Now You See Him, Now You Don’t:
Anthropomorphic Representations of the Hittite Kings

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Introduction

Hittite kings lived as mortals and became deified only after death. Beyond mere flesh and blood, the identities of the kings were encapsulated in their office, title, and the idea of kingship. Their representations were also divergent, ranging from figural renderings of royal bodies to the writing of names and titles in hieroglyphic Luwian, mainly on rock reliefs and seals. Starting with the 14th century BC, anthropomorphic representations of Hittite kings were incorporated into a very small corpus dominated by seals and rock reliefs, with the name of the king often accompanying the image. Similarly, royal names and epithets in the hieroglyphic script started in the Hittite Old Kingdom with the reign of Tudhaliya I/II (early 14th century BC) and were standard features of reliefs and seals in the 14th–13th centuries, as represented by numerous

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1 Luwian is an Indo-European language closely related to Hittite, written mainly with the hieroglyphic script, while a small cuneiform Luwian corpus also exists, as compiled by H. Otten, *Luvische Texte in Umschrift* (Berlin, 1953); and F. Starke, *Die keilschrift-luwischen Texte in Umschrift*, Studien zu den Boğazköy-Texten 30 (Wiesbaden, 1985).

2 A group of relief vases dating to the 16th century BC, such as the well-known İnandık vase, might also include anthropomorphic depictions of the king. However, as recently argued by A. Schachner, these early examples depict the king in an anonymous manner: while he is leading cult performance, he is not differenti-
examples. The pervasiveness of hieroglyphic Luwian signs flanking individual names was a conscious preference to visually emphasize the office of kingship more than the individual kings. Starting with the 14th century BC, however, Hittite kings started commissioning anthropomorphic representations explicitly identifying themselves, and continued this practice until the fall of the empire at the start of the 12th century BC. The reign of Muwatalli II in the early 13th century was the most active period of royal patronage of anthropomorphic illustrations executed on seals and rock reliefs. The triggers for the accelerated use of this iconography in the 13th century, I suggest, rested mainly on two phenomena. First, Hatti was under a lot of pressure from the borderlands of the empire as well as the neighboring states. Second, the royal succession in Hattuša was rife with conflict, disrupting the continuity of kingship, and forcing the rulers to emphasize their individual relationships with the divine realm as legitimate kings.

In an attempt to articulate the power bestowed upon them by gods as legitimate and able rulers, the Hittite kings started to commission more anthropomorphic depictions of themselves, albeit scrupulously. In these figural royal representations, the connection between the anthropomorphic manifestations and divinity was emphasized and reinforced. The king’s body was depicted in only three ways: when he was facing a deity; when he was in the protective embrace of a god; or when the king was a god himself. Thus, in all the examples I discuss below, the manifestation of the king in human form is conditioned by his absorption by, and encounter with, divine energy. In other words, a divine element (either a god or a deified king) was a mandatory prerogative for the depiction of the body of the Hittite king.

Contrary to other Near Eastern traditions of representing kingship in a culturally-coded way signifying both the king and his office at the same time, specific by hieroglyphic Luwian signs, topped with a winged sun-disc, surrounded by a cuneiform inscription: J. Scheer, “Der Landschaft Sein Siegel Aufdrücken: Hethitische Felsbilder und Hieroglypheninschriften als Ausdruck Des Herrscherlichen Macht- und Territorialanspruchs,” AoF 36/1 (2009): 127; S. Herfordt, “The Bulls on the Seals of Muwatalli II,” in šapu šarrūtiya of (my) kingship.” The 7 M. E. Balza and C. Mora demonstrate that an upward trend was visible in the use of hieroglyphic Luwian inscriptions as they became the preferred mode of royal propaganda in the second half of the 13th century BC. They argue that later Hittite kings utilized monumental inscriptions highlighting their religious legitimacy in the absence of political legitimacy ("And I Built This Everlasting Peak for Him": The Two Scribal Traditions of the Hittites and the, Maya 38/2 (2011): 216–18.

8 S. de Martino, “Symbols of Power in the Late Hittite Kingdom,” in Pax Hethetica (FS Singer), ed. Y. Cohen et al. StrBoT 51 (Wiesbaden, 2010), 88–89, also suggests that royal iconography was specifically geared towards emphasizing close and privileged relationships between the kings and the gods, particularly during the reign of Muwatalli II.

A good example is the Neo-Assyrian Empire, the kings of which frequently commissioned landscape monuments in the borderlands and complex relief programs in capital cities during the 9th-7th centuries BC. In both cases, Neo-Assyrian royal representation depicted kingship rather than the king himself. Textual sources describe the images on monuments as šarpatu šarrūtiya “the image of (my) kingship.” The šaru of the king was not intended to be a literal and precise physical representation of a person, but was rather a “conventionally coded, culturally mediated, idealized representation” of kingship, as defined by Zainab Bahrani, The Graven Image: Representation in Babylonia and Assyria (Philadelphia, 2003), 123, 135, drawing from Irene Winter’s work. See also A. Shafer, “Asyrian Royal Monuments on the Periphery: Ritual and the Making of Imperial Space,” in Ancient Near Eastern Art in Context: Studies in Honor of Irene J. Winter by Her Students, ed. J. Cheng and M. H. Feldman (Leiden, 2007), 136–37; I. J. Winter, “The Body of the Able Ruler: Toward an Understanding of the Statues of Gudea,” in Dumu-È-dub-ba-a: Studies in Honor of A. W. J. Spieghel, ed. H. Behrens et al. (Philadelphia, 1989); I. J. Winter, “Idols of the King: Royal Images as Representatives of Ritual Action in Ancient
depictions of both kingship and individual kings were both sought after in the Hittite examples. The hieroglyphic signs for Great King (MAGNUS.REX), often doubled with the winged sun disc positioned above the name of the king, emphasized the importance of the office of kingship as a continuous institution. In contrast, anthropomorphic representations intended to articulate the relationship of the individual king with the divine realm and emphasized his right to rule as the king supported by the gods. In comparison with other eastern Mediterranean traditions, especially the Neo-Assyrian and Egyptian examples, anthropomorphic representations of Hittite kings are conservative in terms of both quantity and content. The few images of the Hittite kings depict them either facing, pouring libations to, or being in the embrace of a god; or deified themselves. The body of the king in Hittite iconography, therefore, was visible only when he was in contact with the divine realm, as if the body of the king was a culmination of divine energy.

Representations of the Names and Titles of Hittite Kings

Exploring the non-anthropomorphic representations of Hittite kings necessitates a detour into hieroglyphic Luwian, a distinctly Anatolian writing system developed to render an Anatolian language related to Hittite. Different opinions exist as to the motivations behind and the chronology of the invention of this script. J. D. Hawkins argues that Luwian hieroglyphs were an indigenous development in second millennium western Anatolia, with possible influence from the Aegean, as opposed to the cuneiform script that was adopted from Mesopotamia. Similarly, W. Waal suggests that the hieroglyphic script emerged at the turn of the second millennium BC and was already in use in Old Assyrian Kültepe, where it might have been used to inscribe the iṣurtum-documents detailing transactions between Assyrian merchants and Anatolian parties, including the palace. I. Yakubovich argues that the development of the script took place in Hattusa around c. 1400 BC, when the city had a thriving population of Hittite and Luwian groups seeking to develop a shared script to inscribe durable objects with. He suggests this to be a “nationalistic” gesture trying to break ties with the Mesopotamian cuneiform. M. E. Balza and C. Mora see the accelerated use of hieroglyphic Luwian as a response to the need of the Hittite kings of the 13th century BC to present their legitimacy to higher numbers of people than would be possible with the cuneiform script. M. Marazzi, in the same vein, has suggested that the strong iconic character of Anatolian hieroglyphs were a reflection of the complex and multi-lingual Hittite society, where the signs could act independent of languages.

While the chronology of and the motivations for the emergence of the script might be a point of debate, it is commonly accepted that Luwian has a long history as a spoken language. Along with Paleo and Hittite, Luwian is one of the Indo-European languages that appear in Anatolia in the 3rd millennium BC. Hittite laws indicate that “Luwiya” was a geographical, social and cultural attestation. Specific legal treatments

15 Balza and Mora, “And I Built This Everlasting Peak for Him” : 217.
would take place when a Luwian and a Hittite came into conflict, suggesting that Hittite and Luwian populations were both close and distinct enough to warrant differentiated judicial process.\(^{18}\) While “Luwiya” cannot be located precisely in Anatolian geography, and probably shifted its borders with the Hittite heartland over time, assuming it contained considerable portions of western, southwestern, and southern Anatolia remains the most plausible scholarly opinion.\(^{19}\)

The appearance of hieroglyphic Luwian monuments in Hattuša itself (Nišantaš and Südburg) also speak to the fact that the hieroglyphic script and the Luwian language were important players in the center of the empire, probably related to a dominant Luwian population.\(^{20}\) As such, Luwian can be seen as the language of the borderlands of the empire,\(^{21}\) which gradually took hold in the capital and the center, demanding that the Hittite kings adopt this specific means of communication for their statements of power.\(^{22}\) Once adopted, Hieroglyphic Luwian became an indispensable tool for Hittite royalty in the 13th century BC, significantly challenging the ways in which Hittite history was recorded and related.\(^{23}\)

With this change in the last century of the empire, it can be speculated that imperial history was disseminated to a wider audience, both through the high-level of visual recognition the script enables in comparison to cuneiform, thus leading to a better inclusion of the illiterate in the mechanics of the empire,\(^{24}\) and through the open-air context of the Hieroglyphic Luwian inscriptions, as opposed to the cuneiform texts preserved in royal archives.

The hieroglyphic writing system offered figural alternatives to bodily representations of Hittite kings on both seals and reliefs, exemplified by a seal of Muwatalli II (Figure 1). It contains the standard formula for most Hittite royal stamp seals: a cuneiform ring surrounding hieroglyphic Luwian characters spelling out the titles and the name(s) of the king, MAGNUS. REX.\(^{25}\) Mi-ta-li, “Great King Muwatalli.” The outer rings in cuneiform read: “The seal of Muwatalli, Great


\(^{19}\) The Neo-Hittite version of the Hittite laws replaces “Luwiya” with “Arzawa,” a western Anatolian polity whose exact location and territory remain unknown, but nevertheless supply a western anchor for Luwiya: ibid, 2. The close parallels between Luwian and Iron Age Lycian, coupled with the close relationship between Luwian ritual texts found in Hattuša and Kizzuwatna, suggest a southern and southwestern Anatolian location for Luwiya: C. H. Melchert, “The Language” in Luwians, ed. Melchert, 173–77 (contra I. Yakubovich, who sees Luwiya as mostly centered around the Konya plain, with a possible extension into the Sakarya basin: I. Yakubovich, The Socio-Linguistics of the Luwian Language, (Leiden, 2010), 242–48). While these details establish a patchy network of evidence for providing a precise location for Luwiya, they are suggestive of a considerable part of Anatolia speaking the Luwian language.


\(^{21}\) Ö. Harmanşah, Place, Memory and Healing: An Archaeology of Anatolian Rock Monuments (New York, 2015), 6.

\(^{22}\) “Borderlands” in the sense that I use them here are not passively peripheral regions of the empire, but its constituent parts along the borders, where Hittite identities co-existed with other, local self-definitions. This understanding draws from postcolonial literature, and is inspired by Homi Bhabha’s understanding of the “Third Space,” where two or more cultures overlap: H. Bhabha, The Location of Culture (London, 2004), 56.

\(^{23}\) Balza and Mora suggest that Hieroglyphic Luwian replaced the earlier tradition of composing Annals in the cuneiform script in the second half of the 13th century BC: Balza and Mora, “And I Built This Everlasting Peak for Him”: 216–17.

\(^{24}\) On the “superlinguistic” power of hieroglyphic signs that could enable communication without necessarily being able to read a particular language, cf. Marazzi, Il Geroglifico Anatolico: Problemi di Analisi e Prospettive di Ricerca; Balza and Mora, “And I Built This Everlasting Peak for Him”: 220.
King, King of the Land of Hatti, dear to the. . . God, Son of Muršili, Great King, Hero.”

Both the center and the outer rings thus have documentary purposes, clearly situating Muwatalli II within the genealogy of Hittite kingship and supplying his full name and title.

The writing of the name of the king, $\text{bos}_{2} \text{mt-tā-li}$, needs deeper exploration. The sign $\text{bos}_{2}$, often depicted as the head of a bull, has the $\text{mu}$ reading, and is thus the first syllable of the king’s name. In this particular example, the whole bull is depicted as flanked by two $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ signs as opposed to just the head of the animal. The seal, therefore, does not contain any anthropomorphic representation of either the deity or the king, but the central use of the hieroglyphic signs imposes the presence of the Storm God through his sacred animal. In the same vein, the emphasized signs for Great King ($\text{magnus} \text{rex}$) can be read as referring to the office of kingship. In this and other royal seals, the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ signs are almost always larger than the individual signs making up the king’s name, occupy more space than the royal name, and are repeated to multiply their effect. Kingship is thus emphasized above the individual identity of the king.

The flexibility of the hieroglyphic writing system offered a venue for playing with and replacing anthropomorphic representations. It is possible to suggest that an emphasized use of the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ (“Great King”) sign developed an iconographic quality that would be recognizable as “kingship.” As such, the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ signs in these seals are clear visual counterparts to the depiction of the deity they accompany, and evident graphic markers of the office of kingship.

If we take the Luwian signs for writing $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ as a means of a figural (albeit non-anthropomorphic) representation of Hittite kingship, we end up with a far more abundantly utilized tradition of visually depicting Hittite royalty than anthropomorphic imagery. Many seal impressions and inscriptions bypass anthropomorphic representations, and still signal the existence of gods and kings through the flexibility of the hieroglyphic writing system, turning the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ signs into an emblem for the office of kingship. This quality of hieroglyphics is an important example of how writing systems can interplay with, or even replace, anthropomorphic representations. The signs were able to overcome limitations of literacy, which was a power that the cuneiform script did not have. Hieroglyphic Luwian was able to communicate, continuously, an office of kingship occupied by varied individuals. By using the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ signs consistently when the signs for writing the royal name would change with each king, hieroglyphic Luwian would convey royal presence even to illiterate citizens without the figure of the king. Anthropomorphic depictions of the Hittite king, on the other hand, visually encoded the close relationship between the specific ruler and the divine realm, which made them convenient tools of communication in times of crisis. I now turn to these examples.

**Anthropomorphic Representations of the Hittite King**

Figural representations of the human form appear on a wide variety of media in Hittite art: orthostats, gate sculptures, wall paintings, rock reliefs, large-scale free-standing statues, metal statuettes, relief vases, metal vessels, figurines, and glyptic art. In this wide array, most representations belong to gods and goddesses, and they are encountered on all the above-mentioned media. Ordinary people, priests, and court officials, mostly in ritual settings, are also depicted on various artifacts and monuments. A focus on objects and monuments with figures that can be securely identified as a Hittite Great King, however, narrows down the study to rock reliefs, orthostats, ceremonial metal vessels, and seals and their impressions.

These diverse media of the preserved anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite king imply varied

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27 Ibid., 162, sign *18.


29 These observations pertain only to the seals of kings, and do not apply to seals shared by the king and the queen. An example for the latter is the seal of Hattušili III and Puduhepa, where the names of the royal couple are flanked by the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$ (king) and $\text{magnus domina}$ (queen) signs on either side of the centerpiece, as opposed to the repetition of the $\text{magnus} \text{rex}$: Herbordt, Bawanypeck, and Hawkins, *Die Siegel der Grosskönige und Grossköniginnen*, 168–78, Cat. Nos. 70–80, Tafeln 27–31.

audiences and mobility patterns. As the immobile objects in this corpus, rock reliefs and orthostats are the only ones for which we can analyze the intended long-term contexts and locations. An exploration of Late Bronze Age imagery on rock surfaces in Anatolia reveals a distribution throughout the empire, emphasizing the roles that the borderlands played in the execution of this phenomenon (Figure 2). On the one hand, many of these monuments are situated in locations difficult to access and see in the rural landscape, making one question whether or not they were intended to mark territorial control and power. Rather, they can be read as performances of place-making, as recently argued by Ö. Harmanşah. On the other hand, seals and metal vessels are mobile, and while considering their value(s) and function(s), we can be fairly certain that they were intended to travel through royal households, elite circles, and administrative offices of the Hittite empire, vassal kingdoms, and neighboring states. As such, their imagery would have circulated between the administrative elites in Hattuša and their counterparts throughout the empire and beyond, making them visible to a select audience in the center and the borderlands.

31 I use the term “orthostat” to refer to quarried stone slabs incorporated into edifices, and “rock relief” to designate images carved on living rock surfaces in the open landscape.
32 Some scholars have argued that Hittite landscape monuments were agents of negotiation for territorial control. For a recent and elegant model, see C. Glatz and A. M. Plourde, “Landscape Monuments and Political Competition in Late Bronze Age Anatolia: An Investigation of Costly Signaling Theory,” BASOR 361 (2011): 33–66. In partial agreement, Stokkel argued for two functions fulfilled by rock monuments: a ceremonial one, in which the reliefs are not easily visible, and a landmark one, in which the reliefs have much larger viewsheds: P. J. A. Stokkel, “A New Perspective on Hittite Rock Reliefs,” Anatolica 31 (2005): 174–75, 177.
33 Ömür Harmanşah argues that Hittite rock reliefs erected to mark significant areas in the local landscape, such as springs, gorges, or passes; see, for example, his “Figures Carved on the Living Rock: Hittite Rock Monuments,” in Hittites: An Anatolian Empire, ed. M. Doğan-Alparslan and M. Alparslan (İstanbul, 2013), 567, and Place, Memory and Healing, 33.
34 So far, there is only one metal vessel securely identified to be a Hittite king (i.e., the “Silver Vessel in the Form of a Fist,” MFA 2004.2230), and the following claims in this paragraph apply mainly to seals.
The items in this corpus consisting of orthostats, rock reliefs, metal vessels, seals and their impressions present several challenges related to their differing scales, contexts, materials, and whether or not they included any writing, which can make their comparison a daunting task. As a result, studies of each medium have been compartmentalized and isolated from each other. Comprehensive studies exist for the entire range of rock reliefs and seals, while metal vessels have usually been published as individual pieces or as hoards. Eclectic studies of Hittite art, looking at materials beyond one single corpus, remain less conventional. Looking across these media thematically for representations of the royal body reveals that there were standard elements repeated across different genres.

In their anthropomorphic representations, Hittite kings are depicted wearing two different types of attire: ceremonial and martial. When in their ceremonial regalia, kings wear long dresses, shoes with curled toes, rounded caps, and hold curved wands (lituus), all attributes of the Sun God, one of the chief gods of the state, whose title (literally “My Sun”) the Hittite language utilized for the word majesty, thus reinforcing the bond between the Sun God and the king. When depicted in their so-called “martial” outfits, a second major role of the Hittite king was being emphasized: the king as the general of the army, and leading the annual military campaigns under the protection of the gods. The role of the king as warrior is alluded to in some rock reliefs and seals, where the kings are dressed in conical, pointed hats and short skirts, while they carry lances or bows on their shoulders, attributes borrowed from the depictions of martial gods and the Storm God. Except for the weapon(s) that the king carries, however, the so-called “martial image” contains no visual clues about military engagement. In Mesopotamian iconography, there was a strong tradition of depicting kings fighting the enemy, from the Victory Stele of the Akkadian king Naram-Sin shown killing the Lullubi, to countless reliefs exhibiting Neo-Assyrian kings attacking and subduing enemies. Similarly, Egyptian pharaohs


For example, reliefs from Asurbanipal’s palace in Nineveh depict a series of events from the battle of Til-Tuba, starting with

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commissioned many reliefs and sculptures rendering them as warriors. Contrary to these other eastern Mediterranean traditions, the Hittite king is almost never depicted engaged in confronting enemies. In the so-called martial images, the king either stands alone or in the company of the gods, never engaged in active battle.

Hittite texts, however, are full of records of annual campaigns, battles, and suppressed rebellions. The Ten-Year Annals of Muršili II, for instance, recounts his campaigns outside of the Maraššantiya River, and tells of the immense number of inhabitants and cattle he carried off to Hattuša while burning down enemy cities. This stark contrast between the textual and figural treatments of warfare calls the “martial” nature of these depictions into question. For this reason, I choose not to use one of the conventional classifications in the literature about the anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite king, i.e., the distinction drawn between his “ceremonial” and “martial” images. Instead, I identify scenes based on three different kinds of actions: the king facing a deity (and either saluting or libating to him, i.e., the “divine encounter”), the king embraced by a protective deity (i.e., the “Umarmungszene”), and the king portrayed alone, which I argue below to be when he is a god himself (i.e., the “God-King”).

A thorough exploration of the corpus of anthropomorphic representations securely identified as Hittite Great Kings reveals an uneven distribution between these three different modes (see Table 1). Most of the corpus is made up of the Umarmungszene, seen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Artifact / Monument</th>
<th>Provenance</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>King Depicted</th>
<th>Attire</th>
<th>Mode of Representation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Macridy Block 13</td>
<td>Alaca Höyük</td>
<td>Orthostat</td>
<td>Anonymous</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Divine encounter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Silver fist vessel</td>
<td>Unprovenanced</td>
<td>Metal vessel</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun II or III</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Divine encounter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Bogazköy 19</td>
<td>Hattuša</td>
<td>Orthostat</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>God-King</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 SIRKELI</td>
<td>Hattuša</td>
<td>Orthostat</td>
<td>Suppiluliuma</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>God-King</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 SIRKELI</td>
<td>Sirkeli</td>
<td>Rock relief</td>
<td>Muwatalli II</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Cat. No. 39*</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Muwatalli II</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Cat. No. 40</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Muwatalli II</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Cat. No. 41</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Muwatalli II</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Cat. No. 42</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Muwatalli II</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Cat. No. 43</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Mursili III</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Cat. No. 44</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Mursili III</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Cat. No. 53</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Mursili III</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Cat. No. 57</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Mursili III</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Martial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 FRAKTIN</td>
<td>Fraktin</td>
<td>Rock relief</td>
<td>Hattuša III</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>Divine encounter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 YAZILIKAYA 64</td>
<td>Yazılıkaya</td>
<td>Rock relief</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun IV</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>God-King</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 YAZILIKAYA 81</td>
<td>Yazılıkaya</td>
<td>Rock relief</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun IV</td>
<td>Ceremonial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 YALBÜRT</td>
<td>Yalburt</td>
<td>Orthostat</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun IV</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 RS17.159 ‘Ugarit Seal’</td>
<td>Ugarit Seal</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun IV</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Cat. No. 101</td>
<td>Nişantepe</td>
<td>Seal</td>
<td>Tukulti Ninsun IV</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>Embraced by god</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Catalog numbers refer to Herbordt, Bawanypeck, and Hawkins, *Die Siegel der Grosskönige und Grossköniginnen*. 

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45 The only possible exceptions are: an Old Hittite relief found in Büyükkale seemingly depicting a fighting scene including a chariot, though the royal presence is not certain; and another fragment which might depict a fighting scene judging from the dynamic rendering of figures. Schachner, “Gedanken zur Datierung”: 133–34.


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predominantly on seals. Second most common is the God-King, executed on orthostats, rock reliefs, and seals. The divine encounter makes up a small percentage of the corpus and is not represented on seals. In terms of attire, the kings are dominantly represented in their ceremonial regalia. Chronologically, these representations date to the reigns of at least six kings: Tudhaliya I (I/II and/or III),68 Šuppiluliuma I,49 Muwatalli II, Muršili III, Hattušili III, and Tudhaliya IV. Overall, the representations of Muwatalli II constitute a considerable portion of the corpus, executed on two new media: rock reliefs and seals.

An important caveat in this corpus is royal statuary. Texts mention that statues of Hittite kings were put up as votive offerings to the gods, as exemplified by the statue of himself that Hattušili I dedicated (in gold, to the goddess Arinna) after his conquest of the city of Ḥalḫḫa;50 or Puduhepa’s prayer to the goddess Arinna) after his conquest of the city of Ḥalḫḫa;50 or Puduhepa’s prayer to the goddess Arinna) after his conquest of the city of Ḥalḫḫa.50 Textual evidence also suggests that statues of deceased Hittite kings were displayed in temples as recipients of offerings in ancestor cult.52 None of these statues are preserved, however, with the possible exception of a statue base found at Yazılıkaya, and two feet found at the nearby village of Yekbaz fitting the base seamlessly. It was suggested that the base and the fragments belonged to a statue of Tudhaliya IV, whose cartouche is carved on the adjacent rock face, which might have been part of his final resting place.53

While I am not able to include royal statuary as a genre in this paper in the absence of preserved examples, it is still possible to conduct observations on the preserved references. Through an in-depth analysis of textual and archaeological evidence pertaining to Late Bronze Age sculpture, S. Aro was able to suggest that early examples of Hittite royal statuary were always located in temples or shrines.54 These statues would mark encounters between the royal and the divine. KBo 12.38, however, could be interpreted to suggest that a statue of Tudhaliya IV and another one of Šuppiluliuma II himself were erected during the reign of Šuppiluliuma II, likely in Yazılıkaya and Nişantaş, respectively.55 These two statues would be objects of ancestor cult, with the statue of the king marking an instance in which the king was divine himself. Even without preserved examples, we can tentatively suggest that Hittite royal statuary fit within the overall framework of royal anthropomorphic imagery advocated in this paper, and depicted instances of the divine encounter, or the God-King. I now turn to the preserved examples of the corpus for a thorough exploration of the different scenes and their implications.

The Divine Encounter

The Hittite kings partook in and oversaw several ceremonies and festivals, making Hittite kingship partly a religious task. As texts demonstrate, the Hittite king was the chief priest of the state deities, first of the Storm God and then of the Sun Goddess of Arinna, and he stood at the point of interaction between the spheres of gods and humans. The land of Hatti belonged to the Storm God, and the king was its steward.56 Hittite texts present many instances highlighting the religious character of Hittite kingship. One significant example is “Hattušili’s Apology,” in which Hattušili III celebrates Ištar, then describes the circumstances under which the goddess saved his life, and how he went on to become her priest.57 The kings encountering deities thus belong to this realm of enacting kingship, where the legitimacy of rule was directly channeled from the divine sphere.

Three examples depict kings encountering the divine. On the city wall of Alaca Höyük, the king

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64 See nn. 60 and 83, below.
65 See n. 83, below.
68 van den Hout, “Death as a Privilege,” 45.
71 Ibid, 240–42.
is shown saluting the statue of a bull representing the Storm God (Macridy Block 13). In Fraktin, Hattušili III is shown libating to the Storm God in front of an altar. On the silver vessel in the form of a fist (MFA 2004.2230), Tudhaliya, followed by a line of attendants, is depicted pouring libations in front of an altar before a god holding the reins of two bulls (Figure 3). The posture of the king and the standing god in this representation prioritize only the king in the encounter with the divine, while the king has no physical or visual contact with the attendants. The honor of being visually depicted in direct engagement with the gods belonged to the Hittite king, but this engagement had its limitations. In the examples of divine encounter, there is an altar between the mortal and the immortal, marking the different territories of human and god.

Thus, the libation scenes demonstrate a divine interaction, in which the king is directly facing a god, while still standing in a separate space. In the mortal plane occupied by the king and others, the king was the only one depicted as directly encountering the deity being honored. Performing in honor of and in front of the gods clearly established a bond between the divine and the royal, making these images politically-embedded statements that sought to legitimize the power of the ruling dynasty. This form of representation had roots in the 16th century BC relief vases depicting cult performances, and seems to have fallen out of favor during the 13th century BC except for Fraktin. It is possible to see this decline as related to the rise of the embrace scenes starting with the reign of Muwatalli II. If this indeed was the case, a revised notion of kingship was being conveyed in the 13th century BC that the king was not only able to communicate with the gods, but was also directly under their protection.

The King Embraced by a Deity

The second mode of representation of the Hittite king is the type of scene known as Umarmungsszene, where the king is in the protective embrace of a deity. As opposed to the encounter scenes in which the king and the god confront each other, the king is almost

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60 The king in question here should be earlier than Tudhaliya IV based on iconography and the rendering of the royal name, which suggests a dating to either Tudhaliya I/II or III. Güterbock and Kendall, “A Hittite Silver Vessel in the Form of a Fist,” 56–57. Schachner, “Gedanken zur Datierung”: 139. In the absence of scholarly consensus, I take this relief as an anonymous representation, but maintain that it should be dated as pre-13th century BC.


62 While my argument here specifically concerns the Hittite king because of the focus of this paper, the same privilege was valid for Hittite queens, as evidenced by the relief of Puduhepa libating to the goddess Hepat in Fraktin; Bonatz, “The Divine Image of the King,” 113; Kohlmeyer, “Felsbilder der hethitischen Großreichzeit”: 69–70, Tafeln 24, 136.

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absorbed by the god in the embrace scenes, and both figures look like parts of one indivisible unit. This is clearly visible in the legs and feet, as they seem to overlap, and most scenes demonstrate only three feet instead of four.

As a motif, the embrace scene makes up most of the anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite kings, and is mostly found on stamp seals. Representations of the royal body may exist in cylinder seal impressions deriving mainly from north Syrian sites, but the figures always bear attributes that belong to the divine realm, such that it is mostly impossible to distinguish between the gods and the kings. Furthermore, even if these individuals depict “Hittite” kings, it remains possible that they would depict the kings of Carchemish, who had oversight of northern Syria, while the Hittite Great King at Hattuša would only interfere when the administration of Carchemish proved unsuccessful. This confusion of the king and the god may have been a strategy in itself, invoking both divine and royal legitimacy at the same time.

The earliest embrace scene representation of the Hittite King on seals dates to the reign of Muwatalli II. Multiple impressions of a single seal and its variations depict the king in the embrace of the Storm God (Figure 4). Behind the king, hieroglyphic signs read “Great King Muwatalli.” The deity holds his own label, “Storm God” with his left hand. Muwatalli II’s seals with the Storm God also make up the majority of this iconography on Hittite seals. Other examples of this genre are Muršili III’s seal depicting him in the embrace of the Storm God and two seals of Tudhaliya IV with the same deity—one stamp seal, and one cylinder seal. In Yazilikaya 81, Tudhaliya IV is depicted in the embrace of his protective deity Šarruma, both identified with hieroglyphic labels (Figure 5). In a fragmentary relief found in the Yalburt Sacred Pool Complex, Tudhaliya IV is depicted in the embrace of the mountain god, distinguishable by his skirt representing a mountain.

The embrace scenes reinforce the religious connotations of the office of Hittite kingship. By suggesting that the king and the god were parts of one indivisible unit, support was bestowed upon him by his protective deity. The dominance of the embrace scenes on seals, which would travel to the vassal states, neighboring kingdoms, and throughout the empire

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Footnotes:

64 Beyer, Emar IV: Les Sceaux, 351–53.
66 This deliberate ambiguity between the king and the god was also suggested for rock monuments: O. Harmanşah, “Figures Carved on the Living Rock: Hittite Rock Monuments,” in Hittites: An Anatolian Empire, ed. M. Doğan-Alparslan and M. Alparslan (İstanbul, 2013), 569.
67 Herbordt, “Hittite Royal Cylinder Seal,” 85.
73 Ehringhaus, Güter, Herrscher, Inschriften, 29.

Figure 4 — Composite drawing of a stamp seal of Muwatalli II showing him in the embrace of the Storm God (Herbordt, Bawanyeck, and Hawkins, Die Siegel der Groškönige und Grošköniginnen, Cat. Rek. 39.1–11, Tafel 9. Copyright Archive of the Boğazköy-Expedition, DAI Berlin). Image courtesy of Suzanne Herbordt.
on administrative texts, letters, and treaties, renders the dominance of this iconography as a specific message intended for the administrative elites throughout the empire and beyond. Hittite texts offer plenty of examples for the rebellions of the vassal kingdoms and conflicts with neighboring states during the 13th century BC, which might have been a motivation for a renewed interest in demonstrating an even closer relationship between the Hittite kings and gods. The rise

of the embrace scenes specifically in the 13th century thus finds a correlation in the fragile political climate of the late empire period.

The God-King

In the representations I term the “God-King,” the king is depicted as divine himself, marked either by iconographic details in his martial attire, such as wearing a horned cap, or through a post-mortem context while depicted in his ceremonial regalia. Although Hittite kings frequently interacted with the divine through rituals and festivals, the Hittite kings and queens were not perceived to be divine themselves, but became gods upon death. The texts of the royal funerary ritual describe in detail the actions needed to be undertaken in a particular order to facilitate the transition of the Hittite king or queen from the mortal realm to the divine. On the first day of the fourteen-day ritual, the body was cremated. The deceased royal was then channeled into an effigy for the rest of the funeral. This effigy not only acted as the deceased (through a substitute ritual), but also lacked his/her memory overtook the significance of the figure in the post-mortem setting, holding a lance and identified with the hieroglyphic signs reading “Great King Tudhaliya” (Figure 7).

Contextual reading of two anthropomorphic representations reveal them to be images of the God-King. At Sirkeli, Muwatalli II is depicted without any seeming divine attributes, but in a post-mortem setting (Figure 6). The relief is connected with a monumental building built into a rock outcrop with cup-marks, as well as a second relief of possibly either Muršili III (Muvatalli II’s son) or Kurunta (his brother) that had been erased in antiquity. It is plausible to read SIRKELI as a site of sustained ancestor cult for Muwatalli II, whose memory overtook the significance of the figure in the erased relief. Another example (Boğazköy 19) from Temple 5 in Hattuša depicts a figure in martial outfit, whose texts of the royal funerary ritual describe in detail the actions needed to be undertaken in a particular order to facilitate the transition of the Hittite king or queen from the mortal realm to the divine. On the first day of the fourteen-day ritual, the body was cremated. The deceased royal was then channeled into an effigy for the rest of the funeral. This effigy not only acted as the deceased (through a substitute ritual), but also lacked his/her memory overtook the significance of the figure in the post-mortem setting, holding a lance and identified with the hieroglyphic signs reading “Great King Tudhaliya” (Figure 7).
Figure 6—SIRKELI, depicting Muwatalli II (Photo by Horst Ehringhaus. Copyright Sirkeli Höyük Project, Bern University). Photograph courtesy of Mirko Novak.
Coupled with the context of Temple 5, this image can be read as an ancestral and deified Tudhaliya venerated in this room. The representations from Sirkeli and Temple 5, thus, are images of ancestors who were deceased and deified Hittite kings.

In other iterations of the God-King representation, the kings are depicted with unmistakably divine attributes, specifically with conical hats adorned with horns that have been used as symbols of divinity in the Near East since the third millennium BC. The SÜDBURG monument in Hattuša depicts a Šuppiluliuma in the martial outfit wearing a horned hat. Originally dated to the reign of Šuppiluliuma II, there is now an intense academic debate surrounding the patronage of this monument. In a seal of Muršili III, the king is depicted standing beside the Storm God of Aleppo, wearing the martial outfit, with one foot stretched forward. As seals would be in circulation during the lifetime of the king, this particular seal of Muršili III calls into question his earthly nature, and may mean that Muršili III started a tradition of incorporating aspects of divine iconography into royal representation while he still reigned as a living king.

A more definitive exception to the post-mortem deification of the Hittite king can be found in the reign of Tudhaliya IV. In the representation of Tudhaliya IV in YAZILIKAYA 64, the king is shown standing on two mountains, a symbol of divinity, while his name in hieroglyphic Luwian stretches below a drawing of the winged sun disk (Figure 8). The mountains in these reliefs mark divine status and clearly situate the body of the king in the divine realm. Textual evidence might indeed suggest that Tudhaliya IV was deified during his lifetime. EMİRGAZI altars, erected during the reign of Tudhaliya IV, mention votive offerings to be made to him, making it possible to suggest that the king was already deified before his death. The divine status of Tudhaliya IV as symbolized with the horned caps is visible even in the Umarmungszene, such as on his cylinder seal, where both the god and the king are wearing matching hats and outfits.

A particular motivation for Tudhaliya IV’s deification during his lifetime might be his political troubles. On the one hand, his cousin Kurunta, king of Tarhuntašša and son of Muwatalli II, might have claimed the Hittite throne. Kurunta was initially loyal to Tudhaliya IV, whom the king favored with measures of power second only to himself. Despite this seeming stability, a rock relief at ḤATIPA identifying Kurunta as “Great King, Hero, Son of Muwatalli, Great King, Hero,” and impressions of an aedicula seal using...
“Labarna” and “My Sun” as his titles, suggest that Kurunta soon set his eyes on the throne of Hattuša and maybe even staged a coup, although there is no textual evidence to support this claim.93 Furthermore, Tudhaliya was also facing rebellions and threats from his western, southwestern, southeastern, and northern neighbors, as well as from Hattuša itself.94 In such a political climate, Tudhaliya IV’s claim of divinity and the accompanying anthropomorphic imagery may find a specific correlation in the pressure he felt from the borderlands of the empire. In other words, the situation might have been so grim that visual imagery and discourse of service to the gods and being under their protection was not enough for Tudhaliya—he had to become a god himself.

**Implications of Royal Anthropomorphic Representations in Hittite Visual Media**

The observations pertaining to the three modes of representing the Hittite king in human form summarized above point to three important preliminary conclusions. First, anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite king constitute a small corpus, demonstrating that these royal images were a phenomenon of limited

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Figure 8—YAZILIKAYA 64, depicting Tudhaliya IV standing on two mountains in his ceremonial dress (photo by author).
use and circulation. This is difficult to see as an accident of preservation, even with the possible addition of unpreserved royal statuary. In the case of rock reliefs, for instance, there are thirty-three sites throughout Anatolia and northern Syria with reliefs dating to the Late Bronze Age (see Fig. 2), with twenty-two of them bearing anthropomorphic representations, while only five of them can be securely identified as Hittite kings; the rest belong to gods, Hittite princes, officials, and local kings.95 Second, the reign of Muwatalli II (r. 1296–1273 BC) marks both the starting point96 and a particular acceleration for the bodily images of Hittite kings (see Table 1). He executed these images on two new media: rock reliefs, which were carved on living rock, as opposed to the orthostats previously used in the Hattuša’s monuments; and seals. Finally, in each case, there is always a divine element in the scene. The king is either in the company of gods, or is a god himself.

The two final observations, that anthropomorphic images of the Hittite kings experience a peak at the start of the 13th century BC, and that they always carry a divine element, necessitate further discussion on two levels, political and ontological. On a political level, I read Muwatalli II’s preference for these images as a specific response related to the urge to better control the borderlands of the empire. A particular motivation would be the eventual conflict with Egypt over the control of Syria, as well as the continued conflicts in the north and west of Anatolia, the combination of which led to Muwatalli II’s relocation of the capital to Tarhuntassa.97 Why, however, would Muwatalli II deem it a good strategy to commission and circulate his anthropomorphic images as a tool of legitimacy? C. Glatz has demonstrated that Late Bronze Age rock reliefs in Anatolia, which have traditionally been treated as a monolithic and coherent “Hittite” corpus, indeed represent a varied patronage of local rulers and vassals of non-Hittite political entities in Anatolia, as well as Hittite princes and kings.98 The earliest examples of these monuments are the ones at İmamkulu, Hanyeri, Akpınar, and Suratkaya, none of which belong to a Hittite Great King.99 Prince Ku(wa)lanamuwa is depicted in martial attire, in the presence of the Storm God and Mountain Gods at İmamkulu100 and Hanyeri.101 In Akpınar, a seated figure of a deity is carved into the bedrock of Mount Sipylus, attached with a hieroglyphic epithet again read as Ku(wa)lanamuwa.102 These reliefs were, thus, individualized claims to power commissioned by princes and local rulers in the border regions of the Hittite Empire. From this perspective, I suggest that carving landscape monuments and furnishing them with anthropomorphic images could have originally served the purpose of contesting the authority of the Hittite king by local rulers and vassal states already in regular opposition to the Hittite throne, rather than celebrating Hittite power. Adopting this technology then was an attempt on behalf of Muwatalli II to incorporate himself into this existing and already meaningful sphere of representation of power. In other words, carving living rock surfaces with rulers’ images to communicate power was a true innovation of the borderlands, which was then adopted by Hittite kings.

The same can be argued for the glyptic evidence. Northern Mesopotamia had a tradition of royal figures venerating the gods, praying, or performing cultic duties on cylinder seals that goes back to the Late Uruk period.103 Thus, the interaction with the southeastern borderlands of the empire, I argue, resulted in the incorporation of the body of the Hittite king as

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95 This conclusion has been reached by reviewing the corpus and attestations as argued in: Kohlmeyer, “Felsbilder der Hethitischen Großreichszeit”; Ehringhaus, Götter, Herrscher, Inschriften: Die Felsreliefs der Hethitischen Großreichszeit in der Türkei, Glatz and Plourde, “Landscape Monuments and Political Competition in Late Bronze Age Anatolia”; and Harmanşah, Place, Memory, and Healing: An Archaeology of Anatolian Monuments.


97 Bryce, Kingdom of the Hittites, 230–33.


100 Ehringhaus, Götter, Herrscher, Inschriften, 70–76.


102 Ibid, 84–87.

103 The examples are too numerous to cite here, but for an example from the end of the 4th millennium bc, see VA 11040 from the Vorderasiatisiche Museum: B. Salje, “Uruk and the World of Gilgamesh,” in Art of the First Cities: The Third Millennium B.C. from the Mediterranean to the Indus, ed. J. Aruz (New York, 2003), 481, fig. 110.
an emblem of kingship in correspondences. By this, the Hittite administration adopted a technology of signage and communication that was meaningful as a representation of the royal authority in the southeastern borderlands to more effectively govern these regions. This became even more important during the reign of Muwatalli II as he fought Egypt over the control of Syria, and might have resulted in the incorporation of a particular glyptic style to make himself look more amenable to the Syrian kingdoms. In this way, Muwatalli II might have meant to tell the local rulers in Syria that he was speaking their language, and was thus their rightful ruler in the face of the approaching Egyptian claim on the region.

On an ontological level, the close association of the bodily representation of the king with the divine was a programmatic attempt to enforce the idea of the king’s close association with the divine realm as an individual, granting him the legitimacy to occupy the office of kingship. The anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite king thus served a specific set of purposes in which the relationship between the king and the divine realm was articulated, and the resulting royal authority was communicated. This articulation took place over centuries as its message got stronger. In the 13th century bc, divine encounter scenes were mostly replaced by the embrace scenes illustrating the king under direct divine protection. Another interaction between the king and the divine was also communicated throughout the 14th and 13th centuries bc—his ability to become a god upon death, or maybe even in life. In contrast, when the kings wanted to emphasize a continuous office of kingship above individual identities, they preferred non-anthropomorphic illustrations making use of the hieroglyphic writing system. The graphic qualities of the hieroglyphic script enabled a wider dissemination of the royal message, as the signs for Great King (Magnus Rex) would be familiar to a broad populace through repetition, and visible to many with the monuments and inscriptions located in the open landscape.

Conclusions

During the 14th and the 13th centuries bc, Hittite kings utilized hieroglyphic script on their seals to visually signify the office of kingship, while developing a distinct iconography of anthropomorphic representations depicting themselves in three different modes of engaging with the divine: facing a deity, being embraced by a protective god, or the king portrayed as a god himself. The survey of the anthropomorphic representations of Hittite kings across a variety of media presents a consistently conservative pattern in terms of both the number of examples executed and the scenes depicted on them.

Above, I suggested that the difference between the anthropomorphic and the non-anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite king was a focus on the individual in the former, and a focus on the office of kingship in the latter. Marked by the exaggerated and repeated Magnus Rex signs in hieroglyphic Luwian, and flanking (in seals) or preceding (in inscriptions) the name of the individual king, the hieroglyphic signs for the office of kingship would immediately signify royal presence and patronage. Rooted in a uniquely Anatolian script, the Magnus Rex signs were able to overcome the limitations of literacy when used in monumental inscriptions, while marking Hittite kingship as connected to, yet different from greater Mesopotamia when used in conjunction with the cuneiform outer rings in seal impressions. Emphasizing the office above the individual painted a picture of continuity within a royal family often divided by feuds. Bypassing the instances and outcomes of cases of usurpation, rebellion, and even murder within the family, the consistent use of the Magnus Rex signs managed to communicate a continuous and stable office independent of the individuals occupying it. Yet in times of crisis during the empire period, the Hittite kings utilized a larger number of anthropomorphic images, both to take part in the administrative technologies of figural representations in the borderlands, and to emphasize their connection with the divine realm as individuals legitimately occupying the throne of Hattuša.

The media on which the anthropomorphic representations were predominantly used—rock reliefs and seals—suggest that the audience of these messages were mainly the borderlands of the empire. The monuments at Sirkeli and Fraktin were located at the southern edges of the empire, while the impressions

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104 While Fraktin and Sirkeli were located in areas of intense Hittite political control, especially during the 14th and 13th centuries bc, the web of cultural interactions surrounding these monuments situate them as borderlands in the sense that I defined in n. 22 above. Fraktin is one of the four monument locales discovered so far in the Zamanti Su Valley. These monuments reflect varied patronages, sometimes synchronically. While Imhullu and Hanteri A were commissioned by Ku(wa)lanamuwa during the reign of Muršili I (cf. n. 101), Fraktin depicts Hittite king Hattušili III and
of the seals can be speculated to have circulated among the administrative elite of a much larger geography, queen Puduhepa libating to deities half a century later (cf. n. 60). During the reign of Hattušili III, prince Tarhuntabyammi also inscribed his power on rock monuments in the Zamanti Su Valley (cf. Kohlmeyer, “Felsbilder der Hethitischen Großreichzeit”: 88–90, 92–94; Ehringhaus, Gött er, Herrscher, Inschriften, 80, 108; Glatz and Plourde, “Landscape Monuments and Political Competition,” 51–52; Harmanşah Place, Memory and Healing, 100–110). Local kings and princes thus continued to utilize rock monuments to take a political stand against the Hittite administration, turning this region into a complex borderland. Sıreli contains a similar process with the relief of Muwatalli II in close proximity to another relief chiseled out in antiquity. These two reliefs can be read as marking the choice of one ancestor over another, or the erasing of local resistance by the Hittite imperial administration. In either case, they point to a complex net of power relationships as would be visible in complex borderlands. For a more detailed discussion, see Müge Durusu-Tanrıöver, Experiencing the Hittite Empire in Its Borderlands (Ph.D. diss., Brown University, 2016).

The anthropomorphic representations of the Hittite kings thus constitute a small and distinctive corpus within the eastern Mediterranean, where the bodies of Neo-Assyrian kings or Egyptian pharaohs acted as emblems of kingship. By resorting to being represented in human form only in the presence of divine energy while using the hieroglyphic writing system to emphasize the office of kingship in other instances, the Hittite kings deliberately manipulated when and how they communicated their claims of power to different audiences.