

URBAN DEVELOPMENTS IN PERSEPOLIS DURING THE REIGN OF ACHAEMENID KINGS

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Abstract. The point of this examination is to understand the metropolitan advancements that happened in the city of Persepolis during the Achaemenids' time and the role of rulers in transforming it through various timeframes. The targets of the exploration are revealing insight into the main metropolitan changes that occurred in the city of Persepolis, and zeroing in on the progressions that made the city of Persepolis such an incredible city that the Achaemenid rulers did their most extreme to create and succeed, other than focusing on the explanations for its significance to the Achaemenids. Concerning the logical hole corresponding to past examinations, since numerous analysts managed the city of Persepolis as an authentic city and some of them managed the archeological part of it, what recognizes the current exploration is the recorded and archeological sequence for the city of Persepolis through the most noticeable changes that happened in the hour of the Achaemenid rulers. With respect to the examination, the exploration followed the recorded and elucidating parts of this city and mixed them by featuring the main metropolitan viewpoints in the city of Persepolis. The results assigned the main attributes of our exploration and the most noticeable techniques that were utilized in the improvement of the city of Persepolis, and how the Achaemenid lords had the option to foster it and make it a city similar to the antiquated archeological urban areas.

Keywords: *Persepolis, Achaemenid kings, urban developments, archeology*

Introduction

Archeological proof shows that the most punctual remaining parts of Persepolis date back to 515 BC. André Godard, the French paleologist who unearthed Persepolis in the mid-1930s, accepted that it was Cyrus the Great who picked the site of Persepolis, but that it was Darius I who fabricated the porch and the royal residences. Engravings on these structures support the conviction that they were built by Darius. With Darius I, the staff went to another part of the illustrious house. Persepolis was presumably turned into the capital of Persia legitimate during his rule. In any case, the city's area in a distant and uneven district made it a badly designed home for the leaders of the domain. The country's current capitals are Susa, Babylon, and Ecbatana. This might be the reason the Greeks were not familiar with the city until Alexander the Great took it and ravaged it.

Darius I's development of Persepolis resembles that of the Palace of Susa. According to Gene R. Garthwaite, the Susa Palace filled in as Darius' model for Persepolis. Darius I requested the development of the Apadana and the Council Hall (Tripylon or the "Triple Gate"), just as the principal majestic Treasury and its environmental factors. These were finished during the rule of his son, Xerxes I. Further development of the structures on the patio proceeded until the ruin of the Achaemenid Empire. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, the Greek history specialist Ctesias referenced, Darius I's grave was on a bluff face that could be reached with a device of ropes. Around 519 BC, the development of an expansive flight of stairs started. The flight of stairs was at first wanted to be the principal access to the patio, 20 meters (66 feet) above the ground. The double flight of stairs, known as the Persepolis Stairway, was assembled evenly on the western side of the Great Wall. The 111 stages are estimated at 6.9 meters (23 feet)

wide, with tracks of 31 centimeters (12 inches) and ascents of 10 centimeters (3.9 inches). Initially, the means were accepted to have been built to take into account aristocrats and sovereignty to climb on horseback. New speculation, nonetheless, suggests that the shallow risers permitted visiting dignitaries to keep a lofty appearance while rising. The highest point of the flights of stairs prompted a little yard on the north-eastern side of the patio, inverse the gate, all things considered.

Dark limestone was the principal building material utilized at Persepolis. After normal stone had been evened out and the dejections filled in, the patio was ready. Significant passages for sewage were burrowed underground through the stone. A huge raised water stockpiling tank was cut at the eastern foot of the mountain. Educator Olmstead proposed the storage be built while development of the pinnacles started. The lopsided arrangement of the patio, including the establishment, behaved like a palace, whose calculated dividers empowered its protectors to focus on any part of the outside front. Diodora's Siculus writes that Persepolis had three dividers with bulwarks, which all had pinnacles to give an assured space for the protection work force. The primary divider was 7 meters (23 feet) tall, the second, 14 meters (46 feet) and the third divider, which covered each of the four sides, was 27 meters (89 feet) tall. However, no presence of the divider exists on current occasions.

Results and Discussion

Darius I (550-486BC)

The inscription carved on the southern side of the balcony of Persepolis proves that Darius the Great was the discoverer of the castle and the palace, which bears the same name (Parsa) in relation to the land surrounding the Persians. It is not known exactly when the construction of the terrace began. Until its completion in the autumn of 521 BC (Abbott, 2021), Darius was preoccupied with preserving his empire and did not think of creating a new center for the royal family to replace Pasargadae. It is probable that work on Persepolis began in 520 BC, when the king gave his orders to commemorate his victories on the Behistun rock (Abbott, 2021).

There is a small number of data that may affect the actual duration of the work in its early stages. It is mentioned in the List of Nations that the four discoverers of the balcony reliefs include Saka Skunka, the commander who was defeated in the summer of 519, and was added to the drawings of Darius' enemies in Behistan. As the list mentions-again-Egypt and Darius restored it in a campaign that seems to have lasted from the end of 519 to 518 BC. India (the Hindus, the Indus, and the Indus Valley) is also mentioned in the list of nations that became a satrapy sometime before 513 BC. There is evidence an important additional about the history of this recently discovered inscription. Instead of the lands lying in the east, the text actually mentions the lands beyond the sea) and these are the European Scythian lands. This proves that Darius' campaign against these Scythians began around 513 BC AD, specifically between 516 and 511, at the time when the inscription in question was prepared. The preparatory operations for this large volume had to take place before the end of the data installation on the site (Vogelsang, 1998).

About 125,000 square meters of irregular rocks were formed in the form of a platform planned by the architects. The mountainous parts were cut to reach the required height and the depressions were filled with rubble, and thus the balcony became one of the most important means of access to the site. The next stage is the

completion of the roof terrace. The individual and longitudinal piers and structures were formed from the foundation stone and a trench was built, as well as a drainage system for the secondary roofs to protect the buildings that were planned by Darius and his architects. It is also believed that the cistern on the eastern foundation was erected at the same time (Vogelsang, 1998).

The site was ready for the construction of the data, and the brick fortification that enclosed almost the entire terrace as well as the adjacent hill to the east had become. One of the four inscriptions discovered shows that Darius built a fort here. The location of the inscriptions at the upper edge of the balcony indicates that these inscriptions were not erected before the foundation stone of the balcony was completed. It can be judged by the words of Darius himself: "*On this platform... this castle was built... and I built it on it to be safe, beautiful, and suitable*" (Rata, 2006). It is believed that the existing inscriptions were not excavated until the work of the defense system was developed and the construction of large buildings began. There is reason to believe that some Achaemenid buildings in South Persepolis were built. In the era of Darius, the balcony was in the process of being built, as its red floor indicates that it was built or had been built at some time during the time of Darius or during the rule of his successor (Rata, 2006). The excavations were not well taken care of, as no firm and correct conclusions were reached about the balcony. The following buildings, in addition to the defense system, were planned by the founder of the site, such as Apadana, the Council Hall, Darius' Palace, the original treasury and its first additions (Rung and Orlov, 2021).

The tablets found in Apadana had been written and deposited before the founding document of the shorfa was found, and it was previously indicated that the later record was recorded during Darius' campaign against the Europeans. The Tablets of Apadana mention Sardis as the northwestern part of the empire's frontier, except for the lands (beyond the sea), which appear to be older than the previous campaign against the Sassanids. It is assumed that the subsequent record of our servants is nothing but an exact copy engraved on the tablets of our abode. Our servants, which is located in Persepolis, was not completed during the reign of Darius, but was completed during the reign of Xerxes, and evidence of this is the inscriptions on the glazed bricks facing the decorated parts of the outer wall, which show that it was Ahasuerus who finished the work of his father. The inscriptions on the stairs completely cancel Dariush's role in finding this building! The words of Ahasuerus mentioned in the Babylonian version indicate that he was the one who did all the work, as he says: "*By the grace and blessing of Ahuramazda, I built this house*" (Waters, 2002).

There is no record of when the council chamber was built, since the panels and steps that are supposed to bear inscriptions explaining this have been left empty. But the structural planning of our servants, as well as the inscription at the eastern entrance to the council hall, give evidence that may lead us to the beginning of the foundation and establishment of this hall. The inscriptions there show that there is a person standing with a crown on his head and, behind him, is a member of the royal family. It is clear that this person is King Darius himself. And whoever stands behind him is his son, Ahasuerus. From this, we conclude that this hall was built either at the end of Darius' life or at the beginning of the rule of his heir Ahasuerus. As for the Darius residential palace, all the inscriptions engraved on the walls, windows and entrances to the palace show that the ruler himself ordered its construction. As for the inscription on the portico, it shows that Ahasuerus was the one who completed this building as well. It seems that the palace was about to be completed near Darius' death. It was mentioned

that Ahasuerus had said that his father was the one who built the palace, and his words are mentioned in one of the tablets, and this completely contradicts what was mentioned in the inscriptions on the tablets of our servant (Cama, 2019).

The defense system, the garrison, and the main treasury of the palace are the first buildings that were completed in the city of Persepolis, in addition to the royal storerooms, which played a major role in being the administrative center of the site. The business records that were found in the balcony may indicate the time when the construction of these royal warehouses began. At the same time, the beginning of administrative activity at that time is the reason behind the emergence of such records (Cama, 2019). The first clay tablets of administrative documents, which were written in cuneiform script, show the mechanism for payment of money to workers involved in construction and indicate the type of payments made to them. These tablets were found in the southeastern part of the fort, which is located at the northern edge of the balcony. There is no definitive evidence showing the time when these tablets were written, which are called fortified tablets, but it is possible that they were written in the eleventh year of Darius's rule, and it was said that it might have been the twelfth (Tavernier, 2007). The date of writing the tablets does not in any way affect the date of construction of the chambers that have been found, but it is certain that they were written sometime between 511-507 BC, which is at the same time that the work of the original treasury was completed.

In fact, no panels were found to show the absence of organized administration at that time, and it is believed that there was no main building for supervision and management, and those warehouses and houses for workers and soldiers were located next to the site during construction. The last set of fortified tablets were written during the twenty-eighth year of Darius (494-493) BC, while the first treasury tablets were dated in the thirtieth year of Darius (492-491) BC. It is believed that the fortification tablets were removed from their archives. The original was sometime after (494-493 BC) to be stored or (disposed of) in the immunization chambers (Tavernier, 2007). It seems that the problem of the original location of the fortification panels was solved by finding the locations of the safe panels. It seems that the majority of the records were placed in one room in the courtyard adjacent to the treasury at the initial addition. As for the later additions and the last addition, several stray models were found in the remains of the original building. Six kilometers to the north-northwest of the Persepolis balcony, King Darius placed his monument carved in limestone, which is currently called Naqsh Rostam, in addition to other inscriptions that were carved before the death of the king or shortly after his death. The front of the statue was carved very elaborately. Which prompted the ancestors of Darius to imitate it, and the engraved inscriptions talk about a group of their legends and show who the bearers of the throne were at that time (Bodzek, 2014).

The enigmatic Kacban Zoroaster in the inscription of Rostam is a repetition of what can be observed in the Pasargadae tower, and this inscription is attributed to Darius the Great. This date is considered reasonable if it is proven that these two temples are in fact two of the temples of the sacred fire in the cities of Pasargadae and Persepolis. Those who insist that the towers are in fact tombs have attributed them to the ancestors of Cyrus II and Darius respectively.

Xerxes (518-465 BC)

Ahasuerus, the son and successor of Darius, finished our great servant in the city of Persepolis, as well as his father's residential palace. The council may have ended with the death of Darius. Otherwise, it is assumed that Ahasuerus followed his custom of recording his share of the buildings located in convenient places, and in this case, the inscriptions are the paintings on the stairs that were left empty. There is relatively large number of workers who were employed from the second year to the fourth year of the reign of Ahasuerus (484-482 BC). It is clear that there was a severe decrease in the number of workers after that, and according to the treasury records, some of the constructions he started for Darius were completed in the fifth year of Ahasuerus' reign, though the tablets indicating the period between the end of the fourth year of Ahasuerus' reign and the fifteenth year (482-471) are insufficient to give a true picture of the situation. This view was built upon the great amount of construction done by Ahasuerus, as well as the completion and modification of his father's temples. Ahasuerus built the gateway to the balcony, the harem, and his residential palace. Moreover, he changed the treasury and began work on the throne room. The tomb located to the east of the tomb of Darius I in the Naqsh-e Rostam, which was carved during the king's lifetime, has been identified as the tomb of Ahasuerus (Granger, 1992).

It is assumed that the architects of Darius I planned some of the entrances to the royal site. The inscription on the Gate of Ahasuerus alludes to his father's work and seems to be a sort of acknowledgement that Darius had begun the first part of the project. On the other hand, Ahasuerus confirmed that he and he built the gatehouse structure, which is attributed to his reign. There is no doubt that Ahasuerus was the one who planned and built his residential palace. The inscriptions are on the staircase panels down to the courtyard of the palace and even the columns of the portico. The inscriptions say that the king calls his residential palace (Hadesh) (Granger, 1992), but the inscription on the Tori column belonging to the same building indicates that the name of the palace is (Takara). None of these texts, nor the short inscriptions of the king carved on the doors and windows, nor the inscriptions of the ruler, refer to the construction of Darius after noting the patterns of the inscriptions on the gate of Ahasuerus and on the brick slabs of Apadana. The history of the harem complex is indicated by the conformity of the architecture of the main wing with the foundation of Darius' treasury, also by the foundation plate of Xerxes (found in the corner of the main wing) and finally by the close association of the western part of the harem with the palace of Ahasuerus (Granger, 1992).

The chronology of the parts of the harem is uncertain, but one sure guess is that the western part of the building was the first to be completed, and the remaining rooms belonging to the same wing may have been added while the stately master wing was under construction. The modifications that took place in the treasury were done in conjunction with the construction of the main wing of the (harem), because the western part of the treasury had to be demolished and made into a room (the harem). Moreover, the destruction that included the storage space necessitated the addition of a building to the treasury, which is Hall No. 38, in addition to its subsidiary rooms. The floor of this second and final addition shows the reddish-brown color that finished the final models of the earlier parts of the treasury, but it was absent from the harem of Ahasuerus. We conclude from this that the final addition to the treasury was built shortly after Darius' death, while the traditional red floors that prevailed in his time were still in use. The contents of the demolished section were then moved to the new quarters, but the part

belonging to the royal store and which was supposed to be destroyed was much larger in size than the new facility. In addition, some storerooms must have been stacked with what are undoubtedly the remnants of Darius' overcrowded Eastern treasury. And this time-if not before-the old administrative records (fortification panels) are supposed to have been transferred to the northern defense wall (Granger, 1992).

Tablets of repetitive works dating back to the nineteenth and twentieth years of the reign of Xerxes, in addition to the large number of workers and craftsmen mentioned in these tablets, indicate that this period was filled with extensive building work. There is only one of those major and major projects, and it is called The Throne Hall, as the record of its foundation, which was made by Artaxerxes I, indicates that Ahasuerus was the one who started its construction. This means that it was the architects of Ahasuerus who drew up the original building plan. It may even be that the carvings were designed by the artists of Ahasuerus, although the actual carving was actually started during the rule of his successors (Stoneman, 2015).

Previous views have changed regarding the purpose of the grandiose throne room, which they regarded as a second audience hall, but the structure is now believed to have been the logical and principal center of a series of treasure halls in the royal storehouse as it expanded northward. The throne room was-without any doubt-considered the "Palace Museum" in Persepolis, and it was built for storage-and above all-it was built to display the greatest royal treasures. The idea of reserving huge buildings to display the power and glory of the dynasty was not a new thing. In the capital, Babylon, the Palace Museum, which dates back to Nebuchadnezzar II (605-562 BC) and his successors, contains a variety of objects from large and diverse areas. It was revealed during excavations. At present time, there is a similar example to the throne hall and the palace museum, where the successor of the Achaemenid kings (Shah of Iran) stored and displayed royal treasures in the rooms and galleries adjacent to them, as in the famous hall called "The Peacock Throne" (Stoneman, 2015) in Golestan Palace in Tehran. The treasury of Persepolis, which contains a wide variety of items collected from distant parts of the Achaemenid Empire, shows a clear and interesting similarity to the Babylonian Museum. However, the remains of the wreckage of the contents of the throne room are unknown, as it was completely intertwined in 1877 AD by the governor of Persia.

Artaxerxes I (465-424 BC)

The foundation record of the throne hall states that the construction was completed during the reign of the son and the successors of Ahasuerus. Four slabs of the treasury were found indicating construction activities and possibly referring to the construction of the same building. The latest records on the Elamite tablets indicate that sums of money were paid to one thousand one hundred and forty-nine construction workers (craftsmen) up to the fifth year of the king's reign (April 459 BC) (Boyce, 1982). At this stage, the payment records for the administration of the treasury stopped. Suddenly, however, there is another set of inscribed documents related to the treasury, including: mortars, pestles, dishes, and trays made of green flint and bearing Aramaic inscriptions in ink. It has been pointed out that these objects belong to rituals and their history starts in the era of Artaxerxes I and Darius II, or the other possibility-which is less-says that they go back to Artaxerxes II and Artaxerxes III. The presence of these items in the treasury indicates that the building was used even after the reign of Ahasuerus, in order

to store what appears to be a group of newly acquired items in that period (Boyce, 1982).

As for the absence of administrative treasury disks after 459 BC (Boyce, 1982), it is difficult to believe that all these records were preserved on perishable materials. It is better to believe that the offices of that period were converted into quarters, and may have been converted into a complex (throne hall). Such a change could have occurred before the completion of the throne room or in conjunction with this event, which was marked by the cessation of all construction activities on the balcony for a period of one hundred years. The end of the rule of its founder did not mean the end of the management of the buildings, as hundreds of workers were constantly employed to maintain and repair the structures (Lee, 2016), which were built of mud bricks dried under the sun, in order to prevent the sewage system on the site from clogging with sand and other things, as well as to take care of the gardens, which-without a doubt-were present in all the spots near the balcony (or the sidewalk or the terrace) as well as the areas adjacent to them.

There are clear indications that the gate was open to the northern courtyard of the throne room, which was never completed. The excavations have not gone far enough to determine whether the structure at this site, although not completed, served the intended purpose of making it a gigantic gateway to the entrance to the throne-hall complex, or whether it was enclosed by a fence. Subsequent excavations carried out by the Department of Iranian Antiquity revealed the existence of long corridors passing through the incomplete gate. Away from the throne room, it seems that another building was completed by Artaxerxes I (Lee, 2016), as a small part of this building was found bearing inscriptions. The panel bearing this Babylonian inscription was used again secondarily in Vajid in Palace H (Colburn, 2020), which is a post-Achaemenid building and is a compilation of earlier structures. The text-as it was restored-mentions that a palace was built by Ahasuerus and completed by Artaxerxes I. Theoretically, the inscription could refer to the throne room, but there is no spot on the plaque that asserts that it is the front of the palace podium or the staircase, as these are not specified. On the other hand, the inscription may refer to the palace of Ahasuerus, but here too there is no evidence for this, apart from the carved staircases that bear the inscriptions of those who built them. As for the remaining buildings, which may be of importance, including palaces D, G, and H, there is evidence indicating the locations of the two palaces, either G or H.

Establishments of the successors of Artaxerxes

In the tomb to the west of the mausoleum of Darius I, Artaxerxes I was buried, along with his wife and son-who, like Xerxes II, ruled for only a month and a half before being assassinated and who was supposed to have been murdered in the city of Shus by his half-brother Sisidianus. The latter was killed after six and a half months of his reign by another half-brother called Ox Ochos, who ascended to the throne under the name Darius II. There are no traces of any building activities under the rule of Xerxes II and Siedianus, and even Darius II, who ruled for nineteen years, apparently did not build anything in the area of Persepolis except for his tomb, which is supposed to be the far western part of the four rock tombs of Naqsh-e Rostam (Beckman, 2017). The son of Darius II, who is called Artaxerxes II, ruled more than any other Achaemenid king, where he ruled for forty-six years. In any case, while written records show that there were extensive constructions involving both the cities of Shusha and Ecbatana, the only

monument left by this king in Persepolis is his tomb. There was not enough space near the tombs of his ancestors, so the slope located on the Mount of Mercy was chosen to be the burial site for the kings after Darius II (Beckman, 2017). The tomb to the south is one of the two royal tombs above the balcony of Persepolis and was assigned to Artaxerxes II. Vajida belongs to it-which we mentioned a little earlier-bears identical copies not only of the inscriptions on Darius' tomb, but also of the inscriptions identifying the countries that bear the throne.

After a long period of architectural stagnation in Persepolis, construction activities were revived again during the reign of Artaxerxes III (Mark, 2020). His inscription, found in Darius' Palace, indicates that he either replaced the western staircase, or at least finished Vajida and decorated it with inscriptions. He indicates that he took Darius' place and residence until the completion of the construction of his own palace. This palace, formerly called the Palace of Artaxerxes III, is actually a later composition (Palace H) (Mark, 2020) of parts of several buildings. The main part of the Vajida carving bears the relief of Artaxerxes III, who had decorated the Vajida belonging to Palace G, which is located opposite the Palace of Ahasuerus. We suppose that some of the relics of Tomb G are disjointed remains from the dwelling of Artaxerxes III. There is evidence indicating that this original site of the Palace of Artaxerxes III was previously occupied by another building. Of the two northern tombs above the balcony of Persepolis, the northern tomb was temporarily attributed to Artaxerxes III (Mark, 2020). However, it seems quite certain that the tombs of Persepolis belong to both Artaxerxes II and III. Doubts remain as to which of the tombs is the oldest. There are no traces of architectural activities during the rule of Artaxerxes III, who was assassinated less than two years later by the same person who assassinated his father previously (Garthwaite, 2008).

The authors do not believe that Darius II was the one who built the lonely palace H, which collects parts of the palaces of Artaxerxes I and Artaxerxes III, and perhaps some additional buildings. The building was confirmed to have been reassembled after the site's destruction, and it appears that it was connected to each other by a pavilion-like structure, which was placed on the southern part of the building, but on the southern depression of the balcony. There is some doubt as to whether a fortification wall or parapet originally extended along the edge of the high terrace parallel to Darius Palace and Palace H. The jagged strips indicate that at one time, the parapet protected the western and southern edges of the site of Palace H (Garthwaite, 2008). However, there is no doubt that the lower southern part of the terrace was protected by a fortified wall made of mud-brick, of the kind that had been excavated. In the eastern and northern parts of the balcony, the author has discovered remnants of the Southern Defense Wall to the south of the Treasury. About 200 m east of the area is in questioning here. The (pavilion) was built after the destruction of the fortress made of mud-brick, which occurred as a result of the elements or by human hand. A possible indication that the site had been greatly degraded during the time Palace H was under construction is that the eastern (apparently incomplete) staircase was cut to the northwest corner of the Palace of Ahasuerus (Garthwaite, 2008).

Conclusion

The city was lost to time as it crumbled under the weight of its own ruin (although it was officially still the capital of the now-defeated empire for a time). Because of the

still-standing columns among the ruins, it became known exclusively as 'the location of the forty columns' to locals. The location became connected with supernatural creatures over time and was thought to be haunted, and was subsequently shunned. In 1618 CE, the remains were emphatically recognized as Persepolis, yet besides beginner burrows by treasure-trackers, no endeavors were made to exhume the site. It was not until 1931 CE that proficient unearthing's started and Persepolis again rose from the sands. These unearthing's upheld the reports of the antiquated history specialists viewing the consuming of Persepolis, as there was sufficient proof among the remnants that the city had been annihilated by an extraordinary fire. Although the fire had annihilated anything composed of material, the mud tablets of cuneiform content were prepared and later covered by rubble, saving them. Among these are the Fortification Tablets (about 8,000 reports on the financial matters of the domain under Darius I), the Treasury Texts (managerial works from the rule of Artaxerxes I), and the alleged Travel Texts recording installments and proportions given to voyagers and their pack creatures. Since 1931 CE, except for periods when struggle in the locale forestalled it, unearthing's have proceeded at the site. In the current day, it is an archeological park found northwest of present-day Shiraz, Iran, in the Fars territory. It was pronounced a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1979 CE and draws guests from around the world who come to encounter the miracle that was once the incredible city of Persepolis.

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Conflict of interest

The author confirms that there are no conflict of interest involve with any parties in this study.

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