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Non-destructive provenance study of cuneiform tablets using portable X-ray fluorescence (pXRF)

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ABSTRACT

Portable X-Ray Fluorescence (pXRF) apparatus of the last generation was tested to determine its potential for routine provenance determination of clay cuneiform tablets, which cannot be analyzed by "classical" intrusive methods. A group of tablets from Hattuša (Boğazköy) and from el Amarna, which were previously provenanced using optical mineralogy (OM) and instrumental neutron activation analysis (INAA), was analyzed by pXRF and the results were used to establish the grouping according to their elemental concentrations. These groups were compared with the previous results retrieved by OM and INAA in order to confirm their validity. The results corroborate the high potential of the pXRF for non-destructive study of well-defined, 'closed' assemblages of clay-derived, delicate artifacts, such as cuneiform tablets, bullae, and fine-ware pottery. Consequently, a group of previously unexamined tablets from Hattuša was analyzed by pXRF and the results are discussed with implications on future research.

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1. Introduction

During nearly three millennia, the civilizations of the ancient Near East (ANE) produced the world's greatest archives of written texts in hieroglyphs, cuneiform, and alphabets containing vast numbers of legal codes, administrative accounts, contracts, rituals, epics, letters, historical narratives, songs, dictionaries and scholarly texts. The crystallization of the great empires of Egypt, Hatti, Mitanni, Babylonia and Assyria during the second millennium BCE (Fig. 1) brought about their rise as the main political and economic powers of their time. After centuries of military conflicts, these superpowers established peaceful relations through a series of treaties and a network of trade relations. Hence, by the second half of the 2nd millennium BCE, international commerce grew to unprecedented levels, spanning lands from the Anatolian Plateau to the Nile valley and from the Argolid to the Euphrates. Along with these interactions and the traffic in commodities, cross-cultural contacts such as international correspondence and the exchange of epics, narratives and scholarly texts advanced an unprecedented transfer of ideas, contributing to a high level of communication between distinct cultures.

Over a century of research into these archives has accumulated an enormous body of data concerning all related aspects. At the same time, the interpretation of many documents still remains disputed, as the archives contain abundant tablets whose origin is unknown. Letters often contain the name of the sender, but sometimes the letterhead is missing. In other cases we may have the name of the sender and still do not know his domicile. Further complicating the issue, the locations of many Near Eastern and Aegean countries and cities have not yet been clearly established. When it comes to documents other than letters, the situation is even worse. Though tablets might be assigned to an origin according to their style or location of discovery, some uncertainty still remains in such determinations. Hence, revealing the origin of documents by using quantitative physical methods brings potential to shed new light on the geographical history, the development and the transfer of syllabic information and the diffusion of language and literature, scribal habits, narratives and epics between agencies and cultures within the ANE and beyond.

In theory, this goal can be accomplished through systematic provenance studies of clay of documents from archives of different parts of the ANE. Indeed, solving the problem of origin of cuneiform tablets by their clay identification can mark a significant breakthrough in our understanding of these documents. The use of methods adapted from natural and exact sciences provides an independent witness to the origin of the tablets that may be compared

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Fig. 1. Map of the Ancient Near East with the localities mentioned in the text.

with the data extracted from the texts. Scientific provenance studies of clay-derived artifacts in archaeology are focusing on their mineralogical and elemental composition in order to identify their provenance and the technology used in their production. This is based on, but not restricted to, optical mineralogy (OM, often dubbed petrography) for defining the geological context of the clay and temper minerals, and/or on instrumental neutron activation analysis (INAA) for measuring the elemental concentrations of the clay (Mommmsen, 2004). In practice, however, these methods face several difficulties resulting from their intrusive nature. In fact, fearing such intrusion, museum curators have always been extremely reluctant to allow such studies. Moreover, the antiquities laws of several countries are extremely strict when it comes to the export of archaeological materials, be they complete artifacts or meager samples taken from artifacts. As a result, apart from two pioneering but rather limited studies made during the 1970s using INAA (Artzy et al., 1976; Dobel et al., 1977), no attempt has been made until the turn of the 21st century to investigate the source of large numbers of tablets on the basis of their raw materials.

A significant step forward may be found in the comprehensive study of the much discussed and disputed 14th century BCE Amarna archive by Goren et al. (2002, 2003a,b, 2004). The Amarna tablets were retrieved in Egypt in the late 19th century and have been under investigation ever since, with many issues remaining unresolved (e.g., Moran, 1992). For example, the locality of many Canaanite rulers and several kings of independent states who wrote to the pharaohs was unknown or was debated among scholars. The OM study made it possible to locate many of these places and consequently, to suggest an overall reconstruction of the territorial disposition of the ANE, particularly Canaan, during the 2nd millennium BCE.

As a sequel to this study, other research projects were planned, applying the same methodology. Part of the Amarna project involved the study of the Cypro-Minoan texts from Enkomi and Kalavassos in Cyprus at the Cyprus Museum in Nicosia (Goren et al., 2003a, 2004). Southern Levantine tablets and other texts on clay were also analyzed (Goren et al., 2004, 2007, 2009; Na'aman and Goren, 2009; Mazar et al., 2010). In addition, Goren, Cohen and Kaufman studied a collection of syllabic, legal, administrative and scholarly texts from the archive of Ugarit (Ras Shamra, on the north Syrian coast) along with a few letters now kept in the *Musée du Louvre* in Paris (Kaufman, 2008). At the *Vorderasiatisches Museum* (VAM) in Berlin, Goren and Mommmsen also studied 65 documents

from the Hittite archives at Hattuşa (Boğazköy), the capital of the Hittite Empire in the late Bronze Age, consisting of official correspondence and contracts, legal codes, procedures for cult ceremony, oracular prophecies and literature of the ANE (this article, see Table 1 for details).

All of these studies employed OM and in most cases also INAA techniques. Jointly, they have demonstrated three methodological rules. The first was that sometimes cuneiform tablets were not produced of the same clay types as pottery of the same locality (Goren et al., 2004, pp. 316–318); hence, tablets should be treated separately from other archaeological ceramics. This means that the comparison between the clay of tablets and pottery fabrics should be made with caution. Second, clay selection for the production of cuneiform tablets by a given authority was not always consistent, and sometimes different clay sources were employed along a sequence of time. Such is, for example, the case of the letters sent from the Kingdom of Amurru to the Pharaohs of Egypt (Goren et al., 2003b). Third, while pottery can usually be studied using the routine mineralogical and chemical methods that involve destructive sampling, clay tablets are unique and delicate. Their sampling, if allowed at all, should be extremely minimal, thus often below the routine standards of the regular examination procedures. Therefore, going forward, it became clear that new methods should be introduced specifically for provenance studies of ancient clay documents, with the endeavor of enabling *in situ* application of scientifically based, non-destructive testing (NDT). Most significantly, this method must involve portable analytical apparatus which may be even carried as handbag in commercial flights, which would allow for their study in museums, departments of antiquities and collections, without the need to extract any samples and export them abroad for further analysis. Such method can offer new opportunities for the routine study of ancient clay documents, without violating any museological proviso or local antiquities law.

2. The portable X-ray fluorescence

In this context, it is only natural to consider the impressive development of portable X-Ray Fluorescence (pXRF) analyzers (Fig. 2A). The greatest advantages of pXRF for archaeology are twofold: first, it can be seen in many cases as a non-destructive method that under certain conditions does not require any extraction of samples. Moreover, the past few years have seen a meteoric and practical development of pXRF units, increasing the speed and efficiency of the testing process and making it available outside the research laboratory. A major development of the last decade was made in terms of the sensitivity of these units, as the limits of detection (LOD) of the previous generations were rather restricted, making them almost impractical for quantitative analysis of composite materials such as ceramics. Today, however, most manufacturers equip advanced models of pXRFs with Silicon Drift Detectors (SDD), lowering the LOD by an entire order of magnitude relative to the previous Silicon Pin Detectors and by up to four times relative to the HgI technology that existed over a decade ago (Goren, 2000). Given these developments, the use of an SDD-pXRF should now be tested again for *in situ* quantitative elemental NDT of delicate archaeological objects for provenance determinations (Padilla et al., 2006; Liangquan, 2008). Today, the pXRF procedure has become standard practice in the mining and natural resources industry, after tests have indicated that the pXRF instrument can give excellent correlation with laboratory-based reference methods such as atomic absorption spectrometry (Radu and Diamond, 2009).

A cautionary note is necessary here. While the industry and material sciences are witnessing an ever-growing interest in the development and application of NDT techniques, such methods often present problems when they are applied on non-

Table 1
List of tablets included in this study.

| No. | VAT ^a | EA | CTH | Description | Reference to | OM definition/Ref ^b | INAA class ^c | pXRF group ^d |
|-----|----------------------------|-----|-----|--|--------------|---|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | 153 | 38 | | Letter of the King of Alašiya to Egypt. | Alašiya | Pachna marl from Cyprus (IiC: 51). | Alašiya | AlaA |
| 2 | 1654 | 33 | | Letter of the King of Alašiya to Egypt. | Alašiya | Pachna marl from Cyprus (IiC: 50). | Alašiya | AlaA |
| 3 | 6184 | | 216 | Fragments of an Akkadian docket mentioning Alašiya. | Alašiya | Pachna marl from Cyprus, as the EA Alašiya tablets (except EA 37). | Alašiya | AlaA |
| 4 | 342 | 32 | | Letter of Tarhundurandu to Egypt. | Arzawa | Aegean "red clay" (IiC: 45). | East Aegean | Singular |
| 5 | 148 + 2706 | 2 | | Letter of Kadašman-Enlil to Egypt. | Babylonia | Fine Euphrates sediment (IiC: 34). | Unstudied | BabA |
| 6 | 149 | 6 | | Letter of Burra-Buriyaš to Egypt. | Babylonia | Fine Euphrates sediment (IiC: 35). | Unstudied | BabA |
| 7 | 151 + 1878 | 11 | | Letter of Burra-Buriyaš to Egypt. | Babylonia | Fine Euphrates sediment (IiC: 35-6). | Unstudied | Not BabA |
| 8 | 152 | 8 | | Letter of Burra-Buriyaš to Egypt. | Babylonia | Euphrates sediment, coarser (IiC: 35). | Unstudied | BabA |
| 9 | 1605 | 12 | | Letter of a princess to Egypt. | Babylonia | Fine Euphrates sediment (IiC: 36). | Unstudied | BabA |
| 10 | 1657 | 4 | | Letter of Kadašman-Enlil(?) to Egypt. | Babylonia | Fine Euphrates sediment (IiC: 34-5). | Unstudied | BabA |
| 11 | 1717 | 13 | | Inventory of gifts sent to Egypt. | Babylonia | Fine Euphrates sediment (IiC: 36-7). | Unstudied | BabA |
| 12 | 6692 | | 181 | Letter to the king of Ahhiyawa (Tawagalawa). | East Aegean | Clayey, extremely micaceous illitic, chistose, with quartz & flysch, similar to Samos – Miletus amphorae. | East Aegean, Ephesus region | Singular |
| 13 | 1583 | 340 | | Amarna scholarly text. | Egypt Es | Esna marl from Egypt (IiC: 76). | Unstudied | Singular |
| 14 | 1611 + 1613 1614 + 2710 | 357 | | Myth of Nergal and Ereshkigal. | Egypt Es | Esna marl from Egypt (IiC: 83). | Unstudied | EgypA |
| 15 | 1651 + 2711 | 14 | | Inventory of gifts sent from Egypt. | Egypt Es | Esna marl from Egypt (IiC: 25). | Unstudied | Singular |
| 16 | 347 | 162 | | Letter of the King of Egypt to Amurru. | Egypt Es | Esna marl from Egypt (IiC: 25-6). | Unstudied | EgypA |
| 17 | 1885 | 163 | | Letter of the King of Egypt to Canaan. | Egypt NS | Egyptian Nile silt (IiC: 26-7). | Unstudied | EgypD |
| 18 | 1887 | 339 | | Letter written in Egypt. | Egypt NS | Egyptian Nile silt (IiC: 29). | Unstudied | EgypD |
| 19 | 13067 | | 169 | Letter of Sutahapsap, son of Ramses II, to Hattušili III. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay. | Egyptian marl | EgypB |
| 20 | 6156 | 156 | | Letter of Ramses II to Hattušili III. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay. | Egyptian marl | EgypC |
| 21 | 6161 | 159 | | Letter of Ramses II to Hattušili III and Puduhepa. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay. | Unstudied | EgypC |
| 22 | 6168 | 166 | | Letter of Ramses II to the king of Mira. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay. | Egyptian marl | EgypC |
| 23 | 6169 + 7669 | 156 | | Letter of Ramses II to Hattušili III on the subject of the Syrian war. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay. | Egyptian marl | EgypB |
| 24 | 6172 | 156 | | Letter of Ramses II to Hattušili III on the subject of the Syrian war. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay or Paleocene marl mixed with calcareous & quartz sand. | Berk: Ela1 Egyptian marl | EgypC |
| 25 | 7677 | 164 | | Letter of Ramses II to Puduhepa. | Egypt Ra | Egyptian marly clay. | Unstudied | EgypB |
| 26 | 12887 | 68 | | Treaty with Kupanta-KAL of Mira and Kuwalia. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, nearly isotropic matrix, coarse quartzite inclusions. | Hattuša | HattB |
| 27 | 12890 | 341 | | Gilgamesh fragment: Akkadian. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric lightly fired. Inclusions: quartzite, quartz, some limestone. | Hattuša | HattB (Mn+, K+) |
| 28 | 13007 | 8 | | Anecdotes (Palace Chronicle) of the Reign of Hattušili I. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric. | Unstudied | HattA |
| 29 | 13009 | 311 | | Naram-Sin in Anatolia. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric. | Singular | HattB |
| 30 | 13012 | 125 | | Šuppiluliuma II, Carchamish treaty(?). | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, nearly vitrified by firing. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 31 | 13059 | 284 | | Kikkuli. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 32 | 13060 | 284 | | Kikkuli. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, nearly isotropic. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 33 | 13064 | 6 | | Political testament of Hattušili I. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, nearly isotropic. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 34 | 1655 | 42 | | Letter of a king of Hatti to Egypt. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric (IiC: 31). | Unstudied | HattB |
| 35 | 1656 | 44 | | Letter of Zita to Egypt. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric (IiC: 31-2). | Unstudied | HattB (Fe+) |
| 36 | 6163 | 53 | | Treaty with Tette of Nuhasse: Akkadian. | Hattuša | Highly fired, most likely Hattuša fabric, unlike EA 51 (assigned to Nuhasse in IiC: 91-2). | Unstudied | HattA |
| 37 | 6165 | 61 | | Ten Year Annals of Mursili II. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, coarse version with quartzite and greywacke. | Unstudied | HattA |
| 38 | 6207 + 13572 | 91 | | Silver Treaty with Ramses II (Akkadian). | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, low firing. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 39 | 6699 | 14 | | Fragments relative to the Syrian Wars: Mentioning Yarim-Lim, Atradu, Hammurabi, and Hattušili I. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, fine. | Unstudied | HattC |
| 40 | 7423 | 52 | | Treaty of Šuppiluliuma I with Sattiwaza of Mitanni, Akkadian version. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 41 | 7428 | 63 | | Treaty with Duppi-Teshub of Amurru. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric. Low firing, matrix highly optically active. | Unstudied | HattB |
| 42 | 7456 | 381 | | Muwatalli's Prayer to all Gods through the Storm-God of Lightning. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, isotropic matrix, inclusions: quartzite, quartz, decomposed carbonates. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 43 | 7476 | 154 | | Letter of Šuppiluliuma I to a Pharaoh. | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric (fine) with much vegetal material (chopped grass). Low firing, matrix highly optically active. | Hattuša (Ta+, Sc+) | HattB |
| 44 | 7487 | 124 | | Šuppiluliuma II, Carchamish treaty(?). | Hattuša | Hattuša fabric, fine. Low firing, matrix highly optically active. | Hattuša | HattA |

Table 1 (continued).

| No. | VAT ^a | EA | CTH | Description | Reference to | OM definition/Ref ^b | INAA class ^c | pXRF group ^d |
|-----|---------------------|-----|-----|--|--------------|---|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 45 | 7699 + 7701 | | 402 | Ritual of Alli. | Hattuša | Perhaps Hattuša fabric, but sample completely vitrified. | Hattuša | HattA |
| 46 | 6180 | | 833 | Karum Hattuš. | Karum Hattuš | Very dark red-tan fine fabric, no inclusions, small sample. | Unstudied | KaHat |
| 47 | 7674 | | 833 | Karum Hattuš Assyrian docket. | Karum Hattuš | Very dark red-tan, ferruginous, inclusions: quartz, augite, K-feldspar, chert. | Unstudied | KaHat |
| 48 | 190 | 21 | | Letter of Tušratta to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni clayey fabric (liC: 41). | Unstudied | Not MitA |
| 49 | 191 | 20 | | Letter of Tušratta to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni marly fabric (liC: 40). | Unstudied | Not MitA |
| 50 | 2197 + 233 | 27 | | Letter of Tušratta to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni clayey fabric (liC: 42). | Unstudied | MitA |
| 51 | 271 + 1600, 1618–20 | 29 | | Letter of Tušratta to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni marly fabric (liC: 43). | Unstudied | MitA |
| 52 | 340 + 2191a–c | 25 | | Inventory of gifts sent to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni marly fabric (liC: 42). | Unstudied | MitA |
| 53 | 395 | 22 | | Inventory of gifts sent to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni marly fabric (liC: 41). | Unstudied | MitA |
| 54 | 422 | 24 | | Letter of Tušratta to Egypt. | Mitanni | Mitanni marly fabric (liC: 41). | Unstudied | MitA |
| 55 | 1690 | 48 | | Letter of the Queen of Ugarit to Egypt. | Ugarit | Ugarit fabric (liC: 90). | Unstudied | Ugar |
| 56 | 1692 | 45 | | Letter of Ammishdamru to Egypt. | Ugarit | Ugarit fabric (liC: 88). | Unstudied | Ugar |
| 57 | 1693 | 47 | | Letter of the King of Ugarit to Egypt. | Ugarit | Ugarit fabric (liC: 90). | Unstudied | Ugar |
| 58 | 1694 | 46 | | Letter to Egypt. | Ugarit | Ugarit fabric (liC: 89–90). | Unstudied | Ugar |
| 59 | 7416b | | 309 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattC |
| 60 | 7434a | | 299 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattB |
| 61 | 7434b | | 304 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 62 | 7434d | | 302 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 63 | 7434f | | | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 64 | 7437b | | 301 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | Singular |
| 65 | 7440 | | 304 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 66 | 7441 | | 304 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | Singular |
| 67 | 7442 | | 303 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 68 | 7445 | | | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 69 | 7449 | | 301 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | HattA |
| 70 | 7450 | | 301 | Vocabulary | Vocabulary | Unstudied | Unstudied | Singular |
| 71 | 13008 | | 50 | Treaty of Supiluliuma I with Sarri – Kusu of Carchemish. | Singular | Marl with sand of basalt, dolerite, limestone, quartz, serpentinized minerals. | Unstudied | Singular |
| 72 | 13049 | | 123 | Treaty of Tudhaliya IV with an unknown party (Isuwa?). | Singular | Extremely micaceous (illitic) clay with perfect optical orientation, sparse quartz, serpentine, phyllite, olivine. | Singular | Singular |
| 73 | 1877 | 172 | | Letter fragment. | Singular | Marl with schistose minerals (liC: 75). | Unstudied | Singular |
| 74 | 348 | 356 | | Myth of Adapa and the South Wind. | Singular | Euphrates sediment(?), (liC: 82–3). | Unstudied | Singular |
| 75 | 6210 | | 147 | Madduwattas indcement. | Singular | Hattuša fabric(?) with inclusions of phyllite, plagioclase, quartz & granite. | Singular | Singular |
| 76 | 6697 | | 585 | Vow of Puduhepa. | Singular | Dark red-tan, fine (like Karum Hattuš)?. | Unstudied | HattA |
| 77 | 7412 | | 105 | Treaty of Tudhaliya IV with Sausgamuwa of Amurru. | Singular | Fine micaceous, undetermined. | Singular or Cyprus I (but Sc -) | Singular |
| 78 | 7420 | | 57 | Recognition of Piyassili of Carchemish by Arnuwanda II. | Singular | Marl with river sand of basalt, dolerite, limestone, quartz, serpentinized minerals. | Unstudied | Singular |
| 79 | 7454 | | 191 | Manapa-Tarhunta letter. | Singular | Ferruginous clay with abundant mica, plagioclase, chert and quartz. | Singular | Singular |
| 80 | 7479 | | 1 | Proclamation of Anitta, King of Kussara. | Singular | Probably Hattuša fabric but containing coarser sand with ophiolitic components (serpentine, pillow basalt, schist). | Singular | Singular |
| 81 | 7679 | | 7 | Akkadian version of the siege of Uršu. | Singular | Marl with river sand of basalt, augite, limestone, quartz, some serpentine. | Singular | Singular |

^a VAT: Vorderasiatisches Museum number. EA: Amarna number (see Moran, 1992 for details). CTH: The catalogued texts from Hattuša.

^b liC: Inscribed in Clay (Goren et al., 2004).

^c Unstudied: Not examined by INAA. Singular: chemical single.

^d See Table 3 for the average concentration patterns of these groups.

homogeneous materials such as ceramics or soils. Because NDT does not alter the article being inspected, it is regarded in material sciences as a highly-valuable tool in research, troubleshooting and product evaluation. For exactly the same reasons, one could expect this approach to be especially appreciated in the science of art and archaeology. Yet the pXRF has some important limitations that in certain cases undo the advantages of its non-destructiveness. Especially for a quantitative analysis certain assumptions have to be made which must be fulfilled, but which in practice cannot be always tested. The most important assumption is that the sample is

homogeneous and has no layering. In such cases the absorption of the X-rays inside the sample to be analyzed can be considered and correct quantitative results are obtained. Good results can be also obtained, if the internal structure of a layered sample is known, which is rarely applicable. The absorption of X-rays depends on their energy and is strongest for the light elements that have the lowest characteristic X-rays energies. To give an example, a small silicon grain of 20 µm diameter absorbs already 75% of the intensity of the Ti–K X-ray radiation. Therefore to obtain quantitative X-ray measurements of the light elements in ceramics, often a sample is

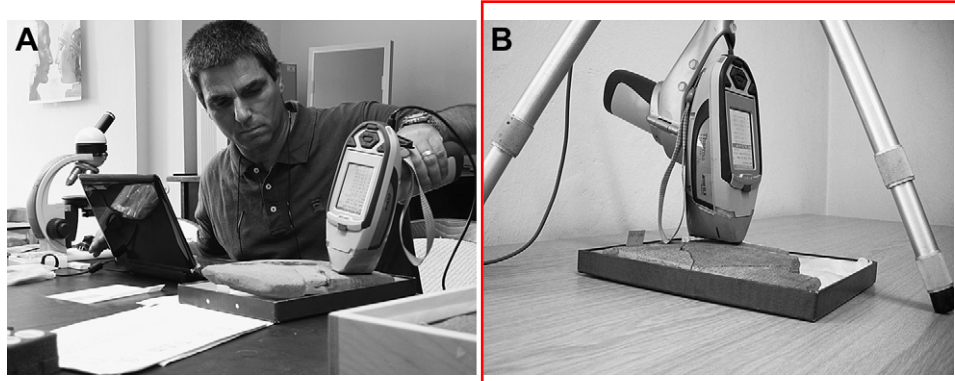


Fig. 2. Analysis of tablets in the VAM with the pXRF: A. Direct analysis of a tablet from Hattuša by holding the pXRF. B. The pXRF installed on an improvised accessory built from a photographic tripod and the unit holder of the optional Extend-a-Pole facility provided by Niton, showing the examination of a flat surface of a cuneiform tablet.

taken that is homogenized before measurement by melting it into a glass. With pXRF used in the NDT-mode without sample treatment, correct quantitative results are obtained only for homogeneous samples with no surface layer. To average over a possible varying internal structure it is advantageous to analyze a large sample area and perform repeated measurements at different positions to test for non-homogeneities. Since the directions of the exciting radiation from the X-ray tube entering the sample surface and the excited measured characteristic X-rays emitted into the detector are both approximately perpendicular to the sample surface (Fig. 2), a non-flat, structured surface can be tolerated, since for this measurement geometry the measured intensities do not depend on the surface structure. These known problems of pXRF were treated by the method to be discussed below.

The present article reports a study that aimed to test the application potential of the last generation of SDD-pXRF units for the routine study of clay cuneiform tablets. In view of the results, the possibilities and limitations of this method are discussed together with some preliminary outcome resulting from the analysis of a test group of documents of unknown provenance.

3. Material and methods

A group of 58 cuneiform tablets including 29 tablets from Hattuša and 29 letters and scholarly texts from the Amarna archive, was selected to form the reference group for this study. All tablets have been previously examined by the 'classical' intrusive methods of OM and, in most cases, also by INAA. The list of tablets is presented in Table 1 (nos. 1–58), together with their bottom-line OM and INAA results, indicating the logic for including each tablet as "reference" to a certain location. The references were made to Alašiya (Table 1: nos. 1–3), Arzawa (4), Babylonia (5–11), the east Aegean (12, the "Tawagalawa letter" discussed below), Egyptian texts written on Esna marl (13–16), Nile silt (17–18) and Marl D or marl-silt mixtures (19–25), Hattuša (26–45), Karum Hattuš (46–47), Mitanni (48–54) and Ugarit (55–58). In addition, 11 tablets from Hattuša, which were defined as "singular" according to the OM and/or INAA results, were added (Table 1: 71–81) in order to examine their relations with the reference groups. An additional group of 12 vocabulary tablets from Hattuša (Table 1: 59–70), which were not examined before by any natural scientific method, was added to form a test group attempting to assign them to the elemental clusters of the reference group. Hence, the pXRF examination covered a total sum of 81 tablets.

The SDD-pXRF apparatus used for this study was a Thermo Scientific Niton XLt-900 GOLDD equipped with a 50 kV X-ray tube with a Geometrically Optimized Large Area Drift Detector (GOLDD), 80 MHz real-time digital signal processing, and dual embedded processors for computation and data storage. As the Niton pXRF is set

to use several company-preset matrices, we employed the "mining" matrix, which includes most of the relevant elements for ceramic studies (listed below). The apparatus uses up to four filters for each irradiation session, set to include the main, low, high, and light ranges of elements. The filters are set to include the following elements: Main: Sb, Sn, Cd, Pd, Ag, Mo, Nb, Zr, Sr, Rb, Bi, As, Se, Au, Pb, Hg, W, Zn, Cu, Re, Ta, Hf, Ni, Co, Fe, Mn, Cr, V, Ti. Low: Cr, V, Ti, Ca, K. High: Ba, Sb, Sn, Cd, Pd, Ag. Light: Al, P, Si, Cl, S, Mg. The irradiation time of each filter can be controlled by the software, as can be the display units (weight percent or ppm = mg/kg), and the calibration against standards (although Niton provides its pXRF with an internal, factory-set calibration program). The irradiation area is circular, 8 mm in diameter, making it efficient for relatively non-homogeneous surfaces such as ceramic earthenware. The Niton XLt-900 GOLDD is capable of detecting up to 32 elements (through the mining matrix), using the four different filters for the detection of the entire range of elements, from Mg ($Z = 12$) up to U ($Z = 92$).

With the above-mentioned limitations of the pXRF method in mind, a pilot testing was carried out on a group of pre-examined tablets from Hattuša. The analytical procedure for the main study that followed was set after some trial and error to the following: applying the mining matrix, the apparatus was set to the irradiation times of 60 s for each of the main and low filters and to 30 s for each of the high and light filters, with the measurement units set to ppm. Hence each measurement lasted for 180 s. The analyses were made on flat and smooth surfaces; visually clean of incrustation or dirt. The measured area was controlled and selected precisely by inspection through the internally installed video camera that this model of Niton pXRF is equipped with. In order to ease the use of the apparatus during the long sets of measurements, an improvised accessory was built in advance from a photographic tripod and the pXRF unit holder of the optional Extend-a-Pole facility provided by Niton (Fig. 2B). By manipulating the length of the tripod's poles, the pXRF could be tilted and lowered or lifted in order to meet flatly with the measured surfaces.

For the reasons explained above, each tablet was tested in three different locations, resulting in approximately 10 min for the analysis of each tablet including data recording in the pXRF software and the selection of the appropriate surfaces for irradiation. As the scanning area is a circle of 8 mm in diameter, the total scanning area of the three measurements together was about 150 mm². This is, in fact, nearly the standard size of a common thin section for ceramic OM. The results were also monitored as spectra using the Niton NDTTr 6.5.2 software, to ensure accurate interpretation of the raw data.

The quantitative handling of the data included several stages. First, the three measurements and their given experimental uncertainties taken from each tablet were compiled on an Excel spreadsheet. To obtain the elemental composition of the tablet, the

three values of each element (resulting from the three measurements at different locations) were averaged and the data subjected to a best relative fit for each case with respect to the average values using the standard Bonn statistical procedure (Beier and Mommsen, 1994a,b, Mommsen and Sjöberg, 2007). This was done to consider a possible varying inhomogeneity of the clays at the different locations by Si and/or Ca and/or other elements not measured like H and O (water). The concentration values and the given statistical measurement uncertainties of fifteen elements dependent on the intensities of the X-ray lines and of the underlying background, have been used for the calculation of the best relative fit factors (numbers in brackets indicate the averaged statistical measurement uncertainties of the three measurements in %): Al (8.1), K (1.6), Ti (1.3), V (8.4), Cr (9.5), Mn (4.9), Fe (0.6), Ni (17), Cu (4.8), Zn (1.8), Rb (1.5), Sr (14), Zr (1.9), Nb (8.3), excluding Si (1.0) and Ca (0.6). After the application of these factors, which only deviated from 1.00 by more than 5% in rare cases, the new average values (see Table 2) and standard deviations (= spreads = root mean square deviations including the experimental uncertainties) of each tablet were calculated and stored in a databank. Then these spreads of the three measurements were checked. Large spreads indicated either large statistical measurement uncertainties or large differences of the measured values at the three locations. Elements with spreads smaller than 20% included: Al (13.2%), Si (8.3%), K (9.0%), Ca (20%), Ti (6.3%), V (11.3%), Cr (12.9%), Fe (4.1%), Ni (18.5%), Rb (4.4%), Sr (9.6%), Zr (4.7%), Nb (8.3%), and Ba (12%). For these elements, strongly differing values for the three different locations of the measurement hardly ever occur.

At this stage, the elements having values below or near the LOD level of 2-sigma were cleared from the list. In addition, elements that are known to be affected by post-depositional processes or firing effects were also omitted. These include S, much affected by the presence of gypsum in arid soils (such as in el Amarna); Cl, which is increased by surface enrichment by salt; P, influenced by bones and ash in archaeological deposits; and Ba, which is enriched as barite in seismites within clay of lake deposits (Katz et al., 2009). In addition, due to the use of Cu and Zn filters by the mining matrix of the pXRF, these elements are subjected to inconsistent fluctuations in the measurement and they were also excluded from some of the statistical tests. Ca is also likely to be affected (either enriched or diluted) near the surface of archaeological ceramics due to its precipitation in groundwater and was also excluded from the successive statistical grouping using the Bonn statistical procedure for considering uncertainties and effects of dilution (Beier and Mommsen, 1994a,b), yet it was included in the PCA plots (below), as in practice, it seemed to have little effect on the datasets. The Bonn statistical grouping of the different tablets was done using the 12 elements: Al, K, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Rb, Sr, Nb, and Zr. Although the spread of the values for Mn are larger than 20%, Mn could be included in the Bonn grouping procedure, since these errors were taken into account during the calculations. Only the pXRF data values have been used during the group forming procedure regardless of the OM and INAA definitions, in order to prevent any bias of the results. The assignment of each tablet to its pXRF group is given in Table 1, last column. The average concentration values of the groups and their spreads in % (=relative standard deviation, rms deviation, variance, coefficient of variation) are shown in Table 3 after application of the best relative fit factor (BRF) with respect to the average grouping values shown in the last column of Table 2.

Another statistical processing was made by manipulating the data with several multivariate statistical procedures to scrutinize its validity and clustering. The spreadsheet with the averaged three measurements taken from each tablet was loaded on a statistical package (SAS-JMP release 8.0.2). The mean concentrations of the 14 selected elements (Al, Si, K, Ca, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Rb, Sr, Nb, and Zr)

were tested by cluster analysis (Ward's method), discriminant, and factor and principal component analysis (PCA) to establish the grouping of the tablets according to their elemental composition of these elements for comparison. Of these, PCA proved to be the most useful method. By plotting the factor loadings, the most significant elements could be selected. This was done in an attempt to condense the resulting clusters according to the previous OM and INAA results. Better clustering was achieved when the following seven most significant elements were used: Al, Si, K, Ti, Rb, Zr, and Nb.

A very simple way for monitoring the results involved producing a scatterplot matrix for the entire dataset and calculating the correlation matrix between each pair of the elements involved. Elements that were not internally correlated were plotted by simple X–Y or ternary diagrams. This method proved useful for quick observation of the general clusters prior to the more detailed statistics. The best results were achieved by plotting K, Ti, Rb, and Nb. Especially significant were the X–Y plots of K and Ti (for which we coined the term “K–Ti test”), which enabled quick monitoring of the results during the pXRF analysis and the tentative attribution of an unknown tablet into a possible provenance cluster of the reference group prior to the more advanced, statistical development of the data.

4. Results

The groups obtained and assigned to the tablets are given in Table 1, column “pXRF group”. The individual best relative fit factors with respect to the average grouping values are shown in Table 2, column BRF. Table 3 records the pXRF elemental concentration patterns of these groups including the values of Ca and Si not used for the grouping calculations. The number of six elements measured by both the pXRF and INAA elemental analytical methods is considered to be too low for a reliable comparison of the average absolute concentrations of the groups. The full INAA data and the grouping will be published in a future report; the INAA pattern of the group for Hattuša has been published already in Goren et al. (2007). Absolute values for trace and minor elements are difficult to measure and tend to disagree sometimes in different laboratories without a laborious inter-laboratory study due to the choice of different standards and calibration procedures. Using a fixed analytical method, groups of samples having similar composition can be reliably formed, even if not absolute, but only relative concentration values are measured.

As expected, the different groups formed repeat the grouping results of the OM and INAA evaluations for most of the tablets. The pattern for Alašiya, Babylonia, Egypt, Hattuša, Mitanni, and Ugarit are all well separated. Especially useful are the elements Fe, K, Rb, Ti, and Zr, since the average concentrations of these elements all have small standard deviations only slightly larger or comparable to the measurement uncertainties of the pXRF method included in the calculations (see above). The good separability of the groups is shown in Fig. 3, where the result of discriminant analysis is depicted. The overlapping groups Alašiya and Babylonia are due to the projection into the plane, the values for the elements Rb and Ni are quite different as can be seen in Table 3a. In higher projections, both groups are separated. The OM subgroups of the different clays of Egypt (Esna marl, Nile silt and Egyptian marly clay) can be resolved also with pXRF (Table 3b). Two tablets made of ‘Esna marl’ have pattern EgypA. Pattern EgypD belongs to the two ‘Nile silt’ tablets. The group ‘Egyptian marly clay’ is subdivided by the pXRF data into two groups EgypB and EgypC. Group EgypC (Ca is high, see Table 3b) is diluted by 15% (best relative fit factor 1.15) with respect to EgypB and differs after correction mainly in Mn and K. Since this is not seen with OM or INAA (Mn is not measured by the Bonn laboratory, but K is), this subdivision might be needless and obtained only due to a given too small experimental uncertainty for

Table 2 (continued).

| No. | Museum No. | Reference to | Al | Si | K | Ca | Ti | V | Cr | Mn | Fe | Ni | Rb | Sr | Zr | Nb | BRF |
|-----|------------|--------------|--------|---------|--------|---------|------|-----|-----|------|--------|-----|----|-----|-----|----|------|
| 74 | VAT 348 | Singular | 28,578 | 119,200 | 9152 | 149,063 | 3544 | 352 | 134 | 685 | 39,015 | | 12 | 198 | 163 | 18 | – |
| 75 | VAT 6210 | Singular | 50,775 | 215,858 | 25,125 | 25,288 | 4058 | 364 | 163 | 333 | 37,847 | | 57 | 145 | 211 | 22 | – |
| 76 | VAT 6697 | Singular | 85,522 | 240,118 | 28,413 | 30,333 | 4202 | 313 | 219 | 972 | 40,818 | 69 | 56 | 204 | 177 | 21 | 0.96 |
| 77 | VAT 7412 | Singular | 54,663 | 211,846 | 17,952 | 87,060 | 2833 | 280 | 307 | 1830 | 49,197 | 272 | 20 | 206 | 89 | 12 | – |
| 78 | VAT 7420 | Singular | 31,775 | 150,276 | 9631 | 18,3181 | 2680 | 285 | 312 | 1043 | 38,805 | 152 | 14 | 366 | 87 | 12 | – |
| 79 | VAT 7454 | Singular | 42,489 | 177,161 | 19,280 | 10,4222 | 2692 | 312 | 173 | 3026 | 34,579 | 127 | 33 | 338 | 145 | 12 | – |
| 80 | VAT 7479 | Singular | 63,147 | 253,240 | 22,738 | 10,491 | 4394 | 283 | 280 | 803 | 59,134 | 149 | 33 | 76 | 153 | 18 | – |
| 81 | VAT 7679 | Singular | 28,856 | 182,296 | 10,329 | 52,204 | 2866 | 451 | 714 | 804 | 45,026 | 339 | 10 | 231 | 59 | 8 | – |

^a Averaged from the three measurements of each tablet. BRF = individual best relative fit factors with respect to the average grouping values given in Table 3.

Mn and K. Adding all 7 members to one group EgypB + C results in spread values for Mn and K of 24% and 16%, respectively. For the large group of reference tablets from Hattuša, the pXRF data are also statistically sub-dividable into 3 groups: HattA, HattB, and the pair HattC. The two tablets from Karum Hattuš form a separate group. The main difference in composition between HattA and HattB is in the Rb and Zr values, whereas a lower Fe value than in both the other groups is seen in the tablets of the pair HattC (see Table 3c). The pattern Hatt-sum is obtained if all 30 reference items for Hattuša are merged into one group. The pair from Karum Hattuš differs from group HattA after application of a best relative fit factor of 1.22 in lower Rb and K and a higher Fe concentration.

Not all the reference tablets are members of their expected group; some tablets are statistically outliers either due to the choice of different clay or due to a contamination of the elements considered or due to a wrong concentration value caused by the limitations of the pXRF method. In the set of the 58 reference tablets, there are only five of such chemical loners: tablet VAT 151 + 1878 (EA 11, Tables 1 and 2: No. 7) does not match BabA (Babylonia); VAT 1583 (EA 340, Tables 1 and 2: No. 13) and VAT 1651 + 2711 (EA 14, No. 15) are both different from each other and from the pair of the two other Esna marl tablets; VAT 190 (EA 21, Tables 1 and 2: 48) and VAT 191 (EA 20, Tables 1 and 2: No. 49) are different and do not match MitA (Mitanni). Yet it was already noticed in the past based on INAA and OM, that two distinctive clay types were used by the Mitannian scribes: a marly type (including EA 20) and a clayey type (including EA 21) (Goren et al., 2004, pp. 38–44). These are probably the different INAA ‘chemical profiles’ referred to by Dobel et al. (1977). All other tablets match the former

results. The Arzawa letter (VAT 342, No. 4) and also the Tawagalawa letter (VAT 6692, No. 12) are single items representing clays from northern Ionia/Aiolis (Artzy et al., 2004; Mommsen and Kerschner, 2006) and an Ephesos region INAA group (Kerschner and Mommsen, forthcoming), respectively, and their pXRF concentration patterns are also singles.

The results from the 12 vocabulary tablets are discussed below. Finally, the 11 tablets that have been singulars with OM and, if studied, with INAA, are also singulars according to the pXRF data with the exception of VAT 6697 (No. 76, Vow of Puduhepa), which belongs to group HattA and should have been made in Hattuša. This tablet was not studied with INAA, and OM places it in the neighborhood of Karum Hattuš but without certainty.

Fig. 4A presents the PCA score plot of the international letters from el Amarna and the Hattuša tablets of the reference group, using the 14 selected elements listed above. The clusters retrieved represent the overall true groupings of the tablets according to their known provenance. Especially significant is the clustering of the Hattuša group, the separated Egyptian cluster, and the Syro-Mesopotamian cluster where an internal clustering is visible between the Babylonian, Mitannian, and Ugaritic documents. The Alašiya letters form a separate cluster, but they also include the single tablet from Arzawa. Another problem of this kind occurs with the so-called ‘Tawagalawa letter’ (VAT 6692, No. 12), which in the PCA score plot of the 14 elements falls within the Hattuša cluster. However, these problems are corrected when the factor loadings of the elements are used to select only the most significant elements. Fig. 4B demonstrates the PCA results using only the seven most significant elements (Si, Al, K, Ti, Rb, Zr, and Nb). In this case, the Tawagalawa letter is separated from the Hattuša cluster, the Egyptian cluster is divided into two distinct groups of tablets made of Esna marl (from Amarna, as identified by OM), and Nile sediments including the Ramses II letters from Hattuša that were made of Egyptian ‘Marl D’ clay (as identified by OM) and two Egyptian dockets from Amarna made of Nile Silt. Better definition is also seen among the Mesopotamian and north Syrian clusters of the Babylonian, Mitannian, and Ugaritic letters. Hence the use of these elements on their own provides a more refined clustering. Still, while this grouping was significant enough to form the reference clusters for Hattuša, Karum Hattuš, Egypt, Mitanni, Babylonia, Alašiya and Ugarit, other possible provenances remained undefined. These will be established in the future by further analyses of pre-examined tablets from the Amarna and other archives.

The K–Ti test of the reference tablets (Fig. 5) yielded nearly similar results. Especially significant is the distinction of the Hattuša cluster, which is by far higher in K contents than any other group. At the same time, Egyptian tablets made of Nile alluvial sediments (including both Nile Silt and Marl D categories), are distinctive by their high Ti and low K contents. The Mesopotamian and north Syrian tablets demonstrate relatively low values of both elements. The reasons for this can be found in the mineralogy of the sediments. As Morgenstein and Redmount (2005, p. 1621) point

Table 3a
pXRF elemental concentration patterns measured for Alašiya (AlaA), Babylonia (BabA), Mitanni (MitA), and Ugarit (Ugar).^a

| | AlaA (3 samples, factor 1.00) | | BabA (6 samples, factor 1.00) | | MitA (5 samples, factor 1.00) | | Ugar (4 samples, factor 1.00) | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------------|-------|
| | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) |
| Al% | 4.36 | 16 | 4.35 | 12 | 3.49 | 22 | 2.29 | 20 |
| Ca% | 12.3 | 7.8 | 9.23 | 8.6 | 9.00 | 8.4 | 19.0 | 19 |
| Cr | 124 | 19 | 273 | 9.3 | 325 | 9.5 | 670 | 31 |
| Fe% | 3.19 | 3.0 | 4.40 | 1.7 | 4.50 | 1.4 | 3.09 | 6.0 |
| K% | 1.53 | 9.0 | 1.19 | 6.9 | 1.14 | 12 | 0.63 | 23 |
| Mn | 671 | 9.3 | 950 | 8.2 | 721 | 8.0 | 1050 | 17 |
| Nb | 14.5 | 9.8 | 11.1 | 12 | 9.67 | 14 | 15.2 | 9.3 |
| Ni | 60.7 | 31 | 193 | 12 | 289 | 8.4 | 161 | 13 |
| Rb | 27.5 | 4.4 | 18.0 | 5.9 | 18.5 | 5.4 | 13.5 | 7.2 |
| Si | 18.6 | 16 | 17.7 | 4.7 | 14.7 | 17 | 11.2 | 8.9 |
| Sr | 330 | 11 | 395 | 58 | 311 | 39 | 290 | 2.8 |
| Ti% | 0.24 | 2.8 | 0.27 | 2.7 | 0.21 | 4.1 | 0.22 | 11 |
| V | 193 | 11 | 211 | 10 | 185 | 10 | 223 | 30 |
| Zr | 97.5 | 4.0 | 92.8 | 3.4 | 73.0 | 7.9 | 99.2 | 2.8 |

^a Averages M in µg/g (ppm), if not indicated otherwise, and spreads σ in percent of M. The individual datasets have been corrected for dilution effects by the best relative fit factor with respect to M (see Table 2).

Table 3b
pXRF elemental concentration patterns measured for Egyptian clays (see text).

| | EgypA (2 samples, factor 1.00) | | EgypB (3 samples, factor 1.00) | | EgypC (4 samples, factor 1.00) | | EgypD (2 samples, factor 1.00) | | EgypBC (7 samples, factor 1.00) | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|--------------|
| | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) |
| Al% | 4.62 | 14 | 4.87 | 13 | 4.16 | 15 | 6.19 | 8.1 | 4.47 | 14 |
| Ca% | 14.9 | 14 | 3.29 | 5.9 | 8.30 | 19 | 1.92 | 12 | 5.31 | 53 |
| Cr | 138 | 18 | 192 | 14 | 180 | 18 | 218 | 11 | 185 | 16 |
| Fe% | 3.82 | 4.8 | 5.51 | 8.1 | 5.24 | 4.4 | 6.64 | 16 | 5.39 | 5.5 |
| K% | 0.85 | 10 | 1.34 | 6.3 | 0.97 | 8.4 | 1.07 | 26 | 1.15 | 16 |
| Mn | 733 | 6.7 | 1519 | 6.0 | 924 | 7.6 | 1140 | 5.2 | 1136 | 24 |
| Nb | 16.8 | 13 | 22.7 | 6.7 | 22.8 | 7.4 | 25.5 | 12 | 22.6 | 7.1 |
| Ni | – | | 69.5 | 31 | 73.7 | 26 | 71.4 | 27 | 72.0 | 28 |
| Rb | 10.2 | 10 | 10.2 | 11 | 9.74 | 16 | 18.6 | 6.6 | 9.92 | 11 |
| Si | 16.6 | 6.5 | 27.6 | 1.1 | 20.8 | 5.7 | 22.3 | 12 | 24.3 | 16 |
| Sr | 322 | 58 | 301 | 8.3 | 276 | 9.2 | 116 | 26 | 286 | 8.0 |
| Ti% | 0.34 | 4.9 | 0.70 | 10 | 0.51 | 11 | 0.64 | 4.7 | 0.59 | 16 |
| V | 207 | 12 | 357 | 13 | 324 | 9.3 | 330 | 18 | 336 | 9.9 |
| Zr | 152 | 4.2 | 187 | 3.1 | 197 | 7.5 | 269 | 36 | 193 | 9.3 |

out, Anatolian and Aegean “red clays” are derived from geological terrains that contain volcanic minerals loaded with potassium-rich minerals such as sanidine, alteration products of volcanic glass such as potassium and rubidium-adsorbed montmorillonite, and alteration products of potassium feldspar such as illite. Therefore, they are rich in K and have low Ti concentrations. On the other hand, Egyptian sediments are known to be enriched by Ti because of the abundance of detrital anatase and rutile in them (Takla and Arafa, 1975; Schneiderman, 1995). At the same time, Euphrates sediments are composed mostly of smectite and palygorskite (Ali, 1976; Berry et al., 1970; Philip, 1968), having relatively lower concentrations of both K and Ti.

5. Some case studies

One outcome of this study is the analysis of the twelve previously unexamined vocabulary tablets, and the nine pre-examined tablets from Hattuša and two from Amarna, which were defined as “singular” by INAA and/or OM. The pXRF analysis made it possible to assign these tablets to a provenance, or at least decipher whether a tablet is indeed local to Hattuša or not (Fig. 6). In theory, this method could be also used prior to sampling tablets for one of the “classical” archaeometric methods, in order to minimize the number of tablets selected for sampling. Yet in practice, many of the tablets that were found to be external to the Hattuša cluster could be attributed to a certain provenance by their proximity to other

known clusters within the reference group. The following examples demonstrate such cases:

5.1. The Hittite correspondence with Egypt in the time of Suppiluliuma I

Within the four letters EA 41–44 there is one definitely written from Suppiluliuma I (EA 41, unstudied by pXRF), one is written by his brother Zida (EA 42, Tables 1 and 2: No. 34) and another one is probably another letter sent by Suppiluliuma I (EA 44, No. 35). The interesting point is that all these letters do not show the normal sign forms typical for texts in the Hittite archives of this period. OM analysis of EA 42 and EA 44 was aimed at supplying the available analytical data for similar analyses on other Hittite texts (Goren et al., 2004, pp. 31–32). CTH 154 (No. 43) is a Hittite draft of a letter sent to Egypt by Suppiluliuma I (van den Hout, 1994, without the additional fragment 154/s = KBo 49.13). A comparison of the clay of the letters found in Amarna with that of the Hattuša tablet confirmed the similarity between the letters from both sites (Table 1). INAA study of CTH 154 assigned it to the Hattuša group (though with somewhat higher values of Ta and Sc unmeasured by pXRF, see Table 1). Hence this case can serve as a model test for the efficiency of the pXRF clustering, because the three tablets, obviously sharing the same provenance, were found in two different sites (Amarna and Boğazköy), where they were exposed over millennia to different post-depositional processes resulting from

Table 3c
pXRF elemental concentration patterns measured for Hattuša (HattA, ~B, ~C) and Karum Hattuš (KaHat).

| | HattA (20 samples, factor 1.00) | | HattB (8 samples, factor 1.00) | | HattC (2 samples, factor 1.00) | | HattABC (30 samples, factor 1.00) | | KaHat (2 samples, factor 1.00) | |
|-----|------------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|
| | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) | M | σ (%) |
| Al% | 7.73 | 10 | 7.39 | 8.8 | 8.98 | 7.2 | 7.71 | 9.7 | 5.68 | 8.2 |
| Ca% | 2.45 | 46 | 3.11 | 72 | 1.53 | 45 | 2.38 | 52 | 4.82 | 14 |
| Cr | 216 | 11 | 258 | 13 | 193 | 11 | 225 | 14 | 232 | 12 |
| Fe% | 4.24 | 5.8 | 4.75 | 3.2 | 3.49 | 2.2 | 4.40 | 7.7 | 6.05 | 12 |
| K% | 2.67 | 6.1 | 2.50 | 6.1 | 3.28 | 11 | 2.67 | 7.6 | 1.74 | 3.0 |
| Mn | 898 | 26 | 1242 | 64 | 709 | 8.6 | 870 | 20 | 2411 | 63 |
| Nb | 18.9 | 7.6 | 18.1 | 8.0 | 19.8 | 7.2 | 18.7 | 7.7 | 14.2 | 10 |
| Ni | 74.2 | 28 | 114 | 18 | 66.7 | 35 | 84.7 | 30 | 95.3 | 21 |
| Rb | 51.2 | 7.6 | 41.1 | 6.3 | 61.2 | 8.4 | 49.2 | 12 | 21.9 | 16 |
| Si | 24.5 | 9.0 | 25.2 | 10 | 24.9 | 5.2 | 24.7 | 8.4 | 23.0 | 7.0 |
| Sr | 184 | 19 | 178 | 29 | 187 | 24 | 182 | 22 | 147 | 12 |
| Ti% | 0.41 | 3.5 | 0.43 | 6.7 | 0.43 | 2.2 | 0.41 | 4.4 | 0.41 | 11 |
| V | 305 | 8.2 | 318 | 8.0 | 351 | 7.2 | 311 | 8.0 | 292 | 8.3 |
| Zr | 167 | 3.7 | 157 | 3.7 | 180 | 1.9 | 165 | 5.2 | 134 | 8.1 |

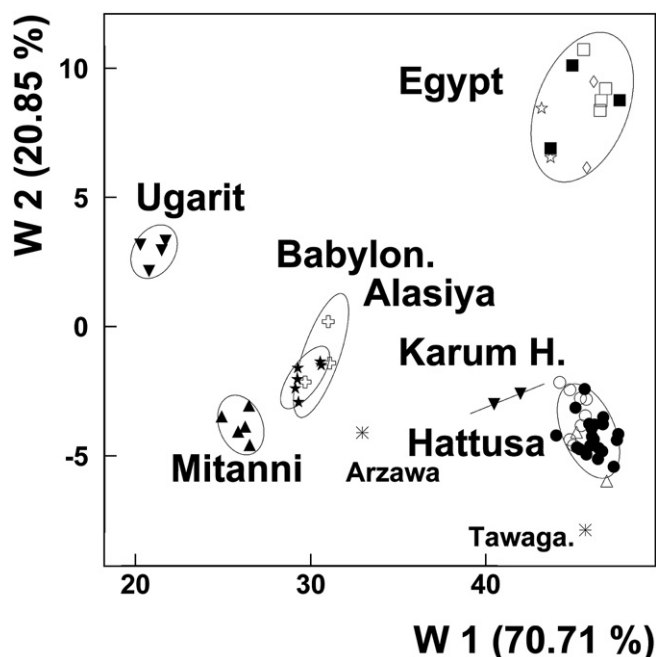


Fig. 3. Result of a discriminant analysis assuming 7 clusters of the grouped 61 tablets using all elements given in Table 2 except Ca and Si that might be part of possible diluents (and except Ni because of zero data). The 4 pXRF subgroups assigned petrographically to Egypt [EgypA (open star), ~B (full square), ~C (open square), and ~D (diamond)] are added to one cluster 'Egypt'. Also the 2 subgroups of the tablets from Hattuša [HattA (full circle), HattB (open circle) and the pair HattC (open triangle, up) are assumed to form one group 'Hattuša'. The other clusters shown are described in the text. The Arzawa and the Tawagalawa tablets, both ungrouped, are drawn as single points (+ and × superposed). Plotted are the discriminant functions W1 and W2 describing 70.7% and 20.9%, respectively, of the between group variance. The ellipses are the 2 sigma boundaries of the groups. All concentration patterns are well separated in this diagram except the overlapping clusters of tablets from Alasiya (open plus) and Babylonia (full star), but they are resolved in higher projections.

dissimilar sediments and climatic conditions. Indeed, in all tests EA 42, EA 44 and CTH 154 fall neatly within the Hattuša cluster. Obviously the script of the letters EA 42 and 44 written in Akkadian are clearly different from the letter draft CTH 154, which is written in the Hittite language. An explanation for that could be that there were specialist scribes for the international correspondence working in Hattuša as well, but they were trained in a different scribal tradition than the normal Hittite scribes (Klinger, 2003, p. 239, n. 10, 11).

5.2. "The Anitta proclamation" (CTH 1, Tables 1 and 2: no. 80)

The text of the tablet KBo 3.22 (=CTH 1.A), one of the three fragmentary preserved copies, documents events leading up to the founding of the kingdom of the so-called Piṭhana dynasty, reporting the earliest genuinely historical events in Hittite language. Piṭhana's regime dates to the time of the old Assyrian merchant colonies in Anatolia, some three or two generations earlier than the time of the first written text to be found in the archives of the later Hittite capital Hattuša. The script of the tablet displays the typical old Hittite ductus, showing a number of grammar and writing features typical of the early stage of the Hittite scribal tradition. However, the text testifies that the original version of it was carved on a stele which was erected at the gate of the king's city of Kaneš/Neša, probably inscribed in Hittite or in Assyrian. The document records the deeds of Anitta's father Piṭhana, the beginning of Anitta's career, the rescue of ^DSiu-summin from the king of Zalpuwa, and Anitta's destruction of the city of Hattuša. While INAA classified this tablet as "singular", OM suggested that it may still be seen as a representative of the Hattuša fabric, yet coarser than the usual for this group in terms of the sand added to it as temper, thus including more diverse rock fragments and minerals. The pXRF data places it on the fringe of the Hattuša cluster, or somewhere near it but in the direction of the Karum Hattuš cluster (Fig. 6).

As far as we know the Hittite writing tradition starts at least in Hattuša with Hattušili I but the events unrolled have to be dated nearly a century earlier than the founder of the Hittite kingdom in Hattuša – is it possible to think of an older Hittite writing tradition starting in a different place may be in Kuššara, the hometown of Hattušili?

5.3. The so-called "Tawagalawa letter" (CTH 181, Tables 1 and 2: no. 12)

This document was thought to be written by a Hittite king, most likely Hattušili III, to a king of Ahhiyawa around 1250 BC. This letter, of which only the third tablet has survived, concerns the activities of a certain Piyamaradu against the Hittites, requesting his exile to Hatti with safe escort. The document refers to a certain Tawagalawa, a brother of the king of Ahhiyawa. However, the common name for this tablet may be a misnomer, as Singer (1983) has demonstrated that in fact, it was Piyamaradu who was in the focus of the document while Tawagalawa had a minor role in it. The Tawagalawa letter further mentions "Millawanda" better known under the name Miletus and its dependent city Atriya, as does the

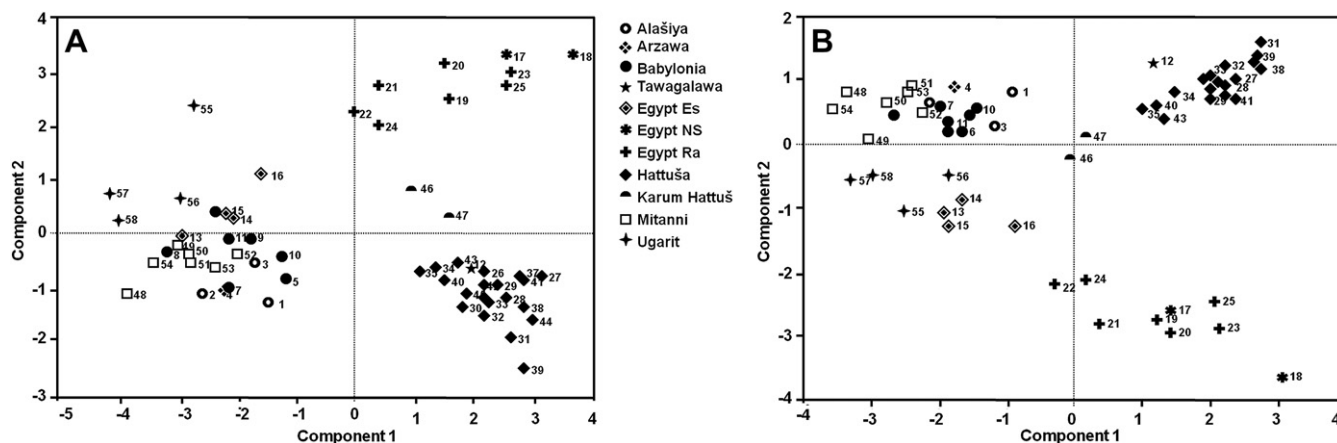


Fig. 4. Principal component analysis (PCA) of the pXRF results from the reference group of tablets (case numbers refer to the serial numbers in Table 1). A. Using 14 elements (Al, Si, K, Ca, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Rb, Sr, Zr, and Nb). B. Using seven elements (Al, Si, K, Ti, Rb, Zr, and Nb).

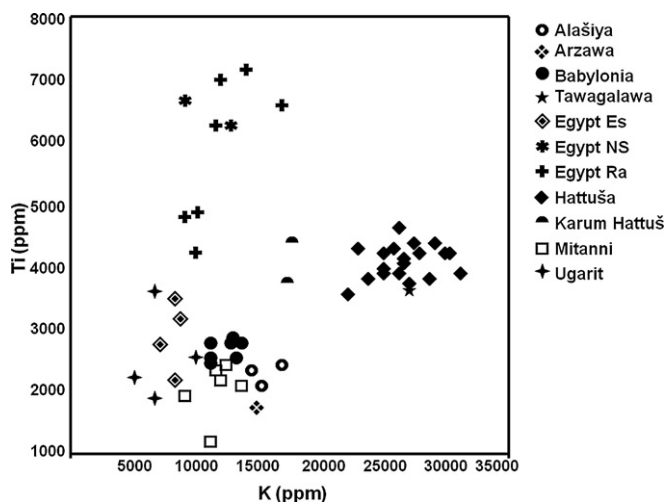


Fig. 5. K–Ti test of the reference tablets. The axes are plotted in ppm (mg/kg).

Milawata letter (CTH 182), and its governor Atpa, as does the Manapa-Tarhunta letter (CTH 191).

The results of both INAA and OM are very significant. In the first method, CTH 181 concurs with the reference material from the Eastern Aegean coastal area south of Ephesus. In terms of OM, if the Eastern Aegean is taken as the general source area, it is similar to the Samian amphora fabric presented by Whitbread (1995, pp. 122–133), which are known to be produced also at Miletus and the Samian Peraia. These results fit very well with the text itself because the Hittite word *kā* “here” (col. i, line 73) refers to the place, where the letter is written i.e. “Millawanda”.

As discussed above, when using the pXRF data, CTH 181 can serve as good indication for the advantage of the “seven significant elements” over the “14 elements” testing.

5.4. “The Siege of Uršu” (CTH 7, Tables 1 and 2: no. 81)

“The Siege of Uršu” (CTH 7, Tables 1 and 2: No. 81) is a fragmentary tablet with a historical narrative concerning a military campaign of a Hittite king whose name isn’t mentioned against the city of Uršu. The city of Uršu is already attested in the Ebla texts from the 3rd millennium and in the texts from Mari in the early 2nd millennium; a possible localization could be the region of Samsat,

north of Karkemiš at the Upper Euphrates. The text is written in Akkadian language using a variant of the cuneiform script typical for the late Old Babylonian signs and ductus forms of Northern Syria, but the historical event could be dated to the time of Hattušili I on the basis of a campaign against the city of Uršu which is mentioned in his annals. Because of this coincidence and some literary features of the text (Hoffner, 1980; Beckman, 1995) with parallels in other old Hittite literature texts like the so-called “Palace Chronicle” the narration is considered of a Hittite origin. But there are no indications where the text was written and composed and who was its author. While INAA placed this tablet as “singular”, OM suggests that by its petrographic affinities, it may be linked with the Upper Euphrates fabrics. The pXRF data clearly separates this text from the Hattuša cluster. Using the “seven significant elements” method, the tablet falls within the Mittanian cluster or on the fringe of the Babylonian group (Fig. 6). According to this result the tablet should be written in one of the late Old Babylonian centers in the region of Upper Euphrates, obviously not in a scriporium of the Hittite capital Hattuša – this should be a very good explanation why the tablet is written in a non-Hittite ductus type using the Akkadian language.

5.5. A group of vocabularies from Hattuša

Twelve of the documents from the Hattuša archive which were examined by pXRF are classified as vocabularies. This assemblage was most likely part of the local school for scribes, where students were trained in producing tablets and inscribing them in cuneiform script. The vocabulary texts discovered at Hattuša are for the most part students’ exercises; only few are stored in tablet collections. In order to achieve a better understanding of the work of the Hattuša school of scribes, we attempted to establish whether a given tablet is of foreign origin (Western Asiatic or other), hence most likely serving as a textbook, or was written in Hattuša, perhaps as an exercise.

Only one vocabulary tablet (VAT 7416c) has been previously studied by OM and was classified as belonging to the Hattuša fabric. In the present study, other twelve vocabularies were analyzed by pXRF (Tables 1 and 2: Nos. 59–70). When the Bonn statistical procedure is applied, seven of the unstudied vocabulary tablets are made of clay from Hattuša and are members of group HattA. One vocabulary (VAT 7434a, No. 60) belongs to group HattB. VAT 7416b (No. 59) forms a pair with tablet VAT 6699 (No. 39) with pattern called HattC. The remaining three tablets are chemical singles and

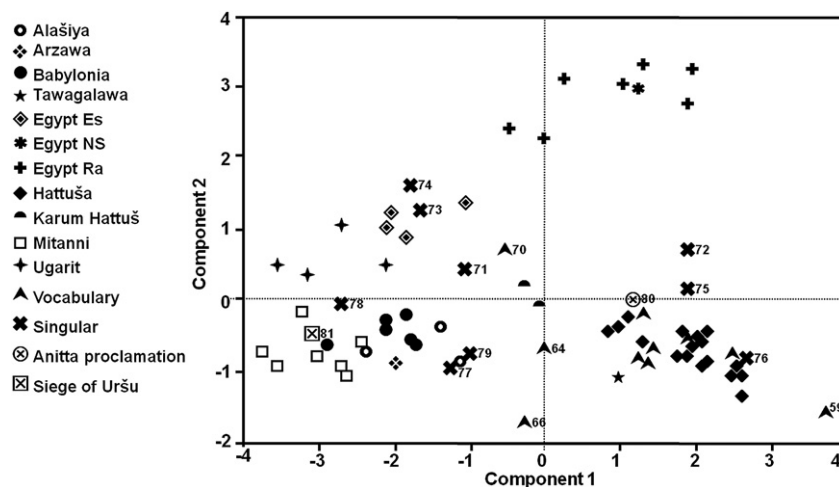


Fig. 6. Principal component analysis (PCA) of the reference group, compiled with tablets defined as “singular” by OM and INAA, and a group of vocabulary texts from Hattuša (case numbers refer to the serial numbers in Table 1), using the 7 significant elements (see Fig. 4B).

have each a different composition not otherwise represented in the dataset and are of unknown provenance.

When the results are plotted against the reference group as PCA graph using the “seven significant elements” (Fig. 6), it clearly indicates again that while the same seven tablets match the Hattuša cluster, four vocabularies are of different composition. None of the latter matches any cluster of the reference group. A very interesting result is that two of these fragments are KBo 1.40 (VAT 7441, No. 66) and KBo 1.55 (VAT 7416b, No. 59), which – regarding the content and the script – could be parts of one and the same tablet, representing a Boğazköy version of the acrographical list type Proto-Kagal with four columns: one for the sign form, one for the spelling of the sign, one for an Akkadian and one for a Hittite equivalent. While the pXRF results clearly indicate that these are in fact fragments of two different tablets, having different chemical compositions, it is very unlikely that such type of a lexical list was brought to Hattuša from other localities. There are not so many different sign forms preserved on the fragments but there is a tendency to use older sign forms, may be indicating that the tablets were written relatively early, earlier than the empire period, perhaps at the end of the fifteenth century BC. As such, they could represent another selection of raw materials that are different from the type used for the main body of the reference group. In fact, according to the Bonn statistical procedure VAT 7416b might be assigned to HattC. Still, this option seems highly unlikely in view of the homogeneity of the other Hattuša reference tablets and the local vocabularies. Therefore, this hypothesis still requires further investigation.

The other two fragments are KBo 1.50 (VAT 7437b, No. 70) and KBo 1.44 (VAT 7450, No. 64), belonging to different tablets of the Boğazköy version of Erimhuš, showing the typical script of the empire period and having both a column in Hittite language. They look like standard exercise texts and it is difficult to explain, why the pXRF results are indicating that they come from another locations. It may be assumed that these texts originate within the Hittite scribal tradition, but not from Hattuša. Obviously, this opens new possibilities for future research concerning the transfer of scholarly texts between different centers within the confines of the Hittite Empire. In terms of methodology, the pXRF results can minimize the study of an assemblage of tablets by intrusive analyses, limiting the sampling only to the tablets that do not match the local cluster of raw materials.

6. Conclusion

The primary conclusion of this study is that new generations of pXRF analyzers can yield proper grouping of clay tablets (and other ceramics) according to their provenance and serve as a non-destructive method for assigning more tablets into these cluster-groups. Although it should be emphasized that the method presented here cannot substitute INAA as a general elemental provenancing procedure for ceramics, or OM as a mineralogical provenancing tool also capable of exploring technological processes, it can become extremely powerful in cases where internal groupings of “closed” populations of delicate items are needed. Namely, measurements by pXRF of the element concentrations of tablets whose provenance has been already determined by OM and/or INAA, can create a database for further pXRF examination of unstudied tablets from the same archives in collections where intrusive sampling is not allowed. For example, by establishing the ‘pXRF grouping’ for the local Hattuša fabrics of the tablets that were studied by intrusive methods in the VAM, other tablets from Hattuša can be studied in Turkey (where sampling is often prohibited) and matched statistically with the clusters of tablets of known provenances in the database. Other ‘pXRF groups’ can be established by the same methodology for other significant ANE landmarks, such as Ugarit, Cyprus, Waššukanni

(Mitanni’s capital), Carchemish, Assyria, Babylonia, and many Canaanite cities, based on the pXRF analysis of tablets that were previously studied by OM and INAA. This enables the non-destructive study of the Amarna tablets in the Cairo Museum (where sampling was not allowed) or the Canaanite tablets in the Museum of the Ancient Orient in Istanbul. The same approach can be applied also in other cases, such as the study of bullae, figurines, intact pottery vessels and other items of high museological value. Under these conditions, pXRF can become an extremely powerful tool (and the only one available) for provenance determinations of such delicate clay-based artifacts.

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