






The Romans in Britain

Key to interactive features

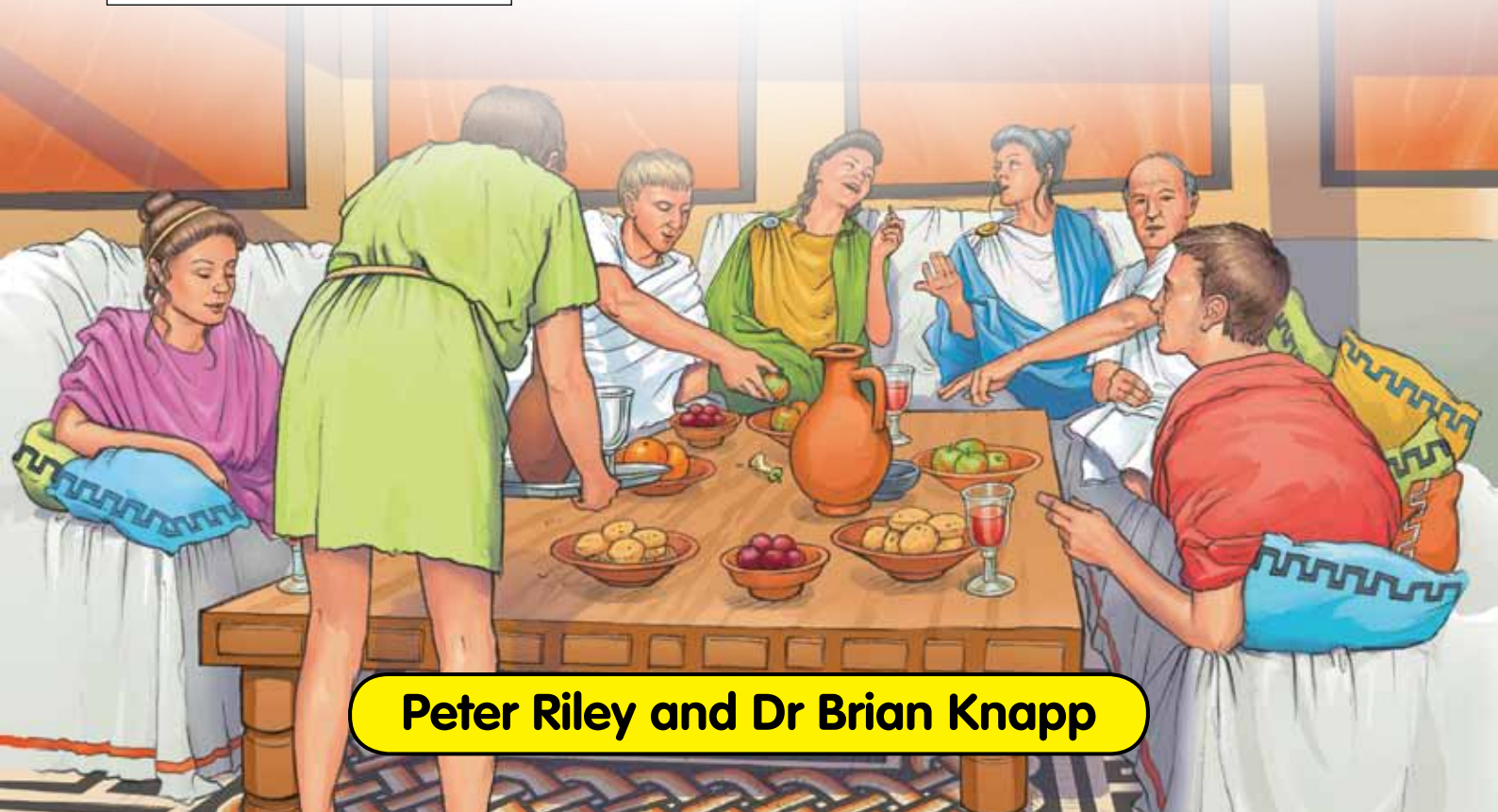
Press Teacher's Resources box right to go straight to Contents page. Click on any item in the Contents to go to that page. You will also find yellow arrows throughout that allow you to:

-  go to worksheet
-  go back to previous page
-  go forward to next page
-  go back to contents
-  go back to information for that topic

Teacher's Resources

Multimedia resources can be found at the 'Learning Centre':

www.CurriculumVisions.com



Peter Riley and Dr Brian Knapp

Curriculum Visions

A CVP Teacher's Resources
Interactive PDF

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Includes tried and tested ideas for planning your own Roman day on pages 10–15.

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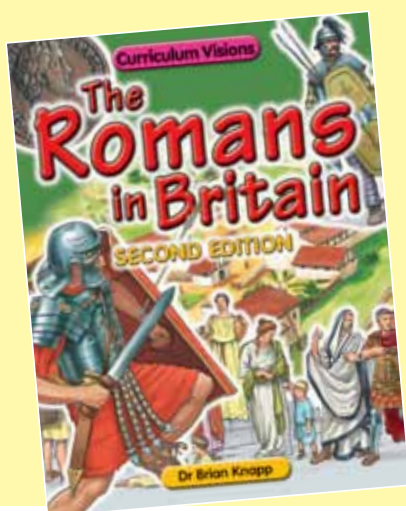
Section 1: Resources

Welcome to the Teacher's Resources for 'The Romans in Britain' Second Edition.

The Romans in Britain resources we provide are in a number of media:

1

The 48 page Curriculum Visions 'The Romans in Britain' Second Edition.



2

The 32 page Explorers title, 'Exploring ancient Rome'.



3

The Romans in Britain PosterCard Portfolio – key photographs and illustrations on two folded, double-sided and laminated sheets.



4

You can buy the supersaver pack that contains 1 copy of each book, the PosterCard Portfolio, and the Teacher's resources (what you are reading).





5

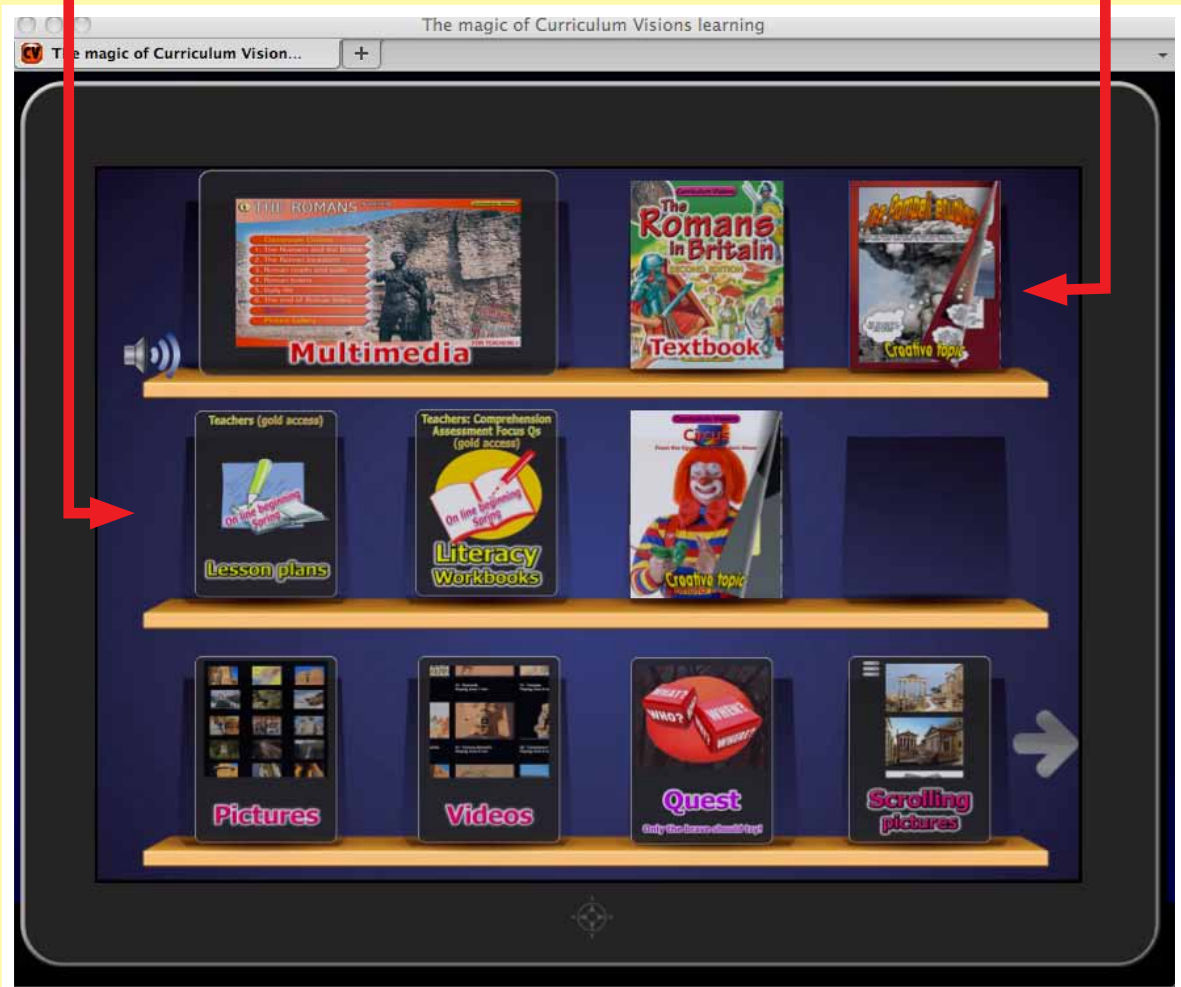
Our Learning Centre at www.curriculumvisions.com has almost everything you need to teach your primary curriculum in one convenient Virtual Learning Environment.

You can use support videos, e-books, picture and video galleries, plus additional Creative Topic books, graphic books called Storyboards, and workbooks. Together they cover all major curriculum areas.

All topics are easily accessible, and there is a built-in context search across all media.



You can also use our printed student books online as part of your subscription to the Learning Centre. There page-turning versions of every printed Curriculum Visions book for use on your whiteboard.





Section 1: 'The Romans in Britain' resources

▼ The Romans in Britain home screen

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN Curriculum Visions

Classroom Cinema

1. The Romans and the British
2. The Roman invasions
3. Roman roads and walls
4. Roman towns
5. Daily life
6. The end of Roman times

Quest

Picture Gallery



ROMANS 3. Roman roads, forts and walls Curriculum Visions

Screen 1/3

Roman forts

The Romans knew that the key to keeping the British under control was to make sure that they could put down any rebellion quickly.

So the first thing they did on capturing each new part of the country was to build a fort. Soon there was a network of forts across the country.

Each fort was the base for... of troops and their provision...

Find out more by clicking the picture.

Q: How did a Roman fort work?

2 videos!!

Visit the Cinema

▲ 'Classroom cinema' video

▲ Web site page

► Web site caption



Please note: screens are subject to change from those shown here.

Matching the curriculum

This pack of books, PosterCard Portfolio and web site aims to ensure that students:

- Find out about people and important events and developments from recent and more distant times.
- Make links across different periods of history.
- Learn about different aspects of local, British and world history.
- Have the chance to discuss why things happened or changed, and the results.
- Can carry out historical enquiries using a variety of sources of information, and look at how and why the past is interpreted in different ways.
- Can use their understanding of chronology and historical terms when talking or writing about the past.
- Learn about the experiences of people in the past, and why they acted as they did.
- Develop respect for and tolerance of other people and cultures.
- See how people in the past have changed the society in which they lived.
- Develop respect for evidence, and the ability to be critical of the evidence.
- Develop an understanding of right and wrong and the ability to handle moral dilemmas.
- Understand, and adjust for some popular myths and stereotypes.

Furthermore, because history provides so many opportunities for improving communication skills, the pack aims to provide a body of material that can be used to reinforce English studies and which could, for example, be used in a literacy hour.

Last, and by no means least, these history packs can be linked to many other subjects, particularly settlement and water (geography) through the *Curriculum Visions Places Pack* and *Water Pack*, and through the use of science where appropriate.

Curriculum Visions products are renowned as a successful way to help teachers to get children of all abilities, ages and ethnic backgrounds to develop confidence in themselves, and to make the most of their abilities through the wide range of materials, the different levels of reading skills represented on each page, and through the wide range of tasks in the photocopiable worksheets.

It should be noted that this material has been designed to be accessible by those teaching Romans in years 3/4 or 5/6 (SP4/5 or 6/7). This can be done with the help of the teacher by selective use of the worksheet material and by using the information in the student book to go in to the appropriate level of depth.

Linked resources



Section 2: Background and photocopiable worksheets

Introduction

Each spread of the student book is supported by background information and photocopiable worksheets in this *Teacher's Guide*. They have been designed to be a fast and efficient way of working through the study of Romans in Britain.

Variety and selection

Each photocopiable worksheet is supported by information on its facing page which includes a resources list (where appropriate), suggestions on how the worksheet may be used and outcomes that may be achieved. There are probably more worksheets than you would use with any particular class, so it is important to have a look through them all, and select which ones you wish to use to support your approach to the study of Romans in Britain.

Linking background and worksheet to the student book

Each section of background information and each worksheet has been given a unique number which is in a circle at the top of the page. This is related to the number of the spread in the book. For example, pages 4 and 5 are spread ① and pages 6 and 7 are spread ②. If there is more than one worksheet per student book spread, then they are labelled A, B, and so on. At the head of each worksheet are the relevant pages of *The Romans in Britain* for easy reference for students. They may find it useful to look back in the student book to help them with the activity on the worksheet. If the worksheet is testing understanding or evaluation of the information based on the spread, it will be essential for the students to use the student book with the worksheet. Some of the worksheets provide instructions

for practical activities which support the topic covered in the spread.

A closer look at the worksheets

Cross-curricular work

The worksheets provide a wide range of activities for the students. The aim of the worksheets is to help the students appreciate what it was like to live in Roman times.

Some of the worksheets look at how we gather evidence using simple archaeological investigations and how the results of these investigations can be interpreted. Many students enjoy visiting excavations at Roman villas and forts and also enjoy popular television programmes about archaeology.

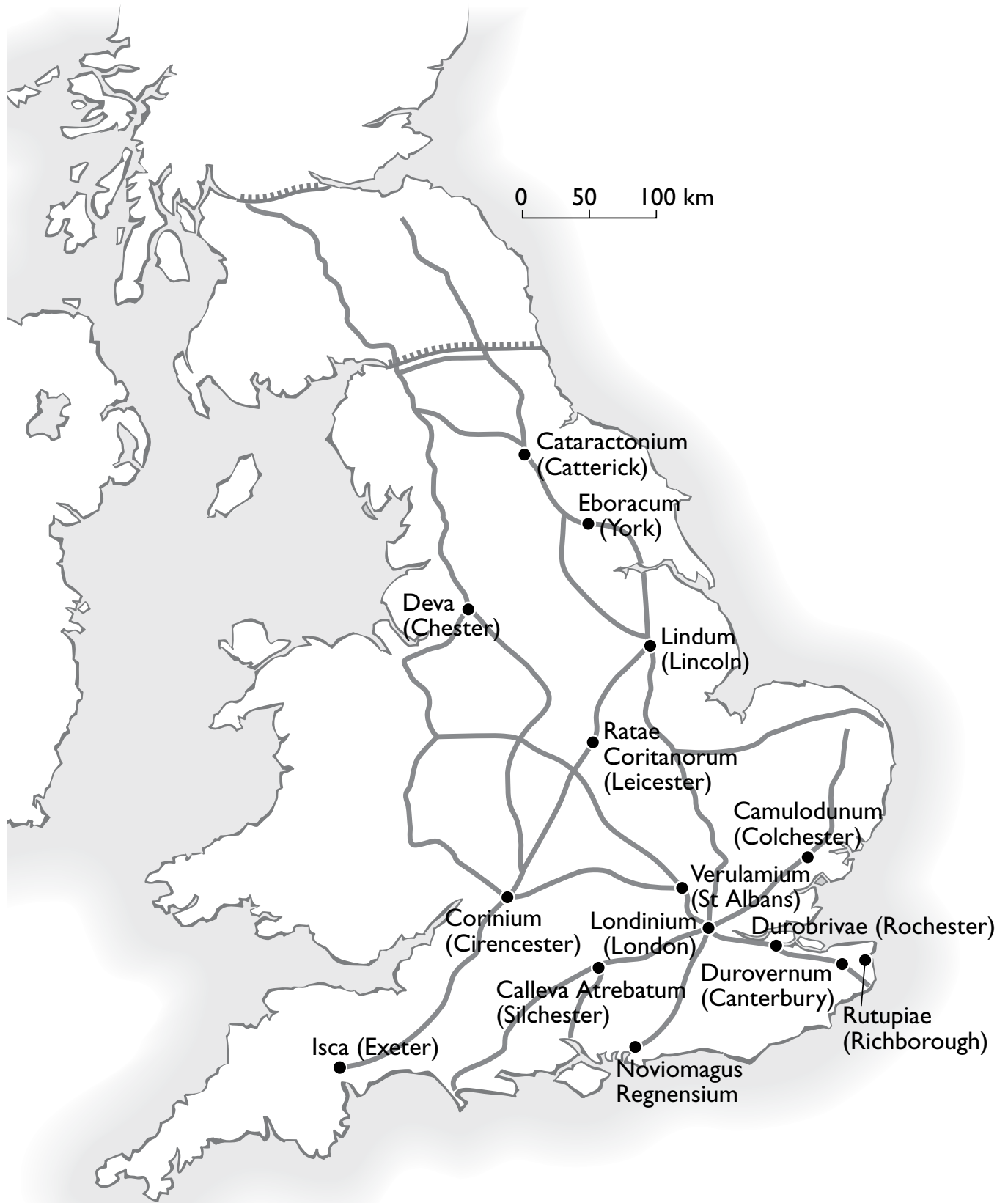
The purpose of the archaeology worksheets is to build on this interest and show in the context of Romans in Britain how some archaeological techniques help us make discoveries about the past.

Following many discoveries, experiments are made to test ideas. These are also featured on some of the worksheets to allow you to do some cross-curricular work with science, technology and English. Indeed, in a packed curriculum, it is often difficult to find time to explore some topics like Romans in Britain, in the way you wish. We hope by providing a variety of worksheets, which you can also use for addressing literacy, science and geography, that you can make studying Romans in Britain a rich experience for your students.

In the study of history, sources do not only provide information, but historians assess the information as to it giving a true account of the past. Some of the archaeological investigations allow this aspect of history to be explored and the two accounts of Boudicca allow students to see how written history may reflect the view of the person giving the account (pages 66 and 68 of this *Teacher's Guide*).



Useful map



Salve!

Organising a Roman day

A Roman day at school can be an enjoyable, memorable and educational experience for the students (and teachers and support staff!). It needs plenty of planning to run smoothly so, if you are considering having a Roman Day as part of your coverage of teaching Romans in Britain, we hope that these notes and pictures will help you have a successful day.

Support from home

You will need support from home for the making of costumes and the making of a Roman meal, so a pleasant letter to homes explaining your plans will help start the project moving. You may find that some parents and carers are very enthusiastic and may volunteer ideas and resources.

▼ Getting in to the swing of the day by using hired costume.



Costumes

Information about Roman costumes is found on page 105 activity **15A**. You may also want to have a few Celts present. Information about their costume is found on page 25 activity **2A**. This information is basic and you will find that on the day the students will present a range of costumes from simple citizen to Caesar or the emperor's wife! It would be useful to have two or three basic costumes made by you or the school staff for students who, for any reason, do not have a costume on the day.

You will also need to consider when the costumes are worn. Do you want them to wear the costumes all day and go out at breaks and lunch-times in them? Do you want them to be worn after morning break, through lunch-time to afternoon break, or do you just want them to be worn in the afternoon?

▼ You may feel that simple dress is appropriate: these children simply wear wreaths.





▲ It's great fun for children if they can dress up properly, as shown here.



► Explaining about the food.

Food

The students could make up a Roman lunch box and bring it to school. In activity **16A** pages 110 and 111 a display of Roman food is suggested. You may like to use this as a basis for planning meals.

If you plan to take your students to a Roman site and make a preliminary visit see if the shop sells books on Roman food; some do. Some of the recipes are quite simple and you may be able to organise for them to be made for consumption in line with your school policies and health and safety.

Romans drank wine; the children could drink fruit juice. The students should bring in a lettuce leaf to eat at the end of the meal. The Romans believed that this aided digestion.



▲ Bringing in a 'Roman' lunch (link to science 'food, teeth and eating').

▼ A Roman feast from the local supermarket.



Activities on the day

First session

- The Roman alphabet (activity **7B** pages 60 to 61).
- Making a writing tablet (activity **7C** pages 62 to 63) or the students could have made this earlier in a craft orientated lesson.
- Writing your name in Roman letters on the writing table.
- Speaking Latin (activity **3B** pages 34 to 35)
- Writing some Latin words on the writing tablet. You may be surprised how “Roman” it can look.

Second session

- Roman numbers (activity **3C** pages 36 to 37).
- Also let the children use the Roman number cruncher at www.CurriculumVisions.com (choose the Romans Book from the UK home page, then Number Cruncher from the list that appears. This is the same location as the page for page book support.)
- Afterwards, or alternatively, you could use
- Roman coins (activity **12A** pages 90 to 91).
- What’s it worth? (activity **14** pages 100 to 101).



◀ Looking for buried artefacts.

▶ Showing what candlelight (and oil lamps) might be like. Link to science (light and shadows)



The Roman lunch

Afternoon sessions

The students could break into groups and each group work on one of these activities.

You may like to enlist the help of support staff and school volunteer helpers to supervise the activities and give general help to the groups of students.

- Post holes (activity **2B** page 26 to 27).
- The ballista (activity **5B** pages 48 to 49).
- Sending signals (activity **11B** page 86 to 87).
- Broken pottery (activity **15B** pages 106 to 107).
- Make and play knucklebones (activity **17** pages 116 to 117).
- Make a model villa (activity **19A** pages 124 to 125).

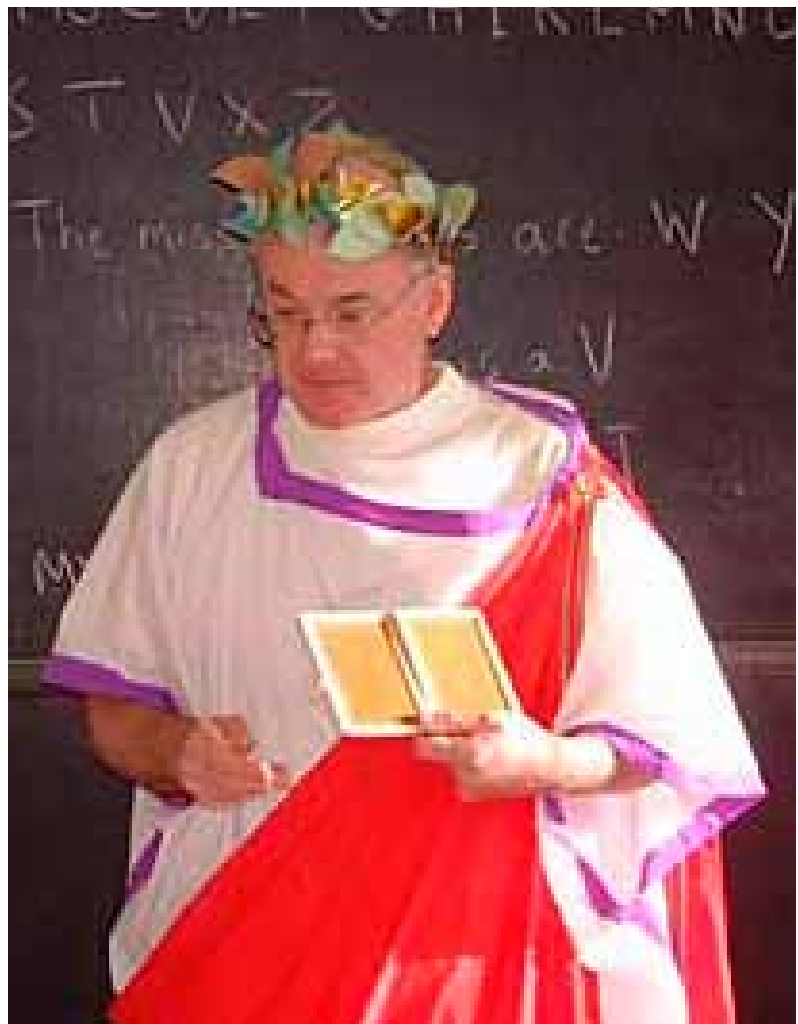
The day could end with a plenary session and the students bidding each other goodbye in Latin:

vale!



▲ Using a simple writing tablet and stylus.

▼ Showing a tablet and stylus.





Chapter 1: Introduction

Spread 1 (pages 4–5)

The Romans in Britain



The purpose of this spread

The book starts with a simple timeline. As historical facts can easily become confusing, the purpose of this spread is to produce a simple perspective so that students know where they are going.

Background

The Romans mark the change from prehistory to history in Britain. In prehistory, the knowledge we have of peoples is from artefacts, such as pots and axes, only. In history our knowledge comes from written documents as well as artefacts.

Children should be made aware that although the people in Britain (native British/Celts) were sophisticated in many ways when the Romans invaded, they could not read or write and so they left no written records of their life.

Although all of the events about which we will learn took place in Britain, and many of them were important for the whole Roman empire, any written records of the great events of the day that might have been made in Britain have been lost. All we have from Britain are writings on day-to-day events. As a result, all of what we know about the grand design of Roman times comes from documents written by foreigners, many of whom did not even visit Britain, but simply wrote down what they had been told. These people lived in places such as Rome, Greece, Spain and Africa. They



also wrote them for a particular purpose, not particularly with a view to being balanced.

It would be appropriate to ask children to try to see how much of a foreign country they can understand by reading the news reports. In general if something goes wrong, it gets reported, if something goes well it doesn't.

It is also important to notice that the only people who get mentioned are those who are prominent political or military personalities, and the way of life of the general population goes unreported.

So it is with Britain under Roman times.

The artefacts can also often tell of only one part of society. Some of the most dramatic artefacts are things like the mosaic tiled floors of Roman villas. Yet these were in the homes only of the wealthy few, and almost no ordinary Briton at that time ever got to see one. In a similar way, the remains of dwelling houses are mainly of Roman villas, yet these stone and brick built dwellings were very exceptional. Most people lived in square or round huts of wood frames, clay or dry stone walls and thatched roofs. They did not walk on mosaic floors but on bare earth that they trampled hard with their feet.

Remains of these modest houses are very hard to find and get very little popular interest because they are not attractive to look at, no more than a modern council flat might be today. Yet it is here that most lives were spent, rather than in the grandiose houses and palaces of the wealthy.

At the end, the Romans left, so what became of Roman Britain? It was not destroyed by the invading Anglo-Saxons, for there was no point in this. Many Roman customs had already ceased before the Anglo-Saxons left and towns were already falling into disuse because they could only be supported by a well organised society.

When the Romans left, the client kings, who had been helped to power by the Romans, simply went back to being regional kings and living from the land. So the answer is that when the Romans arrived, they made changes which included towns and roads, but the general population continued much as it had done in Iron Age times. Thus kings may come and emperors go, but the stream of life continued.

But change did happen in many long-lasting ways. For example, the contacts that were made during the days of the empire in terms of trade between Britain and Europe meant that ideas moved from one to another. For example, the people of Britain learned to use a heavier iron plough from their European neighbours, one more suited to working heavy clay soils. They also found out how to use a pottery wheel and so were able to change from making home thrown pots to making more sophisticated wheel thrown pottery. There are many other examples.

The foundations had also been set for cities and roads. Many were lost for centuries, but then rediscovered and used. What the Romans left us is thus very often intangible, which is what makes its discovery all the more exciting.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on **pages 4 and 5** of *The Romans in Britain*

Timeline cards

Cut out these events that occurred in Britain in Roman times and arrange them in order.

The Romans treat some British harshly, leading to revolts. The most famous revolt is by Queen Boudicca in AD60.

When Roman power weakens in AD410, the Romans take their army away. The British are left with no way to protect themselves from more invaders.

The Romans invade Britain in 55BC and again in 54BC, but each time they stay only briefly.

AD 140 Emperor Antoninus Pius advances to the rivers Forth and Clyde in Scotland and has the Antonine Wall built.

The Romans only stay in Scotland for a short while. In AD 122 they leave Scotland and build Hadrian's Wall.

AD82 Governor Agricola completes the conquest of Britain and reaches northern Scotland.

AD43 Legions with emperor Claudius invade Britain. British army under Caractacus defeated at the Battle of Medway in the Thames estuary.



Timeline cards

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

Scissors (stick and sticky tape for younger students – optional).

Using the worksheet

Read through pages 4 and 5 in the student book and allow time for discussion.

Younger students

You may like to explore the concept of a timeline and review work that they may have done on timelines in other areas of the curriculum such as citizenship. Let the children cut out the statements and arrange them in order. Check the order is correct then show them a standard carried by a signifier or standard bearer who led a century (a unit of 80 men (not 100) in the army of the later empire to which Britain belonged). Note how parts of the emblem are arranged on a pole and suggest that they could arrange their items for the timeline on a stick in a similar way, starting with the earliest date at the bottom and the latest date at the top. The students could hold the poles in front of them as a signifier does and march about as if leading a column of soldiers. This action can be linked to how the army marches along during an invasion mentioned in the time line

Outcomes

The students can:

- Construct a timeline.
- Construct a simple model of a century's emblem.

Older students

You may wish to relate the events in Roman times to events occurring today. You could look at the news about places where invasions, revolts or civil unrest are taking place and discuss them with the class.

The students could look at the dates in the timeline and work out the time from the first invasion to the withdrawal of the army.

The time between the first invasion and the invasion of Claudius. (55 BC – AD 43 = 88 years.)

How long after the invasion of Claudius before Boudicca's revolt? (AD 60 – 43 = 17 years.)

How long after Claudius's invasion was

Hadrian's Wall built? (AD 122 – 43 = 79 years.)

How long after Hadrian's Wall was the

Antonine Wall built? (AD 140 – 122 = 18 years.)

You could ask the students about why the Romans left Scotland and built a wall in AD 122 after they had reached northern Scotland in AD 89, and look for an answer about the army not being able to subdue the people effectively.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Construct a timeline.
- Perform calculations on dates.
- Suggest reasons for the withdrawal of the Roman army from Scotland or an invading army from a country.



Name:..... Form:.....

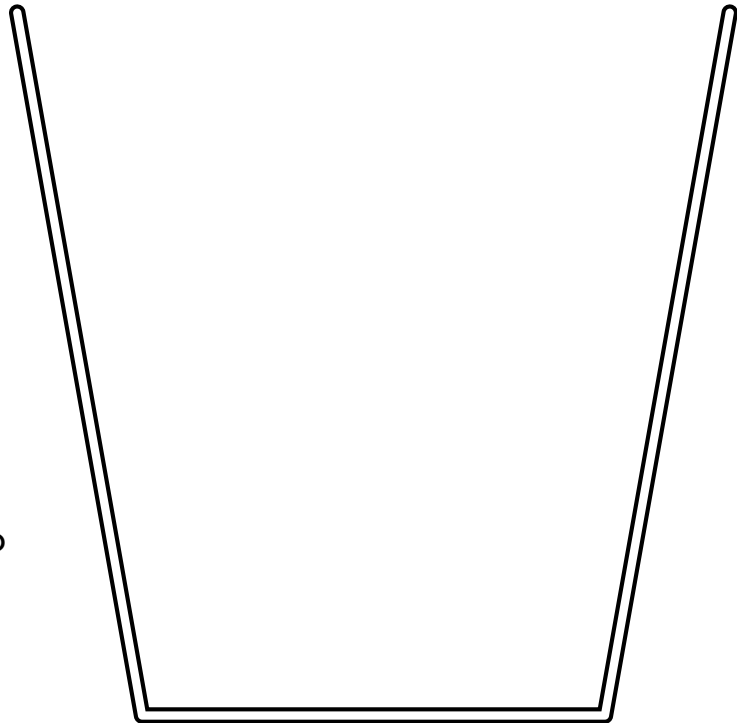
Based on pages 4 and 5 of *The Romans in Britain*

Digging up the past

Archaeologists are people who dig up the ground to find out about how people lived in the past. They remove the soil carefully and when they find something such as a piece of pot, iron or a bone they make a note of its position and depth in the ground.

You are given a bucket of sand. This represents soil in the ground.

1. Use a spoon to carefully remove the sand and when you find an object draw its position in the diagram of the bucket opposite.
2. Carefully remove the object, label it and put it on one side.
3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 until you can find no more objects.



When archaeologists find something, they suggest how it may have come to be there.

4. Suggest how each item may have come to be in the ground.







5. The oldest items are usually found at the deepest level. Which was the oldest item?





Digging up the past

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

Buckets of sand, spoons, trays in which to empty the sand, plastic bags, paper for labels, pens. For younger students each bucket could have four items in it planted at different depths. The items could be anything that will not be damaged by being immersed in dry sand. The items could be a plastic pen top, an old key, a coin, a counter from a game, a bottle top.

For older students two or three items could be placed at the same level with two items at a lower level. Do not use bones or seeds or foods as these are featured in activity **16B**.

Using the worksheet

Ask the children what they know about archaeologists and archaeology. Write some ideas down on the board to help the children focus on the topic. Make the observation that archaeologists do not just investigate Roman remains but human activity from all ages. Tell the students that when a site is being investigated great care is taken in recovering objects from the ground and recording their position. The information can be used with information from elsewhere to build up a picture of life in the past. In some ways it is similar to forensic science where clues are brought together to solve a crime.

Younger students

Tell the students that they have to imagine that their bucket of sand is like a piece of ground and they are to carefully dig out the sand to see if there is anything to be found. Stress the need for care at all stages – digging, drawing, labelling and storing the items.

Encourage them to make up stories about how the items came to be found in the ground. With the more able students ask them to try and link how the different items have come to be on different levels. Tell the children that finds from other places help to support ideas or show them to

be wrong and that in many cases archaeologists cannot be exactly sure what happened at a place from the objects left behind.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use simple equipment and materials safely and with care.
- Record finds in an orderly way.
- Make suggestions about what has been found.

Older students

Older students like technical words and you may introduce a couple for added interest and to help the students sound like archaeologists when they are reporting. For example, you may like to introduce the word artefact to mean any object removed from the ground, which has been made or used by a human. Often when digging, several artefacts may be found at the same level. Each level at which artefacts are found is called a context. In the bucket you prepared there are two contexts. Context 1 has three artefacts in it and context 2 has two artefacts in it.

When the students have removed the items from context 1 ask them to say how they got there and look for answers that link the objects together by human activities. Look for students giving different interpretations and say that this happens in archaeology and leads to archaeologists disagreeing about what has happened on a site. Let the students investigate context 2 and interpret their observations. Let them note that disagreements can still occur.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use simple equipment and materials safely and carefully.
- Interpret what they find.
- Understand that some archaeological evidence is open to different interpretations and can be unreliable.



Background

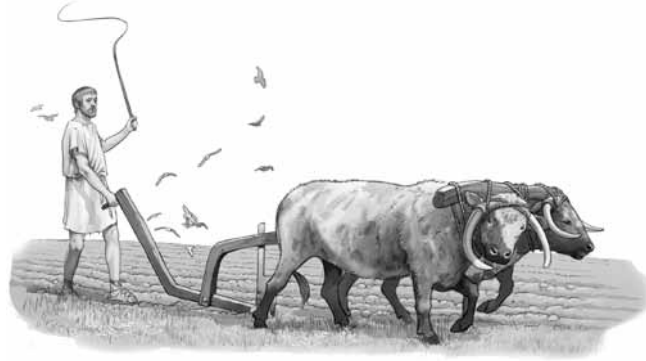
Children should know that the Romans had known of Britain for a long time before they invaded. The British were supporters of the Gauls in France and sent troops to help them against the Romans. When the Gauls (Belgic tribes) were defeated, some sought refuge in Britain, beyond the reach of the Romans. When the Romans invaded Britain, many southern leaders were of Belgic ancestry.

Besides the military problems that Britain began to pose, the British had many raw materials and finished goods that they could sell to the Roman empire. So, for many years it served the empire best to leave Britain alone and to trade with it. From time to time, wars between British tribes sent defeated princes and kings scuttling to Rome to seek help or to swear allegiance. In this way the Romans also had an excuse for invasion – they had been asked by so many tribal leaders over the years.

Julius Caesar made the first foray into Britain, but he had other things on his mind and so it was a century later before a really determined effort was made.

The main invasion of Britain was, however the result of two things: the need for newly elected emperor Claudius to prove himself able to extend the Roman empire (a vital piece of prestige in Roman society) and the fact that in the most powerful kingdom in Britain, the king, who was friendly to Rome, was replaced by two sons, including Caractacus, who were decidedly anti-Roman. As a result the trade routes that the Romans had relied on became increasingly unreliable.

Arthur the Celtic farmer



I am Arthur. I live with my family in a small round hut near a spring where we can get fresh water. We all sleep on boards on the floor of the hut. In the centre of the hut is a fire. We don't have a chimney so the hut is very smoky, but we don't lose much of the heat from the fire either.

We cook, eat and sleep around the fire. When it is dark we have a small oil lamp, which we burn to give a bit more light, but mostly, as soon as we have eaten, we go to sleep and cover ourselves with sheepskins.

We keep some sheep on the hills. We also keep some cows on the water meadows by the river.

Near our home I have ploughed a small patch of land where I grow wheat and oats and beans. We will need to store these in pots in our home so that we have food for the winter. We also make the milk into cheese so that it keeps better.

In the autumn I kill some of my animals because there will not be enough grass for them over winter. We smoke and salt the meat to help us over the winter. The rest of the animals I keep on the land I used for my cereals. They can eat the stalks of the corn. They also help manure the ground for the next crop.

1. What kinds of things are in the hut?



2. Where did Arthur get his water and food from?



3. How does Arthur use plants and animals together to produce food?





Arthur the Celtic farmer

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- You may wish to use it in years 5/6 (SP6/7) moving through the questions quickly then move onto the work outlined for them below.

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet.

Using the worksheet

After reading about the British in the student book you may like to look a little more closely at the life of a typical Celtic farmer. This may be done at two levels. The children can simply use the sheet as a comprehension exercise and locate facts about the farmer's life. Alternatively, the children could read through the sheet and then think how they would go about setting up a farm if they came across a piece of land that they could use.

Younger students

The students could answer the questions then compare their answers with modern day farming and ways of living. They may also like to look at the lives of farm labourers in other times, such as Tudor and Victorian times.

Outcomes

The students:

- Know about the accommodation of Celtic farmers.
- Know about how Celtic farmers produced food.

Older students

Before the students read about the British in the student book you could talk about how the British were viewed by other people in Europe, and indeed how people in the present day think of the Celts. This should include the stereotype that the Celts were fearsome and always attacking people. They were loud yet primitive. Let the students read through the spread in the student book and work through the questions on the sheet, then ask them to comment on the accuracy of the stereotype you

gave them. The response could be given orally and lead to a wider discussion on stereotypes or it can be produced as a written account.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Find out about the way of life of the Celts.
- Use the information they have gathered to consider the accuracy of stereotyping the Celts.

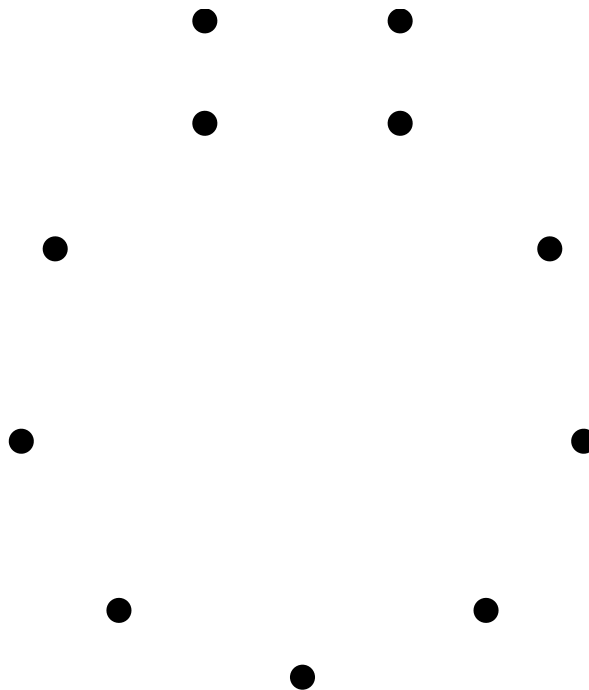
A note on costume

A simple tunic can be made from a piece of brown cloth in the following way. Measure from the student's shoulder to the knees. Measure a distance a little wider than the student's shoulders. Cut the cloth so that it is twice the length from shoulder to knees and a little wider than the shoulders. Fold the cloth in half and cut out a hole at the fold for the neck. Sew up the sides leaving a little of the cloth free at the bottom and near the shoulders to make holes for the arms. When the tunic is worn use a rope or belt around the waist to draw it in. A cloak could be made out of an old tartan style table cloth. Use secondary sources for ideas to add more to this basic costume.

Post holes

Imagine that you are an archaeologist working in a field where a Celtic farm is thought to have been. After the turf has been cleared away you start carefully digging through the soil.

After some time, you find an area of soil which looks like it might have been a hole. As you dig around the rest of the site you find more holes. They form the pattern shown below. You think that they might be holes for posts which held up the walls of a farmhouse.



When archaeologists find patterns of holes, they sometimes try to make buildings from the pattern to see how the building might have looked.

1. Cut lengths of drinking straws and stick each one on a post hole with sticky paper or Plasticine.
2. Decide on a material to make the walls, and use it.
3. When the walls have been made decide how the roof might have been.
4. Decide a material to make the roof, and use it.



Post holes

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5) perhaps with materials prepared beforehand for simple assembly.
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7) with the students taking more responsibility for selection of materials.

Resources

For younger students – Drinking straws perhaps cut to an appropriate length such as 2 cm, pieces of card also cut to appropriate shapes. A card roof made into a cone. Sticky paper and perhaps Plasticine.

For older students – a collection of straws, cardboard, paper, scissors, sticky paper and perhaps Plasticine.

Using the worksheet

Tell the students that when a site has been excavated, archaeologists like to know what it looked like in the past. Wood decays in the soil but the holes in which posts were placed do remain. From the position of the post holes a plan of the building can be worked out. Some archaeologists use the plan to construct a building elsewhere. As none of the materials used to make the building remain they have to think about what the people in the past may have used, then use those materials.

Younger students

You can begin by asking the children what they think the building may have looked like. If they have read the spread in the student book, they may suggest a round building with a cone shaped roof. They will have an idea of the proportions of the walls to the roof and you can introduce the materials you have prepared and let the students use them to assemble their building.

You may like the students to group a few buildings on a green towel and let them ruffle up parts of the towel to form a model earth ramp.

The students could make a stockade wall out of cardboard to put on the earth ramp.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Interpret a pattern in the ground to form a building.
- Construct a small model building using simple materials and techniques.

Older students

You may like to do this activity before the children read about the Celts in the student book. By doing this, the students will have less idea about the size and proportions of the walls and roof. Give the students the materials and let them decide the lengths of the poles and the height of the walls. If there are enough straws, the students may like to make the walls and roof from them, too. You may encourage the students to make huts of different heights and different roofs (some may prefer a flat roof for example). When the buildings are finished let the students discuss each model and try and decide which would be most like the building in the past.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use simple materials and techniques to make models.
- Compare different interpretations of a plan.
- Give reasons for the structures that they make.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on **pages 6 and 7** of *The Romans in Britain*

Speaking Celtic

Here are some Celtic words and phrases that you may like to use

You can say some as they look. Some words are pronounced differently from how they look – use the words in brackets to help you pronounce them.

English	Celtic
small	beg
large	mooar
soft or moist	bog
near	faggys (fargus)
far	foddey (For the)
rough	garroo
short	glare (gayair)
good	mie (my)
bad	olk
thick	chiu (chew)
thin	thanney (tanya)
young	aeg
old	shen
slow or poor	moal
white or bright	gial (gale)
Good morning	moghrey mie (morra my)
Good afternoon	fastyr mie (faster my)
How are you?	cre'naght ta shui (kren act ta shoo)



Speaking Celtic

Age range

- You may wish to try some of the words in the list with years 3/4 (SP4/5) but omit the phrases.
- You may wish to use the whole sheet in years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A copy of the worksheet, Celtic outfits made at home (optional). See also activity **3B**.

Using the worksheet

These words are taken from Manx. Celtic words and phrases are very difficult to pronounce correctly so for the words in the list let the students simply say them as they may in English. This will at least give them a small hint of how Celtic is different from English. A hint at how the phrases are pronounced is given but only by instruction from someone who can speak the language can the correct pronunciations be made. Again the use of the phrases is just to give a hint of how the Celts spoke.

Younger students

If you are planning any role play about Celtic life, perhaps based on Arthur the farmer, you may like the children to dress up as Celts. They could use the words in the list to describe objects around them.

Outcomes

The students:

- Know that the Celtic language is very different from English.
- Use simple Celtic words to communicate.

Older students

The students could use the phrases to role play a meeting between two Celts where each bid the other good morning or afternoon and asks the other how they are. The reply could be simply "good" or "bad" from the list. This exercise is simply to illustrate how Celtic is different from English. You may like some students to use these

words with the activity **3B** 'Speaking Latin'. They could plan and perform a short play showing Celts meeting Romans and trying to communicate by referring to objects.

Outcomes

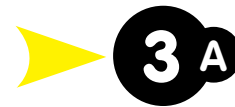
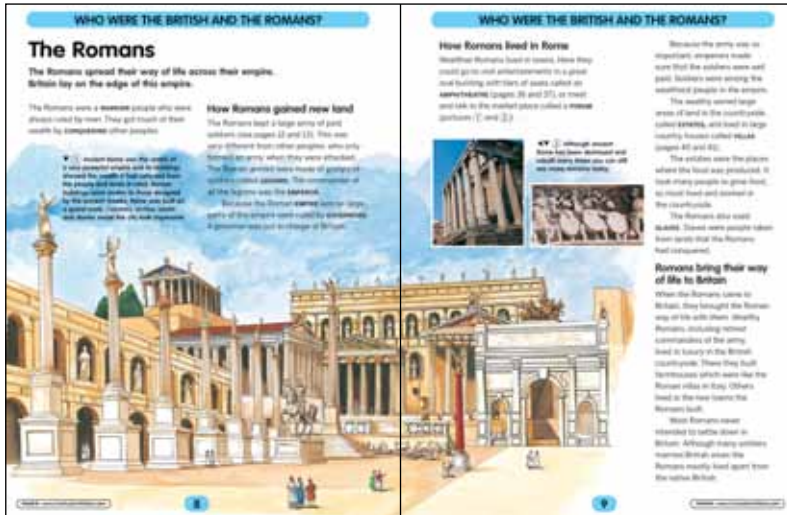
The students:

- Know that the Celtic language is very different from English.
- Use simple Celtic words and phrases to communicate.



Spread 3 (pages 8–9)

The Romans



The purpose of the spread

On this page we look at some of the Roman attitudes and introduce the way of life Roman style.

Background

The Romans had developed a society where expansion was of major concern. Roman leaders got their authority by adding to the empire.

So the contrast between the Romans and the British was large in terms of what each was expecting of life. The British were concerned with local territories and the Romans were concerned with empire. They were, at the time, the global superpower, while the British lived in a country which, for all of its artisan skills, was a land of tribes and internal battles. It would have been seen as a useful place because of its metal, grain and wool potential, but it would have been looked at very much as a developing world society and one which could be managed and controlled by colonisation.

Colonisation had the advantage of direct control and so the supply of goods could be better assured.

Roman society was very much dominated by a male ruling class. Women had a lot of influence behind the scenes, but their public role was very restricted.

The Romans coming to Britain – especially those in higher positions of command – would have been used to a very sophisticated lifestyle



that reflected the advanced society they lived in. It was also an integrated society where people were not self sufficient (as were the British at this time) but worked in an interdependent way, much as we do today.

The wealthiest Romans would have had large houses (villas) in cities (and in particular in Rome) and also country estates.

Roman society also worked in part by using slaves, who were mainly people captured in battle.

Roman society was held together by the tight control of it by strong emperors through the power of the army.

Roman society was reflected in the type of clothes they wore, from the simple tunic or dress of the working classes, to the toga of the ruling class.

Romans devolved power to their colonies through governors. The strength and sense of the governor often affected the success and peacefulness of the colony. As we shall see, some mistakes, or at least misunderstandings, were made between the governor, his aides and the client kings in Britain. The result was an (unsuccessful) uprising not long after colonisation was finished. Later governors (such as Agricola) were much more successful.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on **pages 8 and 9** of *The Romans in Britain*

Where did the Romans come from?

In a country now called Italy is the river Tiber. At one place it flows between seven hills and there is an island in the river which makes the river easy to cross. Well over 2,000 years ago many tribes roamed through Europe and in time one tribe, called the Latins, set up villages on the hilltops near the island.

The people farmed the land close by and thrived. As their numbers grew, their villages became larger. They spread down the hillsides and eventually joined together to form a town called Rome. The leaders of the Roman people formed a group, called a consul, and were called elders. They elected a king.

Rome was close to a land where people called the Etruscans lived. Etruscans passed through Rome to cross the river to trade in other lands. Eventually some Etruscans became kings and ruled Rome. They were not popular and in time the Romans drove them out and set up a republic. In the republic the people of Rome were ruled by a group of one hundred men called the senate. They were led by two men called consuls. One consul looked after the senate and the other looked after the army.

There were other towns not far from Rome and they were threatened by attack from tribes who lived in the mountains. The people of Rome joined with the people in other towns to fight the tribes from the mountains. After the tribes were defeated, people in other towns became jealous of the success of Rome and started to fight the people of Rome.

Eventually the people of Rome defeated the people in all the other towns and took over their lands. When Romans conquered their enemies they allowed the people they had beaten to become like them and live a Roman life style.

As the Romans took over more and more lands they formed an empire. The empire was ruled by an emperor but he still had the senate to help him. The Roman empire covered all the lands around the Mediterranean Sea and then stretched out to lands in the east such as Armenia and Assyria and to lands in the west such as Britain.



Where did the Romans come from?

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5) Read the first two paragraphs and answer questions 1 and 2. Read the rest of the sheet for information.
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7) Read the whole of the sheet and answer questions 3 to 5.

Resources

Board on which to write the questions, secondary sources about Rome.

Using the worksheet

Although the focus of the books is Romans in Britain, many students may ask where the Romans came from. This sheet explains very simply how Rome was formed and how the people were led by a senate, consuls and later by an emperor. With older students you may wish to build on this basic information and use other secondary sources to look at how the republic developed and changed into an empire.

The questions about the information on the sheet are as follows and should be written on the board as appropriate.

1. What may the land where Rome was built look like?
2. Draw how Rome formed from seven villages.
3. Why did the Etruscans pass through Rome?
4. Why do you think the Etruscans wanted a king of Rome?
5. Why do you think the Romans helped other towns close by to defeat the tribes from the mountains?
6. The Romans had a wealthy life style. Why do you think they liked the people they had conquered to take up their life style too?

Younger students

Let the students read the first paragraph and answer question 1. (The students should draw a river with an island surrounded by seven hills.)

Let the students read the second paragraph then answer the second question. (The students may draw three pictures – the first with villages on

the hilltops, the second with villages growing down the sides of the hills, and the third with all the villages joined up to make a town.)

The work should be checked by looking at other secondary sources on Rome.

Outcomes

The students know that:

- Rome was built on seven hills.
- The river Tiber flows through Rome.
- The group of men called the senate helped rule Rome.
- Rome was led by two consuls in the republic and by an emperor in the empire.

Older students

Let the students read the passage then answer questions 3 to 5. Look for the following answers:

3. They used the island to cross the river.
4. It was important for trade that the Etruscans could pass through Rome so if Rome was ruled by an Etruscan the trade route would be safe. If Rome was ruled by a Roman and he fell out with the Etruscans he could stop them using the island to cross the river and this would, make trade difficult.
5. If the tribes defeated the other towns they may attack Rome.
6. If the people become wealthy they are less likely to fight the Romans and risk losing their wealth.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know how Rome was formed.
- Recognise that an easy crossing of a river helps trade.
- Explain why the Etruscans wanted a king of Rome.
- Understand how people can work together to beat a common foe.
- Understand why Romans liked people they had conquered to take up a Roman lifestyle.

Speaking Latin

English	Latin
Excuse me	da mihi veniam
Hello	salve
What is your name?	quod nomen tibi est?
My name is...	mihi nomen est...
Where do you live?	ubi habitas
I live in	habito
How are you?	ut vales?
very well	optime
I am well	bene valeo
I am not very well	non ita bene
What can I do for you?	quid me vis facere?
Thank you very much indeed	gratius tibu ago maximas!
Don't mention it	aufer mihi ista
All the best to you	bene vale!
And the same to you	et tu!
Good luck	bene rem gere
Goodbye	vale
Good day	bonum diem
Goodnight	bonum noctum



Speaking Latin

Age range

- You may wish to use a few phrases with classes in years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- You may wish to use all the phrases with classes in years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the worksheet. Roman outfits made at home (optional). See also activity 29.

Using the worksheet

You may introduce the worksheet by simply saying 'salve' when you call the class to order, then go to the door and say 'vale'. Tell the students the meaning of the words and tell them that they are going to build on this knowledge to make a simple dialogue between two Romans.

Younger students

Let two students converse in Latin by saying Hello, My name is..... What is your name....Good luck, Good bye. They should simply insert their own names into the conversation. If the students are taking part in a larger event about Romans and are dressed in Roman outfits let them try this conversation as part of a role play activity.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that Latin is very different from English.
- Greet and bid farewell in Latin and give their name and ask a person's name.
- Make a timeline.

Older students

Let the students work in pairs to write a dialogue between them using as many of the phrases on the sheet as they wish. If they have recently studied Celts they may like to write a scene where Romans and Celts meet. The students can use mime and point to objects to help them communicate.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Write and perform a simple dialogue in Latin.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on pages 8 and 9 of The Romans in Britain

Roman numbers

Use the information in this box to answer the following questions.

I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	50	100	500	1000
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	L	C	D	M

1. 21 is XXI. What is the Roman number for:

- (a) 22 (b) 23 (c) 24 (d) 25
(e) 26 (f) 27 (g) 28 (h) 29

2. What is the Roman number for

- (a) 312 (b) 419 (c) 535
(d) 663 (e) 742 (f) 953

3. Write down the Roman number for the number of your house.

4. What year were you born? (a) Write it down the normal way here.
(b) Write it down in Roman numbers here.

5. Try these calculations and answer using Roman numbers:

Additions

- (a) $C + X =$
(b) $XXX + VI =$
(c) $IX + VI =$
(d) $VII + XVI =$

Multiplication

- (a) $X \times X =$
(b) $V \times C =$
(c) $II \times LI =$
(d) $IX \times CCC =$

Subtractions

- (a) $C - L =$
(b) $XL - III =$
(c) $D - CXX =$
(d) $XX - III =$

Division

- (a) $X \div V =$
(b) $XX \div IV =$
(c) $CXX \div VI =$
(d) $MMMDC \div IX =$



Roman numbers

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the worksheet.

Using the worksheet

You may wish to introduce the worksheet here to support the work on Latin to give a sense of how the Romans were different from us or you may use it after activity 7B when the Roman alphabet has been introduced. If you leave it until then you could also introduce the writing tablet and let the students make one. They could then do their calculations on the tablet.

Younger students

The younger students should be able to cope with the earlier questions and the more able may try some of the calculations. You could also put some Roman numbers on the board and ask the students to write them as the numbers we use today.

Here are five to try LXXXIV (84), CCXII (212), DCLXXI (671), CMXLVI (946), MDCVII (1607).

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that Roman numbers are different from the ones we use today.
- Convert the numbers we use today into Roman numbers.
- Convert Roman numbers into the numbers that we use today.
- Make calculations using Roman numbers.

Older students

Let the students try the whole of the worksheet. You could also put some Roman numbers on the board as suggested for younger students.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that Roman numbers are different from the ones we use today.

- Convert the numbers we use today into Roman numbers
- Convert Roman numbers into the numbers that we use today.
- Make calculations using Roman numbers.

Answers

- XXII.
 - XXIII.
 - XXIV.
 - XXV.
 - XXVI.
 - XXVII.
 - XXVIII.
 - XXIX.

- CCCXII.
 - CDXIX.
 - DXXXV.
 - DCLXIII.
 - DCCXLII.
 - CMLIII.

Answers 3 and 4 will depend on the student.

5. Additions

- CX.
- XXXVI.
- XV.
- XXIII.

Subtractions

- L.
- LVII.
- CCCLXXX.
- XVII.

Multiplication

- C.
- D.
- CII.
- MMDCC.

Division

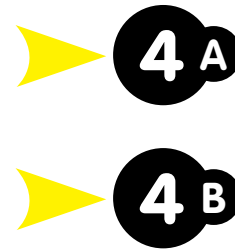
- II.
- V.
- XX.
- CD.



Chapter 3: Times of trouble

Spread 4 (pages 10–11)

The Roman invasions



The purpose of the spread

This spread concentrates on the dates of the invasions and then the contrasts between the British and the Roman armies. The idea is put forward that a unified army with a single leader often stands a better chance of winning than a loose confederacy. Also a trained force is better than an untrained one.

Finally the spread tells of the differences that the British might notice as the invasion progresses. In doing this the themes are introduced that will be developed in the rest of the book.

The invasions of Britain were complicated affairs and a simplified view needs to be put forward to children.

It is perhaps useful if children are asked what the Romans and the British might have to gain.

1. British gains

We have already stated that the country was divided into quarrelsome tribes who were seeking to improve their own situation at the expense of neighbours. Thus, for the tribes that were feeling threatened by their neighbours, the Romans might well have seemed a good stabilising force, preventing them from getting wiped out entirely. This was, of course, especially true of the rulers. So some rulers would probably have welcomed the Romans. Indeed, many deposed rulers and nobles from Britain had made representations to the Roman emperor over many decades, the object being to get some of their old power back.

2. Roman gains

The Romans had to gain much in terms of goods. They needed a stable supply of goods such as wool and tin. If the British were quarrelsome their supply might be disrupted. Altogether different was the prestige to be gained by adding territory to the empire. This was one of the most highly respected things that an emperor could do, so there was



every personal incentive to improve status by invading Britain, especially as it was a country rich in resources.

The people who had least to gain and most to lose were the more powerful tribes who wished to retain their independence. They were the ones most likely to fight.

As a result it must have been hard for those who wanted to resist the Romans to get a loose confederation of tribes together to put up a common army for defence. Even if one were put up, the chances are that some parts of it would have only participated in a half hearted way, reckoning that if the Romans won, their troops could readily surrender, and if the British won, their army would have been seen to be part of the success and so not liable to retribution by the stronger tribes.

The Romans were skilled at looking after their provinces (colonies) with the least effort, and understood that it was better for the country to go on much as before, under the day to day rule of the client kings and queens, rather than try to do all of the ruling. Thus the British might generally have been quite divorced from the Romans (just as the majority of Indians would have been divorced from the British at the time of the empire) even though rule lasted for hundreds of years.

The advantages of empire

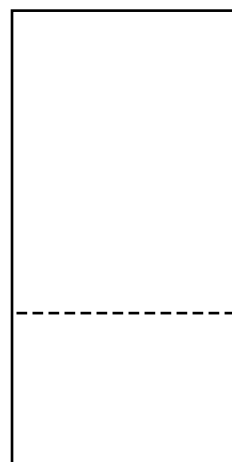
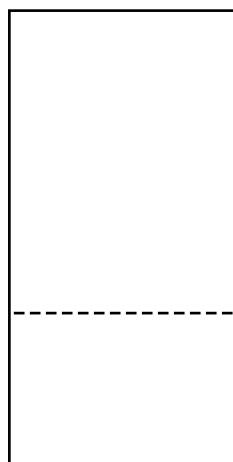
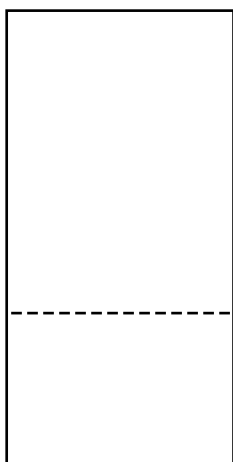
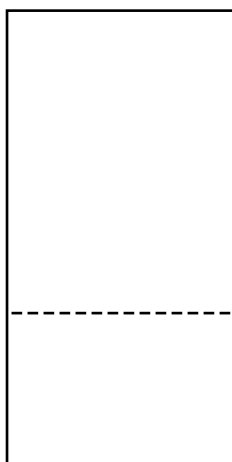
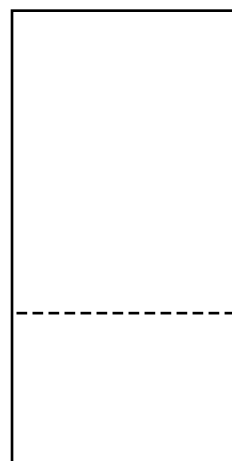
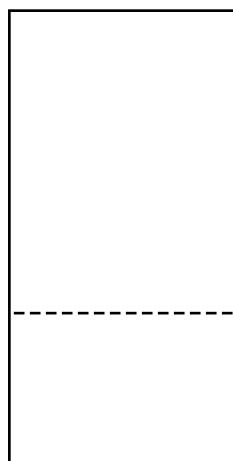
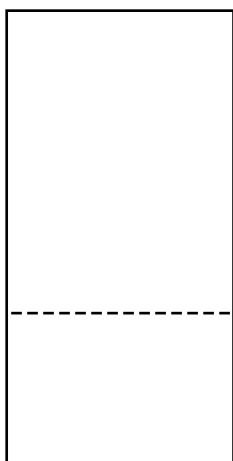
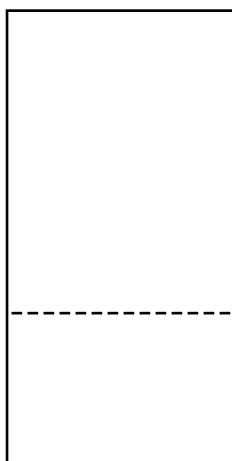
It might be worth spending some time pointing out that an empire has advantages (as well as disadvantages). For example, troops could be called from all over the empire to help defend it. A wider range of goods could also be obtained, and at least the higher classes of British were better off.

The activity concerning transport and trade is an example of this. It is designed to show how people were able to bring goods from overseas easily. The implication, of course, is that, because of empire, these goods were known about. This is what stimulated trade.

It is also a moment to think about transport during Roman times. The Samian ware in the practical exercise has to be taken from its point of manufacture (southern Gaul) to Britain, and the various ways of transport can be discussed.

Armies

1. Decide which army you are going to make – Roman or Celtic.
2. Select pictures from the student book which show Roman soldiers (pages 12 and 13) and the Celtic warrior (page 6). Use them for ideas to draw a soldier in each of the boxes.
3. Cut out the boxes and fold the tab to make the soldier stand up. Alternatively paste the cut out soldier onto card then fold the card to make the soldier stand up more firmly.





Armies

Age range

- This activity is aimed at years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Keen students in years 5/6 (SP6/7) may wish to try this activity as part of a homework club.

Resources

The student book, copies of the worksheet, coloured pens and pencils (optional).

Using the worksheet

Although the first Roman army was organised into centuries of 100 men, by 100BC a century had been reduced to 80 men. This made the army more manageable. The soldiers in a century were organised into 10 groups of eight. The group of eight men was called a contubernium (plural contubernia). The soldiers in a contubernium shared the same tent in the camp and ate together. You could reinforce this idea by letting each student make eight drawings and produce contubernium. Ten students could then produce a century.

Alternatively, you could make part of a Celtic army by letting the children draw Celtic soldiers. They were not organised into groups like the Romans.

Younger students

What does a century look like? Let the children make their pictures. Cut out their soldiers and set them up. Part of a Celtic army could be set up and positioned on a model battlefield so that they are about to ambush a century on the march. The Celtic army could also be used with activity **5B** 'The ballista'.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that the Roman army was organised into small groups.
- Make a visual presentation of a century.

Older students

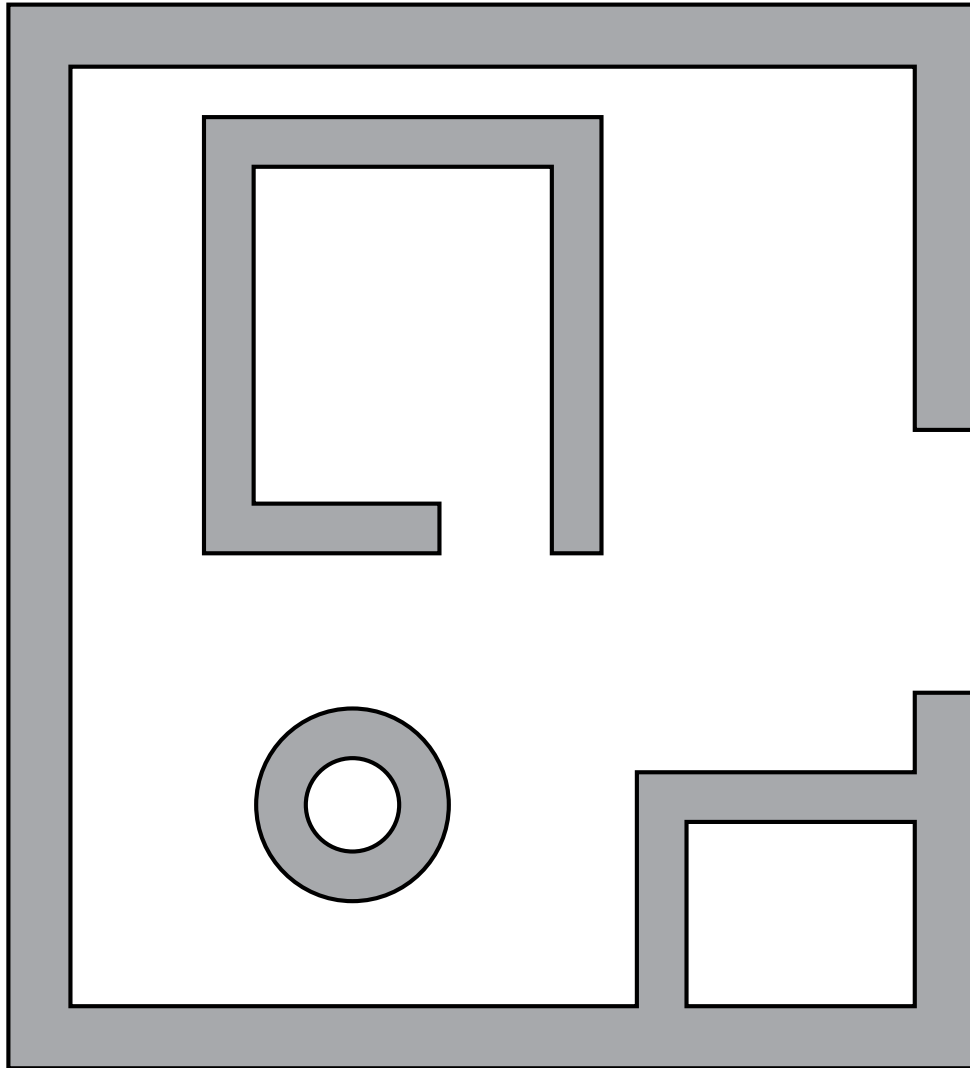
You may let older students look at the work of younger students or of those working in homework club. You can help them appreciate the size of a legion by noting the area occupied by the model century then making the following multiplications of the area it occupies. Six legions make up a cohort. A legion is made up of nine cohorts plus a cohort made up from ten centuries. This larger cohort contains the non-fighting members of the army such as cooks, messengers and clerks. Ask the students to calculate the number of men in a legion and they should work out the figure 5,120.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make calculations on the size of a Roman legion.
- Appreciate the area covered by a legion by using a model of a century and scaling up.

Excavating a fortlet



1. The diagram shows the map of the walls in a fortlet.
2. Make a model of these walls in the tray. The walls should be about 2 cm high.
3. Fill the tray with sand and cover the walls.
4. Give the tray to a friend and ask him or her to carefully excavate the site to find the walls and say what they might be.



Excavating a fortlet

Age range

- With years 3/4 (SP4/5) you may wish to issue the map to the digger to help them find their way.
- With years 5/6 (SP6/7) you may not wish to issue the map and let them construct trenches first to find part of the walls.

Resources

A old oven tray with deep sides, Plasticine for younger students, small stones (optional) for older students, spoon, brush, dish in which to store sand removed from the 'site'.

Using the worksheet

In some places the Romans set up fortlets. They were close to main roads and may have been used to store food or house a small number of soldiers who patrolled the area close by. The fortlet here is very simple. It has an outer wall with a gate, the foundations of a tower in one corner, the foundations of a building that may have housed soldiers and a wall showing the top of a well. The students making or excavating the model do not need to know this detail but should try and infer it from their observations and imagination.

Younger students

Archaeologists use geophysics to make maps of remains under the ground. One common type of device measures the ability of the ground to conduct electricity and display the data in the form of a map. Younger students can be issued with the map and be told that it was made by a geophysical area of the site. They can use it to locate the foundations and dig them out. The person who made the site can watch the excavation and at the end comment on the skill of the excavators.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make and excavate a model archaeological site.
- Infer what the findings may represent.
- Appreciate the need for care when excavating an archaeological site.

Older students

Older students may like to try and make more authentic walls by using small stones or aquarium gravel. The excavators may be shown a television programme featuring the constructing of trenches before they begin. They should tell the site maker who watches them the reasons for making the trenches in the places they do. The site maker can assess the skill of the excavator in predicting where to dig next to uncover more of the features of the fortlet.

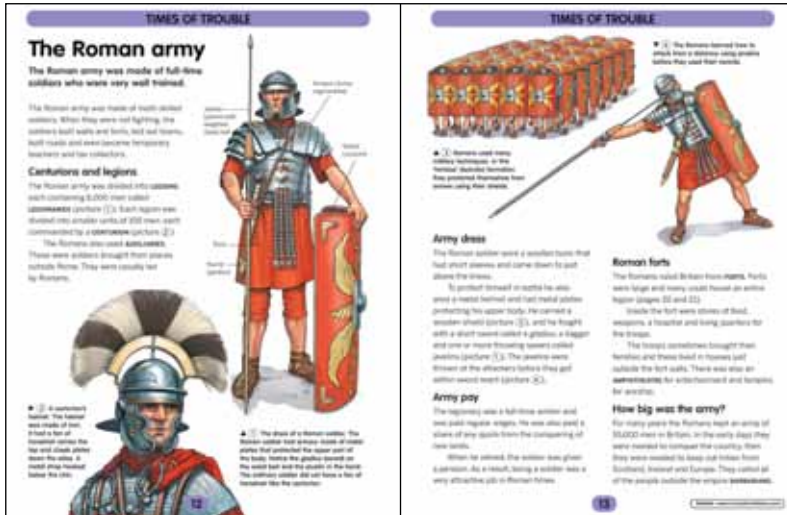
Outcomes

The students can:

- Make and excavate a model of an archaeological site.
- Work out relationships between parts of the site that are excavated.
- Infer what the findings may represent.
- Appreciate the need for care when excavating an archaeological site.

Spread 5 (pages 12–13)

The Roman army



The purpose of the spread

This spread deals with some of the characteristics of the Roman army. The purpose of this is to show, through the organisation of the army, some ways in which Roman attitudes were brought to Britain.

The army was invader, defender and police force all rolled into one. It was the largest force personally under the control of the emperor.

When dealing with the army equipment, we have introduced some of the Latin terms. If you wish, you may want to use many more Latin terms than have been used here. For the most part the book uses a minimum of Latin words.

Background: the army

The Roman army was under the control of generals. It was made of full time soldiers who were fanatically trained and well disciplined and organised.

The key unit of the army was the legion. This was made of units of 5,000 men, mostly on foot, but with small numbers of men on horses (cavalry), together with catapults and other machines designed to break down defences.

The legion was much more than just a bunch of fighting men. It was filled with skilled craftsmen and people who could organise. Every soldier was educated and could read and write.

The soldiers were paid a regular wage – something almost unheard of in the ancient world. They were also paid a pension when they retired. This was totally unheard of elsewhere. As a result, the army was reliable and efficient. It worked for the Roman state and not for what it could gain (by contrast with other armies, for whom looting was a way of getting payment for service).

The army also took on troops from the provinces (colonies). These people got paid, although less well, but they also got educated



and were able to get Roman citizenship when they retired. Their sons were also allowed to join the legions and so get even more money. In this way the Romans brought native peoples into the Roman way of life and paid them handsomely for it. As a result, over the generations, more and more native people were brought into the Roman way of life.

The army that invaded Britain

This contained four legions and four auxiliary units, making 40,000 men. They had to fight against a part time army of men brought from the fields. The Romans had armour to protect their bodies. The British had none. The Romans had javelins that they threw before the British came within sword range – the British had no javelins. As a result, many British were killed before they even got close to the Romans.

The Romans also kept close together. They did this to protect one another. They also used short stabbing swords which were very good in crowded fights. The British had long cutting swords which they were often not able to use in crowded fights.

The only way the British could gain a success was by ambushing small groups of Romans, never by fighting them in battle.

As the Romans swept on, the British retreated behind the walls of their (Iron Age) hill forts. But this did them little good because the forts were easily surrounded and the people starved out. Most of all, the British were at a real disadvantage in the longer term because they needed both to fight and farm the land. If they kept fighting, their food ran out and the people starved. So, for part of the year, the British were not able to fight at all. By contrast the Romans were well supplied with provisions from the rest of the empire.

What the Romans did was to advance a certain distance each year and then build forts during the time the British were farming. These forts were then well supplied. So each year more and more land was secured and any British army that could be gathered together after harvest-time was pushed further and further back north and west.

Army dress changed through the centuries. You may see this when visiting a museum. Early long spears were replaced by javelins. The helmets were first made of bronze but later made of iron and the body armour was only invented after the first century AD. It was tied together with leather thongs.

Head crests varied and indicated status. As a result, people in the army could show that they had progressed through the ranks, just as is true for a modern army.

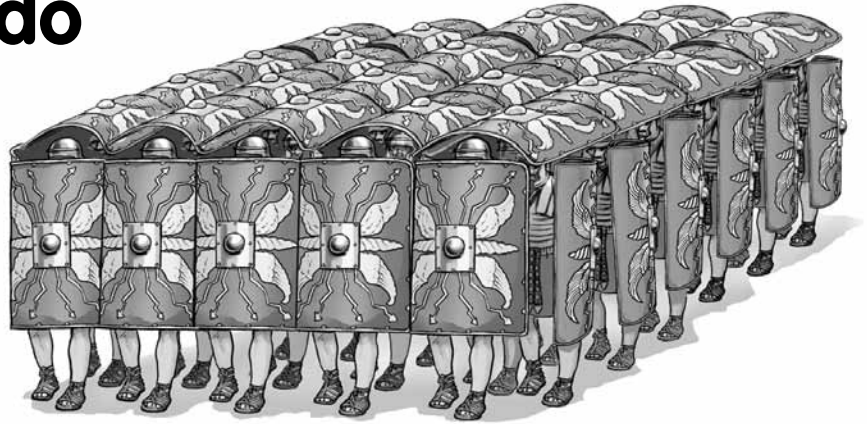
Barbarians

It might be worth explaining to children the Roman use of the term barbarian. This implied a person from outside the empire. It did not matter whether they came from Scandinavia, China or Scotland.

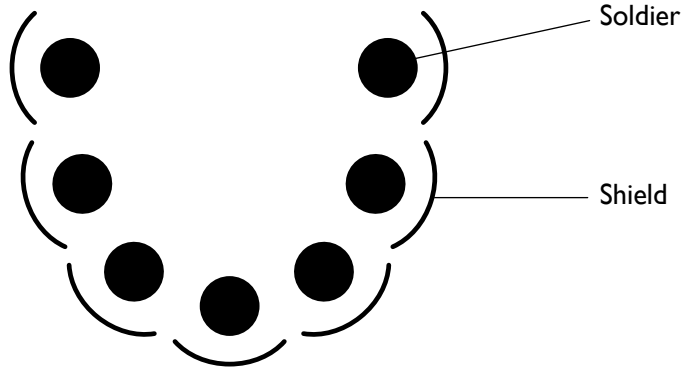
Barbarians were people believed to be inferior. The use of the term barbarian can thus, from the Roman point of view, be used to refer to the Picti of Scotland or the Scotti of Ireland as well as the Saxons of Germany. When the Romans invaded Britain, its peoples were thought of as barbarians until the Roman cultural pattern was established.

Make a testudo

1. Take a very large sheet of cardboard and make a Roman shield using the pictures on page 13 to help you.



2. Devise a handle for the back of the shield and stick it in place.
3. Organise a group of soldiers to stand as this plan shows. Then let others join in to fill the space and make the roof.



4. Make the testudo move forwards ten metres.
5. What problems did you have in keeping yourself protected as you moved along? Discuss your ideas with the other soldiers in the group. How could you improve on your attack? Write down your findings here.

.....

.....

.....

6. Imagine what it must have been like in the testudo when you were moving across a battlefield and write about your ideas on the back of this worksheet. Compare your ideas with others in the testudo. What do you find?



Make a testudo

Age range

- You may wish to use this activity with years 3/4 (SP4/5) students as they are generally smaller than older students and it may be easier to find sheets of cardboard large enough to make the shields.
- Although students in years 5/6 (SP6/7) may enjoy and benefit from this activity you may experience difficulty finding sheets of cardboard large enough for them to use.

Resources

Very large sheets of cardboard, scissors, smaller pieces of cardboard, sticky tape (or string) to make the handles.

Using the worksheet

You could use this worksheet after reading pages 12 and 13 in the student book and tell them to imagine they are about to engage with the Celts in battle. Tell the students that the Celts will make a lot of noise in battle as well as throw objects at them. This information will help them use their imaginations in step 6 of the activity.

Younger students

Let the students look at the pictures of shields on page 13 of the student book and give them a piece of cardboard each. Let them decide on the shape and curvature of the shield and how it will be supported at the back. When all decisions have been made let the students make their shields. If there are differing ideas about how the handles should be made let the students make their own handles. They will be able to evaluate the performance of the handles later.

If there is time and you feel that it is appropriate you may let the students paint and decorate their shields.

Let the students try steps 3 and 4. When they are moving forwards in the testudo you may wish others in the class to make warlike noises for added realism.

Step 5 enables the students to evaluate the way they worked as a team and devise ways to improve performance.

Step 6 allows the students to compare feelings. You may like to quantify the data such as how many felt frightened, how many felt they were not in control, how many would have preferred to stand and fight the enemy, and so on, and express the information in a chart.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use simple materials and equipment safely.
- Devise and build a piece of equipment.
- Assess their performance in working in a team.
- Explore what it might have been like to go into battle in a testudo.

Older students

The students can follow the sequence outlined above for younger students. They may devise more sophisticated shields and show greater teamwork and imagination.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use simple materials and equipment safely.
- Devise and build a piece of equipment.
- Assess their performance in working in a team.
- Explore what it might have been like to go into battle in a testudo.

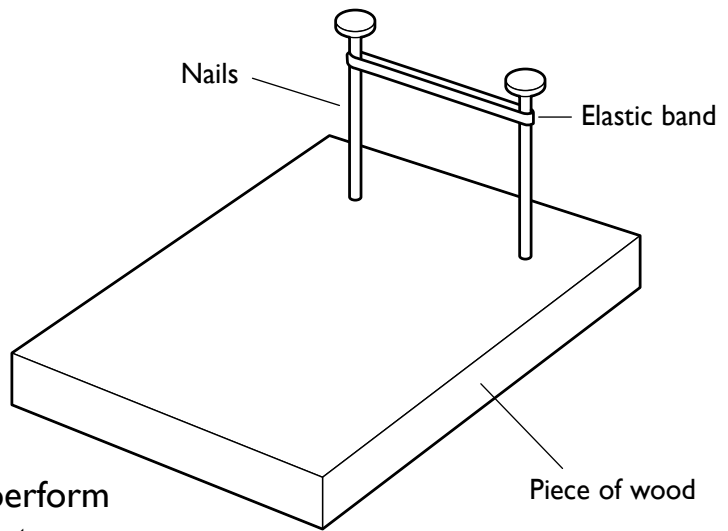
The ballista

The Romans used a giant catapult in battle. It was called a ballista. It worked like this: You pull back on an elastic material, set up a load such as a large rock and then release the elastic material and the rock flies across the battlefield. Investigate how a ballista works by making this simple model.

1. Take a piece of wood, two nails, a hammer and an elastic band, and make a ballista like the one shown in the diagram.

2. Show your teacher your model. Let your teacher check that it is safe to use in the next part of the activity.

3. How do you think the ballista will perform when the elastic band is pulled back to different distances before it is released?





4. Make a paper ball to use as a load then test your ideas in step 3.

5. What did your test show?





6. Make a model of part of a stockade of a hill fort using drinking straws. Set the straws up so that they are easy to knock down. Work out how far away you could place your ballista to knock a hole in the stockade.

7. Try your ballista at the distance you selected. What happened?





The ballista

Age range

- If you use this activity with years 3/4 (SP4/5) you may wish to assemble the ballistas yourself, check that they are safe to use, then issue them to the students.
- You may let students in years 5/6 (SP6/7) work through the whole of the activity on the worksheet.

Resources

A piece of wood, two nails, an elastic band, a hammer, kitchen roll paper to make a ball for a projectile, drinking straws, scissors, sticky tape or Plasticine, card on which to mount the straws in the stockade. Check your school policies and see if the children should wear eye protection when using elastic bands.

Using the worksheet

Tell the students that the Romans also had large weapons to help them win battles or attack hill forts. The ballista is an example. The students can then make and/or use the ballista to carry out the investigation.

This activity concerns the use of a ballista in attacking a hill fort. The students may like to assess the performance of the ballista attacking an approaching army of Celts. They can make such an army using worksheet **4A** and drawing in Celtic warriors using the picture on page 6 of the student book.

Younger students

You may wish to make the ballistas for the students and let them carry out the rest of the activity. Encourage the students to make measurements such as how far the elastic band was pulled back and how far the missile went. Warn them about overstretching the elastic band and making it snap. When they have worked out their measurements see if they use them to calculate how far they should be from the stockade. Some students may think that the ballista should be brought in close to smash down the wall at one go. Ask them to think about what might happen to the soldiers operating

the ballista if they were too close to the wall at first where Celts may throw spears. Could a more gradual approach be safer?

Outcomes

The students can:

- Work out a relationship between extension of elastic material and distance covered by missile.
- Use data collected in an activity to solve a practical problem.
- Realise that tactics are important in warfare.

Older students

The students can make all the models and perform all parts of the activity. Encourage them to check their results by repeating their investigations.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make and use simple materials and equipment safely.
- Make measurements in an investigation.
- Describe a pattern in their data.
- Realise that tactics are important in warfare.



Colchester was the chief base used by the Trinovantes and after their defeat it was initially used by the Romans. Legion II moved south and helped the Atrebates to get their kingdom back. Then the Isle of Wight and Dorset were overcome and the hill forts destroyed. Legion IX moved up into Lincolnshire, and Legion XIV moved towards Leicester.

Aulus Plautius completed the occupation from the Exe to the Humber by AD 47, connecting the frontier towns by the Fosse Way. His post was then taken over by Ostorius Scapula. Because Caractacus was still causing trouble, the Roman army decided to invade yet further west. The Roman army under Ostorius Scapula defeated Caractacus and his men in AD 50 in the Welsh Marches. Caractacus again fled, this time to the north to the land of the Brigantes (north western England). However, Queen Cartimandua, was extremely sensitive to securing her own position and not giving the Romans an excuse to remove her. As a result she captured Caractacus and gave him to the Romans. Caractacus and his family were taken to Rome and made to walk in a Roman victory parade organised by emperor Claudius. Caractacus fully expected to be executed, but his bravery appealed to the Romans and so he was pardoned, although he had to remain in Rome for the rest of his life.

Trinovantes

An important tribe whose territory led from London to East Anglia. They had a history of being friendly to the Romans, having helped the Romans under Caesar in 54 BC, but the objective was more to defeat their rivals, the Catuvellauni. Things were different by the time Claudius invaded, for by then the Trinovantes were led by Caractacus.

The father of Caractacus was Cunobelinus (Cymbeline in William Shakespeare's play). Cunobelinus increased his territory to include modern Essex, making Colchester, later called Camulodunum, his capital. He also conquered the Atrebates of Hampshire and the Dobuni of Gloucestershire. His importance was noted by the Romans. The Roman biographer Suetonius referred to him as "Britannorum rex" (King of Britain).

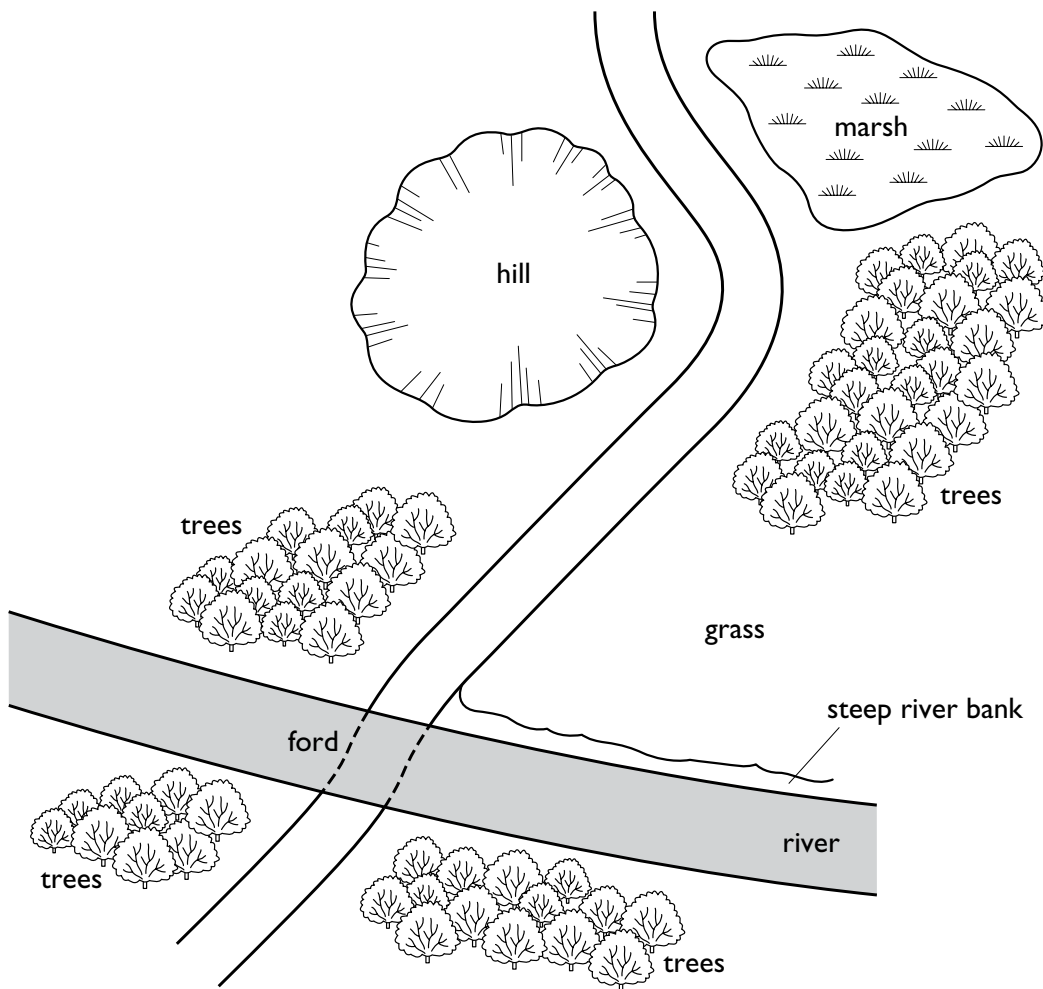
Problems broke out when Cunobelinus argued with his son Adminius in AD 40. Adminius went to Rome to ask for the Romans to invade so that he could secure his throne.

However, the other sons of Cunobelinus, Caractacus and Togodumnus, were anti-Roman. This was a mistake because the hostility could be used as an excuse to invade Britain, the assumption being that the trade and tax links between the countries might be broken, to the detriment of the Romans. In some ways, therefore, Caractacus could be seen in part as responsible for bringing the invasion led by Claudius in AD 43.

Although Caractacus escaped, the Trinovantes as a whole were subdued quickly and made a client kingdom. They became involved with the uprising associated with Boudicca in AD 60 to 61 and they were put down along with other tribes.

Plan an attack

- Imagine that you have a small army that supports Caractacus. You want to help him fight the Romans. You know that a patrol of about 40 Roman soldiers is going to come along a road and over a river.
- Where would you position your band of 20 warriors to attack them?



- Give reasons for your answers.









Plan an attack

Age range

- With years 3/4 (SP4/5) you may wish children to work in groups to plan their attack. If they have made model armies in activity 4A, you might like to set up a model battlefield based on the map and let the children act out their plan with the soldiers.
- With years 5/6 (SP6/7) you may wish them to write an account of what they would do and if they won or lost.

Resources

A copy of the worksheet, British and Roman soldiers from activity 4A, a model of the battlefield for younger students, a copy of the worksheet for older students.

Using the worksheet

After reading about Caractacus in the student book focus on the idea of hit and run tactics and tell the students that they are the leader of a small group of warriors who want to attack a group of Roman soldiers coming into their neighbourhood.

Younger students

Issue the worksheet and let the students work in groups. Develop the attack with the use of models.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Appreciate how the British warriors planned small attacks on the Roman army.
- Interpret a simple map.

Older students

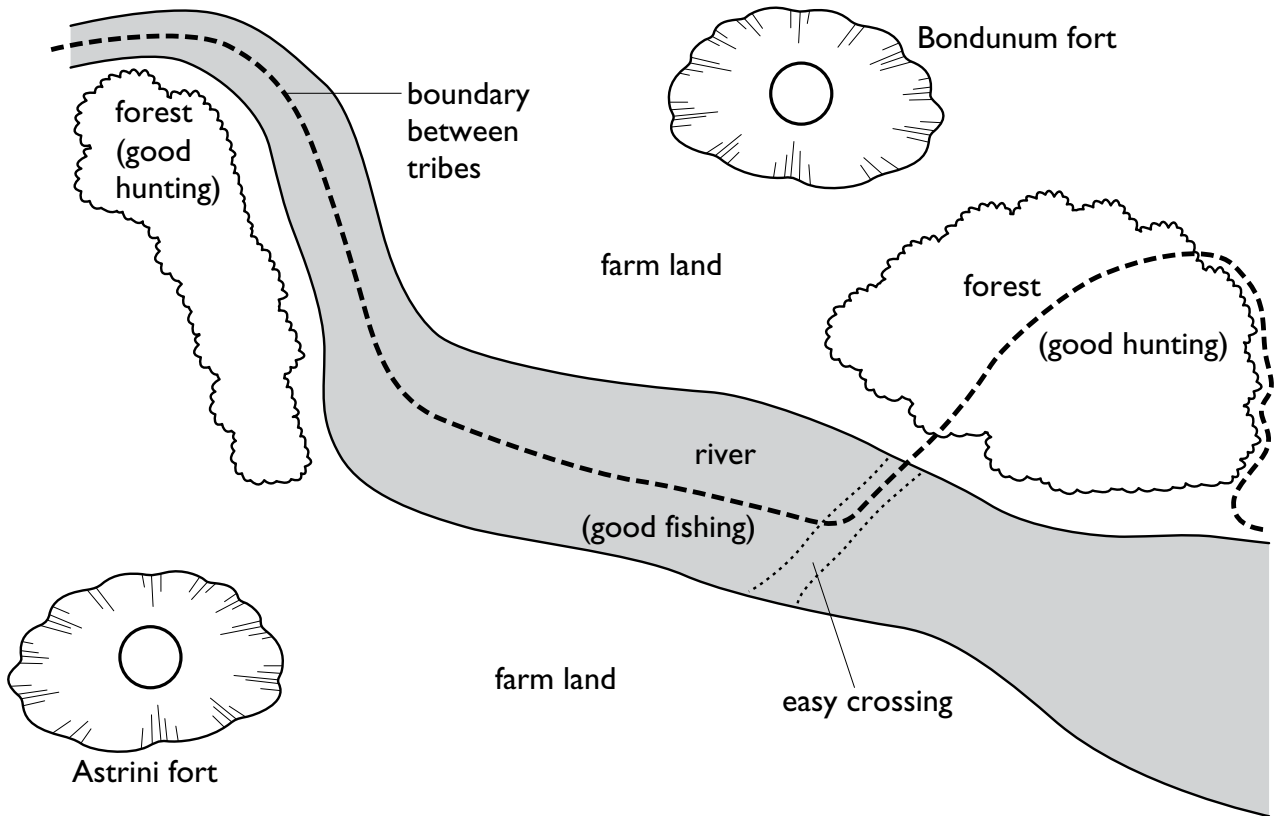
Older students can spend more time on writing about the attack and its consequences. You could ask some students to write a story of the attack from a British warrior's point of view and ask other students to write about the attack from a Roman soldier's point of view. The students could then read out their stories and compare how the soldiers felt.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Appreciate how the British warriors planned small attacks on the Roman army.
- Interpret a simple map.
- Take a point of view about an event and tell others about it.
- Assess the motivation of the soldiers on the different sides in the battle.

Tribe trouble



For many years the Astrini lived on one side of the river and the Bondunum lived on the other. After a particularly wet winter, some stones in the river piled up and made the river easier to cross. People from the Astrini crossed over and began hunting in the forest belonging to the Bondunum. At the time the numbers of Bondunum were small and the numbers of the Astrini were large so the Astrini took over a large part of the Bondunum's forest. In time the numbers of Bondunum increased and the numbers of the Astrini decreased and the Bondunum decided that they wanted all of their forest back. They let it be known that they would fight the Astrini if they did not give it up but the Astrini went to get help from the Crestali, a tribe that did not like the Bondunum. Can trouble be avoided?









Tribe trouble

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A copy of the worksheet.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Work out a range of scenarios from information in the form of text and a map.
- Present their findings to others.
- Examine strategies for peace between the tribes.

Using the worksheet

This worksheet aims to show how the tribes lived together and how conflict may arise between them. The names of the tribes are fictitious and so is the incident. This will prevent confusion if you use other sources which mention real tribes and incidents.

Younger students

Issue the worksheet and read the story with the class and study the map with them. Divide the class into groups – the Astrini and the Bondunum. Each tribe should then elect a leader and the leader should then organise his or her tribe into small groups. Each group should then discuss what should be done. Advise them that they should try and find a peaceful solution to the problem. All the groups then report back to the leader of the tribe and a decision is made.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Understand that tribes have histories which may affect how they behave.
- Debate an issue and form a conclusion.

Older students

Issue the worksheet and let the students read the story and study the map. Let them work in small groups to discuss different scenarios. The groups could then present one or more of the scenarios they have worked out. You could explore reasons why the Crestali do not like the Bondunum and suggest ways that the situation could be improved.

Spread 7 (pages 16–17)

Differing ways of life

▶ 7A

▶ 7B

▶ 7C

The purpose of the spread

We have now introduced children to both the British (Celts) and the Romans, at least in some terms of invasion.

This spread gives the opportunity to consider many more aspects of the lives of both groups and to consolidate understanding.

It is a vehicle for talking more about the Celtic way of life if that is wished, because any aspect of life can be drawn out for further discussion.

Background

Although it has been mentioned before, the differences between the Roman and British ways of life and points of views can be focused using this spread.

Students should be encouraged to put themselves in the shoes of each of the characters portrayed in the spread and perhaps argue out in class the rights and wrongs of their own position, seeing if they could come to any common ground.

Of course, in Roman times, it is the British who would have had to give way as compromise was not part of the Roman character.

The spread hints at many of the spreads to come including ways of farming and religious beliefs.



▲ A Celtic farmer.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on **pages 16 and 17** of *The Romans in Britain*

Can you be a story teller?

Nial and Owen were two farmers. They lived by the river Wandera in the land of Icretia. One spring they fell out over where their sheep should feed. Nial wanted them to feed high on the hills as they had always done while Owen wanted to try something new and let them graze down by the river.

One night there was a great storm in the mountains. After that, the river began to dry up, the land became dry too and the crops failed. Even the emerald ducks that were only found on the Wandera flew away. Nial and Owen thought that Wando, the god of the river, was angry with them. So they left their sheep on the hillsides and went to the next country, Kindolan.

Nial and Owen asked the people of Kindolan if they could live there and set up a farm. The people said there was not enough land for newcomers and that they must move on. Sadly they moved on to the country of Ruchanwin. Here the people were more welcoming. We have enough farmers but we make iron goods like knives and cauldrons and trade them everywhere. You could work at the furnaces smelting the iron out of rocks. Reluctantly the farmers agreed. One day as they laboured at the hot furnace a pair of emerald ducks flew over. "Look they are flying towards Icretia," cried Nial. "Perhaps the Wandera flows again." The farmers decided to go back and see.

When they arrived they saw that the river did indeed flow again and met an old man on the river bank. He told them that in the storm rocks had broken off from the mountains and blocked the path of the river. The water built up behind the rocks and formed a lake but then pushed the rocks out of the way and let the river flow again. The farmers looked up at the mountains. "It was nothing to do with Wando then," laughed Owen as he turned back to face the old man but all he saw was an emerald duck flying away.



Can you be a story teller?

Age range

- Use with years 3/4 (SP4/5) as a story telling exercise.
- Use with years 5/6 (SP6/7) to study why people migrate from one country to another and what happens to them.

Resources

A copy of the worksheet.

Using the worksheet

The aim of the worksheet is to illustrate how the British communicated their information from one generation to the next. They told stories and others memorised them. This is in contrast to the use of writing which is explored in activities **7B** and **7C**. This fictional story is also about people migrating from one country to another and this can be explored by older children and contrasted with the way that the Romans came to live in Britain.

Younger students

You may let the students use this as a homework activity or they could work in groups and memorise parts of the story then tell them in the correct sequence. You could also read part of the story to them a few times and see who can remember it. The students should appreciate that there is skill in remembering and telling a story just as there is in writing and this should help to dispel the barbarian image of the British. It may help the students if they make the story into a play.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Appreciate the story teller's art.
- Work together as a group.
- Appreciate story telling as a way of communication.

Older students

The following approach needs sensitivity but by setting the issues in a fiction story they may be more comfortably addressed.

The students can read through the story and consider reasons why people like Nial and Owen have to leave their homelands. They can look at reasons why migrant people may not be welcome in another country. They can look at reasons why people would be made welcome in another country. They could explore how migrants feel when they are rejected by people in a country and how people in a country feel when migrants arrive.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Discuss issues related to the migration of people.

The Roman alphabet

Here are the letters of the Roman alphabet:

A B C D E F G
H I K L M N O
P Q R S T V X Z

Note that: I and J are both written as I.
V and U are both written as V.
W and Y are not in the alphabet.

1. Write your name using the Roman alphabet.



2. (a) Is it different from the normal way you write your name?



(b) If so how?



3. Write down the name of your street or road using the Roman alphabet



4. Write down the name of your town using the Roman alphabet.





The Roman alphabet

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).

Resources

A copy of the worksheet.

Using the worksheet

If you have tried the activity **7A** about story telling this activity provides a sharp contrast between the British and Roman culture.

Although aimed at younger students, older students studying the Romans for the first time may find the activity interesting.

Younger students

Let the students work through the questions to explore how the Roman alphabet differs from the alphabet they usually use. You may wish to link this with the Roman numbers activity **3c** so that the students can write down their addresses.

Outcomes

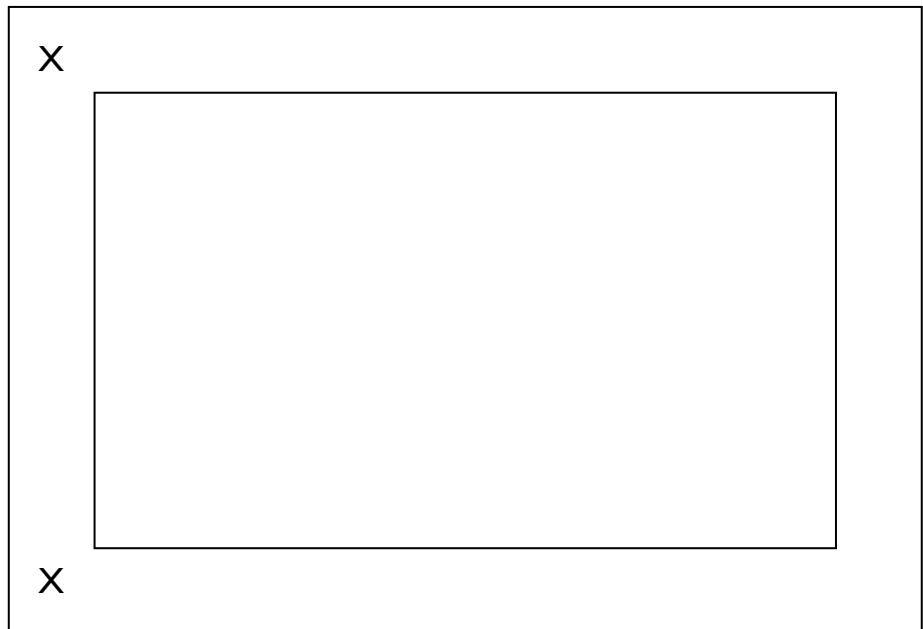
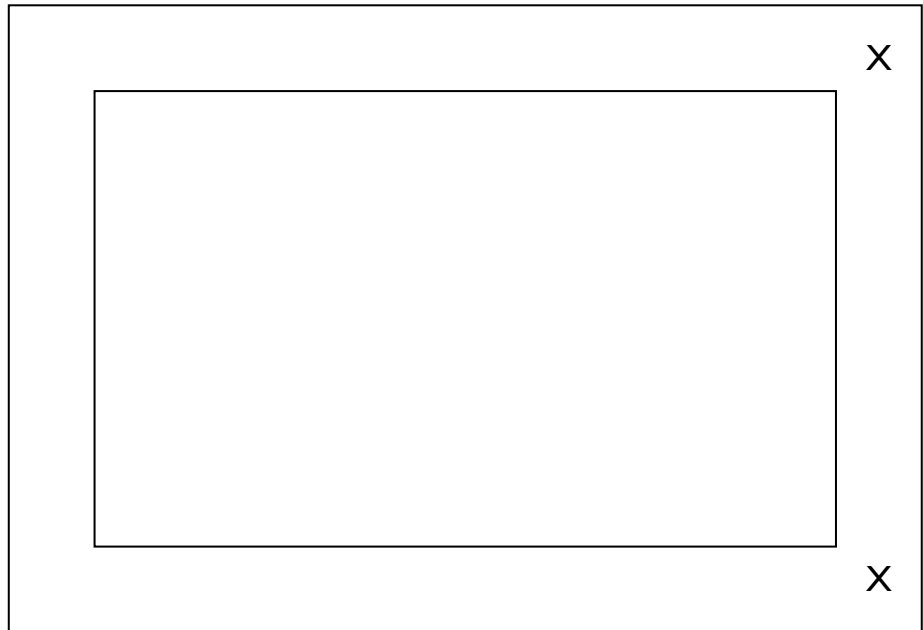
The students can:

- Use the Roman alphabet.
- Tell how the Roman alphabet differs from the one we use today.

Note: A Roman numeral number cruncher is available on the www.curriculumvisions.com web site. Just go to the 'Romans' support section.

Make a writing tablet

1. Cut out the two outlines for the tablet and stick them on cards.
2. Cut strips of card to fit on the border of each outline. Build up the border to a depth of three or four strips.
3. Smear a layer of Plasticine inside the borders to make the tablet. Alternatively cut out a piece of paper to fit inside the border and rub a wax crayon all over one side then stick the paper inside the border.
4. Make a hole at each X in the border and put piece of string through.



5. Join the two tablets together with the pieces of string so that they may be folded open or closed.
6. Use a stylus to write in the tablet.



Make a writing tablet

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).

Resources

Pieces of card, scissors, string, Plasticine or paper and wax crayon, piece of wood with a point to act as a stylus.

Using the worksheet

You may wish to introduce this activity either before or after activity **7B** on the Roman alphabet. The students should not work in groups but make one writing tablet each. Tell the students that the tablets were made using molten beeswax but for safety reasons they will use Plasticine or use wax from a crayon.

Younger students

Go through the instructions with the students then let them make the tablet. They may need help smearing the Plasticine to a thickness of a few millimetres. Once the tablets are made they can be used for writing words using the Roman alphabet. You may like to use them when the students are using Roman numerals too.

Outcomes

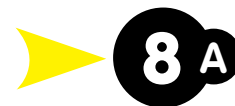
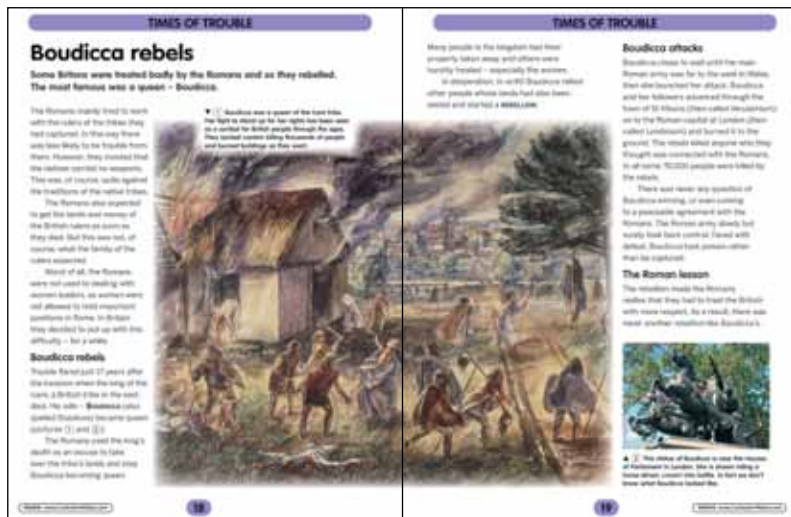
The students can:

- Use simple materials and equipment safely.
- Follow instructions.
- Produce a model of a writing tablet.



Spread 8 (pages 18–19)

Boudicca rebels



The purpose of the spread

This spread considers one of the most renowned aspects of early Roman rule – that of the uprising led by the tribes of the east, of which the most famous leader was Boudicca.

Very little is known about Boudicca (Boadicea), but her role in standing up for herself under difficult times has taken the imagination of generations of people. The statue to Boudicca next to the Houses of Parliament in London, is just one further aspect of this romanticism and caricature that has lasted for millennia.

Background

The rebellion of Boudicca occurred after a long period of misunderstanding and mismanagement. From the Roman point of view it was a political disaster, much as we see such disasters today when people rebel because they feel a deep sense of injustice.

The Romans had assumed that, on the death of the client kings, with whom they had made peace and so been able to take over the country quite easily, they would annex their lands and so take over total control. They did not expect the relatives of the client kings to feel aggrieved when this happened. They also treated the relatives with contempt and so fostered a deep sense of injustice.

The Romans seem to have been quite surprised by this, only realising too late that the British were easy going provided they were not aggrieved. When they were they could become very threatening and a force to be reckoned with.

This is the background in which Boudicca's rebellion occurred. Students should be reminded it was less than 20 years after the invasion and so the ruling by the Romans was still a recent event. Remember too, that the Romans needed the client kings



to provide the main elements of rule, just as the British needed the local rulers' help in their colonies thousands of years later. Taking away lands on the death of a king, and so humiliating the rulers was therefore a great political mistake.

Notice that this took place when Nero was emperor in Rome. When news of the rebellion reached Rome, the governor was quickly recalled and a more sensitive governor put in his place.

Notice that we hear a lot about Boudicca because the news of the uprising and the near loss of a prized province reached Rome. We hear little thereafter, at first because the rebellion was put down in a very brutal manner and probably because there were no further uprisings and so there was nothing 'newsworthy' to report.

Iceni

Boudicca's husband, Prasutagus, was king of the Iceni (in what is now Norfolk) as a client king. Prasutagus died in AD 60 with no male heir. As was the British custom, he left his private wealth to his two daughters and also to the emperor Nero. This way he hoped to secure the position of his daughters and also appease Nero.

Instead of this the tribal leaders were abused and their wealth plundered. So while the provincial governor Suetonius Paulinus was away in AD 60, Boudicca began the uprising that burned Camulodunum (Colchester), Verulamium (St Albans), Londinium (London) and several military posts. All in all about 70,000 Romans and British were killed and the Roman 9th Legion beaten. Paulinus later beat the Iceni at Fenny Stratford on Watling Street which is where Boudicca died.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on pages 18 and 19 of The Romans in Britain

Wondrous Boudicca

I'm Arthur the farmer but once I was Arthur the warrior and fought with Boudicca to defeat the Romans. Boudicca was a fantastic leader. The Romans treated her very badly but she didn't run away. She fought them magnificently.

Let me tell you why she fought them. Boudicca was married to Prasutagus. He was the king of the Iceni tribe to which I belong. When the Romans came, they helped him keep in power but do you know what they wanted in return? – his lands and money when he died. Now that was too much. Eventually Prasutagus died and the Romans came to take their reward. But Boudicca was not happy. She wanted to lead the Iceni. She's a woman, but that's no reason not to lead a big tribe. The Romans would not have any of it. They attacked Boudicca and her two pretty daughters too. It's a wonder they weren't killed.

The Romans made everyone give up their swords. I mean what do they think they are doing? It is our right to carry a sword. They have no right to stop us. After they had decided to take over from Boudicca, they started taking other people's property, too. It was a disgrace, and we wouldn't stand for it. Lots of tribes got together to support Boudicca in taking on the Romans.

Boudicca was not just brave, she was cunning too. She waited until the Roman army had gone to Wales then started her attacks. We went with her and slaughtered all the Romans we could find and the British who had become their friends.

No one was a match for us. We destroyed Camulodunum first where the emperor Claudius was having a new temple built. We knocked that down and left the town in ruins. We chased a lot of rich merchants out of Londinium and killed everyone who was left behind. Londinium did burn well.

The Trinovantes joined up with us to attack Verulamium. This town had been set up with the help of the Catuvellauni. You know what that tribe is like, always siding with the Romans. Well, we saw them off too.

The Romans must have got a panic on because they came back from Wales but we went for them even though we were tired after all those battles. Boudicca inspired us to fight and she led us into battle one last time. Sadly we could not win. Boudicca got away though and later died. She didn't die in battle she was too good for the Romans. They had to re-think how they were going to manage to stay in Britain.



Wondrous Boudicca

Age range

- You may wish to cut down the story a little for years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7) can use the whole story.

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, a costume of a Celtic warrior (optional).

Using the worksheet

This activity should be used in conjunction with activity **8B**. It is aimed to show how some people thought that Boudicca was a heroine. Activity **8B** presents the opposite case. You may either let the students read through the account themselves or any students who are particularly interested in drama might like to dress up in a costume and tell the class by reading from the sheet. Another student could then present the case of the Roman soldier. The accounts have been written in “everyday English” to highlight the opinions of the speaker.

Younger students

The students should look for evidence that support the idea that Boudicca was right in what she did. When they have heard or read the soldier's account they can look for places in the accounts which agree and disagree on the facts.

Outcomes

The students:

- Know that sources can reflect the opinion of the writer or speaker.
- Know that sources about events can contradict each other.

Older students

The students could try and distinguish between fact and opinion in this account and then perform the same exercise on the account given in **8B**. They should then try and state what really happened. You could ask them if anything they have read or viewed before about Boudicca has affected them in their judgements of what is fact and what is just opinion. They could present their

findings in a report or read out their findings so the rest of the class may see how it could differ from either of the two sources.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Distinguish fact from opinion.
- Know that sources may contradict each other.
- Present findings from studying two sources.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on **pages 18 and 19** of *The Romans in Britain*

Barbarous Boudicca



Barbarous Boudicca

Age range

- You may wish to cut down the story a little for years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7) can use the whole story.

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, a costume of a Roman soldier (optional).

Using the worksheet

This activity should be used in conjunction with activity **8A**. It is aimed to show how some people thought that Boudicca was a trouble maker. Activity **8A** presents the opposite case. You may either let the students read through the account themselves or any students who are particularly interested in drama might like to dress up in a costume and tell the class by reading from the sheet. Another student could then present the case of the Celtic warrior. The accounts have been written in “everyday English” to highlight the opinions of the speaker.

Younger students

The students should look for evidence that support the idea that Boudicca was a trouble maker. When they have heard or read the warrior's account they can look for places in the accounts which agree and disagree on the facts.

Outcomes

The students:

- Know that sources can reflect the opinion of the writer or speaker.
- Know that sources about events can contradict each other.

Older students

The students could try and distinguish between fact and opinion in this account and then perform the same exercise on the account given in **8A**. They should then try and state what really happened. You could ask them if anything they have read or viewed before about Boudicca has affected them in their judgements of what is fact and what is just opinion. They could present their

findings in a report or read out their findings so the rest of the class may see how it could differ from either of the two sources.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Distinguish fact from opinion.
- Know that sources may contradict each other.
- Present findings from studying two sources.


Spread 9 (pages 20–21)

Roman forts


TIMES OF TROUBLE

Roman forts

The Romans needed to keep control of the country. They did this by building forts.



▲ Roman forts were large rectangular with a central courtyard. They usually stood on a hill if there was one. They were made of stone or Roman brick (made from no glass in Britain). The fort was usually surrounded by a deep ditch. The fort was built on a high point of land. The fort was built on a high point of land. The fort was built on a high point of land.



▶▶▶ In general, the fort was built on a high point of land.

TIMES OF TROUBLE

The Romans knew that the key to keeping the British under control was to make sure that they could put down any rebellion quickly. To do this they built a network of forts across the country (pages 20 & 21). The forts were built in strategic places and were among the best preserved of all Roman sites (pages 20 & 21).

How a fort was organised

Forts were built where a large number of troops were based. As a result, they were among the biggest Roman structures.

Each fort had an inner and an outer wall usually a double gateway guarded by towers. Main roads ran between gates, creating a grid-like pattern of roads within the fort.

The soldiers were housed in barracks. Each barracks block was made by a central (dormitory).

The fort needed a supply of water. This was usually obtained by digging a well.


The commander

The commander was one of the few people allowed to live inside the fort with his family. His official house, called the **praetorium**, was the largest building in the fort and stood in the middle. The thing that was built by a **commander** (page 20).


The commander walked from the main courtyard through the **praetorium** to the **granary**. Here were often and also a **tablinum**. For Roman assembly hall where the signs of the day were read out.

The main courtyard was surrounded by a double wall (towers) but they were not built in an open field of tall walls.

The **tablinum** - called a **tablinum** - was near the lowest corner of the fort. It possible having water was provided to keep the fort fresh.



▶▶▶ The stone wall floor of the Roman fort at Dinnington, near Northampton. The grid-like pattern of the roads is clearly visible.



▲▶▶ The fort at Maidenhead was built on a high point of land. The fort was built on a high point of land. The fort was built on a high point of land.



The purpose of the spread

Of all of the remains of the Roman occupation that we can look at, the Roman forts are some of the most dramatic.

Here some features of the forts and their organisation is described.

Background

The Romans were essentially a military power of occupation. Their first thought was therefore to the protection of their soldiers.

The first forts were very rudimentary. They had earth banks and possibly palisades made of stakes. But their advantage was that they were easy to put up.

Forts were designed to be located at strategic places. These might include a river confluence, a high pass, the head of an estuary, along an ancient routeway and so on.

As time went by, forts could be rebuilt, enlarged and made more sophisticated. In areas where forts were no longer needed, they could also be taken down completely.

In the Military Zone the forts were occupied for more or less the whole of Roman times. Walls of stone with double door gateways allowed access to a mini-town, with rows of barracks along the sides and a central location for the commanding officer, the granaries (the main food stores), hospital and other important facilities. Such a major fort might be home to several hundred men and some horses.

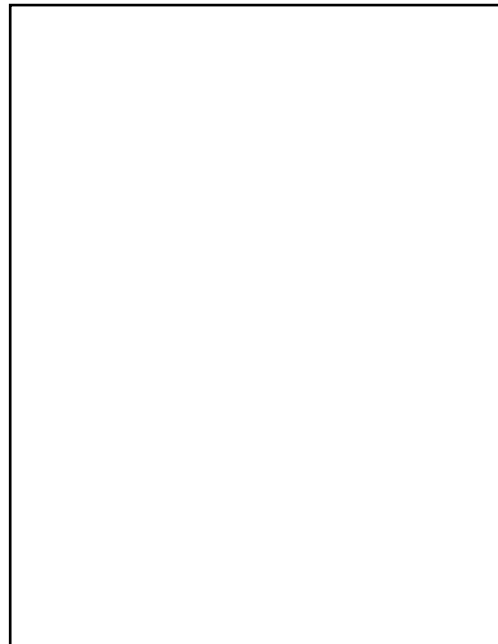
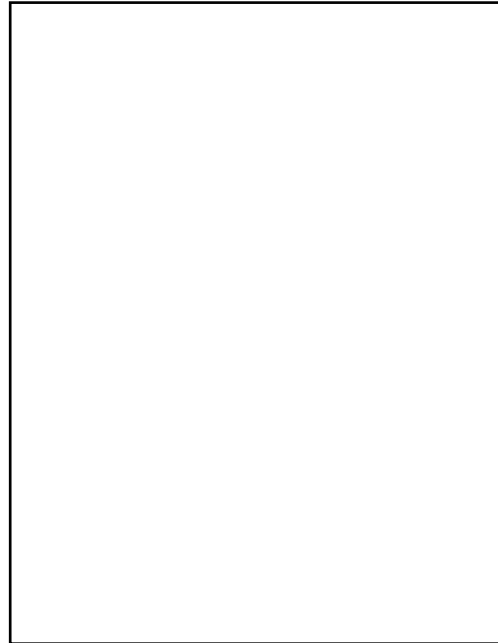


It is important to notice that the fort was not self contained. It needed to be supplied with food and there were many other requirements. Some of the needs were supplied by supply trails – convoys of carts that might, for example, be bringing grain all the way from France. But supplies could also be local and services might be supplied by local people. For this reason small settlements grew up near to the gates of the fort.

Strings of forts were built along especially vulnerable boundaries, such as Hadrian's Wall. In addition to forts there were small defensive positions called milecastles and even smaller fortlets between.

Do they show up?

1. Take a seed tray and place some stones in it as if they were the foundation of a wall. They may go across the width, down the length or diagonally across the seed tray. Make a drawing of the position of your wall foundation in this space.
2. Fill in the rest of the tray with compost.
3. Add some more compost to cover the stones a little and make the whole of the compost level.
4. Sow cress seed in the compost.
5. Water the compost regularly and put the tray in a warm sunny position.
6. When the cress plants come up look for regions where they grow well and regions where they grow less well. Draw the regions where they grow less well in this space.
7. From your investigation could the growth of plants help to locate wall foundations under the ground?











Do they show up?

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

Seed tray, stones, compost, cress seeds, sunny warm position, watering can.

Using the worksheet

Plants need a good root system to grow well. If some plants grow on stones their root systems do not develop as well as those that can grow more freely in deeper soil. This fact can be used to detect the presence of stones close to the surface of the ground. If the poorly growing plants form a line, they could be showing the presence of wall foundations beneath the soil surface. This worksheet shows how science can come to the assistance of archaeology.

Younger students

You could begin by revising the structure and the needs of plants and then consider what may happen if the root system cannot grow properly. Issue the worksheet and let the students work through it. They may need help in organising a rota to water the plants.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Carry out an investigation on how stones may affect root growth.
- See how scientific knowledge can be used by archaeologists.
- Infer the position of walls from plant growth.
- Make comparisons.

Older students

In the revision of plant nutrition the students may review the role of the root. They may predict what might happen if root growth is impaired and then use the investigation to test this. They may wish to make more complex wall foundations than those suggested and can be encouraged to do so. If different groups have set up their foundations in secret, they can challenge each other to locate the position of the foundations when the plants grow.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Carry out an investigation over a period of two weeks.
- Draw conclusions from their observations.
- Appreciate that scientific knowledge may be useful in archaeological investigations.

Make a model hypocaust


1. Look at picture ④ on page 21. Notice how the pillars are made and how they support the floor.

2. Make a model hypocaust using the pillar plan shown right. ○ ○ ○

3. Use small slabs of Plasticine to make the pillars and large slabs to make the floor.

4. If a few people in the class have made a model, see if you can join them together to make a larger floor. ○ ○ ○

5. Imagine that you are in charge of installing a hypocaust in a room in a new villa. How would you go about planning the arrangement of the pillars and organising the slaves to set up the pillars and then lay the floor.

 ○ ○ ○







6. Imagine that you are a slave working on installing a hypocaust. What do you think it would be like installing the pillars?





7. What would it be like installing the floor?





Make a model hypocaust

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- You may wish to use it in years 5/6 (SP6/7) if you are setting up groups to work on different activities connected to Roman life.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Construct a model following instructions.
- Make a presentation about the hypocaust and communicate their ideas to others.

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, Plasticine.

Using the worksheet

After reading about the hypocaust in the student book you may like to look a little more closely at how it was made and reflect on the work of the people who built it. Let the students read about the hypocaust in the spread on forts (there's more on the hypocaust system on page 33 of the student book). Then issue the worksheet.

Younger students

The students should decide on the scale to use to make the model and then cut pieces of Plasticine to form the slabs of rock for the pillars and the floor. They may need help to realise that the spacing of the pillars must be less than the lengths of the floor slabs otherwise the floor slabs will not be supported.

Outcomes

The students can:

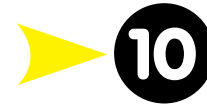
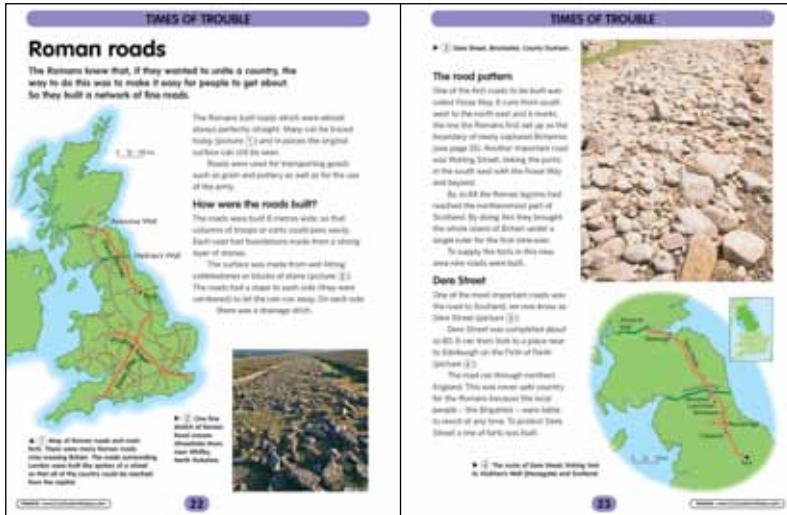
- Make a simple model following instructions.
- Appreciate the considerations that need to be made in constructing a hypocaust.
- Use their imagination to think what it might have been like to build a real hypocaust.

Older students

You may wish to set this activity to one group in the class. When they have finished they can report to the whole class about their experience and what they think it might have been like to work building a real hypocaust.

Spread 10 (pages 22–23)

Roman roads



The purpose of the spread

To show the extensive network of Roman roads and the way they were made.

Background

Roman roads are some of the most obvious signs of Roman occupation in Britain. Their paths can be found on Ordnance Survey maps where they are distinctively marked. Stretches of road can still be found, for example on Wheeldale Moor, North Yorkshire and many modern roads follow the routes originally mapped out by the Roman surveyors. Irmine Street, Fosse Way, Watling Street and many others still make the alignment for modern roads.

The Romans had to build roads because the country they invaded had no nationwide road network. There were roads between settlements, but they were not designed to allow speedy journeys between distant places.

At first it was essential that the Romans had roads so they could easily get troops about and supply the troops wherever they may be. They also needed to provide links between the towns that they superimposed on the Iron Age landscape.

Later, when this need was less, the roads were useful to get food and industrial goods from the countryside into the towns and ports.



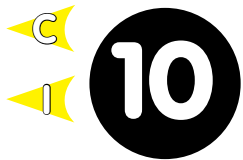
When the Romans occupied Britain the roads were marked with posts where there were resting places and changes of horses were available. It was reputed that, using such roads, it was possible to convey messages at up to 100 km a day. For this there would have had to be relays of runners or riders situated along the roads.

Roads took time to travel along, and travellers, whether army or civilians, would be in need of refreshment if not hospitality. Many small settlements probably grew up along these roads, often where the army kept changes of horses for its message carriers. One such, at Cheshunt (from the Latin for fort and spring), Herts, was about a day's march north of Londinium. If the army were camping there they would probably have set up temporary tented barracks with temporary defences in case of attack. But otherwise the people would have moved in smaller groups, possibly undefended.

Romans built good roads, with proper foundations designed to take heavy traffic for many years without repair. But the roads also had to be built speedily and economically. Thus, the materials and design varied from place to place. In a region of natural stone like the North York Moors, the road foundations and road surface could be built from stone of various grades. But in areas around London, for example, where there was no stone, the roads would have looked very different, built with ditches at either side and a camber, but with foundations of different grades of flints packed hard into clay. If any stone was used at all, it would have only been for the wearing surface.

Students might like to notice how the Roman road system stops at Exeter and hardly reaches beyond the Antonine Wall. There were no roads at all in Ireland because it was not colonised. Thus, to a large extent, the pattern of roads provides as clear a picture of the spread of the Roman empire as anything else.

The Romans never built canals in Britain. In East Anglia there are waterways that have been known as Roman canals, but they were probably simply part of the ditch system needed to drain the fens.



Name:..... Form:.....

Based on pages 22 and 23 of The Romans in Britain

Travelling along a road

A. Comparing roads

1. Mark out a portion of footpath one metre wide and ten metres long.
2. Mark out a portion of a British road for wagons – three metres wide and ten metres long.
3. Mark out a portion of Roman road eight metres wide and ten metres long.
4. Compare the ease of walking along the footpath and the road by having two groups of six people moving in opposite directions along them.
5. How do you think the British felt about travelling along a Roman road compared to their roads and footpaths?





B. Marching

6. Organise a group of five people to try this marching exercise. One person call, “left, right,” while the others march in step. Once this has been achieved the person calling the orders must march in step too. Take turns at calling the orders.
7. Organise a larger group to join the smaller one and try to get everyone to walk in step. What problems do you find?





8. Soldiers took part in route marches to move quickly from place to place. They sometimes marched at a rate of 130 metres per minute. How far can your team march in a minute? Work out a way to find out, then try it.



Travelling along a road

Age range

- You may wish to use the section on roads and trying to march with years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- You may wish to use the whole of the section on marching with years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A playground, chalk, a metre rule, a stop clock, a long measuring tape.

Using the worksheet

You may begin by asking the students to imagine footpaths and roads in Britain before the Romans came. They could think about the width of them and how they might be a muddy mess after rain. They could then think of the large main roads that the Romans built and how the surfaces could be trod safely in any kind of weather. The roads were built to move the army around quickly so a consideration of marching can help the students appreciate how this was done.

Younger students

The students can see how they have to push past each other on narrow footpaths and roads but on the Roman road they can move easily and swiftly. If the students manage to march correctly a longer portion of a Roman road could be marked out and they could march along it.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make accurate measurements.
- Compare British footpaths and roads to Roman roads.
- Work as a group to perform a marching exercise.

Older students

You may like to mark out the widths of the footpath and the roads just so the students can appreciate their dimensions and then challenge them to work as a team to march along the section of the Roman road you have marked out. If they are particularly good at marching ask them to work out a way of turning right or left. If they visit a Roman fort they

could then try and march around the buildings or the wall.

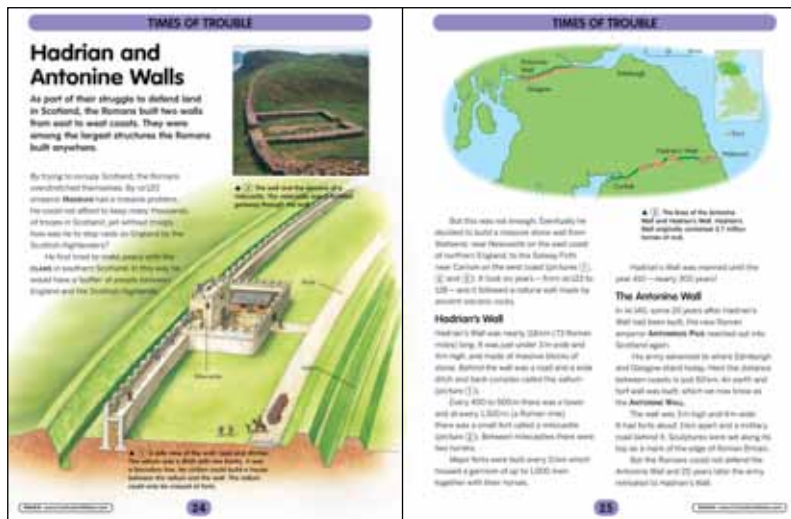
Outcomes

The students can:

- Make comparisons between different kinds of roads.
- Work as a team to perform a marching exercise.
- Devise a way of finding out how far they can march in a minute.
- Compare their marching rate with Roman soldiers on a route march.

Spread 11 (pages 24–25)

Hadrian and Antonine Walls



The purpose of the spread

This spread is concerned with one of the most famous boundaries that the Romans left anywhere in their empire.

Children should be helped to get to grips with its location and then its length and the physical dimensions of the wall.

In this spread there is the opportunity of combining geography and history in a study of the physical location of the wall (on the Great Whin Sill, a band of hard volcanic rock that was injected between other bands of softer rock). Over time, erosion left the harder rock standing as one of the most prominent scarps in Britain.

The wall follows this natural feature and is very clearly influenced by it. This is the reason the wall runs between Newcastle (Wallsend) and the Solway Firth, not because Hadrian fought any battles farther north and was forced to stop at this line. You can see this in comparison with the Antonine Wall – also a history/geography link.

Further, students might care to think about weather on the wall, both in summer and winter, and how this might have affected the nature of Roman buildings and the clothes worn.

Background

After the debacle concerning Boudicca, gradual peace was restored in the south. But in the north there was increasing instability. The Brigantes occupied the region south of the (later) Antonine Wall, down to the Humber and Mersey estuaries. They were important to the Romans because they were used as a buffer between the land they wanted to keep in the north, and guerilla raids from the Scottish Highlands. Their chief city in the north was York.

At the time of the Roman invasion the ruler was Queen Cartimandua. She made peace with the Romans in exchange for their military support in keeping control. But she was faced with many revolts by those who were opposed to Roman influence. By AD 48 (just five years after the Romans arrived), Cartimandua needed Roman help to defeat the revolts. Then, when, three years later the Queen's forces arrested the leader of the British resistance, Caractacus, who had fled to Brigantium to try to get support for his cause, and turned him over to the Romans, she guaranteed Roman support but also the opposition of many in her own region, including her husband (who was not king)



who saw the act as traitorous. So in AD 57, and again in AD 69 the Romans had to help put down an uprising. However, this continuing trouble meant that the northern boundary of the province was not secure and so there was pressure to advance north and pacify the highlanders once and for all.

As a result, by AD 83 Roman armies had marched northwards and reached the northern tip of Scotland, establishing garrisons on the edge of the Highlands.

The problem was that, although the numbers of people in the Scottish Highlands was small, their hit and run fighting tactics meant that a small number of such people could hold down a large force. Keeping a force for this purpose became increasingly difficult as troops were needed elsewhere.

Things came to a head in the time of emperors Trajan and Hadrian, the latter deciding that the highlands should not be occupied any longer. Instead, he opted for the construction of a wall across a narrow part of what is now northern England. The line of the wall was chosen to follow, for the most part, one of the north's most prominent landmarks, the great Whin Sill. This sill, made of hard volcanic rock, was in effect natural wall. At the same time, it provided good hard stone to use for the building of the wall on its summit. This wall came to be called Hadrian's Wall.

Hadrian's Wall was never the location of any recorded battles.

Contrasts between treatment of the lowland and the highland peoples

It was relatively easy to pacify the lowlanders, but hard to pacify the highlanders (including those in Wales, Scotland and the Pennines) and the reasons for this can be talked through.

The way of life of the Romans, with their towns and settled agriculture, appealed to the lowland peoples. However, those who lived in the hills were pastoral peoples who were not given to a settled way of life and for this reason they resisted the Romans. Notice that, although the greatest resistance was in the north (resulting in the need for Hadrian's Wall) there was also still resistance in Wales. Only the Vale of Glamorgan became a

pacified region. To the north, Roman control was not complete.

There was even trouble as far as the 3rd century from the Pennines, and when they did rebel, they were likely to get support from the tribes in Scotland. As a result, all upland areas were a constant source of unrest.

The Antonine Wall

Remember that the Romans had invaded in part to increase the wealth of the empire. But this wealth could only be realised if the country was pacified. The time before Hadrian had shown how difficult this was in the case of the Scottish Highlands.

Remember, too, that extending the empire brought prestige to the emperor. Extending the wall north of the line of Hadrian was ordered by emperor Antoninus Pius in AD 142. The line was chosen for geographical reasons just as Hadrian's Wall had been. In this case the line chosen was the shortest across Britain – from the firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth. This was only 59 km as opposed to the 120 km of Hadrian's Wall. The wall was four and a half metres wide and about three metres high. However, there was no natural wall on which to build it.

In front of the wall was a ditch 12 metres wide and four metres deep and a Roman road ran on the southern side so that troops could easily be moved to points of attack. The line was protected by 19 forts each 3 km apart.

Each fort contained a regiment of auxiliaries, each containing several hundred men. They slept in barracks within the forts, usually eight men to a room. The auxiliaries were recruited from the empire's frontier provinces and did not include legionaries. Few of the people manning the defences would have been Romans.

This wall was defended until AD 196, a period of about 50 years. To make it easier to defend, the tribes between Hadrian and the Antonine Wall were rounded up and shipped off to Germany as slaves or to fight for the empire in the distant provinces. This meant that the southern Highlands could be given to Romans as farmland.

Defending this wall proved quite troublesome because the lowland was easier country over which to fight, and tribes from

the north (and from Ireland) could bypass the wall and land on the shores to its south.

At one point – between AD 155 and 158, the wall had to be abandoned because of a successful northern revolt.

Although the Roman army did not have the manpower to defend the Antonine Wall in the long term, this did not stop them from wanting to keep southern Scotland within their control. They occupied it militarily in the 2nd century. In the 3rd century (in the time of the emperor Septimius Severus) they advanced between AD 208 and 211 along the east coast of Scotland and built permanent bases. Emperor Caracalla tried a more softly, softly approach, signing treaties with, and offering money to, the tribes in Scotland to try to ensure peace. Through all of this period, Roman patrols based at Hadrian's Wall, made regular tours throughout this region. By the 4th century the patrols were withdrawn as the Roman empire came to rely more and more on treaties of friendship.

The Romans in Scotland

The advance into Scotland was begun by Agricola in ad 77 or 78. Advances were made each summer until much of Scotland (under the Picti (painted people)) was notionally under Roman control. The most decisive battle was Mons Graupius, in ad 84 where the Picti under Calagus were defeated. For a while this stopped the Picti from attacking, but within 30 years they were back again. In ad 120 a revolt of the Brigantes in the north coupled with a Pictish invasion meant that the Romans nearly lost control of the whole of northern Britain. This is when Hadrian ordered the construction of the wall now named after him.

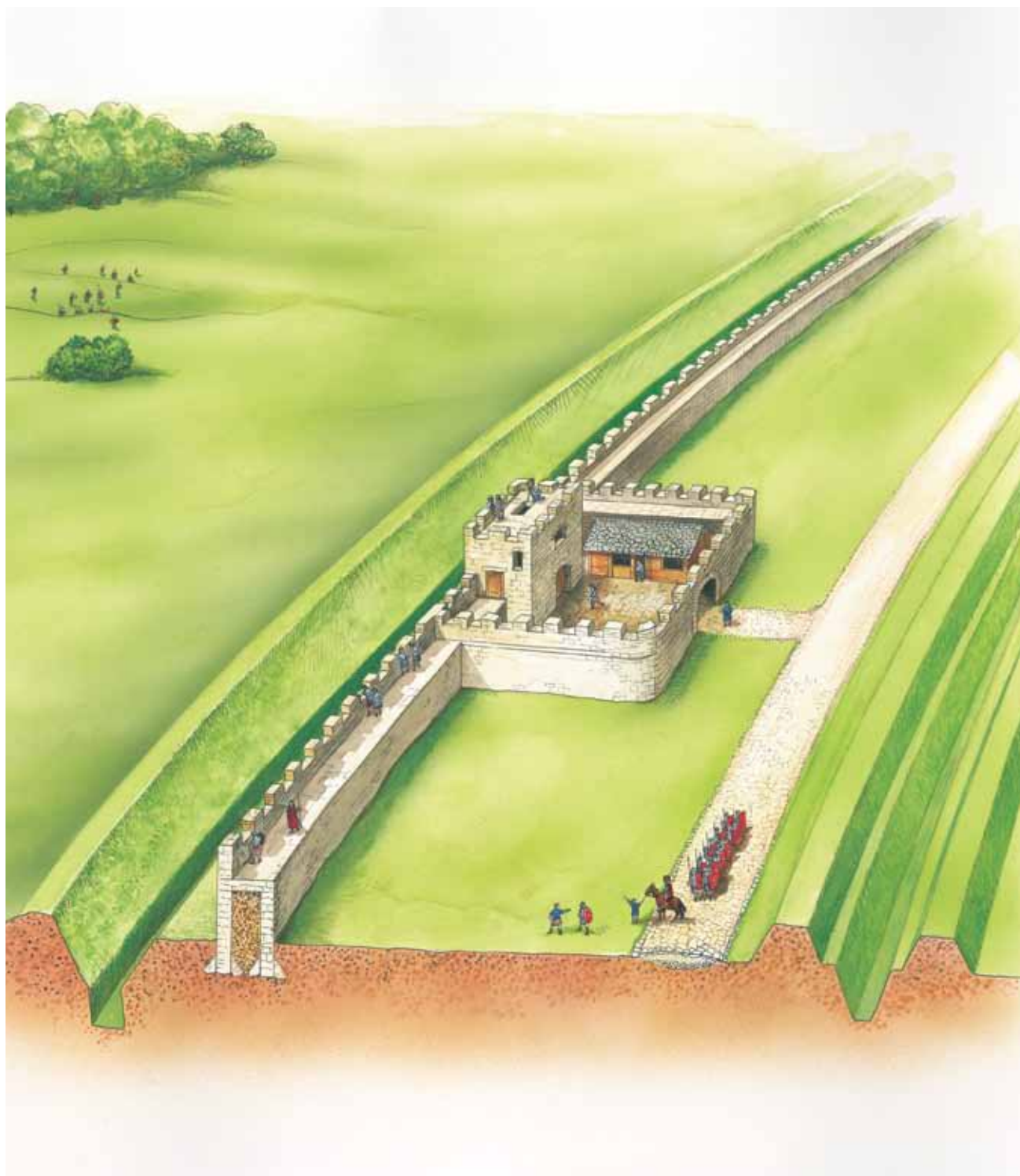
A further revolt occurred in AD 140, and it is this that provoked the Antonine Wall being built between the Clyde and the Forth. The II, VI and XX Roman legions constructed the wall, making a foundation of stone four and a half metres wide and then building up the wall of soil and stabilising the earth with a turf cover.

Because the wall was shorter it could have twice the density of garrisons to Hadrian's Wall and 30,000 men were stationed there.

Between AD 154 to 157, the Antonine Wall was abandoned. The whole of southern Scotland was abandoned by AD 164.

In the AD 190s an invasion which included Picti and Scotti made life even harder for the Romans in their northern territory and so an army under the emperor Septimius Severus was sent in AD 208 to recapture land. They repaired the Antonine Wall and it was renamed the Severan Wall for a time, but this occupation did not last long.

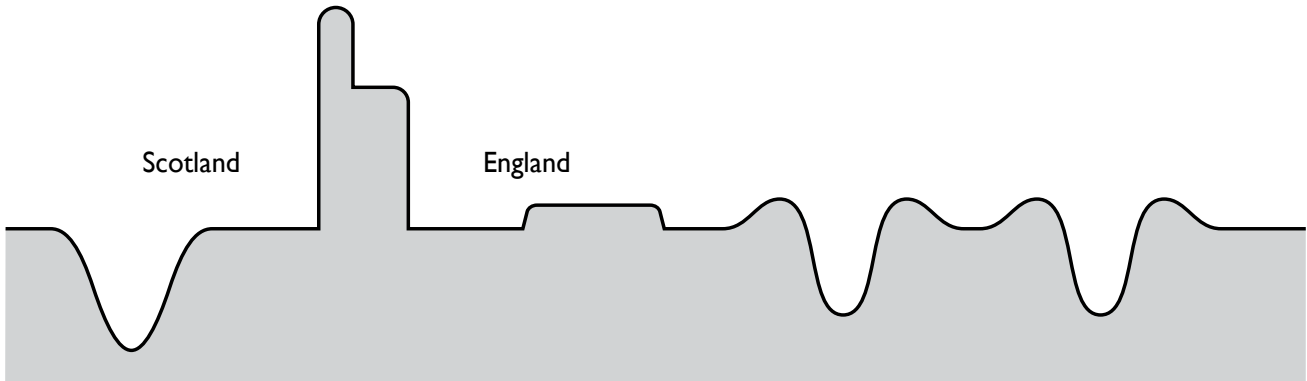
Note: The Picti were the original dominant Celtic tribe of Scotland. Scotia was the original name of Ireland, and the inhabitants of Scotia were Scotti. The Scotti only invaded Scotland in the 5th century and only then eventually joined with the Picti and others to form Scotland.



▲ A milecastle or fortlet along a section of Hadrian's Wall.

Could you get across the border?

1. Here is a cross section of Hadrian's Wall. Imagine that you wanted to get across it – how would you do it? Write about how you would approach the wall from Scotland get over it and sneak away unseen into England.



Approaching the wall.

.....

Getting over the wall.

.....

Getting across the wall.

.....

Getting over the north mound.

.....

In the ditch.

.....

Getting over the south mound.

.....



Could you get across the border?

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Describe the arrangement of defences at Hadrian's Wall.
- Compare the difficulty of crossing each section of the wall.
- Use their imagination to describe what it might be like to cross the wall.

Using the worksheet

The students may appreciate the structure of Hadrian's Wall if they imagine that they have to try and cross it unseen and get into England. The students should think of the factors involved. These include the time of day they would try, the length of time they may take (perhaps waiting overnight in a ditch), the materials they might have to carry to get over the wall, and the clothing they might need for camouflage.

Younger students

The students could be introduced to the worksheet after reading about the wall on pages 24 and 25 of the student book.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that the wall includes a complex of ditches supported by a road.
- Use their imagination to describe what it might be like to cross the wall.

Older students

Before issuing the sheet, you may wish older students to read more widely about the wall and the organisation of the army on the wall and the resources available to those wishing to pass into England. The students can then weave this extra information into their accounts and perhaps produce an essay on the back of the worksheet. There are gates in the wall. The students may like to consider how they might try and get through a gate without being seen but also consider the larger number of soldiers present at a gate than on the wall.

Sending signals

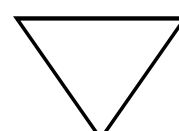
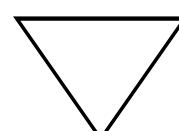
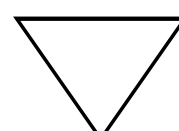
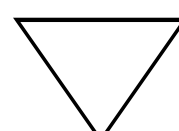
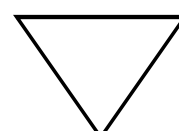
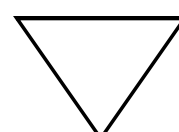
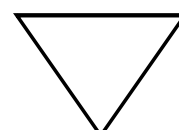
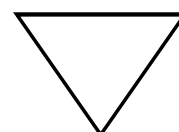
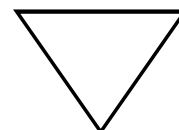
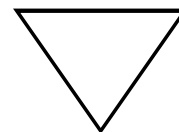
The Romans had a system of signalling using flags. The flags were arranged in two groups of five and different combinations of them were used to send each letter of the alphabet.

1. Cut out the flags on the right of this worksheet, colour them red and stick them on the end of ten straws.
2. Take a cereal box, lie it on its side and make five holes in a line then leave a gap and make another five holes in a line.
3. Use the table below to send messages with the flags.

	I	II	III	IV	V
I	A	B	C	D	E
II	F	G	H	I	K
III	L	M	N	O	P
IV	Q	R	S	T	V
V	X	Z			

You send a letter in the following way. For example, if you wanted to send the letter H you would do this:

- (a) Look along the top of the table until you find the column containing H. It is column III.
 - (b) Place three flags in the holes on your right.
 - (c) Look down the side of the table and find the line that H is on. It is on line II.
 - (d) Place two flags in the holes on your left.
 - (e) Turn the box round so that the flags face the person you are sending the message to in just the same way as when you set them up. That is three flags on their right and two flags on their left.
 - (f) Give the person a copy of the table and tell them how to find the letter.
4. Once you and your friend understand how to send and receive letters, send a message and let your friend decode it.





Sending signals

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

Ten drinking straws, scissors, sticky paper, a cereal box, red pencil or crayon.

Using the worksheet

This activity shows one of the ways that Romans sent messages along the walls they defended. The flags were actually on poles. The poles were arranged on two trestles. They were attached to the trestle as if they were a see saw and the end with the flag on could be swung up or lowered as required. The flags were displayed so they could be read by someone facing them looking to the flags in the right to find the column number and the flags to the left to find the line number. As the people sending the message were behind the flags they actually put the flags to their left for the column number and the flags to their right for the line number. To reduce this complication in the model, the sender is instructed to set up the message as the receiver will see it then turn it round.

Younger students

The students may need help in reading the table and setting up the flags. When they turn them to the receiver of the message the receiver may say that he or she cannot see the flags. This will help the students realise that the flags need to be displayed side on to the receiver of the message.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make a simple model following instructions.
- Understand a simple code.
- Send and receive a coded message

Older students

When the students have mastered the code and technique of sending and receiving it, they could send a message using the Latin words in activity 3B. A pair could also set up two flag systems and send messages to each other. Perhaps three or four could work together to send a message a long distance – from the hall, round a corner to the classroom.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Understand and use a simple code.
- Communicate using the flag system.
- Relay a message over a long distance using the flag system.

Chapter 4: Settling down

Spread 12 (pages 26–27)

The Civil Zone

SETTLING DOWN

The Civil Zone

Life was much more peaceful away from the frontier regions, or Military Zone. This area was called the Civil Zone.

When the Romans arrived they had found many tribes who were often at war with one another. Unless they were prepared to keep a large number of troops in Britain, a way had to be found to turn the British into peaceful people.

■ 1 The Romans introduced the *colonus* as a new type of land owner, and a new way of working. Through them and markets in towns.

The areas where people lived most peacefully for the Romans were the south and west of England. Farms were built at first in this area, but later travelled into towns.

The Romans then began to draw the leaders of the British into their court to secure goodwill by trading with them. (picture 1.5)



26

SETTLING DOWN

They were more successful in the north and west and so the Military Zone was never abandoned in this area. It remained dominated by the army based in Hadrian's Wall.

Life in the Civil Zone

The first governor to develop the Civil Zone was *Aulus Plautius*. He encouraged the British to adopt a Roman way of life, wearing Roman clothes, building temples, villas, baths, forums (picture 2.1) and amphitheatres. He also made sure that the laws of the British leaders were in line with the Roman law, especially by learning the Roman language – *Latin* (picture 2.2).

As a result, not only did the more wealthy British start to live in villas, but they also began to read and write in Roman letters. (text for a thousand years after the Roman era).

The common people

The Romans spent their efforts on the ruling class of the British tribes – the elite, knights and nobles. But Roman laws did not reach the people in the north parts of the empire long. Eventually they changed the shape of their houses from round huts to a Roman rectangular design, but they did not learn Latin and they kept on using and farming their traditional way. This was important for the work of Roman farms (see page 46) because it meant that, when the colony went away, all the Roman ideas.

■ 2 The remains of buildings in Roman towns can still be found, such as here in Lincoln.

■ 3 Learning was an important activity. They wrote using special pens called quills or reeds. This is a picture of a tablet. Some of the words are not clear, in ancient English they were written in Latin.



27



The purpose of the spread

This spread concentrates on the next phase following military invasion – getting the new provincial people to accept the way of life of the invaders and begin to work with them and not against them.

Background

Remember that the Romans were using client kings and queens to do the actual ruling, so that the majority of the people, whether in the Civil or Military Zones, would not necessarily have much direct contact with the Romans.

The intention of the Romans was thus to make sure they had the ruling classes on their side and to do this they had to ensure that the ruling classes were more prosperous. An important key to this change was to educate the ruling classes in particular.

For the first twenty years or so it was difficult to develop a Roman form of civilisation because of military needs. Nonetheless, some towns had been started, initially as garrison centres, but later widened to be more than this. A merchant class was essential if goods were to be bought from the British and sent to Rome in exchange for goods made in other parts of the empire. (This was separate from taxes).

The first change to the Civil Zone came with the emperor Flavian. Then the Civil Zone was made more secure by the final conquest of Wales under Julius Frontinus



and into Scotland by Gnaeus Julius Agricola. Also the way of life that the Romans wanted, rather suited many in lowland Britain and so it was not too much of a struggle to get them to adapt to it. This allowed troops to be taken away from the lowland and for it to be declared a Civil Zone. The Civil Zone had self administering areas called civitates, more or less coinciding with the tribal areas.

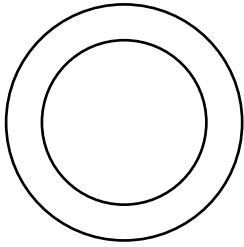
In the early 3rd century Britain was divided into two provinces: Britannia Superior with a capital at London and Britannia Inferior, with a capital at York. This was done to reduce the power of a single governor following the rebellion of Albinus in AD 196.

The Celtic tribes had got much of their wealth from warfare and plunder. Now, under Roman rule, they got most of their wealth from trade and industry. This meant that it was advantageous to become a Roman citizen because it led to an avenue of wealth and better social position.

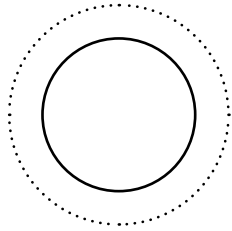
Notice that the large number of auxiliaries who were brought in from other provinces meant that British towns in particular became quite cosmopolitan.

Roman coins

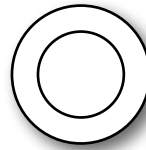
Here are some outlines of Roman coins and details about them.



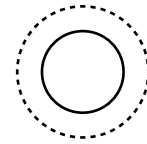
coin = sestertius
metal = bronze
Emperor = Nero



coin = as
metal = copper
Emperor = Claudius



coin = aureus
metal = gold
Emperor = Domitian



coin = denarius
metal = silver
Emperor = Vespasian

- Write in the names of the emperors on the sestertius and as.
- Can you try and write the names of the other two emperors on the smaller coins?
- Here are the dates of the emperors – Claudius AD41 to 54, Nero AD54 to 68, Vespasian AD69 to 79, Domitian AD81 to 96. Arrange the coins in the order that they were made.
- Look at some coins you use and compare them with the size of the coins shown here. Write down any coins which seem to match.



- If you dug up a pot of Roman coins with the names Nero and Vespasian on them when could the coins have been collected? (Look at question 3 to help you.)

Give a reason for your answer.



- How reliable do you think your answer is to question 5?





Roman coins

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- You may wish to use this activity briefly in years 5/6 (SP6/7) before moving onto activity 14.

Resources

A selection of coins – 1p, 2p, 5p, 10p, 20p, 50p, £1.

Using the worksheet

Roman coins are some of the most familiar Roman artefacts and have been found at many sites in Britain. This worksheet builds on the feature on coins in the introductory spread. It shows how the coins are different sizes and made from different metals and can be used to date a particular find. For example, if several items such as a lamp and plate are found with a coin of Vespasian the collection can be thought to have been set down at the same time – from AD 69 onwards. It is important that the students know that a range of coins would be minted in the age of each emperor not just denarii in Vespasian's time, and so on. Tell the students that in addition to the name of the emperor around part of the rim of the coin there was an image of him in the centre of one side. On the other side there was sometimes a picture about an important event such as the murder of Julius Caesar.

Younger students

Tell the students that sometimes large numbers of coins are found together because someone had stored them away for safety and then never returned to collect them. Four of the main coins are featured here. Issue the worksheets and let the students complete them. If coins are issued make sure that all are returned to their rightful owners. The answers to the questions are shown in the section on older students.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that the names of emperors are written on coins.
- Know that coins can be used to indicate the date of a find.
- Make a timeline.

- Make comparisons between Roman coins and coins used today.

Older students

Your students may find this worksheet interesting too but you can move through it quickly before starting activity 14. You may like to develop the idea of using coins to date finds and tie this in with other archaeological activities that the students have done.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know that coins can be used to indicate the date of a find.
- Assess the reliability of an answer on the evidence available.

Answers

The answers to questions 5 and 6 are:


5. Between AD 54 and 79 because there were no other emperors from earlier or later times.
6. Very reliable because it is unlikely that people would collect coins from just one or two emperors if they had the chance so these must have been the only coins available. There is a small chance that someone from a later time, such as a coin collector, might do this.




Spread 13 (pages 28–29)

Roman towns

SETTLING DOWN




Roman towns
The Romans loved their towns, but towns had a practical purpose, too. Romans enjoyed living in towns so they could talk with friends and see entertainers. But there was a practical reason to build towns, too. For example, towns were places where Romans collected taxes and had the courts. So, when what they were conquering Britain, the Romans began to lay out towns. Their great scheme took about 100 years.



▲ 1 Roman Britain's capital had the regular plan common to all cities. Roads ran north-south and east-west. The forum was in the middle of the town and the amphitheatre was to the east.


28

SETTLING DOWN



Roman towns
All Roman towns followed the same basic plan (picture 1). First they laid out a concrete grid some pattern of roads covering an area up to 2 square kilometres. Then they planned in important buildings near the centre. Right at the heart of the town was a meeting and market place called the *forum* (picture 2). Around the outside of the forum were shops and other buildings, and a covered walkway held up by columns. On the side of the forum there was a town hall and law courts called the *tablinum*. There would also be public baths and shops selling supplies (picture 3). Temples were situated around the town to mark the places the Romans worshipped their gods and each had to face its own temple. One public building was too big to fit in the middle of the town. They set the place for entertainment called the *amphitheatre* (see pages 26 and 27).

Homes
Most of the town was made of houses. The rich got middle-class folk houses and the poor got small houses. On the town walls there would have been more like a collection of houses in the countryside than the sort of town we are used to today. Some people used to group houses (joined together and some even laid in blocks of apartments). It was not possible to build such apartments and so many Romans ate at 'hot-food' stalls in the streets.

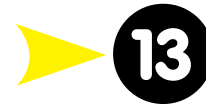


▲ 1 This is the town square or forum. It was the heart of the town. It was a public place.

▲ 2 This is the town square or forum. It was the heart of the town. It was a public place.

▲ 3 This is the town square or forum. It was the heart of the town. It was a public place.

29



The purpose of the spread

The Romans did not come to a country which was devoid of towns. The Iron Age British had quite sizeable settlements, with defensive banks and patterns of streets within them. They had markets and craftspeople who could make metalwares and clothes. However, there were no grand buildings and so they would have looked like a dense collection of huts.

The reason for this is that grand buildings need a specific set of skills in masonry which the Romans had and which the British had not developed. Square buildings, the characteristic of the Roman building, needs stronger corners and specially dressed stone, whereas the round building characteristic of the Iron Age can be put up without any special skill.

Roman changes

One reason for the absence of towns was that almost everybody had to work on the land if they were to find enough food to eat. The Roman methods of farming were more efficient and organised than the native people and so they were able to generate a surplus which allowed some people to live in towns.

The largest settlements in Britain before the Romans were in the south east. Their main centre was at what is now Colchester in

Essex. There were other centres at St Albans and Canterbury, Winchester and Silchester (just south of Reading) and smaller ones at Dorchester on Thames, Leicester and Worcester. Elsewhere villages were common, each associated with a hill fort.

When the Romans came they set up military bases beginning with their bridgehead at Richborough in Kent (where they landed). Then they moved in to place whole legions at strategic positions, for example next to the Belgic town at Colchester. But these were never meant to be anything substantial or permanent. They were simply used until the Romans could establish more satisfactory centres further inland. So Colchester became less important as Lincoln, Wroxeter and Gloucester were developed. Then, as they moved further north and west, the Romans reached and set up bases at York, Chester and Caerleon in south Wales.

Early Roman towns

The basis of a Roman town was set out as part of the rules the engineers had to follow. The military base was called a *castrum* (later corrupted to *chester* and *cester* in England and to *caer* in Wales). The town was laid out as a rectangle enclosed by an earthen bank



(wall). Inside this the main roads made a cross or a T-shape (for example, Eastgate, Westgate, Gloucester, Bridge Street, Chester and Petergate, York). These roads led to gates in the wall. At first these would have been made from timber; later (from the 2nd century onwards) they would have been rebuilt in stone.

The centre of the castrum was where the military headquarters were sited (for example where the church now stands in the middle of Chester). In other places the headquarters was later occupied by a castle. Elsewhere in the town the barracks were built for the legionaries or auxiliaries. The whole of the town was laid out as a grid of blocks separated by roads to make a grid-iron pattern. There seemed to be no precise pattern to the location of barracks and services, grain stores, brewery, and so on, but if the town had a fort they were located towards the outer edge of the town.

Colonia

The first military towns were replaced by planned civil towns, or *colonia*, as soon as possible. The first of these was at Colchester. This was designed as a place where retired Roman soldiers would settle down. It was to be the model for other towns. Here was the temple to Claudius (revered as a god in his lifetime), possibly the largest Roman temple building in Britain. The site is under Colchester castle.

Changes to status were followed by other towns, for example, Gloucester and Lincoln.

Civitates

The Romans not only built military bases and *colonia*, they built towns designed to be the centre for civil administration of regions or *civitates*. Each of the *civitates* closely matched the previous Celtic kingdom boundaries. Thus were founded places such as Cirencester, St Albans, Wroxeter (Shropshire), Silchester (Reading) Canterbury, Leicester, Dorchester (Dorset), Chichester, Winchester, Caerwent, Caistor (Norwich), York and Exeter. Most have survived, but some – Silchester and Wroxeter – are now deserted.

Some of these towns were remodelled military towns, and many grew up beside the original military bases.

The Romans also founded many smaller towns, their equivalent of our market towns. Rochester, Manchester, Dorchester on Thames, Towcester and Cambridge are examples of these. Many others were later abandoned and their sites never reoccupied.

The structure of each non-military town was the same, with its centre being dominated by the forum, or civic square cum marketplace, and the basilica, the town hall and law courts.

Inside the town

Roman towns were built at first as places for administration and thus as centres from which to collect taxes. Some towns had a specific purpose. There were spa towns like Bath, designed as centres of leisure, and there were frontier fortified towns like Carlisle, Carmarthen and Chester. Then again there were administrative towns like York and London. Thus many towns had their own special character.

Roman cities were also designed to bring the British nobility into contact with the Romans and so help to bring peace and stability to the country. Romans also preferred living in towns and their entertainments and so on were focused there.

Yet even when the Romans brought their towns to Britain, they did not look like Mediterranean towns, with houses and apartment blocks closely packed together. Instead, the Roman town in Britain continued to be a more country-style development, with each house having its own garden, and few apartments being built at all. As a result, a Roman from Rome would never have felt that these were real Roman towns.

The main buildings in the towns were planned after the Roman fashion. The amphitheatre and forum were built on much the same design as throughout the empire, but the temples and the theatres were designed very differently from those in the Mediterranean. This presumably indicates a blending of ideas of the Romans and the British to help plan and build them.

The central complex was the forum, a combination of law courts, administration and market. The forum was at the centre of a grid-iron pattern of streets. The streets were paved

and below them were stone and lead-lined water and sewer pipes.

The buildings around the forum were not as grand as those seen in Rome, but modest single storey structures such as shops behind a colonnade.

Large towns also has theatres and the much larger rooms had amphitheatres designed for spectacles. London, Dorchester, Silchester, Chester and Caerleon all have remains of these.

Other prominent features of a Roman town included the public baths, a complex of buildings (for free people only) that was like a Roman country club.

Only at Bath did the baths become the main focus of the town. This place, Aqua Sulis, also helps understand the way that Romans took over the gods of the British and incorporated them with their own gods. Sul was the god of the spring waters. The Romans then dedicated the temples to Sul and Minerva, Minerva being a Roman goddess.

Churches are uncommon in Roman towns, in part because Christianity caught on so late. Silchester has the only example.

In the main, private homes were built on long plots with very narrow frontages, just like medieval properties. The shop was in front, the home behind perhaps with workshops too. The town villas were large houses set around a courtyard and often were surrounded by gardens that made some parts of the town look semi-rural.

Walls

To begin with there was an overwhelming army presence and so towns were thought of as safe places, but, because the Romans never subdued the barbarians, there was always a sense of unease. After Hadrian, when the Romans withdrew from much of Scotland, for example, the Romans lost the initiative and were always on the defensive. The towns most at risk were those on coasts, in estuaries (like London) or on main roads, like Chester. As a result, many towns became enclosed by walls.

The whole town was first enclosed by an earthen bank (wall). Later the earthen wall was replaced by a stone wall. The stone walls were not rushed up, but were built over a century, but in some ways it indicates a loss of control of the country after Hadrian's time. With

the situation deteriorating in the late 4th century, towers were added to the outside of the town walls. Like the roads, the building materials used were those locally available and so vary across the country.

Interestingly, despite the construction of walls, there is no evidence of the walls ever being needed for a defensive purpose, so in effect they turned out to be an expensive folly.

Town wealth


How did the towns fare during the 400 years of Roman occupation? In the earlier stages they prospered. After Hadrian, when more money was taken back to Rome, they became more run down and less prosperous. The wealthy chose to live in the country in villas close to towns.





▲ Remains of the Roman wall around London.


From village to town


1. Look at pages 4 and 5 in your book and think about what it might have been like to live in the huts shown there. Read the activity sheet about Arthur the farmer and think how his story gives you extra information about living in an Iron Age village. Write down what you think life might have been like there.














2. Now look at pages 28 and 29 in your book about towns. Look at pages 30 and 31 to see what life was like in Roman London.


Imagine what it must have been like for someone leaving an Iron Age village and going to live in a town. How do you think the way of life was different? Write down your ideas.


















From village to town

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, the student book, Celtic and Roman clothes (optional).

Using the worksheet

Earlier in the book we have looked at how the British and the Romans had different ways of life. In this activity we look at how a member of a British tribe may feel when he or she enters a Roman town.

Younger students

The students should make a wide range of comments appropriate to their age and ability. They may just stay focused on the features of the village and the town but should also consider the jobs of people working in the villages and the town. They could also consider how a person might feel. Would they feel afraid or would they feel anger at the town being set up in their country? What do you think the Romans would have thought when they saw someone from an Iron Age village in their town?

Outcomes

The students can:

- Describe life in an Iron Age village.
- Compare life in an Iron Age village with life in a Roman town.
- Use their imagination to describe how people from an Iron Age village might feel when entering a Roman town.

Older students

When older students are making their answers, they may take in references to other aspects of British and Roman life that they have studied so far. They may also take in the attitudes of the British and the Romans as given in activities **8A** and **8B**. The students may like to work together to produce a short play about Iron Age people entering a Roman town and talking with the Romans. The reason for the visit could be to trade or to find work. The dialogue should be done in English but the students may also like to refer to activity **2C** 'Speaking Celtic' and activity **3B** 'Speaking Latin' and insert small pieces of dialogue into their play. The students could dress up to act out their play.

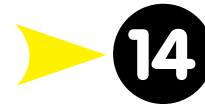
Outcomes

The students can:

- Compare life in an Iron Age village with life in a Roman town.
- Use drama to explore what might have happened when British people visited Roman towns in peace.

Spread 14 (pages 30–31)

Roman London



The purpose of the spread

Although there are many Roman towns that can be studied, the founding of London by the Romans was a major event in the history of our capital city. If there is no local Roman town to you, then you might consider making this a case study.

When choosing a specific city to study, it would be useful to get students to try to think of the reasons for the establishment of the place. Some, as we have discussed before, such as at York and Chester were forts. London was a fort. Some were also ports. London, York and Chester were all ports as well as fortified towns.

Background

The study of London is useful in many ways because it can bring together changes that happened over many historical periods. Other centres, such as York, St Albans or Chester can also be used. However, Londinium (for a while also called Augusta, after the emperor Constantine the Great, or Augustus) is by far the largest.

You will find many pictures of Roman London and that of other periods at www.curriculumvisions.com. Look for the ‘Story of London’.

London was built on a low hill (possibly named ship hill in local Celtic language and Romanised to Londinium. This was founded in about AD 50 but it was not beside a large existing settlement. Instead it was effectively the highest point of navigation for ships coming from the continent.

Students should be reminded that many rivers that we see today are not their natural width. When the Romans saw the site of London the river would have been almost three times as wide, but a third as deep. It would also have contained many islands. Since that time the banks have been reclaimed time and time again. The river was shallow enough to wade across, so what began as a ford was



developed into a bridging point by building a wooden tressle bridge.

London stood against the largest river estuary. Routes came from the south (and the important strategic connection to the continent) and others went north. The natural geography of the London basin, with its rings of chalk hills penetrated by gaps, helped to form the location of the main Roman roads, essentially forming the spokes of a wheel.

Choosing a low hill close to the river was important, but downriver the land is marshy and so no more coastal point could have been chosen.

It is also important to know that the Romans laid the street plan for London and built many fine structures, such as the forum, the basilica and the amphitheatre. Around these, and stone dwellings owned by the rich and powerful, would have been a great collection of thatched wooden houses or stone apartment blocks made in rough style.

Remember that 30,000 people lived in Londinium – more than in many British towns today. They also had to be supplied with food. So beside market gardens in the ‘suburbs’ there would have been a continual flow of food from the surrounding countryside and from other parts of the empire (fish sauce from Spain, wine from near to Rome and so on).

The Romans were well known for the way they brought in clean water and disposed of their sewage, so a link to QCA unit 11, Water/ Geography might be appropriate. More on this will be found in the *Curriculum Visions* title, *The Water Book*.

In the farmland outside London there would also have been many villas – as there would around most Roman cities. If children cannot understand what such villas were like and who lived in them, you may care to compare them to the 18th century country house, the home of the rich before the Industrial Age.







Wealth in later Roman times, and certainly in the 4th century when the majority of the villas were built, was held by people with land. So they lived in their villas and came to do business in the city. These are the villas whose main house had central heating (hypocaust) systems, glazing, mosaic or tessellated tile floors, and baths.

Remember that some of the earliest villas were built for Iron Age (British) chiefs. These were modest. By the 4th century very grand villas were being laid out. But there were also a great number of more modest villas as well. Most villas were within 15 km of a town so that their owners could enjoy the town as well as the country.

What's it worth?

If you wanted to buy an amphora of fish sauce at the forum you would need to know about the value of Roman coins. Their value changed during the time of the Roman empire. The value of the coins given here are for the early part of the Roman empire.

4 asses = 1 sestertius 4 sestertii = 1 denarius 25 denarii = 1 aureus

1. How many asses are worth a denarius? 
2. How many sestertii are worth an aureus? 
3. How many asses are worth an aureus? 
4. If you bought something for two asses and paid with a sestertius, how much change would you get? 
5. If you bought something for three sestertii with a denarius, what change could you expect? 
6. If you saved up 532 asses and took them to the bank to change them what coins would you expect to be given? 
7. In AD301 you would have to pay the following daily wages to workers building your villa:

50 denarii to a stone mason, 75 denarii to the wall painter and 60 denarii to the mosaic worker.

If you employed two stonemasons, three wall painters and four mosaic workers for five days how much would it cost you? Show your working out here.



8. A scribe was paid 25 denarii for a hundred lines of best quality handwriting and 20 denarii for handwriting of a slightly lower quality. Have a look through your exercise books and assess the value of your work in denarii.
9. An egg cost one denarius in AD301. What does an egg cost today in our money? How much is a loaf of bread and other items of food worth compared to an egg? Work out their value in denarii and other coins.





What's it worth?

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5) up to question 8.
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7) all the questions.

Resources

A copy of the worksheet.

Using the worksheet

You may like to begin by telling the students about fish sauce. It was called liquamen or garum and is made from the entrails of anchovies, sprats, mullet or tunny fish. They are salted, herbs are added and the mixture is left to ferment for some time before the liquid, which forms the sauce, is drawn off.

When making Roman meals today (see activity **16A**) soy sauce may be used instead.

Then challenge the students to work in Roman currency and let them work through the questions.

Younger students

The students may need more help as they progress through the questions.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make calculations in Roman currency.

Older students

In question 9 the students can extend their work and work out the value of other items besides food items by comparing their price with the price of an egg.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make calculations in Roman currency.

Answers

1. 16.
2. 100.
3. 400.
4. 2 asses.
5. 1 sestertius or 4 asses.
6. 1 aureus, 1 sestertius, 2 denarii.
7. 2,825 denarii.
8. Will vary according to the student.



Spread 15 (pages 32–33)

Home life in Roman Britain

SETTING DOWN

Home life in Roman Britain

Romans took a great interest in looking smart, in good food and having the things around them.

The Romans wanted to live in Britain using the same (things as in Rome. In some cases they found they could make what they wanted locally. For example, they grew grapes. They used the same tools to make wine. In other cases, such as the pottery, goods had to be imported from Rome.

Most people wore a tunic over other tunics. It was made from wool. Some wore togas. Togas were made of wool and were very heavy. They were worn in public. Roman women wore a long, white, flowing dress called a palla. It was held up by a sash. Roman women wore a hat as well as a sash. They also wore a headscarf.

Heating and lighting

The Romans found Britain a much colder and damper place than Britain. The wealthy installed the first form of central heating to cope with this.



The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match. The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match. The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match.



32

SETTING DOWN

to build better (improved) buildings were found to be in the Roman Empire. It is called hypocaust. This heat is used to heat the air and underground. This air flows through the holes in the walls. The air was heated and it was used to heat the buildings. This was the first form of central heating.

It was called the hypocaust. The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match. The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match.

Furniture and pottery

There were few signs of a Roman home. Most of the things that were found were made of wood. But they were not able to make the high quality items that the Romans wanted. These had to be imported.

A typical home had a mixture of the new and the old. A large hall (atrium) was the central part of the house. It was used for many things. There were also rooms for sleeping and eating. The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match. The Romans used oil lamps to light their houses. The lamps were made of clay and had a small hole in the side. They were lit with a match.




33

▶ 15A

▶ 15B

The purpose of the spread

Roman life involved mostly domestic arrangements. This spread focuses on dress and heating.

Background

Domestic life was important to the Romans just as it is to us. Students can be made aware of the things that might be preserved from Roman times by thinking about which materials might decay over the centuries and which might survive. This will help them to understand why certain items are more common than others. For example, if all of the surviving pieces of toga were stitched together they would not make enough cloth to make one whole toga. This is because cloth rots. The same is largely true of leather goods and so shoes rarely survive. On the other hand marble and other kinds of stone survive almost without change.

It is also an opportunity to discuss what might and might not readily be lost. For example, we find relatively few gold or silver pieces of jewellery or coins because these were valuable and so not often lost. Similarly, although iron, copper and glass might be less expensive, they were not thrown away because they could be melted down and reused.

Pieces of pottery were much less expensive and so commonly thrown away. Also pottery and brick do not weather in the soil like most other materials and so are not destroyed by nature over the centuries. As a result, pieces of pottery litter most Roman sites.



Distinctive pottery of the rich included Samian ware, red pottery made in southern Gaul on a virtual mass production basis and then sold all over the empire.

Most Roman life had much in common with life for many centuries afterwards. The implements developed by Roman times were not improved on until the age of mechanisation and the invention of new materials, and so many hand tools in use by the Romans – for example, for medical and dental work – were of the same kind of design as those used until the 20th century.

Glass was made but it was coloured by impurities in the sand. Clear glass was much more difficult to make. Glass was used for decoration and also for holding liquids and powders. Tin was used as a mirror because silvering glass was unknown. Tin does not tarnish and so is durable. However, its mirror qualities are poor.

One of the Romans who wrote about Britain and British life was Tacitus. This is what he had to say about the way domestic life changed in Britain as a result of the Romans:

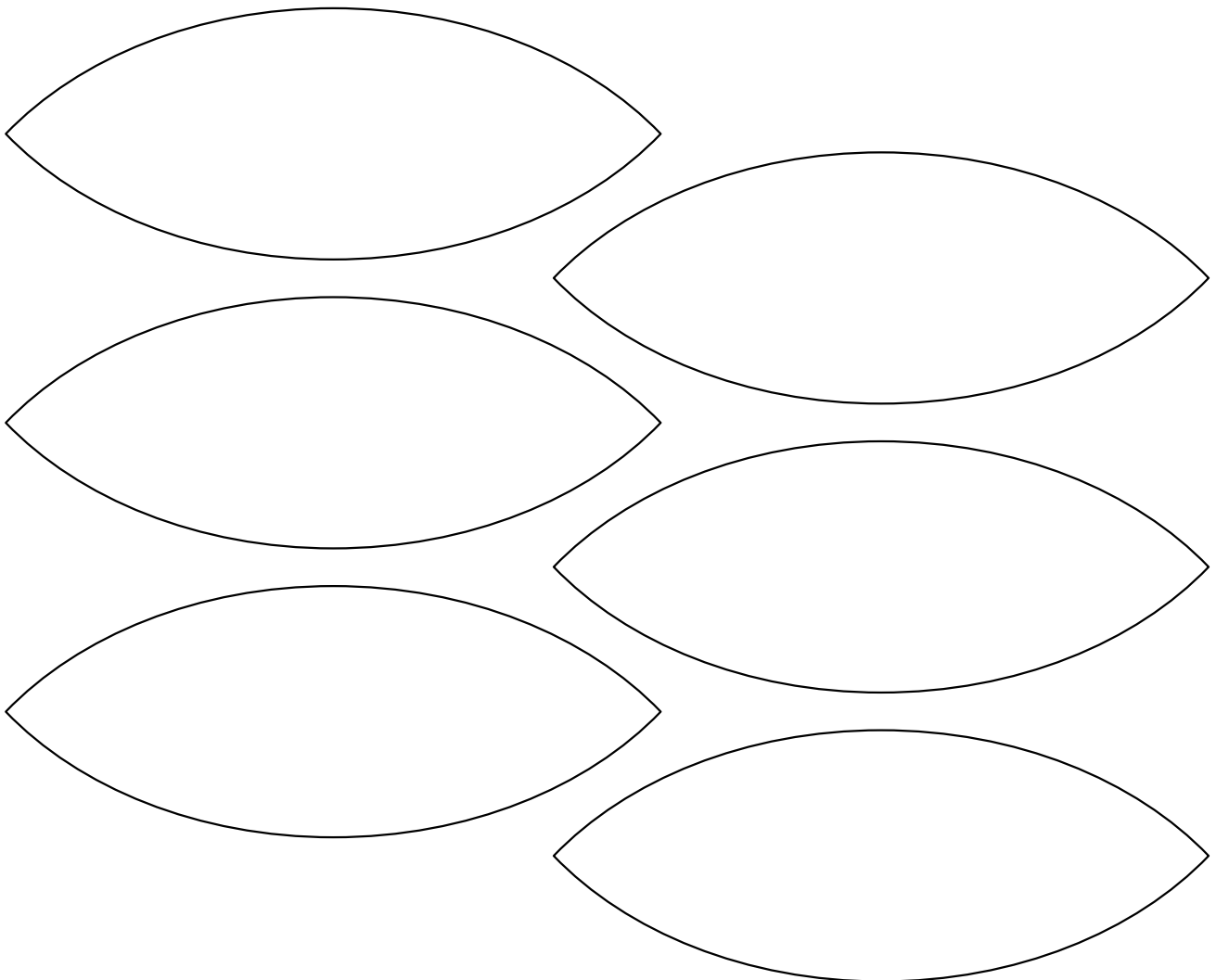
“In order to encourage a truculent population that dwelled in scattered settlements (and was thus only too ready to fall to fighting) to live in a peaceful and inactive manner by offering it the pleasures that would follow on such a way of living, Agricola urged these people privately, and helped them officially, to build temples, public squares with public buildings (fora), and private houses (domus).

He praised those who responded quickly, and severely criticised laggards. In this way, competition for public recognition took the place of compulsion. Moreover he had the children of the leading Britons educated in the civilised arts and openly placed the natural ability of the Britons above that of the Gauls, however well trained.

The result was that those who had once shunned the Latin language now sought fluency and eloquence in it. Roman dress, too, became popular and the toga was frequently seen. Little by little there was a slide toward the allurements of degeneracy: assembly-rooms (porticus), bathing establishments and smart dinner parties. In their inexperience the Britons called it civilisation when it was really all part of their servitude.”

Make a laurel wreath

1. Ask a friend to measure you for the wreath by putting a tape measure around your head.
2. Use the measurement to mark out a strip of card which is about 2.5 cm wide. Cut the strip a little longer than the measurement round your head.
3. Make the strip into a circle. Ask your friend to try it on your head. When it fits comfortably staple the ends together.
4. Photocopy the leaf shapes onto green paper. Cut them out and staple them to the card hoop to make your laurel wreath.





Make a laurel wreath

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, tape measure, green paper, strips of card, stapler.

Using the worksheet

The laurel wreath is a well known piece of Roman head gear. It was often given to people who won races or games and was worn by the emperor. If you are planning for the students to dress up in Roman costume (see the note on this page) you could let the boys in your class make their own wreath. The girls could make a decorated head band by carrying out the first three steps on the sheet then covering the card in bright shiny paper and decorating it in pieces of coloured and transparent paper to simulate jewels.

Younger students

The students may need help in arranging the leaves on the card to make it look like a twisted laurel branch. You may wish to staple the leaves in place for them.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make a model of a laurel wreath.

Older students

The students may like to add other colours to the leaf such as brown or gold to give contrast and make the wreath stand out.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make a model of a laurel wreath.

A note on costumes

Students, especially younger ones, enjoy dressing up in the costumes of the time they are studying. This activity is to help them start off thinking about costume. Many Romans (men and women) wore a tunic. This can be made by using a white or pale coloured T-shirt (without lettering) that is several sizes larger than would normally be worn. The tunic can be pulled in at the waist by a belt of cord. Women who were rich wore a stola over their tunics. This was a dress with a high waist as in the style of some bridesmaid dresses today. A similar dress or an old bridesmaid's dress may be adapted to be a sleeveless dress with a high waist and a loose (not tight) lower part. Depending on the type of dress used to make the stola and the warmth in the school it may be wise to dispense with the tunic underneath. A palla may also be worn over the stola. This is a rectangular piece of cloth made from a bright colour such as red or blue. It is wrapped around the body like a shawl or may be wrapped to make a hood.

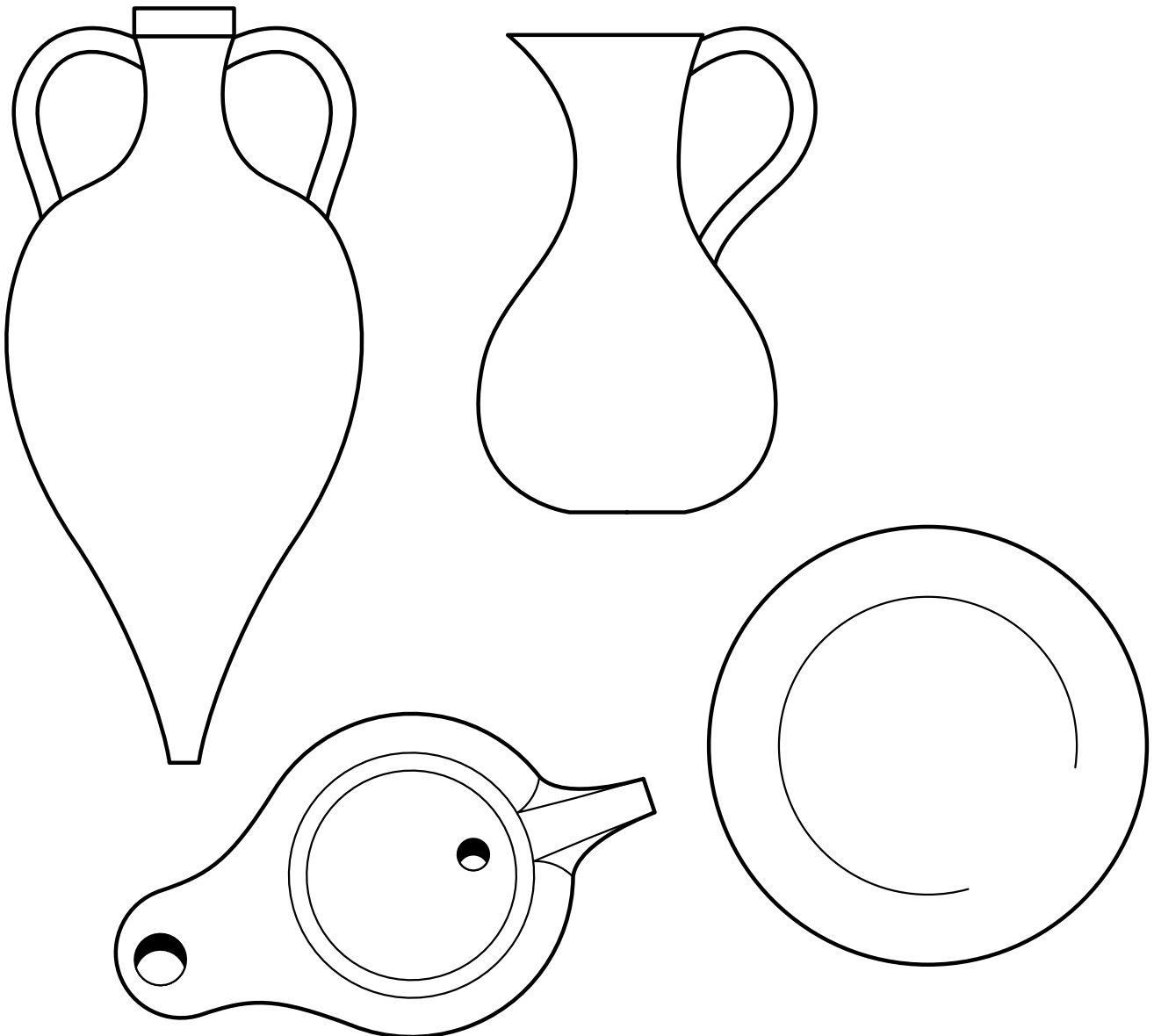
The toga is the most well known item of Roman clothing and yet it was worn mainly in the early Roman period with many men later dispensing with it because it was difficult to wear. A toga cloth is made from a piece of cloth which is about five metres long and two metres wide. The cloth is cut to form a semicircle of material with one long edge remaining intact. An easier alternative which can give a similar effect is simply to use a sheet.

One end of the sheet is draped over the left shoulder, the rest is wrapped around the back, brought under the right arm and then some is tucked in the belt. Some of the remaining sheet can then be draped over the left shoulder and held in place with a brooch. You made need to fluff out parts of the sheet a little to make it hang toga-like.

The students can wear sandals on their feet.

Broken pottery

1. Cut out each of the items.
2. Draw lines across where you think each pot might have broken. The pot should be divided into about eight pieces.
3. Cut out the pieces. Keep the pieces from each pot separate.
4. Give them to your friends and see if they can reassemble the pots.





Broken pottery

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7),

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, scissors, dishes of sand, spoons and brushes (optional).

Using the worksheet

When pottery was broken it was thrown away just like today. Ask the students to imagine that they have found some broken pottery and they have to try and reassemble it just as archaeologists do.

Each student follows the instructions on the sheet then passes their pots to others to reassemble while receiving pots from other students.

For added realism you may wish to photocopy the sheet on to red or orange paper. Alternatively the students could stick their pots on to red or orange card after step one on the worksheet then continue with the other steps.

Younger students

It is important that the students do not cut the pots into too many bits otherwise they may become discouraged from assembling the pots. For added realism the cardboard pieces could be placed in dishes of sand and the students have to use a spoon and brush to carefully remove the pieces. The students will need an uncut photocopy so that they can see the shapes of the pots they are trying to assemble.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Assemble pots from the fragments they have been given.

Older students

The students may cut the pots into more than eight pieces for an added challenge. They may put parts of two or three pots in the same dish of sand and try and separate them and build parts of the pots. They have to say what parts of each pot is missing.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Assemble pots from the fragments they have been given.
- Predict the outline of a whole pot from the few pieces that they have been given.



Roman urban life was a busy affair and so they developed the first fast foods in order to cope. Also many small apartments did not have kitchens, so many Romans ate out every night.

Many pieces of pottery have been found, the most easily recognised (but not the most common) of which is Samian ware. This is a good moment to look more closely at this material and the designs used on it.

Items for a Roman meal

1. Look at the display of Roman food.

Which ones would you eat? Put a tick next to them.

Olives grapes dates figs cucumber chick peas

hard boiled egg apple cherry plum pear

radish carrot french beans honey lettuce celery

2. Do you think the foods are healthy foods?



3. Explain your answer.



Here are some other foods that Romans ate. Some were only eaten by rich people.

bread cheese cakes globe artichoke asparagus

turnip parsnip onion marrow cabbage leeks

venison lamb beef wood pigeon fish doormice

oysters garlic snails blackberry duck peacock

chicken mussels prawns hare lentils chestnut

4. Which of these foods would you eat? Put a tick next to them.

5. Make a meal. Pick food items from both lists that you would put together to make a meal. Remember Romans ended their meals with a lettuce leaf. They thought it helped digestion.



Items for a Roman meal

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, a display of food items in the first list.

Using the worksheet

You may wish to use this as an introduction to the students having a Roman meal in school. It could also be used in a cross-curricular exercise with healthy eating. If you can fulfil your school policies on health and safety the students may be allowed to taste some of the foods you have on display.

Younger students

Let the students work through the sheet. You could gather data about favourite and least favourite Roman foods and use ICT to make charts.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Know about the wide range of food that Romans ate.
- Identify foods that they would eat if they lived in Roman times.

Older students

The students could extend their consideration of healthy food to the second list. They could identify body building foods, foods that give energy (carbohydrates) food that might be fatty and foods that contain vitamins and minerals. When they have made a Roman meal they can assess its "healthiness".

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use their knowledge of nutrition to assess the healthy properties of foods that Romans ate.
- Assess a Roman meal to see if it is balanced nutritionally.

What was eaten?

1. Take the stones and pips out of the following foods – date, olive, grape, plum, cherry, apple, pear.
2. Examine them carefully and note the differences between them.
3. Keep one of each stone or seed in a collection for reference.
4. Put a selection of seeds and stones in a tray of sand. This represents the remains of a meal.
5. Give your tray to a friend and receive a tray from them.
6. Using a spoon and sieve work through the sand to see what seeds and stones you can find.
7. Which seeds or stones can you identify without looking at your reference collection?



8. Which seeds or stones could you only identify by looking at your reference collection?



9. Sometimes seeds and stones last a long time in the ground and can be used by archaeologists to find out about meals in the distant past. Look at the items of food on worksheet **16A**. Which foods may have parts that could last a long time and also be used by archaeologists?



Explain your answer.









What was eaten?

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

Dates, cherries, plums, pears, apples, grapes and olives cut open by you to explore the seeds and stones, trays of sand, spoons, sieves, pots to store sieved sand, clean oyster, mussel and snail shells (optional).

Using the worksheet

If you feel that the attitude and ability of the students is appropriate for this activity you may like to try it. Some students may find the temptation to throw seeds and stones too great to resist! Tell the students that some materials in food may not rot down in the soil and may last for a long time to give us an idea about meals that took place long ago. Introduce the concept of sieving to separate items. You may have already examined this concept in science so its study here will help support that work.

Younger students

The students should pick out the seeds and stones and note which food they came from. They should label the seeds and stones and perhaps stick them down with sticky tape next to the label. Tell the students that museums keep reference collections like this to help them identify finds. At the end of the activity ask the students what it might be like to be examining the soil in the remains of a Roman kitchen on an archaeological site.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Identify different seeds and stones.
- Use simple equipment and materials safely.
- Use a sieve to separate different materials.

Older students

Let the students set up the trays but before they swap them round take them in and secretly add one or more shells. Return the trays to their owners then let the swap take place. The students should find that besides finding materials for which a sieve is needed they may find some items for which a sieve is inappropriate. The students may find recognising the snail shell easy but they may have more difficulty recognising the mussel and oyster shells. Refer them to secondary sources to complete their identification.




Outcomes

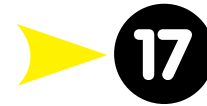
The students can:

- Carefully extract specimens for examination.
- Use a range of reference material to identify finds.

Spread 17 (pages 36–37)

Roman leisure

SETTLING DOWN	SETTLING DOWN
<p>Roman leisure</p> <p>The Romans had many ways of enjoying themselves. Some we still do, others we would now think are unpleasant.</p> <p>The Romans weren't just people who conquered others. They also liked to play games. There were several types of what they called Amphitheatres.</p> <p>The biggest building to be built would be the amphitheatrum (amphitheatre). The word amphitheatrum means theatre with seats on all sides.</p> <p>Amphitheatres were often very large and so built just outside the walls of Roman towns. Some of these had covered seating for gladiators, so we need to call them amphitheatres to show that they were places of entertainment, not just places of entertainment.</p>   <p>36</p>	<p>This was usually divided like an oval with four main sections: the aulaeum (hallway), the atrium, and tablinum (ground) or tablinum, was a full area called the atrium. This could be used for many things. The atrium would be used for many things. The atrium would be used for many things. The atrium would be used for many things.</p> <p>Public baths</p> <p>The Romans loved to bathe, much as we enjoy going to a swimming pool. The public baths (baths) contained great communal bathing rooms of taking hundreds of people at a time. The baths were not just for bathing, but also for socialising. There were games for exercise. Baths might be heated by fire, or by geothermal energy, but springs would be used.</p> <p>People bathed in three main baths: hot, cold and lukewarm. Baths were highly decorated with marble and mosaics. People who could afford it would have their own private bath. The most famous bath was the thermae.</p>  <p>37</p>



The purpose of the spread

This spread is designed to show how, after invasion, and the rise of towns, every opportunity was taken to introduce Roman ways to towns and also to encourage people to feel that Roman ways were worth striving for.

Theatres and amphitheatres

There were many places of organised entertainment. The theatres were fairly small affairs, used for plays and similar cultural activities. Far larger – and often so large that they had to be built outside the towns – were the amphitheatres.

Amphitheatres could seat many thousands of people and were the location of mass spectacles. These were the places of the chariot races, the gladiator contests and so on.

Bathing

One particularly special form of leisure activity was bathing. It was developed into a ritual by the more wealthy.

The baths were not just simple pools, but more like country clubs where a variety of activities, not just bathing, could take place.

Bathers began by entering the *apodyterium*, the place where clothes were taken off. Walking through to the *elaeothesium*, or *unctuarium*, the bather was then anointed with oils. This stage was followed by some exercise to work up a sweat. Once having exercised and the pores opened, the bather went to the *calidarium* (hot room) and then on the *sudatorium*, or *laconicum* (steam room). Here slaves would scrape oils and sweat from the bather's body with a curved tool called a strigil. Once scraped clean the bather walked to the *tepidarium* (warm room) and then to the *frigidarium* (cold room). This is the place where the swimming pool was found. A last procedure was to oil the body once more.

Public baths were called *thermae*. To provide heat for the heated rooms of the *thermae*, an intricate system of hot air heating was introduced, similar to the hypocaust system for rooms but on a larger scale. A large supply of water was also needed.

Bathing was separated into male and female areas.

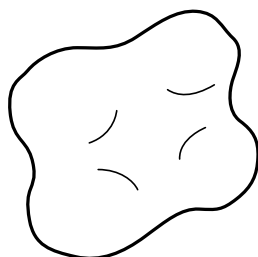


▲ Gladiators in the arena.

Make and play knucklebones

The original knucklebones were sheep ankle bones. They had six sides and could be thrown and rolled like dice. Rich Romans had knucklebones made out of expensive materials such as silver or marble. You can make them out of Plasticine or self-hardening clay.

1. Cut up the Plasticine or clay into ten blocks with these dimensions – 1.5 cm long, 1 cm wide, 1 cm high.
2. Make the blocks a bit knobby as if they were really made from bones. Use the diagram to help you.



3. Make holes in each of the six sides. Put one hole in one side, two holes in the next side and so on until on the last side you put six holes.
4. If you have used clay let it harden. If you have used Plasticine let it dry a little for a day before you play.
5. Find a partner and give them five knucklebones.
6. Place your five knucklebones in your hand palm side up and throw them into the air. Turn your hand over and see how many you can catch on the back of your hand.
7. Count up the number of holes you can see on the top sides of the knucklebones and write them down.
8. Let your partner have a go with their five knucklebones. Who wins the first round?
9. Decide between you how many rounds you should have, then play. Who wins the game?



Make and play knucklebones

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

Plasticine or self-hardening clay, plastic knives, ruler, pencil to make holes, paints for self-hardening clay after the knucklebones are made to make them look boney (optional).

If you are using this activity in a Roman day (see pages 10 to 15) you may like to use this activity with activity **3c** 'Roman numbers' and activity **7c** 'Make a writing tablet'. The students could then keep score on the writing tablet.

Using the worksheet

The information in the student book on pages 36 and 37 deals mainly with leisure activities for adults. This activity shows the students a game Roman children played.

Younger students

The students may need help measuring and shaping the model knucklebones. They will also have to make holes which are big enough to be seen. They should set them out like the patterns seen on a dice.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make simple models.
- Follow instructions to play a game.

Older students

Let the students work on their own and see how well they can make their knucklebones. Let them assess their skill at making them. The students may like to set up a knucklebone league in the class and organise a knockout competition ending with a grand final.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make simple models.
- Follow instructions to play a game.
- Organise and take part in a competition and exhibit sporting behaviour.

Spread 18 (pages 38–39)

Roman countryside

SETTLING DOWN	SETTLING DOWN
<p>Roman countryside</p> <p>The Romans may have preferred towns, but they got their food from the countryside.</p> <p>The Romans were great engineers. They organised their army and their towns. All of the people in the army and the towns needed feeding, so they also made sure the countryside was organised to feed them.</p> <p>Farms</p> <p>The Romans introduced new crops to Britain – ones that would give more variety to their meals. They introduced cabbage, peas and turnips, apples, plums and olives. They also introduced chickens. But the Romans also spread natural British products, like seaweed, wool.</p> <p>When British sheep were made into rags and clothes and sold across the empire.</p> <p>The Romans did not farm themselves. Most of the land was farmed by the British (pages 40 & 41). On the Roman website (see pages 40 and 41) the land was farmed by slaves brought from overseas.</p> <p>▲ ▲ A slave cultivated the land by using a wooden plough pulled by oxen. In order to make the most of the strength that oxen have it was often used in a pair.</p> <p>The invention of the plough</p>	<p>During Roman times, farming was so successful that there was plenty of surplus food to send to towns. Grain was also used by the people for shipping overseas. There was even space for the country to have gardens and to plant flowers.</p> <p>Industry</p> <p>They are also used to factories and work shops being in towns and cities. But in Roman times this was not the case. Goods were mostly made in the countryside. This was true whether it was the making of iron, the making of pottery or the spinning and weaving of cloth.</p> <p>▲ ▲ The most common of all Roman items, the tunic, is an iron ring with many holes in the belt.</p> <p>▲ ▲ Roman iron and other metal objects (▲ and ▲) of long ago (▲) needed heat and this came from burning wood. Furnaces were built close to forests where the wood could be cut down.</p> <p>Spinning and weaving wool</p> <p>Wool came from country people when they were not at work in the fields. Usually they used the wool from their own sheep.</p> <p>Once made, people would take their woolen goods, such as cloth and felt, down to the towns. The towns were therefore important markets for selling and buying.</p> <p>▲ ▲ Roman iron and other metal objects – some as simple as rings. Some were also as complicated as the Roman tunic and the Roman tunic.</p>



The purpose of the spread

To look at how the majority of the countryside was organised. Unlike the urban and military areas, very little survives because most was of humble origin.

Background

When the Romans arrived, they found a countryside that was already well farmed and organised and dotted with fairly self-contained villages and some larger settlements. What the Romans did was to overlay a pattern of towns and roads onto this already developed landscape, and took over some of the land and made it into their own estates.

Although the Romans introduced all manner of fine buildings in their towns, at the same time, villas, often modest, sometimes, as Fishbourne in West Sussex, luxurious, were carved out of the countryside. Most of these villas belonged to the Romans and especially the British nobility. It was their reward for helping to run the country. The fact that they had villas in the country, however, tells us that they still had close ties with farming and had not entirely abandoned the countryside for the town.

This is where most of the British lived and they still formed the overwhelming bulk of the population of the country.

British farmhouses

Although we know much about the Roman estates, we know almost nothing about the British. Students might like to imagine why this



is. In part it is because they were not recorded by Roman historians of the time. It was also that they were not made with manufactured materials and so rapidly decayed and all traces lost.

The houses where they lived were made of wooden posts holding up a thatched roof and filled in with daub. The floor was trampled earth. As a result all that could have survived to modern times are the holes where the bottoms of the posts once fitted into the ground.

However, there are other hints at the nature of farming. These can be obtained from middens created as farmers threw out their rubbish. From this we can deduce that the farming was mixed, with animals reared as well as crops grown.

Other activities in the countryside

Many students will expect industry to have been in the towns. But although there were artisans in the towns, most of the industry was in the countryside. In these times, most industry was very closely connected with sources of raw materials, especially those where a large loss in weight occurred during manufacturing. Thus iron making was found where there were both sources of charcoal (forests) and sources of iron (usually bands of rich iron among sandstones, rather than the bands used in the Industrial Revolution) which were found among coal seams. Thus iron working was in places such as the Weald of Kent. This was no change from Iron Age times, when the British were already well established in iron founding.

The making of pottery also required large amounts of fuel for kilns, so both suitable clays and suitable forests were needed in these cases, too. The Nene Valley was a major pottery making area.

Metal mining was a major activity of the countryside, with tin mines in Cornwall, copper in Devon and lead in Somerset, the Peak District and elsewhere.

Growing radishes

1. Make a trench in the soil 1.5 cm deep and 1 m long.
2. Make another trench 15 cm away that runs parallel to the first one.
3. Place seeds in each trench. Space them out 2.5 cm apart.
4. Cover the seeds with sieved soil.
5. Press down the sieved soil to make the surface firm.
6. Water the soil if it is dry.
7. Work out a rota with your friends to check on the plants. The plants will need watering if the soil is dry and if they are growing too close together, some will have to be pulled out to give the others extra space.
8. Write a report on the growth of the crop each week here.

Week 1	
Week 2	
Week 3	
Week 4	
Week 5	
Week 6	

9. How successful was your crop?





Growing radishes

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A patch of soil that will not be contaminated by dogs, some netting may be needed to give protection from birds, a packet of radish seeds, a trowel, a metre rule, a watering can.

Using the worksheet

This worksheet forms a link between the topic of food (see activity 16B) and the villa (see activity 19A). Radishes are easy to grow in good soil, free from stones. The activity gives the students an opportunity to use the school garden and organise themselves to care for the crop. It also allows them to use a timeline and record plant growth, and addresses objectives in both citizenship and science. You must only let the students eat their crop if you feel that all requirements of your school policies have been met.

Younger students

The students can follow the instructions as on the worksheet but they could also make a third trench and sow the seeds close together. They could predict what they think might happen, then compare the growth of plants in the third trench with the growth of plants in the other two trenches.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Follow instructions and work together on a plant growth project.
- Record their observations.
- Make predictions and test them.

Older students

The students can work through the worksheet. They could weigh the seeds before sowing and the plants that they harvest to find out how much food has been produced. They could set up another couple of trenches and harvest say 20 plants each week and weigh them. At the end of six weeks they could use ICT to display the rate of growth and comment on the accuracy of their results.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Investigate the rate of growth of a crop.
- Display their data in the form of a graph.
- Comment on the accuracy of their results.

Spread 19 (pages 40–41)

Villas



The purpose of the spread

This spread gives an opportunity to look at the wide range of buildings that could be found in the countryside.

Students might like to clarify for themselves that most people were very poor, worked on the land, lived in huts made of wood, thatch and mud and that these homes have not survived (except in the form of post holes).

There is more information about villas than on other types of countryside building.

Background

The word villa means country estate. It includes the main house, but also the barns and other buildings on it. Modern usage of villa is for a small suburban house, and students may have to get used to the Roman meaning while doing this study.

It is best to equate villa with country estate, for this, too, has a large house and other buildings. Roman villas were built within farmlands, part of which might have been used for gardens.

Wealthy Romans would have had several villas, dotted about in places where their owners might live while travelling.

The larger Roman villas were built in courts, each court being surrounded by colonnaded buildings. The courts might be grass with water fountains and other features.

Villas were of two styles – the villa urbana, a kind of fashionable city house set in countryside grounds, and villa rustica, a much smaller affair altogether in which the main building was the farmhouse.

In the more elaborate villas the family living quarters would be heated by the hypocaust system. There would be rooms or suites of rooms for the owner’s family and also for the many guests that might arrive.



The walls and floors would be decorated. Floors might be decorated with tiny stone pieces to make mosaics, while walls would be decorated with painted murals. Designs could vary from geometric to heroic and often included representations of the gods.

Mosaics

Roman mosaics were copied from Ancient Greece. However, for the Greeks the use of mosaics was restricted to the powerful few. The Romans now opened up the use of mosaics so that most well off people could afford to install one in their homes.

Because mosaics take so long to produce in their most artistic form, many of the mosaics designed for less important places were made with geometric patterns rather than complex pieces of art.

Water supply

The Romans introduced water supplies to their homes, often having fountains set inside the rooms. For this they often used lead (Latin *plumbum*, hence the English plumbing). To get water to the vicinity of the house, aqueducts were used, pipes being employed for the last part of the journey. Water was also used for latrines.

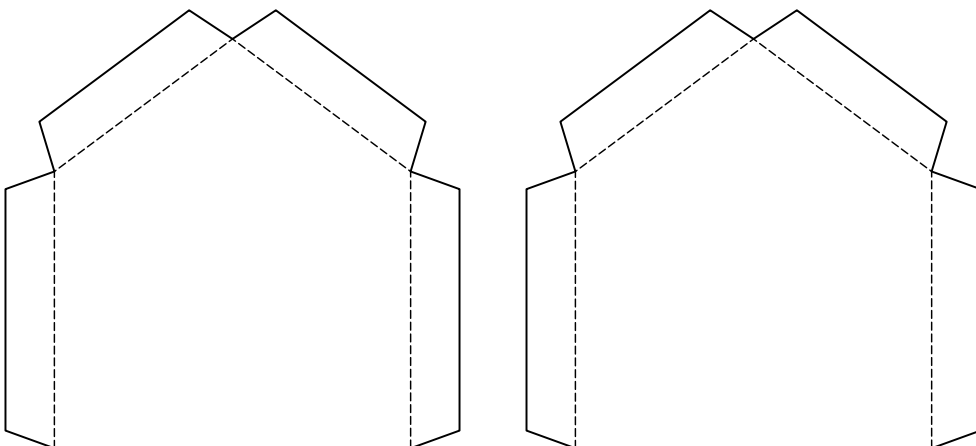
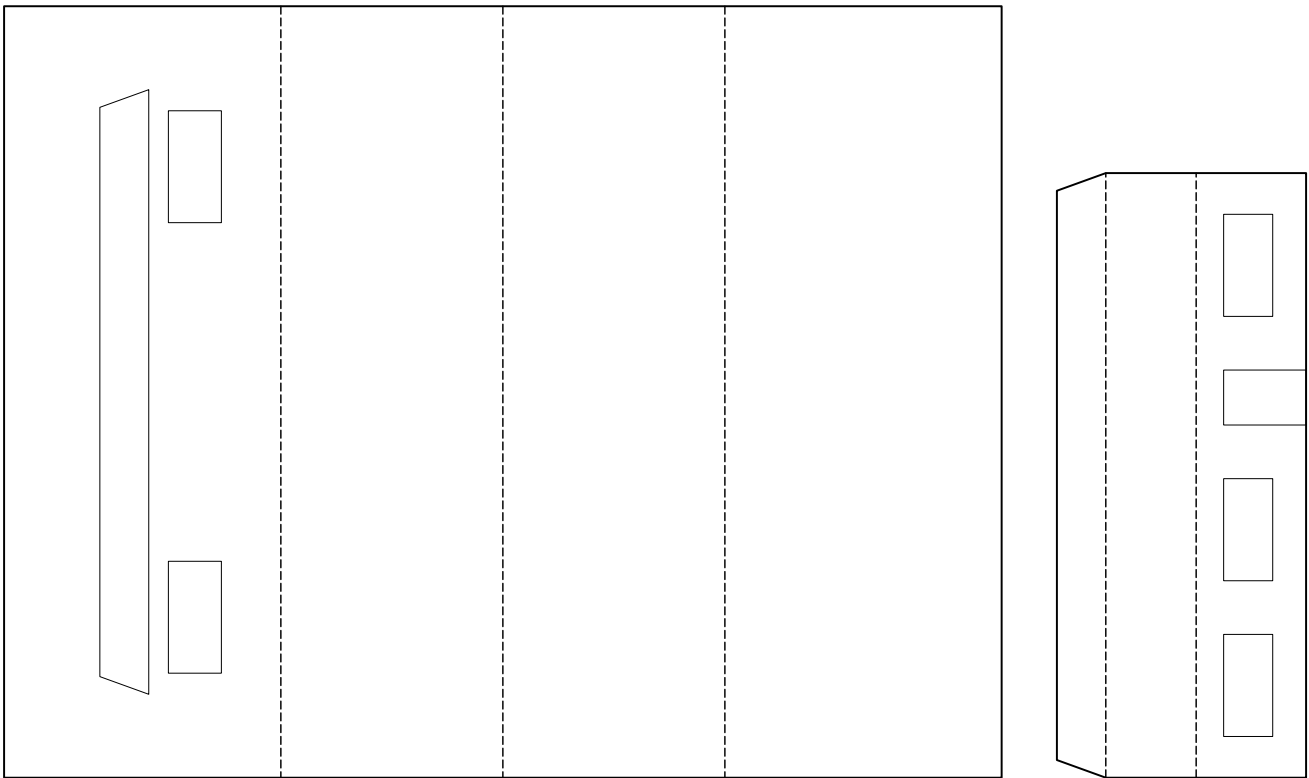
Buildings

Buildings were made of brick and tile. The Romans also used a limited amount of glass. The Romans were the first people to be able to make window glass. They did this by blowing huge glass bubbles in the shape of cylinders, then cutting them and pressing the hot glass flat before it cooled. They used coloured glass for mosaics.

Romans heated their homes with large central fires. Open fires caused smoke problems for Romans as much as for native peoples in their small houses. As a result the more wealthy used braziers of charcoal (a smokeless fuel) while (only) the wealthiest had central heating built in the form of a hypocaust. The hot air circulating through the space below the floor or in the walls radiated heat into the room. The floors could get very hot, resulting in the need for sandals. The floors were supported on brick columns.

Make a model villa

1. Cut out the four parts of the villa.
2. Bend in the tabs on the end of the villa. Then fold the roof and walls to fit them and paste together.
3. Bend the wall roof and tab of the villa front and stick the roof along the line on the walls below the windows.





Make a model villa

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, scissors, paste, coloured pencils or crayons.

Using the worksheet

This activity follows on from the previous one where the students have considered raising crops. Many villas were built by successful farmers. You may wish to make an enlarged copy of the parts of the villa then run that off for younger students.

Younger students

The students may need an enlarged copy of the villa parts. They may like to colour in the parts first before they cut it out. They could set up the villas in a countryside scene made with a green towel for grass. They could make other models of trees, people and animals to enhance the scene.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Construct a simple paper model using scissors and glue.
- Display their model in a realistic setting.

Older students

The students may like to cut out the windows and use extra pieces of paper to make window shutters. They could join two or more models together to make a larger villa to reflect how villas grew with the prosperity of the owner.

Outcomes

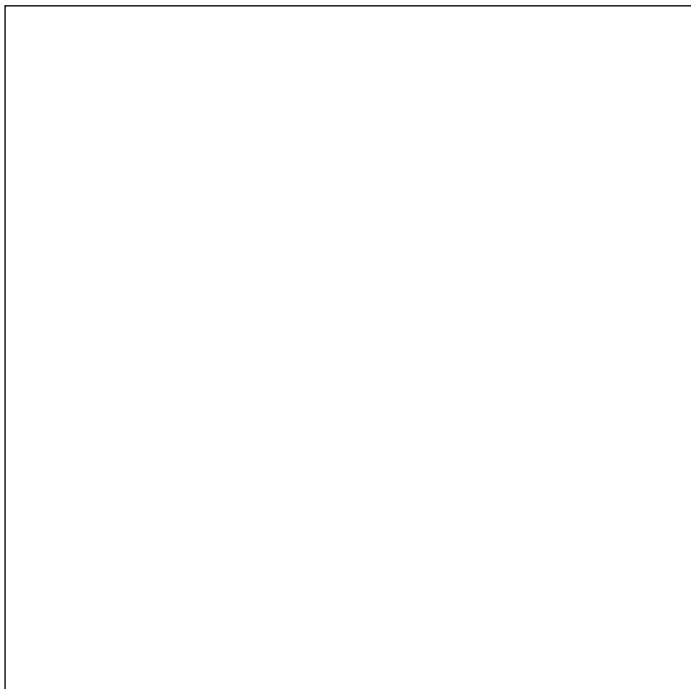
The students can:

- Modify a basic model to make it more accurate.
- Adapt the model to show how villas could develop over time.

Make a mosaic

1. Make a simple design in the grid and colour it in.
2. Select coloured squares of card and stick them on a backing card to make your simple mosaic.

3. Draw a more complex design in this space.
Use some curves.



4. Make a plan of your design on a second piece of backing card. Use more of the coloured cards to make your mosaic but cut bits of the pieces to make them fit with the curves.



Make a mosaic

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

White backing cards, coloured cards to cut up into squares, paste, scissors.

Using the worksheet

After the students have made the villas in activity **19A** you can tell them that they are going to make a feature which is found inside villas.

Younger students

The students may just try the first activity on the sheet. Some who finish quickly could try the second activity.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Make a simple mosaic.
- Use simple materials and equipment safely.

Older students

The students could read about both activities and decide what is needed to perform them. If they feel they have the confidence they can move straight to the second activity.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Design a floor covering.
- Express the floor covering design as a mosaic.



Chapter 5: The Romans leave

Spread 20 (pages 42–43)

The end of Roman times

<p style="text-align: center;">THE ROMANS LEAVE</p> <p>The end of Roman times</p> <p>The Roman influence on Britain lasted for nearly 400 years. But when the emperors became weak, the empire fell apart and the Romans left Britain.</p> <p>• [1] The Romans used ships, which were so fast and safe, for their trade. They were also used to bring soldiers to the Mediterranean Sea and later to Britain at the start of the Roman conquest.</p>  <p>The Roman empire was so big that it had strong rulers and a powerful army. Britain, at other parts of the empire, needed the army to protect it from invaders and to maintain order. The Romans had never invaded Britain to take Roman territory until after 43 AD.</p> <p>Keeping raiders at bay</p> <p>The Romans had built Hadrian's Wall to keep the Scottish out. But in the 3rd and 4th centuries there were more attacks from Britain.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">42</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">THE ROMANS LEAVE</p>  <p>The British found it hard to follow Roman rules and the Romans had given. They were left to face the country themselves after their soldiers had left. They could not defend themselves from raids.</p> <p>The Angles and Saxons arrive</p> <p>From AD 410 barbarians from Europe, who we now call the Angles, Saxons and Jutes, as well as the people from Scotland (the Picts) and Ireland (the Gaels) came and stayed in all. The Angles (or Jutes) would finally give their name to the country called England.</p> <p>• [2] After the Romans left, the British tried to pay protection money to keep the barbarians away. They had to give away land in exchange for protection. So, at this time, Roman Britain fell apart. The towns were abandoned, and new groups of settlers moved in. Life in Britain would not be so peaceful as it was before for more than 1,000 years.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">43</p>
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The purpose of the spread

To show how the end of Roman times was a mixture of retreat and new conquest.

Background

Many puzzles mark the end of Roman times. There have been many assumptions as to how important were the raids by Anglo-Saxons towards the end of the Roman era. A series of forts around the south and east of England have been called the forts of the Saxon Shore. However, these forts were actually built earlier than AD 300, well before Rome was in any trouble at all, and may have been part of some other plan.

Some of the factors involving defeat include the changing nature of the army. In the beginning the army was made of men who were 'lean and mean'. They were not allowed to indulge in the soft side of life, nor allowed to live in houses with their wives. Later, these strict rules were relaxed or reversed, with the result that the Roman army was no longer the mean force it was before.

Sensing this kind of decline, other peoples (barbarians) may have been more and more tempted to try their luck. The Vandals who succeeded in fighting the Romans in Rome, were a central part of this change, but



continual sniping away on all of the empire borders was a problem, too.

The Scotti and the Picti discovered that they were having more and more success. The Saxons were also attempting to land. With the need for fighting men nearer to Rome, the main part of the Roman army was withdrawn in AD 410.

You may care to discuss with the students why it was that they never subdued the barbarians. What was it that these people did not like? And why did resentment last for centuries?

Can students see any parallels in modern times with disputes for territory that have lasted over hundreds of years (through many generations) and which have been handed down?

What will happen now?

Imagine that you are a member of a British tribe who has worked with the Romans. You have got a villa and live well, dress in the Roman style and have even learned some Latin and know how to use Roman numbers. Look through your book and the activities you have done from worksheets to build up your thoughts of being a very Roman Briton.

Now imagine that you find that the Roman empire will no longer protect you or support your lifestyle. You also hear rumours about attack from barbarians in other parts of the country.

1. What do you think you should do?



2. What would be the consequences of your action?





3. What might happen if things do not go as you plan?





4. How likely is it that things will not go as you planned?



5. What could you do to see that your farm and your villa can be passed down to your family in the future?







What will happen now?

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5).
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of the sheet, a copy of the student book, previous work related to the worksheets used in this *Teacher's Guide*.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use their imagination to envisage a situation in the past.
- Interpret the results of a survey.
- Assess how their knowledge may affect the way they think people thought in the past.

Using the worksheet

Although students know that the Roman empire did not last until the present day, try to encourage them to think what it might have been like for people living at the end of the Roman occupation of Britain. They did not know what was going to happen and may have seen things optimistically as well as pessimistically.

Younger students

Encourage some of the students to adopt an optimistic approach when answering the questions. Encourage others to adopt a pessimistic approach. Let the optimists share their views first and then give the pessimists their turn. Let the students decide on options they could try and then vote. The results of the vote could be displayed as a chart using ICT and the students could assess the likelihood of their survival in the most popular option and likelihood of them keeping their villa.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Use their imagination to envisage a situation in the past.
- Consider the options open to people who lived at a time in the past.

Older students

A student could read out their work and the rest of the class could see how it matched their own. A survey could be done to test people's feelings and ICT could be used to present the results. The students can assess how their knowledge of what really happened affected how they thought about the situation.

Spread 21 (pages 44–45)

What the Romans left us



The purpose of the spread

This spread is to describe some of the physical remains (walls and so on) and some of the cultural influences (architecture, numeral system, and so on) that have been handed down through the generations.

This concluding spread also provides a good opportunity to look for Roman influence in the area where you are.

Background

One useful source of information is through historical maps and town plans. Historic maps made in the early years of the 19th century, in the days before the main impact of industrialism, are most useful. At this time, some 1,400 years after the Romans left Britain, many city plans were still very much controlled by the layout inherited by the Romans – Exeter, Gloucester, Chichester and Chester are just a few of many examples.

The main features that remain are the wall and the main roads. In all cases the main roads made a giant cross that splits the city into four quarters. Where each road meets the wall there was a gate.

The similarities between these city plans is striking and shows the basic plan that Romans tried to adhere to unless physical circumstances made this impossible.

Roman features are more obscured today, so historic maps give the best opportunity to analyse what the Romans left. The maps also provide a chance for students to look at more historic material which is not Roman but is about the Roman influence and to consider map making as a vital aid to historical work.

Town plans are not the only sources of material. The Ordnance Survey 1:5000 and



larger maps show Roman remains clearly, including Roman town names. They are particularly good at showing the location of villas and the parts of our road network that can still be identified as Roman.

Your local museum will be able to help with the location of sites and children can then be asked to find them for themselves using an Ordnance Survey map.

Other remains as seen on actual sites vary enormously in their preservation.

Months and days

Use this information with the questions on worksheet **21B**.

A. The early Roman calendar:

Month	Name	Meaning
1	Martius	the month of Mars (a god)
2	Aprilis	not known
3	Maius	the month of Maia (a goddess)
4	Junius	the month of Juno (a goddess)
5	Quintilis	the fifth month
6	Sextilis	the sixth month
7	September	the seventh month
8	October	the eighth month
9	November	the ninth month
10	December	the tenth month

Additions:

1	Januarius	the month of Janus (a god)
2	Februarius	purification month

B. The seven day week:

Roman name	Meaning	Name today
dies Solis	Sun day	Sunday
dies Lunae	Moon day	Monday
dies Martis	day of Mars	Tuesday
dies Mercurii	day of Mercury	Wednesday
dies Jovis	day of Jupiter	Thursday
dies Veneris	day of Venus	Friday
dies Saturnii	day of Saturn	Saturday



Months and days

Age range

- Years 3/4 (SP4/5.)
- Years 5/6 (SP6/7).

Resources

A photocopy of sheet **21A** and worksheet **21B**.

Using the worksheet

Although the Romans are gone they still influence our lives. Let the children assess their contribution to the calendar and the days of the week. You may wish to put the Roman day name, the number of the day in Roman numerals, the Roman month name and the year in Roman numerals on the board to begin your lesson.

Younger students

Let the students look at sheet **21A**, then work through the questions on worksheet **21B**. They may need help with each one.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Appreciate the contribution of the Romans to the names of months and days.

Older students

Let the students look at sheet **21A**, then work through the questions on worksheet **21B**. Let the students work through the questions on their own at first and give help when they ask.

Outcomes

The students can:

- Appreciate the contribution of the Romans to the names of months and days.
- Process information and draw conclusions.

Months and days

A. The early Roman calendar

Look at the early Roman calendar on sheet **21A**. This calendar had only 10 months and 304 days.

Two more months – Januarius and Februarius – were added later.

This gave a calendar of 355 days. Julius Caesar added ten more days and the emperor Augustus renamed Quintilis ‘Julius’ after Caesar and Sextilis ‘Augustus’ after himself.

1. Write down the months in the Roman calendar after Augustus made his changes.

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.....

B. The seven day week

Look at the seven day week on sheet **21A**. The seven day week was set up by emperor Constantine.

2. What are the Roman days named after?

3. How important were the Romans in naming our:

(a) calendar? (b) our week?

Explain your answer.

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