Dies academicus 2003

Keynote Lecture, Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. Manfred Korfmann

Troia in Light of New Research

(English Edition)
Impressum

General Editor: The President of Trier University
Editor and Design: Heidi Neyses, Head of the press department
Typography: The technical department of Trier University
Printed by: Johnen Druck
Photos: Institute for Pre- and Protohistory and Archaeology of the Middle Ages, Tübingen University
Cover photo: Gebhard Bieg, Tübingen

The German original of this offprint is edition 2/2004 of the Series: Reden an der Universität Trier. (ISSN 1611-9754)

English translation: Joan Clough, Munich (Keynote lecture)
William Aylward, Madison, Wisc., USA (Presidential address)
Reden an der Universität

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12. November 2003

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Contents

Introduction to Dies academicus, 12 November 2003, the President of the University, Prof. Dr. Peter Schwenkmezger .............. 5

Keynote lecture, Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. Manfred O. Korfmann, Institute for Pre- and Protohistory and Archaeology of the Middle Ages, Tübingen University, Troia in Light of New Research .................................................. 9

Introduction ................................................................. 11

The history of research conducted under the auspices of the new Troia Project ......................................................... 17

The aims of archaeology in Troia and vicinity and some scientific returns ......................................................... 19

Related disciplines .......................................................... 21

Excavation concept .......................................................... 23

Troia's/Ilion's Lower Cities .................................................. 55

A few words about Troia of the 2nd millennium from an interdisciplinary standpoint .............................................. 66

Bibliography ................................................................. 70

Address of the Keynote Lecturer .............................................. 70
Introduction to Dies academicus, 12 November 2003, by the President of the University

Ladies and Gentlemen, colleagues and students,

as every year, I welcome you to this year's Dies academicus at our university.

It is always difficult to decide which theme will have resonance both inside and outside the university. Because this is so, I am very pleased about the attention that our invitation has attracted. Representatives from the politics, the city and region of Trier, churches, the business world, the chambers, the press, both various education facilities and universities, as well as long-standing friends of our university, have come today. You all are welcome, and please forgive me if I do not welcome you by name.

With this Dies academicus, the Trier University traditionally and officially opens the semester and the academic year. This should not be a free afternoon, as I myself erroneously regarded such occasions in my first semesters at Tübingen University, but rather a chance for us to gather together, to prompt common thought, or to listen to exciting lectures. This objective has often been lost in recent years among political discussions about higher education. The Dies academicus should not be a day characterized by actual political problems of universities, but rather a day that makes us aware of some of the varied academic tasks that interest us.

Our event has several parts: a keynote lecture, and after that, the announcement of prizes for excellent dissertations by the Friends of the University, followed by a reception, and finally a concert by the town orchestra. In the keynote lecture we want to emphasize themes of predominant importance, contributions from the sciences, as well as central questions about society and politics. Last year we had the pleasure to gain Professor Wolfgang Leonhard, a renowned expert of German-Russian relations, who presented his extensive knowledge on this theme in a very exciting lecture
I was eleven or twelve years old when my brother, older than me by four years, was given a book about Heinrich Schliemann as a gift. When he put it aside for several days, I acquired the book and could not put it down. The life story of Heinrich Schliemann was described in an exciting way, starting with his childhood, his days as an assistant in a grocery (where he sustained haemorrhage, presumably from lugging heavy herring-barrels), and followed by his career as a successful businessman until his splendid excavations at Troia and elsewhere. There are probably very few who did not become introduced to Heinrich Schliemann in a similar way. The topic of Troia fascinates everyone, and for us it is more topical than ever since in two days we will open the Centre for Ancient Studies at Trier University. Therefore, the idea came about to direct today’s keynote lecture in this direction in order to emphasize the importance of the ancient studies, which are always topical, and especially so here in Trier, a historically meaningful place. And this, above all, at a time when superficial utilitarian thinking predominates political discussions about higher education, and when therefore great works of academic research are threatened by suppression.

I am especially pleased to welcome today Professor Dr. Dr. h.c. Manfred Korfmann from Tübingen University. No other archaeologist has been as successful in attracting such a broad audience interested in his research. Under his academic leadership, the exhibition, "Troia - Dream and Reality," drew attendance of a million people in Stuttgart, Braunschweig, and Bonn in 2001 and 2002. This has certainly to do with Troia, the site at the Dardanelles, which, since its discovery by Heinrich Schliemann, has a unique force of attraction. Although I suspect that it was the exhibition itself that succeeded in presenting the results of the international and interdisciplinary excavations at Troia since 1988 to a wide public in an extraordinary way. Everyone who visited the exhibition will agree.

The excavations by Manfred Korfmann have also given new energy to academic discussion about Troia. What kind of importance did Troia have in the late Bronze Age? How was it related to its neighbors to the East and West? Was the settlement perhaps more important than often supposed — an important place for trade at a strategically significant loca-
tion? And what kind of relationship existed between this place and the poems of Homer?

For several years now all these questions are discussed anew with great passion. By all counts this is demonstrated by much publication in recent years. The central starting point and focus for all participants in this discussion – which also contains critical voices – is the results of the work of the prehistoric archaeologist Manfred Korfmann from Tübingen published in Studia Troica.

But Troia is only one sphere of activity for Manfred Korfmann. Further excavations in Georgia have followed. But today's topic is Troia.

Now a few remarks on the person who is Prof. Dr. Manfred Korfmann. Born in Cologne in 1942, he then completed primary education in Frankfurt/Main.

From 1962 to 1970, he studied Pre- and Protohistory, Archaeology of the Roman Provinces, and Ancient History at the Frankfurt/Main University and the American University of Beirut. He earned his PhD in 1970, and from 1971 to 1982 he worked as an academic assistant at the Frankfurt/Main University and at the German Archaeological Institute in Istanbul and Berlin. His habilitation followed in 1980, and he then was a Scientific Researcher at Frankfurt University, until he became Professor at the Institute for Pre- and Protohistory at Tübingen University in 1982.

The honours that Professor Korfmann has received are so numerous, that I should need several more minutes to list them all. As I presume that you all are eagerly waiting for the lecture, I do not want to keep you in suspense any longer.

Professor Korfmann, I welcome you again very much here at our university and I ask you to start your lecture "Troia in Light of New Research".
After the keynote lecture: the president of Trier University, Prof. Dr. Peter Schwenkmezger (r.) presents some bottles of university – wine to the main speaker Prof. Dr. Dr. hc. Manfred O. Korfmann.

Photo: H. Neyses
Keynote lecture at the
Dies academicus 2003
at Trier University

TROIA IN LIGHT OF NEW RESEARCH

Professor Dr. Dr. h.c. Manfred O. Korfmann

Institute for Pre- and Protohistory and Archaeology of the Middle Ages, Tübingen University

12 November 2003, 3:30 pm
Fig. 1: The Troad from the Spaceshuttle (NASA)
Introduction

Magnifizenz, I thank Trier University for the honour of being invited to share in the inauguration of winter term 2003/2004. It is certainly nothing new that cultural history and the arts and humanities are under pressure to justify their existence. Some wonder what are they really needed for. What use are they in view of the role played increasingly by the natural sciences in politics and economics and in society at large? Troia and the interest shown in it by the public – including today’s event – provide me with the occasion for emphasizing that the so-called ‘minor subjects’, also dubbed ‘exotic subjects’, are quite obviously interesting. The impact they make sometimes, as is the case with ‘Troia archaeology’, often extends far into the public domain. Nevertheless, we work mainly for the scientific yield, which, even now, as far as our sixteen years of working at Troia are concerned, is already very great. Today I should like to talk about aspects of it.

Fig. 2: Aerial view of Troia from the SE (H. Öge)

From the outset, operations at Hisarlik have been accompanied by critical discussion of the disciplines related to antiquity. It can be expressed in the following terms, imputed to the celebrated historian of antiquity and contemporary of Schliemann’s, Theodor Mommsen, the anniversary of whose death we commemorated on 1 November 2003: "Archaeology is a discipline not worth knowing about." Here at Troia, archaeology had to prove its worth as a new discipline and in a way that captured the public’s attention – and it was not
long before the buzzword ‘archaeology’s mound of destiny’ was making the rounds. The conflict between the disciplines of classical archaeology and ancient history on the one side and prehistoric and protohistoric archaeology on the other still smoulders under the surface. What can the science of excavation say; what may it say? Is it indeed entitled to make statements about history?

Naturally, we excavating archaeologists are convinced that we are historians. We do not have much use for enthusiasm for objects for their own sake. To us they are the material we work with, in fact, for reconstructing history. A find in fragmentary condition is just as important as a perfectly preserved one—and we need to relate to what has been found! We even claim to have occasionally made crucial contributions to historical knowledge with our research in the archives of the soil. We would know nothing at all about the Neanderthals, for instance, were it not for this excavating discipline. The key question is, of course, how our finds and findings are interpreted. But that is certainly also true of archives in written form, which must be read and reread again and again and are constantly being reinterpreted. However, while with such written archives something fundamentally new is rarely added, with each new excavation – with each new construction site, with each intervention in archaeologically relevant soil – we also have new documents which need care and interpretation. Texts are usually composed with particular intentions. I recall Livy, for instance, who endeavoured to justify on the basis of ethics and religion the expansion of the Roman empire. Such texts, many of them, are deceptive and they are supposed to be deceptive. In our field, excavation archaeology, on the other hand, a burnt deposit in a settlement, for instance, is truthful because it represents something that actually took place. The question is only how to interpret the source — the excavation finding. A chance fire or an intentionally set fire? In both cases one will ask what precisely was the cause. In order to clarify something like this, we very often have recourse to all sorts of related disciplines. In fig. 4 we see these related disciplines.

Fig. 3 Excavation cycles, 1865 to the present. 2003.
Fig. 4: Related disciplines shown as an idol. 2000.
For those seated further away, it should be mentioned that the ‘life sciences’ are enumerated on the left-hand side of this table and, on the right, the ‘physical sciences’, that means archaeometry. We were speaking of a burnt deposit. Even in everyday living, the question of the cause of a fire is approached scientifically, with an ultimately plausible solution found via circumstantial evidence. No one would deny the legitimacy of this approach. Of course, the solution is often not precise, but it does usually range within certain probabilities. Consequently, we excavators never know exactly how it was, but the knowledge we have in our field allows us to set the parameters within which we operate. And we also know that, with each new excavation, whether at the same site or at a geographically related one, for instance via excavations in the immediate vicinity, our preliminary reports and the interpretations associated with them may have to be reformulated overnight and occasionally also revised. This is also how it is with the results of our research at Troia. After all, official excavation operations began there one hundred and thirty-two years ago under Heinrich Schliemann, and, over time, much has changed in the way things are evaluated. Today we shall be talking about ‘Troia in Light of New Research’. We excavators are in any case able today to confirm some points that were grasped earlier but in others we have been compelled to rethink. And at Troia in recent years we have had to rethink in some important areas, not just with regard to excavation findings, but also respecting the supra-regional importance of the city, and – if we are judging rightly – we must do so also in light of the most recent findings made by leading Homeric scholars and Hittitologists in particular. But for only a few, most of whom have never been at Troia or at best know the place only from brief visits as tourists, the recent findings do not tally with the traditional view, and these are the very few who protest.

Fig. 5: Bust of Homer, Munich
Troia has emotional connotations. That was the case with Schliemann’s excavations, and it has continued to be so and it will not change. Troia belongs to the collective Western memory, indeed, and more importantly, is one of the strongest roots of our Western culture. I emphasize, one of several roots, albeit a strong one, is to be found here. That is linked with ‘Homer’ – whoever or whatever is meant by Homer – and the epic of the *Iliad*, which, about 700 BCE or shortly before that, was brought into the form which has come down to us and is regarded as one of the works of literature to have had the greatest impact on the world. The *Iliad* is certainly comparable in this respect to the sacred writings of the Bible and the Koran, yet the *Iliad* is purely literature but at the same time also history, I think, at least in the sense – and this would represent the minimalist approach I have been ad-

Fig. 6: Achilles binding Patroclus’ wounds, floor of an Attic cylix

Fig. 7: House VIM (Troia VI) inside the Citadel (Dörpfeld)
vocating for some years – that Homer or his informants were linked in a special way with the ruined site.

For nowadays one can at least say that Troia was a sort of ‘setting’ in which the Iliad was staged, which as such should be dated about five hundred years earlier, and that Homer or his informants probably were highly familiar with this ‘setting’ about 700 BCE. This is one of the recent findings of the Troia excavations. It is now difficult to deny the validity of this minimalist approach, even should we want to do so.

Every author wants the context of his narratives to be acceptably plausible, such that readers can visualize Edgar Wallace’s London or excavation sites in Syria in the day of Agatha Christie’s Murder in Mesopotamia. Homer surely did not compose the Iliad expressly for the inhabitants of the Greek cities founded on the Dardanelles in the 8th and 7th centuries BCE. Nevertheless, they would have been able to check whether the topographical facts of the story were plausible. As an excavator working at Troia, one accordingly encounters the Iliad in an entirely different way – namely as a source at least worth considering for conditions about 700 BCE. I have always stressed that we must
count on finding a potential link with the reality of that time or the reality which we can reconstruct by means of excavations. What is at stake is, therefore, not just the landscape around Troy, the rivers, mountains, islands and straits, the currents and winds favourable for Troy, but also details of the place itself, such as the Upper City/Pergamon and the Lower City, the broad streets and superbly hewn masonry, the great towers, the basins for washing sunk in the bedrock, and similar nuances. Bernhard Herzhoff, Hellenist at Trier University, views the *Iliad* from an angle which is also highly interesting with regard to our basic question, that is, from the standpoint of the many different varieties and species of flora and fauna of this particular landscape as mentioned in the epic. If he is of the opinion, as I have gathered from his published writings and in talks with him, that Homer was very familiar indeed with the plants found near Troy in particular, this certainly supports the same line of reasoning.

**The history of research conducted under the auspices of the new Troy Project**

![Map](image)

*Fig. 9: Concentration of finds between Cilicia and the Troad in the Early Bronze Age (T. Efe)*
You must be interested, ladies and gentlemen, in hearing how we have arrived at our most recent findings and what our starting-point for addressing the issues was. Why has there been a new Troia excavation?

After completing operations between 1975 and 1978 at the Bronze Age settlement site of Demirchüyük, which lay on the main traffic and trading artery between the Anatolian high plateau and the Bosporus and, therefore, Europe, I was interested in the second transitional zone to Europe, the Dardanelles. At first I did not even dream of an excavation at the site of Troia itself. However, we wanted to make the extensive material that had come from earlier excavations there speak by conducting a smaller, limited excavation in the immediate vicinity. That was Beşik Tepe. Since the excavations under Heinrich Schliemann on into the 1930s under the American archaeologist Carl Blegen, Troia alone had been the point of reference or key site for the chronology between Asia and Europe.

From the outset, finds made there had been compared with similar ones from the eastern Mediterranean, where, after all, absolute dates since about 3000 BCE have been available for the successive reigns in the city-states of Mesopotamia and Syria as well as the dynasties in Egypt. It was believed at that time
that it was possible to relate the chronology in Troia to those of other advanced civilisations by means of export objects or by registering similarities, for instance, in vessel forms and the configuration of objects. (That would represent, as fig. 9 shows for the period about 2500 BCE, a chronological concatenation or chain of influences). Troia is well known to be layered like a cake, with settlement over settlement. Troia, after all, conceals the remains of more than 3000 years of more or less continuous history. Going out from Troia towards central Europe, place after place has been dated. ‘Export-Import’ might be the keyword to associate in this connection. First correspondences with neighbouring sites in Bulgaria and Yugoslavia were registered, and then the comparative procedure was applied on up to Austria, Germany, and even Denmark. For decades the estimated chronology of Europe depended in large part on the Troia of Schliemann’s, Dörpfeld’s and Blegen’s day. Then, when the tentative use of physical dating method with C14 isotopes was introduced in about 1950, Troia increasingly lost its importance until its significance as a central place or point from which European prehistory started was almost negligible.

In the 1970s, we ourselves had drawn up a rough chronology for our excavation site at Demirchüyük. It was a west Anatolian settlement on the fringes of the Anatolian high plateau towards the Bosporus. Thus we knew how finds and findings made there related within the 3rd millennium: evidently, so we thought, parallel to Troia I and II. That had to be verified. But how could early Troia, and the Early Bronze Age there, be dated? Fig. 10 anticipates the outcome – about thirty years later the Troia chronology has been largely established, inter alia, by the use of scientific methods. Here, of course, you see the state of research as of two or three years ago.

Following seven years of excavating at Beşik Tepe, an essentially Early Bronze Age site eight kilometres from Troia as the crow flies, excavation was able to be resumed at Troia in 1988 after a break of precisely fifty years.

**The aims of archaeology in Troia and vicinity and some scientific returns**

The old settlement mound of Hısalık (Turkish = ‘provided with a citadel’) lies on the boundary between two continents and seas. It furnishes richly diverse material from more than 3000 years of cultural history. We hoped, by means of targeted on-site investigation, to better understand this place in all its changes and in its chronological key position for the prehistory of western Anatolia and
Fig. 11: The Troad in the Late Bronze Age in the Troia VI period

Fig. 12: The Troad as a 3D image  
(GLOBE – Elevation model and Landsat data, Univ. of Maryland)
south-eastern Europe. The intention behind collaboration with partners from the field of ‘classical archaeology’ from the University of Cincinnati under the supervision of Brian Rose was to do justice, for the first time and in an appropriate manner, to the importance Troy had later as well, essentially for the Hellenistic and Roman eras at Ilion, the city’s name in Greco-Roman times. All that has been successfully accomplished. However, despite the very important new findings relating to historical Ilion, Hisarlik has always been and will continue to be of outstanding importance for its prehistoric settlement strata.

The landscape, the landscape of the Troad, has been since antiquity invariably one of the most thoroughly explored regions in the world. In the whole Troad there is only one Bronze Age site of this size and architectural quality (cf. Troy in fig. 11f.). This objective evaluation, resulting from more than a century of the most intensive topographical surveys and particularly intensive ones in the past few decades and years, holds for the Early and Middle Bronze Age and especially the Late Bronze. Troy was the central place of settlement in a wide circle, which of course even the Greeks and Romans realised when they evidently consciously linked the site – clarification of this point is also a result of our work – which was largely in ruins, with the events told in the Iliad.

Related disciplines

As I have already noted, related disciplines are consulted in numerous ways where the excavation of prehistoric settlements is concerned. I do not have the time here to go into the scientific findings with regard to the site and the landscape in more depth. That means, for one, not going into archaeobiology, the study of the flora and fauna at Troy and, to mention another related discipline, palaeogeography, which entails reconstructing the landscape as it once was, *inter alia*, by means of an extensive programme of drilling boreholes to take core samples and sondages – there have been 305 up to now – (Fig. 14 shows boreholes near the cut south of the Kesik tumulus, which were sunk in 2003 to clarify the function of the cut and the history of the silting up of the Scamander delta). Nor shall we go deeper into archaeometry, which conducts studies in various fields of physical science, such as metallurgy or the analysis of clay used for pottery products, in both cases to ascertain the regions the objects came from. Using the surveillance data made available by NASA (IKONOS satellite, etc.) in conjunction with the above mentioned disciplines has made it possible to gain a realistic idea of Troy and its surroundings at different periods of its early history.
Fig. 13: Sites in the area of the Troia Historical National Park

Fig. 14: Geological boreholes at the Kesik Canal (I. Kayan)
Fig. 15: Plan of the 2003 excavation areas

Here, too, NASA data have been used, fig. 15, linked with magnetometer prospection, which, like an X-ray, reveals what lies beneath the surface without the need to excavate. The Citadel of Troia is at the top left, surrounded by the Lower City of Ilion, with the places we have excavated up to now marked in yellow (or pink for those excavated during the 2003 season).

The ancillary project *TroiaVR* (Troia Virtual Reality, 2001–2003, fig. 12), supervised by my colleague Peter Jablonka, set out with the aim of supporting archaeologists who want to work up, present and evaluate their finds to obtain optimal results with technology.

**Excavation concept**

Following the excavation concept, what had been found dating from the 3rd millennium BCE inside the Citadel was excavated first (fig. 15, Citadel hill), in other words, in the so-called ‘Schliemann trench’. The explorations moved systematically outwards to the more recent periods of the Citadel hill and beyond. Finds and features relating to the Troia III to V periods, about which up to then
Fig. 16: C14 dates as of 2002

Abb. 17: C14-dates as of 1995
virtually nothing was known, were brought to light. The main objective in resuming excavation at Troia, namely to date the stratigraphic sequence with C14, was soon achieved. Today we have about 150 C14 dates from the prehistoric strata of Troia. As a result, the place is once again of particular significance for the discussion of its function as an intermediary between the Orient and the Occident and *vice versa*. Admittedly, from the outset the question of settlement outside the Citadel was of interest and this is also true for the historical periods: the Greek, Roman and Byzantine eras.

We have just mentioned that the chronology questions could be clarified to a great extent within the Citadel. A specific instance of this is that the more than twenty ‘treasure hoards’ found there evidently belonged to different centuries, of which the earliest, the famous ‘Treasure A’ (popularly known as the ‘Treasure of Priam’), should be dated to the Early Bronze Age in the mid-

*Fig. 18: Diadem from Treasure A*

*Fig. 19: Treasure finds from Troia with the Schliemanns (Ch. Haußner)*
Fig. 20: The spread of the Maritime Troia Culture (Troia I-III)
3rd millennium BCE. Schliemann dated it erroneously to the time of the Trojan War. He was mistaken by a millennium, for which no one can blame him, if there was indeed such an event as the Trojan War about 1200 BCE. We can date more precisely as follows:

**Troia’s Early Bronze Age, Troia I-III, 2900–2200 BCE**, which has achieved renown through the ‘treasure finds’ among other things, we now call the *Maritime Troia Culture* because the area through which it spread lies along the northern Aegean coast and the Sea of Marmara. In Troia itself the architecture remains found from the Troia II period are especially noteworthy.

Further, we now know that, as early as the beginning of the *Maritime Troia Culture*, there was a Lower City that went with the Troia I–III Citadel. It was protected by a splendid timber fortification set into the bedrock. (You see the architecture of this structure as a negative, as it were, or its ground-plan in figs. 23 and 24). This Early Bronze Age Troia, covering a surface area of 90 000 m², was about eight times the size of the Citadel as hitherto known, which has an area of about 11 000 m². Altogether it has been reconstructed with a circumference of about 1.5 kilometres.
Fig. 22: Plan of Troia II

Fig. 23: Plan of the Troia II fortifications
There was also a **Lower City** that went with Late Bronze Age Troia, Troia VI and VIIa, which we now call Vili, 1750–1200 BCE. Hitherto we had thought that Troia, with a surface area of 270,000 m² enclosed in fortifications, was about thirteen times larger than previously assumed – fig. 25 shows the old idea of it. Since summer 2003, however, we have been calculating about 350,000 m², and, therefore, reckoning with a factor of 16. It took more than half an hour to walk round the perimeter of the city, which comes out to 2.5 km. The city-state of Ugarit, incidentally, covered a surface area of only 200,000 m², with a population estimated at about 7600 (Garr, BASOR 1987). What most impresses visitors to Troia today, however, are the Late Bronze Age Citadel walls, which you see marked in red in fig. 25. It is to these stone walls, which were five metres thick and at least eight metres high – and above that a mudbrick superstructure several metres high – that a Trojan War should be linked, if such a war actually took place at all. At that time, in the 13th century BCE, the city of Troia/(W)llios was important, but as a vassal city bearing the name WILUSA, it was clearly subordinate to the Hittites, then the great power in Anatolia and the Near East. We can now verify that at about that time, when a treaty of vassalage was concluded between Hattusas and Wilusa, in about 1285, the city of Troia was fortified in a way that was noticeably both militarily state-of-the-art and splendidly impressive. This is, by the way, exactly the time when the Hittites, with Hattusas as their capital city, were experiencing an era of power. Only about five years after the treaty of vassalage mentioned above, the Hittites were fighting at Kadesh, supported by, among other things, a contingent of chariots from Dardaniya – evidently Troia – against the Egyptians in Syria, against Ramses II. At precisely this time the Hittite capital was being enlarged at enormous expense.
Fig. 25: The Troia Lower City, as it was in the 2nd millennium BCE

Fig. 26: The Hittite kingdom (F. Starke)
The chronology of Troia has changed with new exploration, as we have said, and this extends down to the details. Fig. 27 shows how the state of knowledge gained from our earlier publications on the basis of previous findings has changed, and how the Essen scholar of ancient history, Justus Cobet, has collated it in the encyclopaedia of the ancient world, Neuer Pauly – under Rezeptions- und Wissenschaftsgeschichte [history of the reception and epistemological history]. And in fig. 28 one can see, in this, in my opinion, very important representation, as it were, a special contribution on the occasion of the Trier Dies academicus – the state of our knowledge updated to this month.

The realisation that the flowering of Troia took place during this very 13th century is the result of our research, notably that conducted by my colleague, Ralf Becks, and by others. Repeatedly and, indeed, on down to the present day, this Troia VIIa has been classified as insignificant, even impoverished, and many a line of reasoning which seems peculiar from our standpoint has been predicated on this premise. The converse is, however, the case. More on this hereafter. Of course, it must also be said that Troia VIIa should be assigned culturally to Troia VI (!). In doing this, we concur with Dörpfeld, the earlier excavator of Troia. Dörpfeld emphasised that Troia VIIa should really be called Troia VII because there were no substantial differences in the material culture between the two periods. The American Troia excavator of the 1930s, Carl Blegen, was entirely in agreement – and so are we. For the sake of epistemological clarity – the subdivision into periods dates from the very earliest years (!) of exploration at Troia, in other words, from Heinrich Schliemann – the old terminology has, unfortunately, been retained. Confusion is to be avoided at all costs. And so, now, partly because some have not yet understood what has been done, and why, and think we are arbitrarily equating Troia VI and VII, we probably should be more consistent in this respect than has hitherto been the case in replacing the term Troia VIIa with VII – and, moreover, so that non-archaeologists can better understand. The light shed by the new findings is now illuminating Troia VII! At the end of VII there is a break, probably caused by war, followed by VIl – a brief phase in ruins. Then again a break shows up, this time a more pronounced one, with VIIb2, caused by people who evidently came from the north-eastern Balkans.

At the time of Troia Vili, the enormous towers, which all visitors notice at once, were built in front of the Citadel walls, and the boundaries of the Lower City were evidently enlarged, such that the area enclosed by a ditch was extended by 140 metres to the south. A mudbrick bastion was also added in the north-east (fig. 30 – green), which we view as the onset of surrounding
Abb 5: Schema der Schichten Trojas im Verlauf der Grabungsgeschichte

Fig. 27: Subdivision of the Troia stratigraphy into periods (J. Cobet)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Troia VIII</th>
<th>Troia/Wilusa Chronologie-Schema</th>
<th>Bronzezeit/Frühe Eisenzeit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Griechisches Ilion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Homer&quot; ca. 720/700</td>
<td>Gänzlich neue Besiedlung?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wo bleiben die Einheimischen?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca. 720/700</td>
<td>Teilweise oder völlige Siedlungsunterbrechung</td>
<td>Wo bleiben die Rest-Troianer?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiatus?</td>
<td>Unterstadt gänzlich, Burg zumindest teilweise als Wüstung</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca. 950 (nach R. Caling)</td>
<td>auf Grundlage von C14-Daten</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIIb3</td>
<td>Balkanisch geprägte Troia-Kultur</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>VIIb2 Troia VIIb2/3</td>
<td>Kulturumbruch in jeder Beziehung, &quot;Neue Leute&quot;</td>
<td>sehr wahrscheinlich aus dem NO-Balkan/W-Schwarzmeeerraum</td>
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<td>&quot;Einfache Leute&quot;, Neurische teilweise Zerstörung</td>
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Fig. 28: Chronological table as of 2003
Fig. 29: Aerial view of east wall with Tower VIh and Gate VIS, Late Troia VI

the Lower City with a mudbrick wall. Stratigraphically above this (dark green) the small square cellar structures built during the Balkan-influenced phase that followed (that is, by the people who came to Troia after it had been destroyed) are discernible. In this Late Troia VI period, Troia, or Wilusa, seems to have been particularly densely populated. People moved closer together everywhere so that the largest possible population (or population ceiling) which the area could have sustained should be assumed for the 13th century – between 5000 and 10,000.

Fig. 30: Plan of the North-East Bastion with mudbrick structure in front
The streets of the Citadel were repaved (fig. 32 shows the street leading to the West Gate, with the Citadel wall in the background) and in the areas around the gates the streets were fitted out with drainage channels (fig. 31: in the South Gate). The 13th century was evidently the most important time for Troia, and also a time of intense pressures. The gate in the west was particularly vulnerable and was walled up. (cf. fig. 32 – to the right of the reddish stone, below the three people on the wall). (The walled-up gate is visible here again in the aerial view, fig. 33, to the right of the reddish stone). Large quantities of provisions were stored in the Citadel and outside it. In any case, there are the enormous storage vessels known as pithoi everywhere.

All this ended about 1190/1180 BCE with a catastrophe marked by fires and casualties. There are indeed signs that this was a war, and, what is more, a war that was lost. This is indicated not only by the fire and the skeletons found, and by the hasty burial of
a dead woman, but also by the piles of catapult projectiles negligently left behind. Only a victorious army would behave in this way, which would have more pressing concerns upon entering a conquered city than catapult projectiles. Had Troia or Wilusa been successfully defended, piles of this sort would have been removed only shortly after the catastrophe. But one should be wary of advancing interpretations that are all too hasty. Archaeologists can only say in such a case that this was evidently one of the many wars which must have been fought so often for this city. We are not speaking of the Trojan War with the Achaeans as victors! Even though it is, for the most part, dated to precisely this time by those who believe it took place, be they our contempo-
Fig. 35: Catapult projectiles

Fig. 36: Youth using a catapult

Fig. 37: Aerial view of the Citadel, showing the course of the wall

aries or its advocates in antiquity (such as Eratosthenes of Kyrene, 3rd century BCE: 1184/3). As for the end of Troia Vili, we are becoming more precise from season to season, that is, according to our colleague from Athens, Penelope Mountjoy, who has devoted herself to this subject in studying the Mycenaean pottery. However, no one in my team speaks of ‘the Trojan War’.

We have entirely excavated the Citadel walls (fig. 37) as well as an entire quarter of the Late Bronze Age Lower City to the south-west outside the Citadel. In seven places we have dug out the Lower City ditch. Further, excavation has been carried out in a cave with a spring (cf. fig. 39).

In fig. 38 a gate giving access through the ditch system hewn into the bedrock is visible. The rock was left in place to form a causeway. The foundation walls above were erected at a time when the ditch had already been filled in. They are Hellenistic. The Roman structures that in turn are sure to have existed above them have been largely eroded here on the sloping terrain. That is very often the case. Nowhere, if I am rightly informed, is there, for instance, a complete house from the Hellenistic era in the Lower City – and yet we are
amply aware that the city of Ilion flourished during that era. The foundations were removed or eroded. Our colleague Brian Rose speaks almost enviously of the many indications of Late Bronze Age building. Yet there has been no one who has questioned the existence of an Augustan Lower City! In places the very soil itself has hardly remained intact in Troia. On some parts of the slope it is no longer there, or only very little of it, as can be seen in fig. 38.

As for the ‘water mine’ mentioned above, the Spring Cave at the edge of the Lower City, it has been shown that this important facility was in part created at the time of the Maritime Troia Culture, that is, in the early 3rd millennium BCE, but was still supplying the Lower City with water during the 2nd millennium and continued in use in the Roman and Byzantine eras.

Ladies and gentlemen, the picture we have of Troia has, therefore, fundamentally changed in recent years! The new excavation findings, the architecture and the cityscape as such, as well as the finds reflect in many details the image of a city as, of course, we might expect one to be in western Anatolia. Unfortunately, I cannot go into this in further depth here. What should, however, definitely be referred to in connection with this picture is a seal found with writing in Luwian hieroglyphs, as it is like a stone in the mosaic which fits into the overall picture, or at least does not contradict it. This find can also support the idea advanced by many linguists, especially Hittitologists, that Indo-European Anatolians settled

Fig. 38: Troia VI – Ditch in the bedrock, Lower City
Fig. 39: Plan of the cave with spring
here—probably Luwians, possibly also Lydians, and that Wilios can be equated with the city and the territorial state of Wilusa as the Hittites knew it.

The role of Troia as a cultural intermediary between Anatolia and the Black Sea region has been once again brought out through the new excavations; on the other hand, so have the links between Asia Minor and south-eastern Europe. Even the supra-regional topography suggests that the route to the Danube lay via Troia. As is well known, the centres of the civilisations that shaped history then were in Mesopotamia, Egypt, and also in central Anatolia, rather than in Europe, at least in the 2nd millennium BCE, when the Hittites shared the honours of being a great power on an equal footing with Egypt and Assur. These centres of power were in themselves only important, and only became ‘advanced civilisations’, because there were neighbouring regions, known as fringe areas—‘the periphery’. Here Troia’s role and importance came into play among the powers, namely that of being geographically the most favourably positioned place on the Dardanelles. Evidently, this situation yielded material benefits at all times, as shown by the finds of treasure dating from the 3rd millennium, but also, and especially for the 13th century, as evinced by the mighty Citadel walls fortified with towers and the fortifications round the Lower City with a ditch hewn into the bedrock. In other words, the place was always strong enough, and continuously strong enough, to demonstrate its importance by means of architecture – the Citadel alone is impressive in its own right. And it was always important enough to be threatened. If it had not been, it would not have needed such fortifications for centuries, even millennia.
Fig. 41: Map of the Balkans with mountain ranges and the Danube
In the Bronze Age, in the 3rd as well as the 2nd millennium, the chief metals, such as copper and gold (fig. 43), which came from the Balkans and the southern and northern Black Sea region, as well as the Caucasus, and especially tin, which had to be brought from a great distance (fig. 44), must have been transported past this place, the Troad, of all places in the then known world, by land or by sea. But other wares, such as the semiprecious stone cornelian or amber from the Baltic, should not be forgotten in this connection, as well as perishable goods such as textiles, horses, wood, salt, fish, and probably also slaves. The following objects from the area of metalworking should be mentioned for the 2nd millennium:

Ingots in the so-called oxhide form, as we know them, inter alia, from Egyptian representations. Fig. 46 shows the spread of these spectacular ingots on the basis of archaeological studies. The Danube was definitely important as a land and water transport route (marked in black). Weapons were, of course, especially important at that time, when there were armies for the first time in Europe as well. Fig. 47 shows the distribution pattern for double axes (triangles), which, as we all know, are linked with the Aegean, in the Black Sea area, as well as that for Aegean, Mycenaean swords—thrusting swords known as rapiers. The links are easy to spot with readable maps like this.

Fig. 42: Trade routes in the Near East (based on H. Klengel)
Fig. 43: Early Bronze Age civilisations and raw materials

Such artefacts – weapons, implements, jewellery as well – are not just widespread in the Near East, in the eastern Mediterranean and in Anatolia, but also reach the periphery at Troia and go on beyond. This also holds for breastplates made of bronze platelets, or scales – the needle-sharp thrusting swords mentioned above are, after all, a reaction to these breastplates – which also reached the area round Troia as expensive defensive weapons from the Orient, as the finds made there have shown. We prehistoric archaeologists, as mentioned at the beginning, rarely base our arguments on texts, but rather on probabilities and the sums of probabilities. These include such maps showing the spread and distribution of phenomena and finds. It would also be possible to add many other such arguments on the basis of these maps.
Fig. 44: Prehistoric tin deposits (J. Cierny)

In the 3rd and 2nd millennium we are at Troia in a boundary region of systems. That is certain: be it the use of the potter’s wheel, the use of ashlar masonry, the layout of settlement as it appears, the spread of writing – all indications point to the existence of a culture boundary or the boundary of a cultural landscape which certainly also incorporated political components at that time.
Fig. 45: Copper ‘oxhide ingots’ in Egyptian representations

The maps showing the spread and distribution patterns of many different materials, objects and ornaments leave no doubt, however, about contacts, about trade beyond this boundary, and, in any case, about communication between Orient and Occident, both in the 3rd and 2nd millennia BCE. This is clear in the map in fig. 49, which is a representation of Mycenaean influences, admittedly based on the state of research as far back as 1965. These almost standardised spread patterns on both sides of the straits suggest again and again that the route – by land or by sea – must have gone past such a geographically exposed location.

Fig. 46: The spread of oxhide ingots and stone anchors
as Troia was. With fig. 51 I recall the shipwreck of Uluburun and its cargo from all over the known world – the ship sank off the Turkish coast about 1327 BCE, that is, in Late Troia VI. There were also objects from Europe on board.
Fig. 49: Europe and Mycenae

We prehistoric archaeologists are well acquainted with the ancient civilisations in Europe and also eastern Europe (cf. fig. 52). Thousands of scholars engaged in the preservation of ancient monuments, at universities and museums, have been studying them for the past century. If we look at Troy in the 3rd and 2nd millennia BCE from the European angle, for instance, from the Balkans, there was evidently no place there even approaching the status of Troy. We can show this very clearly on the basis of architecture: the Citadel at Troy alone suffices as an example. However, at present, this cannot be done so well with finds – for particularly rich, striking finds are only encountered in graves, and the cemeteries at Troy are hitherto not known and have not been properly excavated. This, we hope, will take place in the next few years. If, however, you take the towers and walls of the Troy Citadel as your standard for im-
pressive architecture, there is nothing comparable anywhere in the Balkans and the Black Sea region. Incidentally, Troia was (almost) from the time settlement began there outstanding in every respect. It was, for instance, probably the first place in the boundary area between Asia and Europe at which hewn ashlar masonry was used – and this at a time when iron was not yet known. The earliest examples can still be seen in the stones of the porch of the large Megaron IIA (fig. 53), which should be dated about 2500 BCE. Many others are recognizable in the ‘well hewn stones’ of the Troia VI Citadel and palaces of the 2nd millennium (fig. 54). Troia was, however, not only outstanding for masonry, but also for metallurgy, in other words, in the ability to both procure copper and tin and to make bronze from them, and to do so at Troia, as the moulds show (fig. 55). Moreover, Troia was also an important place for advanced pottery production due to the introduction of the potter’s wheel (fig. 56). This was remarkable in every respect for that time, we think, when measured by the standards then prevailing for Europe and the Black Sea region. However, compared with the cities of the advanced civilisations, such as Assur, Babylon, Uruk and Hattusas, Troia was a relatively small place on the
Fig. 52: Civilisations of the 2nd millennium in Europe and the Near East
Fig. 53: Masonry block from the foundation of Megaron IIA (Troia II)

Fig. 54: House VIM with ‘sawtooth’ wall (Dörpfeld)

Fig. 55: Mould (2nd millennium BCE)

Fig. 56: Early Bronze Age vessels, some of them wheel-made
**Fig. 57: Spread of rapiers (thrusting swords)**

**Fig. 58: Hittites and neighbours in the 13th century BCE**
fringes of the world at that time, on the periphery of the economically, culturally and politically dominant territorial states. We have underscored this time and time again in publications. Troia was, therefore, never the hub of the Bronze Age world, nor was it a metropolis in that world.

However, just because we understated Troia’s importance, and did so deliberately, in fact, this induced a geologist from Zurich about ten years ago to make a splash in the media: his announcement that Troia was actually Plato’s city of Atlantis fascinated the public in the early 1990s. In the same manner, the accusations made by a Tübingen scholar of ancient history hit the media during the Troia exhibition two years ago—that Troia actually deserved nothing more than the status of a third-class town, and that I had mendaciously represented Troia’s importance, although I knew better, and that I was falsifying the excavation findings. He maintained that Troia had no Lower City. We could not show evidence for a single house there, or so he claimed.

The reception of Troia as the sacred city of Ilios in the Greco-Roman era, Troia VIII and IX, and the manner in which it was built and enlarged is shown impressively on the plan of the city and the architectural concept carried out on the terrain of the former Citadel. The Temenos precinct of the Hellenistic-Roman Athena Temple has been explored, as has the Acropolis in general.

Fig. 59: The Insula system of Roman Troia IX
Fig. 60: Protective roof over the Megaron in Quadrat G6

Fig. 61: Aerial view of the Roman Odeion (Troia IX)
The entire Temple enclosure in fig. 15 (in blue) to the left on the Citadel hill is not Roman, as was generally assumed at the start of our excavation operations, which is how Friedrich Wilhelm Goethert (1907–1978) also saw it – but rather Hellenistic. This is also true of the residential insulae marked in red in fig. 59. An earthquake put an end to settlement about 500 CE. That there has been academic controversy over Greco-Roman Troia is shown by the history of the place. Time and time again Troia was the object of political dispute between Asia and Europe, for Xerxes, Alexander the Great, the Julian-Claudian emperors and as narrated in the legend of the founding of Rome transmitted via the Aeneid – all this is reflected in Ilion and is well attested by what the new excavations have brought to light. In the Roman era, Ilion, as my academic partner, Brian Rose, has shown, was usually assigned the role of the ‘Good East’ – as represented by the Phrygians, from which the ‘Bad East’ – represented by the Medes and Persians – was clearly demarcated. Many of the monuments in Troia are today visible or more clearly visible than previously. They have been conserved. Troia is again being taken care of. That is appreciated by the public, especially by cultured visitors – at present there are 500,000 visitors a year.

**Troia’s / Ilion’s Lower Cities**

Earlier excavators were almost exclusively concerned with the Citadel mound, which shows up so sharply in the landscape, and the stratigraphy there. They were, of course, also interested in exploring the area outside, but as breathtaking as all discoveries they made were, they exhausted both personnel and funds and so did not leave room for large-scale excavations over a large area to the south and west of the Citadel. Not until the framework afforded by the broad-based and wide-ranging new Troia Project has this old desideratum been focused on as an essential task form the outset. This has led, since 1993, to the part of the project that has been supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) as ‘The Prehistoric Lower City of Troia VI/VIIa’. Now let us turn at the conclusion once again to the Lower City.

The topography, of course, did provide some clues. Where would it be sensible to lay out a Lower City of this kind and where would its boundaries be? This is how any archaeologist would proceed, both in practice and theoretically. Then, when walking over the fields, one realizes, upon collecting and recording sherds, where there has been intensive human settlement. We ascertained this south of the Citadel over a wide area (cf. fig. 62). Here and
Fig. 62: Aerial view of the Citadel and the Lower City area with the Spring Cave shafts

Fig. 63: Lower City area with some excavation sites
there we dug some trial trenches, and excavated, in order to find confirmation. What is the explanation for such a surface distribution of sherds?

Whenever house foundations were dug deeper – and this was a common practice, particularly in the Roman era, deep down to the surface of the bedrock (visible in fig. 65) – the material remains of the past, usually sherds, were brought up to what was the surface at any given time, along with the soil which had been dug up. The process of transporting upwards whatever was down below went on, after all, over a period of eight centuries of uninterrupted Greek and Roman settlement and building activity – pits for storing provisions and refuse middens, subterranean water conduits and repairs constantly being carried out on them, trenches dug for foundations and similar operations come to mind. All this led to fewer and smaller sherds, as far as earlier settlement phases are concerned, being thrust upwards. Fig. 64 shows in a diagrammatic section how deep down these disturbances go. Only two to three metres of soil are available in the best of cases. However, now and then remains of houses and original settlement deposits are preserved in the soil, such as in fig. 64, a stone slab from a
Troia VI house floor, or in fig. 65, deep down, below the disturbances from later periods, which do extend down deep, original settlement deposits from the same Troia VI period. Let us, however, return to the surface. There specialists already have advance information due to the sherds that have been thrust upwards before they even start digging. However, excavation need not be the next step nowadays. Modern methods of geophysical prospection have by now made it possible to conduct investigations of archaeologically interesting structures concealed beneath the surface at reasonable expense over wide areas without destroying or disturbing anything. Focused and, therefore, more efficient use of archaeological sondages is thus made possible. By means of archaeomagnetic surveying devices, it has been possible to reproduce essential parts of the Lower City and the Hellenistic and Roman eras (Troia VIII und IX) in a ‘city map’. The most important items of knowledge gained through such methods and from some of the sondages that have been carried out are as follows:

1) that the outer boundary of the Late Troia VI and therefore also VII (=VIIa) Lower City was formed by a U-shaped ditch sunk 1.5 to 2 metres into the bedrock and more than 3 metres broad, and that this was apparently renewed towards the south in the course of the 13th century, in Troia VIIi (cf fig. 66). Here there was also a cemetery outside the ditch.

2) that the exact course of the Hellenistic city wall could be ascertained in the west for 400 metres and, of course,

3) that there was a square grid layout with the streets subdividing the area into corresponding ‘insulae’ or residential quarters, at Ilion – with which you are already familiar.

Since the 2002 excavation season and intensively, however, since 2003, another method has been used to investigate the city area of Troia – the systematic survey.

Now something entirely new from the summer of 2003. Fig. 67 shows highlighted in a light shade the area so far explored. Precisely every twenty metres we collect all finds, after removing vegetation for ten square metres in every direction. The finds are then washed, counted, weighed and classified according to type. The results are recorded in a database. The distribution and quantity of finds from different times and of different types are represented on maps by means of a geographical information system. My colleague, Dr. Jablonka, heads this project and at this point I shall let him present his results in his own words:

‘Only a small part of a city the size of Troia can be investigated by means of excavation. Even after one hundred and thirty-two years of archaeology at
Fig. 66: Geomagnetic prospection as of 2003
Troia, less than five per cent of the total surface area has been excavated. In the future not much more can be achieved by excavation. Consequently, it is necessary, and it makes good sense, to supplement excavation with other methods of field exploration.

It is difficult to classify surface finds since these are almost all merely very small, extremely weathered fragments of pottery. To do so entails years of experience of on site pottery identification. We are limiting ourselves to a rather coarse and simple classification by easily recognizable features, which is, however, a reliable and sure one. Up to now 411 collection points over a surface area of 160 000 m² in the south and east of the Lower City have been processed. There were more than 140 000 sherds weighing a total of 2.6 tons.

How the finds reached the surface has already been described. With the knowledge gained from our excavations, more precise knowledge of the topography and the results obtained from palaeogeographic exploration in the vicinity of Troia, we can take all sorts of factors into account. If, for instance, prehistoric pottery is found high on a given terrain, it cannot have come there by being washed down. Such sherds are still today roughly where they always were.

**Fig. 67: Survey 2003, total surface area**
Fig. 68: Survey 2003, weight

Fig. 69: Survey 2003, bricks
About 300 metres east of the Citadel, we have reached the boundary of the Bronze Age Lower City in a high site of that kind. To the west of it we find Bronze Age pottery all over the surface at all survey points. The same, of course, holds for a specific ware which is diagnostic for this period and, consequently, easier to recognize: ‘Anatolian grey ware’ (cf. fig. 71). The distribution of this ware, too, marks a boundary of that kind. It should be noted that only a broad cut running from east to west through the landscape has hitherto been investigated in this way. In the south, where the survey has yet to be conducted, there is the ditch or ditches as the boundary. The quite clearly demarcated line of find distribution to the east shows that the actual extent of the area settled in the late Bronze age.

Fig. 70: Survey 2003, Surface finds from a survey

Fig. 71: Survey 2003, Bronze Age grey ware
Fig. 72: Survey 2003, Bronze Age ware, rel. incidence

Age city of Wilios or Wilusa has now been definitively registered. If, by the way, we imagine the ditch lengthened to the north, as it is known to run in the south (fig. 71, red), it tallies perfectly with the find distribution boundary.

However, as far as the established eastern boundary is concerned, it must be said that it is, of course, also important for the planned search for the cemeteries of Troia. In any case, there is now an option there too.

Hellenistic black glaze (fig. 73) and Roman Sigillata pottery (Fig. 74) are, on the other hand, represented throughout the area so far explored and comprise by a wide margin the bulk of the finds. In the east, according to the magnetic prospection findings, the limit of the settlement has been found. The Hellenistic and the Roman city seem to have been of the same size. If the old reconstruction of the Hellenistic city wall in the east dating from the era of Schliemann and Dörpfeld is correct, the survey shows that a fairly large area within the walls here in the east was left without buildings (fig. 76). The original planning was evidently on too ambitious a scale to be realised. The prehistoric city, on the other hand, now incidentally takes up more than half the area of Greco-Roman Ilion as planned. Consequently, it is safe to speak of a remarkably large city by the standards of the late 2nd millennium BCE.
Fig. 73: Survey 2003, Hellenistic black glaze

Fig. 74: Survey 2003, Roman Terra Sigillata
Fig. 75: Survey 2003, Byzantine and Ottoman pottery

A fairly high incidence of Byzantine glazed pottery and a sprinkling of glazed Ottoman sherds are encountered only in the south-west of the area investigated (fig. 75). We will, therefore, be able to ascertain the precise location and extent of Byzantine activity in Troia.

Apart from settlement size in various periods, the survey makes it possible to distinguish different functional areas. The distribution of slag from metalworking shows up particularly clearly (fig. 76). The incidence of slag corresponds in part with what are known as bipolar anomalies in magnetic prospection, which can, therefore, be interpreted as metallurgical facilities. Thus Dr. Jablonka.

What I have shown you here is an example of how the various ways of looking at things and methods applied, such as topography of the terrain, excavation in trial trenches, magnetic prospection and systematic surveys, support each other.

Much more could be said about the results obtained from the systematic site survey. Taken as a whole, the results of the survey up to now have been very informative. The survey will, therefore, be continued in the years to come with the aim of recording the entire area of the city.
A few words, if I may, in conclusion, about Troia of the 2nd millennium from an interdisciplinary standpoint:

As is well known, current Troia scholarship unites the results of various different specialist disciplines, including those related to the study of the ancient world. This means in particular Homeric scholarship as an area of Hellenic philology, and further, Anatolian studies, or, in other words, the fields of those who study the languages and cultures of the Hittites and Luwians. Classical archaeology deals with this place, as does Near Eastern archaeology and several other related disciplines as well. All this has meant close collaboration on Troia as an area of research from the outset.

From the archaeological standpoint alone, something I would like to emphasize, we can now visualize a Late Bronze Age city, which in all essentials, for instance, as far as the layout of the city and the citadel as well as the diagnostic finds and characteristic findings are concerned, was orientated towards Anatolia rather than the Aegean. Most of Anatolia at that time was under the sway of the Hittites. In particular, the new knowledge gained in recent years and the interpretations of it have led to comprehensive discus-
sion. The existence of an extensive Lower City can nowadays no longer be questioned, from our viewpoint and that means the thinking of no fewer than sixty to eighty scholars and scientists who work at Troia each year and have always done so. Similarly, the importance or status of the city can be emphasized, as viewed from the standpoint of Hittitology or Anatolian studies mentioned above. By now Hittite treaties of vassalage can be linked with Troia, or (W)Ilios (Wilusa in the Hittite texts). If this fact alone underscores the high regard in which Troia was held, especially in the 13th century BCE – treaties between states (!) – the subject of Troia is and will remain of core importance in the field of Hellenic studies and specifically in the branch devoted to ‘Homeric scholarship’. Our excavations, as we hear time and again, have been stimulating for both disciplines. The upshot of these new excavations, however, relates to the two disciplines as follows:

The results obtained through our excavations:
1. They do not contradict the state of modern Homeric scholarship, as represented for instance by Professor Dr. Joachim Latacz, Hellenist in Basel, a majority of whose practitioners – if we view the situation correctly from Troia and Tübingen –seems to be of the opinion that there is a ‘historic core’ within the Iliad – (however one may choose to define this core) – such that Troia, for instance, was an important city for which it was well worth fighting over a long period of time. In this connection, see the Piper paperback edition of Latacz’ Troia und Homer, 2003.

Fig. 77: The Hittite kingdom, 13th century BCE
2. The findings of our excavations do not contradict those from modern Anatolian studies, as represented for instance by Professor Dr. Frank Starke in Tübingen, which – if we view things correctly from Troia and Tübingen – show a majority of scholars of the opinion that, with our operations, we are within the land of Wilusa and the city of the same name, a regional power which became a vassal of the Hittites in the 13th century. On this note, see the explanations advanced in recent years in the encyclopaedia of the ancient world Der Neue Pauly under the relevant headings, for instance, Wilusa.

The arguments – for a ‘historic core’ and for the equation of Troia with ‘Wilusa’ – are not at all new, but rather have been known within these disciplines for many years. They have in part been heatedly discussed within these disciplines but have undoubtedly been reinforced in recent years by new aspects, systemic to each discipline. If I view things correctly, those who represent the vanguard of scholarship in these specialist fields and are currently discussing their findings and views at specialist meetings, are in this respect more or less of my opinion. The results of interdisciplinary collaboration – or rather association – have also been shown in the Troia exhibition in Germany and Istanbul between 2001 and 2003, which, incidentally had about a million visitors. The picture that resulted from it has convinced many – and

Fig. 78: The 2003 excavation team
here the book accompanying the exhibition is recommended. There has also been a small circle of doubters from certain ‘schools’, who are for the most part – what else might be expected? – scholars of ancient history.

Colleagues and students, I thank you for listening so kindly and I believe I may say, also, attentively and with interest. Our academic yield, from archaeology alone, is certainly large and could not be adequately addressed in its full range at your Dies academicus. At our institute in Tübingen alone more than ten doctoral dissertations are currently nearing completion. Still I hope that I have been able to introduce you to ‘Troia in Light of New Research’ in a manner appropriate to such a festive occasion as this. Thank you!
Bibliography

The excavation reports and findings are regularly published in *Studia Troica*, of which volumes 1 (1991) to 13 (2003) have been published. Cf further:


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