ZIRIDAVA

STUDIA ARCHAEOLOGICA

31

2017

MUSEUM OF ARAD

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STUDIA ARCHAEOLOGICA

31
2017

Editura MEGA
Cluj-Napoca
2017

MUSEUM OF ARAD

In Romania, the periodical can be obtained through subscription or exchange, sent as post shipment,
from Museum of Arad, Arad, Piata G. Enescu 1, 310131, Romania.
Tel. 0040–257–281847.

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STUDIA ARCHAEOLOGICA

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ISSN 2392–8786

Editura Mega | www.edituramega.ro
e-mail: mega@edituramega.ro

Contents

Unveiling History. Archaeological Excavations in the Fortress of Ineu (Arad County)*

Florin Mărginean, Zsolt Csók, Keve László, Victor Sava

To Professor Paul Niedermaier on his 80th anniversary

Abstract: The reasons behind elaborating this article are related to the results of the preliminary archaeological excavations performed in Ineu in 2016. We believe and especially hope that this stage represents a significant first step in the rediscovery of the early phases of use of the fortress in Ineu, an initiative that is also extremely important for the restoration process initiated by the local authorities. The history of the settlement of Ineu is tied to that of the castle and the medieval fortress now located in the central part of the town. Considering these aspects, we deemed necessary to complement the presentation of the results of the first archaeological excavations with a brief presentation of the most significant moments that have marked the history of the fortress and settlement of Ineu from the Middle Ages until today. Despite the fact that our investigations were limited, the results thus obtained are promising in relation to the development in time from the so-called *castellum* to the 17th century bastionary fortification and the modifications of the 19th century. The opened trenches have touched parts of the northern, western, southern, and central parts that only represent one percent (1%) of the total surface that measures 4500 m^2, of what is today a castle, with a plan acquired in the second half of the nineteenth century. As for the entire complex, it is increasingly difficult to identify parts of the planimetry of the old noble residence, but also of the bastionary fortification due, on the one hand, to the town planning development that has largely overlapped the *intra* and *extra muros* areas, and on the other hand due to the chaotic edilitary "momentum" of the last few decades. The various maps, ground plans, conscriptions and inventories, vedute, sketches, or photographic images are thus of real help. They can at least aid in the reconstruction of the general planimetries, but sometimes also in reaching certain detail issues.

Keywords: archaeological excavation, *castellum*, Middle Age, fortress, Ottoman Period, Ineu.

Introduction

The authors of the present article wish, first of all, to valorize the only archaeological excavations made until now in the fortress of Ineu[1]. As subsequently indicated, the results of the excavations were able to bring to light not only elements of material culture[2], but also several pieces of information regarding the planimetric development of the inner fortress. Besides connecting the new discoveries to the realities known from the domain literature[3], we also deemed necessary to make a brief presentation of the most important moments that have marked the historical development of medieval and early modern Ineu[4].

None of the written sources or later images allows us to estimate the shape and dimensions during the early phases of the noble residence up until the end of the 15th century. There was certainly an evolution of the living quarters, annexes, and defensive systems that were lost due to subsequent

* English translation: Ana M. Gruia. The present article is the slightly modified and completed variant of a presentation delivered during the conference *Interethnic Relations in Transylvania. Militaria Mediaevalia in Central and South Eastern Europe*. Sibiu 2016, 13th–15th October.

1 The research team consisted of: Florin Mărginean (scientific coordinator, Arad Museum Complex), Zsolt Csók (National History Museum of Transylvania, Cluj-Napoca), Keve László (Mures County Museum, Targu Mures), and Victor Sava (Arad Museum Complex). We hereby wish to thank the local authorities who have supported these initial archaeological excavations in the fortress of Ineu. We equally thank the local inhabitants who became involved and aided us in certain moments of our initiative.

2 We chose to analyze the material culture found during the excavation in a separate study, thus the present paper only touches marginally upon the topic.

3 Márki 1895, II, 105, 109; Sasu 1972, 544–547; Celebi 1976, 513–515; Lanevschi 1977, 559–561; Rusu, Hurezan 1999, 53–55; Gheorghiu 2017, 166–167.

4 Márki 1895, II, 105, 109; Sorbán 1934, 13–25; Suciu 1967, I, 309; Sasu 1972, 544–547; Lanevschi 1977, 559–561; Pascu 1979, 277; Glück 1981, 131–148; Rusu, Hurezan 1999, 53–55; Rusu 2005, 563; Chiș 2007, 68–87; Karczag, Szabó 2010, 89; Gheorghiu 2017, 166–167.

developments or merged into a much more complex fortified system built under the imminent danger of the Ottoman power manifest towards the end of the Middle Ages. It seems that the largest interventions were implemented during the interval before and especially after the two periods of Ottoman occupation (1566–1595 and 1658–1693). During all this time the complex turned into an actual fortress, up to the standards set by the development of firearms and war tactics. Thus, the precinct was extended, protected by ample ditches, and a series of towers and bastions were added in the new Italian style fortress. Most of them disappeared during the monument's Modern-Era development; a single bastion survived as evidence over time, on the right bank of River Crișul Alb. As for the *intra* and *extra muros* area, rather well rendered on a 17th century ground plan, it also features other constructions, marked on the plan, both inside the precinct of the fortress and in the fortified area north of it as well; the only building that survived until towards the middle of the 20th century was the old mosque (v. Fig. 1).

In order to remake this entire puzzle, we believe that publishing results of the first archaeological excavations is but a stage that will subsequently aid in the understanding of the settlement of Ineu from a historical perspective from the Middle Ages until Modernity.

Geographical and Historical Setting

The city of Ineu (*Borosjenő* [HUN]) is located in the valley of River Crișul Alb, on the plain of Crișul Alb, 57 km northeast from the city of Arad. The valley of Crișul Alb is the predominant element of landscape shaping around Ineu, ploughing through and forming small dejection heights along its path in the Western Plain of Transylvania. In the meadow areas, the river has now less meanders and the majority of its branches are dry, probably due to the creation of agricultural lands and in order to avoid periodical flooding. Realities were different during the Medieval Period, when River Crișul Alb (*Fehér / Weisse / Körös Fl.*) provisioned an entire system of canals and ditches that were part of the defensive system of the fortress. The systematization works performed along the river, mostly during the last couple of centuries, have strongly changed the previous landscape. The images preserved on some ground plans and on the Austrian military maps are conclusive to this (Fig. 1).

Fig. 1. Location of the fortress of Ineu on the three Habsburg military topographic surveys (1785~1806–1869 1869–1877) (after: http://mapire.eu/en/).

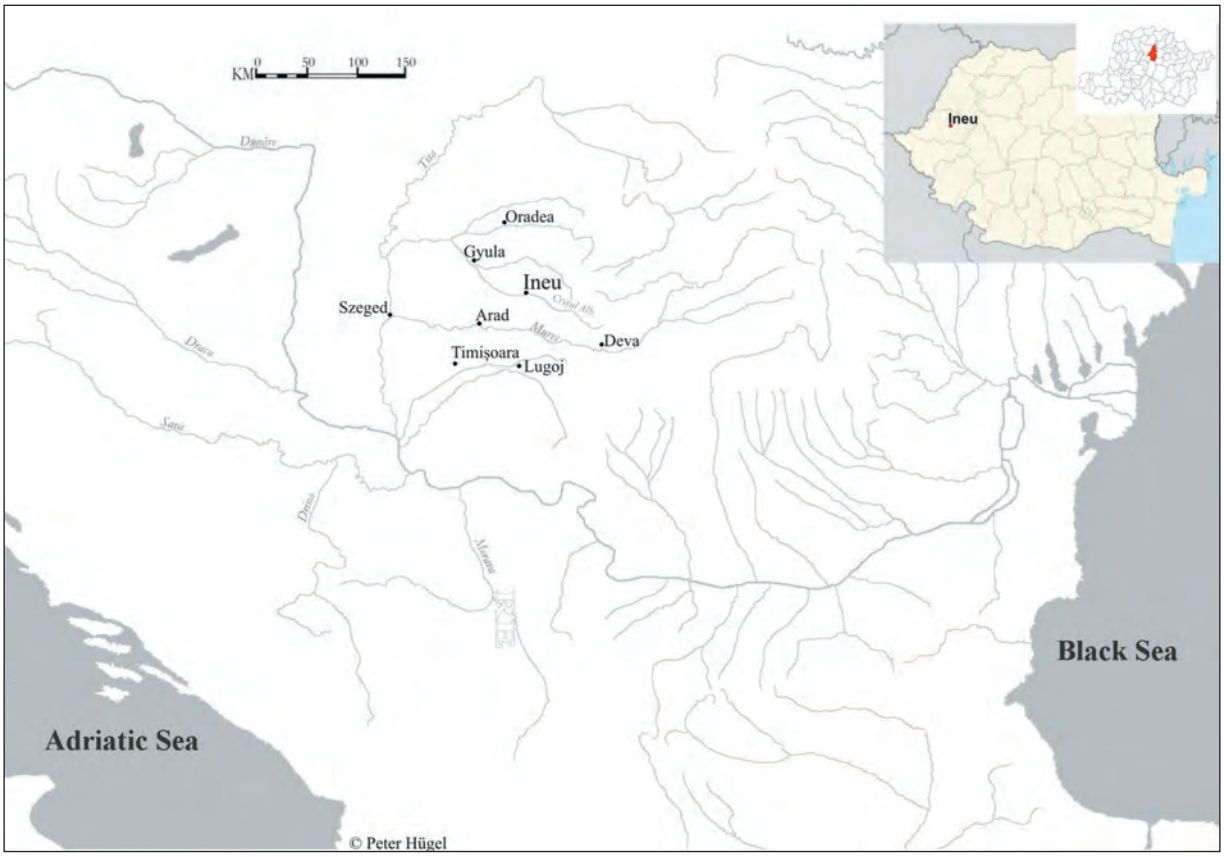


Fig. 2. Geographic location of the city of Ineu.

The altitude of the plain in the area of Ineu reaches 110 m above sea level. The relief is highly varied in details, but in general it consists of two levels[5].

The fortress is located on the right bank of River Crișul Alb, 150 m north of the current center city of Ineu. What is currently preserved from the old fortress is a castle that has been rehabilitated in Neo-Gothic style and has received a new function in the second half of the 19th century[6], plus the remains of one of the bastions of the fortress. Today the land plot occupies the area between Traian Street, by the intersection with I. Slavici Street, and M. Sadoveanu Street[7].

*

Even if there are few written sources, also few archaeological data available on the early period of Ineu, the formation of the settlement somewhat followed the same pattern as other settlements throughout the Arpadian Kingdom[8]. Historical realities reveal that Ineu became an important administrative, but also ecclesiastical center, therefore a power center in the area of Zarand during both the Medieval Period but especially during the Early Modern Period and during the Ottoman Occupation.

The early period of the territory around the settlement of Ineu[9] is connected to the construction north of Crișul Alb of Dionysius/Dienes/Dyenus's Monastery (*Dienesmonostora*), to which one can add a series of small settlements identified though non-intrusive field survey in its vicinity, some of which were very likely to be the property of the monastery (*villa Dienesmonostora*, *villa Monasterii Sancti*

5 Glück *et al*. 1974; Velcea *et al*. 1979; Posea 1997, 267–268.

6 Until 1904 the castle was used as military garrison (*kaserne*), then it housed an Institute of Education for Special Needs (see A magyar siketnéma-oktatásügy állapota 1911-ben. Magyar Siketnéma-Oktatás, XIV/12. Budapest 1912, 232–233; Somogyi 1913, 114).

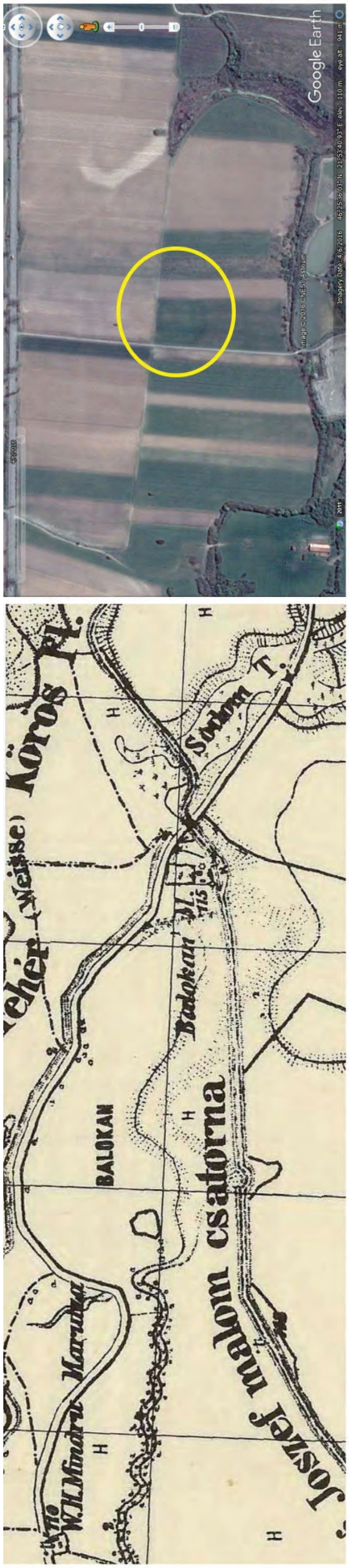
7 Gheorghiu 2017, 156.

8 Engel 2006, 86–88.

9 Some authors believe that the name of the settlement is connected to the founder for this monastery (Dyenus) – see Sorbán 1934, 102. Still, the discussion is far from settled, as there are also other possible interpretations (see Drăganu 1928, 11–13, 83; Tripa 2007, 15–21), that we do not wish to discuss here.

Dyonisii)[10]. In this context one should mention that twelfth-century documents mention the monastery of *Dienesmonostora*[11], an important family monastic foundation, located in the eastern border of Ineu, on the right side of the road leading towards Bocsig[12]. It seems that the mention of that *castrum de Macra* should also be connected to the territory occupied by the monastery[13]. The existence of earthen ramparts around the monastery, marked on the third Habsburg military survey (v. Fig. 3), on the only ground plan known from Márki[14], and on the current satellite images could be connected to that documentary mention[15].

The monastery was often mentioned in documents up until the end of the 15th century[16], as it was an important ecclesiastic institution in the landscape around Ineu[17]. The end of the monastery is suggested by the fact that in 1502 the establishment was in ruins[18]. We believe this brief presentation useful because, as we will show below, part of the monastery survived through the walls of the new fortress built in the central part of Ineu. In the context of the events of the first half of the 16th century, i.e. the constant pressure that the Ottoman Empire exerted on the Hungarian Kingdom, it seems that the mentioned monastery ruins were outworn and the materials probably used also for the building and consolidation of the fortress of Ineu. It is very likely that the architectural components attributed to the Romanesque



a b

Fig. 3. Location of the monastery of Dionysius/Dienes/Dyenus (*Dienesmonostora*): a. On the third Habsburg military topographic survey (1869–1877) (after: http://mapire.eu/en/); b. On a satellite image (after: Google Earth).

[10] Pottery fragments dated with certainty to the Arpadian Period were found on several locations from the territory of the present-day settlement. We mention here the fragments signalled by Mr. Nelu Ursan, whom we hereby thanks, on the location called "Gheţărie", located between the road towards Șicula and Crișul Alb, and others from a area east of the city, between the road leading to Tămand and Crișul Alb. There are also several fragments recovered from Pusta Bălucana, where we have identified the monastery of *Dienesmonostura*. The distribution of the above mentioned locations is relevant for the mobility of the habitaton hearths of the different types of settlements from the Arpadian period in teh area of Ineu, typical in fact for the entire Kingdom (Takács 2000, 240).

[11] CD II, 1829, 374–375; MonEcclStrig I, 1874, 160–161; DIR, C, I 1951, 17–18.

[12] Márki 1892, I, 85–86; Heitel 2003, 40.

[13] Rusu, Hurezan 2000, 173–174.

[14] Márki 1895, II, 441–443.

[15] One should state, in passing, that the mention of that *castrum de Macra* seems to have led some of the authors dealing with the history of Ineu during the recent period to a confusion, erroneously connecting it to a Roman fort. This has allowed some people to falsely attribute the present-day ruins of the fortress from the center of the city to such an ancient fortification. As the region around the city of Ineu was never part of the Roman Empire, discussions on this topic are superfluous (see also in Gheorghiu 2017, 163).

[16] Heitel 2003, 55.

[17] Koszta 2000, 51–60.

[18] Rusu, Hurezan 2000, 174.

style were discovered ever since the repairs performed by Péter Atzél in the second half of the 19th century, but nobody suspected they might have originated in the monastery[19]. The fact was confirmed by the wall face plane excavations performed in 2016[20]. The investigation has indicated that several blocks (columns bases, capitals, door and window frames, decorated blocks, and even glazed floor tiles etc.) were massively used in the construction of the south-eastern and north-western towers but also in the erection of the western side of the current precinct. Some of the blocks have been attributed to the Romanesque style, but others can be dated later and one cannot exclude their possible origin in the Franciscan monastery that was also destroyed during the Reformation[21].

As for the early development of the current settlement, it is undoubtedly connected to the erection of a noble residence and then of a fortification in the central part of the city[22]. A 1295 document mentioning Ineu seems to refer to the fortification of Jenö in Nógrád County[23]. Mentioned as a simple village (*villa Jeneu*) ever since the 13th century in the county of Zarand[24], by the end of the 14th century Ineu ended up in the possession of the Losonczy family. This was the time when one can be certain that the building of a *castellum* began, but the first *castellanus (Losonczy)* was only mentioned in 1472[25]. Until towards the middle of the 16th century one knows that the place became the center of a noble administration that included 30 villages[26], a situation that continued during the period of Ottoman occupation[27].

The documents indicate that the settlement gained in importance after the 13th century, but especially from the 14th century onwards, when the written sources mention it as a possession (estate) – 1347[28]. In 1387 the Losonczy family received the domain of Ineu (*possesio Jeneu*) and started to build a castle (*castellum*) there, while Ladislas Losonczy founded the monastery of the Observant Franciscans dedicated to the Virgin sometime between 1387 and 1395[29]. Ineu is mentioned as a market town (*oppidum Jenő*) in the middle of the 16th century, with a domain consisting of 30 villages and 48 households[30]. In 1444 the fortress ended up for a while in the possession of Ioan of Hundeoara, governor of Hungary. Unfortunately, the few data are available for this period on the development and planimetry of the castle built by the Losonczy family. Turning to the 17th century prints, they appear equally unhelpful, as the majority render imaginary images that are far from the on-site realities (see Fig. 4). The preliminary wall face analyses, corroborated with the results of the archaeological excavations, will have to bring new data on what was left of the primary phase of the edifice.

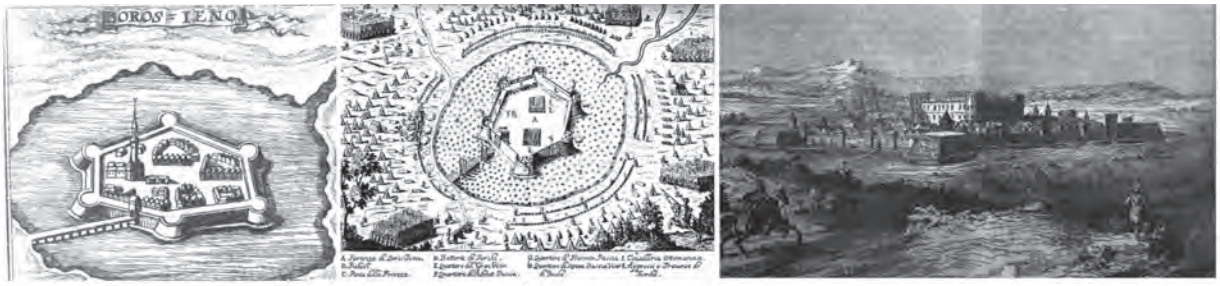


Fig. 4. Engravings depicting the fortress of Ineu before the 1645–1652 reconstruction (after Márki 1895, II and Gluck 1996) and after G. Haller's reconstruction (after Márki 1895, II).

19 Heitel 2003, 54 (with the comments and indicated literature).
20 Weisz, Kovács 2016.
21 Rusu, Hurezan 2000, 183.
22 Several fragments of clay cauldrons were discovered in 1978 in the courtyards of the present-day castle during works for the excavation of foundation trenches (v. *RepArh* 1999, 78). Unfortunately, in the absence of other contexts, we find it very difficult to attribute them to clear structures, as this pottery type was typical to the period between the 11th and the 13th centuries when such items were found both in rural settlements and in the county centers marked by earth and timber fortifications, but also in monasteries.
23 Rusu 2005, 563.
24 Szentpétery 1923, 64.
25 Roz, Géza 1997, 131.
26 Blazovich 1996, 64.
27 Márki 1892, II, 98.
28 Roz, Géza 1997, 131.
29 Rusu, Hurezan 2000, 182–183.
30 Roz, Géza 1997, 132.

Subsequently, the importance of the fortress and of the area implicitly grew, becoming the scene of historical events connected to the fall of the Hungarian Kingdom (1526) and then, after 1541, to a large part of it coming under Ottoman rule. The defeat of Mohács, on August 29th 1526, and the subsequent occupation of the capital of Buda (1541) have led to the dissolution of the Hungarian Kingdom, with a large part of its territory falling under Ottoman rule[31]. The power void thus created has led to a civil war between the parties of Ferdinand I of Habsburg and Ioan Zápolya that had an impact on the evolution of the different regions of the former kingdom[32]. After 1541, along with the formation of the Principality of Transylvania, the county of Zarand became part of the latter, including the fortress of Ineu. Thus, the period after 1552 proved crucial to the development of the region between River Mureș, the rivers Criș, and River Tisa. Besides Lipova, Gyula, and then Oradea, Ineu became an important location in the sphere of the wars waged among the Ottomans, the Habsburgs, and the Principality[33]. In the context of this development, the area of Zarand and Ineu implicitly have strongly felt the Ottoman pressure materialized in 1556 through conquest and restructuring (Fig. 5/a)[34].

In 1566 Ineu (*Janova* in Turkish) became the center of an Ottoman sandjak, part of the vilayet of Timișoara[35]. This was a first administrative and territorial development phase of the vilayet, that was divided into six sandjaks:

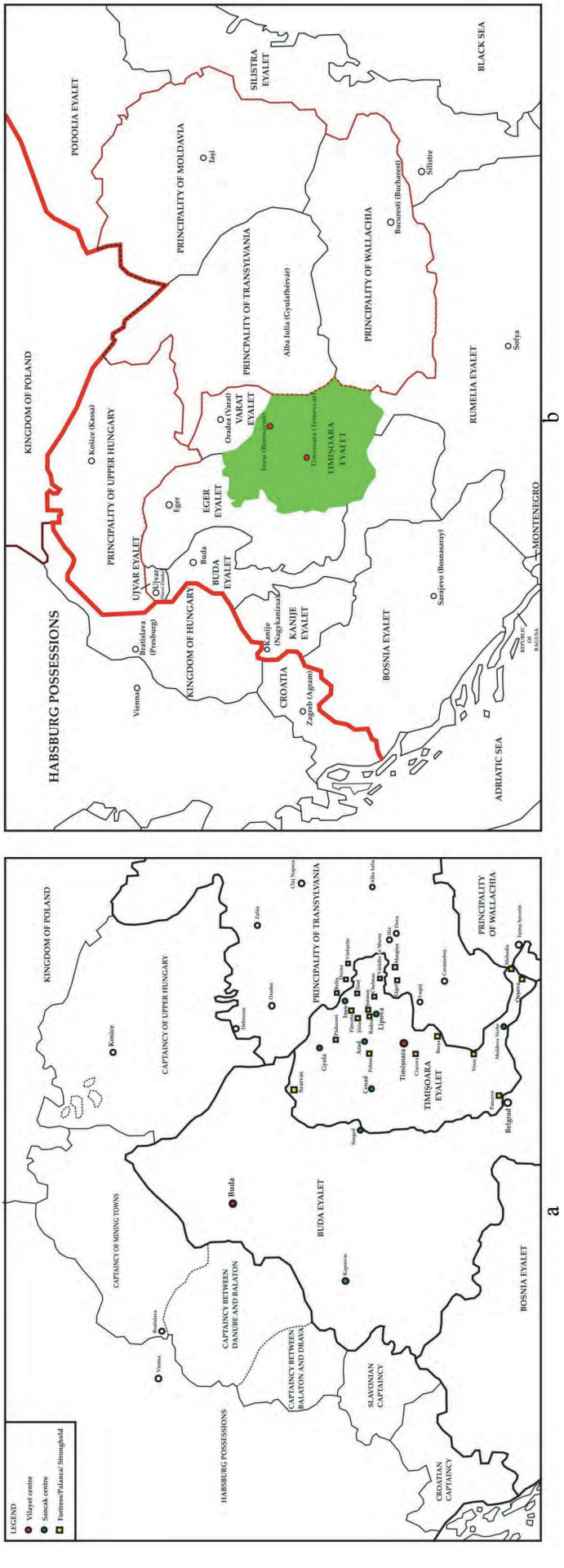


Fig. 5. a. Administrative-military map of the vilayet of Timișoara during the second half of the 16th century;
b. Map of the vilayet of Timișoara during the second half of the 17th century.

31 Pálffy 2000, 7–33.

32 Iambor 2002, 7–13; Pállfy 2009, 41–48.

33 Glück 1981, 132–133.

34 Iambor 2000, 24; Fenești 2014, 26, 171.

35 Fenești 2014, 26.

Timișoara, Lipova, Arad-Gyula, Cenad-Becicherecu Mare (today Zrenjanin), Moldova, and Pâncota-Ineu, that were preserved until the war between the Ottoman Empire and the Holy League[36]. It is worth mentioning that a church of the Orthodox Bishopric is attested, according to tradition, ever since the 15th century, in the constantly changing context of the belonging of these territories. Until the 17th century Ineu was the residence of an extensive Greek Rite Bishopric, with the best known hierarchs from the Brancovici family[37].

Ineu was under Turkish occupation between 1566 and 1595 and then again between 1658 and 1693. The Ottoman occupation of the fortress certainly made its mark on certain aspects of the defensive system, but also on the inner structure. One should foremost note the mosque built south-west of the castle, in the large Italian-style precinct. The palisade was built at the sultan's advice of May 5th 1571, through a decree approved at the request of the beylerbey of Timișoara to have the settlement surrounded with a palisade against bandits; the work was performed by the peasants inhabiting the settlement and the guard troops extended their jurisdiction up to the palisade[38].

The census performed in 1567 by the Turkish authorities only records, out of the two guard units, the one that belonged to this district. One does not know the exact size of these units, but the sources indicate that 53 soldiers received their pay here during this period: 38 mustafides and 15 artillery soldiers the officers of which remain unknown. Among the 53, 22 had Balkan-origin names. The two corporals of the guard units had an annual income of 1815 and 1862 *akce*, while the soldiers earned annually between 1700 and 1723 *akce*[39].

Four platoons of mustafides (40 people) and two platoons of artillerymen (15 people) are mentioned in 1579, with 55 soldiers in total; the officers remain unmentioned this time as well. The pay of the mustafide sorporals varied between 1815 and 1848 *akce*, while the pay of the rest of the soldiers remained unchanged[40].

339 people feature on the 1591 list, between April 25th and October 18th – riders, azabs, martalogs, and pedestrians – out of which 326 were present. One should also mention a certain Mustafa Mezid kapudan, commander of the fleet, probably the one on River Criș. It is also worth noting the fact that out of those present, 52% had Balkan names, 63 Muslims and 35 Christian[41].

The anti-Ottoman position of the Principality materialized on October 22nd 1595, when the Transylvanian troops managed to breach the fortress of Ineu after a long siege. A county head (*pârcălab*) who had the garrison at his disposal, was appointed in 1599 on Mihai Viteazul's order[42]. The subsequent half century was marked by the continuous transformations triggered by the constant pressure of the Turks. The defensive system was very likely amplified during this period, in order to be able to face the Turkish attacks. Clear data are available from this period in regard to the domain of the fortress, a domain that supported such an effort; besides, the situation is similar to that of other border fortresses. It seems that in 1602 the fortress was under Ștefan Petneházy's command[43]; subsequently he also became count of Zarand. The 1605 conscription and inventory is a significant document for the planimetry of the fortress and for its defensive elements at the time[44].

Prince Sigismund Báthory's expeditions against the vilayet and the fights between the Ottoman troops and those of general Basta (1601–1604) have triggered territorial modifications. The sultan could not overlook the losses suffered by the Turks and he requested that the fortresses of Lipova and Ineu be peacefully turned over to each of the pretenders to the princely seat of Transylvania[45]. Through the capitulation of Lipova (1616), Ineu became a border fortress and this made the Diet set obligations required to strengthen the fortress[46]. In this entire "play" the fortress of Ineu remained under the rule

[36] Hegyi 2000, 165; Hațegan 2005, 65; Fenești 2014, 138–139.
[37] Rusu, Hurezan 2000, 112.
[38] Fenești 2014, 198–199.
[39] Hegyi 2007, 1488.
[40] Hegyi 2007, 1488–1489.
[41] Hegyi 2007, 1489.
[42] Glück 1981, 135.
[43] Magina 2011, 90.
[44] Sasu 1972, 544–555; Magina 2011, 89–93.
[45] Fenești 2014, 139–140.
[46] Sasu 1972, 545–546.

of the Principality and played a key role until it was reconquered by the Ottomans led by grand vizier Köprülü Mehmed pasha in 1658.

A new fortress, with a significantly larger precinct, was built between 1645 and 1652 on the location of the old fortification, according to the ground plans of Gabriel Haller who was appointed supreme count of Zarand County, the jurisdiction of which extended to the springs of River Crișul Alb. Part of a bastion on the right bank of Crișul Alb is all that remains from the fortification built by Gabriel Haller in the middle of the 17th century. Two other bastions were erected in the south-western and north-western corners and a fourth, in the north-eastern corner, was only begun and left unfinished, very likely under the pressure of the new Ottoman offensive[47].

In 1658 the entire area of Ineu was reconquered by the Ottoman troops[48]. At that time the Ottoman rule extended over the entire territory of Banat and over certain significant parts of Crișana. It was the maximum territorial-administrative extent of the vilayet of Timișoara, which consisted of eight sadjaks (Timișoara, Cenad, Ineu, Lipova, Moldova Veche, Orșova, Gyula, and Lugoj–Caransebeș). Between the campaign to conquer the fortress of Oradea, in 1660, and 1684 one notes that the center of the vilayet was at times set in Ineu and other times in Timișoara. The confusing situation was caused by the fact that several rulers of the vilayet used alternatively the titles of pasha of Ineu and pasha of Timișoara[49].

When he was in the area, in 1660, Evlia Celebi mentioned 8000 soldiers in Ineu, though we believe the number is exaggerated even if he took into consideration the local guard, the troops of the Porte, and the sipahi who lived there[50]. No other Ottoman written sources referring to the state of the fortress in Ineu are known besides this piece of information. A mosque was also built during this period[51], and it was not the only one[52], and the fortress was strengthened under Ali pasha, governor of Buda (see Fig. 6).

Fig. 6. a. Flóris Rómer's sketch of the mosque and fortress (1870); b. The mosque in a graphic representation by Laszlo Gyalus (1905) – (the MF Archive, Museum of Arad); c-d. Photographic images of the mosque in ruin during the first half of the 20th century (the MF Archive, Museum of Arad).

47 Glück 1981, 141–142.
48 Hațegan 2005, 207.
49 Hațegan 2005, 207–208; Feneșan 2014, 170–174.
50 Celebi 1976, 512–515; Glück 1981, 144–145.
51 Lanevschi 2003, 185–186; Szabó 2010, 53–82.
52 Feneșan 2014, 322.

In 1693 the fortress was conquered by the Habsburgs and this moment marks the end of its functional use and the beginning of its decay. A ground plan that is relevant to the state of the fortress and of the settlement and hinterland seems to have been made sometime towards the end of the 17th century. The plan, entitled *Borosinoe* and preserved in a Swedish archive, seems to have been made before or right after the Habsburg conquest[53]. The plan features a depiction of the inner fortress and one can remark upon the planimetry that has remained in very general lines unchanged until today. Thus, there are the three massive cylindrical towers on the south-eastern, north-eastern, and north-western corners, while the south-western tower is missing; there is also the plan of a building in the middle of the precinct, but also an access bridge over the defensive ditch that stood on the southern and western sides. The plan of the outer fortress completes the general picture after Haller's construction; it is slightly trapezoidal in shape, with three diamond-shaped bastions and one apparently unfinished on the north-eastern corner[54], surrounded by a ditch that communicated to River Criș. Westwards and especially northwards one finds the depiction of another precinct, with an ample opening, protected both through ravelin-type bastionary designs, located from the south-western part until towards the northern edge, and through a ditch that surrounds the entire area. Another area, with no constructions whatsoever, is rendered to the east of this precinct, surrounded to the south and to the east by the waters of River Criș and to the north by another ditch that communicates with the river. From the south, from beyond the Criș, one could enter the fortress by crossing a bridge protected by a ravelin, but the plan also renders at least three other access areas, most likely provided with bridges, on the south-eastern side, towards the north-eastern edge over the defensive ditch connected to the Criș, and on the south-western side of the precinct. The access from the south-western side seems to create a connection with the area south of the Criș, towards the precinct north of the bastionary fortress, and then towards the empty space depicted on the plan to the east. According to the representation at least, on the western side of the bastionary fortress the road seems to cross even the defensive ditch, very likely on some wooden structure. The same plan delimitates a much wider area south of the Criș, labeled "palanka", crossed from west to east by a road connected to both the fortified precinct and the area east of it. The precinct south of the Criș also seems to have had, according to its palank label, a minimal system of fortification, rendered through a ditch crossed by access bridges to the west and to the east. The area very likely had minimal wooden palisades or defenses (see Fig. 7/a 17th century plan). The image provided by this plan might suggest its military functions, in the context described by the events from the end of the seventeenth century, a fact also suggested by the absence of all details on areas inhabited by civilians[55].

Another plan, recorded in the 1791 *urbarium*, shows the position of the fortress in relation to the settlement south of the Criș (see Fig. 7/b Map 1791). Besides other elements of the defensive system (ditches, bastions etc.), one notes the presence of certain edifices inside the precinct of the old fortress such as the mosque and a rather large building on the western side. The area structured north of the fortress is no longer rendered, as it was very likely taken out of use after these territories came under Habsburg rule and it seems that only the plan and the street network of the settlement south of the Criș were featured.

Between 1700 and 1745 it became the garrison of the troops of the Illyrian Tisa-Mureș border regiment[56]. In 1702 the mosque was transformed and given to the Roman-Catholic cult; it remained so until 1858, when a new church was built on the left bank of River Crișul Alb. In 1746 the fortress was abandoned[57].

In 1803 the erarium sold the domain of Ineu to the Aczél family. After 1870 the fortress, in a state of degradation, was restored at the request of Péter Aczél (former mayor of the city of Arad). Ample modification were brought, the rendered castle shape belonged to the Romantic Period, born of the desire to create an atmosphere that was as close as possible to the Middle Ages[58]. Several visual

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53 Plan source: https://sok.riksarkivet.se/bildvisning/K0008004_00001.
54 Glück 1981, 141–142.
55 Gheorghiu 2017, 158.
56 *Aradul. Permanență* 1978, 155–164; Chiș 2014, 17–22; Gheorghiu 2017, 155.
57 Glück 1981, 147.
58 Gheorghiu 2017, 168.

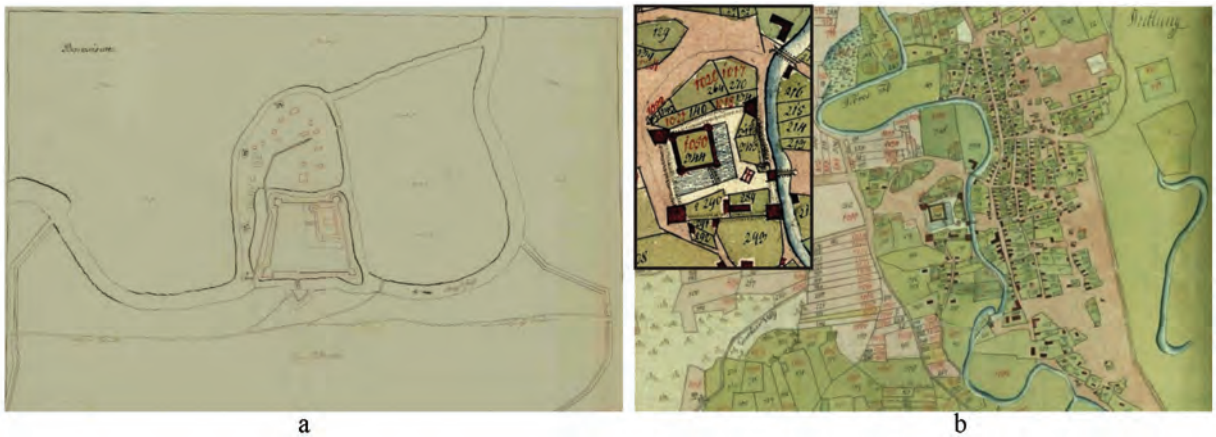

Fig. 7. a. The fortress of Ineu and the outer city on a seventeenth-century plan, matching Evlyia Celebi's description (Plan source: https://sok.riksarkivet.se/bildvisning/K0008004_00001); b. Plan of the fortress and of the settlement recorded in the 1791 urbarium (Plan source: Szabó 2010, 55, Fig. 1; https://maps.hungaricana.hu/en/MOLTerkeptar/1895).

sources are available from this period as well, relevant for the state in which the present-day castle was before the beginning of Péter Aczél's the renovation (see Fig. 8/b Drawings 1856, 1871). One can see that the southern side was completely destroyed and there is only a house attached to the south-eastern tower which was just as ruined as the tower on the north-eastern corner (see Fig. 8/a). On the western side one can see the entrance gate, part of the filled-in ditch, and several loopholes in the curtain wall. The north-western tower still preserved its roof.

Fig. 8. a. Graphic representation of the fortress (1856 – unknown author); b. The fortress of Ineu after a graphic representation by architect K. Hantelmann (1871) – (the MF Archive, Arad Museum Complex).

The garrison of the 11th Honvéd battalion was housed there towards the end of the 19th century and the monument thus lived its last days of slightly military function. A photograph still shows remains of the southern curtain wall of the bastionary fortress and the mosque (see Fig. 9/a Foto 1892/1933).

Fig. 9. a. Image of the castle, the mosque, and part of the southern precinct of the bastionary fortress (1892); b. Interwar-period image with the castle and the ruined mosque (1933).

After 1904 the castle was turned into a mental hospital, housing the "Sfânta Treime" Medical-Pedagogical Institute for children with mental health problems[59].

In 1950 the ruins of the old mosque were dismantled despite the interventions and requests of representatives of the entitled authorities in București who pleaded for the preservation of the monument (see Fig. 9/b)[60].

Rehabilitation works and adaptations of the construction to a school's functions were performed in 1975–1976. The interventions affected in time the structure of the medieval and modern masonry and foundations, but they have somewhat contributed to preventing the abandonment and demolition of the monument in a period when there was no clear legislative framework for the protection of such monuments (see Fig. 10 Foto).

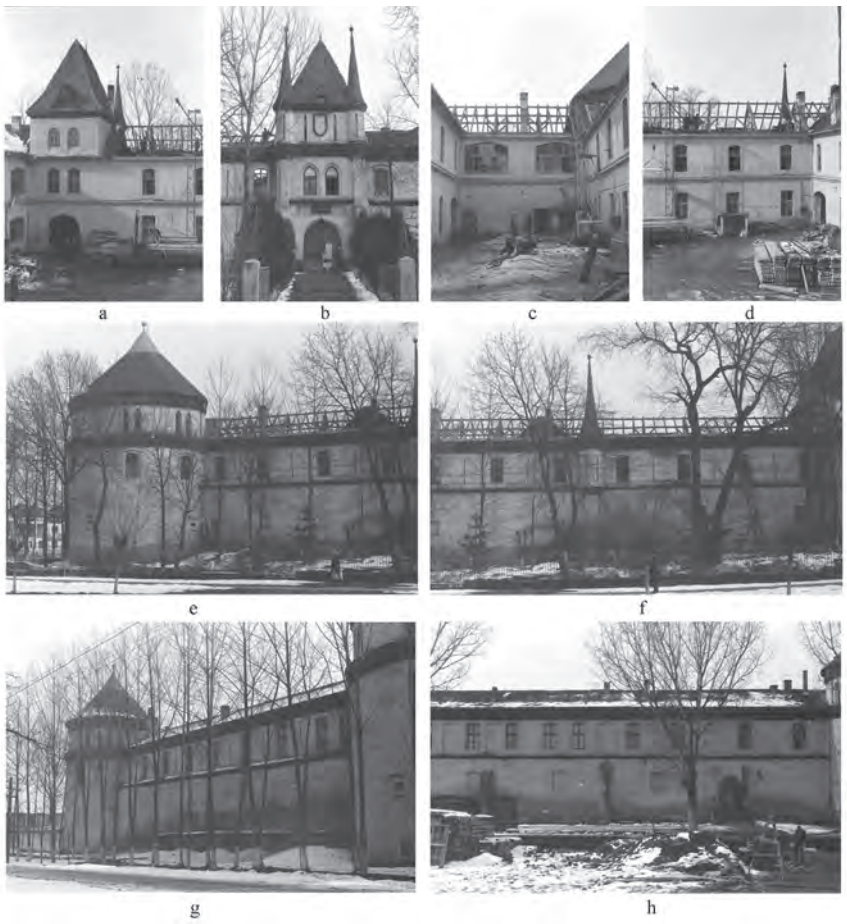

Fig. 10. Images during the rehabilitation works performed in 1975–1976 (the MF Archive, Museum of Arad).

[59] Sorbán 1934, 15; Glück 1981, 147.

[60] Opriș 1988, 241.

Excavation objectives

Preventive archaeology initiatives on monuments always raise the most diverse challenges; in the present case the problems were mostly technical, due to the limited research area, the constrains of the areas where interventions could be made, a limited budget etc. The poverty of data provided by the written sources makes any archaeological discovery a consistent contribution to the knowledge of any monument or settlement. Unfortunately, no systematic archaeological investigation has yet been performed in the fortress of Ineu and the only contributions are those brought by a few focused studies on the chronology of the monument or of some of its components, by conscriptions and inventories, or by stray discoveries[61].

What is known for certain is that the fortress of Ineu was practically abandoned after the middle of the 18th century and it lost its initial functions due to the fact that it became an inner fortification part of the Habsburg Empire. This has certainly led to the gradual degradation of the monument until it became only a ruin in local consciousness. This is also suggested by the preserved 19th century images that show that the south-western and south-eastern sides of the fortress were ruined to the ground (see Fig. 8). As for the defensive system created through the erection of the bastionary precinct (see Fig. 9/a), it is largely gone for the same reasons discussed above, except for the south-eastern bastion now located in the bank of River Criș.

The archaeological test trenches excavated in 2016 were located in the areas where geotechnical prospections have been performed and on places where wall face analysis could provide indications on the different construction stages. The performed preventive archaeological excavation was preliminary in character, aimed at becoming a first stage in the start of consolidation, restoration, and rehabilitation works performed at the fortress of Ineu.

The archaeological excavations

The performed preventive archaeological excavation was preliminary in character, motivated by geotechnical tests and aimed at correlating the results obtained through wall face investigations performed over some sectors of the fortress. We deemed all these preliminary data to be vital for providing indications on identifying the different construction stages of the monument. Determining the stratigraphy of the monument was another important element from the perspective of future archaeological research approaches. The discovered elements of material culture are suggestive to the technological and comfort level reached during different historical periods[62].

There were several immediate gains of a scientific nature: the identification and documentation of the stratigraphy, of levels of construction and reconstruction, of levels of foundation, of structures with a defensive role, of the building and the main entrance gate in the fortress, of the foundations and part of the elevation of some buildings, of the 17th century pavement, as of several elements of material culture such as pottery (tableware items, construction ceramics etc.), items made of iron, glass, and bone, animal bones etc.

A large part of the discovered archaeological material could be chronologically included into the second half of the 16th century and the beginning of the 17th century, in fact the period when the settlement and fortress of Ineu enjoyed the greatest importance.

The archaeological investigations were aimed at fully researching the archaeological objectives discovered during the eight test trenches performed. Among them, three test trenches were performed outside the monument, *i.e.* one on the western side (S 01), one near the north-eastern tower (S 02), and one near the south-western tower (S 06). Two test trenches were excavated inside one of the rooms of the southern construction unit (S 03 and S 04) and three others (S 05, S 07 and S 08) in the great courtyard from the castle's precinct (see Pl. 1).

We shall now present a synthesis of the results obtained through the excavation of the eight trenches. Also, when needed, we have tried to correlate the archaeological context with existing documentary information (written, cartographic, graphic, photographic etc.)[63].

[61] Márki 1895, II, 105, 109; Sorbán 1934, 13–25; Suciu 1967, I, 309; Sasu 1972, 544–547; Lanevschi 1977, 559–561; Pascu 1979, 277; Glück 1981, 131–148; Rusu, Hurezan 1999, 53–55; Rusu 2005, 563; Karczag, Szabó 2010, 89; Magina 2011, 89–104; Gheorghiu 2017, 166–167.

[62] See footnote 1.

[63] Our presentation only includes the information obtained through the opening of the eight test trenches, in close

S 01 (2.2 × 2.3 m). The trench was located by the old gate (re)discovered on the western side of the castle through wall face investigations, 12.5 m north of the actual gate and access way that is now through a tower built in the Neo-Gothic Style. It is worth mentioning that an inscription connected to the completion of the works performed under the coordination of Gabriel Haller (1652) has been preserved above the current entrance gate[64]; it seems that the inscription has been relocated from the south-eastern bastion, the only one preserved until today from the Italian-style bastionary fortress. As for this sector, a simple analysis of the facade reveals differences in the manner of construction and in the materials used on the ground floor (stone, either simple blocks or reused finished blocks) and the upper floor (exclusively made of brick), from the north-eastern tower until the current access way, caused by the different construction phases. In the same sector we have identified several loopholes[65] that are also visible on the 19th century sketches (see Fig. 8).

Due to the restricted character of the investigation we chose to test only the northern half of the wall face area, where the gate frame was identified, under a fill-in layer of brick, most probably constructed during the Modern Period. For the wall-in, masons have used finished blocks among other things, some certainly parts of frames dated to the Romanesque Period and the Renaissance. A ventilation opening was also performed during that period for the new cellar into the old access way into the fortress. The ventilation opening was built sometime during the twentieth century. The gate frame was made of raw sandstone jambs that supported a semicircular arch made of brick. An inscription has been preserved above the gate's arch, from the largely degraded text of which we were able to read the year 162 5?6?[66], useful in the dating of the period when the gate was made and used, during the rule of Prince Gabriel Bethlen.

After excavating the test trench down to the archaeological sterile we have reached the depth of 4.11 m. Down to 1.8–2 m we have excavated through a layer of debris (a mix of mortar, brick fragments, and stone blocks and fragments), a result of the interventions performed during the 19th and 20th centuries, consisting of ample renovation and repair works.

From the depth of 2 m the team has documented several layers of filling that were sloping towards the defense ditch of the fortress. Various clay objects were recovered from these layers (ceramic tableware items, construction ceramics and pottery items from elements of interior furniture such as stove tile fragments, and clay pipes), several iron items and numerous animal bones. Among these one notes a fragmentarily preserved stove tile with the coat of arms of the Jagiellonians, several simple or glazed smoking pipes, a caltrop, metal fittings etc. At the depth of 1–1.2 m we were able to note a river stone foundation, made of small and average-size rocks connected with mortar, on the northern side of the test trench. We have initially connected it to a supporting spur of the bridge and access of the gate identified in/on the western wall face of the current castle. After reaching the depth of -3.2 m we were able to note that this was the foundation of a gate tower that had been pulled down almost to the foundation sole in its western half. There was a sub-foundation towards the middle of the old tower, between the inner walls, that in fact forms the base of the gate dated to the beginning of the 17th century. At the depth of– 3.86 m we have reached the ground level of this tower, made of yellow clay. No dating elements have been found, but the tower was certainly built before the 17th century gate. The tower had been very carefully taken apart, as no layer of debris has been identified stratigraphically. The neck of a beige jug was discovered in the inner corner of the tower on the ground level; the artifact can be dated to the second half of the 16th century and the first half of the 17th century. This suggests that the defensive ditch was preserved and the fortress could be accessed on another wooden bridge. The foundation level of the tower was made of compact, clayish grey soil[67].

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connection to the wall face analyses performed in the areas investigated archaeologically. A more detailed approach of the results of the wall face analyses performed over the entire complex shall be presented in a study by art historians A. Weisz and Zs. Kovács. Taking into consideration the preliminary character of both the archaeological investigations (affecting only one (1)% of the entire surface of 4500 m^2 of just the castle) and the art historical/wall face investigation, we believe that the desired aim of the research, *i.e.* to establish the monument's chronology and planimetric development, cannot be reached without the continuation of our investigations.

64 Sasu 1972, 544.

65 Weisz, Kovács 2016, 26.

66 Weisz, Kovács 2016, 25.

67 Several pottery fragments that can be dated to the 14th–15th centuries, that might be contemporary to this tower, were found under the ground level that contained jug's neck.

S 02 (2 × 2 m). The second trench was opened on the western side of the north-eastern tower of the fortress, at the point where it meets the northern curtain. The main reasons behind this location selection were strongly tied to the remains of wooden pillars/posts identified through the geotechnical tests. Another reason is the fact that the cylindrical north-eastern tower of the fortress is different typologically, through its structure, shape, size, and material from the two other cylindrical towers preserved on the south-eastern and north-western corners. Analyzing its wall faces, dimensions, but also types and position of the loopholes we deemed it useful to perform an archaeological test trench in the area where it meets the northern curtain. After removing the cement belt and the vegetal soil the team has reached a consistent layer of construction material remains, most likely a result of the interventions and repairs performed during the second half of the 19th century. A foundation became apparent right under this layer, in the shape of a very wide foundation shoulder made of stones connected with mortar, at the base of the tower. Under this layer we have reached a layer of dark brown soil with very few pigments of mortar and brick. The subsequent layer, consisting of sand mixed with a lot of lime, was a thin construction layer or one in which small interventions were performed. Under it we found a light brown layer with coal pigments and small fragments of lime and bricks. The subsequent layer consisted of stone boulders mixed with sand and traces of lime, most likely result of the erection of the tower and of the northern curtain wall. Traces of wooden posts, sharpened and inserted vertically into the soil, became apparent in the same layer, towards the curtain wall, in the fortification's berm. As we dug deeper we noted that there were at least three rows of pillars, varying in diameter and size, apparently placed around the foundation of the tower. Future excavations might reveal if they were also used along the curtain, especially since the foundation levels, both that of the north-eastern tower and that of the curtain wall, were at the same level, identified by us at the depth of -2.42 m from the current ground level. In order to check the correlation between the foundations we have extracted some of these pillars that we believe had a defensive function[68]. They varied in length between 0.5 m and 1.5 m, and they were inserted in the ground down to a dark clayish soil (marshy or pond-like) on which the foundation levels of the tower and of the stone precinct were set.

Eventually we were able to note a clear caesura between the tower and the northern curtain wall and this might indicate the fact that the construction stages of the two were contemporary. At the same time, it is very likely that the stone and mortar shoulder that protrudes from the tower facade's alignment belongs in fact to an earlier tower that had been destroyed when the new fortress was built, though other possibilities cannot be excluded regarding the reconstruction stages of the fortress during the Medieval Period. Our contexts would correspond to the previous periods when the fortress of Ineu received its current shape, slightly trapezoidal and with cylindrical towers on the corners, very likely constructed sometime towards the middle of the sixteenth century, on the verge of the Ottoman conquest.

S 03 (1.1 × 2 m). The trench was opened in the first room on the southern side, right after the south-eastern tower of the fortress, 7.4 m from the north-eastern corner and 7.6 m from the north-western corner of the room. The trench was aimed at clarifying the stratigraphy and the foundation layers for the southern area of the fortress, strongly affected even since the 17th century and almost entirely remade during the second half of the 19th century. We were able to note several relatively late filling layers of the room and the median brick wall oriented W-E that divides the southern unit in two and was built on a foundation consisting of stones connected with mortar, with a foundation level set upon a layer than can be dated, based on the materials it contained, to the 17th–18th centuries. The team has identified traces of a brick floor and compartments also made of brick, very likely constructed after the fortress received a new function in the beginning of the twentieth century.

S 04 (1 × 2 m). The trench was opened in the first room on the southern side, located right after the south-eastern tower of the fortress, 5.8 m from the south-eastern corner of the room and 8.7 m from the south-western corner. Just like in the case of the previously described test trench, the foundation of the outer wall was made of river rocks connected with well cemented mortar, with the foundation level set upon a layer of yellowish clay. The elevation was made of brick and forms a small shoulder, but

[68] Dendrochronological analyses indicate that this system was created during a rather late period (see in the appendix I. Botar's analyses).

this time on the inside. We have identified the remains of a brick floor, set inside compartments also made of brick that might correspond to the period of the 19th century.

It is worth mentioning the fact that architect K. Hantelmann's 1871 depiction shows on this spot a house attached to the south-eastern tower of the fortress (see Fig. 8b).

For now we cannot prove anything about this house either, nor about the foundations that enclosed the southern side of the fortress. What was left of them (as this was probably the most vulnerable flank of the old fortress) will very likely be identified by future excavations in the filling of the new southern area built during the time of Péter Aczél.

S 05 (2 × 3.5 m). The trench was set on the western side of the large courtyard, 3.26 m from the main access way and 5.18 m from the access stair to the cellar that received a new function in the old 17th century gate gang. After breaking the concrete that formed the current pavement of the courtyard, made during the Communist Period and probably after 1990, down to the depth of -1.2–1.3 m, we have noted a succession of filling layers, the most consistent ones from the time of Péter Aczél and the Communist Period. There was a brick pavement under the concrete one, very likely made once the establishment received a new function in the beginning of the 20th century. In the north-western corner of the test trench we have identified a lime kiln, rectangular in shape. The level it was found in suggests that it was used during the works ordered by Péter Aczél. A layer of grey soil mixed with fragments of burnt wood, bricks, mortar, and several pottery and roof tile fragments, that can be dated to the Early Modern Period, was followed by a river rock pavement around the foundations of stone connected with mortar that supported the brick elevation wall from the Péter Aczél phase. The roof tiles were probably from the roof of the gate building. The mentioned lime making structure seems to have destroyed part of this pavement. The discovered pavement consisted of a carefully made sidewalk along the building of the entrance gate that we have identified on the western side. The courtyard side edge of the walkway was slightly heightened, made of cut stone blocks, and a 0.2 m-wide culvert separated it from the river rock pavement of the courtyard. In some places the slope of the culvert was also made of obliquely placed bricks. The sidewalk measures 1.4 m in width and on its margin we have identified a massive sandstone base, approximately rectangular in shape, with four blunt edges and with a cylindrical plug performed in the middle. The level difference between it and the ground level inside the gate measured ca. 0.3 – 0.4 m. From the ground level of the pavement we have recovered several pottery fragments, smoking pipes, a knife, a spur, a small medallion etc.

Around the middle of the trench, in the elevation wall that became a foundation for the building from the Péter Aczél phase, we were able to identify a caesura that indicates the existence of two buildings in this area. One is certainly connected to the access gate, though the role and function of the other cannot be identified for now. The wall elevation was made of river rocks connected with mortar, equalized with uneven rows of thin bricks. After removing the lime production installation we went deeper and were able to identify more clearly the difference between the foundations of the two identified buildings. It is very likely that the south-eastern corner of the gate building collapsed and was rebuilt, as the new corner is made of cut sandstone blocks, probably reused form another location. Another building was subsequently attached to this one, though no further observations can be made for now.

The foundation level of the gate building was dug into a yellowish clayish soil. The imprint of a small ditch/culvert? became apparent in the yellowish clayish soil, on the bottom of the small test trench performed after the removal of the lime installation, towards the south, ca. 0.7 m parallel to the line of the foundation of the gate building. The depth from the level of identification was of 0.9 m and the bottom was flat. The fill has only revealed atypical pottery fragments, though they were different from those of the 16th–17th centuries.

S 06 (1 × 1.5 m). The trench was located outside the small brick tower remade by Péter Aczél on the south-western corner of the fortress. The immediate goal was related to the making of a geotechnical test and to seeing if it preserved anything that can be correlated to the other cylindrical towers. The tower, small in size as compared to the other three corner towers, has been built out of brick on a foundation of stone and mortar. A primary analysis suggests the fact that this tower preserves nothing of the old tower. A future extended research might bring more clarifications on the topic.

S 07 (2.5 × 3.7 m). This trench was also opened in the large courtyard, 2.95 m south of the passage gangway towards the small courtyard from the northern part of the complex, on the right side of the

entrance into the cellar from the western building unit of the fortress. The main aim was to identify the extreme northern part of the gate building and the extent of the pavement. The stratigraphy did not differ much from the one identified in test trench S 05. In the north-eastern corner of the test trench we have identified the line of a sewage pipe made of glazed pottery. Several fragments of glazed stove tiles were recovered from the modern filling layers; the items were originally part of the stoves built in the rooms of the new castle.

At the depth of 1.58–1.80 m we have identified the same type of design, *i.e.* sidewalk and pavement around the gate building, that probably also continued into the access way. The north-eastern corner of the gate building was found in the western profile of the test trench. The eastern facade of the building measured 13 m in length and the southern side was longer as compared to the location of the gangway of the gate leading into the courtyard. Its elevation wall was preserved to a height of ca. 1.5–1.6 m and consisted of stones connected with mortar, equalized with rows of thin bricks. The wall face looks carefully built; cut blocks were used on the corner of the building, placed alternatively between rows of bricks and uncut stones. Towards the entrance corridor, on the wall face one notes a fill made of modern bricks, probably instead of a large stone block. The foundation of the same western building unit from the time of Péter Aczél has been attached in continuation of this facade that had become a foundation.

Returning to the pavement, one can state that the edge of the sidewalk was made similarly, slightly heightened through cut blocks, with a separating culvert of ca. 0.2 m towards the pavement of the courtyard. It is interesting to note that two bases identical to the one discovered in test trench S 05 were found along this line; the two bases were placed 2.90 m apart and a third was identified right after the north-eastern corner of the gate building. This indicates the existence of either a light wooden covering for the protection of the sidewalk or of a gallery on the first floor of the building. The third base also provides an indication of the fact that the sidewalk continued after the north-eastern corner of the building.

Among the elements of material culture one notes several fragments of perforated bone plaques, indicating the existence of a master and probably of a small bone and antler processing workshop inside the fortress.

S 08 (2 × 4.2 m). The last trench envisaged the northern side of the large courtyard, delimited by the central building unit that we have identified in its origins with the stages corresponding to that *castellum*, that is clearly enough marked also on the plan from the end of the seventeenth century (see Fig. 7a). The test trench was located behind the covering made of concrete and reinforced iron that shelters the entrance to the cellar of the central construction unit. The main goal was to identify possible caesuras of the building, the stratigraphy, the foundation and construction levels etc.

Brick elements were found right under the concrete of the courtyard and are very likely dated to the modern period of use. At the depth of 0.95–1.10 m the team discovered a foundation made of stone and mortar, measuring 0.6 m in width, placed parallel to the central construction unit, that closed in an L-shape right at the contact with the covering of the cellar entrance. After digging deeper we have noted that the foundation was attached to the whitewashed wall face, preserved to a height of 1 m, of the central building unit, today turned into a foundation. The foundation shoulder was found at -1.90 m from the current ground level; the foundation was very carelessly made out of small river rocks and fragments of bricks drowned in a bit of mortar; it was made on top of a level with a relatively late pottery material. The presence of whitewash traces on the wall face of the current foundation on the western side of the central building unit might be an indication of the development of this building that probably had no underground level originally.

A foundation of uncut river stone blocks connected with mortar, carefully built, was identified on the eastern side of the test trench, almost in the profile, – 1.78 from the current ground level. This foundation is overlapped by both the foundation of the central construction unit and the L-shape foundation that is attached to the central building unit. The foundation level of this foundation is located 0.38 m higher than the foundation level of the central body, both made of the same compact gray soil.

The most numerous materials were uncovered in the upper filling layers and consisted of fragments of glazed stove tiles, diverse pottery fragments etc. Out of the few discovered materials, one notes in this trench a small iron ball, probably from a bombard.

Preliminary conclusions and possible future research directions

The preventive archaeological excavations performed in Ineu are a first significant step in rediscovering the planimetry and the early stages of use of the fortress. As this was a restricted investigation, the results are limited, but promising as to the development of the monument over time, from that *castellum* to the 17th century bastionary fortress. Through the performed sections the excavation has touched the northern, western, southern, and central parts of what is today a castle – according to the transformations from the second half of the 19th century, during the Romantic Period, when the intention was to create an atmosphere as close as possible to that of the Middle Ages.

The rediscovery of the old access gate, the delimitation of a gate building, the pavement in the courtyard of the fortress, and the structures and the construction techniques employed in the edification of the towers are starting elements for future investigations. The indications already available can be used in recovering the planimetries of the early stages that we know less about. Through wall face excavations specialists were able to recover not only numerous technical data regarding the different construction phases, but also an impressive quantity of profiled Romanesque stone blocks reused in the construction of the south-eastern and north-western towers, but also of the western curtain wall. These blocks very likely originated in the former monastery of *Dienesmonostur*, taken apart during a period when the area was strongly threatened by the Ottoman Empire. Besides the clear patrimony value of this small lapidary, art history studies shall be enriched in the future with new data on the introduction of the Romanesque style in the area of Zarand.

The discovered material culture is also relevant for the daily life of those who have lived in the fortress during different historical eras. Each discovered object has its own message, providing pieces of information on the way of life, on interior designs, the employed weapons and military equipment etc.

The data provided by the conscription and inventory of the goods inside the fortress in 1605 are even more important in the context of our excavations as it is dated to a relatively early period, when the fortress seems subjected to the diverse transformations triggered by its inclusion in different state entities. Thus, ever since this period people talked of an inner and an outer fortification, a fact that might already be an indication connected to the erection of an outer precinct, initially very likely made of wood, doubled by a ditch. By comparison to the present-day situation, one has difficulties in identifying details connected to the different construction stages of the fortress, that can be correlated to this inventory, only after an initial analysis of what has been preserved after the repairs from the end of the nineteenth century, but also after the town planning changes made until the Communist Period. The inner fortification practically corresponds to the precinct of the present-day castle that has a slightly trapezoidal ground plan, with at least three massive towers placed on the south-eastern, north-eastern, and north-western corners and with stone curtain walls, preserved to the level of the present-day upper floor. As for the period when the curtain with cylindrical corner towers was built, there seem to have been several stages. We were thus able to note the fact that the north-eastern tower differs in structure from the south-eastern and north-western towers and can be attributed to an earlier period (the 15th century). Differences could also be noted in the case of the curtain walls, both in their structure and in their construction technique. The southern side and the south-western tower, as well as the current entrance gate with a tower, were completely added when the entire castle was reconstructed after 1870. The median building unit that separates today the precinct in two courtyards seems to belong to the earliest constructions, maybe that *domus lapidae* mentioned in the documents that might be connected to the old noble residence[69]. During his stage it is difficult to provide other details regarding the presumed defensive system of this early complex, but several indications have been provided by the archaeological and wall face excavations. In this context future excavations should focus on the area between the north-eastern tower and the central building unit of the complex, but also on its basements; they might provide clear evidence related to the development during the use of the residence in the Medieval Period.

As for the outer fortification, the 1605 conscription mentions several elements that formed the defensive system, among which we shall note the bastions or the access gates, one of which had three chains, unlike the inner gate that had two[70]. Neither the documents nor the era's descriptions could

[69] Magina 2011, 90–92.

[70] Magina 2011, 93.

have been as detailed on aspects of the entire defensive system of Ineu as the plan preserved in the Swedish archives (see Fig. 7a). This plan provides a rather detailed image of the planimetry of the entire settlement. Thus, one can identify the ample defensive system north of the Criș, completed by the area south of the river, protected by minimal defenses that might indicate that this was a civilian habitation area. Unfortunately all these details are increasingly difficult to identify on site due to the development and overlapping of the present-day settlement. Older or more recent stray finds confirm the above statements. Besides stray finds of material culture remains, mainly pottery and its derivates, human bones can allow specialists to identify several cemeteries. Local oral sources indicate that a cemetery was discovered when the former telephone company building was constructed south of River Criș. In the absence of minimal documentation, not much can be said on this cemetery. Human bones were also discovered in the present-day area between the castle and "Mihai Viteazul" High School, but no further data are available. These discoveries are not surprising, considering that a Franciscan monastery also functioned in Ineu beside the parish church mentioned with its priest in the papal tithe ledger[71]. The impact of Protestantism in the end of the Middle Ages and the existence of an extended Eastern-Greek bishopric, with the best known hierarchs from the Brancovici family, starting with the 16th century and until the 17th century, complete the ethnic and confessional mosaic of Ineu. The development after the Ottoman conquest brought color to this landscape, so that after the middle of the 17th century the settlement also had five mosques (*cami*) and a number of *mesdjiduri* that probably has cemeteries as well. Other mentions provide indications on the existence of buildings with massive stone foundations both south and north of the Criș, but not even minimal documentation is available on them. Massive stone foundations erected on wooden posts were identified in front of the current BCR bank, a sign that the land was marshy.

Properly inventoried, all these pieces of information can help in the reconstruction, at least partially, of the current city of Ineu and we therefore hope that our initiative does not remain unique. By performing this first archaeological excavation in the precinct and the perimeter of the current castle from the center of the town both the beneficiary of these works and the members of the local community were able to grasp the importance of respecting the legislation regarding the protection and promotion of local immobile patrimony.

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Appendix

Report of Dendrochronological Analysis.
Posts from the Excavation Performed in the Fortress of Ineu

Boglárka Tóth, István Botár

Wooden remains consisting of several upright posts were discovered in the wet soil during the archaeological researched performed at the fortress of Ineu (Hung: Borosjenő, Arad County) in 2016 in trench S02. Florin Mărginean, the archaeologist in charge of the research, has cut round horizontal cross-trenchs from three posts and has wrapped them hermetically in nylon foil, then sent them to the dendrochronological laboratory in Miercurea Ciuc.

The three samples arrived in good condition at the lab. The xylotomic analysis has revealed the fact that they were made of oak (*Quercus sp.*) and then the samples were prepared for measuring. All of the samples were measured along two radiuses for optimal series (as much as possible).

Sample 1 contained 62 rings, out of which 13 of alburnum, the last one probably the last ring under the bark. Sample 2 was excluded from analysis as it only contained 15 growth rings. Sample 3 preserved 58 rings, but none of alburnum.

The series of samples 1 and 3 were compared to the existing chronologies from Transylvania, leading to clear datings with several chronologies.

Sample 1 is from an oak tree cut in the summer of 1670 (or a couple of years later – if the last ring is not Wk). The last ring of sample 3 was formed in 1625 to which one must add the average of the minimum number of alburnum in Transylvania, i.e. 13 years, thus the dating is around 1638 or after (the number of lost rings remains unknown)[72].

Description	Species	No. of rings	Alburnum WK, FP	Synchronic position	Dating
1. S02. wooden post (diam.: 22.5 cm)	*Quercus sp.*	62	13, WK?, (TP)	1609–1670	The summer of 1670 or a couple of years later
2. S02. wooden post (diam.: 16.5 cm)	*Quercus sp.*	15	-	-	-
3. S02. wooden post (diam.: 23 cm)	*Quercus sp.*	58	-	1568–1625	In 1638 or later

Miercurea Ciuc, November 25th 2016.

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[72] The *synchronic position* shows the absolute dating for the first and last annual ring/year of the sample, while its dating is the date or the interval when the tree of origin was felled. The table marks the existence of the outer ring (WK). In these cases the dating can be more precise: only in the Wk ring can one observe the early wood (spring growth strip – FP), indicating that the tree was felled during the vegetation growing season (spring-summer). If the ring is complete and also contains the late wood strip, then the tree was cut after the vegetation growth period, probably during the winter of those years. If the outer ring Wk is missing, in order to determine the felling year we have calculated using the average of alburnum rings that is of 15±2 alburnum rings for Transylvania. In this case the dating can be the limit of a period. If the samples contain no alburnum rings (lost to biological degradation or removed during beam processing) then a *post quem* – type dating is possible based on the base of the last measured ring.

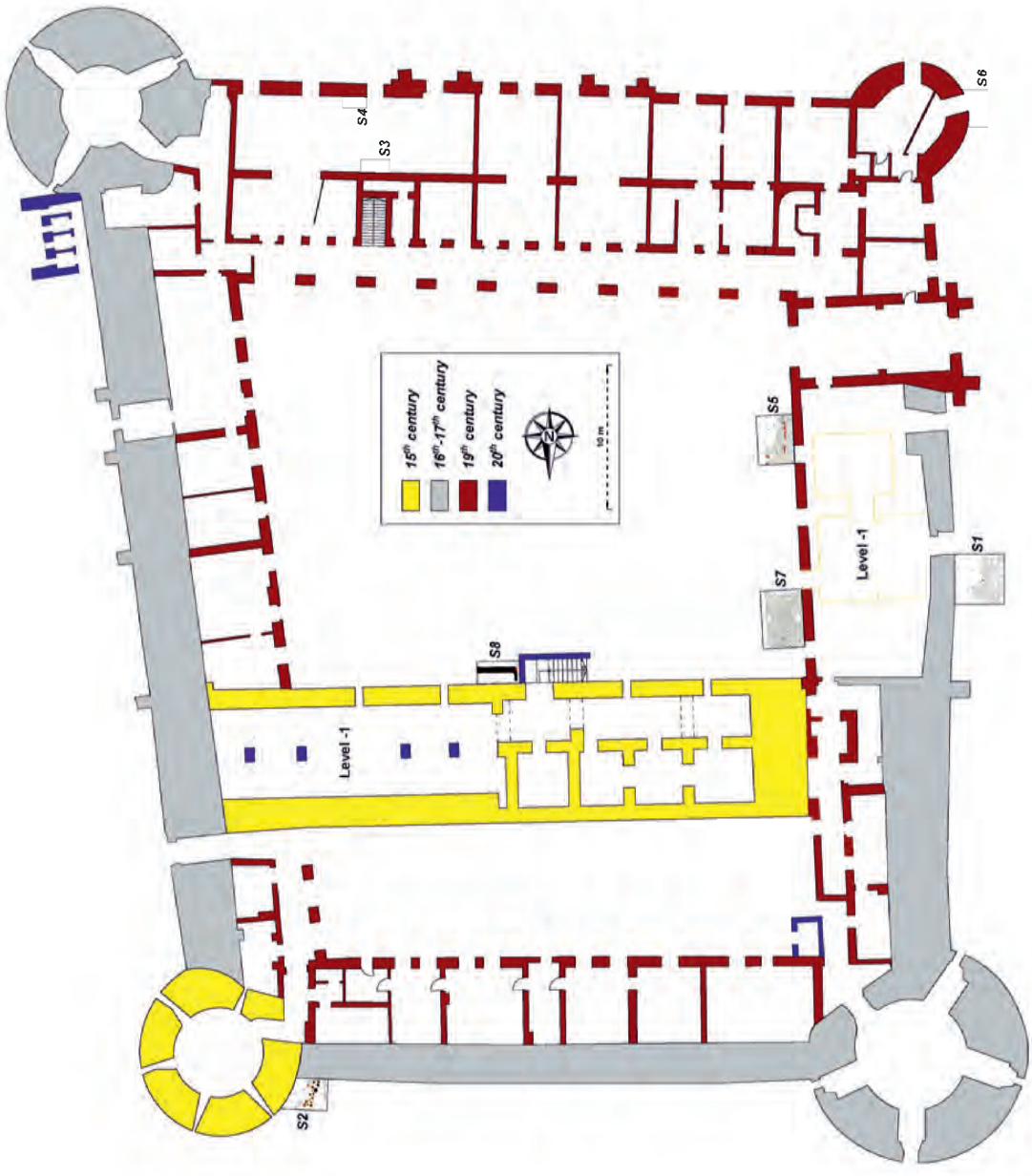
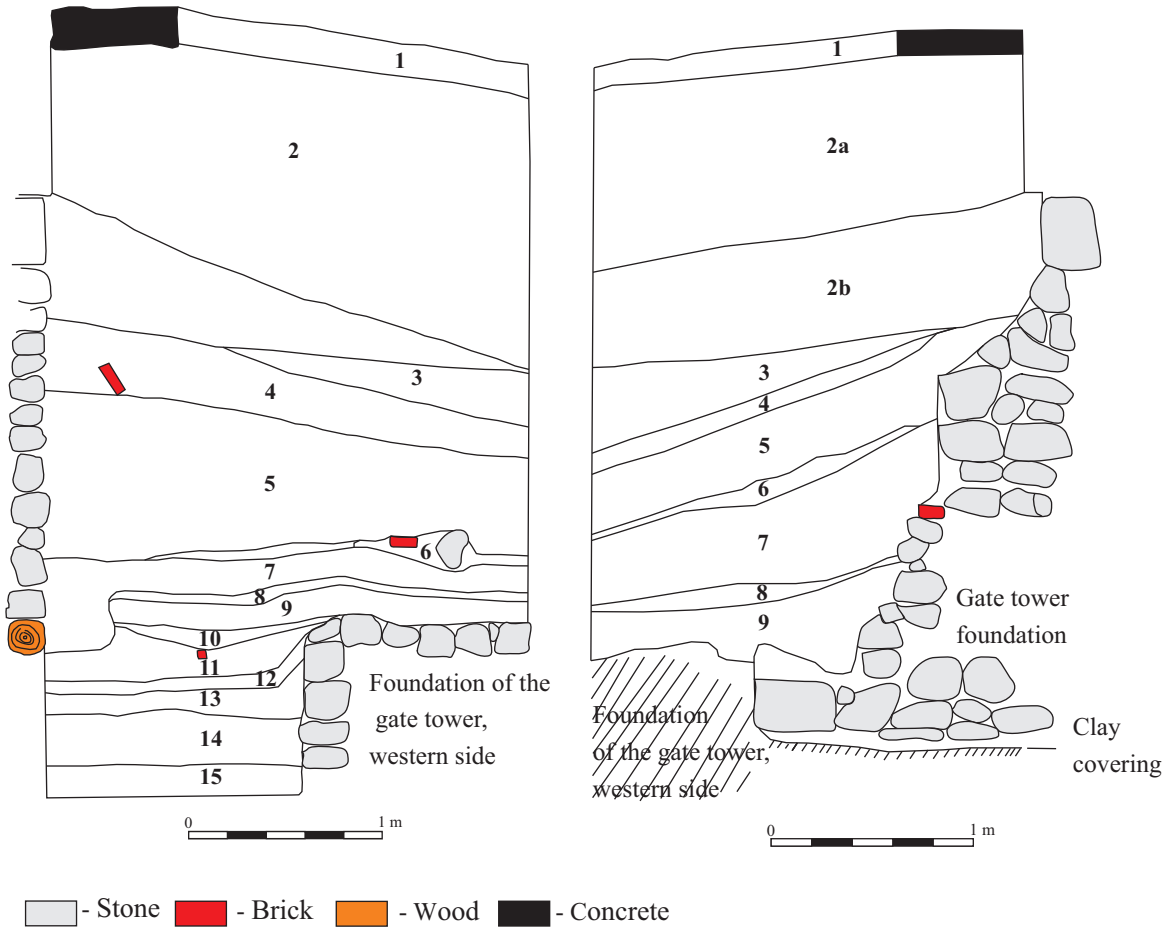


Plate 1. Ground plan of the fortress with the location of the archaeological trenches (the actual stage of the researchers).



1.Vegetal layer
2.Filling layer resulting from debris, consisting of stone and brick fragments
3.Gray soil pigmented with mortar, bricks, and coal
4.Gray filling layer, contains fragments of bricks and mortar
5.Filling layer, brown clay
6.Filling layer, clayish soil containing mortar, stones, and bricks
7.Brown soil pigmented with coal
8.Construction layer of the 17th century gate
9.Gray soil pigmented with coal
10.Sandy soil, contains iron fragments
11.Compact greenish soil
12.Sandy soil pigmented with mortar
13.Light brown soil
14.Clay covering. The ground level inside the tower

1. Vegetal layer
2a. Filling layer with a lot of sand and pigmented with whitewash
2b. Filling layer resulted from debris, consisting of bricks and stones (PéterAczél phase)
3.Brown soil pigmented with mortar
4. Filling layer, yellowish sandy soil
5. Filling layer, brown soil pigmented with coal
6. Filling layer, contains 17th-18th centuries pottery
7. Filling layer pigmented with mortar and brick fragments
8. Construction layer, sub-foundation of the 17th century gate threshold
9. Ground level outside the tower

Plate 2. Drawing of the profiles of trench S1.

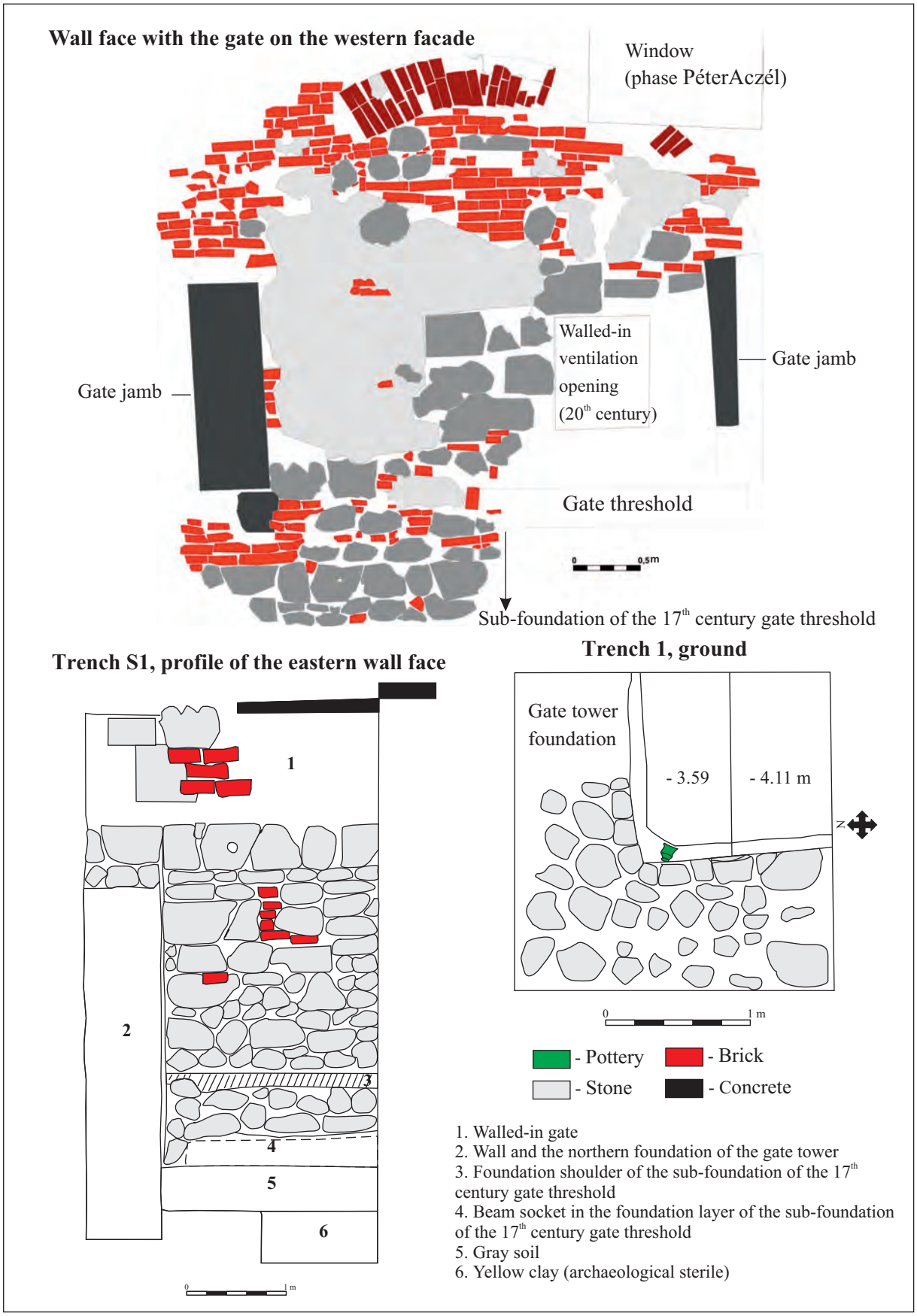


Plate 3. Drawings of the wall face and ground of trench S1.

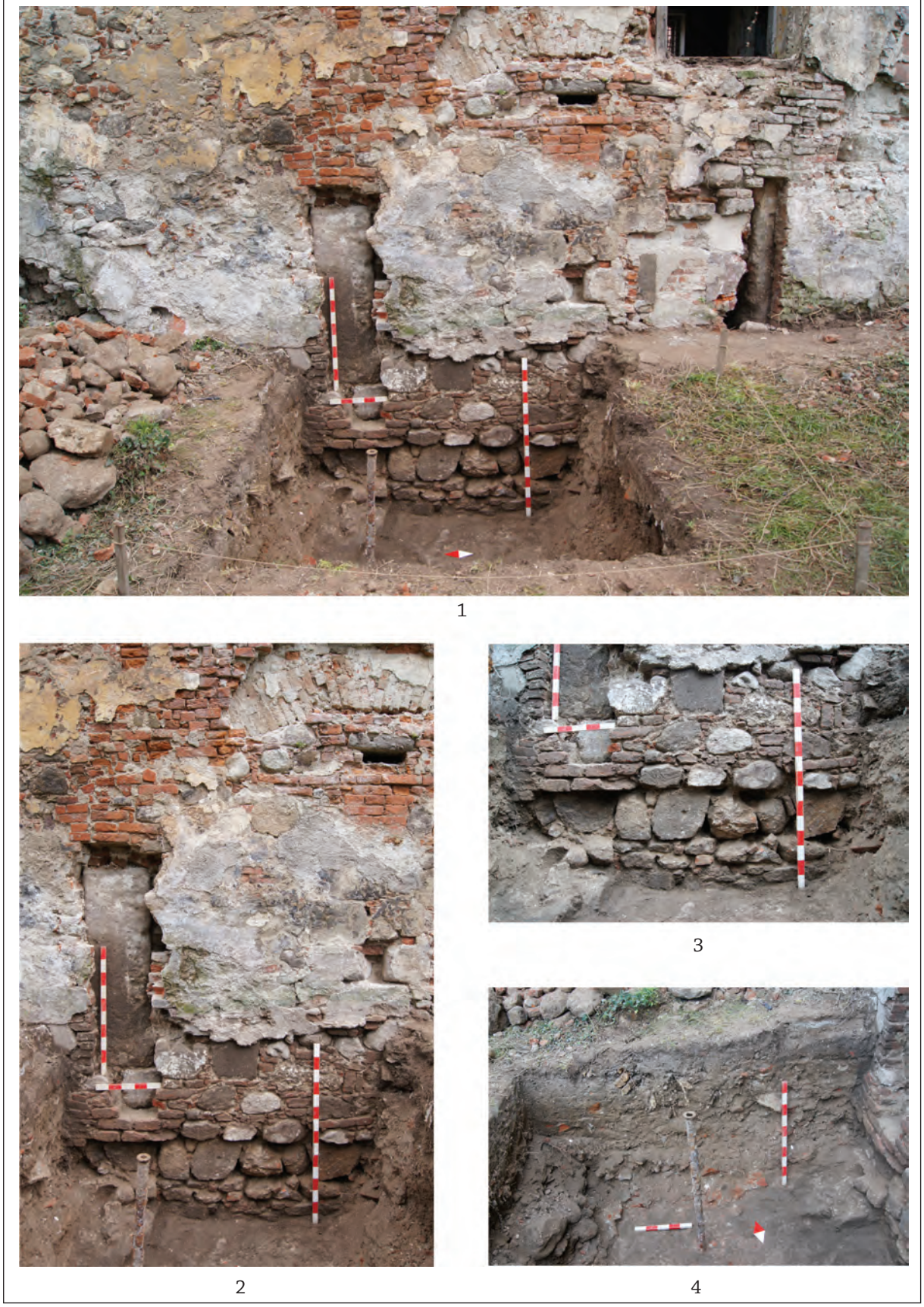


Plate 4. Photographs of trench S1: 1. Gate wall face (17th century); 2-3: Detail of gate jamb and threshold (17th century); 4: The northern profile.

1

2

3

4

Plate 5. Photographs of trench S1: 1. Gate jambs and tower foundation; 2. The northern profile with tower foundation and inner corner; 3. Detail of the pottery fragment from the ground level inside the tower; 4. Detail of beam socket from the sub-foundation of the gate threshold.

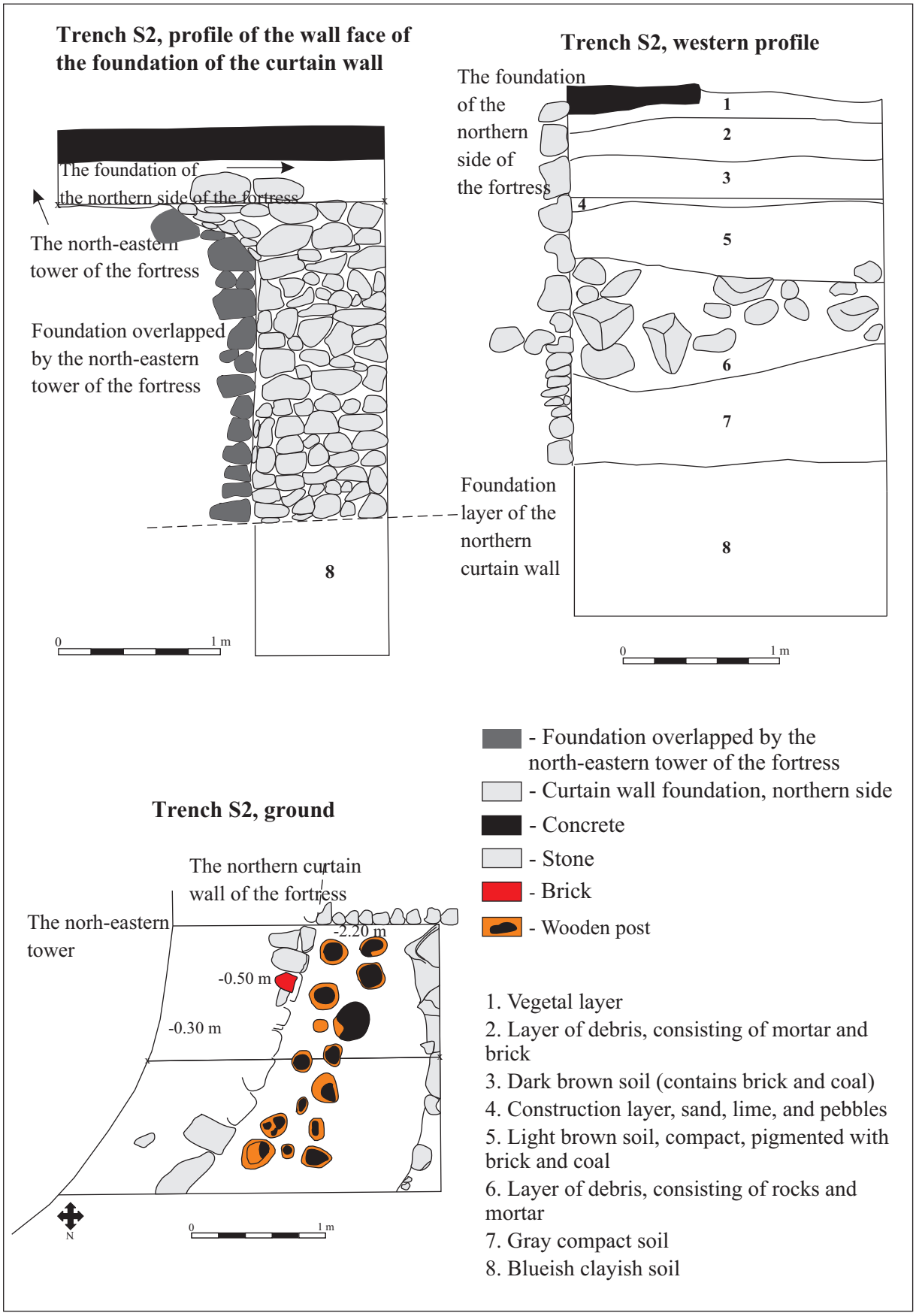
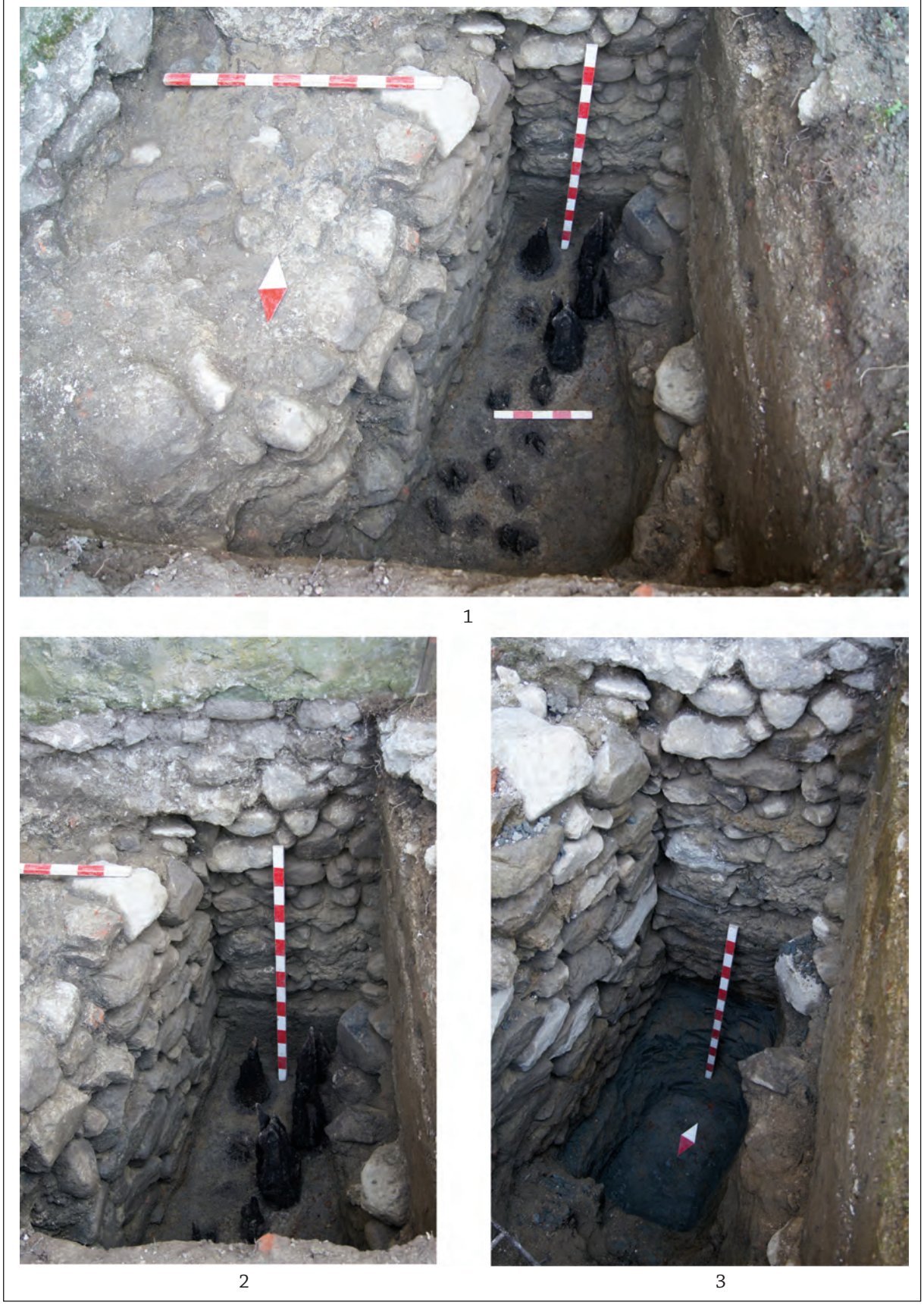


Plate 6. Drawings of wall face, profiles, and ground in trench S2.



1

2

3

Plate 7. Photographs of trench S2: The foundation and the foundation layer of the north-eastern tower and of the northern curtain, with the surrounding system of wooden posts.

1

2

Plate 8. Photographs of trench S2:1. Detail of the system of wooden posts; 2. The western profile.

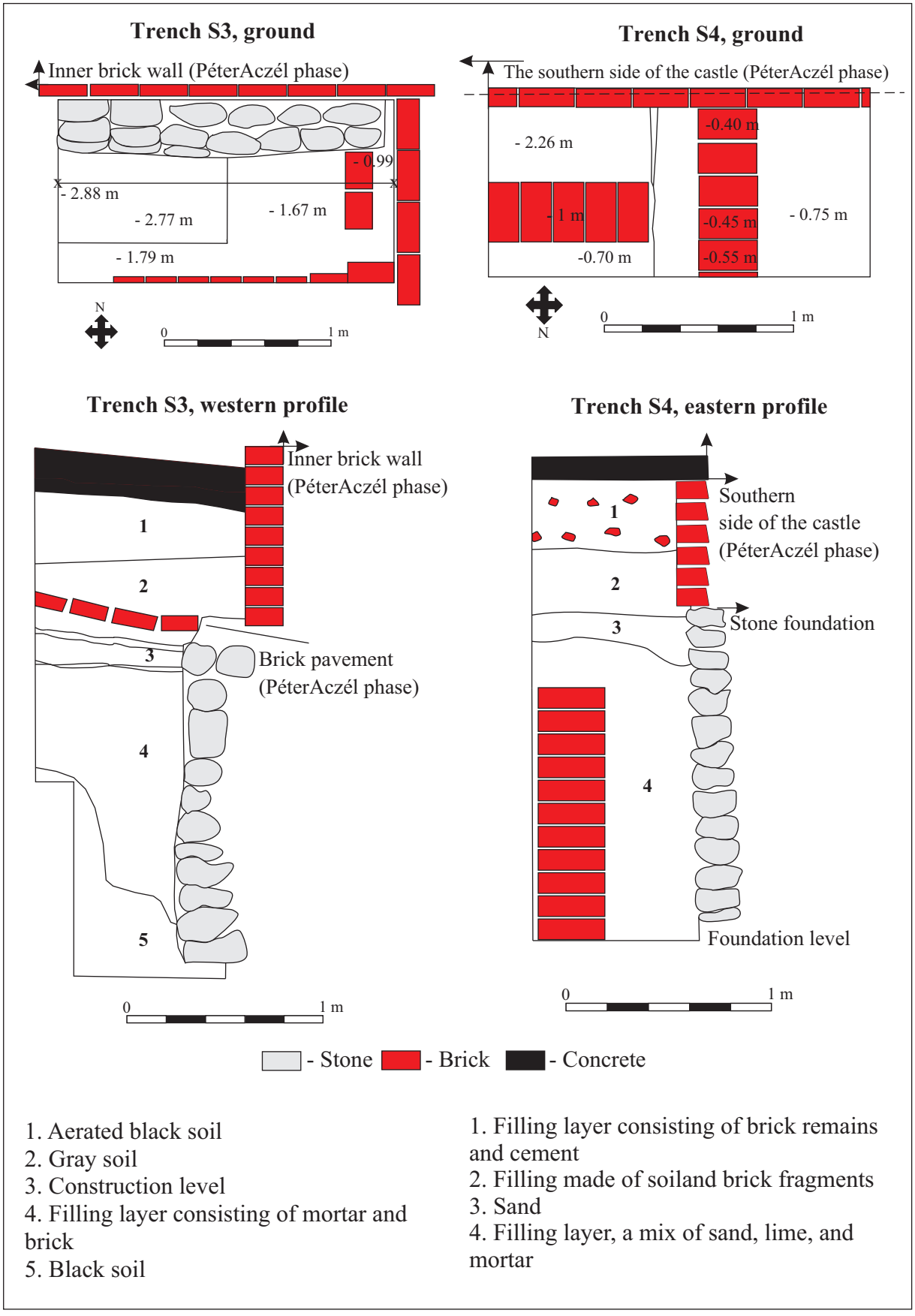


Plate 9. Drawings of the grounds and profiles of trenches S3 and S4.

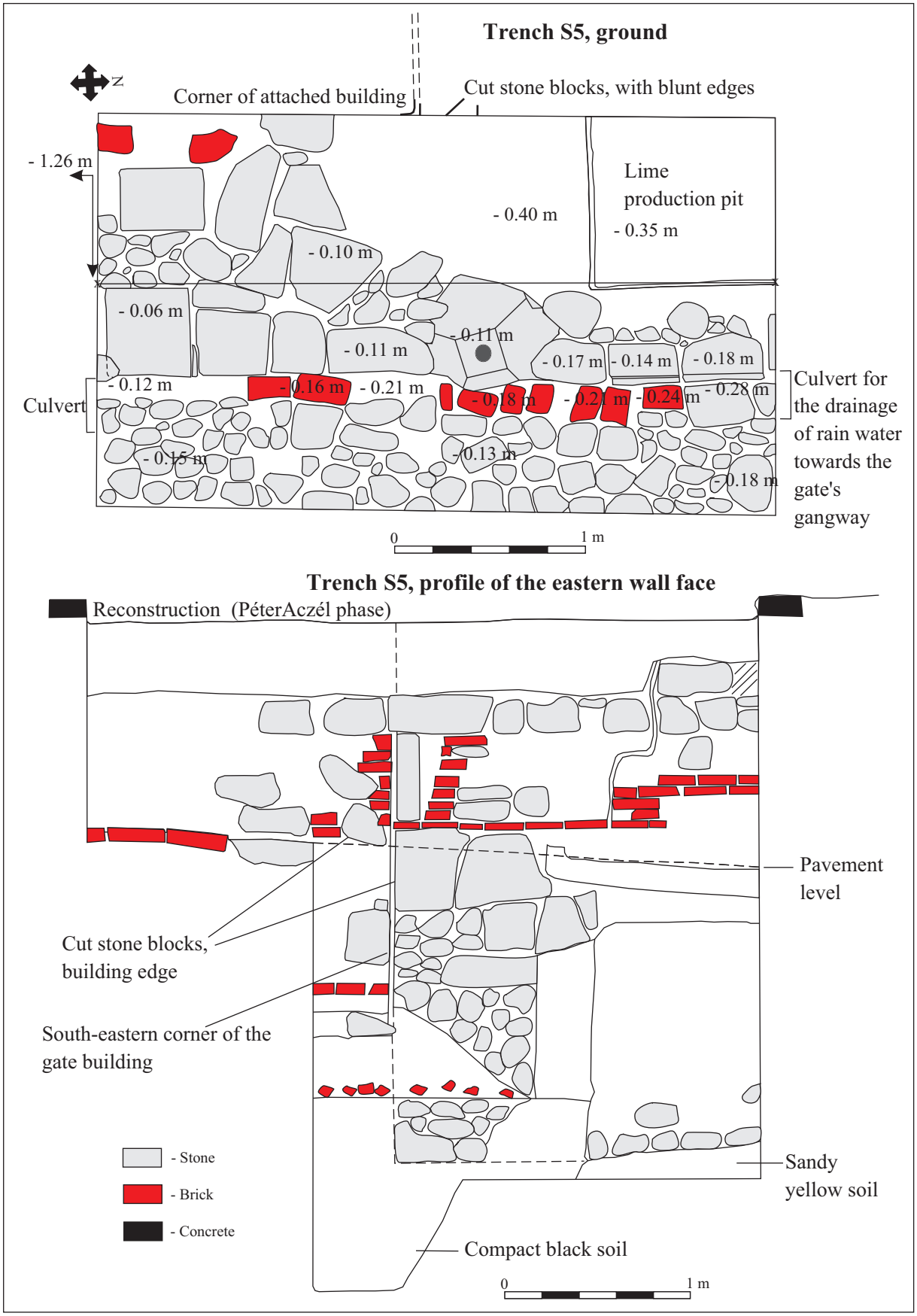


Plate 10. Drawing of the ground and wall face in trench S5.

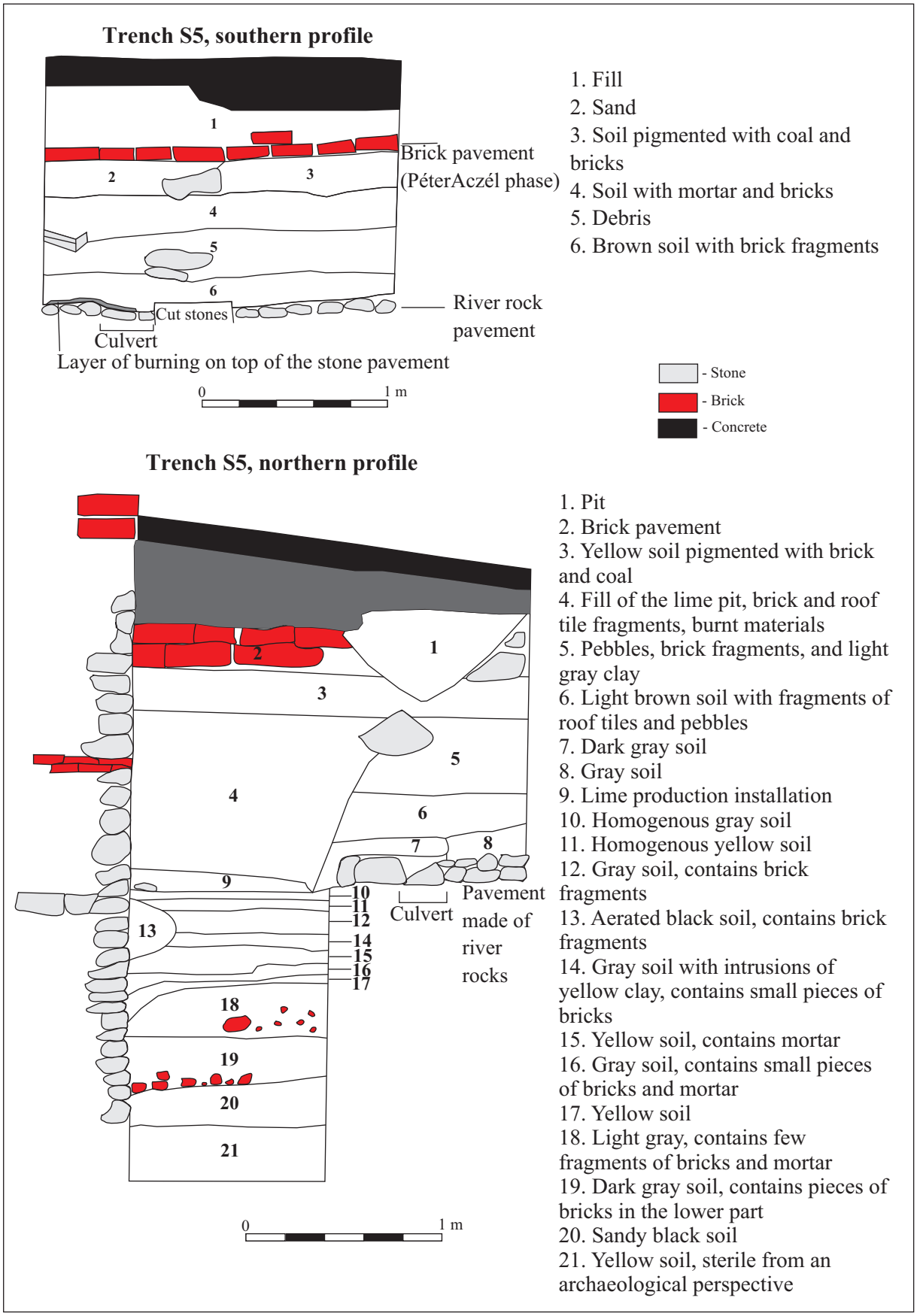


Plate 11. Drawings of profiles in trench S5.

1

2

3

4

5

Plate 12. Photographs of trench S5: 1. Wall face and pavement level in the courtyard; 2-3. Lime production installation, 4. Detail of base for pillar supporting the covering of the sidewalk around the gate building; 5. Northern profile.

1

2

3

4

5

Plate 13. Photographs of trench S5: 1. Detail of courtyard pavement and lime pit; 2. Smoking pipe; 3. Detail of the foundation leveland the ditch.

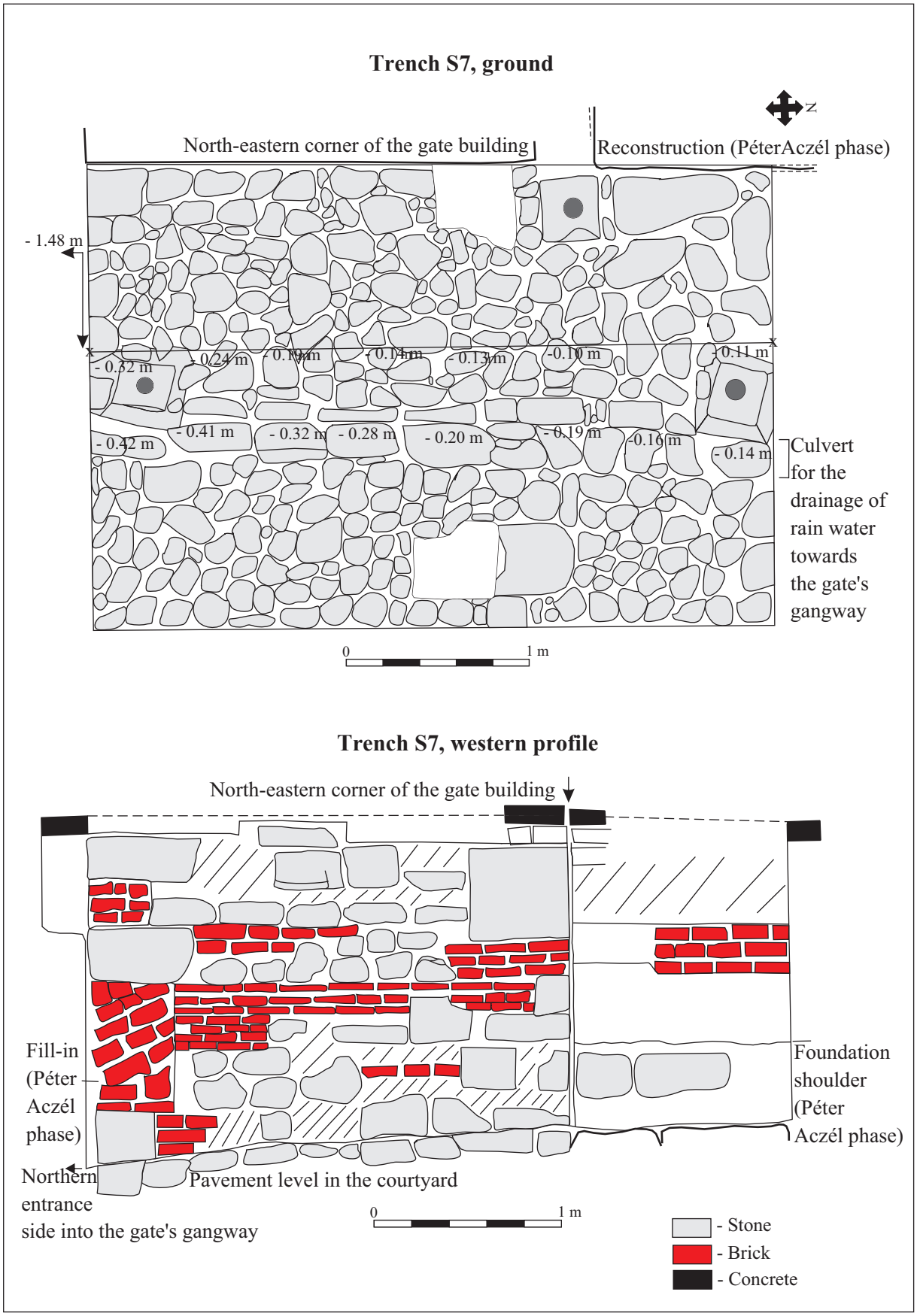


Plate 14. Drawings of the ground and wall face in trench S7.

1

2

3

4

5

Plate 15. Photographs of trench S7: 1-2. Wall face detail with the north-eastern corner of the gate building and courtyard pavement; 3-5. Details of the courtyard pavement.

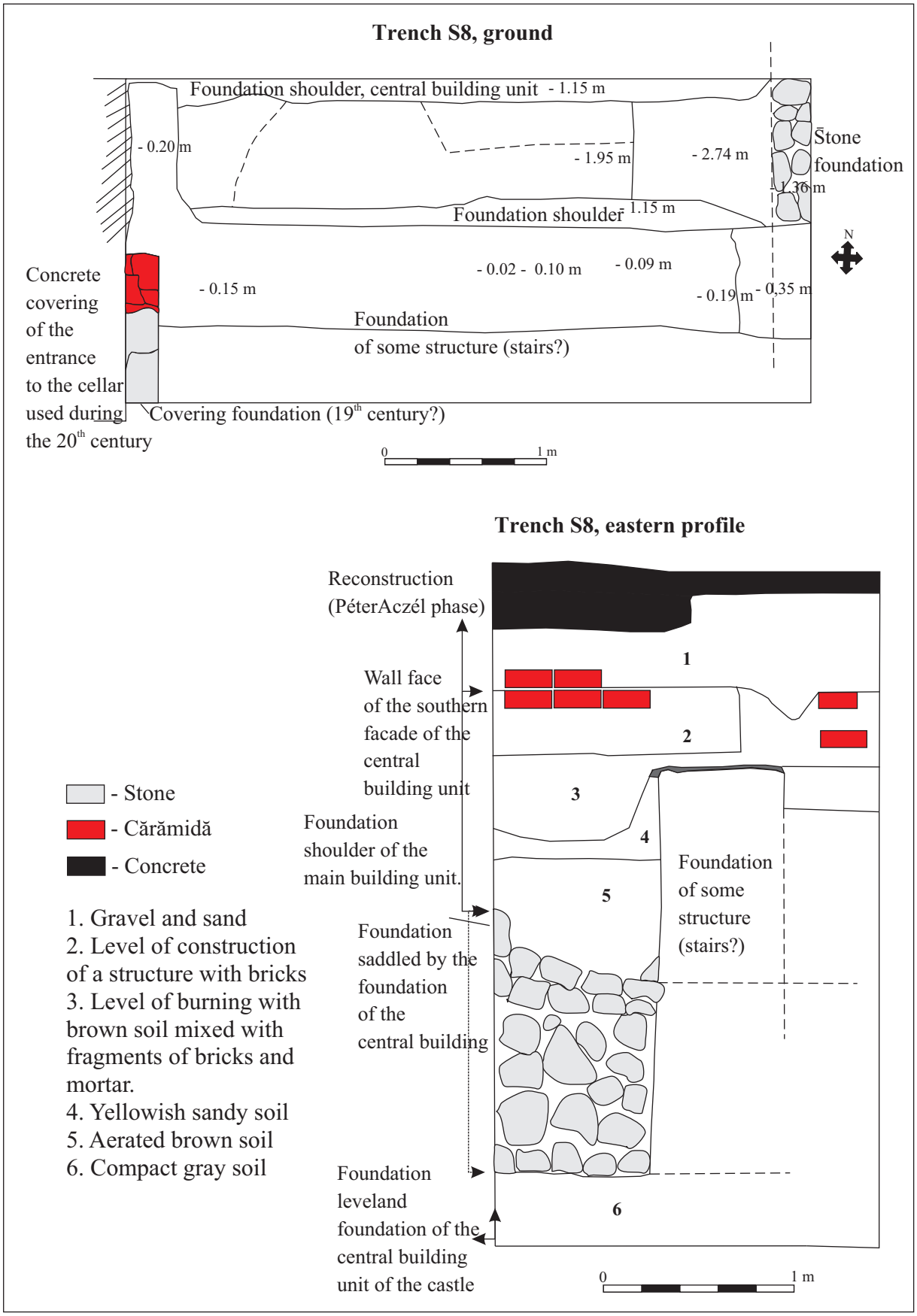


Plate 16. Drawings of the ground and profile of trench S8.

Plate 17. Photographs of trench S8: 1-2. Foundation (stairs?); 3-5. Details of the foundation overlapped by the central building unit; 6. Foundation level of the foundation of the central building unit.

Abbreviations

AAASH	Acta Archaeologica Academiae Scientarum Hungaricae. Budapest.
Acta Ant et Arch Suppl	Acta Antiqua et Archaeologica Supplementum. Szeged.
AAC	Acta Archaeologica Carpathica. Krakow.
ACMIT	Anuarul Comisiunii monumentelor istorice. Secţia pentru Transilvania. Cluj.
ARA	Annual Review of Anthropology. Stanford.
ActaArchHung	ActaArchHung Acta Archaeologica Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae. Budapest.
AEM	Archäologische Epigraphische Mitteilungen aus Österreich-Ungarn. Heidelberg.
AIIA Cluj	Anuarul Institutului de Istorie și Arheologie. Cluj-Napoca.
AISC	Anuarul Institutului de Studii Clasice. Cluj-Napoca.
AMP	Acta Musei Porolissensis. Zalău.
ATF	Acta Terrae Fogarasiensis. Făgăraş.
ATS	Acta Terrae Septemcastrenses. Sibiu.
Agria	Agria. Annales Musei Agriensis. Az egri Dobó István Vármúzeum évkönyve. Eger.
AnB S.N.	Analele Banatului. Timişoara.
AMS.CEU	Annual of Medieval Studies at CEU. Budapest.
ACN	Archaeological Computing Newsletter. Florence.
ArchÉrt	Archaelogiai Értesítő. A Magyar Régészeti és Művészettörténeti Társulat tudományos folyóirata. Budapest.
ArchJug	Archaeologia Iugoslavica. Beograd.
ArhPregled	Arheološki Pregled. Arheološko Društvo Jugoslavije. Beograd.
ArchSlovCat	Archaeologia Slovaca Catalogi. Bratislava.
Archaeológiai Közlemények	Archaeológiai Közlemények. A hazai Műemlékek Ismeretének Előmozdítására. Budapest.
ArchKorr	Archaölogisches Korrespondenzblatt. Mainz.
ArhMold	Arheologia Moldovei. Iași.
AMN	Acta Musei Napocensis. Cluj-Napoca.
AMP	Acta Musei Porolissensis. Zalău.
ArchRozhl	Archeologické Rozhledy. Praga.
ArhMed	Arheologia Medievală. Cluj-Napoca, Brăila, Reșița.
ASMB	Arheologia Satului Medieval din Banat. Reşiţa 1996.
AVSL	Auftrage des Vereins für siebenbürgische Landeskunde, Wien.
Banatica	Banatica. Reşiţa.
BAM	Brvkenthal Acta Mvsei. Sibiu.
BAR Int. Ser.	British Archaeological Reports. International Series. Oxford.
BCMI	Buletinul Comisiunii Monumentelor Istorice. București.
BCȘS	Buletinul Cercurilor Ştiinţifice Studenţeşti. Arheologie – Istorie – Muzeologie. Alba Iulia.
BG	Botanical Guidebooks. Kraków.
BerRGK	Bericht der RömischGermanischen Kommission. Frankfurt a. Main.
BHAB	Bibliotheca Historica et Archaeologica Banatica. Timişoara.
BHAUT	Bibliotheca Historica et Archaeologica Universitatis Timisiensis. Timișoara.
BMB. SH	Biblioteca Muzeului Bistriţa. Seria Historica. Bistriţa Năsăud.
BMÉ	Bihari Múzeum Évkönyve. Berettyóújfalu.
BMI	Buletinul Monumentelor Istorice. Bucureşti.
BMN	Bibliotheca Musei Napocensis. Cluj-Napoca.
BMMK	A Békés Megyei Múzeumok Közleményei. Békéscsaba.
BMMN	Buletinul Muzeului Militar Naţional. Bucureşti.
BThr	Bibliotheca Thracologica. Institutul Român de Tracologie. Bucureşti.

CAB	Cercetări Arheologice în Bucureşti. Bucureşti.
CAH	Communicationes Archaeologicae Hungariae. Budapest.
Carpica	Carpica. Muzeul Judeţean de Istorie și Arheologie, Bacău.
CAMNI	Cercetări Arheologice. Muzeul de Istorie al R. S. România/Muzeul Naţional de Istorie. Bucureşti.
CIL	*Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*. Berlin.
CCA	*Cronica cercetărilor arheologice* (*din România*), 1983-1992 *sqq*. (și în variantă electronică pe *http://www.cimec.ro/scripts/arh/cronica/cercetariarh.asp*).
Classica et Christiana	Classica et Christiana. Iasi.
CRSCRCR	Coins from Roman sites and collections of Roman coins from Romania. Cluj-Napoca.
Crisia	Crisia. Muzeul Ţării Crișurilor, Oradea.
Dacia N.S.	Dacia. Revue d'archéologie et d'histoire ancienne. Nouvelle serie. Bucureşti.
Danubius	Danubius - Revista Muzeului de Istorie Galati. Galați.
DDME	A Debreceni Déri Múzeum Évkönyve. Debrecen.
DolgCluj	Dolgozatok az Erdélyi Nemzeti Érem- és Régiségtárából, Klozsvár (Cluj).
DolgSzeg	Dolgozatok. Arbeiten des Archäologischen Instituts der Universität. Szeged.
EphNap	Ephemeris Napocensis. Cluj-Napoca.
EMEÉ	Az Erdélyi Múzeum-Egyesület Évkönyve. Cluj-Napoca.
EMÉ	Erdélyi Múzeum Évkönyve. Cluj-Napoca.
EAZ	Ethnographisch-Archäologische Zeitschrift. Berlin.
FADDP/GMADP	Führer zu archäologischen Denkmälern in Dacia Porolissensis/Ghid al monumentelor arheologice din Dacia Porolissensis. Zalău.
File de Istorie	File de Istorie. Bistrița.
FolArch	Folia Archaeologica. Budapest.
Forsch. u. Ber. z. Vor- u. Frühgesch. BW	Forschungen und Berichte zur Vor- und Frühgeschichte in Baden-Württemberg.
GPSKV	Gradja za proučavanje spomenika kulture Vojvodine. Novi Sad.
GSAD	Glasnik Srpskog Arheološkog Društva. Beograd.
HOMÉ	A Herman Ottó Múzeum Évkönyve. Miskolc.
HTRTÉ	Hunyadvármegye Történelmi és Régészeti Társulat Évkönyve. Déva (Deva).
JAMÉ	A nyíregyházi Jósa András Múzeum Évkönyve. Nyíregyháza.
JahrbuchRGZM	Jahrbuch des RömischGermanischen Zentralmuseums Mainz.
JAHA	Journal of Ancient History and Archaeology. Cluj-Napoca.
Lohanul	Lohanul. Revistă cultutal științifică. Huși.
MCA	Materiale și Cercetări Arheologice. Bucureşti.
MCA-S.N.	Materiale și Cercetări Arheologice-Serie Nouă. Bucureşti.
MA / MemAnt	Memoria Antiqvitatis. Piatra Neamț.
MFMÉ	A Móra Ferenc Múz. Évkönyve. Szeged.
MFMÉ StudArch	A Móra Ferenc Múzeum Évkönyve, Studia Archaelogica. Szeged.
MN / MuzNat	Muzeul Naţional. Bucureşti.
NumAntCl	Numismatica e antichitàclassiche. Milano.
Opitz Archaeologica	Opitz Archaeologica. Budapest.
Opuscula Hungarica	Opuscula Hungarica. Budapest.
OM	Orbis Mediaevalis. Arad, Cluj-Napoca.
OTÉ	Orvos- Természettudományi Értesitő, a Kolozsvári Orvos-Természettudományi Társulat és az Erdélyi Múzeum-Egylet Természettudományi Szakosztálya.
Palaeohistorica	Acta et Communicationes Instituti Archaeologici Universitatis Groninganae.
PamArch	Památky Archeologické. Praha.
Past *and* Present	Past *and* Present. Oxford.
PIKS/PISC	Die Publikationen des Institutes für klassische Studien/ Publicaţiile Institutului de studii clasice. Cluj-Napoca.
PBF	Praehistorische Bronzefunde. Berlin.
PMÉ	Acta Musei Papensis – Pápai Múzeumi Értesítő.
PZ	Prähistorische Zeitschrift. Berlin.

ReDIVA	Revista Doctoranzilor în Istorie Veche și Arheologie. Cluj-Napoca.
Revista Bistriței	Revista Bistriței. Bistrița.
RevMuz	Revista Muzeelor. Bucureşti.
RIR	Revista Istorică Română.
RMM-MIA	Revista Muzeelor şi Monumentelor. Seria Monumente istorice şi de artă. Bucureşti.
RMMN	Revista Muzeului Militar Naţional. Bucureşti.
RESEE	Revue des Études Sud-Est Européennes. București.
Ruralia	Ruralia. Památky Archeologické – Supplementum. Praha.
RVM	Rad Vojvodjanskih Muzeja. Novi Sad.
Sargetia	Sargeția. Muzeul Civilizației Dacice și Romane, Deva.
Savaria	Savaria. A Vas megyei Múzeumok Értesítője. Szombathely.
SCIV(A)	Studii şi Cercetări de Istorie Veche. Bucureşti.
SCN	Studii şi Cercetări Numismatice. Bucureşti.
SlovArch	Slovenská Archeológia. Nitra.
SIA	Studii de Istoria Artei. Cluj Napoca.
SIB	Studii de istorie a Banatului. Timişoara.
SKMÉ	A Szántó Kovács János Múzeum Évkönyve. Orosháza.
SMIM	Studii şi Materiale de Istorie Medie. Bucureşti.
SMMA	Szolnok Megyei Múzeumi Adattár. Szolnok.
SMMIM	Studii şi Materiale de Muzeografie şi Istorie Militară. Bucureşti.
Starinar	Starinar. Arheološki Institut. Beograd.
Stratum plus	Stratum plus. Archaeology and Cultural Anthropology. Kishinev.
StCl	Studii Clasice. Bucureşti.
StComBrukenthal	Studii şi comunicări. Sibiu.
StudArch	Studia Archaeologica. Budapest.
StudCom	Studia Comitatensia. Szentendre.
Studii și Comunicări	Studii și Comunicări. Arad.
StudUnivCib	Studia Universitatis Cibiniensis. Sibiu.
StudCom – Vrancea	Studii și Comunicări. Muzeul Județean de Istorie și Etnografie Vrancea. Focșani.
StudŽvest	Študijne Zvesti Arheologického Ústavu Slovenskej Akademie Vied. Nitra.
Symp. Thrac.	Symposia Thracologica. Bucureşti.
Századok	Századok. A Magyar Történelmi Társulat Folyóirata. Budapest.
TIR L34	D. Tudor, *Tabula Imperii Romani*. București 1965.
Tempora Obscura	Tempora Obscura. Békéscsaba 2012.
Tibiscus	Tibiscus. Timişoara.
VAH	Varia Archaeologica Hungarica. Budapest.
VIA	Visnik Institutu arkheolohii. L'viv.
Ziridava	Ziridava. Arad.
ZSA	Ziridava Studia Archaeologica. Arad.
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