ARCHAEOLOGIA BULGARICA

XXVI 2022 3

Archaeologia Bulgarica **XXVI 2022 #3**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ARTICLES

Gurova, M. / Stefanova, E. / Andreeva, P. / Kecheva, N. / Bonsall, C.: Prehistoric Flint Raw Materials and Artefacts from Bulgaria: The Next Step in Provenancing Balkan Flint 1

Tarhan, Z.: The Divination Motif on the Panagyurishte Amphora-Rhyton in Eastern Mediterranean Context 31

Torbov, N.: Ritually Bent Spearheads: The Evidence from Bulgaria (2nd – 1st c. BC) 41

Vojvoda, M. / Crnobrnja, A. N.: Coin Hoards Dated to the Time of Maximinus I from the Territory of Present-Day Serbia 57

Sharankov, N. / Hristov, I.: A Milestone for Emperor Trajan Decius Erected by the City of *Nicopolis ad Istrum* at the *castellum* of *Sostra* 67

Rabovyanov, D.: Trapezitsa – the Second Citadel of the Medieval Bulgarian Capital of Tarnovo – during the Ottoman Period, According to Archaeological Data 79

REVIEWS

Damjan DONEV. The Busy Periphery: Urban Systems of the Balkan and Danube Provinces (2nd-3rd c. AD). Archaeopress. Roman Archaeology, 61. Oxford: Archaeopress
(Zhivkov, V.) 101

Editor-in-Chief: Lyudmil F. VAGALINSKI PhD (Sofia, Bulgaria)

Editorial Advisory Board: Prof. László BARTOSIEWICZ PhD DSc (Budapest, Hungary); Prof. François de CALLATAŸ (Brussel, Belgium); Prof. Florin CURTA PhD (Gainesville, Florida, USA); Prof. Falko DAIM PhD DSc (Mainz, Germany); Prof. Haskel J. GREENFIELD PhD (Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada); Jean-Luc GUADELLI PhD (Bordeaux, France); Prof. Boris MAGOMEDOV PhD (Kyiv, Ukraine); Prof. J.V.S. MEGAW MA DLitt (Adelaide, Australia); Prof. Aristotle MENTZOS PhD (Thessaloniki, Greece); Prof. Marcel OTTE PhD (Liege, Belgium); Prof. Thilo REHREN (Nicosia, Cyprus); Prof. Mustafa SAYAR PhD (Istanbul, Turkey); Nicolay SHARANKOV PhD (Sofia, Bulgaria; deputy-editor-in-chief); Rastko VASIĆ PhD (Belgrade, Serbia); Prof. Tivadar VIDA PhD (Budapest, Hungary); Prof. Jak YAKAR PhD (Tel Aviv, Israel).

Language Editors: Sven CONRAD PhD (German), Leipzig, Germany; Jean-Luc GUADELLI PhD (French), Bordeaux, France; Amber ROY PhD (English), Newcastle, England.

All articles in Archaeologia Bulgarica are submitted to peer review.

On the cover: a silver coin of the Ottoman Sultan Murad II struck in 1422 AD; see the paper of D. Rabovyanov in this issue; photo by D. Rabovyanov.

ISSN 1310-9537 **Printed in Bulgaria**

Prehistoric Flint Raw Materials and Artefacts from Bulgaria: The Next Step in Provenancing Balkan Flint

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 1-30

Maria GUROVA / Elitsa STEFANOVA / Polina ANDREEVA / Nadezhda KECHEVA / Clive BONSALL

Abstract: Lithic raw material provenance studies are important for reconstructing patterns of raw material procurement and exchange in prehistory. However, understanding this process requires the accurate characterisation of archaeological artefacts. This paper is based on a large amount of analytical data from our previous research and publications, augmented by new results for a more representative corpus of samples from Early Neolithic sites throughout Bulgaria. By combining macro and micropetrography of geological and archaeological samples with geochemical data obtained using Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Mass Spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS), we demonstrate an optimal analytical approach to flint provenancing. This combined comparative study proved successful in matching artefacts with raw material sources, and for reconstructing raw material catchment areas and mobility patterns. GIS analysis was used to predict pathways for flint distribution between sources and sites, which are relevant to conceptualising the Neolithization of the eastern Balkans.

Key words: Raw material, Early Neolithic, micropetrography, LA-ICP-MS, GIS, flint provenance and distribution.

1. Introduction

The chipped stone assemblages from Bulgaria are an important marker of the spread of the Neolithic through the eastern Balkans. Research on the raw materials (flints) supplied from different sources and distributed to Early Neolithic settlements is of particular interest. Numerous attempts have been made to determine the interrelations between lithic artefacts and raw materials, procurement strategies, exchange systems, and human mobility in prehistory (e.g., Crandell / Vornicu 2015; Kerig / Shennan 2015; Sánchez de la Torre et al. 2017; 2019; Schwall et al. 2020; Ditchfield et al. 2021; Finkel et al. 2022; Gehlen et al. 2022).

This paper is based on published data on the raw materials (particularly Balkan flint), from which derive several important issues: i) Balkan flint occurs more or less simultaneously in the Neolithic package of the first farming communities in Bulgaria. In assemblages of the Karanovo I and II cultures, it appears as formal tools/toolkits (Gurova 2008; 2012b; Gurova / Bonsall 2014). Sites north of the Balkan Mountains contain a large number of artefacts but a lower proportion of formal tools made of Balkan flints (Gurova 2018; in press); ii) Several outcrops of Balkan flint have been identified in northern Bulgaria – in the Pleven–Nikopol region and near Shumen where, if not typical Balkan flint (in its inherent geological context), at least a local variant of Balkan flint has been defined and described (Gurova et al. 2016; 2022); iii) In northwestern Bulgaria near the village of Granitovo, a flint with a visual resemblance to Balkan flint

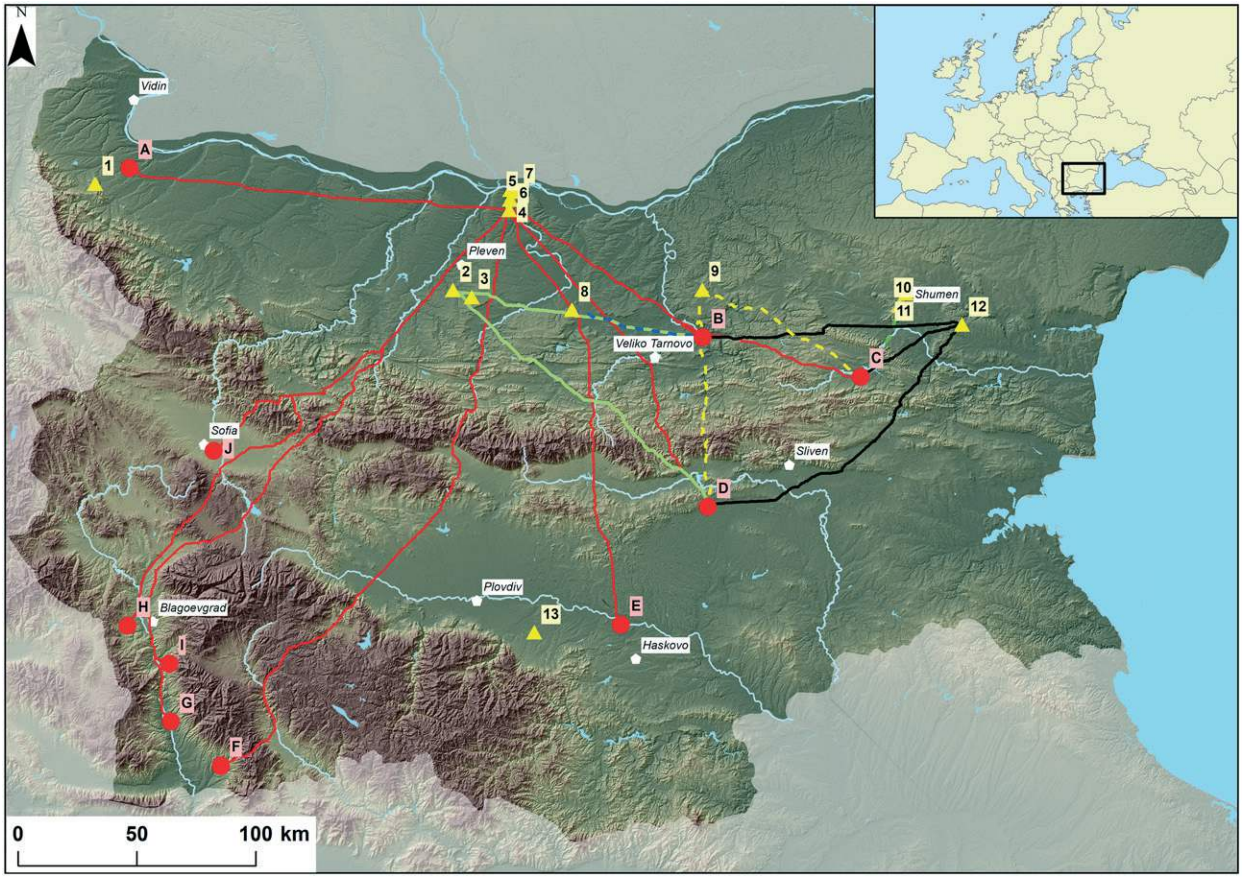

Fig. 15. Map of possible paths between raw material outcrops (yellow triangles) and archaeological sites (red circles): from the Nikopol cluster (**4, 5, 6 and 7**) to all ten archaeological sites (red line), from Gortalovo (**2**) to Dzhulyunitsa (**B**) and Karanovo (**D**) (light green line), from Varbovka (**8**) to Dzhulyunitsa (**B**) (blue dotted line), from Shumen I (**10**) to Varbitsa (C) (green dotted line), from Shumen II (Markovo) (**12**) to Dzhulyunitsa (**B**), Varbitsa (**C**) and Karanovo (**D**) (black line), from Lozen (**9**) to Dzhulyunitsa (**B**), Varbitsa (**C**) and Karanovo (**D**) (yellow dotted line) (N. Kecheva)

Dzhulyunitsa and Karanovo. Similar raw materials with abundant carbonate bioclasts are found in samples from Gortalovo and Pelishat villages;

3) All artefacts studied from Yabalkovo, Yarlovitsa and Slatina can be referred to Flint Group I;

4) When plotted on geochemical diagrams, most artefacts of Flint Group I (Balkan flint) are concentrated in a separate area and often overlap (**fig. 13**), indicating a possible common source for the raw material;

5) The dark-grey and black artefacts of Flint Group II occur in only a few settlements: Dzhulyunitsa, S54; Karanovo, S68 and S69 and Varbitsa, S41 and S42. Their petrography and geochemistry are like the Lower Cretaceous raw materials from the Kovachevo Formation samples Lozen 1, S79 and Lozen 2, S80 or raw materials from the Shumen area (Shumen II), but they are not identical. It must be emphasised, that the sediments of the Kovachevo Formation are widely exposed in the Veliko Tarnovo district and other parts of northern Bulgaria and most probably contain dark-grey and black flints with varying petrographic and geochemical characteristics. Thus, further fieldwork, sampling and petrographic/geochemical analyses are needed to determine whether the Kovachevo Formation is the source of Flint Group II;

The Divination Motif on the Panagyurishte Amphora-Rhyton in Eastern Mediterranean Context

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 31-40

Zozan TARHAN

Abstract: This paper discusses the divination motif in the scene of the amphora-rhyton part of the Panagyurishte golden treasure, namely divination performed by reading the signs on a liver of a sacrificed animal. Textual and archaeological sources preserve the evidence of the earliest emergence of this type of divination, which took place in Ancient Mesopotamia, and additionally, they allow to trace its spread in the Ancient Near East and subsequently in the Mediterranean world in general. Among the tasks of the present study is to determine if similarities and differences are observed. The comparative analysis would help us approach the meaning of the entire scene of the amphora-rhyton.

Key words: divination, Thrace, Eastern Mediterranean, Near Eastern influence, Panagyurishte golden treasure.

The present paper is dealing with the divination motif in the scene of the amphora-rhyton part of the Panagyurishte golden treasure (**fig. 1**); this motif presents a man observing the signs on a liver of a sacrificed animal[1]. Textual and archaeological sources preserve the evidence of the earliest emergence of this type of divination, which took place in Ancient Mesopotamia, and additionally, they allow to trace its spread – firstly in the other lands of the Ancient Near East, and subsequently in the Mediterranean world in general. Due to the presence of detailed textual accounts originating from Mesopotamia and Eastern Mediterranean, the research focuses on the main characteristics and the way this divination practice was performed there. Among the tasks is to determine if similarities and differences are observed between the represented motif on the Panagyurishte amphora-rhyton and the knowledge we have about this divination executed in the regarded lands. The comparative analysis would help us approach the meaning of the entire scene of the amphora-rhyton here under discussion.

Divination based on examining the entrails of a sacrificed animal is documented at the earliest in Ancient Mesopotamia. Written hints of this practice are available in various cuneiform texts from the 3rd millennium BC, but the earliest manuscripts specifically on the subject date from the early 2nd millennium BC, and the standard series known as *bārûtu* were compiled in the 1st millennium BC (Koch 2015, 67). To these sources various forms of manuals, reports and letters from the 2nd and 1st millennia BC must be included. According to the data from the Akkadian cuneiform sources, the practice of divination on entrails of a sacrificial animal must be called *nēpešti bārûti*. This is the final step, mentioned outside the omen literature, and it is part of the whole process involving *lipit qāti ḫiniq immeri naqē naqê nēpešti bārûti* – the touch of hand, the restriction (?) of the sheep, the offering of the sacrifice, the performance of extispicy (Jeyes 1991-1992, 23).

[1] For more detail picture of this motif see in Китов 1999, 29, fig. 2; Колев 1999, 85, fig. 5.

Fig. 2. Clay liver model from Sippar, Old Babylonian period (© The Trustees of the British Museum)

Fig. 3. Clay liver model from Mari, Old Babylonian period (© Musée du Louvre)

The divination performed on a liver reached the Greeks, but there were significant differences. It must be noted that so far no liver models have been found in the Hellenic environment (Flower 2008, 33-34). However, there is iconographic evidence on painted pottery, which represents the performance of the discussed divination. Such a scene is represented on a red figure amphora dated to ca. 500 BC and preserved at the Martin von Wagner Museum in Würzburg (L 507)[6]. The similarity between this and the other scenes, in which the divination is depicted, is that they are during military campaigns[7]. Written sources also testify that this practice was performed during military campaigns or during a cult festival that took place in a sanctuary and required the sacrifice of an animal (Flower 2008, 22; Johnston 2008, 3). A clarifying note with a view to understanding the scene on the red figure amphora just mentioned is that military generals were often accompanied by seers during the military campaigns. Therefore, in such circumstances, the slaughter of the animal and removal of its liver was performed by a mantis (μάντις) – a seer who has the gift of making predictions through various divination practices (Flower 2008, 22-24). The practice of observing the liver and other entrails of the sacrificial animal during a military campaign (but not on the military field itself) was called τὰ ἱερά. However, the very reading of the signs could also be performed by the military general. This is exactly what one observes on the scene on the red figure amphora. In the case of a cult festival, the priests made the sacrifice devoted to a deity and they were the ones who read the signs. Be it during a military campaign or a festival, a question is asked related to taking action or expecting an event, and the answer to this questions was a "yes" or "no" (Flower 2008, 100-103).

According to the main characteristics of divination on entrails, or specifically on a liver, among the Near Eastern societies and Greeks, some main differences can be pointed out. I will give examples with Mesopotamia. Firstly, in Mesopotamia these readings were not performed by priests, but, as I have already mentioned, by an expert and diviner called *bārû*, who had no temple affiliation[8]. These diviners, as well as many of those who practiced other divination techniques, were also not priests, but experts who had received education with specific knowledge and competencies[9]. A distinctive difference is also observed when compared with the Hellenic mantis, who predicted through various practices and methods, as well as the fact that his skills were granted from the gods, i.e. they were not result of some training. Secondly, in Mesopotamian practice, the animal was not supposed to be sacrificed only during a great cult festival or military campaign. A third significant difference is that divination on a liver and other entrails in Mesopotamia was important for undertaking certain activities, including military ones, but it could be done in order to get an answer to a specific request, as well as without such a question, namely in order to predict upcoming events, opportunities, dangers, etc. The fourth difference, I will point out, is that according to my knowledge the livers represented on Greek artefacts were depicted with their diaphragmatic surface[10]. Well, if the interpretation of the signs among the Greeks was made only/also based on the visceral surface, then on the painted pottery the livers would have been shown precisely/also with it. These characteristics and differences, as well as the fact that

[6] https://www.uni-wuerzburg.de/en/blickportal/sammlungen/mvwm-antikensammlung/kriegerabschied-mit-leber schau/ (10.05.2022)

[7] For similar scenes see Flower 2008, 54, fig. 8, 55, fig, 9, 56, fig. 10, 57, fig. 11.

[8] More about *bārû* see Koch 2015, 21–23.

[9] More about the other experts – Koch 2015, 18–24.

[10] P. Zazoff also pays attention to the fact that the livers and the divination process represented on the Greek painted pottery differs from the Etruscan way of representing them – Zazoff 1998, 100.

Ritually Bent Spearheads: The Evidence from Bulgaria (2nd – 1st c. BC)

Nartsis TORBOV

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 41-55

Abstract: Some 15 ritually bent spearheads have been documented from the territory of present-day Bulgaria. This article details the circumstances of their discovery and their characteristic form. The accumulated evidence dates this custom between 2nd and 1st c. BC and a comparison is drawn with some of the intentionally bent weapons discovered in other parts of the Balkan peninsula.

Key words: spearpoint, spearhead, sword, shield boss, umbo, sets of armament.

Introduction

Ritually bent weapons, including spearheads, do frequently occur in Iron Age graves and other sites. The present publication details some of these. Deformed La Tène armament was discovered during excavation of the sanctuary site Gournay-sur-Aronde, France (Rapin / Brunaux 1988, 134, fig. 66). There, deformed spearheads of Rapin's Type I – Type V are dated between 200-100 BC. These are classified into three groups according to the degree of bending of the blade – from 0° to 30° (Rapin / Brunaux 1988, cat. ## 370, 1364, 1753), from 30° to 90° (Rapin / Brunaux 1988, cat. ## 1122, 1913, 2191) and from 90° to 180° (Rapin / Brunaux 1988, cat. ## 424, 1910, 2281, 2408, 2589). Bent swords also occur with a profile characteristic for LT C2 – Groupe 5 (Lejars 1994, cat. ## 81, 123, 155, 1565A, 2524, 4307), Groupe 6 (Lejars 1994, cat. ## 126/129, 1480, 1517A) and for LT D1 – Groupe 7 (Lejars 1994, cat. ## 1428, 2790, 3100/3169, 3355).

Similar La Tène armament has been found in graves from Southern Bavaria and bent spearheads and swords are attested at Klein Groβeisenbach (Krämer 1985, 108-109, Taf. 47A/1-2), Freilassing (Krämer 1985, 116, Taf. 53A/3), Fridolfing (Krämer 1985, 117, Taf. 53D/10), München-Obermenzing (Krämer 1985, 122, Taf. 60/3-4), Pähl (Krämer 1985, 132, Taf. 66E/6) and Taimering (Krämer 1985, Taf. 90/C5).

Moreover, bent weapons have been documented in other European regions. At Kelvedon in Essex, a sword (Sealey 2007, 5, fig. 2/1-4) and a spear point (Sealey 2007, 8-9, fig. 4/6) were discovered and the excavations conducted in the area of Malaia Kopania, Chelenitsa I, in Ukraine, uncovered structures and finds from an LT D sacred centre; ritual bending of weapons was confirmed from complex 5 and complex 6 (Котигорошко 2015, 24, рис. 22-23).

The ritual deformation of weapons has also been attested from the Balkan peninsula. In the cemetery of Zvonimirovo – Veliko polje, Croatian graves LT2, LT4 и LT12 contain LT C2 swords which are bent (Dizdar 2013, 80-82, t. 2/1-2, 6, t. 20/1-2)) and a spear head from grave LT2 which is also bent (Dizdar 2013, 143, 145, t. 3/1-2). The presence of ritual bending of armaments, including spearheads, has also been

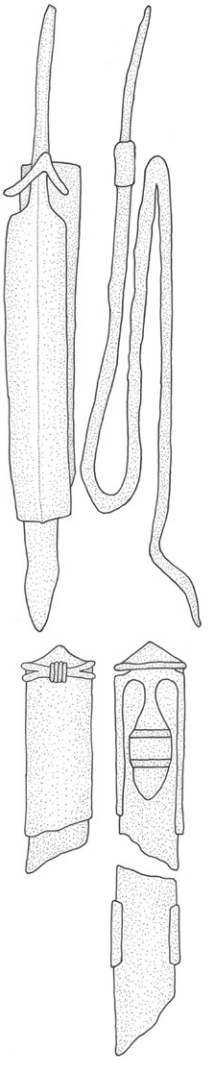

Fig 14. Sword from Tazha

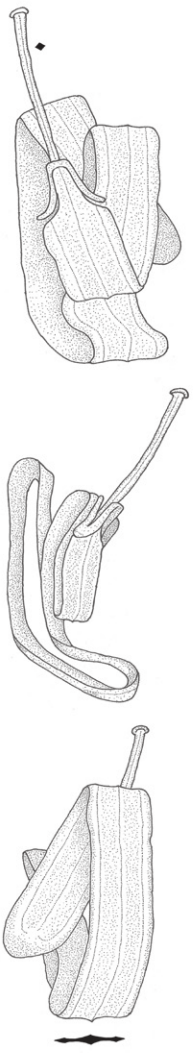

Fig 15. Sword from Sofronievo

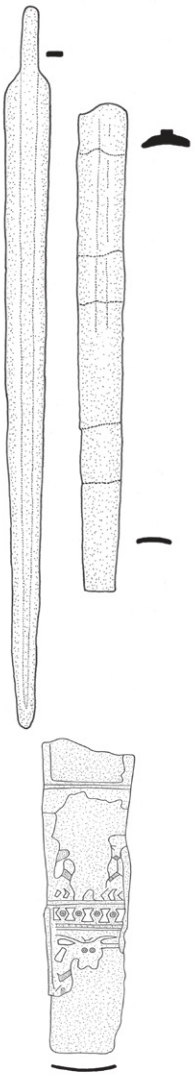

Fig 16. Sword from Tazha

Figs.: 14 Sword from Tazha (the author); **15** Sword from Sofronievo (the author); **16** Sword from Tazha (the author)

constructions and the burial ritual. Their inventory contains umbos with round periphery – LT D, and bridles of Typ XVI (Werner 1988, 81-101, Taf. 37-56). They make up sets of armaments and accoutrements similar in composition to the ones found in Sofronievo, Vratsa region, and the ones originating from other areas of the territory between the rivers Iskar and Ogosta. Included in them are swords in a shape characteristic of LT D1 as well as bridles from this type (Торбов 2020, 58-61). The same is valid for the two bent specimens (**cat**. **## 12-13, figs. 12-13**) kept in the Archaeological Museum in Varna. They probably come from a grave, the inventory of which also includes a bridle of Typ XVI (Werner 1988, 81-101, Taf. 37-56).

It is difficult to determine the last stage when the deformation of spearheads was performed. Deformation was probably conducted in separate areas even after the establishment of the Roman provinces *Moesia* и *Thracia* on the territory of present-day Bulgaria. An example in this respect is the spearhead **cat. # 7, fig. 7,** found in grave 1 in tumulus 3 of the necropolis near Tazha, Stara Zagora region (**map**)**.** The grave construction was discovered in the eastern part of the tumular embankment. The outlines of the grave are determined by the pile of charcoals, mixed with soil, and the inventory, among which burnt

Coin Hoards Dated to the Time of Maximinus I from the Territory of Present-Day Serbia

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 57-66

Mirjana VOJVODA / Adam N. CRNOBRNJA

Abstract: There are three known hoards from the territory of present-day Serbia which end with coins of Maximinus I: the Supska II, Ravna and Mehovine hoards. Taking into account the Roman division of the provinces, the hoards from Ravna and Supska (II) originated from the territory of Upper Moesia, while the Mehovine hoard represents a find from this period, deposited in Lower Pannonia. Since the latest pieces in all three hoards are dated broadly from January/autumn AD 236 to the first quarter of AD 238, the reasons for burying the finds may be different: the terror spread by Maximinus' agents when collecting taxes; the violence of the troops and of the local administration; or a reaction to the news of the rebellions in Africa and in Rome.

Key words: Roman Empire, coin hoards, Maximinus I, Upper Moesia, Lower Pannonia.

Introduction

Roman coin hoards represent important sources in the study of the political, economic, and social history of a certain period and territory, especially the periods about which historical sources offer little information.

The analyses of these finds require caution in their interpretation, primarily because the circumstances of discovery are often insufficiently reliable. A large number of coin hoards from the territory of present-day Serbia[1] originate from the 3rd century AD, with their numbers gradually increasing from the time of Severus Alexander and Gordian III, reaching a peak in 252-253 AD, during the reigns of Trebonianus Gallus and Aemilianus. A significant number of hoards from 254 AD, during the reign of Valerian I and Gallienus and from the reign of Aurelian, have also been registered (**fig. 1**).

There are three known hoards (**fig. 2**) from the territory of the present-day Serbia that end with the coins of Maximinus I: Supska II, in the vicinity of Ćuprija (Borić-Brešković / Vojvoda 2013, 9-153; Vojvoda / Redžić 2020, 533, #12), Ravna, *Timacum Minus* (Кондић 1983, 51-73; Borić-Brešković / Vojvoda 2013, 10, 18, Table 4; Vojvoda / Redžić 2020, 533, #11) and Mehovine, in the vicinity of Šabac (Карапанџић 1914, 160-164; Borić-Brešković / Vojvoda 2013, 21-113; Vojvoda / Redžić 2020, 533, #10)[2]. Taking into consideration the Roman division of provinces, the hoards from Ravna and Supska (II) originated in the territory of Upper Moesia, while Mehovine was the only find from this period deposited in Pannonia Inferior (**fig. 3**). There are also remarkably few known hoards from the time of Maximinus I in the neighbouring provinces (**fig. 4**), except in Lower Moesia, where six have been found: Sanadinovo, Golyama Brestnitsa II, Mikre V, Bisertsi, Constanţa (*Tomi* II) and Dunavatul de Jos (Върбанов 2017, 19, # 133, 20, # 148, 24, # 180, 38, # 285, 70, # 540, 70, # 545; Теодосиев 2017, 418, 291-292, 308-309). Three finds originate from the neighbouring Thracia: Sofia (*Serdica* III), Shanovo I (Oryahovo) and Shanovo II (Върбанов 2017, 75, # 585; 93, # 720; 93, # 72; Теодосиев

[1] The present-day Serbia covers parts of the Roman provinces of Upper Moesia, the south-eastern part of Lower Pannonia, the north-eastern part of Dalmatia and a part of the Barbaricum between Lower Pannonia and Dacia.

[2] In literature, the hoard from *Sirmium* is also attributed to this horizon of hoards (cf. Даутова-Рушевљанин 1981, 65, # 11). It transpired that the published data is incorrect and that the hoard from site 56 was deposited in the 4th century AD. Kind thanks are due to our colleague Miroslav Jesretić from the Museum of Srem for the information provided.

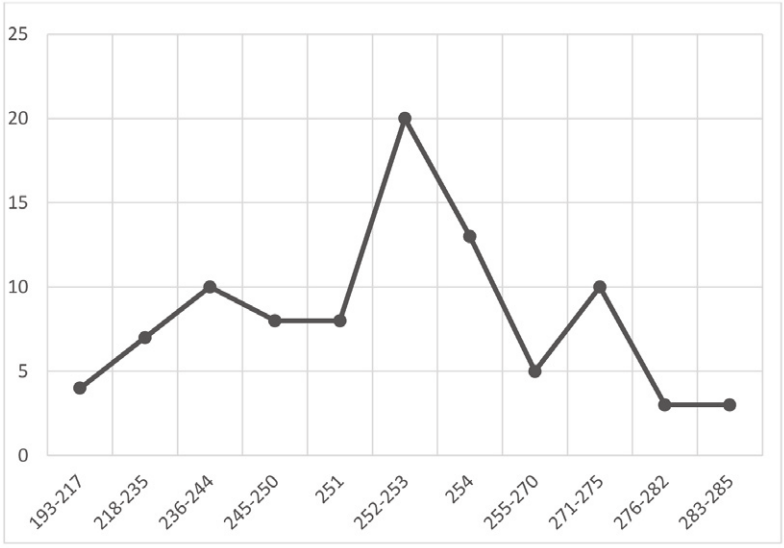

Fig. 1. Thrid century coin hoards from the territory of present-day Serbia

Authority	Supska II	Ravna	Mehovine
Marcus Antonius	1		
Nero			1
Galba	1		
Otho	2		
Vitellius	1		
Vespasian	29	1	19
Titus	3		2
Domitian	3		2
Trajan	29		5
Hadrian	18	1	7
Antoninus Pius	85	2	11
Marcus Aurelius	52	5	6
Commodus	69	6	15
Clodius Albinus	4	2	4
Septimius Severus	414	37	130
Caracalla	75	30	77
Macrinus	3	3	2
Elagabalus	88	48	76
Severus Alexander	56	47	114
Maximinus I	1	5	18
Undetermined	1		
TOTAL	**935**	**187**	**489**

Fig. 2. Content of the coin hoards from the time of Maximinus I from the territory of present-day Serbia

2017, 602, 645), while only one hoard was discovered in the territory of Roman Dacia: Mojgrád, Szilágy vármegye.[3] Additionally, one coin hoard originates from the territory of the Macedonia province: Larissa (Touratsoglou 2006, 175, # 12). No larger number of finds have been recorded in the nearby western provinces. From Upper Pannonia, only the Csapon hoard (Zala komitat) is known, from present-day Hungary (Gohl 1914, 70; Găzdac 2010, *Pannonia Superior* 7), while the Leskovec find, from present-day Slovenia, originates from Noricum, from the area located at the border with Upper Pannonia (Mirnik 1981, 65, # 186; Kos 1986, 112-113, # 5). A find from the vicinity of Postojna originates from the territory of Slovenia, but from the area that belonged to Italy in

[3] Mojgrád, Szilágy vármegye, today Moigrad (Roman *Porolissum*). Unpublished (Ét. 496/1880). We express our deepest gratitude to our colleague Vida István from the Hungarian National Museum for providing us with data about these unpublished monetary finds.

A Milestone for Emperor Trajan Decius Erected by the City of *Nicopolis ad Istrum* at the *castellum* of *Sostra*

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 67-77

Nicolay SHARANKOV / Ivan HRISTOV

Abstract: The paper publishes a milestone for Emperor Trajan Decius dated to late AD 249. It was found in 2021 in the area facing the main gate of the *castellum* of *Sostra*, close to the findspot of a milestone of AD 244 for Emperor Philip the Arab. Its erection by the city of *Nicopolis ad Istrum* confirms the existence of a road *Sostra* – *Nicopolis*, as shown in the Peutinger Map, and suggests that the administrative territory of the city extended as far as *Sostra* to the west.

Key words: Roman roads, Soldier emperors, Crisis of the third century, Decius Trajan, imperial cult, *Nicopolis ad Istrum*.

1. Archaeological Context[1]

In July 2021, regular archaeological excavations were carried out in front of the eastern fortification wall of the *castellum* of *Sostra* (near the village of Lomets, district of Troyan). The excavations followed the prescriptions of the project "Archaeological Complex of Sostra – Restoration, Exposure and Socialization of a Roman Castellum and a Roman Road Station" developed by the team of architect Julia Zhelezova and approved by the Ministry of Culture of the Republic of Bulgaria. The project required a comprehensive survey of the area enclosed between the section of the 3rd-century Roman road and a late antique wall located to its west. This was the sixth consecutive season of excavations (since 2015) in the so-called "Roman road" sector of the *Sostra* roadside complex.

Excavations were conducted in 5 new trenches totalling 173.25 sq. m (**fig. 1**). Trenches # 8 and # 9 provided interesting results about the early history of the *castellum*, in a continuation of trench # 6 where a stone structure with mud mortar, revealed in 2019, was initially interpreted as a second road to the west of the route of the main Roman road (Христов 2020, 831-835). What remains of this structure is a 2.20 m wide single-row substructure of rubble and river stones parallel to the road and the eastern walls of the *castellum* (**fig. 2**). It was revealed at a length of 60 m in a northwest-southeast direction together with remains of the foundations of a north wall with a preserved length of 10 m. The faces of the northern section of the wall were constructed of large thick slabs (**fig. 3**). The structure had been destroyed before the first half of the 3rd century when the road in front of the *castellum* was built. A profiled fibula dated to the late 1st century AD and a Roman Republican *denarius* struck in 58 BC were found at foundation level on the inside of the wall in a yellow clay layer mixed with small fragments of ceramic building material. Small fragments of red-gloss ware found on the inside of the wall date a later use of the structure to the second half of the 2nd century AD. It should be mentioned that an

[1] Parts 1 and 4 are by I. Hristov; parts 2 and 3 – by N. Sharankov, and part 5 was written by both authors.

Fig. 7. The milestone exhibited in the lapidarium of the Museum in Troyan

the rest of the text, which is typical for indications of distance on milestones[2]. The lines, especially in the upper part, are rather uneven, and the lettering indicates a stone-cutter who was not particularly skilled in engraving Latin texts. Due to lack of space, the last letters of lines 1 (S) and 3 (I) were engraved on the right side (**fig. 10**), so that inappropriate (non-syllabic) division of the words might be avoided. Due to the same reason, the stone-cutter, after originally having engraved *CIVITA* at the end of line 10, erased the last two letters *TA* and wrote them again at the beginning of line 11, ensuring a correct syllabic division of the word: *civi|tas*[3]. In line 8, the surface of the stone had been apparently damaged before the engraving of the text, so that the stone-cutter left a blank space in the middle of the line. Clear separation marks are visible after the abbreviated MESS· on l. 2 and COS· on l. 9; such marks were probably present elsewhere in the text as well, but numerous small hollows, cracks and breaks in the surface prevent their secure recognition[4]. The text of the inscription is otherwise clear and – after expanding the abbreviations – reads as follows:

Imp(eratori) Caes(ari)
Mess(io) Tra-
iano Deci-
o Pio Fel(ici)
5 *invicto*
Aug(usto), pon-

[2] Cf. the same peculiarity on the other milestone found in *Sostra* (Sharankov / Hristov 2019, 63).

[3] The only example of a non-syllabic division of a word in the text is *PR|OC* on l. 9-10.

[4] E.g., on line 10 after *OC* and on line 11 after *TAS*, blank spaces are left, but no separation marks are discernible.

Trapezitsa – the Second Citadel of the Medieval Bulgarian Capital of Tarnovo – during the Ottoman Period, According to Archaeological Data

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 79-99

Dean RABOVYANOV

Abstract: The research examines the problem of the transformation of the capital of the Second Bulgarian Kingdom Tarnovgrad within the conditions of the new Ottoman authority from the end of the 14th – the first half of the 15th century AD. The observation is focused on the second fortified urban core – the fortress of Trapezitsa, which has been actively studied through archaeological excavations over the last 15 years. The analysis of the archaeological, numismatic and architectural data reveals that in contrast to the other urban body – the fortress of Tsarevets – in its larger part, Trapezitsa was abandoned by its residents. Life at the end of the 14th and the early 15th century AD has so far been registered around Church # 4 in the eastern section of the fortress and a small residential neighborhood close to the Southwestern gate. Towards the middle of the 15th century AD, the habitation of Trapezitsa ceased and the fortress fell out of the urban structure of Tarnovo, which now acquired the outlook of an Ottoman town.

Key words: Tarnovo, Trapezitsa fortress, Ottoman period towns.

Introduction

Tarnovo is located in the centre of present-day Northern Bulgaria. Its protected position in a passage zone of the foothills predetermines its transformation into the capital of the Second Bulgarian Kingdom. Tarnovo retained this role from AD 1185 to 1393, when it was conquered by the Ottomans after a three-month siege. The town consists of two fortified cores – Tsarevets and Trapezitsa, and the unfortified and fortified suburbs around the Yantra River at their foot (**fig. 1**). Especially during the second half of the 14th c., it was a complex and densely populated agglomeration. Within its framework, Tsarevets appeared as a centre, with the seats of the Tsar and the Patriarch and a numerous population. Trapezitsa does not differ significantly from it, and before its conquest, by the Ottomans, it was densely built up with residential neighbourhoods, churches, monasteries, and military and administrative buildings.

The Ottoman conquest of the Second Bulgarian Kingdom (1185-1396) led to lasting changes in all spheres of life of its population. At the same time, the Bulgarian statehood and the related institutions were effectively terminated. The implementation of these changes was a gradual process, covering the time at least until the middle of the 15th c.

The research on Tarnovo during the Ottoman period is not a new topic. Over the years, results and literature which are the product of both historical research and archaeological research have accumulated. For obvious reasons, the excavations have covered mainly the two cores of the medieval town – Tsarevets and Trapezitsa. Along with

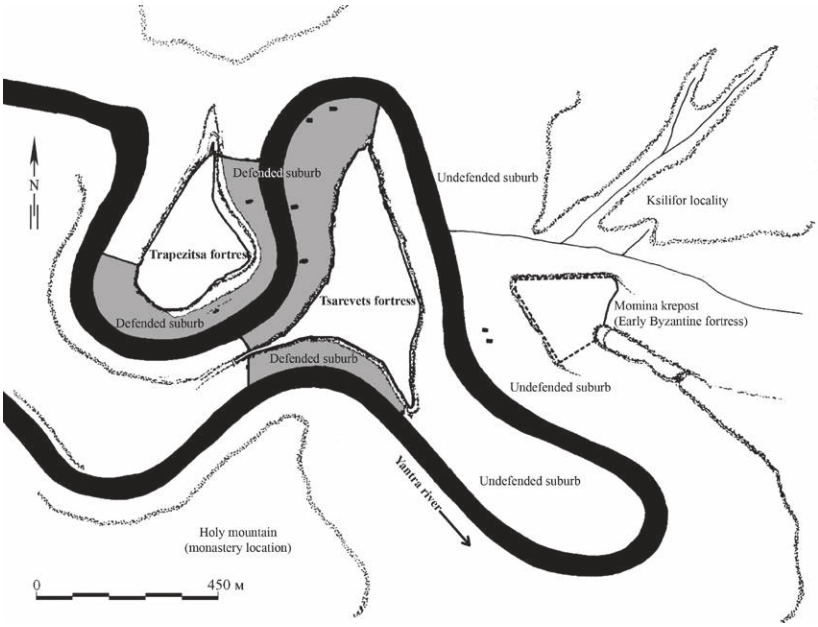

Fig. 1. Medieval Tarnovgrad: **a** aero photography of present day Tarnovo with medieval remains (G. Hristov); **b** schematic plan of Tarnovgrad during 13th – 14th century AD (D. Rabovyanov)

them, a part of their suburbs has been studied, in which the attention fell mainly on the monastery complexes and the churches together with the adjacent necropolises. For the foothills of the two citadels and for Tsarevets there are indisputable data about the inhabitation or use from the fall of Tarnovo in 1393 to the Liberation of Bulgaria in the 19th century AD[1]. The image related to the second urban core – Trapezitsa is unclear.

Analysis of the Archaeological and Historical Data Collected So Far

Being the first officially excavated archaeological site in the revived Bulgarian state following 1878, Trapezitsa has always attracted the interest of researchers. Although in the background the question of its fate after the fall of Tarnovo under Ottoman rule in AD 1393 has not been left without attention. Yet, it began to be raised only after the democratic changes in the late 20th century AD.

As a result of a study on the conditions of the churches in Trapezitsa in 1991, Lidia Kvinto stated that at least some of them, such as # 2, 3,

[1] In order for the reader not to be disturbed, the spacious referencing to these researches will be avoided, focusing mainly on the one directly linked to the topic of the current research.

REVIEWS

Archaeologia Bulgarica
XXVI, 3 (2022), 101-106

Damjan DONEV. The Busy Periphery: Urban Systems of the Balkan and Danube Provinces (2nd-3rd c. AD). Archaeopress. Roman Archaeology, 61. Oxford: Archaeopress. viii + 379 pp., ISBN 978-1-78969-349-2 (Print). ISBN 978-1-78969-350-8 (e-Pdf).

This publication forms part of a doctoral thesis and contributes to a larger ERC-funded project by the University of Leiden, the Netherlands. It is an impressive study that covers most of the Balkan Peninsula and parts of modern Romania. Its large geographical scope (400 000 square kilometres) is unlike traditional research which typically focuses on a specific city with its territory, Roman province or modern borders. "The Busy Periphery" extends to most of the Balkans: part of the X Italian region, Dalmatia, (Upper) Macedonia, Epirus, Pannonia (Inferior and Superior), Moesia (Inferior and Superior), Thrace and Dacia (Porolissensis, Apulensis and Malvensis). The book follows a logical progression – (Chapter I) Introduction, (Chapter II) The Genesis of Urban Life, (Chapter III) The Founding of New Roman Settlements, (Chapter IV) The Settlement Size, (Chapter V) The Agricultural Territories, and (Chapter VI) The Administrative Territories. The author's analysis systematically goes from West to East. Every chapter ends with a short conclusion with the most important results being included in (Chapter VII) Conclusion, alongside comments by the author. The book ends with an impressive bibliography and catalogue of the sites, sorted by province and settlement status. It is richly illustrated with 106 figures, 126 maps and 22 tables. The work is extremely ambitious and complex and is challenging even for a review. For this reason, I will limit my critical notes only to Thrace and Moesia – the Roman provinces that I am most familiar with.

Chapter I looks at the current state of research and defines the geographical and chronological borders. The main purpose of this book is to examine the urban development during the time of the Severi (generally the period before the crisis of 3rd c. AD) which ultimately changed the Roman Empire. During the first half of the century, the Roman civilization and urban life flourished in this region. This is partly because of the policy of Septimus Severus who took the privileged position of Italy and *Constitutio Antoniniana* of his son Caracalla (212 AD) which gave Roman citizen status to the peregrine communities. Damjan Donev surpasses his initial goal and further traces the development of the towns from the 2nd – 1st c. BC throughout most of the Principate. The exclusion of parts of Thrace and Macedonia (located in Turkey and Greece) seems strange at first glance. The linguistic difficulties are however well-argued. Whilst most of the Balkan states use Slavic languages, the languages of modern