

Introduction

“Archaeological sites are made, not found”

Frank Matero (2008:3)

Researched, conserved and presented for many years, archaeological sites form one of the important segments of cultural heritage worldwide. As Matero states, there is a continuing process that perhaps begins even before the discovery of an archaeological site, in which it is shaped according to successive interventions that can be extended to include all aspects of conservation as it is understood today, driven by a multitude of cultural, social, economic and political factors. As such, conservation practices form a significant part of ‘making archaeological sites’ (Matero 2006:55).

To add to existing knowledge on how archaeological sites are made, this book focuses on conservation practices as exemplified by foreign-run archaeological projects in Turkey. The publication sets out a holistic examination and systematic appraisal of the variety of conservation work undertaken over the past few decades. As well as filling a gap in the literature, it is hoped that this research can contribute to a wider understanding of the dynamics of archaeological heritage conservation in Turkey, and archaeological conservation as it is practiced in Turkey by foreign-run projects, and thereby lead to more informed conservation policies and enhanced professional collaboration in the future.

This introductory chapter describes the aim and scope of the research, followed by the methodology applied. The chapter concludes with a description of the contents of this research.

1.1. Aim and scope

The existence of foreign archaeological research is a crucial part of archaeology and conservation in Turkey. The first explorations and excavations caused major transformations in the way the Ottoman Empire perceived ancient remains and approached their protection. In succeeding years, the technical and scientific knowledge of foreign teams helped to research and evaluate numerous archaeological sites in Turkey and facilitate their enhanced conservation. Foreign teams and experts¹ have participated in the formulation of conservation approaches, and have contributed to recording and conservation. Their projects have enabled the implementation of a variety of architectural conservation interventions, especially where

anastylosis, consolidation etc. works were carried out, and subsequently more multi-dimensional site conservation and presentation efforts. For this reason, it is important to make a comprehensive analysis of conservation practices at archaeological sites excavated by foreign teams.

This research aims to investigate conservation practices at foreign-run archaeological excavations² (operating through a Ministerial decree) to identify the scale and nature of their differing contributions, determine changing approaches, issues impacting conservation, as well as possible catalysts, influences and driving forces. It should be noted that making comparisons between conservation practices at foreign-run and Turkish-run excavations is not an objective of this research.

The thematic scope, ‘conservation of archaeological sites’ and related practices, is viewed holistically, including technical, socio-political and economic dimensions in a way that reflects developing trends in heritage conservation in recent years. A brief overview of the development of archaeological conservation is given here to explain the position this research takes in its understanding of conservation of archaeological sites³.

Cultural heritage conservation has evolved considerably in the last century. The rapidly changing world, brought about by “...globalisation, technological advancement, political conflict, population mobility, spread of participatory democracies and market economies”, defines the way cultural heritage is interpreted and conserved (Avrami, Mason & de la Torre 2000:3). In this respect, the scopes of heritage and conservation have undergone significant changes, reflected in and catalysed by “the cosmos of international theory and practice of conservation / preservation” (Petzet 2009:13)⁴.

² ‘Foreign-run archaeological excavation’ (*yabancı kazı*), the officially recognized terminology as per law, denote archaeological excavations carried out by teams led by archaeologists affiliated with foreign (i.e. non-Turkish) institutions. The teams can in fact be international and are not limited to people of one specific nationality. In that respect, when using the term ‘foreign’ the emphasis is on the academic affiliation of the excavation director who receives the official permit to excavate, rather than his/her nationality.

³ This research does not judge earlier conservation work according to the present understanding of what conservation of archaeological sites involves.

⁴ International documents concerning specifically archaeological sites, such as the UNESCO Recommendation on International Principles Applicable to Archaeological Excavations, ICAHM Charter and the revised European Convention focus on aspects such as the definition of heritage, identification and survey, reconstructions, excavation processes, presentation, maintenance, financing of research, dissemination of information, raising public awareness, international technical and scientific collaboration, professional qualifications.

¹ Note for example, M.F. Miltner’s (of the OeAD) membership of Turkey’s first Monuments Preservation Council created in 1933 (Madran 1996:73) or the participation of foreign excavation directors and conservation experts in the first national symposium on conservation and valorisation of archaeological sites held in 1991 (ed. Kültür ve Tabiat Varlıklarını Koruma Genel Müdürlüğü 1992).

The object of conservation efforts, i.e. what to conserve, has evolved from its initial architectural focus to encompass material contexts (sites and landscapes) and the intangible heritage of communities in the shape of their traditions and perceptions (collectively forming ‘cultural heritage’) – changes encapsulated in the Venice Charter⁵ (1964), UNESCO World Heritage Convention (1972), ICAHM Charter (1990), the revised European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage (1992), the European Landscape Convention (2000), the Faro Convention (2005) and the Ename Charter (2008). Values associated with cultural heritage no longer focus on works of great artistic significance but, since the Venice Charter (1964), embrace the notion that buildings and sites can have values other than artistic or purely scientific (Stanley-Price 1996). Today, the role of cultural heritage in the society is more associated with its contribution to social and economic development (ICOMOS Paris Declaration 2011). Multi-disciplinarity in the field of conservation has evolved from its initial focus on the “close collaboration between the archaeologist and the architect” (Athens Conference 1931), towards collaboration with experts of relevant fields, further developed with the Venice Charter, the ICAHM Charter (1990) and the revised European Convention for the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage of Europe (1992).

Parallel to this more inclusive perspective, the field of conservation shed its Euro-centric focus to involve values and perceptions of the ‘periphery’ (Logan 2004:2), introducing revised understandings of the concept of authenticity and the principle of minimum intervention (a core principle of conservation) with the Nara Document of Authenticity⁶ (1994) and the Burra Charter (1999), thereby broadening our understanding of heritage towards the intangible, and its conservation towards culturally appropriate methodologies.

⁵ As a fundamental text impacting architectural conservation practices, the Venice Charter condones a scientific approach to conservation. It recognizes restoration as a “highly specialized operation” the aim of which is to preserve aesthetic and historic values with “respect for original material and authentic documents” (Article 9). It puts forward maintenance as a key element of conservation (Article 4) and supports the use of contemporary materials and techniques, postulating that any additions should be distinct (Article 9, 10, 12, 15). Departing from its predecessors, *anastylosis*, defined as “the reassembling of existing but dismembered parts”, is stipulated as the only acceptable intervention in archaeological excavations, with a total disregard for reconstructions (Article 15). Subsequent implementations of *anastylosis*, however, demonstrate the ambiguity of the term, and as Vacharopoulou notes “the concept lingers between restoration and reconstruction” (2006a:199). Another contribution of the charter is its emphasis on recording and publishing each phase of conservation work (Article 16).

⁶ Subsequently hailed as “a watershed moment in modern conservation history” (Stovel 2008:9), the Nara Document represents a paradigm shift in the history of conservation (Poulios 2016:162). The document moved the existing focus on the tangible (the prevalent material-based approach) towards the intangible, and from the universal to the local by recognizing how culturally diverse heritage and perception of heritage were. At a time “in which people and communities, and what heritage means to them, became gradually more significant” (Holtorf & Kono 2016:139), the document called for a context-based dynamic view of conservation (Jokilehto 1998:18) that acknowledged human activities, local values and “workmanship and other aspects of cultural continuity” (Araoz 2013:144).

The growing recognition of culturally diverse values and perception of cultural heritage as a resource (Şahin Güçhan 2014:XIX), required conservation efforts to take a more holistic form in such a way that it would allow the expectations and views of multiple stakeholders to be taken into consideration, thus leading the way to a values-based heritage management approach⁷ (Sullivan & Mackay 2012:4). Public participation has therefore become an integral part of heritage conservation. In this way, the field of conservation is also moving from its expert-led focus towards greater involvement of communities in the identification, conservation and management of cultural heritage – a trend that is expanding with the ‘living heritage approach’ in which the continuous relationship of local communities with archaeological sites are further recognized (Poulios 2010).

The field of archaeological conservation is inextricably linked with cultural heritage conservation. While principles such as minimum intervention, reversibility, and issues such as maintenance, presentation and the “appropriate degree of intervention in the conservation process” (Sullivan & Mackay 2012:2) (consolidation, *anastylosis*, and reconstructions etc.) continue to be discussed at great length (Vacharopoulou 2006b; Orbaşlı 2016:186), the field has evolved parallel to these developments. Today conservation of archaeological sites is not only about physical interventions to prevent or remedy threats to building remains, but is a multi-faceted, multi-voiced, social, economic and political process in which many issues need to be considered. For the purposes of this research, therefore, the following topics are examined within the broader understanding of conservation of archaeological sites:

- Technical aspects
 - identification and survey (documentation, information management tools etc.)
 - architectural interventions (backfilling/reburial, consolidation–stabilisation, *anastylosis*, restoration, reconstruction, relocation, replication)
 - planning and management
 - monitoring and maintenance
 - site presentation
 - conservation professionals and teams
- Socio-political aspects
 - engagement with the local communities and dissemination of information
 - relations with the authorities
- Economic aspects
 - funding of conservation work
 - use of financial resources

⁷ The Burra Charter in particular set in motion a new direction for heritage conservation in the form of a values-based approach, which not only set forward a move from intrinsic values, primarily historic and aesthetic (de la Torre 2013:157) to a wider, more inclusive range of values but also spearheaded participatory conservation processes – an approach that has become particularly widespread in the US, Australia and the UK (Poulios 2014:19).

In line with this understanding of archaeological conservation, this research examines conservation practices at foreign-run archaeological excavations according to the following questions:

- What types of conservation interventions were carried out?
- Who did the conservation work?
- What were the financial sources for conservation?
- Were local communities engaged and if so how?
- Have conservation approaches changed over the years and if so in what way?
- Which issues impacted the conservation process?
- What are the possible catalysts, influences and driving forces?

The following topics were addressed to set the scene:

- the legal and administrative contexts in which foreign teams carry out these interventions
- the requirements of working in Turkey and the expectations of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism⁸ in terms of archaeological conservation

The temporal scope of this research relates to the recent past: more specifically, it concentrates on conservation practices at foreign-run excavations between 1979-2014 (35 seasons). The main reason for this sample is the availability of a major source of information in the form of the proceedings of the *Kazı Sonuçları Toplantısı* (Excavation Results Meeting) (ERM)⁹ – an event that has become an institution in its own right, through which archaeological activities in Turkey have been presented annually without fail since 1979. The advantages and disadvantages of using ERM proceedings are examined in detail in the methodology section.

1.2. Methodology

The subject of this research, conservation practices at foreign-run archaeological excavations, was investigated at the selected sites that were considered to present a representative sample among a larger number of ongoing projects. Conservation practices were investigated using two main source categories: publications, within which the ERM proceedings (1979-2014 seasons) formed the structural foundation, and interviews. These were supplemented by personal observations during site visits.

1.2.1. Selection of sites

In the early stages of this research, approximately 40

foreign-run excavations were continuing in Turkey¹⁰ (Figure 1.1, Figure 1.2), run by 12 different countries¹¹: German-run projects, almost 30% of the total number of foreign-run archaeological excavations, were mostly in western and southern regions; Italian (19%) and American-run (14%) projects were similarly concentrated in the western and southern regions with several located in central and south-eastern regions; British-run projects were mainly in central Anatolia. Projects of other foreign countries were spread across the country.

Among the four countries with the largest number of excavations, most of the German and Italian-run projects were on predominantly classical sites, while with American-run projects classical and preclassical sites were almost equal in number. British-run projects were primarily on preclassical sites with the exception of one post-classical site.

The main areas where foreign work is concentrated are the Aegean, Mediterranean and Central Anatolian regions. Eastern, southeastern and northern parts of the country remain under-researched by foreign teams. The oldest-running excavations, i.e. the ones that began during the Ottoman Period or in the early years of the Turkish Republic, are mostly concentrated in the Aegean and Central Anatolia region, while the distinct focus of the last decades of the 20th century and the first decade of the 21st century rests with the eastern part of the Mediterranean region, southeastern and Central Anatolia.

In view of this large number of projects, the intention has been to select a representative sample of those excavations in terms of the country operating the project and project duration (older and newer projects). Longevity was an important selection criterion so that developments in conservation practices could be better understood. Short-term excavations, i.e. those that lasted only a few seasons, and excavations that had started only recently were therefore not included. Excavations also needed to be on-going because the directors and where possible conservation specialists were to be interviewed on site. Main building materials, stone and mudbrick, were taken into consideration due to their different conservation problems.

Based on these criteria, sites were reduced from around 40 sites to the eventual 19. In the first stage, a preliminary list was narrowed down to 31 sites, and their ERM proceedings and associated literature studied to help make a general assessment of the works carried out and the information available. After this stage, excavation directors were contacted – their response and availability formed one of

⁸ For the remainder of this research it will be referred to as 'MoCT'. In situations relating to pre-2003, when the Ministry of Culture and Ministry of Tourism were merged, 'MoC' will be used to refer to the Ministry of Culture.

⁹ For the remainder of this research, this event is referred to as 'ERM' and its proceedings as 'ERM proceedings'.

¹⁰ The late 2000s and early 2010s have seen changes in institutions running projects, finalized projects, and permit cancellations, therefore, these figures are only given to provide a general idea.

¹¹ Projects carried out by academics affiliated with institutions in Australia and Sweden have since ceased or were transferred to another institution. Projects carried out by British institutions have decreased since.

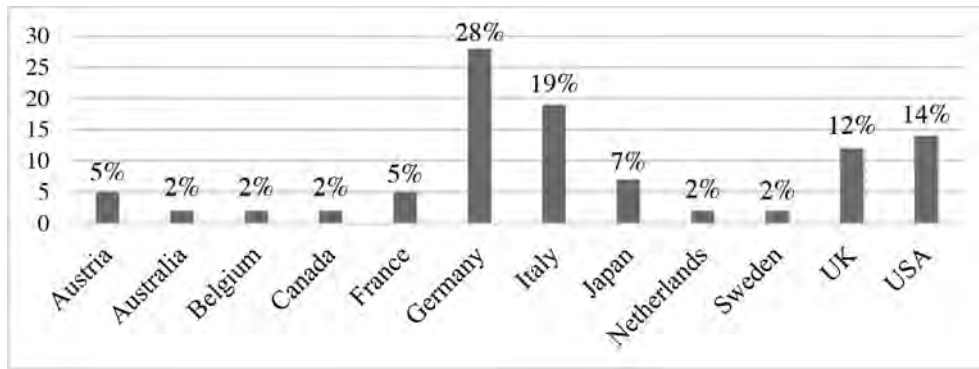


Figure 1.1. Foreign-run projects by country.

the determining factors in finalising the list of 23 sites¹², following which site visits and interviews were carried out. After a final assessment based on available data and their relevance to this research, 19 sites were selected for detailed investigation.

Eight foreign countries are represented among the 19 selected sites reflecting the existing predominance of German-run projects (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, UK, USA) (Table 1.1, Figure 1.3) Geographically, they are spread in almost all the regions where foreign institutions carry out excavations (the only exception being the Black Sea region) (Figure 1.4). Eleven excavations began either during the Ottoman period or in the early decades of the Republic and eight began in the 1990s or later. All these excavations were researched retrospectively through the ERM proceedings, other publications, and interviews to understand conservation practices over a period of almost four decades.

1.2.2. Sources and constraints

1.2.2.1. ERM proceedings and other literary sources

The ERM proceedings lie at the heart of this research. The annual event brings together directors of archaeological excavations and surveys with representatives of MoCT¹³. A permanent fixture in the calendar since 1979, the ERM is one of the longest-running archaeological meetings in the world¹⁴. It has produced, as of 2016¹⁵, 79 volumes of publications that represent the diversity of archaeological

research in Turkey as well as providing an environment for periodic review and information sharing. As such the ERM may be regarded as a significant factor in the development of archaeological practice in Turkey¹⁶ (Özdoğan & Başgelen 2013:XV).

As Özgüner (2015:275) notes, ERM proceedings are not peer-reviewed, and therefore are not purely scientific texts, which allows the event and proceedings to “go a step beyond descriptive texts that document fieldwork only, and serve as a forum for the governed (e.g., project directors, specialists, archaeology students) to voice concerns to governors (e.g., members of the Ministry and, more importantly, of the General Directorate)”. This feature of the proceedings has been particularly useful in following changing policies of MoC/MoCT and subsequent reactions, depicting contemporaneous debates, and problems related with conservation work. One might add to this, MoCT’s position with regards to archaeological fieldwork and conservation practices, as represented in the opening and closing speeches of MoCT officials and of excavation directors on behalf of the academic community. It is unfortunate that those speeches have rarely been printed in the ERM proceedings (exceptions are 5th, 23rd and the 24th ERMs), therefore, attendance at the ERMs of 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2015 as part of this research proved to be of significant value in ascertaining MoCTs recent position and policies.

The ERM proceedings provide considerable information on conservation practices, allowing tracing of interventions year by year and following progresses or certain problematic issues. Having said that, there are various constraints associated with using ERM proceedings as sources for conservation practices.

MoCT, and its predecessor the MoC, did not require project directors to submit their articles according to specific

¹² At this stage, the permits of several projects in this group of sites were cancelled, therefore, their directors were not contacted. Among those who responded positively some had to be excluded mainly owing to schedule conflicts.

¹³ Previously, collective information regarding archaeological projects could be found in various journals as annual reports on archaeology in Turkey written by Halet Çambel, Bahadır Alkım, Handan Alkım, and Machteld Mellink (Özdoğan & Başgelen Nezi 2013:xiv). This tradition was continued in the 1990s and early 2000s by Marie-Henriette Gates and Alan Greaves. ERM grew into a multi-disciplinary symposium with the addition of the Survey Results Meetings in 1983 and Archeometry Results Meetings in 1985. The first proceedings to be published were for the second ERM held in 1980.

¹⁴ Various other countries that hold annual symposia are Cyprus, Belize and Guatemala (Luke & Kersel 2013:61).

¹⁵ These proceedings are of the 2014 season of excavations.

¹⁶ Criticisms regarding the event mainly centre on its chronological programme, which is considered a discouraging factor for attendance throughout the week, and that the event itself does not function as a platform of debate and resolution of problems (Pasinli 2002:IV; Koparal 2015:102).

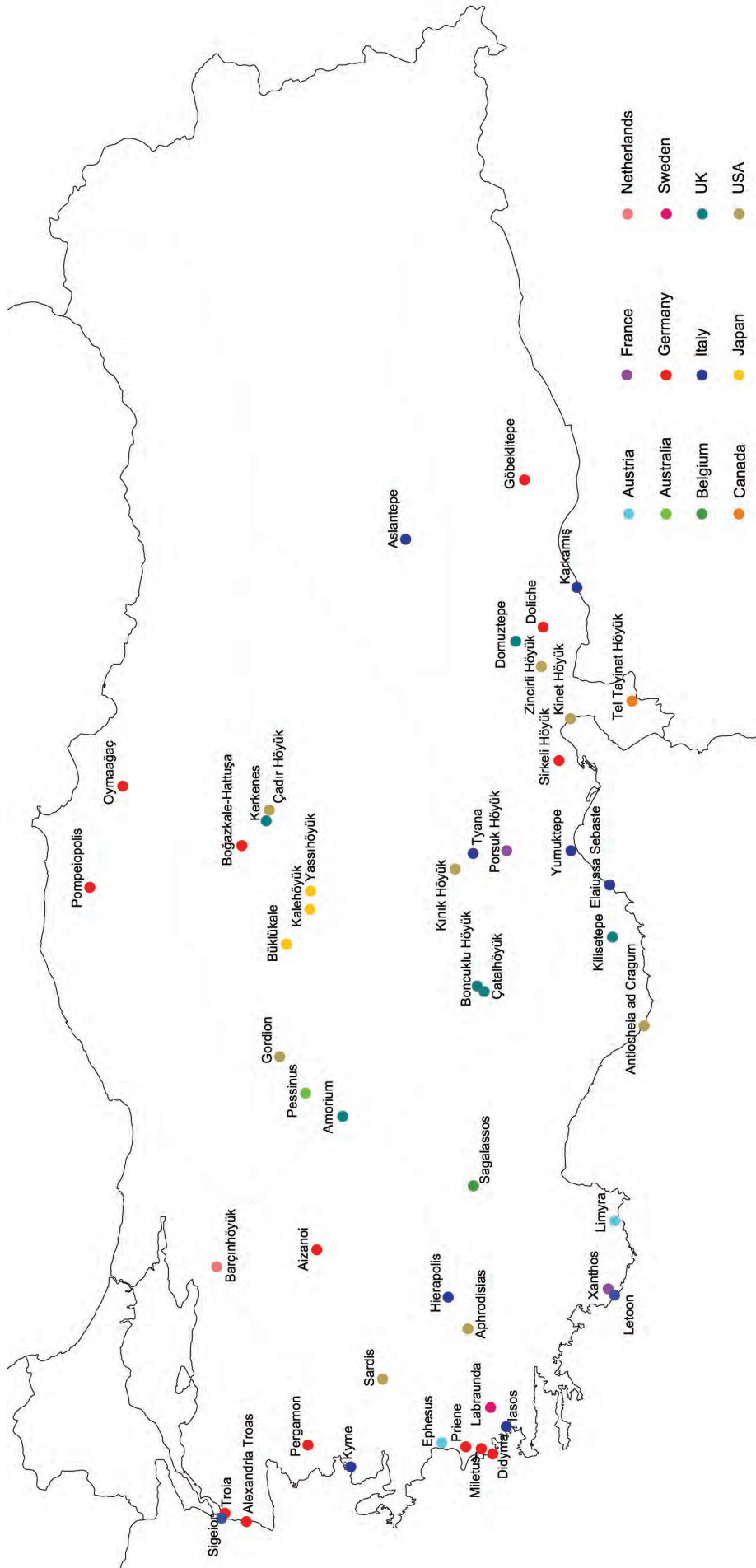


Figure 1.2. Foreign-run archaeological excavations in the early 2010s (the author using MoCT lists given at www.kultur.gov.tr).

Table 1.1. Selected case study sites.

	Site	Country	Starting date	Region
1	Aphrodisias	USA	1960s	Aegean
2	Arslantepe	ITA	1930s 1960s	Eastern
3	Çatalhöyük	UK	1960s	Central
			1990s	
4	Doliche	GE	2000s	Southeastern
5	Elaiussa Sebaste	ITA	1990s	Mediterranean
6	Ephesos	AU	19th cent 1920s 1950s	Aegean
7	Gordion	USA	1900s 1950s	Central
8	Göbeklitepe	GE	1990s	Southeastern
9	Hattusha	GE	1900s 1930s	Central
10	Hierapolis	ITA	1950s	Aegean
11	Kaman- Kalehöyük	JP	1980s	Central
12	Kyme	ITA	1970s	Aegean
			1980s	
13	Labraunda	FR	1940s 1980s	Aegean
			2000s	
14	Pergamon	GE	19th cent 1950s	Aegean
15	Priene	GE	19th cent 1970s 1990s	Aegean
16	Sagalassos	BE	1990s	Mediterranean
17	Sardis	USA	1910s 1950s	Aegean
18	Troy	GE	19th cent 1930s	Marmara
19	Yumuktepe	ITA	1990s	Mediterranean

criteria¹⁷ – even their appearance in the proceedings is determined on a ‘first-come-first-appear’ basis. As a result, the level of information is highly diverse – particularly visible in the early years of the ERMs where some reports are very elaborate while others barely touch on the season’s

¹⁷ For example, information on funding, team members, their specialisations etc. varies significantly, and in some reports, there is no reference to these subjects.

work¹⁸. The structure and level of detail of these reports are entirely up to the director, who may not submit a report on a particular year¹⁹. Sometimes owing to a change of director, or change in focus, report structures of certain sites might also differ, or they may not refer to a continuing project in certain seasons, making it difficult to follow the progress of a project. Information is limited to what the excavation director wishes to share on that particular occasion, therefore an omission does not necessarily mean that a particular project or set of work never took place. This does, however, demonstrate that the authority does not engage in systematic information collection for the purpose of ERMs.

Similarly, MoCT, until recently, did not stress on a particular language in the submitted reports, and therefore, it remained the choice of each director to decide, resulting in a multi-language volume of proceedings. Other than the obvious Turkish articles about Turkish-run projects, foreign directors mainly chose to write in their own language, or another common language while some others presented bilingually in Turkish and another language²⁰. In some cases, directors of the same country presented their results in different languages such as with the Italian-run Iasos and Hierapolis, the results of which are presented in French, and Arslantepe, written in English.

The use of different languages in the ERM reports brings forth two issues when used as a source for this research: terminological errors in translated texts and differences in conservation terminology. In reports that were translated from a foreign language into Turkish, there are instances of erroneous terminology, for example, phrases such as *koruma restoresi* or *koruyucu restoresi* – as seen in the ERM report for Kyme’s 1990 season which are incorrect forms of explaining (architectural) conservation in Turkish. While these may largely stem from a lack of familiarity with conservation terminology on the translator’s part, they may indicate the unfamiliarity of the original author, particularly where it relates to newer terminology such as ‘management planning’ that can get confused with landscape design projects. A more deep-rooted problem concerns the inconsistency in the use of specific terms such as *anastylosis*, restoration and reconstruction, which can be used interchangeably, such as referring to a project as an *anastylosis* in one year’s report and then refer to it as a reconstruction the following year.

At this point, it should be noted that conservation terminology varies from one country to the other. For example, Vacharapoulou (2006a:200–201) describes

¹⁸ An example is from the proceedings of the 1983 season (published in 1984). Reports of Ephesos and Hattusha, demonstrate how each director decided on the level of information. The report of Ephesos is one page long, with another page of photos, while the results of Hattusha are delivered in 29 pages accompanied by 14 pages of photos and architectural drawings.

¹⁹ It may also be the case that instead of submitting a report each year, a collective report representing work over a number of seasons is submitted – though this usually does not exceed two seasons.

²⁰ As is discussed later in this research, there is a shift towards Turkish in the ERM presentations and published reports.

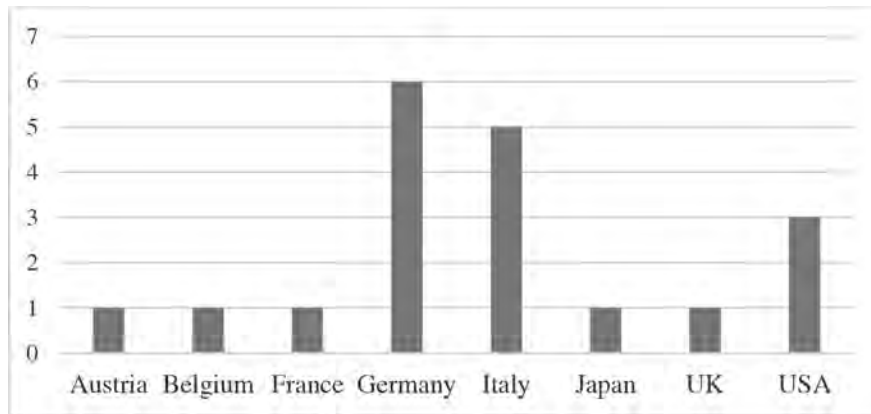


Figure 1.3. Affiliated countries.

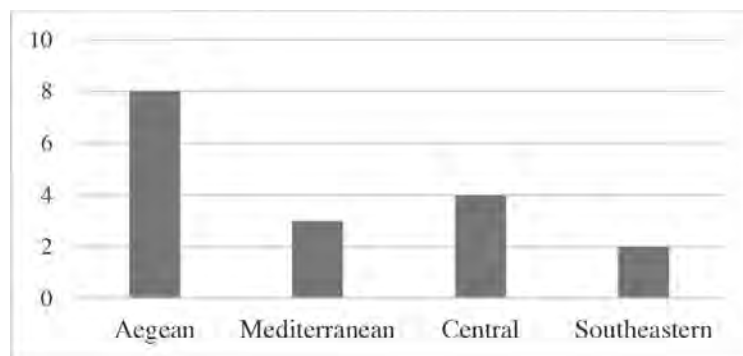


Figure 1.4. Regional distribution of the selected sites.

the differences of vocabulary between professionals of different countries, such as Greece, England and Austria, where for the Greeks *anastylosis* implies interventions wider than ‘re-assembling’ but for the Austrians it is strictly based on the Venice Charter, where new material is kept at a minimum and only introduced as a result of structural or holistic reasons. This is in fact part of a wider problem with which the international community has been dealing since the early 20th century, if not earlier. Translation of conservation terminology is particularly crucial in the preparation of international guidelines, which are then translated into other national languages²¹. For example the “Manual on the technique of archaeological excavations” published in 1940, in reference to problems associated with international collaboration, states that “terminology in matters of art and archaeology also poses a problem of co-ordination,” and heralds a multi-language terminology dictionary (International Museums Office 1940:189).

²¹ See Willems (2007) for an example on how the use of different terms in different languages can even influence the interpretation of international principles, such as in the French and English versions of the Valletta Convention (regarding the terms preventive archaeology and rescue archaeology). Similarly, Erder (1994:25–26) notes the different interpretations of the Venice Charter, the original of which was French, when translated into other languages. See also Kaymak Heinz (2008:463) for differences between the Turkish and German translations of the Venice Charter, which reinforces the argument that countries adapt and interpret such texts according to their own contexts and conditions. The Nara Document’s English and French versions were similarly ‘dissimilar’, with slight nuances owing to the particulars of each language (Cameron & Inaba 2015:35).

In the early years of the ERM, not every archaeological excavation’s report appeared in the proceedings, and even later, there are cases when reports of certain sites are not in the proceedings, such as Arslantepe in the late 1990s and Çatalhöyük in the 2000s²². On occasions where ERM reports do not mention conservation work, this does not necessarily mean no conservation work was carried out that specific season.

Another constraint is that in some cases, ERM reports do not refer to some aspects of conservation work, such as management planning or community-related projects even though related projects were carried out. Similarly, information on funding, and more specifically that for conservation projects can be limited. Nevertheless, the ERM proceedings provided valuable information for this research.

Other literary sources used to consolidate and elaborate information or fill in the gaps include printed publications such as articles, journals, books, theses; digital media including websites of excavations, online documents, reports; and news items.

²² Although previously directors could decide whether or not to submit their reports to the proceedings, MoCT has been increasingly attributing greater significance on attendance to the ERMs, and in fact more recently, MoCT representatives speaking at the ERMs emphasized that presentations should be made by the directors themselves and not a team member, which suggests submission of reports are also important.

1.2.2.2. Interviews

One of the important aspects of this research was to ascertain the views of current excavation directors regarding their conservation practices, problems they encountered and the circumstances within which they worked in order to be able to understand more recent conditions surrounding conservation work – information that may not have been readily available elsewhere. Semi-guided interviews were preferred to a questionnaire²³, or to a structured formal interview in order to encourage a discursive dialogue and thus avoid answering one question after another in a linear procession.

In view of the large number of sites selected, a decision was made at the beginning of the process to carry out interviews based on the site's geographical locations (Fig. 1.2). Interviews were mainly conducted during three separate trips across the country in 2011, 2012, and 2015. Another strategic decision was to hold interviews with the directors at the sites they were working at. This strategy was adopted as it would enable the author, where possible, to visit the site with relevant professionals and observe the issues raised.

The directors were initially contacted through emails in which the research topic was explained, and a request was made to have a preliminary meeting at the ERM of that year in May. These short, introductory meetings were followed by further correspondence about the date and time of the discussions at their sites, scheduled for later that summer. This was done by sending the directors who had responded to the initial query the route of site visits, planned by the author, which allowed for the most part of one day for each site followed by travel to the next site on the route. Upon confirmation from the directors, a final programme was sent out.

The first group consisted of seven directors of sites that were along the Aegean coastline and further inland. The interviews took place at the relevant sites, with the exception of one that occurred at the director's institute. The second group consisted of five directors of sites along the Mediterranean as well as sites in eastern and southeastern Turkey. The discussions took place at the relevant sites. The third group consisted of five sites in central and eastern Anatolia. All except one interview took place at the relevant sites. Also in this final stage, interviews with two directors who were originally in the first two groups, with whom it had not been possible to

meet previously, were carried out at an ERM²⁴. It must be noted, however, that all the sites selected for this research were visited regardless of whether the interview was conducted at the site or not.

Interviews were mainly held either at excavations houses or on site. Where possible, and if existing and present, meetings with team members responsible for conservation of the site / buildings also took place. On various occasions, it was also possible to meet with the Turkish assistant-director but that was not the norm. In all visits to meet the directors, the author was formally introduced to the *kazi temsilcisi* (representative) by the directors.

Questions centred on themes to understand the most-recent conditions for archaeological conservation at the sites where they were working:

- practical conservation work / conservation activities
- conservation problems
- conservation teams
- funding of conservation work
- relations with locals and community engagement
- relations with the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MoCT)

They were not posed at once at the beginning nor were they asked always in the same order. Depending on the course the discussion was taking, the author tried to create an environment where it was possible for the directors to elaborate and articulate each topic the way they felt comfortable. The directors were very generous with their time, allowing an hour at the least for discussions – usually a lot longer – and arranged site visits, led either by themselves or by a team member. Some of those interviewed wished to remain anonymous while others gave their consent for themselves to be directly associated with their comments.

Sources for portraying the views of MoCT relating to conservation work at foreign-run archaeological excavations and on foreign projects come from a variety of sources. ERM proceedings, where in the earlier years various speeches made by MoCT representatives were published, provided an important background. Also, the ERMs that were attended during the preparation of this research yielded information, again owing to the opening and closing speeches. This information was supplemented with an interview conducted with the Excavation Unit of MoCT in 2016 (referred to in the text as MoCT comm. 2016). Literature on the development of archaeological practice in Turkey as well as newspaper articles, particularly interviews given to the press by MoCT (ministers or representatives) also contributed to understanding their position and views with regards for foreign-run archaeological excavations.

²³ The initial intention had been to send questionnaires to the directors asking specific questions about the context and content of their conservation work, however, preliminary studies resulted in a large number of questions, which raised doubts as to whether this would be a viable research methodology: it was considered highly unlikely that the directors would respond to a long questionnaire over an email. It was also considered restrictive if they wished to expand on various topics or preferred to highlight a certain matter. Therefore, holding interviews with the directors was chosen as the appropriate method.

²⁴ With the exception of Sagalassos, where the head of conservation was interviewed on behalf of the director, the directors were interviewed at all the other sites.

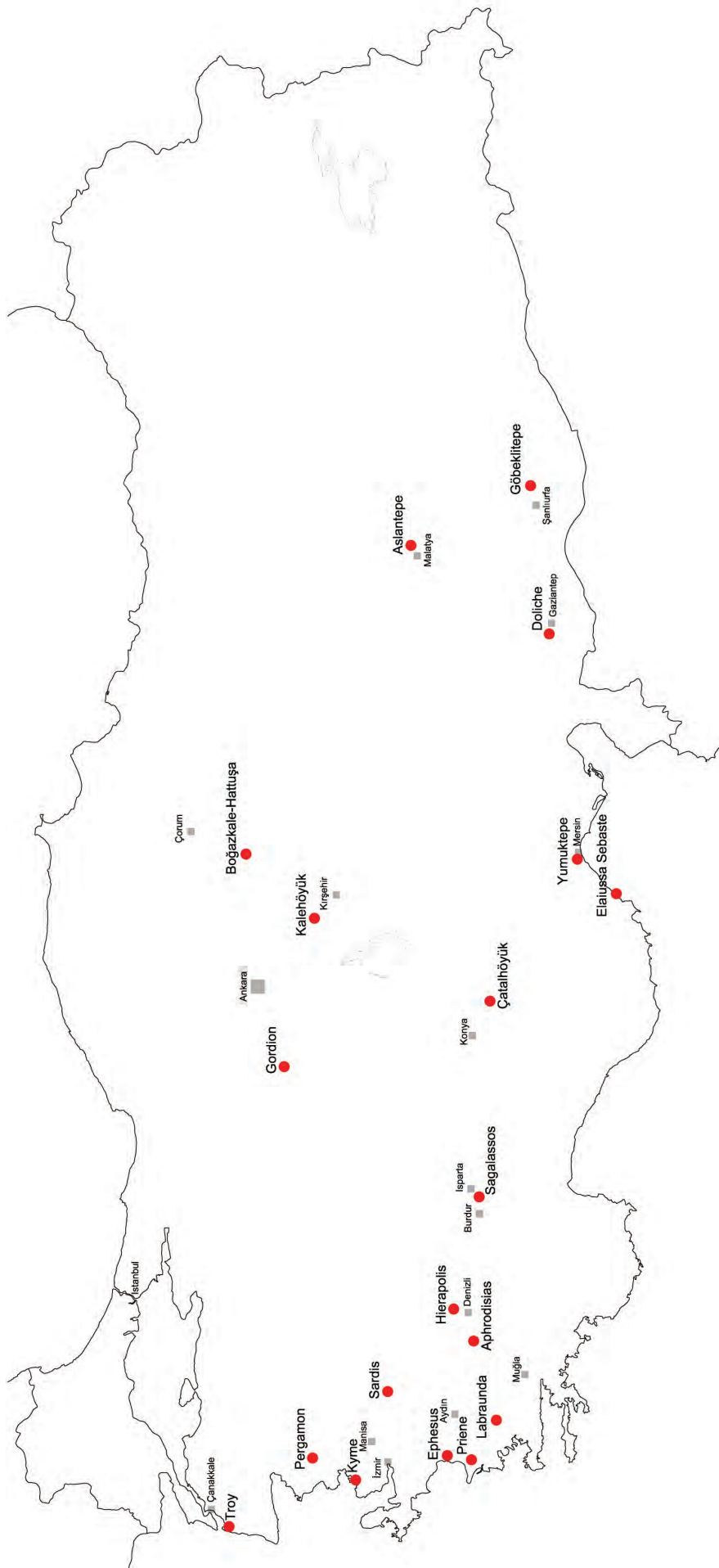


Figure 1.5. Foreign-run archaeological excavations investigated in this research (the author).

1.2.2.3. Data collection and storage

The data collection process began with the preparation of a list in the preliminary stages of the research that covered conservation practices according to international guidelines (given in p.18). Based on this list, five main data categories were formed according to which sources were studied – this process also guided the interview phase of the research:

- practical conservation work / conservation activities
- people in conservation
- funding for conservation
- community engagement
- issues impacting conservation practices

Considering the amount of data collected through the literature survey, ERM proceedings, interviews and site visits, data storage was an important part of this research. All literary sources were stored in the reference managing software CITAVI, which allowed collation of information according to the designated information categories as well as retrieve notes, highlighted texts and quotations according to these categories.

The ERM proceedings necessitated the use of Excel files. Each volume was examined to determine how conservation approaches at selected foreign archaeological excavations evolved and what role conservation has played in their excavation programmes/schedules. The information was initially stored in separate Excel files created for each year, which was converted into separate sheets for each excavation where conservation practices were noted according to the data categories mentioned above. Together with information derived from other sources, this was then converted into a chart where activities at each site for each year were marked.

Interview data was stored and analysed using the software QSR NVivo, through which collected information was coded for each research question to allow for viewing of the types of responses across the respondents. This was particularly useful in understanding and structuring current issues impacting conservation practices.

Site visits, carried out on the day of the discussions, focused on recent conservation projects of the teams, and the problems they encountered. Examples discussed during the interview were photographically documented during the visits. In addition, attention was paid to document how the site was presented to the public, concentrating on site entrances, facilities, visitor routes, information made available to visitors, whether the site was sign-posted in its vicinity etc.

1.3. Contents

The book is structured in five chapters. The first chapter describes the aim and scope, as well as the methodology of the research, explaining how the sites were selected and

illustrating on the sources used and the various constraints that had to be taken into consideration. The second chapter sets the scene by providing a contextual background on foreign archaeological research in Turkey and examining legislative conditions in Turkey with regards to archaeological conservation and foreign archaeological excavations, and outlines official requirements concerning foreign-run archaeological projects, focusing especially on conservation. The third chapter explores conservation practices at the selected 19 sites over a period of 35 years (1979-2014) to present the types of conservation work carried out, the people who carried out the work, funding sources for conservation, and community engagement in archaeological and conservation processes. The fourth chapter presents a review of conservation practices in three sections. Based on the information in the previous chapter, initially a thematic evaluation is carried out so as to identify different techniques and changing approaches during the examined period. Then, using the information obtained from the interviews as a starting point issues impacting conservation practices are explored. At the end of the chapter, the possible catalysts, influences and driving forces behind conservation practices are discussed. The final chapter gives an overview, concluding with recommendations and suggestions for further research.