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THE RESETTLEMENT OF NOMADIC HORSEMEN TRIBES TO ASIA MINOR¹

© 2023 B.S. Sizdikov, T.A. Apendiyev, G. Batyrbekkyzy,
Z.I. Muldakhmetova

Written sources and archaeological data indicate that the vast territory from the Great Wall of China in the east to the Carpathian Mountains in the west in the first millennium BC was inhabited by the Sak and Sauromat–Sarmatian tribes, who formed a "nomadic culture". Warlike nomads, skilled horsemen, accurate archers and courageous warriors are known in history as "nomadic horsemen tribes". The settlement of nomadic tribes from the steppes of Central Asia to Eastern Europe and Asia Minor in the first half of the first millennium went down in history as the first wave of the "Great Migration" of the peoples from the East to the West. Today this fact is confirmed by written sources and archaeological evidences. As the result of these resettlements, various cultural conflicts have occurred throughout the history of mankind, and nomadic tribes have become recognized by the ancient peoples of Eastern Europe and Asia Minor. The issue of resettlement is the subject of research of foreign and local scientists. However, as it is one of the most important topics that needs to be studied the authors decided conduct scientific research on this topic, study the reasons and ways of migration of the nomadic horsemen tribes to Eastern Europe and Asia Minor, systematize old and new data, conduct a scientific analysis based on the experience of foreign and local researchers. Moreover, scientific conclusions have been done as well as the periods and directions of the conquering campaigns of nomadic horsemen in Asia Minor have been studied.

Key words: archaeology, Eastern Europe, Asia Minor, nomadic tribes of horsemen, the Sak, the Sauromat–Sarmats, nomadic, weapon.

Introduction

It is known that "Mounted Nomad Culture" appeared in Central Asia in the 1st millennium BC. This period is described as the "Early Nomadic Period" or "Scythian Period" in the history of Kazakhstan (Sizdikov, 2019, p. 2). Written sources and archaeological data show that Scythians, who were the leaders of these tribes, spread from the Great Wall of China in the east to the Carpathian Mountains in the west and Asia Minor in the south (Artamonov, 1974, p. 7–10; Memiş, 1987, p. 4–7; Melyukova, 1989, p. 33–35; Çay, Durmuş, 2002, p. 75–76; Durmuş, 2012, p. 48–49). Chinese sources mention the Scythian tribes as "Sai", whereas the Persian sources mention them as "Saka", Assyrian sources as "Ashguzai" and Greek sources as "Skythai" (Durmuş,

2012, p. 41–45; Çay, Durmuş, 2002, p. 477–479). Besides, in Avesta, the sacred book of the Zoroastrians, the Scythians are mentioned as "Tura" (Sizdikov, 2019, p. 2–3).

The second-largest tribe was the Sauromat-Sarmats. It is known that these tribes lived within a wide geography range from the south of the Ural Mountains in the east to the Danube River in the west (Brezezinski, Mielczarek, 2002, p. 3; Gursoy, 2019, p. 137–167; Gursoy et al., 2020, p. 412–419). Greek sources called them "Sauromatae" until the 4th century BC and "Syrmatæ" after the 4th century BC (Durmuş, 2007, p. 57). Besides, it is known that Avesta mentions the Sauromat tribes as "Sairima" (Marquart, 1901, p. 155).

Written sources and archaeological data show that horses had an important

¹ The work was carried out within the framework of the project of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan No. AP13068455 "Research of archaeological mounds of the lower reaches of the Keles River in the context of archaeology and interdisciplinary sciences".



Fig. 1. Horse Burials in Kurgans no 36 in the Berel 2 Cemetery and reconstruction of the kurgan no 11 in the Berel 2 Cemetery (photographs by Z. Samashev, K. Pavel; photographs Central Museum of Almaty).

Рис. 1. Конские захоронения в курганах № 36 могильника Берел 2 и реконструкция кургана № 11 могильника Берел 2.

place in the life of these tribes who adopted the nomadic lifestyle. In addition to using horses as a source of meat and milk in their daily lives, the nomadic tribes rode on them during migration, hunting, and war. They also used horse skin to produce armor as a means of defense. Hippocrates and Strabo, the ancient writers, mentioned the importance of the

horse in the daily lives of these tribes in their works. Hippocrates describes the Sauromatians as a tribe whose "women ride horses, shoot arrows on horseback, go hunting, and fight with the enemy." (Hippocrates, 1881). And Strabo, on the other hand, emphasizes the importance of the horse in their daily life: "Sarmatians don't like to walk and they teach their

children to ride horses." (Strabon, 1969). Archaeological data verify these testimonies. Many horse burials have also been found in the Scythian and Sauromat–Sarmatian kurgans in Central Asia (Fig. 1) (Samashev, 2014, p. 23–45). Therefore, they are known as "the Mounted Nomadic Tribes" in the literature.

Weapons constitute a large part of the troves excavated from kurgans and provide important information in determining the history of kurgans, the geographical spread of nomadic tribes, and the regional differences between tribes. Many researchers studied the weapons of nomadic tribes of Russia, the North Caucasus, and the Northern Black Sea regions (Melyukova, 1964, p. 1–85; Smirnov, 1961, p. 1–76; Hazanov, 1971, p. 1–121; Chernenko, 1968, p. 1–168; Simonenko, 2009, p. 1–256; Sizdikov, Seraliyev, 2022, p. 1114). However, the number of studies on the weapons of nomadic tribes that lived in Anatolia is very limited. Besides, the migration of the Central Asian mounted nomadic tribes to the west, the reasons for this migration, and their migration to Anatolia have not been sufficiently investigated. Therefore, in this study, we examined the weapons that prove the migration of these tribes to Anatolia and their existence in Anatolia, by taking into account all the old and new information together with the studies of the researchers mentioned above. We also discussed the reasons for this migration.

The Migration of the Central Asian Nomadic Tribes

In ancient times, all migration movements from Central Asia took place either after important events or social problems. One such movement was the migration of the Cimmerian and Scythian tribes to Anatolia during the Iron Age. Researchers have suggested two different theories to explain these migration movements. The first theory finds the reason behind this migration

in a long-term drought in Mongolia and Turkistan. The drought forced these tribes to migrate westward in search of new pastures (Tarhan, 1976, p. 365). The second theory claims that the reason behind migration was conquest. The Massagets defeated and forced these tribes to migrate (Çay, Durmuş, 2002, p. 495). But, we must note that not all the Scythian tribes migrated, and archaeological data prove that some continued to live in this region (Fig. 2) (Akishev, Kushaev, 1963, p. 21; Chlenova, Kubarev, 1990, p. 46–54).

This big migration, also known as the Migration of Tribes, ended the Bronze Age in Central Asia and heralded the beginning of the Iron Age (Mongait, 1955, p. 145–178). The weapon industry of the Scythian tribes began to develop. Bi- or trilobate arrowheads with spurs, known as the Scythian arrowheads, began to appear (Smirnov, 1961, p. 39–42). The importance of horses began to increase even more. The increasing importance is evidenced by the frequency of horse burials in kurgans (Samashev, 2014, p. 23–45). In addition to using horses as a source of meat and milk in their daily lives, the nomadic tribes rode on them during migration, hunting, and war. They also used horse skin to produce armor as a means of defense. Thus, these warrior Scythian tribes began to be known as "Mounted Nomadic Tribes".

In the late 8th century and early 7th century BC, these nomadic tribes arrived in Cimmeria in the Northern Black Sea steppes, passing south of the Ural Mountains and north of the Caspian Sea (Terenojkin, 1973, p. 7; Artamonov, 1974, p. 13; Tarhan, 1979, p. 355; Leskov, 1981, p. 99; Melyukova, 1989, p. 11; Koca, 2002). Excavations in South Ural and North Caucasus regions prove this route. Leaf-shaped bilobate arrowheads dating to the 8th and 7th centuries BC (Itina, Yablonsky, 1997, p.49) began to be seen in the Southern Ural and North Caucasus regions in the

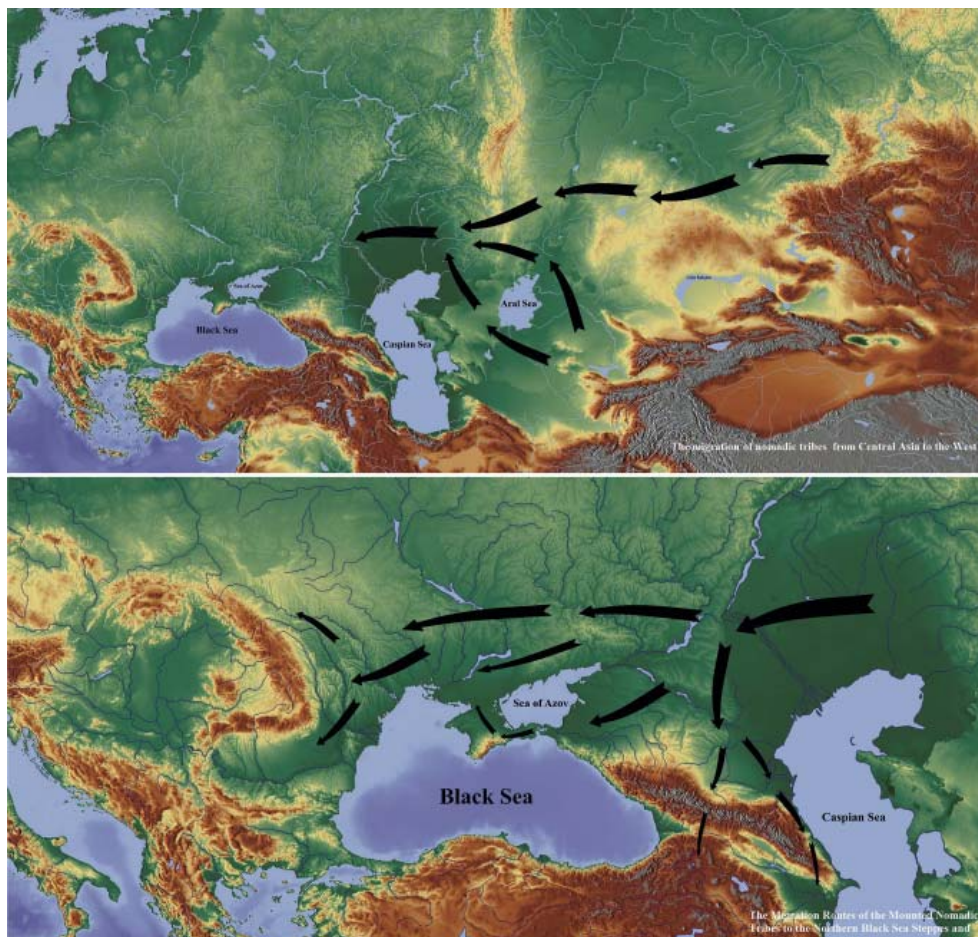


Fig. 2. The migration of nomadic tribes from Central Asia to the West.

Рис. 2. Миграция кочевых племен из Средней Азии на Запад.

7th and 6th centuries BC (Melyukova, 1964, p. 18; Smirnov, 1961, p. 10).

It is known that the troves found in the Northern Black Sea and dated to the 9th–8th centuries BC belong to the Cimmerians and the region experienced a change that began at the end of the 8th century and the beginning of the 7th century. Archaeological data obtained from the North Caucasus and the Northern Black Sea region support this. The Southern Ural region was also affected by this change and the Sauromats appeared in the area. Many scientists believe that their emergence is linked to the Scythians and Cimmerians (Grakov, 1954, p. 14; Mishenko, 1882,

p. 477; Rostovtseff, 1918, p. 33–34). Thus we can conclude that after being defeated by the Scythians, not all the Cimmerians crossed the Caucasus Mountains and migrated south, some of them were assimilated by the Scythians and migrated to the South Ural steppes, where they began to be recognized as a new community. This is why the treasures found in Sauromat kurgans in the Itil River basin are very similar to those found in the Northern Black Sea and North Caucasus regions.

Written sources and archaeological findings from 8th century BC and afterward confirm that the nomadic Scythian tribes came from Central Asia,

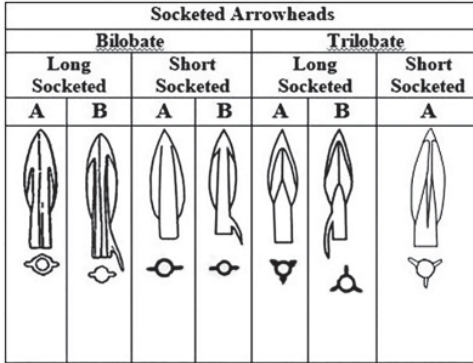


Fig. 3. Scythian arrowheads uncovered in Anatolia.

Рис. 3. Скифские наконечники стрел, обнаруженные в Анатолии.

first entered into Cimmeria, and then into Anatolia through the Caucasus (Schenk, 1999, p. 176–178). The Scythians defeated the Cimmerians, causing them to descend to the west of the Black Sea and the Caucasus mountains to the south (Tarhan, 1979, p. 355; San, 2000, p. 2; Telioglu, 2005, p. 239; Bruyako, 2005, p. 254). We can easily say that Cimmerians entered Anatolia at the end of the 8th century BC and the Scythians – at the beginning of the 7th century BC (Fig. 2) (Sinor, 2000, p. 144; Ivantchik, 2001, p. 14; Ivantchik, 2011, p. 71–106). During this migration, Assyrian and Urartu kingdoms, the important political powers of the region, were fighting each other to expand their territories (Kinal, 1991, p. 252–253). The war ended with the entry of the nomadic tribes into Anatolia (Telioglu, 2005, p. 240). Assyrian and Urartu kingdoms were now fighting against the new threat, Cimmerian and Scythian invaders.

Tribes first came into conflict with the Urartu kingdom (Belli, 2010, p. 82–84). Urartu kingdom fought with the Cimmerians from the second half of the 8th century BC to the end of the reign of Argishti the Second (714/713 – 685 BC). But after being defeated, they made a pact with the Cimmerians and allowed them to pass through their lands

on their way to the west (San, 2000, p. 3). Furthermore, records show that the Urartu army recruited Cimmerian warriors as mercenaries (Sevin, 2002, p. 208; Belli, 2010, p. 90). The arrowheads obtained from the Iron Age layers of the cities of Gordion, Hattusa, Alisar, Kaman Kalehöyük, Maşat Höyük, Pazarlı Höyük, and Taşova prove that the Cimmerians started to spread to the Central Anatolia after this period.

After expeditions to Phrygia, the Cimmerians began to spread to Western Anatolia (San, 2000, p. 3–4). Lydian kingdom reacted. But Lydian king Gyges was killed and Lydian cities such as Sardes, Ephesus, Magnesia, Smyrna, Panaztepe, Klazomenai, Erythrai, and Larissa were plundered (Sevin, 2002, p. 268; Berndt, 2012, p. 29).

Another influential nomadic tribe in the Iron Age Anatolia was the Scythians. The first record on the entry of the Scythians into Anatolia was found in Urartian inscriptions. Urartian king Rusa II (685–645 BC) made a pact with the Scythians, allowed them to pass through his territory and settle in the land of Mana (Ivantchik, 2001, p. 17–19). It is also believed that the Urartian kingdom settled the Scythians in northwest Iran to secure its eastern borders (San, 2000, p. 6–7). These agreements began to deteriorate towards the end of the 7th century BC, and the Scythians began to raid Urartian settlements (Çay, Durmuş, 2002, p. 498). Scythian arrowheads obtained from excavations in Urartu castles such as Kızıl Tepe, Çavuştepe, Ayanis, Toprakkale, and Değirmentepe in Eastern Anatolia prove this.

Two centuries later, towards the beginning of the 6th century BC, the Scythians were defeated by the Median Empire and began to retreat to the Northern Black Sea steppes. The treasures of pre-Asian origin found in the king kurgans of Kelermes, Ulskiy Aul, and Kostromskaya Stanisa of the

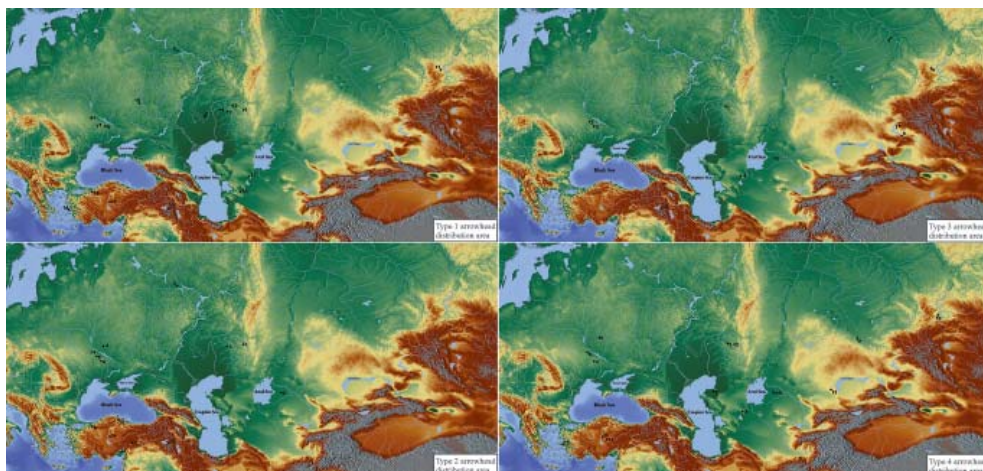


Fig. 4. Arrowhead types distribution areas.

Рис. 4. Ареалы распространения типов наконечников стрел.

6th and 5th centuries BC attest to this retreat (Sinor, 2000, p. 145).

Until today, traces of the existence of the nomadic tribes in Anatolia have been sought only in settlement areas except for İmir and Norşuntepe. However, considering that they were nomadic, their traces should be sought around rivers and lakes.

Scythian Arrowheads in Anatolia

Weapons occupy an important place among the concrete archaeological data proving the existence of the mounted nomadic tribes in Anatolian geography. When we compare Scythian arrowheads with the Anatolian ones in terms of both typology and construction techniques, we can see the traces left by the nomadic tribes on the Anatolian geography. The Scythian type has leaf-shaped blades and is bilobate. Some have spurs on their sockets. In this study, we evaluated these arrowheads by dividing them into 7 types (Fig. 3).

Type 1: This type is bilobate, it has a long socket, and no spur. Its samples are found in Eastern Anatolia (Çavuştepe and Ayanis castles of the Urartu Kingdom), Southeastern Anatolia (Gözlükule city of the Late Hittite Kingdom), Central Anatolia (Gordion, Hattusaş, Kerkenes Mountain, Kaman Kalehöyük and

Taşova cities, and İmirler kurgan) and Lydia (Erythrai, Bayraklı, Klazomenai, Troia and Didyma cities) (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 82–98). The fact that arrowheads of this type are found in these cities and castles proves the existence of the mounted nomadic tribes in Anatolia.

The samples found in the Altai, Northern, and Central Kazakhstan regions are dated to the 8th–6th centuries BC (Abdulganeev, 1993, p. 52; Margulan et al., 1966, p. 398). But the samples found in the Northern Black Sea, North Caucasus, Southern Ural, and Horezm regions are dated to the 7th–6th centuries BC (Melyukova, 1964, p. 18; Smirnov, 1961, p. 10; Vinberg, 1979, p. 7–52). And the samples found in Anatolia are dated to the 7th–5th centuries BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 108). This information helps us to reconstruct the historical route of propagation of this type of arrowheads (Fig. 4).

Type 2: This type is bilobate, has a long socket and a spur. Its samples are found in Eastern Anatolia (Toprakkale, Upper Anzaf, Çavuştepe and Ayanis and Van castles belonging to the Urartu Kingdom), Southeastern Anatolia (the late Hittite city of Gözlükule), Central Anatolia (Alisar, Kaman Kalehöyük, Kaman Kalehöyük, Taşova, Hattusaş,

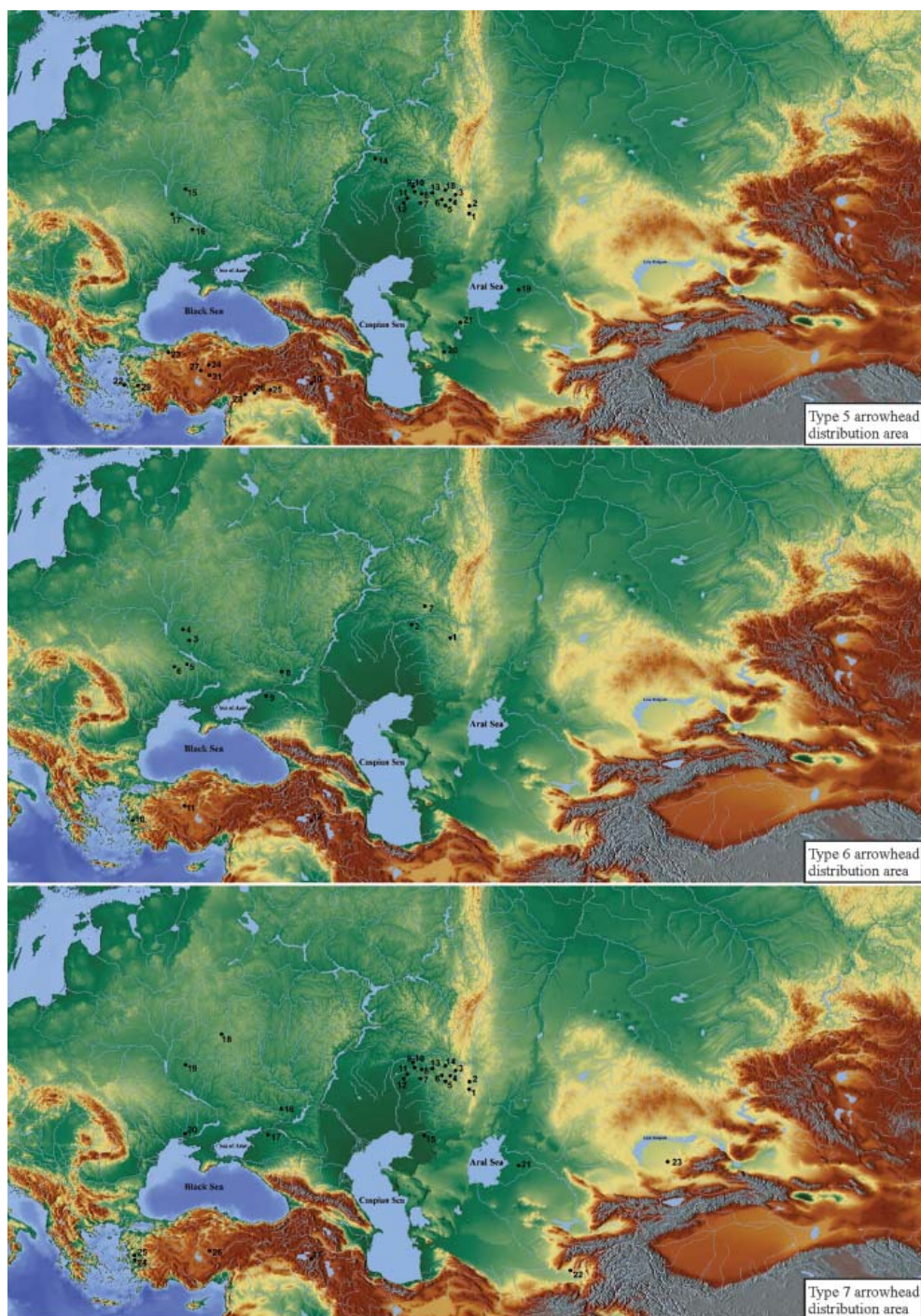


Fig. 5. Arrowhead types distribution areas.
Рис. 5. Арелы распространения типов наконечников стрел.

Sultanhan (Emre, 1971, p. 114), Maşat Mound, Kerkenes Mountain, Pazarlı Mound, and İmirler kurgan) and Lydia (Sardes, Larissa, Bayraklı, Erythrai, Klazomenai, Troy and Didyma) (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 82–98). We can guess that the reason why the examples of this type were found in these locations is that these locations were raided by these tribes.

Samples of this type found in the North and Central Kazakhstan regions and the Southeast of the Aral Lake are dated to the 8th–7th centuries BC (Itina, Yablonsky, 1997, p. 49; Margulan et al., 1966, p. 398). But the samples found in the Northern Black Sea, North Caucasus, and Southern Ural regions are dated to the 7th–6th centuries BC (Melyukova, 1964, p. 18; Smirnov, 1961, p. 10). And the samples found in Anatolia are dated to the 7th–5th centuries BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 108). This information shows us that these nomadic tribes departed from Central Asia, first entered the North Caucasus and Northern Black Sea regions, and then to Anatolia (Fig. 4).

Type 3: This type of arrowheads are bilobate, have a short socket, and no spur. Its samples are found in Eastern Anatolia (Çavuştepe castle belonging to the Urartu Kingdom), Central Anatolia (Gordion, Hattusas and Alisar Mound), and Lydia (Erythrai, Klazomenai, Troia, Bayraklı and Larissa) (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 82–98). We can assume that they were left in the expeditions organized by mounted nomadic tribes.

Samples found in Altai, North, and Central Kazakhstan regions are dated to the 8th–6th centuries BC (Abdulganeev, 1993, p. 52; Margulan et al., 1966, p. 398). But samples found in the Northern Black Sea, North Caucasus, Southern Ural, and Southeast Aral regions are dated to the 7th–6th centuries BC (Melyukova, 1964, p. 18; Smirnov, 1961, p. 10; Itina, Yablonsky, 1997, p. 49). And samples found in Anatolia are dated to the 7th–5th centuries BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 108).

This information helps us to reconstruct the historical route of propagation of this type of arrowheads (Fig. 4).

Type 4: This type is bilobate, has a short socket and a spur. Its samples were left during the raids of the nomadic tribes to the cities of Taşova and Hattusha in Central Anatolia (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 82–98). The samples found in the Southeastern steppes of the Aral Lake are dated to the 8th–7th centuries BC (Itina, Yablonsky, 1997, p. 49). But the samples found in Central Kazakhstan, South Ural, North Caucasus, and North Black Sea regions are dated to the 7th–6th centuries BC (Bruyako, 2005, p. 130; Melyukova, 1964, p. 18; Smirnov, 1961, p. 10). And the samples found in Anatolia are dated between the end of the 7th century BC and the beginning of the 5th century BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 108). This information helps us to reconstruct the historical route of propagation of this type of arrowheads and proves the existence of the mounted nomadic tribes in Anatolia (Fig. 4).

Type 5: This type is trilobate, has a long socket, and no spur. Its samples are found in Eastern Anatolia (Çavuştepe castle of the Urartu Kingdom), Southeastern Anatolia (Late Hittite cities Karkamış, Kuşaklı and Deve Höyük), Central Anatolia (Hattusha, Alisar, and Kaman Kalehöyük), and Lydia (Sardes, Klazomenai, and Larissa). These locations prove the existence of the nomadic tribes in Anatolia (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 82–98). The samples found in Altai, the Southeast Aral Lake, the South Ural and the North Caucasus and North Black Sea regions are dated to the 7th–5th centuries BC (Ivanov, 1993, p. 95–106; Itina, Yablonsky, 1997, p. 49; Melyukova, 1964, p. 21; Smirnov, 1961, p. 44–48). And the samples found in Anatolia are dated to the 7th–4th centuries BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 111). The fact that this type was in use in these different regions during the same period proves the existence of

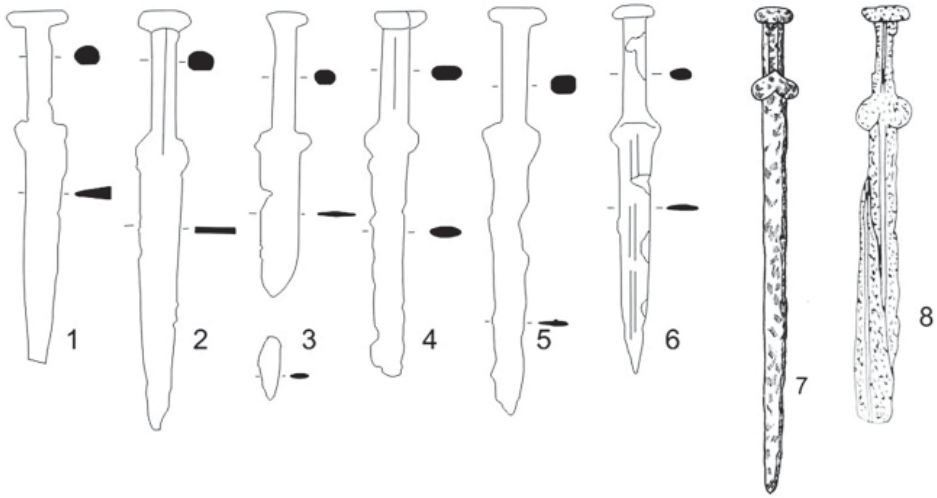


Fig. 6. 1–6 – Camel Höyük Cemetery; 7 – City of Karmir-Blur; 8 – Ivmirler Kurgan.

Рис. 6. 1–6 – кладбище Кэмел Хеюк; 7 – город Кармир-Блур; 8 – курган Имирлер.

mounted nomadic tribes in both regions (Fig. 5).

Type 6: This type is trilobate, has a long socket and a spur. Mounted nomadic tribes left their samples in Eastern Anatolia (Çavuştepe and Toprakkale castles and Norşuntepe city of the Urartu Kingdom), Central Anatolia (Gordion and Kaman Kalehöyük cities) and Lydia (Bayraklı city) (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 82–98). The samples found in the Southern Ural, North Caucasus, and Northern Black Sea regions are dated to the 7th–6th centuries BC (Melyukova, 1964, p. 21; Smirnov, 1961, p. 44–48). And the samples found in Anatolia were in use in the 7th–6th centuries BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 112) (Fig. 5).

Type 7: This type is trilobate and has a short socket and no spur. Its samples are found in Eastern Anatolia (Çavuştepe and Kayalidere castles of the Urartu Kingdom), Southeastern Anatolia (Late Hittite cities of Karkamış and Deve Höyük), Central Anatolia (the cities of Hattusa, Alisar, Kerkenes Mountain, Kaman Kalehöyük, and Alaca Höyük) and Lydia (the cities of Sardes, Bayraklı, Panaztepe, Erythrai, Troia and Klazomenai). This proves the existence of these tribes in the region (Yalçıklı,

1999, p. 82–98). The samples found in Southeast Kazakhstan, South Ural, North Caucasus, and Northern Black Sea regions are dated to the 6th–4th centuries BC (Akishev, 1963, p. 114–115; Melyukova, 1964, p. 21; Maksimenko, 1983, p. 193–202; Smirnov, 1961, p. 44–48). And the samples found in Anatolia are dated to the 6th–5th centuries BC (Fig. 5) (Yalçıklı, 1993, p. 111).

Scythian Swords and Daggers in Anatolia

The swords and daggers found in excavations in tumuli built by the nomadic tribes and defined as "kurgans" provide important information in determining the history of kurgans and burials, the spread of these tribes, and regional differences between tribes. A.I. Melyukova (1964, p. 46–64) and K.F. Smirnov (1961, p. 9–31) proposed a chronological typology for swords and daggers from the Early Sarmatian Period. But, at that period, unlike the Scythian swords and daggers, the Sarmatian swords and daggers were not very well studied. K.F. Smirnov was a pioneer among the researchers of the Sauromat swords and daggers. His chronological typology not only included swords and daggers belonging

to the Sauromat Period (7th–5th centuries BC) but also the ones belonging to the Early Sarmatian Period (4th–3rd centuries BC) (Smirnov, 1961, p. 9–31). Many other scientists researched this weapon type (Hazanov, 1971, p. 5–24; Vasilev, 2001, p. 27–54; Simonenko, 2009, p. 13–61). But their research mainly focuses on the swords and daggers found in Scythian and Sarmatian kurgans in the Northern Black Sea, North Caucasus, and Russia. Yet there is not enough study on the weapons of the nomadic tribes who lived in Anatolia. Therefore, in the light of the information provided by the aforementioned researchers and the old and new information about swords and daggers excavated in Anatolia, we studied the traces left by nomadic tribes in this geography. Scythian swords and daggers excavated in Anatolia have a flat T-shaped pommel, a butterfly or kidney-shaped guard, and a double-edged blade that distally tapers. These types of swords and daggers are defined as the Scythian-type since they are generally found in large numbers in Scythian kurgans in Central Asia and Eastern Europe.

This type is made of iron and its samples are found in Deve Höyük cemetery (Moorey, 1980, p. 54) and İmirler kurgan (San, 2000, p. 6–7) in Anatolia, and the city of Karmir-Blur in Armenia (Terenojkin, 1976, p. 128–129). Archaeologists found 6 Scythian daggers in the Deve Höyük burials. They were all made of iron, have straight T-shaped pommels, butterfly or kidney-shaped guards, double-edged blades with distal tapering. Besides, some daggers have blood grooves. The purpose of these grooves is thought to be to release air or to allow blood to flow out during entering (Fig. 6: 1–6). The one sword found in İmirler kurgan was made of iron, has a spherical T-shaped pommel, butterfly or kidney-shaped guard, a double-edged blade with distal tapering and blood grooves (Fig. 6: 7). Another one found in the city of Karmir-Blur in Armenia

was made of iron, has a flat T-shaped pommel, a kidney-shaped guard, a double-edged blade with distal tapering and blood grooves (Fig. 6: 6, 8). A.I. Terenojkin, who studied the one found in Karmir-Blur, dates it to the second half of the 7th century BC (Terenojkin, 1976, p. 128). Derya Yalçıklı, who researched the metal weapons found in Anatolia, states that the ones found in the Deve Höyük cemetery and the İmirler kurgan are not specific to the region, and dates them to the 6th–4th centuries BC (Yalçıklı, 1999, p. 23–40). We know that swords and daggers with a flat T-shaped pommel, a butterfly or kidney-shaped guard, and double-edged blade are used by the Scythian tribes in Central Asia since the 7th century BC (Akishev, 1973, p. 48–49). Thus we can say that the mounted nomadic tribes moved from Central Asia to the North Caucasus and Northern Black Sea regions in the second half of the 7th century BC and then entered Anatolia.

Conclusion

As a result, we can say that some of the nomadic tribes who lived in Central Asia in the 8th century BC traveled from the north of the Caspian Sea to the North Caucasus and Northern Black Sea steppes and defeated the Cimmerians, causing them to migrate to the west of the Black Sea and the Caucasus mountains to the south. This is confirmed by the fact that the ruins in the North Caucasus and North Black Sea regions, which are dated to the 9th–8th centuries BC, belong to the Cimmerians, but the Scythian troves started to become widespread in the region from the end of the 8th to the beginning of the 7th century BC.

The Cimmerians were forced to migrate, they crossed the Caucasus Mountains at the end of the 8th century BC and started entering Anatolia. The Scythians, on the other hand, began to enter Anatolia at the beginning of the 7th century BC. Both written sources and archaeological findings confirm their

existence in Anatolia. The Scythians began to exert their influence at the beginning of the 6th century BC. In this period, they were defeated by the Median Empire and started to retreat to the Northern Black Sea steppes. The fact that some of the rich troves excavated from king kurgans from the 6th–5th BC such as Kelermes, Ulskiy Aul, and Kostromskaya Stanisa are of pre-Asian origin proves this retreat.

Weapons occupy an important place among the concrete archaeological data proving the existence of the mounted nomadic tribes in Anatolian geography. When we compare Scythian arrowheads with the Anatolian ones in terms of both typology and construction techniques, we can see the traces left by the nomadic tribes on the Anatolian geography. The Scythian type has leaf-shaped blades and is bilobate. Some have spurs on their

sockets. This study revealed that such arrowheads were in use in Central Asia between the 8th and 5th centuries BC, and in Anatolia between the 7th and 4th centuries BC.

Besides, Scythian-type swords and daggers are found in Anatolia we know that Scythian-type swords and daggers found in Anatolia are not native to the area and are dated to the 6th–4th century BC. It is known that swords and daggers with flat T-shaped pommels, butterfly or kidney-shaped guards and double-edged blades were used by the Scythian tribes since the 7th century BC. In the light of this information, we can conclude that the nomadic tribes departed from Central Asia and arrived in the North Caucasus and Northern Black Sea regions in the second half of the 7th century BC and then entered Anatolia.

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ПЕРЕСЕЛЕНИЕ КОЧЕВЫХ ПЛЕМЕН ВСАДНИКОВ В МАЛУЮ АЗИЮ

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Письменные источники и археологические данные свидетельствуют о том, что обширная территория от великой китайской стены на востоке до Карпатских гор на западе в I тысячелетии до н. э. была заселена сакскими и савроматско-сарматскими племена, сформировавшими «кочевую культуру». Воинственные кочевники, умелые наездники, меткие лучники и мужественные воины известны в истории как «кочевые племена всадников». Переселение кочевых племен из степей Средней Азии в Восточную Европу и Малую Азию в первой половине I тысячелетия вошло в историю как первая волна «Великого переселения» народов Востока на Запад. На сегодняшний день этот факт подтверждается как письменными, так и археологическими данными. Переселение привело к различным культурным конфликтам, и племена кочевых всадников стали признаваться древнеевропейскими и малазийскими народами. Вопрос переселения является темой исследования зарубежных и отечественных ученых. Тем не

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менее, в рамках данной статьи авторы решили провести научные изыскания, изучить причины и пути миграции кочевых племен всадников в Восточную Европу и Малую Азию, систематизировать прежние и новые данные, опираясь на опыт зарубежных и отечественных исследователей. Кроме того, в статье проведен сравнительный анализ вещественных источников, характерных для кочевых племен-всадников Малой Азии, с систематизацией письменных данных и археологических данных. Изучены периоды и направления завоевательных походов кочевых всадников в Малую Азию, сделаны научные выводы.

Ключевые слова: археология, Восточная Европа, Малая Азия, кочевые племена-всадников, саки, савроматы-сарматы, кочевье, оружие.

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