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Anastasia Dimoula, Zoï Tsirtsoni, Soultana Maria Valamoti

► To cite this version:

Anastasia Dimoula, Zoï Tsirtsoni, Soultana Maria Valamoti. Ceramic cooking dishes in the prehistoric Aegean: an exploration of their variability and uses. *Hesperia*, 2022, 91 (1), pp.1-61. hal-03025978

HAL Id: hal-03025978

<https://hal.science/hal-03025978>

Submitted on 5 Jan 2023

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HESPERIA

THE JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOL
OF CLASSICAL STUDIES AT ATHENS

VOLUME 91
2022



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CERAMIC COOKING DISHES IN THE PREHISTORIC AEGEAN

VARIABILITY AND USES

ABSTRACT

This article discusses the history of cooking dishes—namely, large, open and shallow, undecorated ceramic vessels—following their diachronic development from the Neolithic to the Iron Age (6th millennium to 8th century B.C.), and their synchronic distribution across the Aegean and the Balkans. The methodological approach involves a synthesis of the information available in the archaeological literature, including experimental and ethnographic material. The morphological, technological, and functional attributes of cooking dishes are reviewed, and their contexts of use are reconstructed. The ultimate aim is to deduce the role of these vessels in past culinary activities, to contribute to discussions on their function(s), and to aid ceramicists in further developing protocols for future analyses and experimentation.

INTRODUCTION

Ceramic vessels have been essential elements in the processes of food transformation, storage, and consumption for several millennia.¹ Characteristics of shape, capacity, and technology, especially those concerning the pot's contact with fire for cooking, are closely linked to the desired function as well as to perceptions and traditions generated within social groups. These perceptions and traditions in turn are associated with access

1. This synthesis is part of a large-scale study on Aegean and southeast European cooking vessels, conducted as part of the research program “PlantCult: Identifying the Food Cultures of Ancient Europe. An Interdisciplinary Investigation of Plant Ingredients, Culinary Transformation, and Evolution through Time” (see Valamoti et al. 2017), funded by the European Research Council under

the European Union’s “Horizon 2020” research and innovation program (grant agreement 682529, consolidator grant 2016–2021). Data was recorded in a database designed by the authors and developed by Panagiotis Tokmakidis and Themistoklis Roustanis as part of the PlantCult relational database. Tasos Bekiaris undertook image processing, and Roustanis drafted the maps. The authors wish to thank all of their

archaeologist colleagues who offered unpublished information on cooking dishes, and the professional potter Giannis Stangidis for his experiential views on manufacturing concerns. Finally, we are grateful to Jeremy Rutter for his invaluable insight and support, and to the two anonymous reviewers for their very constructive comments on our manuscript.

to raw materials, as well as with interrelationships within communities or on a regional scale. Under these circumstances, the ability to positively identify ceramics from the archaeological record as cooking vessels is not straightforward. Among the criteria taken into account are morphology, fabric, and surface treatment, possible traces of fire or food residues, and evidence of connection with cooking facilities/areas.² It should be kept in mind, however, that most of these features are equivocal: fabrics with good thermal behavior might have been appreciated by potters for other purposes; secondary firing can seriously modify original use-traces; and vessels found near hearths or ovens might also have had other uses. Last, but not least, cooking vessels themselves occasionally could have served other needs.

This article discusses a specific category of ceramic vessels with distinctive morphological and technological features, which appears at different times and places in the prehistoric Aegean and is usually considered to be used for cooking or baking. These vessels are open, large in diameter (40–60 cm) and proportionally shallow (H. <10–15 cm), and circular or oval in plan, with a curved or flat base and wall and a simple or outturned rim. They sometimes feature handles or lugs and occasionally perforations under the rim. The clays used for their manufacture contain many inclusions, though they are not necessarily coarse. Unlike other ceramic vessels, they always have a rough exterior surface, while the interior is smoothed or burnished. Fire traces, when observed, are usually limited to the exterior. Such vessels are encountered in the archaeological literature under an array of names, most of which reflect the cooking/baking hypothesis (English: baking pans, baking plates, cooking pans, cooking dishes, cooking trays; German: *Backtellern*, *Backwannen*, *Pfannen*; Greek: *ταψιά*), although other names, either neutral (French: *plateaux*, *plats*, *plaques*) or suggesting a different function (English: cheese pots), are also recorded.

In the following article, all of the above are grouped under the general term “cooking dish” not only because it is attested more frequently in the relevant literature,³ but also because the term appears more neutral than its main rival, “cooking pan.”⁴ This neutral terminology is advantageous, as it thereby emphasizes the possibility for this kind of vessel to have served other purposes. Furthermore, we prefer the term “dish” over “plate,” as the former seems to be more flexible from a morphological point of view. Plates are usually conceived of as shallower,⁵ or smaller in size, than dishes.⁶ It

2. See Rice 1987; Skibo 2013; Spataro and Villing 2015.

3. Esp. in the bibliography about Minoan Crete, following the pioneering study of Betancourt 1980. For detailed references, see the Appendix, below. The sites referenced in the Appendix are referred to in the text by their bolded site number for ease of reference.

4. Preferred by archaeologists working on the southern Greek

mainland: e.g., Blegen 1921, 1928, 1937; Phelps 2004; Pullen 2011. See also the Appendix.

5. See, e.g., Pullen 2011, pp. 192, 373; Alberti 2016, pp. 74–75; Day et al. 2016, p. 50.

6. In the multilingual lexicon of pottery drawn up by Balfet, Fauvet-Berthelot, and Monzon 1988, the two terms are equivalent to the French *assiette* and *plat*, which are defined as

equally shallow (Diam. \geq to 5 times the H.), with plates being simply smaller than dishes (the limit being placed at 23/24 cm: Balfet, Fauvet-Berthelot, and Monzon 1989, p. 10). No equivalent is given for the French term *plats creux* (= big open vessels deeper than dishes; Diam. between ca. 2.5 and 5 times the H.). So defined, most of the vessels discussed here actually would be dishes or “deep dishes.”

should be stressed, however, that all the vessels discussed here under the label “cooking dish” are not identical in design, manufacture, or proportions. They do not form a single pottery type; rather, they comprise a broad family of types defined by a series of characteristics that, taken together, distinguish them from other vessel-type groups.

These vessels have thus far been studied primarily on an individual-site basis, and only occasionally does one find some discussion of cultural, temporal, or spatial affinities on a small or medium scale. This circumstance gives the impression that the different types attested each time represent autonomous creations, connected only with the social and technical environment of their specific chrono-geographical framework (for example, Early Bronze Age [EBA] southern Greece, Minoan Crete). Their history appears, however, much more intriguing from a wider perspective, either geographical or chronological. Indeed, if we consider the entire Aegean region from the beginning of pottery-making (that is, the start of the Neolithic in the second half of the 7th millennium B.C.) to the advent of historic times, it becomes possible to observe a sequence and reconstruct the palimpsest of different cultural and culinary contexts in which this specific type of cooking vessel functioned, thus initiating a discussion of the adoption or abandonment of practices related to pottery and cooking technology.

In parts of Europe and the eastern Mediterranean, open shallow vessels are encountered in various contexts—temporal, spatial, and cultural. However, the specific category examined here is characterized by a limited presence or even an absence in some regions, in contrast to its early appearance and persistence over time in the Aegean. With the exception of some early specimens in present-day southern Bulgaria and North Macedonia (which are actually part of the Aegean trend), no ceramic cooking dishes are reported from the entire Balkan region during the Neolithic and Bronze Age. As for the Late Neolithic (LN) “baking pans” from Serbia⁷ (early 5th millennium B.C.) and the subsequent “baking plates” of central Europe (late 5th and early 4th millennia B.C.), these specimens are actually small- and medium-sized flat trays, interpreted as vessels used for baking bread, the morphology of which has little in common with that of Aegean cooking dishes.⁸

In the eastern Mediterranean, vessels like those considered here are not attested before historic times, although simple “roasting trays” or small “bread molds” are known from the local Chalcolithic period—that is, the late 5th millennium B.C.⁹ Large dishes with slipped and/or burnished surfaces are found in the Levant during the EBA, but they do not seem to be connected with any cooking or baking function.¹⁰ Baking trays, smaller in diameter (25–40 cm) with elaborate molded rims, appear in Syria during the EBA and are found in limited numbers throughout the Levant during the Middle and Late Bronze Ages (MBA–LBA); they are interpreted as vessels used on special occasions for baking bread or flat pies.¹¹ In Egypt, fragments of large dishes made from coarse clay are found in contexts of the 4th millennium B.C., but they are interpreted as vessels used for display.¹² Egyptian “bread molds,” when they are not tall and conical, appear as extremely thick-walled bowls, usually small, which are very different from the Aegean cooking dishes.¹³

7. See, e.g., Vinča: Vučović 2013. These vessels, featuring lugs, are presumed to be used for baking bread in ovens.

8. Pétrequin and Pétrequin 2015. It is mainly the presence of perforations below the rim that recalls the coeval dishes in the Aegean; see below, type 2.1.

9. London 2016.

10. De Miroschedji 1988; Greenberg 2000.

11. Zukerman 2014.

12. Buchez 2002.

13. Chazan and Lehner 1990; Vereecken 2013.

The question that unavoidably arises is that of the ultimate practical purpose, or purposes, of these ceramic vessels. What kind of use would have prompted Aegean potters to conceive of such vessels that is specific enough to be reproduced only among some groups and not in others? What kind of technical or other advantage over other alternatives would have made them so popular in some periods, and what kind of changes would have induced their transformation or complete disappearance in others? In order to address these questions, we have focused on the Aegean regions, basing the current study on the published archaeological evidence in the relevant literature. The aim is to establish when and in which contexts these vessels appear, and to explore their spatiotemporal distribution patterns so as to get closer to understanding their functions and uses, doubtlessly closely related to the ceramic and culinary technologies of each period and area. This article thus surveys a geographical area spreading from Crete to the Sofia plateau in present-day Bulgaria, and a chronological view spanning the Early Neolithic (EN) period to the Early Iron Age (EIA), thereby covering the entire prehistoric (where pottery existed) and protohistoric periods. The large body of data collected, together with other lines of evidence (cooking installations, food remains), offers a unique opportunity to explore aspects of pottery technology and production, along with culinary practices.

PROJECT AIMS AND METHODOLOGY

The goal of our project is to narrate the history of cooking dishes, as defined here, throughout the Neolithic, Bronze Age, and Iron Age (from the 6th millennium to the 8th century B.C.), and follow their synchronous distribution across the Aegean and the southern Balkans, specifically Greece and adjacent areas of Bulgaria, North Macedonia, and Turkey. A comprehensive collection and synthesis of data encompassing such a large time span and geographical area is here attempted for the first time. When drawing on the available information in the relevant literature, the primary purpose is to document and review the morphological and technological characteristics of these specific vessels, to examine their contextual associations, and to explore their possible relationships with other features, artifacts, or contents. The ultimate purpose here is to deduce the role of these vessels in either daily or special culinary routines. Comparison with selected experimental and ethnographic examples yields observations about manufacturing as well as about the practical uses and social significance of such vessels.

Naturally, it would take more than a single article to examine all aspects to the same depth over such a broad scope. Some of the questions simply cannot be treated in detail due to a lack of space: it would be impossible to examine every context, but equally, it would be methodologically questionable to focus only on some and thus introduce additional biases to the already heterogeneous record. Other questions seem beyond our reach for the moment, especially those concerning the social parameters of prehistoric culinary practices or those possibly related to individual and/or group identities. The thoughts expressed at the end of our analysis should be considered an initial effort aimed at stimulating future investigations rather

than “closing remarks” of any kind. Finally, this approach aspires not only to encourage discussions on the function(s) and/or use(s) of Aegean cooking dishes based on the nuanced evidence, but also to facilitate ceramicists in developing protocols for future analyses and experiments.

As stated above, the data presented in this article are a product of bibliographical research, comprising refined and reliable information on morphology, technology, context, and functional attributes (for example, through the presence of fire traces [sooting clouds] and/or residues). Therefore, the majority of the data derives from fully published ceramic assemblages (including images and/or drawings), mainly from excavation publications and less from preliminary presentations of studied material or excavation reports.

No firsthand analysis of material is proposed, and whenever material examined by the authors is involved, an effort is made to keep our observations at the same level as the rest. This requirement is essential, otherwise any emphasis on personally studied material from a few select contexts would inevitably introduce bias and risk, altering the broad diachronic perspective of our study. For the same reason, we do not put forward any ready-to-use protocol based on our own direct experience, but rather we make suggestions after evaluating the possibilities and limitations offered by this kind of material over a broader perspective.

The collected data are organized and presented below in terms of (a) typology and distribution; (b) technology and function; and (c) contexts and uses, subdivided by chronological period and geographical region. In order to facilitate analysis and presentation, a series of ceramic types was created to provide a generic image of the vessel shapes and wares. Only the general outline and basic characteristics of the vessel forms were utilized in defining these types, leaving aside minor variations in profiles, which are potentially infinite in handmade pottery. The collected information, together with all bibliographical references, is summarized in an Appendix organized by region and site, chronological periods represented, and types of ceramic cooking dishes present.

It should be stressed beforehand that the vessels under discussion are commonly retrieved in highly fragmented condition due to their large size and frequently thin walls; this circumstance often impedes the reconstruction of the original form. Examples of complete vessels are extremely rare in the archaeological record of the regions and periods under study, and hence the specimens referred to as “well preserved” in the Appendix correspond to more than half of the shape being preserved, sufficient for the measurement of the diameter and a reliable reconstruction. This fragmentation does not allow for statistical data quantification, only rough quantitative estimations. In addition, it often hinders fine comparisons, and in some cases even makes typological subdivisions uncertain. Accordingly, the existence of smaller specimens (Diam. <40 cm) with the same overall morphological characteristics cannot be excluded.

The other major quandary in discussing this vessel category is terminology. As already observed, thus far there is no single term employed in describing these large, shallow, open vessels; for different chronological periods and geographical areas, various terms have been coined. In addition to describing real morphological variations, these terms often mirror

TABLE 1. CHRONOLOGY

<i>Period</i>	<i>Chronological Span</i>
Early Neolithic	6500–5800 B.C.
Middle Neolithic	5800–5400 B.C.
Late Neolithic I	5400–4800 B.C.
Late Neolithic II	4800–4600 B.C.
Final Neolithic	4600–4000 B.C.
Transitional period	4000–3200 B.C.
Early Bronze Age I	3200–2800 B.C.
Early Bronze Age II	2800–2300 B.C.
Early Bronze Age III	2300–2000 B.C.
Middle Bronze Age	2000–1600 B.C.
Late Bronze Age	1600–1100 B.C.
Early Iron Age	1100–800 B.C.

Note: Dates after Manning 1995; Andreou, Fotiadis, and Kotsakis 1996; Treuil et al. 2008; Papadimitriou and Tsirtsoni 2010; Tsirtsoni 2016a, 2016b.

the different epistemological and scholarly backgrounds of researchers. Accordingly, for the Neolithic northern Greek and southern Balkan vessels, the commonest term is the French *plateaux* and its Greek alternative ταψιά,¹⁴ but we also find the terms “rustic” or “rural ware,” referencing their fabric.¹⁵ Vessels of the subsequent Final Neolithic (FN) and Transitional period are predominantly referred to as “cheese pots,” an arbitrary term introduced in the 1930s specifying a use that was never actually archaeologically documented.¹⁶ In the Bronze Age, the predominant terms are “baking pan” for mainland and insular Greece,¹⁷ and “baking” or “cooking plate” and “cooking dish” for Crete.¹⁸ A third term exists in Crete, “cooking tray,” for vessels that are by all accounts similar to plates but commonly supported by legs.¹⁹ In Crete, the two basic types are referred to in French-speaking literature as *plats* and *plaques*, respectively,²⁰ or as *plateaux* and *plats à bord rentré*.²¹ In the Greek bibliography the most common terms are δίσκοι,²² ταψιά,²³ μαγειρικές λεκάνες, and πλάθανα.²⁴

The terminology used for the chronological periods in this article is based on current practices on the Greek side of the Aegean, revised in the light of recent evidence and simplified (Table 1).²⁵ Absolute dates

14. Coined by Tsirtsoni (1999; 2000, p. 45).

15. French 1964, p. 40; Keighley 1986, p. 348; Pernicheva-Perets, Greb-ska-Kulow, and Kulov 2011, p. 130.

16. Heidenreich 1935–1936, p. 139: “Gefässe zur Käsebereitung.”

17. Blegen 1921, p. 13; Coleman 1977, p. 17. See also n. 4, above.

18. Betancourt 1980; Mook 1999. See also nn. 3, 5, above.

19. Betancourt 1980, pp. 5–7.

20. Darcque, Van de Moortel, and Schmid 2014.

21. Poursat and Knappett 2005, pp. 59–60.

22. Andreou 1996–1997.

23. Urem-Kotsou 2006, p. 70.

24. Gerontakou 2000, p. 218.

25. The chronological spans presented in Table 1 are approximate. The term “Transitional period” as used here also contains the stage described as “Proto-Bronze” in Tsirtsoni 2016b.

For the start of the Late Bronze Age, we retain a “round” date of 1600 B.C., more for reasons of simplicity than from any firm attachment to the so-called low chronology (see the debate in Manning 2014, pp. 7–45), although the latest evidence from the field of radiocarbon calibration (Pearson et al. 2018; Van der Plicht et al. 2020) suggests that such a date is indeed possible.

TABLE 2. TYPOLOGY OF AEGEAN CERAMIC COOKING DISHES

Type	Shape Description	Period
TYPE 1		
1.1	convex bottom, thickened everted rim, no handles or lugs; circular or slightly oval plan	MN and LN I
1.2	flat or convex bottom, simple or thickened rim, two triangular lugs (perforated or not) placed on rim; circular or slightly oval plan	
TYPE 2		
2.1	flat base, thick vertical or flaring walls, frequently of unequal height; perforations beneath rim, frequent presence of mastoid- or tongue-shaped lugs in the interior	LN II, FN, and Transitional period
2.2	similar to type 2.1 but without perforations beneath rim	
TYPE 3		
3.1	flat base, vertical or flaring walls; frequently equipped with lugs or spouts	EBA–LBA
3.2	convex bottom, thin walls, frequently with thick offset rim; circular or ellipsoid in plan	EBA–LBA
3.3	flat base, vertical or flaring walls; perforations beneath rim	Late EBA–MBA
TYPE 4		
4	very thick-walled, flat base; plan is circular, ellipsoid, or rectangular with rounded edges	LBA–EIA

are given regularly to facilitate comparisons with alternative schemes and other neighboring regions. It should be noted, however, that it is not always easy to decide, from published data unsupported by absolute dates or by chronologically tight cultural parallels, whether a given group of finds belongs to one period rather than another. This difficulty is especially true for periods with characterizations subjected to discussion, or those that change name and/or meaning from one author or one area to another (for example, Final Neolithic or Chalcolithic; note that the latter term is not used in this article).

COOKING DISH TYPOLOGY AND DISTRIBUTION

We distinguish four main types of cooking dishes, each characterizing a different chronological period or succession of periods. Most are further divided into two or three subtypes according to the presence or absence of specific morphological features (as summarized in Table 2). Some of the types or subtypes also cluster geographically, whereas others are more widespread. The details are presented below.



Figure 1. Map showing the distribution of type 1 cooking dishes (MN and LN I periods). For the site numbers, see the Appendix. © Plant-Cult project archive, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

TYPE 1: MIDDLE AND LATE NEOLITHIC I PERIODS

The earliest phases of the Aegean Neolithic do not provide any evidence for the existence of large dishes, perhaps due to the low degree of functional specialization in this early pottery.²⁶ Large, shallow vessels with medium to coarse fabric, rough outer surfaces, and smooth inner surfaces first appear in archaeological contexts of the early and mid-6th millennium B.C. (ca. 5800–5400 B.C.) in the northern part of the Aegean (Fig. 1), where they continue uninterrupted until ca. 4800 B.C. (type 1). The earliest specimens reported thus far come from a number of sites in the Strymon/Struma valley, up to the Sofia plateau (for example, Bălgărčevo [1], Sapareva Banya [2]), and in the coastal region of Pieria (Paliambela [8], Ritini [7]). After 5400 B.C., they are found in practically all excavated sites in the area, with significant occurrences at Dikili Tash (26) and Sitagroi (24) in eastern Macedonia,

26. Perlès and Vitelli 1994; Perlès 2001; Tsirtsoni 2009.



Figure 2. Type 1.1 cooking dish from Dikili Tash, eastern Macedonia, LN I: interior and exterior (top), profile (below). Dikili Tash 93/302.107/32/1. Scale 1:10. Photos Z. Tsirtsoni; drawing V. Anagnostopoulos; courtesy Z. Tsirtsoni; © Dikili Tash Excavations archive, École française d'Athènes

Dispilio (9) and Avgi (10) in western Macedonia, and Makrygialos (14) and Thermi (16) in the center. In contrast, examples are not reported in any other region of the Aegean at this time. This problem is by no means one of documentation, for there exist numerous well-studied ceramic assemblages for this period—in Thessaly, for instance, or in southern Greece—but none has provided cooking dishes. Similarly, the absence of such vessels in earlier or coeval sites in western and northwestern Anatolia rules out any possible hypothesis about a ceramic concept imported from the East.

Two variants are observed. The first (type 1.1; Fig. 2) has a convex bottom, thickened everted rim, and no handles or lugs. The second (type 1.2; Fig. 3) has a flat or curved bottom and simple or thickened rim, and it features two triangular lugs placed diametrically opposite on the rim, which can be solid or perforated. Some of the vessels seem to be of a slightly ellipsoid rather than circular shape, but in most cases this feature is impossible to discern due to high degrees of fragmentation. The wall thickness varies between 0.3 cm (at the bottom) and 0.8 cm (on the sides). Vessels of the second variant, especially those with a flat bottom, seem to be shallower than those of the first. On the other hand, one cannot always ascertain whether a convex-bottom fragment belonged to a vessel with or without a lug at sites where both are present. The simpler type 1.1 is attested more widely. No difference in chronology is recorded between the two variants, and both seem to disappear completely by the end of the LN I period.

Only the occasional fragment is mentioned from LN II contexts, but no well-preserved example is reported from any site. If this picture is real—and indeed it seems to be, because there are several sites in northern Greece where occupation continues uninterrupted from one period to the next—the first Aegean cooking dishes would have gone out of use as abruptly as they appeared, leaving no descendants in places where they were previously well attested.

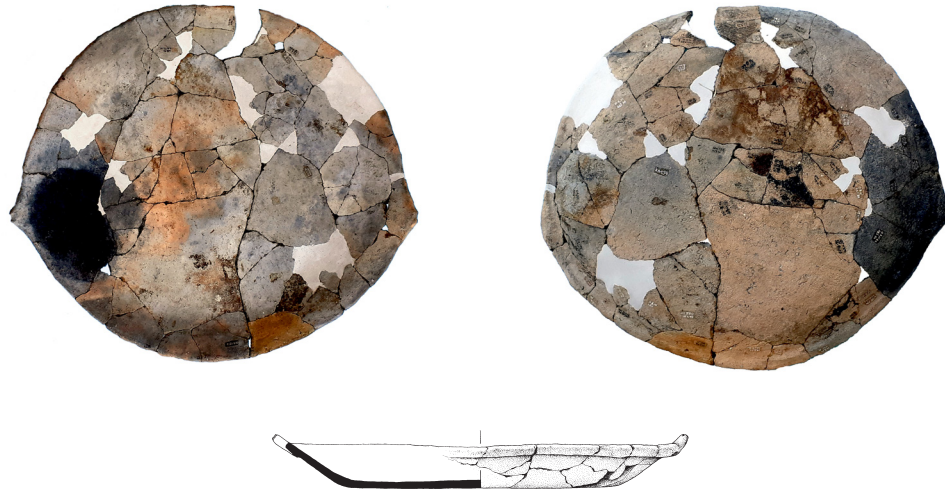


Figure 3. Type 1.2 cooking dish from Dispilio, western Macedonia, LN I: interior and exterior (top), profile (below). Dispilio KA 157. Scale 1:10. Photos T. Bekiaris; drawing I. Jaloshnja; courtesy K. Kotsakis © Dispilio Excavations archive, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

TYPE 2: LATE NEOLITHIC II, FINAL NEOLITHIC, AND TRANSITIONAL PERIODS

A quite different type appears from LN II into the EBA, distributed throughout the Aegean islands and the coastal sites of southern Greece and Asia Minor (Fig. 4): it has a flat base and thick vertical or flaring walls. What primarily differentiates these vessels from those of the previous period, however, is the presence of a series of perforations under the rim, and eventually the presence of lugs of mastoid or tongue shape in the interior (Fig. 5). The rim is often uneven in height and in some cases even upraised, forming a sort of flat handle.²⁷ The existence of vessels with walls of equal height all around is not confirmed, as no complete specimen has been found thus far. Some authors go as far as reconstructing them completely open on one side, like a sort of asymmetrical three-sided box rather than a proper vessel.²⁸ Fragments without the series of perforations are also encountered, but it is impossible to say whether they come from truly different vessels—that is, whether there is a variant with no perforations at all, or if the fragments simply come from different parts of the same vessels. Thus, the distinction of a subtype 2.1, with perforations, and a subtype 2.2, without, is hypothetical at the moment.²⁹

These vessels, usually referred to as “cheese pots,” are initially found in the Cyclades and the eastern Aegean (islands and coast) in the LN II period and become more popular in the following FN and Transitional period—that is, after 4600 B.C., when they acquire the character of a *koine*.³⁰ In some sites of the Dodecanese (for example, Giali [100] on

27. Sampson 1987, p. 90, fig. 128:116, pl. 47:c, right.

28. Derin and Caymaz 2018. The presence of an opening at one side is also seen on fragments from the cave of Alepotrypa (71): see Katsarou 2018, p. 104, fig. 5.4:283; Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, pp. 79–80 (with further references). None is sufficiently

preserved to allow full reconstruction.

29. A rectangular “clay disc” is reported from a LN II deposit at the site of Ftelia (106) in the Cyclades: Sampson 2018, pp. 33–34, figs. 44, 45; Sampson and Tsourouni 2018b, p. 87, fig. 10. Its large dimensions (82 × 63 cm) and profile resemble that of a cooking dish (flat base, vertical rim/

wall). Its fabric is coarse grained, but there is no information on surface treatment. This vessel could be the sole well-preserved specimen of an unperforated (and perfectly symmetrical) cooking dish of type 2 found so far.

30. Marketou 2010, p. 767; Georgiadis 2012, pp. 50–52.



Figure 4. Map showing the distribution of type 2 cooking dishes (LN II, FN, and Transitional periods). For the site numbers, see the Appendix.
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Nisyros, Partheni [99] on Leros), they constitute almost half of the ceramic assemblage.³¹ In Crete, they are retrieved from layers dated to the FN and Transitional periods, both from established sites (Knossos [123], Phaistos [124]) and newly founded ones, sometimes located in “marginal” environments. Therefore, scholars consider them shapes introduced through new networks of settlements in this period.³² In Euboea and central Greece, they also are reported from LN II onward, at both coastal and inland sites, whereas in the Peloponnese “cheese-pot” fragments are found only from the FN period onward.³³

31. Sampson 1987, pp. 89–90.

32. Hallager 2010, p. 406; Nowicki 2014, p. 295.

33. Three “cheese-pot” fragments have been recently recorded in LN II, or possibly LN I, deposits in the

cave of Alepotrypa (71). The author recognizes, however, that they could be intrusive, especially considering their technological similarity with those retrieved from subsequent FN contexts: Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, pp. 80–81.

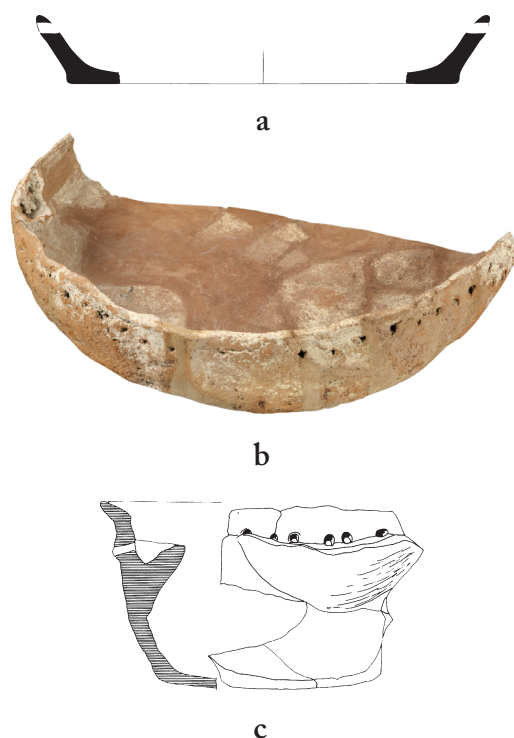


Figure 5. Type 2.1 cooking dishes:

(a) Ftelia, Mykonos, LN II;

(b, c) Tigani, Samos, LN II–FN.

Scale 1:8. Photo (b) courtesy Ephorate of Antiquities of Samos and Ikaria; © Hellenic Ministry of Culture; drawings (a) Doukaki 2009, pl. 4.1; (c) Felsch 1988, no. 243, pl. 61

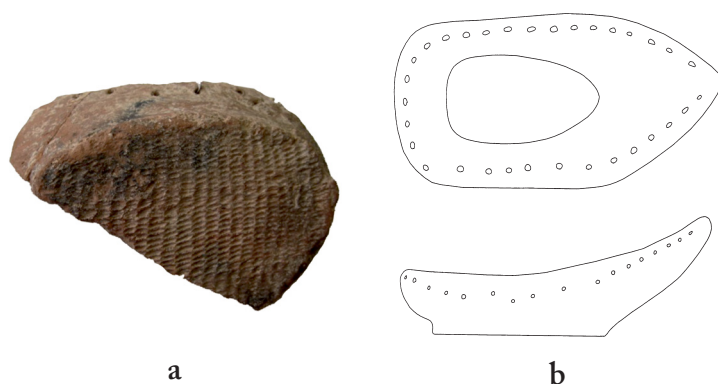


Figure 6. Type 2.1 cooking dishes:

(a) Merenta, Attica, Transitional

period; (b) Tsepi, Attica, Transitional

period. Scale 1:8. Photo (a) Kakavogianni

et al. 2016, fig. 13; © MOM Éditions;

drawing (b) Pantelidou-Gofa 2016, pl. 109,

no. 1782; courtesy Archaeological Society at Athens

Of particular interest are the settlement of Merenta (62) and Tsepi cemetery (60) in eastern Attica, which provide well-preserved examples from the very end of the Transitional period (ca. 3500–3300 B.C.). These specimens demonstrate that at least two distinct shapes exist at this stage: one extremely shallow with thin walls and an obliquely cut opening at one side, which is clearly a precursor of type 3.2 of the next period (see below);³⁴ and one deeper, with an oval plan and thicker asymmetrical walls, which prolongs the Neolithic tradition (Fig. 6).³⁵ It is not possible to ascertain whether the earlier specimens (namely, those of the 5th and early 4th millennia B.C.) also belong to the same shape: the absence of lugs on the preserved vessels, contrasting with their frequent presence on earlier fragments, might indicate that further morphological variations existed and remain undetected by us due to fragmentation.

34. Pantelidou-Gofa 2016, p. 227, pls. 106, 107.

35. Kakavogianni et al. 2009, p. 163, fig. 6; 2016, p. 446, fig. 13; Pantelidou-Gofa 2016, pls. 108, 109 (note that pl. 109, the drawing of no. 1782 reproduced here in Fig. 6:b, is a reconstruction).

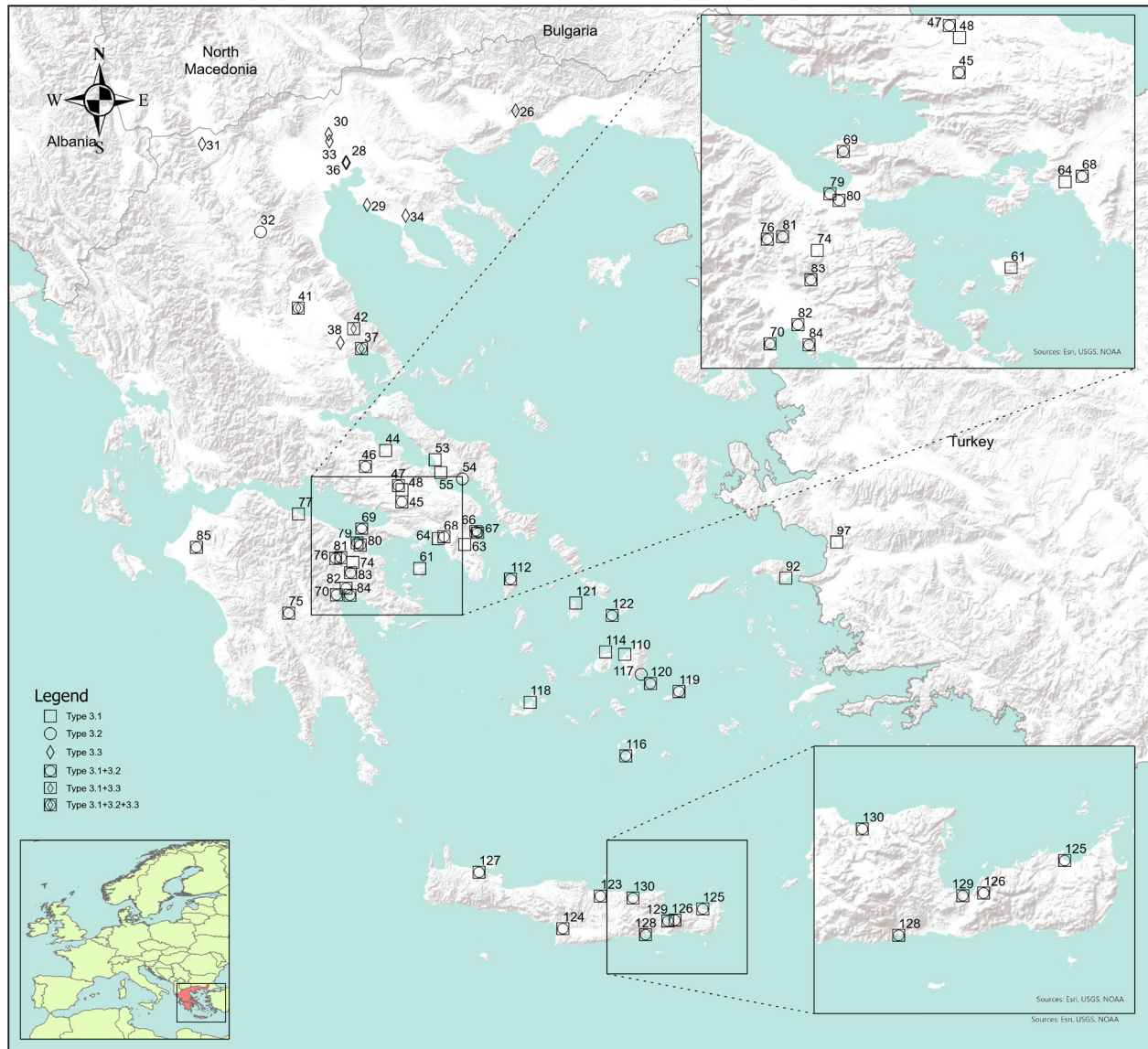


Figure 7. Map showing the distribution of type 3 cooking dishes (EBA). For the site numbers, see the Appendix. © PlantCult project archive, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

Interestingly, “cheese pots,” either perforated or unperforated, are not attested in northern Greece or the adjacent areas to the north, despite the presence of several well-studied assemblages for this period, especially for the 5th millennium B.C. The northernmost point of distribution is Thessaly: in sites like Pefkakia (37) or Palioskala (42), in particular, they are present from the LN through the EBA.

TYPE 3: EARLY BRONZE AGE

Type 3 bears three subtypes and shows a wide distribution through the Aegean (Fig. 7). Two shapes are attested in the EBA period. The first (type 3.1; Fig. 8) can be seen as a direct, if hypothetical, descendant of the previous supposed FN and Transitional unperforated “cheese pot” (type 2.2); this vessel is now commonly labeled “baking pan” (in the Greek mainland

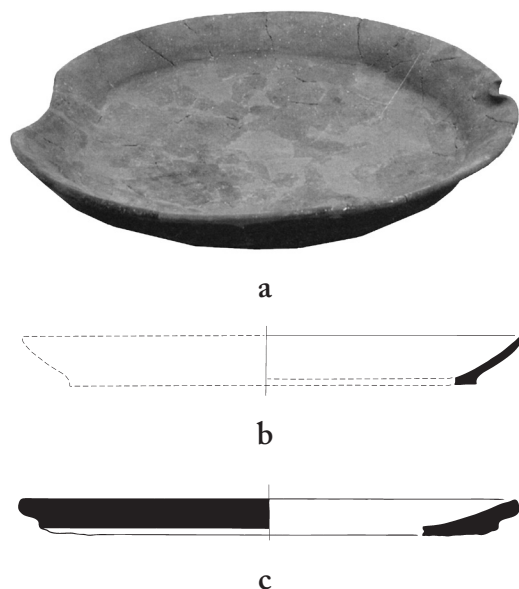


Figure 8. Type 3.1 cooking dishes, EBA: (a) Akrotiri, Thera; (b) Myrtos, Crete; (c) Tsoungiza, Peloponnese. Scale 1:8. (a) Sotirakopoulou 2008, p. 125, fig. 14.6; (b) Warren 1972, p. 163, fig. 47; courtesy British School at Athens; (c) Pullen 2011, p. 190, fig. 4.20; © American School of Classical Studies at Athens

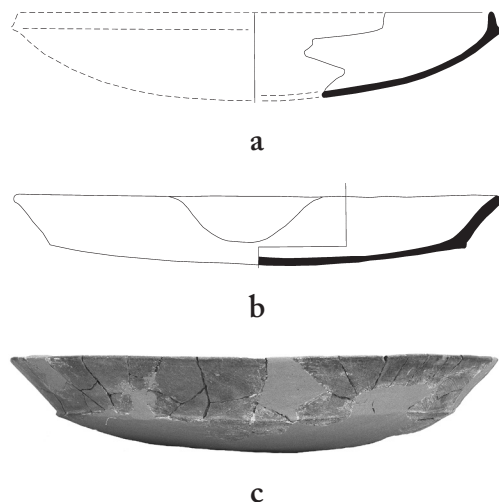


Figure 9. Type 3.2 cooking dishes, EBA: (a) Myrtos, Crete; (b) Lerna, Peloponnese; (c) Korakou, Peloponnese. Scale 1:8. (a) Warren 1972, p. 162, fig. 46; (b) Wiencke 2000, p. 535, fig. II.74; (c) Blegen 1921, p. 13, fig. 15; courtesy (a) British School at Athens, (b, c) American School of Classical Studies at Athens

and Aegean islands) or “baking/cooking plate or tray” (in Crete). They are frequently equipped with handles, lugs, and spouts, while the height of their walls is in some cases shorter than that of the next type: convex-based vessels (type 3.2; Fig. 9). This subtype includes vessels that are circular or ellipsoid in plan, with thin walls, curved bottoms, and a simple or thick offset rim, and they are reminiscent of the much earlier (MN–LN I) northern Greek and southern Bulgarian *plateaux* (see above, type 1.1).

Both types are widely spread throughout the Aegean as far north as Thessaly, but type 3.2 appears to be slightly later in date and concentrated more in Early Helladic (EH) II contexts. More specifically, type 3.2 vessels of the Greek southern and central mainland have a circular or ellipsoid plan, a convex thin base, and flaring walls forming a sharp angle on the exterior; the rim often dips down abruptly, forming a broad spout that is occasionally accompanied by a strip of clay on the interior of the rim, and by one or two small holes on either side (Fig. 9:b, c). A unique, restored example

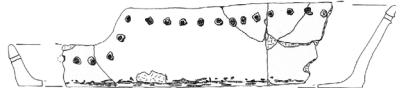


Figure 10. Type 3.3 cooking dish from Pefkakia, Thessaly, advanced EBA. Scale 1:8. Christmann 1996, pl. 75:7; © Rudolf Habelt GmbH

that shares some morphological characteristics with these spouted convex-based dishes comes from the site of Servia (32) in western Macedonia, a settlement that shared common cultural elements with southern areas.³⁶

In the later phases of the EBA, a perforated version (type 3.3; Fig. 10) appears again, reminiscent of the earlier (LN II–FN–Transitional) type 2.1. Such vessels are reported so far only in Thessaly and central and eastern Macedonia. These examples distinguish themselves from their “predecessors” of the LN II–FN–Transitional period by a more careful processing of the exterior.

TYPES 3 AND 4: MIDDLE AND LATE BRONZE AGES, AND EARLY IRON AGE

After the EBA, evidence of vessels that are large in diameter but shallow is scant in mainland Greece, both in the northern and southern regions (Fig. 11). This circumstance could be related to characteristics of the Middle Helladic (MH) period, both in the general austerity of its material culture and in the relative dearth of focused analytical study.³⁷ Yet it is noteworthy that none of the large ceramic assemblages published in recent years (for example, Aigina Kolonna [61] or Orchomenos [46]) seems to contain any such vessels.³⁸ An exception are the sites of Argissa (41) and Pefkakia (37) in Thessaly, where these types of vessels continue to be in use from the EBA to the MBA, featuring similar morphological characteristics: coarse fabric, with or without perforations below the rim (types 3.1 and 3.3), and sometimes with tongue-shaped lugs in the interior (another morphological element that connects these vessels to the “cheese pots” above of type 2.1). Even so, their presence appears to cease during the course of the Middle Bronze Age.³⁹

In contrast, large shallow vessels are integral components of MBA and LBA ceramic assemblages of the Cyclades and, in particular, Crete. Types 3.1 and 3.2 continue uninterrupted through the entire Middle and Late Minoan (MM–LM) period in Crete, whereas in the Cyclades only the flat-based type 3.1 appears to be in use. Convex-based cooking dishes (type 3.2; Figs. 12, 13) are frequently ellipsoid in plan; their rim is heavy, straight, or upturned with variations (for example, vertical, flaring, or incurving), while their walls and especially their bases are extremely thin. They often feature spouts formed by adjusting the rim, which are usually quite large and placed on the narrow side of the vessel, while in other cases the rim is turned in and/or out on either side of the vessel, forming a crescent-like lug. The boundary between the rim and the lower portion is commonly demarcated by a ridge.

In LBA mainland Greece, these types of vessels seem to be absent from archaeological contexts, at least on the basis of published data.⁴⁰ Only at Nichoria (86) in the southern Peloponnese are three convex-based cooking dishes reported from the same building, but they are probably Cretan. In the other Mycenaean sites there are vessels referred to as “baking pans” or “trays,” but these examples display different morphological characteristics than those discussed in this article, and they probably had different functions and uses. They are smaller in diameter (<40 cm), commonly feature handles, and carry lids, as indicated by the beveled or stepped formation of the inner rim.⁴¹

36. Wijnen et al. 1979, p. 224.

37. See Philippa-Touchais et al. 2010.

38. Sarri 2010; Gauss and Kiriati 2011.

39. Maran 1992, p. 142.

40. See Hruby and Trusty 2017; Marabea 2019.

41. See Blegen 1928, p. 165, fig. 160.

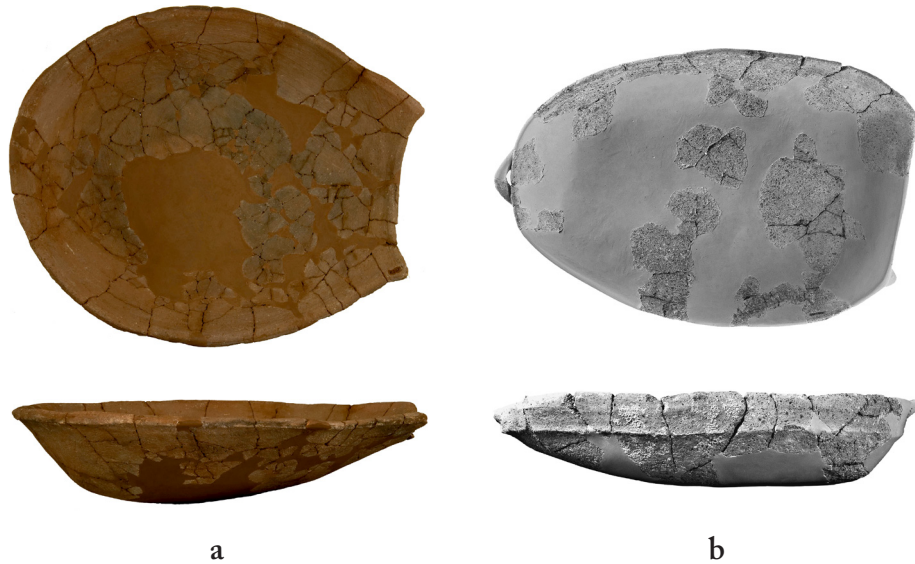


Figure 13. Type 3.2 cooking dishes, LM I: (a) Papadiokambos, Crete; (b) Petras, Crete. Scale 1:10. Photo (a) C. Papanikolopoulos; courtesy Ephorate of Antiquities of Lasithi; © Greek Ministry of Culture and Sports; (b) Alberti 2016, pl. 20; courtesy INSTAP Academic Press

This overview of the distribution of cooking dishes completes its itinerary where it started, in the region of Macedonia, northern Greece. The LBA/EIA ceramic assemblages of this region often include vessels of very large diameter and short height, which have smoothed internal and rough external surfaces and bear traces of use over fire. The shape is either circular or ellipsoid, but it can also be rectangular with rounded corners, and the vessels are consistently characterized by very thick walls (>2 cm) (type 4; Fig. 14). Typical are examples from sites in the area of Thessaloniki and Chalkidiki, although it is worth mentioning that similar examples referred to as basins are also identified farther south in the Iron Age sites of Euboea and the Peloponnese (see Fig. 11).⁴²

TECHNOLOGY AND FUNCTION

CLAY FABRICS

It is difficult to determine whether the changes in morphology described above are accompanied in a consistent manner by changes in the clay fabrics, because the degree and extent of conducted technological analyses varies significantly between different periods and across different regions. The technological characteristics of the vessels under discussion in general are quite similar, both diachronically and synchronically. The grain-size distribution of inclusions, reflecting the processing of the raw materials, is predominantly coarse to medium.⁴³ Moreover, their color and macroscopic attributes indicate that they were generally fired in temperatures not exceeding 800°C, even in the later phases of the Bronze Age, when kilns were in use.⁴⁴ In general, their clay fabrics share similar characteristics with those of other cooking pots in the same ceramic assemblages.

In the LN I assemblages, petrographic analyses have identified medium-coarse clay fabrics, commonly micaceous with silicate inclusions. The rock-fragment inclusions, which might have been added intentionally as temper in the clay groundmass, vary according to the geological

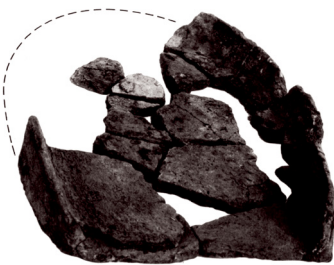


Figure 14. Type 4 cooking dish from Kastanas, central Macedonia, EIA. Scale 1:10. Hochstetter 1984, pl. 279; courtesy A. Hänsel

42. See Gimatzidis 2017, pp. 260–263.

43. See the comparative charts in Matthew, Woods, and Oliver 1991.

44. See Nodarou 2010, pp. 5–6.

environment of each site: from schist-serpentine⁴⁵ to granite,⁴⁶ igneous basic rocks,⁴⁷ igneous metamorphic rocks,⁴⁸ or silicate sand with limestone.⁴⁹ At Makrygialos (14) the majority of cooking dishes are tempered with shell fragments.⁵⁰ Moreover, in the cases of Dikili Tash (26) and Sitagroi (24), plant inclusions or voids are observed in the clay body.⁵¹

The technological characteristics of LN II–FN “cheese pots,” with a few exceptions, have not been studied systematically. They are generally referred to as coarse grained with silicate-rich inclusions and organic temper.⁵² Petrographic analysis of such fragments from Alepotrypa (71) in the Peloponnese indicates the use of a coarse fabric that is rich in calcite, occasionally containing grog, which is also used for the manufacture of undecorated or relief-decorated jars and bowls; no organics are mentioned.⁵³ At Akrotiri (116) on Thera, petrographic analysis associated cheese-pot samples with the use of coarse-grained volcanic fabrics.⁵⁴

The same is true for the EBA examples: they are usually coarse grained and porous, with the frequent addition of organic material.⁵⁵ In terms of provenance, the case of Kephala Petras (125) in Crete is of particular interest. The FN–Transitional clay fabrics there are either grog tempered and locally produced or micaceous and assumed to be imported, possibly from the Cyclades. At the advent of the EBA, these fabrics are replaced by completely different ones, again local and imported.⁵⁶ In the Cyclades, baking pans most probably circulated along with other vessel categories throughout the islands.⁵⁷ Noteworthy is the case of Akrotiri (116), where by the end of the Middle Cycladic (MC) and during the Late Cycladic (LC) period, the coarse volcanic fabrics characterizing cooking-pot production (including baking pans) are enriched with phyllitic inclusions, a technological change interpreted as a result of Minoan influence.⁵⁸

The technological characteristics of the Minoan cooking plates/dishes generally follow a conservative ceramic tradition for coarse cooking fabrics, remaining relatively unchanged through time. They are commonly made of locally acquired raw materials, such as the coarse phyllite fabric of Mochlos (136)⁵⁹ or the so-called Mirabello cooking fabric with igneous material,⁶⁰ and they are frequently characterized by the addition of organic material to the clay paste.

Finally, the large LBA and EIA pans from the region of Macedonia in northern Greece are characterized by very coarse fabrics, commonly heavily tempered with organic material.⁶¹ This process results in brittle fabrics, which in combination with strong firing traces has led to the interpretation that they were not fired in a kiln but rather hardened in the fire during use.

45. Megalo Nisi Galanis (12): Fotiadis et al. 2000, p. 219.

46. Dispilio (9): Sofronidou and Dimitriadis 2014, p. 545.

47. Stavroupoli (15): Urem-Kotsou and Dimitriadis 2002, p. 667; 2004, p. 323.

48. Dikili Tash (26): Tsirtsoni and Yiouni 2002.

49. Sitagroi (24): Gardner 2003, p. 285.

50. Urem-Kotsou 2006, p. 72.

51. Tsirtsoni 2000, p. 45; Tsirtsoni and Yiouni 2002, pp. 105–106; Gardner 2003, p. 285.

52. See, e.g., Ftelia (106): Doukaki 2018, pp. 68–69; Ayio Gala (87) and Emporio (88): Hood 1981, p. 248.

53. Pentedeka 2018.

54. Mavridis 2007, p. 181.

55. See, e.g., Kavoussi-Vronda (126): Day et al. 2016, p. 50; Markiani (119): Marangou et al. 2006, p. 146; Lerna (70): Wiencke 2000, p. 535;

Tsougiza (76): Pullen 2011, p. 372; Thebes (48): Hilditch et al. 2008.

56. Nodarou 2012, pp. 83–86.

57. Broodbank 2007, p. 158.

58. Müller, Kilikoglou, and Day 2015.

59. Nodarou 2010, pp. 5–6.

60. Day, Joyner, and Relaki 2003, pp. 17–18.

61. See, e.g., Ayios Mamas (34): Horejs 2005, pp. 86–88.



Figure 15. Experimental manufacture of a Neolithic cooking dish with flattened coils on a clay mold. Photo © PlantCult project archive, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

BUILDING TECHNIQUES, SURFACE TREATMENT, AND FIRING

Cooking dishes are exclusively handmade throughout the chronological periods and areas under study. The techniques employed in their construction generally follow two distinct traditions, mainly dictated by the intended overall shape of the vessel. Thus, the convex-based cooking dishes (types 1.1, 1.2, 3.2) are thought to have been built in a mold or a depression in the ground, perhaps a shallow pit; sometimes they were fashioned in a basket. These approaches would explain the traces of vegetal fibers, sand, or gravel often observed on the exterior.⁶² Alternatively, the convex base could be formed by beating the clay over a form, a mold, or perhaps another inverted dish.⁶³

Experiments conducted both by the present authors and by others (Fig. 15) suggest that building in a mold is the most probable technique.⁶⁴ Vessel forming combines the use of flattened coils (or slabs) for the upper and lower parts of the vessel. The vessel rim was probably formed above the rim of the mold, as suggested by its shape, which is thickened and everted in most examples. The external clay ridge observed on some Bronze Age specimens (type 3.2) reinforces the join of the two parts (rim-base). Moreover, to effectively secure and clean joins between pieces, clay would be smeared from the upper to the lower parts of the vessel and vice versa, which resulted in even thinner and more fragile walls. The mold itself could be made of any material (such as clay, stone, or wood) and could be set above or into the ground. Traces on the exterior could be explained by sprinkling the mold with soil and weeds to stop the clay from adhering. A hole dug into normal ground surface soil alone does not offer a solid enough surface to withstand the pressures applied while building the vessel, and therefore it would result in very anomalous and irregular surfaces and profiles. On the other hand, if the pit was lined with a resilient clay, it could serve as a suitable mold, but this method has not been tested experimentally.

62. See, e.g., Dikili Tash (26): Tsirtsoni 1999, pp. 141–142; Ayia Irini (112): Wilson 1999, p. 45; Kommos (133): Betancourt 1990, p. 66; also see Sotirakopoulou 1999, p. 141.

63. Betancourt 1980, p. 7.

64. Morrison et al. 2015; Dimoula et al. 2020.

The alternative hypothesis of manufacturing the vessel over a convex top mold, like an inverted dish, does not seem very probable, because one would expect to see handprints on the exterior since it is left untreated. Furthermore, in this case it would be more logical to have the exterior surface smoothed rather than the interior, which would be inaccessible.

For the flat-based vessels (types 2.1, 2.2, 3.1, 3.3, 4) different building techniques were employed. The base was formed separately as a disk from a single piece of clay or from several pieces joined together. This process was undertaken on a hard surface possibly covered with soil and organic material, as imprints on the exterior indicate, or even on a mat of straw, textile, leather, or other perishable material.⁶⁵ When the wall of the vessel is short, it usually indicates that it was made from the same piece as the base. However, in most cases walls are built either by the coiling technique or by joined slabs, which frequently results in a flared shape. Quite often the application of extra clay on the walls is observed, probably to strengthen them.

In the case of “cheese pots” (types 2.1, 2.2), which are generally more coarsely made than the other types, the joins between the base and the wall are frequently left unprocessed, with excess clay not removed.⁶⁶ Moreover, the perforations under the rim commonly are not regular and are formed in a quick manner. Before firing, they are opened from the inside with a rough tool like a piece of wood, thereby leaving excess clay on the outer surface. In some cases the perforations are very small in size or are not fully opened all the way through, which indicates that they were not always a functional element of the vessel. As noted above, the surface treatment of these vessels systematically excludes the outer surface, which throughout the prehistoric periods is left rough, and instead focuses on the interior, which is commonly smoothed and often burnished; in the Bronze Age examples (types 3.1–3.3), the application of a slip is also observed.⁶⁷

Firing has been assumed to have taken place at the location where the pot was formed, based on the argument that it would be difficult to move these large, heavy, and thin vessels in their unfired condition.⁶⁸ The experimental construction of cooking dishes has proved, however, that it actually is quite feasible to lift, carry, and transport these vessels when they are well and uniformly dried, as well as to stack them with others during firing.⁶⁹ Moreover, firing in the construction position would probably have left more extensive fire traces, especially on the interior, although this theory has not been tested experimentally. During the Neolithic and early phases of the Bronze Age, the vessels were presumably baked in an open fire, which explains the heterogeneity of the colors observed on the surfaces and sections of the vessels, often indicating mixed (alternating oxidized–reduced) firing conditions, although secondary firing during use could be responsible for some of these variations. In the later phases of the Bronze Age, analyses also indicate firing in a kiln.⁷⁰

All the above technological observations comply with the technical requirements of these large and presumably use-specific vessels. It appears that the selection and modification of raw materials was intended to enable the vessel to withstand thermal and mechanical stress, without excluding other parameters, whether technical, economic, or social.⁷¹ For

65. See, e.g., Merenta (62): Kaka-vogianni et al. 2016, p. 444, fig. 13; Dodecanese: Sampson 1987, pp. 80–81; 1988, p. 96; Halasarna, Kos (104): Georgiadis 2012, p. 51; Alepotrypa (71): Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, p. 79; Katsarou 2018, p. 103.

66. See Ftelia (106): Doukaki 2018, p. 67; Alepotrypa (71): Katsarou 2018, pp. 103–105.

67. See, e.g., Tzoungiza (76): Pul-len 2011, p. 372; Petras (132): Alberti 2016, p. 86.

68. See, e.g., Tsirtsoni 1999, p. 141; Wiencke 2000, p. 536.

69. Dimoula et al. 2020.

70. See, e.g., Mochlos (136): Nodrou 2010, pp. 5–6.

71. See Tite, Kilikoglou, and Vekinis 2001.

example, micaceous clays are plastic and hence easy to manipulate, an attribute enhanced by the addition of organic temper, especially in the manufacture of these large vessels.⁷² The addition of rock fragments or other non-plastic inclusions such as shells or organic materials, furthermore, assures the reducing of accidents during drying and firing and provides vessels with refractory properties necessary for subsequent and repeated use over fire.⁷³ In particular, a ceramic recipe with calcitic fragments, shell, or grog provides for a low coefficient of thermal expansion, which is advantageous for use over heat.⁷⁴ This property is also assisted by firing in relatively low temperatures (that is, below 800°C).⁷⁵ Thin walls and a smooth profile, when present, would ensure primarily quicker and more regular heat transmission but also quick cooling when removed from fire.⁷⁶ Finally, the careful processing of the interior, which is the main visible and usable surface, further improves the heating effectiveness of the vessel.⁷⁷ This also served practical purposes such as making the vessel impermeable to liquids and assisting its easy cleaning;⁷⁸ additionally, it gave the vessel a pleasing appearance.

CONTEXTS AND USES

DOMESTIC CONTEXTS

Information on the contexts of the vessels is rather scarce, primarily as a result of a high degree of fragmentation and a corresponding low degree of preservation in the archaeological record. Nonetheless, cooking dishes, although generally found in all types of layers, are associated mostly with domestic contexts, both interior and exterior, and are often found in relation to structures where heat was used, pointing to their use in culinary activities, particularly cooking.

Thus, in the Neolithic site of Dikili Tash (26), two almost-complete examples were found inside houses, situated in front of ovens; in one case, the *plateau* was associated further with other food-preparation implements: grinding stones, other cooking vessels, and archaeobotanical remains.⁷⁹ Despite proximity to ovens, it seems unlikely that the cooking dishes would have been placed inside them, although technically it was possible. Complete vessels also have been unearthed in Dispilio (9) and Avgi (10), but their locations are not reported. In Thermi (16), cooking-dish fragments were found both inside a pit dwelling and on its outer cobbled yard, which was equipped with a thermal structure.⁸⁰

It is more difficult to specify the contexts of such vessels in the final phase of the Neolithic period and the Transitional period. This predicament is directly related to the generic characteristics of the settlements of this period in the Aegean: dominated by caves and open-air sites lacking extensive architectural features.⁸¹ It was at one of these sites that the hypothesis of the “cheese pot” was born: it was proposed that the row of holes under the rim would have been used to affix a piece of cloth with which fresh-made cheese would be strained.⁸² The connection of such vessels with caves, considered locations par excellence for the production and storage

72. Skibo, Schiffer, and Reid 1989.

73. Tite and Kilikoglou 2002.

74. See Rice 1987, p. 229.

75. Müller et al. 2014.

76. See Morrison et al. 2015, p. 122.

77. Schiffer 1990.

78. Rice 1987, p. 231.

79. Darcque, Touchais, and Treuil 1992, p. 716, fig. 2; 1994, pp. 438, 440.

80. Elezi 2014, table 3.33.

81. See Dietz et al. 2018.

82. Heidenreich 1935–1936.

This hypothesis is maintained also by Cultraro (2013), for vessels from Poliochne (90) that seem to have rows of perforations all over the wall, however, not only under the rim.

of dairy products,⁸³ has been used to support this hypothesis further. Many authors have criticized the term and its implications, preferring to use this intended functional label only as a conventional term of reference. In the cave of Alepotrypa (71), for example, many of the “cheese-pot” fragments were indeed found near storage vessels and tentatively connected with some straining/filtering function,⁸⁴ but others came from different contexts, such as primary and secondary burials⁸⁵ or ritual deposition zones.⁸⁶ In these cases, the find context does not relate to the original function of the vessel. In fact, cooking dishes with perforations under the rim also are associated commonly with domestic contexts, as at Ftelia (106) on Mykonos.⁸⁷ Exceptional is the case of the FN site of Tigani (89) on Samos, where half of such a vessel was found on the ashes of a hearth.⁸⁸

Characteristic for the EBA is the example of Myrtos (128) on Crete where fragments are found in rooms with hearths characterized as “kitchens.”⁸⁹ In mainland Thebes (48), cooking dishes were found exclusively outside an apsidal building and in a context with open-air hearths,⁹⁰ while at Ayios Dimitrios (85) in Elis, baking-pan fragments were found in context with the hearth of a room.⁹¹ At Tsoungiza (76), two specimens were recovered from the floor deposit of a house of uncertain purpose.⁹² At Pefkakia (37) in Thessaly, the well-preserved examples indicate that every house was equipped with one or two pans,⁹³ while in Argissa (41) they are also found in open-air cooking areas, located between the houses.⁹⁴ As Wiencke notes for these vessels, “whatever the activity, it was one that took place in every domestic setting and all over Early Helladic Greece.”⁹⁵

Most contextualized examples of cooking dishes come from either palatial or non-palatial sites in Minoan Crete.⁹⁶ These vessels demonstrate an association with cooking activity areas and further highlight their relationship with other cooking vessels. Virtually every Minoan house was equipped with cooking dishes, together with other cooking pots, predominantly tripods, and less often handled jars or jugs as well as trays and basins.⁹⁷ Cooking dishes appear to be associated with open heating structures—that is, hearths—which could accommodate their large size.⁹⁸ In contrast, they very rarely are found associated with roofed structures like ovens,⁹⁹ which are generally associated with deep cooking pots.¹⁰⁰ In the LM I house at Papadiokambos (140), four restorable cooking dishes were found in rooms dedicated to meal preparation and consumption, in context with hearths and other cooking vessels; one of these dishes contained 2 kg of limpet shells.¹⁰¹ In Kastelli (147), Chania,

83. Diamant 1974; Sampson 1993a. For a broader view on the use of caves, see Mavridis and Jensen 2013.

84. Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, p. 80.

85. Katsarou 2018, pp. 102–105; Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, p. 80.

86. Psimogiannou 2018.

87. Doukaki 2018, pp. 64–66.

88. Felsch 1988, p. 12, pls. 10:5, 31:3–6.

89. Warren 1972, p. 111.

90. Roumpou et al. 2007, p. 162.

91. Zachos 1987, p. 193.

92. Pullen 2011, p. 220.

93. Christmann 1996, p. 136.

94. “Sommerkuche”: Hanschmann and Milošević 1976, vol. 2, p. 83.

95. Wiencke 2000, p. 536.

96. For the palatial sites, see, e.g., Malia (130): Darcque, Van de Moortel, and Schmid 2014; Zakros (137): Gerontakou 2000. For the non-palatial, see 123–147 in the Appendix.

97. See, e.g., Kavousi-Vronda (126): Day et al. 2016, pp. 60–62; Karphi (146): Day 2011, pp. 315–317;

Mochlos (136): Barnard and Brogan 2003, pp. 82–84; Smith 2010, pp. 115–116.

98. See, e.g., Kavousi-Vronda (126): Day et al. 2016, p. 84; Kommos (133): Rutter 2004; Petras (132): Alberti 2016, pp. 74–79.

99. E.g., two dishes found within the vaulted oven of the “Baker’s House” at Karphi (146): Day 2011, p. 81.

100. See, e.g., Petras (132): Alberti 2016, pp. 74–79.

101. Brogan et al. 2013, p. 128.

a complete cooking dish was found in context with a hearth, while part of another dish was found embedded in the floor of the same room.¹⁰² Finally, in some cases cooking dishes appear to have been located in the upper stories of houses, where cooking activities apparently also took place.¹⁰³ In some contexts, the presence of large numbers of fragments has been interpreted as a result of frequent breakage and immediate replacement.¹⁰⁴

Beyond the island of Crete, the only well-preserved examples are from Nichoria (86) in the Peloponnese, where three cooking dishes were found stacked next to a hearth in a Late Helladic (LH) IIIA1 building.¹⁰⁵ As for LBA–EIA northern Greece, the find contexts of these very large and coarse dishes are again domestic and related to cooking activities. Characteristic is Kastanas (33), where one of these *Backwannen* was found in situ in the main chamber of a furnace, covering almost its entire surface, and thus was interpreted as a vessel used for cooking, in particular baking bread.¹⁰⁶

The association of these vessels with domestic contexts and hearths certainly implies participation in culinary activities, but it does not always directly prove their use in cooking. Therefore, alternative uses have been proposed that interpret them as used in food processing and preparation, for example, the kneading or mixing of ingredients.¹⁰⁷ However, such a use would be possible only if the vessel was fixed in the ground, which overall is only rarely attested.¹⁰⁸

CERAMIC COOKING ASSEMBLAGES

Following the above discussion on the association of cooking dishes with spaces and/or structures, an attempt will be made to examine them as components of ceramic cooking assemblages used within specific contexts. To do it justice, such an endeavor would require a lengthy second article, so we will reconstruct only select examples of cooking sets, with or without cooking dishes, falling within the chronological and geographical spans under study. The intent is to illustrate how these vessels operate within a group of artifacts of comparable function, either independently or in a complementary or subsidiary way. The criterion for choosing the cases presented below is the presence of well-preserved cooking vessels in contexts interpreted as culinary on the basis of associated structures, equipment, and organic remains.

For the LN I period an outstanding example, as mentioned above, is a domestic context in Dikili Tash (26) (phase I) where three different types of cooking vessels were found in situ around an oven associated with a platform and grinding equipment.¹⁰⁹ More specifically, the cooking assemblage consisted of a cooking dish (type 1.1) found on top of a debris heap in front of the oven, and a tripod vessel and biconical pot full of carbonized barley grains behind the oven. In the contemporary site of Makrygialos (14) (phase I), domestic activity is associated with pit dwellings, outside of which cooking facilities are located.¹¹⁰ The deposit in one of these pit dwellings (pit 742) preserved a floor covered with fragments of pottery, grinding tools, animal bones, and shells, indicating the debris of cooking activities.¹¹¹ The cooking assemblage included parts of two cooking dishes (types 1.1, 1.2) and nine bowls that are hemispherical, biconical, and conical in shape and feature flat bases and occasionally lugs.¹¹²

102. Hallager 2003, pp. 240–242.

103. See, e.g., Kommos (133): Rutter 2017, p. 193; Galatas (145): Apostolaki 2014, pp. 129–134.

104. See, e.g., Mochlos's Artisans' Quarter (136): Barnard and Brogan 2003, p. 83.

105. Dickinson, Martin, and Sheldermine 1992, p. 537.

106. Horejs 2005, pp. 86–88.

107. Tsirtsoni 2001, p. 27; Tsirtsoni and Yiouni 2002, p. 104.

108. See, e.g., Askitaro (67): Theodorakis 1953–1954, p. 65; Kastri (121): Marthari 2013, p. 334; Kastelli (147): Hallager 2003, p. 242. The hypothesis involving non-movable devices has been offered also by Sotirakopoulou (1999, p. 141).

109. Darcque et al. 2007, p. 249.

110. Urem-Kotsou and Kotsakis 2007, p. 228.

111. Pappa 2008, p. 176.

112. Urem-Kotsou 2006, p. 160.

For the FN-Transitional period, the site of Pefkakia (37) (upper Rachmani layer) is typical. In House 702, a single-roomed building with an oven, the cooking assemblage consisted of two cooking-dish fragments (type 2.2) along with two ovoid jars with flat bases, each featuring four horizontal roll handles or tongue lugs on the shoulder.¹¹³ At Kephala Petras (125) on Crete, a cooking assemblage of contemporary and undisturbed domestic deposits associated with two rooms included a cooking dish (type 2.1) and a S-shaped bowl with curving base.¹¹⁴

In the EBA, in Early Minoan II Myrtos (128), room 57 has been interpreted as a kitchen based on an abundance of cooking-pot fragments found in context with animal bones and a depression presumably used for cooking.¹¹⁵ The room was equipped with two cooking dishes (type 3.2) with thickened rims dipped to form spouts, and a flat-based cooking tray with horizontal handles supported by three wide legs. The other cooking vessels included three cooking jars with incurving profiles and flat bases, and two large cooking jars, flat-based with vertical handles and horizontal lugs. In contemporary Lerna (70) (phase III), room ST in the fortification complex is interpreted as a space for cooking activities, judging by the number of cooking pots and grinding stones present.¹¹⁶ The pots include five fragments of cooking dishes (type 3.2), with one relatively well preserved, and six ring-based open bowls with tall bodies and thickened rims.

In the LBA, at the LM IIIB “House of the Snake Tube” at Kommos (133), thought to be ritual space, room 3 yielded evidence of cooking activities—that is, cookware associated with the remains of a possible open hearth.¹¹⁷ The cooking assemblage consists of two cooking dishes (type 3.2), three tripod vessels, globular in shape with collared necks, an ovoid flat-based jar, and a one-handled brazier.¹¹⁸ In the contemporary LH IIIB West House at Mycenae, room 4 is interpreted as a kitchen: there was a rectangular hearth, above which carbonized seeds of vetch were identified.¹¹⁹ The cooking assemblage of the room consisted of four small, one-handled tripod vessels with globular bodies and high necks, and a two-handled ring-based cooking jar, but no cooking dishes.

To summarize the above examples, the LN type (1.1, 1.2) cooking dishes are associated with both legged and flat-based vessels, open and hole mouthed, and the FN type (2.1, 2.2) with both open curved-based bowls and flat-based handled jars. During the EBA, type 3.2 cooking dishes are found together with legged cooking trays and jars of various sizes, open or hole mouthed, with narrow flat or ring bases. The LBA Minoan cooking dishes (type 3.2) are associated with hole-mouthed tripod vessels and jars, as well as braziers; they are absent from Mycenaean assemblages containing mainly two-handled jars and one-handled tripods, as well as braziers or griddles in other contexts. Thus, cooking dishes operate together with deep cooking vessels, open or hole mouthed and mostly flat based, and in the Neolithic and LBA contexts they also are associated with deep tripod vessels. In their absence, similar types of vessels, deep tripods and jars, continue in use.

113. Weisshaar 1989, pp. 204–205.

114. Papadatos 2012, pp. 72–74.

115. Warren 1972, pp. 51–52.

116. Wiencke 2000, pp. 100–101.

117. Wright and McEnroe 1996,

pp. 223–232.

118. Watrous 1992; Rutter 2017, p. 261.

119. Tournavitou 1995, pp. 12–13, 77, 92–93.

OTHER CONTEXTS

Besides domestic culinary contexts, cooking dishes are also found in non-domestic or communal food preparation and consumption contexts throughout the time span under consideration. In Neolithic Makrygialos (14), numerous fragments were retrieved from a large pit wherein the remains of a great feasting event were deposited.¹²⁰ Moreover, when cooking dishes have been found in such contexts, theories of funerary or ritual use have been put forward, such as in Neolithic Toumba Kremasti Koilada (11)¹²¹ or Minoan Anemospilia in Archanes (131).¹²² Otherwise, their occasional association with workshop spaces has led to hypotheses of their use in related activities such as textile dying, perfumery, wine or oil making, and processing wool or aromatic plants,¹²³ all of which are uses compatible with a primary cooking function.

Two radically different hypotheses have been proposed thus far, both concerning type 2.1 vessels. At Tsepi (60), they have been interpreted as representing boats, on the basis of their elliptical shape and rims of uneven height featuring series of perforations, reminiscent of a prow with rowlocks or similar.¹²⁴ On the other hand, examples from Neolithic Lerna (70) have been interpreted as possible musical instruments, with the holes used to tie on a drumhead.¹²⁵

SOOTING CLOUDS

Information on the presence and patterns of sooting clouds as evidence for the use of these vessels over fire is rather vague and not described systematically in the literature.¹²⁶ Generally, limited sooting clouds are observed on the exterior surface of the vessels, on the base and the periphery of the rim, while the interior is predominately clean. This observation applies to the Neolithic and Bronze Age convex-based types (1.1, 1.2, 3.2), with the latter often bearing more extensive burning traces over the exterior of the thin base. The flat-based types (2.1, 2.2, 3.1, 3.3, 4) similarly bear sooting clouds on the exterior, but they are occasionally present on the interior.¹²⁷ Moreover, the “cheese-pot” types (2.1, 2.2) sometimes carry no fire traces at all.¹²⁸ It should be stressed again, however, that the presence and distribution of fire traces is not an entirely reliable marker of use, as many vessels come from contexts that were destroyed by fire.

ORGANIC RESIDUES

Chemical analyses of organic residues found on the interiors of such vessels are limited. The analyses of LN cooking dishes from Makrygialos (14) and Stavroupoli (15) indicated a low level of lipids and the presence of the compound β -sitosterol, pointing to contents of a plant origin.¹²⁹ This result has led to the conclusion that these vessels were not used for boiling or roasting meat but rather for baking or parching food of plant origin¹³⁰ or possibly shellfish.¹³¹ Analyses of “cheese-pot” samples from Ftelia (106), Yiali (100), and the Sarakenos Cave (43) did not confirm associations with marine products, as was initially assumed based on the absence of bromine in the analyzed samples.¹³² On the other hand, palmitic and unsaturated 18-carbon-atom fatty acids suggest the presence of plant oil.¹³³

120. Pappa et al. 2013.

121. Chondroyianni 2000, p. 313.

122. Sakellarakis and Sapouna-Sakellarakis 1997, vol. 1, p. 277.

123. Gerontakou 2000.

124. Pantelidou-Gofa 2016, p. 230.

125. Vitelli 2007, p. 123.

126. See Skibo 2013, p. 89.

127. See, e.g., Ftelia (106): Doukaki 2018, p. 72; Kephala, Kea (111): Coleman 1977, p. 18.

128. See, e.g., Tsepi (60): Pantelidou-Gofa 2016, p. 227.

129. Urem-Kotsou 2011, pp. 252–257.

130. Lymperaki et al. 2016, p. 337.

131. Veropoulidou 2014, p. 471.

132. Sampson 2002, p. 64.

133. Decavallas 2018, pp. 261–262.

In Middle Minoan (MM) II Apodoulou (138), analysis has indicated the presence of grape/wine products and olive oil in cooking dishes.¹³⁴ Traces of “oil” in the interior also have been observed (but without analysis) on some of the Kommos (133) cooking dishes.¹³⁵

VESSEL LIDS

As a final observation, lids matching or accompanying cooking dishes are absent from the archaeological record of all periods and regions under study. This circumstance is further supported by the shape of the rim, which often is uneven and not formed to receive a regular lid. However, the series of perforations below the rims of some vessel types (2.1, 3.3) have been interpreted as a feature used for the insertion of strings to tie on a sort of covering of a perishable material, such as textile or leather, or even to attach a net to protect the external part of the vessel.¹³⁶ The occasional presence of lugs in the interior of these vessels may be interpreted as the supports for a sort of lid.¹³⁷

DISCUSSION

AEGEAN COOKING DISHES IN THEIR CULTURAL CONTEXT

When considering the evidence presented above, one observes that the different types of cooking dishes characterize more or less broad geographical regions and chronological periods within which other vessels with morphological similarities, as well as other categories of morphologically comparable artifacts, were produced and in use. In this sense, they can be considered culturally significant.

The first such group (see Fig. 1: types 1.1, 1.2) includes MN and LN I areas of northern Greece and the southern Balkans, where active contact networks appear to have sustained similar expressions of material culture between sites.¹³⁸ Culinary technology and cooking pots are therefore part of this larger picture, although the area of distribution of cooking dishes does not overlap completely with those of other vessel or artifact categories, if considered one at a time. Thus, although black-burnished pottery is found in both Thessaly and central Greece, no cooking dishes are reported in these areas, nor are cooking dishes found farther north in the Balkans (for example, northern Bulgaria, Romania) where *Spondylus* ornaments are attested plentifully nonetheless.

The second group (see Fig. 4: types 2.1, 2.2) includes the LN II–FN–Transitional sites of the insular and coastal Aegean where, again, extensive

134. Tzedakis and Martlew 2002, pp. 90, 165.

135. Betancourt 1980, p. 7, fig. 5:e.

136. Hood 1981, p. 174; Sampson 1988, fig. 68; 2002, p. 63.

137. Hood 1981, pp. 172–174.

138. E.g., pottery wares such as red slipped or black burnished, or other lines of evidence such as ornaments made of *Spondylus gaederopus* shell: see Treuil et al. 2008, pp. 59–98; Kotsakis 2010.

maritime networks supported technological and cultural interactions in pottery-making (for example, pattern-burnished ware), marble-working, and other activities.¹³⁹ Via these contact networks, the highly typical, perforated, large shallow vessels define a *koine* of sorts, often transcending boundaries between regions.¹⁴⁰

One is struck immediately by the mutually exclusive distribution of these two successive (or at best just slightly overlapping) groups. It is true that the material culture of northern Greece during the 5th and 4th millennia B.C. is quite different from that of southern Greece, with the exception of common attributes in the basic fields of subsistence, settlement layout, and fundamental aspects of technology.¹⁴¹ Cooking technology is not among these exceptions: the Thessalian “border” seems to have remained impassable in both periods, with Thessaly lining up every time with the southern trend.¹⁴² The two series of vessels, very different in their conception and manufacture, appear as two independent innovations with no point of contact between them apart from possible intended use.

Things are more complex with the third group (see Figs. 7, 11: types 3.1–3.3), which includes mainly Bronze Age central and southern Greece along with Crete and the islands. The complex network of interactions among sites and regions at the transition from the Neolithic period to the Bronze Age has been highlighted by research in both the mainland and the insular Aegean.¹⁴³ Characteristic is the example of Crete where FN perforated dishes are considered to be imports from the islands,¹⁴⁴ while the subsequent Minoan types in turn are believed to have influenced the Cycladic productions.¹⁴⁵

As noted above, the flat-based cooking dishes of this period (type 3.1) share common characteristics with the preceding FN–Transitional examples, indicating some persistence in traditions, if not absolute continuity. The abandonment of perforations under the rim certainly reflects changes in the vessels’ use or display (see below). It is quite surprising that a perforated subtype (type 3.3) reappears in the “border zone” of Thessaly, from where it will spread to Macedonia for a short period of time (the advanced EBA)—unless it actually is the other way around. The most puzzling feature, however, is the appearance of type 3.2 in EBA southern mainland Greece and Crete, which does not seem explainable by any cultural connection at the present state of our knowledge. Indeed, the deeper, thin-walled, convex dishes find earlier parallels only in the Neolithic northern Greek areas (types 1.1, 1.2), though they probably represent independent innovations. A possible precursor of the elliptical variant with the obliquely cut rim is found in Tsipi (60) at the end of the Transitional period (see p. 12, above; Fig. 6).

The coexistence of two distinct types of dishes (slab-made flat based and moldmade convex) at the same site raises the question of the nature of their interrelationship: are these products of two distinct ceramic traditions, each referring to a different social or cultural group, or are they simply complementary in their uses? The contextual coexistence of both types and traditions throughout the largest part of the Aegean seems to go against the first hypothesis. Moreover, in order to establish whether the two reflect different potting traditions, one should include the building techniques used for the rest of ceramic production in the sites or environments where they are jointly present.

139. See Kouka 2008, pp. 312–314.

140. See Sotirakopoulou 2008, pp. 123–124; Alram-Stern 2014.

141. See Treuil 1983; Treuil et al. 2008.

142. Theocharis 1981, pp. 155–160.

143. See, e.g., Broodbank 2004; Maran and Stockhammer 2012.

144. See Nodarou 2012.

145. See Abell 2016.

Convex and flat-based dishes, or trays as distinguished in Minoan pottery studies, coexist in southern mainland and insular Greece during the EBA and throughout the Minoan periods in Crete and the Cyclades (see Figs. 7, 11: types 3.1–3.3). However, the convex-based types can be considered predominant. More specifically, the EBA flat-based types, as mentioned above, are probably related to the preceding perforated tradition, which appears to cease in mainland Greece in the EH II period. In contrast, the flat-based types prevail in the Cyclades throughout the Bronze Age, while the existence of convex types is associated with Minoan influence. In Minoan Crete, where food preparation contexts are more numerous in comparison to other Aegean regions, convex- and flat-based types are found together in the same buildings or rooms, the flat-based examples in considerably smaller numbers.¹⁴⁶ This contextual affiliation indicates that different use(s) are likely for the two types of vessels.

Although both types of cooking dishes exhibit remarkable homogeneity in Crete throughout the Minoan period, from the earliest to latest phases, they cease to exist in mainland Greece from the MBA onward (see Fig. 11: types 3.1–3.3). This fading should be seen as evidence of the diverging trajectories of the two regions in terms of culinary apparatus, also visible in the other categories of cooking vessels and naturally in many other fields of cultural expression: tripod cooking pots are thus much more popular in Crete, whereas conversely, jars are more widespread on the mainland. The Cyclades stand in between as a “cultural middle-ground”¹⁴⁷ where, however, only the flat-based type (3.1) is maintained.

The characteristics of the LBA–EIA specimens of northern Greece (see Fig. 11: type 4) give the impression of autonomous regional production, distinguished by very thick walls and generally heavy manufacture, finding thus far only very sporadic parallels in the Aegean.

CONTINUITIES AND DISCONTINUITIES

As has been made obvious, the history of these types of vessels is characterized by continuities and discontinuities in the archaeological record, both temporal and spatial. The continuities can be interpreted as a result of interactive cultural environments and traditions related to food preferences and cooking technology in conjunction with pottery production. This circumstance is clearly illustrated by the FN–EBA examples. Conversely, discontinuities, such as the abrupt disappearance of cooking dishes from cooking assemblages at times in some regions, can be associated with divergent traditions and preferences or with changes introduced into existing cooking practices.

The absence of cooking dishes from the archaeological record of northern Greece after the LN I period, or from that of mainland Greece from the MBA onward, are cases in point, perhaps because of a new preference for hearth floors or stone slabs in dry-heat cooking. Moreover, it is possible that the “baking pans” or “trays” found in Mycenaean cooking sets of southern Greece represent such alternatives for the earlier cooking dishes—although the two do seem to be separated by a considerable chronological gap, corresponding roughly to the MH period. The smaller dimensions of the “trays” would suggest in this case the different organization or scale of food preparation, related to the kind or quantities of foodstuffs, the

146. A random example is that of Neopalatial Mochlos’s Artisans’ Quarter (136), wherein room A2, associated with food preparation, yielded fragments of 29 cooking dishes and two trays; see Barnard and Brogan 2003, pp. 82–86.

147. Gorogianni, Abell, and Hilditch 2017.

dimensions or positions of hearths, and other factors. In the same contexts a new category of ceramic utensil is also found, “griddles,” almost-flat vessels, with legs or without, which have indentations on one main surface. Scholars do not agree whether these hollows were situated on the top or bottom of the vessel when the object was in use, but most agree that they were used for baking bread (most likely flat), a suggestion corroborated by both organic residue analysis and other experiments.¹⁴⁸ One therefore could suggest that the uses previously fulfilled by cooking dishes were later taken on by these two different utensils: baking pans/trays for roasting or stewing and griddles for baking bread.

No ceramic alternatives appear to replace the Neolithic cooking dishes of northern Greece following their disappearance. Maybe in this case more profound changes took place that as yet are not seen or understood in the archaeological record. At Dikili Tash (26), one of the rare sites where well-preserved house units of LN I and II have been excavated and studied, ovens and open hearths were equally present in houses of both periods.¹⁴⁹ The botanical assemblages associated throughout are also very similar, and the pottery traditions in general show continuity from one phase to the next.¹⁵⁰

It is noteworthy that in both Neolithic northern Greece and Bronze Age Crete, cooking dishes are regularly found in context with another sophisticated type of cooking utensil: legged cooking vessels.¹⁵¹ In both cases they disappear together from the archaeological record. The contextual coexistence of the two types could suggest some kind of complementarity in their use in these periods and areas. Elsewhere, for example, in EBA mainland Greece, when cooking dishes are widely present, the legged vessels do not exist; conversely, tripod vessels are very popular in the northeastern Aegean, where cooking dishes, however, seemingly are absent.¹⁵² Therefore, similar distribution patterns (first inclusive and then exclusive) might hold meaning in both historical/cultural and functional terms, but care should be taken to avoid overinterpretation.

Whatever the case, it is clear that not all types of cooking dishes prove reliable chronological or spatial indicators. Some, produced over relatively limited geographical areas and only for some centuries, can be considered highly diagnostic of time and place: a cooking dish fragment (easily recognizable by a gritty exterior juxtaposed with a smooth interior) collected in a field survey in northern Greece is a chronological and cultural marker at least as precise and reliable as a black-burnished or black-topped sherd.¹⁵³ In contrast, a fragment of a cooking dish with perforations under the rim collected from some eastern Aegean island, although culturally diagnostic, would not be a precise enough chronological indicator, because these artifacts are produced for more than 1,500 years, apparently unchanged. Further refinement, therefore, is needed, both in their typology—detailing any evolution in shape or dimensions—and in the chronological resolution of the archaeological sites themselves.

148. Hruby 2017; Lis 2017.

149. E.g., “House of the Bucranium,” “House 5”: see Darcque and Tsirtsoni 2010; Darcque et al. 2020.

150. See Tsirtsoni et al. 2018.

151. See respective examples at Dispilio (9): Sofronidou and Dimitriadis 2014; Dikili Tash (26): Tsirtsoni and Yiouni 2002; Papadiokambos (140): Brogan et al. 2013.

152. For the distribution of these vessels, see Sofronidou and Tsirtsoni 2007.

153. See also Tsirtsoni 2000.

A SINGLE FUNCTION OR MANY? EVIDENCE FROM MORPHOLOGICAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL FEATURES

The analysis undertaken above has revealed several similarities and differences among the various types of cooking dishes, some of which crosscut the typological groups. Our next task is to assess if these aspects reflect different modes of cooking or different modes of using the vessels within the same cooking tradition.

Lugs,¹⁵⁴ for example, are present on the rims of some dishes of MN and LN I date (type 1.2), but they are also found on the rims of some of the perforated and unperforated flat-based dishes of the FN–Transitional period (types 2.1, 2.2).¹⁵⁵ In contrast, they seem to be absent from Bronze Age and EIA products, with the exception of crescent-like lugs formed out of the rims themselves on some convex-based Cretan dishes (see Fig. 12: type 3.2). The presence, number, shape, and position of such aids to manipulation increase the functional possibilities of a vessel in a more or less appreciable way, thus making our functional interpretation more specific.¹⁵⁶ In this respect, the presence of diametrically opposed lugs on the rims of some of these large vessels could indicate that they occasionally needed to be handled by two persons. In particular, the shape of the crescent-like lugs on some Cretan Bronze Age dishes so argues; otherwise, their orientation would be without reason (and actually would be problematic for a single person). Other examples point toward possible use by a single person: for example, the presence of a single lug opposite a spout could indicate the lifting of one side to pour from the other. Even when lugs are absent, the formation of the rim, commonly thickened and turned outward, would facilitate its grasping by a single person. All these observations suggest the presence of heavy (including the weight of the ceramic vessel itself) and/or liquid/semiliquid contents, at least for these dishes.

The lugs found under the rim on the inner side of perforated or unperforated flat-based dishes of the FN–Transitional period represent a different case (see Fig. 5:c, type 2.1). They also could facilitate the lifting and transportation of the vessels, evidently by two persons (if the handles really are double) or by the grasping and tipping of the vessel to effect a pour (if the handles are single). The well-preserved specimen from Tigani (89; see Fig. 5:b, type 2.1) appears to feature only one such lug, situated opposite the point where the vessel's wall is lower and probably forming a simple spout. Another possibility has been suggested: the lugs actually could be lid rests¹⁵⁷ (though in this case they definitely should be in pairs). The absence of ceramic lids, of course, is an argument against this hypothesis, but lids from other materials—flat stones, for example—would serve. The presence of these internal lugs then would be seen as a simple refinement (a flat cover could then be placed directly on the vessel's mouth). Things are different, however, if we consider this feature in combination with the row of holes under the rim. If these had a practical role during the cooking procedure, as we presume they did (see below), this role would be negated once they were covered.

The systematic presence of perforations in vessels of type 2, and their absence from all other variants except for the short-lived type 3.3, indicates

154. Indeed, we should not speak about handles, for there are no elements with two points of attachment (cf. the definition of Balfet, Fauvet-Berthelot, and Monzon 1989).

155. See p. 10, with n. 27, above.

156. About the shift from functional possibilities to functional probabilities, see Tsirtsoni 2001.

157. See Rice 1987, p. 242; also see n. 137, above.

that they were not only purposefully made but also essential for the vessel's performance. In pots, perforations generally are associated with straining or filtering (when present near the base and/or the walls of the vessel); with assisting in the insertion of small sticks; with the lifting, hanging, or covering of the vessel (with the help of strings, especially when placed near the rim); and finally with ventilation.¹⁵⁸ The positioning of the holes is very important in this respect. Of all these hypotheses, the last seems particularly interesting with regard to any cooking activity, but surprisingly it thus far is not much evoked for cooking dishes.¹⁵⁹ Indeed, the presence or absence of air modifies the behavior of the heating process not only at the level of the fuel (that is, with the holes found at the lower sides of *réchauds*, *pyravnoi*, and other like devices)¹⁶⁰ but also that of the content itself. Liquids in particular evaporate more quickly when open to the air, whereas boiling/simmering is better maintained when any circulation of air is restricted. The benefit is less obvious in dry cooking (for example, baking or toasting/parching). If our hypothesis regarding the use of lids to control the circulation of air in the interior of a vessel is correct, these utensils would be efficient particularly in cooking moist dishes at low temperatures (stewed in their own juices).

This hypothesis only works, however, for vessels with walls that have equal height all around—if such vessels indeed existed in the LN II–FN–Transitional period.¹⁶¹ Those examples that have one side lower than the others or are entirely open at one side cannot fit such a reconstruction, and some other explanation must be sought. But all other hypotheses as to function suffer much the same problem. It has been suggested, for example, that the perforations would be used for attaching mesh to the rim, while small twigs would be placed on lugs to support the mesh against the pressure of a liquid poured through it.¹⁶² Such a reconstruction will not work for vessels with walls of unequal height. It is difficult to imagine any action—related to cooking or not—that would necessitate, or take advantage of, the simultaneous presence of each of these morphological features—that is, the internal lugs, the perforations under the rim, and the asymmetrical profile. The situation is made more complicated by the fact that we do not know to what degree, how often, and exactly how the different features are to be associated. To advance, we need more well-preserved specimens from all phases.

This point concerning use is raised further by an observed shift from vessels with frequently asymmetrical walls, perforations, and lugs of the LN II–FN–Transitional period (type 2.1) to the much simpler EBA “cooking/baking pans” (type 3.1). If the former were used for the particular way of cooking that we suggest, their disappearance in favor of the latter would indicate a significant change in eating habits. But the degree or significance

158. See, e.g., Yon 1976, pp. 101–104; Demoule 2004, p. 78; Poursat 2013; Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, p. 67.

159. An exception is Derin and Caymaz 2018.

160. Tsirtsoni 1999, pp. 276, 280; Poursat 2013, p. 132, pl. 7.3:a–c; Krapf 2014, pp. 586–589.

161. See p. 10, above (typology).

162. Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, p. 80.

of this change cannot be evaluated unless we know to what degree simple dishes without perforations existed already in the LN II–FN–Transitional period (that is, our presumed type 2.2). If both types 2.1 and 2.2 indeed coexisted, we are dealing with only a partial change of habits at the advent of the EBA, when just a single element of the previous cookware was abandoned, albeit the most sophisticated. In the opposite case, the change would be more radical.

Another morphological element whose presence and nature could influence our functional interpretations is the spout, either independently shaped on or from the vessel's rim (see Fig. 9:b), or formed by simply cutting away part of the rim obliquely (see Figs. 8:a, 13:a). Entirely absent from the MN–LN type 1, they seem to appear for the first time during the LN II–FN period (vessels with sloping walls). Spouts are definitely present by the end of the Transitional period¹⁶³ and become much more popular in the Bronze Age types, especially convex (type 3.2). Undoubtedly, they point toward liquid or semiliquid contents, although we cannot exclude the vessel's parallel use for semisolid contents or baked goods (that is, bread, pies). Moreover, solid elements, such as grains or shells, were cooked in such dishes—as shown by an example with limpet shells found at Papadiokambos (140) (see p. 22, above).

The different base shapes, convex or flat, possibly are related to cooking performance and patterns of heat transmission and do not concern the stability of the vessel, as has been previously claimed.¹⁶⁴ The significance of the profile varies according to the use conditions, the type of thermal structure, and in particular the manner of the application of heat to the vessel base.¹⁶⁵ Thus, if the heat (for example, embers) is placed underneath and around convex-based dishes (types 1.1 or 3.2), it affects a large part of the vessel's surface and contents and therefore cooking is more uniform (as in a wok).¹⁶⁶ If the flat-based and straight-sided vessels (types 2.1–2.3, 4) are placed on a hearth's floor surrounded by fire, different heat transmission patterns develop, resulting in varied cooking performance.¹⁶⁷ This also is the case when the vessel is raised above the fire, and when the base is heated directly.

Contrary to the morphological variability of cooking dishes, their technological characteristics present a high degree of consistency throughout the prehistoric periods and across the Aegean. Variations mostly concern raw material selection, which in turn is inevitably connected to what is available in the environment of each site or region, although without underestimating other factors. The general characteristics of the ceramic fabrics—medium to coarse, porous, and low fired (when not refired in some destruction)—satisfy the technological requirements of use over or beside a naked fire. It should be noted, however, particularly during the Neolithic, that cooking pots are not directly associated with specific fabrics; what is more, the fabrics characterized by properties adequate for cooking also are used for the manufacture of other shapes and wares, for example, storage

163. E.g., a dish from Tsepi (60): see n. 34, above.

164. Tsirtsoni 1999, 2001.

165. See experimental results in

Dimoula et al. 2020.

166. See experimental the observations in Morrison et al. 2015.

167. See also Borgna 1997.

vessels or tableware.¹⁶⁸ It is only during the Bronze Age that cooking fabrics can be defined more clearly, meaning specific clay recipes can be associated with specific wares. The Bronze Age cooking dishes discussed here generally correspond to the broad cooking fabrics identified in ceramic assemblages, though again, such fabrics also appear in other ceramic categories.¹⁶⁹

Ultimately, it seems that within the large overall family of the Aegean cooking dishes, there existed groups with more or less distinct functions that coincide roughly but not entirely with the chrono-typological groups. The convex-based vessels (types 1.1, 3.2), which are generally deeper (H. ≥ 10 cm) and in cases equipped with spouts and/or lugs, would be more closely connected with the cooking of mixed ingredients in some kind of liquid. Moreover, their thin bases (<1 cm) would ensure the quick heating of the vessel and its contents. On the other hand, the flat-based vessels (types 1.2, 2, 3.1, 3.3, 4) are generally shallower (approx. H. 7–10 cm) and have thicker bases (>1 cm) that can absorb and distribute heat more evenly. Thus, they are better suited for ingredients that could be burned easily and better adapted to the dry-heat cooking of solids, namely roasting or frying. These uses are not exclusive, however.

A SINGLE FUNCTION OR MANY? THE EVIDENCE FROM CONTEXTS AND USE-WEAR TRACES

The available information from domestic contexts suggests that, with very few exceptions, cooking dishes do not require permanent installations fixed in floors or the ground but rather are movable utensils, and they may be distributed across both internal and external spaces on the ground and upper floors of a house. Apparently they were not left lying permanently on their bases but rather were stored in niches or lofts, upside down on their rims or turned upright. They are spatially associated primarily with hearths (that is, open thermal structures) and only rarely found inside ovens (that is, vaulted structures).

Fire traces on the vessels are discrete and predominantly developed on the exterior. Their patterning has to do with several variables, such as the vessel shape, its position in relation to the fuel, the type of fuel, the mode of cooking, and its contents. The available data point to the placement of a fuel type that does not produce much smoke (such as embers) below these large vessels, so that it does not make contact with the interior. Moreover, if the interior surface was largely covered by its contents (for example, stews or pies) and/or the cooking mode did not involve high temperature fluctuations (and was instead an even simmering process), this method would not leave any interior traces either. On the other hand, direct contact with fire or a fuel that gives off a lot of smoke (such as wood or branches) would create stronger and more extensive sooting and cloud patterns on the exterior.¹⁷⁰ Again, we should keep in mind the possibility of the re-exposure of vessels caught up in destruction to high-temperature oxidizing conditions, which would have “cleaned up” original traces of use.

Two essential conclusions are to be drawn from the above discussion: (1) the heat source was always outside (never inside) the vessel and involved a fuel that did not produce smoke; and (2) the content was monitored so

168. See, e.g., Tsirtsoni and Yiouni 2002; Dimoula, Pentedeka and Filis 2014.

169. See, e.g., Kiriati, Georgakopoulou, and Pentedeka 2011.

170. See Skibo 2015, pp. 190–191.

that it did not burn. This last point is why we believe that seeds were not very commonly roasted or parched in cooking dishes, unless the process was followed by a very thorough cleaning of the vessels.¹⁷¹

We found no mention in the collected literature about wear traces (attrition, abrasion, and so forth) on any part or any type of these vessels. If not due to a simple lack of recorded information, the absence of traces would reflect the lack of use of hard instruments (for instance, spoons or ladles). Two main cooking modes are suggested: (1) baking semiliquid substances (such as dough) after taking necessary measures to avoid sticking; and (2) cooking solid food with enough liquid to make stirring unnecessary (slow braising or stewing).

As noted above, lids clearly matching such vessels are absent from the archaeological record under study—which does not mean that some did not exist, even if made from materials other than clay. The possibility that two vessels were employed, one inverted on top of the other to create a closed cooking space, cannot be excluded.¹⁷² As their rims are commonly uneven in height and thickness, the gaps should be sealed in this case with some other material such as a dough or paste,¹⁷³ unless the upper dish was systematically larger in diameter than the lower one.

Based on the above, the vessels under discussion could have been used over a fire for the following purposes:¹⁷⁴

1. The parching or roasting of seeds, such as grain, seems the least practiced; it could explain the sporadic presence of fire marks in their interiors, however.¹⁷⁵
2. The baking of thin bread or pies on the interior smooth surface and not on the rough exterior, as is often met with in the ethnographic record.¹⁷⁶ The smoothed or burnished interior surface ensured that the food did not stick too much during the cooking and also assisted in the cleaning of the vessel. Moreover, the interior surface could have been made even smoother by positioning a dough lining or covering the bottom with plant material, such as leaves. The use of the vessels placed upside down on the hearth floor or ground, with charcoals on top for baking bread within, is also possible. Their employment as the inverted cover of another vessel containing food (such as a plate), as attested in traditional societies of Greece and the Balkans,¹⁷⁷ is possible as well, although it is not attested archaeologically.
3. The boiling or stewing of liquids is not likely due to the large diameter of the vessels, as this would result in quick evaporation, especially if not covered. Frying could be a possibility, especially if quick (stir-fry style) and followed by the addition of liquid. By contrast, simmering easily could be achieved, especially in the convex-based types, for the preparation of porridges, soups, or mixed dishes with a sauce. It is not certain whether meat commonly was involved, since it would leave traces in the composition of the residues, but the number of analyses conducted so far is still too small for us to be conclusive on this point.

In addition to their primary use over fire, cooking dishes can play a role in other kinds of culinary activities. The large interior surface would be

171. For exceptions, see Henrickson and McDonald 1983, p. 638; Stavrou-poli (15): Lymperaki et al. 2016.

172. See, e.g., Asea (75): Holmberg 1944.

173. Wiencke 2000, p. 535.

174. Our list is more restricted than that proposed in Morrison et al. 2015.

175. Ethnographic examples suggest that such practices cover the vessel's surface with carbonization; see Skibo 2013, pp. 97–98.

176. See, e.g., the Asian *tava/saj/saç* or the African *sadj*: Pasqualone 2018, p. 15.

177. See Gimatzidis 2017, pp. 259–260.

convenient for the sorting of mixed ingredients, for example, the cleaning of grain by hand-picking or the drying of foodstuffs.¹⁷⁸ It is likely that the thin walls would not withstand high mechanical pressure well, such as that produced while kneading, but if the vessel was placed against an adequate surface (cf. the few cases of them being fixed in the ground or floor), it perhaps could be tolerated.

Finally, the large size of the vessels would also be suitable for collective consumption and the preparation of large portions of food.¹⁷⁹ People could sit around them and cook and/or eat whether inside houses or in open spaces, or whether in private spaces daily or in communal areas on special occasions. Their appearance would have been imposing when viewed within the more limited living spaces of the prehistoric Aegean. Participation of cooking dishes in collective food preparation and consumption activities could explain their continuity and discontinuity in the archaeological record in part, but to pursue this idea requires the exploration of different lines of evidence than those under consideration here.

A SINGLE FUNCTION OR MANY? EVIDENCE FROM ETHNOGRAPHY

Similar types of vessels are often encountered in the ethnographic record; here, we present only select examples, which are not to be taken as direct parallels for prehistoric usage but simply to illustrate the range of possibilities and thus offer insight toward interpretation.

In northern Africa, in the area of Kabylie in Algeria, women manufactured until recently two cooking-dish types similar to those investigated here: (1) the *bu-frah*, a large (Diam. 35–45 cm), shallow, and circular vessel, flat-based with vertical walls and lugs on the rim, with a smoothed outer surface and slipped interior; and (2) the *tarhalit*, a larger (Diam. >50 cm) vessel of similar profile and everted rim that is well smoothed on both sides. These vessels were used over permanent or portable hearths—that is, they were in direct contact with the fuel or in a raised position, respectively. The first type was used for baking pancakes or flat bread without yeast, while a variant with an uneven bottom was used for baking bread with yeast in order for the bread to rise better and be removed more easily (incidentally, the latter would be an interesting parallel for some of the “griddles” mentioned above). The second type was for the preparation of couscous.¹⁸⁰ According to Balfet,¹⁸¹ such vessels ceased to be manufactured, even though they formerly evoked strong symbols and feelings of identity. Women now prefer to buy cooking dishes rich in mica and made by male potters, as they are considered to be of superior quality.

In Ethiopia in eastern Africa, the Gamo people manufacture *bache*, large ceramic dishes (Diam. ca. 50 cm) in which they roast fenugreek, which they add, together with milk, in boiled barley to produce a porridge called *gabula*, a special meal served during religious festivities. These vessels

178. See Henrickson and McDona-
ld 1983, p. 638.

179. E.g., the estimated capacity of
a complete vessel from Petras (132) is

6.5 liters: Alberti 2016, p. 89.

180. Balfet 1955, pl. I:b; Marsly
2007, p. 54.

181. Balfet 1955, p. 292.

are also used for roasting barley and fenugreek during the preparation of *kuchuca*, or barley balls, another popular dish that is not only ceremonial but also consumed daily. Gamo women also prepare many different types of enset breads in such vessels. The *enchila* or *kashca* round breads are made from fermented enset (*Ensete ventricosum*, false banana) mixed with barley, wheat, or sorghum flour, while enset leaves are laid on the surface of the vessel to prevent sticking.¹⁸² Also in Ethiopia, the Oromo and Woloyta groups manufacture the *ingera* dishes, grog-tempered large and shallow vessels used on a daily basis to cook teff-flour flat bread over open hearths or on top of vaulted ovens.¹⁸³

The examples presented above indicate two things: (1) morphologically alike vessels can be used for different purposes in different parts of the world; and (2) depending on the society, vessels are used both for a single purpose (“unifunctional”; cf. the Kabylean examples) and for a range of purposes (“multifunctional”; cf. the Gamo examples). We have a priori no reason to privilege the first scenario over the second for our Aegean cooking dishes, especially for those areas and periods that feature only one main type, with possible subtypes being simple variations on a theme. This circumstance applies to the Neolithic types 1.1, 1.2, 2.1, and 2.2 and the LBA/EIA type 4. Theoretically, and considering the example of the Gamo dishes, these vessels could be multifunctional—that is, for example, one day used for baking bread and the next for preparing a legume mix. Such a scenario is less convincing, however, for those areas and periods where two “concurrent” types are present: EBA Greece below Thessaly and MM and LM Crete and the Cyclades, where types 3.1 and 3.2 are attested in parallel. Indeed, it seems more appropriate to consider that these vessels were use-specific (“unifunctional”), designed for one type of cooking only. If we wish to claim that convex-based dishes were used preferably for simmering, we have to concede that the baking of breads or pies was done either in the flat-based dishes or directly in ovens.

CONCLUSIONS

So-called cooking dishes—large shallow vessels with gritty fabrics, well-processed interiors, and rough exteriors—appear as an original Aegean creation, starting in the MN to LN I period (end of the 6th to the beginning of the 5th millennium B.C.) and persisting, though not continuously, until the end of the Late Bronze Age and the advent of historic times (8th century B.C.).

The similarities and particularities in the techno-morphological characteristics of Aegean cooking dishes could be socially significant with concern to cooking practices and in relation to group self-perceptions and preferences or identities. The emergence of cooking dishes during the advanced stages of the Neolithic period, along with other cooking-pot categories such as legged pots or simpler flat-based globular or biconical pots, is probably related to the development of a new range of cooking modes. Although no significant changes in crops and other plants potentially consumed as food (fruits, nuts, oil, medicinal and psychotropic plants) are observed,¹⁸⁴

182. Arthur 2014, pp. 147–152, fig. 13:e.

183. Cauliez et al. 2017.

184. Valamoti 2009.

Figure 16. Experimentally manufactured pottery: (top row, left to right) a Neolithic cooking tripod, dish, and biconical pot; (bottom row, left to right) two modern *tavas* from Man-issa, Turkey, a variety of modern cereal food preparations, and a modern *tajin* from Morocco. Photo © PlantCult project archive, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki



the enrichment of cooking ceramic assemblages with new types suggests the development of a more sophisticated cuisine, following several centuries of transforming these available ingredients into food by Neolithic farming communities in the region (Fig. 16). This new cuisine required a large heated surface or open vessel for cooking methods that could not be practiced with deep vessels: the baking of flat bread or pies, the cooking of mixed dishes or porridges by simmering, and, to a lesser degree, the roasting of seeds or shells. The vessels under consideration in this article could fulfill one or the other of these three functions, or possibly all of them. Collective consumption—from the “kitchen” directly to the “table”—probably should be considered a socially motivated and appreciated practice further connected with the development of new vessels. This scenario accords well with the advent of the “emergent Neolithic household.”¹⁸⁵ The subsequent absence of cooking dishes from ceramic assemblages in the northern Aegean would have to reflect changes in practices and/or in means (for example, bread baking performed now on the floor of ovens, the preference for boiled soups rather than simmered dishes, and so forth) that are difficult to see archaeologically, let alone explain at this stage.

The LN II–FN–Transitional vessels with holes under the rim, conventionally labeled “cheese pots,” have been connected in the past with the processing of the products of more intensified husbandry practices in the insular and coastal regions of the Aegean alongside marine exploitation.¹⁸⁶ But there is no concrete argument supporting this connection. The absence of ethnographic parallels, together with the particularly poor preservation and poor archaeological contexts of these vessels, does not help to understand their role. Of interest is a hypothesis concerning similar vessels from the 3rd-millennium B.C. central Mediterranean, which proposes their use in the preparation and baking of acorn dough.¹⁸⁷ Our analysis, however, favors cooking rather than baking bread, possibly in some way that benefitted from the regulated input of air.

The plethora of cooking dishes throughout most of the Early Bronze Age Aegean again is accompanied by variety in cooking pot and tableware forms (for example, jars, jugs, “sauceboats,” or tripod-pots in the insular regions), implying the application of different cooking techniques and/or

185. Tomkins 2010, pp. 37–39 (with bibliography).

186. See Sampson 1988, p. 100.

187. Camps and Rostan 1982, p. 247.

recipes in an era when domestic environments appear to be the centers of social life.¹⁸⁸ It is during the Bronze Age that new plant food ingredients appear,¹⁸⁹ particularly special plants that are oil-rich and aromatic, further contributing to the culinary complexity evident in the cooking vessels of the period. If the two distinct types of cooking dishes attested in the Aegean, flat based and convex based, do not reflect only distinct traditions (one prolonging that of FN-Transitional, and the other reinventing the features of the earlier Neolithic), they might correspond to two different functions: the baking of flat bread or pies for the former and the cooking of mixed dishes or porridges for the latter. Cooking dishes as components of cooking sets remain in use until the end of prehistory in insular Greece and particularly in Crete, pointing to unchanged culinary traditions. As for LBA mainland Greece, the diverse cooking sets include “griddles,” which could have replaced some of the former cooking dishes for bread baking. This scenario is also the most plausible use for the coarse LBA/IA basins of northern Greece.

In the future, archaeologists interested in Aegean cooking dishes should concentrate their efforts in two areas. The first is to obtain better-preserved specimens to confirm and refine morphology (and dimensions). This point is most certainly the most important: there are still too many uncertainties over too many morphological points. Questions concern not only the presence or absence of certain physical elements but also their frequency, manner of display, and so forth (for example, whether holes are occasionally, regularly, or always present; whether lugs are disposed in pairs or in groups). The systematic search for joining fragments should help improve the picture. Second, researchers should undertake more targeted recording of two parameters that are crucial for interpretation: (1) fire and wear traces through the more systematic observation of available sherds and vessels; and (2) residues through more extensive sampling and a larger number of analyses, whenever possible. Finally, of course, experimentation should continue to be a major tool in the attempt to understand the designs and behaviors of these vessels, particularly with respect to varied heating conditions, ingredients, and specificities of use.

188. Andreou 2010.

189. Valamoti 2009.

APPENDIX

DISTRIBUTION OF COOKING DISHES IN THE PREHISTORIC AEGEAN AND ADJACENT AREAS

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
BULGARIA													
1	Bългарčevo	MN–LN I	1	×	×							rustic or rural ware	Pernicheva-Perets, Grebska-Kulow, and Kulov 2011, pp. 130–131, figs. 4.24, 4.30 (phase I); p. 150, figs. 4.68, 4.69, 4.78 (phase II)
2	Sapareva Banya	MN–LN I		×	×							Паници; съдове за приготвяне на храна	Georgiev et al. 1986, pp. 121, 129, 134; Nikolov 1987
3	Slatina	MN		×	×							Паници; съдове за приготвяне на храна	Nikolov 1987, p. 33
4	Kovačevo	LN I		×								disques	Perničeva 1990, pl. VIII:16–26; Demoule and Lichardus-Itten 1994, p. 572, fig. 9:24–26
NORTH MACEDONIA													
5	Anzabegovo	LN			×							coarse flat plates, flatbases	Gimbutas 1976, fig. 66:2, 4; Fidanoski 2009, p. 74, pl. 19:2–7
6	Grnčarica	LN			×							flat-bases	Stojanovski, Nacev, and Arzarello 2014, p. 18, fig. 7:b
MACEDONIA													
7	Ritini	MN		×								ταψιά	Intze 2011, p. 75, pl. 9:στ
8	Paliambela	MN		×								ταψιά	Siamidou 2017, p. 50, fig. 30
9	Dispilio	LN I	2		×							ταψιά	Voulgari, Sofronidou, and Touloumis 1997, pp. 13, 17, fig. 13; Sofronidou and Dimitriadis 2014, pp. 540–541
10	Avgi	LN I	1		×							ταψιά	Katsikaridis 2021, pp. 137–141, figs. 58, 59

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
11	Toumba Kremasti Koilada	LN I		×								ταψιά	Chondroyianni 2000, pp. 340–341; Saridaki 2019, p. 503
12	Megalo Nisi Galanis	LN I–II		×								shallow dishes	Fotiadis et al. 2000, p. 219
13	Kato Ayios Ioannis	LN I		×								ταψιά	Karanika 2014, pp. 60–61, pl. 10
14	Makrygialos	LN I–II		×								ταψιά; dish-like vessels	Vlachos 2002, p. 122 (phase II); Urem-Kotsou 2006, pp. 70–75, pl. 4.1:1–4.2 (phase I)
15	Stavroupoli	LN I		×								ταψιά; pans	Urem-Kotsou and Gkioura 2004, pp. 226–227; Lymperaki et al. 2016, fig. 9 (phase I)
16	Thermi	LN I		×								ταψιά	Elezi 2014, pp. 87–88, pl. 3.6
17	Kyparissi, Vasilika	LN I		×	×							ταψιά	J. Kozantsas (pers. comm., September 20, 2019)
18	Eidomeni	LN I		×								ταψιά	S. Chatzitoulousis (pers. comm., March 15, 2020)
19	Platoma	LN I		×								ταψιά	Adam-Veleni et al. 2002, p. 179
20	Ayia Lydia	LN I		×								χονδροειδής κεραμική	Grammenos and Kotsos 1999–2000, p. 400, pl. 1
21	Dimitra	LN I		×								rural or rustic ware; χονδροειδής κεραμική	French 1964, p. 40, fig. 5:28 (surface); Grammenos 1997, p. 40, pl. 15
22	Mylopotamos	LN I		×								rural or rustic ware	French 1964, p. 40, fig. 7:13–18 (surface)
23	Limenaria	LN I		×								plateaux	D. Malamidou (pers. comm., October 7, 2020)
24	Sitagroi	LN I		×	×							rural ware	Keighley 1986, p. 348, figs. 11.4, 11.6:21, 22, pl. LXXVII; Tsirtsoni 2000, pp. 45–47, fig. 15:c, d; 2001, pp. 26–28, fig. 12:b
25	Promachon	LN I		×	×							plateaux	C. Koukouli-Chryssanthaki (pers. comm.)
26	Dikili Tash	LN I, EBA	2		×						×	plateaux	Tsirtsoni 2000, pp. 45–47, fig. 15:a, b; 2001, pp. 26–27, fig. 12:a; Tsirtsoni and Yiouni 2002; Commenge-Pellerin and Tsirtsoni 2004, p. 38; Malamidou 2019, pp. 24–25, 33, pls. 19, 35, 37, 42
27	Archondiko	LBA									×	αγγεία με οπές κάτω από το χείλος	Deliopoulos 2014, pp. 282–283, pl. 148:a
28	Ayios Athanasios	EBA									×	ταψιά	Mavroidi 2012, pp. 158–159, fig. 23
29	Kritsana	EBA									×	perforated pots	Heurtley 1939, p. 170, fig. 44:a–d

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
30	Axiochori	EBA								×		perforated pots; <i>Pfannen</i>	Heurtley 1939, p. 170, fig. 44:e; Aslanis 1985, p. 83, fig. 92:11
31	Armenochori	EBA								×		perforated pots	Heurtley 1939, p. 198, no. 368
32	Servia	EBA	1						×			baking plates	Wijnen et al. 1979, p. 224, fig. 17
33	Kastanas	EBA-IA	2							×	×	<i>Pfannen</i> ; <i>Backwannen</i>	Aslanis 1985, pp. 83, 173, figs. 7:7-9, 24:12 (EBA); Hochstetter 1984, pp. 164- 168, pl. 279 (LBA)
34	Ayios Mamas	EBA-LBA								×	×	perforated vessels; <i>Backwannen</i>	Heurtley 1939, p. 171, fig. 55:h (EBA); Horejs 2005, pp. 86-88; 2007, p. 177, pls. 12, 23, 24, 27 (LBA)
35	Toumba Thessaloniki	LBA-IA									×	ταψιά	S. Andreou (pers. comm., May 12, 2019)
36	Sindos	EBA, LBA-IA	1							×	×	μαγειρικοί δίσκοι; <i>Backwannen</i>	Andreou 1996-1997, p. 83, no. 51, fig. 9 (EBA); Gimatidis 2010, p. 70, pl. XVIII (LBA-IA)
THESSALY													
37	Pefkakia	LN-MBA	13 (EBA)			×	×	×	×	×		<i>Pfannen</i>	Weisshaar 1989, p. 40, pl. 62:6-9 (LN-FN); Maran 1992, pp. 141-142, figs. 1, 8, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 27, 33, 34, 45, 129 (MBA); Christmann 1996, pp. 119-121, 136-137, 147, figs. 6:24, 18:10, 29:16, 37:15, 54:6, 8, 10, 75:7, 80:1, 3, 4, 84:6, 92:18, pl. XVIII:2, 3 (EBA)
38	Visviki	LN-EBA				×				×		cheese pots	Alram-Stern and Dousougli- Zachos 2015, p. 221, figs. 98, 104, 111, 136, 198
39	Theopetra Cave	LN-FN				×						cheese pots	Katsarou 2000, fig. 15:7
40	Tsani	LN-EBA					×					rugose dishes	Wace and Thomson 1912, p. 144
41	Argissa	EBA-MBA	5 (EBA)			×	×	×	×	×		<i>Pfannen</i>	Hanschmann and Milojević 1976, vol. 1, pp. 46-47, 54, 63, 72, 83; vol. 2, figs. 13:6, 19:18, 19, 37:9, 44:6, 45:1; pls. III:5, IX:3 (EBA); Hanschmann 1981, vol. 1, pp. 23, 35, 45, 59-60, 74, 84; vol. 2, pls. 22:5, 26:5, 37:8, 41:9, 43:9, 60:9, 61:12, 64:5, 83:2, 3, 102:11 (MBA)
42	Palioskala	LN-EBA				×	×	×		×		baking pans	Toufexis 2016, p. 409

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
CENTRAL GREECE													
43	Sarakenos Cave	LN II				×						cheese pots	Sampson 2008, pp. 188–189, figs. 103, 104
44	Proskynas	FN–EH					×	×				ταψιά	Psimogiannou 2008, pp. 59–60, fig. 4:5, pls. 4:33–35 (FN); Zachou 2009, pp. 125–126 fig. 4:30 (EH)
45	Eutresis	EH II						×	×			baking pans	Goldman 1931, pp. 106–109, figs. 141–143
46	Orchomenos	EH						×	×			<i>Schüsseln mit lockreibe Lippe</i>	Kunze 1934, pp. 73–74, pl. XII
47	Lithares	EH II						×	×			πινάκια	Tzavella-Evjen 1984, pp. 153–154, fig. 10
48	Thebes	EH II						×				baking pans	Roumpou et al. 2007, p. 162, fig. 11:2
EUBOIA													
49	Skoteini-Tharrounia	LN–Transitional				×						cheese pots; baking pans	Sampson 1993b, p. 293, figs. 87, 88, pls. 159, 160
50	Ayia Triada	FN				×						cheese pots	Mavridis and Tankosić 2016, p. 432
51	Krasa Katheron	FN–EH				×						cheese pots	Sampson 1981, p. 176, fig. 144:207
52	Plakari	FN–EH				×						baking pans	Keller 1982, p. 60, figs. 2:12, 14; Cullen et al. 2013, table 1, pl. 22
53	Manika	EH II						×				baking pans	Sampson 1985, p. 135
54	Amarynthos	EH II	1						×			μαγειρικά σκεύη; baking pans	Parlama 1979, p. 11, fig. 13
55	Kalogero-vrysi, Fylla	EH I–II						×				ταψιά	Sampson 1993a, p. 31, figs. 20, 23 (EH I); pp. 45, 58, 64, figs. 24, 28, 30, 35, 40 (EH II)
ATTICA													
56	Kitsos Cave	LN II–FN				×						<i>vases à perforations multiples</i>	Karali 1981, p. 350, fig. 230
57	Euripides Cave	LN II–FN				×						χονδροειδής κεραμική με διάτρητα τοιχώματα	Mari 2001, pp. 145–147, figs. 87, 98
58	Kolokotronis Cave, Hydra	LN II–FN				×						cheese pots	Mavridis 2007, p. 125
59	Acropolis slopes	Transitional				×	×					baking pans	<i>Agora</i> XIII, pp. 44–45, pl. 12
60	Tsepi, Marathon	Transitional	3			×	×					χονδροειδής κεραμική με σειρά οπών κάτω από το χείλος	Pantelidou-Gofa 2016, pp. 227–232, pls. 106–109

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
61	Kolonna, Aigina	Transitional-EBA				×	×	×				<i>Steilwandiges Becken</i>	Walter and Felten 1981, pl. 78:65–71
62	Merenta	Transitional-EBA	1			×	×					vessels with a series of holes under the rim	Kakavogianni et al. 2009, pp. 163–166, fig. 6; 2016, pp. 444–445, fig. 13 (re-reported as EH I, but parallels given are Neolithic)
63	Kontra Gliate	FN-EBA				×	×	×				pans	Nazou 2018, p. 290, fig. 28:3
64	Palia Kokkinia	FN-EBA	1			×	×	×				αγγεία με οπές	Theocharis 1951b, pp. 108–109, fig. 23
65	Thorikos	FN				×	×					baking pans	Spitaels 1982, fig. 1:15
66	Rafina	EH						×	×			τήγανα	Theocharis 1951a, p. 89
67	Askitario	EH						×	×			τήγανα; πλά-θανα	Theocharis 1953–1954, pp. 65, 72–73
68	Rouph	EH						×	×			τήγανα	Petritaki 1980, pp. 165–167
PELOPONNESE													
69	Lake Vouliagmeni, Perachora	EH						×	×			pans	Fossey 1969, p. 59, fig. 3
70	Lerna	FN-EH	2			×	×	×	×			drums; baking pans	Wiencke 2000, pp. 535–536, fig. II:74 (EH); Vitelli 2007, p. 366, fig. 91:b (FN)
71	Alepotrypa Cave, Diros	LN II(?)–FN				×						baking pans; cheese pots	Phelps 2004, p. 115, fig. 54:16; Katsipanou-Margeli 2018, pp. 78–81, fig. 4:57; Katsarou 2018, pp. 102–106, fig. 5:4, 5; Psimogiannou 2018, p. 142, fig. 6.21
72	Franchthi	FN				×	×					vessels with holes below the rim	Vitelli 1999, p. 292, fig. 73:a, b
73	Halieis	FN				×	×					cheese pots	Pullen 2000, pp. 158, 163, 166
74	Klenia	FN-EH				×	×	×				baking pans	Phelps 2004, p. 115, fig. 54:16
75	Asea	FN-EH	1			×	×	×	×			baking pans	Holmberg 1944, p. 55, fig. 62; Forsén 1996, p. 62, fig. 7
76	Tsougiza	FN-EH	3 (EH II)					×	×			baking pans	Pullen 2011, pp. 35, 191–192, 372, figs. 2:13, 4:20, 5:74
77	Aigeira	FN-EH				×	×	×				<i>Gefässe mit unterrandständiger Lockreihe</i>	Alram-Stern and Deger-Jalkotzy 2006, pp. 31, 82–83, pl. II
78	Limnes Cave, Kalavryta	FN-EH				×						λεκανοειδή αγγεία με διάτρητο χείλος; cheese pots	Katsarou and Sampson 1989, p. 168, fig. 6
79	Korakou	EH	1					×	×			baking pans	Blegen 1921, p. 13, fig. 15
80	Gonia	EH						×	×			baking pans	Blegen 1930–1931, p. 75
81	Zygouries	EH	1					×	×			baking pans	Blegen 1928, p. 117
82	Tiryns	EH	1					×	×			<i>Pfannen</i>	Müller 1938, p. 63, figs. 48, 49

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
83	Prosymna	EH						×	×			baking pans	Blegen 1937, p. 47, fig. 621
84	Talioi	EH II						×	×			<i>Pfannen</i>	Weisshaar 1990, p. 12, fig. 19
85	Ayios Dimitrios	EH	1					×	×			baking pans	Zachos 1987, p. 193
86	Nichoria	LH III	1						×			shallow basins	Dickinson, Martin, and Shelmerdine 1992, p. 537, fig. 9:38
EASTERN AEGEAN													
87	Ayio Gala Cave, Chios	LN II–FN				×	×					baking pans	Hood 1981, p. 37, fig. 19
88	Emporio, Chios	LN I(?), LN II–Transitional				×	×					baking pans	Hood 1981, pp. 247–249, 309, figs. 119, 141
89	Tigani, Samos	LN II–FN	1			×	×					<i>Backplatten</i>	Felsch 1988, pp. 58, 66, 69, 109–110, 173–174, figs. 31:3–7, 61, 70
90	Poliochne, Lemnos	Transitional				×	×					<i>piastre perforate</i>	Tiné 1997, p. 46, fig. VII
91	Myrina, Lemnos	Transitional				×	×					διάτρητα κάτω από το χεῖλος αγγεία; cheese pots	Dova 1997, p. 288, fig. 6
92	Heraion, Samos	Transitional–EBA				×	×	×				<i>Gefässe mit Löchern</i> ; baking pans; cheese pots	Milojčić 1961, p. 13, pl. 37; Kouka 2014, p. 51, fig. 4:g
93	Nifi, Ikaria	LN–FN				×	×					cheese pots	Sampson 2014, fig. 33:23
TURKEY													
94	Yeşilova	FN–Transitional	1			×	×					cheese pots	Derin and Caymaz 2018, p. 501, figs. 51:6 (bottom), 51:8
95	Liman Tepe	FN–Transitional				×	×					cheese pots	Tuncel and Şahoğlu 2018, pp. 522–523, figs. 53.10:e, 53.11:f
96	Çine-Tepecik	FN–Transitional				×	×					cheese pots	Günel 2018, pp. 542–543, fig. 55:5, 6
97	Çukuriçi Höyük	FN–EBA	2 (FN and EBA)			×	×	×				cheese pots; <i>grosse rau Gefässe</i>	Horejs et al. 2011, p. 65, fig. 8:4; Schwall 2018, p. 471, figs. 50, 51, pls. 22, 23
DODECANESE													
98	Kastro, Alimnia	LN–FN				×	×					λεκανοειδή αγγεία; cheese pots	Sampson 1987, p. 81, pl. 102:24–32
99	Partheni, Leros	LN–FN	1			×	×					αγγεία τύπου; cheese pots	Sampson 1987, pp. 89–90, pls. 126–128
100	Giali, Nisyros	LN–FN	1			×	×					cheese pots	Sampson 1988, pp. 96–102, table 8, figs. 28, 45, 59, 68, pl. 62

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
101	Vathy, Kalymnos	LN-FN				×	×					cheese pots	Benzi 2008, pp. 96–102, figs. 37, 38
102	Kastro, Astypalaia	FN-EBA				×	×					cheese pots	Hope Simpson and Lazenby 1973, p. 170, pl. 44:a (no. 3), b (no. 1)
103	Kasos	FN-EBA				×	×					cheese pots	Marketou 2010, p. 767
104	Halasarna, Kos	FN-EBA				×	×					cheese pots	Georgiadis 2012, pp. 50–52, figs. 8–10, pl. 12
105	Kalythies Cave, Rhodes	FN				×	×					ρηχά αγγεία με τρύπες στο χείλος	Sampson 1987, p. 24, pl. 10:89
CYCLADES													
106	Ftelia, Mykonos	LN I(?)–II	2			×	×					vases of the cheese pot type; ανοιχτά αγγεία με οπές στο χείλος	Sampson 2002, pp. 61–70, figs. 56–62, pls. 12:5, 13:1, 2; 2018, pp. 33–34; Doukaki 2009; 2018; Sampson and Tsourouni 2018b, p. 87
107	Saliagos, Antiparos	LN I(?)–II				×	×					coarse bowls	Evans and Renfrew 1968, fig. 40:2
108	Za Cave, Naxos	LN II–FN				×	×					cheese pots	Zachos and Douzougli, forthcoming, pp. 2–3
109	Strofilas, Andros	LN–FN				×	×					cheese pots	Mavridis 2007, p. 135
110	Grotta, Naxos	LN–EBA				×	×	×				cheese pots; <i>plats creux à cuire</i>	Renfrew 1972, p. 155, fig. 10.2:11; Hadjianastasiou 1988, p. 17, pl. 1:b; Karantzali 1996, p. 124, fig. 120:d
111	Kephala, Kea	FN–Transitional				×	×					baking pans	Coleman 1977, pp. 17–18, 72, pls. 37, 84
112	Ayia Irini, Kea	Transitional–EBA–LBA				×	×	×	×			pans; trays	Davis 1986, pp. 87–88, pl. 54 (period V); Overbeck 1989, pp. 14, 23 (period IV); Wilson 1999, pp. 13–14, 41–42, 45–46, 71, 114, 132, pls. 53, 66, 79, 89 (periods I–III)
113	Ayios Sostis, Sifnos	FN–Transitional				×	×					cheese pots	Davis 1992, p. 729
114	Koukounaries, Paros	LN II–EBA				×	×	×				cheese pots	Katsarou and Schilardi 2004, p. 39, fig. 10
115	Antiparos Cave	LN–Transitional				×	×					cheese pots	Mavridis 2007–2008, pp. 23, 30–31, tables 2, 3, figs. 9, 13, 14
116	Akrotiri, Thera	LN–Transitional–EC				×	×	×	×			cheese pots; ανοιχτά χονδροειδή αγγεία οικιακής χρήσης	Sotirakopoulou 1999, pp. 141–146, figs. 110–122; 2008, pp. 123–124, 125, figs. 14:4, 6; Mavridis 2007, p. 184, tables 16, 19
117	Panormos, Naxos	EC							×			<i>plats creux à cuire</i> ; baking pans	Karantzali 1996, p. 125, fig. 19:sx3; Angelopoulou 2008, fig. 16:4

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
118	Phylakopi, Melos	EC-LC						×				plates; trays	Renfrew 1972, p. 155, fig. 10:2.5 (EC); Renfrew et al. 2007, p. 221, fig. 6:13 (MC); pp. 278–279, fig. 7:7, 16 (LBA)
119	Markiani, Amorgos	EC						×	×			baking pans	Marangou et al. 2006, pp. 119, 128–129, 133–134, 146, fig. 7:9, 12, 13, 20
120	Dhaskalio Kavos, Keros	EC						×	×			pans	Broodbank 2007, p. 158
121	Kastri, Chalandriani, Syros	EC	1					×				<i>Backtellern</i> ; μεγάλου μεγέθους σκεύη μαγειρίου	Bossert 1967, p. 70, fig. 5:10; Marthari 2013, p. 334
122	Mt. Kynthos, Delos	EC						×	×			baking pans	MacGillivray 1980, pp. 36–39, figs. 13, 14
CRETE													
123	Knossos	LN-Submycenaean				×		×	×			cheese pots; baking plates; cooking dishes	Popham 1984, pp. 174–175, fig. 16 (LM II, Unexplored Mansion); Wilson 1985, pp. 337–339, fig. 32 (EM IIA, West House); Macdonald and Knappett 2007, p. 30 (MM I–II, Early Magazine A and SW houses); Tomkins 2007, p. 44, fig. 1:15 (LN–FN); Hood and Cadogan 2011, p. 190, fig. 7:21 (EM II–III, Royal Road); Rethemiotakis and Warren 2014 (building, Bougadha Metochi)
124	Phaistos	FN-LM				×		×	×			cheese pots; cooking dishes	Borgna 1997, p. 193, fig. 6 (LM III); Tomkins 2007, p. 44
125	Kephala Petras	FN-LM				×		×	×			cheese pots; cooking trays	Papadatos 2012, pp. 74–75, fig. 2:i, j
126	Kavousi-Vronda	FN-LM IIIC						×	×			cooking plates; cooking dishes	Day et al. 2016, p. 50, fig. 25 (EM); p. 54, fig. 29 (MM I–II); p. 60, fig. 35 (MM III–LM I); pp. 82–85, figs. 48, 49 (LM IIIC)
127	Nerokourou	FN-LM				×		×	×			cheese pots; <i>bacile</i>	Kanta and Rocchetti 1989, p. 159; Vagnetti 1996, p. 32, fig. 2:4
128	Myrtos	EM II						×	×			baking plates; baking trays	Warren 1972, p. 111, figs. 45–47; Whitelaw et al. 1997, p. 272, pl. CIV:a
129	Alatzomouri Rock Shelter	EM III						×	×			cooking dishes	Betancourt and Brogan 2017, pp. 62–64, figs. 49, 50

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
130	Malia	EM II–LM IB	4					×	×			<i>plats; plateaux</i>	Detournay 1975, p. 54, pls. XV:5, XVI:1; Poursat and Knappett 2005, p. 59, fig. 13, pls. 17, 47 (MM II); Darcque, Van de Moortel, and Schmid 2014, pls. 13, 15, 44, 59, 65, 113
131	Archanes-Anemospilia	MM IIIA							×			δίσκοι; ρηχές ημισφαιρικές λεκάνες	Sakellarakis and Sapouna-Sakellarakis 1997, vol. 1, p. 277, fig. 226; vol. 2, pp. 423–425, fig. 394
132	Petras	MM III–LM IB	1					×	×			cooking plates; cooking dishes	Tsipopoulou and Alberti 2011, pp. 494–495, fig. 43 (LM IB); Alberti 2012, p. 240, fig. 3; 2016, pp. 74–79, 86–89, pls. 19, 20 (LM IA)
133	Kommos	MM IB–LM IIIB						×	×			cooking dishes	Betancourt 1980, pp. 5–7; 1990, pp. 66, 81–82 (MM); Watrous 1992, p. 122, fig. 58 (LM); Rutter 2004; Rutter and Van de Moortel 2006, pp. 341–343, pls. 3:11, 12 (MM–LM); Rutter 2017, p. 193 (LM IIIA)
134	Pseira	MM III–LM IB						×	×			cooking dishes	Banou 1995a, pp. 109, 113, 116; 1995b, p. 81; 1998, p. 24, pl. 12
135	Palaikastro	MM III–LM III	3					×	×			shallow dishes; baking plates; baking dishes; cooking dishes	Sackett et al. 1965, p. 285, fig. 16; MacGillivray, Sackett, and Driessen 2007, p. 157 (LM wells); Knappett and Cunningham 2012, p. 102, figs. 5:26, 33, 6:9 (MM IIIA–LM IA, Block M)
136	Mochlos	MM III–LM III	2					×	×			cooking dishes	Barnard and Brogan 2003, pp. 82–86, pl. 25 (Neopalatial); Smith 2010, pp. 115–118, figs. 84, 85 (Mycenaean); Morrison 2017 (LM)
137	Zakros	MM II–LM IIIA	1						×			λεκάνες σε σχήμα σκάφης, πλάθανα	Gerontakou 2000
138	Apodoulou	MM II							×			baking basins	Tzedakis and Martlew 2002, pp. 89–90, fig. 56
139	Chamalevri	MM I–LM III	1						×			baking basins	Tzedakis and Martlew 2002, pp. 90, 165
140	Papadiokambos	LM IB	4						×			cooking dishes	Brogan et al. 2013, pp. 126–129, fig. 2

Site No.	Site	Period	Well-Preserved Specimens	Type								Common Term/s Used	References
				1.1	1.2	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	4		
141	Kavousi-Kastro	LM IIIC	1						×			cooking dishes	Mook 1999
142	Chalasmenos	LM IIIC						×	×			cooking dishes	Tsipopoulou 2004, p. 115, fig. 8:9; Eaby 2018, pp. 68–69, fig. 26
143	Sybrita, Amari	LM IIIC						×	×			cooking dishes	Prokopiou 1991, p. 381, fig. 6
144	Platyskinos Achladia	LM						×	×			dishes	Tsipopoulou 1995, p. 40
145	Galatas, Building 2	LM						×	×			μαγειρικοί δίσκοι; πλάθανοι	Apostolaki 2014, pp. 129–134
146	Karphi	LM IIIC	1					×	×			cooking dishes	Day 2011, pp. 315–317, fig. 9:29, pl. 8
147	Kastelli, Chania	LM III	1					×	×			cooking dishes	Hallager 2000, p. 160, fig. 32:4, pl. 46; 2003, pp. 240–242, fig. 51:3–5, pl. 74; 2016, pp. 266–267, fig. 80:8
POST-BRONZE AGE													
148	Asine	IA									×	trays	Catling and Lemos 1990, pp. 63–64, pl. 79
149	Lefkandi	IA									×	basins	Wells 1983, pp. 224–225, fig. 169
150	Drakontion	LBA-IA									×	basins for baking bread	Gimatidis, Karliambas, and Kotsos 2014, p. 193, fig. 4:d

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Anastasia Dimoula

ARISTOTLE UNIVERSITY OF THESSALONIKI
DEPARTMENT OF ARCHAEOLOGY, SCHOOL OF
HISTORY AND ARCHAEOLOGY
THESSALONIKI
GREECE
adimoula@hist.auth.gr

Zoi Tsirtsoni

CNRS-UNIVERSITÉ DE PARIS I-UNIVERSITÉ DE PARIS NANTERRE
UNIVERSITÉ DE PARIS 8-MINISTÈRE DE LA CULTURE
UMR 7041 ARCHÉOLOGIES ET SCIENCES DE L’ANTIQUITÉ
NANTERRE CEDEX
FRANCE
zoi.tsirtsoni@cnrs.fr

Soultana Maria Valamoti

ARISTOTLE UNIVERSITY OF THESSALONIKI
DEPARTMENT OF ARCHAEOLOGY, SCHOOL OF
HISTORY AND ARCHAEOLOGY
THESSALONIKI
GREECE
sval@hist.auth.gr