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LATE BRONZE AGE AIGINETAN COARSE POTTERY AT KANAKIA, SALAMIS

A Macroscopic Study

ABSTRACT

This article examines the Late Bronze Age Aiginetan coarse pottery from the excavations at the Mycenaean acropolis at Kanakia on Salamis and the nearby cult area at Pyrgiakoni. The cooking and noncooking shapes are presented and discussed, and macroscopic observations are offered concerning the construction of certain types of pots and their performance characteristics. For the cooking pots in particular, a systematic macroscopic examination of external burning marks and internal carbonization has allowed for insight into their placement in relation to fire, and also into cooking modes. Finally, all data are used in an effort to interpret noted modifications in Aiginetan ceramic technology and to understand the presence of Aiginetan kitchenware pottery on Salamis.

INTRODUCTION

This article aims to provide a synthetic macroscopic overview of the Aiginetan coarse pottery that has so far been retrieved from the University of Ioannina excavations on the Mycenaean acropolis at Kanakia, Salamis, and at the nearby cult area at Pyrgiakoni (Fig. 1).[1] It focuses on pottery made of the well-known Aiginetan coarse kitchenware fabric that appears practically in all buildings on the acropolis and in the neighboring cult area.

1. Additional images are available as an online supplement at http://dx.doi.org/10.2972/hesperia.88.3.0447.app. Figure numbers with the prefix "S" (e.g., Fig. S1) refer to images in the online supplement.

I am extremely grateful to the Institute for Aegean Prehistory (INSTAP) for grants provided between 2006 and 2015 and also to the Director of the University of Ioannina Excavations in Salamis, for making possible the overall work on the Mycenaean pottery from Kanakia (i.e., its conservation, drawing, and photographing)—a selection of which is presented here—as well as the scientific analyses included in my dissertation. Further, a grant from the Mediterranean Archaeological Trust (MAT) also contributed to the overall funding of this research.

I express my gratitude to the Director of the Salamis Excavations, Yannos G. Lolos, and to Michael Fotiadis (Univ. of Ioannina), both for reading and commenting on earlier drafts and for their overall support and guidance during the completion of this study. I am deeply obliged to James Skibo (Illinois State Univ.) for generously offering his expert opinion on use alterations and cooking modes. My sincere thanks go to Elias Spondylis, Honorary Director of the Ephorate of Underwater Antiquities, Hellenic Ministry of Culture and Sports, and to

The history of the study of the Aiginetan pottery in general and of the coarse pottery in particular has been dealt with in a series of studies and publications throughout the years.[2] Kolonna, situated on the western coast of Aigina, was the long-time urban center of the island; its first occupation dates back to the Late Neolithic period, while the latest surviving habitation layers extend into the Late Helladic (LH) IIIA period. The fact that the Late Mycenaean (LH IIIB–C) remains at Kolonna are very scanty has led to notions about its decline without full acknowledgment of the effects of Archaic and Hellenistic building activities, which have obviously destroyed the latest Mycenaean layers on the hill, or the existence of the nearby chamber tomb cemetery with pottery (on display in the Archaeological Museum of Aigina) extending into the LH IIIC period. According to Felten,[3] the abandonment of Kolonna took place in the LH IIIC Early period.

In contrast to earlier prominent pottery production on Aigina,[4] the pots that are considered to have been exported from the island in the late Mycenaean period—that is, after LH IIIA when it has often been claimed that Kolonna was in decline—are the tripod cooking pots and the cooking jars. While Aiginetan cooking pots have been documented at a number of sites outside Aigina for the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period, the systematic excavation at Kanakia on Salamis by the University of Ioannina has shed impressive new light on Aiginetan pottery production during this Late Mycenaean period by providing evidence of an extended pottery repertoire produced in the kitchenware fabric.[5]

In the following sections, the Mycenaean acropolis at Kanakia and the cult area at nearby Pyrgiakoni are presented in order to establish the general context in which the Aiginetan pottery is found. All cases, albeit limited, of installations pertaining to cooking and heating are discussed in an effort to elucidate the heating devices of the Mycenaean period. Furthermore,

Myrto Michalis, archaeologist and Special Secretary of the Hellenic Institute of Marine Archaeology (H.I.M.A.), for offering valuable insights into the transportability of pots and other issues of seafaring, which have led to the conjectural development of a possible means for the transportation of the tripod cooking pots. Special thanks are due to Mathieu François, former conservator of the then Ephorate of Antiquities of West Attica, Piraeus, and Islands, for devising a practical method for the accurate measurement of the capacity of the pots. I wish to thank Konstantina Kaza-Papageorgiou, excavator, and archaeologists Elina Kardamaki, Panayiotis Koutis, and Nektaria Mouka, for the opportunity to see pottery from Kontopigado, Alimos; and Michael Cosmopoulos (Univ. of Missouri–St. Louis), for granting access to examine pottery from Eleusis. Further, thanks are owed to Peter Day and William Gilstrap (Univ. of Sheffield) for their comments on an earlier draft of this work. Three anonymous reviewers, along with Jennifer Sacher and Sarah Peterson, have provided useful comments and suggestions for the better presentation and discussion of the data, while Sarah Figueira assisted with the presentation of the figures. Needless to say, I remain responsible for the views expressed here.

The work presented in this article was accomplished in the Archaeological Museum of Salamis; for permission to work in the apotheke and the various help through the years I extend my sincere thanks to Anta Kattoula, archaeologist responsible for Salamis, Eleni Mountzouri, head guard, and Yorgos Kontzageorgiou and Nikoletta Piskopani, guards of the Archaeological Museum of Salamis. The drawings of the material were made by archaeologist Stavros Oikonomidis and the author, while the photographs were taken by Kostas Xenikakis and Nikos Gavriil, and supplemented by the author. All drawings and photographs are from the Archives of the University of Ioannina Excavations in Salamis.

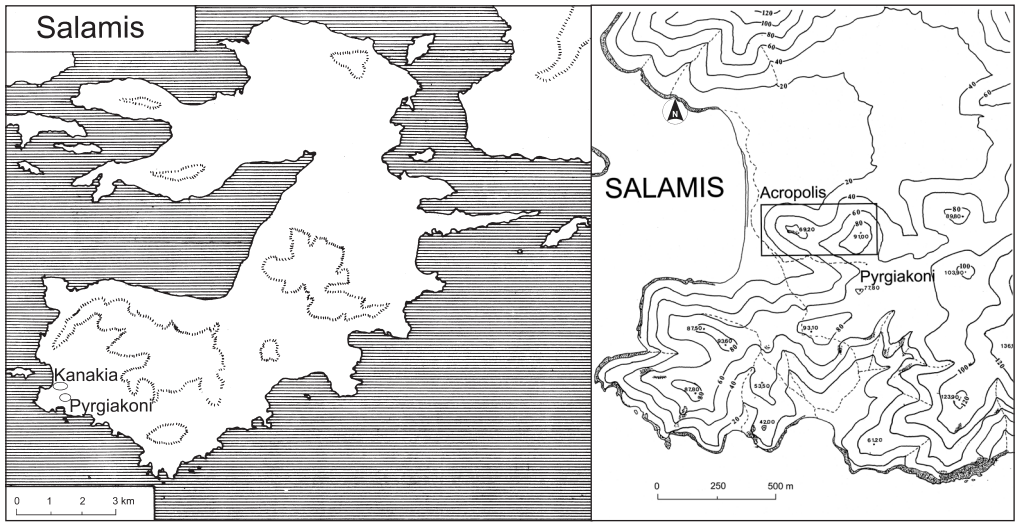
2. See Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, with bibliography. For a general review of previous literature on cooking vessels, see Trusty 2017; for the earliest typology of Mycenaean coarse-ware pots, including a tripod example, see Furtwängler and Löschcke 1886, pl. XLIV:113–116.

3. Felten 2007, pp. 18–19.

4. See Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, pp. 173–178, 220–224, with bibliography.

5. See Marabea 2007a, 2010a, 2010b, 2012.

a



b

Figure 1. Map of the wider area of the Saronic and Argolic Gulfs (a); Salamis, with a detail of the area of Kanakia-Pyrgiakoni (b).

all of the Aiginetan cooking and noncooking shapes known so far at Kanakia are presented and discussed, and a classification system based on functional classes is devised for the Late Mycenaean Aiginetan pots of kitchenware fabric.[6] Data and macroscopic observations concerning fabric and morphology are used to suggest the construction of certain types with the wheel-shaping/coiling technique. The performance characteristics of the pots are also considered; comments on capacity and the factors that affect it are offered on the basis of measurements of whole pots, along with

6. Orton, Tyers, and Vince 1993, p. 78.

observations on stability, accessibility, and transportability. For the cooking pots in particular, a systematic macroscopic recording of their external burning marks and internal carbonization allows interesting insights into their placement in relation to fire, and also into various cooking modes that seem to go beyond the usually suggested methods of boiling/simmering for Mycenaean pots of this kind.[7]

Finally, all of the above data are used in an effort to explain noted modifications in Late Bronze Age (LBA) Aiginetan ceramic technology in terms of an extended repertoire, the suggested refinement of the clay, and an adjustment in construction, and they are also used to interpret the existence of the Aiginetan kitchenware pottery at Kanakia, which is characterized by the total domination of cooking pots and the varied representation of other noncooking types. Results pertaining to Aiginetan and other fabrics, already available from petrographic and chemical analyses conducted on pottery samples from the excavations at Kanakia, have been taken into account in this study.[8] Lastly, it should be noted that this work does not include the corpus of pre-fired potters' marks that appear on the pots (so far numbering ca. 100), as they will be presented and discussed in a future publication.

THE CONTEXT

The Mycenaean Acropolis at Kanakia and its Neighboring Cult Area

The mass of the Mycenaean acropolis at Kanakia is formed by two contiguous limestone hills situated 69.2 and 91.0 masl on a west–east axis on the southeastern side of the bay of Kanakia on the southwest coast of the island of Salamis (Fig. 2). The acropolis commands a fine view toward the west part of the Saronic Gulf, and its viewshed includes the Gerania Mountain range and part of the plain of Megara, the Isthmus of Corinth, and part of the region of Epidauros. The northern coast of the island of Aigina is visible from the top of the eastern height of the acropolis.

Systematic excavations on the acropolis by the Department of History and Archaeology of the University of Ioannina have been in progress since 2000, under the direction of Yannos G. Lolos.[9] The initial habitation of the acropolis can be traced back to the later phases of the Neolithic period, evidenced by pottery identified among material from surface collections and fills below the floors of later (Mycenaean) buildings. The habitation of the acropolis appears to have continued steadily throughout the Early and Middle Bronze Ages, also on the basis of the retrieved pottery. It reached its acme in the Late Bronze Age, when large building complexes were constructed on the saddle between the two heights at the end of LH IIIA2/beginning of LH IIIB1, thus sweeping away all of the previous architectural features (Fig. 3). This strategy—that is, the clearing of older structures in order to construct new ones, instead of using the same structures with the addition of new floors—had two important outcomes: first, it denoted a new centralized architectural program at the end of LH IIIA2/beginning of LH IIIB1 that had to be executed on clear ground; and second, the floors of the rooms (mostly constructed of trodden earth but also made of white

7. See, e.g., Borgna 1997, p. 205; Kanta 2003, p. 177 (on the basis of their often-rounded shapes).

8. Marabea 2010a.

9. See, esp., Lolos, Marabea, and Oikonomou 2007; Lolos 2009b, 2012, 2016; Lolos and Marabea 2017. For further details and references relating to the account that follows here, see Marabea 2007b, 2010a, 2012.

Figure 2. The acropolis of Kanakia, from north

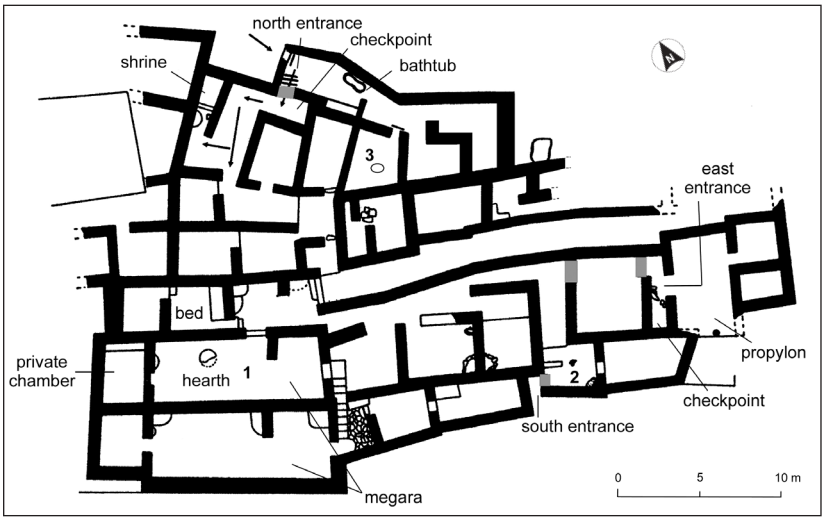
a b

Figure 3. The acropolis of Kanakia: (a) aerial view of the upper level, from east; (b) plan of the excavated buildings after the 2016 excavation season, with arrows marking the wall separating the lower, southern limit of the town.

lime-plaster or clay) were completely replaced when necessary instead of adding one floor above another.

The picture that emerges from the ongoing archaeological investigations reveals a hierarchically structured habitation area with large buildings of formal character on the upper level of the acropolis, which can be attributed to the local ruling family, and smaller structures on the terraces founded on the surrounding slopes (mainly to the south). The area occupied by the Late Mycenaean settlement is estimated to be more than 5 hectares in size. A peribolos wall, unearthed in places, runs along the north and south sides of the saddle, marking the dividing line between the two areas. Building Gamma (Fig. 4), with three entrances, comprising a double megaron, a small shrine, storerooms, and other auxiliary areas, and covering an area of ca. 750 m^2 (thus far), constitutes the ideological core of the acropolis. To the east of Building Gamma, and most probably attached to it, lies Building Delta (Fig. 5), mainly consisting of a central kitchen (room 4a), storerooms, and

a



b

Figure 4. Building Gamma: (a) aerial view; (b) plan after the 2016 excavation season (1 = hearth; 2 = cavity; 3 = pit[?]).

other auxiliary areas. Farther to the east, the Eastern Building Complex comprises 41 rooms and other areas. Besides the role of the complex as a locus for the reception of people and the storage and distribution of goods, it seems that several of the its rooms were used for industrial and other activities during the most prosperous phase of occupation.[10]

The buildings on the upper level of the acropolis are flanked on the north and south by other constructions that are so far only partly known by their outlines. Storage and cult activities most probably are attested in the autonomous Building Iota Gamma, which lies some distance to the north of the Eastern Building Complex and on a lower level. Between the aforementioned buildings runs part of the road that leads from the main port (i.e., the bay of Kanakia) to the north entrance of Building Gamma and to the main fortified gate of the Eastern Building Complex.

Defensive walls built of Cyclopean masonry have not been identified on the acropolis, but a series of architectural elements did provide necessary protection for the habitation area. Apart from the peribolos wall that isolates the upper level of the acropolis, another wall at a lower level on the

10. See Marabea 2010a, 2011; Lolos and Marabea 2017.

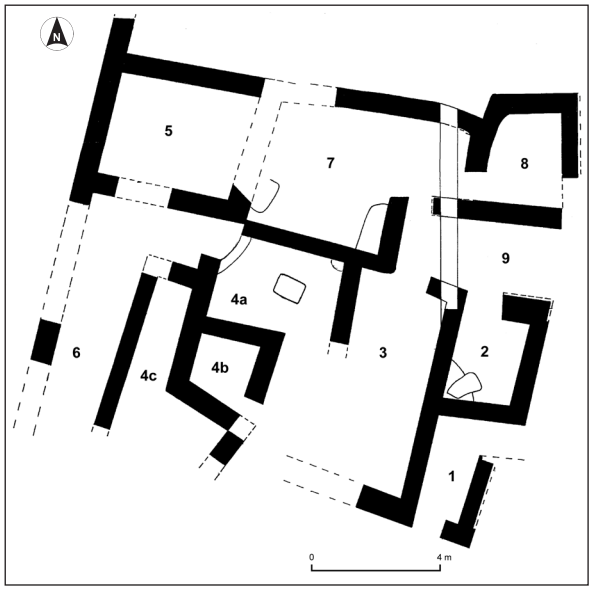


Figure 5. Plan of Building Delta after the 2015 excavation season, with rooms labeled. Room 4a is the central kitchen.

south slope marks the lower (southern) limit of the town (see Fig. 3:b). In addition, tower-like constructions and bastions set at the northwest and southwest sides of the first (western) height and below the top of the second (eastern) height controlled the wider area.

A crucial element that marks the end of the life of the acropolis is the construction of blocking walls at all three entrances of the central Building Gamma, which prevented access to its interior. They were constructed during a phase of organized evacuation of the acropolis at the very beginning of the 12th century B.C. (LH IIIC Early, phase 1).[11]

At a relatively short distance to the south of the acropolis (ca. 750 m in a straight line from the western hill), in the area of Pyrgiakoni (see Fig. 1:b), an establishment of the Late Mycenaean period, possibly surrounded by an enclosure, has been identified on a hilltop (53.50 masl) according to indications of surface pottery. On the basis of the results of successive surface surveys, this specific location was probably intended to control the bay of Pyrgiakoni, the second port of the Mycenaean town.

The intensive survey by the team of the University of Ioannina in the neighborhood of the acropolis, and specifically on a plateau to the southeast (i.e., Pyrgiakoni), resulted in the identification of the cemetery associated with the Mycenaean acropolis and also of a cult area with remains of Mycenaean and Classical/Early Hellenistic date. Apart from the still-unexcavated cemetery, with cist graves and clusters of chamber tombs carved into the soft rock of the region, the Mycenaean cult area at Pyrgiakoni comprises a tumulus, a low platform, and a state (communal) building (Fig. 6).

The tumulus, measuring 20 × 25 m with a height of more than 2 m, is located to the southwest of the cemetery and is defined by a peribolos wall of irregular shape with a diameter of ca. 45 m. The excavation, which began in the fall of 2008, showed that the tumulus had incorporated a natural rock formation, and its upper part consisted of a pile of soil and a low revetment wall on the western side; on its top, two rock-cut pits were revealed (of trapezoidal and rectangular-oblong form), without any burials or grave goods. A simple, heavy rectangular stone slab *(stele)* found on the east side of the tumulus likely was originally erected on top.[12]

11. See Marabea 2012.
12. See Lolos 2009a, pp. 4–7.

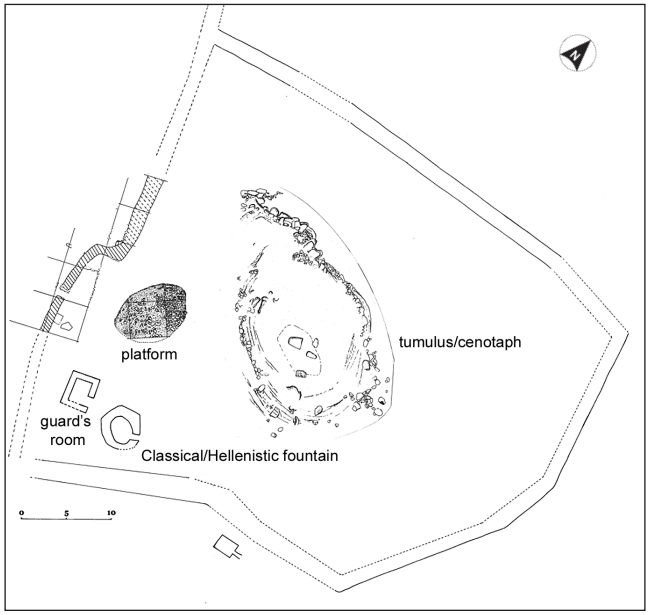


Figure 6. Plan of the Late Mycenaean cult area at Pyrgiakoni after the 2015 excavation season

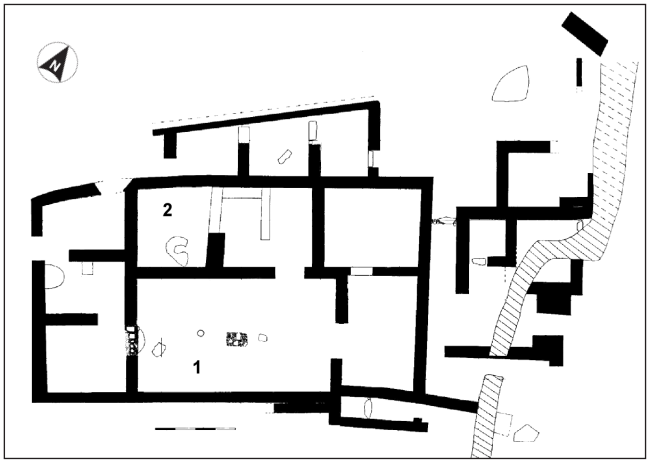


Figure 7. Plan of the Late Mycenaean cult building at Pyrgiakoni, located immediately west of the cult area shown in Figure 6, after the 2015 excavation season (1 = megaron-type pillared hall with hearth; 2 = kitchen area)

Immediately west of the tumulus (or cenotaph), a low, roughly circular platform made from cobble and gravel, with a diameter of ca. 6 m, was uncovered. Sherds of kylikes, deep bowls, and cooking pots of LH IIIB–IIIC Early date, along with two fragments of clay figurines and a small number of animal bones, were collected from the surface.

Farther to the west of the tumulus and the platform, excavations uncovered a large monumental building designed for cult activities in relation to the former (Fig. 7). The preliminary study of the pottery from the large building suggests that it was abandoned at the beginning of the LH IIIC period, following the fate of the nearby acropolis. The focus of the building is a large megaron-type hall with internal dimensions of 9.70–9.95 × 5.70–5.80 m and a wide entrance on both the east and west sides. The hall was once pillared, based on the evidence of two stone bases of wooden columns that were set on the long (east–west) axis; between the stone bases are the remains of a rectangular hearth. The hall is flanked by other

auxiliary areas and storerooms on the west, north, and east sides. A zigzag processional route led from the northwest to the east part of the building, which in turn gave way to the area of the low platform and the tumulus.[13]

By combining all of the aforementioned elements, it becomes apparent that an organized funerary and cult area developed at Pyrgiakoni at the end of the 13th century B.C., and it was evidently controlled by the elite of the acropolis. Here one is faced with a hero cult system, more notably one centered on a person who was not buried there but was important enough for a tumulus to be constructed in their memory. The supportive architectural area next to the tumulus was constructed when the elite decided to honor a high-status member who apparently died away from home, and it served as the locus for large gatherings and the consumption of food and drink before or after the performance of ritual acts in the area.

A short distance to the south and adjacent to the Mycenaean cult area, a Classical–Early Hellenistic temenos has been recognized and partly excavated. The temenos originally was related ideologically to the Mycenaean cult area by the incorporation of both the old (Mycenaean) tumulus and its enclosure in the new establishment. The temenos appears to have been erected some 700 years after the abandonment of the area (i.e., ca. 500 B.C.) by the Athenians, who had annexed the island to their city-state and wished to consolidate their presence and power there by organizing, inter alia, a formal hero cult (in honor of Ajax?) in a state *(demosion)* sanctuary located within a landscape where the old legends had left visible remains, both on the acropolis and at Pyrgiakoni.

Heat Installations

Fixed installations that could have been used as heat sources for cooking pots have been uncovered both on the acropolis (Fig. 4:a) and in the ceremonial building at Pyrgiakoni (Fig. 7). The main (north) megaron in Building Gamma on the acropolis was furnished with a circular hearth (Diam. ca. 0.70 m); its association, inter alia, with cooking activities, presumably in a formal context, is evidenced by the occurrence of cooking pots, mainly tripod cooking pots, next to it.[14] Furthermore, in a room in the eastern part of the same building, an oblong cavity in the rock, measuring 0.60 × 0.35 m, was found to contain blackened soil, and next to it lay the upper part of a large tripod cooking pot (**21**). A third instance of such an installation, most probably a pit in the floor, is still under investigation in a room in the northern part of the building.[15]

An exceptional find has been unearthed in room 4a (clearly part of a kitchen area) of Building Delta (Fig. 5), consisting of a rectangular hearth (0.88 × 0.75 m) with a small tripod cooking pot still standing in its center (Fig. 8). Small, flattish stones were arranged to form the border of the hearth (three on each side), leaving its interior (0.45 × 0.33 m), which was certainly once filled with the burning material, free. Apart from the standing cooking pot, another larger tripod cooking pot (uncatalogued) has been found to the east of the hearth along with a cooking basin to its north.

The same features have been identified in the ceremonial building at Pyrgiakoni (Fig. 7). Here, a central rectangular hearth (1.00 × 0.55 m) was situated in the megaroid main hall, flanked by two column bases of stone

13. See Marabea 2015; 2016, pp. 7–9.

14. Among them, **14** and **58**.

15. Pots **16** and **20** were found in this room.

a b

Figure 8. Room 4a of Building Delta: (a) the hearth and cooking pots in the kitchen area as seen during excavation; (b) detail of the cooking pot (uncatalogued) within the hearth.

with cooking pots around it (e.g., **24**, **31**). Located in an auxiliary room of the same complex was a cavity in the rock (0.28 × 0.35 m) with brown soil and cooking pots (e.g., **66**) next to it; this space most likely served as a kitchen area.

In general, the numbers of recovered hearths and other heating sources are few in comparison with the numbers of cooking pots found on the acropolis and at Pyrgiakoni:[16] two hearths in official halls; a certain cooking spot within an exclusive kitchen area surrounded mostly by storage and auxiliary rooms (Building Delta, room 4a); and two cavities and a possible pit in what could have been kitchen areas.[17] This circumstance perhaps points toward the existence of additional heat sources in other areas (outdoor, too) that also would have been in use.[18]

COOKING AND RELATED POTS AT KANAKIA

Before considering the cooking and related pots at Kanakia, it is useful to summarize the evidence regarding the general use of cooking pots. Apart from their primary use in the kitchen for domestic or more specialized activities, cooking pots are attested in various noncooking contexts in the Late Bronze Age.[19] They are found in industrial areas of the Late Bronze Age, for example: at Naxos in the area of a pottery workshop; at Alatzomouri-Pefka on Crete and Toumba in Thessaloniki for the preparation (heating) of dyes; and perhaps also at Kontopigado, Alimos, in Attica, where quantities of local and Aiginetan cooking pots have been retrieved, a number of which could have been used in its workshop activities.[20] In secondary use,

16. We do not yet have enough evidence (i.e., many cooking installations) to suggest a link with specific cooking pottery types (Rutter 2004, p. 80), apart from the occurrence of chiefly tripod cooking pots around the hearth in the north megaron of Building Gamma, or the existence of hearths fired at low or high temperatures.

17. Cooking holes cut into floors or formed by stones are reported from Late Minoan Mochlos (Morrison 2017, pp. 152–153).

18. For multiple cooking areas located inside and outside houses in Late Minoan Crete, and comments on the formation of an archaeologically recognizable cooking space, see Morrison 2017, p. 138.

19. For a cooking pot with a slip on its interior, probably used in a noncooking context, from Structure T at Kommos, Crete, see Rutter 2004, p. 71.

20. For Naxos, see Halepa-Bikaki 1983, p. 309; for Alatzomouri-Pefka, see Koh et al. 2016; for Thessaloniki Toumba, see Veropoulidou, Andreou, and Kotsakis 2008; for Kontopigado, Alimos, see Kaza-Papageorgiou and Kardamaki 2011, pp. 216–218. For the preparation of dyes in general, see Barber 1991, pp. 242–243.

cooking pots are found again in industrial areas, as, for example, at Tiryns, for metallurgical activities, and in tombs as grave offerings.[21]

Moving forward in time in order to briefly show that the varied use of cooking pots is not confined temporally within the Late Bronze Age, the Byzantine cooking pot (chytra-tsoukalion) with a flat or rounded base (without legs) had many uses apart from preparing food in the kitchen. These small pots were carried outdoors, were used as portable hearths, and were employed for the procurement of hot water. This last use is also suggested as an additional function for the chytrai of the Athenian Agora.[22] Iconographic evidence of the Byzantine period depicts the holding of heated pots with handkerchiefs to protect the hands.[23] Furthermore, Byzantine cooking pots were used to extract water from wells or for the preservation of food in the cooling environment of a well, and also for the storage of food, with a smaller variant being suitable for the storage of honey and the preparation of drugs, poisons, and other chemical substances.[24] The varied use of cooking pots has also been recorded in the modern era (e.g., as serving dishes, mixing bowls, or storage vessels).[25]

Returning to Mycenaean Salamis, a number of shapes among the Aiginetan coarse pottery at Kanakia bear traces of fire, pointing to their use in activities that required heat. At Kanakia, there is some recent evidence for the use of these vessels in noncooking contexts apart from their presence in the workrooms of Building Iota Alpha in the Eastern Building Complex, although their exact use there cannot be discerned with certainty.[26] Generally, their frequent occurrence in the buildings on the acropolis and in the ceremonial building at nearby Pyrgiakoni chiefly points toward the preparation of food for the subsistence of the population of the acropolis (e.g., the kitchen in Building Delta), and also for special feasts/ceremonial activities, particularly in the case of pots retrieved from the two megara of Building Gamma on the acropolis and those in the large cult building near the cenotaph at Pyrgiakoni.

A general observation is that the cooking pots are not confined to a restricted number of areas/rooms (kitchens or storerooms close to kitchens). On the contrary, they occur in every room of the buildings. Certainly, the regular presence of cooking pots is related to providence, given their tendency to frequently break. According to ethnographic examples, the lifespan of a cooking pot is one to two years or slightly longer, and in general, large pots last longer than smaller ones during regular use.[27] Furthermore, the frequency of cooking pots at Kanakia perhaps indicates that they were freely circulated within the buildings, and that they were abandoned in different

21. For examples from Tiryns, see Brysbaert and Vetters 2013, p. 185. For examples from tombs in general, see, e.g., Keramopoullos 1917, pp. 128, 131, 183, 194, figs. 91, 95, 131, 139 (two-handled cooking jars from Thebes); Iakovidis 1969, pls. 41:1056, 62:720 (one-handled cooking jars from Perati); Xenaki-Sakellariou 1985, pl. 78:2907 (one-handled tripod cooking jar from Mycenae); Anastasiou-Alexopoulou 1990, pl. 126 (one-handled cooking jar from Salamis); Polychronakou-Sgouritsa 2001, pp. 21, 43, figs. 22, 55, nos. 107, 108 (one-handled cooking jars), 305 (leg fragment from Vourvatsi, Attica).

22. Rotroff 2006, p. 167.

23. See Bakirtzis 1989, pp. 41–43.

24. See Bakirtzis 1989, pp. 41–43.

25. See Kiriakopoulos 2015, p. 264.

26. Pot **27** was found in a storeroom inside the large Late Mycenaean cult building at nearby Pyrgiakoni. It contained a red substance, which was analyzed using X-ray powder diffraction (XRD), X-ray fluorescence (XRF), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and Raman spectroscopy. The results showed that it was red ochre. The pot was used for the storage and transportation of the ochre and, in all probability, also for its production. The results of theses analyses will be presented by A. Oikonomou, C. Marabea, C. Papachristodoulou, and D. Palles at the 7th Symposium on Archaeometry of the Hellenic Society for Archaeometry in Athens (9–12 October 2019).

27. See Longacre 1981, pp. 63–64; Tani and Longacre 1999; Orton and Hughes 2013, p. 263.

Figure 9. Detail of the bathtub (uncatalogued) in the anteroom area of Building Gamma, in front of the north entrance

states of use. It also may be suggested that the cooking pots were removed from the heating source when their contents were ready and then transferred to other rooms for consumption. This would be rather difficult for the large pots, however, because of the overall weight of both the pot and its contents. Depending on the type of cooking pot, it may not have been necessary to transfer the cooked food to another vessel for serving—in some cases, food could have been consumed directly from the cooking pot. As the cooking pottery is not concentrated solely in specific areas, which would facilitate contextual analysis, more concrete evidence regarding issues such as their association (or lack thereof) with other shapes and their organization will be provided when the contents of all rooms are catalogued and analyzed.

The noncooking pots made of Aiginetan kitchenware clay consist mostly of storage vessels. As expected, the storage vessels, from either Aigina or elsewhere, are fewer in number in comparison to the cooking pots. This circumstance is due to the different nature of these pots, and also to the fact that storage was not exclusively reserved for clay pots but was also possible in other mediums, as suggested by, for example, the heaps of wheat found at Gla, which were stored in perishable containers such as leather sacks, wooden boxes, or baskets.[28] This practice should be especially relevant for Kanakia, as the area favors the systematic practice of animal husbandry.[29]

A number of bathtubs and vats also belong to the category of noncooking pots, and these are of both Aiginetan and non-Aiginetan origin. With regard to the first vessel type, the bathtub is widely distributed throughout the buildings of the acropolis (see, e.g., Fig. 9). Its widespread presence is not usually documented on the Greek mainland, with a few exceptions.[30] In general, bathtubs had a variety of uses: in hygiene regimens (see, e.g., the well-known examples at Pylos and Tiryns), as basins when near water channels, as parts of industrial areas, or as equipment in ceremonial contexts.[31] At Kanakia specifically, the use of the bathtub is related to hygiene and, perhaps chiefly, to storage activities.

Quantitative data exist for the Eastern Building Complex on the acropolis, whose study has concluded.[32] A total of 1,209 pots in varying states of preservation have been recorded. Of these vessels, 943 are fine pots, while 266 examples are coarse (excluding the bathtubs). The percentages of closed and open coarse pots are 77% and 16%, respectively, with an additional 7% representing unidentified coarse types.

28. Iakovidis 1998, p. 178.

29. Marabea 2010a, pp. 274–279.

30. E.g., at Dimini (Adrymi-Sismani 1999–2001, p. 73) and Kontopigado, Alimos (Kaza-Papageorgiou and Kardamaki 2011, pp. 218–220).

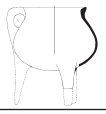
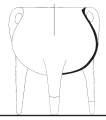
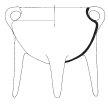
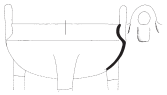
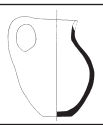
31. For bathtubs located near water channels, see Smith 1995, pp. 166, 184–188; for bathtubs in industrial areas, see Smith 1995, p. 184; Shaw and Shaw 1996, p. 527; Shelmerdine 1997, pp. 387–388; for bathtubs in ceremonial contexts, see Taylour 1970; French 2002, p. 91.

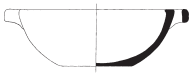
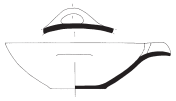
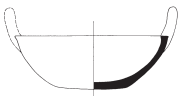
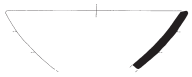
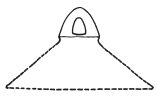
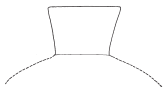
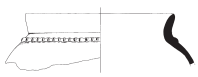
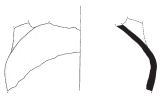
32. Marabea 2010a.

Out of the 266 documented coarse examples, 260 are Aiginetan pots, whereas only six of are of non-Aiginetan origin. Tripod cooking pots and cooking jars form the main bulk of the coarse pottery (70% of catalogued examples). The completion of the study of other buildings will add further quantitative evidence and allow for comparisons among them.

The following section presents a selection of vessels in order to provide a detailed typology of the Aiginetan kitchenware pots that have been recovered so far from the acropolis and the nearby cult area at Pyrgiakoni (Table 1).

TABLE 1. TYPOLOGY OF LBA AIGINETAN COARSE KITCHENWARE POTTERY

Kitchenware Types	*Representative Profile (Not to Scale)*
Cooking Types	
Type 1A. Rounded, one-handled tripod cooking pot	
Type 1B. Rounded, two-handled tripod cooking pot	
Type 1C. Carinated, two-handled tripod cooking pot	
Type 1D. Lebes (tripod cooking pot)	
Type 1E. Hemispherical, two-handled tripod cooking pot	
Type 1F. Rounded tripod(?) cooking pot with two horizontal handles	
Type 2A. One-handled cooking jar	
Type 2B. Two-handled cooking jar	
Type 3. Cooking jug	

Kitchenware Types	*Representative Profile (Not to Scale)*
Type 4A. Two-handled basin	
Type 4B. Spouted, two-handled basin	
Type 4C. Spouted, two-handled tripod basin	
Type 4D. Basin with two vertical loop handles	
Type 4E. Basin with horizontal cylindrical handles	
Type 5. Lid	
Noncooking Types	
Type 6. Pithos	
Type 7. Jar/pithoid jar	
Type 8. Amphora	
Types 9, 10. Bathtub/vat	

AIGINETAN KITCHENWARE POTTERY SHAPE CLASSIFICATION

Cooking Types

Type 1. Tripod Cooking Pot

The most popular shape is the tripod cooking pot with short everted rim, usually with a clear angle (carination) on the interior,[33] a globular or squat-globular body, and three elongated legs that are oval in section, set just below the greatest diameter of the body, thus ensuring the unhindered contact of the bottom with the heat source.[34] Almost 44% of the recorded coarse-ware examples recovered from the Eastern Building Complex are of this shape (with an additional 21% being of this shape or the cooking jar).

The quantity of relevant ceramic material that has been retrieved at Kanakia/Pyrgiakoni has made possible the identification of the following tripod cooking pot types (Tables 2, 3).

Type 1A. Rounded, One-Handled Tripod Cooking Pot

Six secure examples of rounded, one-handled tripod cooking pots in various degrees of preservation have been recorded (**1**–**6**; Tables 2, 3; Figs. 10, S1, S2). The pots are generally of small to medium size; their heights range from ca. 16.0 to ca. 21.4 cm (after restoration), and their rim diameters from 10.0 to 13.0–14.0 cm. In general, the height of the body of the pot matches exactly or is very close to the diameter of the rim, whereas the oveall height of the pot is slightly greater (ca. 2.0–3.0 cm) than the maximum diameter of the body. The wall thickness at the height of the maximum diameter of the body is 0.4–0.9 cm, while the thickness of the bottom is 0.3–0.6 cm. Though none of the pots retains a full leg, they are reconstructed as having inside leg lengths between 7.5 and 9.0 cm. There are, however, smaller examples of legs, like that in Figure S3, with a length of 4.8 cm (inside), pointing toward the existence of even smaller pots.

Two nearly whole pots (**4**, **6**) show two versions of the body. Though the height, diameter of rim, and maximum diameter of body are comparable, the body of **4** is more globular, while the body of **6** is rather squat. If this variation in design is unintentional (i.e., mechanical),[35] it may be linked with the latitude that potters had during manufacturing. Alternatively, if one considers these attributes intentional, they perhaps may be associated with the practice of cooking itself, as the globular form of **4** sets the content of the pot closer to the heating source. The same observation also applies to the two-handled tripod cooking pots (see below).

The one-handled tripod cooking pots always have one leg set below the vertical handle, while the other two legs are attached at an obtuse angle, thus leaving the area of the body opposite the handle rather open. In such a setting, the handle of the pot appears to be functional when the pot is put into use during cooking. The attachment of the legs to the body is slightly oblique in most cases, apart from pot **4**, whose legs are in a more tilted position.

33. Only rarely is there a slight hollow on the inner surface of the rim (e.g., **22**). For a similar rim arrangement, see examples from Kontopigado, Alimos (Kaza-Papageorgiou and Kardamaki 2014, fig. 8:12); Ayios Kosmas, Attica (now on display in the prehistoric collection of the Benaki Museum, Athens; pers. obs.); and Mitrou (Lis 2012b, p. 134, fig. 41).

34. Furumark Shape (FS) 320 or S-17 in Lindblom's classification; see Furumark 1941, p. 76; Lindblom 2001, p. 26, fig. 4.

35. See Costin and Hagstrum 1995, p. 622.

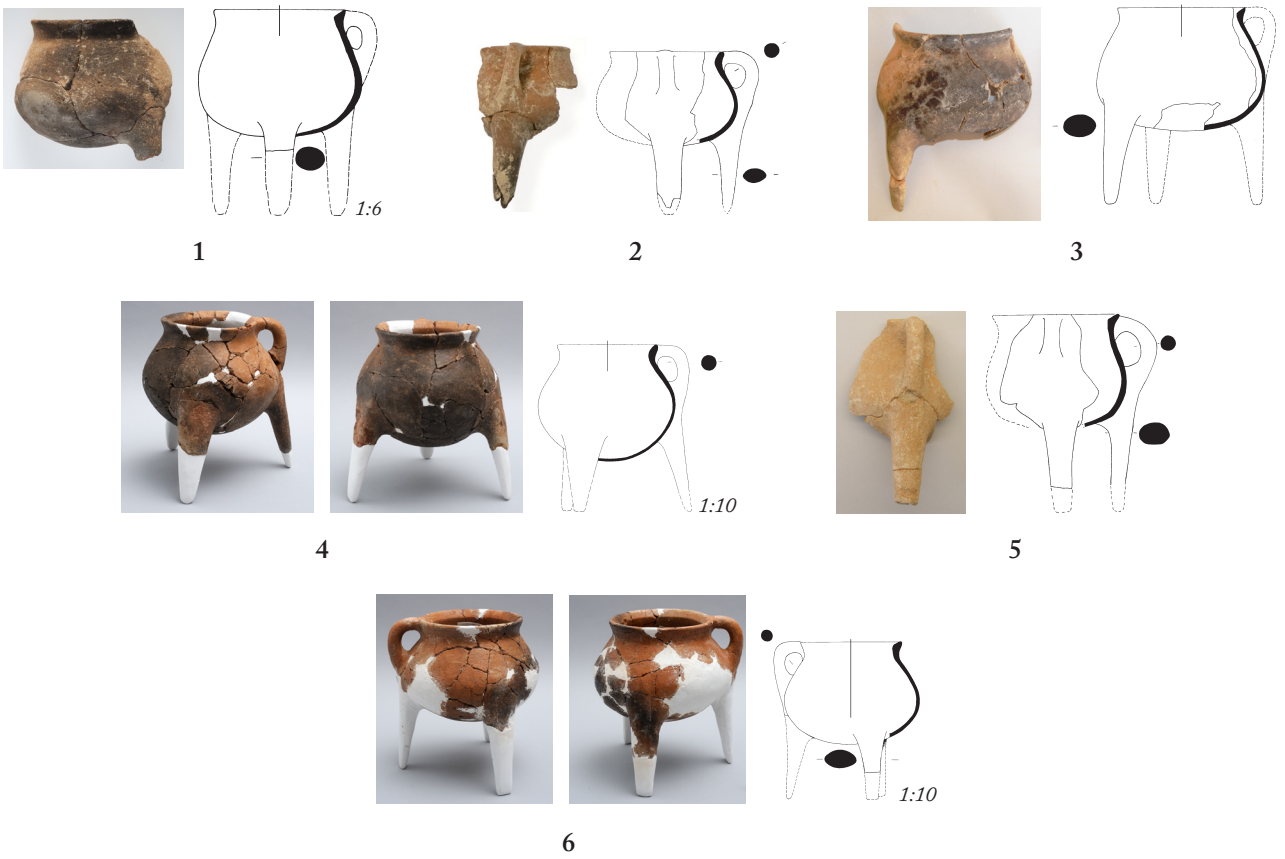


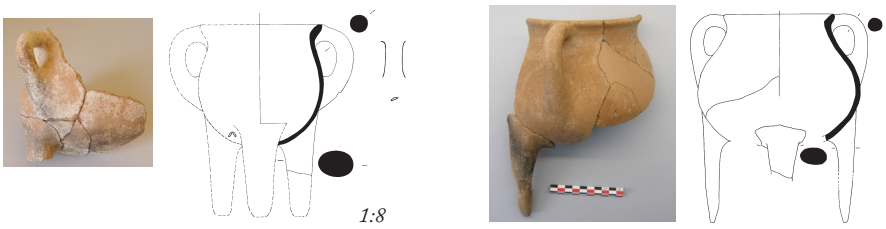
Figure 10. Tripod cooking pots, type 1A (1–6). Scale 1:8 unless otherwise indicated

Type 1B. Rounded, Two-Handled Tripod Cooking Pot

The version of the tripod cooking pot with two cylindrical vertical handles extending from the rim to the body appears in medium-sized and larger examples (**7**–**22**; Tables 2, 3; Figs. 11–13, S1, S2). The size range of these two-handled pots seems to begin at the high end of the previous group: the height starts at ca. 20.0 cm and can reach up to 38.0 cm (and even close to 43.0 cm, as estimated in one case [**19**]). The diameter of the rim also seems to begin at the high end of the previous group, ranging from ca. 13.0 to 23.5–25.5 cm. The inside length of the legs reaches at least 16.5 cm, thus raising the bottom of the pot from the ground by ca. 12 cm.

In the assemblage presented here, pot **7** (Fig. 11) is fragmented. In terms of dimensions, it appears at the border between the one-handled and two-handled categories; however, the fact that the leg is not placed exactly below the handle bars this example from the one-handled group. Of great interest is the fact that the pot was marked twice by the potter before it was fired: on the wall next to the lower root of the handle and on the bottom. Two marks also may occur on pot **20**: a certain mark is placed at the beginning of one of the legs, a location rarely marked in the Late Mycenaean period, and a possible other mark is found at the mid-height of the handle. Double marks are extremely rare; to the present author's knowledge, only one Late Mycenaean cooking jar with a double mark has been published so far, coming from the North Slope of the Acropolis in Athens.[36]

36. Lindblom 2001, p. 90, pl. 56:1104.



7 8

9

10 11

12 13

14 15

Figure 11. Tripod cooking pots, type 1B (7–15). Scale 1:10 unless otherwise indicated

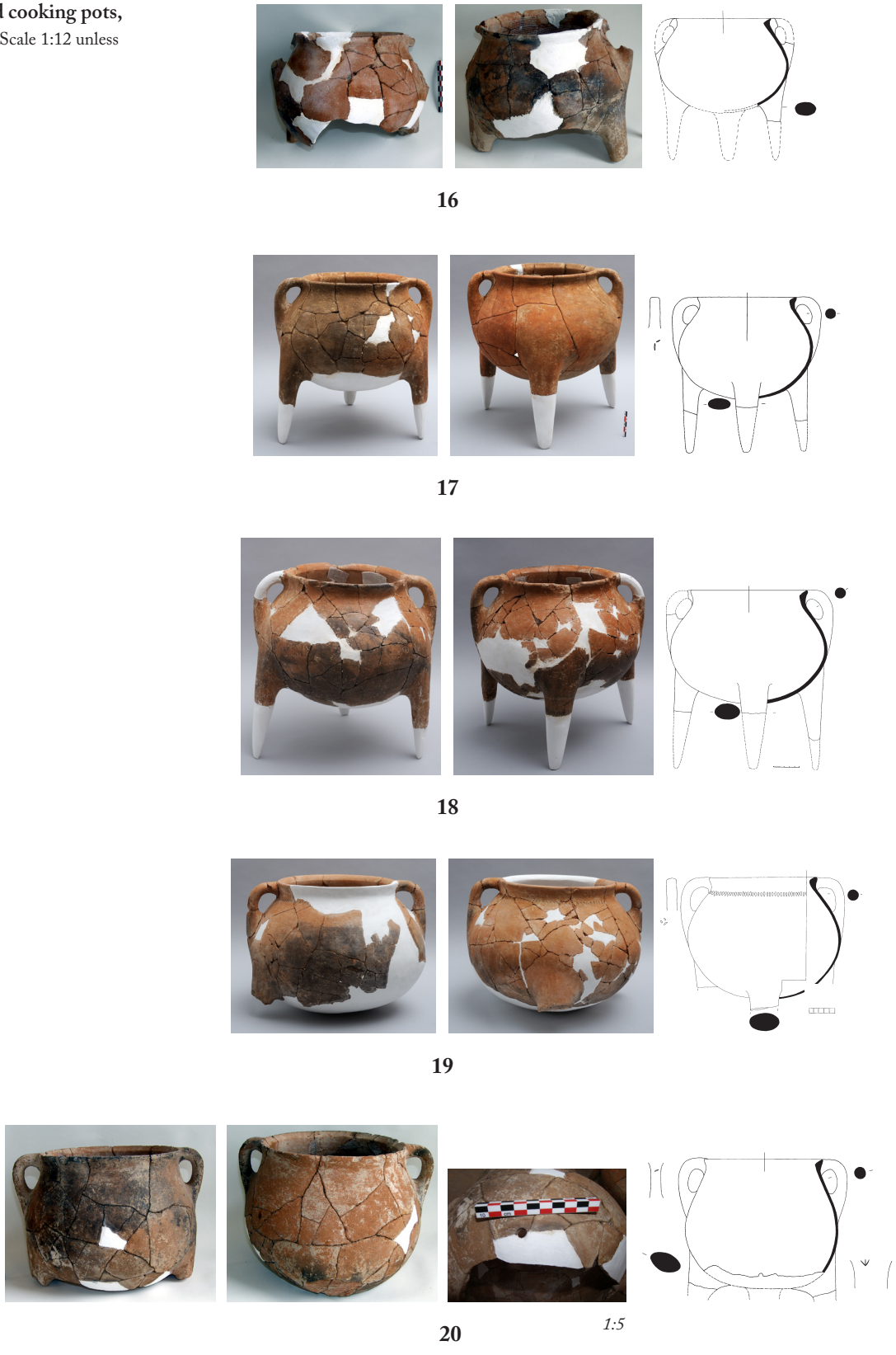


Figure 12. Tripod cooking pots, type 1B (16–20). Scale 1:12 unless otherwise indicated

21

22

Figure 13. Tripod cooking pots, type 1B (21, 22). Scale 1:12

Their meaning is therefore not straightforward. Are we perhaps dealing with pots that were marked twice accidentally?

The height of the pots of this type is always greater than the diameter of the rim; interestingly, in most cases the height is ca. 10 cm greater than the rim diameter, while the maximum body diameter is slightly narrower than the height of the pot. Depending on the size of the pots, the thickness of the wall ranges from 0.5 to 1.2 cm, measured at the maximum diameter of the body, whereas the thickness of the bottom displays further thinning, ranging from 0.3 to 0.5 cm.

The placement of the legs in the case of the two-handled tripod cooking pot seems to be uniform, irrespective of size. Two factors are at play here, namely the functionality of the handles and the need for stability; the result is a pattern in which two legs are attached by the side of the handles. Attaching two of the three legs exactly below the handles would be catastrophic for the stability of the pot.

In general, the two-handled tripod cooking pots have long legs, and their bottoms thus are situated well above the ground. Some data in this respect are available for the rounded, two-handled tripod type: the distance between the rounded bottom and the ground ranges from 6 to ca. 12 cm, while the inner length of the legs in the examples presented here ranges from ca. 8.0 to 16.5 cm. Generally, the bigger the pot, the longer its legs.

One pot (**19**) displays impressed decoration below the rim consisting of a row of vertical drops. The impressed decoration is a rare occurrence in the material from Kanakia. It may be a late (in terms of chronology) addition to Aiginetan cooking pottery production, or it could denote a more formal use of the specific pot—for example, in the context of a feast—as it has been shown that distinctive visual characteristics may appear on pots intended for special/formal uses.[37] Both explanations, however, may not be conflicting.

37. See, e.g., Bowser and Patton 2004, pp. 176–177.

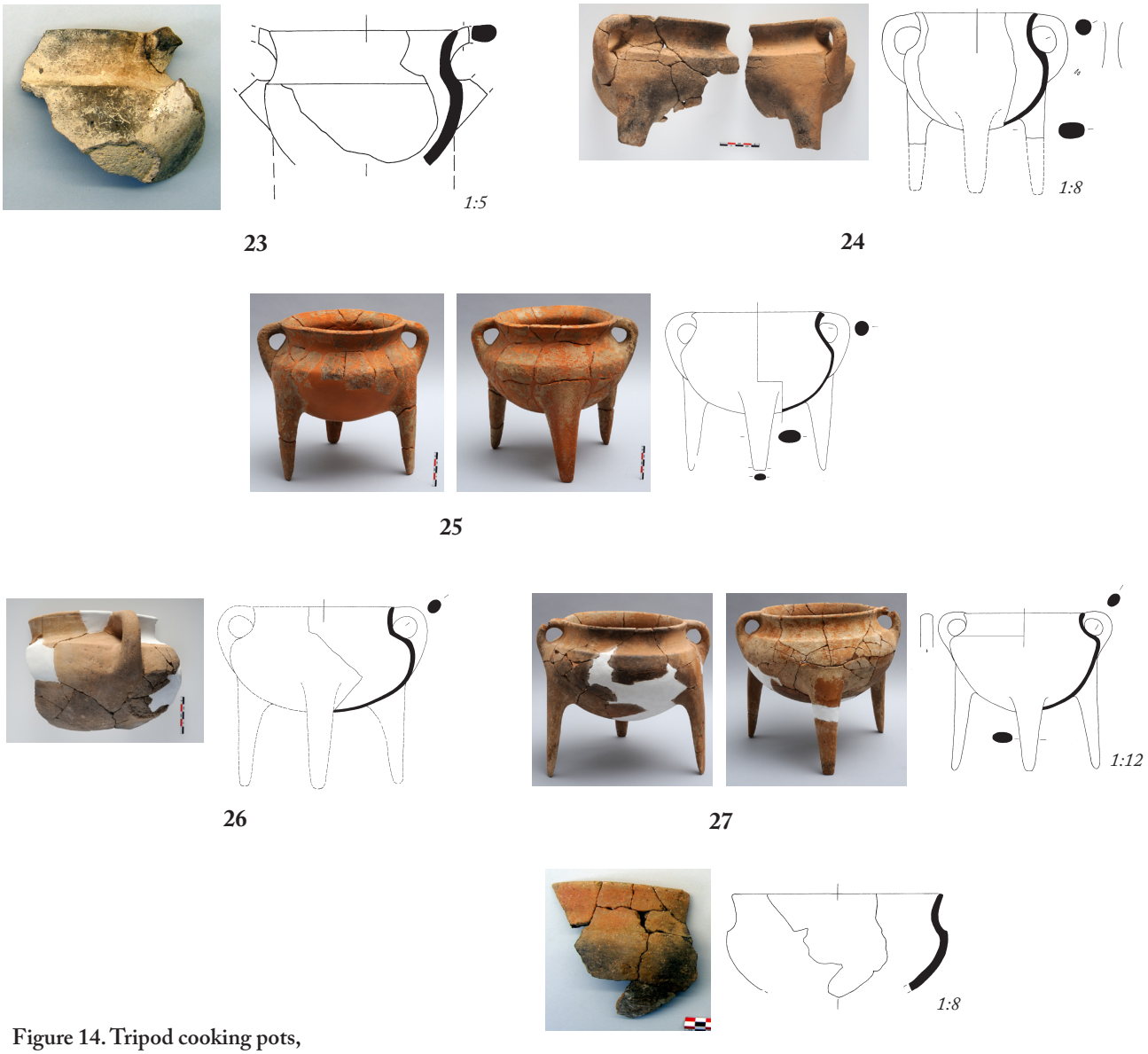


Figure 14. Tripod cooking pots, type 1C (23–28). Scale 1:10 unless otherwise indicated

Lastly, special mention should be made of pot **20**, as it preserves half of a hole from a repair with a lead clamp. Repairs of cooking pots are, for obvious reasons, extremely rare, and, indeed, this is the first identified specimen at Kanakia. Its meaning is not straightforward: if repairs of fractured or broken pots were a means to cope with a lack of replacements, the vast presence of cooking pots at Kanakia is not compatible with such an explanation, thus highlighting other, possibly social factors for such an occurrence.

Type 1C. Carinated, Two-Handled Tripod Cooking Pot

The carinated, two-handled tripod cooking pots are few in number (**23–28**; Tables 2, 3; Figs. 14, S1, S2), most probably because of their late appearance in the beginning of LH IIIC Early. As a type, it appears to be less standardized in its structural elements in comparison to the rounded examples.

Generally, the carination appears high on the body, while the rim lacks the usual (as in the rounded examples) angular internal formation and is

29

Figure 15. Tripod cooking pot, type 1D (29). Scale 1:12

splaying; its edge may be rounded or more flattened/squared (e.g., **25**). Differentiation in the formation of the upper body, without the inward inclination of the rounded examples, results in a wide-mouthed pot. The section of the vertical handles comes in two varieties: circular and oval; the placement of the legs in relation to the handles and their shape remain unaffected.

The height at which the carination is placed, the modified formation of the edge of the rim, and the two sections of the handles point toward internal differentiation in the formation of the pots. This modification may have chronological connotations (i.e., some pots may be slightly older than others) or provide evidence for the experimentation of Aiginetan potters with a new type of cooking pot, or even for different practices in workshops on Aigina, though the rounded tripod cooking pots appear to have been produced with the same internal/structural characteristics. Additional carinated examples are needed in order to shed more light on the production of this type.

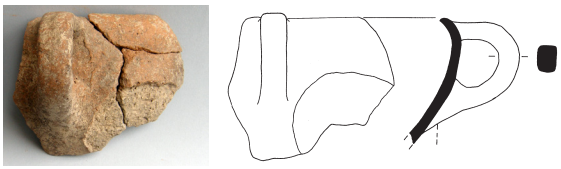
Judging from their rim diameters (from 13 to 25 cm), the size of these carinated pots should be attributed to the medium and large categories, whereas the height of the pots is close (but not identical) to the maximum diameter of the body. The wall thickness is comparable to that of the rounded examples of type 1B: it ranges from 0.5 to 1.0 cm at the maximum diameter and from 0.4 to 0.6 cm at the bottom.

Type 1D. Cooking Lebes

A (so far) unique example, tripod cooking pot **29** (Tables 2, 3; Figs. 15, S2) strongly resembles a metallic prototype. The lack of an adequate number of examples, which may be explained by a possible late appearance in the Aiginetan ceramic repertoire or by a more restricted (special) use—as **29** was found in a storeroom very close to the north megaron of Building Gamma—prevents the outlining of specific trends of this type. Judging from the single example, the body is certainly narrower compared to the normal/common tripod cooking pots, while the rim diameter is greater. Also, the so-called neck (i.e., the area between the carination and the lip) is shorter than in the carinated tripod pots. The original height of the pot is uncertain but is estimated to be ca. 18 cm (excluding the handles) on the basis of its reconstruction on paper.

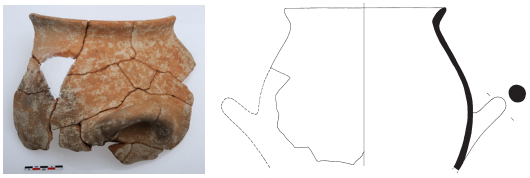
Type 1E. Hemispherical, Two-Handled Tripod Cooking Pot

This extremely rare type is represented by one fragmentary example (**30**; Tables 2, 3; Fig. 16) with an incurving rim, a possibly (shallow) hemispherical



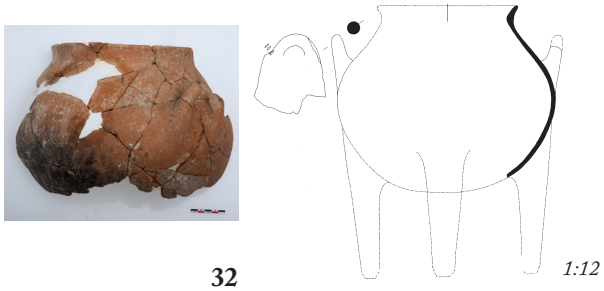
30

Figure 16. Tripod cooking pot, type 1E (30). Scale 1:5



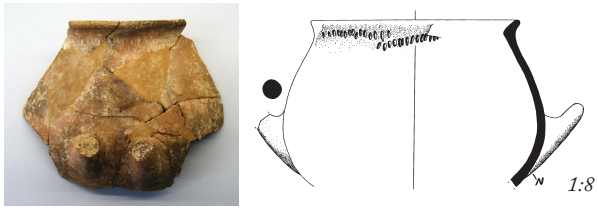
1:10

31



32

1:12



1:8

33

Figure 17. Tripod(?) cooking pots, type 1F (31–33). Scale as indicated

body, and (two) vertical handles, almost rectangular in section, set on the body. The characteristic traces of a detached leg, set rather high on the body, add this pot to the tripod category.[38]

Little can be said about this type. Example **30** was found in a storeroom next to the kitchen area of Building Delta on the acropolis at Kanakia. Certainly it is a totally different shape, which may be a late addition to the Aiginetan pottery repertoire.

Type 1F. Rounded Tripod(?) Cooking Pot with Two Horizontal Handles

Three examples (**31–33**; Tables 2, 3; Fig. 17) come from a cooking pot type with a normal, short everted rim and two horizontal, cylindrical handles, both set slightly above, on, or slightly below the greatest diameter of the body; though only one handle is preserved in all cases, their number is rather straightforward, judging from their overall appearance. The lower body is not preserved and is therefore a matter of speculation. On the evidence provided by the best-preserved example, **32**, which retains enough of its wall to discern its profile, it may be suggested that it has a rounded profile comparable to the usual tripod pot. In such case, the tripod reconstruction of this shape appears plausible, though corroborative evidence in the future is very likely to solve the matter. So far, there appears to be a comparable shape in the Minoan kitchen of the early Late Minoan (LM) IIIC period.[39]

38. For a comparable type, though of non-Aiginetan fabric and of bigger size, see Lis 2017, p. 43, no. 6, fig. 5.4, from Mitrou, dated to the Palatial period.

39. See, e.g., Kanta and Karetsou 2003, p. 158, fig. 9.

TABLE 2. DIMENSIONS OF TRIPOD COOKING POTS (TYPE 1)

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*H.*	*H. (restored)*	*H. Body*	*Diam. Rim*	*Max. Diam. Body*	*Th. Wall*	*Th. Handle*	*Th. Bottom*	*Distance of Base from Ground*	*Length (Inside) of Legs*	*Figure*	*References*
Type 1A. One Handled, Rounded, Vertical													
1	11.10.07, T. ΓΓ2	–	16.0	10.0	10.0	13.4	0.8, 0.9	–	0.3	–	–	Figs. 10, S1, S17	unpublished
2	02.IA.12.215	–	17.0	10.0	11.0	ca. 15.0	0.5	1.4	0.4	–	–	Fig. 10	Marabea 2010b, p. 686
3	27.9.08, T. ΒΒ΄3	18.5	–	12.5	12.5	16.5	0.5, 0.5	–	0.6	–	–	Figs. 10, S1	unpublished
4	08.Γ.A1	–	21.4	15.5	12.9–13.2	18.0	0.6	1.7–1.8	0.4	–	–	Figs. 10, S1, S2, S7, S16, S31, S35	Marabea 2012, fig. 21
5	02.IΔ.25.282	–	20.0		13.0	ca. 14.8	0.6	1.6–1.7	0.4	–	–	Fig. 10	Marabea 2010b, p. 574
6	06.Γ.A5	–	21.0	14.1	13.3	18.0	0.4, 0.5	1.8–1.9	0.4	–	–	Figs. 10, S1, S2, S8, S31, S36	unpublished
Type 1B. Two Handled, Rounded, Vertical													
7	19.10.06, T. Α΄1	–	20.0	13.0	ca. 13.0	13.0	0.5	1.8	0.5	–	–	Figs. 11, S1	unpublished
8	02.IΔ.23.221	25.5	–	ca. 15.0	14.0	21.2	0.7	1.8	–	9.5	10.5	Figs. 11, S1	Marabea 2010b, p. 540
9	01.IB.8.315	22.0	–	15.8	14.2	18.5	0.5	1.7	0.5	6.0	8.2–8.6	Figs. 11, S1, S2, S31	Marabea 2010b, pp. 446–447
10	02.Δ.A13	25.4	–	16.5	14.3–15.3	20.5–22.5	0.5	1.8	–	ca. 9.0	9.9–9.9	Figs. 11, S1, S2, S37	unpublished
11	05.Γ.A3	24.3	–	17.1	15.3–15.5	21.0	0.8, 0.8	1.7	0.4	ca. 8.0	9.5–10	Figs. 11, S1, S2, S13	unpublished
12	10.Γ.A1	25.0	–	17.0	15.7	22.5	0.6, 0.7, 0.7	1.8	0.5	ca. 8.0	9.9	Figs. 11, S1, S2, S12	unpublished
13	03.Δ.Σ2	–	–	14.7	16.0	20.0	0.7	1.8–1.9	0.3–0.4	–	–	Fig. 11	unpublished
14	04.Γ.A4	25.7	–	17.5	16.5–16.6	23.0	0.6	1.7–1.8	0.4	8.2	10.0	Figs. 11, S1, S2, S38	unpublished
15	00.Δ.A13; ΜΠ 10889	28.0	–	17.4	18.2	23.0	0.6	1.7	0.5	–	–	Figs. 11, S1	unpublished
16	03.A3, Δ.2a	28.0	–	ca. 18.0	18.0–18.5	25.5	–	ca. 1.6	–	–	11.0	Figs. 12, S2	unpublished
17	07.Γ.A6	–	30.5	–	20.2–20.3	28.0	0.7, 0.7, 0.7	2.2	0.4	–	–	Figs. 12, S1, S2	unpublished
18	06.Γ.A10	–	33.7	–	22.3–22.5	32.0	1.0, 1.0, 1.0	2.2	–	–	–	Figs. 12, S1, S2	unpublished
19	1.10.08; T. ΓΓ1, no. 1	–	ca. 43.0	26.2	23.0	35.0	0.7, 0.7, 0.7	2.2	–	–	–	Figs. 12, S1, S2	unpublished
20	03.A3.Δ.2b	–	–	ca. 25.0	23.5	30.2	0.6, 0.6, 0.6	2.1	–	–	–	Figs. 12, S1, S2	unpublished
21	06.Γ.A13	38.8	–	25.8	23.3–24.8	35.0	1.2, 1.2, 1.2	2.2	–	ca. 12.0	16.5	Figs. 13, S1, S2	unpublished

TABLE 2 *(continued)*

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*H.*	*H. (restored)*	*H. Body*	*Diam. Rim*	*Max. Diam. Body*	*Th. Wall*	*Th. Handle*	*Th. Bottom*	*Distance of Base from Ground*	*Length (Inside) of Legs*	*Figure*	*References*
Type 1C. Carinated, Two Handled													
22	03.Γ.A2	–	37	–	23.5–25.5	30.5–31.0	0.7, 0.7	2.1	–	–	–	Figs. 13, S1, S2, S9, S39	unpublished
23	02.IΔ.20.18	–	–	–	13.0	ca. 14.7	0.8	1.3–2.3	–	–	–	Fig. 14	Marabea 2010b, p. 525
24	3.12.11, T. B4, no. 3–6.12.11, T. B3	–	23.0	14.5	15.0	18.4	0.8, 0.9	1.7	0.6	–	–	Figs. 14, S1, S19, S40	unpublished
25	00.A3.A14	22.5	–	14.5	17.5–18.0	22.0	0.7	1.7	0.4	8.2	9.4–9.7–9.9	Figs. 14, S1, S2, S31	unpublished
26	3.10.04, south megaron, floor	–	–	15.5–16.0	21.0	28.0	0.9 (carination)	1.3	0.5	–	–	Figs. 14, S41	unpublished
27	11.YE.B3.A9	26.7	–	18.0	21.9–22.4	28.0	0.5, 0.5, 0.5	1.6	0.6	8.8	12.5–12.9	Figs. 14, S1, S2	Marabea 2012, fig. 20
28	01.IA.2.166	–	–	–	25.0	ca. 26.8	1.0, 1.1	–	–	–	–	Fig. 14	Marabea 2010b, pp. 670–671
29	06.Γ.A4	–	ca. 18.0	11.5	23.5–24.0	25.5	0.5, 0.5	1.6–1.7	–	–	–	Figs. 15, S1, S2	unpublished
Type 1E. Hemispherical, Two handled													
30	15.Δ.no.15	–	–	–	ca. 16.0		0.8	1.4	–	–	–	Fig. 16	unpublished
Type 1F. Two Handled, Rounded, Horizontal(?)													
31	12.9.12, T. A4, floor	–	–	–	21.0–22.0	28.0	0.8	2.2	–	–	–	Fig. 17	unpublished
32	4.10.13, T. Γ6, floor	–	–	–	21.0–22.0	31.0–31.2	0.8	1.9	–	–	–	Figs. 17, S15, S20	unpublished
33	02.IΔ.25.286	–	–	–	22.0	29.0	0.8	2.1	–	–	–	Fig. 17	Marabea 2010b, pp. 575–576

Note: All dimensions given in centimeters. For wall thickness, two or three points at the maximum diameter are given. Empty cells indicate that the information is not available or not possible to be determined.

TABLE 3. PROPERTIES OF TRIPOD COOKING POTS (TYPE 1)

Cat. No.	*Profile*	*Wall Surface*	*Burning/Carbonization and Heat Effect*	*Capacity (L)*	*Potter's Mark*	*Munsell (Surface)*	*Aplastic Inclusions*	
							Size (mm)	*Sorting*
Type 1A. One Handled, Vertical								
1	symmetric	Int.: straight rim carination, slight irregularities (cavities). Ext.: trace of rim attachment, horizontal parallel str.	Ext.: bottom, handle. Int.: bottom, wall opposite handle. Heat effect: bottom and slightly on side(?).	0.600	–	2.5YR 6/6–2.5/1	≤1	good to very good
2	–		Ext: bottom, leg. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered on side(?).	–	–	2.5YR 5/8	≤1	good
3	symmetric	Int.: straight rim carination, horizontal parallel str., small cavity. Ext.: horizontal parallel str.	Ext.: bottom, legs, side up to rim. Int.: bottom and free side. Heat effect: centered on bottom and slightly on side(?).	–	–	5YR 6/4–6/6, 2.5/1	≤1	good to very good
4	symmetric	Int.: straight rim carination, abrasions on bottom. Int. and ext.: horizontal parallel str., concentric on base. Ext.: trace of rim attachment/formation.	Ext.: bottom, wall opposite handle, lower handle. Int.: bottom, free side wall up to rim. Heat effect: centered on bottom and slightly on side.	2.150	none	2.5YR 5/6–2.5/1	≤1(?)	very good
5	–	Int.: horizontal or slightly oblique str. Ext.: eliminated str.	Ext.: none at preserved part. Int.: on lower wall. Heat effect: centered on bottom(?).	–	–	2.5YR 6/7	≤1	very good
6	symmetric	Int.: straight rim carination. Int. and ext.: horizontal str. No visible coils.	Ext.: bottom, wall opposite handle up to rim. Int.: bottom, wall opposite handle up to rim. Heat effect: centered on bottom and side opposite handle.	1.800	none	5YR 5/6–2.5/1	≤1	very good
Type 1B. Two Handled, Vertical								
7	–	Int. and ext.: str. No coils.	Ext.: bottom, leg, and lower handle. Int.: none at preserved part. Heat effect: centered at least on bottom.	–	two marks	2.5YR 6/8	≤1	good to very good
8	probably symmetric	Ext. and int.: eliminated horizontal str. Int.: straight rim carination; slight uneven wall thickness.	Ext.: bottom, legs. Int.: none. Arrangement above heat.	–	–	7.5YR 5/6	≤1	good
9	symmetric	Smoothed and rather worn surfaces. No traces of coils. Slight swelling on ext. rim.	Ext.: bottom, preserved wall between handles up to rim. Int.: "free" side. Heat effect: centered on bottom and side.	2.275	none	ca. 10YR 7/4	≤1	good to very good
10	assymetric due to attachment of handles	Worn surface but visible str. No traces of coils.	Ext.: most probably all. Int.: bottom, free side and one patch on opposite wall. Heat effect: centered on bottom and perhaps side.	2.750	none	5YR 5/4–2.5/1	≤1	good
11	symmetric	Int.: straight rim carination; slight swelling on max. Diam. of body. Horizontal str. int. and ext.	Ext.: bottom, free side wall up to rim, slight on legs. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered on bottom.	3.300	yes	5YR 6/6–2.5/1	most (≤1); occasionally ≤3	fair to good
12	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal str., eliminated on lower body. Int.: horizontal str. around circumference; slight relief bands below rim; straight rim carination.	Ext.: bottom, free side wall up to rim. Int.: none at preserved part. Heat effect: centered on side.	–	none	7.5YR 6/4–2.5/1	most (≤1); occasionally ≤2	good

TABLE 3 *(continued)*

Cat. No.	*Profile*	*Wall Surface*	*Burning/Carbonization and Heat Effect*	*Capacity (L)*	*Potter's Mark*	*Munsell (Surface)*	*Aplastic Inclusions*	
							Size (mm)	*Sorting*
13	–	Groups of horizontal or concentric striations. Int.: straight rim carination.	Ext.: all over preserved part. Int.: bottom and one side wall up to rim. Arrangement above heat.	–	yes	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good
14	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal and diagonal str. No visible traces of coils. Int.: straight rim carination, horizontal str.	Ext.: legs, bottom, free side wall up to rim. Int.: mostly on bottom. Heat effect: centered on bottom and slightly on free side.	3.650	none	5YR 6/4–6/6, 2.5 /1	≤1	good
15	symmetric	Worn and burned surfaces.	Ext.: rim, free wall, bottom, and leg(s). Int.: few. Heat effect: centered on side.	–	none	5YR 6/6	≤1	good
16	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal str., diagonal on bottom. Int.: horizontal str.	Ext.: free side wall up to rim, legs. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered on side.	–	–	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good
17	symmetric	Int.: straight rim carination. Worn surfaces int. and ext., originally with str. No visible traces of coils.	Ext.: free side slightly burned, other side oxidized. Int.: bottom, slightly on free side. Arrangement above heat.	8.000	yes	10R 5/8–2.5Y 4/1	≤2	fair to good
18	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal str., also few diagonal. Int.: straight rim carination. No coils, abrasions on bottom.	Ext.: legs, bottom, free side wall up to rim. Int.: bottom. Heat effect: centered slightly on side.	11.500	none	2.5YR 4/8–3/1	≤1(?)	good
19	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: straight rim carination, eliminated horizontal str.	Ext.: bottom, free side wall. Int.: free side(?). Heat effect: centered slightly on side.	13.900	yes	2.5YR 6/8–3/1	≤1	good
20	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal and diagonal str. Int.: horizontal str. No visible traces of coils.	Ext.: legs, bottom, and free side up to rim. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered slightly on side.	–	two marks	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good
21	symmetric	Ext.: horizontal str., also few diagonal. Int.: straight rim carination, horizontal str., but worn surface. No visible traces of coils.	Ext.: bottom, free side wall up to rim (slightly burned), other side oxidized. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered slightly on side.	13.000	none	5YR 5/8–2.5Y 5/3	≤1	good
22	symmetric	Int. and ext.: horizontal str. Int.: straight rim carination.	Ext.: most probably entire surface. Int.: free side.	–	yes	5YR 6/4–2.5/1	≤1	good
Type 1C. Carinated, Two Handled								
23	–	Int. and ext.: horizontal str. Int.: hollow corresponding to ext. carination.	Ext.: on entire preserved portion. Int.: rim. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	–	ca. 5YR 6/6–2.5/1	≤1	good
24	symmetric	Ext.: straight carination; horizontal str. Int.: uneven hollow, corresponding to ext. carination; horizontal str., also diagonal.	Ext.: bottom and free side(?). Int.: wall. Heat effect: centered on bottom and side.	–	none	5YR 6/6	≤1	good
25	symmetric	Ext. and int.: horizontal str.	Ext.: traces at side of handle up to rim, free wall between handles, bottom. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered on bottom and side.	2.700	none	2.5YR 5/8	≤1	fair to good

(continued on next page)

TABLE 3 *(continued)*

Cat. No.	*Profile*	*Wall Surface*	*Burning/Carbonization and Heat Effect*	*Capacity (L)*	*Potter's Mark*	*Munsell (Surface)*	*Aplastic Inclusions*	
							Size (mm)	*Sorting*
26	–	Ext.: horizontal str. No traces of coils.	Ext.: bottom, lower handle at preserved part. Int.: bottom. Heat effect: centered at least on bottom.	–	–	5YR 6/4–6/6	≤1	good
27	symmetric	Ext.: straight carination, horizontal str., concentric on bottom. Int.: no hollow corresponding to carination. No traces of coils.	Ext.: bottom, free side up to rim. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered slightly on side.	6.000	yes	7.5YR 7/6–2.5/1	≤1	good to very good
28	–	Ext.: horizontal str. on upper body, circular toward bottom. Int.: horizontal str.; hollow corresponding to ext. carination.	Ext. oxidized area on rim and wall, blackened lower wall. Int.: entire preserved wall. Heat effect: centered on bottom.	–	–	discoloration	≤1	good
Type 1D. Cooking Lebes								
29	symmetric	Ext.: straight carination, at one point uneven; horizontal str. Int.: hollow corresponding to ext. carination; smoothed surface.	Ext.: almost entire preserved part. Int.: none. Heat effect: centered slightly on side(?).	3.200	none	2.5YR 5/8–3/1	≤1	good
Type 1E. Hemispherical, Two Handled								
30	–	Even surfaces, horizontal str. int. and ext.	Ext.: lower part of handle and wall below. Int.: none; possible arrangement above heat.	–	–	2.5YR 6/6–6/8	≤2	good
Type 1F. Two Handled, Horizontal								
31	–	Ext.: horizontal str., also diagonal. Int.: straight rim carination, horizontal str. No traces of coils.	Ext.: rim, wall, handle (free side?). Int.: one patch on free side.	–	–	lighter than 5YR 6/6	≤1	good
32	–	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: horizontal str.; smoothed rim carination. No traces of coils.	Ext.: bottom. Int.: none on preserved part. Heat effect: centered on bottom and side(?).	–	yes	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good
33	–	Ext. and int.: mostly horizontal str.	Ext.: on entire preserved part. Int.: rim, one spot below. Heat effect: centered on bottom and at least side.	–	yes	5YR 6/6	≤1	good

Note: Ext. = external; int. = internal; str. = striations. All dimensions not otherwise indicated given in centimeters. Empty cells indicate that the information is not available or not possible to be determined.

This type of pot should not be confused with the krater, as the latter appears to have an ovoid body. Apart from this, examples of kraters from Attica appear to have slightly larger rim diameters (ca. 25–26 cm).[40]

The lack of numerous examples of such pots renders an attempt at generalization problematic; however, the similar rim diameter (21.0–22.0 cm) in all three examples (**31**–**33**), and the identical wall thickness at the maximum diameter of the body (0.8 cm), should not be coincidental, and these details perhaps point toward standardization in the type. One pot, **33**, bears impressed decoration below the rim consisting of an irregular row of vertical dimples.[41]

The rare occurrence of this type of cooking pot should not be linked with low visibility in the material record, as only a part of the rim and body with a handle is enough to distinguish it. Rather, one is faced with a plausible new type of tripod cooking pot, which appeared late in the sequence of the Aiginetan repertoire (i.e., at the beginning of LH IIIC Early) and/or was used in a restricted context, since two of the three examples come from the pillared hall of the large building in the cult area at Pyrgiakoni, which was used for feasting.

Type 2. Cooking Jar (One Handled and Two Handled)

The cooking jar is not easily distinguishable in the sherd material in cases where the lower portion is not preserved, and these vessels therefore may be confused with the tripod cooking pot.[42] This circumstance is the reason for its low visibility in, for example, the Eastern Building Complex on the acropolis.[43] Here, the word "cooking" is added in order to make the terminology more clear (Table 4).

Empirically, the jars do not seem to have been as popular as the tripod pots; however, the shape appears to be more standardized, without great variation in size, compared to the tripod pot. There exist two variations: those with one handle (type 2A) and those with two handles (type 2B).

Only four examples have been recovered intact or intact enough for all basic dimensions to be measured (**34**–**37**; Table 4; Figs. 18, S4): one pot of the one-handled version (**34**); two pots of the two-handled version (**36**, **37**); and one (**35**) that could belong to either category, although on paper it has been reconstructed as one handled.

Judging from their profiles, three subtypes may be inferred, without clear chronological connotations:

1. Jars with a spherical-ovoid body and intermediate raised base, as exemplified by **34** (with one handle)
2. Jars with an ovoid body and high-raised base, as represented by **35** (with one or two handles?) and **36** (with two handles)
3. Jars with a spherical body and low-raised base (and two handles), as illustrated by **37**.

Even though these are hypothetical types, as more examples are needed in order to verify this classification, the two complete pots (**36**, **37**) certainly provide enough evidence for at least two subtypes (with spherical body and low-raised base/with ovoid body and high-raised base) within the general two-handled variety. If this subdivision is verified by additional examples, the

40. Kaza-Papageorgiou and Kardamaki 2012, p. 186, fig. 22:60; 2014, p. 115, fig. 36:112. The shape has also been recorded at Mitrou (Lis 2012b, p. 262, fig. 45:LO791-002-011; Gauss et al. 2017, p. 53, fig. 6.9), though the published example (a spout) is very small.

41. For possible explanations, see p. 464, above

42. Lis (2012b, p. 134) suggests that it is possible to distinguish jars from tripods when the maximum wall diameter is preserved, as "the ratio of rim to maximum diameter is consistently lower than for the tripods (below 0.7)." The pots from Kanakia do not show such a clear distinction: the abovementioned ratio is 0.7–0.8 for the jars, 0.7–0.8 for the one-handled tripods, 0.6–1.0 for the two-handled tripods, and 0.7–0.9 for the carinated tripods.

43. The cooking jar represents 4.8% of the recorded coarse ware, while in 21% of the coarse ware, a clear distinction cannot be made between the tripod pot and the cooking jar.

Figure 18. Cooking jars, type 2 (34–38). Scale 1:8 unless otherwise indicated

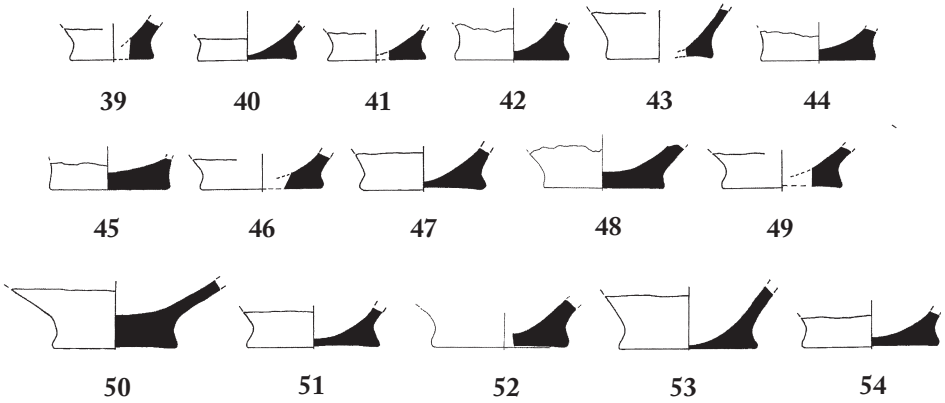


Figure 19. Cooking jar bases (39–54). Scale 1:5

numbering of the shape as type 2B may be further divided into types 2B1 and 2B2. Irrespective of type, the bases are slightly hollowed or flat on their underside, while the side walls are convex.

The measurements of these four pots suggest that there is only one property that is consistent, irrespective of the number of handles: the height of the pot is almost equal to the greatest diameter of the body, with a deviation ranging from 0.1 to 2.0 cm. No other certain connection is inferred in this small group of pots concerning, for example, the ratio of the diameter of the rim to the height of the pot, the maximum diameter of the body, the diameter of the base, or the link between the height of the pot and the diameter of the base. Surely more intact pots are expected to provide additional evidence on such issues. In terms of weight, pot **34** is heavier than pot **35**, despite being smaller in size (**34** weighs 642 g, while **35** weighs 428 g; in both cases, two-thirds of the original pot is preserved).

An interesting example, **38**, additionally is included with the type 2 cooking jars. It consists of the lower part of the wall and the raised, flat base of a seemingly wide-mouthed, two-handled jar. Though the upper part is not preserved, the careful finish of the interior surface would require a rather wide mouth. Furthermore, burning marks on both the interior and exterior surfaces indicate its use for cooking. Therefore, one can be quite confident that this specimen represents a cooking jar. The element that differentiates **38** from the other examples of this shape is its size. Its base, the only measurable feature, has a diameter of 11.5 cm, which is 2.5 cm greater than the larger recorded bases (9.0 cm; see the entries for **39–54** in Table 4). In all probability, here we are faced with an uncommonly large cooking jar. As it was found in the south megaron on the acropolis, it could well have been employed for the preparation of larger portions of food.

Apart from the four pots, 16 cooking jar bases (**39–54**; Table 4; Fig. 19) have been documented; their diameters range from 5.5 to 9.0 cm.[44] Based on the evidence of their profiles, the majority can be attributed to the ovoid type, while one, **45**, appears slightly convex—a rather rare trait on such pots.

Differentiated Cooking Jar

Another example (01.IΔ.16/17.130, uncatalogued), preserved only at the rim and handle (Fig. 20), resembles a pot from the cargo of the Point Iria shipwreck excavated by the Hellenic Institute of Marine Archaeology (H.I.M.A.). According to the study of the pottery by Lolos, the ceramic cargo is dated to the end of LH IIIB (ca. 1200 B.C.).[45] Among the Cypriot, Cretan, and Helladic pottery, a small Aiginetan cooking pot with an outturned rim, a rather globular body, a slightly convex base, and two vertical handles was present.[46] This type of pot is extremely rare, and it is currently represented at Kanakia only by the aforementioned sherd.

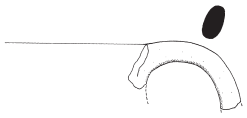


Figure 20. Profile of a differentiated jar fragment (01.IΔ.16/17.130).
Scale 1:5

44. The majority have a diameter between 7.0 and 9.0 cm. For a similar observation from Mitrou (though with bigger bases, ca. Diam. 10.0–11.0 cm), see Lis 2012b, p. 135.

45. Lolos 1999.

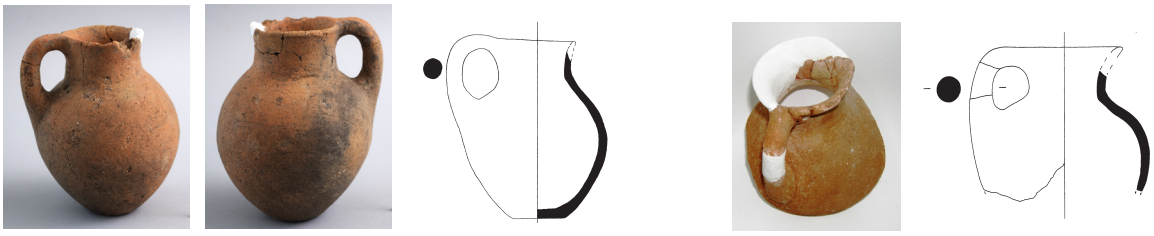
46. Inv. no. A 23 + A 90. For preliminary interpretation of the petrographic results, see Day 1999, p. 64.

TABLE 4. DIMENSIONS AND PROPERTIES OF COOKING JARS AND JUGS (TYPES 2 AND 3)

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*H.*	*Diam. Rim*	*Diam. Base*	*Max. Diam. Body*	*Th. Wall (Max. Diam.)*	*Th. Handle*	*Profile/Surface*
Cooking Jar, Type 2A. One Handled								
34	12.Δ.111, group 2, floor	13.6	10.0	7.2	13.5	0.7	1.8	Ext.: circular cracking on underside of base. Int.: wavy surface (in profile).
Cooking Jar, Type 2. One Handled or Two Handled								
35	11.YE.B3.A2	16.6	12.5	6.7	15.5	0.5	1.6	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: attached base; use-wear on bottom.
Cooking Jars, Type 2B. Two Handled								
36	02.Δ.A10	21.0	13.2	7.5	19.0	–	1.7	Burned surfaces ext. and int.
37	01.IA.A6	17.5–17.8	14.0	8.5	18.5	0.5	1.7	Ext.: worn. Int.: str. on rim, lower wall; rilling on lower wall; attached base.
38	8.9.04, T. Γ1	–	–	11.5	–	–	–	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: two slight swellings from coils and horizontal str. Slightly uneven wall thickness.
Cooking Jars, Type 2 Bases								
39	01.IA.1α.37	–	–	5.5	–	–	–	Ext.: str. above base.
40	02.IΔ.17.145	–	–	6.3–6.4	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on underside of base. Int.: unsmoothed bottom.
41	01.IA.1α.41	–	–	6.0–7.0	–	–	–	Smoothed surfaces.
42	01.IA.1β.59	–	–	7.0	–	–	–	Worn surfaces.
43	01.IA.11.358	–	–	7.0	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on base; str. on lower body.
44	01.IB.2.293β	–	–	7.3	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on base; str. on wall. Int.: smoothed.
45	11.9.14, T. A7	–	–	7.5	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on base; str. on wall. Potter's mark.
46	01.IA.11.359	–	–	8.0(?)	–	–	–	Worn surfaces.
47	02.IΔ.24.231	–	–	8.0	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on underside of base.
48	10.10.13, T. B7	–	–	8.0	–	–	–	Ext.: faint concentric str. on base and lower wall.
49	27.9.04, T. B′2	–	–	8.0	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str.
50	03.Στ3	–	–	8.0	–	–	–	Ext.: mark of base joining; concentric str. on base; str. on wall. Int.: no marks.
51	7.10.03, T. Γ5	–	–	8.5	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on underside of base.
52	01.IA.2.169	–	–	8.8–9.0	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on base, str. on wall. Int.: smoothed.
53	01.IA.6.197	–	–	8.8–9.0	–	–	–	Uneven wall Th. on vertical axis, traces of joining of base. Int.: use-wear on bottom (scraping of content?).
54	11.10.03, T. B7	–	–	9.0	–	–	–	Ext.: concentric str. on base.
Cooking Jugs, Type 3								
55	12Δ.111.A1	14.5	6.6	4.0	11.0	–	1.4–1.5	Symmetrical profile; smoothed ext. surface.
56	07.Γ.A3	–	7.5	–	–	0.8	1.6	Symmetrical profile; smoothed ext. surface.

Note: Ext. = external; int. = internal; str. = striations. All dimensions not otherwise indicated given in centimeters. Empty cells indicate that the information is not available or not possible to be determined.

Burning/Carbonization and Heat Effect	*Capacity (L)*	*Munsell*	*Aplastic Inclusions*		*Figure*	*References*
			Size (mm)	*Sorting*		
Extended int. and ext. Heat effect: centered on base.	–	2.5YR 4/6–4/8–2.5/1	≤1	good	Figs. 18, S4, S44	unpublished
Ext.: periphery of base, wall up to rim (none on handle). Int.: wall corresponding to outer marks.	–	5YR 6/6–2.5/1	≤1	good	Figs. 18, S4, S42, S46	unpublished
Ext. and int.: extended.	–	discoloration	–	–	Figs. 18, S4	unpublished
Ext.: periphery of base, almost entire wall, handles, rim. Int.: diametrically opposite areas. Heat effect: centered on side.	2.500	2.5YR 5/6–2.5/1	≤1–2	good	Figs. 18, S4, S43, S45	Marabea 2010b, p. 634
Ext.: on half of edge of base and wall above it. Int.: on bottom of base and partly on wall. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	2.5YR 6/6 (ext.); 2.5YR 6/6–6/8 (int.)	≤1	good	Figs. 18, S21, S22	unpublished
Ext.: periphery of base.	–	5YR 6/4 (ext.); 5YR 5/6 (int.)	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 632
Ext.: periphery of base and at least side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	2.5YR 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 512
No marks.	–	2.5YR 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 634
Ext.: periphery of base.	–	2.5YR 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 640
Ext.: periphery and wall. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	5YR 6/4	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 731
Ext.: one side(?). Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	2.5YR 6/4–5/4	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 436
Ext.: faint marks on wall above base.	–	2.5YR 5/4	–	–	Fig. 19	unpublished
Ext.: periphery of base and at least side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	2.5YR 5/5–5/8	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 731
Ext.: periphery of base and side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	5YR 6/4–6/6	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 551
Ext.: periphery of base and side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	5YR 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	unpublished
Ext.: underside of base and at least side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	10R 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	unpublished
Ext.: periphery of base and side. Int.: bottom. Arrangement on heat source.	–	5YR 6/4–6/6	–	–	Fig. 19	unpublished
Ext.: periphery of base and at least side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	2.5YR 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	unpublished
Int. and ext. Arrangement on heat source.	–	2.5YR 5/4	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 672
Ext.: periphery of base and side. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	5YR 6/4–5/4	–	–	Fig. 19	Marabea 2010b, p. 680
Slight discoloration on periphery of base.	–	5YR 5/6	–	–	Fig. 19	unpublished
Ext.: side wall with handle, around base. Int.: wall below neck.	0.500	2.5YR 5/6–2.5/1	≤1	good	Fig. 21	unpublished
No marks.	–	2.5YR 6/8	≤1–2	moderate/good	Figs. 21, S23	unpublished



55 56

Figure 21. Cooking jugs, type 3 (55, 56). Scale 1:6

Type 3. Cooking Jug

The use of the jug in cooking activities was recently documented in the material record of Kanakia (**55**, **56**; Table 4; Fig. 21).[47] One intact example, **55**, measuring 14.5 cm in height, was retrieved from a storeroom in Building Delta. It has a simple rim, a slightly splaying neck, an ovoid body, and a flat base. Despite the small diameter of the base (4.0 cm), the jug is stable enough; its rather heavy construction (708 g) would also have played a role in its stability.

A second example, **56**, originally was larger than **55**. As only the upper part of the pot is preserved, one may speculate about a spherical or ovoid body and perhaps flat base. Its rim features a slight spout, which would facilitate the pouring of its contents.

A question for future research is whether or not this type of jug was produced only in small versions.

Type 4. Cooking Basin

At least five types of basins are attested in the material record (Table 5; Figs. 22, S5).[48] In terms of chronology, there is as yet no stratigraphic evidence for a so-called evolution of this shape. In the material of the Eastern Building Complex, the basins represent 12.7% of the recorded coarse pottery. Additionally, the use of the basins for cooking has not been proven in all cases (see pp. 508–510, below).

Type 4A. Two-Handled Basin

This basin type is the basic (and most frequent) version, consisting of a rather shallow bowl with a flat base and two horizontal strap handles set on a simple (normally with a flat upper surface) or slightly inturned rim.[49] Two complete/almost complete pots of this type have been recorded (**57**, **58**). These vessels differ markedly in their rim diameters, yet their heights are comparable.

Type 4B. Spouted Two-Handled Basin

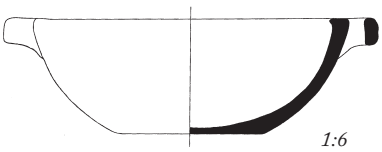
The shape remains the same as type 4A, except for the presence of an open spout on the rim (**59**, and perhaps **60**–**63**).[50]

47. Type S-24 in Lindblom's classification (2001), although the neck of the pot from Kanakia is not as tall. This shape has also been reported at Lazarides, on Aigina (Sgouritsa 2015, p. 327).

48. This shape is not included in Lindblom's study (2001), and therefore his numbering of the Aiginetan shapes can be continued.

49. See FS 294, in general.

50. See FS 302, in general.

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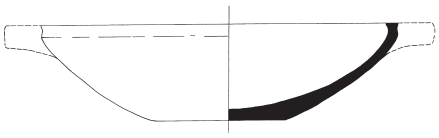
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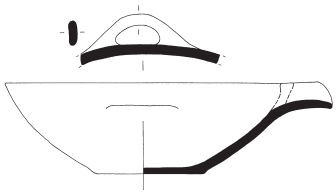
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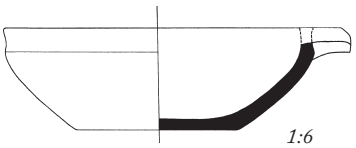

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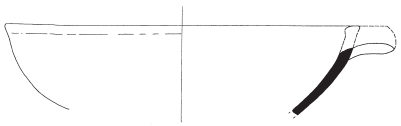
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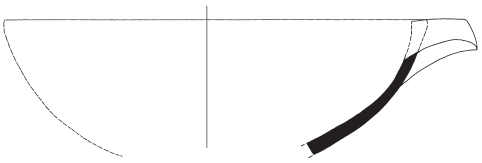
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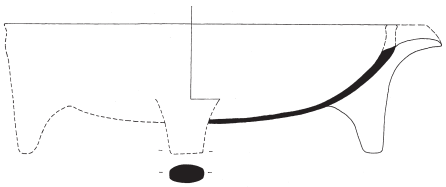
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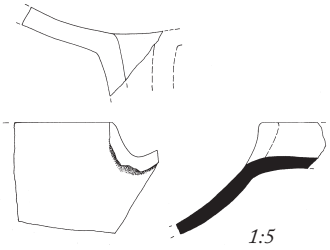

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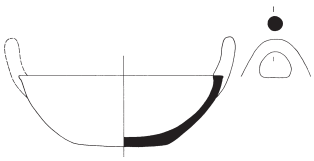
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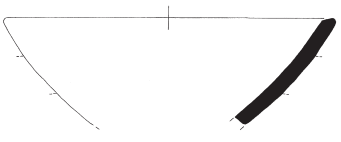
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Figure 22. Basins: type 4A (57, 58), type 4B (59–63), type 4C (64–66), type 4D (67), and type 4E (68).
Scale 1:8 unless otherwise indicated

Type 4C. Spouted and Two-Handled Tripod Basin
This type sees the further addition of three (short) legs. Three fragmentary examples (**64**–**66**) so far represent this version. The first, **64**, comes from the front part of the pot, preserving part of the spouted rim, body, and one short leg. The second example, **65**, comes from the side; it preserves part of the rim with one handle and a portion of the body, and it shows clear traces of a detached leg. The initial presence of a spout is assumed; otherwise, this type may be divided further in the future. In the last spouted example, **66**, a faintly preserved swelling on the body denotes the initial existence of a leg. Even though the three examples do not have fully preserved handles, the original existence of two handles in each is rather straightforward.

One difference between these three examples is the placement of the leg(s). The detached leg of **65** clearly once was placed just below the rim, thus leaving a wider surface open to the exposure of heat, in contrast to the placement of the legs of the other two specimens (esp. **66**), in which the legs were apparently placed closer to the bottom. Because of the lack of adequate material, however, these examples have been grouped together.

Type 4D. Basin with Two Vertical Loop Handles
In this type, two loop handles are attached to the flat surface of the rim, the shallow bowl has a slightly rounded profile, and the base is flat (**67**).[51]

Type 4E. Basin with Horizontal Cylindrical Handles
Type 4E basins are comprised of a rather shallow body with an in-beveled lip and (presumably) two horizontal (cylindrical) handles on the wall (**68**).

General Cooking Basins
A number of small portions of cooking basins do not allow the straightforward reconstruction of their types (**69**–**76**; Table 5; Figs. 23, 24). Basins **69**, **73**, and **74** have a regular profile, while specimen **70** retains one strap handle and should be attributed to a broad two-handled category. The addition of spouts/legs to the above examples is unknown. Examples **71** and **72** have an atypical carinated profile instead of the common rounded one (also, the height of the carination slightly differs in the two examples), marking further variation within the shape—though, again, the fragmented state of the examples does not allow their attribution to a specific type. There is a strong possibility that basin rims were not formed under strict rules and that there was a degree of flexibility among potters. Lastly, two wide bases (**75**, **76**) should be attributed to the general basin shape.

Possible Cooking Basins
Two sherds (**77**, **78**; Table 5; Fig. 25) seem to come from basins, yet rather differentiated types in comparison to the aforementioned examples. They have not been included in the numbered types of basins above, as their identification is tentative.

The first sherd, **77**, seems to come from a pot with a deep conical body and an everted rim (Diam. 23 cm). Though its surfaces are quite worn, faint traces of striations are still visible. The second, **78**, has an outturned, everted rim and a relatively shallow, rather fat body. The interior surface of the sherd is smoothed, while the exterior is less carefully finished, with

51. For a comparable type, see Efstratiou and Polychronakou-Sgouritsa 2010–2011, pp. 88, 106, figs. 85, 133, drawing 33 (from Lazarides).

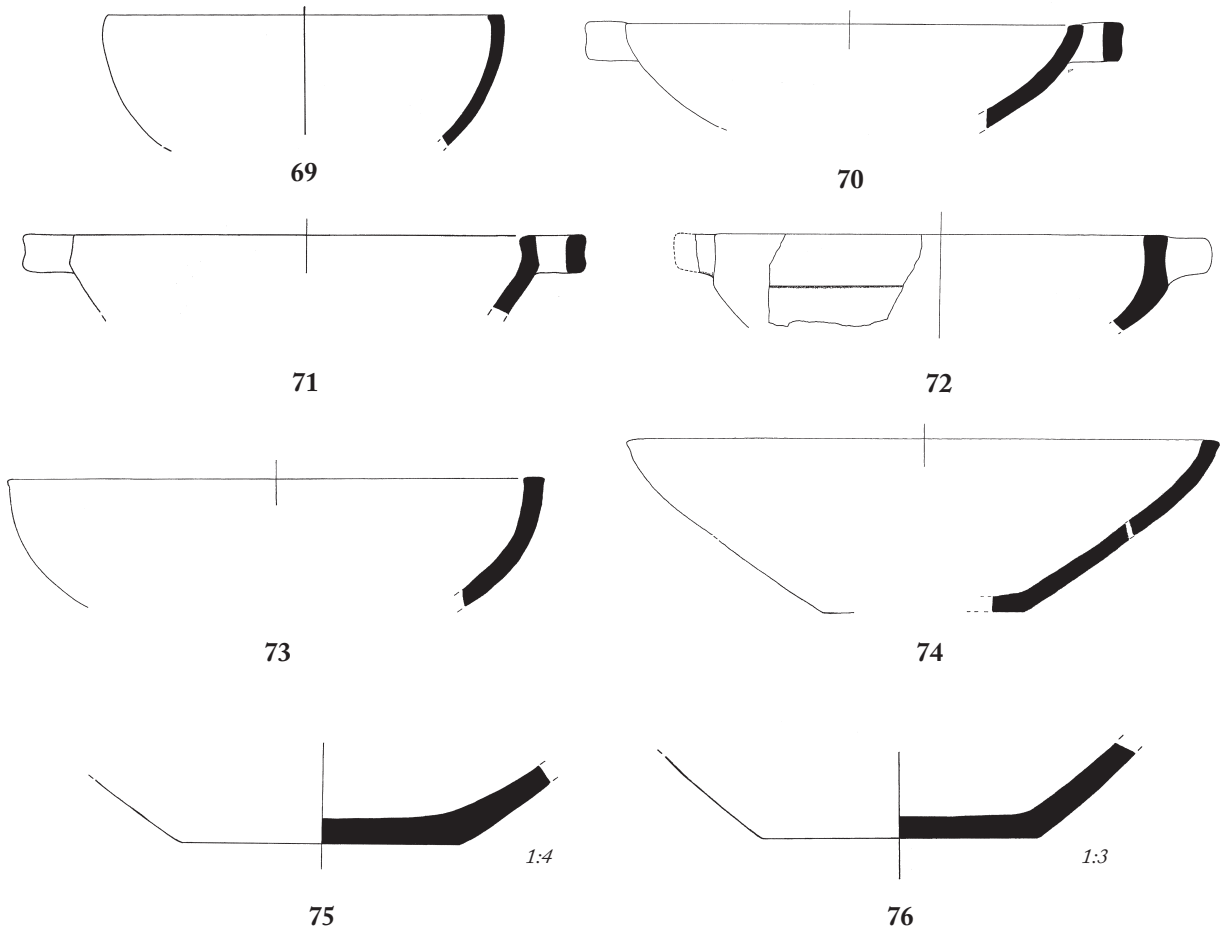


Figure 23. General cooking basins, type 4 (69–76). Scale 1:5 unless otherwise indicated

Figure 24. Basins: (a) 73 (at left) and 68 (at right); (b) 71 and 72 (top row), 70 (bottom row). Scale 1:10

Figure 25. Possible basins (77, 78). Scale 1:8

TABLE 5. DIMENSIONS AND PROPERTIES OF COOKING BASINS (TYPE 4)

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*H.*	*Diam. Rim*	*Diam. Base*	*Th. Wall*	*Th. Handle*	*Surface*
Type 4A. Two Handled							
57	02.Δ.A11	9.4–9.5	23.0–25.0	12.0	–	1.1	Worn surfaces.
58	04.Γ.A7	10.0	36.0	13.5	1.2, 1.4, 1.9	–	Ext.: eliminated str.; use-wear on base, straight outer edge of rim. Int.: eliminated str.; straight inner edge of rim.
Type 4B. Two Handled, Spouted							
59	10.Γ.A2	9.5	29.0–30.0	11.0	1.0, 1.0, 1.4	0.9	Ext.: horizontal str. on wall; use-wear on base. Int.: horizontal str. on wall; use-wear on bottom; slightly uneven wall thickness.
Type 4B. Two Handled(?), Spouted							
60	11.YE.B3.A5	8.1	22.5	12.9	0.9, 1.0, 1.1	–	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: horizontal str. on upper wall and bottom (with use-wear).
61	8.9.04, T. Γ1	–	37.0–38.0	–	1.0, 0.7, ?	–	Ext. and int.: horizontal str., eliminated on lower wall. Reduced wall thickness downward.
62	29.9.07, T. AA′2	–	38.0	–	1.2, 1.0, ?	–	Ext.: wiped surface. Int.: horizontal str.; thicker upper wall. No traces of coils.
63	8.9.14, T. Γ8	–	ca. 40.0	–	1.2, 0.9, 1.3	–	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: slight grooved upper wall.
Type 4C. Two Handled, Spouted, Tripod							
64	3.10.06, T. AA1	13.8	42.0	–	1.1, 0.7, ?	–	Ext.: wiped surface, straight carination; straight rim edges. Int.: horizontal str. Reduced wall thickness downward.
65	02.IΔ.25.305	–	30.0	–	1.0, 0.6, ?	0.7	Ext.: smoothed. Int.: horizontal str.
66	10.9.13, T. Γ4, floor, no. 13	–	ca. 25.0	–	1.0, 1.1, ?	–	Int.: horizontal str. below rim.
Type 4D. Two Vertical Loop Handles on Rim							
67	09.Γ.A3	7.5–11.5 (incl. handles)	21.5	9.5	1.0, 1.0, 1.1	1.4	Ext.: eliminated horizontal str.; use-wear on base. Int.: horizontal str.; use-wear on bottom. No traces of coils.
Type 4E. Horizontal-Cylindrical Handles on Body							
68	03.Γ.TA6	ca. 15.0	35.0	–	1.4, 1.3, ?	–	Ext.: worn. Int.: horizontal str.; straight rim carination.
General Cooking Basins							
69	4.10.13, T. Δ6, floor, no. 19	–	27.0	–	0.8, 0.9, ?	–	–
70	02.IΔ.26.350	–	36.0	–	1.2, 1.1, ?	–	Ext.: smoothed. Int.: horizontal str. on upper part, smoothed lower part.
71	02.IΔ.26.351	–	30.0	–	1.2, 1.2, ?	1.3	Ext.: irregular str. below handle. Int.: horizontal str. on upper part, smoothed lower part.
72	02.IΔ.26.306	–	30.0	–	1.0, 1.0, ?	1.2	–
73	03.ΣT1	–	31.0	–	1.0, 1.0, ?	–	Ext. and int.: horizontal str. Ext.: traces of rim attachment.
74	02.IΔ.25.306α	ca. 11.5	38.0	14.0	1.1, 1.2, ?	–	Ext.: horizontal str., traces of rim attachment. Int.: worn but visible horizontal str.
75	03.ΣT2	–	–	14.0	–	–	Ext.: smoothed with horizontal str. Int.: burned surface.
76	13.TΓ7, no. 64	–	–	11.0	–	–	Ext. and int.: smoothed.
Possible Cooking Basins							
77	14.TΓ7, no. 3	ca. 10.0	23.0	–	1.2, 0.7, ?	–	Ext. and int.: worn, faint traces of str.
78	20.9.13, no. 15	–	38.0	–	1.3, 1.0, ?	–	Ext.: rather carelessly finished, with slightly diagonal scraping marks and minor irregularities. Int.: smoothed.

Note: Ext. = external; int. = internal; str. = striations. All dimensions not otherwise indicated given in centimeters. For wall thickness, three measurements are given from below rim to base. Empty cells indicate that the information is not available or not possible to be determined.

Burning/Carbonization and Heat Effect	*Capacity (L)*	*Potter's Mark*	*Munsell (Surface)*	*Aplastic Inclusions*		*Figure*	*References*
				Size (mm)	*Sorting*		
None.	–	none	7.5YR 7/6	≤1	good	Figs. 22, S5	unpublished
None.	–	–	7.5YR 7/6	≤1	very good	Figs. 22, S5, S34	unpublished
Ext.: entire base, partly on wall and rim. Int.: rim, spout, and bottom. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	2.5	–	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good to very good	Figs. 22, S5, S48	unpublished
Extended int. and ext. Arrangement above heat.	ca. 1.0	–	2.5YR 5/6	≤1	good to very good	Figs. 22, S5, S49	unpublished
Ext.: rim and wall below. Int.: rim, wall below, and spout.	–	–	5YR 6/6	≤1	good to very good	Figs. 22, S5, S50	unpublished
Ext.: none. Int.: lower preserved wall, below spout.	–	–	5YR 6/4–6/6	≤1	good to very good	Figs. 22, S5	unpublished
Ext.: yes. Int.: one spot.	–	–	5YR 6/6–6/8	≤1	good	Figs. 22, S5, S26	unpublished
None in preserved part.	–	–	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 22, S5, S27	unpublished
None in preserved part.	–	–	2.5YR 6/4–5/6	≤1	good	Figs. 22, S5	Marabea 2010b, p. 581
Ext.: none. Int.: rim, spout, lower wall.	–	–	5YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 22, S51	unpublished
None.	1.2	–	5YR 6/6	most ≤1	good to very good	Figs. 22, S5, S33, S52	unpublished
Ext.: slight discoloration.	–	–	2.5YR 5/6 (int.), 7.5YR 5/4 (ext.)	≤2	good	Figs. 22, 24a, S5	unpublished
Ext.: wall up to rim. Int.: at break.	–	–	5YR 6/6	≤1	good to very good	Figs. 23, S5	unpublished
Ext.: slight discoloration.	–	–	5YR 6/6	≤1	good to very good	Figs. 23, 24b, S5, S47	Marabea 2010b, p. 597
Ext.: rim, wall, and lower part of handle. Int.: lower wall. Heat effect: centered at least on side.	–	yes	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 23, 24b, S5, S47	Marabea 2010b, p. 398
On handle.	–	–	2.5YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 23, 24b, S5, S47	unpublished
Extended int. and ext.	–	–	burned	≤1	good	Fig. 23, 24a, S5	unpublished
Int. and ext.	–	–	5YR 6/4	≤1	good	Figs. 23, S5, S24, S25	Marabea 2010b, p. 582
Int. and ext. Extended int.	–	–	burned	≤1	good	Fig. 23	unpublished
Int.: extended.	–	–	7.5YR 6/6–10R 2.5Y 5/2 (ext.)–5/4 (int.)	≤1	good	Fig. 23	unpublished
–	–	–	10YR 5/3 (ext.); 7.5YR 6/6 (int.)	most ≤1	good	Figs. 25, S5	unpublished
Ext. and int.: rim, break.	–	–	2.5YR 6/4–6/6	most ≤1	moderate(?)	Figs. 25, S5	unpublished

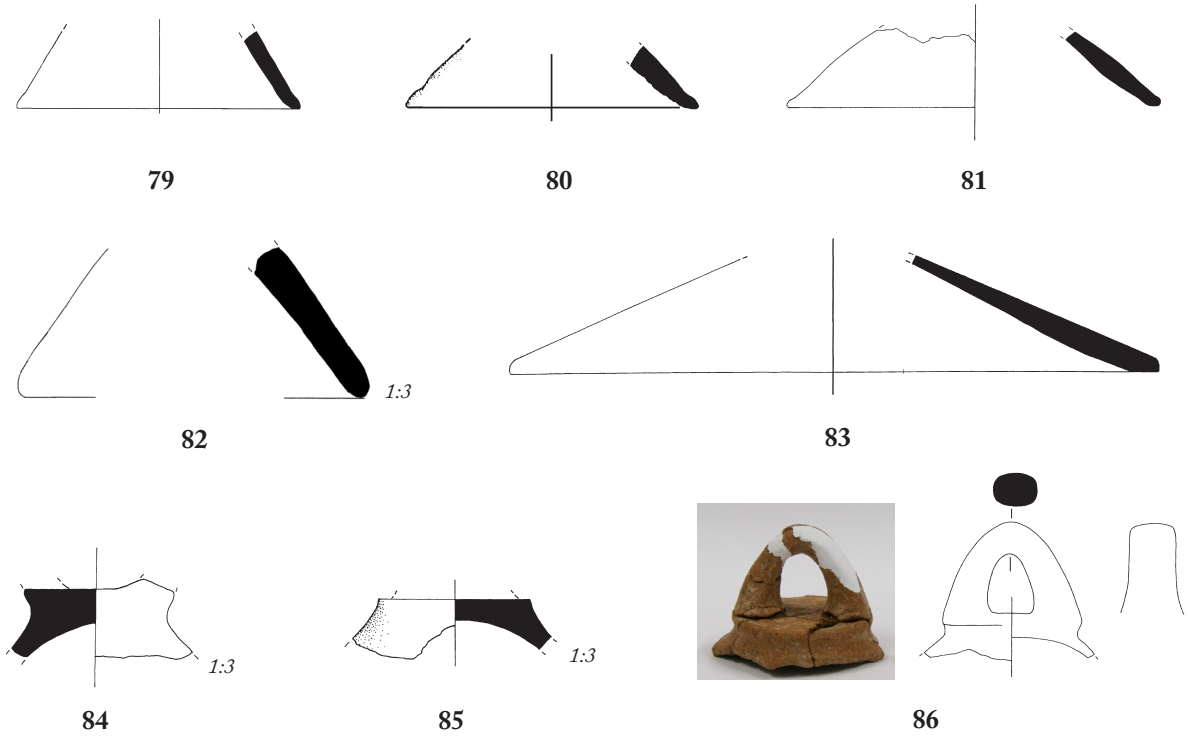


Figure 26. Lids, type 5 (79–86). Scale 1:4 unless otherwise indicated

Figure 27. Lids 85, 84 (top row), 81, 82, 79, 80 (middle row), 83 (bottom row). Scale 1:5

slightly diagonal scraping marks and minor irregularities. The plausible identification of the sherd with a wide basin is also corroborated by the diameter of the rim (38.0 cm). Burning marks are visible on the rim and on the wall at the level of the break (both inside and out).

Type 5. Lid

Even though no example of a lid has been recovered intact (or restored), the shape of the lids may be deduced from the identified fragments (**79–86**; Table 6; Figs. 26, 27). They are conical in section with a flat top featuring a vertical arc handle.[52] Five examples (**79–83**) are adequately preserved for the

52. FS 335. This shape is included in the feature variation of Lindblom's study (2001, p. 28, fig. 6) as F-11.

87 88

Figure 28. Pithoi, type 6 (87, 88).
Scale 1:10

diameter to be measured (15.0–35.5 cm). In general, lids are not abundant in the material record: only 2.6% of the documented coarse examples of the Eastern Building Complex come from this type.

Noncooking Types

The use of the kitchenware fabric in the production of noncooking pots reached its peak in the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period. A number of such shapes have been recognized at Kanakia. Their fragmentary condition renders the complete outline of their forms difficult, and, indeed, the preservation of certain fragments is such that their identification cannot be narrowed down to less than two shapes. Preliminary classification, which is expected to be modified and improved in the future, is outlined in Tables 1 and 7.

Type 6. Pithos

A fragmented example (**87**; Table 7; Fig. 28) of a handmade tall- and wide-necked pithos, with a neck height of 24.0 cm and an estimated overall height of ca. 1.00–1.10 m, has a very coarse fabric with inclusions reaching 3.0 cm in size. Though it could initially have been used for either liquid or dry storage, its mending with lead suggests that at some point its use was restricted to dry storage. The large size of this pot, and the difficulty of its replacement, make its repairing understandable. A large fragment from a similar pot (**88**; Table 7; Fig. 28) has a comparable fabric.

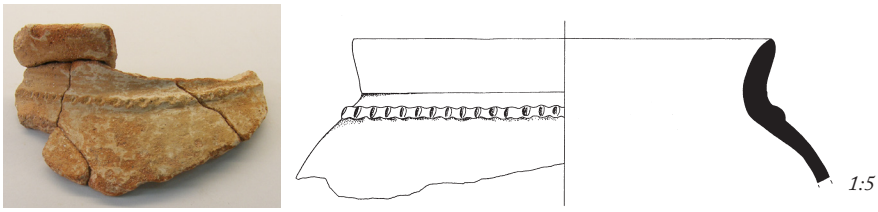
Type 7. Jar/Pithoid Jar

Typological differentiation of this type is not possible because of the large degree of fragmentation of the extant specimens; there are certainly differences in size, but the morphological and functional features are not completely preserved (Table 7; Fig. 29). A total of 6% of the recorded examples from the Eastern Building Complex belong to these types.

A series of sherds should belong to smaller pots under the general label of jar (or pithoid jar, as the size of the pots is the criterion that distinguishes jars from pithoid jars). These are the following:

1. Wide-mouthed upper parts, occasionally with an added plastic band with finger impressions on the shoulder below the rim (e.g., **89**, **90**);[53] the latter should be compared with the differentiated impressed decoration below the rim that sometimes exists

53. For comparable decoration on pithoi from Lazarides, Aigina, see Salavoura 2014, fig. 44.



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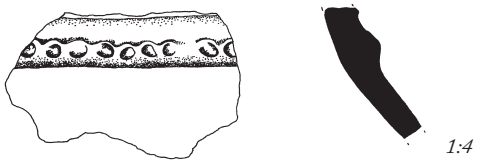

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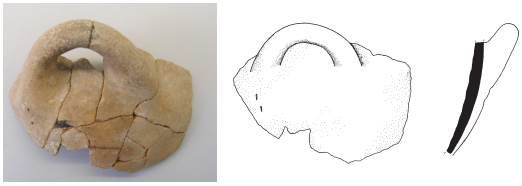

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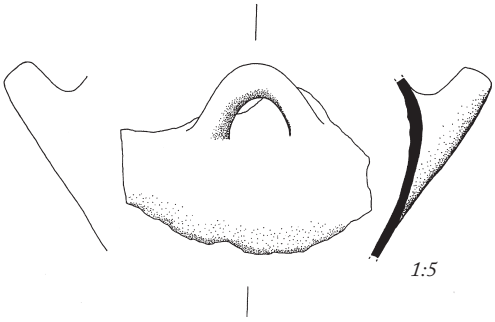

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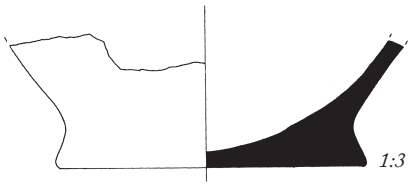

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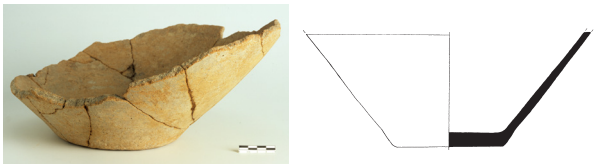
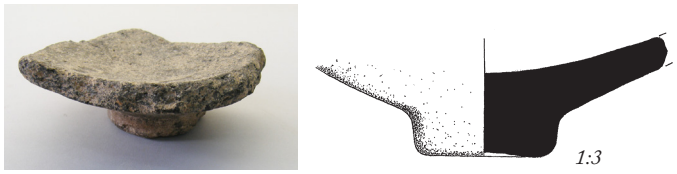


94



95

Figure 29. Jars/pithoid jars, type 7 (89–95). Scale 1:10 unless otherwise indicated

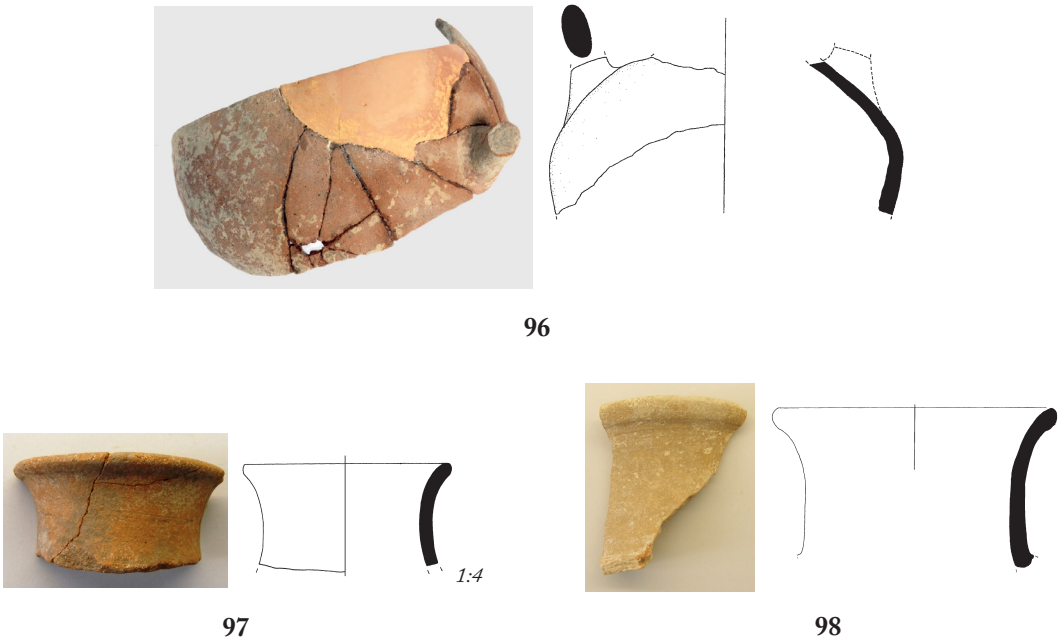


Figure 30. Amphoras, type 8 (96–98). Scale 1:5 unless otherwise indicated

on the rounded tripod cooking pot and the rounded tripod(?) cooking pot with two horizontal handles (types 1A and 1B)

2. Body fragments with horizontal, cylindrical handles (e.g., **91**, with a heavy and thick handle, and **92**); such fragments may also belong to the rounded tripod(?) cooking pot with two horizontal handles (type 1B); however, the inclination of the body, the absence of burning marks, and the slightly larger aplastic inclusions were the criteria for attribution to this shape
3. Flat or slightly splaying bases (e.g., **93**, **94**)

A type of pot (**95**) with a short cylindrical base has tentatively been included in this category; the even internal surface at the base may suggest that it was wide mouthed.

Type 8. Amphora

Of this type (Table 7; Fig. 30), one example of an amphora (**96**) retains part of a vertical handle, oval in section, presumably attached from rim to shoulder. Remains of a red slip testify to the original finish of the exterior surface. Generally, the use of slip or paint on pots made with kitchenware fabric is extremely rare at Kanakia, and this example so far is unique. Two fragments of slightly splaying necks (**97**, **98**) also may come from types of amphoras.

Types 9 and 10. Bathtub/Vat

A number of sherds with the characteristic horizontal rim and flat base belong to bathtubs/vats (**99–103**; Table 7; Figs. 31, S6). Apart from the Aiginetan bathtubs, other examples of the same type, similarly made from a clay rich in organic material, come from at least three different areas.[54]

Two fragments of rims and walls (**99**, **100**) can be attributed to bathtubs/vats.[55] Additionally, a fragment of a flat base (**101**), carelessly joining

54. Marabea 2010a, p. 222, according to the analyses by P. Day and V. Kilikoglou. For a description of these fabrics, see Gilstrap 2014, p. 36.

55. For comparable types of this shape (vat), see, e.g., French and Taylour 2007, p. 315, no. 66-515 (from Mycenae): the rims of the examples from Kanakia are clearly differentiated from those of the bathtub, being smaller (in-beveled in the first case and squared in the second).

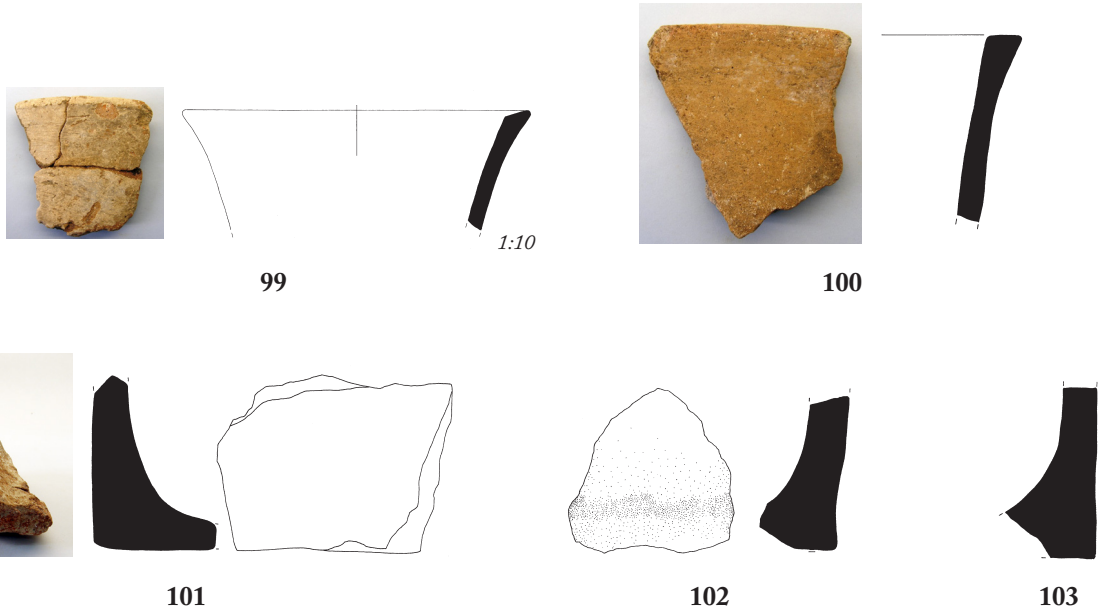


Figure 31. Bathtubs/vats, types 9 and 10 (99–103). Scale 1:5 unless otherwise indicated

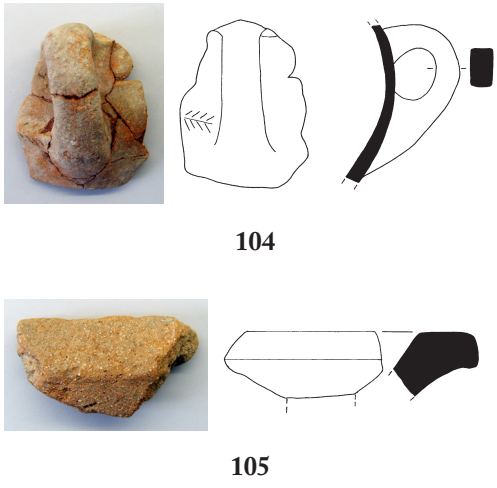


Figure 32. Unidentified shapes (104, 105). Sherd 104 may belong to a closed pot, and 105 to an open pot. Scale 1:5

a vertical lower wall, along with two other similar specimens (**102**, **103**), may belong to either shape.

Unidentified Shapes

The shape of some fragments was unable to be determined with certainty (Table 7; Fig. 32). An interesting fragment (**104**) may belong to a closed or wide-mouthed jar. It is decorated with a narrow plastic band at the side of the lower root of the handle, which bears an incised herringbone. It appears that the band does not run around the circumference of the pot, as the other side of the root of the handle is free of it. Additionally, example **105** has the rim of the bathtubs, though the inclination of the wall suggests that the body was very shallow.

TABLE 6. DIMENSIONS AND PROPERTIES OF LIDS (TYPE 5)

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*Pres. H.*	*Diam.*	*Surface*	*Burning/Carbonization and Heat Effect*	*Munsell*	*Aplastic Inclusions*		*Figure*	*References*
							Size (mm)	*Sorting*		
Type 5. Lids										
79	01.IB.9.214	2.5	15.0	Ext. and int.: concentric str.	Ext. and int.	7YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	Marabea 2010b, pp. 403–404
80	02.IΔ.13/15.80	3.0	15.0	Ext. and int.: marked concentric str.	Ext.: slight on periphery.	5YR 5/4–5/6	≤1	good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	Marabea 2010b, p. 490
81	02.IΔ.25.283	3.0	20.0	Ext. and int.: marked concentric str.	Ext. and int.: periphery and wall.	5YR 5/4–5/6	≤1	good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	Marabea 2010b, p. 574
82	802.IA.2.178	3.0	33.0	Ext. and int.: concentric str.	Ext.: periphery. Int.: yes.	5YR 6/6	≤2	moderate to good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	Marabea 2010b, p. 675
83	02.IB.3.243–2.303α	6.7	35.5	Ext. and int.: concentric str.	No marks.	7.5YR 6/8–5YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	Marabea 2010b, pp. 415, 441
84	18.9.03; T. Γ2	3	–	Concentric str. on underside of top.	Inside.	5YR 6/6	≤1	good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	unpublished
85	01.IB.5.103α	2.5	–	Concentric str. on underside of top.	Slight inside.	5YR 5/6 (ext.); 5YR 5/4 (int.)	≤1	good	Figs. 26, 27, S53	Marabea 2010b, p. 357
86	17.11.11, trench Γ	6.8	–	Concentric str. on underside of top.	Slight discoloration inside.	2.5YR 6/8	≤1	good	Fig. 26	unpublished

Note: Ext. = external; int. = internal; str. = striations. All dimensions not otherwise indicated given in centimeters. Empty cells indicate that the information is not available or not possible to be determined.

TABLE 7. DIMENSIONS AND PROPERTIES OF NONCOOKING POTS (TYPES 6–10)

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*Diam. Rim*	*Diam. Base*	*Th. Handle*	*Surface*	*Munsell*	*Aplastic Inclusions*		*Figure*	*References*
							Size	*Sorting*		
Type 6. Pithos										
87	03.Γ.Γ2	41.0	–	–	Poor finish; visible joins of coils; upward drawing of clay on neck.	variable	≤3	poor to very poor	Fig. 28	unpublished
88	01.IA.5.338	–	–	–	Poor finish; visible joins of coils.	5YR 5/4–7.5YR 2.5/2	≤4	poor to very poor	Figs. 28, S28	Marabea 2010b, p. 723
Type 7. Jar/Pithoid Jar										
89	02.IΔ.378α1	27.0	–	–	Worn, but visible horizontal str. Slight groove on int.	7.5YR 6/6–5YR 5/8	≤1 mm	very good	Fig. 29	Marabea 2010b, p. 612
90	02.IΔ.15.108	–	–	–	Worn, but visible horizontal fine striations on int.	2.5YR 5/6	≤1 mm	good	Fig. 29	Marabea 2010b, p. 500
91	01.IB.2.299α	–	–	2.8	Ext.: even, horizontal and diagonal str. Int.: horizontal impressions (grooves).	variable (uneven firing)	≤2 mm	good	Figs. 29, S29	Marabea 2010b, p. 439
92	01.IB.1.329α	–	–	2.2	Ext.: smoothed. Int.: traces of scraping and coil joining(?).	2.5YR 5/8	mainly ≤1 mm; rarely larger	good	Fig. 29	Marabea 2010b, p. 456
93	02/07.IΔ.24.231γ	–	13.0–13.5	–	Ext. and int.: concentric str. on base. Ext.: horizontal str. on wall.	2.5YR 6/4–5/4	≤1 mm	good	Fig. 29	Marabea 2010b, pp. 552–553
94	01.IΔ.11.47	–	14.0	–	Ext.: even, horizontal str. Int.: spiral finger traces.	5YR 7/4–7/6	≤2 mm	fair	Fig. 29	Marabea 2010b, pp. 478–480
95	01.IA.5.320	–	6.0	–	Ext.: concentric str. around base. Int.: even, trace of base and wall joining.	7.5YR 4/6	≤2 mm	fair to good	Figs. 29, S54	Marabea 2010b, p. 716
Type 8. Amphora										
96	01.IA.2.164	–	–	2.3	Ext.: even. Int.: horizontal str. Uneven wall thickness.	2.5YR 6/8 (ext.)–6/4 (int.)	mainly ≤1 mm; rarely ≤2 mm	good	Figs. 30, S30	Marabea 2010b, p. 670
97	03.A3.Δ.1	11.3	–	–	Ext. and int.: smoothed.	2.5YR 5/6	≤1 mm	good to very good	Fig. 30	unpublished
98	01.IA.9.378	18.0	–	–	Ext.: horizontal str. Int.: slight wavy surface, horizontal and diagonal str.	7.5YR 5/3 (ext.); 10YR 4/2 (int.)	≤1 mm	good	Fig. 30	Marabea 2010b, p. 737

TABLE 7. *(continued)*

Cat. No.	*Inv. No. or Context*	*Diam. Rim*	*Diam. Base*	*Th. Handle*	*Surface*	*Munsell*	*Aplastic Inclusions*		*Figure*	*References*
							Size	*Sorting*		
Types 9 and 10. Bathtub/Vat										
99	01.IA.416α	45.0	–	–	Worn surfaces.	ca. 5YR 6/6	mainly ≤1 mm	good	Fig. 31	Marabea 2010b, p. 750
100	99.ΠΕ.12	40.0+	–	–	Ext. and int.: even, with less refined str.	5YR 5/6–6/6 (ext.); 5YR 5/4–2.5 /1 (int.)	≤1 mm	good	Fig. 31	unpublished
101	01.IB.6.328β	40.0+	–	–	Ext.: worn, but visible str. Int.: slightly diagonal str.; careless joining of base and wall.	7.5YR 5/6	≤1 mm	good	Fig. 31	Marabea 2010b, p. 456
102	01.IB.7.336	–	–	–	Worn surfaces; some str. on ext.; careless joining of wall and base; uneven base surface.	2.5YR 6/4–10R 4/6 (ext.); 2.5YR 4/8–7.6YR 3/2 (int.)	mainly ≤1 mm; rarely larger	good	Fig. 31	Marabea 2010b, pp. 459–460
103	18.10.03, T. Δ2	–	–	–	Worn surfaces; some irregular str. on ext.; careless joining of wall and base; uneven base surface.	10YR 5/3 (ext.); 2.5YR 5/6 (int.)	mainly ≤1 mm	good	Fig. 31	unpublished
Unidentified Shapes										
104	01.IB.2.293	–	–	1.5	Ext.: smoothed. Int.: slightly irregular.	2.5YR 6/6	≤1 mm	good	Fig. 32	Marabea 2010b, p. 436
105	15.ΥΕ.Δ3.Σ2	–	–	–	Rather worn surfaces, originally smoothed.	2.5YR 5/6	≤2 mm	good	Fig. 32	unpublished

Note: Ext. = external; int. = internal; str. = striations. All dimensions not otherwise indicated are given in centimeters. Empty cells indicate that the information is not available or not possible to be determined.

AIGINETAN KITCHENWARE POTTERY FABRIC

Aiginetan kitchenware fabric repeatedly has been characterized in archaeometric studies, and it can be identified quite easily through macroscopic study.[56] It consists of a noncalcareous, reddish coarse clay (with hues extending from reddish brown to yellowish red) with volcanic aplastic inclusions.[57] Macroscopically, the most characteristic aplastic inclusions are platelets of gold mica (biotite), coupled with long, sparkling black hornblende (an amphibole) and grits of andesite. In general, it seems that potters tended to prefer noncalcareous clays, as they are more stable when in direct contact with heat.[58] Concerning the pots found at Kanakia, internal differentiation has been detected in the clay paste—that is, the inclusion of green, apart from brown, amphiboles in the fabric.[59] The firing of these noncalcareous clays has been recorded at 650°C–750°C, without vitrification.[60]

An interesting feature that prevails in the majority of the Late Mycenaean Aiginetan pots (all types of tripod cooking pots, jars, jugs, and basins) concerns certain characteristics of their aplastic inclusions. Macroscopic study has shown that the size of the aplastics does not normally exceed 1.0 mm in the pots at Kanakia, and that their sorting is generally good, resulting in a rather finer paste than usually assumed and also in a visual appearance that does not resemble coarseness. The Late Mycenaean Aiginetan cooking fabric of these pots strongly resembles Aiginetan cooking pots of the Classical period, though by no means are they identical. It can perhaps be classified between Aigina's macroscopic group 1A (fabric group 1Am) and macroscopic group C (fabric group 1v).[61]

The fabric of the remaining shapes (pithos, jar/pithoid jar, amphora) is macroscopically comparable to that of the cooking pots, though the aplastic inclusions of these larger pots seem to be less well sorted (perhaps 1 mm larger), while the fabric of the bathtubs/vats is rich in (burned) organic material (with quite laminar remaining voids), and the rest of their aplastics are normally well sorted and up to 1.0 mm in size. The inclusion of organic matter in all bathtubs/vats, irrespective of their origin, is an interesting aspect. According to specific studies, the addition of this matter is beneficial for a number of reasons, as, among others: (1) it provides more strength to the wet clay so that these large vessels can be constructed; (2) it prevents cracks during the drying phase; (3) its combustion during firing creates more heat; and (4) it creates a lighter end product.[62]

The color of the surface of the bathtubs/vats is red/reddish yellow to brown, and their core is normally (but not always) gray. The fabric is certainly coarser than that of other shapes (in terms of the size and the sorting of the aplastics) only in the case of the pithos.

Future work is expected to investigate the macroscopic observation that the Aiginetan kitchenware fabric in the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period appears to have been better worked (or refined) by potters during the manufacture of certain shapes.

56. See Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, with further bibliography.

57. Pentedeka, Georgakopoulou, and Kiriatzi 2012, pp. 131–133.

58. See Santacreu 2014, p. 152.

59. W. D. Gilstrap (pers. comm., December 22, 2017), on the basis of analyses of material from the Saronic Gulf. Gauss and colleagues (2017, pp. 51–55) have detected the same expansion of raw material sources in the Late Mycenaean period, according to preliminary analytical results.

60. Gilstrap, Day, and Kilikoglou 2016, p. 502. According to Kiriatzi, Georgakopoulou, and Pentedeka (2011, pp. 93–94), earlier (mostly Middle Helladic) pots were fired between 750°C and 950°C, showing initial or extensive vitrification. Pot **27** is also characterized by vitrification (to be presented by A. Oikonomou, C. Marabea, C. Papachristodoulou, and D. Palles at the 7th Symposium on Archaeometry of the Hellenic Society for Archaeometry, Athens, 9–12 October 2019).

61. Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, pp. 47, 93–94, 98–99. For the fabric of the Classical-period Aiginetan cooking pot and its resemblance to fabric FG1 of the Bronze Age, see Klebinder-Gauss et al. 2012, p. 110.

62. Skibo, Schiffer, and Reid 1989, pp. 126–127, 133–135, 140.

MORPHOLOGY AND CONSTRUCTION

As it was not possible to take photos of the interior surfaces of all pots or of the profiles of intact or reconstructed pots, the following sections, along with the catalogue entries (see Tables 3–7), provide detailed macroscopic and tactile observations. The profiles of the pots are accurately depicted in the drawings.

Tripod Cooking Pots

Profile

The rounded pots display a symmetric profile, though no inferences can be made for type 1F (with horizontal handles), as the three examples (**31**–**33**) are not fully preserved. This observation is also true for the carinated examples (**23**–**28**), as the carination of the body is normally not only symmetric (on the vertical axis) but also straight (on the horizontal axis). The only asymmetries that may appear concern the deformation of the circular rim during the process of the attachment of the handles, resulting in an ellipsoid shape (e.g., esp. **10**, and to a lesser extent **21**, **22**). Furthermore, the internal (slight) carination of the rim, when present, is always straight (Figs. S7–S9).

Surfaces

The surfaces of tripod cooking pots are always well finished and smoothed (see Table 3); it is difficult to observe macroscopically any construction or building features apart from the attachment of the handles and legs and rarely the rims.[63] In many instances, the exterior surface displays a thin layer of finish, which may be viewed as a kind of self-slip,[64] created during the secondary treatment of the surface of the pots (possibly by the wet hands of the potter or by a piece of wet cloth). This trait is expected to be sensitive to use-alterations and postdepositional conditions. A slipped interior is preserved in one tripod cooking pot (uncatalogued; Fig. S11), a rare visible trait.

Concerning types 1A and 1B (tripod cooking pots with one or two vertical handles), subtle marks that may point to the joining of coils are present as small irregularities in the form of cavities. These marks are rarely attested on the interior surface of smaller versions (i.e., the one-handled pots such as **1**, **3**). The larger pots do not normally display irregularities/cavities on their surfaces. One pot, **12**, retains faint relief bands below the rim on the internal surface (Fig. S12), however, which may be linked with the presence of coils or with the formation of the straight rim carination, while **11** preserves a swelling at the maximum diameter of the body. As it has not been possible to determine whether the swelling runs around the circumference of the pot because of a missing part of the body, this swelling could have resulted from the joining of coils or from the joining of two parts.

The few carinated examples (type 1C) do not show traces of coils. In the case of **24**, there is a slight hollow in the internal surface corresponding to the external carination of the body, which is not quite even and does not run around the entire preserved part of the pot. Furthermore, a slight internal carination may also be seen in only a portion of the pot, above the

63. The traces that attest to the attachment/formation of the rim are cavities and/or slight swellings. Figure S10 shows an extremely rare interior finish.

64. For the term, see, e.g., Rice 2015, p. 164.

aforementioned hollow. Most probably, these marks suggest the attachment of the upper part of the pot. On the other hand, pot **27** does not have a hollow corresponding to its external carination, though the upper wall has an inward inclination. The carination of the body in the unique example of the lebes (type 1D) is straight, though at one point it becomes uneven, as excessive clay was added there, perhaps for the joining of two parts.

In general, the surfaces of the tripod cooking pots usually display fine, even, parallel striations—that is, drag marks from aplastic inclusions.[65] These marks are different from the random scraping marks of a handmade construction, which appear in vertical, horizontal, or diagonal orientation,[66] and also from the wiping marks characterized by ridges with uneven depths. Rather, the striations run horizontally on the (upper) body (e.g., **11**, **32**; Figs. S13–S15) or (flawlessly) concentrically at the bottom (before the attachment of legs; see, e.g., **4**; Fig. S16) and around the handles and legs, while the inner surface may display none. Less often, sets of striations, especially in the area above the bottom, have an oblique orientation. It is important to note, however, that the groups of striations normally run horizontally around the entire circumference of the pot (especially around the rim) and not just a portion of it. This fact can be observed in the complete pots, and this pattern strongly suggests that the hands of the potters were basically still (or only slightly moving) while the pot was rotated. In some cases (e.g., **27**, **29**), the initial striations have been smoothed away but are still discernible on the surfaces, especially the rim.

Wall Thickness

Concerning the wall thickness of tripod cooking pots in both the horizontal and vertical axes, observations can be made for each type.

Types 1A and 1B

Each pot has basically the same wall thickness around the circumference, measured at the greatest diameter of the body (horizontal axis); differentiations do not exceed 1.0 mm. On the vertical axis, the wall normally has the same thickness from below the rim to the curve that leads to the bottom. There are, however, a few exceptions: one tripod pot (**8**) has a slightly uneven wall thickness, while another (**11**) presents a slight swelling at the maximum diameter of the body. The swelling is present in at least half of the latter pot as preserved; as it is not possible to check whether the swelling runs along the perimeter of the pot, this circumstance is either the result of coil joining or the otherwise joining of two parts. Overall, the measurements of wall thickness range from 4.0 to 5.0 mm in the smaller examples up to 1.2 cm in the largest example (with a height of ca. 43 cm; see Table 2).

At the bottom, as a rule, the wall gets thinner (3.0–6.0 mm in the recorded examples). It must be noted that the thinning of the lower body is symmetric on either side of the center of the bottom, which in turn suggests the use of rotational kinetic energy (RKE), most probably in the process of wheel-trimming (Figs. S17, S18).

Type 1C

In the carinated tripod cooking pots, the wall has the same thickness at the height of the maximum diameter, apart from two examples, **24** and **28**, which present differentiations of 1.0 mm (see Table 2). As in the rounded

65. See Rye 1981, p. 86.
66. See Rye 1981, pp. 87–88.

examples, the wall at the bottom of the carinated pots is thinner, except perhaps in **27**. Also, in the case of **24**, the wall is thicker at the greatest diameter of the body and becomes thinner toward the bottom, while the inner carination is not straight, as if two parts have been joined to form the body (Fig. S19). As in the case of type 1B, the wall gets thinner toward the bottom (**25**–**27**).

Type 1F

One of the pots of this type with horizontal handles, **32**, displays a slightly uneven wall thickness above the maximum diameter of the body (0.5–0.7 cm), which may suggest the presence of coils or the joining of two parts (Fig. S20).

Rims

Apart from their size, the rims of tripod cooking pots are a feature that shows some diversity. Excluding the carinated pots and the lebes, there are two standard options in the configuration of the inner surface: the transition from the wall to the rim is usually angular (e.g., **12**, **13**, **16**, **22**, **33**) or also can be smooth (e.g., **2**, **4**, **19**), while the height of the rim presents small variations. These choices in the formation of the rims do not have a substantial functional implication, provided that the differences are not significant—for example, higher rims do not offer more protection for the user's hands in the cooking process compared to pots with shorter rims. Furthermore, rims may show traces of their construction (i.e., their attachment to the body).

Construction Technique

The abovementioned macroscopic observations make the involvement of RKE in the (coiled) construction of the Late Mycenaean pots a very strong possibility; this technique is called wheel-coiled, wheel-fashioned, wheel-shaped, or coil-and-wheel fashioning in the literature.[67] In general, the bigger the pot, the more careful its construction. This macroscopic suggestion regarding the construction technique may be further investigated by means of X-radiography, thin sections (orientation of voids and aplastic inclusions), and thick-section xeroradiography.[68]

The possibility that the rounded bottom of the tripod cooking pots was formed in a mold or by using the beater-and-anvil method so far is unsubstantiated, as no related marks are seen on the pots (e.g., points of juncture, ridges of clay, differences in the upper and lower part of the pots).[69]

67. See Courty and Roux 1995; Roux and Courty 1998. We are not yet in a position to identify which one of the four alternatives could have been employed, though we are more inclined to see the use of the wheel in the early stage of this construction. In a similar fashion, Thér, Mangel, and Gregor (2017) identify three techniques: (1) wheel finishing, when the handmade pot gets even and corrected by rotation; (2) wheel shaping, when the roughout of a handmade pot is shaped and thinned by rotation; and (3) wheel throwing, when the entire forming process is completed using rotational energy. For the suggested wheel-coiled/fashioned construction of Aiginetan pots in the Late Mycenaean period, see the macroscopic observations in Marabea 2010a, pp. 201–205; the construction technique mentioned by Gilstrap, Day, and Kilikoglou (2016, p. 507), referring to Marabea (2010a), is not accurate. For wheel-fashioned pottery at Lerna IV (end of the Early Helladic period), see Choleva 2012; for the production of Late Minoan tripod pots and jars with this technique, on the basis of experiments, see Morrison et al. 2015, p. 118.

68. E.g., Berg and Ambers 2011; Thér 2016.

69. This technique has been suggested for Minoan cooking pots, in addition to the wheel-coiled/fashioned type (Morrison et al. 2015, p. 118). According to Lis (2012b, p. 136), the separate attachment of two parts is the probable construction technique of the tripods, though only two pots from Kanakia (**11**, **24**) may show this type of formation.

Surely the secondary treatment of the surfaces eliminates traces of previous construction stages, though the rich material at hand would have allowed some observations regarding these forming techniques.

Cooking Jars

Regarding construction, the small group of available cooking jars does not offer an adequate basis for generalizations. Restricting ourselves to the material at hand, in pot **34** there is a circular crack on the underside of the base, most probably caused during the use of the pot on a fire,[70] although its attribution to an added coil for the formation of the base should not be totally excluded (see Fig. S44). Furthermore, the internal surface shows a wavy pattern (in profile), while the wall thickness is slightly differentiated on the horizontal axis. These characteristics, in conjunction with the presence of horizontal striations, point toward the formation of coils on the wheel.

Elsewhere, pot **38** exhibits two slight horizontal swellings on its interior surface (Fig. S21), which should correspond to coils that were thinned on the wheel,[71] as the continuous horizontal striations around the half-preserved circumference of the pot suggest (Fig. S22). Pot **35** has no traces of coils, and its striations run horizontally on the preserved surface; its base, however, appears to have been attached to the body. Pot **37** has a slightly ellipsoid mouth on account of the attachment of the handles (see Fig. S45). While the external surface of this jar is worn, the internal preserves traces of striations around the rim and lower wall. The latter surface also exhibits a rilling effect, most probably from the fingers of the potter. The upper part, which was more easily reachable, has been smoothed on the wheel. The base of the pot is clearly attached; the final result was not the most successful, as the base was situated slightly off-center (Fig. 18).

Variations in the always outturned rim of the cooking jars (as in the case of the tripod cooking pots) do not necessarily reflect less standardized production, as they are small. Instead, they suggest that the details of the rim cannot have played an important role in the final formation of the vase.

Cooking Jugs

Both cooking jugs (**55**, **56**) display a symmetrical profile (for **56**, with regard to its preserved part), and they both have smoothed exterior surfaces. The full preservation of **55** prevents the close inspection of its interior; however, there are clear traces of the attachment of the neck to the body (an expected trait) and also for a partially smoothed interior surface. The exterior surface is smoothed but without the usual striations of the tripod pots. In **56**, the wall gets thinner below the greatest diameter of the body, as if two parts were joined (Fig. S23), while the attachment of the neck to the body has been worked very carefully, both inside and outside. Even and continuous horizontal striations are preserved around the base of the neck.

70. See Orton and Hughes 2013, p. 253.

71. There is also a slightly uneven wall thickness, by ca. 0.3 cm, at the same level around the circumference.

Basins

As a rule, the surfaces of the basins do not show traces of coils, though a few exceptions do exist. For example, cooking basin **74** displays a slight anomaly in the form of a shallow groove, mostly on the exterior surface, situated just below the rim (Fig. S24), while dense, horizontal and fine striations are also visible (Fig. S25). Pot **63** has a slightly grooved upper interior surface (below the rim), possibly due to the less careful scraping of the joined coils, while the wall gets slightly thinner below the rim (Fig. S26).

The surfaces of cooking basins display the usual horizontal striations (e.g., **60–62**, **64–68**, **70**, **71**, **74**; Fig. S25), which may have been smoothed away by subsequent handling (though they are not entirely eliminated and are visible in places: see, e.g., the external surface of **62**, **64**, **67**, **70**, and the internal surface of **58**). In general, the profiles of the pots have the same thickness on the vertical axis (**60**), though exceptions are present. For example, in pot **61** the wall becomes thinner toward the base. Though it is not possible to determine whether this circumstance is related to the mode of construction and/or to an intentional design linked to the mode of cooking, the latter explanation seems more plausible, as this is certainly a cooking pot. Similarly, the downward reduction of the wall thickness of **64** (Fig. S27), a tripod type, should be considered an intentional trait related to cooking, and the same may be proposed for **65**, even though no burning marks are visible in the preserved portion. It should not be a coincidence that these two spouted, two-handled tripod examples display the same feature. On the other hand, the wall thickness is slightly uneven just above the base in **59**, while **62** has a slightly thicker upper wall (by 0.2 cm) that appears to be the result of the formation of the rim; to this can be added the slightly hollowed surface below the rim on the exterior.

The edges of the rims of the basins, when the top is flattened, are straight (**58**, **62**, **64**), while rarely the attachment/formation of the rim has been left visible (**65**, **73**). The thickness of the base, when it is preserved, is symmetrical on either side of the vertical axis (**60**, **67**), and in only one example (**76**) are there traces of the joining of the base to the lower wall.[72]

In general, the construction of the basins is careful: the rim is the only feature that sometimes shows traces of its formation (and the base in one case, **58**). The identification of coils in a few examples may suggest the wheel-coiled/shaped method for the construction of the pot. In such case, the wheel appears to have been used in an early stage of the manufacturing process, so that the coils were shaped and thinned on it.

Lids

All fragments and parts of lids retain concentric circles (see Fig. S53), either on both internal and external surfaces (**79–83**) or on the underside of the top (**84–86**).

Pithoi

The pithoi fragments (Fig. 28) display clear traces of handmade construction (e.g., **88**; Fig. S28): poor surface finish, visible joins of coils, and an upward drawing of clay on, for example, the neck of **87**.

72. Pot **75** shows no traces of the forming technique apart from the final finish of the surface.

Jars/Pithoid Jars

The jars present evidence for wheel-coiled manufacture. Example **89** displays a slight groove on the interior, probably from the joining of coils, and the same may also be true of **93** and of the base of **95**, while **91** and **94**, which are bigger in size than the previous two examples, have a slightly banded internal appearance (Fig. S29). Finally, **93** is characterized by concentric striations on the underside and interior of the base, without visible joins of coils.

Amphoras

Amphora **96** was coil-made and finished on the wheel, as suggested by the varied thickness of the wall (Fig. S30) in conjunction with the clear wheel marks on the interior surface.

The other amphora fragments (**97**, **98**) from rims/necks may belong to either this shape or the jar. Amphora **98**, a fragment of rim and neck, is wheelmade, judging by the gradual thinning of the wall thickness from the base of the neck toward the rim, the horizontal and parallel striations on the surfaces, and the slightly grooved appearance of the internal surface.

INTENDED USE

The study of the intended use of the pottery—that is, the analysis of technical choices made by the potters—is the first step toward understanding its actual function, as it provides a general outline irrespective of the fact that actual function does not necessarily have to follow intended function.[73] In the following section, pottery attributes mostly related to intended use are presented in relation to the Aiginetan pots found at Salamis in an effort to understand their function as fully as possible.

Morphology

Four attributes or performance characteristics—capacity, stability, accessibility, and transportability—related to the morphology of the pots are considered most important for the execution of their (intended) function.[74] For the sake of this study, it is beneficial to examine each one here.

Capacity

The capacity, in liters, of 19 pots has been measured up to the base of the rim, or the spout.[75] In order to have the most accurate results, only intact or restored pots have been measured.[76]

The smallest recorded example of the one-handled tripod cooking pots (**1**) has a capacity of just 0.60 L, whereas the largest measured capacity of the two-handled type (**19**) reached 13.90 L. Though the above extremes bespeak variation in volume and therefore also in size, no grouping in terms of volume is clear thus far.

The cooking jugs have limited capacities. The intact jug, **55**, has a capacity of 0.50 L, while the capacity of the second example, **56**, should not have been significantly greater.

73. See Skibo 2013.

74. Shepard 1956, pp. 224–248; Hally 1986, pp. 279–280; Kobayashi 1996, pp. 78–81, 204–208; Skibo 2013, pp. 31–36; Rice 2015, pp. 420–425.

75. Pots **1**, **4**, **6**, **9**–**11**, **14**, **17**–**19**, **21**, **25**, **27**, **29**, **37**, **55**, **59**, **60**, **67**; see Tables 3–5. Interiors were protected with thin plastic foil before the pots were filled with water.

76. Pots **15**, **36**, and **57** have been excluded, as they are on display in the Archaeological Museum of Salamis.

These measurements provide the maximum amount of content held by each pot, but they do not necessarily indicate the actual amount used by the ancient consumer, which could have varied between each shape. Volume is a useful parameter for inferences concerning the sizes of pots, though, again, no actual grouping can be (as yet) proposed for the Aiginetan examples.

While, in general, the diameter of the rim affects the capacity of the pot—that is, the bigger the rim diameter, the greater the capacity of the pot—a direct correlation should not be taken for granted, as other factors, such as height, shape, and maximum diameter of body, must also be considered. This circumstance could perhaps explain the absence of apparent capacity groups in any type. Two pairs of tripod cooking pots illustrate this observation. In the first case, even though pot **6** has a slightly greater rim diameter than **4** (13.3 vs. 12.9–13.2 cm), the first pot has a capacity of 1.80 L, while the second is 2.15 L. With the maximum body diameters of the two being the same (18 cm), the factor that affects capacity here is the height of the body (14.1 vs. 15.5 cm, respectively). In the second case, pots **19** and **21** both have the same maximum body diameter (35.0 cm). Despite the slightly larger rim diameter of **21** (23.3–24.8 vs. 23.0 cm), its capacity is somewhat smaller (13.00 vs. 13.90 L), most probably due to its slightly shorter body (25.8 vs. 26.2 cm).

On the other hand, the (limited) data from the basins seem to favor a direct correlation between the diameter of the rim and the capacity of the pot. Only three examples of basins are preserved enough for their capacity to be measured, also pointing toward size variability: **60** has a capacity of ca. 1.00 L; **67** can contain 1.20 L; and **59** has the greatest capacity, 2.50 L.

Stability

Almost all pots that are preserved intact have good or high stability, as they have flat (or slightly hollowed) bases or three legs. The only examples that seem to be less stable are jug **55**, whose base is rather narrow in relation to its maximum body diameter and height, though its weight could have contributed to its balance; and pithoid jar **95**, which has a short cylindrical base that would have provided low or moderate stability to a rather tall pot (if the thickness of the preserved wall is directly related to its original height). However, this feature of the pot—that is, the short cylindrical base—in fact may have provided a high degree of stability for the pot if it was inserted into the ground.

In sum, the pots can stand upright satisfactorily, and their consumers should not have encountered major problems in this respect.

Accessibility

The accessibility of the contents of a pot is directly related to its rim diameter. Pots with highly restricted rims are often used for the storage and/or transportation of liquids (e.g., pithoi, jars, and jugs) and serving (e.g., jugs). Large diameters (and shallow bodies) allow for easy access to contents, thus facilitating their stirring, but vessels with these features (e.g., basins) can spill liquid contents easily. The pots that stand between these two extremes, those with slightly restricted diameters, afford access to their contents, and at the same time, limit spillage—for example, tripod cooking pots and cooking jars. Even among these particular vessels, however, size and exact morphology play a significant role. Larger pots have greater diameters, thus allowing

easier access to their contents in comparison to smaller versions. Also, types 1C and 1D offer better accessibility compared to pots of type 1B because of their more open forms; their bodies, however, are relatively shallower than those vessels of type 1B, thus increasing the possibility of spillage.

Transportability

It is rather straightforward that the morphology, size, weight, and portability of a pot affect the ease of its transport. The tripod cooking pots, beccause of their morphology, and the larger containers (pithoi, jars/pithoid jars, bathtubs/vats), because of their size, pose the most difficulty in arranging them in the hold of a boat for their transport from Aigina, though in the case of the large open vessels (bathtubs/vats), other, smaller pots could have been transported inside them. An interesting case as to the arrangement of tripod cooking pots was revealed in room B2 of Building Complex B at Akrotiri, Thera. There, more than 50 specimens were found on the floor of the room, "placed upright, upside down, sideways or very often one inside the other."[77]

Two hypothetical arrangements are depicted in Figure S31, in which two pots of almost similar size are intertwined in both the horizontal and the vertical axes. Both arrangements protect the legs of the tripod pots from being exposed and thus from accidental breakage, though the vertical arrangement seems to be more secure for the body as well. Furthermore, both schemes could result in the stacking of more pots in a boat, perhaps in layers separated by wooden planks, hay, and so forth.[78] The remaining shapes—cooking jars, cooking jugs, basins, and amphoras—would have been stacked quite easily in the hold of a boat. All in all, the transportation and distribution of pots by the Aiginetans is expected to have been a rather normal and easy process.

Concerning the transportability of the pots in the area of their destination, it is expected that the larger and more cumbersome vessels, especially those intended for storage, would have had a permanent place in a given room (e.g., in a storeroom) and would not have circulated. For the rest of the pots, it is anticipated that it would be easier for them to be moved around, especially (but not exclusively) when the larger ones were without contents. This situation should explain, in part, the presence of Aiginetan pots in basically every room of the excavated buildings at Kanakia/Pyrgiakoni.

Thermal and Mechanical Properties

Pots used for cooking need to sustain thermal shocks from repeated heating and cooling episodes and mechanical stress from handling, and they also must be able to evenly distribute heat. Thus, the "ideal" cooking pot would have at least 20% mineral aplastic inclusions in its fabric,[79] a rounded profile, relatively thin walls, relatively high (pocket) fabric porosity, and the ability to be heated to 750°C–800°C; it must also be mechanically strong.[80]

Apart from studies and experiments that have shed light on the issue of the thermal shock resistance of pots along with their strength and toughness, and more specifically the characteristics of clay that contribute to these qualities,[81] thermal heat conductivity is another integral property

77. Marinatos 1976, p. 20.

78. E. Spondylis (pers. comm., January 2017), an experienced maritime archaeologist and a longtime sailor himself, comments that there is virtually nothing that cannot be stacked on board a ship.

79. For the advances of platy and fibrous aplastics that contribute to a more thermal shock-resistant cooking pot, see West 1992, pp. 17–19.

80. For an "ideal" cooking pot, see, e.g., Reid 1984; Bronitsky and Hamer 1986; Skibo, Butts, and Schiffer 1997; Skibo and Blinman 1999, p. 179; Whitbread 2015, pp. 28–31. For unvitrified fabrics and their better adjustment to the expansion and contraction of the wall during heating and cooling episodes, see Gibson and Woods 1990, p. 262.

81. For the strength, toughness, and thermal shock resistance of cooking pots, see, e.g., Bronitsky and Hammer 1986; West 1992; Tite, Kilikoglou, and Vekinis 2001; Müller et al. 2010. For thermal heat conductivity, see, e.g., Allegretta et al. 2017.

for a cooking vessel. The thermal conductivity of pots—that is, their ability to evenly heat their contents—is of paramount importance. Types of clay, firing temperature, porosity, texture, and wall thickness are considered crucial in this respect.[82]

Another important feature that relates to heating effectiveness of pots is water permeability, especially for low-fired pottery and those vessels used in the moist/wet mode of cooking (i.e., boiling). Permeability reduces heat conductivity because the surfaces permit the loss of water from contents. In such case, water may not reach the point of boiling. A means to stop or slow down permeability is via surface treatment;[83] this treatment, however, should not render the surface completely impermeable, as the steam that is produced will cause spalling. This fact is why polishing is not frequently encountered in low-fired pottery: surfaces should remain open enough for steam to escape.[84]

Experiments with cooking pots made by contemporary potters in a small city in northwestern Luzon in the Philippines have shown no significant relationship between strength and different surface treatments (in that case, between smudged and red-slipped surfaces).[85] There, however, pots with treated surfaces are stronger than those with untreated surfaces. On the other hand, different surface treatments (slip and smudge) affect heating effectiveness and water absorption.

In our case, to achieve good thermal conductivity (i.e., even heat transfer and distribution), the following characteristics of the Aiginetan pots would have had a positive effect:

1. A finer fabric in relation to those of previous periods (in terms of the size and sorting of the aplastic inclusions).
2. The careful finish of both external and internal surfaces by extensive scraping, which eliminated all potential irregularities, resulting in even and compact surfaces (this process may also increase the strength of the pot). Also, the possible application of a kind of slip.
3. Thin walls.
4. The further thinning of the rounded bottoms of the tripod cooking pots that would come into contact with heat.[86]
5. Compacted surfaces along with the watered external ones (for controlling surface permeability).

82. See, e.g., West 1992, pp. 11–67; Hoard et al. 1995, pp. 823–825; Hein, Müller, and Kilikoglou 2009. Available experiments and studies referring to cooking pots of Middle Cycladic–Late Cycladic I date from Akrotiri, Thera, have shown that specific tripod cooking pots were fired in high temperatures (more than 900°C); this practice increases the vitrification of the clay matrix, resulting in higher thermal conductivity. A pot with increased heating efficiency and more even heat distribution is considered suitable for many cooking modes (Roumpou et al. 2013, pp. 42–43; Müller, Kilikoglou, and Day 2015).

83. See Rice 1987, pp. 230–232.

84. See Skibo and Blinman 1999, pp. 178–179; Skibo 2013, pp. 48–52.

85. Longacre, Xia, and Yang 2000, pp. 287–292.

86. This is clearly an intentional and conscious feature, aiming at facilitating the process of cooking. Published (non-Aiginetan) tripod cooking pots from the Argolid do not always display this feature, as the wall either has the same thickness from below the rim to the bottom, or it gets thicker at the bottom. See, e.g., Baumann 2007, fig. 178:2057, 2058, 2060 (from Midea); French and Taylour 2007, p. 311, no. 66-513 (from Mycenae); French 2011, p. 393, no. 64-505 (from Mycenae). There are, however, examples of tripod cooking pots with a thinner bottom from Mycenae: French 2011, p. 433, no. 64-908; Shear 1987, fig. 21:145.

Abrasions

Ethnographic evidence and performed experiments suggest that cooking pots, especially those that were low fired and highly porous, should have had a surface treatment to protect against abrasion.[87] Out of five common surface treatments (texturing, slipping/polishing, the application of resin, smoothing, and smudging), the post-firing coating of the surface with an organic substance such as resin turned out to be the most effective solution against abrasion. The slip/polish treatment returned mixed results, while the finger-smoothed surface had poor resistance to abrasion. Also, cooking pots often acquire scrapes either from their resting surfaces and manipulation during cooking episodes and/or from their handling afterward.

ACTUAL USE: USE-ALTERATIONS AND COOKING

While the above characteristics pertain to the *intended* use of the vessels as cooking pots, it is their *actual* function that is most informative of their use. The study of use-alterations of the pots (i.e., the traces that were left on them from their use) may provide more specific information on how they were actually put into use. Taking into consideration all of the abovementioned parameters that affect the performance of the pots used for cooking, let us now turn to the LH IIIB–IIIC Early Aiginetan pots found at Kanakia, and to the macroscopic observations in relation to these issues. This section will deal only with the cooking pottery, as the material is in general more abundant, despite internal variations, when compared to the noncooking pottery (i.e., pithoi, jars/pithoid jars, amphoras, bathtubs and vats), which presents a more fragmentary picture.

Abrasions

With regard to the Aiginetan pots at Salamis, abrasions are sometimes visible on tripod cooking pots and cooking jars. These abrasions mostly derive from wear (by friction), and they usually are located on the interior bottom (e.g., **4**, **17**, **24**, **27**, **35**, **37**; see, e.g., Fig. S32); spalling or pitting has not been clearly identified on any example.[88] It should be noted that attritions by nonmechanical friction are not always easily distinguished macroscopically, as they greatly depend on the present state of the surfaces of the pots: for example, surfaces burned from use or surfaces damaged during postdepositional aspects mask the potential presence of attritions.

In general, the tripod cooking pots and cooking jars do not preserve visible traits (at least) of a special surface treatment against abrasions in the form of a slip, smudge, or burnish; however, there seems to be a careful, systematic finish that resulted in a very finely striated surface, along with a kind of self-slip. In one case, however, remains of a dark red/brown slip are still visible on the entire interior wall of a tripod cooking pot (uncatalogued; see Fig. S11). This observation is very interesting, as it points toward the practice of the application of an interior coating, which could have been colored (as in this case) or colorless.[89] Irrespective of its color, the invisibility of a possible interior coating of Aiginetan cooking pots in

87. See, e.g., Skibo, Butts, and Schiffer 1997; Stark, Bishop, and Miksa 2000, p. 305.

88. I.e., attritions by chemical action or the quick escaping of steam (e.g., Rice 2015, pp. 430–431; Schiffer 2014, pp. 104–105; Vieugué 2014, pp. 623–625).

89. Laboratory analyses of the slip have been scheduled, which will enable the full archaeological investigation and interpretation of this practice. For the use of an interior coating with beeswax or olive oil on replicas of LM I cooking pots, on the basis of archaeological and ethnographic evidence, see Morrison et. al. 2015, p. 119.

general may be due to its destruction during the use and cleaning of the pots and also to postdepositional factors (and perhaps also to sensitivity during conservation).[90]

Furthermore, when the bases of basins are preserved, traces of wear are sometimes visible on both the interior and exterior surfaces (particularly on the base). These traces most probably result from the use of the pots—that is, from resting them on several surfaces and from the stirring, eating, or cleaning out of their contents (**58**, **59**, **60**, **67**; e.g., Figs. S33, S34).

Burning Marks/Soot and Carbonization

Examination of ancient pots, ethnographic observations, and experiments have been employed in an effort to relate discolorations, blackening, and abrasions (from cooking, cleaning, and handling) on the surfaces of the pots to their use.[91] Concerning discolorations, the association of pots with fire in the process of cooking may leave traces of burning. Heat and soot (i.e., dull or shiny carbon deposits from the smoke of the fire) affect exterior surfaces, while charred food leaves traces on interior surfaces.[92] Recent experiments have shown that soot appears when flames are involved, and that in the case of an open fire, the wind (and its velocity) has an important role in the formation of soot and can also affect the side of the pot on which soot may be formed.[93]

Traces of soot or the discoloration of surface from the use of the pot over an open fire are differentiated from fire clouds created during initial firing,[94] from purposeful smudging in a reducing atmosphere during initial firing, and also from postdepositional burning.[95] For example, in the case of smudging, the effect will cover the entire surface; fire clouds are more likely to appear when the pots are fired in pits or open fires, not in kilns, while they also tend to occur randomly. On the other hand, carbonization marks that relate to the use of the pot should have a rather regular pattern.[96] Certainly, the study of complete or almost-complete pots rather than sherds provides a better assessment of use-wear.

An important observation is that soot does not appear on the pots in a number of instances, because: (1) wind blows away soot;[97] (2) soot is not deposited on exterior surfaces placed on or within coals or embers; and (3) soot does not appear when the temperature of the surface of the pot approaches 400°C.[98]

On the other hand, the presence of soot is directly related to the temperature of the exterior surface. A number of factors affect this: the distance of the pot from the flames, the presence of water in the pot, the type of fuel used in the fire, the design of the heating source, and the heat conductivity of the wall of the pot. For example, the presence of water in the pot keeps the surface rather cool (well below 400°C), thus allowing for the deposition of carbon deposits.[99]

In general, when pots are placed on a fire, or above it (i.e., they are suspended), set on legs or by other means, their lower part, up to the greatest diameter, tends to be affected by upward-traveling particles of soot. But this is not the case in the presence of coals (instead of a fire).[100] If pots rest on ash or are inserted in embers/ash, their lower part does not exhibit soot, as soot particles travel upward.[101] Soot on rims in general may appear when

90. Skibo (2013, p. 50) has noted that the pine resin that initially covers the interior of the Kalinga cooking pots gradually wears off in three months. For postdepositional factors, see Skibo, Butts, and Schiffer 1997; Skibo 2013, p. 48.

91. E.g., Hally 1983, 1986; Skibo 1990, 2013; Kobayashi 1996, pp. 324–400; Gur-Arieh, Maeir, and Shahack-Gross 2011; Vieugué 2014.

92. For the definition of soot, see Hally 1983.

93. See Gur-Arieh, Maeir, and Shahack-Gross 2011.

94. According to Rice (2015, p. 456), a fire cloud is "a darkened area on a vessel's surface resulting from uneven firing and the deposit of carbon in the pores during firing, characteristic of firings in which fuel and vessels are in immediate proximity."

95. According to Skibo and Blinman (1999, p. 179), these patterns are easily distinguished.

96. See Skibo 2015, p. 192.

97. See Gur-Arieh, Maeir, and Shahack-Gross 2011.

98. See Skibo 2015, p. 191.

99. See Skibo 2015, p. 191.

100. See Skibo 2013, p. 90.

101. See Skibo 2013, p. 92, fig. 15:a.

pots are in a titled position, as a result of their close proximity to flames or after using a lid. Apart from soot, external surfaces may display oxidized patches when pots are subjected to high temperatures (ca. 400°C) that burn off previously deposited soot (and no new soot can adhere to the surface), or when they are in direct contact with fire.[102]

Turning to the interior surfaces of the pots, there appear to be two types of traces resulting from charred food: encrustations deposited on the surfaces and carbonization that may penetrate the wall. The presence or absence of water in the pot again has a direct relationship to the appearance of internal traces of food. As the surface of the pot must reach 300°C–400°C for food to char, the presence of water (in the wet mode of cooking, e.g., boiling) prevents carbonization below the water line; however, at that temperature, carbonization will occur above the water line. In such case, food particles may penetrate the surface of the wall (with the aid of the water below) and become carbonized. When cooking is done in the dry mode (e.g., roasting), or when the water in the pot is completely removed or evaporated, carbonization will occur at 300°C–400°C but will not penetrate the surface because of the absence of water.[103] Another possibility attributes the internal blackening of the surface to an inverted position of the pot over an open fire or to the presence of fire in the pot.[104] Finally, the presence or absence of internal traces of food also logically depends on the types of foodstuffs cooked in the pots (whether they easily leave traces or not, and also what kinds of traces); this investigation requires organic residue analysis.

Evidence from the Aiginetan Pots at Kanakia

The factor of postdepositional burning of pots should be excluded at Kanakia, as the acropolis and nearby cult area were abandoned and no further activity took place at those locations. Accidental fires are limited to four to five rooms, and this occurrence has been taken into account in this work.

With regard to the traces that result from their use as cooking pots, it must be noted that the pots at Kanakia are considered to have been used indoors and therefore without the involvement of any wind, as our direct evidence both on the acropolis and at Pyrgiakoni suggests (i.e., the aforementioned hearths and rock cavities; see pp. 455–456, above). The additional outdoor use of the pots is also a strong possibility, however, even though this has not yet been confirmed in the field. Furthermore, it should be kept in mind that the pots had continuous use, and one cannot be aware of how many times each had been used prior to abandonment, discard, breakage, and so forth. Therefore, there is every chance that what one might try to discern as different patterns of burning marks on pots, and thus varied placement on heat sources and modes of cooking, may in fact be the result of the varying duration of the use of the pots and the cumulative addition of marks from their long-term use.

Tripod Cooking Pots

The presence of legs in these pots is a direct indication of their placement above embers/fire. In general, the long legs of the larger examples allow them to easily adjust to the surface onto which they were placed.

102. See Hally 1983, pp. 11–14; Skibo 1990, pp. 252–254.
103. See Skibo 2015.
104. See Hally 1986, p. 275.

The one-handled tripod cooking pots (type 1A) display burning marks on the legs and the exterior bottoms up to the lower part of the handle, and also on the wall opposite the handle up to the rim. The blackening of the exterior bottom and legs suggests their placement above a relatively weak fire,[105] at least at the end of the cooking episode, while the blackening of only the wall opposite the handle points toward placement at the edge of the heat source so that the handle is somewhat protected.

The two-handled tripod versions (type 1B) usually show extensive exterior burning marks on the legs, the rounded bottoms, the lower part of the handles, and on the free side (i.e., the side of the pot between the two handles, without the intervention of the third leg), up to the rim (e.g., **11**, **14**, **18–21**; Figs. 11–13). When the body is rather globular, there is a reserved area (i.e., free of soot) below the rim (e.g., **11**, **18**, **19**, **21**; Figs. 11, 13) not affected by the upward direction of the smoke. In three cases, burning marks cover all exterior surfaces of the pots (**10**, **13**, **22**; Figs. 11, 13).[106]

Like the one-handled group, the two-handled tripod cooking pots seem to have been placed directly on the heat source, like the pot that was found standing on the hearth in the kitchen of Building Delta, and/or slightly to the side of it (unfortunately, the vessel was too damaged to be reconstructed).

The fact that the legs and bottoms of the pots are covered with soot may indicate they were not removed while the fire was intense, but rather they remained above it until it stopped burning. Alternatively, the pots could have been used in a subsequent cooking episode above embers or small flames that produced the soot. In two cases (**17**, **21**; see Figs. 12, 13) there are clear marks of oxidization on the exterior bottom and half of the wall, signifying a strong fire positioned slightly to the side of the pot.[107]

On the other hand, the presence of three pots completely covered with soot (**10**, **13**, **22**) suggests either that they were placed in the center of the heat source (direct evidence for this option has recently been provided by the abovementioned tripod pot found in the main kitchen of Building Delta), or that they were placed at the edge of the heat source and the side affected by heat (not flames) was alternated. In the latter case, the two-handled tripod cooking pots, which now display burning marks on their bottoms and one (free) side, in all probability would have ended up with marks covering their entire surface, like the aforementioned examples, if they had been put into further use (but not under extreme heat, which would result in oxidized areas).

The carinated tripod cooking pots (type 1C) show burning marks on the exterior bottom and usually on the free side wall, suggesting placement slightly to the side of the heating source. One example, **28**, preserves an oxidized area at the rim and wall, pointing toward its placement close to a strong fire, while the limited marks on pot **25** (Fig. 14) suggest that it was rather new at the time of its abandonment.[108]

The lebes (**29**; Fig. 15) has extensive burning marks on all preserved parts, and in all probability, it was placed above the fire. The partly preserved type 1E pot **30** displays soot at the low root and up one side of the handle (see Fig. 16).

No concrete observations can be made for the rounded tripod cooking pots with horizontal handles (type 1F) because of their fragmented state.

105. Otherwise, an intense fire would have created marks on the perimeter of the bottom (cf. Yasur-Landau 2006, fig. 3:1).

106. Half of **13** is preserved, covered with soot, and one can expect that the missing half also would be covered with soot.

107. See Skibo and Blinman 1999, p. 180.

108. On the other hand, Kobayashi (1996, pp. 328–329) has shown that lack of soot does not necessarily imply that the pot had not been put into use, as small patches of soot may be removed by cleaning or weathering.

The extant examples, however, display exterior burning marks comparable to those of the two-handled tripod cooking pots (type 1B)—that is, on the lower portion and also on the perceived free side—and, as noted above, in all probability they represent a type of tripod cooking pot.

Concerning the interior marks, some tripod cooking pots, both one-handled and two-handled, show marks on their interior surfaces. Interestingly, these marks seem to correspond to exterior soot marks, though they are not so extensive; the interior marks are mostly confined to the bottom and open side wall (e.g., **4**, **6**, **10**, **13**, **14**, **17**, **22**; Figs. S35–S39). Other (fewer) pots have no interior marks (**8**, **11**, **12**). In general, there is an interesting contrast between the abundance of soot marks on the exterior and the scarcity of interior carbonization marks. The internal carbonization pattern on the free wall may be indicative of charred food, as the pots have relatively thin walls. In such case, the side with the marks (i.e., the free wall) was exposed to exterior heat.

Such cooking pots, especially the larger versions, might have been used as portable hearths—that is, as movable devices for the burning of charcoal intended for the provision of heat.[109] While such an interpretation may partly explain the vast numbers of such pots that are being retrieved at Kanakia, there is not as yet firm evidence for this use.[110]

The carinated tripod cooking pots (type 1C) do not present a uniform pattern: pot **25** displays no internal marks (perhaps it was a new pot), while in **24** internal carbonization basically extends over the entire preserved portion, though the marks are not very dark and, moreover, do not exactly correspond to external marks (Fig. S40). Pot **26** has a rather large carbonized patch on its interior bottom, indicating the direction of the heat (Fig. S41). Elsewhere, the preserved interior part of **28** is totally blackened, while example **27** is a very interesting pot, as it preserves remains of a red substance (ochre) in its interior, a unique occurrence so far at Kanakia (see p. 457, above). No internal carbonization marks are present on the lebes (**29**, type 1D) or on the hemispherical type (**30**, type 1E). One of the two pots of type 1F (**31**) has internal carbonization marks on the bottom (as suggested by its preserved nonjoining sherds), while the second (**32**) lacks any internal carbonization marks in the preserved part.

The absence of clear patterns in the interior carbonization of these pots is a serious drawback in our attempt at defining the cooking mode.[111] In addition, not all types of tripod pots are furnished with spouts, a characteristic that admittedly provides a direct link to liquid food. The limited internal marks on some tripod cooking pots of type 1B were perhaps formed, on the side most affected by heat, when the initial moisture was removed or evaporated.[112] In the opposite case—that is, cooking without water (dry mode)—carbonization will not permeate the wall. The absence of interior marks, on the other hand, in combination with the presence of exterior soot may be linked to heating of liquids or the cooking of soup-like substances.[113]

Types 1C (carinated) and 1D (lebes) tripod cooking pots have different morphology as compared to type 1B: they have broader rims and shallower bodies. Irrespective of their chronology (i.e., whether or not they appear late in the development of the Aiginetan repertoire), the fact remains that they coexisted along with the typical tripod cooking pots (type 1B). Their preserved internal carbonization marks are not enough to draw concrete conclusions, and perhaps these vessels were not exclusively restricted to boiling.[114]

109. See Hally 1986; Rice 1987, p. 235; Bakirtzis 1989, p. 41; Orton, Tyers, and Vince 1993, p. 222.

110. Such evidence would take the form of an entire blackened interior, without external marks, though the rim should be wide enough for the coals to stay lit. For the identification of a tripod tray as a grill or portable hearth, see Yasur-Landau 2006, p. 242.

111. For several patterns pertaining to the wet or dry modes of cooking in globular pots, see, e.g., Skibo and Blinman 1999, figs. 11.1–11.8. In all cases, the marks are in the form of bands, rings, or zones: i.e., they extend around the wall of the pot.

112. According to Skibo (2015), carbonization will penetrate the surface above the water line in the wet mode of cooking.

113. See Kobayashi 1996, p. 451.

114. A note of caution is required: in the absence of firm evidence on the kinds of foodstuffs that could have been boiled, which expectantly create different patterns of soot and carbonization, boiling here is considered in its general meaning.

The absence of clear patterns of internal carbonization in the Aiginetan tripod cooking pots at Kanakia may in part conform with the traditional view that restricts the use of these vessels to only one cooking mode: boiling. The most telling lack of evidence for clear (and exclusive) boiling is the absence of carbonization patterns in the form of bands.[115] Even though the practice of boiling, which could be controlled with lids, will not be questioned here, other methods should also be considered. These modes could include frying and steaming, especially in the case of the bigger pots of type 1B and the open forms of types 1C and 1D, although the cooked food may not have been ideal according to our modern standards.[116] The smaller examples may have had a secondary role, for example, in the warming or thickening of small quantities of food.

Cooking Jars

All cooking jars display burning marks on their exterior surfaces (Fig. 18). Examples **34** and **37** have extended burning marks that reach up to the rim, while **35** is blackened from base to rim in the area opposite the preserved handle.

In two of the examples, **35** and **37**, the underside of the base is burned only on its periphery (Figs. S42, S43), while the center has not been affected. This trait is also visible in most bases and appears when pots are placed on a hot surface, which affects the exterior, while the slightly hollowed underside remains unaffected, as there is no oxygen for burning. Jar **36** and two more bases (**49**, **52**) have completely blackened bases (on the exterior), perhaps suggesting placement above the fire.[117] The largest example in this category, cooking jar **38**, has burning marks on half of the edge of the base and also on the wall above it, while on the interior wall fewer carbonization marks are present, largely corresponding to the exterior marks.

Thus, these pots were not placed in a fire, at least not in the final episodes of cooking, as in such case the base is expected to be light gray in color or oxidized. On the other hand, jar **34** (Fig. S44) and base **41** are free of burning marks, perhaps indicating that these were new pots at the time of their deposition.

The majority of the cooking jars were most probably placed at the edge of the heat source, which would have been rather flat (e.g., a hearth). In such a scheme, the side of the pot that was affected by the heat could be alternated (in successive cooking episodes), and in due course the initial localized marks on the pots would be replaced by total blackening. Alternatively, if this alternating mode was not practiced, the few pots with bases totally blackened on the exterior should have been placed above the fire.

The interior surfaces of the best-preserved cooking jars display carbonization marks: **37** shows black patches in two antithetical areas on the wall above the base and also on the rim (Fig. S45); **34** is totally blackened inside; and **35** has marks in the area opposite the preserved handle (corresponding to the outer marks; Fig. S46).

The restricted mouths of the cooking jars and their relatively small size make them suitable for boiling or for the warming and thickening of food, perhaps in the initial presence of moisture that subsequently evaporated. Additionally, these pots appear suitable for the preparation of sauces, as their capacity is rather limited. The carbonized marks, which appear to have penetrated the wall, are indicative of the initial presence of water that was

115. Even if we accept Kobayashi's (1996, p. 370) observation that the band is formed gradually by carbon patches, which increase in number and eventually overlap, this pattern should have been visible in at least a portion of the tripod pots at Salamis.

116. See, e.g., Yasur-Landau 2010, pp. 239–240; Shafer-Elliot 2014, p. 106. Cf. also the Canaanite wide-mouthed cooking pot, which was suitable for frying, boiling, steaming, and simmering. For the suitability of a pot with a rounded bottom to be used for slow baking in embers or in an oven for the cooking of casserole-type dishes, see Kanta 2003, p. 176. For the suggestion that tripod cooking pots could have been used for boiling, stewing, and frying, see Isaakidou 2007, p. 13; Skibo 2013, pp. 4–5. For globular, thin-walled, and heavily tempered vessels with polished or smoothed exteriors, which were used for boiling, for stewing, and in the fermentation of alcohol in the Colorado Plateau, see Skibo 2013, pp. 4–5. For the suitability of deep-bodied tripod cooking pots for slow boiling and of shallower forms for sautéing, grilling, roasting, baking, and so forth, on the basis of experiments, see Morrison 2017, p. 142.

117. Rice 2015, p. 429.

later removed. As three pots (**35**, **37**, **38**) display carbonized patches, and a fourth (**34**) shows a totally blackened interior surface, one may assume that the side wall that was most affected by the heat was alternated.

The participation of the University of Ioannina Excavations in Salamis in a wider project of biomolecular investigations coincided with the inception of the systematic excavation in the area of Kanakia.[118] Only material from surface collections or the trial trenches in 2000 was at that time available. Among others, two sherds from cooking pots (a jar and a tripod pot) were analyzed. According to the results, both contained vegetables.[119]

Cooking Jug

The burning marks on pot **55** are located on the side wall close to the handle, and on the handle itself up to the rim, whereas only a very limited area is blackened on the wall opposite the handle (Fig. 21). While one would expect the wall opposite the handle to have been exposed to heat,[120] the observed pattern suggests otherwise. Thus it is not unlikely that the handling of the pot from the neck was more practical than the use of the handle.

A second, half-preserved example, **56**, originally larger than the previous pot (**55**), does not display clear burning, having only slight discoloration on one side (Fig. 21). It is highly possible that the pot was stored and intended to be used in future cooking activities. Its use in a domestic but noncooking context does not seem plausible, as there are finer jugs that would have been used for the serving of liquids.

The rather limited capacity of the cooking jugs and the restricted mouth of this shape speak in favor of a special use that would have involved the thickening or warming of small quantities of food. This circumstance is also suggested by the small spout formed on the lip in the half-preserved example, **56**. Such pots are expected to have been placed at the edge of flat heat sources or within embers.[121]

Basins

The recorded types of basins do not always display traces of burning (e.g., **70**–**72**; Fig. S47). The only type of basin that clearly bears burning marks is the two-handled (spouted) variety; depending on the degree of preservation in each case, marks are evident on the rim, the spout, the interior and exterior wall, and the base (both inside and out).

More specifically, cooking basins **57** and **58** of the two-handled type do not have any traces of burning (the same holds truth for **68** and the partially preserved **64** and **65**). They either were new pots or had not been put into frequent use.

Example **59** of the two-handled, spouted-type basin preserves carbonization marks on the interior base and at places on the rim and spout, and also burning marks on the base, on the wall below the handle(s), and on the spout (Fig. 22). The blackening of its exterior base (Fig. S48) suggests that it was not inserted into coals/embers but most probably placed over a hot surface (e.g., on the opening of a pit/cavity), which affected the base and part of the wall that extends beyond the diameter of the base.

The pattern on the interior of cooking basin **59**—an extended patch on the interior base and a patch resembling a band on the rim and spout—was created most probably during cooking without much moisture; or, alternatively, in an initially rather wet mode where the moisture was removed in

118. Tzedakis, Martlew, and Jones 2008.

119. Jar 99.IIE.06 (EUM 746) and tripod cooking pot 00.IIE.92 (EUM 758); see Garner 2008, pp. 154–157.

120. E.g., Morrison 2017, p. 157, with references.

121. For the placement of jugs on flat heat sources, see Ben-Shlomo 2011, p. 276.

the last episodes of cooking. As the pot is not particularly tall (only 9.5 cm, with a capacity of 2.50 L), one should not advocate a boiling mode, as in all probability its contents would boil over (unless, of course, this situation was not of concern). Instead, the pot could have been used to prepare a thick dish that was burned at the end of its preparation when water was (completely?) removed or boiled off. The presence of the spout suggests that the final (rather thick) contents were to be poured out. The marks on the rim and spout may point toward the presence of a lid and also the filling of the pot almost up to the rim: although ethnographic observations suggest that cooking pots are often filled to just half or three-quarters of their overall capacity,[122] these remarks refer only to globular types of cooking pots.

Cooking basin **60**, a two-handled(?) spouted example, displays extensive blackening on all external and internal surfaces (Fig. S49). It must have been a pot with frequent or extended use for all of its surfaces to turn black. As such, discerning the cooking mode is not straightforward, and a number of alternatives may be put forth. It was elevated above the fire in some way, for example, resting on the opening of a pit, while the presence of a spout links the contents of the pot with the initial presence of moisture that evaporated in the final cooking stages, resulting in the charring of contents. As the pot is short and has a capacity of ca. 1.00 L, the boiling (and simmering) mode should be excluded (despite the presence of the spout).

Two further alternatives also may be possible. First, such basins may have been used to create a kind of oven, either with one pot turned upside down on a hot surface or one pot turned upside down on a second.[123] In such a scheme, the spout(s) would have been used for the regulation of hot air inside the device.[124] Second, despite the presence of a spout, this kind of pot, with an open and shallow form, could have been used as a frying pan. This interpretation would explain the total blackening of the interior.[125]

Basin **61** displays burning marks on the upper part of the exterior and interior preserved wall and on the rim (Fig. S50). If this pattern is accurate, and not the result of the fragmented state of the pot, it is consistent with the placing of the pot directly in the fire/coals. The carbonization of the upper wall and rim on the interior may be the result of wet-mode cooking with the presence of a lid. When a pot is inserted in coals, the lower interior wall may not display carbonization marks, as the coals below the surface lack oxygen and do not produce the heat required for the burning of the lower contents of the pot.[126]

Two examples of basins (**62** of the two-handled[?] and spouted type, and possibly **66** of the tripod, two-handled and spouted type [Fig. S51]) have marks only on their interior surfaces: on the lower preserved wall and below the spout in the first example; and on the lower wall, rim, and spout in the second example. The absence of burning marks on the exterior surface may be a remnant of the initial use of the pots only, which may leave no marks. Alternatively, and especially in the case of the tripod basin, which is expected to have been used over a fire like the tripod cooking pots, the lack of exterior marks may indicate its placement over a stronger fire. The interior blackening of the lower wall may be the result of dry cooking, while those marks on the rim and spout could have been created either by the use of a lid or by external flames in the case of a strong fire. This interpretation, however, does not take account of the spout on each pot. Again, the same

122. See Skibo 2013, p. 32.

123. See, e.g., Betancourt 1980, p. 7; Morrison et al. 2015, p. 119.

124. Cf. the suggestion by Rotroff (2006, p. 173) that narrow spouts on the shoulder of Hellenistic chytrai were also used for the emission of steam.

125. Cf., e.g., the Byzantine frying pans (one type with three legs) and deeper two-handled *stegnata* (types of deeper pans/basins), which were used for the frying and roasting of food; see Bakirtzis 1989, pp. 48–52.

126. See Skibo 1990, pp. 241, 244; Orton and Hughes 2013, p. 253.

argument may be put forward regarding the multifunctional use of the basins. An alternative scenario is that lower carbonization took place in a successive cooking episode when the food particles had penetrated the wall during previous wet-mode cooking.

The tripod example, **64**, preserves a rather short leg (in comparison to the tripod cooking pots of types 1A and 1B), so that the bottom of the pot is much nearer to the heating source. Apart from these specimens, there are several fragments of basins with burning marks on the handles and body and occasionally on the rim (e.g., **70**; Fig. S47) or the bottom/base, but these examples are not adequately preserved to be categorized into types.

The fact that not all examples show burning marks could denote that

1. they were new pots (i.e., they had not been used on fire yet);
2. they were pots with little use; or,
3. they also served other noncooking but domestic needs (see, e.g., use-wear on the base and bottom of **67** [Figs. S33, S52] and on the base of **58** [Fig. S34]).[127]

The third alternative use may be supported by abrasions that are visible on the bases of some examples (e.g., **58** and **67**, without burning marks [Figs. S33, S34]). It should be noted, however, that there exist similar decorated (banded) and plain basins, in finer fabrics, which would certainly serve noncooking domestic and other needs. Thus, if the coarse version is not entirely restricted to cooking purposes, the existence of basins in two fabrics (fine and coarse) at Kanakia may suggest a similar noncooking use, perhaps in a different social context.

Consequently, the use of the basins for cooking has not been proven in all cases. If the fragmentary state of preservation for most of the recorded examples is not a decisive factor, various alternative uses can be put forward for a number of them, as mentioned above.

The presence of spouts in a number of basins with clear burning marks correlates with the pouring of hot contents, thus making them suitable for the brief boiling or warming (reheating) of food. Furthermore, their open and rather shallow form allows the quick evaporation of moisture, especially if a lid is not used. The largest recorded lid, **83**, has a diameter of ca. 35.0 cm, while the rim diameter of the basins can reach 42.0 cm, making the use of lids in the larger basins rather unpractical. The specific shape of the basins, however, is not suitable for long periods of boiling, as their unrestricted rims allow for the spilling and rapid evaporation of liquid contents, in addition to heat loss.[128] Other modes of cooking may also apply; in fact, it has been proposed that this kind of shape could be elevated above the hearth, turned upside down, or placed directly into coals, thus creating a surface ideal for roasting, frying, sautéing, or baking.[129]

Lids

The rarity of lids in comparison to cooking pots suggests that the former are not a necessary complement to the latter.[130] Furthermore, so far a cooking pot accompanied by a lid has not been encountered at Kanakia. This observation has implications with respect to the mode of food preparation, and especially in the control of the evaporation of liquids. On the other hand, and more likely, one lid could have been used with several cooking pots (of varied sizes, yet with a rim diameter that did not exceed the

127. The repair of **67** (Fig. S52) also points toward a noncooking use, one that is no longer related to liquids.

128. See Hally 1986, p. 283.

129. E.g., see Betancourt 1980, esp. p. 8 (for similar shapes); Hally 1986, p. 269; Villing and Spataro 2015, p. 6.

130. The occasional presence of lids has also been noted, e.g., in Bronze Age Crete (Betancourt 1980, p. 4 [Kommos]) and the Hellenistic Athenian Agora (Rotroff 2006, p. 195).

diameter of the lid). Depending on the cooking method, the lid either fully covered the rim of the pot or only a part of it. The complete cooking pots, however, do not display continuous marks on the entire periphery of their rims, suggesting perhaps that lids did not fully cover them.

As expected, burning marks are displayed on the inner surfaces of the lids (mostly the lower part) and the internal and external periphery, areas that are most heavily affected by heat (Fig. S53). One example, lid **83**, the largest in diameter (see Table 6), does not display burning marks: it could be either a new lid that had not been used at the time of its abandonment or one that had not often been used (see also **86**, which has only slight discoloration), or it was used as a lid for a noncooking pot such as a pithos.

Pithoid Jar

One fragment of a pithoid jar (**95**) displays blackened marks on all interior and exterior surfaces, except for the underside of the base (Fig. S54). If this occurrence is not the result of the initial firing of the pot in the kiln and is associated with the use of the pot, one may envisage an industrial use rather than one for cooking, as it was recovered in a storeroom of the industrial part of the Eastern Building Complex. As the fragment is a solitary example, however, this suggestion is very tentative.

A Note on Faunal Evidence

Faunal evidence pointing to the consumption of animals, and thus to a part of the local diet, is so far available only for the Eastern Building Complex of the acropolis at Kanakia.[131] It should be noted that this complex was not among the main residential areas (such as Building Gamma) or those intended for the preparation of food (such as Building Delta), and therefore its faunal remains may not be representative of activities on the entire acropolis.

Though the relatively small amount of bones (125 fragments of limbs, teeth, and other indistinguishable bones) was weathered and highly fragmented, most probably by postdepositional processes, domesticated animals were primarily identified. Sheep and goat dominate the assemblage, followed by cattle and pig. Also, three canid bones (from domestic dog or other Canidae such as fox and jackal) and one leporid example (hare or rabbit) were recovered. Commenting briefly on the aforementioned examples, the canid bones were recovered from the fortified gate of the Eastern Building Complex, pointing perhaps to the presence of guard dogs at the gate and not animals for consumption.[132] The leporid example, which was retrieved from a deep level, thus excluding the possibility of intrusion, most probably comes from a hare rather than a rabbit, as the latter do not appear in Greece until the Roman period.[133]

In the absence of other (e.g., archaeobotanical) analyses, the above evidence should be treated with caution. It does point toward the consumption of meat, yet its frequency and relation to other species (plants/grain crops) remain unknown. Moreover, it has been suggested, on archaeological, ethnographic, and historical evidence, that meat consumption in larger communities was periodic, bound to special occasions, and perhaps associated with the higher segments of society.[134] In terms of cooking, all the abovementioned animals can be cooked (e.g., boiled, stewed, fried) in the available ceramic vessels.

131. Marabea 2010a, pp. 242–244, 803–807 (appendix 10, by zooarchaeologist Thanos Aronis-Webb).

132. For the consumption of dogs at Knossos, see Isaakidou 2007, p. 16.

133. See the report of Aronis-Webb in Marabea 2010a (pp. 803–807).

134. Isaakidou 2007, p. 14. Also, it should be remembered that until recently in rural and even urban areas in Greece meat was consumed basically on Sundays and at major religious festivals.

AN AIGINETAN TECHNOLOGICAL SHIFT?

Recent analyses have documented the use of two distinct clays, noncalcareous and calcareous, for the construction of different types of pots in Late Mycenaean Aigina, cooking (and related) ware and table ware, respectively, which were fired under different conditions. This identified contrast has been argued to be the result of two separate pottery traditions performed by different pottery groups on the island, and, furthermore, that the different traditions employed different manufacturing techniques (handmade for the noncalcareous fabric and wheel-thrown for the calcareous).[135]

In the previous section, macroscopic study suggested the use of the wheel in the wheel-coiled/fashioned production of coarse/cooking wares in Late Mycenaean Aigina (i.e., in the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period). Before an explanation of this is attempted, it is useful to summarize some facts and evidence pertaining to Late Mycenaean Aiginetan pottery production.

First, it has been clearly documented at Kanakia that the kitchenware repertoire was greatly expanded in the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period, if not already in LH IIIA.[136] With particular reference to the cooking pots, this change should have had an impact on culinary practices as well. Second, macroscopically, the LH IIIB–IIIC Early kitchenware fabric appears to be finer (see p. 492, above) in the case of the tripod cooking pots, cooking jugs, cooking jars, and basins.[137] Though one is not dealing with a totally new recipe, there seems to be a modification that, interestingly, coincides with additions to the repertoire of Aiginetan pottery. Third, the last traditional handmade Aiginetan Matt-Painted, Bichrome Painted, Solidly Painted, and plain pots were produced in LH IIIA.[138] Interestingly, before the abandonment of these categories, there is evidence that an attempt was made to construct them on the wheel.[139] From the LH IIIA period onward, the only traditional pottery produced on the island was the coarse/kitchenware variety.[140] And finally, around the same time, the marking system of the pots underwent significant changes.[141]

All the above may suggest that a technological adjustment occurred on Aigina in the Late Mycenaean period. This change encompassed the abandonment of the traditional fine-ware pottery and the modification of the production and expansion of the coarse/kitchenware categories.

Though ethnographic evidence usually suggests that potters generally tend to be technologically conservative,[142] ethnographic studies have also

135. See Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, pp. 253–254; also Gilstrap, Day, and Kilikoglou 2016.

136. In a recent paper, Gauss and colleagues (2017, p. 51) reach the same conclusion: in the LH IIIA–IIIC Early period, Aigina exported, apart from tripod pots and jars, other forms: tubs, lids, pithoid jars, pithoi, basins, kraters, and braziers. The identification of the latter form (brazier) on the basis of the sherd depicted in their figure 6:9 is doubtful, as it could also be a lid (now drawn upside down), or a kind of dish. From the remaining six other forms, five had already been documented and published from Salamis (see n. 5, above). For an earlier, different view on the Aiginetan kitchenware typology of the Late Mycenaean period, see Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, p. 253.

137. This is the same also in the case of the bathtub. For the pithoi, jars/pithoid jars, and amphoras, the size of the pots seems to affect the size and the sorting of the aplastic inclusions.

138. See Lindblom 2001, p. 41; Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, pp. 222–223.

139. Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, p. 253.

140. Of course, the Aiginetans continued to produce "Mycenaean-style" pottery (e.g., Gilstrap 2014, pp. 36–37).

141. Lindblom 2001, p. 117.

142. It goes beyond the scope of this publication to review the theoretical archaeological paradigms that have influenced the ethnoarchaeological strategies; for a useful summary, see, e.g., Wayessa 2015, pp. 387–390. It perhaps would be best to recognize that both functional requirements

shown that external pressure and internal conditions are major contributors to change in pottery production, both at the functional and stylistic level and/or in its organization.[143] An innovation may be triggered if biological or social survival depends on it.[144] Furthermore, technological change and innovation may be a top-down and/or bottom-up process, depending on the specific cultural context of a given society.[145] In sum, one needs to focus on the specific context of the society under investigation and avoid a priori generalizations on pottery conservatism.

In our case, a significant event in the LH IIIA Mycenaean world is the emergence of the palaces on the Greek mainland, which, among others, produced vast quantities of wheelmade fine wares. The increasing pressure from the workshops of the Palatial period should have had a serious negative impact on the related traditional handmade fine pottery of Aigina, which ultimately ceased to be produced within the same period, even though potters did try to modify their construction by making some vessels on the wheel.

Thus, on one hand, within LH IIIA the Aiginetans ended the production of traditional fine pots, most probably because they could not compete with developing mainland workshops. On the other hand, in the same period (certainly in the following LH IIIB period) a modification in coarse/kitchenware pottery took place, which is evidenced rather clearly at Kanakia. It seems plausible that the Aiginetan potters made a technological choice in order to adapt to, and eventually survive, the new circumstances that the emergence of the palatial centers brought about:[146] they resorted to focusing on the production of the coarse/kitchenware pottery, making it their most desirable product (particularly the cooking pots).[147] The expansion of the kitchenware repertoire and the technological modifications could be interpreted within this framework. It has been shown that wheel-shaping is comparable to the handmade technique in the time required to produce pots.[148] In other words, using the suggested wheel-shaping technique, the Aiginetan potters did not produce significantly more pots; however, they could have enhanced the overall appearance and function of their kitchenware pots (e.g., the thinning of the rounded bottom of the tripod cooking pots).

From the point of view of the consumers, the new (cooking) products visually were not significantly different from the previous ones, and there is no reason to think that the choice to use Aiginetan pots was challenged. Differences in objects should exceed ca. 3% in order to be identified by human visual perception without the use of a physical standard such as a ruler.[149] Yet the efficiency and range of use of the new pots should

and social (and cultural) needs may influence the production of objects—in this case, pottery. On the variability of the ethnoarchaeological findings, see, e.g., Hegmon 2000; for a general conservatism in pottery making, see Rice 1987, p. 244.

143. For changes in the pottery production of the Kalinga in the Philippines as a reaction to political and environmental factors, see, e.g., Stark 1991. Also Nicklin (1971), after surveying a large corpus of ethnographic studies, has concluded that economic and other factors tend to bring about changes in pottery manufacture.

144. See Santacreu 2014, p. 262.

145. See Stark and Longacre 1993.

146. Marabea 2010a, pp. 228–230.

147. Thér, Mangel, and Gregor (2017, pp. 1259–1260) comment that a technological innovation may refer to process innovation, which may or may not influence some characteristics of products, or to product innovation, which may change the production process.

148. See Roux and Courty 1998, p. 748; Thér, Mangel, and Gregor 2017, p. 1259.

149. See Eerkens and Bettinger 2001, p. 495.

have been improved, and this is expected to have been acknowledged by consumers.[150]

Within this framework, it is interesting to note that, despite the production of Mycenaean-style pottery on the island since the beginning of the Late Bronze Age,[151] it is the coarse/kitchenware pottery that is found extensively outside Aigina in the Late Mycenaean period, reaching as far north as Dimini/Iolkos in Thessaly.[152] It must also be added that in this period, the circulation of cooking pottery from other production centers on the mainland did not match the wide distribution of Aiginetan cooking (and related) ware in the central and southern Greek mainland.

The current view regarding Aiginetan pottery production in LH IIIB–IIIC Early favors the simultaneous existence of separate groups of craftspeople performing two distinct pottery practices (or traditions): the "traditional" practice for the construction of cooking pots, with a deep chronological history, and the "Mycenaean" practice for the production of table and related wares, both of which never crossed paths on Aigina.[153] This view is based on a number of arguments: (1) a noncalcareous clay with naturally occurring volcanic aplastic inclusions, which was low fired, was used for the construction of the cooking pots, while the Mycenaean-style pots were made from a calcareous mixed clay with added temper, which was higher fired; and (2) the cooking pots were constructed by hand, whereas table wares and related fine wares were wheelmade.

The macroscopic evidence from Kanakia presented above for the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period does not sufficiently support the existence of two independent groups of craftspeople and traditions on Aigina. Instead, it is suggested that there was some interrelation in the manufacture of the coarse and fine pots. In combination with the proposed employment of the wheel for the wheel-shaping construction of kitchenware pots, the use of different clays and firing temperatures may not necessarily indicate the presence of different groups of potters working in isolation. Rather, it could imply advance knowledge of the raw materials by the Aiginetan potters, a result of long-established expertise, which enabled them to choose the most suitable of the available clays for the manufacture of different types of pots. For example, modern potters at Thrapsano and Margarites in Crete use different clay recipes according to the size and intended use of pots,[154] while a similar case has been detected in Iron Age Galilee.[155]

If there was central administration at Kolonna in the LH III(A–)B period, innovation could have had political origins in relation to the general political and social developments of the Mycenaean world. If, on the other hand, the island was acephalous at that time, innovations could have been triggered by individuals who were well established in their art. As the Late Mycenaean remains at Kolonna were destroyed by subsequent building activities,[156] the social and cultural context of Late Mycenaean Kolonna itself remains obscure, and therefore it is not possible at present to fully investigate whether the proposed changes in pottery corresponded to changes in other areas of its material culture. The existence of the nearby cemetery on Windmill Hill, however, where pottery of LH IIIA2–IIIC has been found along with a limited number of Late Mycenaean sherds (including some of the Pictorial Style, dated stylistically to LH IIIA–IIIC) from the

150. This perhaps should be taken in conjunction with the observation that the iron existing in the terra rossa clays (earthenwares) absorbs bitter flavors in foods, thus improving their quality; see Robinson 2006, p. 51, with references.

151. Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, pp. 220–221. For a LH IIIA pottery kiln at Kolonna with Mycenaean-style pottery, see Gauss 2007, p. 206.

152. Lindblom 2001, p. 44.

153. Gauss and Kiriatzi 2011, pp. 253–254; Gilstrap, Day, and Kilikoglou 2016, p. 507.

154. See Vallianos and Padouva 1986, p. 79. The same authors also mention (p. 18) that Cretan potters are divided into two categories, the ones who produce pithoi and other large pots and those who construct smaller items. The potters often know how to construct the pots of the other category, though as a rule they avoid it.

155. See Shoval, Beck, and Yadin 2006.

156. Gauss (2010, p. 746) acknowledges that "Mycenaean ruins of the Palatial and Postpalatial period were destroyed by later building activity at the Greek sanctuary in the first millennium B.C."

hill of Kolonna, does provide, in the author's opinion, indirect evidence that Kolonna was still active in the LH III(A–)B period.[157] If this is indeed the case, one may as well assume that Kolonna continued its pottery industry, as currently there is no evidence that its production was taken over by another center on Aigina in the Late Mycenaean period.[158] Moreover, the macroscopic picture of the Aiginetan material found at Kanakia, especially the cooking pottery, presents homogeneity in terms of the size and sorting of the aplastic inclusions in the fabric and also in the quality of products, suggesting perhaps highly organized and extensive production.

Certainly, there is now enough evidence to challenge the recently expressed view that the shift in Aiginetan pottery production in the LH IIIA period—that is, the fact that Aigina ceased to produce fine "traditional" pottery—was an indication of the economic and political dominance of Mycenae over Aigina and the Saronic Gulf.[159] For Salamis at least, the macroscopic study of the ceramic material at Kanakia has not yet revealed any substantial quantity (or exclusive importation) of any type of pottery from the Argolid.

PROCUREMENT AND CONSUMPTION OF AIGINETAN COARSE POTTERY AT KANAKIA

An important observation that has been verified steadily over the years at Kanakia is the exclusive procurement of cooking pots from Aigina. Indeed, among thousands of sherds of kitchenware fabric that have been retrieved since the inception of the excavation at Kanakia, only two or three have been found to belong to cooking pots of non-Aiginetan origin. The picture of the vast consumption of exclusively Aiginetan cooking pots at Kanakia, in terms of the range of shapes and their quantity, is so far unique in the Saronic Gulf (outside Aigina).[160]

The remaining coarse-ware pots at Kanakia (pithoi/pithoid jars, jars, amphoras, bathtubs, and vats) are not exclusively of Aiginetan origin. Specific numbers are available only for the Eastern Building Complex, even though they should not be considered representative of the entire residential area of the acropolis and nearby cult area at Pyrgiakoni. More specifically, 15 examples, mostly of jars/pithoid jars, were recorded from the previously mentioned complex, seven of which are of non-Aiginetan provenance. Three examples of amphoras are Aiginetan, while non-Aiginetan bathtubs outnumber Aiginetan ones (parts of 10 and four examples, respectively).

This special relationship with Aigina is evidenced only with regard to the cooking pots, as other groups of pottery, both fine and coarse, are imported from various other regions. In fact, all pottery at Kanakia appears to have been imported from close or more distant places: Aigina, Attica, the northeastern Peloponnese, and Crete.[161] With regard to the imported Attic pottery, fine-ware pottery at Kanakia, such as amphoras/hydriai/jugs and basins, is macroscopically compatible with the material excavated in the Late Mycenaean workshop at Kontopigado, Alimos.[162]

The absence of suitable clay beds in Salamis must have forced locals to turn to other areas for the procurement of pots. So far, the only secure

157. For the cemetery on Windmill Hill, see Keramopoullos 1910, pp. 182–208, tables 4–6; Hiller 1975; Higgins 1979, pp. 14–15. For Late Mycenaean sherds from the hill of Kolonna, see Hiller 1975, 2006. A recently expressed view (Deger-Jalkotzy 2009) that the acropolis at Kanakia was established by Aiginetan refugees from Kolonna in LH IIIB2 is based on a number of suppositions, without taking into full account the available evidence; for a full discussion, see Marabea 2012, pp. 184–185.

158. Lazarides, in the inland of eastern Aigina and at a long distance from the sea, located at a height of 332 m, flourished in the 14th and 13th centuries B.C., and it was abandoned, like Kolonna, at the end of the 13th/beginning of 12th century B.C. (see, e.g., Polychronakou-Sgouritsa 2012; Sgouritsa 2015; Salavoura 2014, pp. 79–87). It was an important settlement of this period, though the published material so far does not provide evidence for local pottery production.

159. See Tartaron 2013, pp. 233–235.

160. The publication of the pottery from Lazarides on Aigina and Ayios Konstantinos on Methana will probably provide comparable material.

161. See Marabea 2010a, pp. 215–224.

162. For analyses that have confirmed this observation, see Gilstrap, Day, and Kilikoglou 2016.

evidence for production of ceramics on Salamis is the Hellenistic tile works at Kanakia, which is located below the Mycenaean acropolis and only partly investigated by the University of Ioannina excavation team.[163]

Concentrating in the Saronic Gulf in order to eliminate the factor of geographical distance, which could affect the acquisition of Aiginetan pots, it becomes apparent that the distribution of Aiginetan pots in other settlements of this area is uneven.[164] In theory, the Late Mycenaean settlements around the Saronic Gulf geographically had the same prospect of obtaining Aiginetan pots, as the distances between each of them and Aigina do not differ markedly. As the cooking pot assemblage in each settlement does not have to be formed in the same way,[165] however, the Aiginetan element varies. For example, at Kanakia all cooking pots are Aiginetan, at Kontopigado in the area of Alimos, Attica, a little less than half of those in deposit 1 are from Aigina, and at Eleusis the Aiginetan cooking pots are few in the LH IIIB period.[166]

In the Saronic Gulf, Late Mycenaean cooking pots were produced at, apart from Aigina, Kontopigado in Alimos.[167] Why did the Salaminians at Kanakia prefer only the Aiginetan cooking pots? Certainly the close proximity between Kanakia and Aigina facilitated the acquisition of Aiginetan cooking pots, though this geographic aspect should not be the only reason, as the central location of Kanakia in the context of the (western) Saronic Gulf reinforces contacts with neighboring regions. Theoretically, and on the basis of contacts that had been established with other regions, as evidenced by the importation of their respective pottery, Kanakia could have acquired cooking pots from Attica (Alimos) and even the Peloponnese, apart from Aigina. In that case, a substantial percentage of non-Aiginetan cooking pots should have been expected at Kanakia. The aforementioned identification of two to three sherds of non-Aiginetan cooking pots offers very thin evidence for the procurement of non-Aiginetan examples at Kanakia and may be considered accidental.

In general, the presence of locally made cooking pots in an area is related to the stage of production. In order to document the second stage, that of the distribution/circulation and ultimately consumption of these pots in other areas, one first needs to investigate whether they indeed were available for dissemination outside their production area. Thus, in such a framework there are two options: (1) locally made cooking pots were available for distribution to other areas; or (2) they were produced for strictly local needs, and thus they are not to be found outside the sphere of the production locus.

Assuming that cooking pots were available for distribution from a number of production centers, one is faced with a situation where Kanakia preferred only the Aiginetan ones. This circumstance could imply that the Aiginetan pots were superior in terms of duration of use and efficiency of performance;[168] it also indicates that they were not used only for boiling or simmering. Certainly, the noted theory that the Aiginetan cooking repertoire of the Late Mycenaean period consisted only of tripod pots and jars has contributed to notions of assumed cooking habits. If that were the case, pots suitable for other cooking techniques would have been sought from other production centers in order to cover the cooking needs of the Salaminian population. The other alternative, that the inhabitants of Kanakia might

163. See Lolos 2014.

164. The discussion of the possible modes of distribution is beyond the scope of this article.

165. In other words, it is site centered—i.e., the consumption of Aiginetan pots at different sites is context specific. Therefore, it is impossible, within the framework of this article, to interpret the presence of Aiginetan pots and their consumption patterns at several sites in the central and southern mainland of Greece.

166. For Kontopigado, Alimos, see Kaza-Papageorgiou and Kardamaki 2011, p. 216. The Aiginetan repertoire at Alimos consists of one-and two-handled tripod cooking pots, carinated tripod cooking pots, jars/amphoras, and spouted kraters. The same frequency (ca. 45%) has been recorded by Lis (2012a, p. 1206) at LH IIIB2 Mitrou; there, the Aiginetan component comprises tripods, jars, basins, and possibly the spouted krater (see Lis 2012b, pp. 134–140, figs. 41, 42, 45). For Eleusis, see Cosmopoulos 2014, pp. 295, 457, but only rounded and carinated tripod cooking pots have been recorded.

167. See Kaza-Papageorgiou and Kardamaki 2011, pp. 216–218; Gilstrap, Day, and Kilikoglou 2016.

168. Cf. modern Kentri in Crete, where a potter very quickly had to abandon his production of cooking pots as local people preferred well-established Siphniot ones; see Blitzer 1984, pp. 145, 149.

have preferred to eat only stews and boiled food, is highly improbable. Additionally, the rock cavities at Kanakia indirectly indicate that techniques like grilling, which do not involve pots, also could have been performed.[169]

The other option, that cooking pots were not distributed outside the area of production, may be interpreted variously: they could have been produced exclusively for local consumption, either within the realm of the kitchen or for a special industrial use. In both cases, they were not on the market. What one is faced with at Kanakia, that is, the exclusive consumption of Aiginetan cooking pots in the LH IIIB–IIIC Early period, may be the result of

1. traditional ties in terms of geographical proximity and accessibility;
2. the superior performance of the Aiginetan *extended* cooking repertoire, which was appropriate for different cooking modes; and
3. the possibility that Aigina might have been the major (perhaps only?) cooking pot supplier in the Saronic Gulf, the area that was a vital sphere for Kanakia.

On a political note, the question as to whether pottery is an indicator of political dominance is context specific and bound to the historical trajectory of an area. The same holds true for palatial interest in pottery production. The absence of palatial control of pottery production, which has been documented at Pylos by Whitelaw,[170] should not be generalized and applied a priori in every case, as there is no reason for all palaces to have exactly the same interests. In the author's view, the same notion should apply for the Linear B tablets in general: as the main bulk of them on the mainland come from Pylos, palatial interest, or indifference, in the economic aspects they document should pertain only to the Pylian state and not necessarily to the rest of the Mycenaean world. The pottery workshop at Kontopigado, one of the workshops of the Athenian palace-state,[171] is an informative example of a specific palace possibly controlling the production of pottery.

In the present case, despite the existence of the palatial centers at Athens and in the Argolid, and the major centers of Kolonna on Aigina and Corinth (the latter probably part of a palace-state), pottery offers no evidence in favor of a Salaminian attachment to or special relationship with any of the previously mentioned realms in the form of exclusive (or almost exclusive) pottery importation. The pottery, and the material culture in general, render the urban center at Kanakia (and Salamis) an independent political entity in the Saronic Gulf. Occupying a crucial geographical position, this important harbor-site had an active role in the palace-centered political system that emerged in central and southern Greece in the Late Mycenaean period.

169. See Morrison 2017, p. 154.

170. Whitelaw 2001.

171. The forthcoming doctoral dissertation by Apostolos Papadimitriou (Department of History and Archaeology, University of Ioannina) will present a rich body of evidence for LH IIIB occupation of the area (lower town) east and south of the Acropolis of Athens, and it is expected to greatly enhance our knowledge of Athens during the Palatial period. Privitera's redating (2013, esp. pp. 60–65) of two, if not all five, terraces on the Acropolis of Athens in the LH IIIC Early period (thus isolating Athens from a palatial system) is based on a (lost?) sherd, which, in this author's opinion, does not provide enough evidence.

CONCLUSIONS

This overview has attempted to bring together all macroscopic observations and evidence concerning the kitchenware pottery found at Kanakia-Pyrgiakoni, the Mycenaean capital of Salamis. Special focus has been placed on the cooking pots, since they are of exclusively Aiginetan origin.

It has been shown that Aigina very probably experienced technological modification in its pottery production in the Late Mycenaean period in the form of an extended kitchenware pottery repertoire, most of which appears to have been constructed with the wheel-shaping technique. Future additional material from the ongoing study of the excavated buildings at Kanakia-Pyrgiakoni will certainly add quantitative and other data to macroscopic observations. With the publication of Aiginetan material from other Late Mycenaean sites as well, more light will be shed on whether these new pots were late additions, in terms of chronology, or were ordered and used in a specific social context. Current evidence from Kanakia seems to support both explanations, which may not be mutually exclusive. It does not appear to be a coincidence that new types of the "regular" shapes (tripod cooking pots and basins) have been mostly found in or around the double megaron on the acropolis and in the large cult building at Pyrgiakoni. Their use in formal practices (i.e., ceremonial gatherings and feasting) is highly probable. Furthermore, burning and carbonization marks on the pots have been used to suggest a wider range of cooking modes than usually assumed.

Hopefully this article forms a firm basis for the study of the Late Mycenaean Aiginetan coarse pottery and its modifications, in terms of fabric and manufacture, in relation to previous periods. With the future integration of additional material and analyses, it will be possible to further address more specialized issues, such as the technological aspects of the construction of pots, organization of production, and local consumption and cuisine.

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