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Daily Life in a Cosmopolitan World:
Pottery and Culture During the Hellenistic Period

Edited by Annette Peignard Giros

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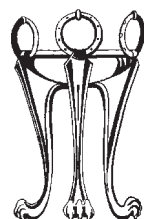
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The Hellenistic Pottery Repertoire made at Sagalassos, SW Anatolia

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Introduction

Ever since its early years, material studies have held an important position in the workings of the Sagalassos Archaeological Research Project¹, and continue to do so to this day. Recent studies have indicated that the earliest pottery found at Sagalassos can be dated to the late 5th and 4th centuries BCE². As few architectural remains can be associated with this material, it remains hard to assess the extent and nature of this early settlement in any detail, probably consisting of vernacular architecture comparable to nearby Düzen Tepe³.

The main purpose of this paper is to present and discuss the pottery assemblage associated with the genesis of an urban fabric at Sagalassos, more specifically hailing from the construction of its first public square preserved below the south-eastern and eastern section of the later, enlarged Roman imperial Upper Agora (fig. 1)⁴. The Upper Agora of Sagalassos has been the object of archaeological investigation since 1993⁵, continuing into recent years with a number of control excavations in 2014 and 2015. The construction of the public square has been dated in the beginning of the 2nd century BCE and appears to constitute the start of the urbanisation process at Sagalassos⁶. It served as the heart of the community, where all central functions were represented and thus constituted the spatial core for the original phase of monumental urbanisation⁷. At the eastern edge of the square, a sizeable market building was constructed. This *stoa*-like structure with rooms for storage and workshops, and space for social and economic exchange, located below and behind the colonnades, is an example of a public monument inspired by Hellenic prototypes to appear in the Pisidian urban centres from the 2nd century BCE onwards⁸. Around the middle of the second century BCE, a monumental terrace building, of which the function remains unclear for now, was erected to the north-east of the square. At the same time, elsewhere at the site, on the slope to the south of the Upper Agora, a Hellenistic potters' quarter was identified, suggesting the genesis of a significant production infrastructure⁹. Excavations at the extant north-western section of the urban fortifications determined this part to have originated by the end of the second century BCE, by which time the inhabitants of Sagalassos were also being buried in extensive, spatially dedicated necropoleis surrounding the urban area¹⁰. In sum, the second century BCE saw Sagalassos transform into an urban community or polis.

Along with architectural developments, a number of profound changes in material culture were pushed along as well. It has been suggested that these changes were partly made possible in the context of a more elaborated production infrastructure and rode the wave of the urbanisation as well as the territorial expansion of Sagalassos¹¹. Recent excavations at the Upper Agora¹² have now for the first time provided a sufficiently extensive body of pottery to study the material culture associated with this phase of urban genesis in more detail. Our intentions are twofold: besides typological presentation, we will try to better contextualize this material both chronologi-

1 POBLOME 1999; DEGEEST 2000.

2 DAEMS – POBLOME 2017b.

3 VANHAVERBEKE ET AL. 2010.

4 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016.

5 WAELKENS ET AL. 1995. For an initial synoptic understanding of early community developments at Sagalassos, see WAELKENS 2004.

6 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016.

7 HÖLSCHER 2012.

8 KÖSE 2005a.

9 POBLOME ET AL. 2013.

10 KÖSE 2005b.

11 DAEMS – POBLOME 2016.

12 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016.

cally, to improve our understanding of urban genesis at Sagalassos, as well as spatially, by comparing this material to parallels found elsewhere.

Typology

The classifying and processing of pottery fragments at Sagalassos is essentially based on both fabric and shape¹³. A system of type codes is used to maximize classification potency. Type codes always start with a fabric identifier. Previous petrographic analysis identified a number of pottery fabrics for late Achaemenid and early Hellenistic times, attributing fabric numbers starting from the number 200¹⁴. Where possible, these fabric numbers have been retained. Newly identified fabrics, mainly related to a range of coarse wares, were given new numbers starting from the latest previously attributed number of the existing fabric classification system.

Next, each type code contains a letter denoting its respective general functional group: cups (A), bowls (B), dishes (C), containers (F), jars (H), cooking vessels (Q). Finally, a number is added to differentiate specific forms within the different type groups, starting with 100. Different types are allocated different numbers, rising with 10 for each new type, so A110, A120 *etc.* For any consistently recorded variant of a specific type, a new number is allocated rising with 1, so for type A100, variants are denoted with A101, A102 and so on. The full identification of a hemispherical cup made in the standard Hellenistic tableware fabric is for example '11A131'. Code numbers used for the Hellenistic material have been selected to comply where possible with the existing late Achaemenid/early Hellenistic typology¹⁵ on the one hand, and the Sagalassos Red Slip Ware (SRSW)¹⁶ typology on the other. Whenever typological continuity could be observed, we adopted existing numbering of either the chronologically preceding or subsequent typology, or, ideally, both. New numbers succeeding the existing Achaemenid/Hellenistic or Roman imperial series were attributed whenever new types were identified.

Fabrics

Tablewares

The main component of the Hellenistic tableware assemblage identified at Sagalassos, consists of a very fine fabric (fabric 11), which can be seen as the precursor of the local production of SRSW (fabric 1) in Roman imperial times¹⁷. Fragments in this fabric are predominantly fully oxidized, ranging from reddish yellow to brown (7.5YR 5/4 brown; 5YR 6/6 reddish yellow), although some reduced grey-coloured fragments occur as well. This well-levigated fabric is typically very fine and highly microporous with a very smooth feel and texture. Overall, very few inclusions can be observed, mainly small calcite particles, as well as occasionally some mica and volcanic inclusions. Pottery made in this fabric is usually slipped orange, brownish red or black, generally thin and dull or watery in appearance. These slips fit within the category of so-called 'colour-coated' slips, first identified by John Hayes and placed in a general chronological bracket between the 5th and 2nd centuries BCE¹⁸.

Petrographic analysis conducted by the Center for Archaeological Sciences (University of Leuven), on some late Hellenistic sherds indicated two provenance areas for the clay raw materials of this fabric¹⁹. On the one hand, greenish detrital clays, originally accumulated as part of a

¹³ For a more extended exposition on the praxis of pottery studies at Sagalassos, see POBLOME – BES 2018.

¹⁴ BRAEKMANS 2010.

¹⁵ DAEMS – POBLOME 2017a.

¹⁶ POBLOME 1999.

¹⁷ POBLOME ET AL. 2002; DEGRYSE – POBLOME 2008; Within the Sagalassos Project this Hellenistic precursor to the Roman fabric 1 has traditionally been denoted with number 11, continuing on existing fabric numbers from Roman imperial times. To comply with fabric classification

of late Achaemenid and Hellenistic times, Dennis Braekmans (2010) attributed number 241 to this fabric. In a recent publication (DAEMS – POBLOME 2017a) we continued the use of the number 241 as it provided the best fit with the chronological framework of that paper. However, as we discuss here the period for which it was originally conceived, we revert back to the use of number 11.

¹⁸ HAYES 1991.

¹⁹ POBLOME ET AL. 2002; NEYT ET AL. 2012; BRAEKMANS ET AL. 2016.



Fig. 1: Masterplan of the Upper Agora with indication of the control excavations in 2014 (blue) and 2015 (red) (after Talloen – Poblome 2016).

sequence of lake deposits, were used, derived from the north-western parts of the nearby Çanaklı valley (located at 7–8 km from Sagalassos)²⁰. On the other hand, clay beds derived from a flysch-limestone weathering horizon of the bedrock found at numerous places on the flanks of the mountain ranges around the Ağlasun valley were used as well²¹. Clay quarrying was, for example, attested at Sagalassos in the central depression to the east of the city centre, in what in Roman times would become the Eastern Suburbium. Here, core-drills provided evidence of a palaeosol horizon developed on top of a clay quarry phase that could be dated to somewhere between 370–200 BCE²². This *terminus ante quem* for the quarrying activities suggests that these clays were already in use from late Achaemenid and early Hellenistic times onwards. Although petrographic analysis indicated two distinct provenances, only a single fabric number is allotted as differences between both are difficult to observe macroscopically.

20 POBLOME ET AL. 2002.

22 VERMOERE ET AL. 2001.

21 NEYT ET AL. 2012; BRAEKMANS ET AL. 2016.

A small amount of sherds can be linked to a local tradition of powdery ‘buff’ coloured wares (fabric 237) which can be traced back to late Achaemenid times. This fabric constitutes the main element of the tableware pottery at nearby Düzen Tepe²³, but is only sparsely encountered at Sagalassos. We will therefore not discuss this fabric in further detail here. The occurrence of a fully black slipped ware is a common feature in Hellenistic pottery, especially in the Aegean core area of Greek culture, and is commonly considered to have originated in Athens during the Classical period²⁴. It has, however, been suggested that several production centres in Anatolia started to develop their own tableware repertoire, notably including a local production of black-glazed pottery, somewhere during the 3rd century BCE²⁵. Likewise, we have found some evidence of a local production of pottery in a black-glazed fabric (238), albeit in very limited quantities.

Coarse wares

In general, we can differentiate between three fabrics (numbers 247–248–249) within the same general range of coarse wares. Again, these consist mainly of clays from the flysch-limestone group derived from weathered ophiolitic mélange found on the flanks of the mountain ranges at and around the settlement²⁶. Fabric 247 is characterized by a bright orange colour whereas 248 and 249 are respectively lighter brown and greyish brown/black in colour. As this general tripartite division is encountered in local pottery throughout different historical periods, it was considered meaningful enough to justify creating separate fabric numbers. These fabrics generally have a relatively fine-grained to medium rough texture, with a slightly rough feel. A moderate amount of poorly sorted inclusions and small to medium pores can be discerned. The main inclusions are calcite (++); grog (++); quartz (+); feldspar (+); mica (+); oxidized iron particles (-); volcanic particles (-). Slip or other surface treatments other than some smoothing is generally absent, save for a few pieces with traces of a dull brown slip or wash.

Another coarse ware fabric is a notable ‘gritty black core ware’ (fabric 250). This fabric was identified as part of a diachronic provenance study of cookware and storage/transport vessels from late Achaemenid to middle Byzantine times²⁷. Petrographic analysis has shown this typically black-coloured fabric to be part of the same production context, and therefore a precursor, of the later, Roman imperial fabric 4, using clays from the central part of the Ağlasun valley system²⁸. Fabric 250 is characterized by a black/grey or dark brown colour in the break with the outer margins either black or oxidized towards a light brown hue (5 YR 7/10). The surface is generally quite rough but can occasionally be smoothed extensively. Texture can be very dense and range from a quite fine-grained to rough matrix. The break is rough to hackly and very rough. An abundant amount of inclusions can be observed, sometimes up to 2 mm and mostly poorly to very poorly sorted. These include quartz (++) , calcite (++) , grog (+) , volcanic inclusions (+) , mica (-) clay pellets (-) , and pyroxenes and amphibole (-) minerals.

Types

Typologies at Sagalassos are in principle based on a four-tiered functional classification, consisting of general functional category / functional category / specific functional category / object, supplemented with a type code containing information on fabric, functional group, and type/variant. The full typology of the material discussed here can be found in Table 1. For each particular functional category, a number of distinct types have been identified, including 5 different types and variants of cups, 3 bowls, 6 dishes, 2 containers, 9 kinds jars/jugs and 2 types of cooking vessels. Different types within the same functional category could perhaps have been linked to different specific functions in day-to-day activities. Different types of bowls have for example been

23 DAEMS ET AL. 2017a.

24 ROTROFF 1997.

25 For an Ephesian example, see MITSOPOULOS-LEON 1991, 32–3.

26 NEYT ET AL. 2012.

27 NEYT ET AL. 2012.

28 NEYT ET AL. 2012.

linked to differences in eating practices, with incurving rim bowls said to be ideally suited for eating wet foodstuffs, whereas plain upturned rim bowls were rather suited for consumption of dry foods²⁹. To what extent differentiated functionalities can be associated with every type/variant identified here remains an open question. Out of the full typology, the most prominent types will be discussed in more detail (see Table 2)³⁰.

Cups

The first element of this typology (fig. 2) is the so-called Achaemenid bowl (*11A120 and 237A120*), a bowl/cup shape with a convex-concave wall profile. The lower part of the body is sharply carinated. The upper part of the wall is flaring and culminates in an out-turned rim with simple lip. The form is the result of skeuomorphism of metal prototypes and can be traced back to the Persian heartland, at sites such as Persepolis³¹ and Pasargadae³². It would go on to become highly popular throughout large parts of the Persian empire, including Anatolia, and would remain in use until the second century BCE. At Perge, these drinking cups occur frequently in the Hellenistic *bothros* on the acropolis³³. Elsewhere, they are attested at Sardis³⁴ and Gordion³⁵, although here only a handful examples are known, dated to the late Achaemenid period (fifth–fourth centuries BCE). At Kelainai³⁶, the former Achaemenid capital of Greater Phrygia and presumed royal residence during the Persian period, the Achaemenid bowl is strongly represented in the material gathered in archaeological surveys³⁷. Finally, Achaemenid bowls are also found at Paphos on Cyprus³⁸.

Next, the mastoid cup (*11A130 and 237A130*) is characterised by a flaring wall and out-turned lip. The degree of flaring of the wall varies. Its shape is again the result of skeuomorphism, imitating glass and metal counterparts³⁹. Interior or exterior grooving just below the rim is characteristic but not omnipresent. The mastoid cup was a very popular shape across the eastern Mediterranean, with parallels identified *inter alia* at Halikarnassos⁴⁰, Knidos⁴¹ and Ephesos⁴² in Anatolia, Paphos⁴³ on Cyprus, and Corinth⁴⁴. They appear in Athens during the first quarter of the second century⁴⁵.

A variant of the mastoid cup, the hemispherical cup (*11A131*) has a slightly convex wall, in contrast with the straight flaring wall of the mastos. Also, the lip is slightly out-turned and rounded off. Parallels have been identified from the middle Hellenistic period (200 BCE) at Gordion⁴⁶, Knidos⁴⁷ and Athens⁴⁸. Finally, a cup shape with mould-made exterior decoration (*11A200*) was also identified. So-called mould-made bowls are considered one of the most widespread types of drinking cups in Hellenistic times, but are only rarely encountered at Sagalassos. Their emergence at Athens has been dated to 220 BCE⁴⁹.

Bowls

A frequently occurring type are bowls with plain upturned and rounded rims (*11B150*). Some examples have a slight groove on the inside beneath the rim. Due to the generic nature of the

29 STEWART 2010, 178.

30 Note however that for some types counts displayed in table 2 also contain a number of variants grouped together. The counts of C170 therefore also include its variants C171 and C172, and F150 also includes F151.

31 SCHMIDT 1957, Plate 72, nr. 1.

32 STRONACH 1978, 242–243 nr. 13.

33 ÇOKAY-KEPÇE – RECKE 2007, 94–95.

34 DUSINBERRE 1999, fig. 78–79 and 82 nr. 10.

35 STEWART 2010, fig. 22–23 A, 26 A.

36 SUMMERER ET AL. 2011, Pl. 3 nr. 26 a–b.

37 LUNGU 2016, 455.

38 HAYES 1991, fig. I–II.

39 ROTROFF 1997, 12.

40 VAAG – NØRSKOV – LUND 2002, plate 8 nr. B11.

41 KÖGLER 2010, Abb. 56 kn65.

42 LADSTÄTTER 2003, Tafel 8 K73, Tafel 9 K92; GASSNER 1997, Tafel 21 nr. 277, Tafel 72 nrs. H14–15.

43 HAYES 1991, fig. XLIV 35, XLVII 28.

44 EDWARDS 1975, plate 17 nr. 532.

45 ROTROFF 1997, 110; fig. 20 cat. 328–331, fig. 21 cat. 341 & 347, fig. 96 cat. 1582.

46 STEWART 2010, fig. 93 K, fig. 97 K.

47 KÖGLER 2010, Abb. 2 nr. b. 15–18, Abb. 10 nr. d. 37, Abb. 14 nr. d. 115, Abb. 22 nr. e. 131–133.

48 ROTROFF 1997, fig. 22 cat. 358, 362, 366.

49 ROTROFF 2006b.

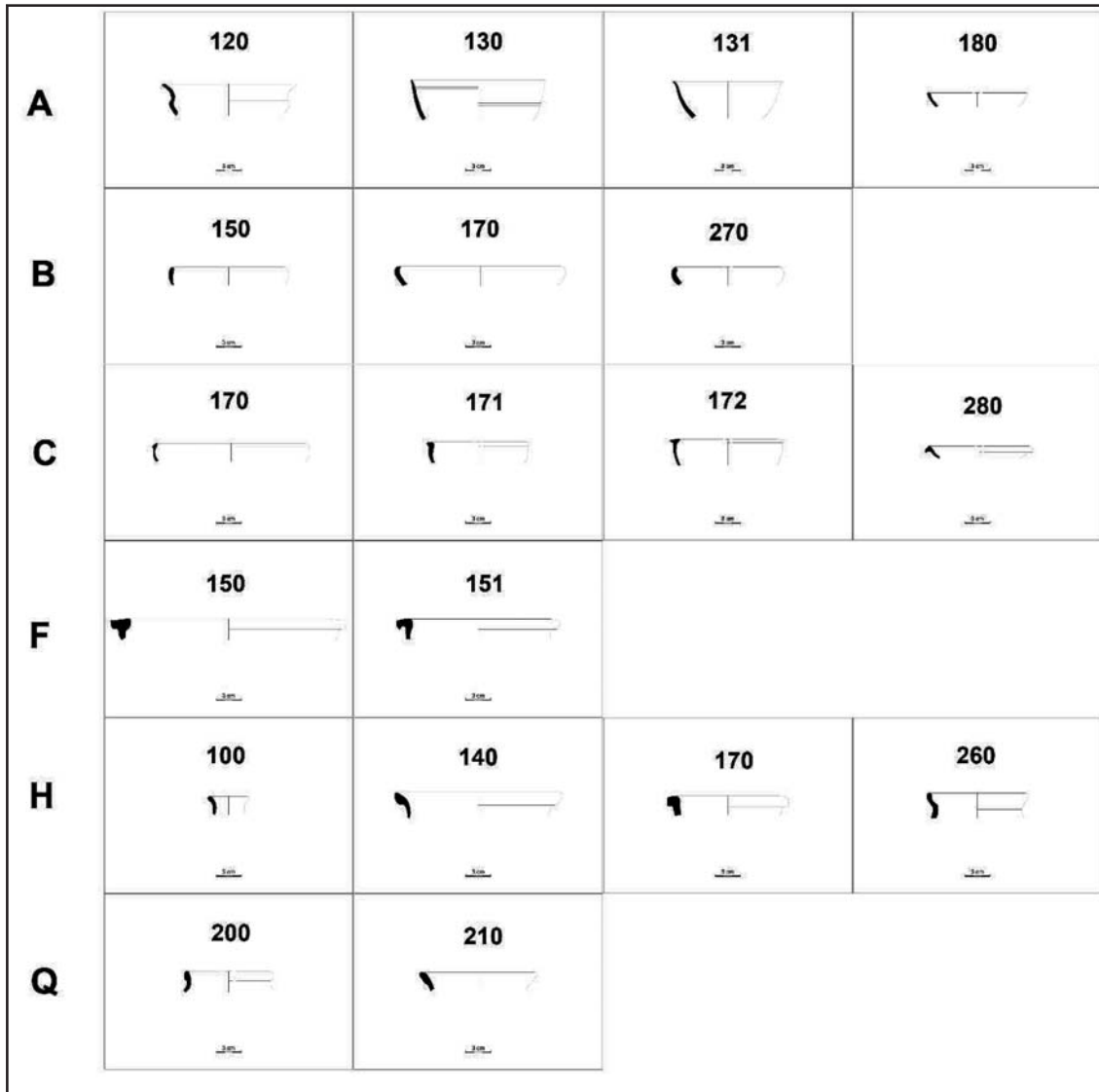


Fig. 2: The main types of the Hellenistic pottery assemblage of Sagalassos.

shape, many parallels can be found, including at Gordion⁵⁰, where these were dated to the fourth and third centuries BCE, as well as at Knidos⁵¹, Halikarnassos⁵², and Ephesos⁵³ elsewhere in Anatolia. At Antioch on the Orontes in North Syria they were identified as indigenous ‘non-Hellenic’ shapes, dated to the fourth century BCE⁵⁴. On Cyprus, parallels have also been found at Paphos⁵⁵.

Another frequently attested type are rim bowls with characteristic incurving rim (*11B170*), sometimes thickened into a fat ‘comma’ shape. This typical bowl was found throughout the eastern Mediterranean during the Hellenistic period, commonly attested in Anatolia from the 3rd century BCE onwards. Examples have been noted in Anatolia among others at Ilion⁵⁶, Knidos⁵⁷, Ephesos⁵⁸, Sardis⁵⁹, Patara⁶⁰, and Gordion⁶¹. In North Syria parallels have been found in Antioch on the Orontes, dated to the second half of the early Hellenistic period (late third to early

50 STEWART 2010, fig. 193 nrs. 25–29.

51 KÖGLER 2010, Abb. 1 nr. ac. 3, abb. 9 nr. d. 22–23.

52 VAAG – NØRSKOV – LUND 2002, plate 9 nr. B36.

53 LADSTÄTTER 2003, Tafel 2 nr. K13; GASSNER 1997, Tafel 44 nr. 534–535.

54 WAAGÉ 1948, plate 1 nr. H16–20.

55 HAYES 1991, fig. XIV nr. 9, 5.

56 BERLIN 1999, pl. 4 nr. 112.

57 KÖGLER 2010, Abb. 1 nr. Aa. 8–9, Abb. 12 nr. D. 69.

58 LADSTÄTTER 2003, Tafel 8 nr. K79; Gassner 1997, Tafel 71 nr. H.

second centuries BCE)⁶². On Cyprus these were attested at Salamine⁶³ and Paphos⁶⁴, as well as in Corinth⁶⁵ and Athens⁶⁶ on mainland Greece.

Bowls with an overall similar shape as B170, but with characteristic rolled band formed on the inside of the incurving rim (*I1B270*) have been frequently observed as well. These have been found at Paphos⁶⁷ and Gordion⁶⁸ where they were dated to the middle Hellenistic period (200 BCE).

Dishes

A type of open recipients of bowl/dish shape has a convex in-turning wall profile and a rim which is rounded on the exterior (*I1C170*). Sometimes the vessel wall is slightly narrowed underneath the top of the rim. Bowls with out-rolled rims are one of the most frequent occurring types in the material from the Orontes valley in North Syria, where they are found both in Hellenic contexts dated to the fourth century and early Hellenistic contexts from the late fourth to early second centuries BCE⁶⁹. Everted rim bowls also occur at Ilion in contexts dated to the (second half of) third century BCE⁷⁰. A parallel shape is attested at Pergamon and dated to *c.* 250 BCE⁷¹. Bowls with a similar shape are also attested at Paphos⁷² and Sardis⁷³, where these were tentatively dated to the fourth century.

A variant of the C170 bowls/dishes has been noted, with a similar forming technique but instead of a rounded exterior, the top of the rim was flattened, resulting in an outward protruding lip (*I1C171*). Parallels are found at Xanthos⁷⁴, Troy⁷⁵, and Paphos⁷⁶. A similar type of projecting rim bowl at Gordion⁷⁷ was dated to the middle Hellenistic period (200 BCE), whereas at Sardis⁷⁸, a tentative date of fourth century BCE was suggested. Another variant on C170 and similar to C171 has been identified but with a flattened rim protruding both inwards and outwards (*I1C172*). A single parallel can again be found at Troy.⁷⁹

Finally, some sherds of a saucer with flaring or slightly convex wall profile and downturned projecting rim (*I1C280*) were identified. The downturned rim resembles the popular tradition of fishplates widely encountered throughout the Hellenistic world, however, no indications have been found for the typical central depression traditionally associated with this type of material. Parallels are found in the out-turned rim dishes of Knidos⁸⁰ and Antioch on-the-Orontes, where it is dated to the late fourth century BCE⁸¹. The shape also features in local pottery production at Ephesos from the third century BCE onwards⁸².

Containers

The most prominent type of open containers identified at Sagalassos are characterized by a prominent outward protruding rim (*I1F150*) with a wall profile that varies from straight to slightly convex. This type adheres to a tradition of so-called *lekanè* shapes that return frequently in the Greek world during the Hellenistic period. Parallels have, for example, been noted in the *lekanè* form 2 of Athens⁸³ and at Corinth⁸⁴. The strong projecting rim is considered a third century

59 ROTROFF – OLIVER 2003, Pl. 7–8.
 60 IŞIN 2007, fig. 5–6.
 61 STEWART 2010, fig. 218, fig. 219 nr. 256. 257, fig. 220, fig. 228.
 62 WAAGÉ 1948, plate II nrs. 76a–k.
 63 DIEDERICHS 1980, pl. 7 nrs. 65–74.
 64 HAYES 1991, fig. XIV nrs. 10 & 13, fig. XLIV nr. 9.
 65 EDWARDS 1975, plate 2 nr. 30.
 66 ROTROFF 1997, fig. 63.
 67 HAYES 1991, fig. XIV nrs. 14 & 18.
 68 STEWART 2010, fig. 218 nrs. 230–232–235, fig. 220 nr. 262.
 69 WAAGÉ 1948, pl. 1 nrs. H9–12, pl. 2 nrs. 41 a & f.
 70 BERLIN 1999, pl. 4 nrs. 11 & 199.

71 DE LUCA 1968 pl. 39 nr. 80.
 72 HAYES 1991, fig. XLII nr. 38.
 73 ROTROFF – OLIVER 2003, Pl. 10 nr. 53.
 74 YENER-MARKSTEINER 2007, Abb. 10: 10–11.
 75 BERLIN 2002, Plate 11: no. 56.
 76 HAYES 1991, fig. LXI nr. 21, fig. LXVI nr. 26.
 77 STEWART 2010, fig. 93E.
 78 ROTROFF – OLIVER 2003, Pl. 10 nrs. 51–52.
 79 BERLIN 2002, Plate 14, no. 84.
 80 KÖGLER 2010, Abb. 9 nr. d.28.
 81 WAAGÉ 1948, plate I nr. H9.
 82 MITSOPOULOS-LEON 1991, Tafel 6 nrs. A21–22.
 83 ROTROFF 2006a, fig. 42 cat. 252.
 84 EDWARDS 1948, plate 33 nr. 709.

BCE feature in the case of Athens⁸⁵. A variant to the regular F150 is characterized by a typical undercut projecting rim (*11F151*).

Jars/jugs

The basic components of the jug/jar ensemble at Sagalassos consist of simple forms characterised by a straight or slightly everted neck profile and plain rim commonly turning slightly outwards to facilitate pouring. A variant with thickened and rounded rims are also commonly attested. For this basic group, four distinct type codes are reserved⁸⁶ (*11H100/101/110/111*), respectively denoting small plain rim jars, small thickened rim jars, large plain rim jars and large thickened rim jars. For the assemblage under scrutiny here, however, we do not have sufficient indications to explicitly differentiate between these four types. Therefore, we decided to group these basic jars under one common header (*11H100*) serving the quantification of the material. A parallel to this basic jar shape has been identified in the material of Ilion dated to the end of the third century BCE⁸⁷.

Additionally, some more elaborate jar types have been identified as well. A first is characterised by a concave neck profile and slightly out-turned almond shaped rim, sometimes somewhat flattened at the outside rather than rounded (*11H140*, *247H240*, *248H240* and *249H240*). Parallels for this type are attested at Halikarnassos⁸⁸, Ephesos⁸⁹, and Gordion⁹⁰. The latter are dated to the middle Hellenistic period (200 BCE). Additionally, at Gordion they are identified specifically as cooking pots rather than jars. Based on the fabric in which these objects occurred at Sagalassos we are rather inclined to subscribe these to a (short-term) storage or serving function, but some uses for cooking or other food preparation practices cannot be excluded. For future cases where such a distinction might be made more clearly, a separate type code is reserved (*Q240*).

Some fragments have been found belonging to a jar type with straight neck profile and blocked rim (*11H170* and *247H170*). Similarities can be pointed out with two large globular jugs with everted rim from Ilion⁹¹, where they are dated to the second half of the fourth- early third centuries BCE⁹². Finally, a jar type has been noted with convex shoulder profile and either straight carination of the rim or slightly everted S-profile, resulting in a ‘collared’ neck with a flaring ledged rim (*249H260*). Again, fabric properties rather suggest a general jar/jug functionality, however the shape itself occurs in cooking vessels as well, for example at Knidos⁹³ where they are dated between the late 3rd and third quarter of the 2nd centuries BCE. In such future cases where a cooking functionality can be more unequivocally attributed, a separate code number (*Q250*) is reserved.

Cooking pots

The shape of cooking pots is typically considered to be rather conservative because of a combination of factors favouring the retention of existing practices. These include technological challenges regarding heat retention and thermal shock resistance, existing cooking technologies, practices of food preparation, diet and foodways. As a result, cooking pots are generally rather difficult to date. Unfortunately, the material under consideration here is too fragmented to allow reconstruction of the full profile of cooking vessels. Based on the shape of the rim, we can make

85 ROTROFF 1997, 167–168.

86 Following the example of the late Achaemenid and early Hellenistic typology, see DAEMS ET AL. 2017.

87 BERLIN 1999, pl. 7 nr. 95.

88 VAAG – NØRSKOV – LUND 2002, plate 17 nr. G26.

89 GASSNER 1997, Tafel 3 nr. 48, Tafel 24 nr. 310.

90 STEWART 2010, fig. 215 nr. 203.

91 Although the material found at Sagalassos is too fragmented to allow full profile reconstruction, as a result,

the full body shape of these jars/jugs is currently still unclear. Nevertheless, similarities can be suggested based on the rim and the straight neck profile. Interestingly, these examples at Ilion have the same slightly sloping standing rings flattened at the bottom which frequently occur in the material of Sagalassos as well.

92 BERLIN 1999, pl. 6 nrs. 25–26–28–29–30–52.

93 KÖGLER 2010, Abb. 13 nr. d. 84, Abb. 23, Tafel 14 nr. e. 168–169.

a distinction between two different types of cooking vessels. One with simple out-turned rims, that were sometimes thickened and rounded (*250Q200*), and a second one with rims that were smoothed and flattened at the exterior, thus creating a defined band along the rim (*250Q210*). Interestingly, a similar distinction has been made for the pottery material from nearby Düzen Tepe⁹⁴, where cooking pots typically have an ellipsoid-shaped body, with larger specimens tending towards a globular shape and the smaller ones often showing an S-curved profile. However, whereas at Q200 predominated and Q210 featured only marginally, these proportions were reversed at Sagalassos. For Q200, parallels have been noted at Ephesos⁹⁵, Gordion⁹⁶, Salamine⁹⁷ and Athens⁹⁸, whereas the Q210 type occurs at Athens⁹⁹, Ephesos¹⁰⁰ and Gordion¹⁰¹.

Discussion

In the previous part we presented the main elements of the typology of mid Hellenistic pottery at Sagalassos. A first question in discussing this material should be whether this can be considered a coherent assemblage or not? An assemblage has been defined as ‘an open typological series containing those types which are representative for a certain phase in the chronological evolution of the pottery in a specific archaeological context’¹⁰². Our argument therefore needs to demonstrate that the material presented here has both internal and chronological coherence.

This discussion pertains to a total of 272 rim sherds, found in 27 loci, derived from 4 trenches spread over the agora. Because of this discrepant provenance, internal coherence across these contexts cannot *a priori* be considered a given. If we take a closer look, however, at the proportions between the types, both considering the overall total as well as the individual loci, we observe a markedly consistent distribution. In the total count (see Table 2), the most common types (each taking up more than 5 % of the total assemblage) are respectively A130, B170, F150, H140, B270, Q210 and A120. Interestingly, the combination of these types covers the full spectrum of the typology presented here, including drinking cups, bowls for food consumption, open containers for serving and/or storage, jars for serving and cooking vessels. If we look at individual contexts, limiting ourselves to only those contexts yielding the most diagnostic material¹⁰³, we notice that generally the same types dominating the overall assemblage consistently return most frequently in every context (see Table 3). We can therefore conclude that these contexts show sufficient internal coherence to be at this point tentatively considered part of an assemblage.

Can we, in the next step, assess the chronological properties of these different loci? At this point, we will combine information on their relative stratigraphic order with a suggested chronological framework, based on comparison with pottery materials from other archaeological contexts at Sagalassos itself, as well as with external parallels.

First, it must be reiterated that the contexts under consideration are all part of a sequence of operations in function of the construction of the public square. Trench 4 of the 2014 control excavations touched upon the origins of activities in this area when an anomaly (25 m long, 5 m wide and more than 1 m deep) previously discovered in the geophysical plan of the square, was identified as a large quarry dug into the ophiolitic clay, possibly to supply both local pottery production and provide building material for the mudbrick architecture. The filling of the pit marked the beginning of the initial construction phase of the agora. Contemporary loci have also been identified in Trench 2 of the 2015 excavations, where a first walking level, consisting of beaten earth and some small stones, was laid out, suggesting that the genesis of the square in this

94 DAEMS – POBLOME 2017 a.

95 GASSNER 1997, Tafel 23 nr. 301, tafel 24 nrs. 309, 312.

96 STEWART 2010, fig. 191 nr. 15, fig. 216 nr. 212.

97 DIEDERICHS 1980, plate 5 nrs. 55–59.

98 ROTROFF 2006 a, fig. 71 cat. 559.

99 ROTROFF 2006 a, fig. 72 cat. 567.

100 GASSNER 1997, Tafel 24 nr. 310.

101 STEWART 2010, fig. 215 nr. 206–207, fig. 216 nrs. 209, 211.

102 POBLOME – DEGEEST 1993, 149.

103 More specifically, nine contexts are considered, each providing at least 12 identified rim sherds.

area can be dated to this period¹⁰⁴. Very few diagnostic material was found in these oldest loci. Still, based on general fabric properties, it can be considered within the same general bracket as the main collection under consideration here. Throughout the subsequent sequence of construction activities, the pottery material associated with the original foundation of the square was mixed in with younger material, which was then interpreted as a *terminus post quem* for these subsequent interventions. To approach the chronology of this original foundation, we must therefore work our way downwards in the stratigraphy, starting with the youngest phase.

The square reached its final form in early Roman imperial times. It underwent a serious reworking at the beginning of our era, when, among others, *c.* 12 m high honorific columns carrying statues of local noblemen were erected in the four corners of the square¹⁰⁵. Thus, the agora, previously a meeting place of the popular assembly, assumed a new socio-political role as a display case for the elite. Sometime afterwards, during the second quarter of the 1st century CE, the square was paved over, receiving a surface of limestone slabs which still remains in place today¹⁰⁶. Trench 3 of the 2014 excavation season was laid out to the east of the foundation of a dismantled honorific monument, subsequently dated to the late 1st century CE.

Underneath the early Roman imperial level, an older substrate of a walking level was identified, consisting of a layer of beaten earth with small stones. The associated pottery material consisted mainly of, besides a few intrusive sherds of Roman pottery, late Hellenistic material (1st century BCE) with typical black and brown mottled slips. During the late 1st century BCE, the square had already been enlarged towards the west and north, as at several other locations comparable substrates of walking levels were found. The spread of these walking levels, as well as the positioning of adjacent buildings dated to the Hellenistic period, suggest a roughly 40m long (north-south) and 25m wide (east-west) open area during the 2nd and 1st centuries BCE¹⁰⁷. These and subsequent operations and interventions at the square resulted in a fairly thorough reworking of some of the older contexts.

Underneath the late Hellenistic walking level in Trench 3, a layer was found with markedly less intrusive Roman material. Based on both shapes and fabrics, the majority of this pottery predated the late Hellenistic material, with, for example, no traces found of shapes characteristic for that period such as ovoid cups, fishplates, upturned rim dishes, and a typical form of bowls with thickened exterior rim whose maximum diameter is situated at 1/3 of the wall, rather than at the top of the rim opening as with the C170 presented here¹⁰⁸. The latter type can be linked to a south-Anatolian, Cypriot and Levantine tradition of *skyphoi*, dated to the end of the 2nd and 1st centuries BCE¹⁰⁹. Most likely, the pottery found in this layer predated this period. Even in the limited quantities of diagnostic material found in this layer, already a significant typological range was covered, including cooking vessels (Q210), bowls (B150, B170) and drinking cups (A120, A130).

A number of contexts providing a larger amount of diagnostic material, was found in Trench 2 of the 2015 campaign, laid out in the south-eastern corner of the agora, at the north and west side of the southeast honorific column. Underneath the pavement from early Roman imperial times, a series of levelling deposits were constructed to raise the level of the south-eastern zone of the agora. Some intrusive early Roman imperial sherds were found, indicating that these deposits had been reworked during this period. The reworking occurred as part of the construction of the honorific monument in the southeast corner of the agora¹¹⁰. These deposits included a single bronze coin minted at Sagalassos (AE, Sagalassos, obv. head of Zeus/ rev. two confronted goats) dating to the late Hellenistic – early Roman imperial period. Clearly these deposits were subjected to disturbances and few clear chronological conclusions can be drawn here. However,

104 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016, 117.

105 VANDEPUT 1997.

106 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016, 132–133.

107 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016, 120–121.

108 VAN DER ENDEN ET AL. 2014.

109 ÉLAINNE 2012, fig. 46, nrs. 6039/2 – 4479/5.

110 TALLOEN – POBLOME 2016, 120–121.

despite the presence of some later intrusive material from late Hellenistic and early Roman imperial times, the bulk of the pottery derived from these loci again appears to predate this period. Some of these contexts even provided the highest amount of diagnostics for the pottery material discussed here, which we have tentatively associated with the older phases of the genesis of the agora. A summary of the diagnostic pieces in some of these layers can be found in Table 3¹¹¹. The internal coherence of the material associated with the recurrent stratigraphic sequence observed in different test soundings across the agora again confirms our initial assumptions to consider this material as a coherent assemblage.

Can we now try to situate this material in a firmer chronological framework? First off, it is important to note that comparable material was found elsewhere at Sagalassos. Underneath the Roman Odeion, excavations conducted by Bart De Graeve in 2007 revealed a badly preserved pottery kiln¹¹². The combustion chamber of the kiln was only partially preserved, however, inside the chamber three different fill layers could be identified. The kiln was already out of operation and partially dismantled before the deposition of these fill layers, therefore no direct relationship can be presupposed between the material found in these loci and the functioning of the kiln itself¹¹³. The two upper layers contained Hellenistic pottery material mixed with Roman imperial pottery dated to the end of the first century BCE and first half of the first century CE. The pottery found in the lowest layer was dated to the end of the third and the (first half of the) second century BCE.

Interestingly, both individual shapes and the typological range encountered in the latter of these loci show clear similarities with the material from Upper Agora discussed here. Regarding the presence of cups, the common representation of fragments of mastoid cups (A130) can be noted, which can be considered the main type of drinking cup at mid Hellenistic Sagalassos, while both hemispherical cups (A131) and Achaemenid cups (A120) were identified as well. The most prevalent types of bowls were the incurving rim (B170) and plain upturned rim (B150) types. As in the Upper Agora material, small shallow dishes with downturned rims (C280) were only sporadically attested, with no indications for the central depression associated with well-known fishplate types¹¹⁴. Open containers with horizontally projecting rim (F150) were also identified, as were jugs/jars with almond shaped rims (H140).

When comparing this assemblage to external material parallels, it is striking how a significant part seems to consist of a number of types (A120, B150, B170, C170, and Q200) that also feature prominently in the pottery material from nearby Düzen Tepe, where it has been generally dated to the 4th and 3rd centuries BCE¹¹⁵. Additionally, these are complemented with a number of types (A130-A131-A200-B270-F150-H140-H260) dated to the middle Hellenistic period (late third and early second centuries BCE). The most precise external chronological indications based on cross-dating are derived from Athens, where the emergence of the mastoid cup is dated to the first quarter of the second century¹¹⁶, and the mould-made bowl even very specifically to 220 BCE¹¹⁷. The production of mould-made bowls is said to have been initiated in Asia Minor workshops by the end of the third century BCE¹¹⁸. It is not unthinkable – but ultimately unprovable – that Sagalassos, while not necessarily in the vanguard, reacted unto these developments fairly rapidly and adapted its local pottery production accordingly to these external stimuli, already at the beginning of the second century BCE. Based on this external chronological framework, we would therefore like to suggest that the assemblage under consideration here indeed confirms the

111 Save for the first column, all contexts listed in table 3 are part of these levelling deposits.

112 POBLOME ET AL. 2013.

113 POBLOME ET AL. 2013, 176.

114 POBLOME ET AL. 2013, 183.

115 DAEMS – POBLOME 2017 a.

116 ROTROFF 1997, 110.

117 ROTROFF 2006b.

118 ROTROFF – OLIVER 2003, 92.

initial date suggested for the Odeion material and can be generally placed within a chronological bracket between the late third and the first half of the second centuries BCE. Both internal and external parameters therefore stress the chronological coherence of the material under scrutiny here. We can therefore now strongly confirm our initial interpretation of this material as a coherent assemblage.

In the original presentation of the pottery material found in the pottery kiln underneath the Odeion, we wondered to what extent this typological repertoire was representative for the full pottery assemblage in use at Hellenistic Sagalassos. Whereas no overly strong conclusions were drawn then because of the limited amount of available material, considering the remarkable coherence of the assemblages across different loci, contexts and excavation sites we can now propose that the types presented in the Odeion paper and here did indeed constitute the major component of the mid Hellenistic pottery assemblage at Sagalassos. Admittedly, the search for parallel material has not been conducted in an exhaustive manner. Instead, we specifically focused on a number of key publications covering sites in the Aegean, Anatolia and the Levant, also depending on publication status of comparative material. In this respect, we cannot but note that, unfortunately, such a comparative exercise is *a priori* limited because of the fragmentary coverage of published material. One of the major aims of this paper has therefore been to help fill up this void with a systematic presentation of the Hellenistic pottery assemblage produced at Sagalassos.

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Table 1: Typology of the Hellenistic material from Sagalassos

General Functional Category	Functional Category	Specific functional category	Object	Functional Group	Type – Variant
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	Achaemenid bowl	A	120
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	mastoid cup	A	130
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	hemispherical cup	A	131
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	flaring rim cup with rounded inside	A	180
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	mouldmade bowl	A	200
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	plain upturned rim bowl	B	150
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	incurving rim bowl	B	170
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	rolled incurving rim bowl	B	270
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	dish with rounded outside rim	C	170
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	dish with flattened and protruding rim	C	171
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	dish with flattened rim protruding both inward and out	C	172
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	rolled rim plate	C	270

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General Functional Category	Functional Category	Specific functional category	Object	Functional Group	Type – Variant
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	saucer with projecting rim	C	280
Household Implements	Tablewares	Consumption	inwards turned rim plate	C	290
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	container with flattened rim	F	120
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	container with outward protruding rim (lekanè)	F	150
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	undercut lekane	F	151
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	plain rim jar	H	100
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	thickened rim jar	H	110
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	almond rim jar	H	140
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	blocked rim jar	H	170
Household Implements	Kitchenwares	Storage	ledged jar	H	260
(Personal) care	Cosmetic	Storage	unguentarium	I	200
Household Implements	Tablewares	Serving	flat lid/tray	J	200
Household Implements	Kitchenwares	Cooking	cooking pot with plain rounded rim	Q	200
Household Implements	Kitchenwares	Cooking	cooking pot with flattened outside rim	Q	210

Table 2: Overall counts per type

Types	Count	Percentages
A120	18	6,62
A130	37	13,60
A131	8	2,94
A180	1	0,37
A200	4	1,47
B150	15	5,51
B170	36	13,24
B270	25	9,19
C170	11	4,04
C270	1	0,37
C280	4	1,47
C290	4	1,47
F120	1	0,37
F150	35	12,87
H100	7	2,57
H140	25	9,19
H170	4	1,47
H260	6	2,21
I200	6	2,21
J200	4	1,47
Q200	2	0,74
Q210	18	6,62
Total	272	100

Table 3: Counts per type for larger excavation loci

	Total	15-UA- 24–22	15-UA- 58–62	15-UA- 67–67	15-UA- 71–77	15-UA- 77–79	15-UA- 80–89	15-UA- 82–84	15-UA- 90–97	15-UA- 99–100
A120	16	2	4	0	0	4	2	0	1	3
A130	28	0	4	1	4	13	5	0	0	1
A131	5	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
A180	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A200	4	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
B150	10	0	0	1	3	1	2	2	1	0
B170	28	0	4	5	2	7	2	4	2	2
B270	24	0	5	3	7	4	2	1	1	1
C170	10	3	2	0	2	0	2	0	1	0
C270	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C280	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
C290	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
F120	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
F150	30	4	4	2	8	8	4	0	0	0
H100	7	1	0	1	1	1	2	0	0	1
H140	24	2	2	1	5	8	2	2	1	1
H170	3	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
H260	5	1	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
I200	4	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0
J200	3	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Q200	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Q210	16	0	0	1	1	0	4	4	3	3

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Preface

The second volume of the International Association for Research on Pottery of the Hellenistic Period e. V. (IARPotHP) presents the proceedings of the second conference organized by our Association.

This conference with the title *Daily life in a cosmopolitan world: Pottery and culture during the Hellenistic period* took place at the Université Lumière Lyon 2, from the 5th to the 8th of November 2015. It was a very successful conference with many lectures and posters, from which as many as 50, are included in this volume. The Board of the Association and myself would like to warmly thank all persons who were involved in the organization of the conference and participated in it, as well as, all persons involved in the preparation of these proceedings and especially, Dr Annette Peignard-Giros, the editor of the Association for the years 2015–2019.

Our thanks also go to the authorities of the Lyon 2 University, and the research team HiSoMA (UMR 5189 – Lyon) for hosting our conference, and for their support in organizing it.

We are also grateful to HiSoMA for its financial support for the printing of this volume. Equally, we would like to express our gratitude to our printing house, the Phoibos Verlag in Vienna.

The third volume of the IARPotHP conference series, the proceedings of the symposium held in Kaštela (Croatia) on the 1st–4th of June 2017, is now in the process of preparation by the editors, Ivanka Kamerjarin and Marina Ugarković, and will be published soon after the Lyon volume.

Our great honour is to call attention to the fact that during the General Assembly in Kaštela, Dr John W. Hayes, one of the most distinguished scholars in the field of research into Hellenistic (and Roman) ceramics, was elected as a honorary member of IARPotHP.

With the publication of this volume, the tradition of our association and conferences organized by it, is strengthened. Also, our association's contribution to research into Hellenistic pottery and its further development is being increased.

Krakow, 25. 09. 2019

Ewdoksia Papuci-Władyka
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Introduction by the editor: the aim of the meeting

When J. G. Droysen applied the name of «Hellenistic» to the period following the death of Alexander the Great, he had in mind the image of a period of contact between Greek culture and the local people integrated in the newly conquered territories. The idea of an «Hellenization» of local «ethne» was replaced, during the last decades of the 20th century, by the concepts of interconnection and of “cultural transfers” between Greco-Macedonian settlers and local populations.

Since the end of 19th century, archaeologists have tried to use the artifacts, and particularly ceramics, to address the topic of interaction between Greek and local traditions, and the “identities” of the various ethnic groups that lived together, or sometimes simply side by side, in the large territories of the Hellenistic kingdoms.

From an economic point of view, some scholars have tried to interpret the Hellenistic period as the first globalization period, considering the trading networks that combine local and long-distance exchanges.

Pottery is one of the clues that can be used to address those complex questions. It is an artifact which is used everywhere and produced in almost every town or village in the Mediterranean during the Antiquity, and Hellenistic pottery has been frequently used to try to define what was Hellenic and what was local in the instrumentum used by people living in the areas conquered by Alexander and ruled by his successors.

The main impact of Alexander’s conquest was, for people who were not familiar with Greek culture, a direct contact with Hellenism. The «colonists» who were settling in areas far away from their native Macedonian or Greek cities, brought with them their customs, their own cooking and drinking traditions, and their traditional dishes. But after some time, they had to replace the broken or damaged pottery vessels, and needed to use local potters abilities, and supply sources. For instance, in some region of the Levant, there was no clay that could produce a good shining black gloss, nor a tradition of black slipped pottery. The Greek dwellers had some specific requests, and the local potters had to cope both with them, as well as with the technical possibilities they had. Most probably, the Greeks or their descendant had also to adapt to the local craftsmen abilities and clay supply. Their presence, and their relationships with local populations had an impact on both their own way of living, and the local people’s traditions. Can we imagine, for instance, that starting a family, or having local servants, would have no consequence on the food one would be eating (and would have access to)?

But this is a very general point of view, and there were certainly a large variety of situations in the various areas of the Hellenistic kingdoms. First of all, the economic patterns were different, for example, on the Ionian coast, compared to remote regions of Bactria or Syria. Some places were not deeply affected by the conquest, and the indigenous tribes and people continued to live as they had lived before, except that they were paying their taxes to a new king. Can we see on their pottery any impact from the Greek types? In some small villages of Mesopotamia, for instance, only a few sherds witness the importation of Greek pottery, and the influence of Greek shapes on local pottery is very limited: the inturned-rim bowls, for instance, are not slipped, and they lack the usual ring base of Greek examples.

In some other places, like in Palestine, the absence of Greek pottery can be interpreted as a mark of resistance against Hellenic eating and drinking habits, considered as unacceptable by the religious and/or social traditions.

On the other hand, pottery can also be a means of ethnic identification for Greek people: drinking wine, taking part of symposia, offering specific shapes to the dead or the gods, might be considered, for the descendant of the first colonist, as a way of marking their ethnic identity, and

make the difference with the local people. Some table customs imported by the conquerors were adopted by the local elites, in order to keep their rank and be associated to the new rulers.

Various questions arise when one tries to evaluate through pottery the impact of the Hellenistic “globalization” on everyday life in the various regions of the Hellenistic kingdoms:

- Who had a direct access to the Greek prototypes, i.e. how involved were the different regions in the large-scale trade?
- Which influence had large trade centers (which produced vases that traveled everywhere in the Mediterranean) on local products?
- What was the impact of Greek influence on shape, decoration, and use of the vases, considering a large variety of local situations?

The aim of the papers of this 2nd meeting of the IARPotHP was not to address the general concepts of «hellenization», «cultural transfer», or «middle ground», but to study precisely the material found in some specific sites, taking into account the nature of the deposits (houses, graves, shipwrecks ...). And to try to understand how we can interpret the data on pottery of a specific site, in a regional and international contexts.

The local studies of pottery deposits can give us the opportunity to see, at least at a regional level, how people really lived, ate and drank, using (or not) vessels from various traditions, and what it meant for them to live in a multicultural world.

The relations can be seen through the repertoire of vessel shapes (fish-plates, echinus bowls, carinated bowls ...), which are attested all over the Mediterranean, as well as through the amphoras travelling from east to west and vice versa.

Nevertheless, the two kinds of objects, vessels and amphoras, testify different levels of cultural interactions. Imports of Greek amphoras, mainly Rhodian or Cnidian ones, in various places of the Mediterranean are evidence of commercial networks, and were purchased for their contents. Consumption of Greek wine is a good indicator of new practices in the Levant, for instance. On the other hand, imports of Italian amphoras in the eastern Mediterranean show the new developments of Roman economy in the newly conquered regions.

Importation and imitation of Greek shapes are more related to daily life, and to social behaviours. They may be evidence of changes in cooking habits, or simply to new fashions in food or drink consumptions, or in table habits.

The papers collected in this volume show local situations all over the Mediterranean: during the Hellenistic period, all regions were affected by contacts with Hellenistic kingdoms, and the western Mediterranean was not disconnected from the Eastern regions. During the early Hellenistic period, Italy and Sicily were touched by the influence of Attic pottery, and the interaction between Italy and the Hellenistic east grew when the Romans started to interfere, both economically and politically, in the eastern Mediterranean, by the end of the 3rd c. BC. That is one of the main reasons why we have in this volume so many papers dedicated to pottery in Italy, Sicily, as from Greece, Asia Minor, and eastern parts of the Seleucid kingdom.

The aim of this series of papers is to focus on local situations, and try to find the evidence of new shapes and new decorations on table ware, cooking wares and transport amphoras, and try to evaluate, on this ground, how pottery illustrates, in various regions, the impact of Hellenism, and how Hellenism was adapted to or influenced by new local traditions.

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