LA SICILIA PREISTORICA

Dinamiche interne e relazioni esterne



a cura di

Pietro Militello, Fabrizio Nicoletti, Rosalba Panvini







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Atti del Convegno Internazionale Catania – Siracusa, 7-9 ottobre 2021

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Regione Siciliana Assessorato dei Beni Culturali e dell'Identità Siciliana

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Le principali abbreviazioni usate nel testo sono le seguenti:

Aa. Vv. = autori vari a.C. = avanti Cristo AD = Anno Domini BC = Before Christ BP = Before Present bibl. = bibliografia c., cc. = colonna colonne ca. = circacal. = calibrata cap./pp. = capanna/e cd. = cosiddetto/ac.da = contradacds = in corso di stampa cfr. = confronta d.C. = dopo Cristo diam. = diametro dis. = disegno E = estEad. = Eadem ed./s. = editor/ses. = esempio

H/h = altezza

Ibid. = Ibidem

inv. = inventario

Id. = Idem

i.e. = id est

it. = italiano/a larg. = larghezza lung. = lunghezza max. = massimo/amed. = medio/amill. = millennio min. = minimo/aN = nordn./nn. = numero/in.s. = nuova seriep./pp. = pagina/eprec. = precedente S = sudsec. = secoloser. = seriesgg. = seguenti s.l.m. = sul livello del mare spess. = spessore suppl. = supplemento t./tt. = tomba/etav./vv. = tavola/etg./gg. = taglio/itrad. = traduzione

v. = vedi

W = ovest

vol./voll. = volume/i

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Alberto Cazzella⁽¹⁾ - Giulia Recchia⁽¹⁾ - Grazia Semeraro⁽²⁾

Sicily and Malta: interactions and oppositions between the Early Bronze Age and the Early Iron Age

RIASSUNTO - Il tema non è nuovo, ma via via ulteriori dati si aggiungono a quelli già noti per comprendere meglio il tipo di interrelazioni che si stabilirono tra le due sfere culturali prese in esame. In particolare ci sembra utile porre in evidenza non solo gli elementi di affinità legati a contatti culturali, scambi, spostamenti di piccoli gruppi di individui tra di esse, ma anche quelli che segnano contrapposizioni, soprattutto dal punto di vista delle probabili forme di organizzazione sociale. A Malta, pur essendo conclusa all'inizio dell'età del Bronzo l'esperienza della costruzione dei santuari megalitici ed essendo stata abbandonata la sfera ideologica a questi connessa, sembrano aver avuto effetto nuovi apporti culturali, probabilmente veicolati da piccoli gruppi di origine egea, che tenevano tuttavia conto anche delle tradizioni locali. Il risultato fu una nuova apertura a relazioni esterne con le aree adiacenti, a cominciare dalla Sicilia, ma anche il persistere di aspetti come il legame con alcuni dei luoghi in cui sorgevano i "templi" megalitici. Questa condizione, che aveva alla base una situazione sociale complessa, anche se non necessariamente la struttura del *chiefdom*, potrebbe aver favorito un precoce sviluppo di forme di gerarchizzazione interna (indiziato soprattutto dai corredi della necropoli di Tarxien), mentre in Sicilia, nonostante alcuni indizi di diversificazione interna connessi con le tombe castellucciane, un fenomeno di incipiente stratificazione sociale potrebbe aversi in alcuni siti solo dopo la metà del II millennio a.C. Un'accelerazione del processo sembra verificarsi in Sicilia tra la fine del II e i primi secoli del I millennio a.C., quando l'isola maggiore divenne anche fonte di esportazione di manufatti o modelli verso Malta.

SUMMARY - SICILY AND MALTA: INTERACTIONS AND OPPOSITIONS BETWEEN THE EARLY BRONZE AGE AND THE EARLY IRON AGE - The topic of interactions between Sicily and Malta during the 2nd and early 1st millennia BC has been widely discussed in scholarly debate. New data though makes it worth revisiting as our understanding of the patterns of interactions between these two cultural spheres is now much enhanced. In particular, it is important to take into account not only the elements of similarity underlying cultural contacts, exchange and movements of small human groups between these two spheres, but also those aspects marking differences and "oppositions", especially as regards the patterns of social organisation. In the Maltese Islands at the dawn of the Bronze Age the phenomenon of megalithic "temples" building and the ideology that had inspired it was over. New cross-cultural contacts, which were probably conveyed by small groups of Aegean origin, then appear to have strongly influenced the archipelago's communities. This resulted in a reopening of the archipelago towards external connections with the adjacent regions: Sicily in the first place. Nonetheless traditional aspects endured, such as a profound link with "ancestral" places, namely some of the old megalithic complexes. The complex social dimension underlying the temple building and use, although not of a chiefdom type, might have favoured the early development of social inequality in the Early Bronze Age, as indicated by the grave goods at the cemetery of Tarxien. On the other hand, it was not before the mid-2nd millennium BC that a phenomenon of incipient social stratification emerged in Sicily, although the Castelluccio tombs hint at some social differentiations. This process of social inequality dramatically accelerated in Sicily between the end of the 2nd and the early 1st millennia BC, when this larger island became the source of both inspiration models and exports that were conveyed to the Maltese archipelago.

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The aim of this paper is to contribute to the understanding of patterns of interactions and historical trajectories of a central area (and not merely in geographical terms) of the Mediterranean between the late 3rd and the early 1st millennia BC. For the sake of exposition, it is divided into two parts. In the first recent proposals by

various scholars as regards interactions between Sicily and the Maltese Islands during the period under scrutiny are discussed, while in the second part we shall attempt to define similarities and differences in socio-cultural developments between the two regions, also considering internal cultural articulations.

1. EVIDENCE OF INTERACTIONS: A REAP-PRAISAL

In the last decades various scholars have dealt with the subject of relationships between Sicily and Malta during the Bronze Age (fig. 1), identifying the elements testifying to these interactions and proposing interpretations for both their chronology and their meaning. New contributions to this topic were published between 2020 and 2022. One is represented by the two first volumes presenting the results of the ERC-FRAGSUS project, focusing on the Maltese prehistory (French et Alii 2020; Malone et Alii 2020): despite not addressing the theme under discussion specifically, they pose some problems indirectly relevant to it. Somewhat similar in character is the more recent paper by Groucutt and colleagues (2022), specifically dealing with the possible link between the presumed 4.2 ka BP climatic crisis in the Mediterranean and the hypothetical "desertification" of the Maltese archipelago that would have followed this event.

A further, more specific contribution is given by D. Tanasi (2020a, b, c): we largely agree with the elements considered by Tanasi, yet less so with some of his interpretations, even though appreciating his work.

Early Bronze Age (ca. 2250-1500 BC)

As regards the Early Bronze Age in Malta¹ one point of concern is the chronological/demographical picture proposed by Malone *et Alii* (2020) in the framework of the ERC-FRAGSUS project. In agreement with D. Trump's hypothesis (Trump 2002, pp. 238-241), these authors, also on the basis of new data, believe that the Maltese archipelago became deserted in the last two centuries of the 3rd millennium BC, and thus that the Tarxien Cemetery culture emerged later still, in the early 2nd millennium BC.

A similar proposal was recently put forward by Groucutt *et Alii* (2022), albeit more cautiously, leaving more room for doubts. They hypothesise that the consequences of the 4.2 ka climatic crisis after the mid-3rd millennium BC could have been coupled with the effects of an epidemic, causing a two centuries gap in the occupation of the archipelago between the phase characterised by the Thermi Ware (4.4-4.2 ka BP) and the Tarxien Cemetery one; notwithstanding, the authors themselves recognise evidence of continuity between pottery productions across the two phases.

The assumption of an occupation gap in Malta in the late 3rd millennium BC conflicts with L. Bernabò Brea's proposal (1985) that the beginning of the Tarxien Cemetery culture paralleled that of the Capo Graziano culture in the Aeolian Islands, as both would have been related to the same phenomenon of movements of small human groups from the Peloponnese to these archipelagos taking place exactly in those centuries. Bernabò Brea's hypothesis is further confirmed in the Aeolian Islands by the earliest ¹⁴C dates recently obtained from Filicudi and Stromboli (Martinelli et Alii 2010; Bettelli et Alii 2016). As for Malta, research at Tas-Silg indicates no gap in the occupation of the site in that period (Cazzella and Recchia 2012, p. 29), making the FRAGSUS team's suggestion not utterly convincing: it is possible that some centres were abandoned at that time, but not the entire archipelago. Unfortunately, pieces of evidence indicating Early Bronze Age interactions between Sicily, Malta and the Aegean - even those more recently acknowledged - are not always well chronologically defined. Nonetheless, evidence related to an early phase of these contacts is given by the so-called clay anchors, occurring in the Aegean in the late 3rd millennium BC, which are to be found both in the Tarxien Cemetery levels at Xaghra (Malone et Alii 2009, p. 241) and in the Capo Graziano culture layers at Lipari (Bernabò Brea 1985, pp. 109-112). For a later phase of this period, in addition to the occurrence of a possible cylindrical lead weight from the cemetery at Tarxien (Zammit 1930) and of scale beams from Castelluccio, Cava Secchiera di Melilli and Fiumedinisi (Tanasi 2020c), we can mention the recent identification of scale weights from the Aeolian Islands, Mursia (Ialongo 2018) and Castelluccio tomb 22 (Crispino and Cultraro 2015; Tanasi 2020c, tab. 2),

¹ Early Bronze Age in Malta possibly began before 2250 BC, if one includes within this period also the first emergence in the Archipelago of Thermi Ware, which can be dated to the third quarter of the 3rd millennium BC. Following this view, we suggested a date around the mid-3rd millennium BC for the beginning of the Maltese Early Bronze Age (Recchia and Cazzella 2017; Cazzella *et Alii* 2020, p. 191); Malone *at Alii* (2020, p. 14, tab. 1.3) also put its beginning around 2400 BC.

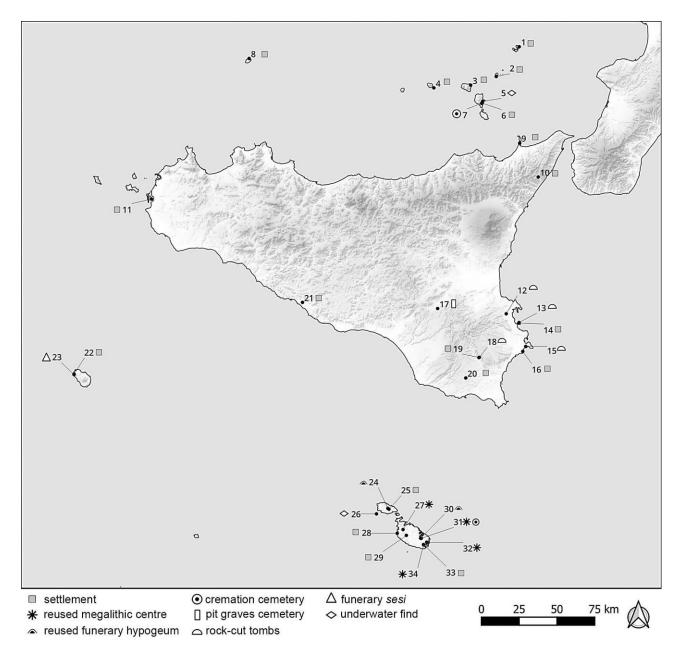


Fig. 1 - Map of the islands in the study showing all sites mentioned in the text: 1. San Vincenzo - Stromboli; 2. Punta Mi-lazzese - Panarea; 3. Portella - Salina; 4. Capo Graziano - Filicudi; 5. Pignataro - Lipari; 6. Lipari - Acropoli; 7. Contrada Diana - Lipari; 8. Faraglioni - Ustica; 9. Milazzo; 10. Fiumedinisi; 11. Mozia; 12. Cava Secchiera; 13. Thapsos, cemetery; 14. Thapsos; 15. Matrensa; 16. Ognina; 17. Madonna del Piano; 18. Castelluccio, cemetery; 19. Castelluccio; 20. Calicantone; 21. Cannatello; 22. Mursia, cemetery - Pantelleria; 23. Mursia - Pantelleria; 24. Xagħra - Gozo; 25. In-Nuffara - Gozo; 26. Xlendi - Gozo; 27. Skorba - Malta; 28. Baħrija - Malta; 29. Mdina - Malta; 30. Hal Saflieni - Malta; 31. Tarxien - Malta; 32. Tas-Silġ - Malta; 33. Borġ in-Nadur, settlement - Malta; 34 - Borġ in-Nadur, megalithic centre - Malta (E. Lucci).

which suggest a parallel affirmation of metrological techniques perhaps of Aegean-Mycenaean origin².

As regards the Early Bronze Age in Sicily, the main point upon which we disagree with D. Ta-

nasi is the hypothesis of "the arrival [in Sicily] of Maltese people, among which specialised craftsmen, concurrently with the climate of instability that followed the end of the Temple period [...]" (Tanasi 2020a, p. 335), as he implicitly agrees with the FRAGSUS team's

² Although this does not mean that analogous weight systems were adopted across a vast area.

³ "[...] l'arrivo di genti maltesi e tra di essi artigiani specializzati in concomitanza con il clima di instabilità seguito alla fine dei templi [...]".

postulation mentioned above. According to Tanasi, evidence sustaining this hypothesis would be the occurrence in Sicily of Tarxien Cemetery pottery, fragments of clay disc-shaped idols and dolmens. First, these elements do not necessarily entail the presence of specialized craftsmen. Second, al-though it cannot be absolutely ruled out that small human groups⁴ did move from Malta to Sicily, we disagree with a desertification of the Maltese Islands scenario.

Thus, we are not convinced that "a climate of instability" in Malta would have caused the diaspora of those small groups. Rather, the crisis at the end of the Temple period, probably more ideological than economic in nature, possibly even favoured a wider opening-up of the archipelago towards Mediterranean interactions and the welcoming in the archipelago of small human groups directly or indirectly originating from the Peloponnese/Ionian Islands.

According to the FRAGSUS team's proposal, between the 1700 and 1500 BC approximately, the Maltese archipelago experienced a further gap in human occupation (Malone et Alii 2020, pp. 33-34, 475, tab. 13.2). This period corresponds to the floruit of both the Aeolian Islands (Bettelli 2002) and Pantelleria (Marazzi 2016), which became the main points of reference, respectively, for the Aegean-Mycenaean sailors in the southern Tyrrhenian and the "Levantine" ones in the Sicilian Channel. Although Malta appears to lack such a significant involvement in international networks, it remains highly doubtful both that the archipelago was depopulated once more and that it was completely cut off from the local exchange network with Sicily, the Aeolian Islands and Pantelleria. As mentioned above imports and/or imitations (which do not imply the presence of specialised craftsmen) of Tarxien Cemetery pottery do occur in both Sicily and Pantelleria (Cazzella and Recchia 2015a): these are often difficult to date precisely, but it seems unlikely that none belong to this highpoint in maritime networking. According to the fresh ¹⁴C dates for the level of abandonment of the Calicantone site (taking the highest ones, that overlap each other; Militello et Alii 2018), the Tarxien Cemetery vessel found there dates shortly before the 1654-1597 cal. BC.

Middle and Recent Bronze Age (ca. 1500-1050 BC)

Starting from the Middle Bronze Age and in the following Recent Bronze Age (adopting the Sicilian chronological terminology) interactions between Sicily and the Maltese archipelago appear to intensify, based on the increasing occurrence of Maltese-type pottery in Sicily, especially in the Middle Bronze Age. As for the Recent Bronze Age, Tanasi has pointed out the occurrence at Bahrija of some strainer spouted jars of Pantalica Nord type, which were likely produced in Malta (Tanasi et Alii 2019; Tanasi 2020a).

Archaeometrical analyses on pottery, particularly those achieved by Tanasi, provide the main sources of fresh information and advance. These have helped by downsizing the hypothesis of Thapsos pottery-type imports in Malta and, on the other hand, have highlighted the local production in Sicily of Borg in-Nadur type pottery (Matrensa tomb 6 and Ognina: Raneri *et Alii* 2015)⁵. In any case, despite their non-specialised technological levels of manufacture, Maltese pottery productions enjoyed some prestige in Middle Bronze Age Sicily, as is indicated by their use as grave-goods, often along with Aegean-Mycenaean pottery (Alberti 2006; Tanasi and Veca 2019, pp. 133-140).

A further problematic matter is the suggestion, based on the results of recent portable-XRF analyses, that the scanty Aegean-Mycenaean type fragments from Malta were locally produced (Tanasi 2020c, tab. 3): this claim raises reasonable doubts as to its possibility, as Malta lacks a local tradition of wheel-thrown pottery in the Bronze Age. Here, the FRAGSUS team's hypothesis that some Borg in-Nadur pottery is wheel-thrown (Malone *et Alii* 2020, p. 261) should be more carefully verified, as it is based only on macroscopic observation and not scientific analysis.

As for the exotic elements occurring both in Malta and in Sicilian and Aeolian contexts, one can mention the ox-hide ingots fragments (Lo

⁴ We would rather avoid the term *genti* - thus peoples in English - for prehistoric contexts.

⁵ Although the analytical technique used (portable XRF, which operates only on the surface) leaves room for some doubts on the results.

Schiavo *et Alii* 2009; Tanasi 2020c, tab. 4)⁶ that can be correlated with the weights from Thapsos tombs 14 and 48, Mozia and Lipari, all possibly linked with metallurgical activities (Nigro 2016; Ialongo 2018; Tanasi 2020c, tab. 4).

A still unresolved problem, in our opinion, remains that of the chronology of the Thapsos settlement phase with rectangular buildings. We are sceptical about Alberti's (2007) and Tanasi's (2020d) hypothesis that it belongs to the Middle Bronze Age and that there was then a gap in its occupation of almost two centuries, until being reoccupied in the Final Bronze Age the same long abandoned buildings were reused.

Final Bronze Age - 1st Iron Age (ca. 1050-700 BC)

As regards the Maltese later prehistoric periods, we disagree with both the chronological terminology and the dating proposed by Tanasi. With the terminology, we dispute Tanasi's complicated division made between "culture" and "period": the latter term is anomalously used by the author - together with D. Cardona - to indicate chronological distinctions within a culture⁷. Nor do Tanasi and Cardona explicitly explain why Borg in-Nadur should be considered as a "culture" representing "the main product of the Maltese indigenous communities throughout the Middle/Late Bronze Age and Iron Age", while Baħrija would be a "period", that is an "internal chronological stage characterized by specific pottery productions, identifiable on the basis of typological and stylistic indicators" (Tanasi and Cardona 2020a, p. 1). The terminological weakness and contradiction of this proposal also emerges in Tanasi's definition of the chronological sequence, with the three first periods of the so-called Borg in-Nadur culture labelled as Borg in-Nadur stages (Early, Classic, Late) and the last two periods as Borg in-Nadur/Bahrija transition phase and Mature Bahrija (Tanasi 2020b, p. 67).

We are inclined instead to consider Borg in-Nadur and Bahrija as two distinct chronological periods rather than just indicative of different stylistic ceramic features; we therefore adopt a less complicated terminology, also considering the Maltese Late Bronze Age/Early Iron Age sequence as parallel to the Sicilian one (Cazzella and Recchia 2020).

As for the chronology, some ¹⁴C dates from Maltese contexts are now available, yet their association with a given phase and/or pottery assemblage is not straightforward and should be carefully evaluated, taking into account the nature, depositional processes and stratigraphical reliability of the deposits from which the dated sample is taken. Some of the samples come from old excavations (i.e. those at Bahrija), whose stratigraphical distinction is far from solid. Further concerns that need considering are the endurance of stylistic traits across different phases, coupled with the recurring residual presence of earlier sherds in later layers, especially in longlived in contexts such as the settlements under scrutiny.

With this in mind, we now briefly examine the available dates. Some have been provided by the FRAGSUS project from a pit at In-Nuffara (Malone et Alii 2020, pp. 253-262). Here the level at the bottom of the pit's stratigraphical sequence (SU44) has given a date of 1110-895 cal. 2 sigma BC. The filling layers above have instead generally produced higher dates, starting from around 1400 cal. BC: it is thus safe to assume that these layers resulted from discarding activities that included material of diverse periods. Thus, the first date (SU44) provides evidence for the construction of the pit, which falls into the Final Bronze Age (Bahrija period, in our opinion), while none of the other ones are of any use in dating the materials from the filling deposits.

Two more ¹⁴C dates have been provided by Tanasi, one from level 2 at the Borg in-Nadur settlement (or rather from hut 2 following Trump's terminology: Trump 1961), falling between 939-837 cal. 2 sigma BC, and one from Bahrija, trench D, pre-*torba* floor of 860-807 cal. 2 sigma BC. In Tanasi's view these can be placed in the "transitional phase" Borg in-Nadur/Bahrija (Tanasi 2020b, p. 67, Tanasi and Tykot 2020). Yet, the "Hut 2" at Borg in-Nadur has yielded at

⁶ Whereas the occurrence of an ox-hide ingots at Ognina has been recently rejected: Cultraro and Crispino 2014.

⁷ The terminological contrast between "cultures" and "phases" was introduced long ago by M. Pallottino (1965); the reference to R. Peroni (1998, p. 10) made by Tanasi and Cardona (2020a, p. 1) does not appear well-founded, and, in any case, Peroni's view on this point is not unanimously acknowledged by scholars.

least two vessels with typical excised Bahrija decoration. Thus in our opinion the ¹⁴C date can be safely considered as a chronological reference point for the Bahrija period, perhaps to a late phase. On the other hand, the stratigraphy at the Bahrija settlement is scarcely reliable and new stratigraphical tests are needed: the association between the dated sample, falling in the Sicilian Early Iron Age, and the pottery from the same level is not viable. The date acquired is again pointing to a Bahrija occupation of the site.

The excised decoration emerging in a late Bahrija phase could have been conveyed to Malta from Sicily, particularly from its western side (Cazzella and Recchia 2020 with references therein). Deposits belonging to this phase at Tas-Silġ (Idd. 2012) have yielded a serpentine fibula (fibula ad arco serpeggiante) and plumed-ware sherds (ceramica piumata; Ibid.). Both at Tas-Silġ and Bahrija geometric painted pottery occurs. While Tanasi considers this type of pottery as stemming from the local Maltese tradition of "dribbled ware" (Tanasi 2020a, p. 339), it is indeed possible that this one too originated from Sicily (or imitated Sicilian productions).

Alongside the details of the terminological and chronological debate, what differs is the historical interpretation. Tanasi proposes a model of residential bidirectionality, especially of pottery artisans, and long-lasting commercial partnership, suggesting that this phenomenon was ongoing from the mid-second millennium BC (Tanasi 2020a, p. 341). We favour instead the hypothesis of exchange relationships and cultural contacts stretching over a long period, starting from the Early Bronze Age, and involving in turn different Sicilian regions. We argue that this occurred without a systematic organisation and without any, or with but limited, reciprocal movements of individuals from one island to the other (G. Rewhia).

2. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN SOCIO-CULTURAL DEVELOPMENTS AMONG MALTA, SICI-LY, THE AEOLIAN ISLANDS AND PANTELLERIA

A. Early Bronze Age (ca. 2250-1500 BC)

An articulated social organisation could have developed in Malta already in the late 3rd millennium BC: in this new society both a local component and one of Aegean origin were merged (Cazzella and Recchia 2015b). The pre-existing social base, although not being necessarily organized in chiefdoms, was a complex one that was capable of erecting megalithic "temples".

New activities are introduced in the archipelago in the period under scrutiny, such as (probably) metallurgy and the organisation of seaborne exchange. The Aegean component of the Maltese communities, which could have utilised the cremation cemetery at Tarxien, displays a certain economic capacity by including artisanal and exotic artefacts among the grave goods (i.e. artefacts made of metal, vitreous materials, ostrich eggshells, precious stones and also entailing complex craftsmanship, such as the stone bead with gold inlay: Pace 2004). Several megalithic centres were occupied over the Tarxien Cemetery period, possibly still with a symbolic - yet diverse - purpose (Cazzella and Recchia 2015a). By exerting control over the "old" megalithic temples, this component of the population might have also reinforced its hegemonic socio-political role, thus contributing to the final dissolution of the traditional religious ideology of the Temple period. This last had already become undermined, as is illustrated by the absence of maintenance at megalithic centres and lack of repair of collapsed architectures (Idd. 2012). The large hypogea of Hal Saflieni and Xaghra have also yielded traces of occupation related to the Tarxien Cemetery period (Pace 2000, p. 21; Malone et Alii 2009), that at Xaghra at least are definitely not funerary in nature. 14C dates from these levels fall into a later phase of this period, which fact is interpreted by the authors of the excavations as a late reoccupation of the site following a moment of abandonment. Yet, the absence of older ¹⁴C dates does not necessarily imply a gap in the occupation of the site. Among the elements indicating an ideological discontinuity, there is the use of

anthropomorphic clay figurines highly differing in typology from the previous Late Neolithic ones. These have been found in a funerary context (the cremation cemetery at Tarxien: Pace 2004), in some "reutilised" temples such as Skorba (fig. 2. 2, 6; Trump 1966) and Tas-Silg (excavations 2003-2011; fig. 2.4, 7), and even at Xaghra in the deposits formed after the use of the hypogeum (fig. 2.1, 3, 5; Malone et Alii 2009). Tools and elements intended for practical activities also occur at some of these contexts, such as the above mentioned clay anchors related to weaving found at Xaghra (Ibid.) and the clay hearths brought to light at Tas-Silg (Cazzella and Recchia 2012, p. 31). It remains difficult to say whether daily mundane activities and/or cultic/religious ones were performed at these contexts or whether the seemingly practical activities were performed within the dimension of ritual practices. This latter hypothesis seems to us more feasible, considering how the Tas-Silg complex was later turned into a sanctuary - hence a place with a notable religious purpose - in the Phoenician period.

Recently C. Broodbank and G. Lucarini (2019) have revisited the hypothesis that the funerary use of dolmens, emerging in Early Bronze Age Malta, could be related with a pattern attested in coastal northern Africa. This may suggest that northern Africa perhaps constitutes a third component in the socio-ideological transformation taking place in Malta, and that it was not only a partner in the exchange contacts that are indicated by the occurrence of ostrich eggshell beads from the cemetery at Tarxien. However, more refined chronological data for the north African contexts is needed to support this hypothesis.

Both the arrival of small groups of Aegean origin and the introduction of the cremation ritual are attested in the Aeolian Islands, concurrently with Malta. However, in the cemetery at contrada Diana grave goods are almost non-existing (Martinelli 2020, p. 89). This may result from the intentional disguise of existing social differences, yet it cannot be ruled out that in the Aeolian Islands, where - unlike in Malta - a society of some complexity had been lacking in the previous period, a process of internal social diversification towards hierarchy had yet to be started. At pre-

sent, indications there for the emergence of social differentiations are poor, since the "silo" on the Lipari Acropolis may in fact be a cistern and the large structure delta IV at the same site was possibly a place for communal meetings rather than the "chief" residence (Pacciarelli 1991-92; Albore Livadie et Alii 2002). This situation, nonetheless, did not prevent the development of exchange activities and perhaps of craftsmanship activities, although evidence for the latter is chiefly related to metallurgy, peaking around the mid-2nd millennium BC. Uncertain clues for ceramic production on a non-domestic scale remain to be deciphered: apart from the controversial so-called shipwreck of Pignataro, M.C. Martinelli (2020, p. 94) has recently called attention to the "group of at least 50 vases found in the contrada Diana village and considered as the product of a kiln discard". Be all that as it may, the Aeolian Islands did become early involved in the Aegean-Mycenaean exchange network in the 17th century BC, possibly owing to their geographical location, besides the role that this archipelago had been already playing in local networks. In this respect then this archipelago differed from the Maltese Islands that remained marginal to the Mycenaean connection. Nonetheless, as said above, it remains difficult to understand what effect this early involvement did or did not have on the emergence of internal social stratification in the Aeolian Islands.

The island of Pantelleria appears to have missed out on the phenomenon of the arrival of small groups of Aegean seafarers at the end of the 3rd millennium BC. The initiation there of local exchange networks and artisanal activities, such as metallurgy, in the early 2nd millennium BC probably stemmed from the autonomous initiative of the local communities linked with Sicily, possibly replicating the exchange activities that had been already launched by the Maltese and the Aeolian Islands. Like the Aeolian Islands, Pantelleria became early involved in the exchange organized by eastern Mediterranean seafarers, in this case Levantine rather than Mycenaean (Marazzi 2016). Data on both the grave goods and the chronology of the local funerary structures, the sesi, is scarce, yet some traces of precious artefacts accompanying the burials exist (Nicoletti and Tusa 2012). These objects are at times com-

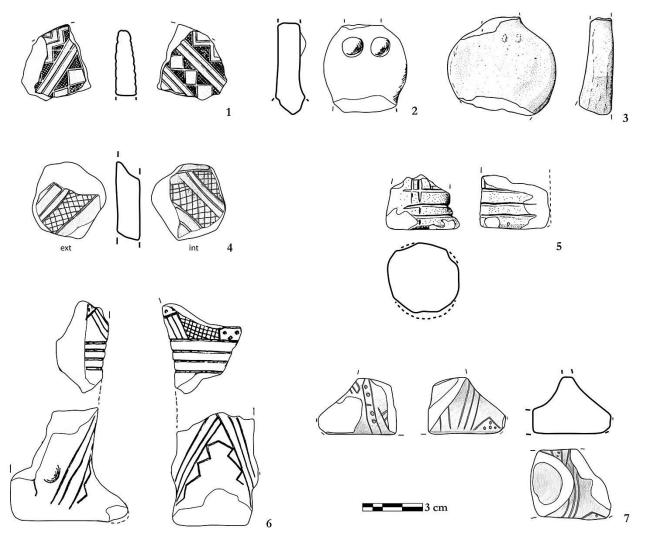


Fig. 2 - Anthropomorphic clay figurines from the Maltese archipelago belonging to the Tarxien Cemetery period: 1, 3, 5. From Xaghra; 2, 6. From Skorba; 4, 7. Form Tas-Silġ (1, 3, 5: adapted from Malone et Alii 2009; 2, 6: adapted from Trump 1966; 4, 7: drawing C. Ruggini).

parable to the exotic artefacts occurring in the neighbouring settlement of Mursia. Again as with the Aeolian Islands, the settlement fabric at Mursia lacks features pointing to internal social stratification: these could have been emerging, but without yet reaching their full affirmation. However, the role of Pantelleria in the maritime networks appears to decline in the following Milazzese period, a timespan to which most of the ¹⁴C dates from Tozzi's excavations at Mursia seem to belong (Tozzi 1978; Nicoletti 2014).

Due to space constraints, the various socioeconomic situations documented for Early Bronze Age Sicily cannot to be fully discussed in this paper. The general impression, however, is one of diversified scenarios. Ognina (Cultraro and Crispino 2014) and Milazzo (Levi *et Alii* 2009), on the base of pottery evidence, show links with the Maltese and the Aeolian Islands respectively. Data on social organisation is completely lacking for Ognina, but in the case of Milazzo it points to a situation like that observed for the Aeolian Islands. The Castelluccio tombs, which continued a modified version of the local funerary tradition, reveal some evidence of both external ostentation (moulded façades and carved doors: see for instance Lanteri 2012) and precious grave goods (artefacts made of metal and vitreous materials). These occurrences speak in favour of a tendency towards social stratification, yet it does not provide an unequivocal picture of a steady partition between a small elite and a wide subordinate population. Relationships with the Mycenaeans, which are not testified to by imported pottery but by other elements, might have

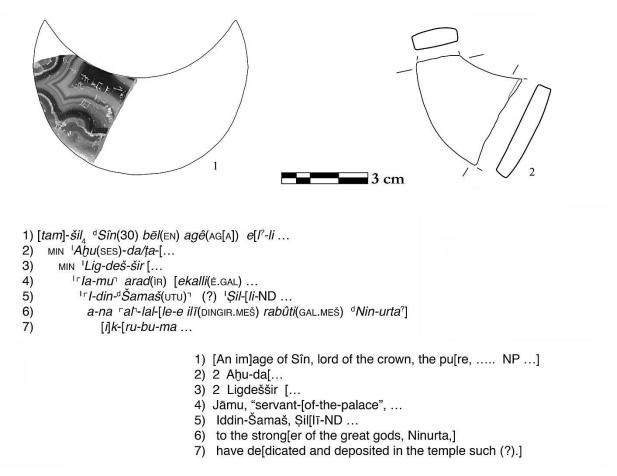


Fig. 3 - Agate lunar crescent with cuneiform inscription from Tas-Silg (Malta) (transcription and translation from F. W. Mayer 2012. Archives of the Italian Archaeological Mission in Malta).

favoured forms of internal social stratification, yet their impact is not clearly recognisable in the archaeological record (La Rosa 2005). Data on the internal organisation of the Castelluccio settlements is still poor (Copat, in this volume). In any case, the few settlements with man-made fortifications, probably coeval to those in southern Italy and thus slightly antedating the contacts with Aegean-Mycenaean seafarers, do not suffice to argue for the existence of established elitist groups organising the work of other individuals (see also Cazzella and Recchia 2013). The Rodi-Tindari-Vallelunga contexts probably fall into an even less articulated socio-economic scenario (Ardesia and Cattani 2012): the comparison with some interesting funerary contexts belonging to the same facies in southern Calabria (Pacciarelli 2001) requires a discussion outside the scope of this paper.

B. Middle and Recent Bronze Age (ca. 1500-1050 BC)

The social organisation in the Maltese archipelago between the mid and late 2nd millennium BC is hardly definable. The general impression is that the level of internal hierarchy did not increase: if anything, the situation became more similar to that of the adjacent regions under scrutiny. Funerary sites are virtually unknown, and settlements are but limitedly documented. The artificial fortification line at the Borg in-Nadur settlement (Pace 2004) appears as a new phenomenon in Malta, but as seen above these had already emerged in both Pantelleria and Sicily. As such, the establishment of fortified sites in Malta may mirror what was going on at Ustica, an island that was only apparently marginal. But unlike in Malta, the need for a defensive system at

Ustica possibly indicates that this island was involved in intense maritime activities in which legitimate exchange and piracy were closely intertwined (Spatafora 2016). Evidence of the continuity in the occupation of megalithic "temples" is known from only a few sites, among which are the neighbouring former megalithic centres of Tas-Silġ and Borġ in-Nadur, which yielded traces of intense occupation in this period (Tanasi and Vella 2015; Cazzella et Alii 2016). We are inclined to think that this occupation was not domestic in nature (the coeval settlement of Borg in-Nadur is close to the re-occupied megalithic site) and that a symbolic/ritual purpose was still attached to the site, something which at Tas-Silg continued on even later. Precious artefacts come from these two sites, such as the reportedly gold-plated bracelets from Borg in-Nadur and the decorated bone necklace-spacer and (probably) the agate lunar crescent with cuneiform inscription from Tas-Silġ (fig. 3; Cazzella et Alii 2011; Cazzella and Recchia 2012; Mayer 2012; Tanasi 2020c).

All in all, such precious artefacts appear to be closer linked to contexts characterised by a notable symbolic purpose (the reutilised megalithic centres) rather than to distinct individuals or small groups displaying and so enhancing their socially differentiated role. Thus, the main clues about the socio-economic structure derive from the evidence of both a still noteworthy capability to organise exchange to convey actual Maltese products to Sicily (or at least inspired their imitation in Sicily) and of the willingness to seek and acquire exotic raw material and/or goods (or, in turn, to locally imitate foreign artefacts). For the later phase of the period, corresponding with the Sicilian Recent Bronze Age (1250-1050 BC), Tanasi (2020a) reaffirmed that the influx of Maltese products in Sicily was now limited to the Cannatello settlement, since Thapsos would have been deserted at that time. As we have pointed out (Cazzella and Recchia 2020), we think instead that Thapsos was still settled and was still importing Maltese pottery/goods (fig. 4). Yet, it is only with the publication of the long-needed final report of the investigations at Thapsos that this divergence of opinions can be resolved.

As is well known, archaeological traces indicate that in this period the Aeolian Islands lost their position as the fulcrum of exchange activi-

ties in the lower Tyrrhenian Sea. The Milazzese pottery appears to be derived from the Sicilian Thapsos pottery, while peninsular Apennine-type vessels are now being imported and/or locally imitated (Martinelli 2020, pp. 119-143). Settlement patterns change, but without any detectable increase in social complexity (Alberti 2012). One of the newly occupied sites is that of Punta Milazzese on the island of Panarea, located on a naturally defended promontory. Its internal fabric is quite homogeneous, and its overall extension does not appear particularly large, even considering that marine erosion might have eaten away at the original size. The site at Portella on the island of Salina (Martinelli 2005) appears to differ in character from the typical dwelling settlement, but its true nature remains hard to grasp. In the Ausonio I period (Bernabò Brea and Cavalier 1980) the Aeolian archipelago either experienced an actual invasion by a group from the Italian peninsula or simply all the settlements - except from the Acropolis at Lipari - were spontaneously abandoned. Whatever the case, its role in the maritime network became less and less relevant. The import of Mycenaean pottery (and other goods of Aegean origin) continued, yet at a progressively decreasing level.

Some socio-economic transformations were underway in Sicily, at least in some contexts. In the Middle Bronze Age, Aegean-Mycenaean imports reached their peak in some areas (southeastern region of the island and in the presentday Agrigento province) and imports of Cypriot origin started. In the following Pantalica Nord period, imitations of the techniques and potterytypes of Mycenaean origin were locally developed, while imports of precious artefacts made of metal and other materials continued. The social dimension changed, but on a local scale. Settlements such as Thapsos (Voza 1972, 1973a, b) and Cannatello (Vanzetti et Alii, in this volume) became hotspots for exchange activities. The chronology of the series of rectangular buildings at Thapsos (possibly inspired by Cypriot models and yielding Cypriot-type pottery), as mentioned above, is still being debated among scholars (see also Cultraro 2021). Yet, there is no doubt on the long-lasting occupation at Cannatello, which, however, is a rather anomalous settlement. On the other hand, P. Militello's recent work (2018)

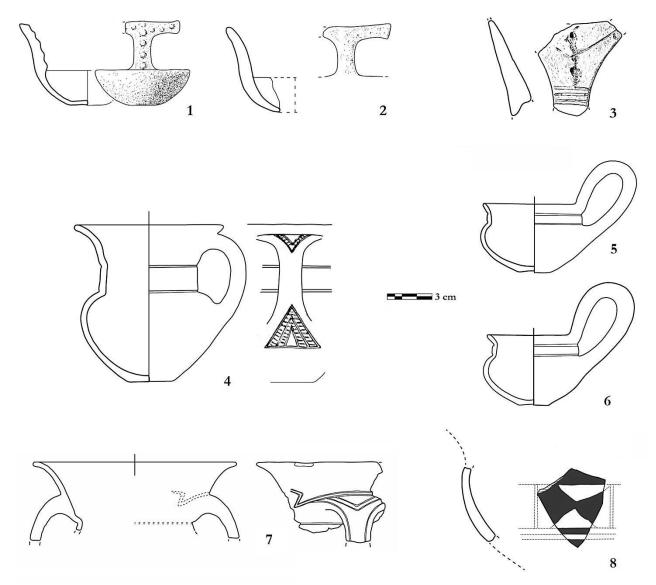


Fig. 4 - Maltese-type pottery from Thapsos (1-7) and matt-painted pottery from Mdina, Malta. 1-3. Borg in-Nadur-type pottery; 4-7. Bahrija-type pottery; 8. Matt-painted small jug (1-7: adapted from Voza 1973b; 8: adapted from Semeraro 2002).

definitely clarified the nature of the Pantalica anaktoron as a significantly distinct building. Moreover, some cemeteries displaying precious grave goods including gold and ivory items point to the existence of emerging social stratification inside some Recent Bronze Age communities (Albanese Procelli 2012; Albanese Procelli and Chilardi 2005; Panvini 2005) (A. Cazzella).

C. Final Bronze Age - 1st Iron Age (ca. 1050-700 BC)

Data on the Final Bronze Age-Early Iron Age in Malta is still limited. Scholars tend to adopt diverse terminologies in defying its phase sequence: D. Tanasi (2020b, pp. 74-77), as seen above, is inclined to distinguish between a transitional phase Borg in-Nadur/Bahrija and then a subsequent phase labelled as "Mature Bahrija". We prefer, instead, to define the whole period as Bahrija, subdividing it into an Early and a Late phase (Cazzella and Recchia 2020). In our opinion, Maltese imports belonging to this entire period occur at Thapsos, whereas the view of some other authors is that this settlement experienced a gap in occupation, and that commercial relations with the outside world did not recommence until two centuries had passed. Not only did the explorations at Bahrija not provide a clear stratigraphical sequence, but, most of all, they did not

provide any evidence on the internal planning of the settlement, whose only distinct feature known as yet is its naturally defended location (Tanasi and Cardona 2020b). Further traces related to this period have been found at former megalithic sites occupied over the Bronze Age, such as Borg in-Nadur (Tanasi 2020b) and Tas-Silg. The latter in particular was occupied for the whole period under scrutiny, until it was turned into the Phoenician sanctuary dedicated to Astarte (Semeraro 2002, 2004-05).

In the Aeolian Islands only the Acropolis on Lipari continued to be occupied (Bernabò Brea and Cavalier 1980), yet this also was either abandoned before the end of the period under scrutiny or had become less and less relevant. The metal hoard found at the Acropolis (Borgna, in this volume) would suggest that at the beginning of the Ausonio II (assuming this is its actual dating) this site still played a role in the circulation of prestige goods. Nonetheless, it cannot be ruled out that this role was now more piratical than based an organised exchange network.

The debate on the social complexity of groups belonging to the Final Bronze Age/Early Iron Age in Sicily is still in process (Leighton 1999; Tusa 1999; Albanese Procelli 2003; Panvini, in this volume). Evidence of social differentiation is recognisable in the grave goods of some cemeteries, such as, for example, that at Madonna del Piano (Albanese Procelli *et Alii* 2014-15). Yet, in our opinion, the data in this regard coming from settlements is not clearly so.

As regards the relationship with Malta, there is an increase of the elements of Sicilian origin that were either imported or stimulated local imitations in the archipelago, for instance: the protogeometric and geometric painted pottery, the decorative style of the impasto pottery belonging to the later Bahrija phase, the abovementioned occurrence at Tas-Silġ of plumed ware (ceramica piumata) and a serpentine fibula.

Artefacts belonging to indigenous productions of eastern Sicily, such as the matt-painted small jug from Mdina (fig. 4.8; Semeraro 2002, pp. 506-507, fig. 12.b) and some long-known sherds from Baħrija (Evans 1953, p. 75; Semeraro 2002, p. 507, n. 49, fig. 12.c) can be dated to the 8th centu-

ry BC. Despite being not abundant, these elements clearly testify to the persistence of the relationships with Sicily during this, one of the less archaeologically documented periods in the history of the archipelago. This is indeed the moment when Malta became involved in the wider phenomenon of the Phoenician expansion, so entering a network of interconnections and exchange also encompassing Sicily, Tyrrhenian Italy and the entire of the western Mediterranean (see Semeraro 2002). An exceptional contribution here has been given by the discovery of the Phoenician shipwreck at Xlendi. The latest data on its cargo indicates how this vessel was fully integrated into the early-mid 7th century BC central Mediterranean network (Gambin et Alii 2021). The first arrival in Malta of Greek pottery, typologically akin to that circulating in the Sicilian centres, can be assigned to this very network (G. Semeraro).

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