The Romans in Switzerland

Martina Müller

In the first century BC the *Helvetii* were one of several Celtic tribes that lived in the area of modern Switzerland.

... their country is limited everywhere by natural features – on one side by the Rhine, a broad deep river, which separates the Helvetian territory from the Germans; on another by the lofty range of the Jura, between the Helvetii and the Sequani; on a third by the Lake of Geneva and the Rhône, which separates our Province from the Helvetii.(Caesar, De Bello Gallico 1.2)

The country’s north was inhabited by the *Raurici* and the *Allobroges* settled in the west. There were more Celtic tribes in the area, whereas the easternmost part was inhabited by the *Raeti*. *Genava* (Geneva), an *oppidum* of the *Allobroges*, was one of the first settlements that came into the hands of the Romans. As part of the *province Gallia Narbonensis* it belonged to the Roman Empire from 121 BC.

The territory of the *Helvetii* was situated northeast of *Genava* (Geneva). After their attempted migration in 58 BC and their defeat by the troops of Julius Caesar near *Bibracte* they were forced to return to the Swiss Plateau. Caesar gave orders to restore their destroyed settlements and to ward off invaders, especially the Germans. The same order applied to the *Raurici*, who resettled in the north of Switzerland.

In 52 BC the Helvetians joined the revolt of Vercingetorix against Caesar. Although they were not punished, the incident showed that they could not be trusted. In order to gain more control over the *Helvetii* and, moreover, to ward off the raiding *Raeti* on their east, Caesar decided to establish two colonies: *Colonia Iulia Equestris* (Nyon at the Lake of Geneva) and *Colonia Raurica* (Augst near Basel).

The civil wars and assassination of Caesar prevented the enactment of his plans and it was only in 15 BC that the Romans finally took control over the territory of...
Initially both civitates belonged to the Provincia Belgica, before they became part of Germania Superior. The four tribes of the Valais region were later integrated into the Civitas Vallensium by Claudius. Forum Claudii Vallensium (Martigny) was their centre and it belonged to the Provincia Alpes Graiae et Poeninae, whereas the eastern Alps were part of the Provincia Raetia.

In AD 16/17 a legionary camp for the Legion XIII was built at Vindonissa (Windisch). Ideally situated near the confluence of three rivers (Aare, Reuss and Limmat), Vindonissa was able to control waterways and arterial roads. Because of its key position in an extensive defensive system a large number of fortresses and posts depended on the camp. At a later stage it was the base for Legions XXI and XI; it was abandoned in AD 101 but restored as a military base in the third century.

In around AD 71/72 Aventicum was granted the status of Colonia by the Emperor Vespasian, who probably had spent part of his life in this town. An impressive town wall was built that had a length of 5.5 km and included 73 towers. These colonial cities of Aventicum and Augusta Raurica reached their full bloom in the second and third centuries AD. Each city had a forum with
curia, basilica and temple, baths, theatres and amphitheatres and each had around 20,000 inhabitants.

Apart from the three colonial cities all the other settlements in the area were given the legal status of a vicus, a title that could apply to a simple hamlet as well as to a large town of a civitas. The land surrounding the vici was used for agricultural purposes and a large number of villae rusticae have been excavated.

The whole area was fully integrated into the Empire and its vast trade and communication network, as it was basically situated on the intersection of two trade routes. The Romans had finally succeeded in developing more direct and better routes from south to north, e.g. the route over Summus Poeninus (Great St. Bernard), which linked Italy with Germania Superior.

A second trade route led from Lugudunum (Lyon, France) in the west to Raetia and the Upper Danube in the east. Waterways were almost as important as roads, as the many rivers and lakes offered an inexpensive alternative route.

In the 160s AD the area experienced the effects of the Marcomannic Wars and it suffered from the plague brought in by soldiers returning from an eastern war. The following centuries brought raiding Alamanni, economic decline and finally the end of Roman dominion in the fifth century. A number of powerful late Roman fortresses give evidence of this unsettled period, for example the Castrum Rauracense (Kaiseraugst) in the vicinity of Augusta Raurica. For a long time such fortresses gave shelter to the Romanized population and to Christian congregations. Depending on the degree of resistance to the German immigrants the language boundaries began to take shape. It was the origin of the linguistic and cultural mosaic of Switzerland as we know it today.

**Aventicum - Amphitheatre**

© Photo: Roland Zumbuehl, Picswiss

A venticum – Part of town wall with “Tornallaz” tower (reconstructed) © Photo: Roland Zumbuehl, Picswiss

For further reading see: W. Drack and R. Fellmann, *Die Römer in der Schweiz* (1988)

**Switzerland in the Roman period: some more detail for main settlements, trade routes and tribes**

© Map: Marco Zanoli

8=Genava/Geneva; 9=Julia Equestris/Nyon; 10=Lousonnal/Lausanne; 11=Ebrodomunum/Yverdon; 12=Aventicum/Avenches; 13=Petinesca/Studen; 14=Bern; 15=Salodurum/Solothurn; 16=Olten; 17=Basel; 18=Augusta Raurical/Augst; 19=Vindonissa/Windisch; 20=Vitodurum/Oberwinterthur; 21=Tasgaetium/Eschenz; 22=Brigantium/Bregenz (Austria); 23=Cambodunum/Kempten (Germany); 29=Tenedo/Zurzach
In 1904 the University of Liverpool took the innovative decision to recognise an Institute of Archaeology, which eventually evolved into today’s School of Archaeology, Classics and Egyptology (SACE), the first and oldest dedicated group of archaeologists in a British university. Funded exclusively by the generosity and enthusiasm of the city’s mercantile community, by 1914 the Institute retained the services of no less than 7 full or honorary professors (in Classical Archaeology, Egyptology, the Methods & Practice of Archaeology, Celtic, Medieval Archaeology, and Social Anthropology) with lecturers in Oriental History and Archaeology, Assyriology, Central American Antiquities and in Numismatics as well as a Fellow in the archaeology of music! With a royal patron, by the same year it was running or financing excavations at Roman sites in the Welsh Marches, Egypt, Ethiopia, Nubia and Sudan, Anatolia, northern Syria, Palestine, and in the eastern Mediterranean including Greece and the Adriatic islands, and in Central America. The Institute possessed its own library (described in the early 1930s as one of the finest archaeological collections in Europe outside of Oxford and Cambridge), managed a growing museum collection and published a critically successful but financially ruinous journal for the next 40+ years (the Liverpool Annals of Archaeology and Anthropology). And yet paradoxically the Institute offered no formal instruction in archaeology. Instead it provided general courses for candidates for the University’s general degree. Specialised teaching was a relatively late development. The Institute first offered a Diploma in the subject just after WWI. Undergraduate degrees in archaeology were a much later development and went through a tortuous process of evolution until the 1970s. The museum was normally only accessible to professional visitors – such as Dorothy Garrod researching Roman Samian pottery, and the library was a lending collection for a select few.

The anomalous condition of the Institute, best described in the years up to the Second World War as a private research club made up of departments each with an individual member of staff, is also reflected in its attitude to Roman Archaeology. The Institute’s ‘founder’, John Garstang (1876-1956), had explored a number of Romano-British sites, including Melandra Castle and Richborough, but by the time he arrived at Liverpool, his reputation was in Egyptian and later Nubian and then Anatolian (Hittite) and Near Eastern archaeology (at Jericho). The first Professor of Classical Archaeology, R. C. Bosanquet (1871-1935) had previously been Director of the British School of Archaeology at Athens but before that had made something of a reputation as the excavator of Housesteads on Hadrian’s Wall. Once at Liverpool (1906) he largely gave up on fieldwork but accompanied F.J. Haverfield on his periodic reconnaissances around Roman Wales. Bosanquet retired prematurely, in 1914, to farm his family’s estates in Northumbria. He was succeeded in the Chair of Classical Archaeology by J. P. Droop (author of Archaeological Excavation (1915), with its now – and indeed then – strictly non-PC opinions on the suitability of employing females on archaeological excavations). Together with Robert Newstead (one time Curator of the Grosvenor Museum at Chester and later lecturer in Entomology and Parasitology (1905) and then Professor of Tropical Entomology in the School of Tropical Medicine at Liverpool) he excavated on Roman Chester and at the Roman forts at Ribchester and Lancaster.

What should be evident from this summary is that Liverpool has never really regarded Roman archaeology, whether in the United Kingdom or overseas, as a discrete subject. In the absence of a Roman specialist Liverpool tended to rely on collaborative projects, either as a co- or junior partners, or on the work of those affiliated to it and in more recent times the School has tended to use Roman sites as much as exercises for the training of undergraduates in the methods of archaeological survey and excavation as for research. In the mid-1990s Archaeology (then part of the School of Archaeology, Classics & Oriental Studies – SACOS) was involved in Liverpool Museums’ project at Irby in The Wirral, and later Ochre Brook, both in Merseyside. Both these sites are late Iron Age-
Romano-British rural settlements. At about the same time, through the link with Roger White, formally a member of staff in SACOS, Liverpool students participated on the Birmingham University Field Archaeology Unit’s “Worcester Hinterland Project”. This was multi-discipline GIS landscape survey with supporting excavation of a number of sites in the territory of the Roman civitas capital of Viroconium Cornoviorum, Wroxeter (R. White & P. Barker Wroxeter. Life and Death of a Roman City (1998); www.arch-ant.bham.ac.uk/bufau/research/wh/base.html). At about the same time SACOS supported a staff project in southern Derbyshire, excavating a Romano-British agricultural site at Closes Farm, a site which was probably stimulated by the development of the lead and silver mines in the region as well as the nearby Roman spa town at Buxton.

More recently, since 2002 what is now SACE has been a partner in the Manchester University Field Archaeological Unit’s 10 year programme on the gravel extraction site at Besthorpe in eastern Nottinghamshire. This multi-period site (Neolithic through to Anglo-Saxon) on the banks of the River Trent, and sufficiently close to the Roman colonia at Lincoln to be significant, has produced large quantities of animal bones of the late Iron Age/Roman period to suggest that it was a significant, if not the major location, for the concentrating of meat on the hoof going into the Roman garrison and its associated community. A (dated) progress report can be found at www.art.man.ac.uk/FieldArchaeologyCentre/

Last but not least English Heritage, in conjunction with Chester City Council, has been funding a 3-year project (2004-2006), which investigated the original construction and development of the amphitheatre site in the Roman town. Again Liverpool contributed funds to this work as well as equipment, supervisory staff and students. The results of these excavations are summarised at www.chester.gov.uk/amphitheatre/index.html

Two honorary appointees in SACE have for over 10 years been conducting an extensive survey and excavation programme along what has been described as ‘the first Roman frontier’ in Britain, that of the Gask Ridge in Scotland and in advance of what was to become the line of the Antonine Wall. Processing of the results is still on-going but a highly useful introduction to David Woolliscroft and Birgitta Hoffman’s work can be found in Rome’s First Frontier. The Flavian Occupation of Northern Scotland (2006) and at www.theromangaskproject.org.uk/.

Although SACE’s historic emphasis has been on the (eastern) Mediterranean, past and current staff projects overseas frequently have a Roman component of some kind. Douglas Baird’s work at Bronze Age/Iron Age Shuna in the Jordan Valley revealed substantial Hellenistic and Roman deposits; likewise his work in the area of Pinabassì near Catal Hoyuk in southern Turkey. Alan Greaves’ fieldwork along the Turkish-Syrian border involved the exploration of an aqueduct which supplied the important Roman city of Cyrrhus. Zosia Archibald has been working on the late Iron Age and later site of Vetren in Bulgaria. Matthew Fitzjohn works in Sicily and southern Italy on the evolution of landscapes through the application of GIS technology. Matthew Ponting is an archaeometallurgist who specialises in Roman numismatics and is currently involved, with a colleague from the American University in Beirut, on the metallurgical analysis and evolution of Roman coinage with special regard to the denarius. Ponting is also involved in the analysis of Roman period metalwork from as far apart as Romano-British rural sites to military equipment from Judaea. Finally, the writer has worked in Jordan, on Roman and Byzantine sites and landscapes from the Syria border to south of the Dead Sea. More recently he has also been entangled with trying to make sense of a Hellenistic through to Byzantine farmstead in the territory of what was the Greek colony of Chersonesus, near modern day Sevastopol in Crimea (Ukraine). Summaries and interim reports on much of this work can be viewed at www.liv.ac.uk/sace/research/index.htm.
A Newly Discovered Bathhouse in Byzantine Jarash —

Louise Blanke

In 2002, the Islamic Jarash Project was begun as a collaborative endeavour between the Carsten Niebuhr Institute of the University of Copenhagen and the Jordanian Department of Antiquities, with Dr. Alan Walmsley as director. This joint venture serves the primary purpose of excavating a recently discovered Umayyad (AD 661-750) mosque in the centre of Jarash, Roman Gerasa. A secondary purpose is to excavate and document the buildings that occupied the site before the construction of the mosque. The most extensive of these is a Byzantine public bathhouse with an industrial transitional phase before the area was redeveloped for the use of a mosque.

Jarash is situated in the northern part of Jordan approximately 35 km northwest of the modern capital Amman. The city consists of an excavated and partly restored archaeological site, and a surrounding modern town with a population of approximately 20,000 (see map opposite). The architectural history of Jarash dates back to the Hellenistic period, but lithic and ceramic finds indicate that the history of the site spans as far back as the early Chalcolithic (4,500 BC). The city is, however, primarily known for its Roman and Byzantine occupation, due to the extensive monumental architecture of these periods that comprises the site today. The city is laid out in a typical Roman grid system with a Cardo (north-south) as the major thoroughfare and two intersecting Decumani (east-west). The Byzantine bathhouse is situated in the south-western corner of the southern intersection, a position that places the building in the centre of the city’s commercial district.

The Central Byzantine Bathhouse

In the process of constructing the Umayyad mosque, the buildings that occupied the selected area were levelled, and the stones were reused elsewhere. This has resulted in a situation where barely any bathhouse superstructure remains apart from three column bases that were below the level of the mosque courtyard. The focus of the excavation has therefore been to understand the technicalities involved in the use of the bathhouse, combined with the different phases of construction, rebuilding, and alteration of the sub-floor system. So far, the entire hypocaust system has been excavated along with the fur-
nace and a large basin in the frigidarium. Furthermore, two parts of the sewer were discovered running respectively eastwards to the Cardo and northwards to the (South) Decumanus (Fig. 2).

The bathhouse is oriented north-south with the frigidarium in the northern end and the caldarium and service area to the south. The clientele of the bathhouse would most likely have entered the building from an alley to the north, leading from the Decumanus to the bathhouse; no direct access would have been possible as shops occupy this space.

The Hypocaust

The hypocaust system consists of five rooms (A-E in Fig. 2), whereas Room D is perceived as providing the function of a small tepidarium (Fig. 3).

This interpretation is based on three observations, namely that the floor of Room D is raised approximately 0.5 m compared to the rest of the hypocaust; the chimneys that provide the draft through the system are to be found in Room B (2) and C (5); and finally that there are no indications of wall tubulation in Room D, which occurs in the rest of the hypocaust. Together this would have created a somewhat cooler temperature in this section of the bathhouse.

All rooms in the hypocaust were part of the original construction; however, they appear to have gone out of use in two phases. This interpretation is mainly based on the fill in the rooms, but also on some architectural changes described below. It has been possible to determine that the filling in Rooms B, C, and D consist of the same material whereas the filling of A and E is distinctly different. Furthermore, walking surfaces were constructed above the filling in B, C, and D, whereas no indication of such was found in A. The hypothesis, which support the ceramic material recovered from the filling, is that B, C, and D were filled up approximately at the same time, and that the northern part of the bathhouse went over to an industrial purpose while A and E were still in use. This conclusion is based on the insertion of chimneys in both rooms. It is evident that A was in use until the construction of the mosque since the fill in A butts the foundation of the entrance wall to the prayer hall.

The Furnace and the Service Area

Only a limited part of the service area has been excavated, but it has been sufficient to establish the position of some of the most important features in relation to the bathhouse. The service area occupied the space between the hypocaust, the Cardo, and the adjacent Macellum (= Market) to the south. A laneway between the Bathhouse and the Macellum provided access to the service area for the transportation of fuel for the furnace, and commodities used in the bathhouse. The hypocaust was heated by one furnace, which is situated directly south of Room A (Fig. 4). For the purpose of cleaning, another entrance was used (G in Fig. 2). This was large enough to facilitate the entry of a young boy.

The Frigidarium, the Sewers and the later use of the Bathhouse

One of the questions that will be dealt with during the following seasons is whether the bathhouse contained an apodyterium or the bather went directly into a multifunction frigidarium, as was often the case in Byzantine bathing facilities. So far a large basin has been found as the only recognisable part of the frigidarium (F in Figs. 2 and 5). Running directly south and east of this are two phases of the sewer. The east-west branch is the original, whereas the branch running towards the Recumanus is a later addition, constructed more or less simultaneously with the filling of the hypocaust rooms B, C, and D; at a point where this part of the bathhouse went over to an industrial purpose. As indicated by the discovery of a basin on top of the fill in Room C, the industrial phase must have involved the use of water. So far it has not been possible to establish the nature of this industrial phase, however, the material found in the sewer is currently being analysed and will hopefully spread light on this last period of use prior to the construction of the mosque.
The Roman Army continues to produce its large annual crop of new books. Readers who participated in the Tour of Roman Britain in 2003 may have met Duncan Campbell in the Hunterian Museum in Glasgow as Lawrence Keppie took us around. Duncan has written several books and has established a fine reputation for books that are both scholarly and readily intelligible to a non-academic public. Part of his success lies in the profuse and helpful illustrations he includes. Photographs of places and things but also reconstruction drawings.

I was glad to receive two new books from him in recent weeks. First is his short study of legionary fortresses for the popular Osprey series to which he has contributed before. These are short introductions to military history, written in a plain, attractive style and accompanied by numerous illustrations. There are already numerous relevant books for readers of RAG covering such features as Hadrian’s Wall, Roman Auxiliary Cavalryman and Roman Military Clothing. The current book is in their “Fortress” series and offers an excellent introduction complete with colour photos, maps and plans.


Campbell’s second book arises from his narrower research interest in ancient siege warfare.

The first half covers ancient Achaemenid Persia and four chapters on the Greek world from Classical times to the Hellenistic period, the Middle East to Sicily. The next six chapters cover the Roman period. This is a much more substantial book but again is characterized by the careful selection of first class illustrations. One aspect of modern study of ancient warfare has been the development of replicas, working, often full-scale, models. Enthusiasts have been seen on TV showing off their reconstructions of the machines that fired what were essentially large spears, based on illustrations on, for example, Trajan’s Column and the discovery of pieces from as far apart as Spain (Ampurias) and Iraq (Hatira). A delight in Campbell’s book is the photo (p. 92) of a group dwarfed by the Ballista constructed for a BBC programme in 2002. In fact, the book is a one-volume version of four of the shorter books he has contributed to Osprey previously, now helpfully brought within a single cover.


There are many famous sieges described in the pages of ancient writers. Caesar describes those he undertook in Gaul, most famously that of Alesia in 52 BC (Campbell 2006b: 154-157). Two and half centuries later, the contemporary historian Cassius Dio (Roman History 76.10.1-131) described the siege in AD 198-9 by the Emperor Septimius Severus (AD 193-211) of the caravan city of Hatra in the north of Iraq (online at http://penelope.uchicago.edu/Thayer/E/Roman/Texts/Cassius_Dio/). (Campbell 2006b: 179-81).

Best known by far, however, is the siege of the Herodian fortress palace of Masada overlooking the Dead Sea in Israel in AD 70 at the end of the First Jewish Revolt (AD 66-70). It has been well-known to a wider public for many years. Major developments included the publication of superb aerial photographs taken by the RAF in 1938 (C. Hawkes, Antiquity 3 (1929): 195-213; cf. D. Kennedy and D. Riley, Rome’s Desert Frontier from the Air, London: 96-99) and Yigael Yadin’s popular account (Masada, London, 1968). Campbell covers it in his book (174-8) but now we have Neil Faulkner’s full-length study of the entire Jewish Revolt.

Faulkner, a regular contributor to/ occasional editor of the magazine, Current Archaeology, provides a detailed study and analysis of the whole bloody war. The starting point has always been the account of the contemporary Jewish writer, Flavius Josephus. As is well-known, Josephus, a member of the Jewish priestly aristocracy, commanded a rebel army against the Romans before being taken prisoner and witnessing the unfolding tragedy from the camp of the future emperors Vespasian and Titus. Later, pardoned and given Roman citizenship, Josephus wrote a huge account of the war in order to explain to his co-religionists everywhere how Jerusalem and the Temple had come to be destroyed. There are other literary ac-
counts to supplement Josephus but there is also a mass of archaeological evidence Faulkner is well-qualified to integrate and explain. Masada, of course, but also the siege evidence from Jotapata and Machaerus. More generally, the archaeological evidence for what Judaea was “like” in the 60s AD. One of the best-known images of the war is in fact from Rome itself, from the Arch of Titus in the Forum Romanum with its relief image of soldiers carrying the Temple Treasure in Triumph (picture above).


There are some interesting things in Stark’s book but it is not in the same league as works in the genre such as John Dominic Crossan’s, The Birth of Christianity, Harper-Collins, 1989 and Richard Fletcher’s, The Conversion of Europe, Fontana, 1998. These works bookend the period that Stark covers but whilst Crossan was concerned with the conception of Christianity, the period Stark covers was one of gestation.


Ward-Perkins book “The Fall of Rome” is important for reminding us that it is only when civilizations and empires have reached their peak and look completely invulnerable that they begin to decline. In the history of Rome a second passed when Rome began its long descent—and no one knew. We have to wonder if what we call ‘the West’ has passed its peak. (Consider in that regard Oswald Spengler, The Decline of the West, 1918 who considered the West had passed its peak by the early 19th century.)

It is sobering in that context to contemplate the uneducated medieval inhabitants of Rome living in hovels amongst the ruins of the once glorious city, thinking that the place had been the domain of giants; why else buildings of such scale? Ward-Perkins thus addresses the question, did Rome fall, or did it just fade away? His answer is that Rome fell and in this he takes a different position from that which has become fashionable.

Ward-Perkins is an archaeologist. To argue his case he marshals an amazing range of evidence, amongst other things, potsherds, poetry, saints’ lives, the graffiti on brothel walls in Pompeii, the size of cows, and pickings of the beards of British tourists in Bologna. His work is a tour de force of careful argument and scholarship.

The Six Hills of Athens and the Seven Hills of Rome

Kevin O’Toole

Plato (Critias, 111e-112a) thought that the hills of Athens were outcrops from what had been a flat plateau that had been sculptured by rivers (the Eridanos, the Illisos). In fact something of the opposite was the case. The hills are the still exposed mountain tops of a mountainous ridge running through what is now Athens whose valleys were slowly filled by sediment, thus flattening out the landscape. The ridge was a hard limestone formation connected topographically with the three mountain ranges that surround modern Athens, Pentellicon, Hymettos and Aigaleos. Pentellicon supplied the beautiful Pentelic marble for the construction of the Classical temples built on the summit of the Acropolis including the Parthenon. Hymettos supplied marble too. Hymettic marble is less attractive but tougher than Pentelic marble. Aigeleos is famous for amongst other things having provided a lookout for Xerxes in 479BC at the naval battle between the allied Greek city-states and the Persians and their allies in the straits off Salamis.

Here however I wish to concentrate on what we may call the ‘Six Hills of Athens’. These hills run roughly parallel in two rows of three. The Nymphs, the Pynx and the Muses to the South, and the Kolonos Agoraios, the Areopagos and the Acropolis to the North.

On the Hill of the Nymphs there is today an observatory, the Athens Observatory, built between 1842 and 1846. An inscription dated to mid 5th century BC was found at this site in 1835: *hieron nymph[on] demou, “sanctuary of the nymphs and the demos”*. Just to the west of the observatory, the Hill of Nymphs recalls the Tarpeian Rock in Rome (see below). Thus the bodies of the condemned were thrown over the Hill of Nymphs from there. There was also a pit, the ‘Barathron’, for that purpose behind the Acropolis.

The Pynx is the site of the ancient assembly. With the legal/constitutional reforms of Cleisthenes in the last decade of the 6th century BC the need was seen to build facilities for the assembly of citizens (adult male Athenians). Three phases of development of the facility over the following two centuries have been revealed in the archaeology. The development reflects both the perceived increasing importance during that time of the assembly and the fact of the increase of citizen participation.

At the summit of the Hill of Muses there is a striking burial monument to a Syrian benefactor to Athens, Gaius Julius Antiochus Philopappos, who had been exiled from Syria by Vespasian in AD 72. The Hill of Muses is also known as the Hill of Philopappos. Built from Pentelic marble on a Hymettian marble and poros base in c. AD 114-116 the monument faces the Acropolis and is a landmark in Athens.

The Kolonos Agoraios, or Hill of the Agora, overlooks the Agora. On its summit is the Hephaisteion (c. 460-415 BC), a temple to Hephaistos and the best preserved of the Doric Temples in Greece. The Temple is in the canonical hexastyle form. It was part of the Periclean building programme (broadly construed) along with the non-canonical octastyle Parthenon on the Acropolis.

The Areopagus or Hill of Ares (the Greek god of war) is referred to in Roman Period writing as the Hill of Mars (the Roman god of war). It is important for having been the meeting place for the Council of the Areopagus, a significant institution in ancient Athens. It is also mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles as the place where St Paul preached to the Athenians.

The Acropolis is of course a major archaeological site. Indeed, much of the area surrounded by and adjacent to the Six Hills of Athens is of major archaeological importance.
What Plato thought had happened in relation to the geomorphology of Athens would be a more correct description of what in fact happened in Rome. Rome’s landscape had been a volcanic plain formed from eruptions in the Alban Hills to Rome’s southeast. The Tiber and its tributaries sculptured the plateau and what we now refer to as the Seven Hills of Rome are, or were, the highpoints of the resulting landscape.

The Hills of Rome are not easy to identify in modern Rome, save perhaps for the Capitoline and the Palatine which are closely connected with the site of the famous ancient forum. Ancient and modern landscaping has significantly changed the topographical profile of Rome. However, the hills are so often referred to in ancient documents and in modern histories of ancient Rome that it is worthwhile to have some idea of where they are located, including their relative location.

In imperial Rome the Quirinal was a residential area for the well-to-do. It was to become the location for the summer residence for the pope, the Palazzo del Quirinale, which today is the official residence of the President of Italy. As you descend the hill to the south west you quickly come to the Piazza de Trevi and its famous fountain.

The Baths of Diocletian (c. AD 298) were constructed on the Viminal. The Baths occupied an area of some 2.5 acres and in addition to its provision of baths for the 3,000 patrons it could accommodate, the facility also offered libraries, hairdressers, bars, shops, brothels and gymnasia.

It was from a lookout on the Esquiline, the largest (some 70 acres) and highest of the Seven Hills, that Nero is said to have observed the great fire of AD 64. Nero would later use much of the Esquiline, most of the Palatine and Celian, and the valley between these hills, for his Domus Aurea, the Golden House, a monument to venality. An artificial lake built for the Golden House in the valley would later be drained by Vespasian in c. AD 72 for the construction of the Colosseum. Later still Titus and Trajan would build baths on the Esquiline. In the Parco di Triano (the Park of Trajan) on the summit of the Esquiline today, remains of the Baths of Trajan (c. AD 109) can be seen. The Baths were massive precursors of the Baths of Diocletian and the Baths of Caracalla (c. AD 217, built on the Celian).

In imperial Rome the Capitoline symbolized Rome’s status as caput mundi, the head of the world. It is well known today for the two museums on its summit, the Palazzo Nuovo and the Palazzo dei Conservatori separated by the Michelangelo designed Piazza and staircase, the Piazza del Campidoglio and the Cordonata respectively. Flanking these structures to the West is the Victor Emmanuel Monument. In c. 590 BC the Temple of Jupiter was constructed on the Capitoline. Sulla (d. 78 BC) rebuilt it after seeing the unfinished Temple to Olympian Zeus in Athens. Amongst the many other aspects of the Capitoline of significance in Roman archaeology is the Tarpeian Rock on the southern tip of the Hill. Condemned criminals were executed by being thrown over the precipitous cliff there.

Octavian was born on the Palatine and even as Augustus he continued to live there. Legend has it that Romulus and Remus were brought up on the Palatine. It is wholly an archaeological site today featuring too many items to list here but including the Huts of Romulus, the Cryptporticus (an underground gallery built by Nero), and the Domus Augustina, the residence of the emperors with its extension, the Palace of Septimus Severus (AD 193-211).

It was at the base of the northern slopes of the Aventine that what would become known as the Circus Maximus was first constructed, perhaps as early as the 6th century BC. Thus it was from a very early period that the area between the Aventine, Palatine and Celian became the place for chariot racing.

In Rome of the Imperial Period the Seven Hills were occupied by the wealthy. The valleys were for the poorer classes, in particular an area called the Subura located north-east of the Forum. It was of course in the Forum occupying the valley between the Capitoline and the Palatine that so much history was made over so many centuries.
**Roman Archaeology at UWA**

**RAG Events**

RAG has had a busy few months. During four weeks in October and November a record 69 people registered and attended a series of 2-hour sessions organized through UWA Extension every Thursday on the Origins and Development of the Roman Army. Feedback left little doubt there would be ample support for further short courses like this. Possibilities include: “The Logistics of Roman Warfare”, “Everyday Life in the Roman Army”, “The Face of Roman Battle”.

**EXTENSION COURSES**

In the meantime, a second Extension course has been running for five weeks in January and February. “Britain in the Roman Empire” has attracted a class of 45. Topics have included Towns, Villas and the Countryside, Technology and we shall finish with a session devoted to exploring the famous question, “What did the Romans do for us?” Once again there is plenty of scope for further courses – perhaps a return to “Invasion and Conquest: the first two generations of Roman Britain” or “Hadrian’s Wall and the Antonine Wall”. As always, suggestions and comments are welcome. RAG Members can usually obtain a discount for these courses.

**SUMMER PROGRAMME**

Our Winter Programme last year attracted dozens to each of a series of Saturday afternoon sessions in August, September and October. Generous sponsorship allows us to offer not just a pair of lectures but a much-appreciated afternoon tea beside the fish-pond in between.

Our Summer programme this year kicked off with an audience of 60+ to hear a talk on “Touring Roman Britain” followed by a second surveying what is new in Roman Britain during the past decade. Many were probably surprised at just how much new material continues to pop up everywhere in Britain. That includes almost 18,000 “Roman” items reported to the Portable Antiquities Scheme in 2005 alone, including no less than 9003 coins and 1780 brooches!

The second Saturday afternoon (24 February) will be devoted to the most common find on Roman sites – pottery. The first lecture will be devoted to a survey of why archaeologists study pottery and what sort of conclusions they can draw from it. The second session that afternoon will be an opportunity to handle some genuine Roman potsherds, see a short video on making a replica Roman samian pot and a short talk on the problems of making Roman pottery. The final Saturday session (17 March) will be devoted to “An Empire of Cities: The Colonial Foundations of the Emperor Augustus” to be followed by “Augusta Raurica: an Augustan Colonia in Switzerland” by Martina Mueller. As always, the lectures are held in the Social Science Lecture Theatre starting at 1.30. Lectures are free. Details on our web site.

A further lecture of interest will be hosted by the Classical Association: David Kennedy will lecture on “Ten years of aerial archaeology in Jordan” at 6.30 on 7 March in Austen Lecture Theatre at UWA.

Finally, for those interested in hearing more about the planned Tour of Roman Britain this year (below), there will be Information Sessions on Wednesday 21 February and Wednesday 14 March at 7.30-9 pm. Call UWA Extension (6488-2433) or go to www.extension.uwa.edu.au (“Tours and Expeditions”).

**Membership of The RAG**

Membership of the RAG is open to anyone interested in Roman Archaeology or classical studies generally. There is an annual membership fee of $25 (inclusive of GST), students $10.

To apply, complete and post the form with this edition of the RAG or contact the committee members at the addresses below.