Inspired by teacher feedback and research, the Cambridge Latin Course has been re-energised by the Cambridge School Classics Project (CSCP) to provide today’s learners with a more diverse and nuanced picture of Roman civilisation and history, while continuing to offer clear and extensive language support.

Moving on from the destruction of Pompeii, Book II captures the drama of the daily lives of the inhabitants of two very different provinces at opposite ends of the Roman empire, Britain and Egypt.

• Updated storylines, created in collaboration with academic specialists, provide historically grounded insight into the Roman world as a context for learning the language
• New ‘Practising the language’ sections enable learners to check their understanding and think critically about the story and language
• ‘Enquiry questions’ and ‘Thinking points’ make use of best practice in history pedagogy to support learners in developing skills of historical enquiry
• Language content and vocabulary is mapped to GCSE and Dickinson 1000 lists to support a smooth progression for learners moving onto further study
• Explore the variety of teacher support available on the Cambridge School Classics Project’s website www.cambridgescp.com

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Introduction

The Cambridge School Classics Project and the Cambridge Latin Course

The Cambridge School Classics Project (CSCP) is part of the Faculty of Education at the University of Cambridge and has been supporting Classics education for over fifty years. CSCP comprises a small team of Classics education and technology specialists supported by a wide community of educators and academics. All CSCP materials are based on the latest research, not only in Classics but also in language acquisition and educational theory.

While CSCP has numerous projects and initiatives supporting Classics education around the world, its first ever undertaking – the Cambridge Latin Course (CLC) – remains its most successful and influential, leading the way in evidence-based teaching of Classical languages. The underlying course structure and inductive methods of the CLC have proven effective and adaptive, responding well to the ever-changing educational environment. Most of the funding which enables CSCP’s work comes from sales of the Cambridge Latin Course and associated products; therefore, every CLC purchase directly funds Classics educational research and development; grātiās!

Why study Latin with the CLC?

Languages are all about communication, and learning a language enables you to access the culture of the people who use it.

With this in mind, the Cambridge Latin Course has two main aims:

1. to teach you to understand Latin so that you can read Latin texts confidently
2. to develop your knowledge and understanding of Roman culture, especially in the first century AD.

The CLC uses a specific approach to language learning called the ‘Reading Method’. As you study with the course you will read lots of Latin stories; this is so you get used to seeing Latin in action and focusing on its meaning rather than just learning rules in isolation. The stories are set in a Roman context, and as you study you will meet real historical characters – as well as fictional ones – and learn about the social, political and historical aspects of Roman culture. The many illustrations have also been created or chosen to give you extra information about the Roman world and are meant to be looked at alongside the text.
**Time chart**

Throughout this book BC and AD are used when referring to dates, as this is the system you are most likely to encounter in your wider studies of ancient history and Latin. This system was created in the sixth century AD and it uses the ‘birth of Jesus Christ’ as its point of reference. Many other dating systems exist and have existed over the course of human history.

An easy alternative, should you not wish to use BC and AD, is that which uses BCE (Before Common Era) and CE (Common Era). This system uses the same point of reference as BC and AD, so you can simply swap BC for BCE and AD for CE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Britain</th>
<th>Egypt and Alexandria</th>
<th>The Roman World</th>
<th>The Wider World</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>BC</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2500–1500</td>
<td>c.2500: Stonehenge built</td>
<td>c.2500: Completion of</td>
<td>c.2000–1200: Epic of Gilgamesh, created inMesopotamia</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c.1800: First large-scale copper mines</td>
<td>the Sphinx and the Great Pyramid at Giza</td>
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<td>c.2030–1650: Middle Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>1500–1000</td>
<td>c.1500–800: Burial in barrows replaced by cremation in cemeteries</td>
<td>c.1567–1085: New Kingdom; Egyptian Empire stretches from Nubia to the Euphrates River</td>
<td>c.1500–500: Basic tenets of Hinduism established</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c.1500: First hill forts constructed</td>
<td>1352–323: Pharaoh Akhenaten enforces worship of a single sun-god; his successor Tutankhamun restores traditional religion</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c.1200–800: Smaller groups begin to combine into the tribal kingdoms of the Iron Age</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c.500: The first ‘brochs’ (stone towers) built in Scotland</td>
<td>671: Egypt conquered by the Assyrians</td>
<td>539–538: Cyrus the Great of Persia takes Jerusalem and begins rebuilding the Temple</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>525: Egypt conquered by Cambyses, king of Persia</td>
<td>753: Traditional date of the foundation of Rome</td>
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<td>509: Traditional start of the Roman Republic</td>
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<td>508: Roman-Etruscan Wars</td>
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<td>500–300</td>
<td>c.450: Maiden Castle in Dorset is the largest hill fort in Britain (possibly Europe)</td>
<td>404: Egypt rebels against Persia and reinstates native rulers</td>
<td>451–450: The Law of the 12 Tables</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c.350: Many hillforts abandoned</td>
<td>343: Persian king Ataxerxes III re-conquers Egypt</td>
<td>390: Gauls sack Rome</td>
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<td>323: Death of Alexander; general Ptolemy becomes king: Ptolemy I</td>
<td>492–449: Wars between the Greeks and Persia</td>
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<td>431–404: Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>336: Alexander the Great becomes king of Macedon</td>
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<td>Date</td>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>Egypt and Alexandria</td>
<td>The Roman World</td>
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<td>BC</td>
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<tr>
<td>300–200</td>
<td>c.250 Earliest settlement at the Glastonbury lake village, Somerset</td>
<td>c.283–247: Library and lighthouse of Alexandria built</td>
<td>298–290: Third Samnite War; Romans control the Italian peninsula</td>
<td>Radiocarbon dating suggests that the Great Serpent Mound is created by the Adena people in modern day Ohio, USA</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>274–217: First, Second, Third and Fourth Syrian Wars against the Seleucid Empire in Greece and Asia Minor</td>
<td>264–241: First Punic War</td>
<td>c.200: Compass invented in China</td>
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<td></td>
<td>218–201: Second Punic War</td>
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<tr>
<td>200–100</td>
<td>c.150–50 ‘Waterloo helmet’ probably created</td>
<td>202–168: Fifth and Sixth Syrian Wars</td>
<td>192–88: War with the Seleucid Empire</td>
<td>141–87: Reign of Chinese Emperor Wu; ‘Silk Road’ established connecting China via Asia to Europe until the eighteenth century</td>
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<td>132–124: Civil war</td>
<td>146: Third Punic War; destruction of Carthage</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>100–60</td>
<td>c.100: Settlement with monumental timber structures at Stanwick, North Yorkshire</td>
<td>88: Future Ptolemy XI captured by Mithridates probably escapes to Rome during the First Mithridatic War</td>
<td>91–89: Social War</td>
<td>90–70: Probable date of the oldest extant Buddhist paintings found in the Ajanta Caves, India</td>
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<td>80: Sulla sends Ptolemy XI to Egypt as ruler; he reigns for eighteen or nineteen days before being killed by the Alexandrian people</td>
<td>88–79: Sulla’s first civil war and dictatorship</td>
<td>76: Death of Salome Alexandra; the last sovereign to die ruling an independent Judea</td>
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<td>89–85: First Mithridatic War</td>
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<td>60: Political alliance of Pompey, Julius Caesar and Crassus</td>
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<td>60–50</td>
<td>55–54: Caesar’s first and second invasions of Britain</td>
<td>58: Ptolemy XII deposed by the Alexandrians; restored with help from the Romans</td>
<td>58–50: Caesar’s Gallic Wars</td>
<td>57: Base year of the Vikrama era Indian calendar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–40</td>
<td>c.50: Burial of the ‘Snettisham hoard’</td>
<td>48: Ptolemy XIII deposes his co-ruler, wife and sister Cleopatra VII</td>
<td>49–45: Civil War between Caesar and Pompey</td>
<td>43: According to legend the Emerald Buddha is created</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>47: Julius Caesar helps to restore Cleopatra; their son Caesar is born that year</td>
<td>44: Julius Caesar assassinated</td>
<td>40: Parthians invade Judea</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>46–44: Cleopatra travels to Rome</td>
<td>43: Triumvirate of Octavian, Mark Antony and Lepidus established</td>
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<td>41–40: Cleopatra meets Mark Antony and gives birth to their twins Alexander Helios and Cleopatra Selene II</td>
<td>40: Mark Antony returns to Rome and marries Octavian’s sister Octavia</td>
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<tr>
<td>40–30</td>
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<td>37: Cleopatra and Mark Antony reunited</td>
<td>31: Octavian defeats Mark Antony and Cleopatra at the Battle of Actium</td>
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<td>30: Cleopatra takes her own life; Octavian orders Caesarion killed; Egypt becomes a Roman province</td>
<td>37: With the support of Rome, Herod I becomes king of Judea</td>
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<td>c.30: By this point the Mayan civilisation has developed a symbol for zero</td>
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<td>30–1</td>
<td>c.25: Settlement at Colchester develops</td>
<td>27: Octavian given the title ‘Augustus’ and becomes the first emperor</td>
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<td>27: Kushite queen Amanirenas leads armies against the Romans</td>
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<td>c.20: Trade between Britain and the Roman Empire increases</td>
<td>27: Octavian given the title ‘Augustus’ and becomes the first emperor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>Egypt and Alexandria</td>
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<td>1–20</td>
<td>c.5 Cunobelinus (basis for William Shakespeare’s ‘Cymbeline’) becomes king of the Catuvellauni; described by Suetonius as ‘king of the Britons’</td>
<td>8: The poet Ovid is exiled 14: Death of Augustus; Tiberius becomes emperor</td>
<td>9: Emperor Wang Mang usurps the Han Dynasty in China 18: Rebel group – “The Red Eyebrows” – forms against Wang Mang</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20–40</td>
<td>39–40: Succession struggle after Cunobelinus’ death; one son flees to Caligula; two elder sons, Caratacus and Togodumnus, become rulers</td>
<td>37: Death of Tiberius; Caligula becomes emperor</td>
<td>23: The Red Eyebrows help to overthrow Wang Mang; Han Dynasty restored</td>
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<tr>
<td>40–50</td>
<td>42: Verica, king of the Atrebates driven out by Caratacus and Togodumnus; appeals to Claudius 43: Romans land in Kent; death of Togodumnus, retreat of Caratacus 44: Second phase of conquest led by general Vespasian</td>
<td>41: Claudius’ ‘Letter to the Alexandrians’ written in response to the ongoing feud between the Greeks and Jews 49: Traditional date of the foundation of the Church of Alexandria</td>
<td>41: Caligula assassinated; Claudius becomes emperor 45: Birth of China’s first female historian Ban Zhao</td>
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<td>50–60</td>
<td>51: Caratacus betrayed by Cartimandua of the Brigantes and captured</td>
<td>c.50: Death of Jewish philosopher Philo of Alexandria</td>
<td>54: Death of Claudius; Nero become emperor 53–54: First Letter of Paul to the Corinthians</td>
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<tr>
<td>60–70</td>
<td>60–70: Construction of Aquae Sulis (modern Bath) 60–61: Boudica’s revolt 69: Cartimandua overthrown by her ex-consort Venutius</td>
<td>66: Violence between Jewish and Greek communities; governor Tiberius Julius Alexander orders the massacre of the Jewish community 69: Vespasian visits Egypt and is hailed as pharaoh</td>
<td>68: Death of Nero; First Jewish Revolt 69: Year of the Four Emperors; Galba, Otho, Vitellius, Vespasian 70: Siege of Jerusalem; Second Temple destroyed</td>
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<tr>
<td>70–80</td>
<td>71: Romans conquer northern England 78: Destruction of last major druidic centre by Gnaeus Julius Agricola</td>
<td>73: Siege of Masada 79: Death of Vespasian; Titus becomes emperor; Eruption of Vesuvius</td>
<td>75: Date of latest known cuneiform text 78: The beginning of the Indian calendar Saka Era</td>
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<tr>
<td>80–100</td>
<td>84: Battle of Mons Graupius 100: Trajan orders withdrawal of Roman troops from modern Scotland</td>
<td>81: Death of Titus; Domitian becomes emperor 96: Death of Domitian; Nerva becomes emperor 98: Death of Nerva; Trajan becomes emperor</td>
<td>100: Death (in Rome) of Jewish military commander, priest, scholar, and historian Josephus</td>
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<tr>
<td>100–122</td>
<td>122: Emperor Hadrian orders the construction of a wall across northern Britain</td>
<td>115–116: The Jews of Cyrene revolt and march on Alexandria; Alexandrians massacre their Jewish population in retaliation</td>
<td>115–116: Trajan’s Parthian campaign; Jewish uprisings in Mesopotamia and Cyprus 117: Death of Trajan; Hadrian becomes emperor</td>
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<td>c.118: First known depiction of a wheelbarrow in a tomb wall painting near Chengdu, China</td>
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<td>c.119: Death of Greek author Plutarch</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
By the time of the eruption of Vesuvius, the city of Rome governed a huge empire organised into ‘provinces’. This map shows these provinces as they were in AD 81–82, including lands which we now think of as North Africa, western Europe, the Middle East, and beyond. Although Rome itself had a population of around one million, the number of people who lived in its empire was between 50 and 100 million. Approximately one-fifth of the total world population lived in lands controlled by the city.

At the very northern edge of the empire lay

‘the spine-chilling sea and the Britons at the very end of the earth’

(Catullus, 11).
1 haec fēmina est Vitellia Rūfilla. marītus est Gāius Salvius Libēralis. Salvius et Rūfilla in villā magnificā habitant. villa est in Britannīā.

2 Rūfilla est in hortō. hodiē Rūfilla nōn occupāta est. Rūfilla quiēscere potest.

3 multī servī sunt in villā. servi semper occupātī sunt. servi quiēscere nōn possunt.

4 Volūbilis coquus optimus est. Volūbilis cēnam optimam coquere potest. sed Volūbilis fessus est. Volūbilis dormīre vult.
5 hic vir est agricola. 
agricola in fundo laboret. 
agricola et sua familia in casa habitant.

6 uxor est in casa. 
uxor docta est. 
uxor res pulchras facere potest.

7 pater vocem suavem habet. 
pater fabulas suavitatem cantare potest.

8 mater et liberi fabulas audiunt. 
liberi fessi sunt. 
sed liberi dormire nonunt.
Rōmānus vulnerātus

pater et filius prope casam stant. haec casa est in Britanniā. pater et filius nōn labōrant, quod agmen Rōmānum spectant. agmen per viam lentē prōcēdit.

filius: ecce, pater! ego Rōmānōs vidēre possum! ūnus est vulnerātus.

pater: ego hunc Rōmānum īnspicere volō. ubi est?

filius: in mediō agmine! nōnne tū hominem vulnerātum vidēs?

pater: hercle! ego eum āgnōscere possum. est Salvius, vir clārissimus!

(māter subitō ē casā exit. filium vocat.)


filius: ecce, māter! in illō agmine nōs Salvium vidēre possumus. vulnerātus est.


pater: puer vērum dīcit.

māter: ēheu! omnēs Rōmānī sunt īnfestī, sed Rōmānus vulnerātus est īnfestior quam cēterī!

filius: cūr?

(parentēs anxiī nihil dīcunt.)
Salvius, Rufilla and Vitellianus

Gaius Salvius Liberalis Nonius Bassus was born into a wealthy family in the town of Urbs Salvia in central Italy. Ambitious and clever, he moved to Rome and became a successful lawyer, with a reputation as an excellent public speaker. He was made a senator – probably by the Emperor Vespasian – and in AD 78 he became one of the youngest members of the Arval Brotherhood, a group of twelve men who performed religious ceremonies and prayed for the emperor and his family. He also impressed Vespasian enough that he was given command of a legion of about 5000 soldiers.

In about AD 80, Salvius was sent to Britannia to help the Roman governor Gnaeus Julius Agricola. He mainly oversaw the justice system, but as Agricola was campaigning in the north of Britannia, he may also have been given responsibility for running the south. He would have been expected to make as much money as possible to send to the emperor in Rome.

Everything we know about Salvius’ wife and son comes from an inscription found on a gravestone in Urbs Salvia. The name Vitellia Rufilla suggests membership of the gens Vitellia, one of the most influential and important families in Rome. Rufilla was also a priestess of Salus Augusta, the goddess who protected the welfare of the emperors: an honour achieved by few Roman women. We have imagined Salvius living with Rufilla and Vitellianus, in a villa on the south coast, not far from Noviomagus (modern Chichester).

Thinking point: Why do you think Salvius and Rufilla agreed to move so far away from their home in Italy? How might it have benefited them? What might they have found difficult?

Inscription from a gravestone in Urbs Salvia:

‘Gaius Salvius Vitellianus set this up in his lifetime to Vitellia Rufilla, daughter of Gaius, wife of Gaius Salvius Liberalis the consul, priestess of the welfare of the emperor, the best of mothers.’

This inscription was found near Urbs Salvia:

‘To Gaius Salvius Liberalis Nonius Bassus, . . . consul, proconsul of the province of Macedonia, imperial legate, justice of Britain, legate of the 5th Legion Macedonica, member of the Arval Brotherhood, enrolled among the ex‑tribunes by the divine Vespasian and the divine Titus, enrolled by the same among the ex‑praetors, four‑time quinquennial, and patron of the colony. He was chosen as proconsul of the province of Asia by lot, but excused himself.’
coniūrātiō

prīdiē Salvius apud Cantiacōs erat. filius quoque aderat; nōmen erat Vitelliānus. Salvius et filius ferrāriam novam visītābant.

 quamquam vita in ferrāriā erat perīculōsa, multī servī ibi labōrābant. Salvius servōs ad sē vocāvit et īnspexit. ūnus servus aeger erat. Salvius servum aegrum ē turbā trāxit et clāmāvit,

 ‘servus aeger est inūtilis. ego servōs inūtilēs retinēre nōlō.’

 postquam hoc dīxit, Salvius mīlitibus servum trādidit. mīlitēs eum statim interfēcērunt.

 hic servus tamen filium habēbat; nōmen erat Alātor. Alātor patrem suum vindicāre voluit. itaque, ubi cēterī dormiēbant, Alātor pugiōnem cēpit. postquam custōdēs ēvītāvit, cubiculum intrāvit. in hoc cubiculō Salvius dormiēbat. tum Alātor Salvium petīvit et vulnerāvit. Vitelliānus tamen sonōs audīvit. iuvenis audāx in cubiculum ruit et Alātōrem superāvit. tum Salvius īrātus clāmāvit,

 ‘iste servus mē vulnerāvit! coniūrātio est! omnēs servī sunt cōnsciī. ego omnibus supplicium iubeō! ’

 Vitelliānus, postquam hoc audīvit, erat attonitus.

 ‘pater, tū omnēs servōs convincere nōn potes. ūnus tē vulnerāvit. ūnus igitur est nocēns, cēterī innocentēs.’

 ‘custōdēs nōn sunt innocentēs,’ inquit Salvius. ‘cum Alātōre coniūrātiōnem fēcērunt.’

 tum Salvius mīlitibus Alātōrem et omnēs custōdēs trādidit.

The stamp on a tile shows that the mine was run by the Roman fleet (CLBR stands for classis Britannica)
Mining

Metal mining was an important part of the Roman economy, and Britain was a major source of iron, lead and tin. Much of the enslaved workforce in the state-operated mines had been sent there as a punishment, and conditions were so brutal that this often amounted to a death sentence.

The footprint of Roman buildings plus a great deal of slag (mining waste) found near Hastings suggests that this was the location of one such iron mine. The native Britons may have been working iron here since the late Iron Age, but the Romans did so on a much larger scale.

In the nineteenth century 100,000 tonnes of slag like this were removed from the site near Hastings and used for road building.

Thinking point: Why do you think metal mining was such an important part of the Roman economy?
Bregāns

I

vilicus per villam magnificam contendit. in hac villā Salvius habitābat; vilicus erat Vārica. Vārica hortum intrāvit, ubi domina quiescēbat. domina erat Rūfilla, māтрōna nōbilis. Vārica Rūfillam salūtāvit.
‘dominus advenit,’ inquit Vārica.
Rūfilla, simulatque hoc audīvit, surrēxit.
‘tū servōs et ancillās in āream vocā!’ clāmāvit. ‘ego eōs īnspicere volō.’

servī ancillaeque ad āream celeriter cucurrērunt, in quattuor ordinēs longōs sē īnstrūxērunt. vilicus Rūfillam per ordinēs dūcēbat et omnēs servōs numerābat. subitō exclāmāvit,
‘ubi est coquus? ego coquum vidēre nōn possum.’

‘ecce, domina! rēx Togidubnus marītō tuō hunc canem mīsit,’ inquit Bregāns. ‘canis celerrimus est. bēstiās optimē agitāre potest. ego Salvīō canem ostendere volō.’

II

When you have read this story, answer the questions on page 9.

subitō vigintī equitēs per portam vēnērunt. in prīmā parte erat Vitelliānus. postquam ex equō dēscendit, māтрēm salūtāvit. deinde Salvius ex equō dēscendit uxōremque salūtāvit. Rūfilla, simulac marītum vidit,
‘vulnerātus es!’ dīxit.
‘nihil est,’ respondit Salvius. ‘familiam īnspicere volō.’ tum Salvius et Vārica per ordinēs ambulābant.
Bregāns, postquam Salvium vidit, ‘domine! domine!’ clāmāvit.
Salvius servō nihil respondit. Bregāns iterum clāmāvit,
‘Salvī! Salvī! spectā canem!’
‘īnsolēns es,’ inquit Salvius, et Bregantem ferōciter

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‘bēstiās saevās retinēre nōlō,’ inquit Salvius. ‘istum canem dīmittere volō.’

‘illud difficile est,’ inquit Rūfilla. ‘rēx Togidubnus, amīcus tuus, tibi canem dedit.’

‘ita vērō, difficile est,’ respondit Salvius. ‘sed ego servum īnsolentem dīmittere possum. illud facile est.’

**Questions**

1. subitō vīgintī equitēs per portam vēnērunt. in prīmā parte erat Vitelliānus (lines 1–2): where was Vitellianus?

2. postquam ex equō dēscendit, mātrem salūtāvit. deinde Salvius ex equō dēscendit uxōremque salūtāvit (lines 2–4): what did Vitellianus and Salvius do after dismounting?

3. ‘nihil est,’ respondit Salvius. ‘familiam īnspicere volō.’ tum Salvius et Vārica per ōrdinēs ambulābant (lines 6–7): why were Salvius and Varica walking along the rows of slaves?

4. Look at lines 8–11: Bregāns, postquam Salvium vīdit . . . spectā canem!’

   a. Why is Bregans trying to attract Salvius’ attention?

   b. What is Salvius’ initial response to Bregans?

5. ‘īnsolēns es,’ inquit Salvius, et Bregantem ferōciter verberāvit. Bregāns ad terram cecidit (lines 12–13): why did Bregans fall to the ground?


   a. What does Salvius say he wants to do?

   b. Why does Rufilla suggest it would be difficult for Salvius to do this?

8. ‘sed ego servum īnsolentem dīmittere possum. illud facile est.’ (lines 21–22): what does Salvius suggest is easy for him to do?
About the language 1: infinitives

1 Study the following pairs of sentences:

agricola cantāt.
*The farmer is singing.*

agricola cantār vult.
*The farmer wants to sing.*

Britannī senātōrem vident.
*The Britons see the senator.*

Britannī senātōrem vidēre nōlunt.
*The Britons do not want to see the senator.*

canēs currunt.
*The dogs are running.*

canēs celeriter currere possunt.
*The dogs are able to run quickly.*

Salvius clāmōrem audit.
*Salvius hears the noise.*

Salvius clāmōrem audīre potest.
*Salvius is able to hear the noise.*

The form of the verb in **bold** is known as the **infinitive**. It usually ends in **-re** and means **to do (something)**.

2 Translate the following examples and write down the Latin infinitive in each sentence:

a puella currit. puelā currere potest.

b fīlius labōrat. fīlius labōrāre nōn vult.

c iuvenēs fābulam audīre volunt.

d senēs festīnāre nōn possunt.

3 The verbs **volō**, **nōlō** and **possum** are often used with an infinitive.

They form their present tense as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(ego)</th>
<th>volō</th>
<th>I want</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(tū)</td>
<td>vīs</td>
<td>you (s) want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vult</td>
<td>s/he* wants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(nōs)</td>
<td>volumus</td>
<td>we want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vōs)</td>
<td>vultis</td>
<td>you (pl) want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volunt</td>
<td>they want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ego)</td>
<td>possum</td>
<td>I am able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(tū)</td>
<td>potes</td>
<td>you (s) are able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>potest</td>
<td>s/he is able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(nōs)</td>
<td>possessus</td>
<td>we are able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vōs)</td>
<td>potestis</td>
<td>you (pl) are able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>possunt</td>
<td>they are able</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* ‘it’ and ‘they’ (singular) are also possible for any ‘s/he’ form of the verb.
4 possum, potes, etc. can also be translated as ‘I can’, ‘you can’, etc.:

nōs dormīre nōn possumus. We are not able to sleep or We cannot sleep.

ego cibum cōnsūmere possum. I am able to eat the food or I can eat the food.

5 Further examples:

a ego labōrāre possum.

b nōs audīre nōn possumus.

c tū pugnāre nōn vīs.

d poēta fābulam optimam recitāre potest.

e celeriter currere potestis.

f in villā manēre nōlō.

g ambulāre nōlunt.

h aquam bibere volumus.

Farming

Agriculture was already part of life in Britain thousands of years before the Romans arrived. During the Iron Age (about 800 BC to the Roman invasion of AD 43) better iron tools and growing settlements led to more woodland being cleared to make way for farming. The landscape invaded by the Romans would have been one of fields and pastures with scattered settlements and family farmsteads consisting of a small group of roundhouses without boundary ditches, fences or banks.

In areas occupied by the Romans these unenclosed individual farms were replaced by enclosed, sometimes more complex set-ups. The main crops were cereal grains: barley, oats, rye, and especially wheat. Archaeologists have found seeds of these crops which were accidentally charred and thus preserved in the earth.

Some of the people working on Roman estates like that of Salvius would have been poor local people, but many others would have been enslaved. They lived a harsh life and were viewed by their enslavers as property rather than people. One Roman landowner described them as just ‘farming equipment with voices’. Estates and the people who worked on them would have been run by a farm manager who was often also enslaved, like Varica.

Thinking point: What have you learned about the Roman attitude towards those they enslaved on their farms and in their mines?

Thinking point: How do you think the Roman occupation changed the day-to-day lives of British farmers? In what ways might it have stayed the same?
postridiē Salvius fundum īnspicere voluit. itaque Salvius et Vitelliānus fundum apud Rēgnēnsēs visitāvērunt. agricola Salviō agrōs ostendit, ubi servī diligenter labōrābant.

‘segēs est optima, domine,’ inquit agricola. ‘servī multum frūmentum in horreum iam tulērunt.’

Salvius, postquam agrōs et segetem vīdit, agricole dīxit, ‘perītissimus es. rem rūsticam optimē cūrās.’

‘ita vērō, domine!’ respondit agricola. ‘ego familiam meam servāre volō.’

’nōnne tū multam pecūniam habēs?’ rogāvit Salvius. agricola eī respondit, ‘quotannīs pecūniam rēgī Togidubnō trādere possum.’

‘bene!’ inquit Salvius.

simulatque hoc dīxit, puerum vīdit, puer ad agrōs festīnābat.

‘quid facit hic puer?’ rogāvit Salvius.

‘filius meus est,’ respondit agricola. ‘servōs cibum fert.’

‘servōs tuōs optimē cūrās,’ inquit Vitelliānus.

Salvius agricolae nihil dīxit.

tum agricola Salvium Vitelliānunque ad casam dūxit, ubi uxor sua cibum parābat. līberī prope casam rāmōs secābant.

‘cūr rāmōs secant hī līberī?’ inquit Salvius.

‘tectum reficiunt,’ respondit agricola. ‘tectum nōn est novum, domine.’

‘nōnne novam domum aedificāre potes?’ inquit Vitelliānus. ‘villa Rōmāna est melior quam casa Britannica. num tū in casā fūmidā manēre vis?’

uxor Vitelliānō respondit, ‘fortasse haec casa est fūmidā, sed domus nostra est.’

‘ego Britannīs nōn crēdō,’ Salvius sibi dīxit. ‘omnēs barbarī sunt stultī, sed Britannī sunt stultiōrēs quam cēterī!’
### About the language 2: -que

1. In this Stage, you have met a new way of saying ‘and’ in Latin:

   - māter pater *que*  
   - puerī puellae *que*

   Note that **-que** is added on to the end of the second word.

   Rewrite the following examples using **-que** and translate them:

   a. filia et filius  
   b. agricola et mercātōrēs

2. **-que** can also be used to link sentences together:

   Salvius ex equō dēscendit vīllam *que* intrāvit.

   *Salvius got off his horse and went into the house.*

   custōdēs in cubiculum ruērunt Alātōrem *que* vīdērunt.

   *The guards rushed into the bedroom and saw Alator.*

3. Further examples:

   a. māter mīlitēs equōsque cōnspexit.
   b. Bregāns Vāricaque in āreā stābant.
   c. Rūfilla āream intrāvit filiumque salūtāvit.
   d. amīcus in lectō recumbēbat aquamque bibēbat.
   e. filius senātorem vidit patremque vocāvit.

---

This wall painting from Roman Gaul shows a dominus coming to inspect his villa.
Epona et Alātor

A sister urges her younger brother not to act recklessly.

prope ferrāriam apud Cantiacōs erat casa. in hāc casā māter cum sex līberīs habitābat.

diēs vesperascēbat. subitō iuvenis casam intrāvit.

‘pater, pater ...’

‘quid est, Alātor?’ rogāvit māter anxia.

‘pater est mortuus!’

māter statim plōrābat; lacrimābant līberī.

tum Epona, soror senior, ‘ēheu!’ inquit. ‘quid accidit, frāter?’

‘hodiē ego ad ferrāriam ībam,’ respondit Alātor.

‘custōs mihi tōtam rem nārrāvit. Rōmānī patrem interfēcērunt, quod servum aegrum retinēre nōlēbant.

nunc eum vindicāre volō.’

māter, simulatque hoc audīvit, ‘minimē!’ clāmāvit.

‘tē ōrō, Alātor! ego marītum iam āmīsī. filium quoque āmittere nōlō.’

iuvenis tamen mātrem nōn audiēbat; pugiōnem quaerēbat.

‘num asinus es?’ rogāvit Epona. ‘periit pater, sed nōs artificēs perītī sumus. cum Rōmānīs multum negōtium agere possūmus. sine pecūniā māter līberōs cūrāre nōn potest.’

frāter nihil respondit; pugiōnem tenēbat. līberī perterritī erant. Epona, postquam pugiōnem vidit, exclâmāvit,

‘īnsānus es, Alātor! sine dubiō rem perīculōsam suscipis.’

Alātor eī respondit, ‘satis, soror! cōnsilium cēpī.

mors mē nōn terret. valē!’

tum iuvenis ē casā contendit. māter iterum plōrābat.
1 Explore the story

a prope ferrāriam apud Cantiacōs erat casa (line 1): what two details are given about the house?

b in hāc casā māter cum sex līberīs habitābat (lines 1–2): how many people lived in the house?

c Look at lines 4–7 (pater, pater . . . lacrimābant līberī).

Give the Latin word which indicates that the mother suspected Alator had brought bad news about her husband.

d Rōmānī patrem interfēcērunt, quod servum aegrum retinēre nōlēbant (lines 11–12):

why did the Romans put Alator’s father to death?

e ‘ego marītum iam āmīsī. filium quoque āmittere nōlō’ (lines 15–16): what was Alator’s mother afraid would happen to her son?

f iuvenis tamen mātre nōn audiēbat; pugiōnem quaerēbat (lines 17–18):

why was Alator not listening to his mother?

g ‘perīt pater, sed nōs artificēs perītī sumus. cum Rōmānīs multum negotium agere possimus’ (lines 19–21):

what two reasons did Epona give to suggest that the family could continue to provide for themselves?

h ‘sine pecūniā māter līberōs cūrāre nōn potest’ (lines 21–22):

what did Epona say a mother needs in order to look after her children?

i Look at lines 24–28 (Epona . . . plōrābat).

Why did Alator’s mother begin to sob a second time?

2 Explore the language

Explain why āmīsī (line 15) and āmittere (line 16) have different endings.

infinitives: page 10 <AtL Stage 13>

3 Explore further

Think about the whole story. What different responsibilities did Alator have, or feel that he had?

Reviewing the language Stage 13: page 217
Enquiry: Evaluate the Roman view that the Britons were ‘fierce and inhospitable’ people (Horace, *Odes*, III.4.33) living ‘wholly separated from all the world’ (Virgil, *Eclogues*, I.66) and the Romans ‘would gain nothing by occupying the land’ (Strabo, II.5.8).

Britain before the Romans

The Romans may think of Britannia as a strange land at the edge of the world, but we Britons had our own highly developed cultures long before they arrived, thank you very much! For the Romans, the most ‘civilised’ way to live is in a big town or city; they are always talking about how wonderful Rome and places like Alexandria are. They have little respect for our way of life. Personally, I’d much rather live in the countryside with my tribe than in a loud, busy city full of Romans.

The peoples who lived in much of Europe around the time of the Roman conquest are often referred to as ‘Celtic’, but, at least for Britain and Ireland, this idea of a single people called ‘the Celts’ is relatively modern, emerging in about 1700. The historical reality was probably far more complex. In Iron Age Britain alone there were numerous different tribes made up of smaller groups with local leaders held together by alliances and family loyalties. The works of Claudius Ptolemy (c.AD 100–170) from Alexandria in Egypt are one of the main sources for the names and locations of the British tribes, and finds of Iron Age coins can also suggest where the different tribes may have been based. It is impossible to know these names and locations for sure, though.

Thinking point 1: The only written sources we have about the native Britons are written by the Romans and Greeks; what problems might this raise for historians trying to study them?
Thinking point 2: Look at the map and maybe compare it to one of modern Britain. What tribes may have lived in and around areas familiar to you?

The names we, and sources like Ptolemy, use for the British tribes were not necessarily what these tribes would have called themselves. ‘Durotriges’ may mean ‘hillfort-dwellers’ and ‘Regnenses’ means ‘inhabitants of the kingdom’ in Latin. Neither of these seem likely to be names the tribes would have used or chosen.
Hillforts were an important part of Iron Age life: there are over 2000 in Britain (the earliest built in c.1500 BC). By about 350 BC, however, many were abandoned and we do not know why. It has been suggested that there were initially many smaller tribal groups which over time became fewer, larger groups based in the most important hillforts.

Roman authors record that Celtic religion was overseen by druids, powerful priests who acted as judges in disputes. They kept the oral traditions and knowledge of the tribe and worshipped their gods in sacred woodlands with ceremonies that may have included human sacrifice. They encouraged fierce resistance to the Romans, causing them much trouble.

‘... The population of the island is countless. Houses rather like those in Gaul are to be seen everywhere and there are enormous numbers of cattle. They use either bronze or gold coinage.’

(Julius Caesar, Gallic Wars 5.12)

Maiden Castle in Dorset was home to several hundred people in the Iron Age. Its multiple ramparts enclose an area the size of fifty football pitches.

The discovery of coins like this all over Britain not only helps us to understand the location of the population but also indicates that this was not a barter economy.

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We Britons are very good metalworkers, carpenters, weavers, and farmers. We had been exporting copper, tin, grain, cattle, gold, silver, iron, hides and hunting dogs to the Mediterranean world long before the Romans invaded.

Our people make beautiful things; even everyday objects made of pottery and various metals are decorated with repeated patterns, spiralling curves, and stylised imaginary animals.

A torc from the ‘Snettisham hoard’ found buried in a field in Norfolk in 1950. It is one of the most elaborate ancient golden objects ever found and was probably buried in about 50 BC.

We know of the great skill of British artisans due to buried objects found by archaeologists. Some items might have been buried for safekeeping, but most were probably offerings to the gods. Religious beliefs and rituals are likely to have been woven into everyday life; archaeologists have found very few specific places of worship. Offerings might take the form of single objects, sacrificed animals or ‘hoards’ (large collections of items) and seem to have been left in homes, fields, hilltops and rivers.

Thinking point 3: Why do we have more artefacts made of metal than ones made of cloth or wood? What aspects of life might therefore be difficult to study?

‘The Battersea Shield’ was found in the Thames in the 1800s and is assumed to have been thrown in as an offering. It is not a complete shield, but a metal cover that would have been attached to the front of a wooden shield. The decoration is unlike any other known object and so it is difficult to date. The techniques used to make it, however, suggest that it was almost certainly made in Britain.
The Britons and the Romans

My dominus, Salvius, serves the Roman governor Agricola. Agricola is leading an army to conquer even more of the Britons and our land in the north. The Roman invasion and conquest began about forty years before either of them ever set foot on the island, however, and even before that the Britons had had a longstanding relationship with the Romans.

The first Roman general to lead his soldiers into Britain was Julius Caesar in 55 BC, as part of his wars against the Gauls. Caesar wrote an account of his visit to the island, in which he described the inhabitants as fierce warriors, living on good agricultural or pasture land, in a country rich in timber and minerals. Caesar returned to the island with many more troops in 54 BC, claiming that the British had been aiding the Gauls against him. He required many of the British tribes to pay tribute (money) to Rome and to provide hostages.

At the time of Caesar’s Gallic Wars, the Romans thought of ‘Gaul’ as made up of five regions: Belgica, Celtica, Cisalpina, Narbonensis and Aquitania. This map shows the locations of these regions and the route of Caesar’s campaigns.

Thinking point 4:
Look at this map; can you work out what modern countries were part of ancient Gaul?
According to Caesar he installed Mandubracius as king of the Trinobantes tribe in the southeast of Britain as Mandubracius had appealed to him for help against his rival, Cassivellaunus. Cassivellaunus was forbidden to make any further attack on either Mandubracius or the Trinobantes. When he sailed back to Gaul later that year, Caesar had not conquered Britain, nor did he leave any legions behind, but he had brought Britain into Rome’s sphere of political and military influence.

Roman historian Cassius Dio reports that the Emperor Augustus considered invasions in 34, 27, and 25 BC, but the circumstances were never appropriate, and the relationship between Britain and Rome remained one of trade and diplomacy. Finds in and around Chichester in Sussex near the Romano-British palace of Fishbourne might be very important for us in understanding this pre-invasion relationship. In the nineteenth century a Roman legionary’s helmet was found and dated to before the Roman invasion of AD 43. For a long time this was dismissed as an old piece of kit discarded at some point after the invasion of 43. In 2002, however, part of a Roman army sword and Roman-style food (discarded in a non-Roman way) were found and dated to around AD 25. Further evidence has been found nearby which suggests that local metalworkers were making brass objects including cavalry harness fittings pre-AD 43. The use of brass was a closely guarded military secret at the time.

**Thinking point 6:** Explain in your own words what the evidence found near Chichester might suggest about the relationship between the Britons and Romans before the invasion of AD 43.

Further north at the hilltop shrine at Hallaton in Leicestershire archaeologists have found more evidence of long-distance trade and diplomacy between the Britons and Rome. Among the buried hoards of metalwork are 350 Roman coins (including some of the oldest ever found in Britain) and a Roman helmet, thought to have been a diplomatic gift.

All of this evidence suggests that even before the invasion of AD 43 there was close contact between the Britons and the Romans, possibly of a military nature. In the early first century AD, the author Strabo claimed that Rome could earn as much from the island by taxing it as by conquering it; perhaps the Roman soldiers were there to make sure this valuable trade and tax relationship ran smoothly.

**Thinking point 5:** Caesar wrote that he invaded Britain because the Britons were aiding the Gauls against him, and interfered in the politics of the Trinobantes tribe at Mandubracius’s request. Would you consider Caesar to be a reliable source regarding his motivations and actions in Britain?
In AD 39, the Emperor Caligula assembled a large army on the river Rhine, ready to invade Britain, but it was aborted at the last minute. When the Emperor Claudius successfully invaded in AD 43, almost 100 years after Caesar’s first landing, he claimed that he was coming to the aid of the exiled British ruler, Verica of the Atrebates. It is more likely, however, that Claudius – who had become emperor unexpectedly just two years earlier – needed a military triumph to prove himself.

The invasion was led by the commander Aulus Plautius. Eleven of the British kings surrendered and several became ‘client kings’ of the Romans. Britannia was declared a Roman province and Aulus Plautius became the first governor. The Romans continued to conquer increasing amounts of Britain over the course of the next forty years, moving slowly across the island from their initial territories in the south east. The Roman occupation reached its greatest extent after the campaigns of Agricola (AD 78–84), during which the Romans subjugated the people living in modern Wales and pushed north into what is now Scotland. It is estimated that somewhere between 100,000 and 250,000 Britons (out of a population of approximately 2 million) were killed between AD 43 and 83 as the Romans advanced through the province.

**Thinking point 7:** Why do you think Claudius may have invaded Britain? What are the reasons for your claims?
We are now subject to Roman officials enforcing Roman law with the constant threat of the Roman army. They grow rich from farming and mining the land they have seized and enslave our people to do the hard work.

Resistance is not tolerated. The Roman army are here to ‘keep the peace’. I’ve seen villages burned and crops destroyed. Many of our men have been killed in battle, but the Romans even massacre and abuse women, children and the elderly.

Such brutality doesn’t feel very peaceful to me.

**Enquiry:** Evaluate the view that the Britons were ‘fierce and inhospitable’ people (Horace, *Odes*, III.4.33) living ‘wholly separated from all the world’ (Virgil, *Eclogues*, I.66) and the Romans ‘would gain nothing by occupying the land’ (Strabo, II.5.8).

You may wish to consider the following:

- the mining and farming industries
- how and where the Britons lived
- the art and achievements of the Britons
- the nature of the available sources
- the relationship between the Britons and the Romans before AD 43
- the motivations and behaviour of the Romans during and after their invasion.

Aulus Plautius’ men dug these ditches to defend their camp at Rutupiae (Richborough). The fortress walls were added later, in the third century AD.
Vocabulary checklist 13

The way verbs are listed in checklists from Stage 13 onwards is explained on page 229.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aeger</td>
<td>sick, ill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audāx</td>
<td>bold, daring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadō, cadere, cecidī</td>
<td>fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēterī</td>
<td>the others, the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>custōs</td>
<td>guard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīcō, dīcere, dīxī</td>
<td>say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>domina</td>
<td>lady (of the house), mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interficiō, interficere, interfēcī</td>
<td>kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ita vērō</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>longus</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miles</td>
<td>soldier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōlō</td>
<td>I do not want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>novus</td>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possum</td>
<td>I can, I am able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postridiē</td>
<td>(on) the next day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruō, ruere, ruī</td>
<td>rush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sé</td>
<td>himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trahō, trahere, trāxī</td>
<td>drag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vīlla</td>
<td>house, country house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vīta</td>
<td>life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volō</td>
<td>I want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vulnerō, vulnerāre, vulnerāvī</td>
<td>wound</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This helmet was dredged from the river Thames in the 1860s and is the only Iron Age helmet found in southern England, and the only horned Iron Age helmet ever found in Europe. It was probably ceremonial and unlikely to have been worn in battle.
1 amīca epistulam ad Rūfillam mīsit.

mea amīca, venī ad diem nātālem meum!
multae amīcae apud mē manent.

Rūfilla: ‘difficile est mihi amīcam vīsitāre, quod vīlla mea ab urbe longē abest.’

2 amīcus epistulam ad Vitelliānum mīsit.

mī amīce, venī ad vēnātiōnem!
multae bēstiae in silvā habitant.

Vitelliānus: ‘non difficile est mihi bēstiās agitāre, quod canem celerem habeo.’

3 Salvius epistulās ad amīcōs mīsit.

mei amīci, venīte ad villam meam!
coquus cēnam magnificam parat.

amīci: ‘necesse est nōbīs Salvium vīsitāre, quod senātor Rōmānus est.’
‘et quod coquum Aegyptium habet!’
familia occupāta

domina cubiculum īnspicit

Rūfilla in cubiculō stat. cubiculum circumspectat.

Rūfilla: quam inēlegāns est hoc cubiculum! (intrat Vitelliānus.)

Vitelliānus: mē vocāvis, mea māter? quam celerrimē vēnī.

Rūfilla: bene fēcistī, mī filī. aliquid tibi dīcere volō.

Vitelliānus: quid est, māter?

Rūfilla: familiāris epistulam ad mē mīsit. ad urbem Londīnium nūper advēnit. quamquam Londinium est urbs pulcherrima, familiāris apud nōs manēre vult. hiems iam appropinquat, et vēnātiōnēs familiārem dēlectant. itaque eum ad hanc villam īnvītāvī. (Rufilla filiō epistulam ostendit.)

Vitelliānus: (attonitus) familiāris est Pompēiānus, māter! pater Pompēiānīs nōn crēdit. tūne eum monuistī?

Rūfilla: pater tuus est occupātus. nōn decōrum est mihi eum vexāre.

Vitelliānus: pater nihil dē hoc familiāre scit?

Rūfilla: nihil cūrō. sed nōn decōrum est familiāri meō in hoc cubiculō dormire. nam cubiculum nōn est ēlegāns. age! Vitelliāne, necesse est nōbis ad tablīnum īre.
coquus cōnsilium capit

Vārica anxius per villam contendit. coquum quaerit.

Vārica: Volūbilis! Volūbilis! ubi es?
Volūbilis: (invītus) in hortō sum. quid vīs?
Vārica: necesse est tibi cēnam coquare.
Volūbilis: sum fessus. per tōtum diem labōrāvī. nōn diūtius labōrāre possum.
Vārica: domina ipsa mē ad tē mīsit. hospitem ab urbe Londīniō exspectat.
Vārica: est Pompēiānus. necesse est tibi ostreās et garum Pompēiānum parāre. curre ad culīnam!
Volūbilis: garum Pompēiānum? ēheu! garum foedum est!
(Volūbilis, quamquam garum parāre nōn vult, culīnam intrat. vix prōcedere potest, quod amphoram gravem portat. in hāc amphorā sunt putrēs piscēs.)
Volūbilis: (miser) garum Salvium nōn dēlectat. difficile est mihi garum Pompēiānum parāre.
(subitō Volūbilis cōnsilium capit. ad ātrium festīnat, ubi Marcia labōrat. Marcia est ancilla Ītalica.)
Volūbilis: mea Marcia, necesse est mihi garum parāre, quod domina hospitem Pompēiānum ad villam invitāvit. sed garum bonum parāre nōn possum.
Marcia: nōlī dēspērāre! māter mea garum optimum saepe parābat. garum mē valdē dēlectat. ego tibi id parāre possum.
Volūbilis: (laetus) meum mel! meae dēliciae!
(Volūbilis Marciae maximās grātiās agit.)

invītus unwilling, reluctant
fessus tired
diūtius any longer
ipsa herself
ab urbe from the city
Gallicus Gallic
Syrius Syrian
aut or
ostreās: oystera oyster
garum fish sauce
foedum: foul, disgusting
vix hardly, scarcely
amphoram: storage jar
gravem: heavy
putrēs piscēs rotten fish
miser wretched, miserable
Ītalica Italian

Aulus Umbricius Scaurus was a Pompeian merchant known for the production of garum; his manufacturer’s mark has been found on urns used to store it and he decorated his house with mosaics like this one to celebrate the source of his wealth.
Salvius et Philus in tablinō sunt. Philus, servus Graecus, scribere potest. Salvius sellam frāstrā quaerit.

Salvius: heus! ubi est sella mea?

(intrat Vitelliānus.)

Vitelliānus: mī pater! aliquid tibi dicere possum?

Salvius: occupātus sum, Vitelliāne! necesse est mihi septem aut octō epistulās dictāre. rem celeriter cōnficere volō. ecce! Philus parātus adest. stilī et cērae adsunt – heus! ubi est armārium meum? quis cēpit?

Vitelliānus: pater! audi! rēs mīrābilis accidit.

(Salvius invitūs fīliō cēdit. Vitelliānus patrī dē epistulā narrat.)

Salvius: (attonitus) num Rūfilla Pompēiānum ad villam nostram invītāvit? ēheu! Pompēiānis nōn crēdō. paucī probī sunt, cēterī mendācēs. mī fīlī, necesse est nōbis hunc familiārem cavēre!

Vitelliānus: sed, pater, decōrum est mātrī familiārem suam húc invītāre. nam vēnātiōnes eum valdē dēlectant. ancillae iam familiāri cubiculum parāvērunt. sellam armāriumque in eō posuērunt, quod cubiculum inēlegāns erat. placetne tibi?

Salvius: mihi nōn placet! uxor īnsāna es! Pompēiāni mendāciōrēs sunt quam Britannī.

(rem intellegēns) num ancillae sellam et armārium ex hoc tablinō extrāxērunt?

Vitelliānus: et candēlābrum.

(exit festīnāns.)

heus! hey!

5 septem seven
octō eight
rem... cōnficere finish the job
armārium chest, cupboard
cēdit: cēdere give in, give way
paucī a few
in eō in it
rem intellegēns understanding the truth
candēlābrum lampstand
festīnāns hurrying, in a hurry

Notice how the vocabulary beside each story has changed:

amphoram: amphora storage jar
The word in bold is the nominative singular of this noun.
cēdit: cēdere give in, give way
The word in bold is the infinitive of this verb.
About the language 1: adjectives

1 Study the following sentences:

amīcus callidus clāmābat. The clever friend was shouting.
agricola amīcum bonum laudāvit. The farmer praised the good friend.
Salvius amīcō laetō dōnum dedit. Salvius gave a gift to the happy friend.

The words in bold are adjectives. They are used to describe nouns. In each of these examples, the adjective is describing the friend.

2 Adjectives change their endings to match the case of the noun they describe.

In the first sentence above, callidus is nominative because it describes a nominative noun (amīcus).
In the second sentence, bonum is accusative, because it describes an accusative noun (amicum).
In the third sentence, laetō is dative, because it describes a dative noun (amicō).

3 Translate the following examples:

a puella callida in tablīnō legēbat.
b pater puellam callidam salūtāvit.
c cīvēs mercātōrem fortem laudāvērunt.
d cīvēs mercātorī fortī praemium dedērunt.
e senex filium bonum habēbat.
f senex filiō bonō villam ēlēgit.

Identify the Latin noun and adjective pair in each sentence and state whether it is nominative, accusative or dative.

4 Adjectives also change their endings to match the number (i.e. singular or plural) of the nouns they describe. An adjective is singular if it describes a singular noun, and plural if it describes a plural noun. Compare the following examples with those in paragraph 1:

amīcī callidī clāmābant. The clever friends were shouting.
agricola amīcōs bonōs laudāvit. The farmer praised the good friends.
Salvius amīcīs laetīs dōnum dedit. Salvius gave a gift to the happy friends.
5 Translate the following examples:
   a  fēmina laetae in hortō ambulābant.
   b  fēmina laeta in hortō ambulābat.
   c  agricola mīlitēs ferōcēs timēbat.
   d  mercātor amīcis aegrīs vīnum dedit.
   e  pictūra pulchra erat in ātriō.
   f  custōs Alātōrem audācem nōn cōnspexit.

Identify the Latin noun and adjective pair in each sentence and state whether the pair is singular or plural.

6 When an adjective changes its ending in this way it is said to agree, in case and number, with the noun it describes.

7 Adjectives like magnus, parvus and multī, which indicate size or quantity, usually come before the noun they describe; other adjectives usually come after the noun. For example:
   Rūfilla multās amīcās habēbat.  
   Rufilla had many friends.

8 Further examples:
   a  Vitelliānus magnum canem dūcēbat.
   b  Rufilla amīcis parvum dōnum quaesīvit.
   c  multī Britannī erant fabrī.
   d  agricola parvīs puerīs equum ostendit.
familiāris advenit

familiāris ipse ad villam advēnit. Salvius ē villā contendit et eum salūtāvit.

‘mī Quīnte!’ inquit. ‘exspectātissimus es! cubiculum optimum tibi parāvimus.’

Salvius Quīntum in ātrium dūxit, ubi Rūfilla et Vitellianus eōs exspectābant. Rūfilla, postquam familiārem suum salūtāvit, suāviter rīsit.

‘cēnam modicam tibi parāvī,’ inquit. ‘tibi ostreās parāvī et garum Pompēiānum. post cēnam tibi cubiculum ostendere volō.’

Salvius, postquam Quīntus cēnam cōnsūmpsit, dē urbe Pompēiīs quaerēbat.

‘nōnne illa clādēs terribilis erat? ’

Rūfilla īrāta ‘marīte crūdēlis!’ inquit. ‘cūr Quīntum nostrum vexās? nōn decōrum est. difficile est Quīntō tantam clādem commemorāre.’

Rūfilla ad Quīntum sē convertit.

‘fortasse, mī Quīnte, fessus es. cubiculum tibi parāvī. cubiculum nōn est ōrnātum. in eō sunt armārium modicum et parvum candēlābrum.’

Salvius īrātus nihil dīxit. filius clam rīdēbat.

Quīntus, postquam cubiculum vidit, exclāmāvit, ‘quam ēlegāns est hoc cubiculum! ego nihil ēlegantius vidi.’

‘cōnsentiō,’ inquit Salvius, ‘cubiculum tuum ēlegantius est quam tablīnum meum.’

**Explore further**

In this story, what the characters say does not always match what they think or feel, or what has actually happened.

Find at least two examples in the story where Rufilla is not telling the whole truth. Why are her words not entirely true?

Find at least one example where Salvius says something he does not mean. What is he hiding when he says this?

What is Vitellianus doing in line x? Why do you think he is doing this?

Why do you think Quintus says so little in this story?

Oyster shells are common finds on Roman sites in Britain. These come from Verulamium (St Albans).
About the language 2: more about adjectives

1 In the first language note in this Stage you met sentences like this:
   frāter puellam laetam salūtāvit.  The brother greeted the happy girl.
   The adjective laetam agrees with the noun puellam in case (accusative) and number (singular). The endings of both words look the same.

2 Now study this sentence:
   frāter puellam trīstem salūtāvit.  The brother greeted the sad girl.
   The adjective trīstem agrees with the noun puellam in case (accusative) and number (singular) as in the previous example. The endings, however, do not look the same. This is because they belong to different declensions, and have different ways of forming their cases. trīstis belongs to the third declension and puella belongs to the first declension.

3 Translate the following examples:
   a Quīntus fābulam mīrābilem nārrāvit.
   b in villā habitābat senex iratus.
   c canis bēstiās ferōcēs agitābat.
   d mercātor amīcō fidēli dēnāriōs trādidit.
   e multī senātōrēs vinum bibēbant.
   f agricola omnibus puerīs pecūniam dedit.

   Identify the Latin noun and adjective pair in each sentence and state whether the pair is nominative, accusative or dative, singular or plural.
The British aristocracy loved Roman silver. This elegant wine cup was made about the time of our story. It is one of several found buried in Norfolk as part of the ‘Hockwold Hoard’.

Like the statue in the story, this statuette of Hercules has been covered with a thin layer of gold in a process known as gilding; you can see patches on the legs where the gold has come off, revealing the copper underneath. Although found in Britain, this statuette was made using techniques popular among the Romans. Although the Romans brought their crafting methods and styles with them to Britannia, the Britons had their own metalwork traditions and had in fact been gilding items since the Bronze Age.
Salvius: dōnum splendidius Togidubnō ferre volō.
(Vitellius patrī urnam ostendit.)

Vitellius: ecce! urna aēnea. antiquissima est. placet tibi?

Salvius: mihi nōn placet. quamquam urna est antiqua, ego dōnum aēneum Togidubnō ferre nōlō.
(subitō Salvius parvam statuam cōnspicit.)
euge! hanc statuam rēgī ferre possum. aurāta est statua. Quintus rēgī dōnum argenteum ferre vult; ego tamen aurātum dōnum ferre possum!

Vitellius: pater! nōn dēbēs.

Salvius: cūr nōn dēbeō?

Vitellius: Togidubnus ipse tibi illam statuam dedit!

Salvius: hercle! necesse est mihi istam urnam ad aulam ferre.

splendidius more splendid
urnam: urna jug, urn
aēnea (made of) bronze
aurāta gilded, gold-plated
nōn dēbēs you should not, you must not
Practising the language

clādēs Britannica

An innkeeper describes the sack of London by British tribes.

in urbe Londiniō erat taberna plēna. in hāc tabernā bibēbat Quīntus. caupō, postquam Quīntō vīnum dedit, dē urbe Pompēiīs quaerēbat. Quīntus invitus, ‘difficile est mihi urbem meam commemorāre,’ inquit.

‘esne Pompēiānus?’ inquit caupō. ‘ēheu! clādem terribilem quoque vidi. īsta rēgīna Boudica, ubi contrā Rōmānōs bellum gerēbat, in hanc urbem cōpiās dūxit. aderant Icēnī, Trinobantēs et aliae gentēs īnfestae. ingēns pavor erat in urbe, quod nūllī mīlitēs urbem custōdiēbant. inimīcī erant multī, nōs paucī. mercātōrēs tabernās claudēbant; artificēs pecūniam cēlābant. fēminae īnfantēs portābant līberōsque per viās dūcēbant. frūstrā fugiēbant. Boudica tōtam urbem dēlēre volēbat.’

Quīntus attonitus rem audiēbat. ‘nāvēs tempestātem ēvītāre possunt?’ rogāvit caupō. ‘minimē! crūdēlissimī erant illī Britannī. nūllōs captīvōs cēpērunt; domōs tabernāsque incendēbant. mox tōta urbs ardēbat. quamquam ignis et fūmus ubique erant, ego per ruīnās flammāsque currēbam. scālās invēnī, et eās in puteum dēmīsī. ita ad salūtem dēscendī.’

‘hercle!’ clāmāvit Quīntus. ‘quam audāx erās!’

‘ubi tempestās venit,’ inquit caupō, ‘nautae perterritī in mari perire nōlunt.’

1 Explore the story

a caupō, postquam Quīntō vīnum dedit, dē urbe Pompēiīs quaerēbat (lines 2–3): what did the innkeeper ask Quintus about?

b ‘īsta rēgīna Boudica, ubi contrā Rōmānōs bellum gerēbat, in hanc urbem cōpiās dūxit. aderant Icēnī, Trinobantēs et aliae gentēs īnfestae’ (lines 7–8): who exactly came to the city, and why?
c Look at lines 10–14: ‘ingēns pavor erat in urbe . . . frūstrā fugiēbant’.
   i Why was the city in such a panic?
   ii What were these people doing in the panic?
      merchants and craftspeople
      women
d ‘nāvēs tempestātem ēvītāre possunt?’ (line 17):
   i Who you think the innkeeper means by the word tempestātem?
   ii Do you think that this is an effective way to describe what was happening?
e ‘crūdēlissimī erant illī Britannī. nūllōs captīvōs cēpērunt; domōs tabernāsque incendēbant’ (lines 18–19): what did the Britons do which supported the innkeeper’s opinion that they were crūdēlissimī?
f ‘quamquam ignis et fūmus ubīque erant, ego per ruīnās flammāisque currēbam’ (lines 20–21): what obstacles did the innkeeper encounter as he ran?
g ‘scālās invēnī, et eās in puteum dēmīsī. ita ad salūtem dēscendī’ (lines 21–22): how did the innkeeper manage to hide from Boudica’s troops?
h ‘ubi tempestās venit,’ inquit caupō, ‘nautae perterrītæ in marī perīre nōlunt’ (lines 24–25): who do you think the innkeeper means by the words nautae perterrītī?

2 Explore the language
   In Stage 14, you have looked in more depth at adjectives.
   Adjectives can be used to make a scene more memorable and to add drama to a story.
   Look again at the language used by the innkeeper when he is describing the sack of London. How does he use dramatic adjectives to bring his story to life?

3 Explore further
   Although the innkeeper is British, he talks in a friendly manner to Quintus and the language he uses about Boudica shows us that he did not support her rebellion.
   Think about everything you have read about how the Romans and Britons behave towards each other. What different attitudes can you find in the stories to illustrate the complicated relationship between the Roman occupiers and the Britons?

This Roman ladder was found in a Roman well in London. The surviving section is about 5.6 metres (just over 18 feet) and has seven rungs, but we do not know how long it was originally.
Enquiry: How ‘Roman’ was ‘Roman Britain’?

The Romans in Britain

Map of Agricola’s campaigns in Britain.

Our stories in Roman Britain are set during the governorship of Agricola, about thirty years after that of Aulus Plautius. Agricola stayed in the province for seven years (AD 78–85) and led his army as far north as the Scottish Highlands. The Roman historian Tacitus tells us that Agricola effectively put an end to Scottish resistance to Roman rule in AD 84 at the battle of Mons Graupius – the exact location of which is unknown – in Caledonia.

Agricola’s mission in the province was not just to secure military victory. According to Tacitus, he also stopped civic corruption and abuses in tax collection, and took steps to challenge the culture of the Britons:

Thinking point 1:
Tatitus was Agricola’s son-in-law. How might this fact affect our use of his work as a source?
'So that the scattered and uncivilised – and therefore warlike – population would become accustomed through comfort to peace and rest, he gave personal encouragement and official aid to the building of temples, forums, and houses. He praised go-getters and rebuked those who were lazy, so that competition for honour replaced the need for force. He educated the sons of the chiefs . . . so that instead of hating the Latin language, they became eager to speak it well. Further, our style of clothing became popular and the toga became fashionable. Little by little they gave into the indulgent vices of colonnades, baths and grand dinner parties. In their ignorance they called this civilisation, but in fact it was part of their enslavement'.

(Tacitus, Agricola 21)

Thinking point 2: How does Tacitus describe the Britons? What does he say Agricola encouraged the Britons to do?

Historians for many years echoed Tacitus in viewing the conquest of Britain (and the rest of the empire) as a process of 'Romanisation' in which Rome’s new subjects gratefully adopted the ‘superior’ Roman way of life. In reality, however, different peoples had their own unique responses to Roman culture. These may have included the enthusiastic embracing of ‘Romanness’ but also rejecting, ignoring or, often, reinventing it for themselves.

As governor of Britain, Agricola is assisted by officials like me and accompanied by one of the largest Roman armies in the empire. We often recruit newly conquered people into the army as auxiliary soldiers, but they are never stationed in their home province. The army in Britain, therefore, includes soldiers from all over the empire. Most will move on to another area of the empire after their official duties in Britannia are finished, but some might stay and make their homes here: they might want to set up a household with a British partner for example, or maybe they just like constant rain!

Thinking point 3: Why do you think auxiliary soldiers were not stationed in their home province?
This elaborate tombstone was found at Arbeia at the eastern end of Hadrian’s Wall and has two inscriptions. The larger one is in Latin and reads:

‘To the Spirits of the Departed. Barathes of Palmyra buries here Regina, a freedwoman and his wife, a Catuvellaunian by origin, aged 30.’

Palmyra is in modern Syria, while the Catuvellani were a tribe from south-eastern Britain.

Beneath the Latin inscription is a shorter one written in Barathes’ native language of Palmyrene. It reads:

‘Regina, freedwoman of Barathes: alas!’

Thinking point 4: What can we learn about Barathes and Regina from this source? What else would you like to know about them?

We don’t travel alone; we bring our friends, relatives, and households. I have my wife Rufilla and my son Vitellianus with me. We put a lot of enslaved Britons to work on the farms and down the mines, but many of the people we enslave in our household are from elsewhere in the empire. Rufilla is particularly delighted by our Egyptian cook, Volubilis; she says his exotic cooking always impresses guests. Latin isn’t his first language, however, and she can get very impatient when he struggles to understand her. Personally, I find the skills of our enslaved Greek Philus most useful; he can read, write and do arithmetic.

Thinking point 5: The Romans enslaved people from all over their empire and a household like Salvius’ would have contained people from a variety of cultures and places, all forced to live and work together. What might daily life be like with so many cultures interacting in one household? What challenges might this create for someone like Volubilis?

Sometimes enslaved people were kept in chains such as this set which was found in Britain. The larger rings would have been fastened around the necks of the enslaved people to link them together.
Just because Salvius got stationed in this backwater miles from anywhere doesn't mean that we have to give up our way of life. Even out here in Britannia I expect to enjoy the comforts a woman of my status deserves.

Due to Salvius' position in Britain, my household is one of the grandest around, but there are very few people I can invite to come and enjoy it. I mainly socialise with the female relatives of Roman administrators and higher-ranking army officers: the wives, daughters, mothers and sisters who accompanied their menfolk during their service in Britain. Some of these women are nice enough, but I miss my close friends and the variety of life in a big city. I spend a lot of time writing, dictating letters and reading.

A writing tablet with a letter from a woman named Claudia Severa inviting her friend Sulpicia Lepidina to a birthday party. These women were the wives of two high-ranking Romans stationed in Britain and the tablet was found at the Roman fort of Vindolanda.

The majority of the writing is very neat and was probably written by a scribe, but in the bottom right-hand corner there is also a personal message written by Claudia Severa herself, one of the earliest known examples of writing in Latin by a woman.
The first city established in Britain by the Romans was modern-day Colchester in Essex, which acted as the province’s capital until the Boudican revolt (more details of which will follow in Stage 16) when the title was passed to London. The Romans called Colchester ‘Camulodunum’ which is in fact the pre-Roman, British name for the settlement. It means ‘fortress of the War God Camulos’. Similarly, another of the largest Roman cities, Verulamium (modern St Albans in Hertfordshire) was located on the site of Iron Age Verlamion, a major centre for the Catuvellauni people. Londinium (modern London) on the other hand seems to have been founded as a major settlement by the Romans. The earliest mention of Londinium occurs in the work of Tacitus who mentions that by AD 60 it was a celebrated centre of trade.

Cities and towns are crucial to the administration and government of the empire; without them it would be very difficult for the Roman state to assert its authority so far from Rome. They are a physical reminder of Roman ideals and power, as well as places where we can establish a truly Roman way of life.

Towns and cities are built (or rebuilt) on the Roman grid system and centred on a forum, with its town hall and law court; these are always amongst the first elements to be established in any Roman town. Other public buildings such as public baths, theatres, amphitheatres and temples are also built to ensure we can enjoy and promote a proper, Roman way of life.

**Thinking point 6:** What factors would have made governing a distant province like Britannia challenging for the Romans? How might organising the province around cities and towns have helped?
Trade and communication between these urban centres (and the rest of the empire) was made possible by the network of new roads that gradually spread across the province. The roads were originally built for the use of Roman soldiers, but before long they were being extensively used by merchants as well. Trade between the province and the rest of the empire increased rapidly.

The areas closest to the new towns and roads experienced the greatest degree of change, but archaeologists working in the river valleys of Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire and Northamptonshire have found evidence which suggests that small, enclosed settlements continued to be common and that local traditions continued from the Iron Age into the Roman era.

**Thinking point 7:** What do you know about the history of where you live? Who lived there first? What did they call the area? Do any features survive from these earlier settlements?

Watling Street is an example of a Roman road which is still in use in Britain. Find it on the map at the end of the Stage to see what settlements it connects.
Obviously, the Roman invasion had a major impact on many of us; people lost loved ones, sustained life-changing injuries, had property seized and often, like me, were enslaved. The general pattern of everyday life for a lot of people, however, did not change much after the invasion. Most people still live in the countryside and farm the land much as they always have. A typical small farm belonging to a native Briton provides for the basic needs of the household, with perhaps a little extra left over for trade.

Our houses are still often a single round room where everyone lives, works, sleeps and eats. There are no windows, and only one low, wide doorway. The open fire in the centre of the room provides light, heat and somewhere to cook; it can become horribly smoky if you aren’t careful though!

Roundhouses like these minimised heat loss through the walls, which were usually made of wattle and daub attached to a wooden frame (as shown on the bottom left). The steeply sloping thatched roof allowed rain and snow to run off quickly.
About twenty to thirty years after the invasion of AD 43, simple ‘villas’ began to appear in the countryside. Such country estates were not a holiday retreat but the centre of a working farm community. The majority of the estates discovered in Britain were probably the property not of Romans but of wealthier native Britons. The villas generally had only four or five rooms, sometimes linked by a corridor; they were built mainly of timber and wattle and daub, with roofs of stone slabs, tiles, or thatch. These early villas are very similar to those found in Roman Gaul and the Britons may have learnt the new building techniques required from Gallic builders and craftsmen.

Some of these early villas were built on the sites of British roundhouses. The earliest known example of a Roman-style stone building dates from AD 75–100 and is in fact located within a late Iron Age enclosure. This site (The Ditches in Gloucestershire) also contains evidence of a roundhouse built around the same time. The villa may have been a way for the people who lived there to express their acceptance of the new Roman social order and way of living while maintaining a link to their local area and community. People did not simply abandon their culture and replace it with that of the Romans.

Later villas were often more complicated and were built mostly of stone; the grandest might contain long colonnades, underfloor heating, an ornamental garden, mosaics and a set of baths. Often these larger, later villas were extensions of earlier, smaller ones; a good example is the villa at Lullingstone in Kent. When it was initially built (some time before AD 100) it consisted of a block of four rooms with a corridor along the front, wings at either end and a deep cellar. In the second half of the second century a bath suite was added as well as additional extra rooms on the northern side of the main house. These extra rooms were demolished and replaced in the third century (including underfloor heating) and an audience chamber was created. The cellar had become a place of worship, and a granary and temple-mausoleum were also added. In the fourth century the villa reached its peak when spectacular mosaics were laid, a grand dining room was added and the area above the cellar became a ‘house-church’ in which were found the only known paintings from Roman Britain containing Christian symbolism. At some point in the fifth century the villa seems to have been abandoned after a fire.
Large villas like mine provide much of the industry of the local area: market-gardening, fruit-growing, the wool and dye industries, potters, and even the raising of hunting dogs like the one Togidubnus sent as a gift. Home-grown products such as grain, wool, leather, meat, eggs, timber and honey can be traded for shellfish, salt, wine, pottery and ironware. My estate manager, Varica, handles such things.

Villas are therefore surrounded by workshops, barns, living quarters for labourers and sheds for animals. They also need to be built somewhere practical, not just somewhere pretty. A nearby supply of running water, shelter from the cold north and east winds and easy access to roads are all important considerations.

Britannia produced a lot of wealth for Romans like Salvius but also for some native Britons who were able to make the most of new trading opportunities. Items like grain, hunting dogs and metals (iron, gold, tin and lead) could be exported and in return Britain imported goods such as wine and oil from Rome and the rest of the empire.

Map showing the locations of major Roman settlements and the roads that connected them. Also labelled are the names of important British tribes and some of the key metals that could be mined.
Many Britons suffered severely at the hands of the Romans; others became very wealthy and powerful; others again were hardly affected at all. Many no doubt had mixed feelings about becoming part of the Roman Empire. Regardless of their opinions and the degree to which they embraced ‘Romanness’, they and their descendants were to be part of the Roman Empire for nearly 400 years.

Thinking point 9: Think back to the quotation from Tacitus about Agricola’s attempts to impose a Roman way of life on the Britons. What reasons might there be for some Britons to embrace Roman culture? Why might others have resisted?

The trading relationship between Britain and the Roman Empire pre-dates the establishment of Britannia as a province. For example, a wealthy Briton who died shortly before the Roman conquest was already importing wine. He had jars (amphorae) of it buried with him.

Enquiry: How ‘Roman’ was ‘Roman Britain’?

You may wish to consider the following:

- Agricola’s promotion of Roman culture
- who came to Britain: their origins, status and roles
- Roman infrastructure including cities, towns and roads
- roundhouses and villas
- wealth and trade
- aspects of continuity and change
- the individual experiences of different people.
Vocabulary checklist 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adveniō, advenīre, advēnī</td>
<td>arrive</td>
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<tr>
<td>apud</td>
<td>among, at the house of</td>
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<tr>
<td>attonitus</td>
<td>astonished</td>
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<tr>
<td>celer</td>
<td>quick, fast</td>
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<tr>
<td>decōrus</td>
<td>right, proper</td>
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<tr>
<td>dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēvī</td>
<td>destroy</td>
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<td>difficilis</td>
<td>difficult</td>
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<tr>
<td>dōnum</td>
<td>present, gift</td>
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<td>fessus</td>
<td>tired</td>
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<tr>
<td>inimīcus</td>
<td>enemy</td>
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<tr>
<td>ipse, ipsa</td>
<td>himself, herself</td>
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<td>iste</td>
<td>that</td>
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<td>liberī</td>
<td>children</td>
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<td>husband</td>
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<td>necesse</td>
<td>necessary</td>
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<td>nūllus</td>
<td>not any, no</td>
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<td>num?</td>
<td>surely ... not?</td>
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<td>quamquam</td>
<td>although</td>
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<td>-que</td>
<td>and</td>
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<td>redeō, redīre, redīi</td>
<td>go back, return</td>
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<tr>
<td>simulac, simulat-que</td>
<td>as soon as</td>
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<td>ubi</td>
<td>when</td>
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Detail from the gravestone of Longinus, a Roman cavalryman born in Thrace, who retired to Camulodunum (modern Colchester). A conquered Briton cowers beneath the horse’s hooves.