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Introduction

The purpose of this volume is to provide sixth-formers and undergraduates, as well as other interested readers, with access to the sources for the period when the Roman Empire developed into its definitive form and approached its apogee (political, economic, military) with the confidence that success encouraged. Recovering under Augustus from the losses and uncertainties of the Civil Wars, the Empire benefited from peace until it was shaken once more in AD 68–9 by the fall of Nero and the Year of the Four Emperors. Those twenty months of instability, which ended when the Flavians established themselves firmly in power, only convinced its inhabitants that the system was indeed durable. Meanwhile, in spite of temporary pauses, the Romans had not given up the idea of potential world conquest. Many smaller acquisitions were eclipsed by the sensational conquest of Britain, even beyond Ocean, and of gold-rich Dacia beyond the Danube. Domestic calm under Trajan was accompanied by Rome's last major imperialistic military success.

The first half of this period is rich in ancient historical writing: above all Tacitus' *Annals*, despite the loss of his account of AD 29–47 and 66–68; for the second half, the three major historical writers fail: Tacitus' *Histories* break off in the autumn of 70, Suetonius' last three biographies are skimpy, and Dio Cassius' work exists only in excerpts and summaries. On the other hand, Pliny's *Letters* are highly informative, and there is a richness of data from inscriptions beyond anything available for earlier periods; confident in the future, people were willing and able to spend more money on setting out their own achievements, and those of their friends, relations and superiors, at greater length then ever before. I have drawn freely upon them, as from papyri and coins.

The material in this volume works on four themes. First comes the controversial topic of aggressive imperialism and its survival into the Empire, and an examination of its development in Europe, Africa and the East. Then the Empire and how it was governed: its structure and the power, actual and potential, of the army. The contentious topic of 'Romanisation' is part of this, and a change of vocabulary is suggested. The realities of power, the vital taxation, the inevitable misgovernment, have to be looked at, with their violent consequence of revolt. Third, there is a section on ideology, 'the imperial cult', and the rôle of the emperors in securing loyalty to Rome. Other religious matters, such as the spread of Christianity and other new cults, developments in philosophy and law, and literary culture, art and entertainment, illustrate the important effect of the provinces on Rome, the last of the four themes, but the economic impact is given greatest weight. Finance through booty and taxation was essential for senate and emperor, both in his official capacity and as the wealthiest politician in the Roman world; if it were not kept on a sound basis disaster was likely to follow, as it did for Nero. The destination of income from booty and taxes is one aspect of this; another was the relative economic success of Italy and the provinces. Italy's traditional status was protected during this period, as shown in taxation privileges, help from the alimentary schemes, freedom from governors, special treatment in Domitian's vine edict, and its contribution to the imperial service (see Section 5.5 below), but was gradually eroded, to Italy's further ultimate disadvantage. Whatever the ultimate outcome for Italy, views of how the Romans acquired their empire, and of their spirit in administering it, have changed over time, from a favourable estimate held during the heyday of the British (and other) empires, to an acceptance after the Second World



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War of bare-faced aggression and greed, collective and individual. Very recently in historical and archaeological work a reaction from this unfavourable view can be seen: Rome cared for her subjects, and her rule was accordingly acceptable; and the Empire came about through collaboration between Roman and native élites. Whatever one's view, it is important to beware of accepting half-truths as the whole.

In using the book, readers should remember how closely domestic political issues are intertwined with military, provincial and foreign, even how an emperor's success at Rome depended on his success abroad.

As in other LACTORS, passages from major writers accessible in the Penguin Classics, World's Classics, and other series are given in reference form only: here Tacitus (with one exception), Suetonius, Cassius Dio as far as the items in LACTOR 15 go, and the *Letters* of the younger Pliny). Inscriptions already available in LACTOR 8 are not normally translated here; I have simply given a reference to that publication.

Material is confined to the period AD 14–117, except for a few items that may throw light on that period. All dates are of the Christian era unless otherwise indicated; when Roman datings by consul or emperor's regnal year appear in a text, or a Greek month system, an equivalent has been given as well. All documents are translated from Latin except where indicated. Cross references give readers access to as much diverse material as possible in a book of small compass; items are numbered consecutively throughout.



1. DEVELOPMENTS IN IMPERIALISM

Rome's imperialist drive did not die out under the Principate: maintaining the Empire demanded further profitable conquest, and the emperor himself needed warfare to justify his power and military success to give him more glory than any other commander. Augustus did not just consolidate: he added important provinces to the Empire, such as Egypt and Galatia, and waged aggressive war in Germany from 12 BC until AD 9. Tiberius continued operations in a more cautious way, through diplomacy, while Claudius launched the definitive invasion of Britain (43), taking a conspicuous part himself. When Nero was brought down in 68 he was planning an expedition to the Caucasus in the steps of Pompey the Great. After the civil wars of 68–9, Vespasian restarted the advance west and north in Britain, into Wales and southern Scotland. He also carried through a modest version of Augustus' plans for Germany, occupying lands east of the Rhine. These acquisitions were extended by Domitian along the Danube, and he laid out a whole system of fortifications east of the Rhine.

The Flavians adhered to established imperialist doctrines, as the boundary markers set up at Rome show: they commemorated the fact that Vespasian and Titus, like Claudius, had extended the limits of the Roman Empire, and accordingly those of the city (LACTOR 8, 56). Vespasian built a Temple to Peace (*Pax*), completed in 75, but it was Peace as in 'pacification' (cf. Tacitus, *Agr*. 30.5). About the same time, Pliny was eulogising her.

Pliny, Natural History 27.3. To think that other plants besides those I have already mentioned are transported from other places, backwards and forwards all over the world for the welfare of the human race, as the boundless majesty of the Roman peace brings into view in turn not only human beings with their different environments and peoples, but also mountains and ranges that reach up into the clouds, the living beings they bring forth, and their plants as well. May that gift of the gods last for ever, I pray! For they seem to have given the Romans as a second source of light for the affairs of human beings.

Domitian's struggles with tribes from north of the Danube and with the Dacians in particular were followed up by Trajan, whose two Dacian wars against King Decebalus (101–2, 104–6) began as an attempt to reduce Decebalus to the status of a dependant and ended with the creation of a new province, Dacia. Trajan was less successful in the East. His annexation of Armenia (114) and attack on the heart of the Parthian territory in Mesopotamia (115–16) was speedy, but ephemeral. As belief in total conquest waned, a suspicion took its place that what was worth acquiring had already been acquired, and, in Britain, more than that: so Appian.

Appian, Roman History, Preface 5. All the islands that are in the Mediterranean ... all these are subject to the Romans. And having crossed the northern Ocean to Britain, which is bigger than a large continent, they hold the choicest part of it, more than half, wanting nothing from the rest of it; not even the part they hold is very profitable for them.



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2.1 Germany

The costly campaigns of 12 BC – AD 6 ended with the defeat of P. Quintilius Varus in 9, but not all the forts in Germany were given up. Germanicus (12–16) staged invasions on a grand scale in his last two years, and clearly intended ultimately to restore Roman rule in German territory between the Rhine and the Elbe. They also were costly, and Germanicus was removed to a command in the East (see Section 2.5 below); his adoptive brother Drusus Caesar must also be given a chance (see Section 2.2 below). (Cf. Tacitus, *Ann.* 1.50–2, 55–71; 2.5–26.)

3 Dio 57.6.1 and 18.1. But Germanicus, afraid even so that the troops would mutiny again, invaded enemy territory and provided them with work there, as well as quantities of supplies from what belonged to others ... [18.1] Germanicus, having acquired a good reputation on the basis of his campaign against the Germans, advanced to the Ocean and decisively defeated the barbarians. He collected up the bones of those who had fallen with Varus and buried them, and recovered the military standards.

Gaius Caligula conducted what may have been exercises in Germany in 39, perhaps following the example of his father Germanicus. Claudius and Nero followed Tiberius' policy of encouraging the German tribes to destroy each other and a commander who in 47 ventured too far into Germany in hot pursuit (Cn. Domitius Corbulo) was told to withdraw (Dio 59.21.3 = LACTOR 15, p. 78; Tacitus, *Ann.* 11.18–19; Suetonius, *Cal.* 45–6).

It was Vespasian who renewed the advance and the 'conquest that was taking so long' (Tacitus, *Germ.* 37.4), aiming at the re-entrant angle between the sources of the Rhine and the Danube, the area called the *Decumates Agri* by Tacitus, *Germ.* 29.3. Roads were built and a town to serve as centre for the area. Arae Flaviae.

4 MW 416. Milestone, Offenburg. *c.* **73.** When Caesar [Domitian, son of Augustus,] was consul for the [?third] time and Cn. Cornelius Clemens legate [of Augustus with praetorian rank,] the route was laid down [from] Argentorate to R[aetia] (*or*, to the R[iver Danube's bank])

The triumphal decorations of the general who occupied the area may have been due rather to his rôle in suppressing Civilis' revolt of 69–70 (see Section 3.6 below) than to achievements in the *Decumates Agri*.

5 MW 50. From Hispellum, Umbria. Cn. Pinarius Cornelius [Clemens], son of Lucius, of the Papirian tribe, legate with praetorian rank of the army [stationed in Upper Germany, curator of] sacred [buildings] and public places [---], with triumphal decorations [on account of successes] in Germany

Domitian was active further north on the Rhine, defeating the Chatti in 83, and establishing a frontier marked by a wooden palisade, along the Wetterau east of the



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Rhine. This was a permanent achievement, although the reports of senatorial historians hostile to the emperor are unfavourable.

6 Dio 67.3.5 – 4.1. And after this (trial of the Vestals, c. 83) he set out for Gaul and plundered some of the peoples beyond the Rhine who enjoyed treaties with Rome. He became as puffed up as if he had put something important to rights and he increased the soldiers' pay, perhaps on account of the victory; each man had been receiving 75 drachmas, and he ordered them to be given 100. When he came to regret this, he did not decrease the amount, but cut down the number of soldiers. On both accounts the damage he did to the state was considerable: he made the numbers of men defending it inadequate and those that it did have costly to pay for. [4.1] He made a foray into Germany and returned without even having caught a glimpse of warfare. Why should I go on to talk about the honours that were conferred both on him at that time and on occasion on other emperors similar to him with the idea of preventing them from suspecting from the paucity and insignificance of the honours that they had been seen through, and so getting angry?

In about 90 the Cherusci had to acknowledge the change in their position, and the Romans accepted the fact that their Cheruscan puppet ruler could not command adequate support in the tribe.

7 Dio 67.5.1. Chariomerus, king of the Cherusci, had been driven out of his kingdom by the Chatti because of his friendship with the Romans. At first he enlisted the help of some others and made a successful return, but later, when he sent hostages to the Romans, they deserted him. He threw himself on Domitian's mercy, and although he received no military backup, he was given financial support.

Domitian's advance is marked on the coinage.

8 MW 57. Sestertius. **85.** Obverse. Bust of Domitian, laureate, bearded, with aegis. EMPEROR CAESAR DOMITIAN AUGUSTUS GERMANICUS ELEVEN TIMES CONSUL.

Reverse. German, standing in front of trophy, hands tied behind back; German woman seated, mourning. GERMANY ANNEXED. BY DECREE OF THE SENATE.

Domitian was not totally successful: the Chatti were still involved in the revolt of Antonius Saturninus, commander of the Upper Rhine army, in January 89, when they were prevented from helping him only by a thawing of the river (Suetonius, *Dom.* 6.2). The revolt was put down by the commander of the Lower Rhine army, A. Lappius Maximus, and a campaign against the Chatti followed, for which Domitian celebrated a triumph (LACTOR 8, 71). It was a 'German War'.

9 MW 60. Rome. To [---]elia, wife of [L]appius Maximus, who brought the German War to an end.



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In 97 Nerva received the title Germanicus for Trajan's success in Germany (LACTOR 8, 76(e) and (f)), but danger in this area was diminished by continuing strife between the tribes (Tacitus, *Germ.* 33).

Under the Flavians, after 77 when Pliny published the *Natural Histories*, the military commands of the Upper and Lower Rhine armies became regular provincial governorships of the two military zones.

2.2 The Danube

There was no sharp distinction between the Rhine and Danube spheres of operation: Tacitus' *Germania* deals with tribes beyond both rivers, but Roman territory south of the Danube was particularly threatened by tribes living beyond it and by Roxolani ('Red Alans'), immigrants from the steppes of Asia who had other tribes behind them. Then there were the well-organised Dacians under King Decebalus, who had already been considered a serious threat in Caesar's time. The power of this kingdom was due to its wealth in gold, which also made it an attractive target.

The increasing importance of the Danube from Augustus to Trajan during this period is shown by the build-up of legions and auxiliary forces, and by the splitting into two provinces of Moesia in the mid-eighties.

MW 307. From Andautonia, Pannonia. To Lucius Funisulanus Vettonianus, son of Lucius, of the Aniensis tribe, military tribune of the Sixth, Victorious, Legion, quaestor of the province of Sicily, tribune of the plebs, praetor, legate of the Fourth, Scythian, Legion, prefect of the Aerarium of Saturn, curator of the Aemilian Road, consul, member of the seven-man college of priests in charge of banquets, legate of praetorian rank of the province of Dalmatia, likewise of the province of Pannonia, and of Upper Moesia, awarded [by Emperor Domitian Augustus Germanicus] in the Dacian War four crowns, mural, rampart, naval and golden, four untipped spears, four banners. By decree of the city council, to its patron.

Pannonia was also divided after the Dacian War, 106: Sm. *N–H* 352 is a military discharge certificate of 19 November 102, that mentions units 'in Pannonia under Q. Glitius Agricola', while the future Emperor Hadrian governed part of the divided province.

11 *Historia Augusta*, *Hadrian* 3.8–10. (Hadrian) became praetor ... [9] Afterwards he was sent as legate with praetorian rank to Lower Pannonia. He brought the Sarmatians under control, maintained discipline among the soldiers, and checked the procurators, who were straying too far from the proper path. [10] Consequently he was made consul (108).

Splitting provinces helped deal with the length of the frontier along the Danube and the multiplicity of potential opponents.

Already from 17 to 20 Drusus Caesar held a special commission in the Balkans, supervising the existing provinces, Dalmatia and Pannonia (if they were already separated), and probably Moesia as well. Drusus helped bring about the fall of the



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formidable King Maroboduus of the Marcomanni and eventually placed the remains of the kingdom in the hands of the Quadian Vannius (Tacitus, *Ann.* 2.44–6; 3.7; 10). Drusus' officers also dealt with pirates operating in the Dardanelles.

12 EJ² 227. Ilium, Asia. Greek. The council and people honoured Titus Valerius Proculus, procurator of Drusus Caesar, who destroyed the pirate vessels in the Hellespont and kept the city in every respect free of burdens.

In 50 Vannius was expelled by his nephews Vangio and Sido, and Claudius ordered a watch on the Danube (Tacitus, *Ann.* 12.29–30). Unrest in the reign of Nero was met by an energetic response from the governor of Moesia, Tiberius Plautius Aelianus Silvanus (LACTOR 8, 42). Hostile incursions over the Danube began in the winter of 67–8: the Roxolani, now in Wallachia, had cut up two auxiliary cohorts, but in February 69 an expedition of up to 9,000 tribesmen was destroyed by the Third, Gallica, Legion and auxiliary troops (Tacitus, *Hist.* 1.79.1–4.). But the Flavian leadership withdrew troops and in late September 69 the Dacians moved against Oescus and Novae. Mucianus' task-force, en route for Italy, turned north, and the Sixth, Ferrata, Legion went to repel the Dacians (Tacitus, *Hist.* 3.46). In late autumn, C. Fonteius Agrippa was brought up from Asia with additional forces, to co-ordinate defence. (Cf. Section 3.6 below for the rebellion Josephus mentions.)

13 Josephus, Jewish War 7.89-95. At the very same time as the revolt of the Germans that I have described there coincided a bold attack on the Romans made by the Scythians. [90] For the section of the Scythians called the Sarmatians, who are very numerous, crossed the Danube to the Roman side without being noticed. The incursion was very violent and they were hard to deal with because their arrival was totally unexpected. They massacred large numbers of the Romans on guard, [91] including the legate and ex-consul Fonteius Agrippa who came up to meet them, and whom they killed fighting valiantly. They overran the whole adjacent country, plundering and pillaging whatever they fell on. [92] Vespasian heard what had happened and of the devastation of Moesia and sent Rubrius Gallus to bring the Sarmatians to justice. [93] At his hands numbers of them fell in the fighting and the remnant fled in terror to their own territory. [94] The general, having put an end to the war in this way, took thought for future security. He distributed larger garrisons in the area and at more frequent intervals, so as to make the crossing completely impossible for the barbarians. [95] The war in Moesia, then, reached a quick resolution in this way.

At the north-eastern extremity of Roman dominions, Vespasian had reaffirmed the Roman protectorate in the Bosporan kingdom; Rhescuporis ruled from 77 to 96.

14 MW 233. Phanagoria, Crimean Bosporus. Greek. Emperor Vespasian Caesar [Augustus, Supreme Pontiff, hailed Imperator] for the sixth time, Father of the Fatherland, [three times consul, designated consul for the fourth time], lord of the entire Bosporus [---] piously, justly, of the hereditary king Tiberius Claudius Rhescuporis, son of King Julius [---], friend of Caesar, friend of the Romans, High Priest of the Augusti for life, and benefactor of his fatherland [---]



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15 MW 236. Bosporus. *Aureus* **of 87.** *Obverse.* Bust of Rhescuporis II, wearing diadem. TIBERIUS JULIUS KING RHESCUPORIS.

Reverse. Head of Domitian, laureate. 384 (year of the Bosporan era)

On the Danube, Domitian continued Vespasian's advance north of the river. Flavian defensive measures were adequate until the early eighties. The sixth-century monk Jordanes summarised activities in his history of his people.

Jordanes, Getica 12–13. This country within sight of Moesia on the far side 16 of the Danube is surrounded by a ring of mountains. It has only two routes into it, one by Boutae, the other by Tapae ... [13] For after a long interval, when Emperor Domitian was on the throne and they feared his greed, the Goths broke the treaty that they had long since struck with other emperors. They laid waste the Danube bank, which had long been in possession of the Romans, crushing the troops along with their generals. Oppius Sabinus was governing the province at that time, after Agrippa, while the Goths were under the rule of Dorpaneus. The Goths embarked on the war, defeated the Romans, cut off the head of Sabinus, took over numerous forts and settlement, openly plundering what belonged to the emperor. This was a crisis for his people, and Domitian hastened with all his forces into Illyricum, with soldiers drawn from almost the entire state. Fuscus as general was sent on ahead, along with the cream of the soldiery, and making a pontoon bridge of boats he forced them to cross the River Danube beyond the army of Dorpaneus. Then the Dacians, proving no slouches, took up their weapons, and, armed as they were, in the first encounter lost no time in defeating the Romans. The commander Fuscus was killed, and they stripped the camp of the solders' valuables. Having won an important victory in the region, they now began to call their leading warriors, as men who had won their victory with fortune's favour, not simple men, but demigods – 'Anses' in their language.

There was a Dacian incursion into Moesia in the winter of 84–5. It was met by the governor Oppius Sabinus, but he was killed (Suetonius, *Dom.* 6.1). Domitian was summoned from his activities on the Rhine to meet the challenge in 85 and organise reprisals; he never returned to Germany; but his use of Cornelius Fuscus, Prefect of the Praetorian Guard, as commander against the Dacians proved disastrous.

- Dio 67.6.1, 3–5. The Romans had a very serious war on their hands with the Dacians, whose king at that time was Decebalus. He was formidable in the theory and practice of warfare, good at choosing the moment to attack and equally opportune in retreat, a skilled hand at ambushes and effective in pitched battles; he knew how to follow up a victory well and how to manage a reverse. This certainly made him a worthy opponent of the Romans over a long period ... [6.3] So Domitian made an expedition against them; not that he took personal control of the war, but stayed in a city in Moesia, behaving in his usual outrageous way ... [6.4] He sent other commanders to the war, more often with bad results.
 - [6.5] Decebalus, king of the Dacians, was sending envoys to Domitian with promises of peace. But Domitian sent Fuscus against him with a large force. When Decebalus heard of this he sent another embassy to him with the idea of scoffing at him. The proposal was to make peace with Domitian on condition that



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every Roman should opt to pay Decebalus a tribute of two obols *per annum*; if he did not, Decebalus would make war on them and inflict huge misfortunes on them

An attack on the capital Sarmizegethusa had to be put off and a peace patched up: the Quadi and Marcomanni were causing trouble again in 89, perhaps provoked by Roman activities.

- **18 Dio 67.7.1–4.** Domitian wanted to pay out the Quadi and Marcomanni because they had not helped him against the Dacians. He entered Pannonia to make war on them, and killed the second set of envoys who had been sent to talk peace.
 - [7.2] Domitian, defeated by the Marcomanni and taking to flight, lost no time in sending to Decebalus king of the Dacians, and induced him to make a truce which he had formerly refused Decebalus when he frequently requested it. Decebalus accepted the truce: he had been through extreme hardships. All the same, Domitian was not willing to negotiate with Decebalus face to face, but sent Diegis with some men to present Decebalus with weapons and some prisoners, allegedly the only ones he had. [7.3] When this had been done, Domitian put a diadem on the head of Diegis as if he had won a real victory and was in a position to bestow any king on the Dacians; and to the soldiers he gave awards and money. And among the other things he sent to Rome, as if he had won a victory, were envoys from Decebalus and what he claimed was a letter from Decebalus, which he was said to have forged. [7.4] He used a good deal of triumphal furniture to make the festival finer, objects that were not selected from items he had captured. Quite the reverse: he had actually spent extra on the truce, giving quantities of money to Decebalus on the spot, and workers skilled at every trade whether of war or peace, and promising to go on giving quantities in perpetuity. The items on display came from the imperial furniture.
- 19 MW 140. Puteoli. 86. To Emperor Caesar Domitian Augustus Germanicus, son of the deified Vespasian, Supreme Pontiff, in his [sixth] year of tribunician power, hailed Imperator for the thirteenth time, consul twelve times, censor for an unlimited period, Father of the Fatherland, the Flavian Augustan Colony of Puteoli, through the condescension of the greatest and divine Princeps, the Dacian victory, to [-] (*The whole inscription had been erased*.)

The Roman defeat at the hands of the Dacians was avenged by Tettius Julianus in 88.

Dio 67.10.1–3. These things also worth noting happened in the Dacian War. Julianus, who had been put in charge of the war by the Emperor, prepared for it well in a number of ways, including ordering the soldiers to write their own names and those of their centurions on their shields, to make any of them who did anything particularly good or bad more easily recognisable. [10.2] He encountered the enemy at Tapae and slaughtered a very large number of them. Lying among the enemy dead was Vezinas, Decebalus' second-in-command, who, since he could not get away alive, collapsed deliberately, pretending to be dead already, and consequently got away unseen. [10.3] Decebalus, then, afraid that the Romans



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would exploit their victory to make for the royal headquarters, felled the trees on the site and dressed the stumps in armour, so that the Romans might mistake them for soldiers, take fright, and withdraw; which was just what happened.

War broke out again in 92 with the Sarmatians and Suebi, who had united.

21 Dio 67.5.2. In Moesia the Lygians, who had been at war with the Suebi, sent envoys asking for an alliance from Domitian, and obtained one that was not strong in numbers, but was distinguished: for only one hundred cavalrymen were given them. The Suebi took offence at this, united some Iazyges with themselves, and began preparations to cross the Danube with them.

Domitian himself went to the scene and detachments of nine legions took part under the equestrian C. Velius Rufus (LACTOR 8, 79). But this was the war in which the Twenty-first, Rapax, Legion was lost; Domitian celebrated only an ovation. The high cost of these wars is shown by the altar erected to the memory of c. 3,000 killed.

22 ILS 9107. Adamklisi.

[In ...] memory of the most valiant [men] [who ...] met their death in defence of the Republic

The fragments reveal the names of Romans from Italy (the commanding officer from Pompeii), Narbonensian Gaul, the Rhineland, and Noricum; many peregrine names, belonging to auxiliary troops, are mentioned.

Domitian also undertook engineering works.

MW 420. By the cataracts of the Lower Danube, near Taliata in Upper Moesia. 92–3. Emperor Caesar [Domitian] Augustus Germanicus, son of the deified Vespasian, Supreme Pontiff, in his twenty-second year of tribunician power, consul for the sixteenth time, censor for an unlimited period, Father of the Fatherland, by means of [new] works from Taliata re[made and extended] the route along the Scrofulae [-], which had been eroded by age and the floods from the Danube. The Seventh, Claudian, Legion, devoted and loyal.

German and Sarmatian wars in the reigns preceding Trajan's were the basis of many a distinguished military career.

Sm. *N*–*H* **297. Tifernum Mataurense, Umbria.** To Lucius Aconius Statura, son of Lucius, of the Clustumina tribe, centurion of the Eleventh, Claudian, Legion, devoted and loyal, of the Fourth, Flavian, Legion, the firm, of the Fifth, Macedonian, Legion, of the Seventh, Claudian, Legion, devoted and loyal; awarded decorations by Emperor Trajan Augustus Germanicus for the Dacian War, twisted necklets, armbands, and chest-plates, the rampart crown; and by earlier leaders awarded the same decorations for the German and Sarmatian war; transferred by the deified Trajan from his military service to the rank of eques; quinquennial magistrate and pontiff at Ariminum; quinquennial magistrate, flamen, and pontiff at Tifernum Mataurense. Lucius Aconius Statura, his son, in accordance with his will. At the dedication of the monument he provided a