

THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL HERITAGE OF THE  
GALLIPOLI PENINSULA: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE  
REGION'S PAST

by

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## **STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP**

This thesis contains no material, which has been accepted for any award or any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. It is affirmed by the candidate that, to the best of his (or her) knowledge, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

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## **ABSTRACT**

This thesis describes the history and archaeology of the Gallipoli Peninsula, which is located in northwestern Turkey with the Aegean Sea on its west and the Dardanelles on its east. The developments and history from the Palaeolithic Period up to the late Ottoman Period are examined. This thesis aims to call attention to the significance of the peninsula particularly in terms of sheltering abundant lives and cultures throughout the centuries and its crucial role as a strategic and historic location.

This thesis begins with the geographical features of the peninsula. Then a history of Thrace, as well as the Balkan Peninsula and adjacent areas of the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Palaeolithic Period up to the Ottoman Period is given. This chapter allows a comparative perspective for the entire region.

The main part of the thesis is divided according to the time periods from the Palaeolithic to the Ottoman. This section of the thesis includes the textual information regarding the peninsula, which covers data about its location, history, people, towns and even the way of lives of certain people, myths, which were written and told about the region and the history of the peninsula.

This analysis addresses the significance of the relatively unexamined cultural heritage of the Gallipoli Peninsula. By generating this investigation, the researches, which were conducted about the region so far, were gathered together and analyzed.

## ÖZET

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'nin kuzeybatı bölgesinde yer alan ve batıdan Ege Denizi doğudan Çanakkale Boğazı tarafında çevrelenmiş olan Gelibolu Yarımadası'nın tarihi üzerine odaklanmıştır. Tez, yarımada'nın gelişimini ve çağlar boyunca geçirdiği değişimleri Palaeolitik Çağ'dan Birinci Dünya Savaşı'nın sonuna kadar takip ederek, yarımada'nın tarihine ışık tutmaya çalışmıştır. Çalışmanın ana amacı, yüzyıllardır çeşitli kültürlerle ve yaşamlara ev sahipliği yapan ve paralelinde, stratejik ve kültürel açıdan büyük bir önem taşıyan yarımada'nın sahip olduğu bu öneme dikkat çekmektir.

İlk bölüm, tam ve bütün bir araştırma sunmak amacı ile yarımada'nın ve çevresinin coğrafi özelliklerini, Trakya'nın, Balkan Yarımadası'nın ve çevresindeki bölgenin Palaeolitik Çağ'dan Birinci Dünya Savaşı'nın sonuna kadarki aralığı içine alan kapsamlı bir tarihini sunmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu bölüm tüm bölgeye karşılaştırmalı bir bakış açısı sunar.

Tezin ana bölümü birbirini izleyen kronolojik dönemlere göre, Palaeolitikten Osmanlı Dönemi'ne kadar Gelibolu Yarımadası'nın tarihini aktarır. Tezin bu seksiyonu Gelibolu Yarımadası'nın lokasyonu, tarihi, insanları, kentleri üzerine yazılmış yazılı belgeleri; mitolojik öyküleri ve yüzey araştırması, kazı gibi güncel araştırmaları kapsar

Gelibolu'nun tarihine bakış, şu ana kadar bölge hakkında yapılan birbirinden bağımsız ve zaman açısından kesintiye uğramış araştırmaları bir araya toplayarak, yarımada'nın ihmal edilmiş / edilmek zorunda kalınmış tarihine dikkat çekmeyi amaçlamıştır.

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## **Chapter 1**

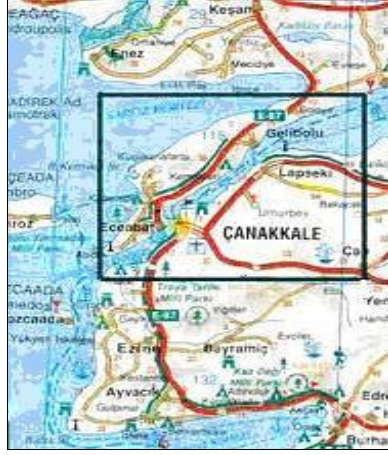
### **INTRODUCTION**

This thesis focuses on the archaeology, history and the historical heritage of the Gallipoli Peninsula. It was written in order to contribute to the creation of a common consciousness about the cultural heritage of the peninsula. In terms of carrying strategic / economic /social significance, the common consciousness holds a lot more importance at the critical locations in the world because such locations have traces of more than one society. The Gallipoli Peninsula is one of those sites. Since the peninsula hosted various people throughout its history, mapping out the archaeological and historical traces of the Gallipoli Peninsula can help create a common consciousness.

Therefore, as the title of the thesis elicits, this project was planned in order to research the cultural accumulation of the Gallipoli Peninsula, its development and evolution across generations and its history from the Palaeolithic Period up to the late Ottoman Period. The main aim is to report the significance of the peninsula as a homeland that played a crucial role as a strategic location for abundant lives and cultures throughout the centuries.

#### **1.1. Geography**

*“...Then comes Cape Sarpedon; then what is called the Thracian Chersonesus, which forms the Propontis and the Melas Gulf and the Hellespontus; for it is a cape which projects towards the south-east, thus connecting Europe with Asia by the strait, seven stadia wide, which is between Abydus and Sestus, and thus having on the left the Propontis and on the right the Melas Gulf — so called, just as Herodotus and Eudoxus say, from the Melas River which empties into it.”(Strabo 7:51).*



**Map. 1.1:** Çanakkale and the Gallipoli Peninsula – [www.comu.edu](http://www.comu.edu)

The Gallipoli Peninsula, in Latin *Chersonesus Thracica*, is a narrow peninsula, c.50 miles (80 km) long, which is located in Western Turkey, at the southern part of Thrace, extending Southwestward between the Aegean Sea and the Dardanelles (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 6th ed. Columbia University Press). Because of its geographical condition, the Gallipoli Peninsula links more than one cultural zone to each other, including Europe, the Black Sea and Marmara region. Thrace and the Troad are the closest neighbors of this Peninsula. The highest point of the isthmus is over 400 meters. The internal parts of it are covered with forests and shrubs (Büyük Coğrafya Ansiklopedisi 3:726).

This region is different on the north and the south in terms of the geography (Casson, 210). The north part of the Peninsula is easy to access, allows the communication between east and west, and is fertile; the south section of the Peninsula has ravines (Isaac, 160). Even so, the settlements were widespread on the south coast instead of the north coast. This is probably because of the access problem: Even though the South part has deep valleys, which make it hard to travel between east and west, passing through from the Peninsula to the Asiatic

side or vice-versa, was much easier on the south coast of the Hellespontos. In addition, these ravines prevent the cold northern winds, and offer a fertile agricultural area. Indeed, ancient sources testify to the fertility of the region (Isaac, 160) such as Xenophon "...a fair and prosperous country" (Xenophon, *Anabasis*, 5:6, 25) and Derkyllidas "...extremely fertile and good land" (Isaac, 160). Insomuch that Athenaeus tells that Homer was describing the Hellespontos as 'teeming with fishes' (Athenaeus, 1.3.9). However, he adds: "He, nevertheless never represents anyone as eating any of these creatures" (Athenaeus, 1.3.9).

## **1.2. The Name of the Peninsula**

In this thesis, the term Gallipoli peninsula will be used to describe the area. The Turkish version of Gallipoli is Gelibolu, which is also the name of a city in the peninsula. Instead of the Peninsula, one can also come across the words "**Chersonese,**" "**Chersonesus,**" or specifically "**Chersonesus Thracica**" (Chersonesus=peninsula), in the sources.

There are different theories about the origin of the name Gallipoli. One of the claims is that the Greeks changed the region's original name into Kallipolis when they captured the city from the Thracians. Kallipolis means 'beautiful city' in Greek (Kalos=beautiful & polis=city (Taşlıkoğlu, 208-212). On the other hand, Fernand Lequenne states in his "Galatlar" book that we call the Peninsula's name as Gallipoli because it means "city of the Gallic tribes.' Lequenne (31) states that the name comes from the Galats, who are a branch of the Celts who lived in the region of the Gelibolu peninsula in the Hellenistic times.

### **1.3. Previous research and the aims of the thesis**

The strategic location of the Dardanelles caused the Gallipoli Peninsula to be a military restricted zone since the end of the First World War. Therefore, the peninsula has been closed to archaeological research until the 1980s (Özdoğan 1986, 51) and consequently, in spite of its importance, the region has not been surveyed sufficiently. The region is a bridge for trade, cultural exchange, migrations, and it is located on a crucial sea route, which ties Europe to the Aegean. Different cultures including Greeks, Turks and even Celts (Lequenne, 15) have settled here. In this manner, in order to be aware of the connections between the two continents in terms of culture and in order to uncover the hidden traces of human history in this area, the Gallipoli peninsula should be studied more intensively.

Therefore, the issue that oriented me to undertake this project is the inadequate research on the Gallipoli region while there is a concentration on the other side of the Dardanelles. In brief, the purpose of this thesis is gathering the information about the archaeology and history of the peninsula in order to focus on the peninsula, preparing a written inventory in order not to lose the data that has been collected before, and presenting this data to the public.

The thesis is divided according to the main time periods, following an overview of the history and geography of the region and a general review of literature. The thesis begins with the Palaeolithic Period. The main foundation of this part is the surveys of Mehmet Özdoğan from Istanbul University. For the Mesolithic Period, the adjacent areas such as Istanbul were researched in order to make a comparison. In addition, there are survey results of an Istanbul University report

containing certain information regarding the Mesolithic and Neolithic Periods of the peninsula. The Early Bronze Age can be traced easily, since Troy and the peninsula itself give relatively enough clues about the period.

The Archaic Greek Period of the peninsula was researched mostly through the ancient textual information, as well as the surveys and excavations, which cover data about the history, people, towns and the lives of certain people.

The Hellenistic, Roman and Byzantine Periods were researched through the ancient textual information, travelers' notes, reference books, surveys and solid archaeological objects such as coins, inscriptions and architectural remains.

The Ottoman Period could be investigated with the help of the notes of the travelers, architectural remains and legal records of the Empire. In addition for the Ottoman period, the Seddülbahir Fortress, Survey, Restitution, Restoration and the Reusage Project, which was run on the peninsula, was also investigated in this chapter. A description of the outline of the project and information about the archaeological excavations will be given.

The thesis undertakes conveying the destruction and the consequences of the First World War, as well, since the Peninsula is a place where the destiny of millions of people was written, thousands of people suffered greatly, and the future of a country was decided in the First World War. The nine-month conflict on the peninsula cost the lives of 87 000 Turkish, 22 000 British, 10 000 French, 8700 Australian and 2700 New Zealand soldiers, among others. An estimated 450 000 people were killed or wounded. The Çanakkale naval and Gallipoli land battles are also the basis of national events. The campaign was the last great victory of the

Ottoman Empire. More particularly, through this war, the military capability and ambition of Mustafa Kemal, and the beginning of his role in Turkey's transition to a secular republican country was flagged.

This investigation will help bring together information about the cultural heritage of the Gallipoli Peninsula. By generating this study, an inventory of the history of the Gallipoli Peninsula will be created.

## **Chapter 2:**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Archaeological projects**

Little archeological research has taken place on the peninsula, but there are a few projects, which are important sources for this thesis. In “Prehistoric Sites in the Gallipoli Peninsula” Professor Mehmet Özdoğan examines the results of his survey that took place in 1982. This article is crucial for the investigations that took place or will take place in Gallipoli and in Thrace. As Özdoğan declared in this article, the whole peninsula was closed to the archaeological researches because the army chose here as a military zone until the 1980s. After the 1980s, thanks to Professor Bahadır Alkım, the whole peninsula was declared as a “natural-historical-archaeological site zone”. Thereby, the region was accessible again.

Mehmet Özdoğan’s surveys were a part of a project of which the main purpose was locating prehistoric and early historic sites in Northwestern Turkey. The purpose of that project was determining all archaeological objects and recording them for the future. Furthermore, correlating Anatolian and Balkan cultures by finding material indications was the initial goal. Therefore, this survey will be a basic study for the first part of the thesis since focusing on this peninsula is important for seeing the cultural sequences between the two main regions. The survey did not comprise just prehistoric sites; it also covered historical sites and monuments. Özdoğan and his team registered 57 sites and monuments of which 17 are prehistoric. As a result of this survey, the team examined 19 prehistoric sites in



the Gallipoli Peninsula such as Karaağaçtepe, Kilisetepe, Maltepe and Kilye. Özdoğan analyzes the data that he collected through the survey. As a summary, the only excavated site in terms of pre-Ottoman research is Karaağaçtepe. On the other hand, Değirmenlik Mevkii has yielded much in the form of micro-blade industrial materials. Besides, he notes, “both the Epipalaeolithic and the Neolithic sites that are so numerous in the region of the East Marmara and the Bosphorus were not recovered along the southern shores of Thrace.”

The other study of Mehmet Özdoğan’s that I will use for my thesis is another article that was published in the Research Reports of National Geographic Society, which is called “A Surface Survey for Prehistoric and Early Historic Sites in Northwestern Turkey.” This archaeological survey took place in eastern Thrace and Marmara in an earlier period, 1979 to 1982. In this surface survey, except Kırklareli and Thrace, the regions were searched in a lesser degree. Özdoğan presented the results of exploration in a chronological order and he gave Gallipoli Peninsula as a separate section. Özdoğan realized that most of the sites in the peninsula are dated to the Bronze and especially to the Early Bronze Age. As a general fact, these sites have completely different aspects from Thrace because the team found just one piece of ceramic that is similar to the Thracian material. On the other hand, all Bronze Age mounds are similar to ones in Anatolia while they are presenting dissimilarities with Thracian ones. One of the important notes for my thesis is that one of these mounds, Kilisetepe is as big as Troia. The ceramics of that mound are similar to Troia’s as well. By this means, as it has been already remarked, understanding Gallipoli is also important for understanding the Anatolian part and Troia.

On the other hand, Gallipoli can be an answer to the question of why there was a so sharp a distinction between the Troadic and Thracian regions for two thousand years when so many major changes were taking place in Troia. Beside these data, Özdoğan determined some locations dated to classical and medieval times, but has not yet published these.

Schliemann's investigation is also important because he excavated Karaağaçtepe, known as the "Protesilaos Tumuli," which is located just opposite the plain of Troia across the Dardanelles. Schliemann found three types of ceramics and a baked brick system the same as Troia when he excavated the site. He states, "There lived in a remote prehistoric age, a people of the same race and culture, as the first settlers on the hill of Hisarlık" (Schliemann, 620). This site was also excavated by French troops who discovered that it was not a tumulus, But a mound. In the mound, they discovered Early Bronze Age and Byzantine remains. They had to end the work in the spring of 1923 for political reasons (Demangel, 5).

For the Ottoman period, the Seddülbahir survey and documentation project began in 1997 at Seddülbahir Fortress. The aims of the project were to document and survey the existing remains of the fortress and bring together the data regarding the fortresses by searching repair records (tamirat defterleri) from the Ottoman archives, European and Ottoman historical chronicles, drawings, engravings and archival photographs from various libraries' collections. The ultimate aim was to be able to put forward a plan for the preservation and reuse of the fortresses and adjoining structures. In 2005, archaeological excavation was done within the fortress as part of preparing the restoration and reuse plan. This project is continuing and preliminary reports are being prepared. I participated in the excavations and collected

information from the project archives, which are kept at Istanbul Technical University and Koç University.

## **2.2 The Gallipoli Peninsula through the Ancient Writers**

Since the peninsula was a preferred location to live as it has been remarked before, the region was subject to conquests, settlements and wars throughout time. Therefore, many ancient writers mentioned the peninsula with its particular conditions by expressing basic information regarding the peninsula such as locations, events and individuals of the periods. Hence, the documents of the ancient writers offer a good commencing point to initiate the research. This chapter will begin with the myths, and will continue by examining the most important ancient writers for the peninsula.

### **2.2.1 The Gallipoli Peninsula through the Legends and Myths**

One of the effective methods of researching a location is by examining the ancient sources. Even though they cannot be counted as entirely dependable, legends can be the initial beacons for this purpose, as well. Legends also give sources for the origin of names in the region.

One of the very oldest names of all the names that were given to the strait is *Hellespont*. The “Itinerary of the Argonauts” elucidates the reason of that name with the falling of Helle, who is the daughter of the king of Teb, into that strait (Erhat, 52). In that story, Helle fell into the water and drowned while a winged-ram with a golden fleece was kidnapping her and her brother Phriksos. The ram was carrying them on its back in order to take to them to Kolchhis, which is located

in the Black Sea region (Apollodorus, 1.9.1, [www.perseus.tufts.edu](http://www.perseus.tufts.edu)). According to Kurtoğlu (7), the Ram is a symbol for a kayak or a ship.

Another myth tells that Hero and Leander lived separately in Abydos and Sestos. Leander from Abydos swam every night to Sestos in order to see Hero until he drowns one night because of the current while he was trying to reach to the other side (Ovid, *Epistles* 18, 19, [www.perseus.tufts.edu](http://www.perseus.tufts.edu); Kurtoğlu, 12). Nevertheless, we cannot learn any detailed information about the region's condition from these legends.

### **2.2.2. Herodotos**

#### **History of Herodotos**

Herodotos lived in the 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C. As a traveler, Herodotos mentions Thrace firstly when he was telling about 'Skythia.' Herodotos discusses the conflict between the Persians and the other ethnic groups who live in the neighborhood of the Aegean such as Skythians, Budins, Ionians, Hellens, and Sauromats.

In this way, it is illuminated that an Athenian general named Miltiades was the tyrant of Chersonese. Because, the Persians were threatening the shorelines of Ionia and Ionia was condemned to help (Herodotos, 4:137). Nevertheless, Dareios went through Thrace, effortlessly, came to Sestos and crossed the Straits (Herodotos, 4:143). They took under control the whole west coast of the Hellespontos (Herodotos, 6:31, 33). As far as Herodotos conveyed, this war's result was a disaster. The Persians destroyed every point of Ionia and afterwards they turned their face to Chersonese. There were certain Thracian forts such as Chersonesos, Perinthos and Selymbria and Byzantium at the European side of Hellespontos. "The Byzantines

and the Calchedonians beyond them did not even wait for the attack of the Phoenicians, but left their own land and fled away into the Euxine, and there settled in the city of Mesambria. The Phoenicians burnt the aforementioned places and turned against Proconnesus and Artace; after giving these also to the flames they sailed back to the Chersonese to finish off the remaining cities, as many as they had not destroyed at their former landing.” Afterwards they turned back to Chersonese in order to demolish every point. They just did not touch Kyzikos for the reason that this city was under control of the son of Magabazos, who was the governor of Daskyleion, Oibares. Consequently, the entire Chersonesos except Kardia was dominated by Phoenecians (Herodotos, 6:31, 33). According to Herodotos, after that event, Miltiades was selected as a tyrant of the whole peninsula. Before Miltiades, the tyrant of Chersonese was another person and it was under control of the Dolonci who were beaten by “Apsinthians” in a war. Consequently, the Dolonci’ king went to Delphi in order to ask the Pythia’s advice on the war in which they were beaten. Thereupon, Pythia recommended them to bring the first man who offered them hospitality to their homeland and make him set up a colony there (Herodotos, 6:34). In Athens, Miltiades invited them for hospitality. Dolonci revealed to him about the oracle and appealed to accept it.

Thus, Miltiades moved from Athens with any Athenian who wanted to join him. Afterwards, he took the city under control and he was appointed as a tyrant (Herodotos, 6:35). After he was assigned as tyrant, he erected a wall between Kardia and Paktye in order to defend the Chersonesos and resist against the attacks of the Apshinthians. This wall’s length was 420 stadia (Herodotos, 6:35). After he closed the passageway, he chose Lampsakos as his enemy at the first place. But he died soon and all the people of Chersonese, organized sacrificing days, athletic

shows and horse races just like they do for the founder of the cities (Herodotos, 6:38). At some stage in these times, the second Miltiades, sailed towards Athens because Phoenicians were about to come to the Chersonese. The writer says that he was going through Melas Bay because he sailed from Kardia (Herodotos, 6:41). This informs us that Kardia was on the Melas Gulf side of the Chersonese. Nevertheless, on his way to Athens, Phoenicians chased them, but they captured Miltiades's son, instead of Miltiades himself (Herodotos, 6:41). From that point we learn that, in some way, Herodotos tells that there is a possibility that the people from Chersonesos and the Persians became 'relatives': Because the Phoenicians imprisoned Metiokhos, who was one of the sons of Miltiades the second and they took him to Dareios. Dareios, somehow, did not do anything to the young boy in terms of punishing him; instead, he gave many presents and married him to a Persian girl. This girl's sons counted as 'Persians' (Herodotos, 6:41).

Herodotos reveals that the years, in which Xerxes had the power of Persian Empire, 'the rest of the world' was really in trouble. It appears that, he was preparing a huge campaign that would spread all over the 'world' (Herodotos, 7:19). Xerxes used Elaeus as a station of this operation. Interestingly, for the duration of this campaign, Xerxes got the soldiers to build a bridge across the Straits, which means from Abydos to Sestos with the goal of going to the north by passing through Ainos. Herodotus writes, "On the Chersonese, which is on the Hellespont, between the city of Sestos and Madytos there is a broad headland<sup>1</sup> running out into the sea opposite Abydos. It was here that not long afterwards the Athenians, when Xanthippus son of Ariphron was their general, took Artayctes, a Persian and the governor of Sestos, and crucified him alive; he had been in the

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<sup>1</sup> Between the modern bays of Zemenik (Sestos) and Kilia: some four miles broad

habit of bringing women right into the temple of Protesilaos at Elaeus and doing impious deeds there.” (Herodotos, 7:33).

At that point, Herodotos gives a detailed view of the region. It can be learned from him that between Sestos and Madytos there was a promontory. During the process, a storm ruined the bridge and when Xerxes heard of this, he was very angry and commanded that the Hellespont be whipped with three hundred lashes (Herodotos, 7:35). Eventually, after the long-term endeavors to build up the bridge, Xerxes finally could cross to the European side. Therefore, Xerxes, marched forwards; and his land army accompanied him. On the other hand, his fleet held an opposite course, and sailed to the mouth of the Hellespontos (<http://classics.mit.edu/Herodotus/history.7.vii.html>).

The navy thus proceeded westward, making for Cape Sarpedon, where the orders were that it should await the coming of the troops; But the land army marched eastward along the Chersonese, leaving on the right the tomb of Helle, the daughter of Athamas, and on the left the city of Kardia. This means that, ‘Kynossema’ was on the left side of Kardia. Afterwards, having passed through the town, which is called ‘Agora’, they skirted the shores of the Gulf of Melas, and then crossed the river Melas, whence the gulf takes its name, the waters of which they found too scanty to supply the crowd. From this point, their march was to the west; and after passing Ainos, an Aeolian settlement, and likewise Lake Stentoris, they came to Doriscus (Herodotos, 7:33).

### **2.2.3. Thucydides, the Peloponnesian War**

Thucydides is one of the most important sources for this research.

Thucydides was born probably about 460 BC and died around the year 400 BC. He is known for his study disclosing the ‘Peloponnesian War.’ It is believed that

Thucydides himself probably took part in early phases of this war between Sparta and Athens. Therefore, he conveys information about the settlements according to the roles of these cities in the Peloponnesian war.

At a certain stage of this war, the Spartans landed in the Chersonese and burnt down the crops (Thucydides, 1:11, 1), which means they destroyed the staples of the Athenians. Furthermore, soon after Sparta and Athens signed a fifty-year peace called the 'Peace of Nicias,' the Athenian army was destroyed and the Athenian Empire had ended.

While we watch this war from the eyes of Thucydides, some ancient cities are mentioned along with their functions during the war. One of the cities he named is Sestos. Now, it can be obviously understood that Persians were the new trouble for the Chersonese. As far as Thucydides explains, the town was besieged by them (Thucydides, 1:89, 1). Apparently, the Persians crossed from Sestos, to march to Persia. Soon after, they sailed away from the Hellespont and the Athenians rebuilt their cities and fortification walls (Thucydides, 1:89, 2).

After the siege and the capture of Sestos, it was well understood that Abydos and Sestos are the significant points of the Straits in terms of the defense of the entire peninsula. Sestos was appointed as the headquarter centre for the defense of the whole Hellespont (Thucydides, 8:62, 3). Thucydides articulates that the city was regarded by the Athenians as the key to the Straits (Thucydides, 8:62, 3).

Furthermore, Elaeus is another noteworthy city in the area for this war. Through the writer's words, the information regarding the position of Elaeus was consolidated. He states that the Athenian ships coasted along Elaeus in order to sail out into the open sea (Thucydides, 8.102. 1). After this the Peloponnesians were



joined by the squadron from Abydos, which made up their fleet to a grand total of eighty-six vessels; they spent the day in unsuccessfully besieging Elaeus, and then sailed back to Abydos (Thucydides, 8.103.1).

An added data was given about the heroikos of Protesilaos. Thucydides puts across the information by saying, "...All had not time to get away; the greater number however escaped to Imbros and Lemnos, while four of the hindmost were overtaken off Elaeus. One of these was stranded opposite the temple of Protesilaos and taken with its crew..." (Thucydides, 8:103). The worship of this hero will be discussed below.

Thucydides goes on by compiling other locations that can be seen along the Chersonese, such as Idacus, Kynossema or Dardanus. The shores of Chersonese were a battlefield:

"After this the Peloponnesians were joined by the squadron from Abydos, which made up their fleet to a grand total of eighty-six vessels; they spent the day in unsuccessfully besieging Elaeus, and then sailed back to Abydos. Meanwhile the Athenians, deceived by their scouts, and never dreaming of the enemy's fleet getting by undetected, were tranquilly besieging Eresus. As soon as they heard the news they instantly abandoned Eresus, and made with all speed for the Hellespont, and after taking two of the Peloponnesian ships which had been carried out too far into the open sea in the ardour of the pursuit and now fell in their way, the next day dropped anchor at Elaeus, and, bringing back the ships that had taken refuge at Imbros, during five days prepared for the coming engagement. After this, they engaged in the following way. The Athenians formed in column and sailed close along shore to Sestos; upon perceiving which the Peloponnesians put out from Abydos to meet them. [2] Realizing that a battle was now imminent, both combatants extended their

flank; the Athenians along the Chersonese from Idacus to Arrianus with seventy-six ships; the Peloponnesians from Abydos to Dardanus with eighty-six. [3] The Peloponnesian right wing was occupied by the Syracusans, their left by Mindarus in person with the best sailors in the navy; the Athenian left by Thrasyllus, their right by Thrasybulus, the other commanders being in different parts of the fleet. [4] The Peloponnesians hastened to engage first, and outflanking with their left the Athenian right sought to cut them off, if possible, from sailing out of the Straits, and to drive their centre upon the shore, which was not far off. The Athenians perceiving their intention extended their own wing and outsailed them, [5] while their left had passed by this time the point of Kynossema. This, but obliged them to thin and weaken their centre, especially as they had fewer ships than the enemy, and as the coast round Point Kynossema formed a sharp angle which prevented their seeing what was going on the other side of it.” (Thucydides, 8:104).

(<http://etext.library.adelaide.edu.au/t/thucydides/crawley/chapter26.html>)

In the eighth book of Thucydides', it can be clearly understood that, Abydos and Sestos were located at the narrowest point of the strait. Because the Peloponnesians directly escaped towards to this point: "...first to the river Midius, and afterwards to Abydos. Only a few ships were taken by the Athenians; as owing to the narrowness of the Hellespont the enemy had not far to go to be in safety.” (Thucydides, 8:26).

(<http://etext.library.adelaide.edu.au/t/thucydides/crawley/chapter26.html>)

## 2.2.4. Xenophon

### 1. Hellenica

Another writer who also reported about the shores of Chersonese in a very detailed way is Xenophon, who mentioned the region while he was describing the Peloponnesian War between the Spartans and the Athenians. Hellenica can be considered as a type of sequel for Thucydides' work.

Xenophon was born about 444 BCE in Athens. He joined the Spartans and he served them even when they were at war with Athens. In Olympia, he wrote the *Anabasis* ([www.iep.utm.edu/x/xenophon.htm](http://www.iep.utm.edu/x/xenophon.htm)). Like the other writers, it could be observed again that the Hellespont and naturally the settings of it were used as key points for the many battles. On the other hand, he spells a city name called Rhoeteum while he is telling about the escape of Dorieus, the leader of the Spartans. Dorieus was trying to escape from the Athenians and he arrived at Rhoeteum (Xenophon, Hellenica, 1:1, 1) Apparently, Madytos was at a safe point because during this conflict, Dorieus' men took shelter in Madytos (Xenophon, Hellenica 1.1.1)

The shores of the Propontis also witnessed the conflict between Alcibiades and Pharnabazus. (Pharnabazus was the first son of an important Persian nobleman Artabazus who was as a satrap of Hellespontine Phrygia.) During this battle, we watch Alcibiades invading Chalcedon and going to Chersonese to collect money for the war (Xenophon, Hellenica 1.1.1).

It is also can be confirmed exactly that Elaeus, with which we already familiar thanks to other writers were in Chersonese: "Now the Athenians had been sailing in the wake of Lysander's fleet, and they anchored at Elaeus, in the Chersonese..." (Xenophon, Hellenica, 2:1).

## **2.Anabasis**

Anabasis has much valuable information on a large area extending from Lydia to Mesopotamia. Anabasis puts across significant data about Anatolia itself, the way of life in Anatolia, its history and traditions. Kyros the third, the young prince of the Persians, marched against his brother Artaxerxes the third in 401 B.C. with an army composed of about ten thousand soldiers. The student of Socrates', Xenophon, was also involved in this war in order to record the whole war. In the course of this battle, Chersonese was chosen as a 'base of the operations' by Clearchus (a Spartan general) while he was formerly aiding Kyros after Kyros gave him ten thousand darics (Xenophon, Anabasis, 1:9). Consequently, the Hellespont cities on the Peninsula sent Clearchus contribution money for the support of his troops (Xenophon, Anabasis, 1:9).

Information that can be gathered from this text is the Thracians' impulsive attitudes towards the Greeks' in order to deprive them of the Chersonese. This can be figured out from the speech of Clearchus, a Spartan general who aided Cyrus on his way to take the crown from Artaxerxes. He promises the Greeks that he will deprive the Thracians of the Chersonese. The money that the Hellespont cities gave to him is the biggest effective factor on this decision.

“And I, receiving this money, did not lay it up for my own personal use or squander it in pleasure... First I went to war with the Thracians, and for the sake of Greece I inflicted punishment upon them with your aid, driving them out of the Chersonese when they wanted to deprive the Greeks who dwelt there of their land.” (Xenophon, Anabasis, 1:3.3).

The 'reporter' Xenophon fortunately, did not neglect mentioning characteristics of the region besides its 'military' features. He reports that the

Chersonese is a good choice to live in by saying "...a fair and prosperous country, where any one who so desired might dwell, while any who did not desire to do this, might return home." "It was ridiculous," he said, when there was plenty of fertile land in Greece, to be hunting for it in the domain of the barbarians." (Xenophon, *Anabasis*, 5:6, 25).

Obviously, this fertility was valid for the entire Thrace. When Anaxibius called his generals to get them to collect supplies, he advises them to go to Thrace because there is an abundance of barley and wheat and other supplies (Xenophon, *Anabasis*, 7:1, 13).

### **2.2.5. Demosthenes**

#### **Speeches**

Demosthenes lived around 384–322 B.C. He is considered the greatest Attic orator. His writings include the lifestyle and culture of Athens. Demosthenes separated a part to Chersonese in his work, which is called 'Speeches'. He initiates this part with mentioning the Thracian campaign of Phillip (Demosthenes, 8:2). Even though Phillip gave an oath that he will not retain Thrace, Demosthenes is afraid that he will break his promise and attack the isthmus (Demosthenes, 8:8).

He also mentions a town, which is called Agora and he says that the north of this town was Phillip's own property and he handed it over as a private estate to Apollonides of Kardia. However, apparently, Agora was not accepted as the boundary. On the other hand, obviously, there was an altar of Zeus (Demosthenes, 7:39) and Demosthenes tells that half way between Pteleum and the White Strand there was going to be a canal across the peninsula. This is proved by the inscription on the altar of Zeus, which runs thus:

*The dwellers here have set this boundary-stone  
Midway 'twixt Pteleum and the Silver Strand,  
And raised this altar fair, that men may own  
That Zeus is Warden of our No Mans Land (Demosthenes, 7:40).*

Demosthenes complains about the way Phillip acts because he treats the district as his own and he brings all the territory under his control (Demosthenes, 7:41). He is also very confused about the Macedonian's words, which order Athenians to settle by arbitration any disputes they have with the Kardians to the south of Agora (Demosthenes, 7:43). To Demosthenes knowledge, one initial goal of Phillip is retaining the sources of the Chersonese. In the orator's opinion, the only reason that Phillip allowed Athenians to retain their harbors, docks, war-galleys and silver mines is his ambition for the rye and millet of the Thracian store-pits (Demosthenes, 8:45). For ten years, Demosthenes tried to tell the dwellers that were living on the Thracian Chersonese that Phillip will capture their territories But apparently, he failed and eventually, the Macedonians did attack the Chersonese.

#### **2.2.6. Arrianus**

##### **History of Alexander and Indica I**

According to Arrianus, Alexander the Great arranged a march to the Hellespontos in around 330 B.C. After a while, he reached Sestos "20 days in all after starting from home". Arriving at Elaeus, Alexander sacrificed to Protesilaos

at his tomb since the hero was the first one as a Greek, who disembarked on Asian soil. The intention of the Alexander's sacrifice, thus, was making his own landing on the Asian side luckier than that of Protesilaos (Arrianus, 1.11.15). When he was crossing to the Asian side by his ship, he sacrificed a bull this time in the midst of the Straits in order to thank to the gods to be the first to disembark on Asian soil. To the knowledge of Arrianus, Alexander established altars both on European and Asian sides (Arrianus, 1.11.27).

### **2.2.7. Pseudo Scylax**

#### **The Periplus**

Pseudo-Scylax luckily describes Thracian Chersonese. After revealing the Melas Gulf is one of the borders of the isthmus, he counts the neck's towns as Kardia, Ide, Paion, Alopekonesos, Araplos, Elaeus, Madytos, and Sestos upon the mouth of the Propontis, which is of six stadiums, Kressa, Krithote, and Paktye. As far as here is the Thracian Chersonese. Furthermore, out of the Paktye to Kardia through the neck on foot is 40 stades, out of the sea; and there is a city in the middle, which has name Agora, which was a main marketplace of the Chersonese. Among the familiar ones, there are a couple of new town names such as Ide, Araplos, and Kressa. "The coastal voyage from Sestos as far as the mouth of the Pontos of two days and two nights, and from the mouth as far as the Istros river of three days and three nights" (Shipley, 8).

### 2.2.8 . Strabon

#### “There is no Geography without Geographer”

“Ancient geographical texts are harder to assess, due to their fragmentary nature, making it treacherous to posit what expectations about authorial self-representation were there for Strabo to adopt, reject or modify” (Clarke, 95).

There are certain debates over Strabo’s travels: While Pais states Strabo knew little of Greece (Clarke, 99); Waddy claims that he visited more places than he conveyed (Waddy, 269-300). Nevertheless, Strabo might be the ideal one to write a view of the world at the time of the Roman Empire (Clarke, 98). Although the debates and the uncertainty of the information he conveyed, his valuable study must be accounted as a respectful reference guide. Because ‘there is no geography without geographer’ (Clarke, 110).

#### The Geographika

Strabo, (born 63 BC or 64 BC, died ca. 24 AD), was a Greek historian, geographer and philosopher. He was famous for his book called *Geographika*, which is composed of 17 volumes, containing history and descriptions of people and places. Thracian Chersonese is one of the regions that were discussed in this ancient book-series. The writer conveyed information regarding the locations, nations, geography and the settlements of the peninsula. Strabo’s words are clear concerning the locations of the Hellespont and its neighborhood. As he reports, the Aegean Sea starts with the Gulf of Melas (Saros Bay) on the Hellespont, which is seven stadiums in breadth (?) and lies along the Chersonese. (Strabo 2:5-21). He explains that the Hellespont runs into the ‘Euxine’ (Black Sea) through the Propontis (Marmara Sea) and the Aegean Sea (Strabo, 2:5-22).



Strabo tells about Thrace mostly in the seventh section of his book. He reveals a relatively comprehensive description of Thrace, (Strabo, 7:9). The possibility of coming across with unexpected information during the reading of ancient writers is a nice coincidence. For example when the geographer mentions Thrace, he points out that the Phrygians were called Brigians. He remarks that there was a mountain called 'Mt. Bermium' in this district in which was dwelled by 'Briges', a tribe of Thracians (Strabo, 7:9) Strabo states that some of them crossed over into Asia and their name was changed to Phryges (Strabo, 7:25). This information is pointed here out because as mentioned before, Thrace and particularly the Gallipoli Peninsula are the significant crossroads for many ethnic groups. The Phrygians were possibly one such group. Beyond, cultural exchanges might be strongly credible during these movements. Strabo notes that Thrace, as a whole, is composed of twenty-two tribes (Strabo, 7:47). He expresses that fifteen thousand cavalry and two hundred thousand infantry can be sent into the field.

After the 'tribal' data, he starts to reveal the cities that are established on the Peninsula. The information regarding the towns of the peninsula will be given separately in the chapter of 'The Towns of the Chersonese' (Page 96).

### **2.2.9. Pausanias**

#### **Description of Greece**

Pausanias also included the Thracian Chersonesos in his work. Conversely, to Strabo, he does not mark it out in a particular way, instead, he gives little clues about the cities such as, and Aegospotami was the place where Athenian navy was destroyed by the Spartans during the Peloponnesian War (Pausanias, 3:8). Additionally, it can be figured out from his statements that Lysimachea was

founded in Kardia's stead by Lysimachus (Pausanias, 1:9). Moreover, the information that there was a cult place in Elaeus dedicated to Protesilaos has been confirmed once again by Pausanias (Pausanias, 1:34).

### **2.3 Sources from the Byzantine and Ottoman periods**

For the Byzantine period, Procopius gives some limited information about the peninsula, mostly about the fortifications of the Peninsula (Greatrex, 126-127). For the fourteenth century, there are also handouts, which were written by Cyriac of Ancona – Cyriac of Ancona. Cyriac of Ancona di Filippo de'Pizzicolti was born in 1391 in Ancona (Italy) and died in c. 1457. He was a prolific recorder of Greek and Roman antiquities, particularly inscriptions in the fifteenth century. His accurate records entitled him to be called the founding father of modern Classical Archaeology (Scalamonti, Mitchell, Bodnar, 1). Cyriac of Ancona passed through Hellespontos while he desired to see Constantinople at last. As many writers observed the peninsula, the first aspects he noticed about the isthmus became the fertility of the region. Then he mentions Sestos and locates it near Gallipoli, on the southern shore of the Straits. Cyriac of Ancona's first sight on Turkish people is their turbans and "long, pointed shoes" (Scalamonti, Mitchell, Bodnar, 111).

For the Ottoman period, one of the important primary sources is Evliya Çelebi. He provides information about the fortresses in the area and reports that Kilitbahir was built before the conquest of Istanbul by the order of Mehmet II, in order to prevent the transporting of the food supply through the Dardanelles for the Greek population of Constantinople, at the narrowest point of Dardanelles in the form of leaves of a trefoil. In addition, Evliya Çelebi discusses the fortress of Seddülbahir and recorded that there was a very deep and wide ditch just in front of

the western facade of the castle which he claim was so frightening for people to look into (Evliya Çelebi, 158). Beside the Ottoman sources, the early information, which was recorded by the European travelers, diplomats and the engineers in both visual and textual way regarding Seddülbahir Castle, conveyed that Seddülbahir was a crowded village in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. Grelot, who traveled to the Ottoman Empire in the same century, recorded a mosque, houses and “ruins of five water towers” (Grelot, 15-16). In one of the engravings of Grelot the castle of Seddülbahir was called as ‘Chateau neuf d’Europe’ (The New Castle of Europe). (Thys-Şenocak 2006: 8). Plantier and Combes, who were in charge with observing the condition of the Ottoman Empire in order to report whether it was conquerable or not for the Kingdom of France, engraved the castle of Seddülbahir containing a mosque and houses.

## **Chapter 3**

### **HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE REGION: Thrace, Northwestern Anatolia and the Aegean**

#### **3.1 Palaeolithic through Chalcolithic periods**

There is a common belief, which states that there is not much in terms of archaeological remains on Thrace except a few Ottoman structures and tumuli (Özdoğan 1999, 2). Özdoğan proclaims three main reasons for this:

1. It is believed that compared to Anatolia, the remains in Thrace belonging to the Prehistoric era are not of great number in this region. However, Thrace has significant prehistoric locations, which were excavated or expected to be investigated. These are; Hocaçeşme, Karaağaçtepe, Buruneren, Menekşe Çatağı, Aşağı Pınar, Kanlıgeçit, Lalapaşa, Kocatepe, Taşlıcabayır, Tilkiburnu, Alpullu, Toptepe, Yarımburgaz, Selimpaşa, Kaynarca, Ağaçlı, Gümüşdere and Çardakaltı.

Among these, Karaağaçtepe, Hocaçeşme, Çardakaltı, Lalapaşa, Kanlıgeçit, Aşağı Pınar, Tilkiburnu, Alpullu, Buruneren, Toptepe, Taşlıcabayır, Yarımburgaz have been investigated so far (Özdoğan 1999, 5).



Map.3.1. Prehistoric Locations of the Marmara Region – Özdoğan 1997,

AA 14

2. The remains in Thrace are generally different from these in Anatolia with respect of to their types.

Compared to Anatolia, Thrace does not have ‘striking’ remains. They are accepted as ‘modest’ by the majority. Regarding to natural sources, people in Anatolia frequently used stone and mud-brick while the Thracians were using mostly wood. Consequently, the wood has decomposed and not much is left (Özdoğan 1999, 2).

3. The third reason to draw attention to Anatolia rather than to Thrace is there is an ‘Aegean centered’ understanding in archaeology, which ignores the northern cultures.

In spite of this lack of attention, due to its geographical condition, Thrace has a strategic importance (Özdoğan 1999, 2). Because of its geographic situation, major roads traversed Thrace from east to west.

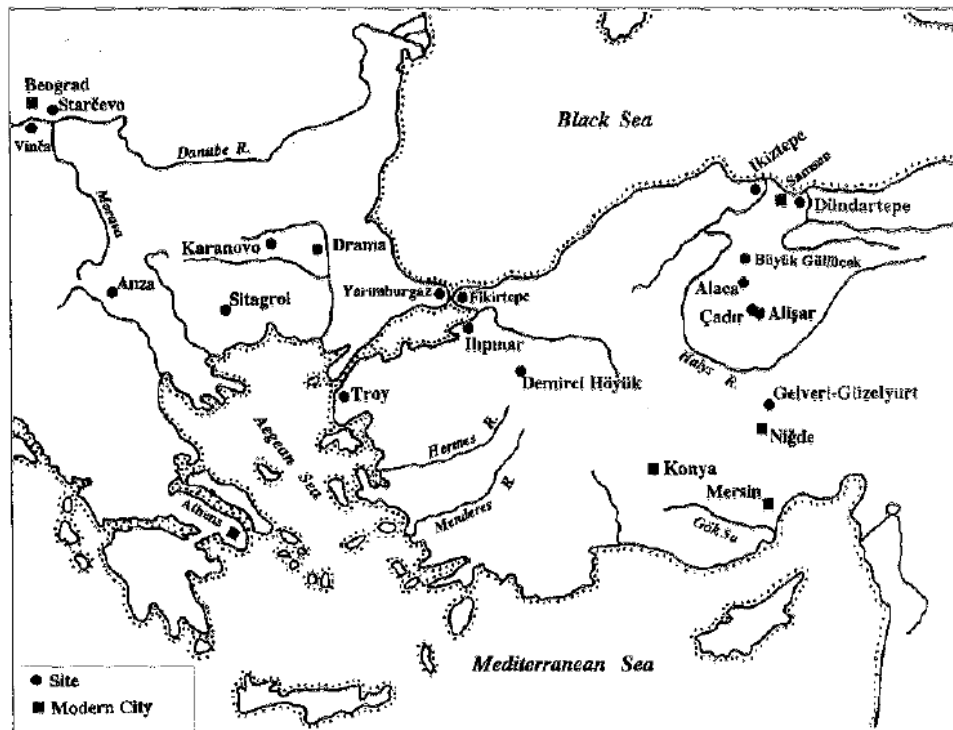
The earliest archaeological traces in Bulgarian Thrace go back to forty thousand years ago (Casson, 210). This is probably because of the fertility of the region. The plain of Upper Thrace has excellent soil, which is fertile for various crop productions. Cultivated areas cover wider areas than anywhere else in Bulgaria (Beshkov, 179). On the other hand, Turkish Thrace has Paleolithic sites where fossil mounds and paleosol<sup>2</sup> outcrops were found (Runnels and Özdoğan, 70). These assemblages were mostly found at the eastern part of Turkish Thrace. The Gallipoli Peninsula was also surveyed and lithic scatters were noted in 1982 (Runnels and Özdoğan 70). In addition, the same survey of the İstanbul University showed that Lower and Middle Paleolithic; Early Upper, Later Upper artifacts are present in Thrace (Runnels and Özdoğan, 71). Finally, in the Yarımburgaz Cave which is very close to the Thrace region, stone tools were unearthed dating back to 300.000 years ago (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:341).

In the Mesolithic age, there were hunter-gatherer and fisher tribes living in Bulgaria, Romania and North Black Sea shores. Nevertheless, the best examples of this civilization can be found on the shores of the Marmara Sea and in the Gallipoli Peninsula (Özdoğan 1986, 56, 59). By observing the alterations on the pottery, it can be assumed that an immigration wave came to Thrace and Marmara in that time period, possibly from the Aegean (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:345)

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<sup>2</sup> Paleosol: layer of buried, ancient soil (Webster's New Dictionary)

Around the sixth millennium B.C., Thrace had entered the Neolithic age (Casson, 210). The Yarımburgaz Cave hosted five separate cultures dates to the sixth and fifth millennia B.C. (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:335). The Yarımburgaz Cave provides evidence for a culture called ‘Fikirtepe Culture’, which dates back to the sixth and fifth millennia B.C.



**Map.3.2. Mesolithic Age Settlements in Anatolia and Balkans - Steadman, 14**

This culture was identified first in this cave (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:335). Fikirtepe Culture, which is quite different from the other cultures, particularly from the Trojan culture, was found in the entire Marmara Region (Özdoğan Ph.D, 8). The first two phases of this culture represent simple pottery forms and narrow lips. These phases’ traces can be found on the Eastern

Marmara shores, internal western Aegean sites and the Gallipoli Peninsula (Özdoğan AA 14:335). Investigations are continuing about this 'brand new' culture. Furthermore, Hocaçeşme in Edirne represents a Neolithic settlement as well. Although the pottery of this settlement has close parallels with internal Anatolia, its rounded architecture style is very different (Özdoğan Arkeoloji ve Sanat, 15). On the other hand, if we look to the picture from a wider angle, there are parallels between Bulgaria, Greece and Anatolia in Neolithic age: Excavations and methodological investigations in Southern Bulgaria have shown that there was a syncretism between Southern Bulgaria's Neolithic Age and Troia (Dumitrescu, 44).

The Neolithic colonization of the Aegean islands and the 'Minoanization' of the Aegean in the Middle and early phase of the Late Bronze Age formulated a 'pan-Aegean' focus (Davis, 702). It has been understood that obsidian from Melos was reaching the mainland in the later Palaeolithic and Mesolithic. Finds, which came from Franchthi Cave from the southern Argolid, are well protected and are Melian origin for sure (Davis, 702). Therefore, it is obvious that the Aegean Islands were been navigated long before the introduction of agriculture to Greece and as a consequence, it can be a logical path for the migration of Neolithic people to the adjacent mainland (Davis, 702).

When we come to the fourth millennium B.C., things are not as clear for Thrace as they were in the Neolithic. In these eras, the likeness between Anatolia and European Thrace can be surveyed easily and there is evidence in burial mounds, construction methods and pottery decorations. Furthermore, the fourth millennium was the richest era in European Thrace in terms of pottery and early sculpture. These are the examples, which have close parallels in Anatolia. For

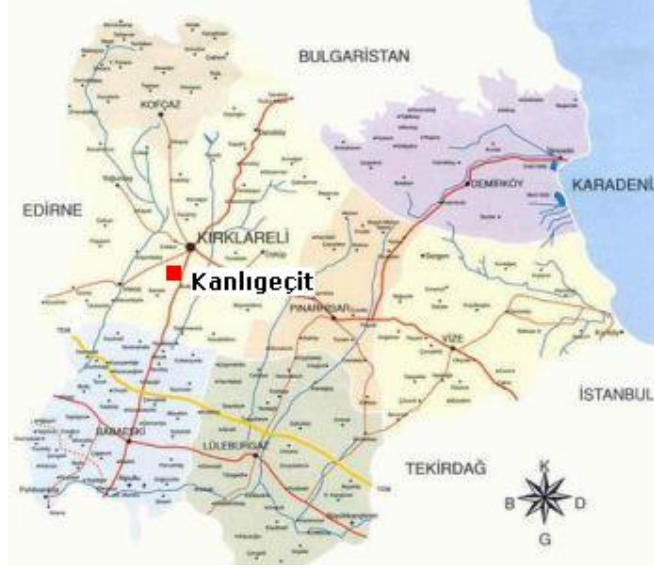


example the necropolis near Varna, which is dating back to the Late Chalcolithic Age, from which lots of gold jewelry was unearthed, is an indicator of that ‘rich culture’ (Venedikov, 9). This necropolis includes more than 44 burials and offers a huge amount of golden jewelry (Venedikov, 9). This treasure was, in fact, the real symbol for a hierarchical society. This social system existed in the Balkans during these times. In addition, we know that the Bulgarians dug deep shafts to extract copper ore (Casson, 210). On the other hand, in western Anatolia, there was a lively development of polychrome wares. Hacilar, Can Hasan and Beycesultan are important settlements in Anatolia of this period. It is important to note that when these developments were going on in European Thrace and Anatolia, little evidence has come from Turkish Thrace. Particularly in the middle Chalcolithic Age, nearly all the settlements were abandoned in Thrace: Ilıpınar, Toptepe, Yarımburgaz, Hocaçeşme and Aşağı Pınar (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:347)<sup>3</sup>.

The recent investigations have shown more interestingly that there was destruction in the settlements in Turkish Thrace. After this destruction, a coarse pottery type appeared for a short time and then it was interrupted. There is nothing in Thrace that can be dated to 3800–3000 B.C. (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:348). It is very interesting that Thrace has nothing when there was such a remarkable culture in Romania (‘Cucuteni’ culture) and Bulgaria (‘Gumelnitsa’ culture). Only in Kanlıgeçit, a big pit was unearthed, which contains lots of fine Gumelnitsa pottery but there is nothing else in the adjacent regions (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:348).

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<sup>3</sup> See **Map. 4.1**



**Map.3.3. Kanlıgeçit - <http://www.kirklareli.gov.tr>**

In addition, scholars determined Cucuteni Culture's<sup>4</sup> materials in Edirne.

As a result, it can be supposed by counting on the findings that were found in Edirne (in Thrace, Turkey), that an immigration movement diffused into the region from the Western Balkans in 4300 B.C., destroyed the settlements and later on, another group entered the region from Romania with their Cucuteni Culture in around 3800 B.C. (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:348).

Additionally, Mehmet Özdoğan and his team determined ceramic sherds in Tilkiburnu,<sup>5</sup> which belong to the end of the fourth millennia B.C. and are typical for both Anatolia and the Balkans (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14:334). Besides, Toptepe (Map 3) gives Chalcolithic findings, but this settlement was heavily destroyed, as well. A huge red-painted pot decorated with a woman is one of the most important findings of this location (Özdoğan Arkeoloji ve Sanat, 13).

<sup>4</sup> It is a culture of Romania and Moldova

<sup>5</sup> See **Map.4.1**

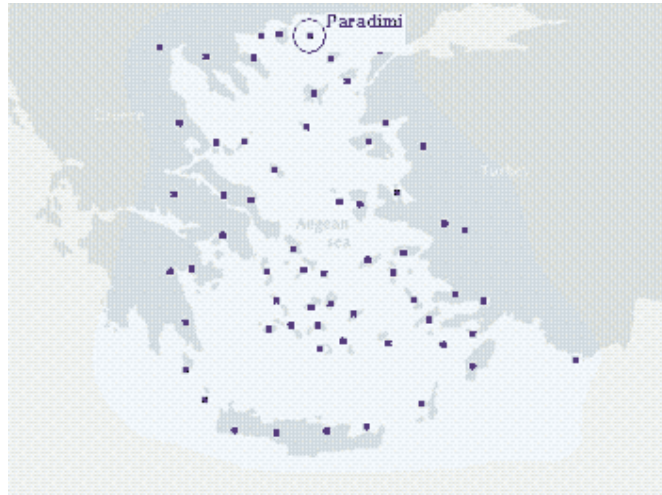
To conclude, Ilıpınar V and Yarımburgaz 3<sup>6</sup> created an alteration in pottery tradition with a variety of new forms and decorative techniques, which are almost equal with Karanovo III-II and early Vinca (c.5500-5000 B.C.) ceramic styles (Steadman, 19). However, the similarities of the ceramic types of the two regions are not accurate; this distribution of the styles might be an indicator of a cultural interaction rather than one of economic exchange (Steadman, 21).

### **3.2: Bronze Age**

For the Early Bronze Age of the region, we can say that the life had started again in Thrace. There is extensive settlement in the area in that epoch. The Early Bronze Age is the time period in which the Troia culture had begun in ‘Hisarlık’ on the opposite coast of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Troia I pottery spread towards many directions which means that there was a busy trade between these districts (Korfmann, 348). On the other hand, because of the different inheritances and influences, two cultural regions with different potteries were formed in during the Early Bronze Age, which were the Troia group with Helladic, Minoan and Cycladic pottery in the southeast and the Baden group in the northeast (Grbic, 147). In addition, Paradimi is a location in Aegean Thrace, which offers one phase belonging to the Early Bronze Age within its 4.5 meters stratigraphy (Andreu, Fotiadis and Kotsakis, 100). Also, a mound was surveyed in Alpullu, in Kırklareli (see map VI) by Istanbul University in 1936-7 and Bronze Age ceramics were found which are related both to Anatolia and Hungary, Rumania and Southern Russia (Luce, Blegen, van Buren, 437).

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<sup>6</sup> See **Map. 4.1**



**Map. 3.4. Paradimi - [www.vpai.gr/atlas/default\\_uk.asp](http://www.vpai.gr/atlas/default_uk.asp)**

The Bronze Age in the Aegean witnesses the rise and fall of some of the most famous civilizations of the ancient world, those of the Minoans on Crete and the Myceneans on the Mainland of Greece. Palace based civilizations with state level institutions and a variety of labor specializations are the major developments of that era. Although metallurgy began in the Neolithic period, the usage of this ‘technology’ increased. Settlements became larger and mostly fortified; warfare became increasingly common as evidenced by weapons, artwork and fortifications (<http://classics.uc.edu/prmainland/Lectures/DanPullen/EBA01.html>).

In the Middle Bronze Age, the individuality of Central Balkan pottery in the Early Bronze Age continued throughout the Middle and Late Bronze Age. Particularly in the Vardar region, the culture of this era had developed in close connection with the cultures in Greece (Grbic, 147). The center of the pottery in the Balkan area shifted to the north and south. The pottery types are more definite and the styles are more distinctive in this epoch (Grbic, 148). Additionally, gray ware occurs in Northern part of the Sea of Marmara in the second millennium B.C. (Mellink, 561). In this time period, the southern Aegean was completely under the

influence of Crete. However, there was a noticeable diversity between the settlements. Because, while the south part of the Aegean was strongly affected by the Minoan culture, the northern part of it was completely out of the subject (Davis, 705). Also in Thasos, which is a very close island to Eceabat, Late Neolithic ceramic types are similar to those in Macedonia. This likelihood continued in the Early Bronze Age. Nevertheless, the Middle Bronze Age is a blank in Thasos (Davis, 722). On the other hand, local imitations of Mycenaean pottery, knives, weapons and tools have been found on the island (Davis, 722).

Troia lived its best time in the Late Bronze Age. It is a city in this age which has a remarkable fortification wall which is protecting a city 270 000 square meters in breadth. The settlement was also an important trade center (Korfmann, 348-9). At the end of the Late Bronze Age, Thrace had a big migration from the Balkans of which potteries, burials and monuments showed themselves in the area of Thrace and also at Troia. The extraordinary thing is this civilization appears in every point of Thrace except the shoreline and Gallipoli Peninsula (Özdoğan Anadolu Araştırmaları 14, 359).

### **3.3 Iron Age through Byzantine periods**

*“After the Indians, they (Thracians) were the most crowded people of the earth. If they were under a single ruler or conduct themselves by a single willpower, they never would have been beaten by anyone and would be the mightiest of all the nations on the earth.” Herodotus, (History of Herodotus, 5.3).*

A well-known turmoil age took the flag from the Bronze Age. Nevertheless, by the beginning of the Early Iron Age, Thrace’s population has increased and all the small settlements sustained up to the Hellenistic Period (Özdoğan 1995, 39). This is information, which is evidenced by the recent

excavation of Lalapaşa in Tekirdağ, where an undisturbed fill shows the continuous use from the Early Iron Age up to the Hellenistic Period (Özdoğan 1995, 39).

This region had parallel cultural aspects with those of the European countries because of its geographical position (Venedikov, 7). However, the ancient Greeks knew very little about Thrace for a long time and they seemed to be wary of its people and climate. They believed that Thrace is the country of Ares and the north wind, Boreas and even, the name of the sea of eastern Thrace was ‘Axeinos=Unfriendly’ in Greek. Nevertheless, the remnants of many cultures can be traced in Thrace such as the Greeks and Scythians of southern Russia. Their contributions to the cultural wealth of the region should not be forgotten. Furthermore, in the first millennium B.C., the Celts and then the Romanians penetrated into the area (Venedikov, 7).

In around 300 B.C., after conflict had exhausted the military and economic sources of Thrace, Celtic tribes ravaged the area and afterwards, the Roman Empire’s arms had reached the district, which can be represented through finds such as fibulae, swords and shield plaques (Venedikov, 65). Because of the Romans, Thrace was divided into three main regions which are called Macedonia, Moesia and Thrace in which urbanization had increased like the development of the art and architecture like the other Roman cities (Venedikov, 67). On the other hand, the Romans also destroyed Hellenistic Troia, which had an Athena temple on its acropolis (Korfmann, 352). Nevertheless, since the emperor Augustus wanted to make propaganda that his ancestors come from Troia, he had this temple rebuilt (Korfmann, 352). On the other hand, for Thrace, occupation by people of different origins and cultural traditions continued from the Roman Period until the

Arab invasion in the seventh century (Charanis, 140). After the marauding of the Arabs, Greek-speaking elements were strong especially in the parts of the Balkan Peninsula, but Hellenization was not as powerful as at the beginning in these regions, at all. Therefore, Justinian settled Bulgar people in Thrace whom he recruited for the army of the Empire (Charanis, 141). After the first disastrous earthquake affected Thrace and the vicinity, which was even felt in Italy (Downey, 600); the second one was the chance of the Ottoman Empire. Because of the turmoil was caused by this earthquake, and the collapsing of the 'Kallipolis wall' in Thrace (Downey, 600), the Byzantines had to escape from the area and Süleyman, the son of Orhan, invaded the region easily (Ostrogorsky, 455). Consequently, thus, the region became a stair in order to march into the Europe. The very last border of Thrace was drowning at the end of the independence war of Turkey in 1926.

## **Chapter 4: PREHISTORY OF THE PENINSULA: From the Palaeolithic Period up to the Iron Age**

### **4.1. Palaeolithic of Northwestern Turkey**

Northwestern Turkey is a significant region in order to trace migrations of early humans and their evolutionary history. The transition from the Middle Palaeolithic to the Upper Palaeolithic is particularly significant in the sense of the disappearance of the Neanderthals. There are two hypotheses, which are in process in order to elucidate the disappearance of this species (Özdoğan and Runnels, 69).

One hypothesis defends that modern human beings directly evolved from the Neanderthals. On the other hand, the other theory, which is called the replacement theory, believes that Homo sapiens flowed probably into the Near East from their probable original homeland Africa and replaced the Neanderthals. The second one is currently in favor. However, the replacement theory is prevented by the paucity of the evidence of Palaeolithic sites in the areas on the supposed path of migration of Homo sapiens from Africa to Europe. Northwestern Turkey is one of these areas. Since this area linked two continents to each other, it is an attraction point for many migration groups. It is believed that the Alpine race invaded Europe via Hellespontos or the Bosphoros in three waves (Peake, 162). Therefore, the thought is, the early human beings should have used this milieu and as a result, they should have left some archaeological evidence (Runnels and Özdoğan, 69). Northwestern Turkey, thus, is a significant region in order to trace this era and these migrations.

Yarımburgaz Cave and Ilıpınar in Northwestern Turkey are the most fertile sites near the Bosphorus for the prehistoric time. These two sites have particular



importance because they reveal long and relatively unbroken sequences (Steadman, 18). Indeed, Yarımburgaz Cave stands for various periods, from the Lower Palaeolithic up to the Middle Chalcolithic Period (Özdoğan 1990, 107). Likewise, Yarımburgaz Cave, Ilıpınar is another important settlement in the Marmara region. It presents a continuation from the seventh millennium B.C. intermittently up to the second millennium B.C. (Steadman, 19). On the other hand, no Palaeolithic sites were found to the east of the Büyükçekmece Basin in the Marmara Region (Özdoğan 1990, 70).

#### **4.2. Palaeolithic of the Peninsula**

However, like the Marmara region, the Gallipoli Peninsula is also important for the same period with its geographic situation. For example, there are continental deposits belong to the Late Quaternary, which contain marine faunas in the Dardanelles area 116 meters above sea level (Vita-Finzi, 606).<sup>7</sup> The oyster bed of the Gallipoli Area is about 6 meters above sea level. Calvert and Neumayr reported that they found a Palaeolithic ‘knife’ in these beds, but it is suspected whether it is ‘in situ’ or not (Vita-Finzi, 606).

Thereupon, in order to learn the register of all kinds of archaeological remains of the peninsula, a survey took place in 1982 within a major project of İstanbul University by Mehmet Özdoğan. In consequence, 57 sites and monuments were recovered, of which 17-reveal prehistoric material (Özdoğan 1986, 52).

According to the results of this survey (Özdoğan 1986, 58-63), putting forward an exact chronological sequence of the Gallipoli Peninsula is not possible yet. Compared to the earlier periods, the Bronze Age is easier to figure out, since

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<sup>7</sup> Late Quaternary refers to the time between 700.000 years ago and the present day.

we have the assemblages of Kumtepe<sup>8</sup> and Troia, which are located at the opposite side of the Peninsula. On the other hand, as there nearly nothing in terms of the finds from the earlier periods of Kumtepe IB,<sup>9</sup> it is possible to trace these earlier periods only through Thrace. Because of the geomorphologic changes and the alluvium on the Peninsula, finding Palaeolithic indicators is extremely difficult. However, certain lithic scatters belonging to the Epipalaeolithic Period were found in Değirmenlik (Özdoğan 1986, 59). These Epipalaeolithic assemblages are similar to those of the Bosphorus region (National Geographic Society RR 20:529) and are the earliest find group that has ever been found on the Peninsula. A persuasive amount of lithic assemblages with micro-blade industries without alliance with pottery, were found at this site. A few flakes, which are from Eceabat and Anafartalar, also belong to the Palaeolithic period. Kaynarca and Karaağaçtepe are the other two sites, which yielded the same type of industry but with one difference: The assemblages from these two sites are associated with pottery.

Overall, as the 1979 report of National Geography Society has revealed, the Palaeolithic remains are inadequate on the Peninsula and these are limited to a few scatters of artifacts (National Geographic Society RR 20:528).

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<sup>8</sup> See **Map.4.4**

<sup>9</sup> The adapted radioactive age of Kumtepe IB is 3500-2910 B.C. But according to the C14 tests, the earlier phases of Kumtepe IB should be evaluated in the Late Chalcolithic period ([http://tayproject.org/downloads/14C\\_BE.pdf](http://tayproject.org/downloads/14C_BE.pdf))

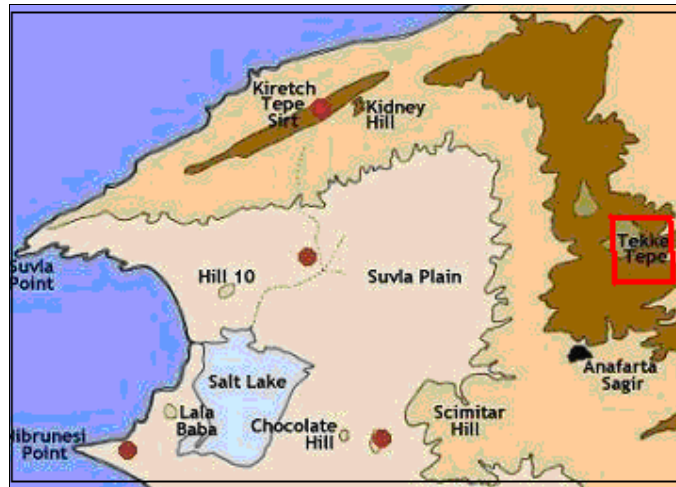


## **Mounds**

Tepecik is a mound, which is located close to Eceabat. A coarse pottery type, which was found at Tepecik, is assumed by Özdoğan as the earliest pottery of the region because some of the sherds can be earlier than the Kumtepe IB period (Özdoğan 1986, 57).

Another mound called 'Kilisetepe,' which is also known, as 'Maydos Kale' is located at Eceabat. The mound's height is 25-30 meters. It reveals a progression from Kumtepe IB up to Late Troia VI. This is the biggest mound of the Peninsula, with its significant location. Kilisetepe is established at the entrance of the Dardanelles (Özdoğan 1986, 55).

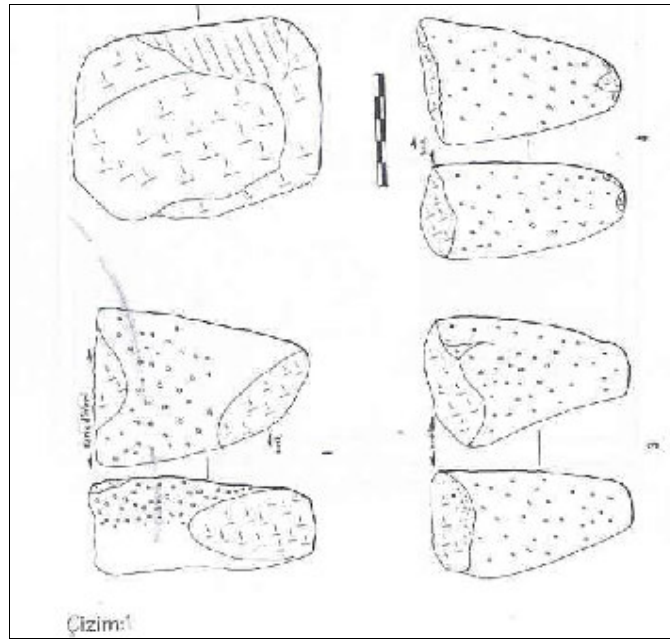
As has already been remarked, finding Fikirtepe assemblages on the Peninsula was a big step in order to be aware of the chronological sequences of the Gallipoli Peninsula, because this collection of findings points to the spreading out of this culture westward (Özdoğan 1986, 60). Kaynarca is a significant settlement near the town of Gallipoli, which stands for a good example for the Fikirtepe type of assemblages. The pottery type of this settlement is similar to the Fikirtepe pottery in ware and shape. It is a mound, which exposes besides scatters of late period pottery, a mediocre amount of flint and obsidian implements. Except the pottery, the flint objects are remindful of the Fikirtepe type of grouping, as well (National Geographic Society RR 20:529).



**Map.4.2:** Buruneren location, which is also known as ‘Tekke Tepe’

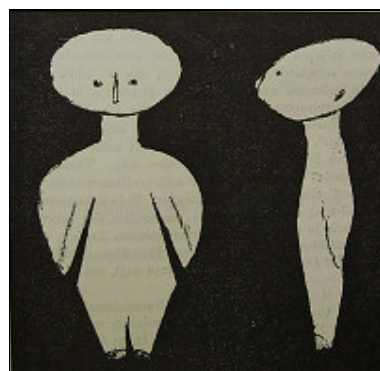
([www.iwm.org.uk/upload/package/2/gallipoli/suvlaopen.htm](http://www.iwm.org.uk/upload/package/2/gallipoli/suvlaopen.htm)).

Buruneren is located in Tekirdağ in Turkish Thrace and it was investigated by Onur Özbek in 1999 (Map 7; Özbek, 1). This settlement is at 100 meters above sea level, which has a water source nearby. It is interesting to note that this was both a prehistoric settlement and a workplace, which reveals stone industry products. According to the results of Özbek, it was understood that these stones were made from local stone and were generally 400-1000 g. in weight.



**Image. 4.1:** Glazed Axes from Buruneren, Özbek, 3

In addition to these sites, the Baştepe mound revealed Kumtepe IB pottery. Asartepe, Maltepe and Kalanuro have Kumtepe IB type of pottery. Another stray find that should be mentioned is an idol, which was found by Calvert in ‘Kilia’ (Kolia?). It was found on the surface, half a mile from the Hellespontos. It is a Neolithic relic. The head is a flattened sphere with nose, ears and eyes. The arms are formed as wings (Caskey, 76).



**Image. 4.2:** The Neolithic (?) idol. (Caskey, plate 44).

#### **4.4 Bronze and Iron Ages**

There is some material from excavations and surveys about the peninsula during the Early Bronze Age, demonstrating many parallels to the site of Troia. In contrast, there is very little from the Middle Bronze through Late Bronze ages, during the time of the palatial civilizations in the Aegean and the heavily fortified settlement at Troia.

An overview of the Bronze Age occupation of the Peninsula can be gathered through the survey of Mehmet Özdoğan, which was done in 1982. Information that is more specific is given by the one excavation conducted at the Tomb of Protesilaos (Karaağaçtepe) (Demangel, 1926). Therefore, the survey results of Mehmet Özdoğan and the excavation of Karaağaçtepe will be examined below.

##### **4.4.1. The Early Bronze Age**

The best-known phase of the Bronze Age in the Gallipoli Peninsula is the Early Bronze Age. The survey results show numerous early Bronze Age settlements (Özdoğan 1986, 61-63). In this time period, Troia I (c. 2920-2320 B.C., Korfmann, 347), ceramic types have increased at the settlements. The famous shape of Troia I bowls with thickened rims are rare and are replaced by a type of bowl decorated on its exterior surface. The number of settlements increased during this period, as well. On the other hand, during the Troia II-V periods (c. 2550-2250/2200-1700, B.C., Korfmann, 347) this number had decreased. Kilisetepe is the outstanding settlement of the region for the Early Bronze Age. The main cone of this mound is c. 250 m. wide and its height is about 25-30 meters. As far as the survey's result, the mound offers an uninterrupted sequence from Kumtepe IB to Late Troia VI. Furthermore, it

has revealed Hellenistic and Roman materials. It also offers at least 3 m. of Troia III-V layers with stone architecture (Özdoğan 1986, 55).

### **Karağaçtepe: ‘The Tomb of Protesilaos’ and the excavations**

Karağaçtepe is a mound, which is also known as ‘the tumulus of Protesilaos.’ It is an impressive one with 11 meters of archaeological deposits (Özdoğan 1986, 54). Karağaçtepe is located at the tip of the Peninsula, on the edge of the Seddülbahir village. The mound, which is surrounded by two low terraces, was excavated by Schliemann in 1882 and by the French Forces in 1921 and 1923 (Özdoğan 1986, 54). Since this mound was known as the tumulus of Protesilaos, whose tomb was mentioned as being near the city of Elaeus, by the ancient writers such as Strabo (7.51) and Pausanias (I.34), it was investigated and excavated in order to reach the rich treasures of this tumulus.



**Image. 4.3:** The ‘Tumulus of Protesilaos’ from southeast (Demangel, 8)





**Map. 4.3: The Chersonese and Protesilaos' Heroikos (Casson, 211).**

However, the French troops soon discovered that it was not a tumulus, but a mound. Therefore, they had to change the excavation technique from deep sondages (wells) to long and wide trenches, which were dug perpendicular to the central deep sondage. They had to end the work in the spring of 1923 for political reasons (Demangel, 5).

Furthermore, as Schliemann reported, the ruins of the site could be seen in the background of Elaeus and he states that the 'sepulchre' was 11, 89 meters in

diameter (Schliemann, 254). Schliemann describes the mound as a very fertile area (Schliemann, 256-257).

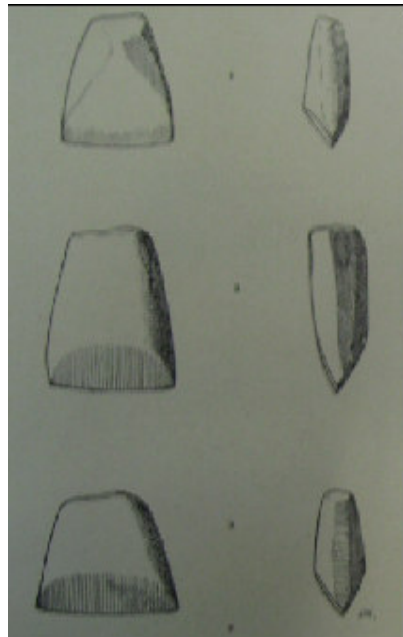
The mound is oriented Northeast-Southwest, two kilometers to the north of Seddülbahir, in the valley of the “Kirtedere.” A small stream nearby is dry in summer, but has water in winter. The site is about 1 kilometer from the sea (Demangel, 7). The position of the mound was strategic during WWI and may have been the same in ancient times (Demangel, 10). The prehistoric levels have been divided into phases I-V, which correspond to Troy phases I and II (Demangel, 13). It is very noteworthy that the site was abandoned before the Middle to Late Bronze Age period (Demangel, 11). Perhaps the inhabitants left to live at Elaeus although also there are no Late Bronze Age remains there. After the prehistoric levels, the next evidence is from the Byzantine period.

### **First Phase and Kumtepe Mound**

In this first phase of this mound, the French troops found a rectangular shaped enclosure made of stones. The stone structure does not seem solid enough to support a wall and the French team states it was not a building, but rather some sort of enclosure, possibly of religious function (Demangel, 16). Near the rectangular structure there is a small round structure (1.25 m in diameter) made of stones. Again, the function is uncertain, but it is guessed that it had a funerary function (Demangel, 16-17). The amount of animal bones and stone tools, which were used for cutting the animals found in the area, supports a religious interpretation, like sacrificing (Demangel, 18). These are all objects that were found in the first settlement, which is the oldest one. This phase includes pottery, stone tools, figurines (Demangel, 18-33). This earliest phase dated is c. 3000 B.C. (Demangel, 63).

In addition, the earliest phase of this mound reveals Kumtepe IB pottery (Özdoğan 1986, 54). On the other hand, the earliest layers of the mound are probably under the plain because it is known that in the third millennium B.C., the Merto Bay penetrated inland (Özdoğan 1986, 54). The oldest remains are found 11.5 meters below the top of the mound. The earth contained a large amount of burnt carbon and animal bones in this phase (Demangel, 14).

On the other hand, we have a little axe, which is evidence that the Late Chalcolithic (c.3000 B.C.) pottery of Karaağaçtepe offers evidence for domination of Balkan elements (Özdoğan 1986, 61). (Image 4.4 is a good example for this statement). Furthermore, Late Neolithic or Early Chalcolithic layers were been observed (Özdoğan 1986, 54).



**Image. 4.4:** Little axe. The object was unearthed from 9 meters depth. It was made by very sharp grayish jasper. .038 m in length; .032 m in height (Demangel, 25).

The following images are some examples of the findings from the first phase of the Karaağaçtepe mound [c.3000-2200; based on the Troia I chronology of Korfmann (Korfmann, 347):

1. Little jar with spout. Fairly fine. From 10 m 50 cm level. Height 0.57 m; diameter 0.47 m. It was made by with red fabric and also its slip is carmine. It is in a good condition at the neck, feet and handles (Demangel, 18).



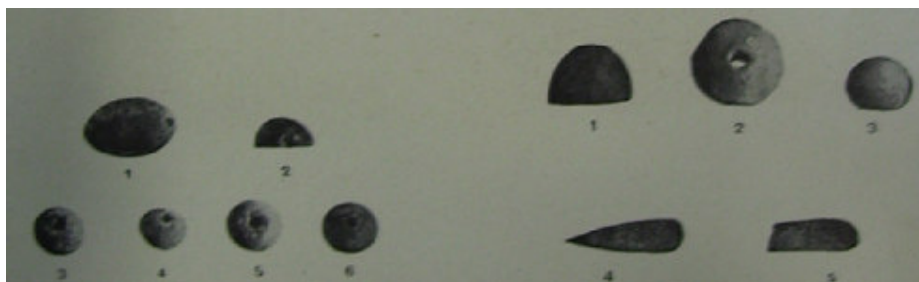
**Image. 4.5: Little jar with spout (Demangel, 18).**

2. Pot with four handles. Rim and one handle are broken. It was made with red fabric with a mixture of granularity siliceous soil. It is not lustrous. Height is 0.07m, diameter 0.38 m at the base (**Demangel, 19**).



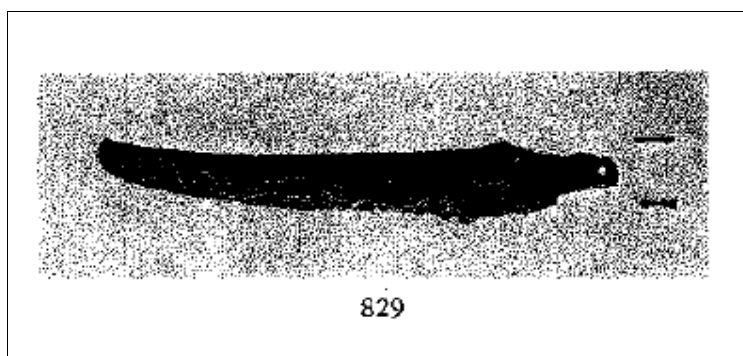
**Image. 4.6: Pot with four handles (Demangel, 19).**

3. Weights or whorls. They are unearthed from 9m depth and were made from gray fabric. Their diameters are 0.45 m. in average (Demangel, 22).



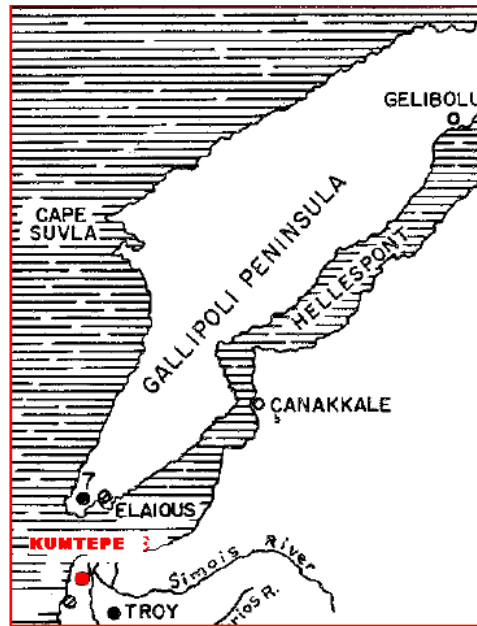
**Image. 4.7: Weights or whorls (Demangel, 22).**

In addition, a knife was unearthed from Karaağaçtepe by Schliemann, which is similar to that one which was found at the first phase of Kumtepe mound (Sperling 354). It has a narrow tang with a rivet hole; the blade curves upward to a rounded end (Sperling 354; Image 4.8).



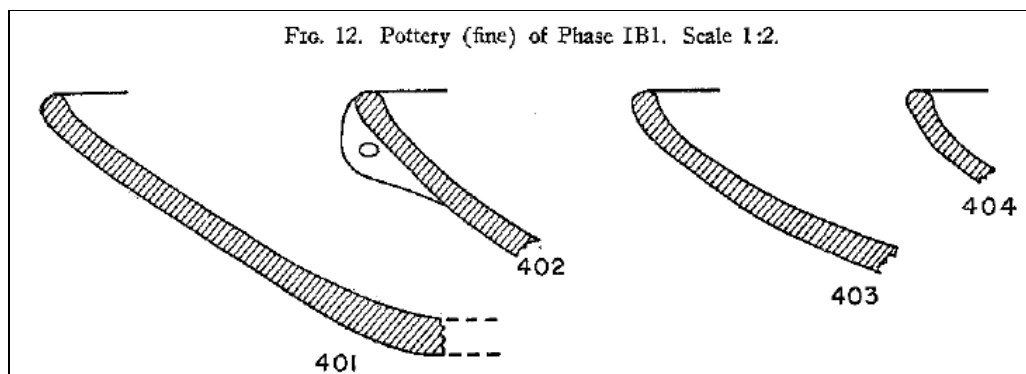
**Image. 4.8: Knife (Sperling, 354)**

Sperling states that the first settlement of Karaağaçtepe probably dates from the Kumtepe IC and Early Troia I (Sperling, 357). Kumtepe is a mound, which is, located about five kilometers north-northwest of Troia and two kilometers from the Hellespontos (Sperling, 305).



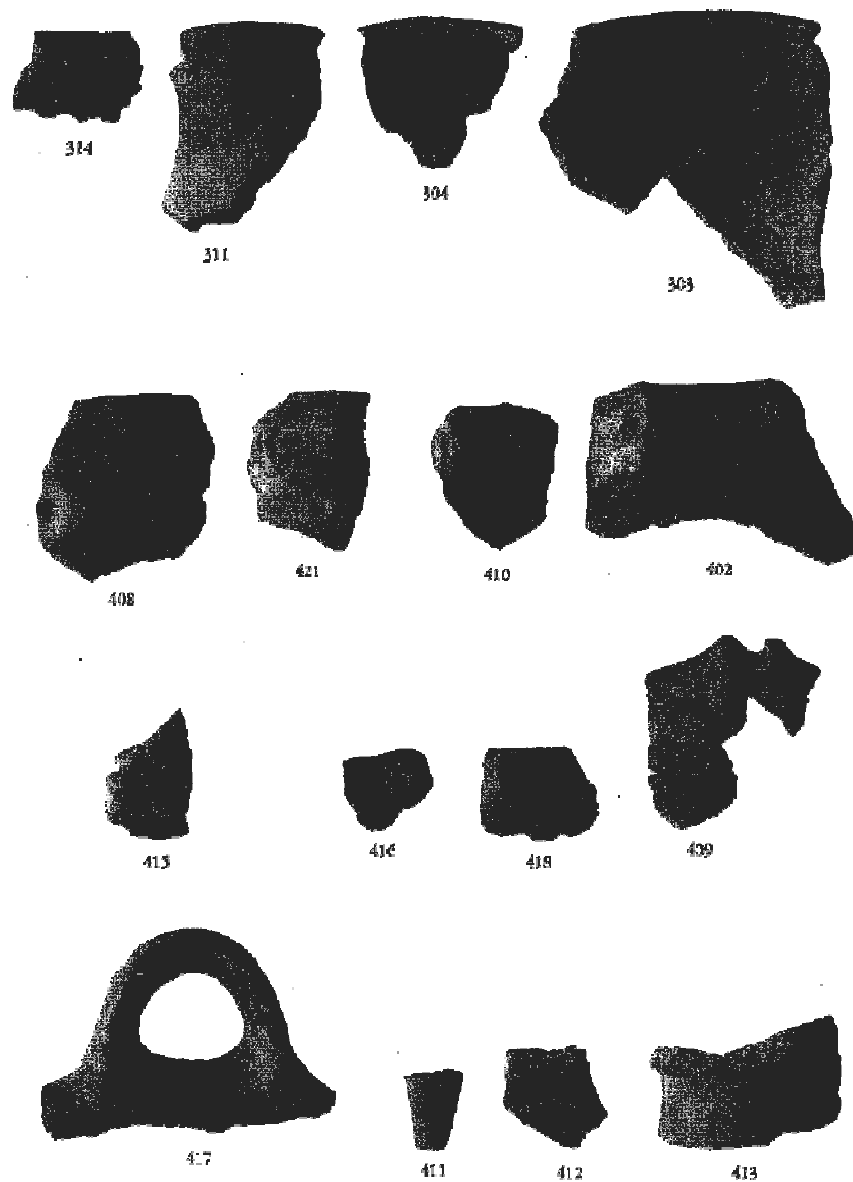
**Map.4.4: Kumtepe (Sperling, 305)**

During the soundings in 1934, sherds were discovered similar to those of Troia I (Sperling, 305). The stages of Kumtepe I are typologically indistinguishable from those of the initial phase of Troia I (Sperling, 309). Throughout the Kumtepe IB phase, using grit for tempering had continued, but on the other hand, adding vegetable matter had stopped in this ware (Sperling, 327). Gray sherds are in favor; mottling became rare. In addition, rolled form of rims became popular (Sperling, 327).



**Image. 4.9. Kumtepe IB type of pottery (Sperling, 328)**

PLATE 74



Pottery of Phases IBI (top row) and IB2. Scale ca. 1:2

JEROME W. SPERLING: KUM TEPE IN THE TROAD

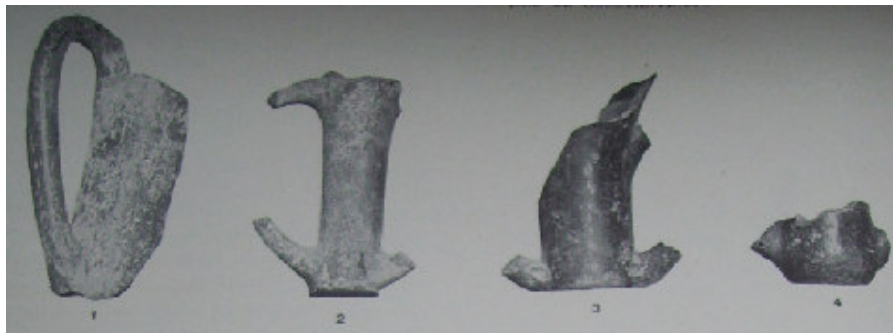
**Image.4.10:** Pottery of Phases IBI and IB2 of Kumtepe (Sperling, Plate

74).

## The Second Settlement

Over the first settlement at Karaağaçtepe, there is a layer colored red and containing carbon – this is thought to mark a division between an earlier and later layer. In the second settlement, there are stones from a wall, possibly a rampart wall. The ceramics from this phase are in better (more carefully made) condition. They have frequent use of incised decoration or relief ornaments (Demangel, 35). There is also large number of mortars in this phase.

In addition, Schliemann reports that he found the fragments of thick shiny pottery, which belonged to the Troia I phase. He describes these potteries as “bowls with long horizontal tubes for suspension on the sides of the rim” (Schliemann, 257), “vases with double vertical tubular holes for suspension on the sides”, “fragments of shining black bowls, with an incised ornamentation filled with chalk to strike the eye”. Demangel also articulates that the stratigraphy shows the contact with Troia (Demangel, 6). It is also to be noted that, nine examples of Depas cups were found among these assemblages (Demangel, fig. 76-78).



**Image 4.11:** Depas from Karaağaçtepe (Demangel, 60).



These are certain finds from the second settlement:



**Image. 4.12:** Sherds from the second settlement (Demangel, 38).



**Image. 4.13:** Beak-shaped spout. Part of the handle is lack. Base part is completely darkened by the flame. It was found 7 meters below of the top. (Demangel, 39).

### **The third and fourth Settlements**

The latest pottery found in Karaağaçtepe is identical with that of the second city of Troia (Schliemann, 260). In addition to these findings, terracotta tripods, diorite and grey axes, knives and saws, pottery are similar to those of Troia II; corn-bruisers are the other types of the finds of Schliemann's digging. Additionally, a layer of baked bricks similar to the ones in the second and third Troia was discovered at 1.5 meters depth (Schliemann, 259). According to the excavator, all these finds including pottery, terracotta and bricks prove with

certainty that on the Thracian Chersonese, a people of the same culture with Hisarlık lived

Furthermore, Demangel reports that the third settlement seems to have layers of burnt earth- probably from mudbrick. There is some sort of a large rubble wall. The fourth settlement seems to be the uppermost one that was heavily disturbed by war trenches, however some important objects were found in this level including a *depas amphikypellon* (two-handled cup distinctive of the Troy II period) and a bronze pin (Demangel, 53).

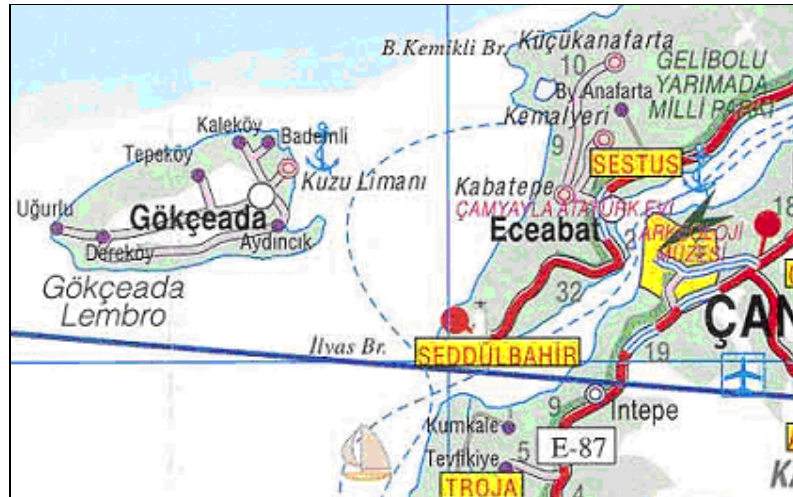
This mound also covers a Byzantine phase, but it will be told in the ‘Byzantine Period’ section of the thesis.

#### **4.4.2. Middle and Late Bronze Age**

Interestingly in the second millennium B.C., little Mycenaean or Anatolian type of pottery can be observed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. Typical Thracian pottery cannot be found in this time in the region, either. This was probably because the Peninsula was a buffer zone in the second millennium B.C. because of its easily defendable condition. On the other hand, on an island, which is very close to the Peninsula which is called ‘Gökçeada’<sup>10</sup> about two hundred Mycenaean pottery fragments were gathered during a survey of an EBA mound (Hüryılmaz, 28).

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<sup>10</sup> See **Map.4.5**



**Map. 4.5:** Gökçeada / Imbros. [www.mapofturkey.info](http://www.mapofturkey.info)

For the Late Bronze Age, one of the only exceptions is Kilisetepe, which again can be pointed out as an example with its uninterrupted sequence from Kumtepe IB up to the Iron Age. Besides, Baştepe and Asartepe are the other mounds, which are, reveal a sequence from Kumtepe IB up to the Troia V assemblages. Most of the material of Baştepe mound is from Troia I period. In addition, while Asartepe reveals earlier type of pottery, it also offers Hellenistic and Roman pottery (Özdoğan 1986, 56-57).

There are various theories attempting to explain why there is so little evidence for habitation on the Gallipoli Peninsula after the Early Bronze Age. One theory is that during the period from 1700-1300 B.C., the region was invaded by the northern tribes. Probably, certain northern tribes marched into Hungary while some of them crossed the Danube into Thrace and subsequently, some of these tribes passed from the Gallipoli Peninsula and went on to central Anatolia (Peake, 102). There is a possibility that eventually certain settlements on the Peninsula were deserted (Mellaart, 10). On the other hand, there were settlements during the same

ages in the surrounding vicinity. On Gökçeada Island, sites were determined ranging from the Early Bronze Age up to the Late Byzantine Period (Gates, 303). Nevertheless, it is possible that at the end of the Early Bronze Age, northwestern Turkey had come through a drier climate or either deforestation perhaps because of destruction in the region- according to evidence for the reduction of the beech-fir forests in the region around 2000 B.C. (Bell, 6). It is hard to tell exactly what happened on the peninsula in these periods.

#### **4.4.3. Iron Age**

After the decline of the Bronze Age, a new era, which is called the Iron Age, began. This era is a time of change and migration. The debate about the handmade coarse ware is also generally related to the migration theory of the Phrygians, who may have passed through the Hellespontos towards to the Asiatic side. Even Homeros (Homeros, Illiad II. II: 862-863) did mention a Phrygian migration from Europe to the inlands of Asia (Vassileva, 13). For example, Vassileva, who defend this theory, depends on the legends, the resemblance between the rock complexes of two cultural zones and the evidence, which came from the excavation results of Daskyleion, which was located in the southern Marmara. Thus, she states that a Thracian-Phrygian cultural zone can be defined in the wider context during the second and first millennium B.C. (Vassileva, 14). On the other hand, Mehmet Özdoğan does not agree with this idea. To his knowledge, the presence of grey wares on the Asian side of the Marmara does not precisely pinpoint an influx of the Phrygians. If they ever crossed to the Asiatic side, he thinks it must have been done before the beginning of the Iron Age (Özdoğan 1995, 39).

The evidence points out that the main powers of Anatolia the Hittites, has collapsed in that era, probably because of an attack. What happened after these central powers fell down is not easy to understand (Özdoğan 1995, 29). The influx, which gave rise to this catastrophe in Anatolia, may come through the Northwestern Turkey (Özdoğan 1995, 29). The main reason to call attention to the Northwestern Turkey is that this region is the most logical path for such kind of a big intrusion (Özdoğan 1995, 29). Indeed, by the beginning of the Early Iron Age, there is an increase in the number of the settlements in Eastern Thrace. In northwestern Turkey, Taşlıcabayır is the only excavated mound in Thrace, which exposed an Iron Age assemblage, so far (Özdoğan 1995, 30).<sup>11</sup> with its 'knobbed ware' and the 'two handled gray bowls' which were spread all over to Eastern Thrace (Özdoğan 1987, 15). Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that the Gallipoli Peninsula does not provide any evidence for these population movements (Özdoğan 1995, 33). There is not any data so far confirming the presence of the Early Iron Age material on the Peninsula, except the only sherd, which was observed in the town of Gallipoli (Özdoğan 1986, 63).

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<sup>11</sup> See **Map.4.1**

## **Chapter 5**

### **ARCHAIC, CLASSICAL AND HELLENISTIC PERIODS**

In this and the following chapter, an overview will be given of the Chersonese from the Archaic through Byzantine periods. Since many towns were occupied from the Archaic to the Byzantine period, detailed information about individual towns, excavations and artifacts dating from these eras will be covered in chapter 7.

#### **5.1. Colonization**

In the Iron Age, we are almost completely in the dark on the Chersonese until the Greek colonization started in the Archaic Age. Compared to Eastern Thrace, the colonies on the Thracian Chersonese were established at a slightly later time (Roebuck, 109). The reason of the colonization can be considered to be the control of the Hellespontos. On the other hand, the reason may be found in the rich supplies of timber in the Chersonese (Boardman, 237) and the opportunity of the grain import from the Thracian Chersonese and, of course the desire of the Greeks to reach to the Black Sea (Isaac, 166). Timber was an attraction for the Greeks because their homeland was becoming deforested and their timber reserve was not enough for shipbuilding and architecture (Boardman, 237). Furthermore, the ports of the Thracian Chersonese were particularly significant even in peacetime for the ships, which are passing along the shores of the Peninsula, to come into these ports and discharge their cargoes there (Isaac, 166). Bürchner and Leaf (Bürchner, 2242; Leaf, 119) think that the main reason of the colonization for all the states was the intensive trade traffic on the Straits rather than agriculture. The chief state for the grain trade in

the Archaic Period was Egypt in quantity and it was paid by silver from the Thracian-Macedonian silver producing region (Roebuck 1950, 236).

This establishment movement on the Chersonese of the Greeks was part of the so-called Aeolian expansion, which is discussed by ancient Greek authors, especially by Pseudo Scymnos (Isaac, 161). Nevertheless, the problem is what we know about the Aeolian expansion is based on the information that we gather from the ancient sources. It is not confirmed by archaeological investigations that were done on the peninsula. Therefore, it is not certain whether the Greeks were telling the truth or elaborating things for political purposes. The consequences of this so-called Aeolian expansion are a certain amount of towns being founded on the Peninsula (Isaac, 161). Some of these towns were first mentioned in the Iliad by Homer (Homer, Iliad, 2.836). Homer referred to Sestos and Abydos while he was declaring the catalogue of the ships of the 'Troian War', and proclaims that the Chersonese was inhabited by the Thracians at the first place (Homer, Iliad, 2:844). He mentions these two cities as if they had the same ruler (Isaac, 161).

“And they that dwelt about Percote and Practius, and that held Sestus and Abydos and goodly Arisbe, these again were led by Hyrtacus' son Asius, a leader of men--Asius, son of Hyrtacus, whom his horses tawny and tall had borne from Arisbe, from the river Selleis.” (Homer, Iliad, 2:844).

According to the ancient sources, the root of this colonization movement goes back to the Lesbians, Tenedians' and Aeolians' settling in the Troad in the eighth and mainly in the seventh century B.C. After this settling, the Lesbians expanded to the European side and inhabited Sestos and Madytos on the Peninsula. Another town called Alopekonnos was established by Mytileneans and Kymeans (Isaac, 161). In addition, Boardman mentions another colony called Koila, which was established

nearly half way along the north coast. A Corinthian vase was found there, which is dated to 630 B.C. (Boardman, 276). Miletos and Klazomenai founded Limnai and Kardia (Strabo XIV, 1).

Athens also had a direct interest in colonizing the Chersonese beginning from the seventh century B.C. Their main goal of this activity can be searched in the desire of controlling the Hellespontos. However, according to Isaac (165), Athens, could not think about control over the Straits before the fifth century, without having a large fleet. Therefore, the grain trade can be taken into consideration for the reason of the Athenians settling in the peninsula (Isaac, 166).

Another well-known colony was founded by Miltiades the Elder in the 7<sup>th</sup> century B.C. (Isaac, 163). As has already been noted, Miltiades the Elder was called by the Dolonkoi to help them against Apsinthians and after he had beaten the Apsinthians, he was chosen as a tyrant of the Chersonese.<sup>12</sup> Although certain scholars thought that there is no inscription for this fact from the Chersonese, except for the coins inscribed 'Kher', which are attributed to Miltiades (Jeffery, 365), a Corinthian helmet can be offered as evidence to the presence of this commander on the Chersonese. This helmet has an inscription saying: "To Olympian Zeus they dedicated me, a pleasing gift from the Chersonese, those who took Aratus' fort. Miltiades was their commander" (Graham 2001:319).<sup>13</sup> This inscription as "Miltiades was their leader" can be seen as a confirmation of the tyrant system on the Chersonese (Isaac, 173).

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<sup>12</sup> See pg. 12

<sup>13</sup> A controversy regarding whether this helmet dedicated by the Younger or the Elder Miltiades is going on (See Graham 2001).



Graham believes that when a colony was founded by a state its land remained the territory of the mother city, even when the colony itself formed a polis (Graham, 166). In the Athenians' opinion, the clerucies<sup>14</sup> can be regarded as the extension of the Athenian state (Graham, 167). However, certain scholars postulate that the Elder Miltiades' colonization was a private enterprise (Berve, 30). Pseudo Skymnos mentions certain towns established by Miltiades the Elder: Kardia<sup>15</sup> was refounded by him just like Krithote, Paktye, Agora and Elaeus (Isaac, 166-167). On the other hand, there is a comment of Rhodes saying that there was an explicit distance between the Athenian democracy and the Hellespontine force, which means, the Hellespontine force made its own plans and ran its own finances (Rhodes, 485-486). Nonetheless, Graham concludes this issue, by saying that the sixth century Athenian colonization of the Chersonese did not form a cleruchy and it was not an Athenian territory, either. Therefore, although Isaac thinks in the opposite way, Graham claims that the dependence of the Peninsula on Athens was a result of the policy of Peisistratos,<sup>16</sup> which aimed to control the Hellespontos (Graham, 197).

Overall, the process of the colonization of the Hellespontos and the Black Sea region followed each other: Firstly, Ionians and Megarians settled around the Hellespontos in order to discover new homes with the opportunities of successful local trade and fertile agriculture areas. Afterwards, with the growth of the Black Sea trade in around the seventh century B.C., new trade opportunities entered their lives and the foundation of Samos, Athens and Phocaea represent that fact (Roebuck, 115).

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<sup>14</sup> Klerukhos: out-settlements (<http://www.auburn.edu/~allenkc/openhse/clergy.html>)

<sup>15</sup> Strabo claims that Kardia was founded by the Miletos and Klazomenai (XIV:1).

<sup>16</sup> A tyrant who was in charge in around 540 B.C. in Athens

### 5.1.1.Miltiades I

Miltiades the Elder is thought to have founded a small dynasty on the Chersonese after he chased the Apsinthians out from the isthmus (Boardman, 276) [The Apsinthians were the people who were the enemies of the Dolonkoi and fought them for the Chersonese (Herodotos, 6: 35-36)]. First, Miltiades built a wall from Kardia to Paktye in around 550 B.C. (Isaac, 164), so that the Apsinthians could not enter the isthmus (Herodotos, XIV: 37). Therefore, Miltiades the Elder settled the Greeks in Kardia, Agora, Elaeus and Paktye to provide the security of the Hellespontos. Hence, we can assume that building a wall extending from sea to sea was a successful move (Isaac, 167). Parenthetically, although the archaeological remains are absent, we know from the literary sources that this wall was rebuilt several times in various periods. For instance, Plutarch mentions a wall that was built by Perikles,<sup>17</sup> which was a powerful defense mechanism, and extended from sea to sea (Plutarkhos, 19). Furthermore, Derkylidas<sup>18</sup> rebuilt a wall in the fourth century in order to help the Chersonese against the Thracians (Isaac, 168), particularly because he was impressed by the fertility of the land and did not want to lose it (Xenophon, Hellenica, 8-10). After chasing the Apsinthians, we do not know how Miltiades dealt with the Milesian and the Lesbian colonies. We know that he once captured Lampsacos, which is located on the opposite shore (Boardman, 267). Establishing a colony on the other side of the Straits was probably attractive for Miltiades (Isaac, 171). Miltiades the Elder died in the war against the Lampsacenes (Herodotos, VI, 38) in around 520 B.C (Isaac, 171).

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<sup>17</sup> Another general who led the state in around 450 B.C. in Athens

<sup>18</sup> A Spartan commander

### 5.1.2. Miltiades II

After Miltiades the Elder, Stesagoras was appointed as the ruler of the Chersonese. Afterwards, his brother Miltiades II was selected as tyrant in around 515 B.C. (Isaac, 172). Herodotos thinks that Miltiades the second was a ‘real’ tyrant for the Chersonese (VI:39). According to the information, Herodotos conveys to us, Miltiades II was sent to the isthmus by Peisistartos to seize power. He did so but in his own way: At first, he stayed home and pretended as if he was mourning for his brother (Isaac, 172). The leaders of the towns of the Chersonese came by to console him But Miltiades II jailed them all and afterwards he married a Thracian princess who was the daughter of Oloros (Herodotos, VI, 39). He was probably trying to make his situation stronger among the elites of the colonies. “Oloros was an influential figure in the hinterland of the Chersonese” (Archibald, 80).

During the reign of Miltiades II, the towns of the Chersonese were a federal group (Casson, 223). It is also evident in its coins because there is a common indication with which it is represented ‘XER’.

Subsequently, he started to invade neighboring areas. For example, conquering Lemnos and Imbros was a move that was made by him in order to increase the influence of the Athenians on the Straits especially after the loss of Sigeum<sup>19</sup> to Persia (Isaac, 175).

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<sup>19</sup> A location on the Asiatic shore of the Hellespontos



**Image. 5.1:** A coin from 'Thracian Chersonese', which is attributed to Miltiades II. (Casson, 224)

### 5.1.3. Xerxes on the Peninsula

The Persians were at the gate of the Hellespontos by the end of the sixth century B.C. and Miltiades the second admitted the domination of Darius (Boardman, 278). The aim of Darius was destroying the nomadic Scythians. Therefore, he prepared a march into the inland of the Russian steps, but since the geography was not familiar to the Persians, he was forced to return (Boardman, 278). Nevertheless, he achieved control over the towns on the Hellespontos shore.

Succeeding Darius, Xerxes after roughly 4 years of preparation, began an enormous expedition against Greece in 480 B.C. As has been told by Herodotos, Xerxes bridged the Straits from Abydos to Sestos in order to arrive to Greece (Herodotos, VII: 33). Xerxes followed a route that joined the three towns of Kardia, Agora and Paktye (Casson, 215). This meant a new road from the Chersonese to Macedonia, which was strengthened by a few more garrisons along the road. Although it is difficult to imagine that they were not affected by a huge army passing through needing supplies, Archibald commented that the public was not affected by

the presence of the military if we do not count the levies and supplies (Archibald, 102).

To put the story briefly, the Greeks of Athens gathered in Samos to discuss the Persian occupation on the Peninsula in 479 B.C. and decided to sail to the Hellespontos (Isaac, 175f). Miltiades tried to persuade the Greek leaders to break up the Persian bridges (Boardman, 278). However, it was already disintegrated so the Greeks besieged Sestos and in conclusion, the Persians were beaten there (Isaac, 176). The Persian commanders were executed in Madytos at the request of Elaeus (Meritt, Wade-Gery, McGregor, 205). Thenceforth, Athens paid attention to Sestos, which was just recovered, with installing a duty of protecting the Straits and the grain ships that were passing along the Hellespontos. Both Abydos and Sestos became members of the 'Delian League' with small tributes (Leaf, 127). All of the Persians were 'mopped up' from the Chersonese in around 479 B.C. and the few left went to the guerilla warfare against the Greeks on the Peninsula (Meritt, Wade-Grey, McGregor, 206).

In conclusion, the incursions of the kings of the Persia, tied two distinct regions, the 'east' and the 'west' to each other in a stronger way.

## 5.2 The Classical Period

### 5.2.1. The Confederacy of Forces

After the Persian Wars, the Greeks and the Spartans formed an alliance in around 479 B.C. against the Persians (Rhodes, 35). According to Thucydides (1:96-7) the main goal of the league was taking revenge for the suffering they went through because of the Persians. The founders also included the Ionians, the Aeolian states of Lesbos and Dorian Byzantium (Rhodes, 36). The meetings were held in Delos, partly because the Apollo Sanctuary at Delos was sacred (Thucydides, 3:104). Within the confederacy, while some members had to provide ships, the others had to pay tribute (Rhodes, 37). This organization meant that the Athenian military forces had an active role on the Peninsula (Archibald, 106).

According to Graham, the Athenian tribute lists offer the best data for the epoch following the Persian wars (Graham, 2001, 293). From 453 B.C., we have epigraphic evidence of this list (Rhodes, 41). Certain scholars argued that the Greek cities of the Chersonese and the coastal cities between Abdera and Byzantium were legally responsible to pay this tribute. Unfortunately, the inscription that is evidence for that is not preserved well (Graham 2001, 295). On the other hand, it is known that the Chersonese had become a member of the Delian League in around 466 B.C. (Isaac, 177).

In these periods, anxiety between the Thracians and the Greek colonies, increased in around 453 B.C. (Archibald, 147). The Peninsula, after the Persians, became a subject of continuous Thracian invasions (Rhodes, 128). Fortifying the Chersonese from sea to sea was the duty of Perikles, this time in order to protect the

colonies from the raids of the Thracians (Isaac, 178). Nevertheless, the Thracian tribes achieved the invasion of certain towns of the neck of the peninsula. Archibald points out that the easiest targets for the invaders were the settlements, which were located outside the wall of the Chersonese, such as 'Tyrodiza', which was a member of the League in 451 B.C. Nonetheless, it was occupied by the Thracians (Archibald, 148). Archibald comments that after Thracians captured the city of Tyrodiza, the income of the tribute decreased. Thus, Agora and the other towns of the Peninsula may have been intended as compensation for land allocated to the new colonists at neighboring Neapolis, sent to strengthen Athens' strategic hold over the area (Archibald, 148).

The quota-list of the Delian League provides information about these happenings; such as clarification and dating. For example, reductions on the list are also good evidence for the events of this period. In 453, 452 and 451 B.C., the main unit was Cherronesitai and it was paying 18 talents. This 'Cherronesitai' probably was a definition to explain a single political entity or a state (Isaac, 178). This theory was not confirmed yet (Isaac, 179). In 451 B.C., Alopekonnesos joined in the list, as well. Cherronesitai paid 13 talents and 4.840 drachmae in 449 B.C. In the same year, Alopekonnesos paid 3.240 drachmae. The Cherronesitai are joined by Limnai and Elaeus in 446 B.C. After 445 B.C., the Peninsula divided into six units. These six units never paid more than two talents, 2500 drachmae until the eruption of the Peloponnesian War. Some of these units are determined as Limnai, Madytos, Elaeus and Sestos (Isaac, 178). Interestingly, Alopekonnesos was a separate unit even when the rest of the Peninsula paid as a united community (Isaac, 178). Perikles' campaign and resettlement overlap this date, around 447 B.C, when the reduction, which was caused by the invasions of the Thracian tribes, can be observed in the lists. These

years' records also included the casualty list in which 28 Athenians died in the Chersonese, 12 at Byzantium and 19 in the other wars (Rhodes, 128). Perikles was sent to the Chersonese in around 447 B.C. with new settlers in order to reestablish the control on the Peninsula (Isaac, 177). Because this was a period that Thracians initiated their invasions to the isthmus (Isaac, 180).

The contact between the Thracians and the Greek colonies on the Peninsula bred cultural exchanges mostly because of the communication on the Peninsula at the end of the fourth century B.C. between these two people (Archibald, 205).

### **5.2.2. The Late Fifth and the Fourth Centuries**

The Athenians renewed the idea of protecting the Chersonese with cleruchy-settlers in the fifth century B.C. (Lewis, Boardman, Hornblower, Ostwald, 530). The determinative event of this period for the Chersonese was the struggle for the Hellespontos in around 411 B.C and 405 B.C., during the 'Peloponnesian War', which occurred between the Athenians and the Spartans. Athens was still controlling the Hellespontos and the grain import of Athens from the Euxine region was still vital. In 412 B.C., the Spartan kings Agis became aware of the grain ships and sent a force to Chalcedon and Byzantium in order to control the trade route. That is why Athens and Sparta fought so much for controlling the Hellespontos. It was mainly because of the grain import route (Isaac, 180-181). Consequently, in 411 B.C., Sestos was made the centre of the defense of the entire Hellespontos by the Athenians (Thucydides, 8.62). Nevertheless, the Peloponnesian War ended with the victory of the Spartans at Aegospotami (Isaac, 180). In this war the Spartan fleet commanded



by Lysander completely destroyed the Athenian navy and nearly ten thousand Athenians were executed.

“a sound of wailing ran from Piraeus through the long walls to the city, one man passing on the news to other; and during this night no one slept; all mourning, not for the lost alone, But far more for themselves” (Xenophon, Hellenica, 2.2).

Based on the ancient sources, Aegospotami was a ‘beach’ without a harbor. Nevertheless, its advantage was its location: It was just opposite Lampsakos and the waterway between two towns was about fifteen stadiums (Xenophon, Hellenica, 2.1). Therefore, the Spartans were lucky because they just captured Lampsakos and moored there in order to attack Aegospotami in 404 B.C. (Strauss, 741). After this war, it is assumed that the Spartans established an oligarchic rule in Athens and this lasted about thirty years. This victory at Aegospotami was honored by a large group of statues at Delphi (Meiggs, Lewis, 289).

This was the last phase of the Peloponnesian War in which Athens’ dominance on the grain producing lands in the Euxine was the focus of the struggle. On the other hand, after its victory, Sparta did not attempt to control to the same extent as Athens did.

After the Aegospotami war, commerce was improved on the peninsula. Alcibiades, one of the commanders of the Athenian military was the first one who founded the mercenary system, whether consciously or not, on the peninsula with a Lacedaemonian named Klearchos. Alcibiades betrayed the Athenians after the Aegospotami battle probably because he was already in trouble with the other Athenian commanders. He went to Pharnabazos at Daskyleion and he was sent to

Thrace as a mercenary-general. Shortly after Klearchos was sent to the Chersonese to block the Hellespontos in order to stop the Thracians, by Sparta (Isaac, 182). Nevertheless, he established himself as a tyrant by collecting mercenaries. Therefore, Sparta sent off an army against him. Eventually he fled from the region. These events fell between 403-401 B.C. therefore Alcibiades and Klearchos are the first who established themselves as mercenary leaders. However, although the mercenaries were willing to fight, they did not want to settle permanently. They just wanted to fight, collect money and go back to their homelands (Isaac, 183). Nevertheless, this was what the Chersonese wanted. They needed help against the Thracians and these two mercenary leaders provided what they asked for at least for some years (Isaac, 183). In 398 B.C. Derkylidas restored the wall on the peninsula against the Thracians, which was already described (Isaac, 185). Therefore, the struggle of Athens on the Peninsula lasted for the whole century (Isaac, 186). Only with the rise of Macedonia were the Greek city-states finally united into a single political unit.

The peninsula even fought with the invasion of the Scythians in this decade (Lewis, Boardman, Hornblower, Ostwald, 530). The Persians were still an important power of the Near East. On the other hand, the Greeks achieved having their powerful naval force in this century (Lewis, Boardman, Hornblower, Ostwald, 488).

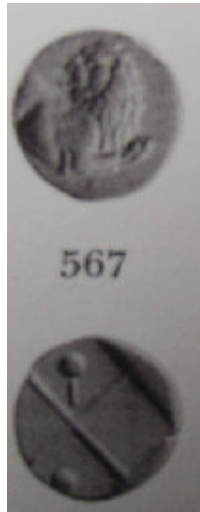
By the beginning of the fourth century B.C., the Greek world formed a successful society. The colonies that were established outside managed to live with their 'barbarian' neighbors or defend themselves when it is necessary (McKehnie, 2). Nevertheless, in this century the Odrysian Kingdom of Thrace was a powerful entity. King Kotys, demanded tributes from the Chersonese in the later 360s (Archibald, 225). In addition, his son oppressed the Peninsula in order to have 200 talents and 10

per cent custom tax (Demosthenes, *Hellenica*, 23:110, 177). Thereupon the Chersonisians went to Greece to ask for help against the Thracians. Nevertheless, when the Athenians understood that they would not be able to deal with the problem with their own, they asked for help from the Spartans. Consequently, Derkyllidas rebuilt a wall as it has been already stated (Isaac, 168).

The balance changed and a second league was established in 378 B.C. by the Greek states [This time, collecting and spending money was not left entirely to Athens (Rhodes, 40). This time, the main purpose was to protect themselves against the Spartans (Rhodes, 39). In around the same periods, the Persians caused trouble again, but in 365 B.C., Athens took Sestos and Krithote (Ruzicka, 64). The Thracian Chersonese was a real battlefield until these regions joined under the ‘roof’ of the Hellenistic Empire of Macedonia.

Silvered bronze imitations can be found from the fourth century B.C. from the Thracian Chersonese (Archibald, 131). In addition, forty-one hoards were re-examined containing coins from the Peninsula. Hemidrachmas with the attribution of Apollo are the other find groups from the Thracian Chersonese dating to late fourth century B.C. (Archibald, 131). Furthermore, five other coins were found which were belonging to the Thracian Chersonese (Robinson, 136). Besides the coins, as it has been already remarked, a small fragment, which was an honorary decree, was found in Elaeus, which is dated to 372 B.C. In a line “The Elaeusians honored Athens with a crown” can be translated (Schweigert, 173). Moreover, a pair of earring from Madytos from the fourth century B.C. is exhibited in the Metropolitan Museum of Art (Oliver, 273). A marble stele from the fourth century B.C. with a symposium representation is being kept in Istanbul Archaeological Museum, as well.

In addition, Maltepe and Kalanuro mounds revealed Late Classical pottery (Özdoğan, 55 – 57). (Check Map 4.1).



**Image. 5.2:** 3 ob., 4<sup>th</sup> century B.C., Forepart of lion / incuse (**Kraay, image 567**).

### **5.3. Hellenistic Period**

#### **5.3.1. Phillip**

Further north in Macedonia, Phillip II was trying to strength his state in order to be able to stand against the Persians (Grant, 1). Therefore, he established some cities in Macedonia and Thrace in the middle of the fourth century B.C. (McKehnie, 48). He was mainly trying to reach to gold mines in Thrace. On the other hand, in the 360s B.C., Athens got her power back again, too. Just the Odrysian Kingdom in Thrace was a severe threat for Athens. Elaeus and Krithote were besieged by the Thracians in 360 B.C. after the siege of Sestos. After a while, the Thracians captured Kardias, which was the key of the Straits (Bury, Cook, Adcock, 200). Eventually, in 358 or 357 B.C. an agreement was concluded between Athens and the three

successors of the king of the Odrysian kingdom of Thrace, Kotys. This was an attempt to stabilize their competitive status on the Chersonese. The Greek coastal cities were divided between Athens and the successors in order to levy the tributes. While each king was entitled to 'one-third of the tribute from the cities of the Chersonese', Athens was entitled to half the total tribute. Until the campaign of Phillip, the leader of the region was this kingdom (Archibald, 218). In 357 B.C. Phillip captured Potidaea (in Northern Greece) in accordance with an agreement with the Olynthians (Olynthus is located in northern Greece). Athens was unwilling to hand Potidaea over to the Olynthians. After a while, Phillip destroyed Methone of which the exact location is unknown. Thereupon the Athenians' general Chares captured the city of Sestos, where the Athenians had earlier lost. He killed the males and enslaved the others (McKehnie, 49). At the same time, the Athenians sent out new colonists to the Chersonese to settle down (Except Kardia. Kardia still belonged to the Odrysian Kingdom). According to Bury, Cook and Adcock the Athenians did that in order to strength her influence on the Peninsula (252). The problem is we do not know whether the new settlers could have room on the Chersonese without any compulsion or came into collision with the 'older ones'. Because McKehnie stresses the first possibility by basing on Demosthenes (49), and Bury, Cook, Adcock point out the latter (252). After twenty years, Phillip and the Thracians allied this time (Bury, Cook, Adcock, 251). The Macedonians started to be dominant while the Athenians were still the 'super power' of the arena, so that, it was inevitable that the Athenians and Phillip would have a dispute between each other. Eventually, the events between the forces of Phillip and the Athenians opened a war. Demosthenes was one of the most important individuals of this war, since he really made a great effort in order to persuade the Athenians that Phillip was about to attack them and the

Athenians had to do something about it (Demosthenes, Third Phillipic). Phillip captured the Thracian Chersonese in 342 B.C. (Kurtoğlu 1938, 20) with a ruse; he invaded the coastal cities. After taking the Straits under the control, he initiated a long expedition to the Scythian tribes (Bury, Cook, Adcock, 256).

### **5.3.2. The ‘WORLD CONQUEROR’**

After the death of Phillip II, Alexander inherited his father’s plan (Grant, 1). His first challenge was beating the Persians and their allies the Ionians (Kurtoğlu, 20). In 334, he crossed the Hellespontos. As previously mentioned upon arriving at Elaeus, Alexander sacrificed to Protesilaos at the tomb since the hero was the first Greek, who got off on Asian soil. Alexander wanted to make his own arrival on the Anatolian side luckier than that of Protesilaos (Arrianus, 1.11.15).]. As is well known (Grant, 1) eventually Alexander confronted the Persians, thus winning a victory, which enabled him to go on his path towards India (Kurtoğlu, 21). Conquering the non-Greek states, he aggregated two different cultures and mixed the Eastern and the Western cultures as a syncretism.

After Alexander was dead, the central government was represented by three other Macedonian personages. Among them Lysimachus, who established a town in the name of himself in the Thracian Chersonese, was given Thrace and northwestern Anatolia. (Grant, 6). Lysimachus destroyed Kardia and established a new city called ‘Lysimachea’ (Casson, 225). Over time, the Seleucids attempted to extend their lands towards Europe. Therefore, Lysimachus tried to occupy the Gallipoli Peninsula. They were not the only ones who coveted the Thracian Chersonese: The Seleucids and Ptolemy kingdom had war on the Peninsula But eventually, Antiochus I occupied the region in 279 B.C. Soon after, he fought with the Galatians. (Cary 1952,

120). Lysimachos was allegedly buried in a 'temple' in Lysimachea (Archibald, 302).

After these wars between the successors, the Gallic tribes now appeared on the scene. Some groups had already started to coming in around 400 B.C. They were planning to settle because they brought their families with them (Cary 1952, 59). In 279 B.C., the founder Antigonus Gonatas wanted to take advantage of the anarchy in the Balkan Peninsula to obtain a base of the operations in the Gallipoli Peninsula, but he failed to settle Macedonia (Cary 1952, 62). Their third column attacked to Thrace in around 278 B.C. (Cary 1952, 61). They were stopped near Lysimachea by Antiochus I in 277 B.C. On the other hand, many of them crossed the Straits and went further inland in Anatolia (Grant, 9). For the Macedonian Kingdom, these invasions brought two permanent consequences: The Galatians deprived Macedonia of Thrace and so that cut off them from the Black Sea region; and they established a new enduring dynasty, of which founder was Antigonus Gonatas and which existed till 220 A. D. (Cary 1952, 62).

Nevertheless, the fights over the Thracian Chersonese went on between the successors. Moreover, after these invasions, the other Hellenized kingdoms asserted their independence gradually. In the time of Phillip and Alexander, Greek commodities could be sold easily in Thrace and the adjacent Celtic regions. Their coinage types extended to a wide area. For instance, the Celts who lived in the Danube Area produced their coinage by taking the Macedonian royal coins as chief models (Rostovtzeff, 161). Furthermore, the Hellespontine area was still significant for the trade between the Euxine and other regions. Therefore, the towns of the Straits played a key role in these trade activities.

On the other hand, as Hellenism spread over different regions, the trade centers shifted towards Egypt, Anatolia and Syria, which affected the Euxine trade (Rostovtzeff, 586). However, this decline should not be exaggerated because, for example, Pontic fish had no rival because it was a staple food for the Greeks (Rostovtzeff, 587).

### **5.3.3. Selected Finds**

Five inscriptions were found probably around the Thracian Chersonese so far, which belong to the Hellenistic Period.

Ferguson reported that one of the inscriptions saying “Huper Basilevs Eumenes Philadelson Theon kai energeton Demotrios Poseidonion” once catalogued a dedication made in a small town on the Thracian coast of the Propontis, in territory which passed with Lysimachea and the Thracian Chersonese into the hands of the king of Pergamon in 188 B.C. (231). The town probably formed part of the Ptolemies Empire during the 3<sup>rd</sup> Century B.C.

Founded in the same place, another inscription bears a dedication saying “on behalf of King Attalos Philadelphos and Queen Stratonike”. Certain scholars dated them after the death of Eumenes II the second in 159 B.C. (Ferguson, 231).

Ferguson conveys that it must be granted that they all belong to the same dedication or set of dedications (231). However, there is no proof for that.

There is another inscription, which is related to the Dionysiac festivals. We know that certain Dionysiac festivals used to be organized in Athens with theatric organizations in the Hellenistic Period. Nevertheless, there were three major areas,

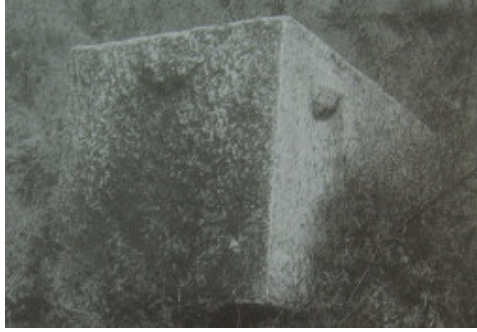


in which these festivals were held: Greece, Anatolia and the Aegean islands. The Hellespontine area was a centre in Anatolia in which these festivals were operated. In the Hellespontine area, another annual fete in honor of Eumenes II was conducted by an '*agonothetes*' who was the priest of the king, as well. This inscription is a letter to Eumenes II, which is related to the law of the festivals (Sifakis, 209).

Three more inscriptions were discovered during the First World War. These are, a dedication to Attalos II "savior and benefactor of the city", two epitaphs from Suvla Bay belonging to the second century B.C. one of which from Koila (Tod, 230).

Besides these finds, an interesting study was done by Gow on the ancient ploughs. He determines four types of ploughs, which are used in the Greek world. He explains the second form as the ploughs that have stock and pole in one piece, but the tail inserted artificially. He observed such a kind of a plough on a coin from the Thracian Chersonese. Unfortunately, he did not elucidate from which point this coin is or to which period it can be dated exactly. He implies that it is from the Hellenistic or Roman Period (Gow, 251-252).

Besides these finds, a sarcophagus was found in the probable location of Lysimachea. This sarcophagus which is shown below is dated it to the Hellenistic Period (Sayar 2001, 109).



**Image. 5.3:** A sarcophagus from the Gallipoli Peninsula. (Sayar 2001, 110).

Besides, Kilisetepe Mound (Madytos), Asartepe Mound revealed Hellenistic type pottery (Özdoğan, 55, 56).

## **Chapter 6**

### **ROMAN AND BYZANTINE PERIODS**

#### **6.1. The New Power Is On the Scene: The Roman Period**

Meanwhile Rome was increasing its power while the war was going on between the successors of Alexander. Capturing Sicily and Carthage in about 280-275 B.C., made the Romans prominent in the eyes of their enemies (Grant, 12). In 229 B.C., Rome moved towards Thrace in order to suppress the Illyrians. By adding Egypt to their lands, there was no other major state around Rome (Grant, 17). After this stage, the Hellenistic World had ended. Although Macedonia survived, the Greek states became 'Roman' rather than 'Macedonian dependencies' (Grant, 13). Nevertheless, until the second century B.C., the Romans did not take Anatolia in their subject of politics. Their first rival in Asia was the king of Seleucids, Antiochus III (Cary, Litt, 213). In around 200 B.C., Antiochus argued that he has rights on the Gallipoli Peninsula. With this brave move, he neutralized the Romans and could occupy the Peninsula in 194 B.C. (Cary, Litt, 214). On the other hand, after a while a war occurred between Antiochus and cohesion of the Macedonians and the Romans (Cary, Litt, 217). Antiochus was beaten and forced to pay 15.000 talents for the indemnity he did and in the year 188 B.C., Anatolia was divided between the successors. The Gallipoli Peninsula was assigned to Eumenes (Cary, Litt, 218). A few inscriptions related to the reign of Eumenes can be found in the above pages.

Meanwhile, in the 170s B.C., the Thracians were foes of the Macedonians and with taking the advantage of that, Rome formed an alliance with the Thracian tribes. They took care to send presents to the principal Thracians. On the other hand,

interestingly, the Thracian kingdom Odrysians were allies of Perseus, who was the successor of Phillip, the fifth of Macedonia. Inevitably, they had a war, but the army of Perseus was defeated by the Romans in about 167 B.C. From the year the Romans defeated the Thracians, they started to confront with the 'barbarian tribes' who were just waiting at the borders. Nevertheless, after the time period that the Celts settled down Southern Thrace until the period of Augustus, the history is very obscure (Robson, 1188).

An ancient source, which is called 'Rhetorica ad Herennium' of which the author is not known, mentions the expedition of Lucullus, who was serving under Cornelius Sullas as a quaestor in 88 B.C. Quaestors were the people who dealt with the financial affairs of the state, its armies and its officers and the treasury of the Empire. This Rhetorica clearly conveys that Lucullus captured Lemnos, took Thasos and then returned to the Hellespontos and seized Abydos. He arranged all these campaigns in order to prevent Mithridates from attacking the shores of the Hellespontos, in the year 84 B.C. (Fowler, 136). Mithridates was the king of the Pontus area at the time. As a result, the campaigns were successful and the Straits were secure once again (Fowler, 136).

In 56 B.C., Macedonia annexed the Thracian coast to the First Region of Macedonia apart from Byzantium (Jones 1971, 7). Nevertheless, Rome responded to this move by annexing the tribes of the southern coast of Thrace to the 'Via Egnatia', which was a military road.

During the reign of Augustus, the Thracian Chersonese was acquired by Augustus as a private landholding, which was passed from Agrippa as an inheritance (Broughton, 219) and it remained imperial property from that time on (Broughton,

220). Dio commented on it by saying "...which had come in some way or other into Agrippa's hands" (Dio, 54:29)

([http://penelope.uchicago.edu/Thayer/E/Roman/Texts/Cassius\\_Dio](http://penelope.uchicago.edu/Thayer/E/Roman/Texts/Cassius_Dio)).

In 13-11 B.C., the Romans fought with the Thracians (Sayar 1993, 131). In 45 A.D., Thrace was selected as a Roman Empire province by Claudius. The Chersonesos, but was ruled with a special status as an Imperial estate (Sayar 1993, 130).

In the time of Vespasian (69-79 A.D.), the Thracian Chersonese was separated from Europe and was annexed to Asia, so that procuration system of Asia was reorganized. On the other hand, there is evidence that later the Chersonese belonged to the 'Provincia Hellesponti.' Vespasian established a colony here, which is called 'Flaviopolis' (see Map XIX, pg. 69). Nevertheless, there is not sufficient evidence related to this colony. Ancient sources such as Plinius insist that it was a 'menial', unimportant town of the Empire (McElderry, 120).

Certain ancient sources convey that in the third century a famine occurred in the boundaries of the Empire. There is a small anecdote regarding this information, which is saying that in 238 A.D., during the reign of Maximinus Thrax, a revolt was initiated in Africa, which was supported by the Senate in Rome, who already did not like Maximinus Thrax, since he was not born as a noble. The emperor immediately assembled his army towards to Rome. Nevertheless, he departed for Italy in such a rush that he did not provide sufficient staple for the army (Evans, 439). As a sequence, the army looted the areas through which they passed. Thracian Chersonese is one of these areas (Evans, 440). Eventually, Maximinus was murdered and

Gordian selected as the Emperor by the Senate. We do not have further records afterwards of the events.

### **6.1.1. Selected Finds/Remains**

Most of the Roman finds are given in the 'The Towns of the Chersonese' part. Nevertheless, there are a few more to tell about:

A 'long wall', the Hexamillion, across the Gallipoli Peninsula was recorded by the ancient sources. This was not an object of a survey previously, but it was located on maps of the ancient world close to Bakla Burnu, 12 kms to the south-west of the Kavakköy. The Anastasian Wall Project which was conducted by James Crow and Alessandra Ricci between 1994 and 2001, successfully traced the south end of the wall at Kazanağacı, due south of Kavakköy (Özdoğan 1986). The members of the project observed a 2.20m. wide wall standing 3.40 m high. The line of the wall continued in to the Sea of Marmara. The mortared large stone blocks formed a regular foundation 4.00 m in width 0.20m below the water's surface. They observed that latter wall was probably late antique in date. The line goes on north into the military zone of Ortaköy Kışlası. The local sources confirmed that the wall ran towards the shore of the Saros Körfezi. Around Germetepe there was a wide ditch possibly belonging to the earlier fortification. On the other hand, nothing could be observed belonging to an earlier work on this line dating to the classical or Hellenistic period

(<http://longwalls.ncl.ac.uk/FieldworkReports/English/1996/1996Gallipoli.htm>).



**Map. 6.1:** Thracian Chersonese (*Tabula Imperii Byzantini*)



**Image. 6.1:** Roman lamp (Demangel, 65)

Another possible Roman artifact is one lamp (Image 6.1). This is from the Karağaçtepe Mound, which otherwise does not show evidence of Roman occupation. A part of the handle is lacking. The beak is much darkened because of the usage. It was made from red fabric (Demangel, 65). Besides Karağaçtepe, Kilisetepe and Asartepe revealed Roman type of pottery (Özdoğan, 55). (Check Map

4.1). Other findings from the Roman period are discussed in the ‘The Towns of the Chersonese’ in Chapter 7

## **6.2. The Byzantine Period**

### **6.2.1. The Byzantine Empire in General**

Many reasons can be given for the decline of the Western Roman Empire including economic problems and the migration of Germanic tribes (Haussig, 26-27). Because of the decline of the Western part of the Roman Empire, the cultural, economic and the military center shifted towards the Eastern part (Haussig, 31).

As early as 220 A.D, a large fleet of Goth tribes had pushed into the Bosphoros and the Sea of Marmara, in order to reach the Aegean. The only way to stop them was fortifying the Straits. Therefore, the foundation of Constantinople emerged as important (Haussig, 33). So this means, almost a decade ago before its foundation, preparing the barracks, naval bases and fortifications contributed to the establishing of the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire (Haussig, 34). The growing danger of the barbarian tribes in the Western part did not allow the transference of the Emperor to the Eastern part. On the other hand, the military importance of the Straits was increasing, which meant that the Eastern Part should have a ruler, as well. Therefore, equal needs of the West and the East divided the Empire into two, followed by the rise of the Byzantine State (Haussig, 34).

### **6.2.2. The Byzantine Empire in Thrace**

Unfortunately, the information regarding the archaeological heritage of the Gallipoli Peninsula during the Byzantine Period is limited since the archaeological



investigations conducted on the peninsula were not enough. However, some information can be gathered from written sources.

The Hellespontine area still had a profound strategic value in these times. The Byzantine Empire was also well aware of the region's importance. Therefore, they took care to provide for its defense carefully. Especially Justinian I (527-565) well realized this fact and organized the peninsula and its neighborhoods for the Empire's benefit and he built 199 fortresses in Thrace (Liakopoulos, 28). Procopius conveys that Justinian constructed bastions "far into the water, which were joined the wall" (Greatrex, 126). However, before the reign of Justinian the fortifications of the Peninsula were in poor repair (Greatrex, 125). From the first years of Justinian's reign, the raids of the Bulgars and other 'barbarians' upon the Byzantine Empire became increasingly dangerous. In 527 A.D., the first severe attack was run by the Slavs to Thrace. In 530, a commander of Justinian was appointed Chilbudius as a chief to guard the river Danube so that the barbarians could no longer cross the river, for three years (Setton, 506). In 539-540 A.D., after killing Chilbudius, the 'Hunnic' people crossed the river and although the isthmus stopped them from going further down (Setton, 507), the invaders were able to drive the Romans from the walls easily (Greatrex, 125-126). They looted everything and they destroyed all the Greeks except the Peloponnesians (Setton, 507). Although Justinian refortified the strategic points of the Empire, in 558-559 A.D., a column of the Bulgars took over the 'mission' and crossing the frozen Danube; they divided into three groups in order to pillage a larger area. While the first group attacked Constantinople, the second one tried to invade the Thracian Chersonese. Nevertheless, they were prevented by the commander of the Byzantine Empire, Germanus. The third group achieved an attack on Macedonia (Setton, 508). These tribes never gave up raiding Thrace; in 581, the

Slavs pillaged Thrace and Thessaly and settled into the country “as though it was their own” (Setton, 510). Probably because of the success of these invasions, Procopius focuses on the ‘ineffectiveness’ of the fortifications of the Peninsula (Greatrex, 126-127). However, in 587, the invaders were defeated (Setton, 510).

When we come to the 7<sup>th</sup> century, it can be observed that the salient features of the seventh century were the Arab conquests in Western Asia and Africa, Slavic settlements in the Balkan Peninsula and the Lombard invasion of Italy. These incursions affected the Empire badly and the territory of the realm was reduced. Mesopotamia, Egypt, Syria and Palestine had been lost. In 688, Constant II subjugated many of Slavs (Ostrogorsky, 5).

In Asia Minor a special military and administrative system was run, which was called the theme system (Ostrogorsky, 3). The first theme in the Balkan Peninsula was the Thracian area, which was founded in 680. Thrace remained intact after the Slav invasions because of this system (Ostrogorsky, 7). However, even though Thrace was powerful enough to live after these incursions, this does not mean that it was not affected by the invasions at all. Between the centuries fourth and seventh, the Bulgars and the Slavs settled the area and the Thracian population had to retreat to the mountains (Gregory, 2079). In the ninth century, it was believed that an earthquake, which occurred in Turkish Thrace on May 5 824, was a help from the God to the Byzantine Empire in order to wipe away the invaders from the region (Bakır, 6-7).

In the thirteenth and fourteenth century, the Arab invasions were trouble this time for Anatolia and Thrace. Escaping all this confusion, so many refugees left their residences behind and decided to settle in Thrace (Liakopoulos, 29). Despite all these

new 'guests' and chaos, the mercenary Ramon Muntaner of the Catalans reported while he was transferring from Anatolia to the Gallipoli Peninsula that the isthmus "is the most beautiful peninsula in the world, rich in wheat and grain, wine and all kinds of fruits. It is prosperous and densely populated. Its towns Hexamilion, Gallipoli, Potamos, Sestos and Madytos had large and nice dwellings" (Liakopoulos, 29).

Another source for the fourteenth century, are the pamphlets written by Cyriac of Ancona. Cyriac of Ancona di Filippo de' Pizzicolti was born in 1391 in Ancona (Italy) and died in c. 1457. Cyriac of Ancona went through the Dardanelles on the way to Constantinople. As many writers observed the peninsula, the first aspect he noticed about the isthmus was the fertility of the region. Then he mentions Sestos and locates it near Gallipoli, on the southern shore of the Straits (Scalamonti, Mitchell, Bodnar, 111).

However, the main feature of fourteenth century for the Byzantine Empire was that, the Empire was on the verge of falling apart. On 6 August 1354, the Venetian ambassador in Constantinople informed the Doge that the Byzantines were threatened by the Turks (Ostrogorsky 1968, 533). The State was so feeble that it even did not take the advantage of the collapsing of the Serbian Empire in the Balkans. The worse thing was the Turks were waiting at the gate of Thrace, the only stronghold of the tired Empire (Ostrogorsky 1968, 534). In 12 May 1327, a very violent earthquake occurred in the Gallipoli Peninsula and its neighborhoods. The Byzantine sources believe that this earthquake helped the Ottomans to capture Ulubad (in Turkish Thrace) (Bakır, 8). A second one was one of the most violent earthquakes in the history of the Byzantine Empire. This one happened in 2 March

1354 and thereafter, the Turks stepped into the European soil with the conquest of the Gallipoli Peninsula by Süleyman, eventually (Bakır, 8). Therefore, the year 1354 was the date of seeing the Turks behind the walls of Constantinople for the first time (Ostrogorsky 1968, 536).

On the other hand as far as Gregoras mentions, the Turks first crossed to Europe during the Catalan invasions into the Byzantine Empire. Gregoras says that when Catalans were at the Gallipoli Peninsula, they invited Turkish people to help them as allies. The Turks did not ask for the money, they just wanted to keep the booty they had gained (Liakopoulos, 29). At that time, a civil war was going on between John V Palailogos and John VI Cantacuzenus. Therefore, the Turks did take advantage of this situation and firmed their positions in Thrace (Liakopoulos, 30).

### **6.2.3. Kallipolis**

We know that something about the condition of Kallipolis during the Byzantine Empire. Kallipolis was a suffragan bishopric of Thracian Heraclea in the late antiquity. It is known that this town was the basis for the expedition of Crusaders. Nevertheless, it was not such an important city in the twelfth century. Nevertheless, in the thirteenth century the crossing location of the Straits shifted to Lampsakos-Kallipolis rather than Abydos and Sestos.

Kallipolis became a Venetian centre in 1205 for a short time period; in 1234, John Vatatzes took it back. Nonetheless, after a decade, in 1352 the Ottomans captured the fortress Çimpe and opened the European road in front of them. While the region was already being threatened by the external factors, a violent earthquake in 2 March 1354 served Kallipolis to the Ottomans (Kazhdan, 1094).

#### **6.2.4. Finds from the Thracian Chersonese belonging to the Byzantine Period**

Unfortunately, there is nearly nothing in terms of the findings from the Byzantine Empire from the Thracian Chersonese. An architectural element, which belongs to a church from the Early Byzantine Age, was found in Lysimachea.

For the pottery examples, an ethnoarchaeological investigation can help: this has shown that there are families who still perpetuated the tradition of producing glazed potteries, which were common to the Çanakkale region since the late Byzantine (Tekkök, 98).

The most prominent architectural remain from this time period is the fortification wall on the Peninsula. Unfortunately, we do not have detailed information. In addition, as has been already remarked in the 'Roman Period' section of this work, the latter part of the long wall, which crossed the Gallipoli Peninsula, was probably late antique in date. Maltepe and Musaltepe mounds revealed Byzantine type of pottery (Özdoğan, 55-57). (Map 4.1). (<http://longwalls.ncl.ac.uk/FieldworkReports/English/1996/1996Gallipoli.htm>).

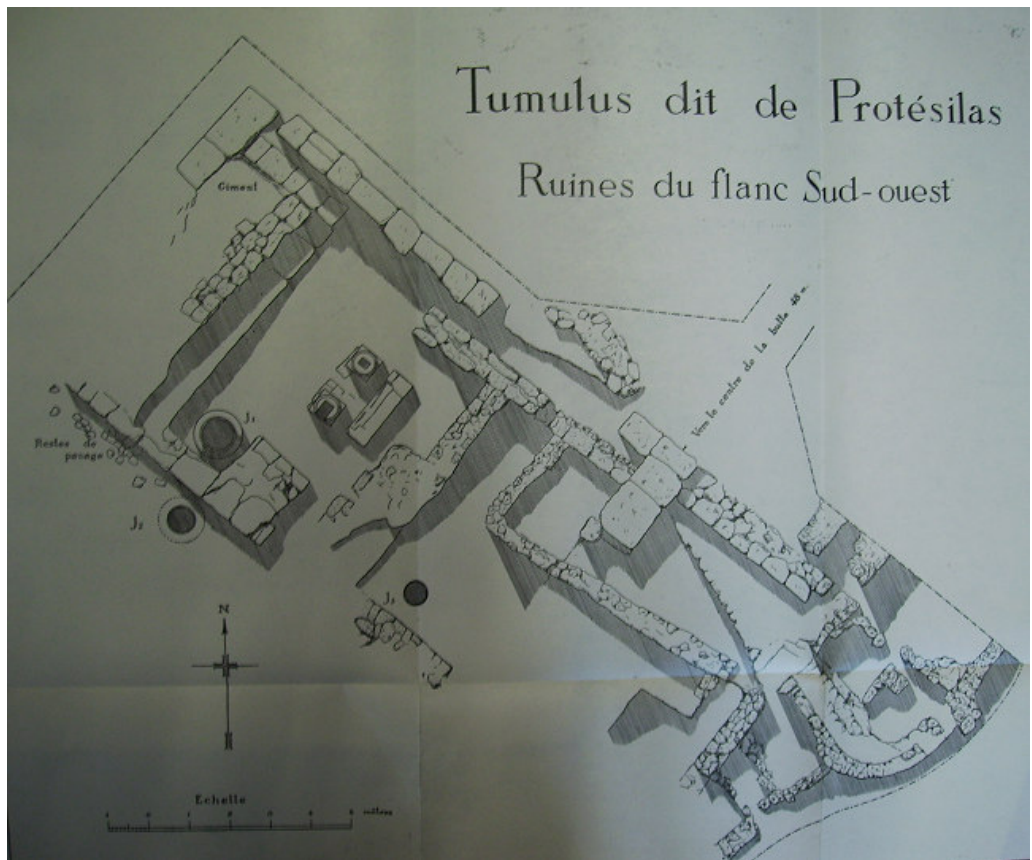
Karaağaçtepe is again helpful for us for the Byzantine Period. The last phase of this mound belongs to this era. Byzantine remains were found in the Southeast part of the mound. Large foundation blocks and two column bases were found in this phase (Demangel, 65). Further, the excavation team found a sarcophagus, perhaps used as a water container and two large jars and a coin of Emperor Justin II (565-578) (Demangel, 67). Below, the photographs of these remains can be seen:



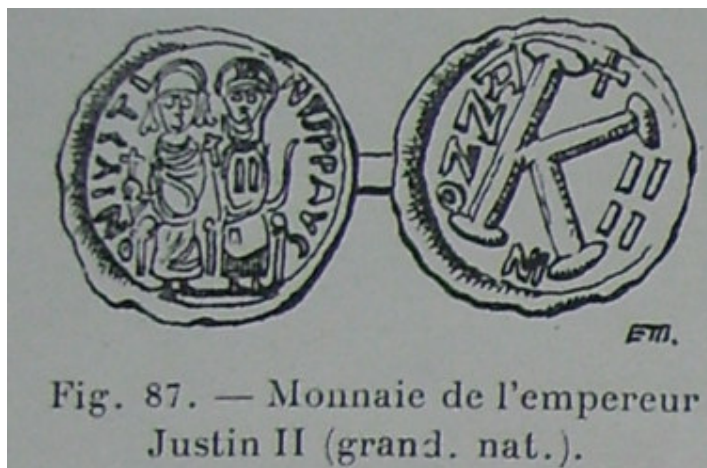
**Image. 6.2:** The Byzantine Phase of Karaağaçtepe and big jars (Demangel, 64).



**Image. 6.3:** The ruins of the Byzantine settlement of Karaağaçtepe from the southeast (Demangel, fig. 84).



**Image. 6.4:** The plan of the same settlement (Demangel, appendix)



**Image. 6.5:** The coin of Justinian II (Demangel, 67).

## Chapter 7

### THE TOWNS OF THE CHERSONESE



**Map. 7.1:** The Towns and the Neighborhood of the Chersonese (Barrington, 51).

As it will be described below, the towns of the Peninsula were the natural consequences of the suitable geographic situation of the Straits, the fertility of the soil and the natural link to the important Black Sea Region. Most of the towns on the Peninsula were established by the Greeks as colonies in the Archaic time period in



order to control the Straits or grain trade. Since there has not been enough investigation to confirm the history of the towns, the locations or the other vital information about them has usually been traced through the ancient sources. Therefore, the locations of the towns specified below are not verified information.

## 1. ELAEUS

“Having a temple for Protesilaos [Protesilaos was esteemed for being the first warrior of the Greeks who was killed during the siege of Troia], Elaeus is opposite the town of Sigeum, which is a headland of the Troad and forty stadias distant from Elaeus across the Straits. This town was located at the tip of the Peninsula” (Strabo, 7:51).



**Image. 7.1:** Elaeus Bay from the southeast (Casson, 212)

The ancient town stands on the broad promontory at the entrance to the ancient Hellespontos (Boardman, 276) and dominates the Morto Bay (Jones, 144). The new Turkish war memorial, “the Abide,” is now standing on this site, and is

regularly visited by those who wish to commemorate the Turkish soldiers who were killed during the battles of WWI on this peninsula (Boardman, 277).

Elaeus is one of the most interesting sites, and must have been an Aeolian or Attic foundation established soon after 600 B.C. (Isaac, 192). There are different opinions concerning its origins; Boardman states that it is an Athenian colony (Boardman, 277) whereas Skymnos claims that it is a colony of Teos in Ionia. Elaesus was first included in the Tribute list as a unit in the federation of the Chersonese in the 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C. (Isaac, 193). From 446 B.C., Elaesus paid good money to the league, at least more than the others paid (Except Agora) (Isaac, 193). In the fourth century, the city was the member of the second confederacy. Therefore, the town took the side of the Athenians (Isaac, 193).

Elaesus started to issue coins in the fourth century B.C. (Casson, 223). In the Hellenistic Period, Athena and Artemis can be observed on the coins. In 200 B.C., Phillip V surrounded the city Elaesus. On the imperial coins of the town, Protesilaos is represented as a warrior who is standing upon the prow of his ship. This town was mentioned in several literary sources from Herodotos to Procopious and the sources confirm that the city still existed in the time of Justinian.

The reputation of Elaesus is largely from the cult of Protesilaos, a hero of the Trojan War. According to Greek mythology, an oracle had foretold that the first Greek soldier to walk on the land in the Trojan War would be the first to die. Protesilaos fulfilled this prediction after killing several Trojans even though he already knew this prophecy. The evidence that indicates that the cult of this hero was in Elaesus comes from the literary sources such as Herodotos. In addition, coins from the time of Commodus confirm this information (Jones, 141). '*Heroikos*'

*(Dialogue concerning heroes)* which was written by Philostratos, contains further information about Protesilaos.

The first ancient source, which mentions Protesilaos, is Herodotos, who mentions that there was a sanctuary of Protesilaos (Herodotos, *Histories*, 9:116). Nevertheless, he repeats that this sanctuary was demolished by the Medes (Herodotos, *Histories*, 9:5). This can be an explanation why there are no architectural remains on the site.

Besides the other ancient writers who refer to a sanctuary (Strabo (7:51), Pausanias (*Description of Greece*, 1:34, Thucydides, 8:102, Pliny, *Natural History* 4:11) Philostratos is the only author who refers to a mound (Jones, 145). His testimony has been accepted and the mound of Karaağaçtepe near Elaeus was investigated by Schliemann and the soldiers of the French army who were excavating, as was already mentioned above in the chapter on the prehistoric periods.

At Elaeus, the remains of ancient blocks, which are probably from an ancient port, can be seen. Furthermore, ceramics and walls are can be observed (Waiblinger, 845). Excavations were conducted by the Allied military forces in Gallipoli during the First World War, and the French forces continued to explore the area in later years (Boardman, 277). During the excavations, the scholars found 709 tombs, of which there are 390 pithoi and 319 stone sarcophaguses. Stone built tombs were also observed (Waiblinger, 846). The excavations at the necropolis were only partly published (Waiblinger, 845). From these tombs, 1500 objects were found. Some of them are in the İstanbul Archaeological Museums, while the others are kept in the Louvre (Waiblinger, 846).

William Bates also mentions these tombs and states that the French forces found several small vases and a few small statues similar to those found at Myrina. Bates states that these tombs date between the third and the first centuries B.C. (Bates, 357). He writes that during the Gallipoli campaign of 1915, the French entrenching operations opened a necropolis on the hill at Eski Hisarlık (near Elaeus) near the mouth of the Dardanelles. The results of the exploration were presented in detail in *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* 39, 1915, pp. 135-240 (12 pls; 10 figs) by J. Chamonard, E. Dhorme and F. Courey. The burials were generally found in stone sarcophagi and in large pithoi. When discovered, the earth covered completely both sarcophagi and pithoi. The necropolis was in use at the end of the sixth and during the fifth century and some of the tombs were used again in the third or the second century. In the first campaign, 38 sarcophagi and 18 pithoi were uncovered. The objects were buried in small vases of clay and glass; terracotta statues, ornaments, some lamps and a few tools were the other finds (Bates 1920, 86).

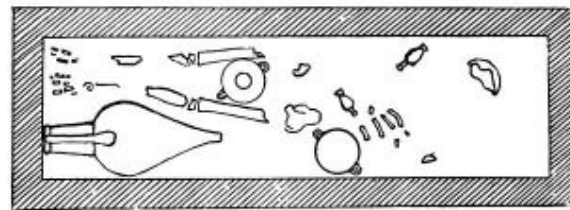


Fig. 9. Échelle: 0,06 par mètre

**Image. 7.2: Tomb of a female (BCH 1915, pg. 171.)**

Image 19 is a drawing from this excavation's report and shows a female's tomb, which includes terra-cotta vases and statues, weapons and lamps (Chamonard, Courby, Dhorme, pg. 171).

Below are the other photographs of the tombs from Elaeus:

Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique, XXXIX (1915), p. 154.



Fig. 3. — Vue du chantier, prise de l'angle S.-E.

**Image. 7.3:** Tomb from Elaeus (BCH 1915, 154)



Fig. 4. — Vue du chantier, prise de l'angle S.O.

**Image. 7.4:** Tomb from Elaeus (BCH 1915, 156)

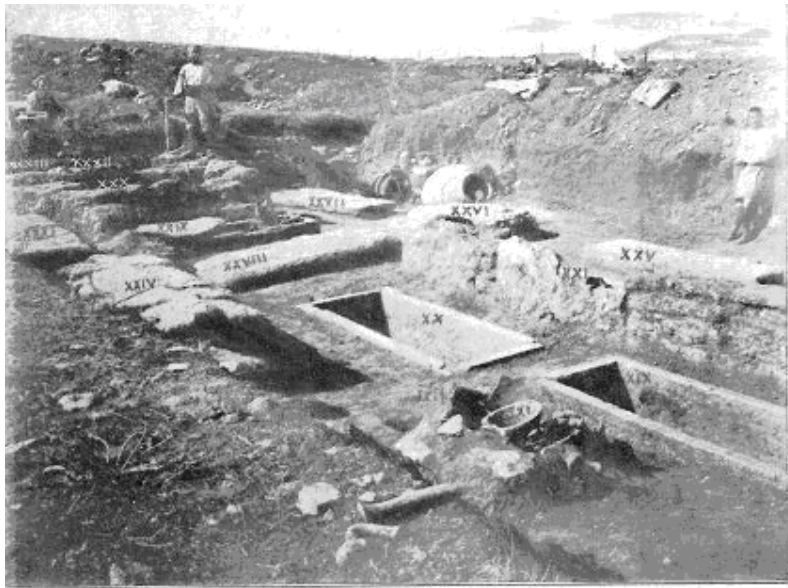


Fig. 5. — Vue du chantier, prise de l'angle N.E.

**Image. 7.5:** Tomb from Elaeus (BCH 1915, 157)



Fig. 6. — Murs de protection des tombes XXI-XXII.

**Image. 7.6: Tomb from Elea (BCH 1915, 158)**

Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique, XXXIX (1915), p. 158.



Fig. 7. — Enclos de protection des tombes XXIX, XXX, XXXII et de la jarre XVII.

**Image. 7.7: Tomb from Elea (BCH 1915, 158)**



Fig. 8. — Sarcophage XXIV, à couvercle en forme de toiture à deux versants.

**Image. 7.8:** Tomb from Elaeus (BCH 1915, 163)

Tomb findings:

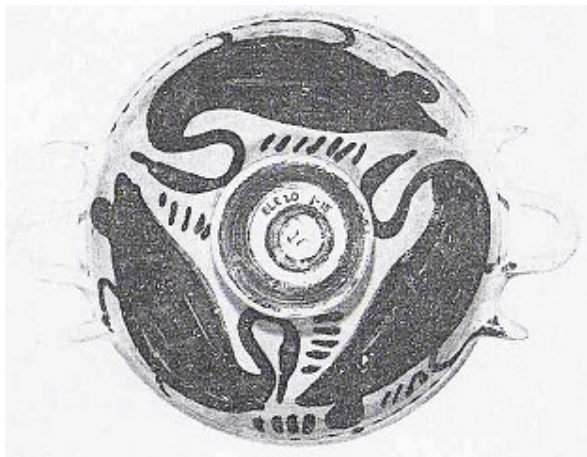


**Image. 7.9:** This is an imported lydion. It is probably from the 6<sup>th</sup> century B.C. (Waiblinger, 850).

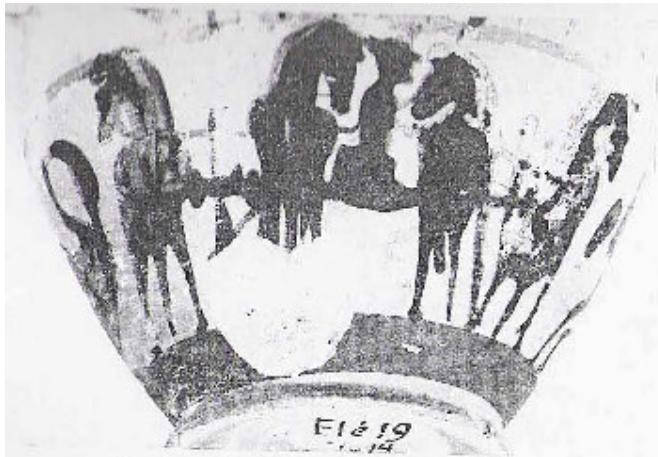




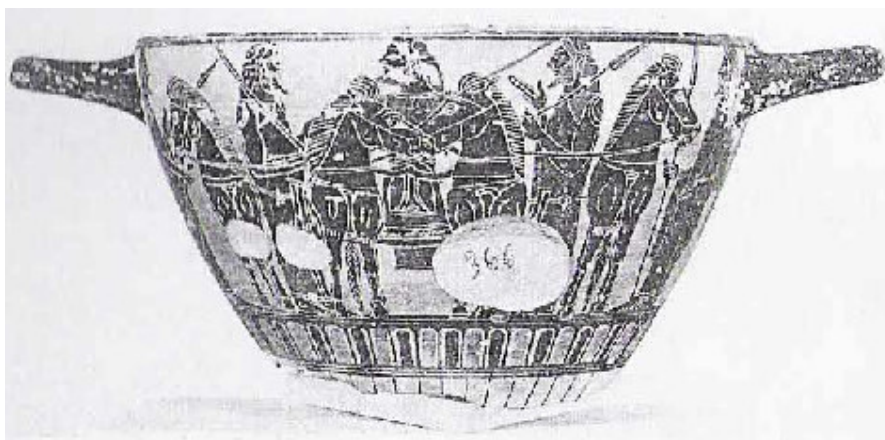
**Image. 7.10:** Petit skyphos with black figure design which is a Protocorinthian vase from the 7<sup>th</sup> century B.C. (**Waiblinger, 851**).



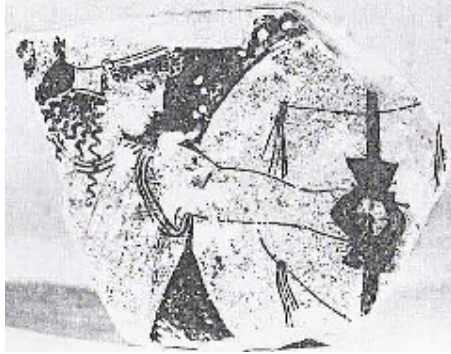
**Image. 7.11:** Lekane with bird design from the 6<sup>th</sup> century B.C. It is probably a local or regional production (**Waiblinger, 851**).



**Image. 7.12:** Black figure skyphos probably produced in a local workshop (Waiblinger, 853).



**Image. 7.13:** Attic skyphos with the representations of Athena and Herakles in a black figure design (Waiblinger, 853).



**Image. 7.14-** Loutrophoros with red figure Amazon image from a 6<sup>th</sup> century B.C. (Waiblinger, 853).



**Image. 7.15:** Archaic terra-cotta figurine from Elaeus. It shows a woman bending over an oven and possibly kneading dough (Sparkes 1981, 176).

There is another terracotta from Elaeus, which is kept in the Louvre (Sparkes 1962, 137).

As Huxley stated, East Greek pottery has been found in Elaeus on the acropolis and in the cemeteries (Huxley, 187). Indeed, a few vases can be attributed to the first half of the sixth century. These are the Corinthian and Athenian vases from about 550 B.C. (Boardman, 277). Furthermore, there is a group of vases from

Elaeus, which directly reflects the Athenian occupation. They were made around the middle of the sixth century or later and were decorated quite simple with stripes and silhouette birds (Boardman, 277).

In addition, Robinson conveys information about an Attic vase which was found in one of these tombs. On the vase, on each side, between the small palmettes that spring from the handles, is a ram walking to the left. The vase also has an inscription. It is said that this inscription is rare in form (Robinson 1932, 541). Nevertheless, this inscription can also be seen on a cup, which is kept in Copenhagen Museum. This cup also came from the same factory. The inscription was translated by the writers of the fascicle of the Copenhagen Museum: ‘Greetings, and buy me’. On the other hand, Pottier translated it ‘Rejoice, and do not torment yourself’ or ‘Have a good time and do not worry’ (Robinson, 542). Detailed information on this cheerful vase can be found in B.C.H., Vol. 55, 1931. Pp. 430-437. The image is below:



**Image. 7.16:** Attic vase from Elaesus (Pottier, 433).

Although most of the finds have come from the graves there is plenty of early pottery to be picked up on the surface of the town site as Waiblinger pointed out (Boardman, 277).

Besides these ceramics and terracottas, there is an inscription which was dedicated to Eumenes by Attalos II, and which was found in Elaeus. This inscription was devoted to him for his loyalty in diplomacy and war (Norwood, 2). There is also another inscription (Image 34), which is found in the Parthenon in 1845 (Schweigert, 171): This small fragment, which was an honorary decree, dated to 372 B.C. includes a line saying, “The Elaeusians honored Athens with a crown.” (Schweigert, 173).



**Image. 7.17:** Inscription from Parthenon (Schweigert, 171)

Another inscription is a decree from Elaeus dating to c. 357 B.C. It is a large Pentelic marble. In this decree, the ambassadors from the town reiterate their loyalty and friendship to Athens (Schweigert, 13-14).

Besides this information, Arthur Bernard Cook points out that the coins of Elaeus bear an Artemis head on the obverse and a bee on the reverse. (Cook, 13).

## **2. ALOPEKONNESOS**

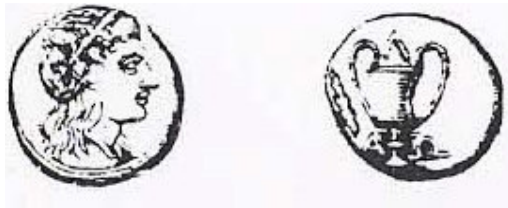
“Alopekonnesos was located at the tip of the Melas Gulf. There is also a large cape called Mazusia probably around Alopekonnesos (Strabo, 7:51). “Drabus, Limnai and Alopekonnesos are the other towns, along with Sestos and Abydos, which are located opposite each other” (Strabo, 7:51).

Alopekonnesos can be identified most probably with Suvla Bay (Casson, 219). To the north of Elaeus, the neighbors of the Athenians were the Alopekonnesians, who lived beside the southwestern limit of the Melas Gulf, near Suvla Bay (Huxley, 187). It was founded before the fifth century, since it was mentioned in the Tribute list by the Aeolians (Casson, 219, 223). According to Demosthenes, it used to belong to the Athenians (Demosthenes, 23: 166). Demosthenes also adds that the piracy activities were very intensive around Alopekonnesos (Demosthenes, 23:166). Pseudo Skymnos quotes that this city was between Elaeus and Limnai. Coins and inscriptions mentioning the Alopekonnesians were found around Alopekonnesos during the Gallipoli campaign (Isaac, 189).

An inscription found in Alopekonnesos is a record of the burial rights of ‘Julius Italus’ (Casson, 219). Isaac also mentions this inscription, which was found during the military campaign on the Peninsula (89). Another one is from the Roman Period. In addition, he conveys that a Roman sarcophagus was found recently in this

town. A stele of a young athlete dating to 470 B.C. is another find from Alopekonnosos (Isaac, 190).

Alopekonnosos started to issue coins between 400 -200 B.C. Most of the coins represent Dionysus or the head of a Maenad. On the reverse, a fox can be seen referring to the name of the town. Later ones bear images of wheat (Isaac, 191). There is a silver coin which is found at Olynthus<sup>20</sup> and which was identified as the coin of Alopekonnosos (Robinson, 135). Roman Period ceramics, architectural elements, a stele and a capital were also found in the town (Sayar 1998, 425).



**Image. 7.18:** Coin of Alopekonnosos. Silver. Dionysos and a vase (Kurtoğlu- After page 16).

### 3. LYSIMACHEA

“On the center of the neck, Lysimachea was situated. This city was designated by the name of the founder” (Strabo, 7:51)

Lysimachea is located in modern Bolayır, in the middle of the Peninsula, between Kardia and Paktye (Isaac, 188). After the death of Alexander the Great, Thrace was assigned to Lysimachus whose name was perpetuated in his new capital, Lysimachea (Grant, 26). Therefore, Lysimachus established this new city called Lysimachea in 309 B.C. This town commanded the road from Sestos to the inlands

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<sup>20</sup> A location in Northern Greece

of Thrace. In order to find people for his new town, Lysimachus destroyed Kardia, which was near this new town (Schmitz Vol. II, 231). 22 years after it was established, the city was ruined because of an earthquake (Sayar 2000, 292). In addition, we know that Lysimachea was destroyed again by the Thracians in around 197 B.C. Afterwards; the city was restored by one of the successors of Alexander the Great, Antiochus III around 196 B.C. As far as Livy conveyed, Antiochus III restored the houses and some walls; he ransomed the slaves (Livy, 5.33.38). Antiochus followed a pattern in Lysimachea, which was called 'Synoecism'<sup>21</sup> in Ancient Greek (Rostovtzeff, 493). Antiochus III called upon the former inhabitants of the city and invited new settlers to whom he gave cattle and agricultural implements and fortified the city at his own expense (Rostovtzeff, 493).

In the second century B.C., Lysimachea was part of the Pergamon Kingdom. In Attalos' early years of reign (c.159 B.C), the Thracians were able to destroy Lysimachea, which was still a part of the Pergamon Kingdom. However, later on Attalos II was successful in removing the Thracians from the Chersonese (Norwood, 2). In the Roman Period, the town was not that important. Later on Justinian refortified the city (Schmitz, 232).

Mustafa Hamdi Sayar discovered certain inscriptions during his survey in 2000. One of them is on a sarcophagus and locates the ancient town exactly in Bolayır. This inscription tells that certain privileges will be given to whoever contributes to the foundation of the city (Sayar 2000, 291). In addition, a marble statue of a horse was brought to the Museum of Çanakkale from Bolayır. This statue belongs to the Hellenistic Period. An inscription on a marble fragment confirms the

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21 Political unification (<http://www.pitt.edu/~jemst76/GreekCivilization/04-1/EightLectureHandout.rtf>)

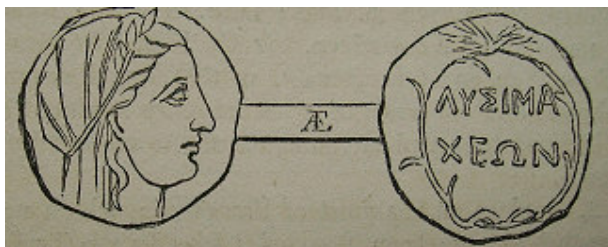


name of the town without any doubt (Sayar 2000, 292). In addition, another inscription belongs to a lieutenant who fought in the campaign against the Thracians in around 13-11 B.C. (Sayar 1993, 131).

Moreover, Sayar found an epigraph written in Latin. In the same area, architectural elements of a church, which belongs to Early Byzantine Period, were found, as well (Sayar 2000, 292). Local sources confirmed that there was an old church in the town, which was completely destroyed at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. These elements verify that the town survived in the Byzantine Period as well, with the name of 'Plagiari' (Sayar 2000, 292). In addition, the scholar found the pieces of the wall, which was renewed by Justinian against the Hun and Slav tribes (Sayar 2000, 293).

Mustafa Hamdi Sayar also found several objects in Lysimachea during his survey in 2001. Among the objects there were:

A handle with a satyr head, a bronze lamb, three spindle whorls, four lead weights, a marble head, three statues of Hekate and Hermes made in marble, a fragment of a statue of Aphrodite, a fragment of a right foot, fragments of feet and hands made in marble, a fragment of a hand which is holding a roll, an appliqué and the other marble fragments. The date is not certain (Sayar 2001, 109).



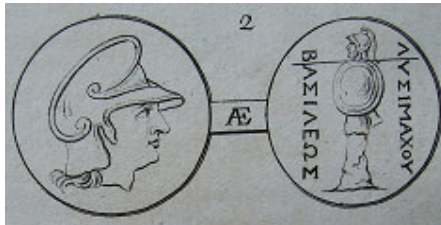
**Image. 7.19:** Coin from Lysimachea (Schmitz Vol. II, 232)



**Image. 7.20:** Coin from Lysimachea. Third century. Silver. Herakles in lion skin and standing Nike (**Cary, 197**).



**Image. 7.21:** Coin of Lysimachea, Hellenistic Period, Silver, Herakles / Nike (**Price, Plate IV**).



**Image. 7.22:** Coin from Lysimachea (Cary 1752, Pl.1) (No other information).



**Image. 7.23:** Coin from Lysimachea (Cary 1752, Pl.1) (No other information).



**Image. 7.24:** Coin from Lysimachea (Cary 1752, Pl.1) (No other information).

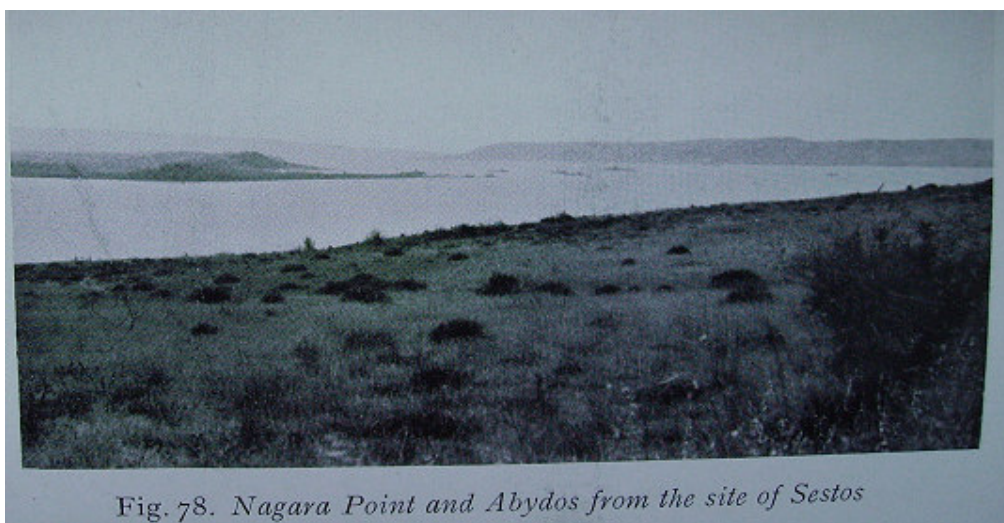


**Image. 7.25:** Coins from Lysimachea, silver, c. 306-5 / 301- 300, ‘Tetrabol’ (2.85 gr), In the name of Phillip and Lysimachus. N. 78 has a ‘LY’ inscription (Morkholm, Plate V).



**Image. 7.26:** Coin of Lysimachea,, stater, c. 320 (Morkholm, Plate XIV).

#### 4. SESTOS



**Image. 7.27:** Abydos (on the left) –Sestos (Casson, 223)

“Xerxes built a pontoon bridge in Sestos in order to cross to Abydos. There was a one hundred and seventy stadiums distance between Elaeus and this pontoon bridge. Sestos, a colony of the Lesbians, just like Madytos, is located thirty stadiums distant from Abydos” (Strabo, 7:55)

“What city could you find stronger than Sestos, what city harder to capture for it requires both ships and infantry if it is to be besieged” Xenophon, Hellenica, IV 8, 5 (Isaac, 196).

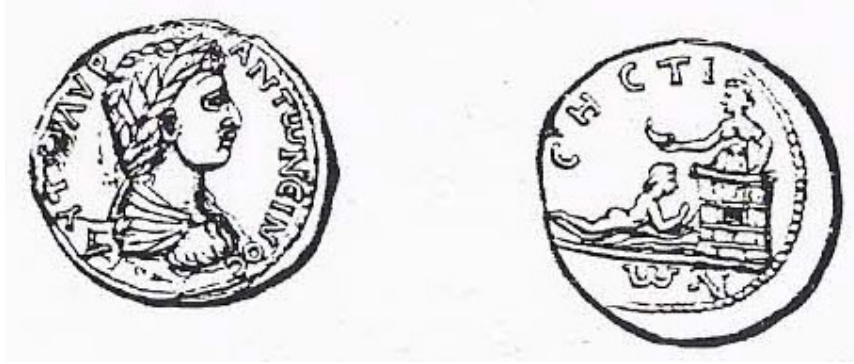
Sestos is probably located opposite Abydos. It had a harbor (probably modern Akbaş Limanı), which was mentioned in Homer’s catalogue (Homeros, Illiad, II. 2. 836). It was claimed that this was the best harbor of the Dardanelles (Cary, 832). On the other hand, its certain location could not be determined yet (Isaac, 195). It was a colony of Lesbos (Cary, 832). Sestos was one of the chief towns of the Hellespontine area which held the keys of the northern trade (Rostovtzeff, 585). For about two centuries the towns around the Aegean provided their foodstuffs and metals from the Euxine area. In this busy trade network, Sestos was important because it controlled the Straits (Rostovtzeff, 586).

Athens claimed Sestos from Persia and Sparta from circa 550 B.C. to the mid fourth century for its grain shipment. Xerxes established a bridge there as aforementioned (Cary, 832). After it was freed from Persian occupation around 479 B.C., it became the chief station for the naval operations of the Athenian fleet in battles against the Spartans (411 B.C.). To the Delian League, Sestos paid 1000 drachmae in 434 B.C. Some ancient writers think that Sestos contributed a lot to maintain the Hellespontine presence (Isaac, 196).

After its rebellion against Athens, Sestos's population was enslaved and Athens established a cleruchy here (Cary, 830). The city was relatively unimportant in the Hellenistic and Roman periods. However, Justinian refortified the town (McKay, 830). The city has a Byzantine castle on its hill (Casson, 217).



**Image. 7.28:** Coin of Sestos (Cary 1752, Pl. 1) (No other information)



**Image. 7.29:** Coin of Sestos. Roman Period. Caracalla? (Kurtoğlu, after page 16).



**Image. 7.30:** Coin from Sestos, silver (?), Hellenistic Period, Head of Demeter(?) / Sitting Hermes with a cornucopia or ear of corn (?) (Price, Plate 89).

## 5. MADYTOS

The Greek city of Madytos is situated by the sea, in the bay that forms the Hellespontos on the eastern side of the Chersonese, between the Turkish fortresses of Kilitbahir, to the south and Abydos (Hauvette-Besnault, 506). This town can be identified with certain as the modern Eceabat. The town was probably founded by Lesbians. Certain ancient sources quote that Madytos had a good harbor (Xenophon, *Hellenica*, 1: 1-3; Livy, 23: 38-9). It joined the Delian League before the other towns of the Chersonese (Isaac, 194) and started to produce coins around 350 B.C. During the Roman Period its neighbor, Koila, was more important than Madytos (Isaac, 194). Madytos and Koila expanded because of the trade traffic in the Straits (Casson, 220). They must have served as alternative ports to Sestos and Abydos (Casson, 221).

There is a pair of earrings, which is exhibited in the Metropolitan Museum of Art from Madytos from the fourth century B.C. (Oliver, 273) (Hauvette- Besnault, 509). Furthermore, as Hauvette- Besnault reported, in the exterior wall of the Saint Georges church, there is a fragment of a sarcophagus from the Hellenistic Period (540).

Leake asserts that Madytos has coins with the image of an ear of grain, a MADI inscription and “a fox-like dog seated’ which probably date to the Archaic Period (Leake, 66). According to him, the ‘ear of grain’ alludes to the fertile cornfields of the Chersonese. Also ‘dog’ probably refers to myth of Hekabe and to Kynossema, which is located near Madytos (Leake, 66).



## 6. KOILA

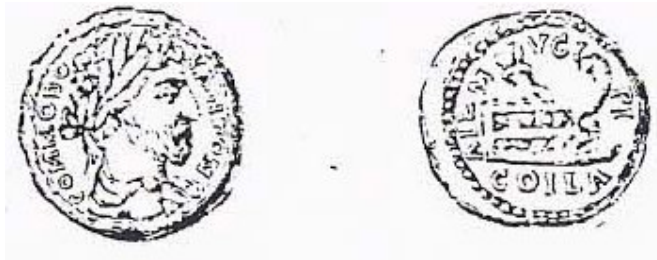
Koila is identified with the Ottoman fortress of Kilitbahir. Casson states that a necropolis has been found in Koila (Casson, 216). In Roman times, it was probably the most important town of the Chersonese (Casson, 221). It was the only city that issued its own money under the rule of Hadrian and it was raised to the rank of a municipium by Hadrian. This town, in which games were celebrated and which had a 'Bouleterion' was probably the chief station for corn export (Casson, 221).

An inscription from Koila indicates a common temple for Zeus by saying:

“(Jovi) O(pti)m(o Maximo ?)

(C)herso(nesitae)” (Casson, 224).

Another inscription, which is from the Roman period, was found 25 km. north of Eceabat. A sarcophagus belongs to 'Kaios Tiberios' and its inscription reveals it is his own sarcophagus as well as his wife and their children. Anyone who opens it is threatened with paying a fine of 2500 denare to the town of Koila (Krauss, 88).



**Image. 7.31:** Coin of Koila. Roman Period. Head of Commodus / a prow of a ship. Copper (**Kurtoğlu, after the page 16**).

In addition, Caskey mentions another possible Hellenistic cemetery which was found in Koila. However, there are some items, which are dated to earlier time (Caskey, 192). A figurine found from this cemetery is similar to one that Calvert found (Check page 55). Its height is 0.145 m. It was probably made of marble (Caskey, 193). Valentin Müller also wrote about a figurine from the Thracian Chersonese. He found some parallels with Thesselian Neolithic figurines “as well as with the backward jutting skulls of numerous Early Cycladic pieces” (Caskey, 193).

Caskey also mentions another figurine, which is in the Mytilene Museum from the ‘Grimani’ collection, which was published by D. Evangelides in *ArchDelt* (Caskey, 193). Two more are well preserved in the collections of the Metropolitan Art Museum and New York Museum of Primitive Art (Caskey, 193).

## **7. KALLIPOLIS**

“Kallipolis is located in a distance of forty stadiums from Lampsakos in Asia” (Strabo, 7:55).

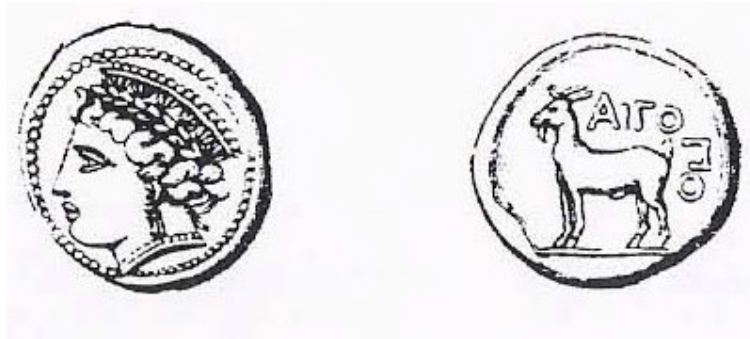
The town of Gallipoli (Kallipolis) takes the advantages of the shallow coves on each side of its bluff (Casson, 217). Sayar found a sarcophagus, which has ornaments on it, in the center of this town. The sarcophagus has an inscription indicating that the sarcophagus belongs to ‘Aurelius Korpos’ and was made for this person and his family and it should not be used by someone else, otherwise a payment should be made to the treasury of the imperial. It is probably from the Roman period (Sayar 2001, 109).

## 8. AEGOSPOTAMI

“Aegospotami is opposite of Lampsakos” (Xenophon, Hellenica, 2:1)

“Aegospotami had been ‘razed to the ground’ during the Persian War” (Strabo, 7:55).

The only recorded city between Sestos and Kallipolis is Aegospotami. The town started to coin in around 300 B.C (Isaac, 196). A recent survey was conducted by Reyhan Körpe and Mehmet Fatih Yavuz and Prehistoric and Byzantine finds were found (Körpe and Yavuz forthcoming).



**Image. 7.32:** Coin of Aegospotami from ‘Cumalidere’ (?). (No other information) (Kurtoğlu, after the page 16).

## 9. PAKTYE

Paktye is the last port of the Dardanelles, but not an identified one (Casson, 217). It is already known that Miltiades I extended the wall between Kardia and Paktye. Nonetheless, since nothing has been done in terms of a systematic archaeological exploration, it is hard to find the ruins of this wall.

## 10. KARDIA

“Kardia is located on the Melas gulf. This one was the largest city on the Chersonesos. This city was established by Milesians and Klazomenians. But it was reestablished by Athenians later” (Strabo, 7:51).

Although Casson points out that Kardia is the foundation of Miltiades I, (Casson, 217), it was originally a colony of Milesians and Clazomenians (Schmitz, 516) and was the first *polis* of the Chersonese (Isaac, 187). It is one of the chief towns of the Chersonese, which is situated at the head of the Melas Gulf.

Demosthenes explains why that is so by saying: “who occupies Kardia can invade the Chersonese quite safely at 24 hours notice” (Isaac, 187). In the time of Miltiades I, the town also received Athenian colonists (Herodotos, Histories, 7. 58). The city started to strike bronze coins in the fourth century B.C. (Casson, 223). In the fifth century B.C., the town paid a large amount of tribute to the Delian League. In 346 B.C., Kardia asked for Phillip’s help against the Athenians, because the inhabitants of the town did not want to allow the Athenians to get in the town. An inscription, which was found in Bakla Burnu, bears an inscription on it. Bakla Burnu is located opposite Bolayır in eastern direction. This inscription belongs to a stele on which there are reliefs of Kore and Hades. The inscription conveys that this stele was devoted to Kore and Hades, who are the protective gods of the city, by the boule<sup>22</sup>. So, this stele is probably related to the Athenians’ attack (Sayar 1998, 426-427).

During the reign of Lysimachus, Kardia was destroyed and refounded under the name ‘Lysimachea’. Nevertheless, it never rose to old prosperity again (Schmitz, 516). Yet, it was the largest city on the Chersonese in Strabo’s time (Isaac, 188).

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<sup>22</sup> Boule: Council of citizens in Ancient Greece



**Image. 7.33:** Coin of Kardias (Schmitz, 516). (No other information).



**Image. 7.34:** Kardias. 325-300. Obv. Demeter, Rev. Lion, grain or corn. It was made of bronze or copper. ([www.sylloge-nummorum-graecorum.org](http://www.sylloge-nummorum-graecorum.org)).

In addition, Leake conveys that the below the lion there is an image of barley (Leake, 119).



**Image. 7.35:** Coin of Kardias. Fifth Century B.C. Silver (Kurtoğlu – After page 16).

## 11. AGORA

The foundation of Agora is probably contemporary with Kardias, which means it was a colony established by Miltiades the first (Casson, 217). Agora was the suburb of Kardias and Paktye (Casson, 219).

## **12. KRITHOTE**

The town of Krithote, which was probably the suburb of Elaeus, can be identified with the modern Kirte. It was probably the foundation of Miltiades (Isaac, 191). It is situated on a limestone plateau. Krithote issued coins with its abbreviations of its name (Casson, 219) starting from the fourth century with the bronze (Casson, 223).

## **13. LIMNAI**

“Drabus, Limnai and Alopekonesos are the other towns, along with Sestos and Abydos, which are located opposite each other” (Strabo, 7:51).

Limnai is situated near Suvla Bay. It was probably a colony of the Milesians (Casson, 223). In addition, it was probably to the east of Alopekonesos. In a tribute list, Limnai appears between Elaeus and Alopekonesos (Casson, 219). A Roman relief was found here (Hauvette-Benault, 519-520).

## **14. KYNOSSEMA**

“Kynossema is a town located at the cape at the beginning of the Hellespont” (Strabo, 7:55).

“...and as the coast round Point Kynossema formed a sharp angle which prevented their seeing what was going on the other side of it.” (Thucydides, 8:104)

Kynossema was located near Koila. ‘Kynossema’ means ‘the dog grave’ in Ancient Greek. According to the myth, Hekabe, the wife of Priamos, lost her mind after she watched all her children murdered one after another and she started to howl

as a dog during the nights and days (Erhat, 124). According to the legend, she died in this location, where Kynossema was founded. That is why Kynossema got this name.

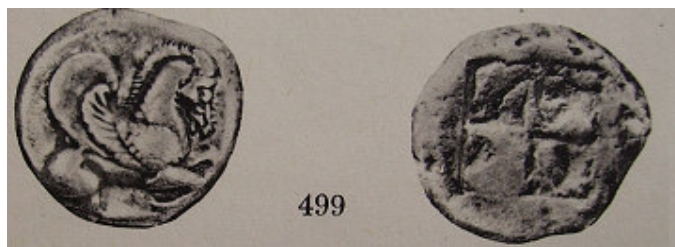
### **15. DEBRIS, KOBRYIS, KYPASIS**

As far as Isaac claims by relying on Pseudo Skymnos, there were three *emporia* (trade out-posts) on the Melas Gulf, outside the Chersonese. Two of them belonged to Kardia. Kypasis existed in the sixth century as an independent settlement as did Kobryis in the fourth century B.C. (Isaac, 187).

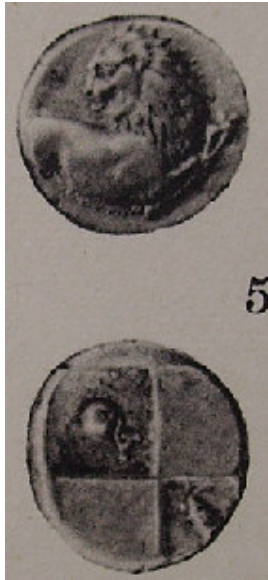
### **16. IDACUS, PAION, ARAPLOS**

These cities were not attested in any source except Pseudo Skylax. Araplos might be the same settlement with that of Strabo mentioned as ‘Drabos’ (Isaac, 188).

As additional information to this part, certain coins were included below in order to give a general idea about the type of coinage that existed here. These coins were taken from *Syyloge Nummorum Graecorum*. Although it is known that the coins are from the Thracian Chersonese, the dates or the exact places are not known:



**Image. 7.36:** Obv. Pegasus; Rev. Incuse square. Tetradrachm.



**Image. 7.37:** Obv. Lion turned back; Rev. Pellet above

A and cicada. Light half-siglos.



**A CHART FOR DATES AND LOCATIONS OF THE SETTLEMENTS  
ON THE PENINSULA FROM THE PREHISTORY UP TO THE  
BYZANTINE PERIODS**

|                    |   |
|--------------------|---|
| <b>PREHISTORIC</b> | <p><b>Aegospotami</b><br/>Opposite of Lampsakos / Prehistoric and Byzantine finds</p> <p><b>Akbaş Şehitliği</b><br/>A destroyed settlement / Only Troia I type of sherds</p> <p><b>Asartepe</b><br/>5 km. Southeast of Ilgardere / Kumtepe IB- Troia I-V / Hellenistic, Roman pottery</p> <p><b>Baştepe</b><br/>2 km. Northwest of Akbaş / Kumtepe IB – Troia V sherds</p> <p><b>Buruneren</b><br/>Prehistoric glazed stone workshop</p> <p><b>Değirmenlik Mevkii</b><br/>8 km. of Eceabat / Flint and obsidian implements / Mainly Microblades Epipalaeolithic sherds</p> <p><b>Gelibolu</b><br/>Center of modern Gelibolu / Early Iron Age sherds</p> <p><b>Güneyli Limanı</b><br/>On the west end of Güneyli Bay / Troia I and late sherds</p> <p><b>Kalanuro Tepesi</b><br/>Classical and late antique settlement / Kumtepe Ib, Troy I, possibly Early Iron Age pottery</p> <p><b>Karaağaçtepe</b><br/>Known as 'Tumuli of Protesilas'. Medium sized mound / Northeast of Seddülbahir / 1 km. inland of Mordo Bay /Has 11.5 meters archaeological deposit / Earliest level is Kumtepe IB / Also revealed Late Neolithic, Early Chalcolithic, Hellenistic, Roman and Byzantine artifacts</p> <p><b>Kartaltepe</b><br/>Prehistoric sherds, mainly Troia I</p> <p><b>Kaynarca Mevkii</b><br/>8 km. Southwest of Gelibolu / Prehistoric artifacts</p> <p><b>Kilisetepe</b><br/>Also known as Madytos<br/>Has a fresh water spring / Interrupted sequence from Kumtepe IB to Late Troia VI<br/>Also has Hellenistic and Roman pottery</p> <p><b>Maltepe</b><br/>5 km. North of Eceabat / Certain Prehistoric sherds / Late Classical and</p> |
|--------------------|---|

|                               |  |
|-------------------------------|--|
|                               | <p>Medieval material</p> <p><b>Musaltepe</b><br/>Near K. Anafartalar / Troia I and Medieval pottery</p> <p><b>Ören Mevkii</b><br/>3 km. of K. Anafartalar / Epipalaeolithic artifacts</p> <p><b>Tepecik</b><br/>West end of Ilgardere / Kumtepe IB and Troia I pottery</p> <p><b>Unknown name</b><br/>Only Troia I</p>                 |
| <b>ARCHAIC,<br/>CLASSICAL</b> | <p><b>Maltepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Kalanuro Tepesi</b></p> <p><b>Elaeus</b><br/>At the tip of the peninsula</p> <p><b>Madytos</b><br/>Eceabat</p> <p><b>Alopekonesos</b><br/>North of Elaeus</p>  |
| <b>HELLENISTIC</b>            | <p><b>Elaeus</b></p> <p><b>Madytos</b></p> <p><b>Kilisetepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Asartepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Karaağaçtepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Lysimachea</b><br/>In Bolayır</p> <p><b>Sestos</b><br/>Around Akbaş Harbor (?) / Opposite of Abydos (?)</p> <p><b>Madytos</b></p> <p><b>Koila</b><br/>Ancient name of Kilitbahır (?)</p> |

|                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| <p><b>ROMAN</b></p>     | <p><b>Kilisetepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Asartepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Karaağaçtepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Alopekonesos</b></p> <p><b>Lysimachea</b></p> <p><b>Sestos</b></p> <p><b>Koila</b><br/>Kilitbahir</p> <p><b>Kallipolis</b><br/>Gelibolu</p> <p><b>Limnai</b><br/>Near Suvla Bay</p> |
| <p><b>BYZANTINE</b></p> | <p><b>Maltepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Musaltepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Karaağaçtepe Mound</b></p> <p><b>Lysimachea</b></p> <p><b>Sestos</b></p> <p><b>Kallipolis</b></p> <p><b>Aegospotami</b></p>  |

## **Chapter 8**

### **FROM GALLIPOLI TO GELİBOLU: THE OTTOMANS ON THE PENINSULA**

The Byzantine Empire was aware of the vital importance of Thrace as an abundant center for wheat production, a fundamental sea route between Constantinople and the Mediterranean, a gateway to the interiors of Europe and the western front line of Constantinople, and it was trying to protect the lands in Thrace and the Gallipoli peninsula (Liakopoulos, 28).

According to İnalcık, it is not easy to explain why the Ottoman invasions into the Balkans were simple. As written by İnalcık, the invasions of the Ottomans started at a time when a number of independent king were looking for foreign aid against each other (1995, 17). The only group was the Ottomans governing a consistent strategy in this turmoil. Further, by the fourteenth century, the Byzantine Empire was already dealing with various enemies such as the Venetian and Genoa states and the Bulgarian and Serbian kingdoms (Quataert, 43).

The foundation of the Ottoman state was the consequence of a series of migrations of the Turcoman or Turkish speaking tribal groups from Central Asia from the eleventh century onwards.

#### **8.1. Crossing the Straits**

Initially located in Bithynia, the Ottomans fought against the Byzantines as well as fighting with them. In 1352, the Byzantine emperor John Cantacuzenus called Orhan, the bey of the Ottomans for help against a Venetian- Genoese alliance. A big military force under the command of Orhan was sent to Thrace to help and as a

reward; the Çimpe Fortress was given to the Ottomans, which provided the Ottomans as a base for their conquest in the Balkans.<sup>23</sup>

To secure the passage of the armies to Thrace, the conquest of the Gelibolu Castle was required; the Ottomans besieged the castle and only after an earthquake they managed to capture it in 1354. Gallipoli stayed as the possession of the Ottomans and it became a military base for the operations of the Ottomans in Thrace. Soon after, these early conquests under the authority of the commander Süleyman, it became a significant naval base (Liakopoulos, 44). During the process of expanding towards Rumeli, the fleet of the Ottomans increased. Therefore, Gelibolu was not just a gate for the Balkans; it was also a base for the expanding Ottoman naval powers at sea (Bostan, 122). Gelibolu was also the first ‘sancak’ in the Balkans (Todorov, 23). Consequently, it was the location of the ‘beylerbeyi’<sup>24</sup> until the conquest of Constantinople. Conquering Gallipoli was also significant in terms of controlling the Balkan Peninsula. The Balkan Peninsula was an important region for the Ottomans because these territories maintained the western frontier with the Christian world. From the 13<sup>th</sup> century to the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the border between the European world and the Ottomans was the Balkan Peninsula (Mentzel, 131).

## **8.2. The Expansion of the Ottomans**

In 1388, Venice sent a fleet to Gelibolu in order to demonstrate its power. The two main goals of the Venetians were to destroy the Ottoman fleet and capture the Straits in the 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> centuries (İnalçık 1964: 984). In order to stand against

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<sup>23</sup> The name of the castle was directly derived from the original Byzantine Greek form, ‘Tzympe’ (Aktepe, 289). Unfortunately, the exact location of the castle is unknown. Nevertheless, it is at least specified that the structure was located at the northern part of the Gallipoli Peninsula (Aktepe, 291).

<sup>24</sup> The head of begs of *sancaks*

their enemies, the Ottomans had to provide ships for Gelibolu. Gelibolu was also the only secure point in the Straits to cross from Anatolia to Rumeli. That is why Murat I warned the *bey* of Gelibolu to keep his eyes open against the enemies of the Ottomans (Neşri, 248-249).

Besides the military activities, there were also other operations, which were conducted on the peninsula. For instance, in 1390 a comprehensive rebuilding activity was initiated on the peninsula during the reign of Bayezid I (1389-1402). Bayezid was well aware of the significance of Gallipoli (İnalçık 1964:984). Kurtoğlu records that the “external castle” was destroyed. On the other hand, the “internal castle”, which dominated the town and the harbor from a hill, was reinforced. Furthermore, the harbor was also reinforced and adapted to the new circumstances with the construction of the two towers (41). Bayezid I chose Gelibolu as a naval installation and established a shipyard here, and this became one of the turning points for Ottoman maritime history (Bostan, 122). The aim of Sultan Bayezid was to take control of the Straits (İnalçık 1964, 984) and therefore Bayezid I fortified the Gallipoli harbor with a tower. This harbor was able to accommodate large galleys and storehouse buildings for the construction of the ships, fountains, bakeries and gunpowder storage. A Spanish ambassador named Clavijo reported in 1403 that, there was a great shipyard in Gelibolu, in which the Ottomans preserved their ships and docks at the entrance of Gelibolu. The fortress was full of troops. In addition, Clavijo saw a bridge with a three-storey tower to protect the inner harbor (Clavijo, 35-36). As the region developed, many other works were erected in the district such as khans, markets, mosques, etc. These innovations made Gelibolu one of the chief centers of the Ottoman state (İnalçık 1964, 985).

During the 15<sup>th</sup> century, Gelibolu was an important station in the trade route between Bursa and Rumeli. While the Florentines were bringing silk from Bursa, the Italians bought cotton. There were also trading houses in Gelibolu in the 15<sup>th</sup> century (İnalçık 1964:986). The place was the principal customhouse of the state before the capture of Istanbul (İnalçık 1964: 986). Gelibolu was also the ‘control point’ of the traffic between Rumeli and Anatolia (İnalçık 1964: 986). Consequently, it became a crowded place. In 1474, Gelibolu was comprised of 38 neighbourhood (mahalle) and 1095 households. With the construction facilities that were carried out particularly in the 15<sup>th</sup> century, Gelibolu became one of the chief cities of the Ottoman territories. Evliya Çelebi reported that there were 164 mosques, 14 imarets, 900 shops and 8 baths. Gelibolu maintained this position of importance as a naval base and arsenal during the sixteenth century (Evliya Çelebi, 155). It is also worth noting that the first school of ‘acemi oğlan’<sup>25</sup> was established in Gelibolu.

In 1429, the naval base in Gelibolu was reinforced and consequently the Ottoman fleet was able to sail to the Aegean and invade certain islands, which were under the control of the Venetians (Bostan, 123). In 1444, during the reign of Mehmet II, the Straits were still the main object of conflict between the Venetians and the Ottomans. Therefore, the shipyard of Gelibolu was reinforced again and the old ships were repaired. The Ottoman fleet consisted of 350-400 ships in the reign of Mehmet II (Bostan, 123). Furthermore, Kilitbahir Castle and the fortress of Çanakkale (Kale-i Sultaniyye) were built in the 1470’s to strengthen the defense of the Dardanelles after the war, which occurred between the Venetians and the Ottomans in 1462-3. The construction of these castles was to protect newly conquered Istanbul. Establishing them, the Ottomans took control of the trade

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<sup>25</sup> Young janissary soldiers

between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean at the entrance to the Aegean (Bostan, 123). The pair of castles was located on opposite sides of the Straits. Kilitbahir is on the European side and Kale-i Sultaniyye is on the Anatolian side.<sup>26</sup>

Kale-i Sultaniyye, was built by the 1470s during the reign of Mehmet II, and was constructed on the opposite (Asian) shore (Ayverdi, 338). This name was given to this castle because it was established by the order of the son of Mehmet II. It has a rectangular plan and is famous for its walls and fortifications (Piri Reis, 207). The restoration of the two castles was carried out during the reign of Süleyman I (Ayverdi, 338).

### 8.3. 16<sup>th</sup> Century

During the reign of Bayezid II (1481-1512), the Ottoman fleet had a powerful navy in the Mediterranean (Gülsoy, 589). The success of the Ottoman fleet in the wars with the Venetians in 1499-1503, particularly over the control of the Dardanelles increased the power of the Ottomans in the sea.

The tension between the Venetians and the Ottomans did not end in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. Although there was a cease-fire in 1503, a destructive war occurred again in 1572 over the control of Cyprus (İnalçık 1997: 287). Among other impacts, this war

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<sup>26</sup> Evliya Çelebi mistakenly reports that Kilitbahir was built before the conquest of Istanbul by the order of Mehmet II, in order to prevent the transport of the food supply through the Dardanelles to the Greek population of Constantinople. The fortress was built at the narrowest point of Dardanelles in the form of leaves of a trefoil. Kilitbahir means 'the lock of the sea' (Evliya Çelebi, 209) and it was named 'Kilitbahir' because as far as Piri Reis conveyed, the ships, which sailed off from the Sea of Marmara, took their permissions from the castle on the Rumeli side, in order to pass through the Straits (Piri Reis, 205). It was repaired in the time of Süleyman I and the castles continued to function as pair with the Kale-i Sultaniyye in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, which is located on the opposite side. The castle was very significant with its high walls, two round towers and fortified places in the defense of the Dardanelles (Piri Reis, 207). Evliya Çelebi reported that there was a settlement inside of the castle with a mosque, wheat store and an arsenal (Evliya Çelebi, 157). Furthermore, the chronological studies of Kuniholm examined numerous structures belong to the Ottoman Empire through dendrochronology. The studies of Kuniholm included Kilitbahir Castle, as well and he confirmed that the castle was built precisely in 1462 (Kuniholm, 125).



interrupted Ottoman-Venetian trade and items such as woolen cloth were imported to the empire from England and France instead of Venice (İnalçık 1997: 287).

With the military activities on going, Gelibolu became an even livelier city in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. There were 55 neighbourhoods and 1305 households (İnalçık 1964: 985). Each neighborhood had a mosque and a ‘*mescit*’ (a small mosque). Moreover, as far as Kurtoğlu has conveyed, there were six neighborhoods for the Christians and they had six churches in each neighborhood (48). In addition, important buildings were added in this century such as mosques. Gelibolu was still one of the most important naval bases of the Empire in the 16<sup>th</sup> century (İnalçık 1964, 985). In this century Gelibolu was a *sancak*<sup>27</sup> center in Rumeli and although Sultan Selim I ordered the arsenal to move from Gelibolu to Haliç in 1513. Gelibolu remained in a privileged position among the other sancaks because of its importance as a naval base (Gülsoy, 590).

#### **8.4. Late 16<sup>th</sup> – 17<sup>th</sup> Centuries**

During this period, the battles with the Venetians from 1654-91 created an instability in the Straits and the battles over Crete occurred frequently (Gülsoy, 591). The reason of the Crete war for the Ottomans was to stop the piracy activities of the Venetians and to conquer the island. The Venetian fleet wanted to blockade the Dardanelles to prevent supplies from Istanbul. Therefore, they first conquered Limnos and Tenedos and then blocked the Dardanelles so that the grain transportation from Syria and Egypt to Istanbul was threatened. Thereupon the Ottoman fleet set sail from Istanbul to the Dardanelles in 1657 right away. Nevertheless, the first conflict was unsuccessful for the Ottomans. The Ottoman

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<sup>27</sup> one of the administrative districts into which a vilayet is divided (<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/sanjak>)

Empire immediately strengthened its fleet and launched it again in record time. With this new navy, the Ottoman Empire was able to defeat the Venetian army and gained complete control again of the Dardanelles in 1657 (Finkel, 231).

Nevertheless, this war revealed the insufficiency of the two critical castles of the Dardanelles, Kilitbahir and Kale-i Sultaniyye, which had been built by the order of Mehmet II. Thus, it was decided by the Grand Vizier Köprülü Mehmet Pasha, Sultan Mehmet IV and the Valide Sultan to repair these fortresses in 1659-1660 (Parry, 12). Another result of the wars over Crete was a decision to build two more fortresses in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, at the entrance of the Straits: Seddülbahir and Kumkale. Since the Ottoman government comprehended the significant role of the Dardanelles particularly in the naval-based wars, it was apparent that the entrance of the Straits should have reinforcement. Therefore, in order to prevent and ward off the invasions of the Venetians and gain control over the Straits, building these two fortresses was essential (İnalçık 1964, 985). The history and the physical description of this castle will be discussed in the chapter of “The Long 18<sup>th</sup> and the 19<sup>th</sup> Centuries”.

### **8.5. The Long 18<sup>th</sup> and the 19<sup>th</sup> Centuries**

Compared to the successes of the centuries from 1300-1683, the years 1683-1798, called ‘the long 18<sup>th</sup> century’, was an unsuccessful period for the Ottoman Empire in terms of military defeats and shrinking of its territories which also influenced the peninsula (Quataert, 73). In between 1768-1774, a battle occurred between the Ottomans and the Russians. The Russian fleet destroyed the Ottomans’ in the Aegean in 1770 and the Russians threatened the security of the Dardanelles. Until the time the Russians were defeated, the people of Gelibolu suffered

economically because of this long war (Kurtoğlu, 68). Consequently, because of this danger the creation of new forts along the shores of the Dardanelles was considered. After this war, the Ottoman Empire lost Crimea and the territories in the northern Black Sea region. In addition, the Ottomans accepted the protection of the Russians over the Orthodox people in Istanbul and let them establish a church in the city (Quataert, 77). During the reign of Selim III, the Bigalı Castle started to be established five km. to the north of Eceabat in order to strengthen the Straits; the danger created by an English fleet which appeared in the Straits in 1807, justified this effort (Parry, 12).

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the struggle with the Russians over the Black Sea and the Dardanelles was a primary concern for the Ottomans. In the time of Sultan Abdülmecit's reign (1823-1861), the Russians were not content with being responsible for the Orthodox population in Istanbul and they demanded to be in charge of all the Orthodox people who lived in the Empire in 1854. The Ottomans decided to fight with the Russians instead of accepting their demands and formed an alliance with England and France. In order to protect the shores of the Marmara Sea, the Allies launched forces to Gelibolu in the same year. These forces stayed in Gelibolu for four years (Kurtoğlu, 69-70).

At the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Gelibolu became a sancak of the city of Edirne in 1864 (İnalçık 1964: 987). This century also witnessed big migrations from the Balkans through Gelibolu to Anatolia. The people of Rumeli started to escape from the never-ending wars of that region between the Russians and the Ottomans to a relatively safer region in 1878 (İpek, 28-29).

In the early twentieth century, the Ottomans had to fight also with the French and the Italians, which also involved the control of the Dardanelles. While France

captured Algeria and Tunisia in Africa, the Italians invaded Tripoli and Bingazi in 1911. In the same year, the Italians expanded their operation area towards Rhodes. In 1912, the Italians came to the entrance of the Dardanelles and tried to pass the Straits but they failed (Kurtoğlu, 72-73). Throughout the war in 1912, the Turkish fleet laid mines in order to protect the Straits. These tactics blocked the movement of the merchant ships and badly affected trade. After warning Russia and the withdrawal of the Italians, the Straits opened again (Kurtoğlu, 71-72).

Finally, Gallipoli Campaign of the Çanakkale war cost the Allies 46,000 dead. The Turkish dead are unquantifiable, but an estimate of 200,000 is considered to be conservative (Holmes, 345).

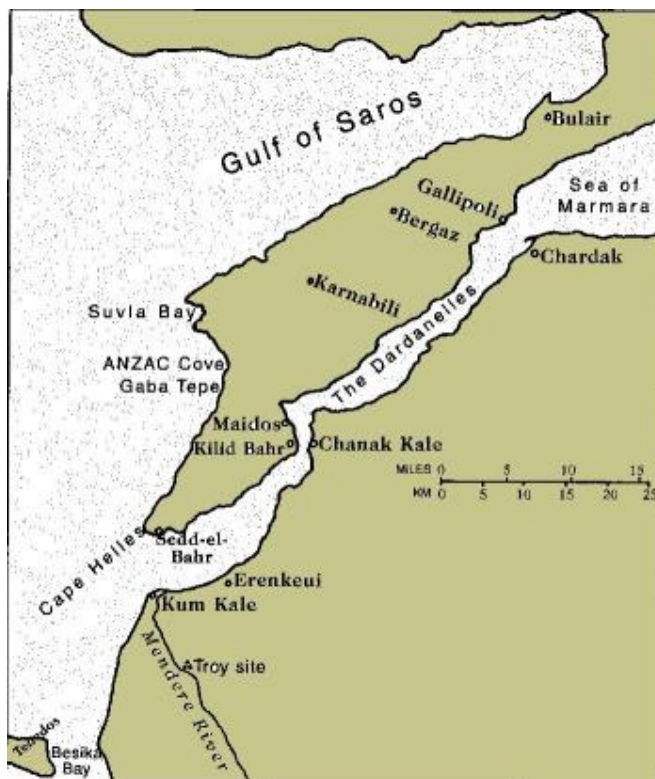
### **8.6. From the Ottoman Empire to the Republic of Turkey**

The fight for the Dardanelles continued during the First World War. England and France tried to occupy Constantinople through the Dardanelles. Therefore, the shores of the Gallipoli Peninsula were some of the places where the war was very violent. Seddülbahir was the first point on the peninsula to be bombed by the Allied forces on 3 March 1914. In addition, the first casualties of the Gallipoli campaign occurred in this village.

In 1915-16, because of the deadlock on the Western front, British decided to send a fleet to the Dardanelles Straits in order to threaten Istanbul and make the Ottoman Empire leave the war. In addition, a significant sea route would be opened to the Black Sea. Consequently, a naval plan was prepared and allied forces tried to reach Constantinople through the Gallipoli Peninsula.

The war in the Gallipoli Peninsula can be analyzed in two phases: Sea and land wars. Throughout the sea wars, the fortresses of the Dardanelles were bombed

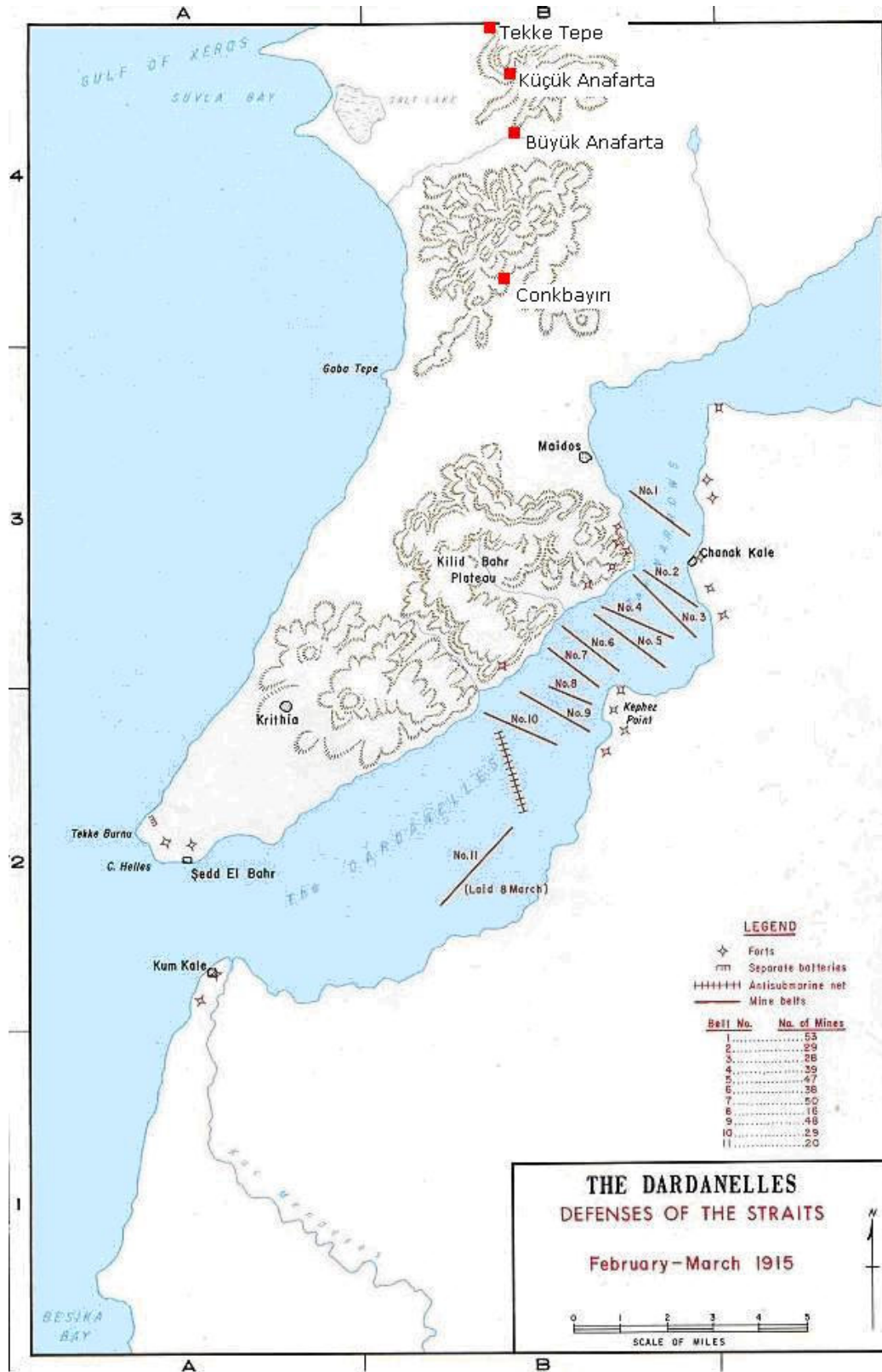
heavily many times. On March 18 in 1915, the Allied forces tried to pass the Straits but confronted mine fields and hidden guns of the Turks. A final effort of the Allied forces resulted in the sinking of several of their ships. Meanwhile, France agreed to send a division to the Gallipoli Peninsula, while the Anzac troops were brought from Egypt. On 25<sup>th</sup> of April seventy-five thousands Allied forces tried to land on the Gallipoli Peninsula, while a French division prepared to land on the Asiatic side of the Straits (Travers, 965-66). On the same day, the French landed on Kumkale, the British troops landed on Seddülbahir, and the Anzac troops landed on the Anzac Cove.



**Map. 8.1:** Certain locations on the Gallipoli Peninsula (Travers, 969)

One day after the landing, on 26 April 1915, the Allied forces captured Seddülbahir Village and the Turkish troops retreated (Moorehead, 142).

Nevertheless, the soldiers of the Allied forces were exhausted. Therefore, they stopped marching inland two miles after reaching Seddülbahir. Since they could not go any further on the southern part of the peninsula, the Allied forces launched another landing in Anafartalar on 7 August 1915. However, when Mustafa Kemal captured Conkbayırı and Tekke Hill on 10 August, the conclusion of the war was already clear: The Allied forces were defeated. All of the further fights from that time on proved the defeat (Moorehead, 265). The August conflicts resulted in 45 thousand allied dead. Just as a British General, General Godley reported, “their only achievement was 8 square miles in the Gallipoli Peninsula” (Moorehead, 267). The withdrawal of the Allied forces began in 19 December and concluded in 9 January at 3:45 p.m. It was the first point of attacks; Seddülbahir was also the last evacuated place on the peninsula (Moorehead, 321).



Map. 8.2: Tekke Tepe, Anafartalar, Conkbayırı.

(<http://www.dean.usma.edu>)

Both the Seddülbahir castle and the village were damaged badly during the war. The photographs, which were taken before and during the war, reveal the devastation that the castle experienced. Particularly the North, Northwest, West Towers, entrance gate or Bab-1 Kebir, barracks in the upper fortress were heavily damaged by the artillery fire (Thys-Senocak 2006: 25). Structures, which were located in the interior of the castle, were harmed, as well.



**Image. 8.1:** Seddülbahir Castle in the 19<sup>th</sup> Century (**Fahreddin Paşa Collection, IRCICA Istanbul**)



**Image. 8.2:** Seddülbahir Castle during the WW1 (**Imperial War Museum**)





**Image. 8.3:** Seddülbahir Castle during the WW1 (Imperial War Museum)



**Image. 8.4:** Seddülbahir Castle during the WW1 (Imperial War Museum)

As the Ottoman Empire was abolished in 1920's, Thrace and Constantinople were taken back by the new forces of Anatolia and a new assembly was established under the command of Mustafa Kemal in 1923 (Kramers, 199). By 1924, all the members of the dynasty were exiled so that the old Islamic-based ruling system was abandoned completely and 'the brand new' state chose its title as the 'Republic of Turkey'. Controlling the Dardanelles was much more than a local matter during the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Parry, 12). There were many international agreements with the level of Turkish control over the Straits. The first agreement that regulated the passage

through the Straits was the Lausanne Treaty, which was signed in 1923 by the representatives of England, France, Italy, Japan, Greece, Romania, Bulgaria, Portugal, Belgium, Soviet Union and Yugoslavia. It led to the international recognition of the ascendancy of the Turkey Republic. According to this treaty, “the transit and navigation of commercial vessels and aircraft and of war vessels and aircraft in the Straits in time of peace and in time of war shall henceforth be regulated by the provisions of the attached annex:

“Not only were merchant ships to be permitted to pass freely in time of peace and in time of war, subject only to the condition that if Turkey should be a belligerent the vessels would not give aid to the enemy, but warships as well were to be given free passage in time of peace, subject, but to restrictions as to numbers. Even in time of war warships were to have free passage, if Turkey was neutral, provided they did not perform any hostile act; and if Turkey were a belligerent they might pass if they were themselves neutral.” (Fenwick, 703). By this treaty, the ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire was formally set aside and the control of Turkey over the Dardanelles was weakened by demilitarization, which meant, no fortifications or military establishments might be built, on either shores of the Straits and the Bosphorus. The protection of Turkey depended on the decisions of the Council of the League of Nations (Fenwick, 703).

Nevertheless, Turkey found this article as a threat and required the remilitarization of the Dardanelles to protect İstanbul, which resulted in the Montreux Treaty, signed in Switzerland in 1938. The limited rights of Turkey were changed to unlimited regulations for her and complete control of the Straits was given again to Turkey. Accordingly, “...states should give a month’s notice of their intention to send warships through the Straits, that such passage should be by day

and for courtesy visits only, that submarines should be prohibited, and that the tonnage of warships in the Straits at any one time should not exceed 28,000 tons. During a war, if Turkey were neutral, the same rules would continue to apply to both belligerents and non-belligerents, while if Turkey were belligerent, passage would depend on Turkish authorization” (Towle, 122). The treaty of Montreux is still the guiding legislation for the control of the Dardanelles.

## **Chapter 9**

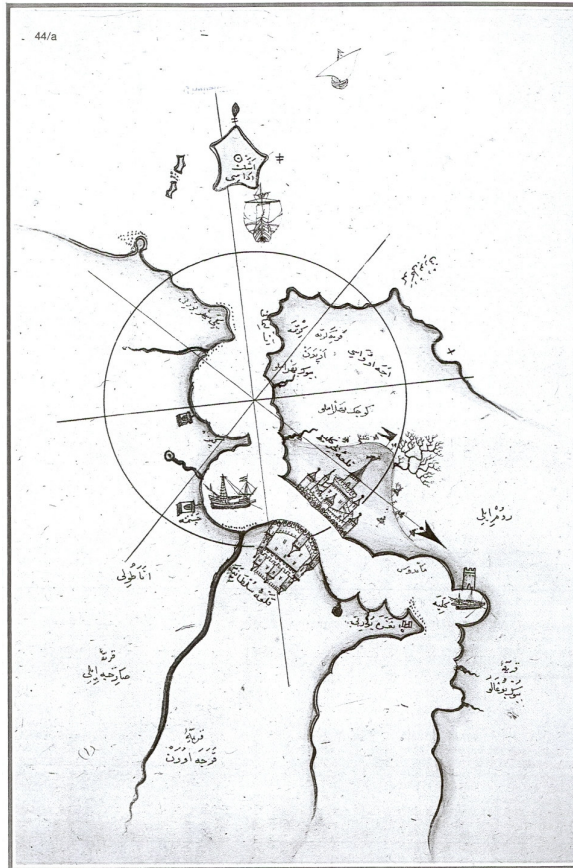
### **SEDDÜLBAHİR CASTLE:**

#### **ARCHITECTURE AND ARCHAEOLOGY**

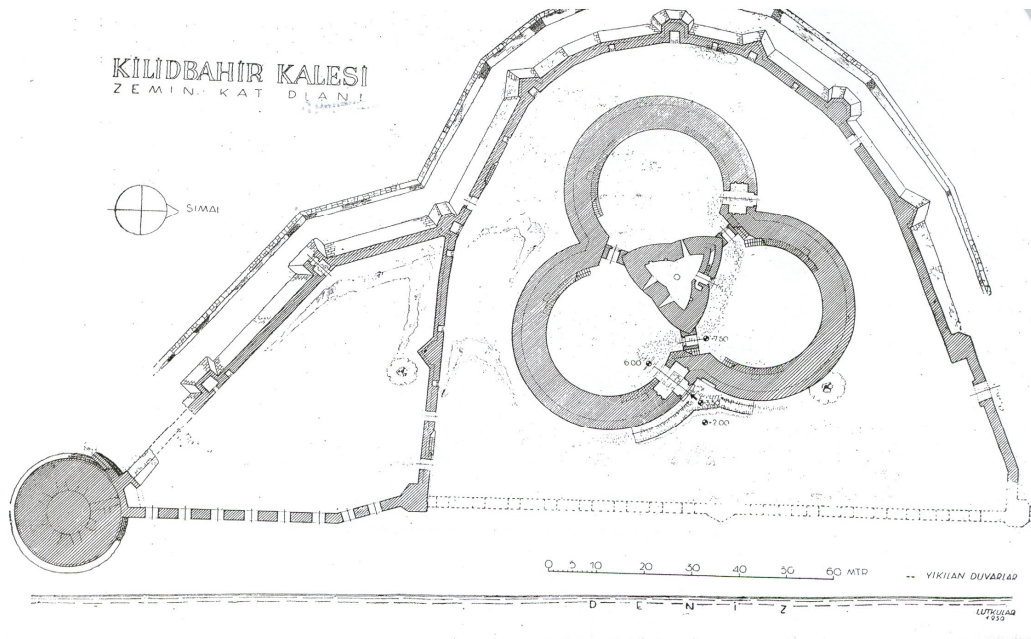
##### **9.1. Construction and History**

The fortress of Seddülbahir is situated at the tip of the Gallipoli Peninsula, at the entrance of the Dardanelles (Thys-Senocak 2000, 155). Since the castles of Kilitbahir and Çanakkale were insufficient against the Venetian attacks during the long war over Crete, the construction of the Seddülbahir Castle was initiated by Hatice Turhan Sultan, the mother of Mehmet IV, in 1658 along with the castle of Kumkale on the opposite side of the Straits in order to prevent the invasions of the Venetians (Thys-Senocak 2006: 108). Because of the intensive invasions that put the Dardanelles and Istanbul in danger, these construction activities were essential to avoid more complicated and dangerous situations. Even though we know that numerous employees worked in the construction of these castles, we do not know the head architect of Seddülbahir. It can be assumed however, with some certainty, that the architect of this castle was ‘Mustafa Aga’, as he was the chief Palace architect in the time that the castles were built (Thys- Senocak 2006: 164).

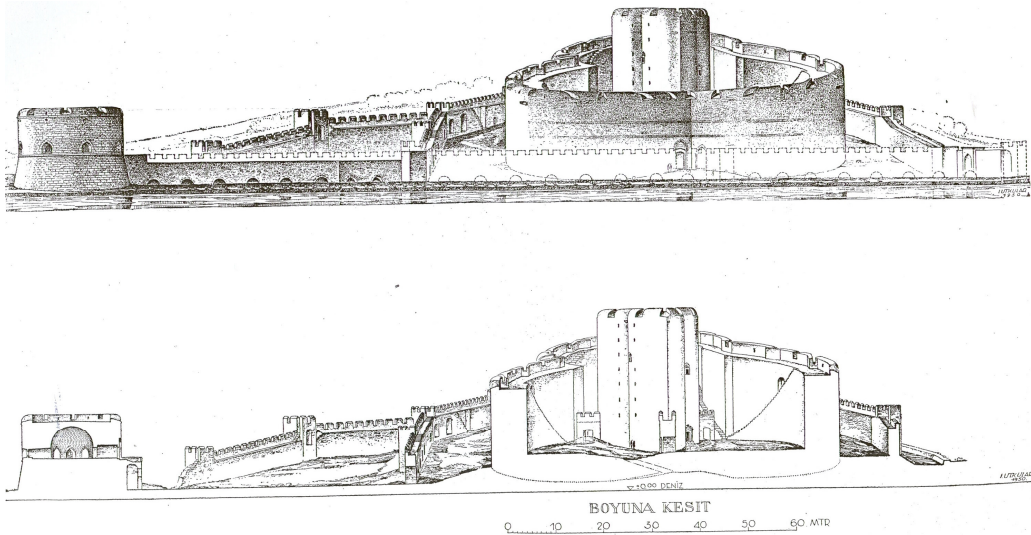
In the same period of building Seddülbahir and Kumkale, the castles of Kilitbahir and Kale-i Sultaniyye were repaired at enormous costs. Besides protecting the heart of the Empire, the two outer fortresses stood as representations of the power and the patronage of Turhan Sultan (Thys-Şenocak, 2006: 109).



**Image 9.1.** Kale-i Sultaniye and Kilitbahir Castles (Piri Reis, 44/a).



**Image 9.2. Kilitbahir Castle Plan (Utkular, 28)**



**Image 9.3. Kilitbahir Castle Cross Section (Utkular, 30)**

According to the vakfiye (foundation charter), now in the Süleymaniye Library, each castle, Seddülbahir and Kumkale, included a mosque, a double-bath, a school, and houses for the soldiers and shops. There are no definite descriptions of the location of these early constructions in the vakfiye. Most probably, some of them were made of wood so that they deteriorated through time, although we learn that the

mosque was “kagir”<sup>28</sup> at least in the 18<sup>th</sup> century (Kaletakımı, 6). Evliya Çelebi recorded that there was a very deep and wide ditch just in front of the western facade of the castle which he claim was so frightening for people to look into (Evliya Çelebi, 158). Beside the Ottoman sources, other information about the early phase of the fortresses was recorded by European travelers, diplomats and the engineers in both visual and textual sources. These conveyed that Seddülbahir was a crowded village in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. Guillaume Grelot, who traveled to the Ottoman Empire in the late seventeenth century, recorded a mosque, houses and “ruins of five water towers” (Grelot, 15-16). In one of the engravings of Grelot, the castle of Seddülbahir was called as ‘Chateau neuf d’Europe’ (The New Castle of Europe) (Thys-Senocak 2006: 8). Plantier and Combes, who were in charge of observing the condition of the Ottoman Empire in order to report whether it was conquerable or not for the Kingdom of France, made an engraving of the castle of Seddülbahir showing a mosque and houses. The drawings of these French engineers represent Seddülbahir Castle with seven towers. The two towers at the lower courtyard were round, while the others are polygonal, as they are today (Bilici, 155).

Another engraving from the 17<sup>th</sup> century, which is kept in Museo Correr in Venice, represents Seddülbahir Castle with seven towers, of which two are round and five of them are polygonal (Bilici, 156-57). In the course of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, Seddülbahir was essential to prevent efforts of the Russians from reaching the Mediterranean through the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles (Thys- Şenocak 2006: 14). The castle was damaged by earthquakes in the eighteenth century and the structure went through many renovations. These records are particularly significant

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<sup>28</sup> Stone building

in terms of the specific information they provide regarding information about the staff, repair dates and the materials used for repairs (Thys-Senocak 2006: 17).

The castle was also repaired in the 19<sup>th</sup> century by the Ottomans with the help of the French engineers in order to suppress Russian expansion into the Mediterranean (Thys-Senocak 2005: 142). As in the earlier periods, both Seddülbahir and Kumkale served the Ottoman and Turkish defense against various enemies. Both castles were significant during WWI and were severely damaged by artillery fire. During WWI, the French troops occupied Seddülbahir for eight months. After the withdrawal of these troops, the castles were returned to the Ottoman state. Seddülbahir Castle was a military station of the Turkish army until 1997. Kumkale is still a Turkish naval base (Thys-Senocak 2004: 3).

## **9.2. Archaeological Excavation, Restoration, Reusage Project at Seddülbahir**<sup>29</sup>

The comprehensive documentation of the Ottoman fortress of Seddülbahir is one main purpose of the “Seddülbahir Castle Survey – Restitution – Restoration – Reusage Project.” An earlier phase of the project also documented the fortress at Kumkale. Until the spring of 1997, the fortress at Seddülbahir was maintained as a Turkish naval outpost, but was vacated by the spring of 1997. The fortress at Kumkale is still operating as a naval base and is closed to the public. The Seddülbahir fortress is now being protected by the Directorate of National Parks and the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Environment and Forestry (Turkish Forest Ministry) along with the local gendarmerie in the Gallipoli national park.

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<sup>29</sup> The information below is taken from the web site of “<http://www.Seddülbahir-kumkale.org>”.



The aim of the project is twofold: first to document the existing remains of both fortresses by generating the geodesic maps and architectural drawings of the structures on the site; second to bring together a vast array of data such as repair records (*tamirat defterleri*) from the Ottoman archives, European and Ottoman historical chronicles, drawings, engravings and archival photographs from various libraries' collections in order to assess the architectural development of the structure and propose a plan for the conservation and restoration of the fortresses and adjoining Ottoman structures. As an addition to the project, an oral history of Seddülbahir and Kumkale was conducted in the 1999-2001 seasons. By 2003, the geodetic and architectural survey of the fortresses and their immediate environs; the GPS generated map of the Kumkale cemetery as well as an entire epigraphic documentation of all remaining 287 tombstones were completed. By 2006, the documentation, which is necessary to submit a conservation project for Seddülbahir was completed and approved by the Highest Monument Committee in April 2007 (<http://www.Seddülbahir-kumkale.org>).

The research for the survey and documentation project was initiated by Lucienne Thys-Şenocak from the Department of History in Koç University. At the preliminary stage of research, the survey was intended to last one to two years, and the aim was limited. An official protocol to facilitate the cooperation between the History Department of Koç University and Geodesy Division of Geodesy and Photogrammetry Department of Istanbul Technical University was signed in 1997. As the project continued, it became clear that there was a need for a thorough geodetic and architectural survey at both sites. A restoration project could be proposed for Seddülbahir Fortress and its site with the completion of the geodetic maps, the architectural drawings and illustrations of the fortresses. Consequently,

the project that began as a research project in 1997 has continued and developed in several new directions. As part of the preparation for the conservation and restoration project an entire laser scanning of the fortress of Seddülbahir was conducted in the 2005 season as well as preliminary excavations of several sections of the upper fortress. This was the first time a laser-scanning project of a large masonry structure has been conducted in Turkey. All the results of the laser scanning data have been processed and used to generate the plans, elevations and maps of the Seddülbahir conservation and restoration project (<http://www.Seddülbahir-kumkale.org>).

### 9.3. Physical Description<sup>30</sup>

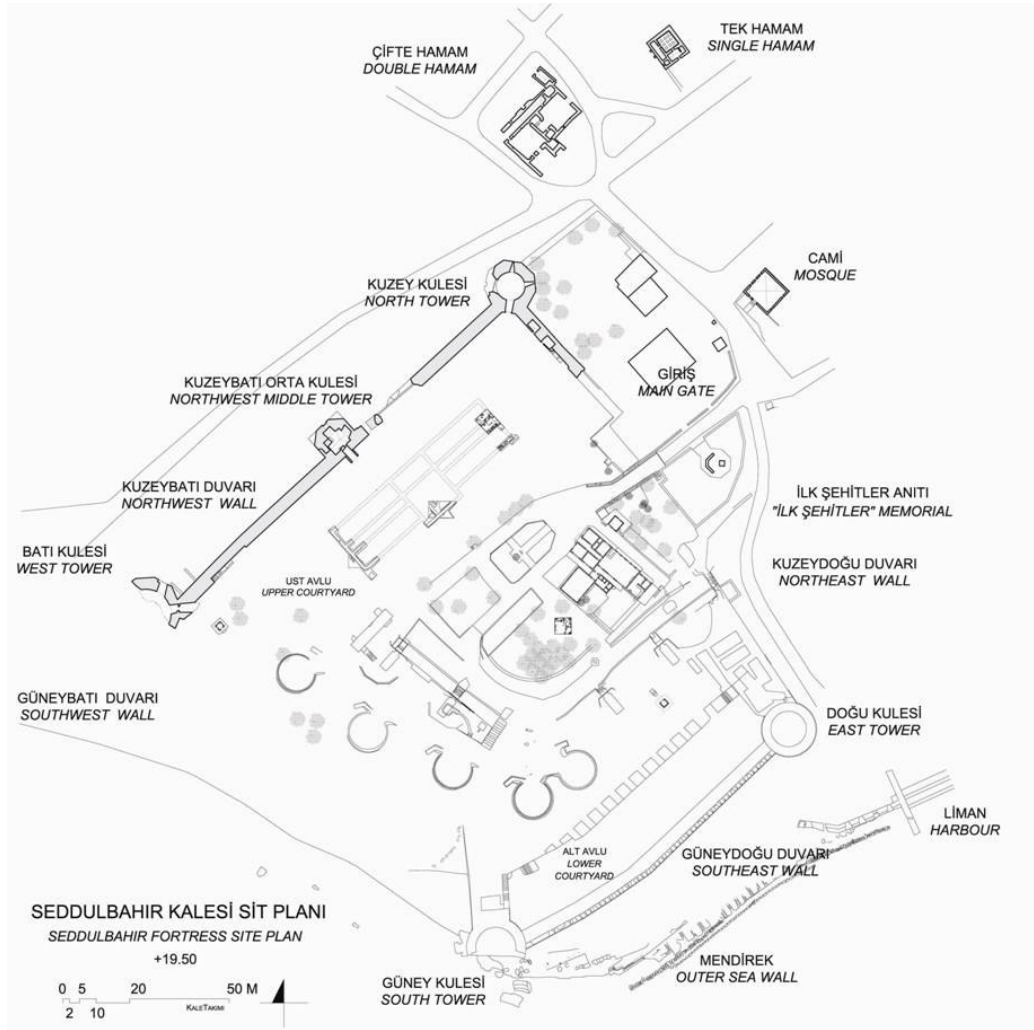
The Seddülbahir fortress has a rectangular plan, enclosing 23.940 square meters. The castle is comprised of two sections because of the topography: The upper courtyard and the lower courtyard. The southwest and the southeast facades of the fortress are oriented towards the sea, while the northwest and the northeast facades were oriented towards the land.



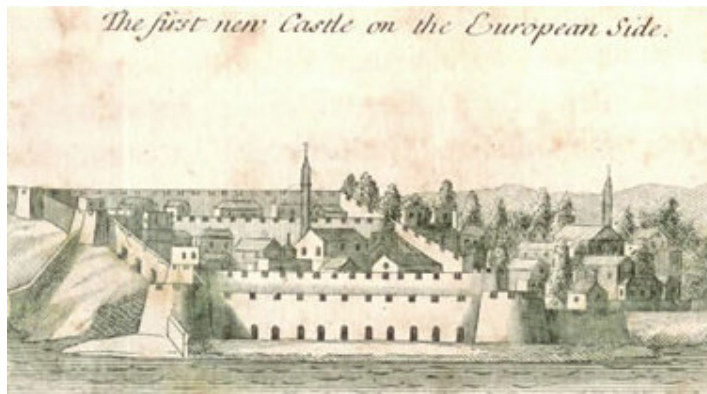
**Image 9.4:** Panoramic view of the castle of Seddülbahir (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)

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<sup>30</sup> The information that was used below refers to the unpublished report, which was prepared by the Kaletakımı, the team of the ‘Seddülbahir Castle Survey- Documentation-Restitution and Restoration Project’.



**Image 9.5:** The plan of the Seddulbahir Castle (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)



**Image 9.6:** An illustration of the castle dating to 1726. This engraving was made by P. Tournefort. The engraving indicates the southern façades of the fortress.

A lot of single storey buildings and a mosque were illustrated. **(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

The southwest and the northeast section of the fortress are the section of the fortress that were damaged severely. The walls enclose an area of 1300 square meters on the upper courtyard, which is 17.40 meters above sea level. The lower courtyard, which is at the sea level, encompasses an area of 1900 square meters.

#### **9.4. The Components of the Castle**

##### **Northeast Wall**



**Image 9.7:** The North side of the northeast wall, Upper Fortress **(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

This wall borders the northeast side of the fortress. The middle part of this wall was not preserved and it has partially collapsed. It is known that this wall used to include a main gate (The Bab-ı Kebir). Nevertheless, since it is in a very bad condition, it is not possible to understand the exact location of this gate, the tower and the adjacent wall. It was made of big, cut stones. The northeast wall is 43 meters long and its height is 8.50 meters. A plaster layer can be observed on the interior wall. There are also indications of sheep pens, which were attached to this place.

There are two *eyvans* and a stairway leading to the pathway at the top of this wall; this has now collapsed. On this side of this wall, is the present-day entrance to the castle with a temporary metal gate. At the west part of the gate, there are two *eyvans* inside the wall. One of them encloses an area of eight square meters, while the other one encloses an area of nine square meters. Both of them have vaulted entrances. The Northeast wall also has an inner staircase, which connects the wall- walk and the courtyard. The middle part of the staircase is in a relatively good condition compared to the upper and the lower parts.



**Image 9.8:** The present-day entrance of the fortress (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)

The lower section of the wall includes a gate from the late 19th century, which was closed in the post WWI era. This gate has two pilasters with capitals on either side. These pilasters are connected to each other with an arch. There are ‘moon-star’ ornaments on each side of the arch. Due to the the relatively undamaged condition and the different type of the stonework used for this gate, it can be assumed that this entrance to the fortress can be dated to the later 19<sup>th</sup> century.

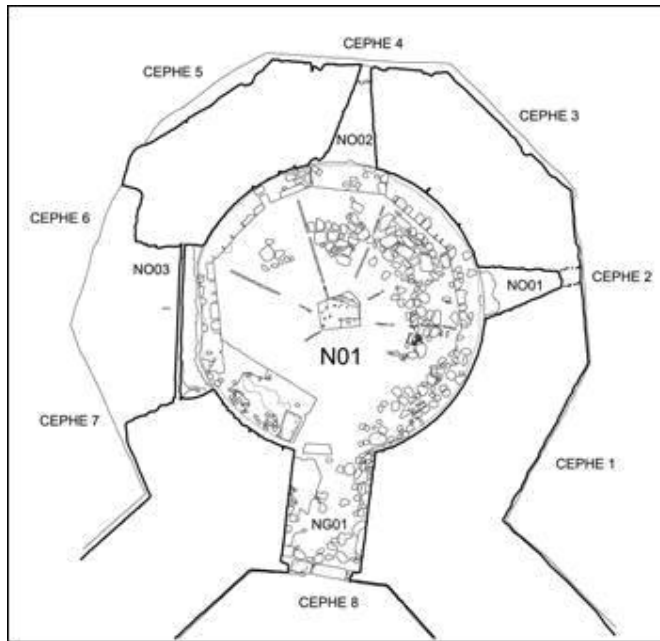
## **North Tower**

The North tower encloses an area of 67.50 meters square. The northwest facade was damaged heavily by the artillery fire during WWI. The ruined part was closed with bricks in recent years by the military. Wooden beams can be seen in the ruined part of this tower.

The interior of the North Tower has a dome that was constructed of wooden beams, cut stone and rubble stone masonry. The North Tower has an octagonal plan on the exterior. The interior tower has a circular plan. The tower also has a stone ledge, which encircles the inside of the tower. The dome and the walls have traces of soot probably because of fires burnt in the tower. Some limited archaeological excavation was conducted within the tower and will be discussed in the next section.



**Image 9.9:** North Tower. Exterior (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımi)



**Image 9.10:** The plan of the North Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)



**Image 9.11:** The North Tower, Northwest Middle Tower and West Tower. Exterior (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı).



**Image 9.12:** The North Tower. Interior (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)



**Image 9.13:** The exterior façade of the North Tower (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)

### **The Northwest Wall**

This wall constitutes the northwest side of the castle. It is 56 meters long and an average height of 11.30 meters. Like the North Tower, it was constructed of



wooden beams, rubble stone masonry, and larger cut stones. The central section of this wall was completely ruined and was later filled with temporary stones and barbed wire by the military.



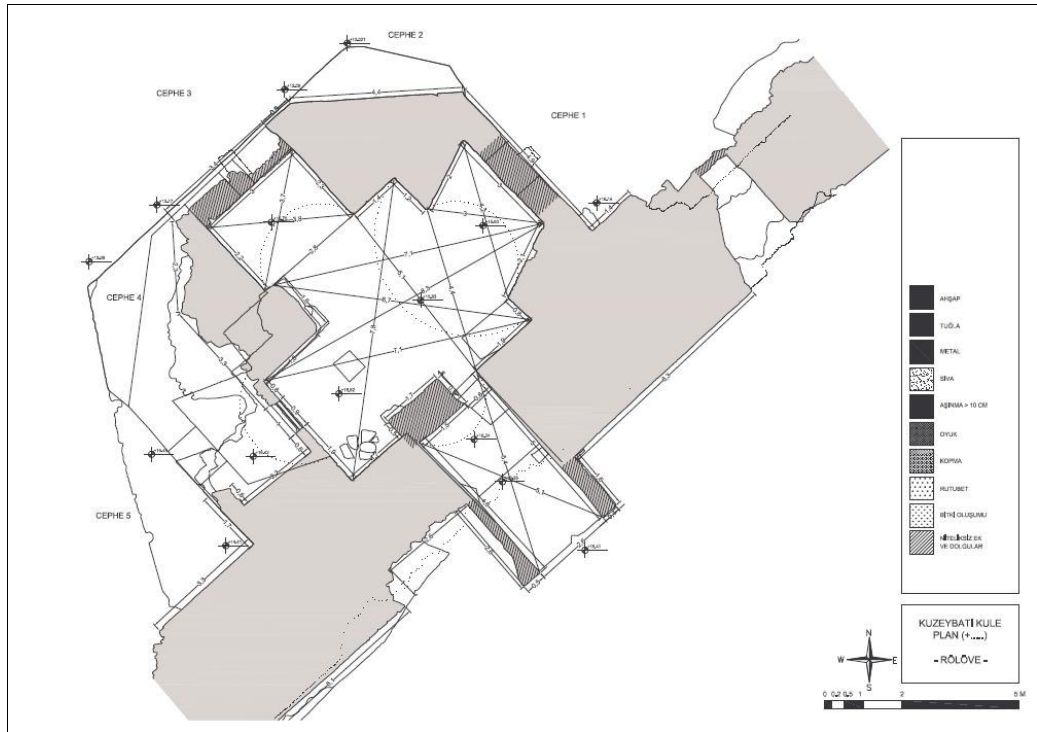
**Image 9.14:** Middle part of the Northwest wall, view from interior. Upper courtyard (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)

The outer façade reveal a partial deteriorated cut stone. The cut stone was covered with plaster. At the lower elevation of the façade, the interior wooden beams can be seen. In addition, the façade has gaps in the stone where the wooden beams were placed five in a row.

The inner courtyard façade of the wall also has a plaster with gaps in the mortars. This entrance was filled with rubble stones.

### **The Northwest Tower**

This tower has a rectangular plan and it was constructed with wooden beams, rubble stone masonry and larger cut stones. The structure has four eyvans inside. It encloses an area of 41 square meters. The elevation of the inner section is +15.63 meters.



**Image 9.15:** The plan of the Northwest Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)

There is a stone support structure attached to the outer façade of this tower. There are two separate stone mouldings on the outer walls of the façade and there are waterspouts just upon these stone mouldings, on the northeast and southwest façades of the tower. The tower has a window, now closed, on its northeast façade.

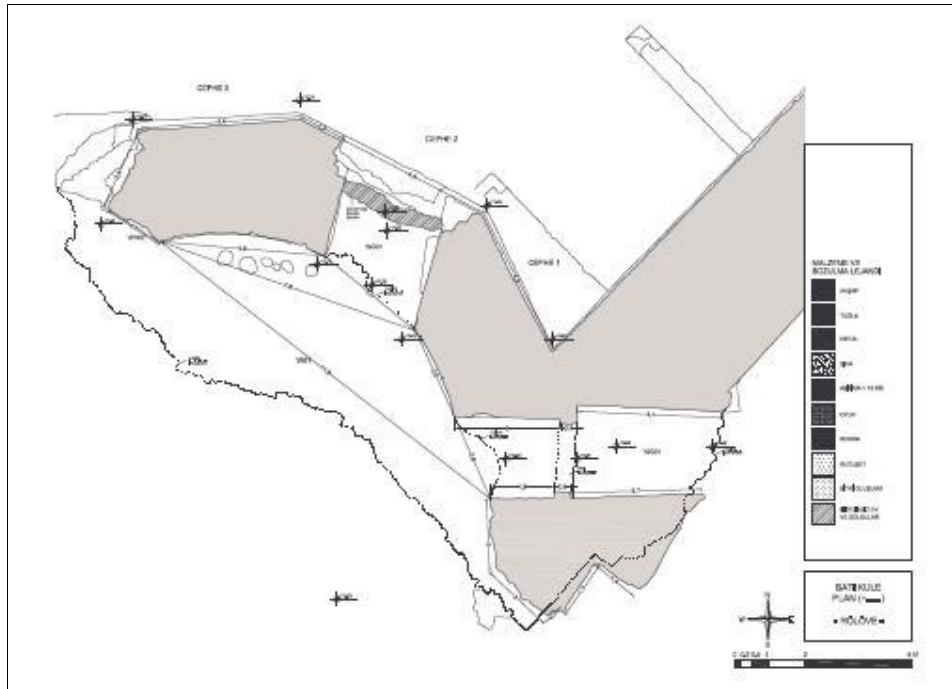
The upper part of the tower has completely collapsed. A temporary door was attached to the entrance probably by the military. There probably used to be an oven in the tower because there is a chimney at the center of the tower. The walls of the inner section of the tower have plaster and limewash. The floor was paved with concrete by the Turkish military.



**Image 9.16:** The Northwest Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakimi)

### **West Tower**

The West Tower has an octagonal shaped exterior, while it has a circular plan inside. The south, east and west facades of the tower are completely ruined. The vault of the tower is approximately 14 meters in diameter. No archaeological investigation was conducted because of the unstable condition of the structure.



**Image 9.17: The Plan of the West Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**



**Image 9.18: The view of the West Tower looking south (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**

### **Southwest Wall**

This wall would have bordered the southwest section of the castle, but no longer survives today. The existence of this wall was confirmed by archival photographic documentary for the post WWI era and certain sections of the rubble wall found in the field.



**Image 9.19:** The Southwest Wall during the wall from the upper courtyard, looking towards the southwest (**London Public Records**)



**Image 9.20:** The view of the castle looking towards west. (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)

### **Upper Courtyard**

The upper courtyard, which encloses an area of 15.000 square meters, is bordered by the northeast and northwest walls of the castle. There is a 15 meters difference in elevation between the upper and the lower courtyards. As mentioned, the entrance to the upper courtyard is located at the northeast wall of the fortress. A large stone barrack was erected at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, most probably during the reign of Abdulhamit II. The barracks were severely damaged during WWI and today the building no longer exists apart from its foundations. Part of this building was excavated by the archaeology team of the Kaletakımı during the 2005 season.

### **Lower Courtyard**

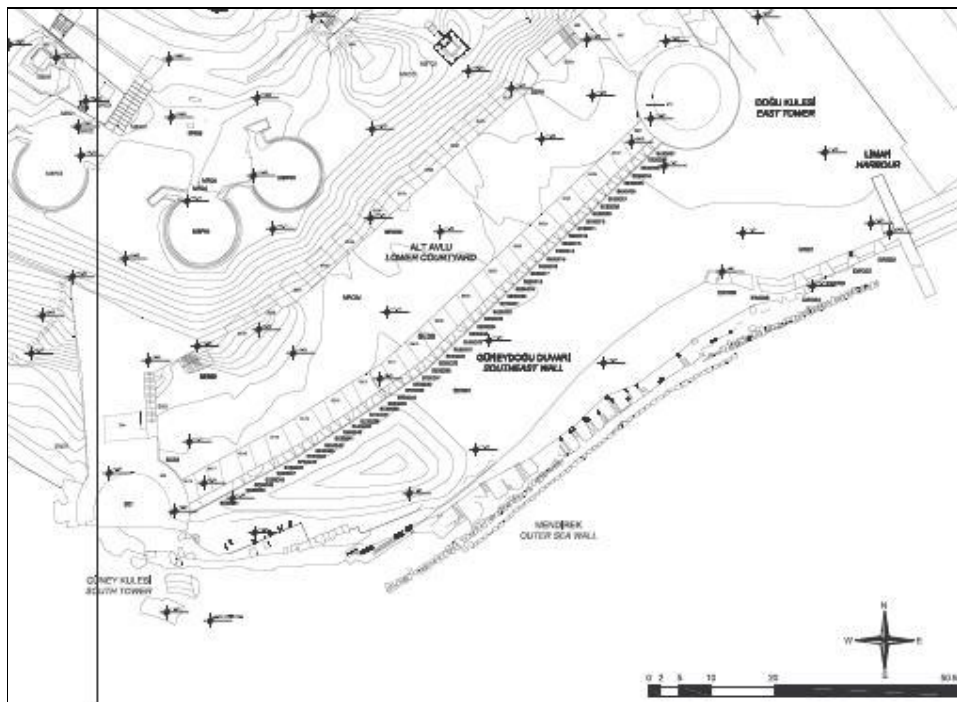
The lower courtyard, which is preserved much better than the upper, is located at the edge of the sea. This section encloses an area of 1540 square meters. In addition to the outer wall of the castle, there is an inner wall, which was composed of vaulted *eyvans*. This wall is on the northwest side of the lower section. At the western edge of these *eyvans*, there is a stairway of which the upper section is partially in ruins. Only three steps of it have remained intact.

The outer southeast wall is an average height of 6.5 meters. This wall has 16 vaulted passages, which support a wall-walk that stretches 96 meters and connects the two towers of the lower courtyard.

Since the outer wall is located at the edge of the sea, there is severe erosion, which has been caused by the salt and heavy wind from the sea. The towers located in the lower courtyard are referred to as the South and the East towers in the drawings.



**Image 9.21:** The view of the Lower courtyard (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)



**Image 9.22:** The plan of the Lower Courtyard (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)

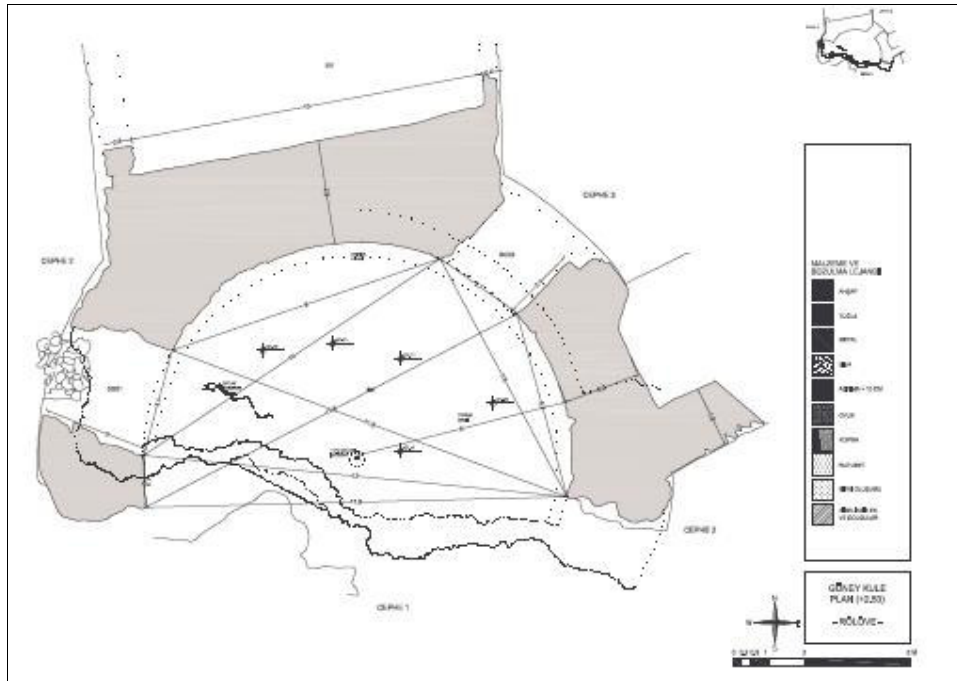


**Image 9.23: The Eyvans (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### **South Tower**

The south tower has a circular plan. The south facade of the tower has partially collapsed. It was 12 meters in diameter. In addition, the other facades of the tower are severely damaged. Since the structure sits on the south side of the fortress, it has been referred to by the name of the prevailing south wind, the Lodos, and is called the 'Lodos Tower' in Ottoman archival records. Severe erosion and salt damage can be observed on the walls of this tower. The tower, which is a two-story structure, encloses an area of 42 square meters. The second story has a wall-walk, a tunnel and a room connected to the other rooms in the tower with a stairway. The rooms were watch points, used as depots, prisons or accommodation for soldiers.





**Image 9.24** The plan of the South Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)



**Image 9.25:** The remains of the South Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)

### **East Tower**

The East Tower encloses an area of 91 square meters. It was built with wooden beams cut and rubble stones at the interior of the walls, which were covered with large cut stones. The diameter of the dome of the tower, which is completely preserved, is 12 meters. The interior of the structure is relatively well preserved, as well. Nevertheless, erosion can be observed on the outer wall of the tower and there is severe water damage in the upper part of the dome. The structure has two separate toruses<sup>31</sup> on its external façade.

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<sup>31</sup> Stone rounded band surrounding the structure





**Image 9.27:** The East Tower looking towards the west (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)



**Image 9.28:** The upper section includes a chimney, which is an indication of habitation purposes (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)



**Image 9.29:** The East Tower (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)

## **9.5. Archaeological Investigation within the Seddülbahir Project**

### **9.5.1. Introduction**

The archaeological fieldwork for the Seddülbahir fortress restoration project was conducted between June 15, 2005 and July 31, 2005 and 2006 seasons. The archaeology team, which was overseen by Nurten Sevinç from Çanakkale Museum, and Carolyn Aslan, from Koç University was composed of a field director, trench supervisors, a conservator, and a drawing specialist for artifacts. The team was assisted by eight workers from the village of Seddülbahir.

After the necessary permissions were taken from the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Environment and Forestry, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the Gallipoli National Park, the Çanakkale Archaeology Museum, and the Monument Preservation Board in Çanakkale, cleaning was initiated to make the fortress ready for the excavation. From the date the military evacuated the fortress up to 2005, the inside of the castle –both the courtyards and the interiors of the each tower- had a

huge amount of garbage and also weeds, bushes and trees which had grown up out of control and had to be cleared.

The site was closed to public access in order to create a safer environment for the working team. In order to store the equipment of the survey and the archaeology team, as well as a temporary location for excavated material one of the concrete structures built in the 1910's by the Turkish army was renovated. The place was suitable for use as a conservation lab as well, so it was also used for this purpose. After these initial tasks such as cleaning were completed, the work of measuring, drawing, and the excavation of specified areas of the fortress began.

#### **9.5.2. Choosing the areas to be excavated and the reasons**

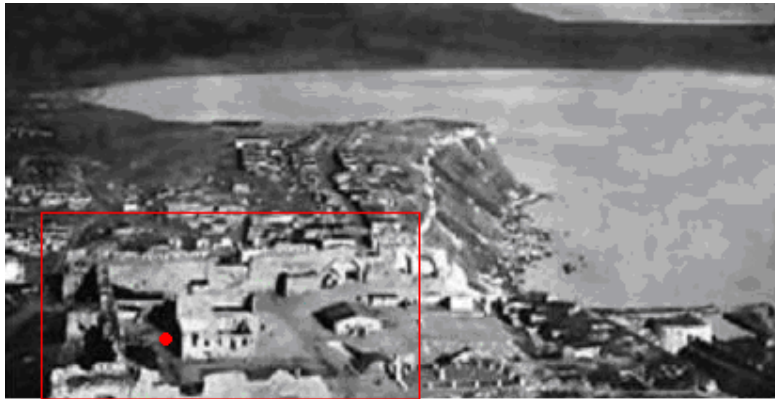
The locations were chosen to be excavated were,

- An area in the upper fortress in order to discover the depth and the plan of the foundations of the 19<sup>th</sup> century Ottoman military barrack,
- The interiors of the North and West Towers in order to discover the depth and the plan of the foundations of the towers
- An area, which is located to the south of the 1960's concrete military barrack in order to understand whether there were other structures, such as the mosque, which might belong to the pre 19<sup>th</sup> or pre Ottoman centuries. Several of the engravings of Seddülbahir revealed a small mosque in the upper fortress and so this area was selected for excavation.

The general purpose of the 2005 – 2006 excavation was to determine the plan of the earlier structures that existed on the site and to use the information in the restitution project.

### **Military barracks building**

#### **Excavation**



**Image 9.30:** The military barrack can be seen in the castle. This picture is from 1920s. (**Thys-Şenocak, 177**)



**Image 9.31:** The barrack before the war (**Property of Lucienne Thys-Şenocak**)



**Image 9.32:** The barracks after the war (**Imperial War Museum**)

The Project has an extensive photographic archive of the military barracks building, which was built during the reign of Abdulhamit II (19<sup>th</sup> century). In order to determine to the depth of the foundations and the plan of this structure, it was important to determine the scale of the structure. Running towards the northeast, 2 meters from the entrance of the barracks was a late Ottoman road, which is parallel to the J-11 / K-12 trench. The road, which was made of stone, is 3.30 meters wide.



**Image 9.33.** The Road (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı**)





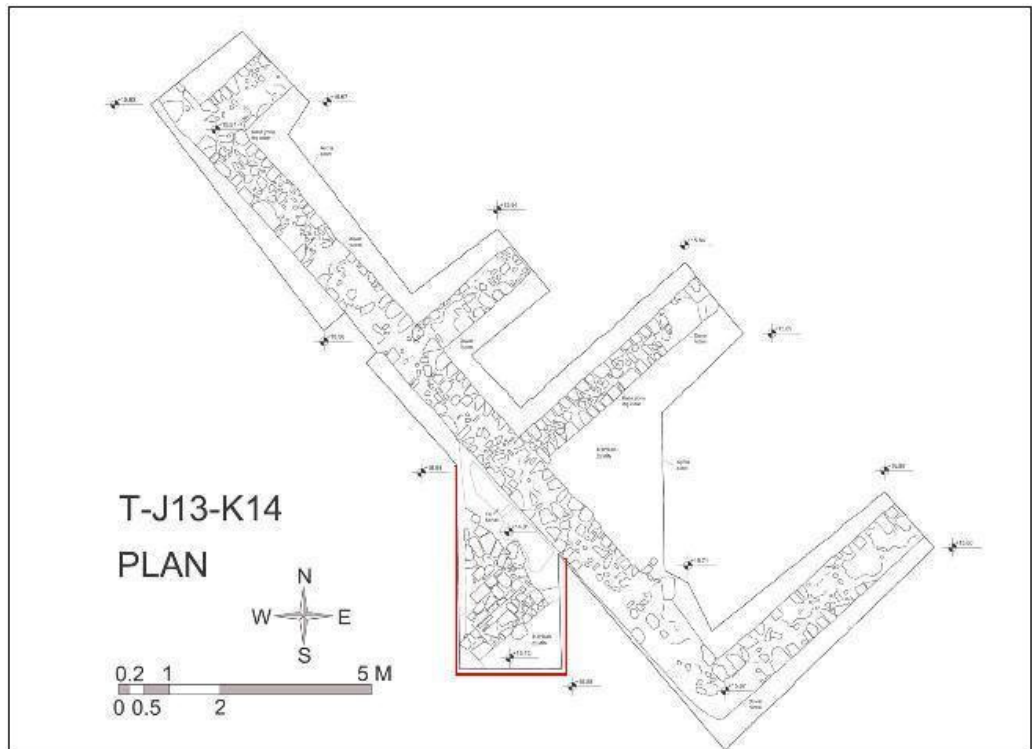
**Image 9.34:** Overall view of the area with the foundations of the barracks building visible. The upper courtyard. **(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

Much of the area, where the barracks was located, had been leveled by heavy construction equipment to be used as a football field during the past years by the inhabitants of the village; therefore, the northeastern part of the foundations of the building were damaged. However, determining the traces of the foundation was still possible. At the end of the excavation season, the football posts were removed from the field by the Kaletakımı and with the assistance of the local municipal officer. An alternative area must be found in the village for the inhabitants to play football.



**Image 9.35:** The traces of the Northeastern section of the building  
(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)

Only 19<sup>th</sup> Century Ottoman levels were encountered in this section of the fortress. A foundation wall of 2.02 meters was uncovered, which intersected with the foundation wall of the south wing of the military barrack (J-13 / K-14).



**Image 9.36** The Plan of the trench J13-K14 (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)

Another structure was uncovered which may be interpreted as a water channel. This channel may connect to a system located under the building. Nevertheless, further excavation is needed to determine its function.



**Image 9.37:** Water channel (?) of the central section (**Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım**)

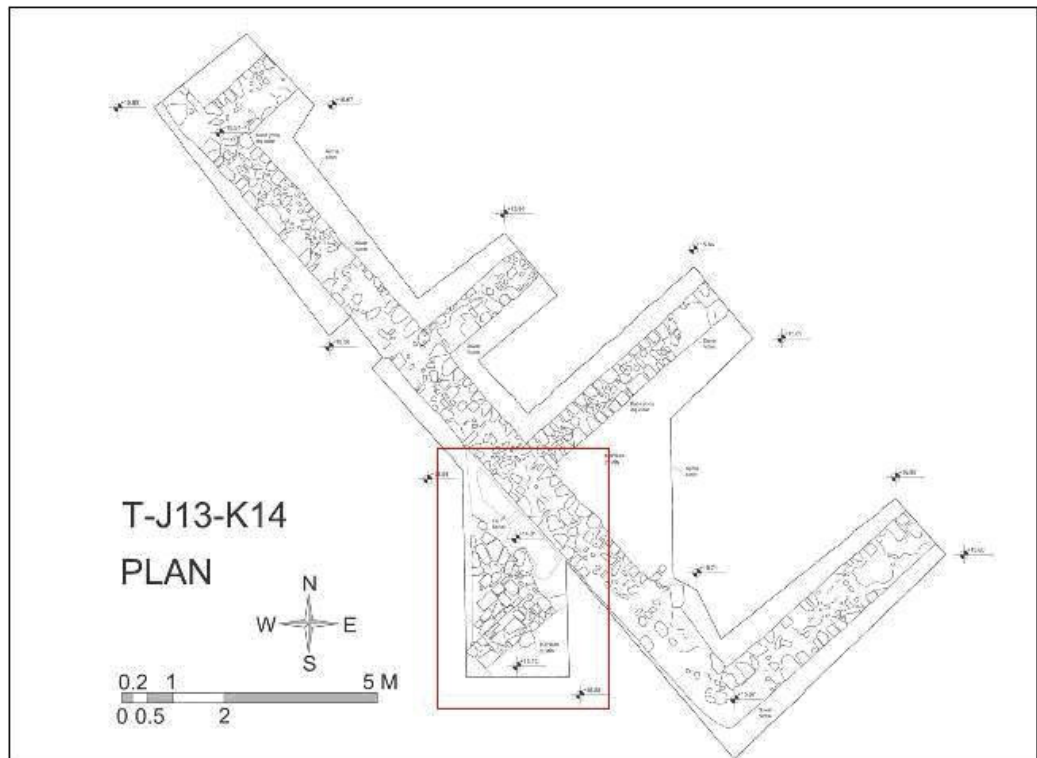
The results of the excavation of the upper courtyard were surprising in that bedrock was encountered at such a shallow surface level. Therefore, it was clear that the foundations of the military barrack were built into the bedrock. In the northeastern part of the fortress, the bedrock is located only 20-30 centimeters under the surface (L-M 15 trenches).





**Image 9.39:** The Bedrock Level of the central section of the military barrack (L – M 15) (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)

However, in the southern area (J 13 – K14), the bedrock is located about two meters under the surface.



**Image 9.40: The Plan of the Trench J13-K14 (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**

Although one earlier wall was found under the 19<sup>th</sup> century barracks building in the southern area, the ceramic evidence indicates that this wall is also from the late Ottoman period. No pre-Ottoman artifacts have been found at the site.

### **Towers**

In order to determine the depth of the level of the foundation and the original floor, excavations within the north and the northwest towers were conducted.

## Northwest Tower Excavation



**Image 9.41: The Northwest Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**

Because of the concrete floor, which was paved by the Turkish army most probably in the 1960's, it was problematic to excavate the floor of the tower. In addition, the tower was used as a pen for animals after the evacuation of the fortress by the Turkish army in 1997. The aim of the excavation in this area was to try to reach the original foundation level of the tower. After removing a part of the existing floor, the excavation proceeded to the depth of 2 meters and stopped here due to a possibility of destabilizing the tower. Therefore, the original floor level could not be identified. Approximately twenty four-cm. blockage and five cm. soil-sand layers were found under the basement.





**Image 9.42: The sondage in the NW Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**

#### **North Tower Excavation**

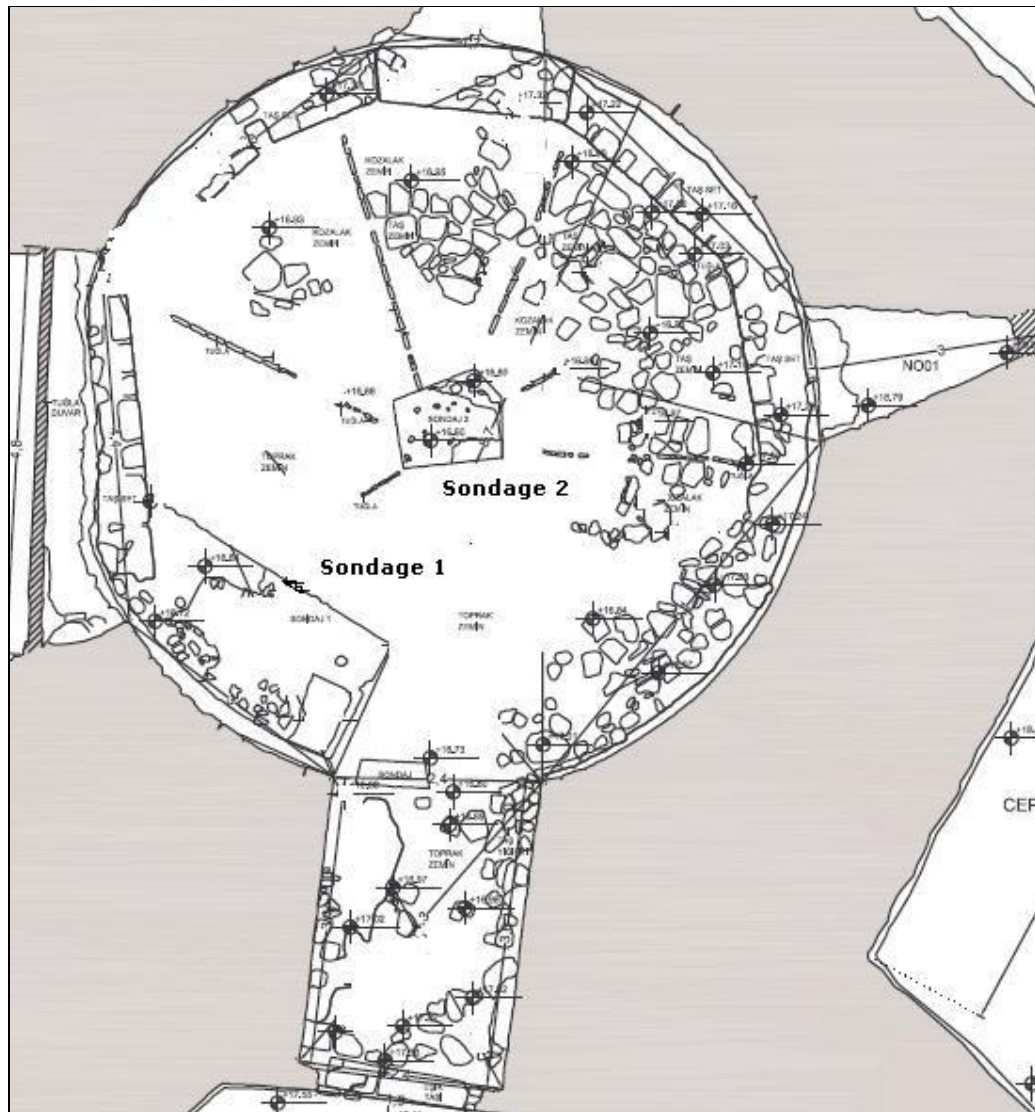


**Image 9.43: Outside façade of the North Tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**



**Image 9.44: The Gate of the N. Tower from the interior (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)**

Two sondages in the north tower were made with the same aim and because of the same risk, the sondages were excavated within a wider area rather than going deeper. Immediately below the surface of this tower's floor, an interesting decorated floor was uncovered. The floor was paved with inverted pinecones and bricks placed in a radial shape. Charcoal remnants were found during the archaeological soundings, as well. These remnants also explain the smoke traces on the wall of this tower.



**Image 9.45:** The sondages, the bricks in the radial shape and the fallen stones  
(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakım)



**Image 9.46:** Floor of the N. Tower which was paved with inverted pinecones and brick in a radial shape **(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**



**Image 9.47:** Floor of the N. Tower, which was paved with inverted pinecones and brick in a radial shape **(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**



**Image 9.48: Excavation within the North tower (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### **Central area**

This trench was excavated in order to figure out if there was a 17<sup>th</sup> century mosque or other structures at this location, as this type of building appears in the region of the fortress in 17<sup>th</sup> century drawings and 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century engravings. The depth of the trench reached only 0.86 meters because of the limited time.

No architectural remains were found, however, there were many stones that filled the trench and may be from a destroyed building in this area.



**Image 9.49: Fallen stones in the excavated area (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### **Roads and stairways**

Running towards the northeast, 2 meters from the entrance of the barracks was a late Ottoman road. The road, which was made of stone, is 3.30 meters wide. It was partly visible under the grass. Vegetation and accumulated deposits were removed from a section of this road. This road also connects to a staircase ascending to the top of one of the bunkers. This staircase was also uncovered.



**Image 9.50:** The Ottoman Road towards Northeast (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)



**Image 9.51:** The staircase on the bunker (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)

A section of the staircase leading from the upper fortress to the lower fortress area was uncovered to get an idea of how these two sections of the structure were connected and whether this original staircase could be reused. It was discovered that the original staircase is badly preserved and is unsafe. Another option to allow visitors to enter the Lower Fortress must be found.

### **Artifacts**

Most of the finds from the 2005 excavation were from the late 19<sup>th</sup> century or the early 20<sup>th</sup> century war time era. Ceramic finds, which dated mostly to the Ottoman era, constitute the largest amount of material. They are mostly coarse utilitarian wares with some late Ottoman glazed wares. Quantification and documentation of the ceramic assemblage was completed in the study season in 2006 and are currently being studied and prepared for publication.

Since the area is a military zone, the other finds mostly included World War I bullets, shrapnel, uniform buttons and small hand bombs. Certain potentially explosive ordnance was examined by the gendarmerie to determine if they posed any harm. A team of World War I archaeologists based in England and France was contacted. From this team, a trench warfare archaeologist from the London National Army Museum, David Kenyon, interpreted and made the classification of many excavated objects from the World War I period. He also advised us on the handling of the remnants of the hand bombs, which have been stored safely.

### **Çanakkale Wares**

Most of the ceramics found at the site are Çanakkale wares. This type of ware is the equivalent of 'Miletus Ware' in earlier times (Hayes, 268). It is one of a



number such wares (both local and imported) present in late Ottoman times, being distinguished by its decoration, which belongs to a folk pottery tradition. It was made in Çanakkale and it has circulated widely around the Ottoman Empire (such as Cyprus, Hatay, Tunisia...etc.). The Saraçhane finds showed that the wares extend back to the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century or earlier (Hayes, 268). The chief Çanakkale products prior to the late 19<sup>th</sup> century were flat-rimmed dishes and vertical-sided bowls.

Hayes, the author of the “Excavations at Saraçhane”, designates the early products with their elaborate floral patterns and varied rim decoration. Çanakkale wares also include the typical 19<sup>th</sup> century vessels, with strips of cross-hatching or the like on the rim, and simpler stylized floral, or else architectural motifs, sailing ships or the like.

Hayes also discusses the general features of the Çanakkale ware as follows: the Çanakkale ware is of a fabric fine and is light red or orange in color, in contrast to the brown and yellow tints of its chief rival in the area. A thick white to ivory slip, covers the whole of the vessel. Decoration is often in dark brown, but other colors may be used including purplish-sepia, orange-brown, red and blue, dark blue and white. Some of the earlier dishes have a deep brown glaze base to the decoration (Hayes 268). There are often a few accidental green spots. Rosettes and floral patterns were applied as decoration (Hayes, 270). The most common form is a large, shallow dish (ca. 22-23 cm. in diameter) with a broad rim. Often, there is a lattice pattern on the rim.

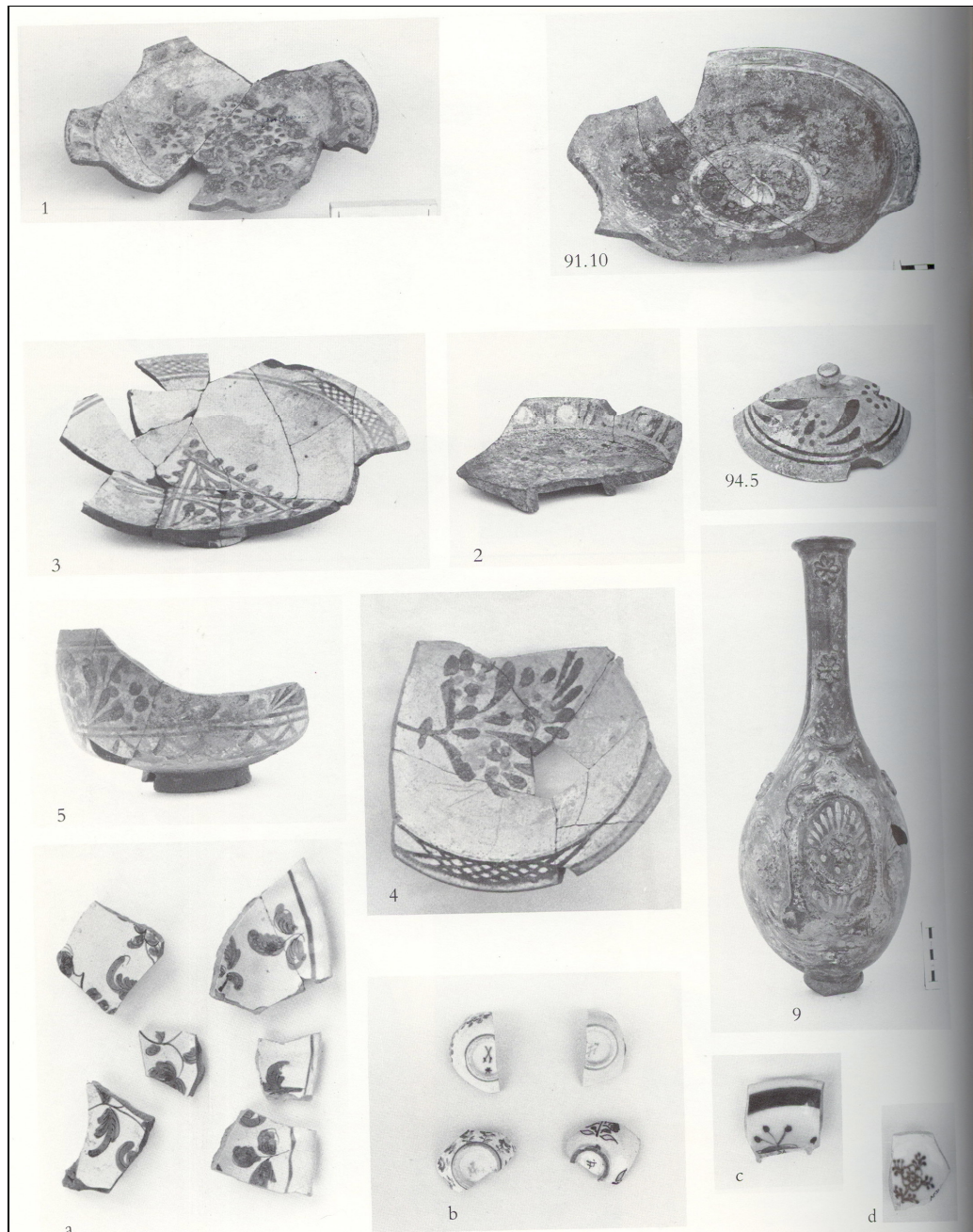
The origin of the ware was Çanakkale. The center was still active during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. The most successfully executed ceramics from Çanakkale

were created in the second half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century and the first half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Vroom, 183).

Other common ceramic finds are drip pattern bowls, which have drips of glaze running down the interior and on the lip of the bowl. Green glazed wares, especially jugs are less common, but do occur. Most of the ceramics are unglazed utilitarian wares, such as large jugs and jars. It is likely that most of these vessels were also made locally, but more study of the fabric needs to be completed.

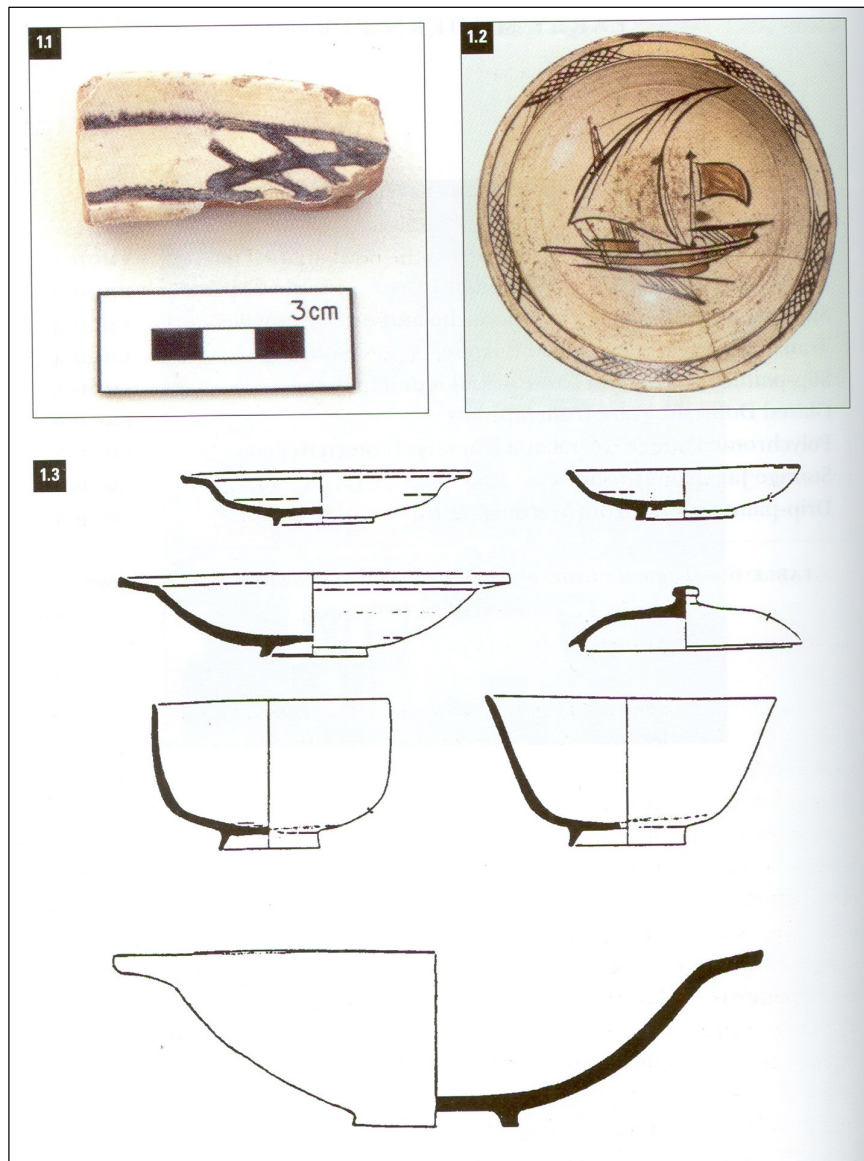
Fragments of red and white painted water jugs were found, which are still produced in the region (Tekkök).

The following images of ceramic finds from the Saraçhane excavation and the Seddülbahir excavation provide some comparative data for Çanakkale ware of the Late Ottoman era.



**Image 9.52: Çanakkale Wares – Late Ottoman fine wares from Saraçhane**

**(Hayes, plate 44)**



**Image 9.53:** Çanakkale Ware -19<sup>th</sup> – mid 20<sup>th</sup> centuries (Vroom, 180).

## Ceramic Finds from Seddülbahir

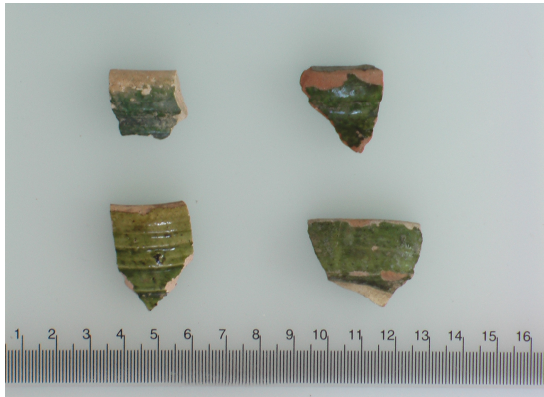


**Image 9.54:** Fragments of Çanakkale ware dishes from Seddülbahir

(Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)



**Image 9.55:** Fragments of drip-pattern bowls from Seddülbahir (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)



**Image 9.56: Green glazed jugs (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**



**Image 9.57: Unglazed jugs and jars (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**



**Image 9.58: Unglazed jars (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**



**Image 9.59: Red and white painted water jugs (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### **Pipes**

Several Ottoman pipes were also found at Seddülbahir. Vroom describes Ottoman pipes in a comprehensive way examining pipe from other excavation sites of the Ottoman world (173). They were produced from the 17<sup>th</sup> to the 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. Later ones tend to have reddish-orange fabric and they are highly polished. The bowls are decorated with stamps or with incised lines. 19<sup>th</sup> century examples often have small circular stamps indicating their place of manufacture. Some of these stamps can be seen at Seddülbahir, but they need further study.



**Image 9.60: Pipes found at Seddülbahir (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### **Metal finds**

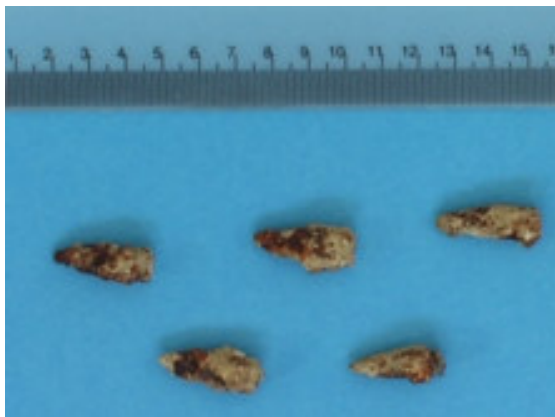
Most of the metal finds at Seddülbahir date from WWI. Large quantities of bullets, bullet cartridges and shrapnel fragments from bombshells were found. The bullets include French, German and British types. Metal pieces from military uniforms, such as buttons were also found.

### **Cartridges**



**Image 9.61: Cartridges (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### **Bullets**



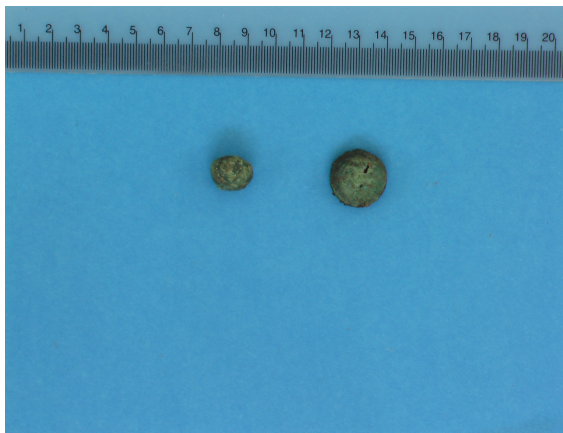
**Image 9.62: Bullets (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**





**Image 9.63: Bullets (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### Shell fragments



**Image 9.64: Buttons (Photograph courtesy of Kaletakımı)**

### Summary

- During the 2005 excavation season, the plan and the dimensions of the military barracks building were determined. Furthermore, it was clarified by the excavations that there is not any earlier level than the Ottoman period in the upper level of the fortress.

In most sections of the upper fortress, the bedrock is near the surface (20-30 cm. below the surface).

- In the future continued archaeological work at Seddülbahir should be conducted for the following reasons:
- More excavation is needed in the southern area of the upper fortress to investigate the earlier wall under the barracks building.
- More excavation in the middle area of the upper fortress is needed to see if there are remains there.
- The area around the Bab-ı Kebir needs additional excavation to determine the plan and extent of the foundations.

### **9.5.3. Ottoman Archaeology: The State of the Current Research**

Ottoman excavations like Seddülbahir are important not only in that they provide more information about the individual site of Ottoman fortress. These later Ottoman excavations also contribute to establishing the methodological approaches that are developing in the field of Ottoman archaeology as a whole.

Therefore, it is important to draw attention to a respectively new and improving area of the archaeology and make a comparison between the archaeological work of Seddülbahir Castle restitution, restoration and reuse project and certain other areas involved in Ottoman archaeology.

It is obvious that recently, the lack of interest towards the archaeology of the Ottoman Period no longer exists. There is an increased interest in Ottoman archaeology during the last ten years (Baram, Carroll, 11). For the past twenty years,

numerous archaeologists such as Glock, Kohl, Silberman, Baram, Orser, Seedan<sup>32</sup> (Carroll, Baram, 16) have been trying to improve the methodological approaches to Ottoman archaeology. Therefore, the amount of research in Ottoman archaeology has increased since the 1980s (Carroll, Baram, 16). Ottoman archaeology has started to be analyzed in the same contexts as historical archaeology, Islamic archaeology, Middle Eastern Studies archaeology and ethnoarchaeology (Carroll, Baram, 30- 40). The archaeological findings dating to the Ottoman Period give clues regarding many phases of the Empire. In addition, through the Ottoman archaeological remnants and objects, relation between the Ottoman Empire and the Western World can be investigated (Carroll, Baram, 40).

There are several Ottoman archaeological projects being conducted now. The excavation of the Demirköy Iron Foundry in Kırklareli, Türkiye began in 2001 and it continues under the leadership of A. Osman Uysal and Zülküf Yılmaz of Kırklareli Museum. The team is consisted of the members and the students of Çanakkale 18 Mart University, Trakya University, ITU Faculty of Architecture, Boğaziçi University Chemistry Department, Marmara University Faculty of Pharmacy, Anadolu University and Deutsches Bergbau-Museum (German Mining Museum, Bochum). Iron working in this area goes back to the Hellenistic and beyond to the Iron Age. The site consists of a square citadel with hexagonal towers at the four corners and the buildings that were destroyed by intense fire on several occasions.

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<sup>32</sup> - Glock, A. E. 1985. "Tradition and Change in Two Archaeologies". In *American Antiquity* 50(2): 464-477

- Kohl, P. L. 1989. London. "The Material Culture of the Modern Era in the Ancient Orient: Suggestions for Future Work". In *Domination and Resistance*. 240-245. D. Miller and C. Tilley (eds), Unwin Hyman.

- Silberman, N. A. 1989. New York. *Between Past and the Present: Archaeology, Ideology, and Nationalism in the Modern Middle East*. Anchor.

- Baram, U. 1996. *Material Culture, Commodities and Consumption in Palestine, 1500 – 1900*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

- Orser, C. 1996. *A Historical Archaeology of the Modern World*. Plenum Press. New York.

- Seedan, H. 1990. "Search for the Missing link: Archaeology and the Public in Lebanon". In *The Politics of the Past*. 141- 159. P. Gathercole and D. Lowenthal (eds), Unwin Hyman, London.

Among the structures are a huge stone-walled cistern, a standing building with barrel vaults, fabulous brick furnaces and a mescit with minaret. Sunken compartments outside the mescit wall were used to store iron powder.

(<http://cat.une.edu.au/page/demirkoy%20fatih%20demir%20dokumhanesi>).

Another Ottoman excavation site is Harran, 50 km south of Urfa, has been occupied since at least the Halaf period. It has been excavated since 1983 under the direction of Nurettin Yardımcı. Excavations have uncovered the Great Mosque complex built in 744-750 by Khalif Mervan II. Work on the settlement mound to its southwest revealed more narrow streets and courtyard houses containing Islamic occupation levels, below which were found layers of the first millennium BC. In addition, Halaf period remains, which resemble those from the nearby settlement of Kazane Höyük, were also found. A survey of settlement mounds between the township of Suruç and the Syrian border documented remains mainly of the Early Bronze and Iron Ages, as well as Roman and Medieval periods. In addition, mosques, *medreses*, *hans* are the architectural remanants belonging to the Ottoman period (<http://cat.une.edu.au/page/harran>).

The medieval settlement of Hasankeyf, southeast of Batman, is within the flood zone of the Ilisu Dam. Despite proposals to move the monuments, much will be lost when the dam is filled. Rescue excavations are directed by Abdülislam Uluçam of Selçuk University. Working in this site has revealed a 13th century AD mosque with a medrese, which has a courtyard of limestone porticoes with pointed arches and an inscription stating that it was constructed by the Emir Ali Bey. An imaret and the Zeynel Bey tomb were added by the Ayyubids and Akkoyunlus in the fifteenth century and the complex was further expanded by the Ottomans in the sixteenth century. Remains of plaster decoration from the walls of the first two phases of the

complex, including inscriptions, were also found. Excavation of another complex revealed an inscribed mihrab decorated with fine stone carving featuring muquarnas and vegetal ornament (<http://cat.une.edu.au/page/hasankeyf>).

Phokaia excavations also revealed a late Ottoman wall (<http://cat.une.edu.au/page/phokaia>).

Another site, which will be flooded by Ilısu Dam, is Ziyaret Tepe in Diyarbakır. The site has been excavated since 1997 by an international team under the overall direction of Timothy Matney. It covers 32 hectares and consists of a high mound and lower town. The lower town includes Islamic remains. The top level is Ottoman (mid 19th century). Oval, circular and rectilinear walls were built from medium and small stones and mud. The team uncovered a few finds included a clay disk with hole, stamped Arabic writing and fired clay pipes (<http://www3.uakron.edu/ziyaret/season.html>).

In addition, *lüle* (pipe) and various shells were uncovered in Edirne Yeni Sarayı (a palace from 15<sup>th</sup> century in Edirne) excavation, which was initiated in 1999. New bastions were discovered (Cantay, 29-31).

One of the examples of Ottoman archaeological studies is a survey, which was conducted in Crete by Allaire Brumfield (Brumfield, 49). This survey exposed the history of the agriculture and the concept of land ownership. The remnants such as grain or olive mills, and the houses he found, showed the social strategies of the peasants. Another project by Ziadeh-Seeley conducted an archaeological excavation in Lebanon and investigated the housing style in the Ottoman Empire in the 16<sup>th</sup> century (Ziadeh – Seeley, 90-100).

The archaeologists of the Medieval Department at the Budapest History Museum carried out excavations at several spots in Buda. Between 1995-2000,

ninety-nine different locations were excavated. Archeologists discovered that town walls were built round the suburbs of Buda as early as the fourteenth century. They exposed the gates of this wall and discovered that the character of the large area of gardens did not change during the Ottoman occupation. The archeologists also exposed a tower dating to the late fifteenth century. By making this tower, the creator of the tower was attempting to develop the defensibility of the town walls (Bencze, 56).

An Ottoman defense work in Western Hungary was uncovered attached to a medieval palace. The defense system has a moat, which divides the royal complex structure from the town. On the basis of these excavations, vertical and horizontal timber structures were found. This is a characteristic feature of every Turkish fortification in Buda (Magyar, 68). There is a vaulted room with five windows nearby the semicircular work. The windows were probably designed to replace the earlier gun loopholes (Magyar, 71). The 'Golden Bastion' on the opposite side of the castle had also a 'Vizi Kapu' ("Water Gate") which is called 'Su Kulesi' in Turkish. Although it was not shown on earlier engravings, two carriageway routes leading from the Su Kulesi are still visible (Magyar, 72). The investigations of the inner part of the bastion exposed earlier remains within the walls. One of these was a paved road from the Ottoman Period with the remains of an earlier one from the late Medieval Period (Magyar, 73).

In Hungary, the town called Esztergom has a number of Ottoman constructions of which detailed architectural reports can be searched. Comparisons could be made with Seddülbahir Castle in terms of analyzing the sixteenth and seventeenth century Ottoman military buildings since there are structures there that have round towers and thermal baths. (Horvath, 75-87).

Coming to Istanbul, the comprehensive excavations at Saraçhane exposed a wide range of ceramic collections from the Late Roman up to the Ottoman Period including coarse wares, fine wares, pipes and glasses. As Hayes reported, pottery of the Ottoman Period is present in great quantities. During the excavations, 355 Byzantine and 881 Ottoman specimens were found. Most of the finds come from fifteen early Ottoman pits, which present an outline of the wares and types from 1500-1650.

Finally, the dendrochronological studies of Peter Kuniholm examined numerous structures belong to the Ottoman Empire. The studies of Kuniholm included Kilitbahir Castle, as well and he confirmed that the castle was built precisely in 1462 (Kuniholm, 125). As there are several oak between in the walls of the Seddülbahir Castle, dendrochronological work would be important to conduct at the 17<sup>th</sup> century features in future conservation studies.

## **Chapter 10**

### **CONCLUSIONS**

The Gallipoli Peninsula is a special location not only in terms of what happened in the First World War, but also in terms of the richness of the cultural heritage created by various cultures in different time periods. The aim of this thesis was to gather all the data referring to the peninsula, drawing the attention of the public to the cultural heritage of the region and reminding scholars, particularly those who conduct research on Northwestern Marmara, Thrace and the Northern Aegean, that they also need to consider the Gallipoli Peninsula in their research.

As in most areas, the geography of the peninsula is an important factor in understanding the settlement patterns. Investigation showed that the southern part of the peninsula is much more convenient for settling than the northern part even though the northern part is easier in terms of access. It is noteworthy that ancient sources repeatedly comment that it is a fertile area, such as the quotes of Xenophon, “...a fair and prosperous country” (Xenophon, *Anabasis*, 5:6, 25) and Derkyllidas “...extremely fertile and good land” (Derkyllidas, *Hellenica* 3:2, 10). This must have been a strong incentive for settlements here.

Investigating the peninsula through the ancient writers provided information from ‘first hand’ sources. While Strabo stressed the geographical features of the region, most of the other ancient writers discussed the peninsula as background information, while they were conveying information about the wars in their periods. For instance, Herodotos informs the reader about Gallipoli mostly from the perspective of the Persian War. In addition, Thucydides mentions the Peloponnesian War and informs the researcher about the towns on the peninsula, the distances



between some of them, fortification walls on the peninsula, the economic conditions of the towns, etc. On the other hand, Strabo describes the mountains and the rivers of the region in a relatively detailed way and his primary concern is not the wars of the region.

Therefore, the ancient writers give significant hints regarding the peninsula in addition to the war stories of the region. While Herodotos expresses the details of the Persian War, the reader can also get information about the wall which was built by Miltiades against various enemies. The information concerning the wall can hopefully be used by archaeologists at some point. Furthermore, mentioning Miltiades as a “tyrant” who came from Athens tells the reader that the peninsula was ruled by the tyrants whose main base was Athens. By having this information, it can be understood that there was a colonization movement from the mainland of Attica towards the peninsula. This data leads the researcher to believe that there should have been certain reasons for neighboring areas to establish new colonies on foreign lands. Colonization movements give occasion to certain sociological, geographical and economical phenomena. Thus, the ancient texts convey unquestionably valuable data regarding the peninsula.

Since there is no textual data earlier than Homer for this region, information regarding the prehistory of the peninsula is a much more difficult path for the researcher. However, thanks to the survey projects conducted by Istanbul University, we have reports of certain habitation patterns. In addition, investigating the neighboring areas and comparing the results to the ones found on the peninsula, sheds more light on this period.

The survey project conducted by Istanbul University in 1982 exposed 57 sites and monuments of which 17 revealed prehistoric material. Certain lithic scatters

belonging to the Epipalaeolithic Period were found in Değirmenlik on the peninsula which are similar to those of the Bosphorus region (National Geographic Society RR 20:529) and are the earliest find group that has ever been found on the Peninsula. A persuasive amount of lithic assemblages with micro-blade industries without alliance with pottery, were found at this site, as well. Furthermore, certain mounds were found on the peninsula during this survey. A recent investigation was conducted by Onur Özbek, who exposed a prehistoric glazed axe workplace on the northern part of the peninsula (Özbek, 2000, see pg. 44). Other researches noteworthy to be mentioned are the excavations run by Schliemann and Demangel. Since they are the only excavations from the prehistoric period, their reports conveyed significant data regarding this period of the Chersonese.

Yet, the prehistoric era of the Gallipoli Peninsula is one of the least known periods. Although there has been some research, it is impossible to put forward an undivided chronological sequence. Therefore, this period of the peninsula needs a comprehensive and detailed investigation/survey and excavation. Since Karaağaçtepe offers 11 meters of prehistoric material deposit, and it was excavated before, it can be considered as among the most important sites for future excavation. In addition, Kilisetepe can be a good choice since it is the biggest mound on the peninsula and has a sequence from Kumtepe IB up to the Troy VI. Buruneren would also be a reasonable location for an excavation since it is located on the neck of the peninsula (possible the location of the migration of humans) and close to the significant sites of the Marmara region such as Yarımburgaz and Ilıca.

In investigating the Bronze Ages, the Early Bronze age site that is the most known from that period is from the excavations at Karaağaçtepe. There is surprising little evidence from the middle to late Bronze Age, despite the developed cultures at

Troia and in the Aegean. The early Iron Age is also completely unknown in this area. Clarifying the conditions in these time periods, through more surveys or excavation is vital.

The Archaic, Classical and Hellenistic periods are some of the most well known phases of the Gallipoli Peninsula in the textual sources. Thanks to the ancient textual sources, starting from the colonization of the isthmus, the towns and the socio-economic condition of the peninsula can be researched. There were multiple reasons for the colonization. Resources such as the rich supplies of timber in the Chersonese (Boardman, 237) and the opportunity provided by the grain trade from the Thracian Chersonese probably provided part of the motivation for colonization. The desire of the Greeks for routes to the Black Sea (Isaac, 166) and the strategic position of the peninsula was another major factor. Nevertheless, because of this strategic position, the peninsula went through endless wars in different times. Various states tried to take the control of the Chersonese such as the Persians, Athens, Sparta, and Gallic tribes. These wars were interrupted when Alexander invaded the peninsula, for a relatively short time.

Nevertheless, perhaps we would not have so much information if these wars had not happened; the ancient writers conveyed information regarding the peninsula mostly through describing these wars. Herodotos' tribute list is a great help, as well, since it lists the tributes made by the towns to the Delian League. Some archeological remains such as sarcophagai, steles, and inscriptions were uncovered from different locations. Coins are significant sources for specific data regarding the towns, trade and the relations between other regions, as well.

Since there is relatively more data about these periods, the probable locations of the towns also can be researched through excavations. The excavations conducted by the French at Eleaus indicate the importance of this site.

After the death of Alexander and the invasions of the Gallic tribes, the wars went on between the successors over the peninsula. In the course of the Roman Period, the Thracian Chersonese was again a battlefield between the Thracian and the Romans. During the reign of Augustus, the wars were interrupted and the Thracian Chersonese was acquired by Augustus as a private landholding, which was passed from Agrippa as an inheritance and it remained imperial property from that time on (Broughton, 219- 220). The Chersonesos was ruled with a special status as an Imperial estate (Sayar 1993, 130). In the 70s AD. Vespasian established a new colony called Flaviopolis.

The Hexamillion, which is a wall stretching across the Gallipoli Peninsula, was recorded by the ancient sources for the Roman Period. The Anastasian Wall Project researched this wall and exposed certain parts of it.

In the Byzantine Period, the Hellespontine area still had a profound strategic value. It is known through the ancient textual sources that Justinian built 199 fortresses in Thrace. In addition, a town called Kallipolis is known from this period. Kallipolis was a suffragan bishopric<sup>33</sup> of Thracian Heraclea in the late antiquity. It is known that this town was the base for the expedition of the Crusaders. In the thirteenth century, the crossing location of the Straits shifted to Lampsakos-Kallipolis rather than Abydos and Sestos.

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<sup>33</sup> subordinate to a metropolitan bishop

The Byzantine Period is one of the most important and least known periods of the Chersonese. There is little in terms of archaeological remains. Some Byzantine remains were exposed during the excavations of Karaağaçtepe and we have some coins and ceramic finds from this excavation. Therefore, Karaağaçtepe would be interesting to excavate for the Byzantine Period, as well as earlier periods. In addition, the vicinity of the Hexamillion can be excavated.

The Ottoman Period is one of the best-known periods of the Chersonese since it is a closer time period closer to our era. Being aware of the significance of the peninsula as a strategic location, the Ottomans conquered and used the Gallipoli Peninsula as a base for their further European invasions. The Gallipoli Peninsula was the site of numerous battles in the Ottoman Period, as well. The wars were mostly between the Venetians and the Ottomans over the peninsula, mostly for control of the Straits and access to Istanbul. Because of these wars, certain fortresses were built such as Çanakkale, Seddülbahir, Kumkale, and Kilitbahir.

The First World War contributed to the end of the Ottoman Empire. Like in the earlier periods in history, because of its significant strategic position, the Gallipoli Peninsula was one of the places where the war was very violent. Seddülbahir was the first point on the peninsula to be bombed by the Allied forces in November (Moorehead, 27) and on 3 March 1914 and was the last evacuated place on the peninsula (Moorehead, 321). In order for people not to forget this phase of common history, various projects should be implemented on the peninsula such the establishment of better war and history museums, restoration of the fortresses and other structures.

For understanding both the Ottoman and World War I phases of the peninsula, the Seddülbahir project is very important. Established in the 17<sup>th</sup> century against the Venetians and used during the WWI as a significant defence point, the Seddülbahir Fortress is one of the most important structures on the peninsula. The interdisciplinary project that is researching the fortress recorded its current situation and offered important information through the archaeological excavations conducted within the fortress. Since it is a very special point of the Gallipoli Peninsula for its role during the First World War, the implementation of the restoration project is planned for the fortress in the future. Archaeological excavations like the one at Seddülbahir also contribute to on going understanding of the field of Ottoman archaeology.

Possible additional information about archaeological remains could be obtained through oral history and interviews with local people and expand upon the oral history work that was conducted by the Kaletakımı at Seddülbahir from 1999-2002. The designation of the peninsula as a military zone prevented scientific research for a long time. Nevertheless, the Gallipoli Peninsula can and should be researched now in many different aspects. Archaeological investigations will be the most important phase of this research. The main goal of those investigating the peninsula should be to expose the cultural chronology of the region and its connection with the adjacent areas in order to offer a relatively complete picture of its past. The peninsula may not offer big, outstanding remains comparable to sites such as Pergamon and Ephesus, but it will inform archaeologists and historians about very valuable aspects of the region's history, such as the cultural connections between the regions of the Balkans, Europe and Anatolia, Mediterranean, Aegean

and the Black Sea. Additionally it will increase the awareness of the public about their histories of this important region.





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