

ZOOMORPHIC IMPOSTS AND DOUGONG BRACKETS: A CROSS-CULTURAL EXAMINATION OF INTELLECTUAL INFLUENCES BETWEEN ACHAEMENID PERSIA AND ANCIENT CHINA

Mahdi Motamedmanesh¹

¹ Department of Architecture, Faculty of Arts and Architecture, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran, (m.motamed@modares.ac.ir)

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Abstract: This interdisciplinary study explores the potential influence of Achaemenid architecture on the Chinese dougong bracket system by examining structural, symbolic, and mechanical similarities. Challenging traditional regionalist perspectives, it proposes a comparative framework to analyze shared engineering logic, particularly in load distribution, seismic performance, and mortise-and-tenon joinery. A comparative analysis of ancient architectural remains, material culture, and historical trade routes reveals striking parallels: Achaemenid hypostyle roofing techniques demonstrate modular flexibility and layered force dissipation similar to features of the Chinese dougong system. Both traditions used semi-rigid timber joints to span large spaces and enhance seismic resilience, while embedding symbolic meanings such as cosmic order and royal authority into their structures. Archaeological and iconographic evidence from Central Asian nomadic cultures suggests the existence of transcontinental knowledge exchange during the Achaemenid period (550–330 BCE), possibly enabling the indirect transmission of architectural and technological ideas into China during the Warring States period (475–221 BCE). The Achaemenid Empire's eastern satrapies—located in present-day eastern Afghanistan, Pakistan, and northwestern India—formed a dynamic frontier shaped by networks of trade, governance, and cultural interaction. Excavations at administrative centers like Dahaneh-ye Gholaman, along with ancient texts, highlight the strategic importance of these regions. Within this broader context, the Himalaya–Karakoram corridor emerges as a plausible channel for long-distance intellectual exchange. Although direct transmission remains unconfirmed, shared spatial arrangements and timber jointing strategies suggest interconnected architectural innovation across Eurasia. The study calls for a re-evaluation of conventional diffusion models and emphasizes the role of material and cultural intermediaries in facilitating pre-modern cross-cultural knowledge transfer.

Keywords: Achaemenid Architecture; Dougong Bracket; Timber Construction; Cross-cultural Exchange; Aseismic Design; Architectural Transmission.

چکیده: در این مطالعه میان‌رشته‌ای، امکان تأثیر معماری هخامنشی بر سیستم‌های چوبی دوگونگ در چین با تمرکز بر شباهت‌های ساختاری، نمادین و مکانیکی بررسی می‌شود. برخلاف دیدگاه‌های سنتی منطقه‌گرا، مقاله چارچوبی مقایسه‌ای برای تحلیل منطق مهندسی مشترک — به‌ویژه در توزیع بار، مقاومت در برابر زلزله و اتصالات کام-زبان — ارائه می‌دهد. تحلیل تطبیقی معماری‌های باستانی، آثار هنری و معماری، و مسیرهای تجاری تاریخی، شباهت‌هایی چشمگیر را نشان می‌دهد: شیوه‌های سقف‌سازی در تالارهای ستون‌دار هخامنشی با ماژولار بودن و الگوی انتقال نیرو در سازه‌های دوگونگ همخوانی دارد. هر دو سنت معماری با بهره‌گیری از اتصالات نیمه‌صلب چوبی، به دهانه‌های وسیع و عملکرد مناسب در برابر زلزله دست یافته‌اند و مفاهیم نمادینی مانند نظم کیهانی و اقتدار شاهانه را در سازه‌ها جای داده‌اند. شواهد باستان‌شناختی و تصویری از فرهنگ‌های کوچ‌نشین آسیای مرکزی نشان‌دهنده تبادل دانش فرامنطقه‌ای در دوره هخامنشی (۵۵۰–۳۳۰ پ.م) است، که می‌تواند انتقال غیرمستقیم مفاهیم معماری به چین دوره جنگ‌سالاران (۴۷۵–۲۲۱ پ.م) را ممکن کرده باشد. همچنین، ساتراپی‌های شرقی امپراتوری هخامنشی در افغانستان، پاکستان و شمال غرب هند امروزی، به‌عنوان مرزهای پویای فرهنگی و اقتصادی، در این فرآیند نقش داشته‌اند. یافته‌های باستان‌شناسی در مراکز مانند دهانه غلامان و شواهد متنی اهمیت این مناطق را تأیید می‌کنند. مقاله با تأکید بر همگرایی‌های معماری، بازنگری در مدل‌های سنتی انتشار فناوری را پیشنهاد می‌دهد و نقش واسطه‌های فرهنگی و مادی در انتقال دانش را برجسته می‌سازد.

کلیدواژه: معماری هخامنشی، سیستم دوگونگ، سازه‌های چوبی، تبادلات میان‌فرهنگی، طراحی مقاوم در برابر زلزله، انتقال دانش معماری.

I. Introduction

The Achaemenid Empire, a vast political entity spanning three continents, stands as a testament to centralized governance, sophisticated bureaucracy, and the power of intercultural exchange (Ferrario, 2022). Its dominion across West and Central Asia, Northeast Africa, and Southeast Europe fostered unprecedented connectivity, facilitating trade, commerce, and the dissemination of knowledge across the ancient world. Remarkably, this expansive empire embraced religious tolerance and cultural diversity, accommodating a multitude of ethnicities, languages, and faiths under the

auspices of a "King of Kings" who championed the preservation of traditions and beliefs (Meadows, 2005; Kuhrt, 2001). This era of connectivity and cultural confluence fueled significant advancements in ancient art, architecture, and building techniques (Root, 1979; Miller, 1997; Motamedmanesh, 2022).

While some classic scholars have perceived Achaemenid architecture as merely an eclectic amalgamation of borrowed styles (Frankfort, 1970), a more nuanced analysis reveals a distinct and coherent architectural identity. Despite incorporating elements from conquered civilizations, Achaemenid architecture

transcended mere imitation, forging a unique synthesis of forms (Nylander, 1979; Genito, 1998). The imperial column exemplifies this innovative approach, seamlessly integrating motifs from Egyptian, Levantine, Greek, and Assyrian traditions into a harmonious whole, reflective of a conscious effort to refine and adapt borrowed techniques for enhanced structural efficiency and aesthetic coherence (Motamedmanesh, 2018).

Despite substantial research on Achaemenid architectural achievements, the mechanisms of technological diffusion and artistic exchange across its vast dominion remain insufficiently explored. While its influence on the western periphery, particularly in Asia Minor, Hellenic world and the Caucasus, has been well-documented (Nylander, 1970; Miller, 1997; Knauss, 2006),—its eastward impact, particularly on India, remains a subject of debate (Bopearachchi, 2017). This study introduces a novel and potentially transformative hypothesis, proposing that Achaemenid architectural traditions may have extended as far east as ancient China. The author specifically examines the possible influence of Achaemenid roofing systems on the development of dougong brackets in early Chinese architecture.

To span the vast distances between towering columns, Achaemenid architects developed sophisticated construction techniques that integrated multi-directional load-bearing systems, enhancing both structural stability and weight distribution (Motamedmanesh, 2018). A key innovation in their approach was the incorporation of zoomorphic imposts, which functioned as interlocking elements between horizontal beams and vertical columns. These components played a crucial role in stabilizing expansive timber roofing structures by mitigating the structural vulnerabilities inherent in wooden joinery—the weakest points in timber construction (Subcommittee on Wood Research of the ASCE Committee on Wood, 1986).

This approach exhibits remarkable structural parallels to the dougong system, a modular wooden bracketing technique that emerged in Chinese architecture from the fifth century BCE onward. Existing scholarship largely attributes the development of the dougong system to vernacular architectural evolution in China (Yang et al., 2023). The present study critically re-evaluates that assumption, exploring the possibility of technological transmission across the Eurasian continent.

Employing an interdisciplinary methodology, this research integrates comparative architectural analysis, historical inquiry, material culture studies, and structural engineering assessment to examine possible connections between Achaemenid and early Chinese timber systems. Through a comparative analysis of

columnar structures, bracketing methods, and roofing configurations, the study deconstructs joinery techniques and load transfer mechanisms, revealing underlying engineering commonalities. Additionally, a mechanical evaluation applies principles of material science and stress distribution to assess how both traditions managed seismic forces, long-span stability, and modular load-bearing systems.

To contextualize these findings within a broader historical framework, the study analyzes primary sources, inscriptions, and historical chronicles, tracing references to timber construction, labor organization, and intercultural interactions that may have facilitated architectural diffusion. It further incorporates archaeological data from the Iranian Plateau, Central and south Asia, and China, examining spatial distribution patterns of architectural components, artifacts, and construction techniques that suggest shared knowledge. Comparative material culture analysis explores decorative and structural motifs within the dynamic networks of artistic and technological exchange that preceded the Silk Road.

This comprehensive methodological approach enables the study to move beyond speculative claims of influence, offering a rigorous structural, historical, and material-based argument for cross-cultural architectural transmission. By integrating architectural history, engineering science, and historical anthropology, the research challenges the prevailing notion that early Chinese timber construction evolved in isolation, instead positioning it within a broader Eurasian framework of technological exchange. Ultimately, by examining Achaemenid and early Chinese construction techniques through the lens of cross-cultural interaction, this study contributes to the ongoing discourse on architectural transmission in antiquity. The findings not only underscore the technical ingenuity of ancient builders but also advance a deeper understanding of the interconnected nature of early architectural traditions, questioning established narratives of regional exclusivity in technological innovation.

II. The Challenges of Materializing the Uninterrupted Space of Hypostyle Halls

Monumentality in ancient architecture not only stood as a testament to a civilization's grandeur but also conveyed a message that transcended the mortal realm, symbolizing the enduring sovereignty of its patrons over materials, craftsmanship, and mass labor for generations to come (Thomas, 2007; Trigger, 1990). Within this framework, master masons consistently pushed the boundaries of construction beyond conventional practices, particularly in their pursuit of expansive, uninterrupted interior spaces. Royal edifices often epitomized the pinnacle of artistic and

engineering achievements of their ruling dynasties, serving as potent symbols of wealth and sociopolitical power. However, roofing vast areas posed a significant challenge in antiquity, prompting the development of early curvilinear forms that relied on thick peripheral walls, as well as the more refined and intricate structures characteristic of columnar spaces. The inherent difficulty of spanning large distances between columns in post-and-beam architecture meant that this architectural style was often reserved for specific functions (Gopnik, 2010). Consequently, when the width of a space exceeded a certain threshold, the incorporation of intermediate supports or the use of exceptionally thick beams became inevitable.

In historical column-and-beam constructions, there were primarily two methods utilized: the post-and-truss method, which was simpler due to its reliance on the triangulation principle, and the more complicated box-frame technique. The constructional elements that define the framework of column-and-beam buildings include three main components: vertical columns, horizontal head beams to provide longitudinal stability, and horizontal tie beams to ensure transverse stability (Zwerger, 2012).

Speaking of ancient monuments that employ the second tradition, in some royal palaces, the important aspects of the trabeated structure, such as the ratio of column height to width, and intercolumniation to column width, imply fragile arrangements of load-bearing elements. Yet, practical techniques enabled architects to place tall, slim columns quite far apart from one another, while sustaining an enormous roofing system. Material selection played a vital role in executing these delicate monuments, but builders still needed to prevent tall, slim columns from buckling and the long, narrow beams from sagging. Additionally, they had to ensure the safe transfer of heavy loads to the ground while reducing the risks associated with natural calamities. Among the most advanced roofing techniques of antiquity, one can refer to the innovative systems devised in ancient China and the Achaemenid Persia.

III. The Achaemenid Hypostyle Halls

Achaemenid architecture represents “the culminating phase of the architecture of the Ancient East” (Pope, 1977). While the Achaemenid columnar architectural style exhibits superficial similarities to earlier Persian civilizations, particularly the Median and Urartian traditions, its construction techniques set it apart (Tourovets, 2014). The hypostyle halls of Susa and Fārs, for instance, were unparalleled in their structural complexity and engineering sophistication,

distinguishing them from other ancient building traditions of both Near Eastern and Hellenic origin (Motamedmanesh, 2018). Because of their innovative use of materials, Achaemenid architects were able to roof unprecedented spans (Ibid). According to historical records and archaeological findings, Achaemenid palaces were roofed with timber (Polybius, Book X; Quintus Curtius, Book V; Schmidt, 1953). The Scarcity of timber in the dry Iranian Plateau forced them to export wood from the remote areas of their vast empire. A foundation charter, which dates back to the time of Darius I, specifies that the cedar beams were transported from a mountain called Lebanon by the Assyrian people to Babylon, and then by the Carians and the Ionians to Susa. The Yaka wood was brought from Kerman and Gandhara (in the northwest frontier of modern-day Pakistan). According to the same inscription, the Sardinians and Egyptians were the ones who worked with wood (Lecoq, 1997). Therefore, it is likely that the woodworking crafts of these civilizations influenced the formation of the Achaemenid roofing system.

Achaemenid royal pillars consisted of three distinct components: a column base, a fluted multi-drum shaft, and hybrid capitals. The capitals were intricately designed, featuring pendant leaves, volutes, and two-headed figures. Despite the prevalent use of zoomorphic elements in the architecture of late Bronze and Iron Age civilizations of Mesopotamia and West Asia, the Achaemenids used zoomorphic protomes in a unique way as they shifted these heavy elements to the top of their soaring columns. While various types of zoomorphic impostes were employed in Achaemenid palaces, all shared a recessed back that served critical structural functions. Recent investigations reveal that Achaemenid architects designed the architrave to run between entire rows of freestanding columns, securing it tightly between zoomorphic protomes while anchoring it to the thick perimeter walls (Motamedmanesh, 2018; 2022). The timber roof was thus ingeniously integrated with the masonry structure of the palace (Fig. 1). Mortised transverse beams were positioned above the architraves and stabilized against rotation by the weight of overlying planks and insulating materials. This innovative approach allowed Achaemenid architects to create a unique form of joint that was secured in multiple directions, thus a smaller amount of wood was required for the roofing purpose (Ibid). Evidence from the rock-cut tombs of Achaemenid kings, which are believed to represent palace sections in stone (Fig. 2), further demonstrates the use of tenon-and-mortise joints to interlock wooden elements seamlessly (Seidle, 2003).

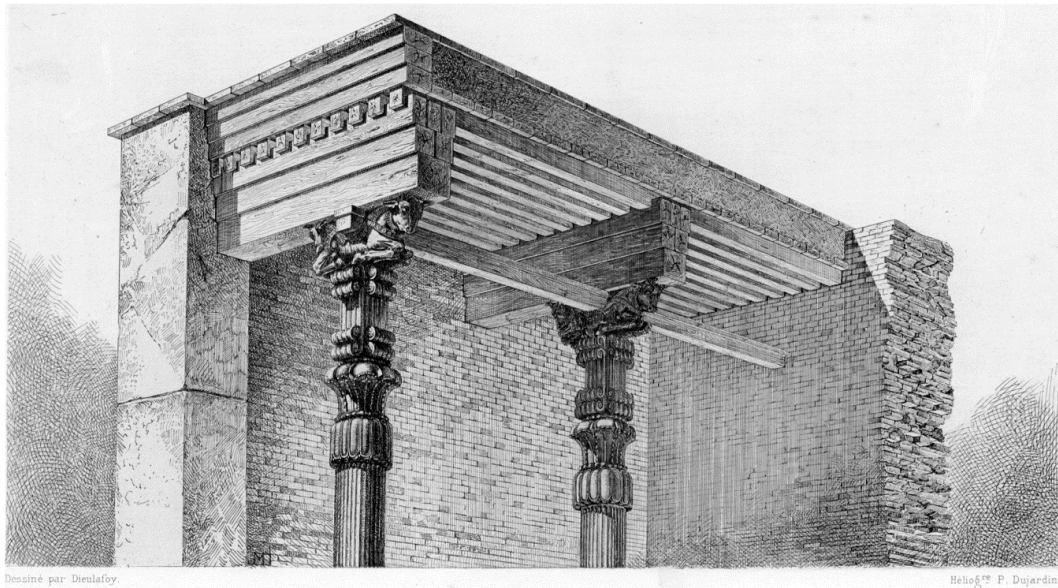


Figure 1: A schematic reconstruction of an Achaemenid roofing system from the late nineteenth century (Source: Dieulafoy, 1885).



Figure 2: An Achaemenid rock-cut tomb at Naghsh-e Rostam (Source: author's photograph).

The Achaemenids' awareness of semi-rigid connections and their role in enhancing the load-bearing performance of structural elements is reflected in archaeological remains. In Pasargadae and Persepolis, the surviving massive stone antae flanking the palaces' porticoes remain standing, bearing evidence of sophisticated structural design (Fig. 3). At their summits, several notched recesses were carved to secure

the ends of horizontal structural members in place (Krefter, 1971). Additionally, in Palace P at Pasargadae, traces of a dovetail clamp are visible atop one of the stone antae, indicating that it once anchored the end of a timber beam. This feature, identified as a later addition to the structure (Stronach, 1979), may be interpreted as a restoration intervention intended to enhance the structural performance of a sagging beam.

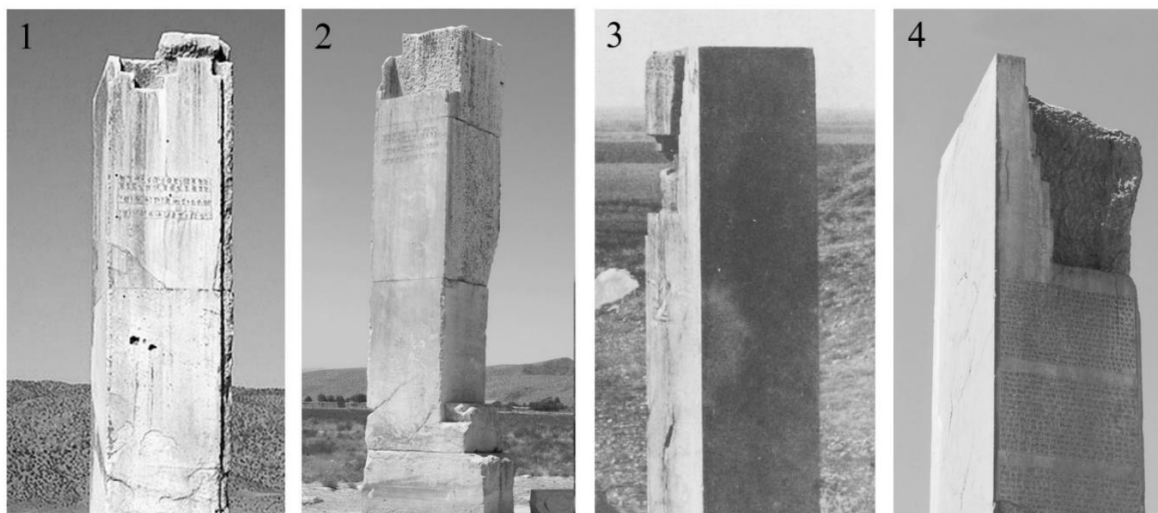


Figure 3: Stone antae from Pasargadae (1–2) and Persepolis (3–4). (Source: 1, 2, 4 – author’s photograph; 3 – adapted from Stolze and Andreas, 1882, vol. 2).

IV. The Ancient Chinese Columnar Form of Space

The emergence of column-and-beam structures in ancient China marked a significant advancement in early architectural practice, setting it apart from earlier Neolithic constructions. As detailed in Nancy Shatzman Steinhardt’s *History of Chinese Architecture*, by the first millennium BCE, Chinese builders had begun transitioning from rammed-earth or stone-based architecture to timber-framed structures supported by wooden columns and beams. A key innovation during this period was the integration of mortise-and-tenon joinery, which facilitated the construction of more stable and expansive buildings. Archaeological evidence from sites such as Fengchu in Qishan and Shaochen in Fufeng, dating to the Western Zhou period (ca. 1046–771 BCE), reveals the presence of well-defined post-and-beam frameworks (Steinhardt, 2002). These structural developments laid the groundwork for the fully evolved timber-frame construction that would later dominate Chinese architecture, particularly in imperial palaces and temples.

Traditional Chinese timber structures are categorized into two primary systems: *Tailiang* and *Chuandou*. In *Tailiang* construction, roof loads are transferred from purlins to beams before reaching the columns, whereas in *Chuandou* structures, columns connect directly to purlins. Both rely on timber frames and use mortise-and-tenon joints instead of nails to maintain structural integrity (Xie, 2019).

A defining feature of these structures is the *dougong* system, positioned at the junction of top columns and cross beams. Literally a combination of *dou* (a double bow-shaped block) and *gong* (arm), the *dougong* system consists of three primary elements—*dou*, *gong*, and *ang* (Xie, 2020; Fang et al., 2001). These elements were

assembled using mortise-and-tenon joints and secured with wooden pegs (Xie, 2019). *Dougong* brackets transfer loads by interlocking wooden blocks and arms to step the weight of the roof outward and downward, dispersing structural forces across multiple layers. This system (Fig. 4) channels vertical and horizontal loads through its layered components, efficiently distributing stress to supporting columns while allowing flexibility for seismic resilience (Guo, 2005; Liang, 1984). Moreover, the *dougong* structure bridge the inner and outer columns; this produces a horizontal platform, allowing for the use of more slender roof members (Zwenger, 2012).

The emergence of *dougong* brackets in ancient China can be traced back to the transition period from the Western Zhou Dynasty (1046–771 BCE) to the Northern and Southern Dynasties (420 to 589 CE), during which their early prototypes appeared on copper ware, gradually evolving into structural and decorative elements in Chinese timber architecture (Sainan, 2022). Albeit no timber structures predating the Tang dynasty (6–9 centuries AD) have survived, their architectural forms have been documented through stone structures, relief carvings, pottery models (*mingqi*), murals, and decorative housewares; the Han dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE), in particular, offers a wealth of *dougong* representations, evident in tomb architecture, stone reliefs, pottery models, freestanding stone towers (*que*), and literary records (Xie, 2020). Zhou’s studies (2007) indicate that during the early developmental phase of the *dougong* system, capital blocks were positioned atop columns, with arched brackets integrated into the structure to provide support for purlins and beams. Each *dougong* assembly exhibited distinct configurations, underscoring the variability and adaptability inherent in its design.

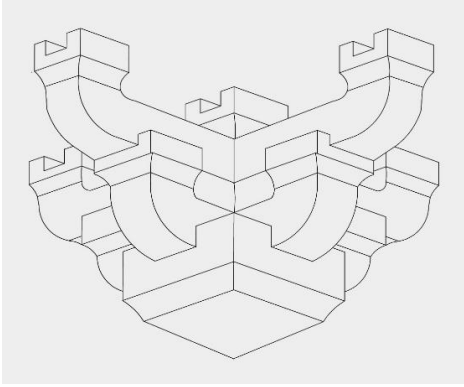


Figure 4: A schematic reconstruction of the dougong brackets (source: author's drawing).

Recent scholarship identifies three primary developmental stages of mortise-and-tenon joints in ancient China, with the most significant advancements occurring during the second phase (770 BCE–589 CE) (Pan et al., 2022). This period, marked by the widespread adoption of metal tools, catalyzed transformative innovations in wooden construction. By the Warring States period (520–221 BCE), carpenters demonstrated an empirical understanding of the relationship between tenon inclination and shear resistance, as evidenced by surviving architectural fragments. By the Eastern Han to Northern and Southern Dynasties (25–589 CE), historical records and

excavated artifacts confirm the maturation of traditional timber-framed systems, particularly the dougong bracket, underscoring ancient builders' sophisticated grasp of load distribution mechanics and structural optimization (Guo, 2005; Liang, 1984).

V. Structural and Symbolic Parallels between Dougong and Achaemenid Roofing Systems: A Study in Convergent Innovation

The Chinese dougong bracketing system and Achaemenid roofing techniques, though geographically and culturally distinct, exhibit remarkable parallels in their structural logic, particularly in load distribution, seismic resilience, and semi-rigid joint engineering (Fig. 5). Both systems employed layered bracketing mechanisms to transfer roof loads efficiently to supporting columns while mitigating stress concentrations. The dougong system achieved this through multi-tiered wooden brackets interlocked via mortise-and-tenon joints, enabling controlled energy dissipation during seismic events (Fang et al., 2001). Similarly, Achaemenid architects stabilized horizontal beams using zoomorphic stone protomes—often depicting bulls or mythical creature—which functioned as load-bearing impostos to anchor timber architraves and prevent beam rotation under asymmetric loads (Motamedmanesh, 2018).



Figure 5: Comparison of structural systems: Achaemenid roofing system (left) and traditional Chinese dougong brackets (right). (Source: Author. Left: computer-generated model by the author, right: photograph taken at the Royal Ontario Museum).

A key challenge in both traditions was managing beam-end rotation, a critical factor in post-and-lintel stability. Rigid connections, though ideal for load-bearing capacity, were unattainable with premodern materials. Instead, ancient cultures devised ingenious practical solutions—including tongue-and-groove joints, interlocking bracing systems, and mortise-and-tenon fittings—to achieve semi-rigid frame assemblies (Mainstone, 2001). The Achaemenids utilized tongue-and-groove joints and recessed stone saddles on zoomorphic capitals to secure timber beams, while Chinese builders employed interlocking wooden brackets and cantilevered armatures to distribute forces across layered components. These innovations allowed for expansive roof spans and enhanced structural continuity, foreshadowing principles later formalized in continuous beam theory (cf. MacDonald, 2001).

The Achaemenid inverted ziggurat roofing system, inferred from rock cut tombs, demonstrates an empirical grasp of load optimization. By incrementally widening beams, builders increased the second moment of area, enhancing resistance to bending stresses—a principle later foundational to structural mechanics (Farshad, 1995; Hejazi, 1997). This approach mirrors

the dougong's use of tiered brackets to redistribute loads across multiple nodes, reducing deformation risks (Lin and Hou, 2022).

Beyond their mechanical roles, both systems embodied profound cultural and ideological narratives. In Han dynasty China, dougong brackets were imbued with cosmological significance, symbolizing the celestial order and the emperor's divine mandate. Their tiered form evoked the Northern Dipper constellation, while their use in tomb architecture reinforced beliefs in celestial ascension (Xie, 2020). Similarly, Achaemenid zoomorphic protomes—such as addorsed bull capitals adorned with rosettes (Fig. 6)—served dual aesthetic and political functions. These motifs symbolized royal authority and protection, strategically positioned to dominate sightlines and project imperial power (Morgan 2017). The integration of ornamentation and structure in both traditions underscores a shared architectural philosophy: structural elements transcended mere utility to articulate cultural identity. The dougong's rhythmic brackets created visual harmony aligned with Confucian ideals of balance, while Achaemenid animal protomes reinforced the Great King's dominion over nature and empire.



Figure 6: Capital with double protomes of bulls from Susa (Source: author, photo taken at the Louvre Museum).

VI. Aseismic Design in the Ancient World: The Achaemenid and Chinese Traditions

Ancient civilizations have documented their experiences with natural disasters in various classical genres, including poetry, history, meteorology, and epistolography. However, their understanding of these catastrophic events was limited, and they often associated them with deities and made superstitious interpretations. In Greek mythological narratives, Zeus was attributed with the causation of droughts, while Poseidon, the marine deity, was identified as the causative agent of seismic events (Grant and Hazel, 2002). In ancient Chinese mythology, earthquakes were perceived as cosmic warnings, signaling disruptions in the harmony between Heaven and Earth and indicating that the ruling dynasty had lost the Mandate of Heaven, thus necessitating political change (Pankenier, 1998). The ancient Indo-Iranians attributed earthquakes to air movement (Berberian, 2014). Additionally, Iranian epic literature reflects a Zoroastrian belief in the supernatural powers of sacred cypress trees, which were thought to protect cities from seismic events (Ibid). Despite these superstitious beliefs, ancient people gradually developed pragmatic solutions to mitigate the effects of environmental crises on their lives. Among these efforts, aseismic construction techniques emerged as crucial innovations, evolving through trial, adaptation, and empirical refinement over time (Stiros, 1995; 1996).

The Iranian Plateau, known for its high tectonic activity, has been shaped by the collision of the Eurasian and Arabian stable plates (Berberian, 2014). The active faults of Fars Province, the heartland of the Achaemenid Empire, have posed an enduring threat to architectural heritage, necessitating structural adaptations to withstand seismic forces (Berberian et al., 2014). To counteract the destructive impact of tremors, ancient builders devised methods to enhance the resilience of masonry structures, incorporating both material and geometric strategies to mitigate seismic risks (Berberian et al., 2017).

Seismic waves affect structures in both lateral and vertical directions, generating oscillations that induce bending moments, shear stresses, and torsional distortions. The degree of seismic damage depends on a building's strength, stiffness, and ductility—factors influenced by construction techniques, material properties, and overall design configuration (Charleson, 2008). In post-and-beam constructions, such as those used in Achaemenid architecture, seismic vulnerability is particularly pronounced. The reliance on compression-dominant systems makes these structures susceptible to instability under eccentric loading, where even minor ground motions can displace column drums, leading to catastrophic buckling (Macdonald, 1998). Moreover, Seismic shocks would induce

oscillations, causing column shafts to collide with their bases and resulting in horizontal sliding (Sinopoli 1991).

To mitigate these effects, Achaemenid architects used large zoomorphic impostes with recessed backs to securely grip horizontal beams, which supported perpendicular wooden layers and mortised planks, enhancing structural cohesion and reducing seismic displacement (Motamedmanesh, 2022; Motamedmanesh, 2021; Motamedmanesh, 2018). This design not only enhanced the buckling resistance of columns but also significantly improved the overall structural integrity of Achaemenid palaces, allowing them to endure in a tectonically active environment.

Similarly, China's tectonic position—at the convergence of the Eurasian and Pacific plates and near the seismically active Tibetan Plateau—necessitated the development of robust aseismic construction techniques. Traditional Chinese architecture, most notably the dougong bracket system, embodies a highly effective seismic-responsive design (Xie, 2019; Pan et al., 2022). Composed of interlocking wooden beams and columns connected through mortise-and-tenon joints, the dougong system leverages timber's inherent flexibility to absorb and dissipate seismic forces. A key advantage of this framework lies in its ability to maintain structural integrity even in the event of partial collapse. The primary load-bearing skeleton redistributes forces through controlled lateral movement (Xie, 2019), ensuring that the structure remains stable despite the failure of peripheral walls. Furthermore, the layered arrangement of brackets disperses seismic stress across multiple interconnected components, eliminating the need for diagonal bracing—a feature often absent in historic structures that have withstood major earthquakes (Zwerger, 2012). A recent experimental and numerical study on the eccentric compression performance of dougong brackets at column tops indicates that under axial compressive loading, the dougong bracket undergoes irreversible overall compressive plastic deformation. The various constitutive components of the bracket experience significant compression, compacting into an integrated structure that becomes difficult to separate. Notably, only a substantial vertical eccentricity leads to more pronounced tilting damage in the dougong bracket (Xue et al., 2021).

The structural ingenuity of the dougong system shares striking similarities with the Achaemenid approach to seismic resilience. Both systems prioritize flexibility and energy dissipation rather than relying solely on rigid load-bearing mechanisms. The dougong brackets achieve this through their interlocking timber components, which allow controlled movement while maintaining structural cohesion. Likewise, the Achaemenid impost system enhances the interaction

between layered beams and columns, mitigating the risk of abrupt failure under seismic loads. Moreover, both traditions optimize material properties to counteract tremor-induced forces.

VII. Intellectual and Cultural Exchange between the Ancient East and West; Archaeological Findings

The study of ancient timber construction necessitates an understanding of wood's physical properties and fundamental mechanical principles, which collectively determine architectural form and structural efficiency (Zwerger, 2012; Mainstone, 2001). Wood's anisotropic nature imparts greater resistance to stresses distributed along the grain, with the exception of shear stresses (Wright, 2005). A primary challenge in large-scale timber construction lies in the formation of robust joints, as tensile capacity is rarely limited by the cross-section of load-bearing elements (Mark, 1990). The efficacy of timber construction hinges on the shear strength of its joints. Historically, evolution of joinery techniques was influenced by material availability, durability, tool use, aesthetic preferences, and economic factors (Zwerger, 2012; Wright, 2005). Skilled carpenters, relying on empirical knowledge, were instrumental in selecting and implementing these techniques. This expertise explains the Achaemenid rulers' recruitment of Egyptian and Sardinian carpenters, renowned for their mastery of tenon and mortise joints (Mady, 2020; Killen, 1994). Similarly, the structural demands of monumental Chinese timber architecture may have prompted technological exchanges with other civilizations, though the extent of such intercultural transmission remains debated.

Despite significant geographical distances, historical evidence suggests that construction knowledge was transmitted over time through trade networks, diplomatic engagements, and the movement of skilled artisans. For instance, Corinthian copper likely reached China via multiple routes, mirroring the spread of metalworking techniques from the Mediterranean to the Far East as early as the Common Era (Giulia, 2016). The specific mechanisms of these exchanges, whether through direct collaboration or gradual diffusion across intermediary regions, require further interdisciplinary research in architectural history, archaeology, and material analysis to uncover their complexities and impact on construction practices.

Identifying verifiable instances of cultural diffusion is challenging due to the fragmentary nature of archaeological evidence, overlapping cultural influences, and the difficulty in distinguishing independent innovation from borrowed elements. The absence of direct textual or material links often complicates efforts to determine whether artistic motifs, construction techniques, or symbolic traditions resulted

from diffusion, parallel development, or shared cultural dynamics. Therefore, a multidisciplinary approach—incorporating comparative material analysis, historical documentation, and technological studies—is necessary to establish plausible pathways of influence.

Scholars typically associate the earliest documented Iranian-Chinese interactions with Zhang Qian's journey to the western territories of the Han Empire in the second century BCE (Pulleyblank, 1992). However, earlier exchanges along pre-Silk Road routes likely laid the groundwork for later interactions (Pashazanus, 2016; Ferrario, 2022). Iran's strategic position as a conduit between Eastern and Western cultures facilitated these early exchanges. The common transmission route extended across Central Asia, the South Siberian steppe, and through the Ordos region of northern China (Shaughnessy, 1989). Rawson's study (2010) on artistic exchanges identifies four distinct historical periods of interaction between China and the Near East. The first (late second millennium BCE) saw the introduction of glass, knives, and chariots from Western Asia to China. The second (early Western Zhou to early Eastern Zhou) involved the transmission of agate seal designs, animal motifs, engraved weapons, chariot fittings, and metal vessels influenced by Eastern and Central Iranian cultures, including Marlik and Luristan traditions. The third (1000–500 BCE) coincided with the rise of the Achaemenid Empire and the campaigns of Alexander, integrating foreign artistic elements into Chinese state-sponsored art, evident in mosaic designs, bronze inlays, and mythological creatures linked to steppe nomadic cultures.

Ernst Herzfeld's pioneering work revealed artistic and symbolic parallels between ancient Iranian and Chinese material cultures, suggesting long-distance transmission rather than coincidence. His analysis of prehistoric pottery identified shared motifs—such as zeta/sigma symbols and cross-inscribed circles—across regions including Persepolis, Susa, and Neolithic Honan (Herzfeld, 1941). Additionally, lion-headed motifs—depicting an animal not native to China—found in Chinese bronzes closely resemble Near Eastern prototypes, while heraldic eagles at Persepolis exhibit striking similarities to those in Neolithic Honan (Ibid). His research laid the foundation for understanding early artistic exchanges between the Near East and East Asia, offering insights into potential technological transmissions such as roofing systems.

Achaemenid influence on ancient China appears indirect but conceptually significant, particularly in shared cosmological symbolism. Harper (2005) suggests that Achaemenid stepped censors, with tiered lids symbolizing cosmic mountains, may have influenced the Western Han dynasty's boshanlu (hill censors), which depicted mountains inhabited by immortals, reinforcing ideas of cosmic connectivity. The quatrefoil

motif (i.e. a cross-shaped formation of four leaves extending outward from a central point), emerging in China during the late Spring and Autumn period (770–476 BCE), likely has Achaemenid origins, where it held decorative and symbolic significance (Kim, 2021). These artistic affinities reflect broader transcontinental cultural currents rather than direct trade, with motifs and principles migrating across Eurasia (Herzfeld, 1941; Ferrario, 2022). Given the vast geographical distance between China and the Achaemenid heartland, any potential interaction would have been feasible only through peripheral regions, specifically along the northwestern frontier of China and the eastern satrapies of the Achaemenid Empire (Fig. 7). During the Achaemenid period, Central Asia was fully integrated into the empire through military conquest, administration, and economic networks. Cyrus the Great subdued Bactria, Sogdiana, Margiana, and Chorasmia between 545 and 539 BCE (Dandamayev, 1994), while Darius I expanded control through campaigns against the Saka Tigraxauda, incorporating Central Asian warriors into the Achaemenid military (Ibid; Briant, 2002). Darius I specifically designated the Syr Darya River as the western frontier of Persian rule in Central Asia (Briant, 2002). The region contributed taxes, horses, camels (Fig. 8), and benefited from trade routes linking it to the empire's economic system (Dandamayev, 1994; Henkelman, 2017). The distribution of Achaemenid inscriptions, along with historical accounts, suggests that key north

eastern satrapies were integrated into the empire-wide communication network, reinforcing Persian rule and ideology (Rollinger, 2015; Briant, 2002).

The commercial networks in Central Asia during the Achaemenid period facilitated not only economic exchange but also the transmission of cultural and intellectual ideas and practices. Chang's recent research (2018) indicates that Bactria had close ties with regions in the Central Asian steppes, such as Eastern Kazakhstan, which borders the Pazyryk culture, suggesting a potential route for cultural exchange between these regions (Briant, 2002; Ferrario, 2022). Other north eastern satrapies, such as Sogdiana and Chorasmia, were geographically connected to the steppe regions (Stark, 2020). Despite their predominantly pastoralist lifestyle, the nomadic societies of the Eurasian steppe—most notably the Scythians—successfully established expansive polities that periodically challenged sedentary states across northern China, Central Asia, and Iran (Barfield, 2001). The Altai region, in particular, functioned as a crucial nexus for the transmission of artistic motifs across Eurasia, facilitating exchanges both eastward and westward. Within this context, the influence of the Achaemenid Empire is clearly discernible in the assimilation and reinterpretation of Persian iconography within the visual culture of the Altai and extending into regions of modern-day China, including Djoumboulaq Qoum in Xinjiang and Majiayuan in Gansu (Francfort, 2023; Francfort, 2008).



Figure 7: Map of the Achaemenid Empire under Darius I (c. 500 BCE). 2021. (Source: Simeon Netchev, Wikimedia Commons. CC BY-SA 4.0, modified by the author).

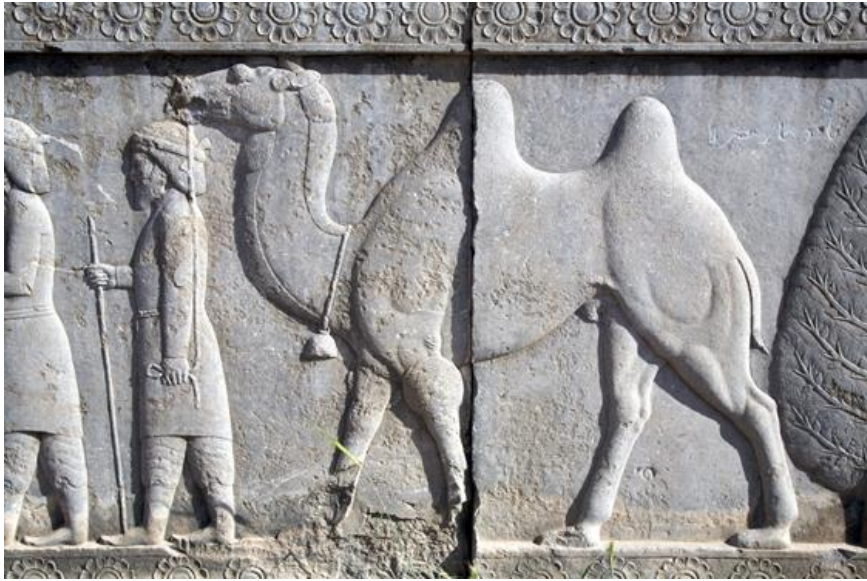


Figure 8: Relief detail from Persepolis, depicting a Central Asian delegate leading a camel as part of the tribute-bearing procession. Bactrian camels are native to the Central Asian steppes and deserts (Source: Sihang, Wikimedia Commons. https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Persepolis_relief_with_camel.jpg (accessed April 13, 2025).

The circulation of Achaemenid luxury items among steppe elites is particularly evident in the archaeological record of the Pazyryk culture, whose frozen tombs in the Altai Mountains—at the crossroads of Kazakhstan, Mongolia, and China—preserve remarkable artifacts. Among these, the Pazyryk carpet (Fig. 9) stands out for its procession motif, evocative of Persepolitan reliefs, suggesting deliberate emulation of Achaemenid courtly aesthetics.

This object may have functioned as a diplomatic gift or tributary exchange, emblematic of broader intercultural entanglements (Rudenko, 1970). Ferrario (2022) further strengthens this argument by noting comparable elite-associated artifacts found at Tillya Tepe in Afghanistan and Noyon Uul in Mongolia. These items, often retained as heirlooms, testify to the enduring prestige of Achaemenid material culture long after the empire's political decline.



Figure 9: The Pazyryk carpet (Source: Kamyab Kiani, photograph taken at the Hermitage Museum).

On the other hand, the Warring States period (480–222 BCE) saw intense power struggles among feudal states, leading to competition for resources and influence (Juliano, 1991). This geopolitical context explains the westward movement of Chinese goods, evident in Pazyryk tomb findings, dating to the late fourth or early third century BCE, highlighting the complex interactions between China and nomadic tribes (Juliano, 1991). Mounted warfare and raptor-headed mythological creatures introduced during this period likely originated with Indo-European nomads from Central Asia and southern Siberia (Bunker, 1992). Periodic markets along China's Northern borderlands played a crucial role in facilitating economic exchanges between sedentary and nomadic communities. During the Zhao kingdom (403–222 BCE) and subsequent periods, these markets supplied steppe elites from Mongolia to Manchuria with luxury goods in return for horses, underscoring the interconnected trade networks that linked agrarian states with pastoral economies (Skaff, 2012). Furthermore, the easternmost satrapies of the Achaemenid Empire—Gandāra, Sattagydia, Maka, and Hindush—offer a compelling lens through which to examine the empire's role as a conduit for intellectual and cultural exchange across the eastern Iranian plateau into South and East Asia. These provinces formed a strategically vital yet historically underdocumented frontier of the imperial domain. Cited in both classical texts and Achaemenid royal inscriptions, their approximate locations correspond to modern geopolitical regions: from the arid Makran coast (present-day southern Pakistan and Iranian Baluchistan), through eastern Afghanistan and northern Pakistan, to northwestern India and the Sindh region (Fleming, 1993; Magee et al., 2005). Although literary and administrative records confirm their integration into the empire from the reign of Darius (Briant, 2002), archaeological evidence remains patchy and uneven. Nonetheless, the incorporation of these regions—especially Hindush, famed for its wealth in classical sources—highlights the Achaemenid strategy of assimilating ecologically and culturally diverse zones through layered governance and logistical networks, often without direct administrative imposition. Despite their peripheral status in classical narratives, these satrapies served as crucial nodes within a wider web of political administration, cultural transmission, and technological diffusion. The Persepolis Fortification Texts, for instance, identify India as an official destination for state-sanctioned travel, implying its systemic incorporation into the imperial framework (Fleming, 1993). While material traces of Achaemenid control are scarce in some areas, recent excavations at Akra and Charsadda reveal robust pre-existing urbanism and long-distance trade, suggesting that imperial influence was absorbed into established socio-

economic systems (Magee et al., 2005). Rather than imposing uniform authority, Achaemenid rule likely operated through a decentralized administrative model, with intermediary hubs such as Arachosia and Bactria coordinating activities in frontier zones like Thatagus and Hindush (Magee et al., 2005). This flexible yet cohesive imperial framework enabled not only economic and military mobilization but also the transmission of ideas and technologies. Metallurgical and botanical exchanges—evidenced by the movement of materials like gold, tin and sesame—reflect the flow of knowledge from Central Asia into the Indian subcontinent during the Achaemenid period (Francfort, 2023). The inclusion of Indian troops in Xerxes's campaign against Greece and their depiction in the Persepolis reliefs further underscores India's symbolic integration into the imperial imagination (Fleming, 1993; Magee et al., 2005). These iconographic representations, showing Indian delegates in regional attire bearing tribute on the Apadana staircases (Fig. 10), affirm the eastward projection of Achaemenid ideology. Such cultural entanglements fostered the circulation not only of commodities but also of epistemes—systems of knowledge concerning construction, craftsmanship, and governance—that transcended imperial borders. In this context, it is plausible that architectural innovations from Achaemenid Persia traveled eastward through these satrapies, influencing early Chinese architectural traditions via routes such as the Karakoram corridor. The hypothesis that semi-rigid jointing techniques and modular bracketing systems were transmitted along these paths gains support from the shared technological sophistication observed in both regions. The transport of Yaka wood to the Persian heartland, as attested in the Darius Foundation Charters, exemplifies the material basis for such exchanges. While direct causality remains speculative, the empire's composite administrative model, logistical infrastructure, and satrapal intermediaries provided fertile conditions for sustained transregional intellectual exchange. Far from being mere fiscal or military peripheries, the eastern Achaemenid satrapies functioned as dynamic vectors of Eurasian connectivity, facilitating enduring, multidirectional flows of architectural and technological knowledge. The urban fabric of Dahaneh-ye Gholaman, the only extant mudbrick city from the Achaemenid era, exemplifies the sophisticated planning and architectural coherence characteristic of imperial centers on the empire's eastern frontier. Located in Sistan, eastern Iran, the site reflects both formal Achaemenid design principles—such as axial layouts, administrative zoning, and modular standardization—and regional adaptations to climatic and material constraints. Architectural composition here, particularly hallways, reveals a striking formal resemblance to those in Central Asia (Davtalab et al., 2021).

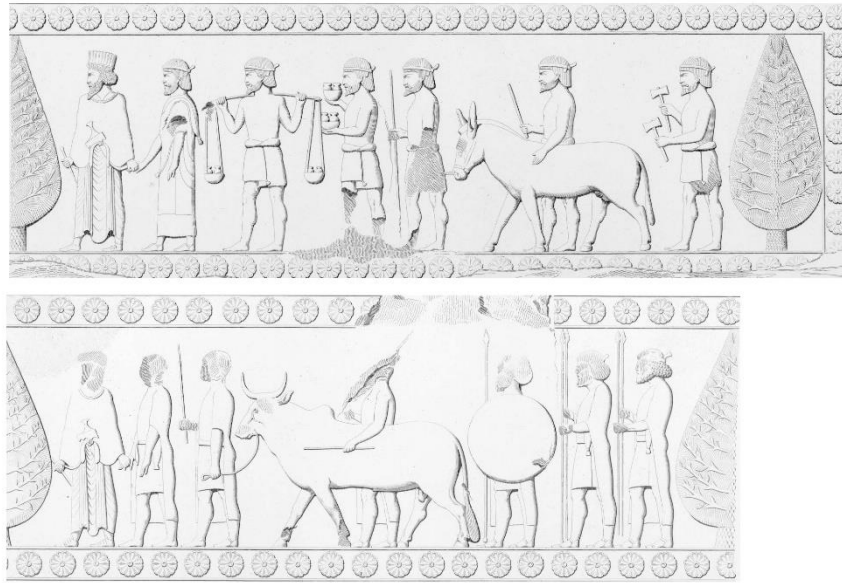


Figure 10: Nineteenth-century engraved reproduction of Achaemenid bas-reliefs from Persepolis, depicting tribute bearers and attendants identified as part of the Indian delegation (Source: Flandin and Coste, 1851).

The consistent geometric planning, use of columned halls, apadanas, and evidence of centralized oversight underscore the role of Dahaneh-ye Gholaman as a transmission node within broader trans-Eurasian knowledge networks. These features suggest that eastern Achaemenid cities like Dahaneh-ye Gholaman may have served as conceptual and infrastructural intermediaries in the diffusion of architectural ideas, such as axiality, modular repetition, and spatial compartmentalization, that would later emerge in early Chinese timber-frame constructions.

Lastly, recent discoveries, such as fossilized horse bones inscribed with cuneiform script in China, suggest potential Persian influences, though their authenticity remains debated (Rollinger, 2015). Similarly, Chorasmian architecture from the sixth to fourth centuries BCE, including the hypostyle hall of Akchakhan-kala and Zoroastrian wall paintings, points to indirect Persian connections (Mirandi, 2017). These findings reinforce the broader narrative of long-distance cultural exchanges shaping ancient Eurasian civilizations.

VIII. Conclusion: A Legacy of Cross-Cultural Architectural Ingenuity

This study has examined the structural, mechanical, and archaeological dimensions of early timber construction, exploring the potential transmission of architectural knowledge across the Eurasian continent. Despite their distinct visual forms, both the Chinese dougong system and Achaemenid roofing structures exhibit fundamental similarities in load distribution, seismic resilience, joinery techniques, and spatial expansion. Each tradition employed bracketing mechanisms to efficiently transfer roof loads to

supporting columns through semi-rigid joints, mitigating localized stress and enabling the construction of expansive, durable roof structures. These innovations not only optimized weight distribution but also enhanced seismic performance, reflecting a sophisticated understanding of material properties and dynamic forces.

While the question of direct transmission between Achaemenid and Chinese timber engineering remains open to further inquiry, the structural and conceptual parallels between these systems warrant closer examination. The technical ingenuity exhibited in both traditions suggests a shared legacy of empirical engineering advancements. Given the Achaemenid Empire's extensive trade networks and historical interactions with central and south Asian regions such as Bactria, Sogdiana, and Hindush, it is plausible that knowledge of bracketing techniques, beam mechanics, and seismic-resistant joinery may have influenced architectural developments beyond the Iranian plateau.

Archaeological evidence increasingly affirms sustained contact and cultural exchange between Iran and China across various historical periods. The vast steppe corridor, inhabited by Scythian nomadic groups, likely served as a critical conduit for the transmission of architectural and engineering knowledge. The presence of Achaemenid-style artifacts alongside Chinese-made goods in Scythian burials in Siberia reveals a complex, multidirectional network in which nomadic societies played a pivotal role in circulating materials, technologies, and aesthetic forms.

Ancient records further indicate that the easternmost Achaemenid satrapies supplied timber for royal constructions in Susa and possibly Fars, highlighting the existence of a sophisticated logistical

system for long-distance resource acquisition. Architectural parallels among Dahaneh-ye Gholaman, Central Asian sites, and imperial Achaemenid palaces suggest a shared repertoire of design strategies and spatial organization. These patterns—corroborated by recent archaeometric and archaeobotanical studies—underscore the extensive transfer of materials and ideas across western, eastern, and southern Asia. Within this context, the hypothesized north–south corridors crossing the Himalayas and Karakorum ranges, linking the Indian subcontinent with mainland China, appear increasingly plausible. Such interactions highlight that architectural innovation and technological advancement were products of interconnected cultural spheres rather than isolated development. Beyond structural similarities, the Achaemenid and Chinese systems share a deep understanding of material properties, load mechanics, and seismic design principles. This convergence, while possibly the result of independent innovation, may also indicate a broader heritage of empirical observation and experimentation within Eurasian architectural traditions. The transfer of such

knowledge, whether through direct contact, trade, diplomatic missions, or the indirect influence of intermediary cultures, may have played a significant role in shaping the architectural evolution of both regions. However, establishing definitive evidence of direct transmission remains a challenge due to the limitations of historical and archaeological records. The absence of explicit textual references or indisputable material links necessitates a cautious and interdisciplinary approach. The circumstantial evidence presented in this study—including structural parallels, geographical proximity, historical interactions, and archaeological findings—suggests only a plausible connection rather than a conclusive one.

Future research should integrate comparative structural analysis, material studies, and interdisciplinary historical models to further investigate the extent of potential cross-cultural exchanges in timber construction methodologies. By advancing this line of inquiry, scholars may uncover new insights into the complex networks of technological transmission that shaped the architectural history of antiquity.

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