FRONTIERS OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE
FFINIAU’R YMERODRAETH RUFEINIG

THE ROMAN FRONTIERS IN WALES
FFINIAU RHUFEINIG CYMRU

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Cadw
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Ffiniau'r Ymerodraeth Ruifeinig

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The Roman Frontiers in Wales
Ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru

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Mae'r Athro **David J. Breeze** wedi cyhoeddi sawl llyfr ar ffiniau'r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig a'r fyddin Rufeinig. Mae'n gyn-gadeirydd Cyngres Ryngwladol Astudiaethau Ffiniau Rhufeinig ac arweiniodd y tim a lwyddodd i enwebu Mur Antoninus fel Saile Treftadaeth y Byd.

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Mae **Peter Guest** yn archaeolegydd a nwmismatydd sydd wedi treulio'r rhan fwyaf o'i yrfa yn ymchwilio i Gymru Rufeinig. Mae wedi cyfarwyddo nifer o brosiectau arolygu a chloddio pwysig yng Nghaerllion a mae hefyd wedi cyhoeddi *Iron Age and Roman Coins from Wales*.
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1. Reconstruction of the fortress of Isca at Caerleon, c. AD 120

Adluniad o gaer Isca yng Nghaerllion, c. 120 OC
The frontiers of the Roman Empire together form the largest monument of one of the world's greatest ancient states. They stretch for some 7,500 km through 20 countries which encircle the Mediterranean Sea. The remains of these frontiers have been studied by visitors and later by archaeologists for several centuries. Many of the inscriptions and sculptures, weapons, pottery and artefacts created and used by the soldiers and civilians who lived on the frontier can be seen in museums. Equally evocative of the lost might of Rome are the physical remains of the frontiers themselves. The aim of this series of books is not only to inform the interested visitor about the history of the frontiers but to act as a guide-book as well. The remains of the Roman frontiers in Wales are unique in the Roman Empire. Unlike the well-known defensive linear boundaries such as Hadrian's Wall and the Antonine Wall in northern Britain, the forts and fortresses in Wales formed a dynamic offensive frontier designed to deal with the fierce natives. More than 60 stone and timber fortresses, forts and fortlets are known, some of which seem to have been occupied for only a few years, while others remained in use for far longer. They tell the story of the long and brutal war against the Celtic tribes and, after their final and complete victory, the army's policy of 'occupation-in-depth' when up to 25,000 legionaries and auxiliaries were stationed in Wales. We hope the readers of this book will enjoy discovering the fascinating story of the Roman conquest of Wales almost 2,000 years ago.

David J. Breeze, Peter Guest
2. Map of the Roman empire under the Emperor Hadrian (AD 117–138)
Map o’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig dan yr Ymerawdwr Hadrian (OC 117–138)
Roman frontiers are part of a common heritage of the countries circling the Mediterranean Sea. Successive generations have built on that heritage and modified it, thus helping to create our modern world themselves. Today, our world appears to be diverse, divided by language, religion and traditions. Yet, our heritage is more common and interconnected than we sometimes appreciate. Much knowledge of the ancient world has come to us through the Arab world, the real inheritors of the late Roman empire.

How the Romans managed to rule their enormous empire with a relatively small professional army is a spectacular statement of power and a constant fascination. The Romans were not only experts in the use of power – and force – but also in portraying a strong image about themselves. Indeed, that image was so strong that it still excites our imagination today. Great literature and fantastic films demonstrate our continuing fascination with that image.
The Roman Empire

The Roman state, in one form or another, survived for over 2000 years. Its empire was one of the greatest states which the world has seen, close only to China in its size and longevity. Indeed, our knowledge of the administrative arrangements of the Chinese empire, which have survived in better condition and more detail than those for the Roman empire, aids our understanding of the workings of Roman frontiers.

Many great monuments of the Roman empire are World Heritage Sites, including Rome itself, but also many of its important cities such as Mérida and Lugo (Spain), Orange and Arles (France), Split (Croatia), Istanbul (Turkey), Petra (Jordan), Lepcis Magna (Libya) and Volubilis (Morocco). Yet these most developed parts of the Roman world were protected and at the same time defined by frontiers. It was as if these frontiers were, as Aelius Aristides remarked in the 2nd century AD, “enclosing the civilised world in a ring”. The frontiers did define the Roman empire and were essential for the stability and therefore economic growth of the interior: they allowed the cities of the empire to flourish. An essential part of the Roman genius was its ability to win the support of the people it conquered. It respected local traditions and ethnic characteristics, so long as the superior status of Rome was not challenged.
9. The Great Wall of China, World Heritage Site since 1987
Wal Fawr Tsieina, Safle Treftadaeth y Byd ers 1987

Yr Ymerodraeth Rufeinig

Ar ryw ffurf neu’i gilydd, cwmpasodd oes y wladwriaeth Rufeinig gyfnod o dros 2,000 o flynyddoedd. Ei hymerodraeth oedd un o’r gwladwriaethau mwyaf a welodd y byd erioed, yn agos at Tsieina yn unig o ran ei maint a’i hirhoedledd. Yn wir, mae’r hyn rydym ni’n ei wybod am drefniadau gweinyddol ymerodraeth Tsieina, sydd wedi goroesi mewn cyflwr gwell a manylach na rhai’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig, yn ein helpu i ddeall sut roedd y ffiniau Rufeinig yn gweithio.

Mae llawer o henebion blaenllaw yr Ymerodraeth Rufeinig yn Safleoedd Treftadaeth y Byd, gan gynnwys Rhufain ei hun, ond hefyd llawer o’i dinasoedd pwysig fel Mérida a Lugo (Sbaen), Orange ac Arles (Ffrainc), Split (Croati), Istanbwl (Twrci), Petra (lordinonen), Lepcis Magna (Libya) a Volubilis (Morocco). Ac eto, roedd y rhannau mwyaf datblygedig hyn o’r byd Rufeinig yn cael eu hamddiffyn, a’u diffinio gan ffiniau ar yr un pryd. Fel y dywedodd Aelius Aristides yn yr 2il ganrif OC, roedd fel petai’r ffiniau hyn yn creu cyllch o gwmpas y byd gwareiddiedig. Roedd y ffiniau’n diffinio’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig, ac yn hanfodol ar gyfer sefydlogrywdd yr hyn a oedd oddi mewn iddyn nhw, a thwf economaidd yn sgil hynny: roedd nhw’n caniatáu i ddinasoedd yr ymerodraeth ffynnu. Rhan greiddiol o athryllith y Rhufeiniaid oedd y gallu

10. Tombstone of civilians from Aquincum (Hungary) wearing the local Pannonian dress
Beddfaen pobl gyffredin mewn gwisg Banonaidd leol, o Aquincum (Hwngari)
It encouraged local self-government, merely placing on top the relatively small imperial administration. This imperial administration helped to hold the whole fabric of the empire together. Members of the aristocracy criss-crossed the empire from one appointment to another. The army brought a touch of Rome to the furthestmost corners of the empire. More than that, it was a catalyst, helping to create a new frontier society.

11. The tombstone of Regina, wife of Barathes of Palmyra, from South Shields (UK). The inscription reads in Palmyrene: “Regina, the freedwoman of Barathes, alas”

Beddfaen Regina, gwraig Barathes o Palmyra, o South Shields (y DU). Ystyr yr arysgrif, yn iaith Palmyra, yw: “Regina, morwyn rydd Barathes, och”

12. Artefacts from Berenice (Egypt): obverse and reverse of a silver coin of the Western Indian monarch Rudrasena III (AD 362)

Arteffactau o Berenice (Yr Aifft): dwy ochr darn arian o deyrnasiad y brenin Rudrasena III (OC 362) o orllewin India

13. A graffito in Tamil-Brahmi on a Roman Dressel 2–4 amphora. The text mentions a man named Korra, a south Indian chieftain, from the mid 1st century AD (Berenice, Egypt)

Graffito Tamil-Brahmi ar amffora Dressel 2–4 Rufeinig. Mae’r testun yn sôn am ddyn o’r enw Korra, un o beneathiad de India, o ganol y ganrif gyntaf OC (Berenice, Yr Aifft)
14. Career-map of Claudius Paternus Clementianus, a senior officer, who made his way from the lower Rhine, to the Danube, to the Middle East, to Sardinia, Tunisia and finally Austria

Map gyfwa Claudius Paternus Clementianus, uwch swyddog, a wasanaethodd yn y Rhein Isaf, Donwy, y Dwyrain Canol, Sardinia, Tunisia ac Awstria

**Frontiers and trade**

Frontiers were the membrane through which Roman ideas as well as artefacts percolated into the outside world. Roman trade extended eastwards to India and beyond, southwards into the Sahara Desert and northwards to the shores of the Baltic Sea, and, in return, brought a vast range of goods and products into the empire. The museums of many countries beyond the empire contain Roman artefacts and hint at the extent of Roman influence.

**Ffiniau a masnach**

Y ffiniau oedd y cyfrwng ar gyfer hiddlo syniadau ac artefactau Rhufeinig allan i’r byd y tu hwnt iddyn nhw. Estynnodd masnach Rhufeinig tua’r dwyraín i India a thu hwnt, tua’r de hyd at anialwch y Sahara a thua’r gogled iannau Môr y Baltig, ac, yn gyfnhwiad am hynny, derbyniodd yr ymerodraeth amrywiaeth eang o nywyddau a chynnrych. Mae amgueddfeyd y llawer o wledydd y tu hwnt i’r ymerodraeth yn cynnwys artefactau Rhufeinig ac yn awgrymu hyd a lled dylanwad Rhufain
15. Fragment of Chinese silk from Palmyra (Syria) with an inscription in Chinese characters
Darn o sidan Tsieineaidd o Palmyra (Syria) gydag arwyddnodau Tsieineaidd

16. Finger ring with the depiction of a female bust from Aquileia (Italy) made of amber from the Baltic Sea region
Modrwy gyda darlun o benddelw menyw o Aquileia (Yr Eidal) wedi’i wneud o ambr o ardal Môr y Baltig

17. Bandoleers with the depiction of eagles from the war booty sacrifice at Vimose (Funen, Denmark)
Gwregysau ysgwydd gyda darlun o eryr o’r ysbail rhyfel a aberthwyd yn Vimose (Funen, Denmark)
The “Frontiers of the Roman Empire”
World Heritage Site

In 1987 Hadrian’s Wall (UK) was added to the list of World Heritage Sites. In 2005 the German frontier between the rivers Rhine and Danube, known locally as the Obergermanisch-Raetische Limes, achieved the same accolade. By this act a new, transnational World Heritage Site, Frontiers of the Roman Empire, was created. This was the first step of many towards the creation of a truly transnational World Heritage Site encompassing countries in Europe, the Middle East and North Africa. In 2008, the Antonine Wall in Scotland was added to the World Heritage Site. In 2021, the frontiers in Lower Germany, that is in modern Germany and the Netherlands, and along the Middle Danube in Germany, Austria and Slovakia were inscribed as World Heritage Sites. Now the frontiers from the river Clyde in Scotland to the fort at Iza in Slovakia are World Heritage Sites.
This project is a truly challenging concept with no real precedent. It involves the co-operation of archaeologists and cultural resource managers in many countries – and in international agencies. Certain rules have to be accepted and standards met. Yet, each country has its own traditions of undertaking its archaeology, protecting and managing its sites, and presenting and interpreting its monuments to the public. There is no intention to force each country to change its traditions. Rather, archaeologists and administrators are working together to create overarching frameworks within which each country can adapt and enhance its own ways of working.

Mae’r prosiect hwn yn gysyniad gwirioneddol heriol heb unrhyw wir gynsail. Mae’n golygu cydweithredu rhwng archaeolegwyr a rheolwyr adnoddau diwylliannol mewn llawer o wledydd – a rhwng asiantaethau rhynthiau. Rhaid derbyn rheolau penodol a bodloni safonau. Ac eto, mae gan bob gwlad ei thraddodiadau ei hun o fynd i’r afael âi harchaeoleg, diogelu a rheoli ei safleoedd, a chyflwyno a dehongli ei henebion i’r cyhoedd. Nid oes bwriad i orfodi pob gwlad i newid ei thraddodiadau. Yn hytrach, mae archaeolegwyr a gweinyddwyr yn cydweithio i greu ffframweithiau cyffredin fel y gall pob gwlad addasu a gwella ei ffyrrdd o weithio.
The definition of a World Heritage Site

To that end, the co-ordinators of those countries which have already declared their intention to nominate their stretches of the Roman frontier as a World Heritage Site have formed themselves into a group. Named the Bratislava Group after the location of their first meeting in March 2003, it contains delegates from Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia, and the UK.

The Bratislava Group acts as an adviser on archaeological and scientific aspects of the frontier. It has proposed the following definition for the Frontiers of the Roman Empire World Heritage Site:

“The Frontiers of the Roman Empire World Heritage Site should consist of the line(s) of the frontier at the height of the empire from Trajan to Septimius Severus (about AD 100 to 200), and military installations of different periods which are on that line. The installations include fortresses, forts, towers, the limes road, artificial barriers and immediately associated civil structures”.

Diffinio Safle Treftadaeth y Byd

I’r perwyl hwnnw, mae cydlynwyr y gwledydd hynny sydd eisoes wedi datgan eu bwriad i enwebu eu rhannau nhw o’r ffin Rufeinig fel Safle Treftadaeth y Byd wedi ffurfio grŵp ymysg ei gilydd. Dyma Grŵp Bratislava a enwyd ar ôl lleoliad eu cyfarfod cyntaf ym mis Mawrth 2003, ac mae’n cynnwys cynrychiolwyr o Awstria, Bwlgaria, Croatia, yr Almaen, Hwngari, yr Iseldiroedd, Romania, Serbia, Slofacia a’r DU.

Mae Grŵp Bratislava yn gweithredu fel cynghor-ydd ar agweddu archaeolegol a gwyddonol ar y ffin. Mae wedi cynnig y diffiniad canlynol ar gyfer Safle Treftadaeth y Byd Ffiniau’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig: ‘The Frontiers of the Roman Empire World Heritage Site should consist of the line(s) of the frontier at the height of the empire from Trajan to Septimius Severus (about AD 100 to 200), and military installations of different periods which are on that line. The installations include fortresses, forts, towers, the limes road, artificial barriers and immediately associated civil structures’.
This definition excludes outpost and hinterland forts. But it has the main advantage that it is relatively simple, an important element when seeking to undertake an entirely new concept. Roman military installations stretch across many kilometres of the Roman empire and to seek to include all within this single World Heritage Site would involve enormous tasks of definition, too complex to undertake at this most early stage in the process. It would, of course, be possible to amend the proposed definition in due course.

The task ahead

The present task is daunting enough. Agriculture, and later industrialisation and the growth of towns and cities, has dealt harshly with some sections of the frontier. Many sectors are now no longer visible to the naked eye, yet they remain in the ground as an important archaeological resource. Their preservation is imperative for they hold the key to understanding frontiers better through controlled scientific research. The Frontiers of the Roman Empire are therefore well suited to convey the message that the protection of archaeological sites whether visible or invisible is vital for the preservation of the collective memory of mankind. The best way to protect the re-
23. The east-gate of the Roman fort at Traismauer on the Danube (Austria) dates to the 4th century but qualifies for nomination under the proposed definition.

Porth dwyreiniol y gaer Rufeinig yn Traismauer ar afon Donwy (Awstria). Mae'n perthyn i'r 4ydd ganrif ond mae’n gymwys i’w enwebu o dan y difiniad arfaethedig.

This inscription from Intercisa (Hungary) is one of several recording the erection of watch-towers to protect the empire from the illicit incursions of bandits during the reign of the Emperor Commodus (161–180)

Mae'r arysgrif hon o Intercisa (Hwngari) yn un o nifer sy'n cofnodi codi tyrau gwylio i ddiogelu'r ymerodraeth rhag cyrchoedd anghyfreithlon ysbeilwyr yn ystod teyrnasiad yr Ymerawdwr Commodus (161–180)

Y dasg sydd o'n blaenau

Mae'r dasg fel ag y mae yn ddigon brawychus. Mae amaethyddiaeth, twf diwydiant wedi hynny a datblygiad trefi a dinasoedd wedi cael effaith ddinistriol ar ranau o'r ffin. Mae ambell ran yn anweledwy erbyn hyn, ac eto maen nhw'n dal yno y pridd, yn adnodd archaeolegol pwysig. Mae eu gwarchod yn hanfodol, gan eu bod nhw'n allweddol o ran deall ffiniau'n well drwy ymchwil wyddonol. O ganlyniad, mae Ffiniau'r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig yn addas iawn ar gyfer cyfleu'r neges bod diogelu safleoedd archaeolegol gweladwy neu anweledig yn hanfodol er mwyn cynnal atgof gyfunol dynol-ryw. Mae'r ffordd orau o ddiogelu olion y ffin mewn cyd-destunau trefol eto i’w

24. This inscription from Intercisa (Hungary) is one of several recording the erection of watch-towers to protect the empire from the illicit incursions of bandits during the reign of the Emperor Commodus (161–180)
mains of the frontier in urban contexts has yet to be determined. This is all the more important because modern excavation has demonstrated that archaeological deposits often survive better in towns than in the countryside.

A further problem stems from the way that we protect our heritage. Museums cannot be World Heritage Sites. Yet parts of Roman frontiers – inscriptions, sculpture, pottery, artefacts, in short all the material which aids our understanding of life on the frontier – are displayed and stored in museums. Inscriptions are vital to our understanding of frontiers. They inform us when they were built, why and by whom, and what the constituent parts were called. Cramp holes demonstrate that they were once fixed to frontier buildings. In some manner, a way has to be found to associate them with the World Heritage Site itself.

25. The Roman fort at Gerulata lies in the outskirts of Bratislava (Slovakia)

Caer Rufeinig yn Gerulata ar gyrion Bratislava (Slofacia)
History and extent of frontiers

The Roman perspective was that they had subjected the entire *orbis terrarum* to the rule of Roman people – as far as they had knowledge about it or considered it worth conquering. This philosophy did not encompass the idea of boundaries at all except the idea that “barbarians” should stay outside the Roman concept of the civilised world. However, Rome’s boundaries rarely remained stable. Constant political crises, major warfare and even border skirmishes created situations to which Rome had to react. In time, firm lines came into existence.

The man who did most to define the edges of the Roman state was its first emperor, Augustus (27 BC–AD 14). Towards the turn of the Common Era he completed the conquest of the Alps and Spain, defined the eastern boundary by treaty with the Parthians, sent expeditions up the Nile and into the Sahara Desert, and brought Roman arms to the Danube and the Elbe. He famously gave advice to keep the empire within its present boundaries; advice conspicuously ignored by many of his successors, though their achievements were much less than his.

Hanes a hyd a lled y ffiniaw

Saifwynt Rhufain oedd bod y byd byd cyfan dan reolaeth y Rhufeiniaid – y byd a oedd yn hysbys iddyn nhw, neu’r rhannau hynny roedd nhw’n eu hystyried yn werth eu goresgyn. Nid oedd yr athroniaeth hon yn cwmpasu’r syniad o ffiniaw o gwbl, ac eithrio’r syniad y dylai “barbariaid” aros y tu allan i syniad Rhufain o’r byd gwaraidd. Fodd bynnag, anamli y byddai ffiniaw r ymerodraeth yn aros yn sefydlog. Roedd argyfyngau gwleidyddol cyson, rhyfelodd mawr a hyd yn oed mân sgarmesau yn arwain at sefyllfaoedd a fyddai’n gofyn am ymateb gan Rufain. Ymhen amser, batbygodd ffiniaw cadarn.

Y gŵr a wnaeth fwyaf i ddiffinio ffiniaw r wladwr-iaeth Rufainig oedd ei hwymerawdwr cyntaf, Augustus (27 CC–OC 14). Tuag at droad Oed Crist, llwyddodd i goncro’r Alpau a Sbaen, diffiniodd y ffin ddwyreiniol drwy gyntundeb â’r Parthiaid, anfonodd aldeithiau i fyn’r afon Nîl ac i anialwch y Sahara, a chyllwynodd arfau Rhufeiniaig i ardaloedd afonwydd Donwy ac Elbe. Rhoddodd gyngor enwog y dyliod cadw’r ymerodraeth o fewn ei ffiniaw presennol; cyngor a anwybyddwyd yn amwng gan lawer o’i olynwyr, er iddyn nhw gyf-lawni cryn dipyn llai nag ef.
Rome’s foreign policy

Yet, Rome’s expansion was slowing down and her main aim became the maintenance of imperial security. In doing so Rome’s foreign policy used a wide range of different instruments and strategies to maintain her superior status. Her army did not rely only on force but also on the image of Rome itself as a policy instrument. Adrian Goldsworthy has stated that “the Roman genius was to combine the practical with the visually spectacular so that the army’s actions were often designed to overawe the enemy with a display of massive power before they actually reached him”. Thousands of military buildings and installations erected along the borders of the empire, many of which have survived until today, represent this two-fold demonstration of Roman power and influence, at once both architectural and imaginative.

Polisi tramor Rhufain

Ar yr un pryd, roedd Rhufain yn ehangu’n arafach, a’r prif nod oedd cynyddwr yr ymerodraeth. Wrth wneud hynny, defnyddiodd polisi tramor Rhufain amrywiaeth o wahanol ddulliau a strategaethau i gynnal ei statws uwch. Roedd ei byddin yn dibynn Ni d o unig ar rym, ond hefyd ar ddelwed Rhufain ei hun fel offeryn polisi. Mae Adrian Goldsworthy wedi dweud mai athrylith Rhufain oedd cyfuno’r ymarferol gyda’r gweledol arutherford, gyda gweithredoedd y fyddin yn aml wedi’u cynllunio i synnu’r gelyn gydag arddangosfa o bŵer rhyfeddol cyn iddyn nhw ddod yn ddigon agos i ymosod. Mae miloedd o adeiladau a safleoedd milwrol ar hyd ffiniau’r ymerodraeth, llawer ohonyn nhw wedi goroesi, yn cynrychioli’r mynegiant deublyg hwn o bŵer a Dylanwad Rhufeinig, yn ben-saerniol ac yn ddychmygus ar yr un pryd.

27. The Tropaeum Alpium at La Turbie (France) commemorates the conquest of the Alps by the Emperor Augustus

Y Tropaeum Alpium yn La Turbie (Ffrainc), sy’n coffau concro’r Alpau gan yr Ymerawdwr Augustus

28. A Roman centurion named Aurelios carved his name on the rock at the Garamantian hill-fort of Zinkekra deep in the Sahara Desert (Libya)

Cerfiodd canwriad Rhufeinig o’r enw Aurelios ei enw ar graig ym mryngaer Garamantaidd Zinkekra, ym mhellafion anialwch y Sahara (Lybia)
The location of frontiers

The Roman empire encircles the Mediterranean Sea – *Mare Nostrum*, Our Sea, as they called it – and beyond that lay its frontiers. These, in time, stretched from the Atlantic Ocean, across Europe to the Black Sea, through the deserts and oases of the Middle East to the Red Sea, and thence across North Africa, skirting the edge of the Sahara Desert, to the Atlantic coast of Morocco.

In the UK the frontier became established on the line of Hadrian’s Wall, though for a time even that was abandoned in favour of a more northern frontier, the Antonine Wall. Through much of Europe the frontier lay initially along the rivers Rhine and Danube. In the later 1st century AD, the first steps were taken to shorten the line between the headwaters of the rivers. Under Antoninus this was formalised through the construction of a palisade for about 500 km. In contrast to the usual practice for purely defensive installations, its course is often mathematically straight, completely ignoring the topography of the land. The territory now brought into the empire developed into a rich agricultural area supporting many villas and farms.

Lleoliad y ffiniau

Mae’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig yn amgylchynu Môr y Canoldir – *Mare Nostrum*, Ein Môr Ni, fel y’i gelwid – gyda’i ffiniau y tu hwnt i hynny. Ymhen amser, ym-estynnodd y rhan o Fôr yr Iwerydd, ar draws Ewrop i’r Môr Du, drwy anialwch a gwerddonau’r Dwyrrain Canol i’r Môr Coch, ac yna ar draws golegedd Affrica, gan ddilyn ymyl anialwch y Sahara, yn ôl i arfordir Môr yr Iwerydd ym Morocco.

Yn y DU, sefydlwyd y ffin ar hyd Mur Hadrian, er iddyn nhw droi cefn ar hwnnw am gyfnod o blaid ffin fwy ogleddol Mur Antoninus. Drwylaw lawer yr Ewrop, roedd y ffin wreiddiol ar hyd afonydd Rhein a Donwy. Yn ddiweddarach yn y ganrif 1af OC, cymerwyd y camau cyntaf i gwtogi’r llinell rhwng prif ddyyadroedd yr afonydd. O dan Antoninus, cafodd hyn ei ffurfioli drwy adeiladu palis tua 500 cilometr o hyd. Yn wahanol i’r drefn arferol o godi safleoedd amddiffynnol yn unig, mae’n aml yn dilyn llinell holhol syth, gan anwybyddu topograffeg y tir yn llwyr. Datblygodd y tir a ddaeth yn rhan o’r ymerodraeth yn sgil hynny yn ardal amaethyddol gyfoethog gyda llawer iawn o filâu a ffermydd.
From Bavaria (Germany) to the Black Sea (Romania) the frontier ran along the river Danube. An exception to this was Dacia (modern Transylvania in Romania) which was conquered by the Emperor Trajan in 106. The frontier now moved from the river to the more difficult terrain of the Carpathian Mountains.

In the East, the Romans faced two enemies, the powerful kingdom of the Parthians and the desert. Together, these defined Rome’s Eastern frontier. No running barrier was erected, unnecessary in the desert, though a stretch of a major river, the Euphrates, was used. A significant feature of this frontier were the roads running for hundreds of kilometres along the edge of the desert and to all intents and purposes defining the frontier itself.

The Sahara Desert defined most of the frontier in North Africa. In Egypt, the army monitored both the population of major cities, the distribution of wheat, the mineral resources of the desert, the commercial routes, and, of course, the southern frontier. Where necessary, as in modern Algeria, barriers controlled the movement of the transhumance farmers.

31. A wall at Bir Oum Ali in Tunisia controlled access through a mountain pass along a wadi
Wal yn Bir Oum Ali, Tunisia, a oedd yn rheoli teithio drwy fwlc h mynyddig ar hyd wadi

32. The northern fringes of the Carpathian mountains (Romania)
Cyrion gogleddol Mynyddoedd Carpathia (Romania)

33. The limes-gate of Dalkingen (Germany). It has been argued that this special façade was created to mark the visit of the Emperor Caracalla in 213
Y Limes-gate yn Dalkingen (Yr Almaen). Mae rhai’n dadlau bod y ffasâd arbennig hwn wedi’i greu i nodi ymweliad yr Ymerawdwr Caracalla yn 213
O Bafaria (Yr Almaen) i’r Môr Du (Romania), dilynai’r ffyn yr afon Donwy. Eithriad i hyn oedd Dacia (rhanbarth Transylfania yn Romania heddiw) a orchfygwyd gan yr Ymerawdwyr Trajan yn 106. Symudodd y ffyn bryd hynny o’r afon i dir mwy garw Mynyddoedd Carpathia.

Yn y dwyrain, roedd y Rhufeiniaid yn wynebu dau elyn – teyrnas bwerus y Parthiaid a’r anialwch. Gyda’i gylydd, diffiniai’r rhain ffyn ddwyreiniol Rhufain. Ni chodwyd unrhyw rwystyr ffisegol, gan nad oedd angen un yn yr anialwch, er bod rhan o’r afon Ewffrates yn cael ei defnyddio. Un o nodweddion arwyddocael y ffyn hon oedd y ffrudd sy’n rhedeg am gannoedd o gigometrau ar hyd ymyl yr anialwch, ffrudd a oedd i bob pwpras yn diffinio’r ffyn ei hun.

Diffiniwyd y rhan fwyaf o’r ffyn yngnogledd Afirica gan anialwch y Sahara. Yn yr Aifft, roedd y fyddin yn monito poblagaeth dinasoedd mawr, dosbarthiad gwenith, adnoddau mwynawr’r anialwch, y llwybrau masnachol, ac, wrth gwrs, y ffyn ddeheul. Lle’r oedd angen hynny, fel yn Algeria gyfoes, roedd rhwystrau’n rheoli symudiad ffermwyr a oedd yn trawstrefa.

34. A reconstruction of a section of the palisade and a tower in Germany
Ailgread o ran o’r palis a thŵr yn yr Almaen

35. One of the earliest archaeological parks was that at the Saalburg (Germany)
Un o’r parciau archaeolegol cynharaf oedd yr un yn y Saalburg (Yr Almaen)

36. The legionary fortress at Satala (Turkey) on the Euphrates River was carefully placed to control a potential invasion route
Lleng-gaer Satala (Twrci) ar Afon Iwffrates, a leolwyd yn ofalus i reoli ymosodiadau posibl

37. The fortlet of Boljetin (Serbia) on the bank of the Danube was excavated in 1969 and flooded after the construction of the dam across the river
Cloddiwyd caer fechan Boljetin (Serbia) ar lan afon Donwy yn 1969, cyn iddi ddiiflannu dan y dŵr pan adeiladwyd argae

38. One of the earliest archaeological parks was that at the Saalburg (Germany)
Un o’r parciau archaeolegol cynharaf oedd yr un yn y Saalburg (Yr Almaen)
The army and frontiers

Rome always reacted to the local situation and developed individual solutions to its different problems. The military installations on every frontier were connected by a road, often forming a major highway. Indeed, it appears that the very name of a frontier – *limes* – derives from the Roman name for a frontier road.

The Roman army used local materials to construct its forts and frontiers. Stone, turf, clay, mud-brick, timber, tile, slate, thatch, mortar and plaster were amongst those used. Nor were these plain, unadorned or make-shift structures. Walls, whether of stone or timber, were often plastered and even painted. Painted wall-plaster has even been found in barrack-blocks.

38. The north gate of the fort at Bu Njem (Libya) in 1967 before the present campaign of excavation
Porth gogleddol caer Bu Njem (Lybia) yn 1967 cyn y cloddi presennol

39. Trajan’s Column in Rome (Italy) shows soldiers building a fort
Colofn Trajan yn Rhufain (Yr Eidal) yn dangos milwyr yn adeiladu caer

40. Model of the legionary fortress of Bonn (Germany) with the harbour and the civil settlement in the background
Model o leng-gaer Bonn (Yr Almaen) gyda’r harbwr a’r anheddiad trefol yn y cefndir
41. Qasr Bshir (Jordan) is typical of the forts in the desert, yet unique in its state of survival
Mae Gasr Bshir (Iorddonen) yn nodweddiadol o gaerau’r anialwch, ac eto’n unigryw oherwydd ei chyflwr

Y fyddin a’r ffiniau

Roedd Rhufain bob amser yn ymateb i sefyllfaodd lleol ac yn datblygu atebion unigol i’r gwahanol problemau. Roedd y safleoedd milwrol ar bob ffin wedi’u cysylltu gan ffordd, gan ffurfio priffordd yn aml. Yn wir, mae’n ymddangos bod yr union enw am ffin – limes – yn deillio o’r enw Rhufeinig am ffordd ar ffin.

Byddai’r fyddin Rufeinig yn manteisio ar ddeunyddiau lleol i adeiladu caerau a ffiniau, gan gynnwys cerrig, tyweirch, clai, brics mwd, pren, teils, gwellt, morter a phlastri. Nid strwythurau plaen a diaddurn oedd y rhain, nac ychwaith strwythurau dros dro. Roedd waliau, boed o gerrig neu bren, yn aml yn cael eu plastro a hyd yn oed eu peintio. Mae plastr wal wedi’i baentio wedi’i ganfod mewn barics hyd yn oed.

42. Dura-Europos on the Euphrates River (Syria).
As in many cities along the Eastern frontier, it contained a regiment of the Roman army
Dura-Europos ar Afon Iwffrates (Syria). Fel sawl dinas ar hyd y ffin ddwyreiniol, roedd yn gartref i gatrwd o’r fyddin Rufeinig
The purpose of frontiers

Although bristling with military structures of every kind, and the base of armies whose main purpose was to defend the empire, the primary function of the frontiers themselves was the control of movement into and out of the empire, including the prevention of raiding. The buildings – walls, fortlets and towers – were supplemented by scouts whose duties were to maintain watch on land, and fleets whose sailors maintained surveillance over the river and sea boundaries of the empire.

The core of the provincial armies was formed by the legions. Only about 30 of these existed at any one time and they were strung out along the frontiers of the empire, sometimes on the actual line, elsewhere some distance to the rear. The main body of the provincial army was formed by auxiliary units – literally support troops – and these occupied much smaller forts than the legions. In the disturbed times following the fall of the Roman empire, fort walls provided protection. Many of today’s major cities have at their centre a legionary fortress.
46. Milecastle 42 (Cawfields) on Hadrian’s Wall (UK). Gates such as this allowed passage through the frontier
Castell milltir 42 (Cawfields) ar Fur Hadrian (y DU). Roedd pyrth fel hyn yn caniatáu mynd a dod dros y ffin

Diben ffiniau

Er yn frith o strwythurau milwrol o bob math, a milwyr à’u prif ddiben o amddiffyn yr ymerodraeth, prif swyddogaeth y ffiniau eu hunain oedd rheoli symudiad i mewn ac allan o’r ymerodraeth, gan gynnwys atal ysbeilio. Ynghyd â’r adeiladau – waliau, caerau bychain a thyrâu – byddai sgowtiad yn cadw golwg ar y tir a llyngesau o longwyr yn gwarchod ffiniau afonydd a môr yr ymerodraeth.

Y llengoedd oedd craidd y fyddin daleithiol. Dim ond tua 30 o’r rhain a oedd ar waith ar unrhyw un adeg, ac fe'u lleolwyd ar hyd ffiniau’r ymerodraeth, weithiau ar y ffin wirionedddol, dro arall gryn bellter oddi wrthi. Ffurfiwyd prif gorff y fyddin daleithiol gan unedau adegol – yn llythrennol, milwyr wrth gefn – a oedd wedi’u lleoli mewn caerau llawer llai na’r llengoedd. Yn y cyfnod o anhrefn yn dilyn cwmp yr Ymerodraeth Rufeinig, roedd muriau’r caerau yn cynnig amddiffynfa. Mae lleng-gaer yng nghanol llawer o brif ddinasoedd ardal yr ymerodraeth heddiw.

47. Tile stamp of the First Legion Italica from Novae (Bulgaria) depicting a boat
Stamp teils y Lleng Gyntaf Italica o Novae (Bwlgaria) yn dangos cwch

48. Strasbourg (France), one of the seats of the European Parliament, has at its core the fortress of the Eighth Legion Augusta
Calon Strasbourg (Ffrainc), un o seddi Senedd Ewrop, yw caer Wythfed Lleng Augusta
49. Aerial view of the town outside the legionary fortress of Carnuntum (Austria)
Awyrlun o'r dref y tu allan i leng-gaer Carnuntum (Awstria)

50. This writing tablet found at Vindolanda by Hadrian’s Wall (UK) is a list of food
Llechen ysgrifennu a ganfuwyd yn Vindolanda ger Mur Hadrian (y DU) gyda rhes o fwyd arni

51. An ostracon, a drawing on a pottery sherd from Mons Claudianus, showing an auxiliary cavalryman such as we know from the documentation was involved with communication and control along the desert roads (Egypt)
Ostracon, darlun ar ddarn o grochenwaith o Mons Claudianus, sy’n dangos marchfilwr ategol. O’r cofnodion sydd gennym, rydyn ni’n gwybod bod marchfilwyr yn ymwneud à chyfathrebu a rheoli ar hyd ffyrdd yr anialwch (Yr Aifft)

**Soldiers and civilians**

Nearly every fort in the empire attracted civilians to cater for the needs of the soldiers. Civilian settlements sprang up along the frontier. The military installations together with these civilian settlements created a significant economic power, which can only be compared to the great cities of the interior of the empire. This market sucked in goods and attracted trade from both its hinterland as well as from the people beyond the frontier.

**Military administration**

Both soldiers and civilians required management. The Roman army was excessively bureaucratic, even to our eyes – a receipt in quadruplicate, for example, survives. Every soldier had his own file, and even every horse. Each regiment created a day report. Strength returns were regularly made to Rome. A tiny sample of such documents survive from frontier forts, but they cast strong light on the workings of the Roman army.
52. Detail of the arch that formed the forehall of the headquarters building at Lambaesis (Algeria)
Manylion y bwa a ffurfiodd flaen adeilad y pencadlys yn Lambaesis (Algeria)

53. After 25 years of service the auxiliary soldiers were rewarded with the Roman citizenship, which was confirmed and certified by a military diploma
Ar ôl 25 mlynedd o wasanaeth, gwobrwywyd milwyr ategol gyda dinasyddiaeth Rufeinig. Cadarnhawyd ac ardystiwyd hynny gan ddipломa milwrol

54. Soldiers, including the flag-bearer (vexillarius), painted on the wall of a room in Dura (Syria)
Milwyr, gan gynnwys cludwr y faner (vexillarius), wedi’u peintio ar wal ystafell yn Dura (Syria)

Milwyr a phobl gyffredin

Byddai bron pob caer yn yr ymerodraeth yn denu pobl gyffredin i ddarparu ar gyfer anghenion y milwyr. Cododd aneddiadau ar hyd y ffin. Roedd y safleoedd milwrol yngyd â’r aneddiadau yn creu cryn dipyn o rym economiadd, na ellir ond ei gymharu â dinasoedd mawr y tu mewn i’r ymerodraeth. Roedd y farchnad hon yn denu nwyddau a masnach o’r berfeddwlad yn ogystal ag o’r tu hwnt i’r ffin.

Gweinyddiaeth filwrol

Byddai angen rheoli milwyr a phobl gyffredin. Roedd trefniadau’r fyddin Rufeinig yn fiwrocataidd gymphleth, hyd yn oed yn ôl safonau heddiw – er enghraiff, mae pedwar copi o’r un dderbynneb wedi goroesi. Roedd gan bob milwr ei feil ei hun, a phob ceffyl hyd yn oed. Byddai pob catrawd yn creu adroddiad dyddiol. Anfonwyd cofnodion o gryfder milwrol i Rufain yn rheolaidd. Mae nifer fach iawn o ddogfennau o’r fath wedi goroesi o gaerau’r ffyn, ond maen nhw’n cynnig golwg hynod o glir ar weithrediadau’r fyddin Rufeinig.
Research on Roman frontiers

Roman literature and other ancient sources have long provided a valuable source of information about frontier installations. These sources include several military treatises describing the Roman army and its structures, though, alas, generally not frontiers. They also include specific documents such as the report of the governor Arrian on the forts along the eastern shore of the Black Sea.

Inscriptions and documents

Literary sources are supplemented by thousands of inscriptions from every frontier describing the construction and purpose of military structures as well as providing details of the careers and movements of the officers and soldiers of the Roman army. More recently, documents on papyrus, parchment and wood have been discovered through excavation and provide another valuable source of information.

Scholars started describing and planning Roman remains in the 16th century. Their records are especially valuable today in view of the great changes in the landscape and the damage to the archaeological remains inflicted during the following centuries. They also collected inscriptions and sculpture, and these frequently form an important element of great national and regional collections.

Ymchwil ar ffiniau Rhufeinig

Ers amser maith, mae llenyddiaeth Rhufeinig a ffynnonellau hynafol eraill wedi cynnig gwobodaeth werthfawr am safleoedd ar y ffin. Mae’r ffynnonellau hyn yn cynnwys nifer o draethodau milwrol sy’n disgrifiö'r fyddin Rufeinig a’i strwythurau, er, yn anffodus, nid y ffiniau fel y cyfyw. Maen nhw hefyd yn cynnwys dogfennau penodol fel adroddiad y llywodraethwr Arrian ar y caerau ar hyd glannau dwyreiniol y Môr Du.

Arysgrifau a dogfennau

Mae’r ffynnonellau llenyddol yn cael eu hategu gan filoedd o arysgrifau o bob ffyn sy’n disgrifiö adieladwaith a diben strwythurau milwrol, yn ogystal â manylion am yrfaedd a symudiaidau swyddogion a milwyr y fyddin Rufeinig. Yn fwy diweddar, darganfuwyd dogfennau ar bapurfrwyn, memrwn a phren yn ystod gwaith cloddio sy’n cynnig ffynhonnell werthfawr arall o wybodaeth.

Dechreuodd ysgolheigion ddisgrifiö a chynnullunio olion Rhufeinig yn yr 16eg ganrif. Mae eu cofnodion yn arbennig o werthfawr heddiw o ystyr y newid iadau mawr yn y dirwedd a’r difrod i olion archaeolegol a achoswyd yn ystod y canrifedd i dddod. Roeddwn nhw hefyd yn casglu arysgrifau a cherfluniau, sy’n aml yn elfen bwysig o gasgliadau cenedlaethol a rhanbarthol gwych.

55. This inscription from milecastle 38 (Hotbank) records its building under Hadrian by the Second Legion

Mae’r arysgrif hon o gastell milltir 38 (Hotbank) yn cofnodï'r gwaith o'i adieladu gan yr Ail Leng yn ystod teyrnasid Hadrian
Survey and excavation

Although excavations were undertaken in the earlier 19th century, it was the 1890s which saw the beginning of the modern era of scientific archaeological investigations. This work did not just encompass excavation; an important element was the surveying and recording of existing remains. This work was often undertaken by institutions such as the Reichs-Limeskommission in Germany, founded in 1892 by the great German historian and winner of the Nobel Prize Theodor Mommsen.

Research in the 20th century was dominated by excavation. Early work focused on uncovering structural remains often neglecting the more detailed history of each site. Whole forts might be laid open. Yet at the same time, members of the Reichs-Limeskommission in Germany were able to confirm that the frontier had indeed a timber palisade, while in Scotland it was revealed that the Antonine Wall was built of turf as described in the Historia Augusta. Techniques soon improved. Better use was made of dating evidence such as coins and pottery and, in time, weapons and other small finds. The advantages of stratigraphy in helping understand the history of sites was also appreciated.

Arolygu a chloddio

Er i waith cloddio ddigwydd ar ddechrau’r 19eg ganrif, y 1890au oedd dechrau’r oes fodern o ymchwiliadau archaeolegol gwyddonol. Nid cloddio yn unig oedd hynny; roedd arolygu a chofnodi olion presennol hefyd yn elfen bwysig o’r gwaith. Cynhaliwyd y gwaith hwn ym aml gan sefydliadau fel yr Reichs-Limeskommission yn yr Almaen, a sefydliwyd yn 1892 gan Theodor Mommsen, yr hanesydd Almaenaidd blaenllaw, ac enillyd Gwobr Nobel.

Gwaith cloddio oedd y gwaith ymchwil pennaf yn yr 20fed ganrif. Roedd gwaith arolygu yn canolbwntio ar ddatgelu olion strwythurol, gan esgususo’n aml hanes manylach pob safle. Weithiau, byddai caerau cyfan yn dð’i golwg. Ac eto, ar yr un pryd, roedd aelodau o’r Reichs-Limeskommission yn yr Almaen yn gallu cadarnhau mai palis oedd i ran o’r ffin, ac yn yr Alban datgelwyd bod Mur Antoninus wedi’i adeiladu o dyweirch yn unol â disgrifiad Historia Augusta. Cafodd y technegau eu mireiniu’n fuan. Gwnaed gwell defnydd o dystiolaeth dyddio fel darnau arian a chrochenwaith ac, ymhen amser, arfau a darganfyddiadau bychan eraill. Yn ogystal, daethpwyd i werthfawrogi manteision stratigrafeg wrth helpu i ddeall hanes safleoedd.

56. The timber palisade in Germany, excavated in 1894
Palis pren yn yr Almaen, a gloddiwyd yn 1894
Aerial survey

Aerial photography provided another valuable tool. Antoine Poidebard’s great survey of Roman military sites in Syria, undertaken in the 1920s, and Sir Aurel Stein’s survey of Jordan remain major sources for the study of the Eastern frontier. Jean Baradez’s Fossatum Africae, published in 1949, is based upon his aerial reconnaissance of North Africa and remains a major source for any study of this area.

Today, terrestrial and aerial survey is supplemented by remote sensing, in particular geophysical survey. So much of this work is facilitated by advances in computer technology in helping documenting and mapping.

International co-operation in work on Roman frontiers began in the 19th century. In 1949 the Congress of Roman Frontier Studies was founded and has met regularly since in various countries. Today, research on the Frontiers of the Roman Empire brings together scientists from all over the world: the 24th Congress in Serbia in 2018 was attended by 360 scholars from 28 countries.

57. Excavations started in Vienna during the major construction work removing the former city defences in the second half of the 19th century

Dechreuodd gwaith cloddio yn Fienna yn ystod gwaith adeiladu sylweddol i gael gwaredd hen amddiffynfeydd y ddinas yn ystod ail hanner yr 19eg ganrif

58. The military fortification at Hân al-Manqûra (Syria), probably dating to the middle of the second century AD, recorded by A. Poidebard in 1930

Amdiffynfa filwrol yn Hân al-Manqûra (Syria), sy’n dyddio’n ôl pob tebyg i ganol yr ail ganrif OC, a gofnodwyd gan A. Poidebard yn 1930

Aerial survey

Roedd ffotograffiaeth o’r awyr yn adnodd gwerthfawr arall. Mae arolwg sylweddol Antoine Poidebard o safleoedd milwrol Rhufeinig yn Syria, a gynhaliwyd yn y 1920au, ac arolwg Syr Aurel Stein o Iorddonen yn dal yn ffynonellau pwysig ar gyfer astudio’r ffin ddwyreiniol. Mae Fossatum Africae gan Jean Baradez, a gyhoeddwyd yn 1949, yn seiliedig ar ei archwiliadau o’r awyr yng ngogledd Affrica, ac mae’n parhau’n ffynhonnell bwysig ar gyfer unrhyw astudiaeth o’r ardal hon.

Heddiw, mae arolgon daearol ac o’r awyr yn cael eu hategu gan synhwyro o bell, yn enwedig arolgy geoffisegol. Mae cymaint o’r gwaith hwn yn cael ei hwyluso gan ddaithiadau mewn technoleg gyfrifia-durol wrth helpu i gofnodi a mapio.

Protection and presentation of frontiers

The survey, excavation and recording of archaeological sites are but one part of the story. From the very beginning of excavation in the late nineteenth century, visitors wanted to see the remains which had been uncovered. Often, such archaeological sites were left open and unprotected. Archaeologists removed the valuable finds to museums, but visitors also wanted their own souvenirs and as a result some sites practically disappeared.

The same years saw the first steps towards protecting ancient monuments. Country after country passed legislation to secure the future of their heritage. Agriculture had long threatened the survival of archaeological remains; now industry and its infrastructure competed with its destructive power. Vast economical developments everywhere gradually...
changed the face of archaeology, leading to large and complex rescue excavations.

The needs of increasing numbers of visitors required to be met. Military sites were laid out for public inspection; museums were built to house the large collections of artefacts, and, in time, other facilities were provided, such as archaeological parks, many containing reconstructions, and reaching out to involve the public by means or re-enactment and Roman military displays.

Newidiwyd archaeoleg yn raddol gan ddatblygiadau economaidd enfawr, gan arwain at gloddfeydd mawr a chymhleth i achub safleoedd.

Roedd yn rhaid diwallu anghenion niferoedd cynyddol o ymwelwyr. Agorwyd safleoedd milwrol i’w harchwilio gan y cyhoedd; adeiladwyd amguedd-feydd i gartrefu’r casgliadau mawr o artefactau, ac, ymhen amser, darparwyd cyfeuasterau eraill, megis parciau archaeolegol, llawer yn cynnwys ailadeiladu, ac ymderchwyd i ddenu’r cyhoedd drwy ail-greu ac arddangosfeydd milwrol Rhufeinig.

60. Aquincum museum in Budapest (Hungary) founded in 1894
Amgueddfa Aquincum yn Budapest (Hwngari) a sefydlwyd yn 1894

61. Roman stone monuments and inscriptions in Osijek Museum (Croatia)
Henebion carreg ac arysgrifau Rhufeinig yn Amgueddfa Osijek (Croatia)

62. Tourism is not a modern phenomenon. This bowl was probably made as a souvenir of Hadrian’s Wall (UK) in the 2nd century
Nid ffenomenon modern yw twristiaeth. Mae’n debyg i’r ddysgl hon gael ei chreu fel cofrodd i Fur Hadrian (y DU) yn yr 2il ganrif
Future perspectives

Today’s world offers many challenges. Roman frontiers defined a single state, albeit one which no longer exists. The very commonality of Roman frontiers demands that they are treated as a single monument. Roman frontiers are the joy of the aficionado of cultural tourism – here is one great cultural route running right round the Roman empire, offering not just different sites but a wide range of landscape and scenery.

Protection is still a complex issue in the face of our modern society and its demands. Archaeological investigation is an increasingly complex operation requiring more resources. Visitors have high expectations, fuelled by television and other media presentations. To create and manage a single large monument such as the Frontiers of the Roman Empire demands a management philosophy in which the different parts of the frontier complex are treated holistically while respecting local traditions and practices: this is a considerable challenge as well as a great opportunity for international co-operation.

It is clear that the protection and enhancement of our common heritage requires much energy and tolerance, between the scientific community and administrators, at every level from the local to the international.

Safbwntiau'r dyfodol

Mae'r byd heddiw yn cynnig llawer o heriau. Roedd y ffiniau Rhufeinig yn diffinio un wladwriaeth, er bod honno’n wladwriaeth nad yw’n bodoli mwyach. Mae natur gyffredin ffiniau Rhufeinig yn mynnu eu bod yn cael eu trin fel un heneb. Mae'r ffiniau Rhufeinig yn destun llawenydd i selogion twistiaeth ddiwyliannol – dyma un llwybr diwyliannol gwych sy’n rhedeg o amgylch yr Ymerodraeth Rufeinig, gan gynnig nid yn unig safleoedd gwahanol ond amrywiaeth eang o dir-wedd a golygfeydd.

Mae amddiffyn yn parhau’n fater cymhleth yn wyneb ein cymdeithas fodor a’i gofynion. Mae ymchwil archaeolegol yn faes cynyddol gymhleth sy’n gofyn am fwy o adnoddau. Mae gan ymwelwyr ddigwyliaidduchel, wedi’u sbarduno gan deledu a chyfrangau eraill. Er mwyn creu a rheoli un heneb sylweddol fel Ffiniau’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig, mae angen athroniaeth reoli lle mae gwahanol rannau o’r ffin yn cael eu trin yn gyfannol tra’n parchu tra-ddodiadau ac arferion lleol: mae hynny’n her sylweddol ond hefyd yn gyfle gwyf gwych ar gyfer cydweith-redu rhyngwladol.

Mae’n amlwg bod angen llawer o egni i ddiogelu a gwella ein tref tadaeth gyffredin, heb sôn am oddef-garwch rhwng y gymunedwyd ywddonol a gweinyddwyr, a hynny ar bob lefel, o’r lleol i’r rhyngwladol.

63. The three genii at Housesteads wear the cucullus, a long, hooded cloak, appropriate protective clothing
Mae’r 3 jini yn Housesteads yn gwisgo’r ’cucullus’, clogyn hir gyda chwil a oedd yn ddilledyn amddiffynnol priodol
64. Military sites in the Roman Frontiers in Wales

Saifeoedd milwrol yn Ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru
THE ROMAN FRONTIERS IN WALES

Nature of the Roman Frontiers in Wales

The militarised frontiers in Wales are unique in the Roman Empire. Unlike the well-known defensive linear boundaries such as Hadrian’s Wall and the Antonine Wall in northern Britain, or along the Rhine and Danube rivers connecting the North and Black Seas, the forts and fortresses in western Britain formed a dynamic, and relatively short-lived, offensive frontier designed to deal with the Celtic tribes living there. Whereas later frontiers elsewhere were static barriers demarcating the limits of Roman imperial authority, the frontier in Wales was a fortified zone that adapted to the changing military situation as Rome’s generals fought against, defeated and pacified the hostile Britons.

FFINIAU RHUFEINIG CYMRU

Natur Ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru

Mae’r ffiniau milwroledig yng Nghymru yn unigryw yn yr Ymerodraeth Rufeinig. Yn wahanol i’r ffiniau llinellol amddiffynnol adnabyddus fel Mur Hadrian a Mur Antoninus yng ngogledd Prydain, neu ar hyd afonydd Rhein a Donwy sy’n cysylltu Môr y Gogledd a’r Môr Du, roedd y caerau a’r amddiffynfeydd yng ngorllewin Prydain yn creu ffin ymosodol ddeinamig, a chymharol fyrhoedlog, gyda’r bwridd o fynd i’r afael â’r llwythau Celtaidd a oedd yn byw yno. Tra bod ffiniau diweddarach mewn mannau eraill yn rhwystrau sefydlog i bennu terfynau awdurdd ymerodrol Rhufain, roedd y ffin yng Nghymru yn barth caerog a oedd yn addasu i’r seflyfia filwrol newidiol wrth i gadfridogion Rhufain frwydro, trechu a heddychu’r Brythoniaid gelyniaethus.
For 70 or 80 years after the invasion of Britain in AD 43, a large proportion of the Roman forces were deployed in, and on the eastern fringe of, what is now Wales. At this time, the Empire was still expanding and there was, as yet, no notion of the need for permanent linear boundaries separating Romans from barbarians. The Latin word for frontier is *limes* (from which English words such as ‘limit’ and ‘limitation’ are derived), which originally signified a military road into enemy territory, along which troops could easily advance. The meaning of *limes* changed after the emperor Hadrian (117–138) brought an end to Rome’s previous expansionist foreign policy and sought instead to protect the Empire’s provinces with a system of defensive barriers, including the northern British wall that still bears his name.

In Wales, the Roman army’s presence was determined by the need to dominate, overcome and control the resistant natives, and for 3 or 4 generations many thousands of soldiers lived in temporary camps, or more permanent forts and fortresses spread throughout the country. The Welsh fortified frontier was garrisoned by numerous auxiliary units, usually stationed in forts along the main river valleys that dissect the upland interior, backed by legions whose fortresses were sited on the eastern edge of the highlands. More than 60 timber and stone military installations from the conquest and post-conquest periods are known from Wales, some of which seem to have been occupied for only a few years, while others remained in use for far longer. An extensive network of roads connected the forts to one another, as well as to the legionary bases in reserve. These allowed the Romans to provision and support their remotest troops, and it is likely that the coast and rivers would have been used for communication and supply too.

New forts continue to be discovered today and the study of the Roman army in Wales is constantly moving forward. Archaeological research over the past 100 years or so has given us a very good understanding of how the Roman frontier in Wales developed during the war against the native tribes, and also how the relationship between Britons and Romans changed over time once Wales was integrated into the civilian province of Britannia.

Am 70 neu 80 mlynedd ar ôl ymosod ar Brydain yn OC 43, trefnwyd cyfran fawr o’r lluoedd Rhufeinig yn yr ardal sydd bellach yn Gymru, neu ar gyrrion dwyreiniol Cymru. Roedd yr Ymerodraeth yn dal i ehangu ar y pryd, heb unrhyw arliw o angen am ffiniau llinelol parhaol i wahanu Rhufeiniaid oddi wrth y barbariaid. Y gair Lladin am ffin yw *limes* (tarddiad geiriau Saesneg fel ‘limit’ a ‘limitation’), a oedd yn wreiddiol yn dynodi fforleidd filwrol i mewn i mewn i diroiaeth gelyn, i alluogi milwyr i symud ymlaen yn ddiddorfferth. Newidiodd ystyr *limes* ar ôl i’r Ymerawdwr Hadrian (117–138) roi terfyn ar bolisi tramor ehangol blaenorol Rhufain. Yn hytrach, ceisiodd ddiogelu tiroedd yr Ymerodraeth gyda system o rwystrau amddiffynnol, gan gynnwys y mur gogogledd ym Mhrydain sy’n dal i ddwyn ei enw.

Yng Nghymru, pennwyd presenoldeb y fyddin Rufeinig gan yr angen i ddominyddu, goresgyn a rheoli’r brodorion gwrrthryfelgar, ac am dair neu bedair cenhedlaeth roedd miloedd lawer o filwryd yn byw mewn gwersyllwedd dros dro, neu gaerau ac amddiffynfeydd mwy parhaol ledled y wlad. Gwarchodwyd yr ffin yferyng yng Nghymru gan nifer o unedau ategaol, a oedd fel arfer wedi’u lleoli mewn caerau ar hyd y priff ddyffrynnoedd sy’n holli’r ucheldir, gyda chefnogaeth llengoedd mewn caerau yr ymyl ddwyreiniol yr ucheldir. Gwyddom am dros 60 o safleoedd milwrol pren a charreg o gyfnod y goresgniadd a’r cyfnod yn ei ddiolyn. Mae’n ymddangos bod rhai ohonyn nhw wedi’u meddianu à ychydig fflynyddoedd yn unig, tra bod eraill wedi’u defnyddio am gyfnod llawer hirach. Roedd rhwydwaith helaeth o ffyrrd yn cysylltu’r caerau â’i gilydd, yn ogystal â’r canolfannau lleng wrth gefn. Roedd y rhain yn caniatáu i Rhufeiniaid ddarparu adnoddau a chefnogí eu milwyr mwyaf anghyssell, ac mae’n debygol y byddai’r arfordir a’r afonwydd wedi cael eu defnyddio ar gyfer cyfatrefru a chylfreni hefyd.

Mae caerau newydd yn dal i gael eu darganfod heddiw ac mae astdudio’r fyddin Rufeinig yng Nghymru yn faes sy’n datblygu’u gyson. Mae ymchwilio ararcheolegol dros y 100 mlynedd diwethaf wedi rholi dealttriwiaeth dda iawn i ni o sut datblyggod y ffin Rufeinig yng Nghymru yn ystod y rhyfel yn erbyn y
The remains of the Roman army’s presence can be found across Wales - in towns and cities such as Cardiff, Neath and Caernarfon, as well as in some of the remotest parts of the country. Although the Roman Frontiers in Wales are not currently part of the UNESCO Frontiers of the Roman Empire World Heritage Site, together these forts and fortresses are an evocative reminder of this remarkable period in the histories of all nations with a shared Roman past.

Ilwythau brodorol, a hefyd sut newidiodd y berthynas rhwng y Brythoniaid a’r Rhufeiniaid dros amser ar ôl i Gymru gael ei hintegreiddio i dalaith sifil Britannia.

Mae olion presenoldeb y fyddin Rufeinig i’w gweld ledled Cymru – mewn trefi a dinasoedd fel Caerdydd, Castell-nedd a Chaernarfon, yn ogystal â rhannau mwy anghysbell o’r wlad. Er nad yw Ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru yn rhan o Safle Treftadaeth y Byd UNESCO Ffiniau’r Ymerodraeth Rufeinig ar hyn o bryd, mae’r caerau a’r amddiffynfeydd hyn yn ein hatgoffa o’r cyfnod hwn yn hanes pob gwlad sy’n rhannu gorffennol Rhufeinig.

66. Cardiff: photograph of the Roman and later walls at Cardiff Castle
Caerdydd: llun o furiau Rhufeinig a muriau diweddarach yng Nghastell Caerdydd
People have been fascinated by ancient Rome for a very long time. Several medieval accounts survive of visits to standing Roman remains in Wales, or relating myths and legends connected to ancient ruins. Caerleon, the site of the legionary fortress known to the Romans as Isca, was particularly appealing as 2 of Britain’s earliest Christian martyrs, Julius and Aaron, were known to have served in the legion stationed there, and it was also believed to have been the site of King Arthur’s Camelot. Two of the earliest and most influential authors to describe Roman Caerleon were Geoffrey of Monmouth and Gerald of Wales, both writing during the 12th century and both claiming to have seen, or have knowledge of, substantial surviving Roman structures there. From the 16th century, and firmly rooted in the principles and values of the Renaissance, scholars began recording ancient monuments more methodologically and thinking about the past more objectively than had been the case before. William Camden, Edward Lhuyd and William Stukeley visited Roman remains in Wales and published accounts of what they had seen that were more evidence-led and analytical. For instance, in his Britannia, first published in 1586, Camden recognised that the earthworks at Caerhun were the site of Canovium (named in the Antonine Itinerary), and he also published the first drawings of Latin inscriptions found in Caerleon, including dedicatory inscriptions and tombstones.

These antiquarians often came from the landed gentry, the church, or were retired army or naval officers, and they founded societies where they could share new discoveries and ideas with other like-minded members (the oldest of these, the Society of Antiquaries of London, was established in 1707). The 19th century saw the rise of a new breed of antiquarian in the expanding industrial towns and cities in Wales, who organised themselves into national and regional groups that also published journals where the latest finds were described (the Cambrian Archaeological Association was founded in 1846 and published the first volume of Archaeologia Cambren-
Hanes ymchwil yng Nghymru

Mae Rhufain yr henfyd wedi cyfareddu pobl ers cyn cof. Mae sawl hanesyn canoloesol wedi goroesi sy’n sôn am ymweialdau a olion Rhufeinig yng Nghymru, neu sy’n rhannu mythau a chwedlau sy’n gysylltiedig ag adfeilion hynafol. Roedd Caerllion, safte’r lleng-gaer Rufeinig Isca, yn apelio’n arbennig gan fod dau o ferthyron Cristnogol Prydain, Julius ac Aaron, wedi gwasanaethu yn y lleng a leolwyd yno, a chredwyd hefyd mai dyma oedd lleoliad Camlod, llys y Brenin Arthur. Dau o’r awduron cynharaf a mwyaf dylanwadol i ddisgrifio Caerllion Rufeinig oedd Sieffre o Fynwy a Gerallt Gymro, y ddau yn ysgrifennu yn ystod y 12fed ganrif, gyda’r ddau yn honni eu bod wedi gweld, neu fod gan ddyndyn nhw wybodaeth am, strwythtrau Rhufeinig sylweddol a oedd wedi goroesi yno. O’r 16eg ganrif, a hynny wedi’i wreiddio’n gadarn yn egwyddorion a gwerthoedd Rhufeinig sylweddol a oedd wedi goroesi yno. Ymateb o’r awduron oedd Sieffre o Fynwy a Gerallt Gymro, a dechreuodd ysgrifennu economegion gofnodi henebion gyda mwy o drefn, gan feddwil am y gorffennol mewn ysgrifenyddol wedi gweld cyn hynny. Ymweoddodd William Camden, Edward Lhuyd a William Stukeley ag olion Rhufeinig yng Nghymru gan gyhoeddi cofnodion gwyddonyddol a seiliedig ar dystiolaeth o’r hyn roedd nhw wedi’i weld. Er enghraiff, yn Britannia, a gyhoeddwyd gan Camden, roedd o’r hyn na’i wneud o’r hyn na’i weld.

69. An inscription from Caerleon published in William Camden’s Britannia. The inscription was found in 1602 and collected by Francis Godwin, Bishop of Landaff ('a lover of venerable antiquity, and all other good literature’), who had it built into the garden wall at his house in Moinscourt

Arysgrif o Caerllion a gyhoeddwyd yn Britannia William Camden. Canfuwyd yr arysgrif yn 1602 a’i chasglu gan Francis Godwin, Esgob Llandaf ('a lover of venerable antiquity, and all other good literature’). Mynnodd iddi gael ei chynnwys yn adeiladwaith wal garodd ei dî y yn Moinscourt

70. Bust of Edward Lhuyd outside the University of Wales Centre for Advanced Welsh and Celtic Studies, Aberystwyth

Penddelw o Edward Lhuyd y tu allan i Ganolfan Uwchefrydiau Gymreig a Cheltaidd Prifysgol Cymru, Aberystwyth
sis in the same year). One such Victorian antiquarian, John Edward Lee, cemented the importance of the town of Caerleon in the study of Roman Wales. A partner in a manufacturing firm in Newport, Lee lived in Caerleon and was so perturbed by the quantities of Roman remains coming to light as the town expanded that he started recording these new discoveries. He published many drawings and descriptions in his 1845 monograph *Delineations of Roman antiquities found at Caerleon (the ancient Isca Silurum) and the neighbourhood*, which is one of the earliest systematic accounts of a major Roman site in Britain. Lee later established the Caerleon Antiquarian Association (the earliest local archaeological society in Wales and in existence today as the Monmouthshire Antiquarian Association), that he intended would found a museum in Caerleon to house recent finds and display them to the public. The Antiquarian Museum was opened in 1850 (only the second museum in Wales at the time), and Lee published his major diweddaraf (sefydlwyd Cymdeithas Archaeolegol Cambria yn 1846 a chyhoeddwyd cyfrol cyntaf Ar- chaeologia Cambrensis yn yr un flwyddyn). John Edward Lee, un o'r hynafiaethwyr Fictoraidd hyn, oedd yn gyfrifol am gadarnhau pwysigrwydd tref Caerl- lion wrth astudio'r Gymru Ruifeinig. Partner mewn cwmni gweithgynhyrchu yng Nghhasnewydd oedd Lee, ond roedd yn byw yng Nghaerllion. Fe wnaeth hyd a lled yr olion Ruifeinig a oedd yn dod i'r am- lwg wrth i'r dref ehangu y fath aragraf arno fel iddo ddechrau cofnodi'r darganfyddiadau newydd hyn. Yn 1845, cyhoeddodd lawer o luniau a disgrifiadau yn eu fonograff *Delineations of Roman antiquities found at Caerleon (the ancient Isca Silurum) and the neighbourhood*, sy'n un o'r cofnodion trylwyrr cynharaf o saffle Ruifeinig mawr ym Mhrydain. Yn ddiweddarach, sefydlodd Lee Gymdeithas Hynafiaethwyr Caerllion (y gymdeithas archaeolegol leol gynharaf yng Nghymru ac sy'n dal i fynd heiddiw dan yr enw Gymdeithas Hynafiaethwyr Sir Fynwy),

71. John Edward Lee, industrialist and antiquarian
John Edward Lee, diwydiannwr a hynafiaethydd

72. Cover of John Edward Lee's *Isca Silurum* (1862)
Clawr cyfrol John Edward Lee, *Isca Silurum* (1862)
work *Isca Silurum; or, an illustrated catalogue of the museum of antiquities at Caerleon*, in 1862. Later, the museum would be taken over by the National Museum of Wales and it was rebuilt in 1987 (retaining the original building’s entrance portico).

From the early 1900s, archaeologists began to investigate Roman military sites throughout Wales. Although their methods were often crude by modern standards, these early excavations generated new information about the layout and history of several important forts, such as Gelligaer, Castell Collen and Coelbren. After the First World War, the first Keeper of Archaeology at the recently founded National Museum of Wales, R. E. Mortimer Wheeler (later Sir Mortimer), undertook the ground-breaking excavation of the Amphitheatre at Caerleon, known locally as Arthur’s Round Table, which he published with his wife, Tessa Verney Wheeler, in 1928 (the excavation was funded by the Daily Mail newspaper and the Loyal Knights of the Round Table of America). Wheeler also excavated the auxiliary forts at *Segontium* (Caernarfon) and Brecon Gaer, while further forts were discovered and investigated by other archaeologists in the 1920s and 1930s, such as Forden Gaer and Caerhun.

Victor Erle Nash-Williams, one of Wheeler’s first students and his successor at the National Museum, continued to excavate in Caerleon throughout the
1920s and 1930s, investigating lengths of the defences, barrack blocks, workshops, officers' houses, as well as parts of the headquarters building (*principia*). Other well-known archaeologists also spent time in Caerleon in the years up to the Second World War, including Christopher Hawkes, W.F. Grimes and Aileen Fox, leading to a more complete plan of the fortress and a better idea of its history. Nash-Williams also published *The Roman Frontier in Wales* in 1954; a landmark synthesis of military archaeology that was able to map the army's presence throughout the Roman period (the gazetteer listed 3 legionary fortresses, 17 auxiliary forts, 5 possible forts and 3 fortlets). Further excavations in the later 1950s and 1960s targeted auxiliary forts about which little was known, by which time archaeological techniques had progressed so that the remains of wooden buildings eraill wedi'u canfod a'u harchwilio gan archaeolegwyr eraill yn ystod y 1920au a'r 1930au, megis Caer Ffordun a Chaerhun.

Parhaodd Victor Erle Nash-Williams, un o fyfyrwyr cyntaf Wheeler a'i olynydd yn yr Amgueddfa Genedlaethol, i gloddio yng Nghaerllion drwy gydol y 1920au a'r 1930au, gan ymchwilio i ddarnau o'r amddiffynfeydd, barics, gweithdai, tai swyddogion, yn ogystal à rhannau o adedlau y pencadlys (*principia*). Yn ogystal, treuliodd archaeolegwywr adnabyddus eraill amser yng Nghaerllion yn y blynyddoedd hyd at yr Ail Ryfel Byd, yn eu plith Christopher Hawkes, W.F. Grimes ac Aileen Fox, gan arwain at greu cynllun mwy cyflawn o'r gaer a gwell syniad o'i hanes. Yn 1954, cyhoeddodd Nash-Williams *The Roman Frontier in Wales*; cyfuniad nodeddig o archaeoleg filwrol a lwyddodd i greu map o bresenoldeb y fyddin
could now be recognised. This meant it was possible to identify traces of the earliest occupation at these sites and M.G. Jarrett in particular added important new information about the chronologies of the forts at Caer Gai, Llandovery, Tomen-y-Mur and Caersws II. Jarrett also produced the 2nd edition of the *Roman Frontier in Wales* in 1969, by which time the gazetteer included 36 forts and 4 fortresses. The remains of early short-lived timber fortresses had been uncovered at Usk, Gloucester and Wroxeter, which, together with the other evidence, allowed Jarrett to update and refine the chronology of the Roman army’s activities in Wales.
Excavations took place at numerous military sites in the 1970s and 1980s, many undertaken as rescue projects by the 4 newly-created Welsh Archaeological Trusts, including the forts at Loughor, Cardiff, Segontium, Pumsaint and Abergavenny. At the same time, aerial photography was beginning to recognise the tell-tale cropmarks revealing the locations of forts, such as those confirmed at Rhyn Park, Llanfor and Caersws I. Aerial photographs of these and other forts showed that many had suburbs outside their walls, usually thought to have been inhabited by civilians, perhaps soldiers’ families, merchants, craftsmen and slaves. These are known as vici and mapping their extent and layout was the aim of the pan-Wales ‘Roman Fort Environs Project’, which from 1999 has investigated numerous forts and their immediate surroundings using geophysics and key-hole excavation.

Geophysical survey techniques are a relatively new innovation in archaeology and in Wales their targeted application has produced an unprecedented quantity of new information about some relatively well-known sites (e.g. Caerhun), as well as others that were poorly understood (e.g. Llanfor) or previously unknown (e.g. Caergwanaf). In several cases, geophysics was followed by selective excavation and...
Roman Frontier in Wales yn 1969, ac erbyn hynny roedd y mynegai daearyddol yn cynnwys 36 caer a phedair lleng-gaer. Datgelwyd olion caerau pren byrhoedlog cynnar ym Mrynbuga, Caerloyw a Chaerwrygion, a oedd, ynghyd â'r dystiolaeth arall, yn caniatáu i Jarrett ddiweddaru a mireinio cronoleg gweithgareddau'r fyddin Rufeinig yng Nghymru.

Cynhaliwyd gwaith cloddio ar nifer o safleoedd milwrol yn y 1970au a'r 1980au, llawer ohonyn nhw wedi'u cynnal fel prosiectau achub gan bedair Ymddiriedolaeth Archaeolegol newydd yng Nghymru, gan gynnwys y caerau yng Nghasllwchwr, Caerdydd, Segontium, Pumsaint a'r Fenni. Ar yr un pryd, roedd ffotograffiaeth o'r awyr yn dechrau adnabod yr olion cnydau nodweddiadol sy'n datgelu lleoliadau caerau, fel y rhai a gadarnhawyd ym Mharc Rhyn, Llanfor a Chaersws I. Dangosodd ffotograffau o'r awyr o'r caerau hyn a chaerau eraill fod maestrefi gan lawer ohonyn nhw y tu allan i'w muriau. Tybir mai pobl gyffredin oedd yn byw yma, teulu oedd milwyr efallai, masnachwyr, creftwyr a chaethweision. Gelwid y rhai o'ryn vici, ac ers 1999, mae prosiect Cymru-gyfan wedi bod yn cael ei gynnal i fabio eu maint a'u cynllun, drwy ymchwilio i nifer o gaerau a'u cyffiniau agos gan ddefnyddio geoffiseg a chloddioyllau allwedol.

80. Usk: Excavation of timber granaries in 1969

Brynbuga: Cloddio graneri pren yn 1969

81. Segontium: Excavated remains of a bathhouse constructed in the early 4th century but never completed

Segontium: Olion wedi'u cloddio o faddondy a adeiladwyd ar ddechrau'r 4ydd ganrif ond na chaeth ei gwblhau erioed

82. Llanfor: Aerial photograph showing crop marks revealing the ditches around a corner of the fort

Llanfor: Awyrllun yn dangos olion cnydau yn datgelu'r ffosydd o amgylch cornel o'r gaer
83. Caerhun: Geophysical survey results showing a roadside civilian suburb north of the fort
Caerhun: Canlyniadau arolwg geoffisegol yn dangos maestref ger ffordd i'r gogledd o'r gaer

84. Llanfor: Geophysical survey results showing the forts interior layout and timber buildings
Llanfor: Canlyniadau arolwg geoffisegol yn dangos cynllun mewnol y caerau ac adeiladau pren

85. Caerleon: School Field geophysical survey results
Caerllion: Canlyniadau arolwg geoffisegol Cae'r Ysgol
the Cadw-funded ‘Roman Fort Environs Project’ investigated 18 forts in total. The 3rd edition of *Roman Frontier in Wales and the Marches* (edited by Barry Burnham and Jeffrey Davies and published in 2010), included 51 forts, 5 fortresses and 8 fortlets, since when several new forts have been discovered, for example at Cefn-Brynich in the Usk valley and Wiston in Pembrokeshire.

 Legionary fortresses have also seen numerous important excavations in recent decades that have produced significant new results. City centre regeneration in Gloucester in the 1970s and 1980s located an early timber fortress at Kingsholm, while rescue excavations in Chester have added to the plan and chronology of the fortress of Deva. Research excavations at Wroxeter also uncovered an early legionary presence, but the greatest advances have been

Mae technegau arolygu geoffisegol yn ddатblygiad cymharol newydd ym maes archaeoleg. Mae defnydd wedi'i dargedu yng Nghymru yn gyfrif am ddатgelu swm digynsail o wybodaeth newydd am rai safleoedd cymharol adnabyddus (e.e. Caerhun), safleoedd lle'r oedd dae 

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86. Caerleon: Canabae legionis
Caerllion: Canabae legionis

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Mewn sawl achos, dilynwyd arolygu geoffiseg gan gloddio detholus ac ymchwiliwyd cyfanswm o 18 caer yn ystod y prosiect, a arianwyd gan Cadw. Roedd trydydd argraffiad o *Roman Frontiers in Wales and the Marches* (a olygwyd gan Barry Burnham a Jeffrey Davies ac a gyhoeddwyd yn 2010), yn cynnwys 51 caer, 5 lleng-gaer ac 8 caer fechan, ond mae sawl caer newydd wedi eu darganfod ers hynny, er enghraiff yng Nghefn Brynich yn nyffryn Wysg a Chas-wis yn Sir Benfro.
made at Caerleon where excavations and geophysical surveys have enhanced our knowledge and understanding of this internationally important site.

Excavations inside the fortress, including several led by George Boon and David Zienkiewicz, uncovered more barracks and workshops, but also the commanding officer’s quarters, the hospital, the headquarters building, and the Fortress Baths (on display). Recent geophysical surveys have added 3 granaries, another massive workshop, more barracks as well as a store building, and the plan of the stone fortress is now almost complete. The remains of an earlier timber phase of occupation have been recovered at various locations, including part of a tribune’s house excavated in advance of the Roman Legionary Museum’s rebuilding in the 1980s. Cemeteries are known on the hillside above the fortress and on the opposite bank of the River Usk at Ultra Pontem, while a small civilian suburb has been excavated outside the eastern gate. Another roadside settlement upriver at Bulmore also seems to have been connected to the fortress, while pottery kilns dotted the valley slopes.

More recently, geophysical surveys located a separate suburb, immediately adjacent to a quayside along the riverbank, that contained several very large buildings and structures. These included an enormous open courtyard with flanking buildings, bath-houses, other basilica-like buildings and buildings that might have been hostels for visitors. Trenches excavated in 2011 found their remains survive remarkably well only just below the modern ground surface and, as a result, the land is now in public ownership. The suburb was likely to have been the canabae legionis, the military settlement around the fortress from which the wider territory under legionary command was governed.

Mae gwaith cloddio pwysig hefyd wedi ei gynnau mewn lleng-gaerau yn ystod y degawdau diwethaf sydd wedi arwain at ganlyniadau newydd sylweddol. Yn ystod gwaith adfywio canol dinas Caerloyw yn y 1970au a'r 1980au, daethpywyd o hyd i olion caer bren cynnar yn y tŷ Tribünn tra bod gwaith cloddio achub yng Nghaer wedi ychwanegu at gynllun a chronoleg caer Deva. Datgelodd gwaith cloddio ymchwil yng Nghaerwyrgion hefyd bresenoledeb llengoeddd cynnar, ond yng Nghaerllion fu’n datblygiadau mwyaf, gyda chloddio ac arol ygon geoffisegol yn arwain at wella ein gwybodaeth a’n dealtwriaeth o safle sydd o bwysigrwyd rhnyngwladol. Datgelodd y gwaith cloddio y tu mewn i’r gaer, gan gynnwys sawl ymdrech dan arweiniad George Boon a David Zienkiewicz, fwy o farics a gweithdai, ond hefyd anedd y prif swyddog, yr ysbtyt, adeilad y pencadlys, a baddondai’r lleng-gaer (sy’n cael eu harddangos). Mae arol ygon geoffisegol diweddar wedi ychwanegu tri granar, gweithdyd enfawr arall, mwy o farics ynghydr à stordy, ac mae cynllun y gaer gerrig bron yn gyflawn bellach. Daethpywyd o hyd i olion meddiannaeth caer bren gynharach mewn gwa-hanol leoliadau, gan gynnwys rhan o dŷ tribiwn a gloggiwyd cyn ailadeiladu Amgueddfa’r Lleng Rufeinig yn y 1980au. Mae’n wybyddus fod mynwent-ydd ar ochr y bryn uwchben y gaer ac ar lan arall a hyn Wysg yn Ultra Pontem, tra bod gwaith cloddio wedi digwydd mewn maestref fechan y tu allan i’r porth dwyreiniol. Ymddengys hefyd fod anheddiad arall ar ochr y ffordd yn Bulmore wedi’i gysylltu â’r gaer, tra bod olion nifer o odynau crochenwaith a lethrâu’r dyffryn.

Yn fy diweddar, dangosodd arol ygon geoffisegol faestref wahanol gydag adeiladau a strwythurau sylweddol iawn wrth ymyl cei ar lan yr afon. Roedd y rhain yn cynnwys clos mawr agored gydag adeiladau o’i bopu, baddondai, strwythurau tebyg i fasiličau ac adeiladau eraill a oedd efalail’n hosteli ar gyfer ym fel a chyrchodd. Dangosodd ffosydd a gloddiwyd yn 2011 fod yr olion wedi goroesi’n hynod o dda ychydig yn unig o dan yr wyneb, ac, o ganlyniad, mae’r tir bellach o dan berchnogaeth gyhoeddus. Mae’n debygol mai’r cana-bae legionis oedd y faestref, yr anheddiad milwrol o gwmpas y gaer a chanolfan lywodraethu’r tiroedd ehangach a oedd dan reolaeth y lleng Rufeinig.
The Roman invasion of Britain

In AD 43 a Roman army of some 40,000 men assembled at Boulogne in Gaul (modern France), ready to cross the English Channel and conquer the tribes of Britain. Led by the seasoned general Aulus Plautius, the invasion force landed on the south-eastern coast of England and, after defeating the Britons in several battles, crossed the River Thames before heading for the capitals of the tribes that had provided the main resistance to their advance. The historian Tacitus tells us that Caratacus of the Catuvellauni tribe and his brother Togodumnus led the British warriors against Plautius and the Roman army. Togodumnus was killed in battle, but Caratacus escaped and fled westwards where he would reappear as a leader in Wales. Meanwhile, the important British capital of Camulodunum (Roman Camulodunum, modern Colchester) was taken and, just 16 days after the invasion, the Emperor Claudius arrived in Britain as the victorious conqueror (with his Praetorian guard, some elephants and many members of the Roman Senate, all of whom witnessed the great imperial triumph).

Yr ymosodiad Rhufeinig ar Brydain

Yn OC 43, ymgasglodd byddin Rufeinig ar ryw 40,000 o ddynion yn Boulogne, Gâl (Ffrainc fodern), yn barod i groesi’r Sianel a choncro llwythau Prydain. O dan arweiniad y cadlywydd profiadol Aulus Plautius, glaniodd y llu ymosodol ar arfordir de-ddwyreiniol Lloegr ac, ar ôl trechu’r Brythoniaid mewn sawl brwydr, croesodd afon Tafwys cyn anelu am brif-dinasoedd y llwythau a oedd wedi dangos y gwrthwynebiad ffyrnicaf. Yn ôl yr hanesydd Tacitus, Caradog o lwyth y Catuvellauni a’i frawd Togodumnus oedd arweinwyr y rhyfelwyr Brythonig yn erbyn Plautius a’r fyddin Rufeinig. Lladdwyd Togodumnus ar faes y gad, ond dihangodd Caradog a ffoi tua’r gorlewin, lle byddai’n ailymddangos fel arweinydd yng Nghymru. Yn y cyfamser, cipiwyd y brifddinas Frythonig bwysig Camulodunun – Camulodunum i’r Rhufeiniaid, Caer Colun (Colchester) heddiw, ac 16 diwnod yn unig ers dechrau’r ymosodiad, cyrhaeddodd yr Ymerawdwr Claudius ym Mhrydain fel y concwërwr buddugol (gyda’i fillwyn Praetoriaidd, ambell eliffant a sawl aelod o’r Senedd Rufeinig, oll yn dyst i’r fuddugoliaeth ymerodrol fawr).
The invasion force comprised 4 legions and numerous auxiliary units (infantry cohortes or cavalry alae). The Roman imperial legion consisted of some 5,000 heavily armed and highly disciplined professional soldiers who were equipped and trained to kill at close quarters. Legionaries were Roman citizens, unlike the auxiliaries who were recruited from recently conquered peoples and who were organised into regiments of infantry, cavalry or mixed units of foot and mounted troops. Auxiliaries were more lightly armed and equipped than the legionaries, which meant they were better suited for fighting in the kind of rugged terrain they encountered in Wales. Auxiliary units were also smaller than legions, between 500 to 1000 men at full strength.

After the departure of the Emperor Claudius back to Rome, Plautius sent the 4 legions and their auxiliaries northwards and westwards to expand the territory under Roman control. Not all the native tribes of southern Britain opposed the Roman advance and we know that the kings and chieftains of the Atrebates, the Iceni and the Dobunni signed client treaties with Rome that meant these peoples avoided the destruction that resisting the Roman army inevitably brought about. Although other tribes did try to defend themselves, there was no unified opposition and the Roman army moved inexorably onwards to the north and west. The biographer Suetonius describes how, as commander of the Second Augustan Legion, the future emperor Vespasian: ‘fought 30 battles with the enemy. He reduced to subjugation 2 powerful nations, more than 20 towns (hillforts), and the island of Vectis (the Isle of Wight)’ (Vespasian 4).

By 47 Roman control extended over most if not all of lowland England. To the north lay the powerful tribe of the Brigantes, while to the west were the tribes who lived in the area of modern-day Wales. The Romans had already signed a treaty with the Brigantes and this left the new governor, Ostorius Scapula, free to pursue the fugitive leader Caratacus, who led his new British allies in a series of guerrilla campaigns against the invaders. It was in Wales from 47 to 52 that the Roman army suffered its first serious setbacks since the invasion.

Roedd y llu ymosodol yn cynnwys pedair lleng a nifer o undedau ategol, cohortes (troedfilwyr) ac alae (marchfilwyr). Roedd y lleng ymerodrol Rufeinig yn cynnwys tua 5,000 o filwyr proffesiynol arfog a hy-nod ddisgybledig, wedi’u harfogi a’u hyfforddii i ladd y gelyn yn agos iawn. Dinasydion Rufeinig oedd y llengfilwyr, yn wahanol i’r milwr ategol. Roeddyn nhw wedi cael eu recrewtio o luoedd a oedd newydd gael eu gorhychygu, a’u trefnu’n grodạou o droed-filwyr, marchfilwyr neu undedau cymysg. Roedd llai o arfau ac offer ysgafnach gan y luoedd ategol o gym-haru a’r llengfilwyr, a olygai eu bod nhw’n fwy addas ar gyfer ymladd ar dirweddd arw Cymru. Roedd yr unedau ategol hefyd yn llai na’r llengoedd, rhwng 500 a 1,000 o ddyinion ar y mwya.

Wedi i’r Ymerawdwr Claudius ddychwelyd i Rufain, anfonodd Plautius y pedair lleng a’r milwr ategol tua’r gogledd a’r gorllewin i ehangu’r tir o dan reolaeth Rufeinig. Nid oedd holl lwythau bodorol de Prydain yn gwrthwynebu’r ymosodiad Rufeinig. Mae’n hysbys bod brenhinoedd ac phenaethiaid yr Atrebates, yr Iceni a’r Dobunni wedi arwyddo cytundebau gyda Rhufain a olygai eu bod nhw wedi osgoi’r dinistrho anochel a ddeilliai o wrthwynebu’r fyddin Rufeinig. Er i lwythau eraill geisio amddiffyn eu hunain, nid oedd un hynny wrthwynebiad unedig, a symudodd y fyddin Rufeinig yn ddi-ildio tua’r gogledd a’r gorllewin. Yn Yvespian 4, disgrifiodd y bywgraffwydd Suetonianus sut y gwaeth Yvespian, cadlywydd Al Leng Augustus a’r darpar ymerawdwr, ymladd 30 o frwydrau gyda’r gelyn, goresgyn dwy wlad bwerus, dros 20 bynynaced ac ymys Vestic (Ynys Wyth).

Erbyn 47, roedd y rhain fwyaf o iseldir Lloegr, os nad y cyfan, o dan reolaeth Rufeinig. Tua’r gogledd, roedd tiroedd llywydd pwerus y Brigantes, gyda llywythau’r rhanbarth sydd yn Gymru heddiw tua’r gorllewin. Roedd y Rhufeiniaid eisoes wedi arwyddo cytundeb gyda’r Brigantes, felly roedd penrhidydd i’r llywodraeth swydd newydd, Ostorius Scapula, ymlid yr arweinydd ar ffo, Caradog, arweinydd cyfres o ymgyrchaoedd herwfilwrol gan ei ygynheiriaid Brythonig newydd yn erbyn y goresgynwyr. Yng Nghymru, rhwng OC 47 a 52, y wynebodd y fyddin Rufeinig ei thrifferthion ddirfotl cystaf ers yr ymosodiad.
The native tribes of prehistoric Wales

The Romans encountered 4 large tribes in Wales: the Silures in the south; the Ordovices in central Wales; the Demetae in the south-west; and the Deceangli in the north. These are the names given to native peoples by Romans and we know them from the writings of their conquerors, as well as from inscriptions. We do not know, however, if this is how the Britons in Wales saw themselves or their neighbours before the arrival of the invaders, but the Romans often modelled the administrative structures of conquered provinces on pre-existing Iron Age territories (‘romanised’ versions of native tribal names were often retained, for example the Civitas Silurum).

To the east, in the counties of the Welsh Marches, lay the Dobunni and the Cornovii. They, like the other tribes of southern Britain, were either rapidly subjugated or signed client treaties with Rome. In the decades leading up to the invasion in 43, many of these peoples had felt and expressed a Roman influence in small, but significant, ways. Some tribes began striking their own coinage (in south-eastern England

89. Iron Age tribes in Wales

Llwythau'r Oes Haearn yng Nghymru

90. Harness fittings from a Celtic chariot burial in Pembrokeshire

Taclau harnais o gladdfa cerbyd rhyfel Celtaidd yn Sir Benfro

Llwythau brodorol hynafol Cymru

Daeth y Rhufeiniaid ar draws bedwar prif lwyth yng Nghymru: y Silwriaid yn y de; yr Ordoficiaid yng nghanolbarth Cymru; y Demetae yn y de-orllewin; a'r Deceangli yn y gogledd. Diolch i gofnodion y concwer-wyr ac arysgrifau, gwyddom mai enwau'r Rhufeiniaid ar y bobloedd fodorol oedd yr rhain. Fodd bynnag, nid yw'n wybyddus os mai dyma sut yr oedd y Brythoniaid yng Nghymru yn adnabod eu hunain neu eu cymdigion cyn dyfodiad yr ymosodwyr. Ond byddai'r Rhufeiniaid yn aml yn modelu strwythurau gweinyddol taleithiau a oresgynnwyd ar diriogaethau'r Oes Haearn a oedd yn bodoli eisoes (yn aml, cadwyd fersiynau ‘Rhufeinig’ o enau llwythol brodorol, er enghraiff y Civitas Silurum).

I'r dwyrain, yn siroedd y Gororau, roedd llwythau'r Dobunni a'r Cornovii. Fel llwythau eraill de Prydain, roedd dan nhw nai ll ai wedi cael eu goresgyn yn fuan neu wedi arwyddo cytundebau gyda Rhufain. Yn y degawdau cyn yr ymosodiad yn OC 43, roedd llawer o'r bobl hyn wedi teimlo a mynegi dylanwad Rhufeining mewn ffyrrd bach, ond arwyddocao. Dechreuodd
modelled increasingly on Roman currency), and they developed a taste for Italian wine and glossy red or black pottery vessels for the communal consumption of food and drink (especially wine), and which are often found in burials with their dead.

Unfortunately, the tribesmen and women of Wales are very difficult to find archaeologically-speaking, let alone understand. Partly this is because large areas of the country are underexplored (archaeologists tend to work most intensively where modern development takes place), but mainly because pre-Roman culture has left only ephemeral traces for archaeologists to uncover. For instance, and unlike their neighbours in England, the peoples of prehistoric Wales (with the exception of those in the south-east), did not make or use pottery vessels and, without these important finds, it is also often very difficult to date pre-Roman sites with any precision. Coins are also very scarce in almost all of Wales, including those struck by the neighbouring Dobunni, and there appears to have been a conscious effort to avoid foreign material culture – British as well as Roman.

How tribal societies in Wales were organised is far from clear. Most scholars would imagine something like ‘clan-based chiefdoms’, with the majority of the population farming the land and a small ruling ‘elite’. If so, and again unlike other tribes in southern Britain, the Welsh ‘elites’ did not associate themselves with rhai llwythau fathu eu darnau arian eu hunain (yn ne-ddwyrain Lloegr, roedd hynny’n efelychu arian Rhufeinig fwy a mwy). Datblywgwyd blas am win Eidalaidd a chrochenwaith coch neu ddu sgleiniog ar gyfer bwyta ac yfed cymunedol (yn enwedig gwin), ac mae’r llestri’n aml yn cael eu canfod wedi’u claddu gyda’r meirw.

Yn anffodus, o safbwynt archaeolegol, mae’n anodd iawn dod o hyd i olion llwythau Cymru, heb sôn am eu deall. Mae hyn yn rhannol oherwydd bod rhannau helaeth o’r wlad heb eu harchwilio (mae gwaith archaeolegwr yn tueddu i ddigwydd fwyaf i’r mae datblygiad modern yn digwydd), ond yn bennaf oherwydd mai olion darfodedig o’r diwylliant cyn-Rufeinig sydd wedi goroesi. Er enghraifft, yn wa-hanol i’w cymdogion yn Lloegr, nid oedd pobl hynafol Cymru (ac eithrio’r rhai yn y de-ddwyrain) yn gwneud na defnyddio llestri pridd. Heb ddarganfyddiadau pwysig o’r fath, mae hefyd yn aml i anodd iawn dyddio safleoedd cyn-Rufeinig yn fanwl. Mae darnau arian hefyd yn brin iawn yng Nghymru gyfan, i bob pwparas, gan gynnwys y rhai a fathwyd gan y Dobunni cyfagos. Mae’n ymddangos bod ymdrech ymwybodol wedi digwydd i osgoi diwylliant trabor materol – Brythonig yn ogystal â Rhufeinig.

Nid yw’n glir o gwbl sut yr oedd cymdeithasau llwythol yng Nghymru yn cael eu trefnu. Byddai’r rhan fwyaf o ysgolheigion yn dychmygu rhywbeth
coinage or high-status imported Roman tableware. Although their identities do not seem to have been defined by the acquisition of exotic or expensive commodities, weapons (especially swords) and horses were obviously important. The recent find of a chariot burial in Pembrokeshire included numerous beautifully decorated pieces of horse harness and fittings from a Celtic vehicle drawn by 2 ponies.

Settlements in pre-Roman Wales include hillforts and farmsteads. There does not seem to be any trace of distinct settlement patterns reflecting different political entities, socio-economic hierarchies, or cultural traditions and practices. Hillforts are known throughout Wales, but they are fewer in number and invariably smaller than similar sites in England (often less than 2 ha). Hillforts had existed for at least 500 years when the Romans arrived, by which time they were usually enclosed by multivallate defences with timber-framed ramparts and gates. It is not certain what functions hillforts performed; were they central places of power and authority, or locations where people would meet episodically for special occasions? Scholars have suggested they were defensive sites, or displays of a hierarchical society, or bounded spaces for communal activities (gatherings for religious festivals and important social occasions). Archaeologists have not excavated the interiors of many Iron Age hillforts, but those that have been investigated contained tim-

92. Reconstruction of Iron Age roundhouses based on excavations at Bryn Eryr, Anglesey

Ailgread o dai crynion o'r Oes Haearn yn seiliedig ar waith coddio ym Mryn Eryr, Ynys Môn
ber round houses and four-post structures that it is thought were raised granaries.

Outside hillforts, the archaeology of Iron Age Wales indicates a scattered population living an agrarian way of life, assumed to be largely pastoral in the hills with more cereal cultivation on the coastal plains and in river valleys. Their round-houses were similar to the homes of people across Britain before the Roman invasion, but the building materials employed depended on the local geology and environment. Compact stone-built enclosed farms are found in northern Wales, while open rectangular enclosures are more common in the southern part of the country, often containing circular and rectangular timber buildings. These rural settlements invariably produce a relatively restricted range of material culture, in contrast with the situation further east in lowland England where finds of many types are found in greater quantities; not only the previously mentioned pottery and coins, but also tools, as well as personal items such as belt-buckles, brooches and bracelets.

The Romans grew to fear the Celtic tribes in Wales and the Silures in particular earned a place in the histories of Rome for their prolonged and dogged resistance. The historian Tacitus said of them: ‘on the Silures neither terror nor mercy had the least effect; they persisted in war and could be quelled only by legions encamped in their country’. The consequences of defeat and subjugation by the Romans were often traumatic, and Tacitus also describes how the Romans effectively cleared the territory of the Ordovices in order to stop the tribe repeatedly taking up arms against them.

Y tu hwnt i’r bryngaerau, mae archaeoleg Cymru o’r Oes Haearn yn dangos poblogaeth wasgaredig sy’n byw bywyd amaethyddol, bugeiliol i raddau hel- aeth yn yr ychydig a mwy o dyfu grawn ar lechweddau arfordirol ac yn yr dyn mywyddoedd. Roedd eu tai crynion yn debyg i gartrefi pobol wedi’u gnewyd o gyflymdeithiaid ac amlwg wedi’u codi ar bedwar postyn, a’r dyb yr mai graneri wedi’u codi oedd y rhain.

Fesul tipyn, dechreuodd y Rhufeiniaid ofni’r llwythau Celtaidd yng Nghymru, gyda’r Silwriaid yn benodol wedi sicrhau eu lle yng nghofnodion hanes Rhufain am eu gwrthwynebiad parhaus a dygn. Yn ôl yr hanesydd Tacitus, nid oedd arswyd na thrugar- edd yn cael unrhyw fath o effaith ar y Silwriaid a byddent yn dal ati i rhyfela, a dim ond lleoli llenoedd yn barhaol ar eu tir oedd yn llwyddo i’w gostegu. Roedd canlyniadau gochrynfygiad a darostyngiad gan y Rhufeiniaid yn aml yna drawmatig, ac mae Tacitus hefyd yn disgrifio sut y bu’n rhaid i r’r Rhufeiniaid, i bob pwrrpas, hel yr Ordoficiaid o’r tir er mwyn eu hatal rhag ymladd yn eu herbyn dro ar ôl tro.
The conquest and pacification of Wales

The native Celtic tribes of Britain’s rugged western peninsula soon earned a reputation in Rome for their determined resistance to the emperors’ forces and the advantages (in Roman eyes at least) of Roman civilization. The war began as the army hunted down the fugitive British leader, Caratacus, and for some 30 years the Romans fought against the Welsh tribes until a final victory was achieved.

The history of the war between Rome and the Welsh tribes comes to us from the writings of several Roman writers. Tacitus is particularly important and he described the ongoing campaigns in his books, the *Annals*, the *Histories* and the *Agricola*. Tacitus, who was writing within living memory of many of the events he recorded, is regarded as one of Rome’s greatest historians. The *Agricola* was a biography of his father-in-law, Gnaeus Julius Agricola, who served in Britain on 3 occasions (firstly as a young military tribune, then as a legionary commander, before returning a final time as provincial governor), and it is thought that much of what Tacitus recounted about

Goresgyn a heddychu Cymru

Cyn bo hir, roedd llwythau Celtaidd brodorol penrhyn gorllewinol garw Prydain wedi enill bri yn Rhufain am eu gwrthwynebiad penderfynol i’r lluoedd ymerodrol a manteision (ym marn y Rhufeiniaid, o leiaf) y gwareiddiad Rhufeinig. Dechreuodd y rhylfwrth i’r fyddin ymlid arweinydd ar ffo y Brythoniaid, Caradog, a thruioliodd y Rhufeiniaid oddeutu 30 mlynedd yn brwydro llwythau’r Cymry hyd yr enillwyd y fuddugoliaeth derfynol.

Mae hanes y rhylfwrth Rhufain a’r llwythau Cymreig wedi ei gyflwyno i ni drwy waith sawl awdur Rhufeinig. Mae Tacitus yn arbennig o bwysig, a disgrifodd yr ymgyrchoedd parhaus yn ei lyfrau, yr *Annals*, yr *Historiae a’r Agricola*. Ystyrir Tacitus, a oedd yn ysgrifennu o fewn cof byw llawer o’r digwyddiadau a gofnododd, yn un o haneswyr mwyaf Rhufain. Bywgraffiad o’i dad-yn-gwyfai, Gnaeus Julius Agricola, oedd yr *Agricola*. Gwasanaethodd hwnnw ym Mhrydain ar ddi achlysur (yn gyntaf fel tribiwn milwrol ifanc, yna fel cadlywyd lleng, cyn dychwelyd y tro olaf fel llywodraethwr taleithiol). Credir bod llawer
events in Britain was based on official records and Agricola's first-hand experiences. Of course, Tacitus was only interested in telling Rome's side of the story in Wales and it is unfortunate that his accounts are frustratingly brief and imprecise. Nevertheless, Tacitus gives us the general chronological sequence of events and without his writings we would have little idea how Wales became Roman.

The war against the tribes in Wales can be divided into 5 separate episodes, including 3 'hot' campaigns with 2 longer periods of tepid *interbellum*. The opening salvos coincided with the arrival of a new governor in 47, Ostorius Scapula, when Rome's enemies (probably the Welsh tribes), crossed into Roman occupied territory. After repulsing the Britons, Scapula led his forces against the Ceangi (almost certainly a corruption of Deceangli) in north Wales, before being forced to turn back to put down an uprising of the Brigantes in northern England. Once this had been quelled, Scapula turned his attention to the Silures led by Caratacus, and for the next 4 years or so Rome's forces pushed into Wales, attempting to force the opposing tribes to face them in battle. Caratacus wisely avoided this temptation for as long as possible, but gradually Scapula was able to impose Roman control over the Silures, compelling the resistance to move to Ordovician territory. Scapula's strategy allowed the Roman army slowly but surely to squeeze the tribal forces so that Caratacus could not avoid a final confrontation.

The battle took place in 51 somewhere in mid-Wales and the Britons were eventually routed. Tacitus called it 'a notable victory' and Caratacus' family were captured by the victorious Romans. Caratacus himself escaped the battlefield and fled once again, this time seeking sanctuary with the Brigantes. However, the Brigantian queen, Cartimandua, was a Roman client and she handed the fugitive to the Romans who took him, together with his entourage, back to Rome where they were paraded through the city, before paying homage to the emperor. Tacitus records this remarkable event when the captive British leader addressed Claudius (the first reported words of an inhabitant of the British Isles in history): "I had horses..."
and men, arms and riches: what wonder if I lost them with a pang? For if you would rule the world, does it follow that the world must welcome servitude? If I were dragged before you after surrendering without a blow, there would have been little heard either of my fall or of your triumph: punishment of me will be followed by oblivion; but save me alive, and I shall be an everlasting memorial of your clemency.” (Annals XII, 35).

Claudius, no doubt impressed by Caratacus' courage, was receptive to his appeal for mercy and the British king, his family and the other prisoners were pardoned and allowed to live the rest of their lives in exile in Rome. The writer Cassius Dio describes how Caratacus later would exclaim: “And can you, then, who have got such possessions and so many of them, covet our poor huts?” (Roman History LX 33,3)

The Silures continued the war against the Romans even after the defeat and capture of Caratacus. Their tactics were to launch hit-and-run attacks on isolated Roman units and they successfully ambushed several auxiliary cohorts out foraging or building forward camps. The Roman army was not used to these kinds of setbacks and Tacitus notes that the Silures ‘obstinacy’ led to Scapula to remark that: “the Silurian name ought once and for all to be extinguished” (Annals XII, 39). But worn out by the continual fighting, Scapula died in 52 and was replaced by Didius Gallus who seems to have consolidated the earlier territorial gains rather than expanded Roman control of the Welsh tribes (he also had to deal with a Brigantian internal power struggle between Cartimandua and her anti-Roman husband, Venutius).

The Romans attacked the Silures once again in 57 after the arrival of a new governor, Quintus Veranius. Veranius was a distinguished general but already elderly and he too died while serving in Britain. The next governor, Suetonius Paulinus, was able to make significant progress in Wales, so that by 60 Roman troops were ready to attack the island of Mona (Anglesey), where the natives, bolstered by numerous refugees from other parts of the country, were waiting. Tacitus described what Paulinus and his soldiers saw on the opposite side of the Menai Strait: “On the beach stood the adverse array, a serried
Mass of arms and men, with women flitting between the ranks. In the style of Furies, in robes of deathly black and with dishevelled hair, they brandished their torches; while a circle of Druids, lifting their hands to heaven and showering imprecations, struck the troops with such an awe at the extraordinary spectacle that, as though their limbs were paralysed, they exposed their bodies to wounds without an attempt at movement.” Unfortunately for the Britons, Paulinus a’i filwyr ar ochr arall y Fenai: “Ar y traeth safai’r lluoedd gelyniaethus, casgliad clos o arfau a dynion, gyda menywod yn gwibio rhwng y rhengoedd. Yn null yr Ellyllesau, gyda gynau afagddu a gwalltiau blêr, yn chwifio’u ffaglau; tra bod cylch o Dderwyddon, yn codi’u dwylo tua’r nefoedd a phoeri melltithion, a’r olygfa ryfeddol yn taro’r milwyr gyda’r fath arswyd, fel pe bai eu haelodau wedi’u parlysu, gan amlygu eu cyrff i glwyfau heb ymgais i symud.”

Unfortunately for the Brythoniaid, paratôdd Paulinus i ymosod o’r tir a’r môr wrth groesi’r sianel, a llwyddodd ei lluoedd i sgubo ymwyd hon o fenywod a phenboethiaid, ac “enveloped the enemy in his own flames” (Annals XIV, 30).

While this was happening, however, the tribes of eastern England rose up in revolt against Rome, led by the Icenian queen Boudicca. Paulinus was forced to redeploy the bulk of his army to deal with the rebellion and its aftermath, leading to a long interruption in the war in Wales. Events in Brigantia would once again preoccupy the Roman governors for some time, while the withdrawal of the 14th Legion Gemina from Britain in the later 60s and the civil war in 69 (‘Year of the Four Emperors’), significantly reduced the Roman forces available to conduct offensive campaigns in Wales.

The situation changed in 73 or 74, when Sextus Julius Frontinus was appointed governor of Britain. Frontinus launched a full-scale attack against the tribes in Wales that appears to have been successfully concluded by his return to Rome in 77, so that Tacitus was able to write: “He [Frontinus] subdued by force of arms the strong and warlike tribe of the Silures, after a hard struggle, not only against the valour of the enemy, but also against the difficulties of the terrain” (Agricola, 17). Frontinus’ successor was Gnaeus Julius Agricola (Tacitus’ father-in-law), who immediately finished off what Frontinus had begun. After quashing an uprising by the Ordovices, Agricola and his troops found themselves on the Menai Strait opposite Anglesey as Paulinus had been some 18 years earlier. This time the Romans launched a surprise attack and the defenders quickly surrendered, leaving all of Wales now subdued and firmly under Roman control. Agricola’s attention then
turned to northern Britain and from 80 he campaigned against the Caledonians in what is now Scotland, where he remained until his recall in 83 or 84.

Numerous forts and fortresses were constructed throughout the country after the final conquest of its tribes and it is estimated that the garrison numbered up to 25,000 men, or in the region of 10–17% of the total population of Wales (likely to be an underestimation). The arrival of Hadrian in Britannia in 122 marked the end of the frontier in Wales, after which many of the troops that had been in their Welsh forts and fortresses for up to 50 years were redeployed to northern Britain, to build and man the emperor’s new defensive wall that would separate Roman Britons from their barbarous neighbours beyond.

95. Romans murdering Druids and burning their groves on Mona. Engraving from the 1781 edition of Thomas Pennant’s A tour in Wales

Rhufeiniaid yn llofruddio Derwyddon a llosgi eu cellioedd ar Mona. Engrafiad o gyhoeddiad 1781 o gyfrif Thomas Pennant, A Tour in Wales

96. Statue of general Gnaeus Julius Agricola, governor of Britannia from 77 to 84, on the terrace of the Great Bath at Bath

Cerflun o’r cadfridog Gnaeus Julius Agricola, llywodraethwr Britannia o 77 i 84, ar deras y Great Bath yng Nghaerfaddon
97. Map of Roman marching camps

Map o wersyloedd gorymdaith Rhufeinig
The Roman frontiers in Wales

The short but brutal history of the Roman frontiers in Wales has left some fascinating archaeological evidence, notably the camps, forts and fortresses built by the emperors’ soldiers during the war against the native tribes. These can be classified into 3 broad chronological groups, the earliest of which are marching camps and seasonal ‘campaign bases’, followed by timber forts and fortresses, before a final smaller group of permanent replacements built in stone.

These archaeological sites are known from aerial photography, geophysics and excavations. The first 2 techniques identify the traces of camps and forts in the landscape, and they have been particularly effective at locating temporary bases in more remote parts of Wales and in other underexplored areas. Far fewer military bases have been excavated (no marching

Ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru

Mae hanes byr ond milain ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru wedi esgor ar dystiolaeth archaolegol ddiddorol, yn enwedig y gwersyloedd, y caerau a’r amddiffynfeydd a adieladwyd gan filwyr yr ymerawdwyr wrth iddyn nhw frwydro’r llwythau brodorol. Mae modd dosbarthu’r rhain yn ddi grwp cronolegol bras. Yr un cynharaf yw’r gwersyloedd gorymdaith a’r safleoedd ymgyrchu tymhorol, yna caerau ac amddiffynfeydd pren, ac yna’r grwp olaf, llai o gaerau carreg parhaol a godwyd yn eu lle.

Daeth y safleoedd archaeolegol hyn i’r amlwg diolch i awyrluniau, geoffiseg a chloddio. Mae’r ddwy dechneg gyntaf yn dod o hyd i olion gwersyloedd a chaerau yn y dirwedd. Maen nhw wedi bod yn arbennig o effeithiol wrth leoli canolfannau dros dro mewn rhannau mwy anghyssbell o Gymru ac mewn
99. Map of military bases, AD 47–69

Map o ganolfannau milwrol, OC 47–69
camps have been investigated, for example), while only a handful have been the target of modern scientific methods. Archaeological excavation is expensive and time-consuming, but the physical examination of a Roman fort’s remains is the only way to gain knowledge of its garrison and its history. Unfortunately, many of the best-understood bases either were excavated some time ago when techniques were less sophisticated, or were small-scale. Sometimes in such cases the evidence can be compromised because it is unreliable, or because it is possible that the excavated areas are not representative of the whole fort during its entire history.

Nevertheless, our understanding of the Roman frontiers in Wales is far more advanced than was the case in 1954 and 1969, when the 1st and 2nd editions of *The Roman Frontier in Wales* were published. In general, the archaeological record describes the same story as narrated by Tacitus, although with far less precision and different personalities. For 70 or 80 years, Wales was the epicentre of Roman military activity in Britain and the various offensives are reflected in the distribution of marching camps and campaign bases. These must have been occupied for very short periods of time, perhaps no more than a few campaigning seasons, and they are only identifiable from their perimeter ditches. None have been excavated so it is not known if their interiors were
filled with tents or timber buildings, or if they belong to the recorded attacks led by governors Scapula (47–52), Paulinus (57–60), or Frontinus (73–77). They cover a range of sizes, with the largest 15–20 ha (the ‘campaign base’ at Rhyn Park was 17.2 ha) but most tend to be much smaller (5–12 ha). There is no sign of Caratacus in the archaeological record in Wales and it is instructive to consider where there are no military sites as well as where we find clusters.

The first Roman frontier in Wales consisted of timber fortresses and forts that were intended to be occupied for longer than a campaign or over-wintering. We find these along the eastern edge of the Welsh highlands and together they represent an offensive frontier, designed to be forward bases from which population movements could be controlled, as well as to defend Roman territory to the east from enemy
102. Map of military bases, AD 70–90

Map o ganolfannau milwrol, OC 70–90
incursions. They most likely date to the years 47 to 69 (known as the Claudio-Neronian period), and are probably contemporary with some of the marching camps and campaign bases. Legionary fortresses are known at Kingsholm in Gloucester, Usk (the former replaced by the latter), and Wroxeter in the south and mid Marches (the ‘campaign base’ at Chester could indicate the early presence of a 3rd legion in the north). The importance of rivers in the Roman strategy to contain and suppress the Silures and the Ordovices is demonstrated by the distribution of smaller forts along the Severn, Wye, Usk, Taff and Dee valleys. Although we do not know the garrison of a single one of these forts, it is possible they would have housed detachments from multiple units, perhaps forming ‘battle groups’ of legionaries and auxiliaries that would have been most effective at this offensive stage in the history of the frontier.
New fortresses and forts were constructed throughout Wales during and after the campaigns of Sextus Frontinus that ended the Welsh tribes’ resistance. The second and final Roman frontier in Wales consisted of a network of some 40 forts intended to subdue and pacify the native Britons, anchored on the legionary fortresses at Caerleon in the south and Chester in the north (the fortress at Wroxeter was abandoned in the mid-80s, when it was refounded as the site of the tribal capital of the Cornovii). Caerleon was called *Isca* and was the home of the 2nd Augustan Legion, while Chester’s Roman name was *Deva* where the 2nd Legion *Adiutrix* was based. Both fortresses were built to house a full legion of more than 5,000 men and, although built largely in timber,
with maintenance they could have been occupied for 30 or 40 years and more. The building of *Isca* and *Deva* can be dated to the early 70s, either just before or during the offensive undertaken by Frontinus that began in 73 or 74.

At this time, the Roman army's bases followed a standard layout. Defensive ditches and ramparts demarcated a square or rectangular 'playing card' enclosure with rounded corners, and a gate in each of the 4 sides. A street grid divided the internal space into several blocks (*insulae*), which allowed for the organised arrangement of buildings of specific functions grouped together in zones. The middle part of the legionary fortress was taken up with the headquarters building (*principia*), the commanding officer's house (*praetorium*), and other officers' houses. Barracks filled much of the rest of the internal space, which also housed large granaries, work-

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105. Caerleon: Aerial photo of the barracks, perimeter wall, turrets and latrine in Prysg Field

Caerllion: Awyrlun o'r barics, wal allanol, tyrau a cheudai yng Nghae Prysg

oedd *Isca*, cartref Ail Leng Augustus, ac enw Rhufeinig Caer oedd *Deva*, lleoliad Ail Leng *Adiutrix*. A deleddwyd y ddwy gaer i gartrefu lleng lawn o fwy na 5,000 o ddynion ac er eu bod wedi'r hadeiladu o bren yn bennaf, byddai gwaith cynnal a chadw wedi sicrhau eu defnydd am 30–40 o flynydoedd a mwy. Mae modd dyddio'r gwaith o adeiladu Isca a Deva i'r 70au cynnar, naill ai ychydig cyn neu yn ystod cyrch Frontinus, a ddechreuodd yn OC 73 neu 74.

Ar y pryd, roedd safleoedd y fyddin Rufeinig yn dilyn cynllun safonol. Byddai flosydd a rhaflurion amddiffynno yn creu clos sgwâr neu hirsgwar gyda chorneli crwn, a phorth ym mhob un o'r pedair ochr. Roedd grid stryd yn rhannu'r ardal fwnol yn nifer o flociau (*insulae*), a oedd yn caniatâu trefnu adeiladau gyda swyddogaethau penodol mewn parthau gyda'i gilydd. Roedd rhan ganolog y lleng-gaer yn cynnwys adeilad y pencadlys (*principia*), tŷ'r prif swyddog
106. Pen Llystyn: Plan of the reduced timber fortlet, 100-125
Pen Llystyn: Cynllun o’r gaer bren lai, 100-125
shops, bath-houses, hospitals and buildings whose functions are less certain. Legionary fortresses were self-contained communities based on Roman ideals of order and reason, and their architecture displays these values very clearly.

While legions guarded the northern and southern routes into Wales, a web of 40 or so forts was built across the rest of the country. Most seem to have been the bases of single auxiliary units, but the evidence from Llanfor, for example, suggests a combined cavalry and legionary garrison. Some replaced existing bases in central and south Wales (e.g., Caersws, Hindwell Farm and Cardiff), but most were in newly conquered territory, for instance the forts at Llandovery, Pennal, Llanfor and Segontium. Although far smaller than legionary fortresses, the shape and layout of auxiliary forts followed similar principles, albeit in a simplified form. Roman forts controlled the Welsh coasts, river valleys and key mineral resources (Pumsaint guarded the gold mines at Dolaucothi), and over 1,000 kms of new roads connected them to neighbouring forts and to the rearward legions.

This last frontier in Wales was not a boundary between Roman and barbarian, but an internal frontier against resilient enemies. The army pacified Wales with a policy of 'occupation-in-depth', which was controlled by the legions at Caerleon and Chester.
109. Map of military bases, AD 130–150

Map o ganolfannau milwrol, OC 130–150
Stamped bricks and tiles, as well as other evidence, suggests Caerleon was the command-and-control centre for all of south Wales, including about 8,000 auxiliaries. It is likely that the facilities where the military’s regional administration was located (the *canabae legionis*), have been discovered outside the fortress, between the River Usk and the Amphitheatre.

The intensive military occupation of Wales continued for another 40 years or so until the 120s, when many of the soldiers were transferred to northern Britain. After this, the military presence in Wales was greatly reduced and, while the legions at Caerleon and Chester remained (the latter was now the home base of the 20th Legion *Valeria Victrix*), only a handful of auxiliary forts were occupied during the next decades. Although the reduction of the Welsh garrison had begun already in the 80s (when troops were needed for campaigns on the Rhine and Danube as well as in Scotland), the end of the frontier in Wales occurred suddenly because of a new imperial military

Nid ffin rhwng y Rhufeiniaid a'r barbariaid oedd y ffin olaf hon yng Nghymru, ond ffin fewnol yn erbyn gelynion gwydn. Heddychwyd Cymru gan y fyddin drwy bolisi o ‘feddiannaeth ddwys’, dan reolaeth y llengoedd yng Nghaerllion a Chaer. Mae brics a theils wedi’u stampio, yn ogystal â thystiolaeth arall, yn awgrymu mai Caerllion oedd y ganolfan reoli ar gyfer de Cymru gyfan, gan gynnwys tua 8,000 o filwyr ategol. Mae’n debygol bod y cyfleustring o lle lleolwyd gweinyddiaeth ranbarthol y lluoedd (y *canabae legionis*), wedi’u darganfod y tu allan i’r gaer, rhwng afon Wysg a’r Amffiteatr.

Parhaodd meddiannaeth filwrol ddwys yng Nghymru am tua 40 mlynedd arall tan y 120au, pan drosglwyddyd llawer o’r milwyr i ogledd Prydain. Wedi hynny, gostyngodd y presenoldeb milwrol yng Nghymru yn sylweddol. Er i’r llengoedd aros yng Nghaerllion a Chaer (cartref yr 20fed Lieng *Valeria Victrix* oedd Caer bellach), dim ond llond llaw o gaerau ategol a oedd yn weithredol yn ystod y degawdau

110. Gelligaer: Reconstruction of the rebuilt stone fort
Gelligaer: Ailgread o gaer gerrig
strategy that created a linear barrier in the north demarcating the limits of the Roman Empire.

Detachments of the 2 legions at Caerleon and Chester built parts of Hadrian’s Wall from 122 (several inscriptions record this work) and, once the new frontier was completed, it was garrisoned with troops from Wales. Many forts were abandoned, while others were again reduced in size (e.g. Llanfor, Neath, Gelli-gaer and Pen Lystyn), or partly abandoned (Segontium, Castell Collen, Tomen and Loughor). About two-thirds of the forts in Wales were vacated, leaving just 12–15 occupied after Hadrian’s reign to oversee the countryside and perhaps to act as administrative centres for the Ordovices and the Deceangli. Over time, some of these forts would be rebuilt in stone, clearly indicating that the army was there permanently. Several forts as well as the legionary fortresses had already received stone defences from about 100, while the main buildings in Caerleon and Chester were constructed in stone from the 70s (including their Am-
Phitheatres). Bath-houses are known from outside a number of forts and personal hygiene was an important part of the culture of Roman auxiliaries too.

The timber and stone auxiliary forts are generally 1.5–3.0 ha in size, although it is not always clear if a fort’s area was related to its garrison, especially as it is likely that some bases held soldiers from several units. The discovery of a *trulleus* (skillet or pan) from Caerleon that was owned by a trooper from the 1st Thracian cavalry regiment, is a good example of this mixing in bases. Elsewhere, inscriptions tell us that Llanio was occupied by the 2nd part-mounted Asturian Cohort and Caer Gai by the 1st Cohort of Nervians (it is unlikely that these and other units were still recruiting from the territories where they had been originally raised). The sudden appearance of many thousands of auxiliaries and legionaries from various parts of the Roman Empire, with their strange language, social practices and cultural traditions, must have had a very considerable impact on the native populations.

bosibl. Dros amser, bydd rhai o'r caerau hyn yn cael eu hailadeiladu mewn carreg, arwydd clir bod y fyddin yno i aros. Yn ogystal â'r lleng-gaerau, roedd gan sawl caer amddiffynfeydd carreg o tua 100, tra bod y prif adeiladau yng Nghaerllion a Chaer wedi'u hadeiladu o gerrig o'r 70au (gan gynnwys eu hamffitheatrau). Mae baddondai yn wybyddus y tu allan i nifer o gaerau, ac roedd hyllendid personol yn rhan bwysig o ddiwylliant milwyr ategol Rhufeinig hefyd.

Yn gyffredinol, mae’r caerau ategol pren a charreg yn 1.5–3.0 hectar o ran maint, er nad yw bob amser yn glir a oedd cysylltiad rhwng arwynebedd caer a maint ei gasriwn, yn enwedig gan fod ambell safle’n cynnal milwyr o sawl uned. Mae darganfyddiad *trulleus* (sgilet neu badell) o Gaerllion, a oedd yn eiddo i farchfilwr o farchoglu cyntaf Thracia, yn enghraifft dda o’r cymysgu hwn mewn canolfannau. Fel arall, mae arysgrifau’n tystio bod Llanio yn gartref i Ail Fintai Asturias, marchoglu rhannol, a Chaer Gai yn gartref i Fintai Gyntaf y Nerfiaid (mae’n anhewayg bod yr unedau hyn ac unedau eraill yn dal
113. Chester: Reconstruction of the legionary Amphitheatre

Caer: Ailgread o Amffitheatr y lleng

114. Caerleon: Dedication from the 2nd Augustan Legion to the emperor Trajan, erected 100 perhaps to commemorate the rebuilding of the southwest gate in stone

Caerllion: Cyfwyniad gan Ail Leng Augustus i’r Ymerawdwr Trajan, a godwyd oddeutu OC 100, efallai i goffau ailadeiladu porth y de-orllewin mewn carreg
It is easy to forget that 30 or 40 years in the past was still a long time and that Roman forts would have become a familiar, if probably unwanted, presence in the landscape of Wales by 100. Many developed small civilian settlements outside their gates, whose inhabitants would have included soldiers’ families as well as slaves, craftsmen and merchants. Although the lives of these people are largely unknown to us today, we occasionally catch glimpses of them, particularly women and children, in the archaeological remains of Roman bases and their suburbs. Tombstones, for instance, often record their names as well as other personal details, and, if we are lucky, images of how they and their relatives wanted them to be remembered.

Unlike elsewhere in Britannia, or in other frontier provinces of the Empire, the fortresses at Caerleon and Chester did not become centres of government and, consequently, their civilian settlements seem to have been small and relatively insignificant. The
canabae legionis outside Isca appears to have been abandoned as early as 200, by which time the Welsh tribes were experiencing very different political and economic fortunes as subjects of Rome, though the army always remained an important presence.

...canabae legionis y tu allan i Isca mor gynnar â 200. Erbyn hynny, roedd llwythau Cymru'n mwynhau amgylchiadau gwleidyddol ac economaidd gwahanol iawn fel deiliaid Rhufain, er bod y fyddin yn dal i fod yn bresenoldeb pwysig.

116. Caerleon: Handle of a bronze cooking pan (trulleus), stamped by its owner from the 1st regiment (Ala) of Thracian cavalry

Caerllion: Carn padell goginio efydd (trulleus), wedi’i stampio gan ei pherchennog o’r gatrawd (Ala) o’r marchoglu Thraciaidd

117. Tombstone depicting centurion Marcus Aurelius Nepos, of the 20th Legion, and his ‘most devoted’ (but unnamed) wife

Beddfaen yn darlunio'r canwriad Marcus Aurelius Nepos, o’r 20fed Lleng, a’i wraig ‘hynod ffyddlon’ (ond dienw)

118. Relief from tombstone of Curatia Dinysia from Chester

Cerfwedd o feddfaen Curatia Dinysia o Gaer
Later history of Roman Wales

Detachments of the 2nd and 20th Legions spent more time in northern Britain during the reign of Antoninus Pius (138–61), when they constructed the short-lived Antonine Wall in modern Scotland, before the northern frontier returned to Hadrian’s Wall only a few years later (the Antonine Wall was held from 142 to 158). After returning to their home bases at Caerleon and Chester, they renovated or replaced several dilapidated buildings. Later, the Roman legions were reduced in size and, from around 300, large parts of Isca and Deva were unoccupied (it is not certain that the remaining inhabitants were military personnel). It is possible that the 2nd Augustan Legion might have left Caerleon, either in its entirety or in large part, to build and man the new fort at Cardiff. This was remodelled after 260 and was part of a chain of coastal forts designed to deter and confront sea-borne raiders from Ireland (other possible late forts on the south coast include Neath and Loughor). There were as few as 5 or 6 forts in Wales at this time, including the late Roman base at Holyhead (Caer Gybi) and the neighbouring watchtower on Holy Mountain on Anglesey, that defended the north and west coasts supported by the fort at Segontium and the nearby fortlet at Hen Waliau.

Britain would take part in more than its fair share of usurpations (when military commanders were ille-

Hanes diweddarach Cymru Ruféining

Treuilodd didoliadau o’r Ail Leng a’r 20fed Lleng fwy o amser yng ngogledd Prydain yn ystod teyrnas-iad Antoninus Pius (138–161), pan adeiladwyd mur byrhoedlog Antoninus yn yr Alban fodern, cyn i’r ffin ogledol ddychwelyd i Fur Hadrian ychydig flyn-yddoedd yn ddiweddarach (daliwyd gafael ar Fur Antoninus o 142 i 158). Ar ôl dychwelyd i’w canolfannau yng Nghaerllion a Chaer, adnewyddwyd sawl adeilad a oedd wedi dadfeilio, neu fe godwyd rhai newydd. Yn ddiweddarach, gostyngodd maint y llang-eodd Ruféining. O tua 300 ymlaen, roedd rhannau helaeth o Isca a Deva yn wag (nid oes sicrwydd bod y trigolion a oedd yn weddill yn bersonél milwrol). Mae’n bosibl y gallai Ail Leng Augustus fod wedi gadael Caerllion, naill ai yng nêi chyfanrfwyd neu i raddau helaeth, er mwyn adeiladu a chynnau y gaer newydd yng Nghaerdydd. Cafodd hon ei hailfodelu ar ôl 260, yn rhan o gadowyn o gaerau arfordirol a gynlluniwyd i atal a herio ymosodwyr a y môr o Iwerddon (ymhlith y caerau eraill o’r cyfnod hwyrr ar arfordir y de mae Castell-nedd a Chasi llwchwr). Roedd cyn lleied â phum neu chwe chaer yng Nghymru ar y pryd, gan gynnwys y ganolfan Ruféining hwyrr yng Nghaer-Gybi (Caer Gybi) a’r tŵr gwlws y Cymru, Ynys Môn, a oedd yn amddiffyn arfordiroedd y gogledd a’r gorllewin, gyda chymorth caer Segontium a’r gaer fechan gyfagos yng Hen Waliau.
Caerdydd: Awyrrlun o Gastell Caerdydd, gyda waliau allanol sydd i raddeth yn waith ailadeiladu yn ystod oes Fictoria o gaer o’r oes Rufeinig hwyr. Amgaeodd y gwaith ardal sgwâr o oddeutu 3.4ha, gyda 14 o dyrau amlochrog wedi’u gwahanu’n rheolaidd a 2 borth dau dŵr

Byddai Prydain yn dyst i fwy na’i chyfran o gam-feddiannu (pan oedd cadlywyddion milwrol yn cael eu cam-gyhoeddi’n ymerawdwyr, ond yn methu amddiffyn eu hawliad), gan gynnwys ymдрчhion Carausius ac Allectus (286–296), Magnentius (350–53), a Magnus Maximus (383–88). Each will have withdrawn troops from Britain to take part in the civil wars against the incumbent emperors in Italy and Constantinople. The last troops seem to have been withdrawn from Wales in the 380s or 390s, during the rule of another usurper Eugenius.

The peoples of Wales experienced very different fortunes after their decisive defeat in the 70s. At first, they would have been treated as *peregrini dediticii*; the legal status of a conquered people who had surrendered. *Dediticii* would have been governed directly by Roman military commanders and it has been suggested that the recently discovered *canabae legionis*
121. Map of military bases, AD 286–305

Map o ganolfannau milwrol, OC 286–305
outside the fortress at Caerleon was where the earliest administration of the conquered Silures and other tribes in Wales was located. Unlike the Ordovices, however, after a period of time the Silures and the Demetae left their defeated statuses behind and became semi-autonomous communities of free provincial subjects who were not Roman citizens (the status of *civitas*). Capital cities were founded for these newly romanised tribes at Caerwent (*Venta Silurum*) and Carmarthen (*Moridunum*). Both were relatively small, but they were important places where the commercial, administrative, judicial and religious functions of the civitas were located.

Caerwent's surviving late stone walls and towers, particularly on the south side, are one of the most impressive Roman monuments in Britain. The wall was inserted into the face of the existing rampart ildio. Byddai *dediticii* wedi cael eu llwyodraethu'n uniongyrchol gan gadlywyddion milwrol Rhufain. Awgrymwyd mai'r *canabae legionis* a ganfuwyd yn ddiweddar y tu allan i'r lleng-gaer yng Nghaerllion oedd lleoliad canolfan weinyddu gyntaf y Silwriaid a'r llwythau eraill a drechwyd yng Nghymru. Yn wahanol i'r Ordoficiaid, fodd bynnag, llwyddodd y Silwriaid a'r Demetae i gael gwared ar y statws hwn wedi cyfnod o amser, gan ddod yn gyfnewidau llen-annibynnol o ddeiliaid taleithiol rhydd heb fod yn ddinas-yddion Rhufeinig (statws *civitas*). Sefydlwyd prif-ddinasoedd ar gyfer y llwythau a blygodd i ddylanwad Rhufain yng Nghaer-went (*Venta Silurum*) a Chaerfyrddin (*Moridunum*). Roedd y ddau le'n gymharol fach, ond yn lleoliadau pwysig o ran cyflawni swyddogaethau masnachol, gweinyddol, barnwrol a chrefyddol y *civitas*.

Caer Gybi: The Late Roman fort at Caer Gybi overlooking Holyhead harbour. The stout walls enclose the church of St Cybi

Caergybi: Amddiffynfa Rufeinig hwyr Caer Gybi sy'n edrych dros harbwr Caergybi. Mae'r waliau trwchus yn amgylchynu eglwys Cybi Sant
123. Caerwent: Aerial photograph of Caerwent, showing the late Roman city walls
Caer-went: Awyrllun o Gaer-went, yn dangos muriau'r ddinas Rufeinig hwyr

124. Caerwent: City walls and towers
Caer-went: Muriau a thyrau'r ddinas
between 280 and 330, while the towers were added later around 350. Such urban defences were common in the later Roman Empire and indicate a degree of uncertainty and insecurity in the provinces, likely to have been a response to the same threats from barbarian raiders and invaders that led to the construction of the new fort at Cardiff. It is possible that *Venta Silurum* (and *Moridunum*), housed a military garrison after 300, or at least a military command. The discovery of 2 characteristic late Roman heavy throwing ‘darts’ (*plumbatae*), as well as brooches and buckles of types that it is thought would have been worn by Roman officials (also known from *Segontium*), suggest that we should look in towns and cities for military garrisons, as well as in old forts.

Mae'r waliau a'r tyrau cerrig hwyr sydd wedi goroesi yng Nghaer-went, yn enwedig ar yr ochr deheuol, ymhliith yr henebion Rhufeinig mwyaf trawiadol yn Mhrydain. Gosodwyd y wal fel rhan o'r rhagfur, a oedd eisoes yn bodoli, rhwng 280 a 330, gyda'r tyrau'n cael eu hychwanegu yn ddiweddarach, odddeutu 350. Roedd amddiffynfeydd trefol o'r fath yn gyffredin yng nghyfnod hwyr yr Ymerodraeth Rufeinig, ac yn arwydd o ansicrwydd ac ansefydlogrwydd yn y taleithiau, ac mae'n debyg eu bod nhw'n ymateb i'r un bygythiadau gan ysbeilwyr barbariadaid ac ymosodwyr a arweiniodd at adeiladu'r gaer newydd yng Nghaerdydd. Mae'n bosibl bod *Venta Silurum* (a *Moridunum*), wedi cynnal garsiwn milwrol, neu reolaeth filwrol o leiaf, ar ôl 300. Mae darganfyddiad dau ddart taflu trwm Rhufeinig (*plumbatae*), yn ogystal â broesth is a byclau o fath y tybir y byddai swyddogion Rhufeinig wedi'u gwisgo (daeth-pwyd o hyd i rai tebyg yn *Segontium*), yn awgrymu y dylem chwilio am olion garsiynau milwrol mewn tref a dinaesoedd hefyd, yn ogystal â chwilio mewn hen gaerau.

125. Caerwent: A late Roman heavy throwing dart
Caer-went: Dart daflu drom o'r cyfnod Rhufeinig hwyr

126. Segontium: Large bronze crossbow brooch with onion-headed terminals
Segontium: Broetsh croesfwa efydd fawr gyda phennau siáp winwnsyn
The legacy of Rome

Britain ceased to be a part of the Roman Empire about 410 when Roman officials (presumably including those from the army), were expelled by the island’s inhabitants after repeated barbarian attacks and a final failed usurpation by Constantius III. Despite this, some people in south Wales maintained contacts with the Roman world, although apparently not the inhabitants of old Roman-British sites such as Caerleon, Cardiff or Caerwent. Instead, we find high-status exotic imports from the Mediterranean and southern France in places such as Dinas Powys, a prehistoric hillfort that was reoccupied with timber buildings after the Roman period, when it seems to have become an important political centre. Rome, or the idea of Rome, remained a significant part of Welsh culture for many centuries, and several royal genealogies claimed to be able to trace their lineages back to Roman generals and emperors. For instance, the 9th century Pillar of Eliseg states in Latin that the

Gwaddol Rhufain

Peidiodd Prydain â bod yn rhan o’r Ymerodraeth Rufain tua 410, pan gafodd swyddogion Rhufeinig (gan gynnwys swyddogion y fyddin, yn ôl pob tebyg), eu bwrw allan gan dirgolion yr ymyr ar ôl ymosodiadau barbaraid mynyach ac ymgais aflwyddiannus i gam-feddiannu gan Constantius III. Er gwaethaf hyn, fe wnaeth rhai pobl yn ne Cymru gadw eu cysylltiadau â’r byd Rhufeinig, er nad trigolion hen safleoedd Rhufeinig-Brydeinig fel Caerllion, Caerdydd neu Gaer-went, mae’n debyg. Yn hytrach, gwelwn fewnforion egsotig o statws uchel o ardaloedd y Canoldir a de Ffrainc mewn lleoedd fel Dinas Powys, bryngaer hynafol a safleoedd ei hadfer gydag adeiladau pren ar ôl y cyfnod Rhufeinig, pan ymddengys iddi ddod yn ganolfan wleidyddol bwysig. Parhaodd Rufain, neu’r syniad o Rufain, yn rhan sylweddol o ddiwylliant Cymru am ganrifoeadd lawer, gyda sawl tras frenhinol yn honni eu bod yn gallu
128. Pillar of Eliseg near Llangollen

Colofn Eliseg ger Llangollen
kings of Powys were descended from Magnus Maxi-
mus, who also appears in the Dream of Macsen Wledig
in the Mabinogion. In this story, Maximus dreams of a
beautiful maiden in a far-off land, whom his men find
living in a castle at Segontium. The maiden was called
Helen and her name is preserved in the 260 km road
through central Wales, from Aberconwy to Carmarthen:
Sarn Helen.

Numerous other Latin inscriptions are known from
post-Roman Wales, particularly gravestones recording
the names, titles and family ties of people between 400
and 700, many of whom were Christians. Christianity
seems to have taken hold in late Roman Wales and the
story of the martyrs Julius and Aaron, killed for their
faith while serving in the 2nd Augustan Legion, meant
that Caerleon was an important pilgrimage site for many
years. Later, the town would become associated with
Arthur’s Camelot (a distinction shared with several sites
in southwestern England too), by which time memories
of the Roman frontiers in Wales, like the fabled King
himself and his Round Table, were being woven into the
rich tapestry of Welsh myths and national heroes.

129. Grave marker from Llanwenog with inscriptions
in Latin (‘Trenacatus lies here, son of Maglagnus’), and in
Ogam (‘TRENACCATLO’). Late 5th – early 6th century
Nodwr bedd o Lanwenog gydag arysgrifau Lladin
(‘yma gorwedda Trenacatus, mab Maglagnus’), ac Ogam
(‘TRENACCATLO’). Diwedd y 5ed ganrif – dechrau’r 6ed
ganrif
olrhain eu llinach yn ôl i gadfridogion ac ymerawdwyr Rhufeinig. Er enghraifft, mae arysgrif Ladin ar Goloñ Eliseg o'r 9fed ganrif yn datgan bod brenhinoedd Powys yn ddisgyneddion i Macsen Wledig, sydd hefyd yn ymdangos yn hanes breuddwyd Macsen Wledig yn y Mabinogion. Yn y stori, mae'r arwr yn breuddwydio am forwyn brydferth mewn gwlad bell, gyda'i ddyynion yn dod o hyd iddi mewn castell yn Segontium. Enw'r forwyn oedd Helen ac mae ei henw wedi'i anfarwoli yn y ffordd 260 cilometr drwy ganol-barth Cymru, o Aberconwy i Gaerfyrddin: Sarn Helen.

Mae nifer o arysgrifau Lladin eraill yn hysbys o'r Gymru ôl-Rufeinig, yn enwedig cerrig beddi sy'n cofnodi enwau, teitlau a chysylltiadau teuluol pobl rhwng 400 a 700, llawer ohony'n nhw'n Gristnogion. Ymddengys fod Cristnogaeth wedi ymwreiddio ar ddiwedd y cyfnod Rhufeinig yng Nghymru, ac roedd stori'r merthyron Julius ac Aaron, a laddwyd am eu fpydd tra'n gwasanaethu yn Ail Leng Augustus, yn golygu bod Caerllion yn safre pererindod pwysig am flynyddoedd lawer. Yn ddiweddararach, byddai'r dref yn dod yn gysylltiedig â llys Camlod y Brenin Arthur (anrhydedd sy'n cael ei rannu gyda sawl safle yn ne-orllewin Lloegr hefyd). Erbyn hynny, roedd atgofion o ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru, fel y Brenin enwog a'i Ford Gron, yn cael eu gwau i dapestri cyfoethog chwedloniaeth ac arwyr cenedlaethol Cymru.

130. The Winchester Round Table, showing King Arthur's round table. Winchester Castle, 13th century
Bwrdd crwn Caer-wynt, yn dangos bord Gron y Brenin Arthur. Castell Caer-wynt, 13eg ganrif
Where to see the Roman frontiers in Wales

There are lots of places where Roman forts and fortresses can be visited. Caerleon and Chester are particularly impressive, including at the former the excavated remains of the amphitheatre, barracks and Fortress Baths (Cadw sites), while at the latter the visitor can see the defensive walls and the amphitheatre. The National Roman Legion Museum in Caerleon and the Grosvenor Museum in Chester house large collections of archaeological artefacts, the most important of which are on display.

The remains of Segontium, the most extensively excavated stone-built auxiliary fort in Wales, also managed by Cadw, can be seen on the outskirts of Caernarfon. Nearby are the remains of the fortlet at Hen Wliau, while another late Roman fort can be visited at Holyhead on Anglesey (Caer Gybi). Other places of interest include Cardiff Castle (built on top of the late Roman fort), Y Gaer Museum in Brecon, and the Roman gold mines at Dolaucothi. At Caerwent, as well as the imposing city walls, the forum-basilica (market and town hall), a temple, and other buildings are also on display. Visiting the Roman frontiers in Wales is a great way to explore the countryside and a good walk or cycle along river valleys and coastal paths, Offa’s Dyke, the Sarn Helen Trail, or in the Snowdonia and Brecon Beacons National Parks, will invariably pass a fort or two.

Ble i weld ffiniau Rhufeinig Cymru

Mae sawl lle i ymwend â chaerau ac amddiffynfeydd Rhufeinig. Mae Caerllion a Chaer yn arbenig o drawiadol, gan gynnwys olion yr amffitetheatr, y barics a baddonau’r gaer (safleoedd Cadw) yng Nghaerllion, a’r muriau amddiffynnol a’r muriau o’r gaer yng Nghaer. Mae Amgueddfa Lleng Rufeinig Cymru yng Nghaerllion ac Amgueddfa Grosvenor yng Nghaer yn gartref i gasgliadau mawr o artefactau archaeolegol, gyda’r pwysicaf ohonyn nhw’n cael eu harddangos.

Gellir gweld olion caer a tegal garreg Segontium, lleoliad gwaith cloddio mwyaf helaeth Cymru ar safle o’r fath, ar gyfer Caernarfon. Mae’r safle hwn hefyd o dan reolaeth Cadw. Gerllaw mae olion caer fechan Hen Wliau, yngyd â chaer arall o’r cyfnod Rufeinig hwy y nghaergybi ar Ynys Môn (Caer Gybi). Mae lleoliadau diddorol eraill yngnwyns Castell Caerdydd (a adeiladwyd ar ben caer o’r cyfnod Rufeinig hwy), Amgueddfia’r Gaer yn Aberhondu, a’r mwyngloiddiau aur Rufeinig yng Nolaucothi. Yng Nghaer-went, yn ogystal â muriau’r ddinas, gellir gweld ffowrm-basilica (marchnad a neuadd y dref), teml ac adeiladau eraill. Mae ymwend â ffiniau Rufeinig Cymru yn ffordd wych o wynnau cefn gwlad. Bydd taith gerdded neu feicio ar hyd dyffrynnoedd a llwybrau arfordirol, Clawdd Offa, Llwybr Sarn Helen, neu ym Hmarciaw Cenedlaethol Eryri a Bannau Brycheiniog, yn siŵr o fynd â chi heibio i gaer neu ddwy.
132. Segontium: Aerial view of the fort and the excavated buildings on display
Segontium: Awyrlyun o’r gaer a’r adeiladau a gloddiwyd yn cael eu harddangos

133. Caerwent: Romano-Celtic temple
Caer-went: Teml Geltaidd-Rufeinig
134. Caerleon: Amphitheatre
Caerllion: Amffitheatr

135. Caerleon: Fortress Baths
Caerllion: Baddonau'r Gaer
136. Brecon: Y Gaer Museum & Art Gallery
Aberhonddu: Y Gaer Amgueddfa & Oriel Gelf

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**Further reading for The Roman Frontiers in Wales / Darllen pellach Am Ffniau Rhufeinig Cymru**


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138. Tombstone depicting centurion Marcus Aurelius Nepos, of the 20th Legion, and his 'most devoted' (but unnamed) wife

Beddfaen yn darlunio'r canwriad Marcus Aurelius Nepos, o'r 20fed Lleng, a'i wraig 'hynod fwyddlon' (ond dienw)