

## Chapter 1 : The Roman Invasion of Britain by Graham Webster

*The Roman conquest of Britain was a gradual process, beginning effectively in AD 43 under Emperor Claudius, whose general Aulus Plautius served as first governor of Roman Britain (Latin: Britannia). Great Britain had already frequently been the target of invasions, planned and actual, by forces of the Roman Republic and Roman Empire.*

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 77. 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 Forth-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 79, 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 90-110 AD. 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-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 the Hadrianic border was briefly extended north to the Forth-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 175, 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 conquest of Britain - Wikipedia

*Britain was regarded with some mystical awe by the Romans, and at first Claudius' troops, 40, of them, refused to disembark from the invasion boats. Once they screwed up their courage, however, they made a good job of it, sweeping up from the landing place at Richborough in modern Kent in a three pronged attack.*

The History Learning Site, 16 Mar The Romans arrived in Britain in 55 BC. The leader of the Roman Army in Gaul, Julius Caesar, decided that he had to teach the Britons a lesson for helping the Gauls – hence his invasion. Caesar had planned to land in Dover itself, but had to change his plan as many Briton soldiers had gathered on the cliffs ready to fight off the invaders. Even so, the Britons followed the Romans to their landing place and a fierce fight took place on the beach. The Romans were forced to fight in the water as the Britons stormed down the beach. Caesar was impressed with the fighting qualities of the Britons: These dangers frightened our soldiers who were not used to battles of this kind, with the results that they do not show the same speed and enthusiasm as they usually did in battles on dry land. But it was clear to Caesar that the Britons were anything but a pushover and by the end of the year, the Romans had withdrawn to Gaul. If a full-scale invasion was to take place, the Romans would need far more men in their invasion force. Caesar returned the next year in 54 BC. This time he had 30, soldiers and the Britons were not prepared to fight the Romans on the beach. This gave the Romans an opportunity to establish themselves as a military force in Britain. Once they had done this, they took on Briton tribes one by one. This encouraged the Gauls to rise up against the Romans and Caesar had to leave Britain with his army to put down the rebellion in Gaul. The Roman Army did not return to Britain for over 90 years. However, traders from Rome did come to Britain and traded with the tribes that lived there. They realised that Britain was potentially a very wealthy place and if the island was properly controlled by the Romans, Rome itself could do very well out of it. The Romans invaded Britain in AD This was not as a punishment for helping the Gauls. It was to take over the island. The Romans were to stay for many years. The emperor Claudius sent an army of 40, men. The emperor sent not only foot soldiers but cavalry as well. Many tribes in Britain realised the sheer power of this army and made peace quickly with the Romans. Some took on the might of the Roman army. These clashes went on for many years and in parts of Britain, the Romans never actually gained full control. Though the Roman army has achieved fame for its effectiveness as a fighting force, the Britons were skilled and ferocious warriors. Caesar, in particular, was impressed by their skill with chariots: First of all, the charioteers drive all over the field hurling javelins. Generally, the horses and the noise of the wheels are enough to terrify the enemy and throw them into confusion, as soon as they have got through the cavalry, the warriors jump down from their chariots and fight on foot. Meanwhile, the charioteers then move away and place their chariots in such a way that the warriors can easily get back on them if they are hard pressed by the size of the enemy. So they combine the easy movement of cavalry with the staying power of foot soldiers. Regular practice makes them so skilful that they can control their horses at a full gallop, even on a steep slope. And they can stop and turn them in a moment. The warriors can then run along the chariot pole, stand on the yoke and get back into the chariot as quick as lightning.

## Chapter 3 : The Roman Invasion of Britain: When and Why? - Primary Facts

*Around 2,000 years ago, Britain was ruled by tribes of people called the Celts. But this was about to change. For around a century, the Roman army had been building an Empire across Europe.*

How did the Romans change Britain? The city of Rome was under attack and the empire was falling apart, so the Romans had to leave to take care of matters back home. After they left, the country fell into chaos. Native tribes and foreign invaders battled each other for power. Many of the Roman towns in Britain crumbled away as people went back to living in the countryside. But even after they were gone, the Romans left their mark all over the country. They gave us new towns, plants, animals, a new religion and ways of reading and counting. When the Romans arrived in AD43, they introduced new ideas and ways of living to Britain. Watch the video to find out more. From stinging nettles to sewers - find out how the Romans changed Britain Roman roads Britain had no proper roads before the Romans - there were just muddy tracks. So the Romans built new roads all across the landscape - over 16,000 miles in fact! The Romans knew that the shortest distance from one place to another is a straight line. So they made all their roads as straight as possible to get around quickly. They built their roads on foundations of clay, chalk and gravel. They laid bigger flat stones on top. Roman roads bulged in the middle and had ditches either side, to help the rainwater drain off. Some Roman roads have been converted into motorways and main roads we use today. You can still find a few places where the original Roman road is still visible, too. Bits of Roman road can still be seen. Soldiers and carts used this cobbled road to travel between Manchester and Yorkshire. Below you can see a few famous places where you can still see Roman remains in Britain. What Roman ruins are there? It ran for 73 miles from Wallsend-on-Tyne to Bowness. People came here to get fit, get clean and meet friends. The Romans realised it was a good place for a warm dip, because the water is naturally heated by the rocks deep below the ground. Archaeologists have uncovered barracks and a bathhouse inside. There was also a nearby harbour and this amphitheatre, where soldiers were entertained by gladiator fights. Before the Romans came, the native Britons were pagans. They believed in lots of different gods and spirits. They let the Britons worship their own gods, as long as they were respectful of the Roman ones too. Christianity arrived in Britain during the second century. At first only a few people became Christian. When Christianity started to get popular, the Romans banned it. Christians refused to worship the Roman emperor and anyone who was caught following the new religion could be whipped or even executed. By the beginning of the 4th century, more and more people were following Christianity. By 313, Christianity was the official Roman religion, but pagan beliefs were still popular in Britain. Constantine was the first Roman emperor to allow Christians to worship. He later became a Christian himself. Language, writing and numbers Before the Romans came, very few people could read or write in Britain. Instead, information was usually passed from person to person by word of mouth. The Romans wrote down their history, their literature and their laws. However, it only really caught on in the new Roman towns - most people living in the countryside stuck to their old Celtic language. Our coins are based on a Roman design and some of the lettering is in Latin. Some clocks today still use Roman numbers. Can you tell what the time is? How did the Romans change towns? The Romans introduced the idea of living in big towns and cities. Roman towns were laid out in a grid. After the Romans, the next group of people to settle in Britain were the Anglo-Saxons. They were farmers, not townspeople. They abandoned many of the Roman towns and set up new kingdoms, but some Roman towns continued to exist and still exist today. When the Romans invaded, they built a fort beside the River Thames. This was where traders came from all over the empire to bring their goods to Britain. It grew and grew, until it was the most important city in Roman Britain. The Romans built walls around many of their towns. Some are even standing today, like this one in Colchester.

## Chapter 4 : The Roman Conquest of Britain - All Empires

*The Romans - Invasion of Britain The Romans The Roman invasion of Britain was a determined military and political effort to project Roman power in the Northeastern Atlantic.*

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 Atrebatas 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 5 : Horrible Histories HHTV News: The Roman Invasion of Britain report - Video Dailymotion

*"The Roman Invasion of Britain" is a really enjoyable presentation. I had read in one of the reviews that somebody thought the DVD quality was lacking in some way. But, I didn't find anything wrong with the DVD quality.*

Three other men of appropriate rank to command legions are known from the sources to have been involved in the invasion. Eutropius mentions Gnaeus Sentius Saturninus , although as a former consul he may have been too senior, and perhaps accompanied Claudius later. Site of the Claudian invasion of Britain The main invasion force under Aulus Plautius crossed in three divisions. The port of departure is usually taken to have been Boulogne Latin: Bononia , and the main landing at Rutupiae Richborough , on the east coast of Kent. Neither of these locations is certain. Dio does not mention the port of departure, and although Suetonius says that the secondary force under Claudius sailed from Boulogne, [9] it does not necessarily follow that the entire invasion force did. Richborough has a large natural harbour which would have been suitable, and archaeology shows Roman military occupation at about the right time. However, Dio says the Romans sailed east to west, and a journey from Boulogne to Richborough is south to north. Some historians [10] suggest a sailing from Boulogne to the Solent , landing in the vicinity of Noviomagus Chichester or Southampton , in territory formerly ruled by Verica. An alternative explanation might be a sailing from the mouth of the Rhine to Richborough, which would be east to west. A substantial British force met the Romans at a river crossing thought to be near Rochester on the River Medway. The battle raged for two days. Gnaeus Hosidius Geta was almost captured, but recovered and turned the battle so decisively that he was awarded the " Roman triumph ". The British were pushed back to the Thames. They were pursued by the Romans across the river causing some Roman losses in the marshes of Essex. Whether the Romans made use of an existing bridge for this purpose or built a temporary one is uncertain. At least one division of auxiliary Batavian troops swam across the river as a separate force. Togodumnus died shortly after the battle on the Thames. Plautius halted and sent word for Claudius to join him for the final push. However, Claudius was no military man. Cassius Dio relates that he brought war elephants and heavy armaments which would have overawed any remaining native resistance. Eleven tribes of South East Britain surrendered to Claudius and the Romans prepared to move further west and north. The Romans established their new capital at Camulodunum and Claudius returned to Rome to celebrate his victory. Caratacus escaped and would continue the resistance further west. Campaigns under Aulus Plautius, focused on the commercially valuable southeast of Britain. Vespasian took a force westwards subduing tribes and capturing oppida as he went, going at least as far as Exeter , which would appear to have become an early base for Leg. Lindum Colonia and within four years of the invasion it is likely that an area south of a line from the Humber to the Severn Estuary was under Roman control. It is more likely that the border between Roman and Iron Age Britain was less direct and more mutable during this period. Late in 47 the new governor of Britain, Publius Ostorius Scapula , began a campaign against the tribes of modern-day Wales , and the Cheshire Gap. The Silures of southeast Wales caused considerable problems to Ostorius and fiercely defended the Welsh border country. Caratacus himself was defeated in the Battle of Caer Caradoc and fled to the Roman client tribe of the Brigantes who occupied the Pennines. Their queen, Cartimandua was unable or unwilling to protect him however given her own truce with the Romans and handed him over to the invaders. Ostorius died and was replaced by Aulus Didius Gallus who brought the Welsh borders under control but did not move further north or west, probably because Claudius was keen to avoid what he considered a difficult and drawn-out war for little material gain in the mountainous terrain of upland Britain. When Nero became emperor in 54, he seems to have decided to continue the invasion and appointed Quintus Veranius as governor, a man experienced in dealing with the troublesome hill tribes of Anatolia. Veranius and his successor Gaius Suetonius Paulinus mounted a successful campaign across Wales, famously destroying the druidical centre at Mona or Anglesey in 60 at what historians later called the Menai Massacre. Final occupation of Wales was postponed however when the rebellion of Boudica forced the Romans to return to the south east. Cartimandua was forced to ask for Roman aid following a rebellion by her husband Venutius. Quintus Petillius Cerialis took his legions from Lincoln as far as York and defeated Venutius near Stanwick

around This resulted in the already Romanised Brigantes and Parisii tribes being further assimilated into the empire proper. Frontinus was sent into Roman Britain in 74 to succeed Quintus Petillius Cerialis as governor of that island. He subdued the Silures and other hostile tribes of Wales , establishing a new base at Caerleon for Legio II Augusta Isca Augusta and a network of smaller forts fifteen to twenty kilometres apart for his auxiliary units. During his tenure, he probably established the fort at Pumsaint in west Wales , largely to exploit the gold deposits at Dolaucothi. He retired in 78, and later he was appointed water commissioner in Rome. The new governor was Gnaeus Julius Agricola , made famous through the highly laudatory biography of him written by his son-in-law, Tacitus. Roman military organization in the north. Arriving in mid-summer of 78, Agricola found several previously defeated peoples had re-established their independence. The first to be dealt with were the Ordovices of north Wales, who had destroyed a cavalry ala of Roman auxiliaries stationed in their territory. Knowing the terrain from his prior military service in Britain, he was able to move quickly to defeat and virtually exterminate them. He then invaded Anglesey , forcing the inhabitants to sue for peace. Tacitus praises both Cerialis and his successor Julius Frontinus governor 75â€”78 , but provides no additional information on events prior to 79 regarding the lands or peoples living north of the Brigantes. The Romans certainly would have followed up their initial victory over the Brigantes in some manner. In particular, archaeology has shown the Romans campaigned and built military camps in the north along Gask Ridge , controlling the glens that provided access to and from the Scottish Highlands , and also throughout the Scottish Lowlands in northeastern Scotland. Agricola in Caledonia[ edit ] Tacitus says that after a combination of force and diplomacy quieted discontent among the Britons who had been conquered previously, Agricola built forts in their territories in In 80 he marched to the Firth of Tay some historians hold that he stopped along the Firth of Forth in that year , not returning south until 81, at which time he consolidated his gains in the new lands that he had conquered, and in the rebellious lands that he had re-conquered. Existing forts were strengthened and new ones planted in northeastern Scotland along the Highland Line , consolidating control of the glens that provided access to and from the Scottish Highlands. The line of military communication and supply along southeastern Scotland and northeastern England i. In southern-most Caledonia, the lands of the Selgovae approximating to modern Dumfriesshire and the Stewartry of Kirkcudbright were heavily planted with forts, not only establishing effective control there, but also completing a military enclosure of south-central Scotland most of the Southern Uplands , Teviotdale , and western Tweeddale. His successors are not named in any surviving source, but it seems they were unable or unwilling to further subdue the far north. The fortress at Inchtuthil was dismantled before its completion and the other fortifications of the Gask Ridge in Perthshire , erected to consolidate the Roman presence in Scotland in the aftermath of Mons Graupius , were abandoned within the space of a few years. It is equally likely that the costs of a drawn-out war outweighed any economic or political benefit and it was more profitable to leave the Caledonians alone and only under de jure submission. Failure to conquer Caledonia[ edit ] Main article: Scotland during the Roman Empire Roman occupation was withdrawn to a line subsequently established as one of the *limites singulari* of the empire i. An attempt was made to push this line north to the River Clyde - River Forth area in when the Antonine Wall was constructed. This was once again abandoned after two decades and only subsequently re-occupied on an occasional basis. Roman troops, however, penetrated far into the north of modern Scotland several more times. Indeed, there is a greater density of Roman marching camps in Scotland than anywhere else in Europe as a result of at least four major attempts to subdue the area. The most notable was in when the emperor Septimius Severus , claiming to be provoked by the belligerence of the Maeatae tribe, campaigned against the Caledonian Confederacy , a coalition of Brittonic Pictish [21] tribes of the north of Britain. He used the three legions of the British garrison augmented by the recently formed 2nd Parthica legion , imperial guards with cavalry support, and numerous auxiliaries supplied from the sea by the British fleet, the Rhine fleet and two fleets transferred from the Danube for the purpose. He repaired and reinforced the wall with a degree of thoroughness that led most subsequent Roman authors to attribute the construction of the wall to him. It was during the negotiations to purchase the truce necessary to secure the Roman retreat to the wall that the first recorded utterance, attributable with any reasonable degree of confidence, to a native of Scotland was made as recorded by Dio Cassius. Later excursions into Scotland by the Romans were generally

limited to the scouting expeditions of exploratores in the buffer zone that developed between the walls, trading contacts, bribes to purchase truces from the natives, and eventually the spread of Christianity. The degree to which the Romans interacted with the Gaelic speaking island of Hibernia modern Ireland is still unresolved amongst archaeologists in Ireland. The successes and failures of the Romans in subduing the peoples of Britain are still represented in the political geography of the British Isles today.

## Chapter 6 : BBC - History - Ancient History in depth: An Overview of Roman Britain

*Rome's British invasion and nearly hundred-year rule was a paradoxical campaign of annihilation and growth. This three-part exploration of the Roman Empire's occupation of Britain examines why they attacked, where they conquered, how they industrialized and exploited the land and what made them vulnerable to the revolt that signaled the ultimate fall of Rome.*

Caesar was then leading the Roman armies in Gaul and the Britons had been sending aid to their kinsmen the Celts of Gaul. Caesar landed about 6 miles from Dover in present day Kent, and in the summer of 55 BC fought several battles with the Celtic tribes of southern Britain, he returned the following summer defeating the British tribal chief Cassivellaunus. After exacting a promise of tribute from the defeated tribes, Caesar left Britain to to put down the rebellion in Gaul. Nearly a century later, in 43 A. Caratacus, king of the Catavellauni tribe , which occupied the area to the north of the River Thames, invaded the territory of his neighbours the Atrebates, whose ruler, Verica, fled to Rome and appealed for aid providing Claudius with the excuse he needed to invade. The southern prong, consisting of the Second Legion, commanded by the future Emperor Vespasian marched through Sussex and Hampshire, the lands of the Atrebates tribe, who were friendly to Rome. The Durotriges tribe of Dorset offered the first real opposition to the Romans. The invaders took the hill fort of Hod Hill, and built a military camp in one corner of the enclosure, the remains of which can still be seen today. Then they pushed on to present day Exeter. The Celtic tribesmen made a stand at the huge earthworks of Maiden Castle in Dorset but were defeated with such ruthless efficiency that the catapult bolts used to subdue them can still be dug out of the ground today. The two other Roman prongs of attack marched west towards north Wales and north to York. By the summer of 43 AD Claudius himself was able to land in Britain, he entered the Catuvellaunian capital of Camulodunum Colchester in triumph and received the submission of twelve British chieftains. Caractacus , chief of the Catuvellauni adopted guerrilla tactics to resist the Roman general Aulus Plautius. He and his brother Togodumnus lost much of the south-east after being defeated in two crucial battles on the rivers Medway and Thames. Some tribes, realising that the end was near, made peace with the invaders, but Caractacus fought on. The Romans marched on Wales and Caratacus proceeded north in attempt to join forces with the fierce Ordovices of North Wales. He was finally defeated at the battle of Caer Caradoc by Scapula in 51A. D in the mountains of North Wales in the territory of the Ordovices. With the capture of Caratacus, much of southern Britain from the Humber to the Severn was pacified and garrisoned throughout the 50s. The first Roman capital of the new province of Britannia was established at Colchester. However, the Romans realised the strategic importance of the River Thames as a communication and transport highway. A small existing settlement, Londinium London , was built up to become a trade and administrative centre. The name "Londinium" is thought to be pre-Roman and possibly pre-Celtic. Before the arrival of the Roman legions in Britain, the area consisted of open countryside and marshland traversed by streams such as Walbrook. Londinium was established at a point where the River Thames was narrow enough to build a bridge, but deep enough for ships to sail into. The remains of a huge Roman pier base for a bridge were discovered in , close to the modern London Bridge. Early Roman London occupied a relatively small area, roughly equivalent to Hyde Park in size at acres. Londinium became the hub at the centre of a major network of roads constructed primarily to the movement of troops and administrative communication. They also oversaw the expansion of trade that swiftly made London the most important town, and eventually the capital, of the new province of Britannia. The Romans adopted a policy in Britain that had been extremely successful elsewhere, rather than conquer by force, they established "client kingdoms" on the borders of territory they directly controlled. This meant that some Celtic tribes, in return for not being overrun, agreed to ally themselves to Rome. Treaties with tribes in the north and in East Anglia provided buffer areas while the process of subduing resistance elsewhere was ongoing. The Druids, the only men powerful enough to organise opposition to Roman rule throughout the Celtic tribes, were outlawed. In AD 60 the Roman general Gaius Suetonius Paulinus, in attempt to break the power of the druids, crossed the Menai Strait, to attack the druids who had rallied in their stronghold of the Island of Mona or Ynys Mon Anglesey off the

mainland of North Wales where they made a last stand against the conquering legions of Rome and attempted to defend themselves by using magical arts. After the Roman victory at the battle of Mona, many of the druids were massacred, no quarter was given and the shrine and the sacred groves were destroyed. The surviving Druids fled to Ireland taking with them the Bardic Mantle to avoid disclosure and their ritual observances and magical arts went underground. Prasutagus, ruler of the Iceni tribe, who occupied roughly what is now Norfolk, ruled as an independent vassal of Rome. Prasutagus died in around 59 AD, bequeathing his lands jointly to his daughters and the Roman Emperor, however the lands of the Iceni were annexed to Rome and when his widow Boudicca protested she was flogged, her daughters were raped. In the year 60 or 61 A.D. Striking at symbols of the hated Roman occupation, the British rebels marched on the poorly defended Roman colony of Camulodunum Colchester, which was the former capital of the Trinovantes, the city was totally destroyed. Londinium was strategically abandoned to the rebels who burnt it down, no prisoners were taken and no mercy was shown, all those left within the city were slaughtered. The victorious rebels then turned on Verulamium St Albans, a city largely populated by Britons who had cooperated with the Romans, which was also destroyed. He clashed with the Celtic army at an unidentified location, probably in the West Midlands, somewhere along the Roman road now known as Watling Street. By the end of the day 80, Iceni lay dead on the battlefield. As a result of the rebellion, the Romans strengthened their military presence in Britain and also lessened the oppressiveness of their rule. Construction probably commenced on the wall in A.D.

*The Roman Invasion of Britain The Roman Empire, founded according to the legend by Romulus and Remus, extended across large portions of Europe, Asia and Africa and successfully imposed its highly developed civilization on the conquered lands.*

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 iudicis. 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.

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 54-68 both there and in Flintshire , and not much later also in the Derbyshire lead field, freedmen—the representatives of Roman capital—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 8 : BBC - History - Overview: Roman Britain, 43 - AD

*The Roman invasion of Britain was a gradual process. Between Caesar's second invasion and the final invasion under the Emperor Claudius, Roman traders and merchants had established trading relationships with the Celtic tribes living in Britain.*

But this was about to change. For around a century, the Roman army had been building an Empire across Europe. Now it was coming for Britain! In AD43, the full might of the Roman army landed on the beaches in Kent. Over the next year it battled inland, storming through hillforts and chopping down anyone who stood in their way. They spread their culture, language and laws. Watch the video below to find out how Britain became part of the Roman Empire. Video Transcript down Why did the Romans invade Britain? Over 2, years ago, the Romans first arrived in Britain. Although that was way back in the past, many clues still survive which tell us what life was like during Roman times. From the remains of ancient forts to the jewellery, letters and household items still being dug up by archaeologists today. We can find out brilliant details of what they ate, what their homes looked like and even what they did for fun. And thanks to a book written all those years ago by the famous Roman commander, Julius Caesar, we also know one reason why the Romans wanted to come to Britain in the first place - they wanted to make use of the amazing natural resources to be found here. Caesar wrote, "The Britons have a huge number of cattle, they use gold coins or iron bars as their money, and produce tin and iron. Rome wanted to get its hand on all those British resources to make itself even richer. Britain was made up of different groups, or tribes, known as the Celts or native Britons. We get an idea of what the native Britons looked like thanks to a description of them in here. Then one of the warriors leaps from the chariot and fights on foot. He invaded the country twice, but he never actually managed to take over. That would have to wait until years later when the Emperor Claudius tried again and this time, he succeeded. And that is how we became part of the Roman Empire. Click on each image to discover which Roman emperors invaded Britain. Start activity How did the Celts fight back? When the Romans invaded, the Celtic tribes had to decide whether or not to fight back. If they made peace, they agreed to obey Roman laws and pay taxes. In return, they could keep their kingdoms. However, some Celtic leaders chose to fight. After years of heavy taxes and the Romans taking their land, some Celtic tribes were desperate for revenge. She raised a huge army and went on a rampage, burning the Roman towns of Colchester and London, before heading north to St Albans. When the Roman army heard about this, they turned back from their campaign in Wales to face Boudica. Both sides clashed in a fierce battle, but the Romans won. Find out why Queen Boudicca led a rebellion against the Romans Watch the video below to find out what happened when Queen Boudicca faced the Roman army. Meanwhile, the Roman army is busy conquering Wales. We must end their revolt once and for all. They use iron-tipped spears and long slashing swords, but wear little armour. The Roman army is well armed, very skilled at working together and heavily protected by armour. Britons outnumber the Romans by up to to-1, but the Roman soldiers are highly trained. Boudicca and the Britons are defeated. Around 80, Britons are killed. Rome will control most of Britain for the next years.

## Chapter 9 : Roman Britain - the Roman invasion

*Roman Britain Timeline Chronology Below is a Roman Britain timeline, featuring the most important events in the Roman occupation of Britain, from Julius Caesar's first attempts at invasion to the fall of the island to the Saxons to the military success of the Britons, leading to the legends of King Arthur.*

Classical Mediterranean and Europe: From the time Julius Caesar first set foot on the island until the time Pax Romana was fully installed, it would take more than years. It would see much war, many revolts and much bloodshed. The earliest people are thought to have come to Britain about , years ago. The Celtic tribes invaded from Europe after about BC, many with long term roots there as well as in northern France. They developed knowledge of how to make stronger weapons and tools using iron: There were at least seven different tribes living throughout the island. The tribes had their own coinages, there was wealth from copper and tin and commerce was successful. Gaelic, Irish, Welsh and Cornish languages are all connected to the language of the Celts. Caesar and Britain Julius Caesar became governor and military commander of the already Roman provinces of Gaul. From 58 BC to 47 BC. He led a number of military campaigns throughout Gaul now modern day France, Belgium, and parts of Germany, Holland, and Switzerland To preserve Gaul as a province, Caesar determined to separate it from its foreign enemies and allies. After crushing the Germanic tribes, enemies of Gaul, Caesar decided to invade Britain, an ally of Gaul. The British islanders had helped the Gauls across the chanell to fight against Caesar. Britain, unconquered and close at hand, would prove a dangerous example of independence to Gaul, and therefore must be silenced and taught the power of Rome.. Caesar probably planned an expedition to Britain in 56 BC, a year when the Armorican tribes in the coast of Brittany revolted against the Romans with aid from the tribes of southern Britain. The operation was further delayed by battles with the Morini and Menapi, Belgic tribes who controlled the Straits of Dover. The Britons met the legionaries at the beach with a large force, including warriors in horse-drawn chariots. After an initial skirmish, the British war leaders sought a truce, and handed over hostages. Four days later, however, when Roman ships with cavalry soldiers and horses tried to make the channel crossing, they were driven back to France by bad weather. It was also disastrous for the planned reconnaissance since the legionary soldiers were forced to repair the ships and were vulnerable to the British forces who began new attacks. Because of thier immobility, the Roman legions had to survive in a coastal zone which they found both politically hostile, and naturally fertile. The need to get food locally resulted in scouting and foraging missions into the nearby countryside. Caesar reports abundant grain crops along a heavily populated coastline; and frequent encounters with British warriors in chariots. When the repairs to most of the ships where completed Caesar ordered a return to Gaul, thus ending his short viist. While this excursion was unsuccessful due to storms and the resulting damage to his ships, Caesar would return during the following year. In July of 54 BC, Caesar made the trip with ships transporting five legions, 2, cavalry troops and their horses plus a baggage train. They sailed from Boulogne at night on July 6. He landed unopposed in an area between Sandwich and Deal. Upon seeing the large size of the Roman force, the natives moved inland with Caesar and and his troops in pursuit, marching a further 12 miles inland. While this activity held the Romans attention, the British obtained a new commander, Cassivellaunus. Cassivellaunus used guerrilla warfare tactics against his Roman visitors. However, he was not well-liked by a number of local tribes, and as a result, the Trinovantes, Cassi, Ancalites, Cenimagni, Segontiaci, and Bibroci tribes switched their allegiances to the Romans. Caesar would leave Britain in September of 54 AD. Caesar never again came to Britain. For the next few years, he was at war with Pompey, and then he was assassinated, just when he was on the verge of becoming emperor. The next Roman invasion of Britain - and the start of over four centuries of occupation - would not take place for another 97 years until AD 43 under the command of Claudius. The emperor started off his reign with some instability and a lack of support from the people. He was in dire need of a military victory to sure up his public image. In order to achieve this he decided to invade Britain, a place that Julius Caesar visited but never ended up conquering. The only real benefit from the expedition was that the records helped Claudius plan his invasion of Britain. Claudius sent in four legions under the control of Aulus Plautius, who became the first governor of

Roman Britain.. They land at Richborough Kent for a full-scale invasion of the island. The main army was put ashore at Richborough, ventured across the Medway and the Thames and captured Colchester, capital of the Catuvellaunian kingdom. The Romans moved north through England and Wales but were stopped by the fierce tribes which were living in what is now Scotland. In years after the initial invasion the Romans steadily expanded their control over the rest of southern Britain and into Wales. The Romans suppressed several revolts, one of which was led by Caratacus the leader of the Catuvellauni in 47 and another by Boudicca, queen of the Iceni, in 60 AD. Emperor Claudius died suddenly in 54 AD. His stepson, Nero, came to the throne. In his writings, Suetonius says that Nero once considered abandoning Britain as it was taken too many resources to hold the country. Resources that could be better used to expand the Roman Empire. With the death of Claudius, his friends and advisors also disappeared from the scene, though not in such extreme ways. Claudius was elevated to the level of a God, but also allowed him to become a subject of ridicule. Such is the attitude of the Romans to treat a late Emperor in this manner. Claudius had an outstanding military reputation. The Romans were a very proud race and believed that public image was paramount. If Nero had withdrawn from Britain it could have been viewed as a deformation of Claudius and all the victories he had accomplished. Maybe it was for this reason that Nero stayed with the British situation. At first the Romans attempted to gain control of all of Britain with their allies, the Brigantes. But in 69 an anti-Roman faction gained control of the tribe and as a result forced the Romans to invade and take it under Roman rule. In 79 Agricola embarked on a voyage to conquer Scotland. He had fought four years and gathered several significant victories including a great victory over the natives at Mons Graupius. However at this point there was trouble at the Danube and Domitian was forced to withdraw his troops from Britain. By the end of the century the frontier had been pushed back to the Tyne-Solway isthmus, where Hadrian was to build his wall.

**Caratacus Revolt** An historical person with some legendary accretions, Caratacus also spelled Caractacus was the king of the Catuvellauni at the time of the Roman invasion under their commander, Aulus Plautius.. He led the revolutionaries through the change in governors from Plautius to Publius Ostorius Scapula. In the winter of 47 AD. The new governor did not hesitate and confronted these insurrections not with the full might of the Roman army, but a number of lightly armed cohorts. The Iceni had been very much pro Roman during the invasion, and rebelled for the first time. The tribes were defeated after a fierce battle. He was now leader of the Silures of South Wales. Little did Ostorius know that Caratacus was later to be general commander of the opposition to Roman rule. His wife and daughter taken and his brother surrendered. Caratacus though fled north west to the Brigantes. This was a bad move, as the queen of the Brigantes, Cartimandua, was pro Roman. Not wanting to get on the wrong side of the Romans, she ordered that he be taken and given to the Romans. Caratacus and his family were sent to Rome where he was paraded in triumph and pardoned by Claudius and allowed to live out his life in Italy. But this was not the end of trouble in Britain for the Romans. The Romans now had a divided province with tribes both pro and anti Roman sharing borders. The country had to be calmed. The Senate was tiring of the situation in Britain and wanted it resolved before the Claudian image of victory that Rome was presenting would be damaged. A new governor was appointed with due speed. The new governor was Aulus Didius Gallus, a man with an impressive record who had been decorated for his successful campaigns in southern Russia. By the time Didius had reached Britain, the Silures had defeated a legion, something unheard of before. They were now making advances into Roman territory. The arrival of Didius did at least restore calm. This did not last and as soon as Didius had managed to restrain the Silures, then the Brigantes began to rise up. Venutius, husband of Queen Cartimandua of the Brigantes, was the best military leader in Britain after the capture of Caratacus. He had been placed in power by the Romans after the last Brigantian uprising. As he was leading this revolt, this now means that husband and wife were opposing each other. He leading the tribe in rebellion, and her trying to appease the Romans. The next governor was Quintus Veranius, who had received early promotion to this high status. He had been very successful in his campaigns on the eastern front of the Empire in Lycia and Pamphylia. He would without doubt have invaded Wales and spread north east to the Brigantes. There was only time for a few raids against the Silures, before he died suddenly in office. On his death bed, Veranius claimed that he could have conquered the whole province in two years. Two years being the normal length of stay in office for a governor. Suetonius Paullinus succeeded Veranius in this office. He too had a

strong reputation in military circles. He had been the first Roman general to make a crossing of the Atlas mountains in Mauretania and so was experienced in mountain warfare. This man had been the reason he had been chosen to lead the forages into Wales and the Pennines. This island had become the last point of retreat for the rebels.