

Chapter 1 : The Finds of Roman Britain: Guy De LA Bedoyere: racedaydvl.com: Books

London dig unearths Roman bones, jewels and single flake of gold. Published: 24 May London dig unearths Roman bones, jewels and single flake of gold About results for Roman Britain.

The Silures , Ordovices and Deceangli remained implacably opposed to the invaders and for the first few decades were the focus of Roman military attention, despite occasional minor revolts among Roman allies like the Brigantes and the Iceni. The Silures were led by Caratacus , and he carried out an effective guerrilla attack campaign against Governor Publius Ostorius Scapula. Finally, in 51, Ostorius lured Caratacus into a set-piece battle and defeated him. The British leader sought refuge among the Brigantes, but their queen, Cartimandua , proved her loyalty by surrendering him to the Romans. Boudica was the widow of the recently deceased king of the Iceni, Prasutagus. The Roman historian Tacitus reports that Prasutagus had left a will leaving half his kingdom to Nero in the hope that the remainder would be left untouched. In consequence, Rome punished her and her daughters by flogging and rape. In response, the Iceni, joined by the Trinovantes , destroyed the Roman colony at Camulodunum Colchester and routed the part of the IXth Legion that was sent to relieve it. Abandoned, it was destroyed, as was Verulamium St. Between seventy and eighty thousand people are said to have been killed in the three cities. But Suetonius regrouped with two of the three legions still available to him, chose a battlefield, and, despite being heavily outnumbered, defeated the rebels in the Battle of Watling Street. Boudica died not long afterwards, by self-administered poison or by illness. The reconstruction was created for Rotherham Museums and Galleries. There was further turmoil in 69, the " Year of the Four Emperors ". As civil war raged in Rome, weak governors were unable to control the legions in Britain, and Venutius of the Brigantes seized his chance. The Romans had previously defended Cartimandua against him, but this time were unable to do so. Cartimandua was evacuated, and Venutius was left in control of the north of the country. After Vespasian secured the empire, his first two appointments as governor, Quintus Petillius Cerialis and Sextus Julius Frontinus , took on the task of subduing the Brigantes and Silures respectively. In the following years, the Romans conquered more of the island, increasing the size of Roman Britain. Governor Gnaeus Julius Agricola , father-in-law to the historian Tacitus , conquered the Ordovices in For much of the history of Roman Britain, a large number of soldiers were garrisoned on the island. This required that the emperor station a trusted senior man as governor of the province. As a result, many future emperors served as governors or legates in this province, including Vespasian , Pertinax , and Gordian I. Even the name of his replacement is unknown. Archaeology has shown that some Roman forts south of the Forthâ€”Clyde isthmus were rebuilt and enlarged; others appear to have been abandoned. Roman coins and pottery have been found circulating at native settlement sites in the Scottish Lowlands in the years before , indicating growing Romanisation. Some of the most important sources for this era are the writing tablets from the fort at Vindolanda in Northumberland , mostly dating to 90â€” Around there appears to have been a serious setback at the hands of the tribes of the Picts of Alba: There is also circumstantial evidence that auxiliary reinforcements were sent from Germany, and an unnamed British war of the period is mentioned on the gravestone of a tribune of Cyrene. The Romans were also in the habit of destroying their own forts during an orderly withdrawal, in order to deny resources to an enemy. In either case, the frontier probably moved south to the line of the Stanegate at the Solway â€” Tyne isthmus around this time. This replaced the famous Legio IX Hispana , whose disappearance has been much discussed. Archaeology indicates considerable political instability in Scotland during the first half of the 2nd century, and the shifting frontier at this time should be seen in this context. In the reign of Antoninus Pius â€” the Hadrianic border was briefly extended north to the Forthâ€”Clyde isthmus, where the Antonine Wall was built around following the military reoccupation of the Scottish lowlands by a new governor, Quintus Lollius Urbicus. The first Antonine occupation of Scotland ended as a result of a further crisis in â€”, when the Brigantes revolted. With limited options to despatch reinforcements, the Romans moved their troops south, and this rising was suppressed by Governor Gnaeus Julius Verus. Within a year the Antonine Wall was recaptured, but by or it was abandoned. The Romans did not entirely withdraw from Scotland at this time: Increasing numbers of hoards of buried coins in Britain at

this time indicate that peace was not entirely achieved. Sufficient Roman silver has been found in Scotland to suggest more than ordinary trade, and it is likely that the Romans were reinforcing treaty agreements by paying tribute to their implacable enemies, the Picts. In , a large force of Sarmatian cavalry, consisting of 5,000 men, arrived in Britannia, probably to reinforce troops fighting unrecorded uprisings. Ulpius Marcellus was sent as replacement governor and by he had won a new peace, only to be faced with a mutiny from his own troops. The Roman army in Britannia continued its insubordination: Commodus met the party outside Rome and agreed to have Perennis killed, but this only made them feel more secure in their mutiny. The future emperor Pertinax was sent to Britannia to quell the mutiny and was initially successful in regaining control, but a riot broke out among the troops. Pertinax was attacked and left for dead, and asked to be recalled to Rome, where he briefly succeeded Commodus as emperor in . Following the short reign of Pertinax, several rivals for the emperorship emerged, including Septimius Severus and Clodius Albinus. The latter was the new governor of Britannia, and had seemingly won the natives over after their earlier rebellions; he also controlled three legions, making him a potentially significant claimant. Albinus crossed to Gaul in , where the provinces were also sympathetic to him, and set up at Lugdunum. Severus arrived in February , and the ensuing battle was decisive. Albinus had demonstrated the major problem posed by Roman Britain. In order to maintain security, the province required the presence of three legions; but command of these forces provided an ideal power base for ambitious rivals. Deploying those legions elsewhere would strip the island of its garrison, leaving the province defenceless against uprisings by the native Celtic tribes and against invasion by the Picts and Scots. Cassius Dio records that the new Governor, Virius Lupus , was obliged to buy peace from a fractious northern tribe known as the Maeatae. Senecio requested either reinforcements or an Imperial expedition, and Severus chose the latter, despite being 62 years old. The emperor had not come all that way to leave without a victory, and it is likely that he wished to provide his teenage sons Caracalla and Geta with first-hand experience of controlling a hostile barbarian land. Northern campaigns, " An invasion of Caledonia led by Severus and probably numbering around 20,000 troops moved north in or , crossing the Wall and passing through eastern Scotland on a route similar to that used by Agricola. Harried by punishing guerrilla raids by the northern tribes and slowed by an unforgiving terrain, Severus was unable to meet the Caledonians on a battlefield. He assumed the title Britannicus but the title meant little with regard to the unconquered north, which clearly remained outside the authority of the Empire. Almost immediately, another northern tribe, the Maeatae , again went to war. Caracalla left with a punitive expedition , but by the following year his ailing father had died and he and his brother left the province to press their claim to the throne. As one of his last acts, Severus tried to solve the problem of powerful and rebellious governors in Britain by dividing the province into Britannia Superior and Britannia Inferior. This kept the potential for rebellion in check for almost a century. Historical sources provide little information on the following decades, a period known as the Long Peace. Even so, the number of buried hoards found from this period rises, suggesting continuing unrest. A string of forts were built along the coast of southern Britain to control piracy; and over the following hundred years they increased in number, becoming the Saxon Shore Forts. During the middle of the 3rd century, the Roman Empire was convulsed by barbarian invasions, rebellions and new imperial pretenders. Britannia apparently avoided these troubles, but increasing inflation had its economic effect. In a so-called Gallic Empire was established when Postumus rebelled against Gallienus. Britannia was part of this until when Aurelian reunited the empire. To avoid punishment, he proclaimed himself emperor at Colonia Agrippina Cologne but was crushed by Marcus Aurelius Probus. Soon afterwards, an unnamed governor of one of the British provinces also attempted an uprising. Probus put it down by sending irregular troops of Vandals and Burgundians across the Channel. The Carausian Revolt led to a short-lived Britannic Empire from to . Carausius was a Menapian naval commander of the Britannic fleet ; he revolted upon learning of a death sentence ordered by the emperor Maximian on charges of having abetted Frankish and Saxon pirates and having embezzled recovered treasure. He consolidated control over all the provinces of Britain and some of northern Gaul while Maximian dealt with other uprisings. An invasion in failed to unseat him and an uneasy peace ensued, with Carausius issuing coins and inviting official recognition. In , the junior emperor Constantius Chlorus launched a second offensive, besieging the rebel port of Gesoriacum Boulogne-sur-Mer

by land and sea. Julius Asclepiodotus landed an invasion fleet near Southampton and defeated Allectus in a land battle.

Chapter 2 : Roman Finds Group | Roman Finds Group | @RomanFindsGrp

Roman Britain (Latin: Britannia or, later, Britanniae, "the Britains") was the area of the island of Great Britain that was governed by the Roman Empire, from 43 to AD. [2]: [3] It comprised almost all of England and Wales and, for a short period, southern Scotland.

Roman Britain The conquest Julius Caesar conquered Gaul between 58 and 50 bc and invaded Britain in 55 or 54 bc, thereby bringing the island into close contact with the Roman world. From about 20 bc it is possible to distinguish two principal powers: Tasciovanus was succeeded in about ad 5 by his son Cunobelinus , who, during a long reign, established power all over the southeast, which he ruled from Camulodunum Colchester. Beyond these kingdoms lay the Iceni in what is now Norfolk , the Corieltavi in the Midlands , the Dobuni Dobunni in the area of Gloucestershire , and the Durotriges in that of Dorset , all of whom issued coins and probably had Belgic rulers. Behind these again lay further independent tribes—the Dumnonii of Devon , the Brigantes in the north, and the Silures and Ordovices in Wales. The Belgic and semi-Belgic tribes later formed the civilized nucleus of the Roman province and thus contributed greatly to Roman Britain. The client relationships that Caesar had established with certain British tribes were extended by Augustus. In particular, the Atrebatian kings welcomed Roman aid in their resistance to Catuvellaunian expansion. The decision of the emperor Claudius to conquer the island was the result partly of his personal ambition, partly of British aggression. Verica had been driven from his kingdom and appealed for help, and it may have been calculated that a hostile Catuvellaunian supremacy would endanger stability across the Channel. Under Aulus Plautius an army of four legions was assembled, together with a number of auxiliary regiments consisting of cavalry and infantry raised among warlike tribes subject to the empire. The British under Togodumnus and Caratacus , sons and successors of Cunobelinus, were taken by surprise and defeated. They retired to defend the Medway crossing near Rochester but were again defeated in a hard battle. The way to Camulodunum lay open, but Plautius halted at the Thames to await the arrival of the emperor, who took personal command of the closing stages of the campaign. In one short season the main military opposition had been crushed: Togodumnus was dead and Caratacus had fled to Wales. The rest of Britain was by no means united, for Belgic expansion had created tensions. Some tribes submitted, and subduing the rest remained the task for the year For this purpose smaller expeditionary forces were formed consisting of single legions or parts of legions with their auxilia subsidiary allied troops. The best-documented campaign is that of Legion II under its legate Vespasian starting from Chichester , where the Atrebatian kingdom was restored; the Isle of Wight was taken and the hill forts of Dorset reduced. Colchester was the chief base, but the fortresses of individual legions at this stage have not yet been identified. By the year 47, when Plautius was succeeded as commanding officer by Ostorius Scapula, a frontier had been established from Exeter to the Humber, based on the road known as the Fosse Way ; from this fact it appears that Claudius did not plan the annexation of the whole island but only of the arable southeast. The intransigence of the tribes of Wales , spurred on by Caratacus, however, caused Scapula to occupy the lowlands beyond the Fosse Way up to the River Severn and to move forward his forces into this area for the struggle with the Silures and Ordovices. The Roman forces were strengthened by the addition of Legion XX, released for this purpose by the foundation of a veteran settlement colonia at Camulodunum in the year The colonia would form a strategic reserve as well as setting the Britons an example of Roman urban organization and life. A provincial centre for the worship of the emperor was also established. Hers was the largest kingdom in Britain, occupying the whole area between Derbyshire and the Tyne; unfortunately it lacked stability, nor was it united behind its queen, who lost popularity when she surrendered the British resistance leader, Caratacus, to the Romans. Nevertheless, with occasional Roman military support, Cartimandua was maintained in power until 69 against the opposition led by her husband, Venutius, and this enabled Roman governors to concentrate on Wales. By ad 60 much had been achieved; Suetonius Paulinus , governor from 59 to 61, was invading the island of Anglesey , the last stronghold of independence, when a serious setback occurred: Under its king Prasutagus the tribe of the Iceni had enjoyed a position of alliance and independence; but on his death 60 the territory was forcibly annexed and outrages occurred. Boudicca was

able to rally other tribes to her assistance; chief of these were the Trinovantes of Essex, who had many grievances against the settlers of Camulodunum for their arrogant seizure of lands. Roman forces were distant and scattered; and, before peace could be restored, the rebels had sacked Camulodunum, Verulamium St. Albans, and London, the three chief centres of Romanized life in Britain. Paulinus acted harshly after his victory, but the procurator of the province, Julius Classicianus, with the revenues in mind and perhaps also because, as a Gaul by birth, he possessed a truer vision of provincial partnership with Rome, brought about his recall. In the first 20 years of occupation some progress had been made in spreading Roman civilization. Towns had been founded, the imperial cult had been established, and merchants were busily introducing the Britons to material benefits. It was not, however, until the Flavian period, AD 69–96, that real advances were made in this field. With the occupation of Wales by Julius Frontinus governor from 74 to 78 and the advance into northern Scotland by Gnaeus Julius Agricola 78–84, troops were removed from southern Britain, and self-governing civitates, administrative areas based for the most part on the indigenous tribes, took over local administration. This involved a large program of urbanization and also of education, which continued into the 2nd century; Tacitus, in his biography of Agricola, emphasizes the encouragement given to it. Moreover, when the British garrison was reduced c. After several experiments, the Solway–Tyne isthmus was chosen, and there the emperor Hadrian built his stone wall c. Condition of the province There was a marked contrast in attitude toward the Roman occupation between the lowland Britons and the inhabitants of Wales and the hill country of the north. The economy of the former was that of settled agriculture, and they were largely of Belgic stock; they soon accepted and appreciated the Roman way of life. The economy of the hill dwellers was pastoral, and the urban civilization of Rome threatened their freedom of life. Although resistance in Wales was stamped out by the end of the 1st century AD, Roman influences were nonetheless weak except in the Vale of Glamorgan. In the Pennines until the beginning of the 3rd century there were repeated rebellions, the more dangerous because of the threat of assistance from free Scotland. Army and frontier After the emperor Domitian had reduced the garrison in about the year 90, three legions remained; their permanent bases were established at York, Chester, and Caerleon. The legions formed the foundation of Roman military power, but they were supplemented in garrison duty by numerous smaller auxiliary regiments both of cavalry and infantry, either 1, or strong. These latter garrisoned the wall and were stationed in a network of other forts established for police work in Wales and northern England. With 15, legionaries and about 40, auxiliaries, the army of Britain was very powerful; its presence had economic as well as political results. Despite a period in the following two reigns when another frontier was laid out on the Glasgow–Edinburgh line—the Antonine Wall, built of turf—the wall of Hadrian came to be the permanent frontier of Roman Britain. The northern tribes only twice succeeded in passing it, and then at moments when the garrison was fighting elsewhere. In the late Roman period, when sea raiding became prevalent, the wall lost its preeminence as a defense for the province, but it was continuously held until the end of the 4th century. In the 2nd century their solution was military occupation. In the 3rd, after active campaigning by the emperor Septimius Severus and his sons during which permanent bases were built on the east coast of Scotland, the solution adopted by the emperor Caracalla was regulation of relationship by treaties. These, perhaps supported by subsidies, were enforced by supervision of the whole Lowlands by patrols based on forts beyond the wall. During the 4th century more and more reliance was placed on friendly native states, and patrols were withdrawn. Administration Britain was an imperial province. The governor represented the emperor, exercising supreme military as well as civil jurisdiction. As commander of three legions he was a senior general of consular rank. From the late 1st century he was assisted on the legal side by a *legatus iuridicus*. The finances were in the hands of the provincial procurator, an independent official of equestrian status whose staff supervised imperial domains and the revenues of mines in addition to normal taxation. In the early 3rd century Britain was divided into two provinces in order to reduce the power of its governor to rebel, as Albinus had done in Britannia Superior had its capital at London and a consular governor in control of two legions and a few auxiliaries; Britannia Inferior, with its capital at York, was under a praetorian governor with one legion but many more auxiliaries. Local administration was of varied character. First came the chartered towns. By the year 98 Lincoln and Gloucester had joined Camulodunum as *coloniae*, and by York had become a fourth. *Coloniae* of Roman

citizens enjoyed autonomy with a constitution based on that of republican Rome, and Roman citizens had various privileges before the law. It is likely that Verulamium was chartered as a Latin municipium free town ; in such a town the annual magistrates were rewarded with Roman citizenship. The remainder of the provincials ranked as peregrini subjects. In military districts control was in the hands of fort prefects responsible to legionary commanders; but by the late 1st century local self-government, as already stated, was granted to civitates peregrinae, whose number tended to increase with time. These also had republican constitutions, being controlled by elected councils and annual magistrates and having responsibility for raising taxes and administering local justice. But Rome regarded these as temporary expedients, and none outlasted the Flavian Period 69â€”79 AD. Roman society Pre-Roman Celtic tribes had been ruled by kings and aristocracies; the Roman civitates remained in the hands of the rich because of the heavy expense of office. But since trade and industry now yielded increasing profits and the old aristocracies no longer derived wealth from war but only from large estates, it is likely that new men rose to power. Soldiers and traders from other parts of the empire significantly enhanced the cosmopolitan character of the population, as did the large number of legionaries, who were already citizens and many of whom must have settled locally. The population of Roman Britain at its peak amounted perhaps to about two million. Economy Even before the conquest, according to the Greek geographer Strabo , Britain exported gold, silver, iron, hides, slaves, and hounds in addition to grain. A Roman gold mine is known in Wales, but its yield was not outstanding. Iron was worked in many places but only for local needs; silver, obtained from lead, was of more significance. But the basis of the economy was agriculture, and the conquest greatly stimulated production because of the requirements of the army. According to Tacitus, grain to feed the troops was levied as a tax; correspondingly more had to be grown before a profit could be made. The pastoralists in Wales and the north probably had to supply leather, which the Roman army needed in quantity for tents, boots, uniforms, and shields. A military tannery is known at Catterick. A profit could, nonetheless, be won from the land because of the increasing demand from the towns. At the same time the development of a system of large estates villas relieved the ancient Celtic farming system of the necessity of shouldering the whole burden. Small peasant farmers tended to till the lighter, less-productive, more easily worked soils. Villa estates were established on heavier, richer soils, sometimes on land recently won by forest clearance, itself a result of the enormous new demand for building timber from the army and the new towns and for fuel for domestic heating and for public baths. The villa owners had access to the precepts of classical farming manuals and also to the improved equipment made available by Roman technology. Their growing prosperity is vouched for by excavation: Archaeological evidence indicates that the Cotswold district was one of the centres of this industry. Trade in imported luxury goods ranging from wine to tableware and bronze trinkets vastly increased as traders swarmed in behind the army to exploit new markets. The profits of developing industries went similarly at first to foreign capitalists. This is clearly seen in the exploitation of silver-lead ore and even in the pottery industry. The Mendip lead field was being worked under military control as early as the year 49, but under Nero 54â€”68 both there and in Flintshire , and not much later also in the Derbyshire lead field, freedmenâ€”the representatives of Roman capitalâ€”were at work. Roman citizens, who must in the context be freedmen, are also found organizing the pottery industry in the late 1st century. Large profits were made by continental businessmen in the first two centuries not only from such sources but also by the import on a vast scale of high-class pottery from Gaul and the Rhineland and on a lesser scale of glass vessels, luxury metalware, and Spanish oil and wine. A large market existed among the military, and the Britons themselves provided a second. Eventually this adverse trade balance was rectified by the gradual capture of the market by British products.

Chapter 3 : BBC - History - Ancient History in depth: An Overview of Roman Britain

One of the largest Roman buildings in Britain, the villa was built in phases over years and transformed into a palace arranged around three sides of a courtyard.

In around AD, St Jerome called the island "fertile in tyrants" meaning usurpers and late Roman writers portrayed a succession of rebellions in Britain, usually instigated by the army – many of whom would have been born in the province. The late Roman writer, Zosimus, then wrote that the pressure of Barbarian invaders obliged the British to throw off Roman rule and live "no longer subject to Roman laws but as they themselves pleased", a phrase guaranteed to warm the heart of any Brexiteer. This episode, around AD, seems to have been the end of Roman government in Britain. No "Romans" left, beyond the small number of soldiers who went to the continent to fight with Constantine III. Instead, the end of Roman Britain was, like the proposed present Brexit, a change in a relationship with a distant administration. But how did this change actually affect the people who lived in the island? And what were the consequences? Roman life disappearing One of the remarkable things about the first decades of the 5th century was the apparent speed with which the things we associate with Roman life disappeared. Coins were always supplied by Rome to do the things that the Roman government cared about, such as pay the army. The latest coins to be sent to Britain in any number stopped in AD. Coin use may have continued in places for some years after, using older coins, but there was no real attempt to introduce local copies or substitutes as sometimes happened elsewhere. This suggests there was no demand for small change or faith in the value of base metal coinage. Industrial pottery manufacture widespread in the fourth century also vanished by about AD, while villas, some of which had achieved a peak of grandeur in the 4th century, were abandoned as luxury residences. Towns had already undergone dramatic changes, with monumental public buildings often abandoned from the 3rd century onwards, but signs of urban life vanish almost entirely after about AD. The notion of what was "Roman" was as complicated as "Britishness" is today. Nonetheless, we can be fairly certain that people quickly lost interest in things like coins, mosaics, villas, towns and tableware. What came next Although external forces such as Barbarian invasion are often blamed for the end of Roman Britain, part of the answer may lie in changes to the way that people living in Britain viewed themselves. During the 5th century once Britain was no longer part of the Roman Empire, new forms of dress, buildings, pottery and burial rapidly appeared, particularly in the east of Britain. This may be partly associated with the coming of the "Germanic" immigrants from across the North Sea whose impacts are so bemoaned by writers such as Gildas. However, the change was so widespread that the existing population must also have adopted such novelties as well. Paradoxically, in western Britain, at places like Tintagel, people who had never shown much interest in Mediterranean life began in the 5th and 6th centuries to behave in ways that were more "Roman". They used inscriptions on stone and imported wine, tablewares and presumably perishable goods like silk from the eastern Mediterranean. For these people, "being Roman" perhaps associated with Christianity assumed a new importance, as a way of expressing their difference from those in the east who they associated with "Germanic" incomers. Archaeology suggests that late Roman Britain saw the same challenges to personal and group identities that the current Brexit debate stirs today. There can surely be little doubt that, had they lived in the 5th century, those who now identify as Leavers and Remainers would have debated the impact of foreign immigration and the merits of staying in the Roman Empire with equal passion. We must hope that some of the more dramatic changes of the 5th century, such as the disappearance of urban life and a monetary economy, do not find their 21st-century equivalents.

Chapter 4 : List of Roman hoards in Great Britain - Wikipedia

Most Roman hoards are composed largely or entirely of coins, and are relatively common in Britain, with over 1, known examples. A smaller number of hoards, such as the Mildenhall Treasure and the Hoxne Hoard, include items of silver or gold tableware such as dishes, bowls, jugs and spoons, or items of silver or gold jewellery.

Enhanced by An introduction to Roman coins With over , coins on the database, Roman coins make up the largest single artefact type recorded with the Portable Antiquities Scheme. In recent years there has been a major push to record all coins found, not just those in good condition. It is important to emphasise that each Roman coin shares equal archaeological value, irrespective of its metal or condition. Therefore, all Roman coins from a particular site, field, parish This guide has developed over several years and will be updated further in the near future. It provides a visual aid for the identification of coins commonly found in Britain, covering the following elements: You will also be able to view the latest coins of that ruler recorded on the database. If you wish to look at groups of rulers, you can search on Dynasties. You can also search by denomination, again searching the database for different examples, whether they be denarii, sestertii or asses. Most of the earlier Roman coins were struck at Rome, but from the 3rd century onwards a large number of mints were operational. Details of these mints are available in a designated section. The largest number of coins found is 4th century AD nummi. To make recording easier, we have provided all of the Fourth Century Reverses used. In due course, images of all these reverse types will be added. For initial analysis of coins we use Reece periods , named after the pre-eminent Romano-British numismatist, Richard Reece. He divided the Roman period in 21 periods Sam Moorhead has added two more for the purpose of comparing different sites. You can find out which rulers fall into different periods and search the database accordingly. Obviously, to carry out effective analysis by Reece period, we need to record ALL the coins from a site. Many Roman coins have Personifications on the reverse. We provide a simple guide, with illustrations, of the key characters who appear on coins. Finally, we provide a list of Republican Moneyers to which we will soon add illustrations. Republican coins are being found in significant around recorded so far and they are telling us a great deal about early Roman military activity in Britain. This guide has been the work of several people: In the near future, many more images and general articles will be added to this site. Latest examples recorded with images We have recorded , examples.

Chapter 5 : The finds of Roman Britain (Book,) [racedaydvl.com]

I am usually asked five questions whenever people talk to me about Roman Britain, and they find the answers profoundly surprising. People's view of Rome is of a grand, monolithic dictatorship.

What was it like in Roman Britain? When the Romans came to Britain they brought their way of life with them. Over time, the people of Britain and the Romans mixed. The Britons began to live the Roman lifestyle and the Romans took on local customs. The Romans built new towns. These were often protected by walls and there was everything a citizen of Roman Britain would need inside - houses, shops, meeting spaces, workshops, temples and bathhouses. These had many rooms, some with beautifully painted walls, mosaic floors and even central heating. What were houses like? Most of Roman Britain was a wild place, with forests and mountains where few people lived. People mainly lived in small villages of wooden houses with thatched roofs, much as they had before the Romans arrived. However, some wealthy Romans lived in villas and palaces. Villas were large farms with a big house for the owners. They had lots of servants and farm workers to help run the villa. Most of the Roman villas found by archaeologists are in the south of England. The governor of Britain had a palace in London. Another palace was beside the sea, at Fishbourne near Chichester in West Sussex. The floor was raised up by piles of tiles or stone pillars to allow warm air to circulate. Click on the labels below to find out about the different rooms of a Roman villa. Start activity What was a Roman family like? Men were in charge of the family in Roman Britain. Mothers were thought to be less important than fathers. Life for women in Roman times was often hard. Women were expected to run the home, cook meals and raise children. Wealthy women were lucky: Many girls were married at the age of 12. Marriages were often arranged between families. A man could divorce his wife if she did not give birth to a son. Many women died young in their 30s, because childbirth could be dangerous and diseases were common. Discipline for children was very firm in Roman times as it was thought to make them strong, to improve their character and, for boys, to prepare them for life in the army. Before the Roman invasion, most British children learnt about their histories and their tribal customs through stories and songs shared with their families around a fire at night. But once the Romans were here then, for the posh kids at any rate, you had to learn to read and write. And what they were learning to read and write was, of course, Latin. But, if you made a mistake, then you could rub it out with this flat end of the pen. Some girls were educated, but it was mainly the boys. Those children privileged enough to receive an education learned reading, writing and maths, as well as other subjects, such as how to speak in front of an audience, which would prepare them for important jobs, like being in the Roman army. Click on the town below to find out about some of the important buildings. Start activity What technology did they bring? The Romans were good at building roads and bridges, but not so keen on machines. They had slaves to do the heavy work and nasty jobs. Romans used aqueducts to supply towns with water from springs, rivers or lakes. Aqueducts were like a bridge with a stone channel to carry water on top. The Romans liked to keep clean. Towns and forts had underground drains to take away dirty water and sewage. Fresh water and sewers are important. Without them, people risk catching diseases. The Romans were most famous for their roads. To make sure soldiers and supplies could move from town to town quickly, the Romans made their roads as straight as possible. This milestone from around AD 100 used to stand beside a Roman road. It showed the distance to the nearest fort, Kanovium the Roman for Caerhun in north Wales.

Chapter 6 : Roman Britain - Wikipedia

A unique archaeological find uncovered near the site of a Roman villa in Dorset could help to shed light on the rural elite of late-Roman Britain.

Print this page Striving to be Roman The Roman invasion of Britain was arguably the most significant event ever to happen to the British Isles. It affected our language, our culture, our geography, our architecture and even the way we think. Our island has a Roman name, its capital is a Roman city and for centuries even after the Norman Conquest the language of our religion and administration was a Roman one. In the wake of the Roman occupation, every "Briton" was aware of their "Britishness". For years, Rome brought a unity and order to Britain that it had never had before. Prior to the Romans, Britain was a disparate set of peoples with no sense of national identity beyond that of their local tribe. This defined them as something different from those people who came after them, colouring their national mythology, so that the Welsh could see themselves as the true heirs of Britain, whilst the Scots and Irish were proud of the fact that they had never been conquered by Rome. Each was trying to regain the glory of that long-lost age when Britannia was part of a grand civilisation, which shaped the whole of Europe and was one unified island. The truth about Roman Britain is much more subtle and surprising I am usually asked five questions whenever people talk to me about Roman Britain, and they find the answers profoundly surprising. They see the Romans as something akin to the Nazis which is hardly surprising since the fascists tried to model themselves on Rome. The truth about Roman Britain is much more subtle and surprising, and serves to show why on the one hand their legacy has endured so long, and on the other, why their culture vanished so quickly once they departed from these shores. The first of these was Julius Caesar. This great republican general had conquered Gaul and was looking for an excuse to avoid returning to Rome. Britain afforded him one, in 55 BC, when Commius, king of the Atrebatas, was ousted by Cunobelin, king of the Catuvellauni, and fled to Gaul. Caesar seized the opportunity to mount an expedition on behalf of Commius. He wanted to gain the glory of a victory beyond the Great Ocean, and believed that Britain was full of silver and booty to be plundered. His first expedition, however, was ill-conceived and too hastily organised. With just two legions, he failed to do much more than force his way ashore at Deal and win a token victory that impressed the senate in Rome more than it did the tribesmen of Britain. In 54 BC, he tried again, this time with five legions, and succeeded in re-establishing Commius on the Atrebatian throne. Yet he returned to Gaul disgruntled and empty-handed, complaining in a letter to Cicero that there was no silver or booty to be found in Britain after all. He needed the prestige of military conquest to consolidate his hold on power. He was to use an identical excuse to Caesar for very similar reasons. Claudius had recently been made emperor in a palace coup. Into this situation came Verica, successor to Commius, complaining that the new chief of the Catuvellauni, Caratacus, had deprived him of his throne. Like Caesar, Claudius seized his chance. In AD 43, he sent four legions across the sea to invade Britain. They landed at Richborough and pushed towards the River Medway, where they met with stiff resistance. Vespasian marched west, to storm Maiden Castle and Hod Hill with such ruthless efficiency that the catapult bolts used to subdue them can still be dug out of the ground today. Hod Hill contains a tiny Roman fort from this time, tucked into one corner of its massive earthworks. Meanwhile, Claudius arrived in Britain to enter the Catuvellaunian capital of Colchester in triumph. He founded a temple there, containing a fine bronze statue of himself, and established a legionary fortress. He remained in Britain for only 16 days. Rome was prepared to defend her new acquisition to the death. It took another 30 years to conquer the rest of the island bar the Highlands. Once in, Rome was prepared to defend her new acquisition to the death. It has been said that Rome conquered an empire in a fit of absent-mindedness. Britain is a case in point. As long as you acknowledged the imperial cult and paid your taxes, Rome did not really care how you lived your life. There were Batavians, Thracians, Mauretians, Sarmatians: They settled all over Britain, becoming naturalised British citizens of the Roman Empire, erecting a wealth of inscriptions which attest to their assimilation and prosperity. Most of them settled in or near the fort where they had served, staying close to their friends. Gradually, these urban settlements outside the fort grew into townships, which were eventually granted municipal status. Standing on the city

walls, you can still look down upon the remains of the amphitheatre that stood outside the military camp. In this way, the army acted as the natural force of assimilation. Vindolanda housed several units in its history, among them the Ninth Batavians - from whom a large pile of correspondence was found written on thin wooden writing tablets, deposited in one of their rubbish tips. There were over of these writing tablets dating to AD. Mainly official documents and letters written in ink, they are the oldest historical documents known from Britain. Among them is a set of letters between Sulpicia Lepidina, wife of the camp commander, and her friend Claudia Severa, wife of the commander at Housesteads, around ten miles up the road. Life for the ordinary people of the vicus or village seemed a little more interesting than that of the upper classes, but it remained harsh and unforgiving. In the third century AD, marriage for soldiers was permitted, and the vicus, where their concubines had always lived, was rebuilt in stone. They constructed a beautiful little bath-house where the soldiers could relax, and a guest-house called a mansio, with six guest-rooms and its own private bath suite - for travellers on official business - along the wall. The vicus at Housesteads was rebuilt at the same time incidentally, an excavation of one of its houses uncovered a murdered couple hidden under the floorboards. The Boudiccan revolt was caused not because the Iceni were opposed to Roman rule, but because they had embraced it too whole-heartedly. Rome controlled its provinces by bribing the local elite. They were given power, wealth, office and status on condition that they kept the peace and adopted Roman ways. If you took a Roman name, spoke Latin and lived in a villa, you were assured of receiving priesthoods and positions of local power. The quid pro quo was that you were expected to spend your money and influence in providing Roman amenities for your people, newly civilised in the literal sense that Roman towns and cities were founded for them to live in. In Britain, physical evidence of this process can be seen in inscriptions at the colonia of Colchester and in the palace of the client king Cogidubnus at Fishbourne, with its spectacular mosaics. However, new provinces brought with them new markets and unscrupulous speculators eager to fleece the unwary. It was like the introduction of the free market to the post-communist world, and the worst sharks were in the Imperial Household itself. At the same time, those who had been made priests of the Imperial Cult at Colchester found it an expensive task. Boudicca was flogged and her daughters were raped. It was at this point that Prasutagus, king of the Iceni, died. In his will, he left half of his kingdom to the emperor Nero, hoping in this way to secure the other half for his wife, Boudicca. However, the imperial procurator, Decianus Catus, was aware that Nero viewed a half-share of an estate as a personal snub, and moved to sequester the lot. At the same time, he sent in the bailiffs to act on the loans outstanding and allowed the local centurions to requisition provisions for the army. When the royal family resisted these moves, Boudicca was flogged and her daughters were raped. There could be only one consequence. The humiliated Iceni rose up in revolt, joined by other East Anglian tribes who had similar grievances. They could not have picked a better time. The governor, Suetonius Paullinus, was in Anglesey, subduing the druids, with most of the army of the province. What remained of the Ninth Legion was massacred when it tried to stop the rebels, and Colchester, London and Verulamium were razed to the ground. The black earth of the destruction layer and mutilated tombstones attest to the ferocity of the British assault. With just men to defend him, Decianus Catus fled to Gaul at their approach. Paullinus rushed back from Anglesey to deal with the revolt. The site of the final battle is still disputed, but the form it took is well described Tacitus provides a graphic depiction of the whole revolt. Boudicca was defeated and committed suicide shortly afterwards. The punitive expedition into Iceni territory was halted when it was feared that further reprisals would harm future imperial revenues. Meanwhile Catus was replaced by Classicianus, a Romanised Gaul from Trier, who took a softer approach. His tombstone can be found in London, which became the new provincial capital at this time. Top Religion of the Romano-Britons Both Rome and Britain had polytheistic religions, in which a multiplicity of gods could be propitiated at many levels. At one end of the spectrum were the official cults of the emperor and the Capitoline Triad: Jupiter, Juno and Minerva, linked to other Olympian gods like Mars. At the other end, every spring, every river, every cross-roads, lake or wood had its own local spirit with its own local shrine. The Romans had no problem in combining these with their own gods, simply associating them with the gods or goddesses who most resembled them. She was linked to Minerva, for her healing qualities, but images of other gods and goddesses were also set up in the temple, most especially Diana the Huntress, to whom an altar was dedicated.

Over 6, coins were cast as offerings into the waters of Bath, along with vast quantities of lead or bronze curse tablets, asking Sulis-Minerva to intercede on behalf of the worshipper. These were also nailed up on poles within the temple precinct and provide an interesting glimpse into the everyday and not so everyday lives of the people who visited the shrine. This did not just happen in Bath: He is not to buy back this gift unless with his own blood. Whoever stole his property, the god is to find him. Let him buy it back with his blood or his own life. To the god Nodens: Silvianus has lost his ring and promises half its value to Nodens. Among those named Senecianus, let none enjoy health until he brings it back to the temple of Nodens. It seems likely that both Silvianus and Senecianus had gone to Lydney for its healing properties. A further wrinkle is added by the find of a beautiful hexagonal ring bearing an image of Venus in the nearby Christian church at Silchester, on which was inscribed: Since the curse was renewed, the ring obviously stayed lost.

Chapter 7 : An introduction to Roman coins

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Chapter 8 : 'Extraordinary Find': Ancient Roman Villa Unearthed in Britain

Latin expert Roger Tomlin, who translated the tablets, said: "The Bloomberg writing tablets are very important for the early history of Roman Britain, and London in particular."

Chapter 9 : The Roman 'Brexit': how life in Britain changed after AD

Most of the Roman villas found by archaeologists are in the south of England. The governor of Britain had a palace in London.