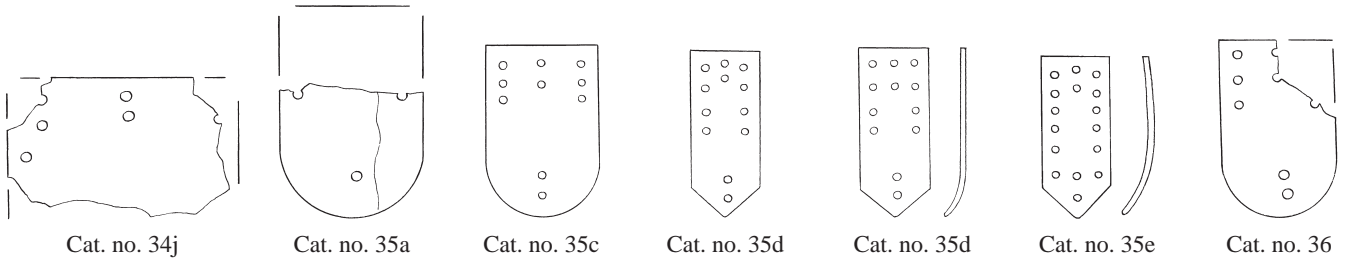
Cat. no. 34g



Cat. no. 34h

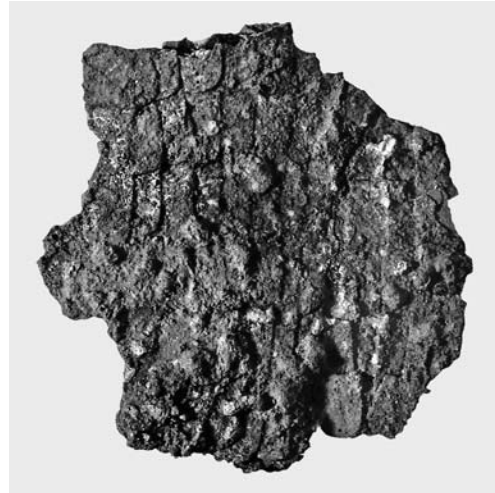


Cat. no. 34j

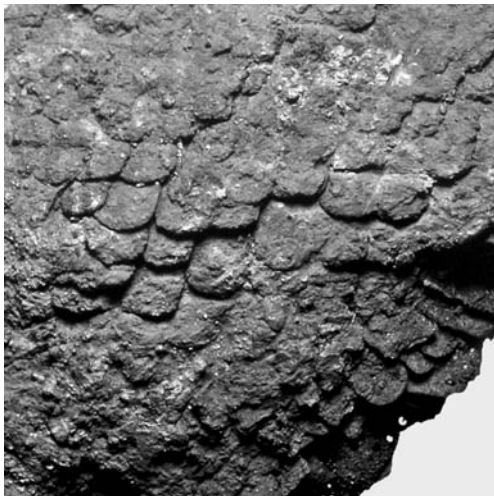




Cat. no. 27



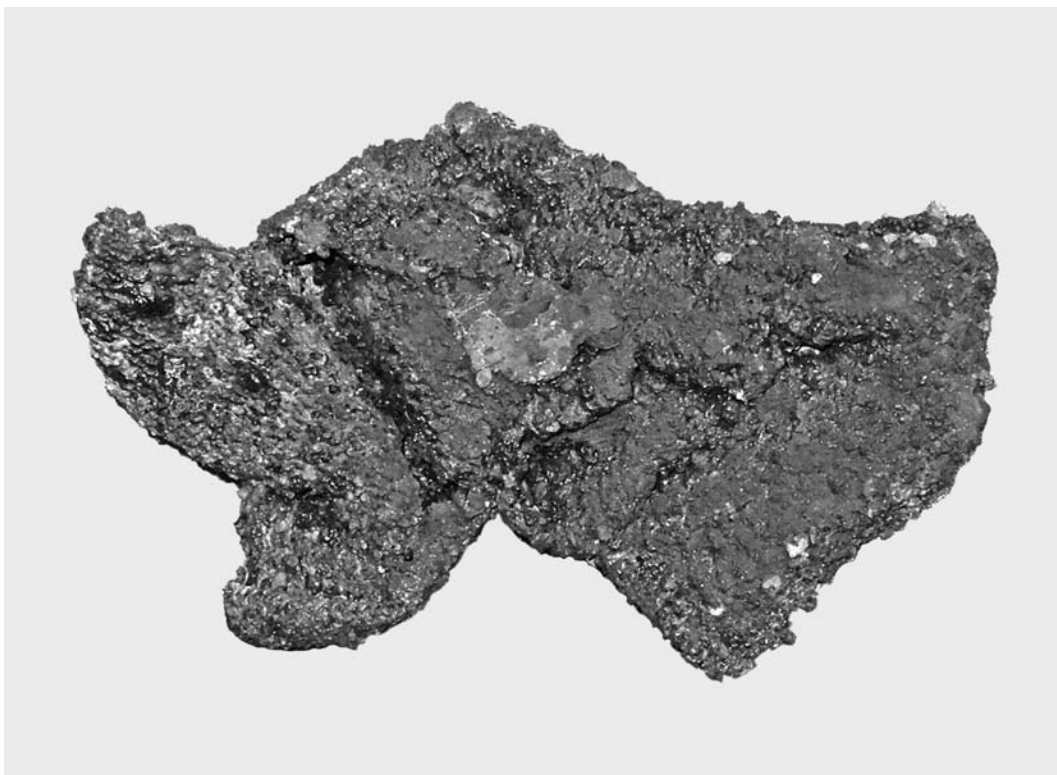
Cat. no. 27



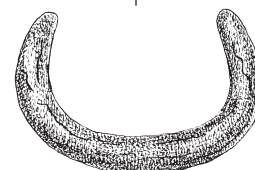
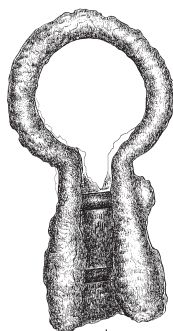
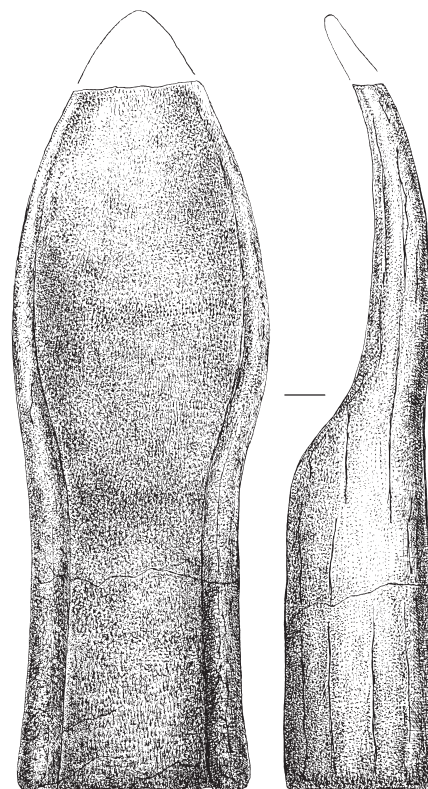
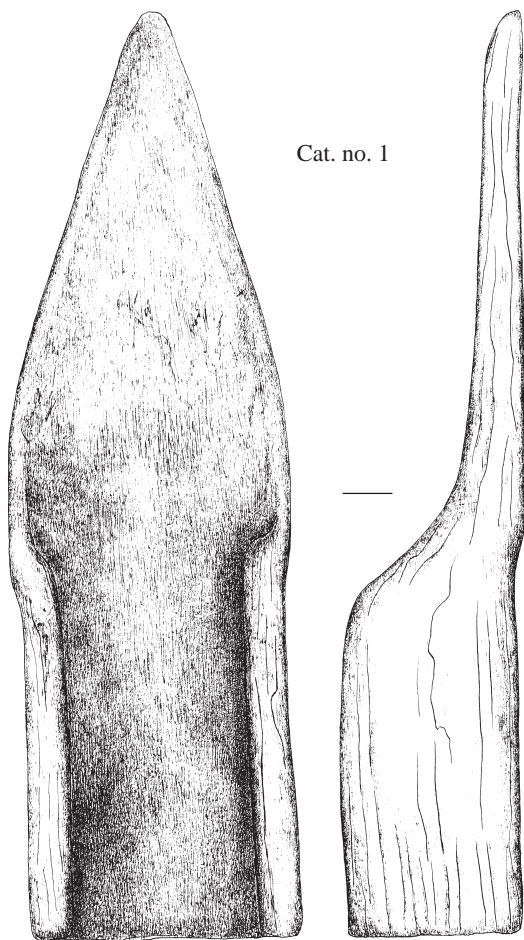
Cat. no. 27 (detail)



Armor plates (examples)



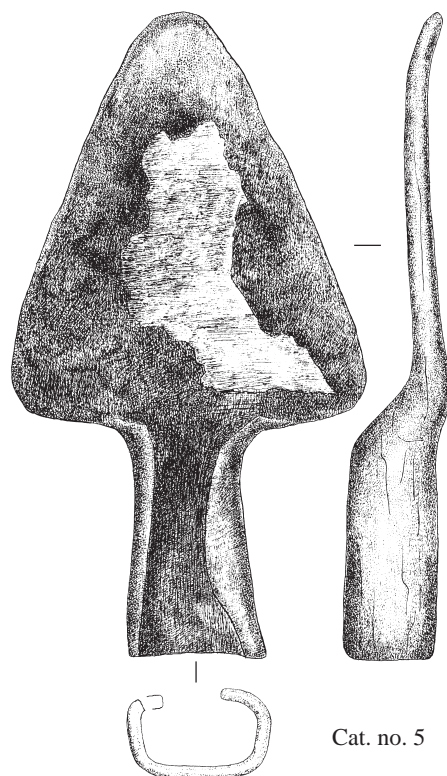
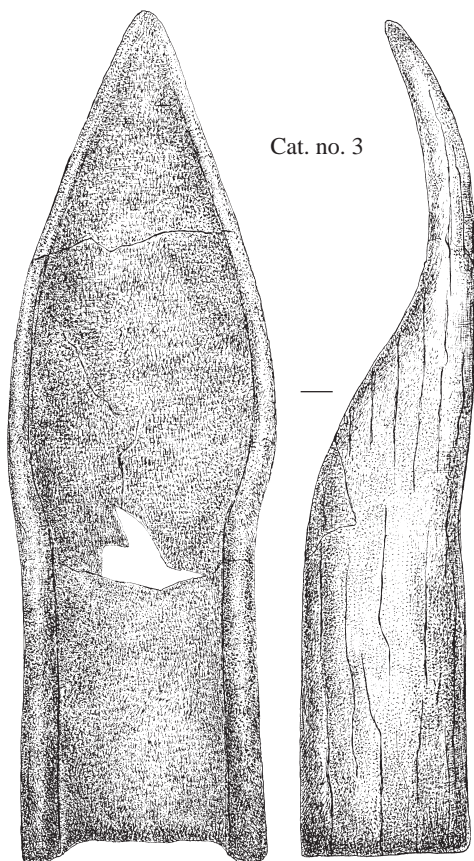
Cat. no. 37

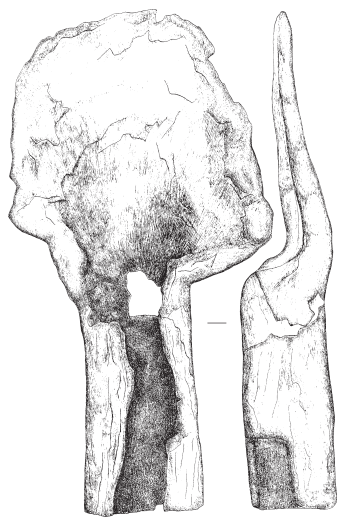


Cat. no. 2

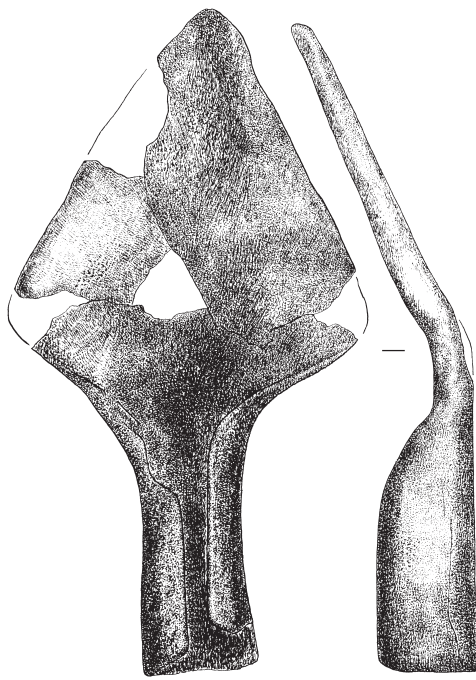


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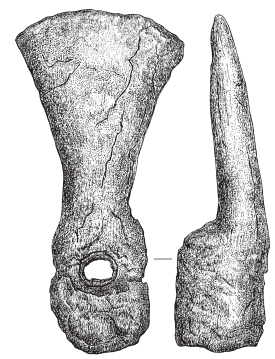




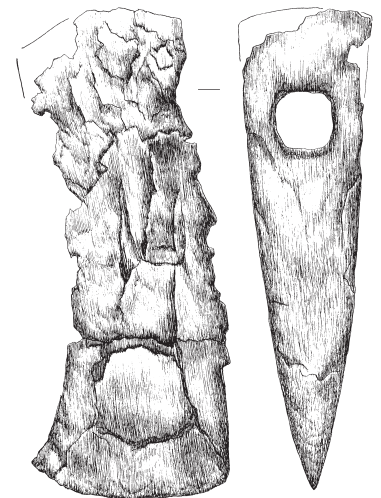
Cat. no. 6



Cat. no. 7



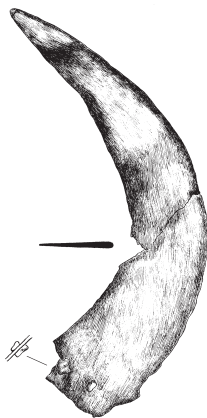
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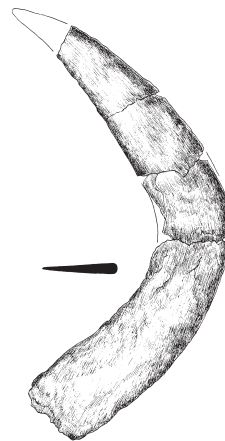
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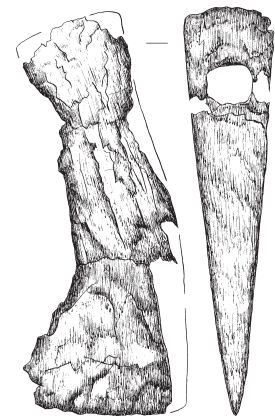
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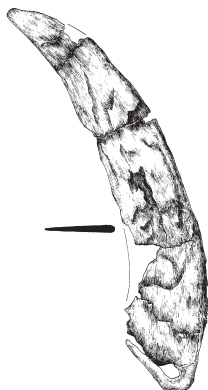
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Cat. no. 13



Cat. no. 10



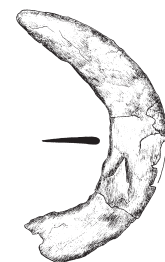
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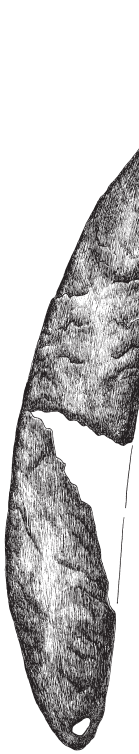
Cat. no. 17



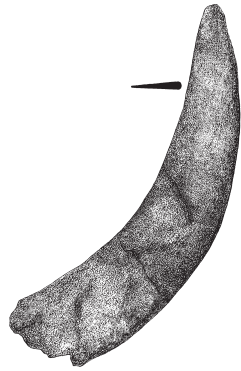
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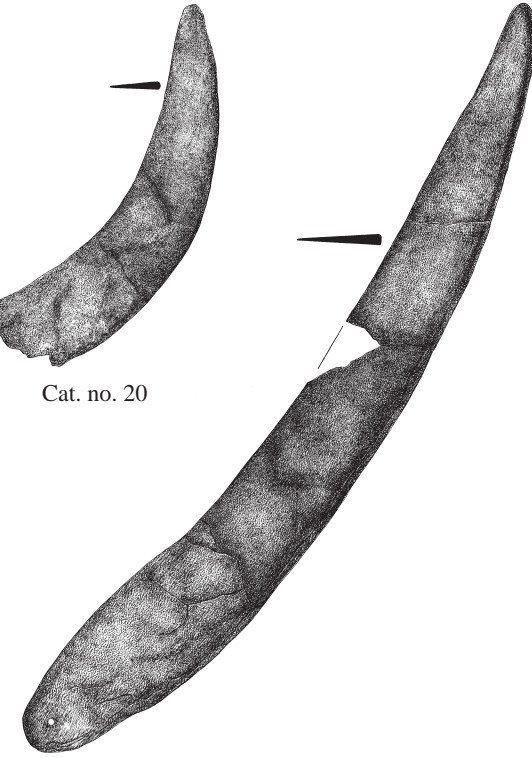
Cat. no. 14



Cat. no. 18



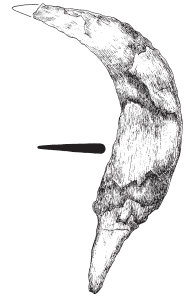
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Cat. no. 19



Cat. no. 21



Cat. no. 22



Cat. no. 23



Cat. no. 24



Cat. no. 25



Cat. no. 26



Cat. no. 27



Cat. no. 28



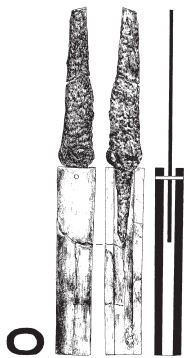
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Cat. no. 30



Cat. no. 31



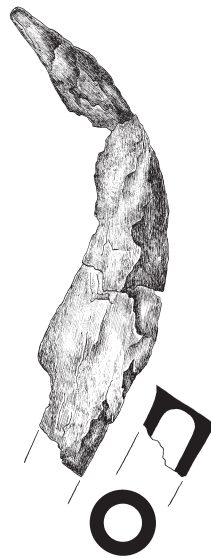
Cat. no. 33



Cat. no. 32



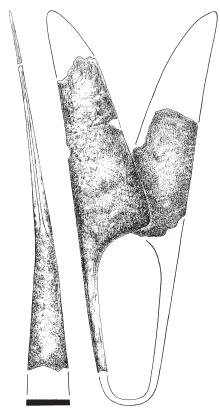
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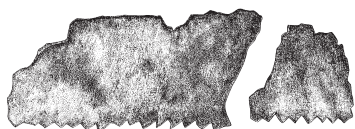
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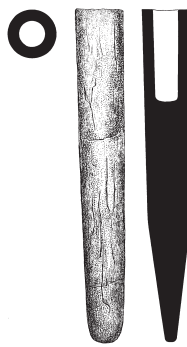
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Cat. no. 37



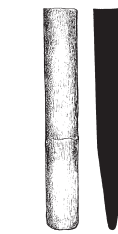
Cat. no. 38



Cat. no. 39



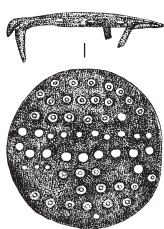
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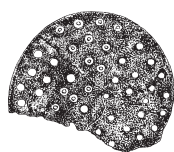
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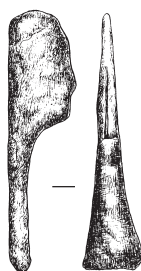
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Cat. no. 43



Cat. no. 44



Cat. no. 45



Cat. no. 47



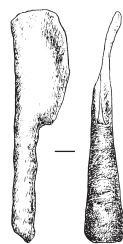
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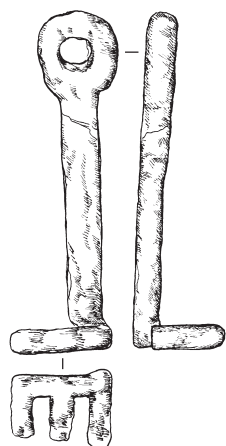
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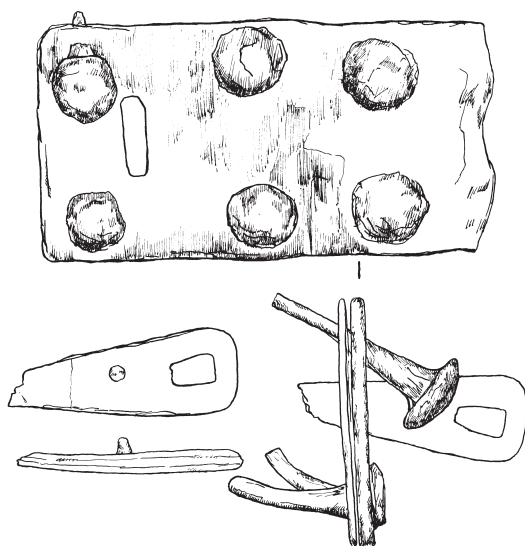
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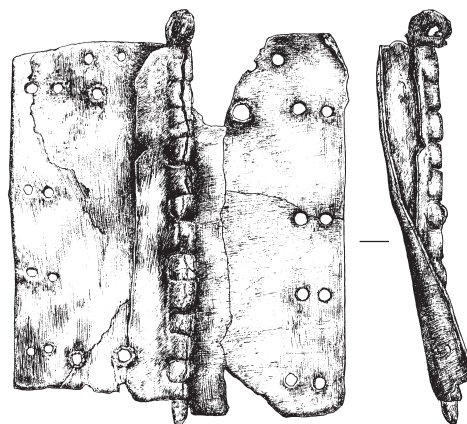
Cat. no. 46



Cat. no. 51



Cat. no. 52



Cat. no. 53



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 5



Cat. no. 6



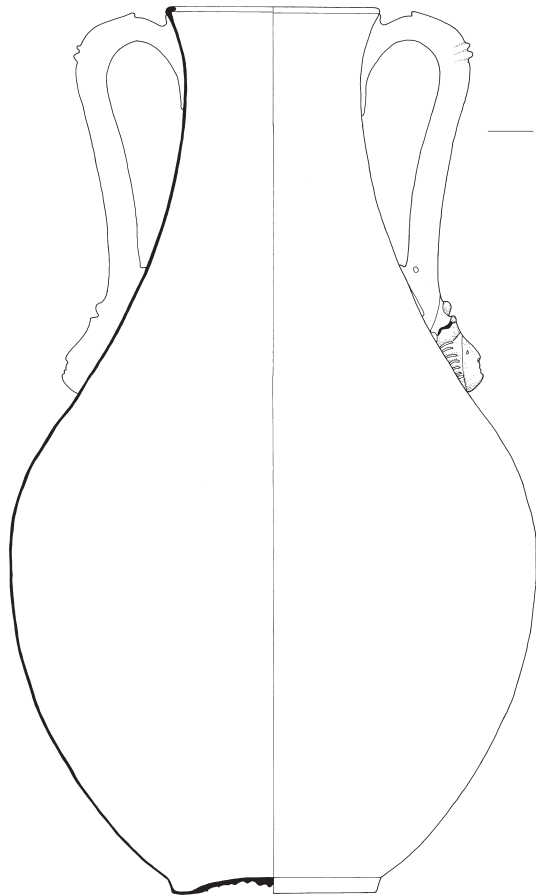
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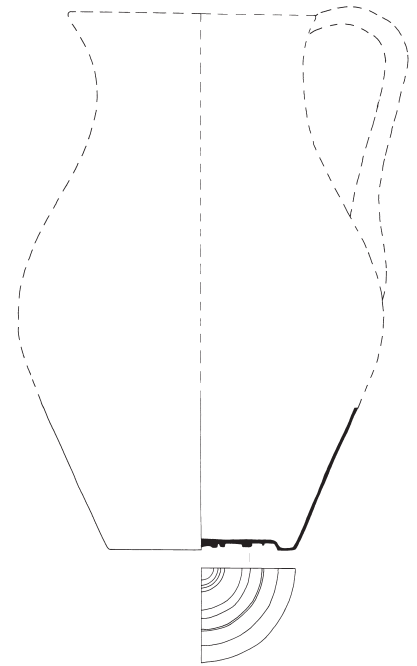
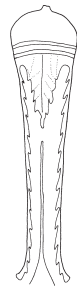
Cat. no. 50



Cat. no. 51



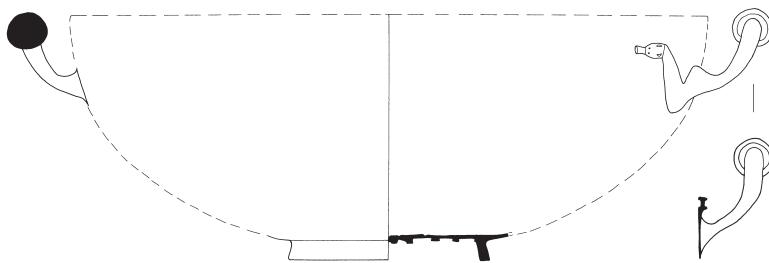
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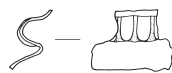
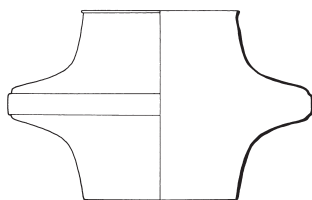
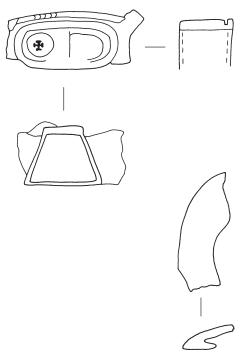
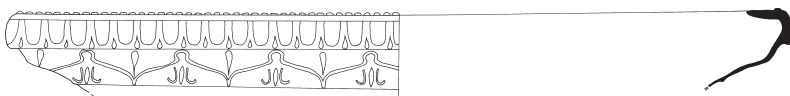
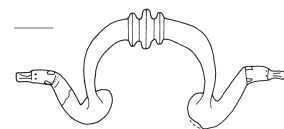
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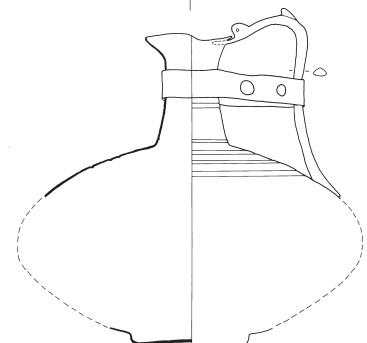
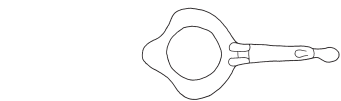
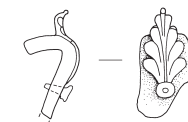
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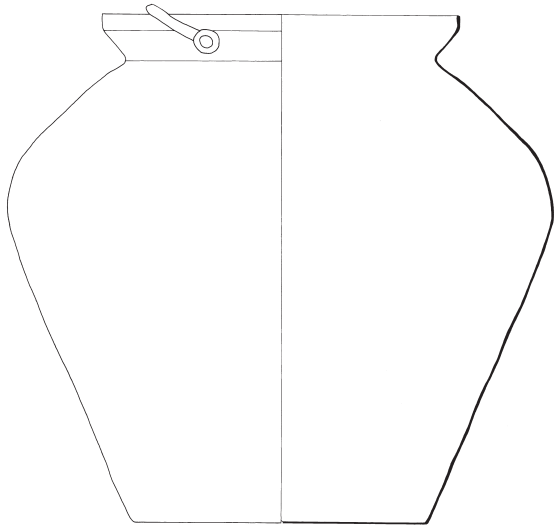
Cat. no. 3



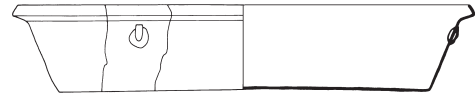
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Cat. no. 6



Cat. no. 7



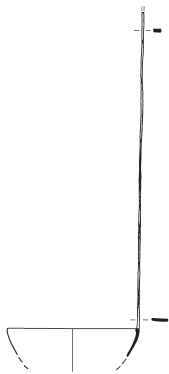
Cat. no. 8



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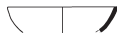
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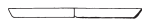
Cat. no. 12



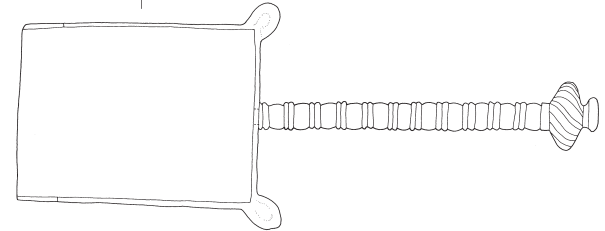
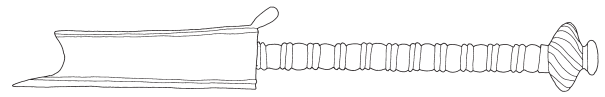
Cat. no. 11



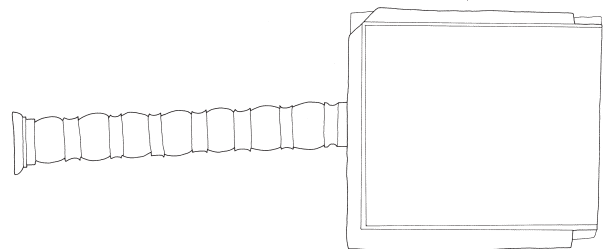
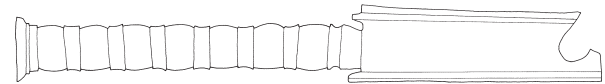
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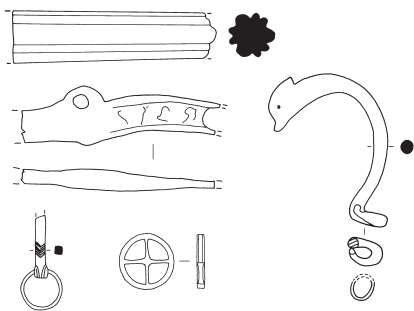
Cat. no. 14



Cat. no. 15



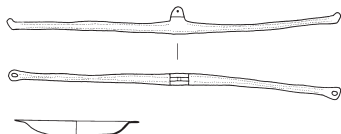
Cat. no. 16



Cat. no. 17



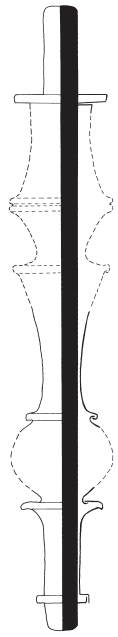
Cat. no. 18



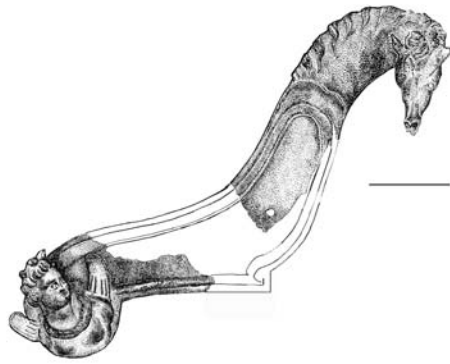
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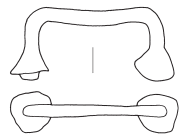
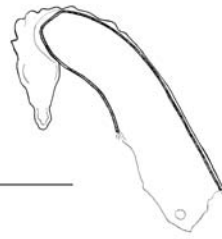
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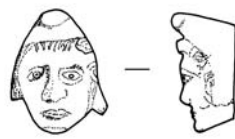
Cat. no. 22



Cat. no. 23



Cat. no. 24



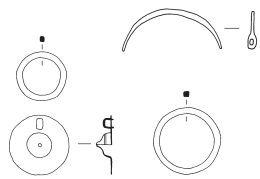
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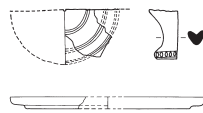
Cat. no. 26



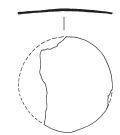
Cat. no. 27



Cat. no. 28



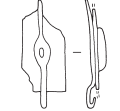
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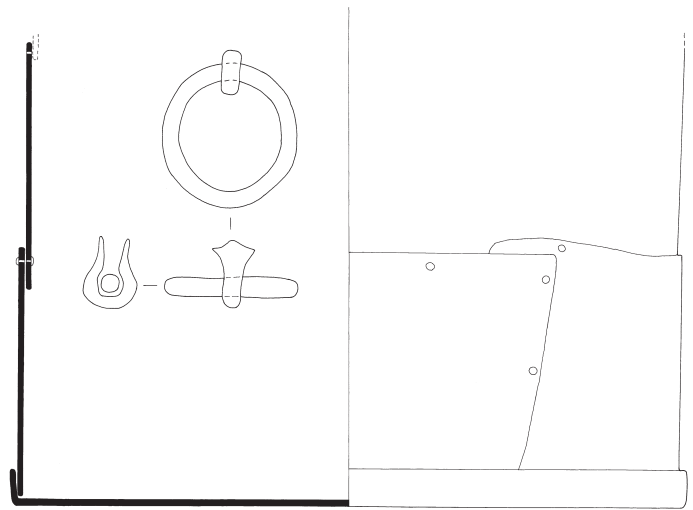
Cat. no. 30



Cat. no. 32



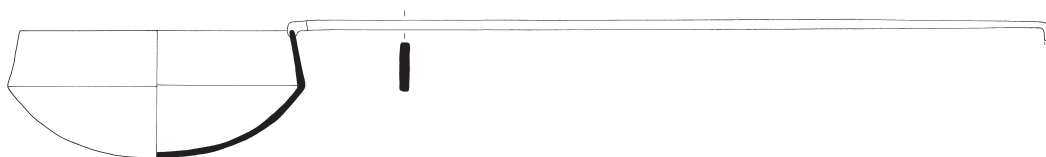
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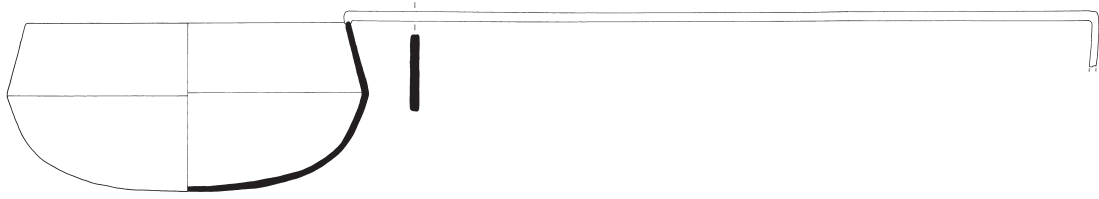
Cat. no. 33



Cat. no. 34



Cat. no. 35



Cat. no. 36



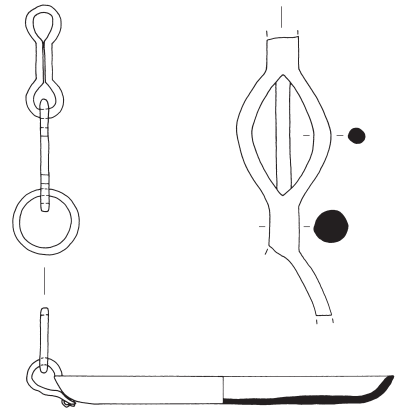
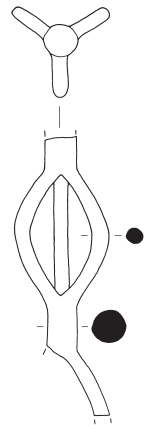
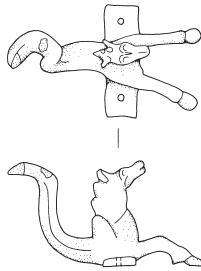
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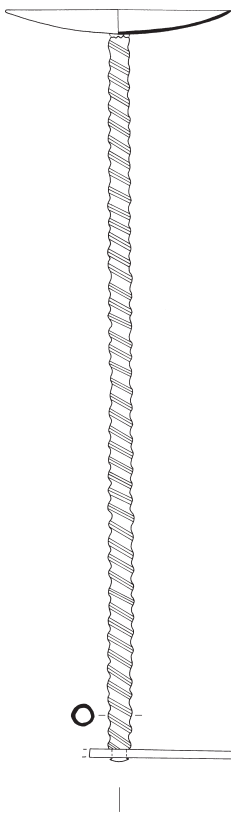
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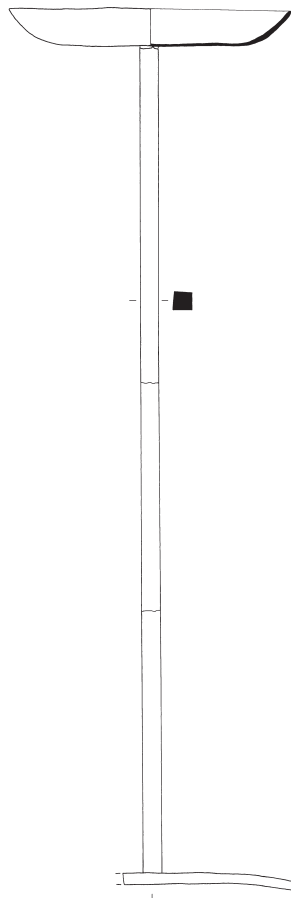
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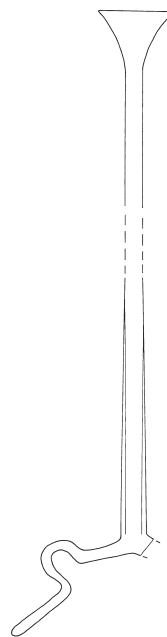
Cat. no. 43



Cat. no. 39



Cat. no. 40



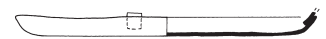
Cat. no. 41



Cat. no. 44



Cat. no. 45



Cat. no. 46



Cat. no. 47



Cat. no. 48



Cat. no. 1 (detail)



Cat. no. 3



Cat. no. 6



Cat. no. 7



Cat. no. 15



Cat. no. 17



Cat. no. 23



Cat. no. 25



Cat. no. 28



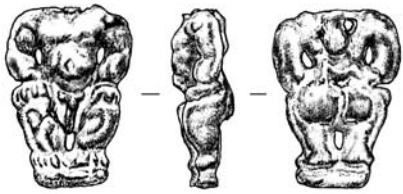
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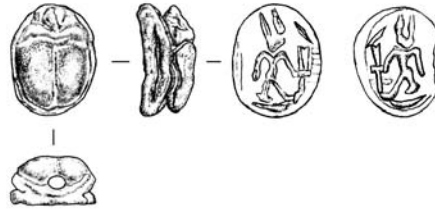
Cat. no. 35



Cat. no. 42



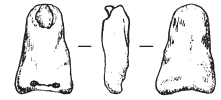
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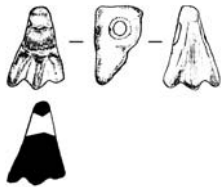
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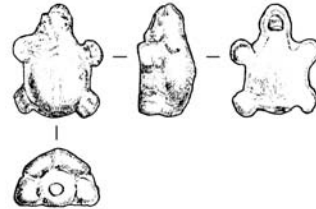
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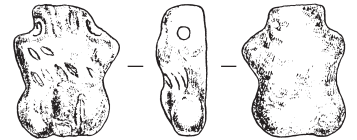
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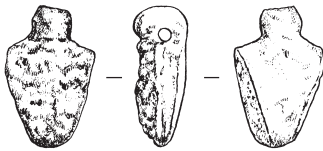
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Cat. no. 6



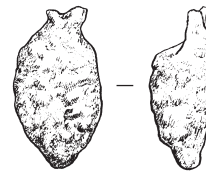
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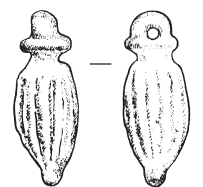
Cat. no. 8



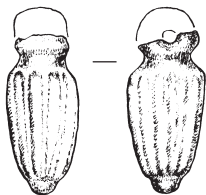
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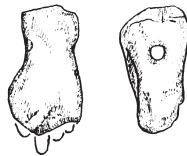
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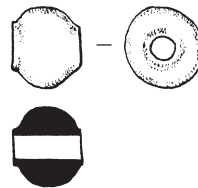
Cat. no. 11



Cat. no. 12



Cat. no. 13



Cat. no. 14



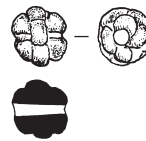
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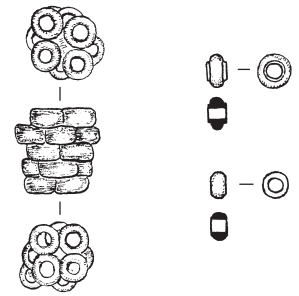
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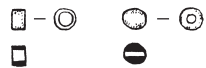
Cat. no. 17



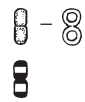
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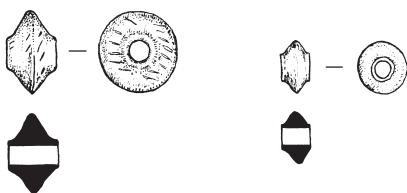
Cat. no. 18



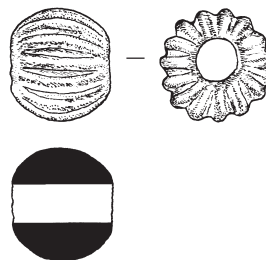
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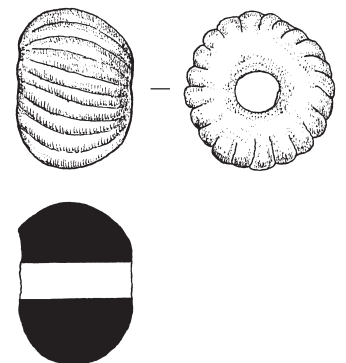
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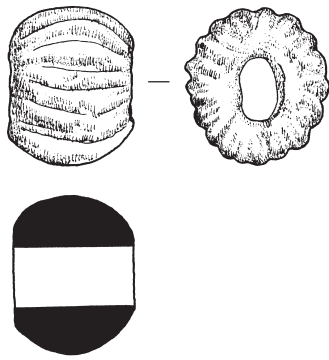
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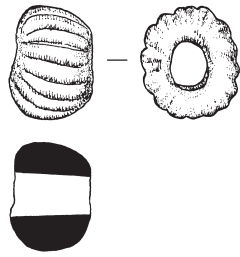
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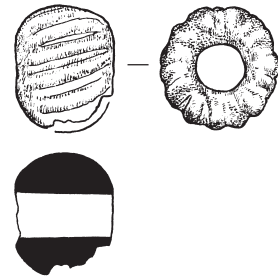
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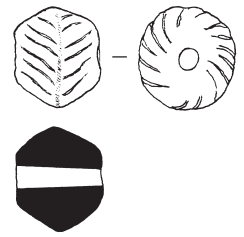
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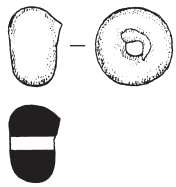
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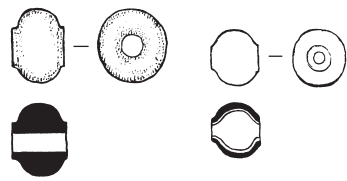
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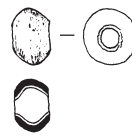
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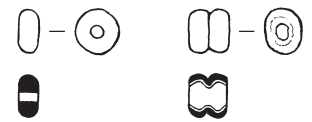
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Cat. no. 31



Cat. no. 32



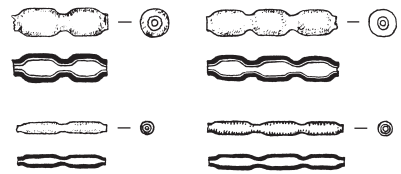
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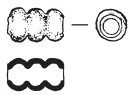
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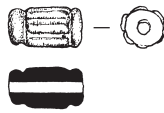
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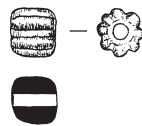
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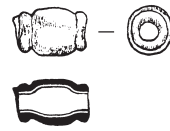
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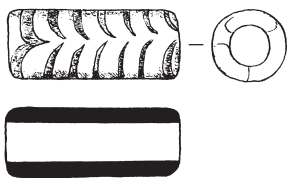
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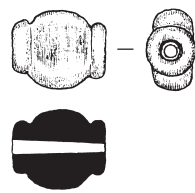
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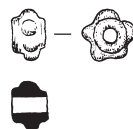
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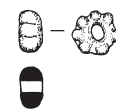
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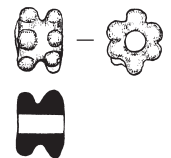
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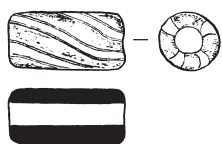
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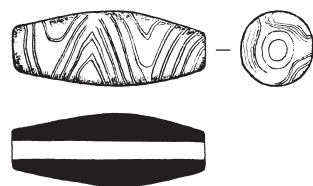
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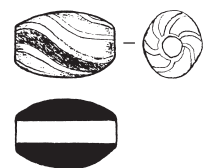
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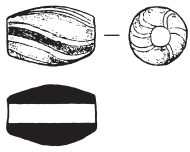
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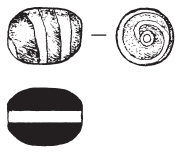
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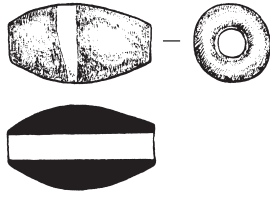
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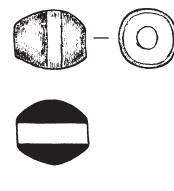
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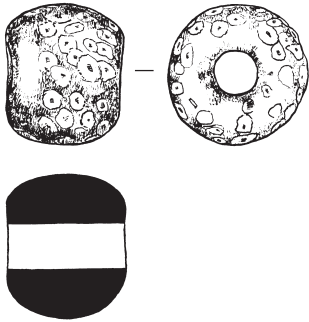
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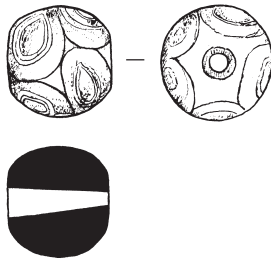
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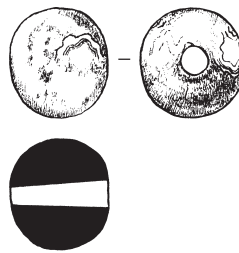
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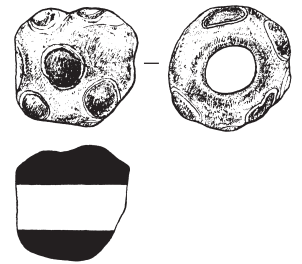
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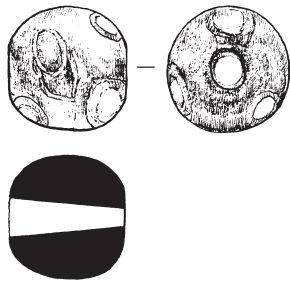
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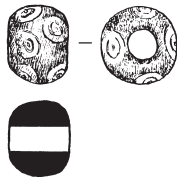
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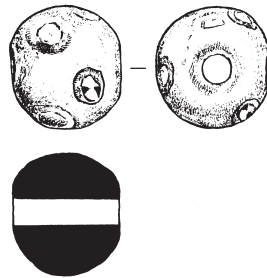
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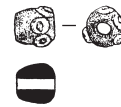
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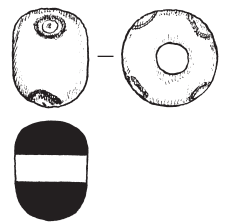
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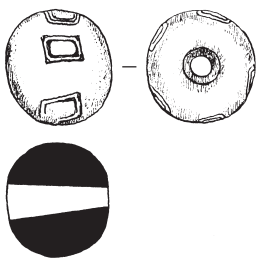
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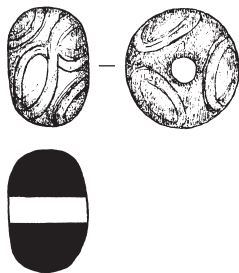
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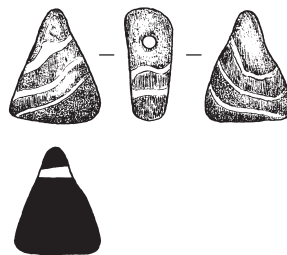
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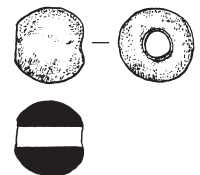
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Cat. no. 65



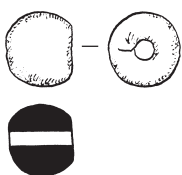
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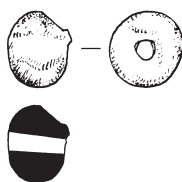
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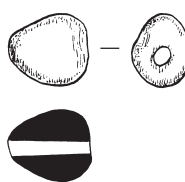
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Cat. no. 68



Cat. no. 69



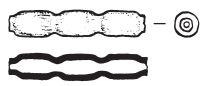
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Cat. no. 72



Cat. no. 73



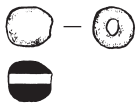
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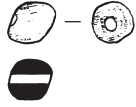
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Cat. no. 76



Cat. no. 77



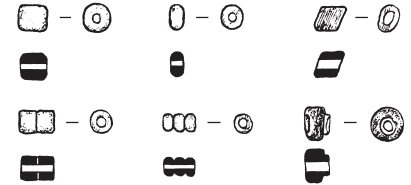
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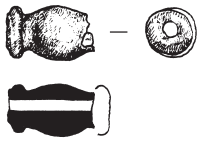
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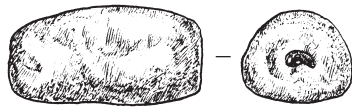
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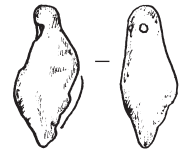
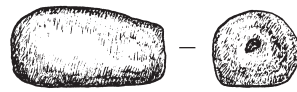
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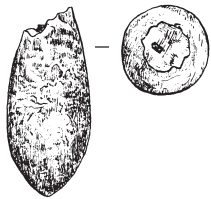
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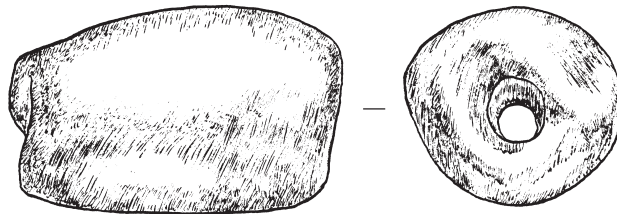
Cat. no. 83



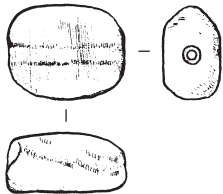
Cat. no. 84



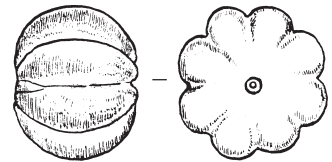
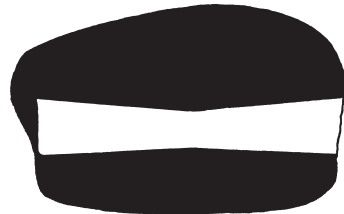
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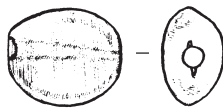
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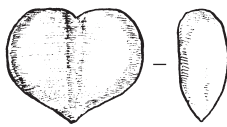
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Cat. no. 87



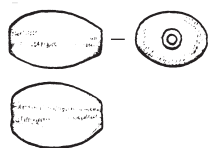
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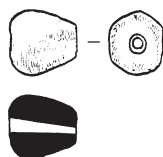
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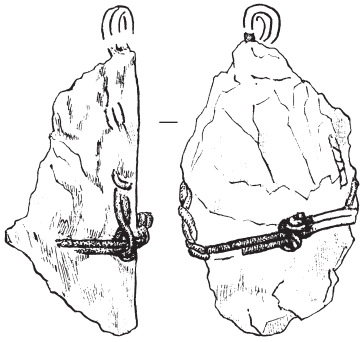
Cat. no. 93



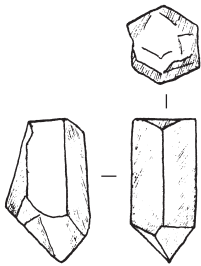
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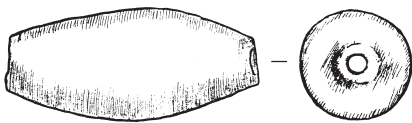
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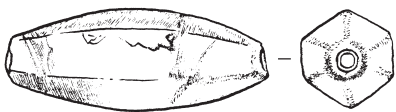
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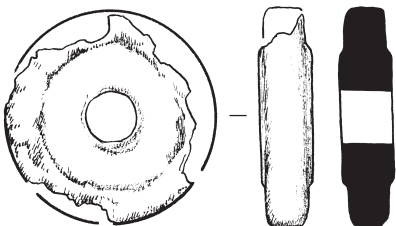
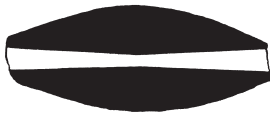
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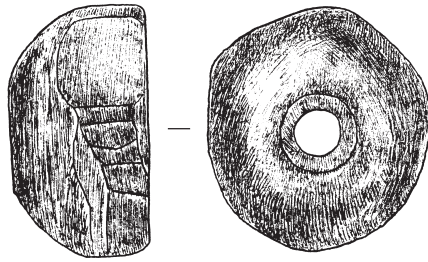
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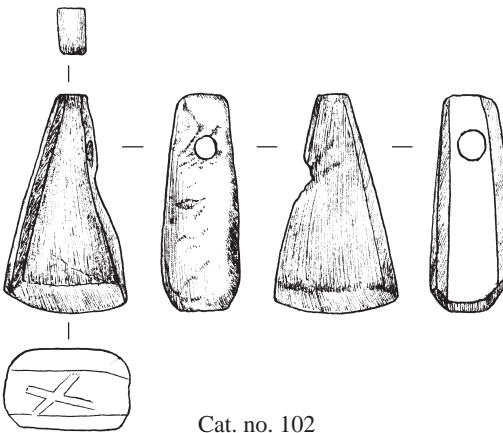
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Cat. no. 104



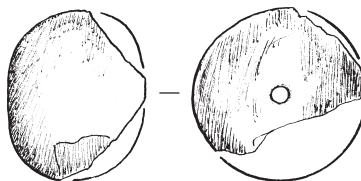
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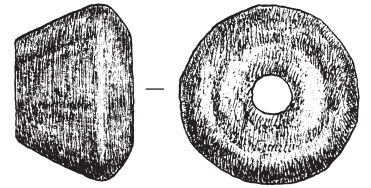
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Cat. no. 103



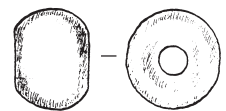
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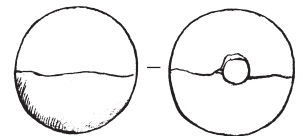
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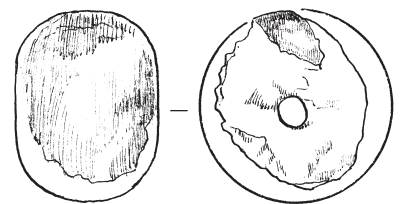
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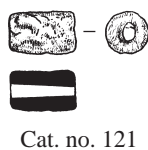
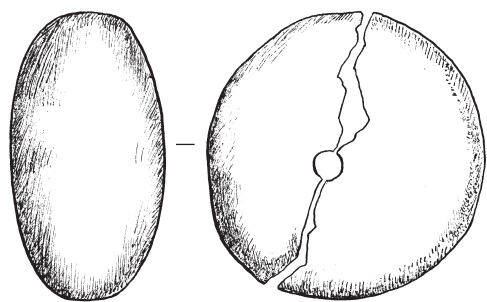
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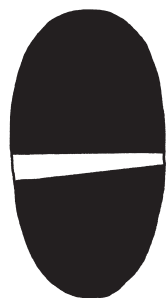
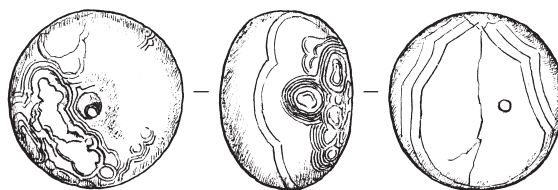
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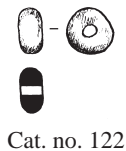
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Cat. no. 121



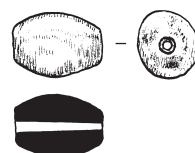
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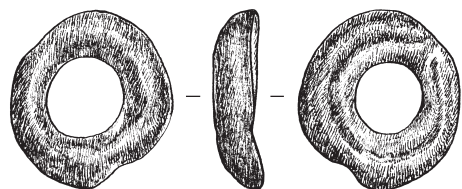
Cat. no. 122



Cat. no. 108



Cat. no. 123



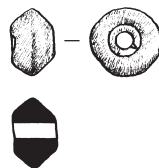
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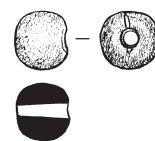
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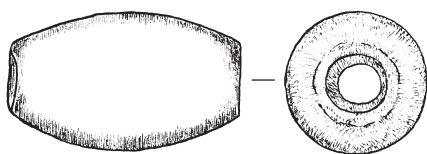
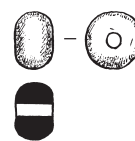
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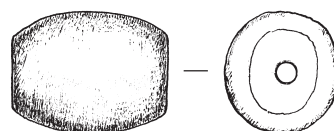
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Cat. no. 120



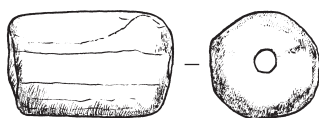
Cat. no. 110



Cat. no. 111



Cat. no. 112



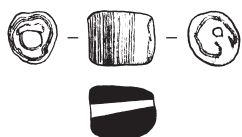
Cat. no. 113



Cat. no. 114



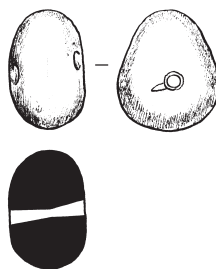
Cat. no. 115



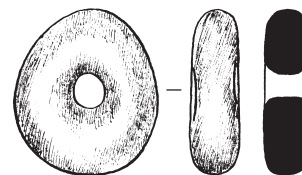
Cat. no. 124



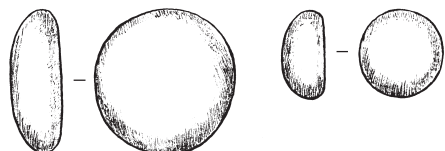
Cat. no. 125



Cat. no. 126



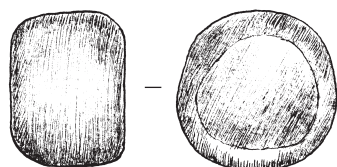
Cat. no. 127



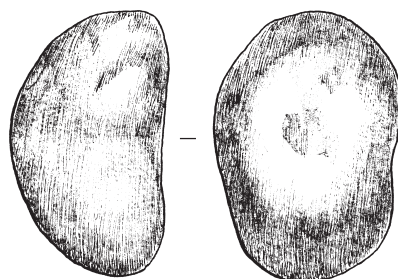
Cat. no. 128



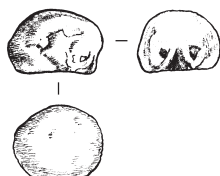
Cat. no. 129



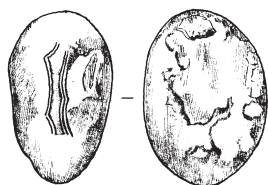
Cat. no. 131



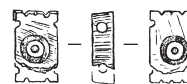
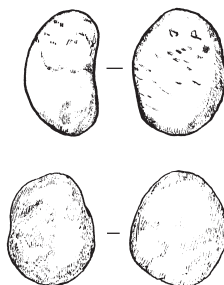
Cat. no. 130



Cat. no. 132



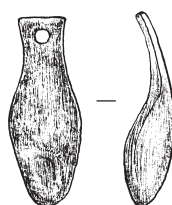
Cat. no. 133



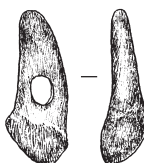
Cat. no. 134



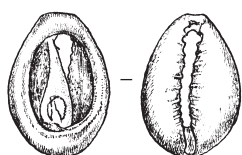
Cat. no. 137



Cat. no. 138



Cat. no. 140



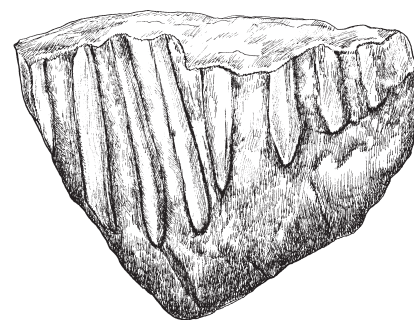
Cat. no. 141



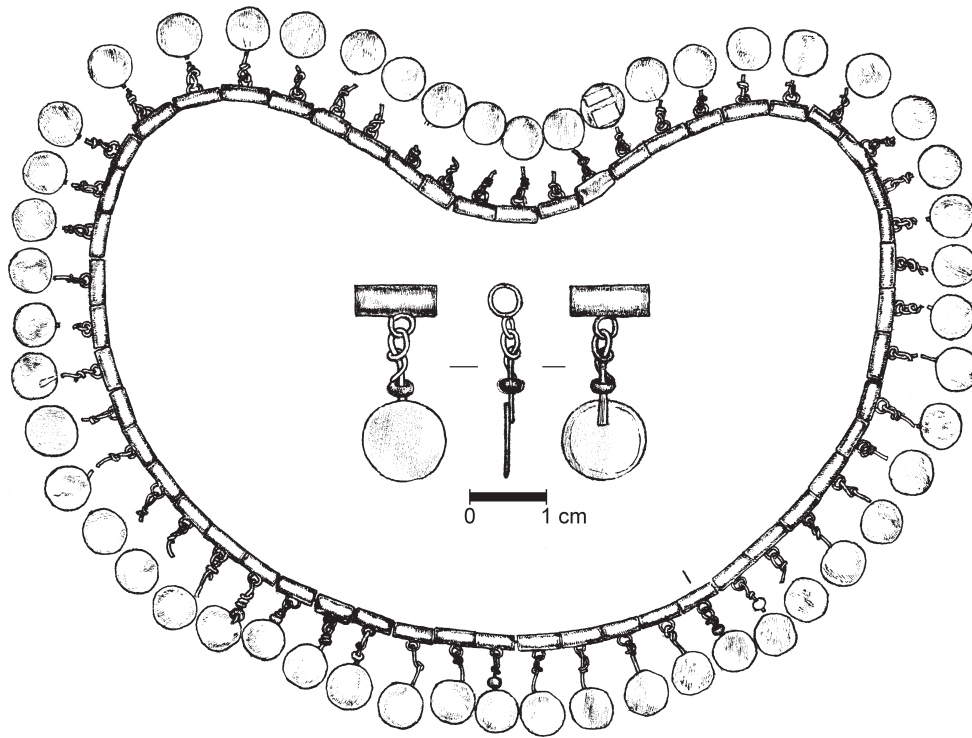
Cat. no. 142



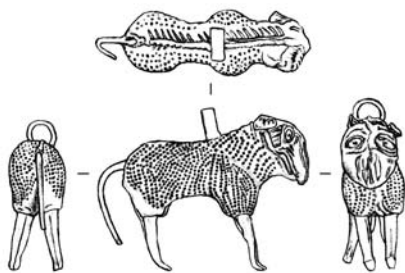
Cat. no. 143



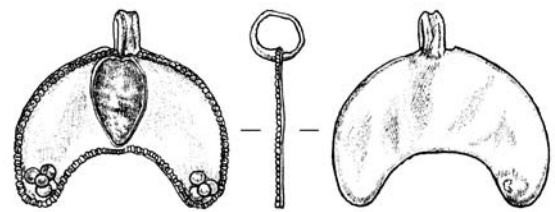
Cat. no. 144



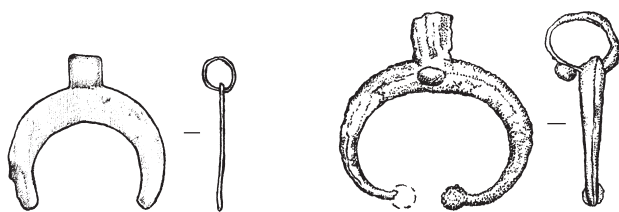
Cat. no. 145



Cat. no. 146

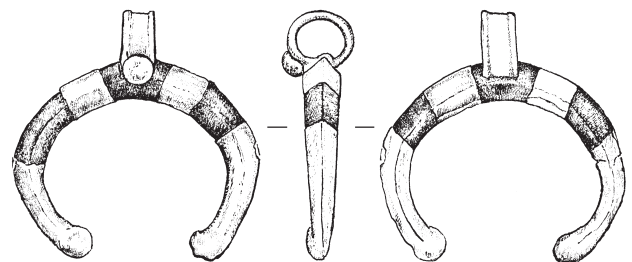


Cat. no. 147

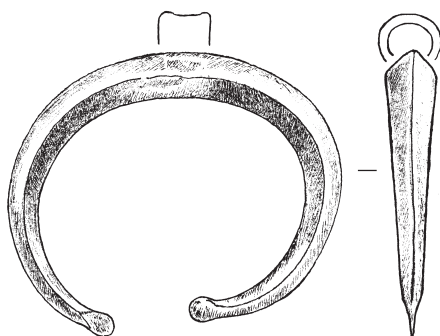


Cat. no. 148

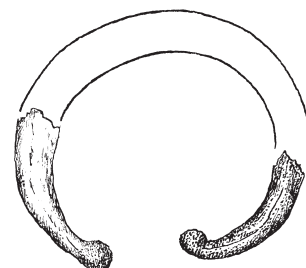
Cat. no. 149



Cat. no. 150



Cat. no. 151



Cat. no. 152



Cat. no. 153



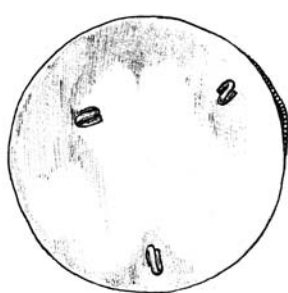
Cat. no. 154



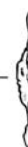
Cat. no. 156



Cat. no. 157



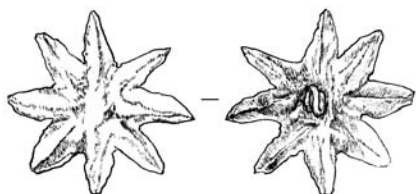
Cat. no. 155



Cat. no. 159



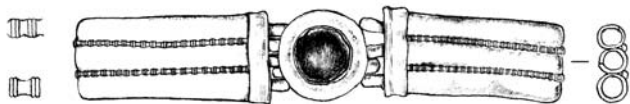
Cat. no. 160



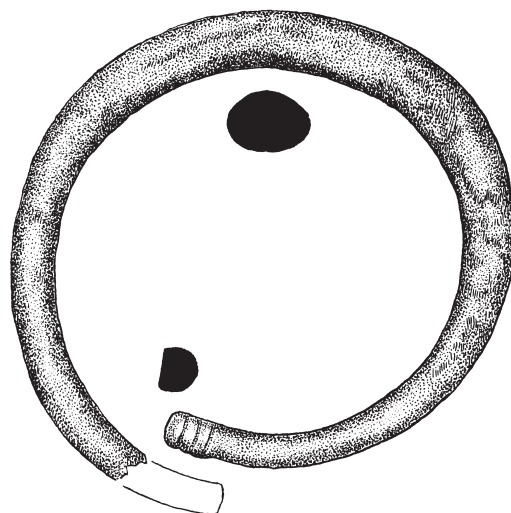
Cat. no. 158



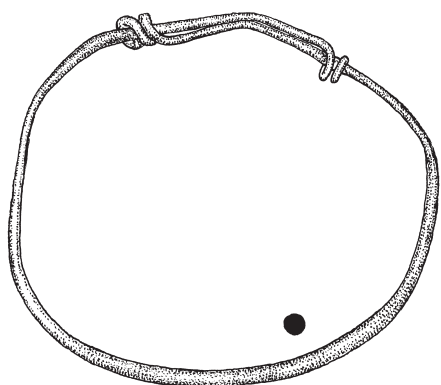
Cat. no. 162



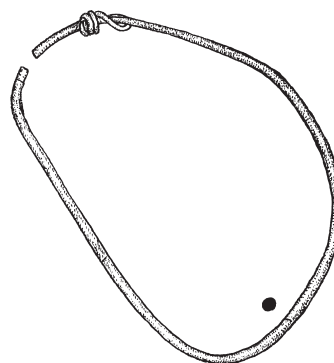
Cat. no. 161



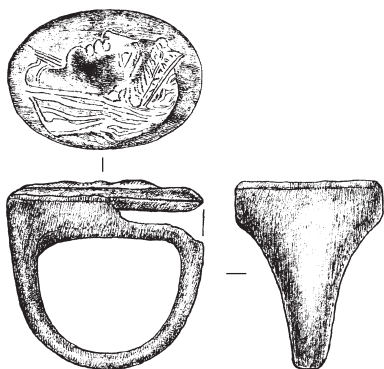
Cat. no. 163



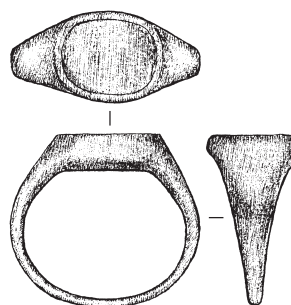
Cat. no. 164



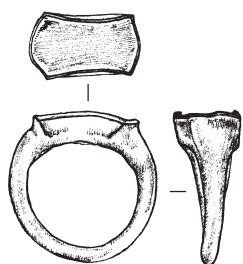
Cat. no. 165



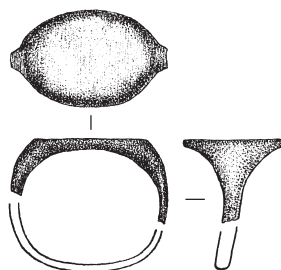
Cat. no. 166



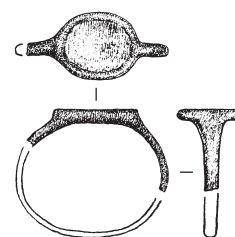
Cat. no. 169



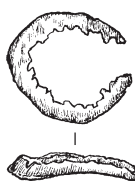
Cat. no. 167



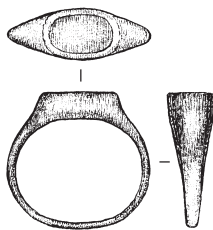
Cat. no. 168



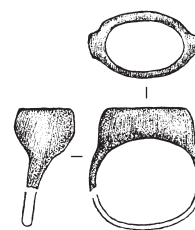
Cat. no. 170



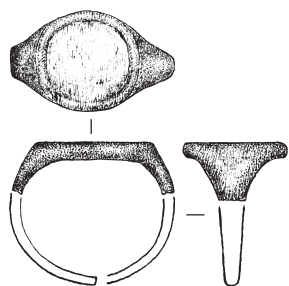
Cat. no. 171



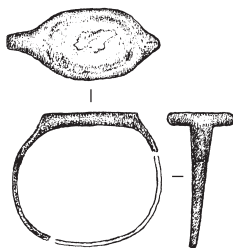
Cat. no. 172



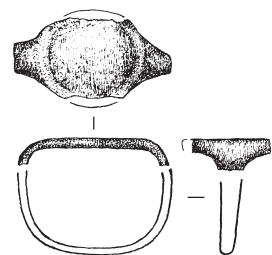
Cat. no. 173



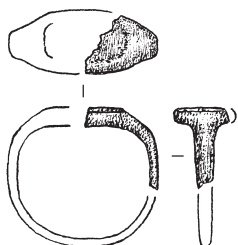
Cat. no. 174



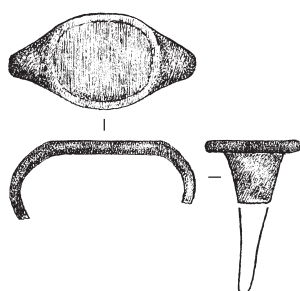
Cat. no. 175



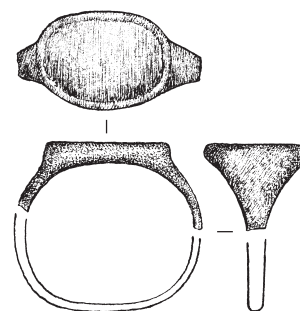
Cat. no. 176



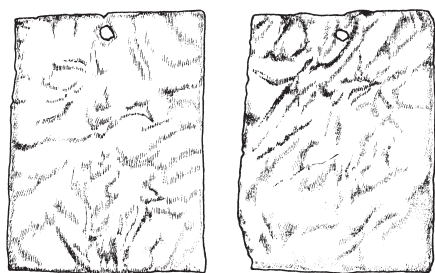
Cat. no. 177



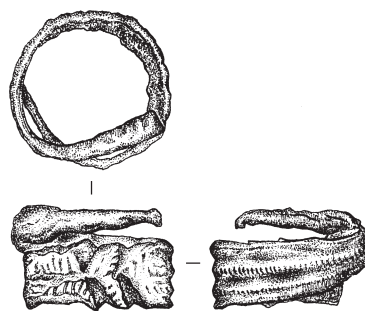
Cat. no. 178



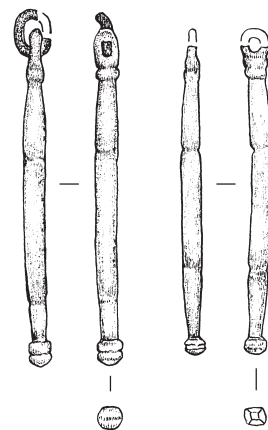
Cat. no. 179



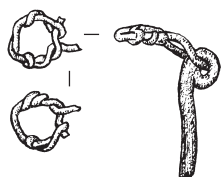
Cat. no. 180



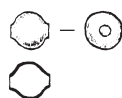
Cat. no. 181



Cat. no. 182



Cat. no. 183



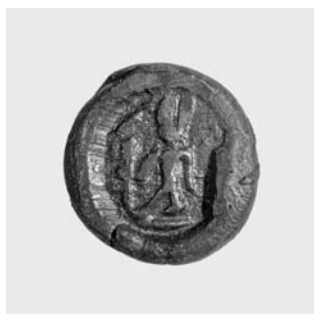
Cat. no. 185



Cat. no. 184



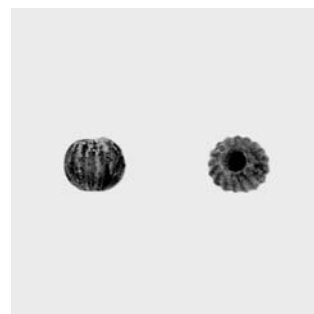
Cat. no. 2



Cat. no. 2 (impression)



Cat. no. 7



Cat. no. 23



Cat. no. 145



Cat. nos. 55, 58



Cat. nos. 61, 63



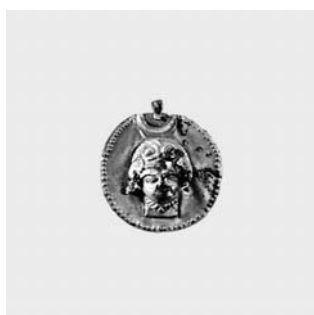
Cat. no. 147



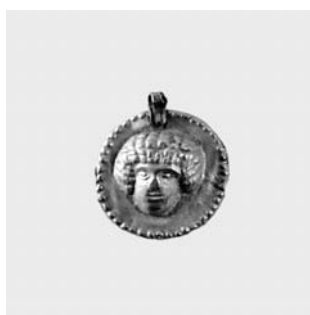
Cat. nos. 148, 149



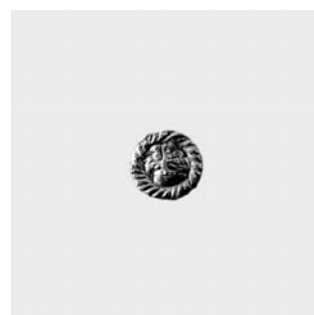
Cat. no. 150



Cat. no. 153



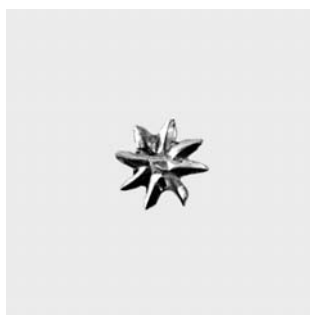
Cat. no. 154



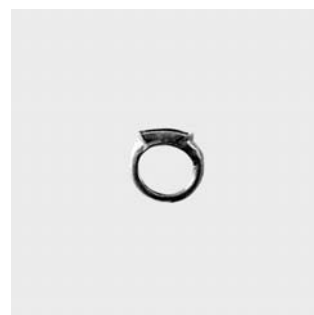
Cat. no. 155



Cat. no. 161



Cat. no. 158



Cat. no. 167



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 2 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 2



Cat. no. 3 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 4 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 5 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 6 (scale 2:1)



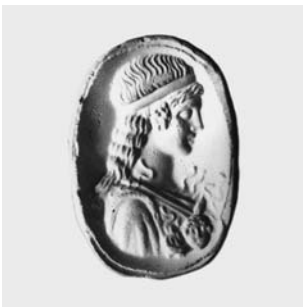
Cat. no. 7 (scale 2:1)



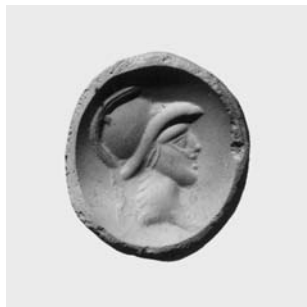
Cat. no. 8



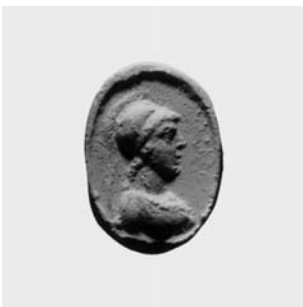
Cat. no. 9



Cat. no. 10 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 11 (scale 2:1)



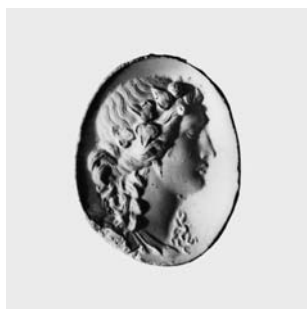
Cat. no. 12 (scale 2:1)



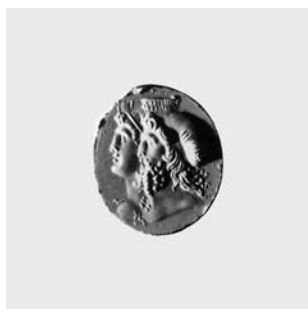
Cat. no. 13



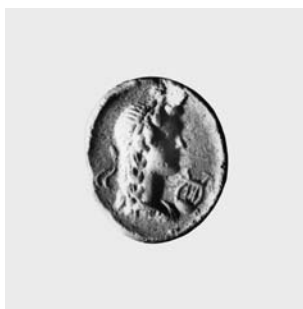
Cat. no. 14



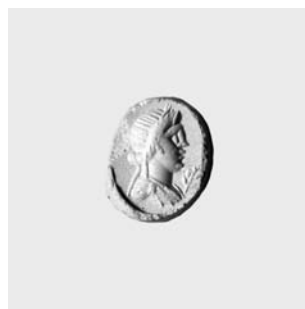
Cat. no. 15



Cat. no. 16



Cat. no. 17 (scale 2:1)



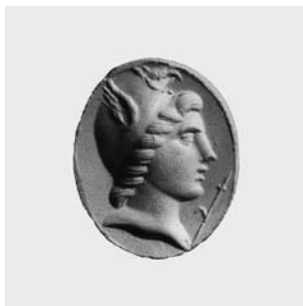
Cat. no. 18 (scale 2:1)



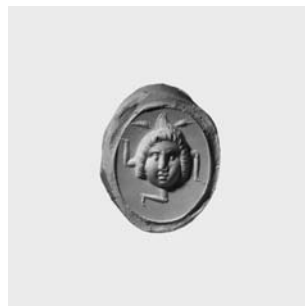
Cat. no. 19 (scale 2:1)



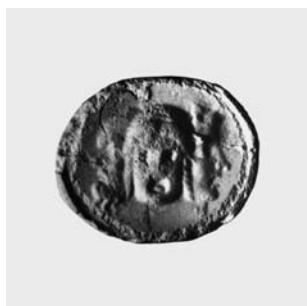
Cat. no. 20 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 21 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 22



Cat. no. 23 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 24 (scale 2:1)



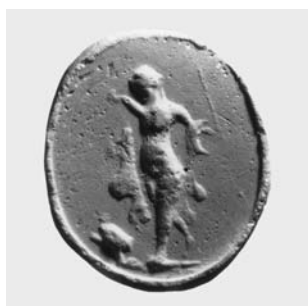
Cat. no. 25 (scale 2:1)



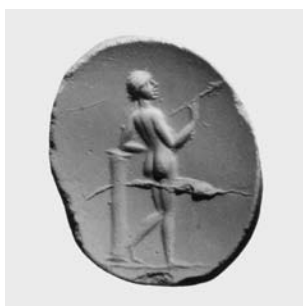
Cat. no. 26



Cat. no. 27 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 28 (scale 2:1)



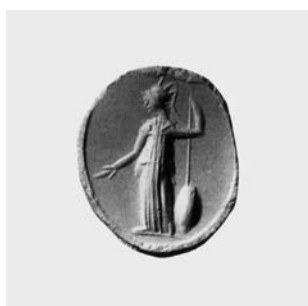
Cat. no. 29 (scale 2:1)



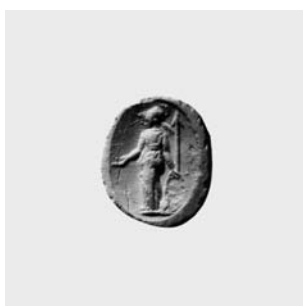
Cat. no. 30 (scale 1,5:1)



Cat. no. 30 (no scale)



Cat. no. 31 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 32 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 33 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 34 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 35 (scale 2:1)



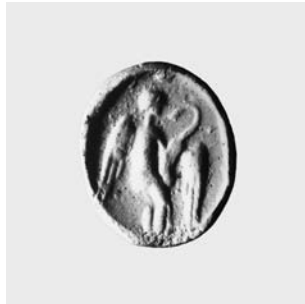
Cat. no. 36 (scale 2:1)



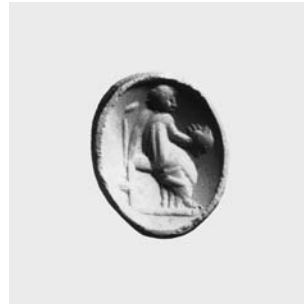
Cat. no. 37 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 38 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 39 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 40 (scale 2:1)



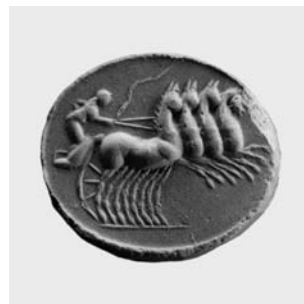
Cat. no. 41



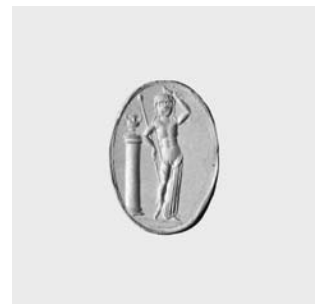
Cat. no. 42 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 42



Cat. no. 43 (scale 2:1)



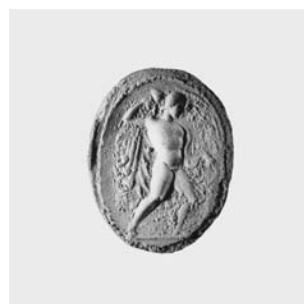
Cat. no. 44



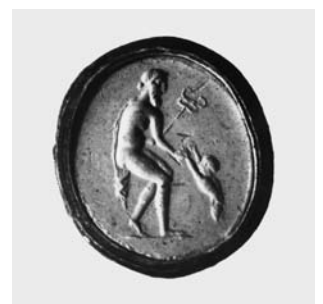
Cat. no. 45



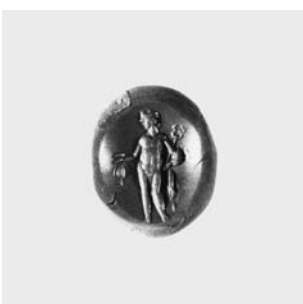
Cat. no. 45



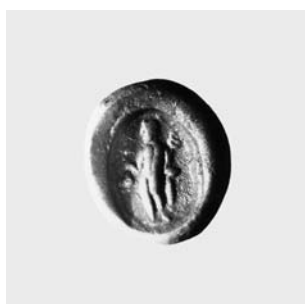
Cat. no. 45



Cat. no. 46 (scale 2:1)



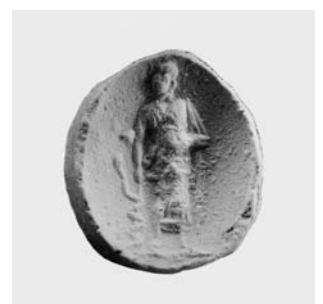
Cat. no. 47



Cat. no. 48 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 49 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 50 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 51 (scale 2:1)



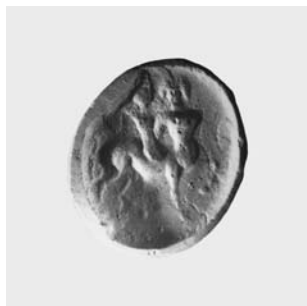
Cat. no. 52 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 53 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 54 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 55 (scale 2:1)



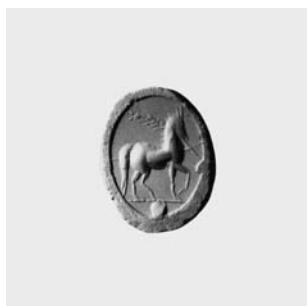
Cat. no. 56



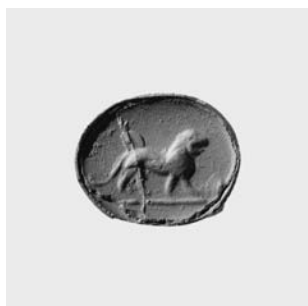
Cat. no. 56



Cat. no. 57 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 58 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 59



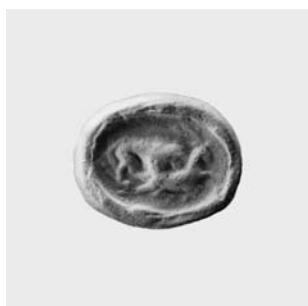
Cat. no. 59



Cat. no. 60 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 60



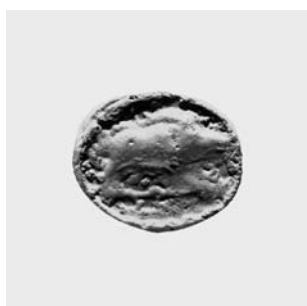
Cat. no. 61 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 62 (scale 2:1)



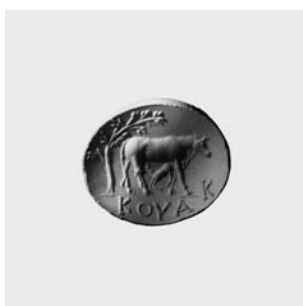
Cat. no. 63 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 64 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 65 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 66



Cat. no. 67 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 68 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 68



Cat. no. 69



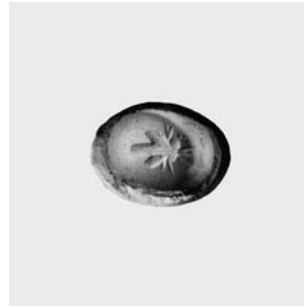
Cat. no. 70 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 70



Cat. no. 71 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 72 (scale 2:1)



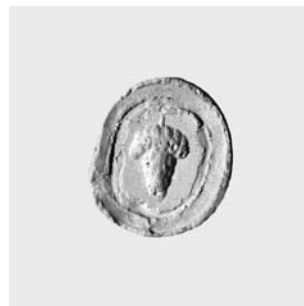
Cat. no. 74 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 75 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 76 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 77 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 77



Cat. no. 78 (scale 2:1)



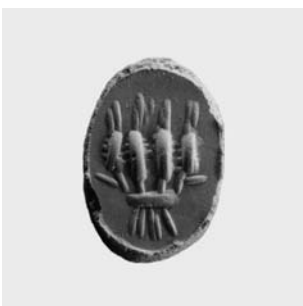
Cat. no. 79



Cat. no. 79



Cat. no. 80 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 81 (scale 2:1)



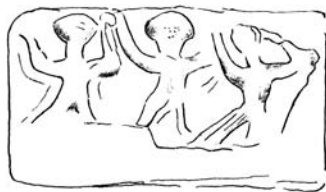
Cat. no. 82 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 82



Cat. no. 83 (scale 2:1)



Cat. no. 1



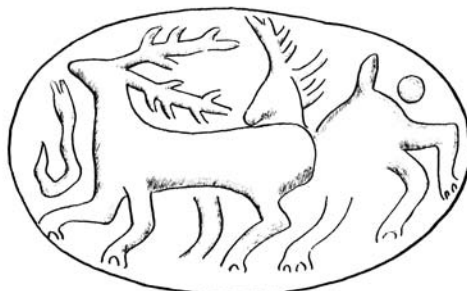
Cat. no. 2



Cat. no. 6



Cat. no. 8



Cat. no. 9



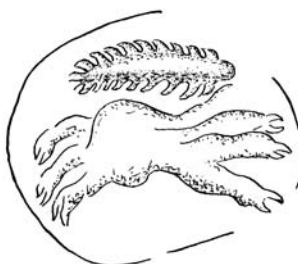
Cat. no. 12



Cat. no. 13



Cat. no. 14



Cat. no. 15



Cat. no. 19



Cat. no. 22 a-c



Cat. no. 23



Cat. no. 20



Cat. no. 21



Cat. no. 32



Cat. no. 36



Cat. no. 38



Cat. no. 26



Cat. no. 30



Cat. no. 35



Cat. no. 37



Cat. no. 39



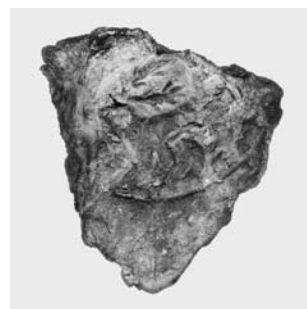
Cat. no. 1



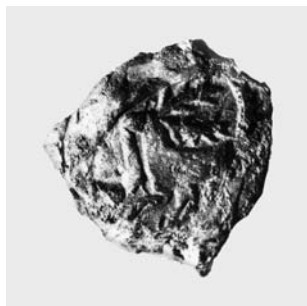
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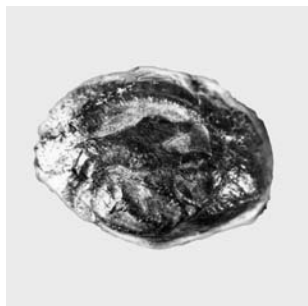
Cat. no. 8



Cat. no. 9



Cat. no. 10



Cat. no. 12



Cat. no. 13



Cat. no. 14



Cat. no. 15



Cat. no. 19



Cat. no. 20



Cat. no. 22



Cat. no. 25



Cat. no. 26



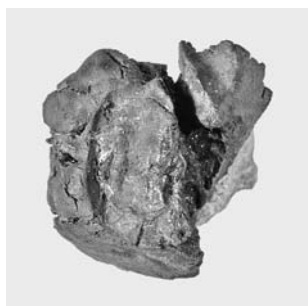
Cat. no. 29



Cat. no. 30



Cat. no. 32



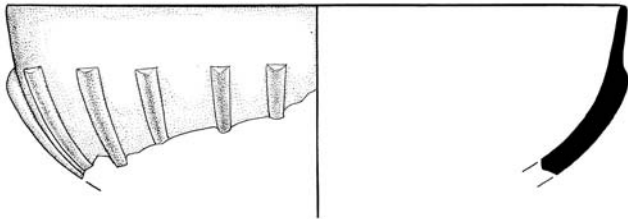
Cat. no. 33



Cat. no. 38



Cat. no. 39



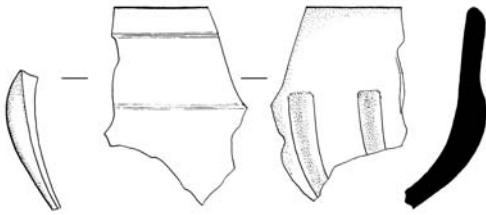
Cat. no. 3



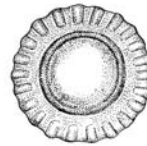
Cat. no. 12



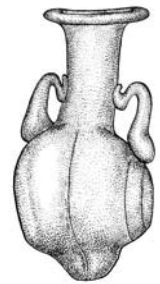
Cat. no. 14



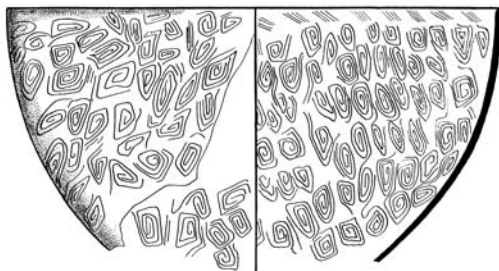
Cat. no. 4



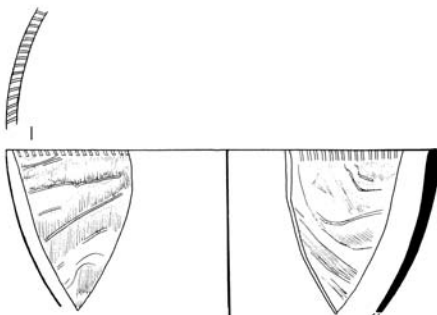
Cat. no. 15



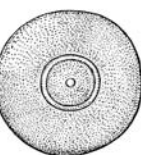
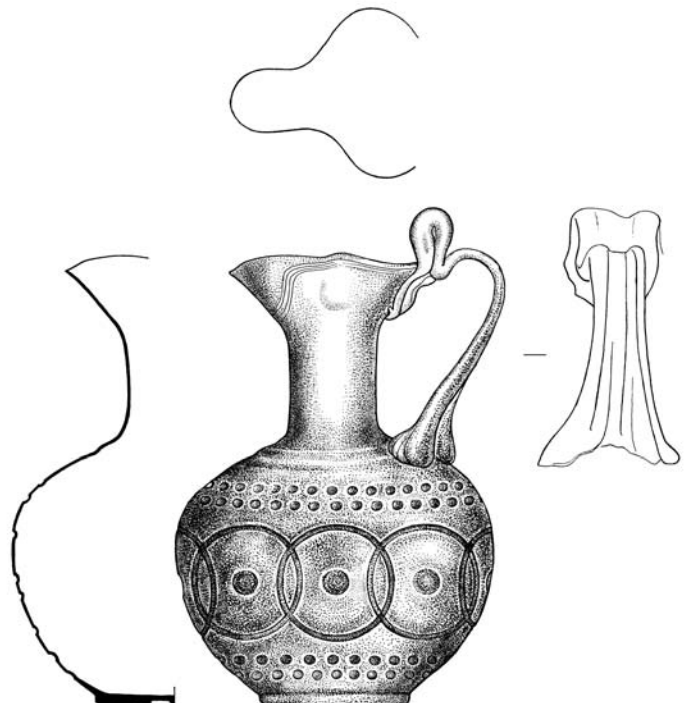
Cat. no. 22



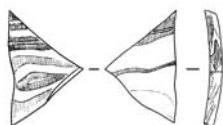
Cat. no. 6



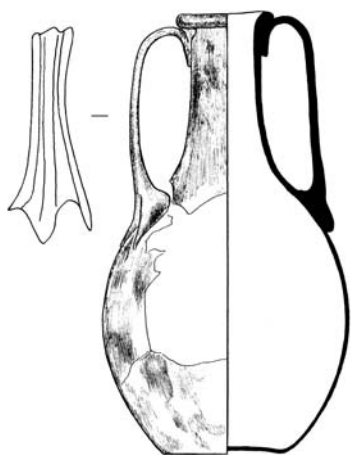
Cat. no. 7



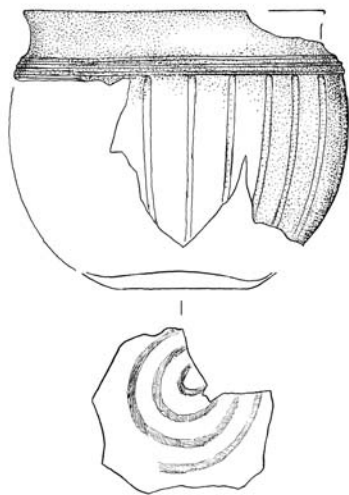
Cat. no. 29



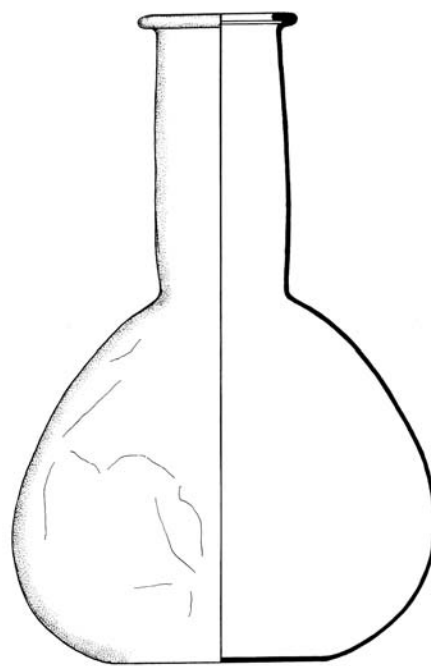
Cat. no. 8



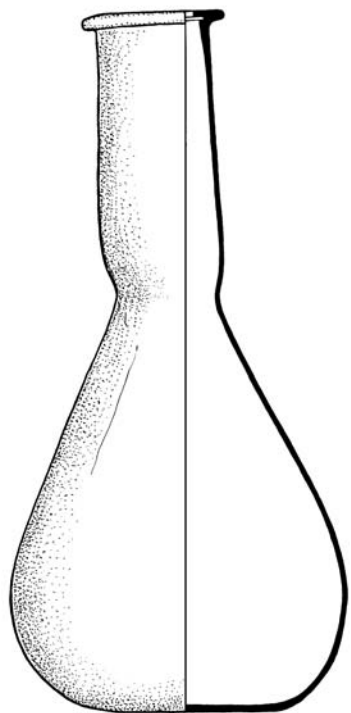
Cat. no. 33



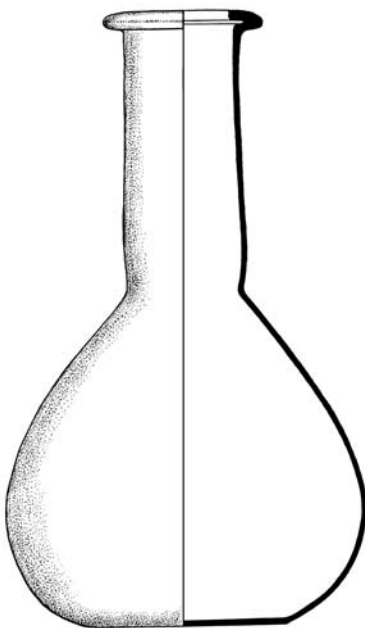
Cat. no. 34



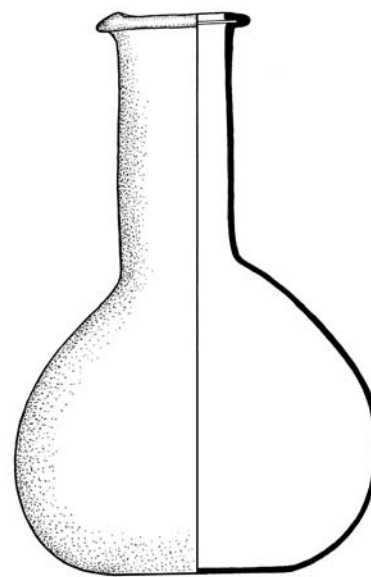
Cat. no. 51



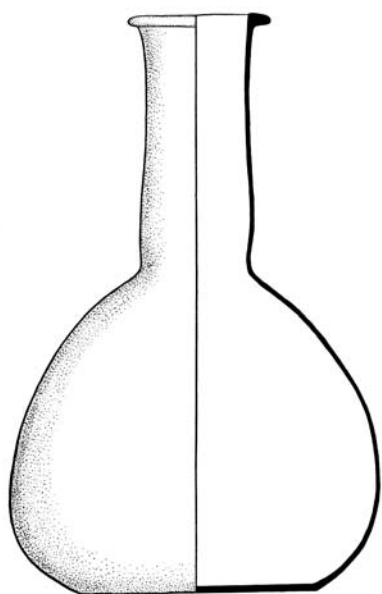
Cat. no. 50



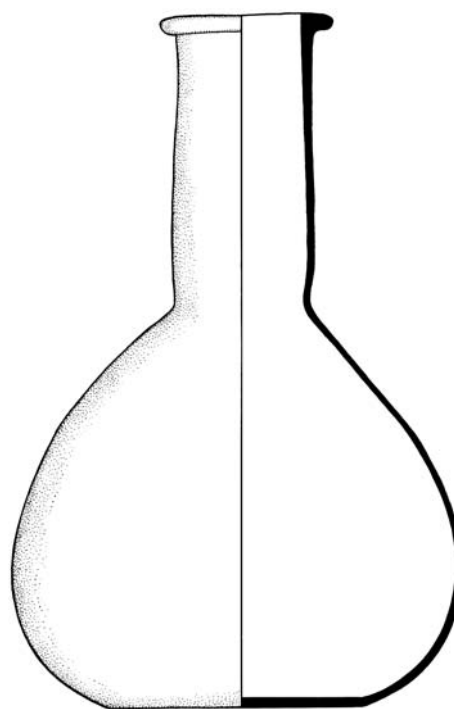
Cat. no. 52



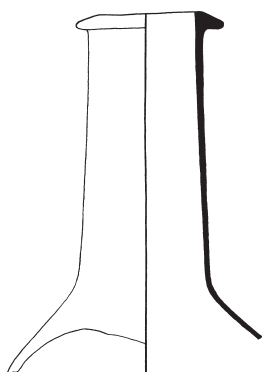
Cat. no. 53



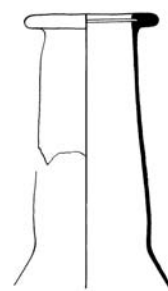
Cat. no. 54



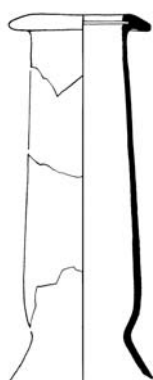
Cat. no. 55



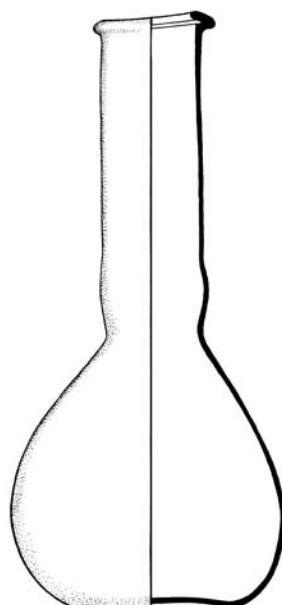
Cat. no. 61



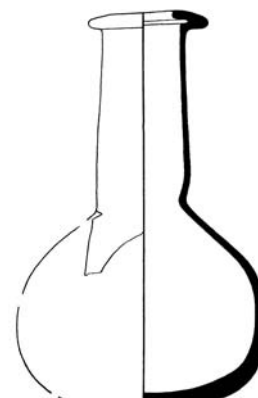
Cat. no. 62



Cat. no. 63



Cat. no. 60



Cat. no. 64



Cat. no. 1



Cat. no. 2



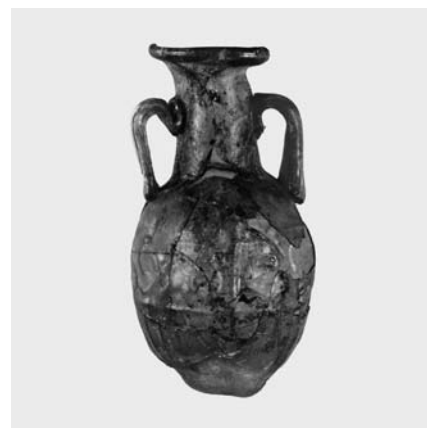
Cat. no. 5



Cat. no. 9



Cat. no. 10



Cat. no. 11



Cat. no. 13



Cat. no. 16



Cat. no. 17



Cat. no. 18



Cat. no. 19



Cat. no. 20



Cat. no. 21



Cat. no. 23



Cat. no. 24



Cat. no. 25



Cat. no. 26



Cat. no. 27



Cat. no. 28



Cat. no. 30



Cat. no. 31



Cat. no. 32



Cat. no. 33



Cat. no. 35



Cat. no. 36



Cat. no. 37



Cat. no. 38



Cat. no. 39



Cat. no. 40



Cat. no. 41



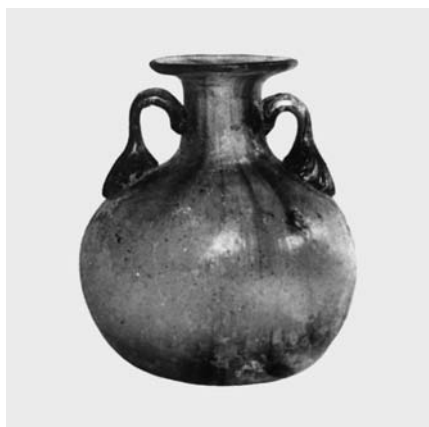
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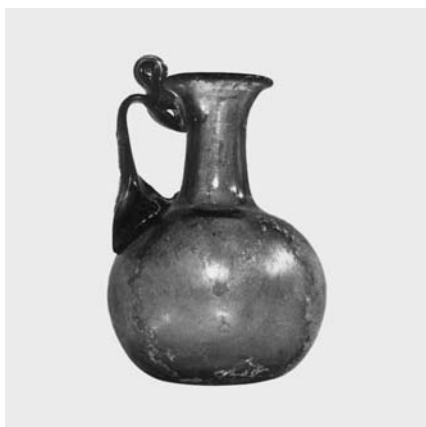
Cat. no. 43



Cat. no. 44



Cat. no. 45



Cat. no. 46



Cat. no. 47



Cat. no. 48



Cat. no. 49



Cat. no. 50



Cat. no. 51



Cat. no. 52



Cat. no. 53



Cat. no. 56



Cat. no. 57



Cat. no. 58



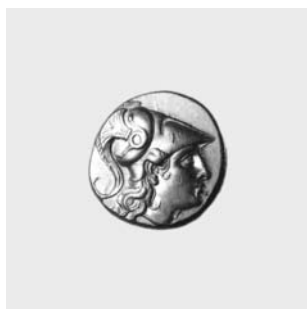
Cat. no. 59



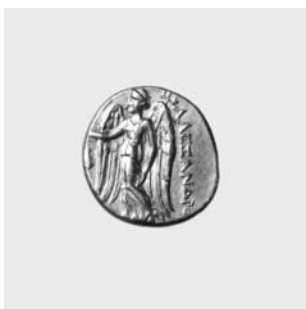
Cat. no. 60



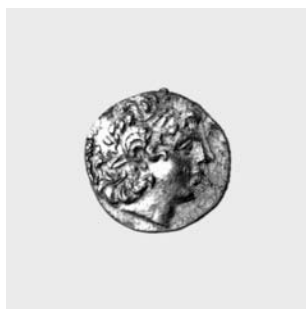
Cat. no. 65



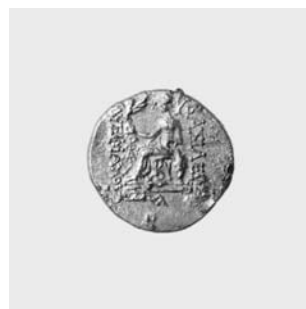
No. 1 (avers)



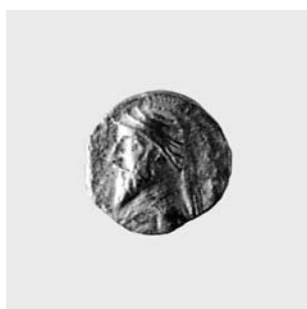
No. 1 (revers)



No. 2 (avers)



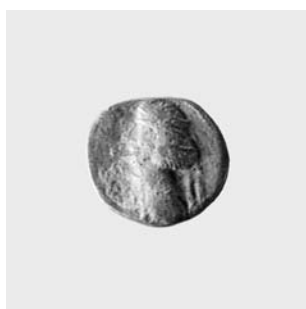
No. 2 (revers)



No. 3 (avers)



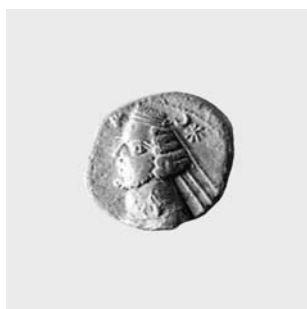
No. 3 (revers)



No. 4 (avers)



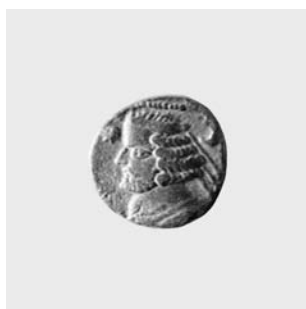
No. 4 (revers)



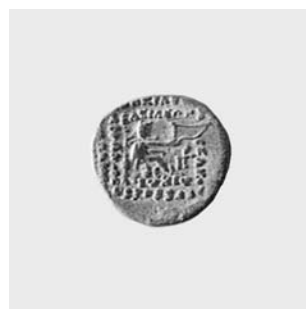
No. 5 (avers)



No. 5 (revers)



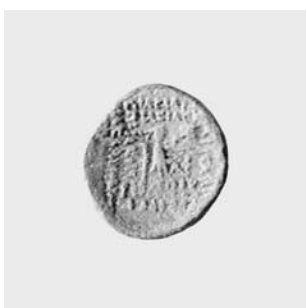
No. 6 (avers)



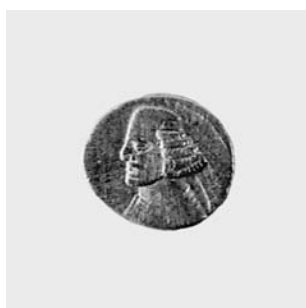
No. 6 (revers)



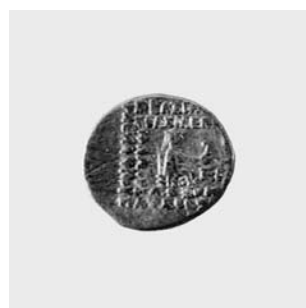
No. 7 (avers)



No. 7 (revers)



No. 8 (avers)



No. 8 (revers)



Fig. 1 (a)



Fig. 1 (b)



Fig. 1 (c)



Fig. 1 (d)



Fig. 1 (e)



Fig. 1 (f)



Fig. 2 (a)



Fig. 2 (b)

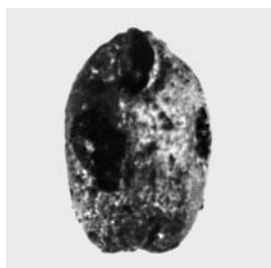


Fig. 2 (c)



Fig. 2 (d)



Fig. 2 (e)



Fig. 2 (f)



Fig. 3 (a)



Fig. 3 (b)



Fig. 3 (c)



Fig. 3 (d)



Fig. 3 (e)



Fig. 3 (f)



Fig. 4 (a)



Fig. 4 (b)



Fig. 4 (c)



Fig. 4 (d)



Fig. 4 (e)



Fig. 4 (f)