

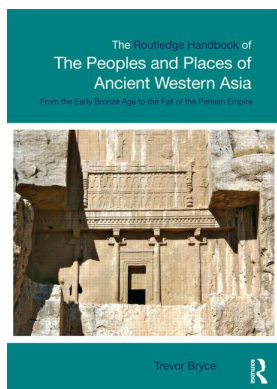
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The Near East from the Early Bronze Age to the Fall of the Persian Empire

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Gagae (map 15) M1 BCE–M1 CE city in eastern Lycia, southwestern Anatolia, 11 km southwest of mod. Kumluca. Like the nearby cities of Rhodiapolis, Corydalla, and Phaselis, Gagae was probably founded by settlers from the island of Rhodes, perhaps in early C7 when Phaselis was allegedly settled. According to a legendary tradition relating to its foundation, the city received its name from the appeal *ga, ga* (the Doric Greek dialect form used on Rhodes for *ge* – ‘land’) made by Rhodian settlers seeking land in Lycia from the native Lycians for their new settlement. An alternative explanation for the name was that *ga ga* was the cry uttered by the crew of a Rhodian ship who sighted a safe landfall on the Lycian coast after being caught in a storm following their battle with sea-pirates. When the English explorer T. A. B. Spratt visited Gagae in 1842, there were still relatively substantial remains of the anc. city, mainly of Roman and mediaeval date. But these have now almost totally disappeared, due to the constant quarrying of them for building materials.

Bean (*PECS* 342; 1978: 148–50).

Galilee (map 8) Region in northern Palestine located between Lebanon to the north and the Jezreel valley to the south. It is first attested, as an area of relatively dense Canaanite settlement, during one of the Asiatic campaigns conducted by the C15 pharaoh Tuthmosis III, who captured twenty-three Canaanite cities in the region. According to biblical tradition, the Israelites first settled in this region in late C13–early C12. In *OT* sources, the name Galilee is first attested in Joshua 20:7, where reference is made to Kedesh in Galilee, used as a place of refuge in the hill country of the Naphtali tribe. Biblical tradition relates that (in C10) King David strengthened the Israelite presence in Galilee when he organized the united kingdom into a number of administrative districts; during the reign of his son and successor Solomon, Galilee comprised four of these districts. Solomon is further said to have handed over twenty of Galilee’s cities to Hiram, King of Tyre, as payment for building materials supplied by Hiram for the construction of the temple in Jerusalem. (On the whole question of the historicity of the tradition of a united Israelite kingdom, see under **Israel**.) In early C9, Bar-Hadad (I) (Hebrew Ben-Hadad), king of Damascus, captured several of Galilee’s cities, and in 732 the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III carried out further conquests in the region. According to 2 Kings 15:29, Tiglath-pileser captured the cities Ijon, Abel Beth Maacah, Janoah, Kedesh, and Hazor, and deported their populations to Assyria. Thenceforth, Galilee was incorporated into the Assyrian empire, under the authority of an Assyrian governor based in Megiddo. We have little further information about the region until its conquest by Alexander the Great in 323.

Meyers (*HCBD* 359–60).

Gambulu (map 11) Important M1 Aramaean tribal land in the eastern Tigris region of southern Babylonia, near the Elamite border. First attested in inscriptions of

the Assyrian king Sargon II referring to a campaign which he conducted in the land c. 710, the tribe is frequently mentioned in the texts of his successors Sennacherib, Esarhaddon, and Ashurbanipal (Parpola, 1970: 128–9, *Sargon II* 433–5). After Sargon's conquest of it in 710, Gambulu was converted into an Assyrian province composed of six districts (in addition to Iadburu): Hubaqanu, Tarbugati, Timassunu (Tibarsunu), Pashur, Hiritu, and Hilmu (**Sargon II* 328). The administration of Babylonia was now shared between the governor of Gambulu and the governor of Babylon. In the following year, part of Bit-Yakin (q.v.) was annexed and divided between Gambulu and Babylon provinces. The fortified city of Dur-Abi-hara (sometimes mistakenly read 'Dur-Athara') became the province's chief city under the new name Dur-Nabu (*Sargon II* *328, 430, 431). Sargon also extended his control over the neighbouring Gambulean sheikhdoms, imposing a large tribute upon them and annexing their lands to his new province. Gambulu's traditional capital was another fortified city called Sha-pi-Bel (also known as Shapiya, Assyrian Sapiya). Esarhaddon regarded it as the gateway to Elam (*Borger, 1956: 53, Episode 13, line 83). Undoubtedly, Gambulu's location bordering upon Elam made it a valuable strategic acquisition for the Assyrian empire. (For the substantial dossier of letters sent from Gambulu by Assyrian officials to either Sargon or Sennacherib, see **SAA XVII*: 84–111, nos 92–128.)

Yet its population resented their subjection to Assyrian overlordship, and already by the second year of Sennacherib's reign (703/702) Gambulu was listed among the insubmissive Aramaean lands which he conquered (**Sennach.* 25, 49, 54, 57). In 691 it joined a coalition of Elamite, Chaldaean, Aramaean, and Babylonian forces which engaged in battle with Sennacherib at Halule (q.v.) on the Tigris r. The Assyrians claimed victory, but the outcome of the conflict was inconclusive, and Gambulu appears to have regained its independence. Around 676, its chief Bel-iqisha paid tribute to Sennacherib's son and successor Esarhaddon. But he must have done so with great reluctance and under much pressure. Gambulu remained strongly anti-Assyrian under his rule and that of his son Dunanu, and sometimes formed an alliance with Elam, Assyria's long-term enemy. Hostilities broke out afresh early in the reign of Esarhaddon's successor Ashurbanipal (668–630/627) when Bel-iqisha joined forces with Nabu-shum-eresh, governor of Nippur, and Urtak(u), king of Elam, for an attack on Assyrian subject territories in Babylonia (refs in Lipiński, 2000: 474, nn. 541–5). Ashurbanipal's ensuing conflict with Gambulu and Elam seems not to have been finally resolved until some years after the death of Urtaku c. 664 and the seizure of his throne by a usurper called Te-Umman. In his Elamite campaign of 653, Ashurbanipal defeated and killed Te-Umman in a battle at the Ulaya r. (Classical Eulaeus; *BAGRW* 93 E2), and then followed up his victory by marching into Gambulu territory and laying siege to Sha-pi-Bel. Though Dunanu, now chief of the Gambulu, surrendered without resistance, the Assyrian king ordered that his land be plundered, and the city of Sha-pi-Bel razed to the ground. Ashurbanipal claims also to have evacuated the land's entire population – an event depicted in a relief dating to Ashurbanipal's reign on the walls of the palace of Sennacherib at Nineveh – seizing along with them countless cattle, sheep, and horses and much other treasure. Gambulu's chief Dunanu and members of his family, including his brother Samgunu, were taken as prisoners to Nineveh. The heads of the conquered Elamite rulers were hung around their necks.

In spite of Ashurbanipal's assertion that he had thoroughly destroyed and totally depopulated the land of the Gambulu, in the year 658 it once more joined Elam in an

anti-Assyrian alliance. Retaliatory action was considered by Ashurbanipal, but apparently not put into effect. Subsequently, in 652, Gambuleans (principally from the district of Hilmu) supported Shamash-shum-ukin, the Assyrian prince appointed as ruler of Babylon, in his rebellion against Ashurbanipal, his brother (see **Babylon**), a rebellion which had the support of the then Elamite king (probably Humban-nikash II). But Gambulean participation may have been cut short when early in the rebellion Hilmu's leader Paru was killed in military action with Assyrian forces, and a contingent from Hilmu hired by the Bit-Yakin tribe, which also supported Shamash-shum-ukin, was defeated and many of its members taken prisoner. The Gambulean capital Sha-pi-Bel seems also to have been involved in military action, despite Ashurbanipal's claim a few years earlier that he had wiped it out of existence. But Gambulu appears to have lost its taste for further participation in the rebellion. Along with other cities and tribal groups in the Assyrian–Elamite border region, it submitted without resistance when Ashurbanipal launched a retaliatory campaign against Elam in 647, the year after he had brought the rebellion to an end.

After the fall of the Assyrian empire at the end of C7, Gambulu is finally attested in inscriptions from the reign of the Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar II (604–562), which mention a governor of the province, Marduk-shar-usur.

Frame (1992: 335, index s.v. Gambulu), Lipiński (2000: 472–9).

Gand(h)ara (map 16) Central Asian country (west of the Indus r. in northwestern Pakistan), attested in M1 Iranian and Greek sources. It was among the eastern lands of the Persian empire listed several times in the inscriptions of Darius I (522–486), e.g. in his Bisitun inscription (*DB 6), and also in the *daiva* inscription (see glossary) of his son and successor Xerxes (*XPb 3). Its ruler at this time was a man called Bimbisara. According to Herodotus (3.91), Gandara was one of the countries constituting the Persian empire's seventh province, which paid a total annual tribute of 170 talents of silver to its overlord (but see glossary under **satrapy**). This was a relatively low amount, which has suggested to scholars that the countries in question were inhabited largely by tribal groups. A contingent of Gandarans under the command of Artyphius, son of Artabanus, is listed by Herodotus (7.66) among the forces assembled by the Persian king Xerxes for his invasion of Greece in 481. Darius reports that a special timber called sissoo-wood (yaka-wood) was brought from Gandara (and also from the land of Carmania) for use in the construction of his palace at Susa (*DSf 9, *DSz 8).

Unger (*RIA* 3: 138), Brentjes and Duchesne-Guilleman (*BNP* 5: 687).

Ganduvata M1 Central Asian city in the country of Sattagydia, a subject state of the Persian empire located in the empire's eastern frontier region. It is perhaps to be identified with mod. Gandava in Baluchistan. (Alternatively, but less convincingly, it has been identified with Gandamak in Afghanistan.) In the uprisings at the beginning of Darius I's reign, Ganduvata was the site of one of the battles fought in 522 between Vivana, satrap of the neighbouring country of Arachosia and supporter of Darius, and the rebel army sent to take possession of the region by Vahyazdata (who falsely claimed to be Cyrus' son Bardiya), a pretender to the Persian throne (*DB 46).

Ganibatum Middle Bronze Age city, attested in the Mari archives, in the middle Euphrates region. An identification has been proposed with mod. Abu Sa'īd, which lies

15 km downstream from the Balih r.'s confluence with the Euphrates. Though attached to the kingdom of Mari, Ganibatam was apparently subject to Yaminite (q.v.) attacks. The Yaminite presence in Ganibatam's territory was sufficient to dissuade the governor of Sagaratum (one of the most important cities of the kingdom of Mari) from sending a wedding party through it.

Burke (1961), *LKM* 610 (refs).

Gannanate M1 city located in eastern Babylonia on the Diyala r. northeast of the Jebel Hamrin. In 851 the Assyrian king Shalmaneser III laid siege to the city during his campaign in this region in support of the Babylonian king Marduk-zakir-shumi I, whose brother Marduk-bel-usati had rebelled against him. The latter had made a stand in Gannanate. Shalmaneser defeated his forces in a battle outside the city, but was unable to take the city itself, where Marduk-bel-usati withdrew after his defeat, and had to content himself with ravaging its surrounding orchard- and crop-lands. The following year Shalmaneser returned for a fresh assault upon the city, and this time succeeded in capturing it. He then pursued Marduk-bel-usati, who had fled at the approach of the Assyrian army with some of his military officers, and tracked down and killed the fugitives in the city of Arman (**RIMA* 3: 30). In 813 Gannanate was among several important cities in the Diyala region seized by the Assyrian king Shamshi-Adad V, during the second of his four campaigns into Babylonian territory (**ABC* 168, **RIMA* 3: 190). The Babylonian king Marduk-balassu-iqbi, who was in Gannanate at the time, fled the city before it fell to the Assyrians, but was pursued by Shamshi-Adad and finally captured in Der (see **Der** (3)). In 771 and 767 Gannanate was the target of two further Assyrian campaigns, conducted by Ashur-dan III (Millard, 1994: 39, 40). The city is perhaps to be identified with Ganata, one of the towns of the Hamaranu tribe (q.v.).

Unger (*RIA* 3: 139–40).

Gassiya see **Kassiya**.

Gath (Assyrian **Gimtu**) Iron Age city, one of the members of the Philistine Pentapolis (see glossary) in southwestern Palestine. It is frequently referred to in *OT* sources – e.g. as the home of the Philistine champion Goliath (1 Samuel 17:4, 23), and as the city to which the Ark of the Covenant was sent (1 Samuel 5:8 etc.). According to 2 Kings 12:17 Gath was attacked and captured by Hazael, king of Aram-Damascus in the second half of C9, prior to his attack upon Jerusalem. A century later, around 712, the city was conquered by the Assyrian king Sargon II (**CS* II: 297). Gath's location has not yet been firmly established, though most scholars now favour the proposal by Y. Aharoni and A. Rainey to equate it with mod. Tel Zafit/Tell es-Safi (see **Zafit, Tel**).

Schniedewind (1998), Maeir and Ehrlich (2001), Laughlin (2006: 123–6).

Gath-rimmon Late Bronze Age city in Palestine, attested among the Asiatic conquests of the C15 pharaoh Tuthmosis III. It is probably to be equated with the city of Gittirimmunim, which appears in the mid C14 Amarna archive as the object of an attack by Lab'ayu, ruler of Shechem (Shakmu) (**EA* 250:46). In *OT* tradition, Gath-rimmon was a city of the Levites, handed over to them after being originally allocated to the territory of Dan (Joshua 19:25, 21:24). The city is probably to be

GAUGAMELA

located near and to the northeast of Jaffa. An identification with Tel Gerisa (q.v.) has been proposed.

Bratcher (*HCBD* 263).

Gaugamela (= *Tell Gomal?*) M1 village in northern Mesopotamia, located between the Tigris and the Greater Zab (Greek Lycus) rivers, to the northwest of Arbela and northeast of Nineveh (*BAGRW* 89 F4). It was the site of Alexander the Great's decisive victory over the Persian king Darius III in 331.

Diodorus 17.56–61, Arrian, *Anabasis* 3.11–15, Plutarch, *Alexander* 31–3, **PE* 447, no. 27.

Gaurahi (Yaurahi) Iron Age fortress-settlement belonging to the kingdom of Melid/Malatya in eastern Anatolia. It was one of the many Melidian fortresses and cities which the Urartian king Sarduri II claimed to have captured and plundered in the second year of his reign (c. 764), and among the nine fortresses which Sarduri added to his own country (*Kuhrt, 1995a: 556–7). Subsequently, it remained under Urartian control until the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III defeated an Urartian–Arpad military coalition in 743, and established his sovereignty over the kingdom of Melid and those of its former possessions which it had lost to Urartu.

CHLI I: 284–5.

Gavurkalesi ([map 2](#)) Late Bronze Age Hittite sanctuary, probably dating to C13, in north-central Anatolia, 60 km southwest of Ankara. It was discovered in 1862 by G. Perrot, and excavated in 1930 by H. H. van der Osten for the Oriental Institute, University of Chicago. Gavurkalesi is a mod. Turkish name meaning 'castle of the infidels'. Its anc. name is unknown. The site, enclosed by Cyclopean walls (see glossary), is located on a plateau whose surface was levelled to provide an area 35 m × 37 m on which the sanctuary, containing a stone-built chamber, was constructed. The chamber has been interpreted as either a tomb or a shrine. It is possible that the whole sanctuary served as a mausoleum, known as a *bekur*-house in Hittite texts, permanently staffed by attendants. A relief carved into the rock-face below the fortified area depicts two gods wearing horned, conical caps and facing a seated goddess. The three deities may depict a divine triad: father, son, and mother. The composition has been compared with the relief scene in the main chamber at Yazılıkaya (q.v.). This comparison provides the basis for dating the sanctuary to C13, and probably to the reign of the Hittite king Hattusili III. (There may well have been earlier periods of occupation which have left no visible traces.) Other buildings, including housing for cult-personnel, may also have been constructed within the fortified area, but were destroyed during or before the period when the Phrygians occupied the site in early M1. This occupation is reflected in pottery sherds and the remains of limestone walls of Phrygian date.

E. Akurgal (1973: 288–9), Bittel (1976: 114, 179, figs 105, 106, 199, 200), Lumsden (2002), Burney (2004: 92).

Gaza (Akkadian **Hazzatu**, **Azzatu**) ([map 8](#)) Canaanite and subsequently Philistine city located in the mod. Gaza strip on the southern coastal plain of Palestine, c. 5 km from the Mediterranean Sea. Its history of occupation extends from the Late Bronze Age until the present day. Excavations were carried out on the site in 1922 by W. J. Phythian-Adams on behalf of the Palestine Exploration Fund, providing evidence, relatively meagre, for settlement in the Late Bronze Age and in subsequent periods. Investigations of the remains of the anc. city have been extremely restricted,

both because of the site's continuous occupation to the present day, and because of the region's ongoing political turbulence. In written records, Gaza is first attested in C15 among the Asiatic conquests of the pharaoh Tuthmosis III. The region in which it lay was later subjected to numerous Egyptian campaigns, a reflection of its vital strategic position linking Egypt with its Asiatic territories. In the mid C14 Amarna texts, the city appears as an Egyptian administrative centre, under the name Hazzatu or Azzatu (e.g. *EA 289, 296).

At the beginning of C12, Gaza was the southernmost city of the Philistine Pentapolis (see glossary) (Joshua 13:3), and a cult-centre of the Philistine god Dagon. In M1, written records indicate that it fell to three conquerors: (a) the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III in 734 (**Tigl. III* 138–40), when it was ruled by a certain Hanunu (who fled to Egypt, but returned and was reinstated by Tiglath-pileser; he subsequently rebelled against and was defeated by the Assyrian king Sargon II at the battle of Raphia, q.v.); (b) the Judaeen king Hezekiah several decades later (2 Kings 18:8), but only for a brief period; (c) the pharaoh Necho II in 609, again only briefly. During the Persian period (C6–4), Gaza was an important royal fortress (Herodotus 2.159 calls it Cadytis). When Alexander the Great marched into Palestine in 332, it was the only city in its region that refused to submit to him (Arrian, *Anabasis* 2.25–7). As a consequence, Alexander placed it under siege, captured it, and then sold its population into slavery. Following his death, Gaza first came under the control of the Ptolemies, serving as the northern outpost of their empire, but was captured by the Seleucid king Antiochus III in 198. It was a flourishing city under Roman rule and continued to be so in the Byzantine period.

Ovadiah (*NEAEHL* 2: 464–7), Weinstein (*OEA* 2: 5–7).

Gaz(z)iura Late Bronze Age country in north-central Anatolia, subject to the kingdom of Hatti. Early in C13, it rebelled against Hatti and participated in the attacks on cities in the northern part of the Hittite homeland when King Muwattalli II shifted the Hittite royal seat south from Hattusa to Tarhuntassa. It is probably to be identified with the Classical city also called Gaziura. Based on information provided by Strabo (12.3.13), this city was located at mod. Turhal on the Yeşil Irmak r. (Classical Iris) (*BAGRW* 87 B4). Garstang and Gurney (1959: 14–16), *CS I: 200.

Gedrosia (map 16) Central Asian country with a largely nomadic population, located in mod. Baluchistan on the north coast of the Indian Ocean, and attested in M1 Persian and Greek texts among the eastern lands of the Persian empire. It was probably incorporated into the empire during a campaign which Cyrus II conducted in the east some time after his conquest of Babylon in 539 (though no account of such a campaign survives). Gedrosia was conquered by Alexander the Great during his eastern campaign (Arrian, *Anabasis* 6.22–6), and following his death in 321 was one of the eastern countries which came under the control of the Seleucid empire. However, Seleucus I included it among the countries which he yielded in treaty negotiations with the Indian Maurya ruler Chandragupta.

Kiessling (*RE* VII: 895–903), Brentjes (*BNP* 5: 717).

Gelidonya (map 2) Cape on Anatolia's southern coast in the country of anc. Lycia at the western end of the Bay of Antalya. It is attested in Pliny the Elder (5.97) as

the Chelidonian Promontory. At least four ships are known to have sunk in antiquity off the cape. The oldest and best known of these dates to the end of C13, within the final decades of the Late Bronze Age. Discovered in 1954 by a sponge diver, the wreck was excavated by G. Bass in 1960. Further visits to the site in the 1980s by a team led by Bass from the Institute of Nautical Archaeology at Texas A&M University recovered more artefacts and determined how the ship had sunk. Its hull had apparently been torn open on a pinnacle of rock just below the surface of the water. The ship's cargo consisted principally of copper and tin ingots, and scrap bronze tools from Cyprus which were apparently intended for recycling. From the large quantities of copper and tin being carried by this vessel when disaster struck, as well as by the ship wrecked one hundred years earlier off the Lycian coast at Uluburun (q.v.), we can conclude that consignments of these metals were the largest and most regular components of the cargoes of merchant ships during the Late Bronze Age. These basic cargoes were supplemented by other items, including luxury goods, from all parts of the eastern Mediterranean and Aegean worlds, taken on board at the various ports of call.

The origin of the Gelidonya wreck (as also the Uluburun wreck) remains uncertain. The vessel may have been of Syro-Canaanite origin, though a Cypriot origin is also possible. The discovery in 1994 of the ship's anchor, which proved to be of Syro-Canaanite or Cypriot type, strengthened the case for assigning a Near Eastern origin to the vessel. Its crews, however, were very likely multinational in composition, recruited from many parts of the Near Eastern and Aegean worlds.

Bass (1967; *OEANE* 1: 414–16).

Gergis (Gergithus) (map 5) Small M1 city in the northern Troad, northwestern Anatolia, not far from Ilion (Troy). Its name appears to have been derived from a pre-Greek Troad population of the region called the Gergithes, some of whom may subsequently have been carried off to Miletus. A sanctuary of Apollo was located in the city. In C5, Gergis was subject to Persian overlordship, but in 399 was among the cities captured from the Persians by the Spartan military commander Derkyllidas during his Asia Minor campaign. In 188, in the treaty drawn up between Rome and the Seleucid king Antiochus III (the Peace of Apamea), Gergis was declared a free city. Büchner (*RE* VII: 1248–9), Danoff (*KNP* 2: 761).

Gerisa, Tel (map 8) 2.6 ha settlement-mound, located in the Yarkon r. valley on the coast of Palestine 8 km northeast of Jaffa. Its history of occupation extends from the Early Bronze Age III (late M3) period through Iron Age IIA (early M1). Excavations have been conducted periodically on the site since 1927, initially under the direction of E. L. Sukenik on behalf of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem, and more recently by teams from Tel Aviv University under the direction of Z. Herzog. The site was first occupied in the Early Bronze Age by an unwalled agricultural settlement. This was replaced during the Middle Bronze Age IIA–B periods by a fortified city whose defence system is indicated by the remains of three sets of city walls built in successive phases. Adjoining the third of these walls, which dates to the IIB period, are the remains of a substantial brick building, perhaps a local ruler's residence. A large water system was another feature of the Middle Bronze Age city. Its remains consist of a circular shaft, 6 m in diameter, and stairs cut into the side of the shaft, leading down to the water source 22 m below.

The dominant feature of the city's Late Bronze Age and most prosperous phase, when settlement expanded to cover the whole mound, was a large square building in the centre of the mound. Assumed to be a palace, its layout consists of three rows of rooms and a stone-paved courtyard. An extensive, white-plastered open space to the west of building has been interpreted as a market-place, on the basis of large quantities of Mycenaean, Cypriot, and Egyptian pottery found within the area (also Egyptian scarabs). These discoveries support the view that Tel Gerisa was a port of some significance on the eastern Mediterranean coast, especially during the Late Bronze Age.

The transition between the end of the Late Bronze Age, when the city was destroyed (c. 1200), and the beginning of the Iron Age is not clear because of the lack of stratigraphical evidence. However, Iron Age occupation of the site appears to have been on a much reduced scale. Settlement was now confined to the northern and southern ends of the mound, predominating on the latter. Herzog suggests that the centre of the mound, which was not occupied, may have been used for horticultural purposes. Pottery from the Iron Age I strata indicates Philistine occupation. But Tell Qasile, which lay only 1.5 km away across the Yarkon r., was a larger and more important Philistine centre. Tel Gerisa must have been no more than a satellite to Tell Qasile.

The Philistine settlement at Tel Gerisa was destroyed by fire some time during the first half of C10. Sukenik assigned this destruction to the conflicts between the Philistines and the Israelite king David. The site was reoccupied soon after, by Israelite settlers according to Sukenik. But it was smaller than its predecessor and had only a short existence. Its destruction before the end of C10 may have been brought about by the pharaoh Sheshonq I (*OT* Shishak) (945–924) during his campaign in Israel. The site was then abandoned until Arab reoccupation of part of it in C9 CE.

An identification has been suggested with the biblical city Gath-rimmon (q.v.), attested in C15 and C14 Egyptian texts.

Herzog (*NEAEHL* 2: 480–4).

Geshur, Land of (map 8) Region in the southern Golan Heights in northern Palestine, located along the Yarmuk r. in the south and extending eastwards into mod. Syria from the Sea of Galilee. Its history of occupation extends from the Early Bronze Age through the Iron Age. A number of Israeli teams have carried out excavations at various sites in the region, within the context of Tel Aviv University's Land of Geshur Project, including the Leviah Enclosure, Tel Soreg, Tel Hadar, and Rogem Hiri. In documentary sources, Geshur may first be attested in one of the mid C14 Amarna letters – *EA 256: 23, which contains a list of cities belonging to the land of Gari (Garu) (*EA 256: 23). B. Mazar suggests that *Ga-ri* (*Ga-ru*) should be read as *Ga-<su>-ri*. Later *OT* tradition records the failure of the Israelites to conquer the people of Geshur and Maacah, both of whom maintained their independence at the time of the Israelite occupation of Palestine (Joshua 13:13). According to 2 Samuel 3:3, the Israelite king David married Maacah, daughter of Geshur's king Talmai, and became by her the father of Absalom; this was one of several political marriage alliances which David contracted in order to consolidate his power in his war with the house of Saul. In C9 Geshur was probably incorporated, along with Maacah, into the Aramaean kingdom of Damascus.

B. Mazar (1986).

Gezer (*Tell el-Jezer*) (map 8) 13 ha settlement-mound in Palestine, 8 km southeast of mod. Ramla. Its history of occupation extends from the Late Chalcolithic (mid M4) to the Roman period. Identified with biblical Gezer by C. Claremont-Ganneau in 1871, the site was first excavated by R. A. S. Macalister between 1902 and 1909 for the Palestine Exploration Fund. Later excavations were undertaken by the Hebrew Union College Biblical and Archaeological School in Jerusalem (HUC) from 1964 to 1974, under the direction, successively, of G. E. Wright, W. G. Dever, and J. D. Seger. Dever carried out further excavations in 1984 and 1990. A total of twenty-six occupation strata were identified.

The following account of Gezer's history is based primarily on the information provided by the HUC teams working at Gezer. It should be said that their findings have been criticized, particularly by I. Finkelstein (2002), for a number of alleged methodological and disciplinary deficiencies. Dever (2003a) has responded to these criticisms with a defence of the HUC teams' work on the site.

The Early Bronze II period, represented by Strata XXIV–XXIII (c. 3100–2600), saw a considerable expansion in the size of the settlement, though as yet it was unfortified. At the end of this period the site was abandoned, not to be occupied again until the early Middle Bronze I period, represented by Stratum XXII (c. 1900). By Middle Bronze II (XXI–XX; c. 1750–1650) it had developed into a relatively large urban centre. However, it was not fortified until late Middle Bronze II or early Middle Bronze III (Stratum XIX; c. 1650). The city was now encircled by a wall system (identified by Macalister as the 'Inner Wall') which incorporated many rectangular towers and was some 1,200 m in length. Entry to the city was provided by a monumental triple gateway. The violent destruction of the Middle Bronze Age city in Stratum XVIII may have been due to the pharaoh Tuthmosis III who lists it among the cities he conquered on his first Asiatic campaign (c. 1468). This is the earliest written reference we have to the city. Its destruction was followed by almost total abandonment, with only a few burials and sherds to mark this period (Stratum XVII). However, the settlement gained a major new lease of life in C14 (Stratum XVI), when an impressive multi-storeyed building was constructed, in the style of an Egyptian governor's establishment. Gezer's involvement in the politics and military conflicts of the Syro-Palestinian kingdoms in this period is reflected in frequent references to it (as *Gazru*) in letters from the mid C14 Amarna archive. Several of its kings corresponded with the pharaoh Akhenaten (e.g. *EA 298). To this period is now dated the city's 'Outer Wall' as identified by Macalister. Strata XV–XIV, which belong to the last century of the Late Bronze Age (C13–12) reflect a city once more in decline. Dever suggests that this phase of its existence may have been ended c. 1207 by the pharaoh Merneptah who lists Gezer on his 'Israel Stele' among the Canaanite cities and peoples whom he conquered (*ANET 378).

There was, none the less, some degree of continuity into the transitional period between Bronze and Iron Ages (Strata XIII–XII), as illustrated both by the ceramic ware and by similarities between the buildings of these levels and their predecessors. However, a new multi-roomed public granary now made its appearance, and a Philistine presence is indicated by the finds of Philistine bichrome pottery. This represents the first of five Philistine phases in the city's occupation. The Philistine period seems to have been characterized by considerable disruption, and several destructions. Stratum XII ended in a massive destruction around mid C12. In Stratum XI, which followed

in late C12, two large courtyard houses replaced the granary. Both were eventually abandoned after being twice destroyed by fire and twice rebuilt. The decline and disappearance of Philistine wares in this period probably reflects the end of the Philistine presence in the city. The archaeologically impoverished Strata X–IX (late C11–early C10) are seen as representing a post-Philistine, pre-Israelite transitional phase.

The C9 Stratum VIII (Iron Age II) represents a period of major new development in Gezer, in what has commonly been seen as the first Israelite level. The city was now fortified with a casemate wall, through which the main access to the city was provided by a four-entrance gateway. Once seen as testament to Solomon's monumental building programme, this gateway should probably be attributed to Omri or Ahab. Following a destruction, the site continued to be occupied through Stratum VII (C9), when a new palace was built and the four-entrance gate was restored as a three-entrance structure. There is evidence of decline in this period, which continued through Stratum VI, until the site was once again destroyed, almost certainly by the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III during his campaigns in the region in 733/732. An Assyrian relief from Tiglath-pileser's reign depicts the siege of Gezer (Gazru in Assyrian texts). Though the city once again recovered, as indicated by two Assyrian texts and royal stamped jar handles found in Stratum V, it was no longer a place of great importance. According to *OT* sources, it was in C7 part of the kingdom of Judah, when the Judaeen throne was occupied by Josiah (c. 640–609). The end of Stratum V came with destruction by the Babylonians during their 587/586 campaign. There are only meagre remains of the succeeding Persian and Hellenistic periods (Strata IV and III–II respectively). However, a few rich tombs with silver vessels have been dated to the former, and the city seems to have experienced a modest growth in the latter. After Stratum I, which dates to the Roman period (late C1 BCE–C1 CE), Gezer was largely abandoned, though there are Byzantine tombs and mediaeval remains close by.

J. Schwartz (1990), Dever (*NEAEHL* 2: 496–506; *OEANE* 2: 396–400), I. Finkelstein (2002), Dever (2003a).

Gibeah City in southern Palestine, attested in *OT* sources as the home of Saul (1 Samuel 10:26). *OT* tradition associates it with several important episodes in Saul's career (e.g. 1 Samuel 10:1–10; 11:1–11; 14:2), including the event which led to his appointment as king of Israel. W. F. Albright proposed identifying Gibeah with the site of Tell el-Ful (see *Ful, Tell el-*), which he excavated in 1922–3. This identification has been fairly widely accepted, though a number of scholars remain doubtful.

Coats (*HCBD* 376), Laughlin (2006: 132–4).

Gibeon (*el-Jib*) (map 8) Fortified city in southern Palestine, West Bank, 9 km north of Jerusalem. Its history of occupation extends from the Early Bronze Age to the end of the Iron Age, with reoccupation during the Roman period. Identification of el-Jib with biblical Gibeon was proposed by E. Robinson in 1838, though it had already been suggested by visitors to the site as early as C17 CE. The identification was finally confirmed by epigraphic evidence in the course of the University of Pennsylvania's excavations carried out over five seasons between 1956 and 1962. These excavations, directed by J. B. Pritchard, brought to light a number of jar handles, of C7 and C6 date, inscribed with the name Gibeon. Early Bronze Age occupation of el-Jib is best represented by a number of Early Bronze IV tombs, consisting of shafts which were cut into the limestone on the slope of the mound, leading to circular

chambers. The tombs were reused in the Middle and Late Bronze Ages. Features of Iron Age occupation of the site include an impressive water system, built in two stages, with spiral staircase (stage 1) and stepped tunnel (stage 2) leading to underground water sources, and a large winery containing numerous wine presses and sixty-three vats cut into the limestone.

Gibeon appears frequently in *OT* sources. The most famous of the biblical stories associated with it relates Joshua's alliance with the city, and his defeat near Gibeon of the king of Jerusalem and his allies – the occasion on which he reputedly made the sun stand still (Joshua 9–10). Although Joshua is conventionally dated to C13, and Gibeon figures frequently in the period of his leadership of the Israelites, no evidence has been found to indicate that el-Jib was occupied at that time. Similarly, very little evidence has been found for occupation in the centuries following the Iron Age, between C6 and C1. In the Roman period, however, a new unfortified town was built on the site.

Pritchard (*NEAEHL* 2: 511–14), Hallotte (*OEANE* 2: 403–4).

Gidara Iron Age city located in the upper Habur region of northern Mesopotamia, west of Nusaybin and north of Guzana. It had apparently been seized from the Assyrians by an Aramaean tribe called the Temanites (q.v.) after the reign of the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser II (967–935), and renamed Raqamatu by them. This information is provided by Adad-nirari II (911–891), Tiglath-pileser's successor-but-one, who marched upon the city during his campaign in the region in 898, captured it after a siege, plundered it of its most valuable possessions, and deported its Temanite ruler Muquru and his family to Assyria (**RIMA* 2: 150). A provincial governor of Raqamatu is attested in 773 at the latest; subsequently, the city may have been incorporated into the Province of the Commander-in-Chief (see glossary). Lipiński notes that *Gidara* is a West Semitic name, and suggests that the dual name of the city (*Gidara*, *Raqamatu*), recorded by the Assyrians, implies the coexistence of two population groups in *Gidara*: the anc. urban population and the Aramaeans who seized the city in Tiglath-pileser's reign.

Lipiński (2000: 114–16).

Giddan see *Hindanu*.

Gilead (map 8) Mountainous region in Transjordan. Its location was strategically important, since through it passed the major road from Damascus to the Gulf of Aqabah, called the King's Highway (q.v.). In *OT* tradition Gilead's territory was divided, following the Israelite conquest, between the tribes of Reuben and Gad and the half-tribe of Manasseh (Deuteronomy 3:12–13). *OT* sources also report that it was rich in pastureland and famous for its balm. Gilead apparently remained under Israelite control until its conquest by the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III c. 732, who deported many of its inhabitants to Assyria. Under Persian rule (C6–4) it became a separate province. It was also a separate region in the Hellenistic period, when it was called *Galaaditis*.

Negev and Gibson (2001: 202–3).

Gilead (*Mizpah* of) An Israelite cult-centre in the land of Gilead, Transjordan, probably to be located north of the Jabbok r. According to *OT* tradition, it was the

place where Jacob and Laban made their covenant after the latter's return to Palestine (Genesis 31:49). Here the Israelite forces assembled, facing the encampment of Ammonites (Judges 10:17), and appointed the Gileadite Jephthah as their military leader (Judges 11:11) to free them from Ammonite domination. This city (rather than Ramoth Gilead; q.v.) may be the Gilead included in the list of lands annexed by the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III c. 733 (**Tigl III* 138–9). Its precise location remains uncertain, but identifications have been proposed with the settlement-mounds at Tell Hisn, south of Irbid, and Tell Masfa, northwest of Ġeraš (see Lipiński's map, 2000: 357).

Lipiński (2000: 355–6).

Gilzanu (map 13) M1 country lying to the west or southwest of Lake Urmia (in northwestern Iran). Its population was made up of, or included, semi-nomadic tribes. Gilzanu was one of the regular tributaries of the Assyrian king Tukulti-Ninurta II (890–884) (**RIMA* 2: 178), who lists the land among his northeastern conquests (**RIMA* 2: 180). Tukulti-Ninurta's son and successor Ashurnasirpal II also received tribute from Gilzanu, while he was in the land of Mt Kurruru, during the campaign which he conducted to the northeast of his kingdom in his accession year and first regnal year (884–883) (**RIMA* 2: 197). Representatives from Gilzanu were among the guests invited to attend the great banquet celebrating Ashurnasirpal II's building programme at Nimrud (Assyrian Kalhu, biblical Calah), c. 866 (**RIMA* 2: 293). When Ashurnasirpal was succeeded by his son Shalmaneser III, Gilzanu promptly reaffirmed its status as an Assyrian tributary by making a tribute payment to Shalmaneser while he was campaigning in the regions of Hubushkia, Urartu, and Nairi in his accession year (859). Shalmaneser received another payment of tribute from Gilzanu's king Asau following his campaign against Nairi in his third regnal year (**RIMA* 3: 9, 21). Again a tribute payment from Gilzanu is recorded for Shalmaneser's thirty-first regnal year, on this occasion during a campaign conducted by the king's commander-in-chief Dayyan-Ashur (**RIMA* 3: 70). The payment was received by Dayyan-Ashur on Shalmaneser's behalf from Gilzanu's king, Upu.

Girsu (*Telloh*) (map 17) Predominantly Early Bronze Age city in southern Mesopotamia, capital of the city-state Lagash. Ceramic ware and other artefacts indicate that the earliest human occupation dates to the Ubaid and Uruk periods. The first excavations of the site, which consists of a series of mounds covering an area of over 100 ha, were conducted by E. de Sarzec, the French vice-consul at Basra, between 1877 and 1900. These excavations provided important early evidence of Sumerian art and culture. Subsequent excavations were carried out by French teams under the direction of G. Cros (1903 to 1909), H. de Genouillac (1929 to 1931), and A. Parrot (1931 to 1933). Girsu reached the peak of its development in mid M3 during the Early Dynastic III period. Large quantities of clay tablets dating to this period have been unearthed on the site, including 120 royal inscriptions, and almost 2,000 tablets, relating to the administration of an institution/estate belonging to the goddess Ba'u. The royal inscriptions provide important information about Lagash's history and conquests during the period of its first royal dynasty (c. 2520–2330), especially in the reign of its third king, Eannatum. The most famous monument to be unearthed from this phase of the city's existence was the so-called Stele of the Vultures, which records

GISHA

in both bas-relief and text Eannatum's victory over the rival state Umma (see under **Lagash**). Lagash's tutelary deity, Ningirsu, is given much credit for the victory. A temple dedicated to his worship, built in several stages through the Early Bronze Age, was located in the centre of the city.

Girsu was captured and destroyed by Lugal-zage-si, king of Umma, c. 2330. But following the period when Lagash was subject to the Akkadian empire (c. 2334–2193) Girsu enjoyed a new lease of life, as capital (probably) of an independent Lagash, flourishing particularly in the reign of Gudea (c. 2120), the seventh king of Lagash's second 'dynasty'. Numerous steles and statues were carved in his honour. To judge from his commemorative inscriptions, he was a great builder – projects of his include the Ningirsu Temple – and presided over a state which was at the forefront of a great renaissance of Sumerian art and culture. Girsu continued to be a city of some importance during Lagash's subjection to the Ur III dynasty (c. 2112–2004), as attested by the numerous administrative tablets from the site dating to this period. It subsequently began a long period of decline before finally being abandoned in C17, after the reign of the Babylonian king Samsu-iluna (1749–1712). There was, however, some reoccupation of the site in C2, when the chief of a local principality built a palace there which continued in use until C2 CE.

Parrot (1948), Matthews (*OEANE* 2: 406–9), Sauvage (*DCM* 349–51).

Gisha (*Kissa*, *Tell Jokba*) Early Bronze Age Sumerian city, southern Mesopotamia, belonging to the city-state Umma. It is now identified with the site of Tell Jokha, previously identified with Umma city. Iraqi excavations at Tell Jokha unearthed a temple dating to the Old Babylonian kingdom (Middle Bronze Age), indicating that the city still existed in early M2. The temple was probably dedicated to the worship of Umma's tutelary deity Shara. During the Ur III period (C21), the city-state Umma was divided into two districts for administrative purposes, one centred upon the cities of Gisha and Umma, the other upon the city of Apishal.

Lafont (*DCM* 870–2, s.v. Umma).

Gizilbunda Iron Age country in the Zagros mountain region of Iran, between Parsua and Media. The Assyrian king Shamshi-Adad V (823–811) marched into it during his third campaign in Nairi. He conquered and destroyed there the city of Kinaki, received tribute from the cities of Sassiashu and Karsibuta, besieged and captured the fortified city of Urash, massacring 6,000 of its population and taking prisoner the king Pirishati together with 1,200 of his troops, and received tribute from Bel-ali, ruler of the city of Sibira (**RIMA* 3: 185). Shamshi-Adad erected a colossal statue of himself in Sibira, inscribing it with a record of his achievements in the Nairi lands. His son and successor Adad-nirari III (810–783) lists Gizilbunda among his conquests in northeastern Mesopotamia and northwestern Iran (**RIMA* 3: 212).

Godin Tepe ([map 12](#)) Settlement-mound, covering 15 ha, in the Kangavar valley of central western Iran. Discovered in 1961, the settlement was strategically located on a major east–west route passing through the Zagros mountains. It contains eleven occupation phases (designated by the excavator as Periods XI to I), extending from the Neolithic to the Islamic period. Four seasons of excavations, sponsored by the Royal

Ontario Museum, Toronto, were conducted by T. Cuyler Young Jr between 1967 and 1973.

In Period V (c. 3500–3200), there was a Late Chalcolithic settlement on the summit of the mound, sometimes misleadingly referred to as a ‘proto-Elamite colony’. It was surrounded by an oval defensive wall, within which lay a central courtyard, gatehouse, storage magazine, and several major buildings of unknown function. The settlement at this time may have been essentially a trading community. Ceramic ware and other small finds indicate possible trading links with southern Mesopotamia (Uruk IV culture) and the Susiana region of southwestern Iran. In Period IV (c. 3100–2650) there was an intrusion into the central western Zagros region of the Early Bronze Age I Transcaucasian culture from the north, which apparently caused the abandonment of the oval enclosure on the mound. The excavator records the appearance in this period of village houses, elaborate open-air structures on the mound’s summit, and an industrial area, perhaps for metalworking.

Period III (c. 2600–1500/1400) saw an expansion of the settlement, from 500 to 700 sq. m. Six sub-periods have been identified. Godin Tepe had now assumed the proportions of an important urban centre. It is in fact the largest known settlement of its time in the Kangavar valley. The plain and painted ceramic ware (the latter displaying geometric and bird motifs) produced from its pottery workshops suggests cultural and commercial connections with the Luristan and Susiana regions of western Iran, and the settlement may have been politically connected with a confederacy of Elamite states. However, Godin Tepe was abandoned some time after 1400 and not reoccupied until the second half of C8, represented by Period II on the site. A fortified mansion was built there after 750. At the peak of its development, this palatial structure contained three large columned halls, storage magazines, and an upper floor for living quarters. It appears to have served as the residence of a local Median ruler. Occupation of it continued after the Persian conquest of Media c. 550, until it was abandoned in late C6 or early C5. The final phase of Godin Tepe’s existence, Period I, the Islamic phase, dates to C15 CE.

Young and Devine (1974), Young (*OEANE* 2: 416–17).

Golan (map 8) Region in mod. Israel located to the east and northeast of the Sea of Galilee, first attested in *OT* sources as a city in the land of Bashan belonging to the territory of the Manasseh tribe (Deuteronomy 4:43). The region is divided into three sub-units: (a) in the south, a fertile plain with good agricultural land – this was the most densely populated part of the Golan in anc. times; (b) in the centre, an area suited mostly to grazing purposes; (c) in the north, a thickly forested area, which was only sparsely populated during the Early Bronze and Iron Age I periods.

The earliest evidence of human activity in the region dates back to the Upper Palaeolithic period. The Chalcolithic Age saw relatively extensive settlement, as indicated by the remains of more than thirty village sites of this period, with fifteen to forty houses in each. Settlement seems to have been extremely sparse at the beginning of the Early Bronze Age (EBI), but to have grown during the EB II phase, for which some forty-two sites have been identified. These were located throughout the region. By the end of the Early Bronze Age (EB IV) in late M3, settlement seems to have been confined to the southern Golan, as also in Middle Bronze I – i.e. for a period extending from c. 2350 to 1950. Surveyors of the region believe that there was then a gap in

occupation lasting c. 150 years before settlement resumed in the Middle Bronze II period, for which c. forty-five sites have been identified. Once again, settlement was concentrated mainly in the south. It is believed that this may have been due in part to the sedimentary rock in the south, in which it was easier to cut water-tight cisterns for storing water than in hard basalt. The surveys suggested that many of the sites were built for strategic reasons, to control the main routes which passed through the region.

There was a sharp decrease in the number of sites in the Late Bronze Age, followed by a renewal and expansion of settlement in the Iron Age (c. 1200–732). A total of fifty-two Iron Age sites have been identified, distributed fairly evenly throughout the region (south, centre, and north). In a number of cases, abandoned Middle Bronze II sites were reoccupied. Strategically located fortresses figure among the Iron Age settlements. The region was annexed by the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III, along with the rest of northern Israel, in the aftermath of his campaign in 732. There is no evidence of settlement during the Babylonian, Persian, and early Hellenistic periods (C6–3). However, the Seleucid conquest of Palestine in 200 was a catalyst for substantial resettlement in the later Hellenistic period, and the number of occupied sites grew in the succeeding centuries, reaching a total of c. 173 settlements by C6 CE.

Ma'oz (*NEAEHL* 2: 525–7; *OEANE* 2: 417–24), Goren-Inbar and Epstein (*NEAEHL* 2: 527–34).

Gordium (Gordion) (map 4) Central Anatolian city located on the Sakarya (Classical Sangarius) r., 100 km southwest of Ankara. Its history of occupation extends from the Early Bronze Age (mid M3) to the Roman imperial period. But the most important phase of its existence dates to the Iron Age (especially C9–8), when it was the capital of the Phrygian empire. The site was discovered and identified in 1893 by the German scholar Alfred Körte, who in 1900 began excavations with his brother Gustav on the citadel. More extensive excavations were carried out, from 1950 to 1973, by R. S. Young for the University of Pennsylvania Museum's Gordium Project. Further excavations were conducted by M. M. Voigt in collaboration with K. Sams, beginning in 1988.

The architectural and artefactual remains of the Late Bronze Age settlement make clear that the city in this period belonged to the Hittite empire, no doubt as a component of one of the empire's subject states. But its Late Bronze Age name is unknown. The earliest Iron Age level is built directly over and into the final Late Bronze Age settlement, suggesting that there was no significant time gap between the two. This has led to the conclusion, based partly on ceramic evidence, that shortly after the site was abandoned, probably during the upheavals accompanying the collapse of the Late Bronze Age kingdoms in C12, it was reoccupied by an immigrant group very likely of Thracian or Macedonian origin. The last decades of M2 probably witnessed the formative stages of a Phrygian state, centred on the city which came to be called Gordium.

The Phrygian city at the height of its development in C8 consisted of three parts: a flat-topped mound now called Yassihöyük, 17.5 ha in area and generally referred to as the Citadel Mound; a walled lower city located immediately to the south and west of the mound; and an unwalled settlement lying to the north and northwest. The palace complex was located on the citadel in a strongly fortified area which separated it from the rest of the city. It contained a number of rectangular buildings laid out on the megaron plan (see glossary), with roofed columned porch and large inner chamber. The

largest and apparently the most important of these buildings, designated as Megaron 3, may have been the palace of King Midas (see under **Phrygia**). To the west of the palace area was a high terrace on which two long buildings were erected. These were evidently service buildings for the palace, for they contained food preparation and storage areas, rooms for the production of textiles, and repositories for a range of valuable items, including gold and electrum jewellery, bronze vessels, animal figurines, and imported horse trappings. The city's massive fortifications incorporated gates in its eastern, northern, and western sides. The most imposing and best preserved of these is the eastern gateway, with central ramp and flanking courts, which still reaches a height of 9 m.

Outside the settled areas, and principally to the east, were the city's burial grounds. Phrygian graves were typically wooden, flat-roofed chambers built into rectangular pits sunk into the ground, and then covered with mounds (*tumuli*) of rocks and earth. Gordium's cemetery contained c. 140 of these burial structures, which range in date from C8 to the Hellenistic period. They varied greatly in size, no doubt a reflection of the status of their occupants, the more important being built for members of the Phrygian royal family. Generally, the tombs were intended for single burials. The largest is still 53 m high (even after erosion) and almost 300 m in diameter. It covers a wooden burial chamber which in this case has a gabled roof. Still in excellent condition, it can be dated to C8 on the basis of its grave goods, which included nine tables and other wooden furniture, inlaid and elaborately decorated, three bronze cauldrons of Urartian origin, many smaller bronze vessels, pottery, 154 fibulae, and studded leather belts. These goods were buried with the deceased, a man in his sixties, whose body was found *in situ*, laid out on a bier. He has commonly been identified either with Midas, or with his father Gordius. Recent recalibration of the tomb's juniper logs has provided a dating of c. 740 for the tomb, which indicates that the tomb was more likely to have been built for Midas' father than for Midas himself.

The destruction of Gordium has in the past been dated early in C7 and attributed to the Cimmerians. However, radiocarbon tests made in 2001 and a re-examination of artefacts from the Citadel Mound have led to a higher dating for the destruction, probably by fire, to c. 800, too early to be associated with the Cimmerian invasions (see DeVries, 2008: 31–3). The city seems to have recovered quickly from this destruction, and probably by mid C8, if not earlier, had been completely rebuilt. By early C6, after the final withdrawal of the Cimmerians, it was incorporated into the Lydian empire, under whose influence it regained much of its former prosperity. In 547, however, it was captured by the Persian king Cyrus II, while Cyrus was in the process of destroying the Lydian empire. Under Persian rule Gordium was no longer a major political centre, but it may have continued to thrive as a centre within its region for trade and commerce. In 333 Alexander the Great wintered in Gordium, after liberating it from Persian rule. Here, according to tradition, he famously cut the Gordian knot, tied by Midas' father Gordius. (No archaeological evidence has yet been found for the temple where this event allegedly took place.) Subsequently Gordium became part of the Seleucid empire. It was abandoned during the latter part of the Hellenistic age, but later reoccupied by Roman settlers, and thenceforth called by its Roman name, Gordium. New information about Gordium's Hellenistic, Roman, and mediaeval phases has come from recent excavations carried out on various parts of the Citadel Mound.

Sams (1994–5; 1995), Voigt (*OEANE* 2: 426–31), Kealhofer (2005), Sams and Goldman (2006), DeVries (2008).

Gozan see *Halaf, Tell*.

Granicus r. (map 5) River in northwestern Anatolia, the site, in 334, of Alexander the Great's first major encounter with and victory over the forces of the Persian emperor Darius III (Arrian, *Anabasis* 1.13–16, Diodorus 17.19–21, Plutarch, *Alexander* 16). Recent surveys have identified more than forty anc. sites, mostly tumuli (burial mounds) in the vicinity of the Granicus and Aesepus rivers. The sites date to the Persian period (C6–4) and can be associated with satrapal estates of this period. Investigations of them, within the context of the Granicus River Project, were undertaken in 2004 by C. B. Rose, University of Pennsylvania, in collaboration with R. Körpe, Çannakale Onsekiz Mart University.

Rose and Körpe (2006); summary of project by Rose *ap.* Yıldırım and Gates (2007: 328).

Grynium (*Temaşalık Burnu*) (map 5) Graeco-Roman city located on the coast of northwestern Anatolia, 30 km south of Pergamum. According to Herodotus (1.149), it was one of the original eleven Aeolian communities surviving to his day (see *Aeolis*). In C5 it became a member of the Athenian Confederacy. According to Xenophon (*Hellenica* 3.1.6), the Persian king (doubtless Xerxes) handed the cities Grynium and Myrina over to a Greek called Gongylus from the city of Eretria on the island of Euboea, as a reward for Gongylus' support of Xerxes' campaign against Greece in 481. (Gongylus had been exiled from his homeland for his treachery.) Well known as the site of a temple and oracle of the god Apollo, Grynium served as the religious centre of a league of southern Aeolian cities. The oracle, which may well have been of considerable antiquity, continued to function through the Hellenistic and Roman periods, to judge from occasional references to it in written sources of these periods (e.g. in the Roman period, Virgil, *Aeneid* 4.345, Strabo 13.3.5). There are, however, no clearly identifiable remains of the temple where consultations of the oracle took place, nor indeed of Grynium itself.

Bean (*PECS* 368).

Gubla (1) see *Byblos*.

Gubla (2) Iron Age city in the kingdom of Hamath, attested in a list of Hamathite cities and districts recorded by the Assyrian king Tiglath-pileser III (745–727) (**Tigl. III* 148–9). An identification has been proposed with Gubla, 20 km south of Latakia.

Lipiński (2000: 286–7).

Gulgulu Iron Age land in northern Mesopotamia, in the Habur valley. The Assyrian king Ashur-bel-kala (1073–1056) engaged in conflict there with the Aramaeans (**RIMA* 2: 103). Lipiński suggests it may have lain in the area of Tell Kawkab.

Lipiński (2000: 99).

Gunilaha Early Bronze Age Iranian city or region. Its location is uncertain, beyond the likelihood that it lay somewhere on the Iranian plateau. The Akkadian king Sargon (2334–2279) lists it among the cities and lands against which he campaigned in the east. The fact that it was the seat of a local ruler (*ensi*) at the time indicates that it was a place of some importance, perhaps a member of what was then a loose confederacy of Elamite states. Other cities and regions against which Sargon campaigned and from

GURGUM

which he obtained booty in the region included Parahshum (Sumerian Marhashi), Shali'amu, Kardede, Heni, Bunban, Sapum, Awan, Susa, and Shirihum (**DaK* 178–81).

Zadok (1991: 227), D. T. Potts (1999: 102–3).

Gupin Early Bronze Age city in western Iran. It was among the cities and lands conquered by the Akkadian king Rimush (2278–2270) during the eastern campaign which he conducted early in his reign against a coalition of forces from Elam, Parahshum (Sumerian Marhashi), and Zahara (**DaK* 217).

D. T. Potts (1999: 103, 105).

Gurasimmu M1 Aramaean(?) tribe located in southern Babylonia not far from Ur. The earliest surviving references to it may date to the reign of the Assyrian king Esarhaddon (680–669), but it is not clearly attested until the reign of his son and successor Ashurbanipal (668–630/627). A letter written by Ur's governor, Sin-balassu-iqbi, probably to Ashurbanipal, refers to the governor's capture of 500 fugitives after they had found refuge with the Gurasimmu.

RGT 8: 142–3, Lipiński (2000: 482–3).

Guretu Iron Age city in northern Mesopotamia, in the lower Habur triangle. The Assyrian king Tukulti-Ninurta II encamped his forces there for the night during his progress up the middle Euphrates and Habur region on his last recorded campaign (885) (**RIMA* 2: 177).

Gurgum (map 7) Iron Age Neo-Hittite kingdom located in the plain of mod. Maraş, southern Anatolia, bordering the kingdoms of Sam'al (Zincirli) to the south and Kummuh to the east. Its capital, attested in the reign of the Assyrian king Sargon II (721–705), was Marqas (mod. Maraş). From information provided by the Luwian hieroglyphic inscriptions found at or in the vicinity of Maraş (**CLHI* I: 252–81), a dynasty of Gurgumite kings can be established, four of whose members have been equated with rulers of Gurgum attested in Assyrian records (*CLHI* I: 250–1):

Astuwaramanzas

Muwatalis (I)

Laramas (I)

Muwizis

Halparuntiyas (I)

Muwatalis (II) = Assyrian-attested Mutallu (II)

Halparuntiyas (II) = Assyrian-attested Qalparunda (II)

Laramas (II) = Assyrian-attested Palalam (*CHLI* I: 251)

Halparuntiyas (III) = Assyrian-attested Qalparunda (III)

gap?

Assyrian-attested Tarhulara

Assyrian-attested Mutallu (III).

The earliest of these rulers, Astuwaramanzas, must date back to C11. He was presumably the founder of the Gurgumite dynasty, but not necessarily the founder of the kingdom, whose origins remain obscure. The last two members of the dynasty are known only from Assyrian records, and the dynasty's end can be dated to c. 711,

the year in which Mutallu (III) was deported to Assyria by the Assyrian king Sargon II (see below).

Gurgum first appears in Assyrian records when envoys from the kingdom are listed among the 5,000 foreign representatives present at the inauguration of the C9 Assyrian king Ashurnasirpal II's new palace in Nimrud (Kalhu, Calah) (**RIMA* 2: 293). As far as we know, the kingdom remained submissive to Assyria through Ashurnasirpal's reign and that of his successor Shalmaneser III. In his first regnal year, 858, Shalmaneser received tribute from Gurgum's king Mutallu (II), which included Mutallu's daughter and a rich dowry (**RIMA* 3: 16). Gurgum apparently took no part in the widespread anti-Assyrian movements which came to a head in Shalmaneser's confrontation, in 853, with a coalition of Syro-Palestinian states at Qarqar (q.v.). Prior to the battle, a Gurgumite king called Qalparunda was one of a number of rulers of eastern Anatolia and northern Syria who paid tribute to Shalmaneser (**RIMA* 3: 23). Hawkins (*CLHI* I: 251) believes that this Qalparunda can be identified with Mutallu's son and successor Halparuntiyas (II) in Gurgum. (A contemporary ruler of the northern Syrian kingdom Pat(t)in/Unqi – see **Pat(t)in** – was also called Qalparu(n)da; **RIMA* 3: 23). We have a surviving fragment of a colossal statue of Halparuntiyas, which showed the king deified after death. Only the feet of the statue remain, but a record of Halparuntiyas' military exploits has been preserved in an accompanying funerary inscription written in Luwian hieroglyphs (**CHLI* I: 256–7, **CS* II: 126–7).

In 805, the Assyrian king Adad-nirari III ordered a boundary stone to be erected between the kingdoms of Kummuh and Gurgum, ruled respectively by Ushpilulume and Qalparunda (III), son of Palalam. (For the inscription on the boundary stone, the so-called Pazarçık stele, see **RIMA* 3: 205; see also Lipiński, 2000: 283–4.) This followed in the wake of Adad-nirari's conflict with and defeat of an anti-Assyrian coalition of kings under the leadership of the Aramaean Attar-shumki, ruler of Arpad (Bit-Agusi). Qalparunda may have been a member of the coalition, and in a subsequent redefinition of his kingdom's border with Kummuh, which had remained loyal to Assyria, he appears to have lost some of his territory to Kummuh. Gurgum was certainly a member of the Arpad-led alliance which later besieged the Hamathite king Zakur in the city of Hatarikka c. 796 (*Lipiński, 2000: 254–5, **CS* II: 155, **Chav.* 307–11), and a member of the Urartian–Arpad alliance which confronted Tiglath-pileser III in 743 (**ARAB* I: 272–3, 287; **Tigl. III* 100–1). Its king on the latter occasion was a man called Tarhulara. When Tiglath-pileser invaded Gurgum, Tarhulara submitted without further resistance (**Tigl. III* 102–3) and was allowed to retain his throne, which he continued to occupy for another three decades as a tributary of the Assyrian king (**Tigl. III* 108–9). He was, however, forced to cede some of his cities to his southern neighbour Panamuwa II, king of Sam'al (**TSSI* II: 14, 15, **CS* II: 160). He is still attested as an Assyrian tributary in 732. But c. 711 his son Mutallu assassinated him and seized his throne. The Assyrian king at that time, Sargon II, responded promptly, removing Mutallu (III) from the throne, deporting him to Assyria, and annexing his kingdom as a province of the Assyrian empire. It was now called Marqas, the name of the former kingdom's capital, and apparently retained its provincial status until the fall of the Assyrian empire in late C7.

Röllig (*RIA* 3: 703–4), Hawkins (*RIA* 7: 352–3, s.v. Maraş; **CLHI* I: 249–52).

Gutians (Gutium) People of obscure origins and ethnic affinities, regarded in anc. Mesopotamian tradition as mountain-dwellers in the central Zagros region of western Iran, north of Elam. Steinkeller locates the Gutian homeland in the triangular region defined by mod. Kermanshah, Suleimaniyeh, and Kirkuk (see also *CAH IV* [map 2](#), p. 11). Gutium is first attested in an inscription of Lugal-anne-mundu, ruler in the Early Dynastic period (c. 2902–2334) of the Sumerian city-state Adab. The inscription, surviving in copies from the Old Babylonian period (early M2), refers to tribute paid to Lugal-anne-mundu by a number of lands east of the Tigris including Gutium. The earliest contemporary references to Gutium are found in texts of the Akkadian king Shar-kali-sharri (2217–2193); two of his year-names record, respectively, the capture of the Gutian king Sharlak and the defeat of Gutium. Later literary compositions tell of attacks launched by the Gutians against Naram-Sin, father of Shar-kali-sharri (J. G. Westenholz, 1997: 246). One of these, the famous ‘Curse of Akkad’ (*Kuhrt, 1995a: 56), is a poetical composition in the form of a letter, in which the Gutians appear as the agents of divine wrath against Naram-Sin for sacking the holy city of Nippur and defiling there the sanctuary of the god Enlil. In this account, written by a Sumerian poet several centuries after the events it records, the Gutians attack and defeat Naram-Sin and sack his royal capital Agade. But in the absence of any references in Naram-Sin’s own texts to depredations by the Gutians during his reign, a number of scholars think it likely that these events should be assigned to the reigns of his successors. For a time, Akkadian defences in southern Mesopotamia probably kept the region relatively free of Gutian encroachment. There is, however, some evidence that Gutian rulers may have established themselves in Umma and possibly also Sippar relatively early in the Akkadian period. Whatever the extent of their presence in Mesopotamia at this time, tradition assigns to them responsibility for the destruction of the Akkadian empire. In fact, they may have been but one of a number of external as well as internal forces that brought about its decline and collapse.

A Gutian royal line appears in the Sumerian King List among the dynasties which exercised, allegedly in chronological sequence, authority over southern Babylonia during M3. The best preserved exemplar of this list indicates a Gutian dynasty consisting of twenty-one kings who ruled for a total of 91 years and 40 days between the Uruk V and VI dynasties; in other versions of the King List, the dynasty rules for 99, or 124–5 years (**Chav.* 84). However, only three of these twenty-one Gutian kings are known from other, contemporary sources: La-arabum, Iarlagand and Tiriga(n). A fourth Gutian king, Erridu-pizir, does not figure in the Sumerian King List, but is the subject of a long inscription, excavated at Nippur, which is apparently an Old Babylonian copy of an original Akkadian text. It is one of the most important of the small surviving corpus of Gutian inscriptions. However, a precise date for Erridu-pizir cannot be determined.

Various proposals have been made regarding the chronology of a Gutian regime in Mesopotamia and its relationship to the interval between the end of the Akkadian dynasty and the rise of the Ur III dynasty c. 2112. This interval is generally calculated to have been in excess of a century. But Hallo (*RIA* 3: 714) notes ‘a remarkable unanimity in the records of the major city-states of the region, all indicating an interval of c. forty years between the death of Shar-kali-sharri and the emergence of Ur-Nammu (founder of the Ur III dynasty)’. He accommodates within this timespan the last dozen Gutian kings who according to the Sumerian King List reigned for a

total of thirty-eight years (cf. Hallo, 2005: 153). The extent of their authority in Mesopotamia is unknown, though they were probably only one of a number of powers and local dynasties who exercised control in the region, including perhaps a couple of obscure successors of the Akkadian dynasty.

Though the 'Curse of Akkad' text describes the Gutians as 'a people who know no inhibitions, with human instincts, but canine intelligence, and monkeys' features' (lines 155–6, transl. *Cooper, 1983; cf. *Jacobsen 1987: 368), it seems that they quickly adapted to Mesopotamian customs and lifestyles, wrote their royal inscriptions in Akkadian, and in many cases assumed Akkadian names. But tradition records that they fell as they had risen, through an act of divine vengeance. In this case, the agent of divine wrath (the god Enlil in particular) was a king of Uruk called Utu-hegal (2123–2113), who expelled the Gutians from the land of Sumer during the reign of their king Tirigan, after defeating Tirigan in battle at a place called Ennigi (**RIME* 2: 284–7). Even so, Gutians continue to appear in later sources dealing with the Ur III period, prompting Hallo to comment that Utu-hegal's rout and expulsion of their forces may not have been as dramatic or as comprehensive as tradition indicates.

During the Old Babylonian period (early M2), references to the Gutians are found in northern Mesopotamian texts, from Shemshara, Chagar-Bazar, and Mari. A Gutian king called Indashshu (variant I/Endushshe) is attested in letters from Shemshara during the reign of the Assyrian king Shamshi-Adad I (1796–1775). According to J. Eidem (cited in Hallo, *RIA* 3: 716), the Gutians may have been located in northern Luristan at this time, though in a Mesopotamian context the term 'Gutian', referring to individuals and groups, may simply have meant 'highlander(s)'. It was in this period that references are made to an army of Gutians supporting an Elamite campaign in Mesopotamia, and to Gutians serving in the Elamite garrison in the city of Shubat-Enlil (Shehna), located in the Habur plain of northern Mesopotamia. A Gutian 'queen' called Nawaritum, attested in letters from the Mari archives, was allegedly captured and later released by Elamite troops (**LAP0* 17: 230, no. 589). Another of the Mari texts records her dispatch of a force of 10,000 Gutians against the city of Larsa (**LAP0* 16: 618, no. 424). Eidem and Laessøe (2001: 31) suggest that references to Gutians in early M2 should be separated into two basic categories – those referring to individuals or smaller groups of people called Gutians and serving various functions in Mesopotamia proper, and those that provide evidence for independent action of an actual Gutian polity.

In the Late Bronze Age a Kassite king of Babylonia, Agum II Kakrime, included the designation 'king of the land of Gutium' in his titulary. By then, however, the name Gutium probably had no more than vague geographical connotations. In this sense, it was applied to some of the peoples who occupied the regions where Gutians had once dwelt – like the Qutu or Quti (q.v.) – but had no ethnic or political connections with them. And it was in this sense alone that the name survived in western Asian literature for another thousand years, as indicated by its appearance in Neo-Assyrian, Neo-Babylonian, and Persian texts, long after the disappearance of the Gutians themselves as an ethnic or political entity. At this time, it was simply an archaic designation for the regions northeast of Babylonia (*RGTC* 8: 144). Memories of the Gutians lived on until well into the Hellenistic period, as reflected in a text of the Seleucid era which refers to their destruction of the cities of Sumer and Akkad. Hallo (*RIA* 3: 714) sums them up with the comment: 'After their brief span in the limelight, they became the

GUZANA

victim of ethnic stereotyping, serving in M2 and M1 as little more than a derogatory code-word for barbarian or mountaineer.’

The attempt to link the Gutians with the Indo-European Tokharian speakers of M1 CE in Chinese Turkestan (Henning, 1978) has not found much favour amongst anc. western Asian specialists.

Hallo (*RIA* 3: 708–20; 2005), Gadd (1971: 545–63), Eidem and Laessøe (2001: 31–2).

Guzana see *Halaf, Tell*.