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**PHYSICAL EXERCISES,GAMES AND SPORT CONTESTS ON THE  
TERRITORY OF DACIAN PROVINCES**

**PHD THESIS**

**Summary**

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## Introduction

**The purpose of this paper** is to bring the history of sport and physical education in the province of Dacia in the current knowledge on the subject of the Roman Empire, respectively from more developed provinces of the Empire.

The work will complete the basic dates regarding the integration of the Province of Dacia in the Empire structures and assuming the Roman models, contributing in this way to complete the idea of the romanization of the province.

**The current status of researches** and knowledges is pretty much left behind.

We can say, based on the existing references, that it does not exist a systematical and conducted research in this area of Roman Dacia history. As a result, also the knowledges regarding the physical exercises, sport contests and games from Dacian provinces of Romania are far behind in comparison with those of developed countries in Western Europe.

There are known now only two paper works that, in theory, addresses to this topic. This paper works belongs to E. Ghibu-I. Todan (Ghibu-Todan 1970) and to N. Postolache (Postolache 1979). But both of them presents only vague references. The first paper refers to modern and contemporary epoch, so the title does not match the content.

The second paper presents vague references about the amphitheatres from Ulpia Traiana and Porolissum, where "are being attested fights with gladiators and animals" (!), *The baths of Drobeta and Romula (where the author believes they are palaestra!)*. The only good and probably true observation is that "they enter in Dacia, under the influence of Roman culture, entertaining manifestations, bloody fights and games organized in amphitheatres./". He mentions also about the travels on Roman roads, from which, one (which will be detailed presented in tourism repertoire) has a touristic travel character.

There are several paper works that are reduced as content and incomplete regarding the topics that deals with various branches of sports: amphitheatres and gladiatures (Alicu-Opreanu 2000), with brain games and gambling (*Paki-Cociş 1993*) and a lot of small articles and poor studies that are publishing statues of athletes (athletes, dancers, gladiators, fighters), graphical representation on different objects or

monuments(dancers, gladiators) and also many pieces from brain games and gambling,most of them found in Roman camps(monographic published)(see bibliography).

So,the data that we have now (but the documentary research is not yet finished) are few and vague,and the information refers especially to amphitheatres and to the stories related to them.There is no connection yet with the inscriptions and the dacian - roman archeology.Both books (Ghibu-Todan 1970; Postolache 1979) have no adjacent illustration. M. Macrea(Macrea 1969, p 349) gives a plan of amphitheatre from Ulpia Traiana.

### **Sources of the paper**

We must underline from the beginning that in comparison with the written sources, monuments and representations that can be found in the western provinces of the Roman Empire, our patrimony(from the dacian territory) is quite poor.

- a. we do not have have a literary sources;
- b. Epigraphic sources reminds only the existence of some athletics,without giving any explanatory notes. . IDR III/6, p. 163, nr. 311: Herculanus – gladiator – Apulum; p. 227, nr. 423 (Longinus – armoured car leader – Apulum). In volume III/2, p. 51-63 presents architectural elements belonging to Ulpia Traiana amphitheatre,especially owner chairs,some of them with inscriptions fragments.
- c. we have several large stone monuments with representations of people who do "sport";one of this kind is the monument with two women dancers from Ulpia Traiana.
- d. there are more sportive basis and we refer here only to amphitheatres. Today, there are known amphitheatres at Ulpia Traiana ,Micia, Porolissum;there are suppositions regarding this kind of constructions,based on the discovery of some pieces related to amphitheatre at Apulum, Potaissa, Drobeta Napoca;
  - e.it has not been identified any circus, or a stadium;
  - f.many representations made of bronze(statues), chandeliers presents gladiators, gymnasts, acrobats, athletes, fighters, dancers;
  - g. there are a few representations(graphitized drawings)

on the bricks with gladiators

h. there are more pieces connected with brain games and gambling; bricks with the game drawn (backgammon), dice and discs made of bone, clay or glass for the movement on the board. The number of these pieces is very large in settlements like Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa (*Paki-Cociş 1993*), Porolissum (*Gudea 1989*), Buciumi (*Chirilă et alii 1972*) etc..

### **Research and presentation methods**

Regarding the research of this area and publication of the resulted data there were and still are three main problems:

- a. fixing the terminology that meet both the ancient and the romanian current (which is international);
- b. establishing a comprehensive and complete list of sport exercises from antiquity in order to be able to select, based on the repertory, which sports activities were practiced in Dacia;
- c. the presentation way of each monument chosen as the subject of the repertory
- d. elaborating a bibliography that contain papers about all aspects of antique sportive life from Dacia, starting with analogies of the Empire and continuing with sources and works about artifacts from different localities. Data about the ancient sport and the history of physical education of the Empire, will serve, of course, as models and guides.

The bibliography created until now includes, I believe, about 80% of Romanian historical literature on the subject. I added, of course, some illustrations and I stopped on presentation methods. I chose *Corpus Signorum Imperii Romani* system because it corresponds to archaeological and scientific exigencies.

The terminology I have presented in the previous section I.3.

To identify and determine activities of physical education in Dacia, it was necessary to review on one hand, literary and epigraphic sources of Empire relating to sports activities, on the other hand, the entire historical-sportive literature that gives valuable archaeological discoveries confirming the literary

and epigraphic sources. So, I made a list of sports activities, classified in six categories:

**physical exercises** (throwing the javelin, riding, marching, swimming, etc..) that occurs in the circus or the baths palestres (where were runnings and sport fields ) or even outside Rome, Field of Mars ) (Lascu 1965, p 394-395, Etienne 1970, p 351; Aries-Duby 1994, p 200; Iordanescu 2003, p 25);

#### **proper games**

- ball games, which were practiced in baths and outdoor (Lascu 1965, p 395, 388-390; Iordanescu 2003, p 116; Aries-Duby 1994, p 200);
- games of intelligence and luck that were practiced in the for, in private houses ,on stadiums and camps (especially in the soldiers barracks, where were found most of such artifacts);
- the extent to which intelligent games are also games of luck, was underlined by N. Lascu (Lascu 1965, p 390-393).

**sports competitions:1.professional sports** (pancrațiu-pentathlon, wrestling pugilat). In this sense a big help is an inscription from Pompei (CIL X 1074 = ILS 5053, 4) enhanced by the Etienne 1970, pp. 351, 371-377. In this text, Aulus Claudius Flaccus, duumvir quinquenalis, chosen for the third time, tells the "facts" that he did for the city:

- first duumvirat: he organized in for shows with clowns, fights with bulls, pugilat;
- the second duumvirat: he organized in for fights with bulls, pugilat; in the amphitheater - athletes, gladiators, fights with animals, fighters;
- third duumvirat: buffoons.

Unfortunately we have no data about pancrațiu and pentathlon complex competitions.

#### **sports competitions:2.public games**

- in circus - horse racings, cart racings (Lascu 1965, p 405-410; Iordanescu 2003, pp. 126-128);

- in amphitheatre: fights with animals (venatio), gladiators fights (Lascu 1965, p 410-420; Aries-Duby 1994, p 202; Iordanescu 2003, pp. 124-126, Etienne 1970, p 377; Tudor 1976, pp. 84-92);

- naval battles (in the amphitheater and on lakes) (Iordanescu 2003, p 126).

**dance**, as a way to public show

- in the amphitheater (especially in pompous procession of entry and at the circus) (Lascu 1965, p 397-398).

**tourism** (travels with economical interest, scientific interest, pleasure, etc) .

- on the roads between different cities, at different distances; on the sea (Casson 1974, pp. 115-329, Roman epoch).

From this list of six main areas (which I can and hope to fill up until the investigation is completed) I will choose, based on the discoveries about Dacia and, especially, on the certain identification of sport activities, everything that is useful ,by forming a repertory and a summary table.



## CHAPTER II. ROMAN EMPIRE. SUMMARY

### **The extension and the organization of the Empire, provinces, the duration of life, institutions**

For the period we are interested in sports movement in Roman antiquity, we are talking about the Roman Empire which had its beginnings in the late first century BC. and it touched its apogee at the end of the fourth century (after that it was dismembered).

In the early first century AD. Empire held in an organized way, only Italy, Hispania, Gaul, Greece, Cilicia, Crete and North Africa. In the first century were conquered Noricum, Dalmatia, Raetian, Germany, Britannia, Moesia and Thracia. In the second century were conquered Dacia, Mesopotamia, Armenia. Roman Empire reached the apogee of its extent. . At the end of the third century began territorial losses which were never recovered (Dacia, Germany Higher partial = Agri Decumates, Armenia (*Bechert 1999*, passim). However, in these first four centuries the Roman Empire was extent on three continents: Europe (western, central and south-east, from Britannia to the Black Sea and Aegean Sea), North Africa, from Gibraltar to the mouth of the Nile, Asia Minor and the Arabian territories (Syria, Liban, Palestine).

This territory was divided into provinces which were called after the people who lived there. In I-III centuries, there were 50 provinces, in the fourth century (after 285) were reorganized 101 and then 117 provinces (*ECR*, p 630-631, *Bechert 1999*, pp. 5-13).

During this period, the Roman state was led in a centralized way, in two forms: in I-III centuries principality (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 237-250) and IV-VI centuries domination (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 524-642). Octavianus, nephew of Julius Caesar called himself princeps, and the first three centuries

have been known since antiquity "principality". Year 27 BC. is widely and traditionally considered the beginning of the Roman Empire.

Principality was an authoritarian monarchy with extended juridical status from republican epoch (*ECR*, p 614-626). Under the principality, they have kept the old republican institutions, but new institutions and adequate bureaucracy appeared. Under domination, the leadership of the state became totalitarian (*ECR*, p 267-276) and were

preserved only the name of old institutions, all of them becoming subordinated tools of dominus's .



The head of state was at first , the princeps (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 239-241, 244-247). Thanks to the titles and special powers invested in him, he became master of the state, commander of the army, father of the fatherland; he had personal bodyguard and then, its own army; he was the supreme judge, supreme head of the Roman religion; he had a private administrative staff (consisting of slaves and their libertii) which then became a state apparatus. As I mentioned above, at first, the officials were slaves and libertii (*ECR*, p 431) and then, they were replaced with knights. The emperor was helped in leading the state by a concilium principis, created by Augustus, a deliberative organ composed from persons chosen by the princeps, after skills. Gradually, this concilium had substituted to the Senate, becoming an essential element in government (*ECR*, p 215).

Senate, was a traditional political institution , designed to advise the emperor; in the epoch of the Republic , it was a citadel of aristocracy; it proposed and confirmed laws; it named and suspended the magistrats , it controled the religious activity, it conducted foreign policy. Under the principality, Senate became gradually dependent of princeps , its members were appointed by him. The activity has become very limited (*ECR*, p 715-716). Under domination , when the monarchy became absolute , the Senate and the magistracies were reduced to simple elements of political decorations. In their place, appeared specialized bureaucratic and hierarchical institutions.

Dominus was an oriental type leader (*ECR*, p 267-276; *Cizek 2002*, pp. 571-577). He was assisted by a consilium consisting of knights; the bureaucracy, very dense, was named by the emperor. Serving the state has become mandatory, it was a militia. State was reformed political, administrative and military. The capital of the state was moved to Constantinople, a better place to manage the activity towards all three continents.

Province remained the main territorial unit. It was an administrative unit established on the ethnic basis of the territory. Under the principality, the border provinces were led by Emperor legates; inside provinces without troops were led by legates elected from senators , appointed by the emperor. Under domination, the provinces were led by a financial administrative praeses and the troops, by a dux; these were independent functions. There were outlined several socio-economic processes: moving centers of economic, military and political influence to the border provinces, Italy was then lowered to the provinces level; later, Rome was abandoned as the capital;

structures and pagan religious organization eroded during the time and it was abandoned in the favour of Christianity.

Empire army was the institution on which the foreign policy of conquests and domestic policy of maintaining slavery regime based; it consisted exclusively of professional soldiers. It was composed of elite units (legions; *Ritterling 1924*) and auxiliary troops (*Holder 1980, Wagner 1938*). Provincial military structures were different and have changed in the first three centuries (*ECR*, p 92-94; *Cizek 2002*, pp. 257-259, 343, 347). Most of the army stationed on the borders, in order to defend the state and ensure peace. In the capital, at Rome, stationed troops which were to personal disposal of the Emperor. Along with legions and auxiliary troops (alae, cohortes) there were functioning irregular formations recruited from allied nations that fought under the command of its own with its own weapons. At first, under Augustus, were 25 legions. Legion was a tactical unit formed by five thousand soldiers; at the beginning of the third century their number rose to thirty three; under domination, legions were abolished and transformed into smaller units (formed by five hundred or one thousand soldiers). Auxiliary troops were two hundred and fifty as number, and these were either cavalry (alae), infantry (cohortes) or mixed (cohortes equitatae) troops. Legions were composed only of Roman citizens (which was a social quality). Auxiliary troops were composed of free men, which, at the end of military service, became Roman citizens. So, the auxiliary troops were the basic source of social group of Roman citizens. Irregular formations were composed, as I mentioned above, from allies of the Romans, who could promote socially, but slower. It is estimated that the total army was formed by 450,000 Roman soldiers. Roman army was an important factor in controlling the state by the emperor, an important political force and an instrument of Romanization.

Military service was 20-25 years. At the end of military service, the soldier was provided with money and land.

Under domination, military structure has changed. Troops from the border remained fewer and weaker from tactical point of view; internally, it has been developed a campaign army, led directly by the emperor, a mobile army based especially on cavalry. Legion as the basic core of the army has gone (*ECR*, p, 420-424). It has been developed new types of troops. All were led by the emperor (*ECR*, p 213-214). The role of the

infantry troops dropped almost completely, but it increased the role of cavalry and archers instead. Recruitment has been extended also to barbarians.

### **Roman society in I-III and IV centuries AD.**

Under this title we will briefly present the mechanisms of Roman economy and data about proper society and religion.

State economy (*ECR*, p 288-290; *Cizek 2002*, pp. 276-279, 347-351, 452-456) has been in a continuous development in I-III centuries, starting to decline in the fourth century, when it was the end of the slavery economy. Under the principality, it continued the development of the three traditional branches of Roman economy: agriculture and cattle breeding, commerce and trades, all together providing state finances. At first, of course, Italy was the main producer of cereals, olive oil and vegetables. But agricultural development has spread to provinces as the army stationed there; there was the need of food for the soldiers, and also of fodder for horses and burden animals. So provinces like Egyptus, Africa, Pannonia became major producers of cereals, Dalmatia, Moesia and Thrace - animals breeders, especially horses for the army. At the beginning, agricultural production was based on slaves, but then went it has been changed into colonate. The developed agricultural Roman system, advanced, supported by writings, has spread in the provinces through the colonization of the soldiers (veterans) or ordinary colonists. It has been used used certain technological innovations: the hard plough, the reaper, water mill etc. The policy of the empire was mercantile, based on mass production. And, therefore, economical development was uneven. There were advanced and economically developed provinces (especially in Western Empire) and there were provinces left behind. The growth of olives and viticulture have developed fast due to high demand for food oils and for lighting oils and needs of wine consumption (mainly consumed as vinegar). Olive crops have spread from Italy to Hispania, Africa, Greece and Minor Asia. It appeared a large class of non-traditional landowners. It is known the case of affranchised Gaius Caecilius Isidorus, who left at his death 10,000 ha of cultivated land, 3,600 yoke of oxen, 257,000 small animals, 4,116 slaves (*Cizek 2002*, p 276). In parallel with land exploitation it also developed the animals breeding, for food consumption (meat, milk, cheese), and also for industrial consumption (clothing, footwear) or materials for army (tents, shirts, belts, etc.).

Trades were greatly expanded and became very different. In fact, modern historians who have dealt with Rome believe that trades production had an industrial character. The branches are very numerous and we will not remember all of them. First of all it had been developed ceramic industry Production of ceramic building materials (bricks, tiles, pipes for water, heating installations, etc..). Secondly, it has been developed materials for storing food and agricultural products; cooking pots, tables for eating (serving food), drinking vessels; an important place was occupied by luxury vessels for house decoration. From Italy, from Arezzo and Pisa, the production of luxury vessels spread to Gaul (Lezoux, Trier, Rheinzabern), then to the east, in Raetia, Pannonia, Moesia and Dacia. Exploitation of iron, lead, copper, silver and gold has grown. Provinces like Britannia, Hispania, Dalmatia, Moesia and Dacia became famous for the exploitations of gold, lead, copper (Britannia), gold and silver (Hispania and Dacia), copper and iron (Dalmatia and Moesia).

Metallurgy has developed serving construction, army and agriculture. It has been developed a whole industry of objects and bronze vessels. In these areas it was reached a standardization. Not to mention the role of expensive metals in the production of coins (aureus), argent (dinars) and various ornaments.

The modernization of the Empire, consisting in typical constructions for the cities, building roads to link the provinces of Rome, construction of fortifications near the border, but then, later, inside the cities, led to the development of stone quarries, construction materials and marble. It became famous quarries in central Italy, Moesia, and Greek islands.

Trades related to the production of clothing, footwear (weavings, leather goods, etc..) were developed because of subject populations desire to dress like Romans. These trades imposed the cultivation some plants that are called today industrial plants (flax, hemp, cotton, etc.).

All this spreaded production and the dependence on raw materials and, especially, on social needs (army, office workers etc..) led to an intensive development of commerce. Domestic trade has been greatly developed. Luxury ceramic products from Central Gallia have been found throughout the Empire (*Lascau 1965*, p 81-112). Italian bronze vessels were found in all provinces. Statues of deities produced in Italy and Gaul

were spread also throughout the Empire. And others, of course. The spread of the products led, of course, to road constructions (serving in the same time to the movements of troops) and to the development of more modern vehicles. The roads linked the provinces between them and all of them to Rome. There was also a development of the navigation on the sea, which led to regular people racings and official racings for certain products (eg grain from Egyptus). The roads, traffic and transport system, and the general interest products, have increased the level of civilization, leading to the romanization of material life.

But commerce had not been limited to the territory of the Empire. Roman merchants had crossed the borders to the north germanic world, to the east towards India and China. And from there were being brought exotic goods which were not produced in the Empire. The border tables from the Empire margins presents details about the products that were brought and about the way the things were done (*Gudea 1996*, p.96-97).

As a result of the intensive production, of active trade, of capital movements, the state finances have progressed also thanks to their continuous reform. The Roman state has introduced a series of taxes that were resolving its needs (army, officials, investments, wars) (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 351-355, 455-456). Basic roman coin, silver denarius, was well kept up to middle of the third century (as well as buying power and precious metal content), fell on around the middle of the third century during the general crisis, but it recovered due tetrarch reforms, and resisted in the fourth century.

It is estimated that in the middle of the second century AD. ,the Empire had about 50 million people, distributed as follows: 25 million in Europe, 20 million in Asia and Arabia, 10 million in North Africa (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 252-309, 456-461). In terms of social status, there were two types of people: free and slaves. From a social perspective, free men were divided into many classes: the provincial and roman aristocracy, who owned the land; the recruitment was made from reach people, soldiers and knights. They were forming the senatorial order (*ECR*, p 618-619). The income had to be 1 million sesterti. It followed the Knights order, which it was composed of businessmen (industrialists, traders, businessmen) with an annual revenue of approximative 400,000 sesterti. In this category

were also the soldiers with higher grades and officials of the imperial administration. Then it came the largest class, urban plebs, made up of artisans, persons who depended on the food distributions of the state, and, finally, rural plebs formed by small owners and colonized persons. *Affranchiseds*, the former released slaves, were usually engaged in business or production areas and they could reach the upper social categories. Slaves, who formed at the beginning of the Empire direct producers, were present in all branches of activity. Their number has fallen down continuously, their release and use in the business being more cost effective (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 460-461).

Under domination, all these categories and barriers between social classes have disappeared and the society was concentrated into two big social categories / classes: *honestiores* and *humiliores*. Landowners have consolidated their power and extended their possessions. The peasants working in autonomous systems on certain areas of land, lost their freedom of movement.

The whole spiritual life of the Empire took place under a continuous latinization and romanization process. Latinization reached the upper classes of the society, especially through the higher forms of culture (literature, art, science, etc.). Romanization has reached all classes of society by assimilating the inventory of artifacts, working techniques and social inventory of the Roman family. Conquered nations were quickly integrated economically, socially and politically, assimilating the superior Roman civilization. Romanization was a key mechanism by which Rome has provided political unity of the state.

Spiritual life had several components: religion, culture in general (literary life, theater, music etc.), sciences etc. (*Lascau 1965*, p 112-154, ECR, p 155-158). The most important and unifying of them was the religion. Religious life of the Empire was reformed by Augustus and in the first three centuries, was characterized by a developed syncretism. The Roman sacred were the official religions recognized by the State, respectively the old Roman cults or the ones accepted. There were twenty main gods: twelve male (Janus, Iupiter, Saturn, Mars, Mercury, Apollo, etc. Vulcanus.) and eight female deities (Terra Mater, Iuno, Ceres, Luna, Diana, Minerva, Venus, Vesta). Iupiter, Iuno and Minerva led the hierarchy of gods. Iupiter was the supreme deity. He had many epithets, from which, Iupiter Optimus Maximus was the most common. Gradually, the old



italics gods were assimilated by him (Mars, Ianus and Vulcanus). Through syncretism, Jupiter assimilated many oriental deities who reached the West Roman (Dolichenus, Helliopolitanus, Turmasgades etc.).

Once with the expansion of Roman Empire, deities of conquered people entered into the roman world, from which, the oriental deities, with a profound esoteric character, have played the greatest role (*Turcan 1998*) but it can not be neglected the Egyptian and North African ones. Their penetration has occurred since the end of the republican era, but they have developed only under the Empire. Acceptance of foreign cults, especially the oriental and esoteric contributed to the metamorphosis of the political roman institutions, which has evolved toward the Eastern political system.

After Augustus Emperor it developed the cult of the imperial family and this has evolved and developed continuously until it reached a divine character.

In general, during the second and third centuries AD. we are witnesses to a mix in the religion of the empire, mostly determined by the mixture of peoples, romanization. But this mix was increasingly disturbed by the economic, social and spiritual crisis that reached the empire. During this crisis the bigger and the smaller religions with an esoteric character became stronger, from which Christianity gained more ground. After middle of the third century this became a great religion, spread all across the Empire, at first persecuted, but then victorious in the early fourth century. At 306, after bloody persecutions, it managed to win. In the year 311 it was declared lawful religion, then a unic recognized cult (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 481-492, 605, 611).

Culture itself has grown rapidly having many popular aspects (circus games, athletic games, gladiators fights), semipopulars (theatre, mime games, etc.) and finally, forms of written culture (education – teaching, school education in different stages) and, respectively, technical education (engineering, architecture and other techniques). Public education has also gained ground in relationship to private education. Written texts have soared, the literature has developed a lot, and also the historiography and philosophy. Rhetoric has also developed. Were created and developed public or private libraries (*Lascu 1965*, p 150). Music thrived also. Due to the huge program of construction (roads, government buildings, bridges, fortifications, etc.) they have thrived construction techniques, architecture and arts winning monumentality and pride (*Cizek 2002*, p 492).

It is known, for example, that the number of the ordered and monitored constructions by the Emperor Traianus was very high both in Italy and the provinces. The museums have been developed and in connection with these, the traffic for visiting some specific settlements, special construction, etc. The researches in mathematics, geography, medicine have grown. There are known great geographers of the epoch (Strabo, Pausanias, Ptolemeus), great doctors (Galenus), great architects (Vitruvius), great mathematicians (Heron of Alexandria).

Law and Justice have seen a remarkable development. Starting with the second century it became clear the dominance of Latin language throughout the Empire. Greek remained the language of the picks. By the middle of the second century were translated into Latin the Christian holy books (Bible). Oriented historiography oriented at first to memoirs and biographies slipped more and more to analysis.

In the early epoch of domination, the constructions have known a great development (*Cizek 2002*, pp. 626-637). In the middle of the fourth century, it appeared and imposed the Christian architecture, which gave the tone in architecture among several centuries, being a revolutionary moment in architecture and art. Mural paintings and mosaic started to grow. Construction and architecture sought, directed, to represent important moments from the activity and life of the society.

In the late Roman era appeared first universities (eg Burdiga - Bordeaux which had eight departments of grammar, five of rhetoric, one of medicine). It was invented the book, which has produced a revolution in the culture.

A special development took travels for information and knowledge (*Lascau 1965*, p 387-441) based of course on transport and road network.

In general, the Roman state, based on a strong and permanent army also emphasized physical training of youth, organizing and always inventing new branches of physical education.

Moreover, forms of physical education, sports, began to be publicized through all forms of propaganda. G.W. Weeber (*Weeber 1994*) declares in his book that the development of physical exercises and sport has become a policy of the Roman state and that representations relating to sport and physical education have been promoted and supported by the State. To an analyse of representations related to sports or field

(stadiums, amphitheatres, circuses) or the various artifacts related to art, games etc, his declaration becomes true.

There have been developed stadiums for runnings, circuses, amphitheatres, in an overwhelming proportion ,financed by the state(emperor) (*ECR*, p 731-732, 189-190). Amphitheater number increased tenfold (*ECR*, p 53-54). No less was supported constructions of theatres for the literary performances , rhetorics, theatre itself (comedies, tragedies) (*ECR*, p 750-751). Public performances (*ECR*, p 730-731) have become widely used. The fact that they were promoted on one hand by special constructions and on the other hand by various representations on artifacts, even by typical artifacts, led to their knowledge by large parts of the society.As all public performances demanded special trainings (trainings for leaders and animals, special schools for gladiators, schools for fighters) things have become very popular. Moreover, certain special fights were represented by some nations with their weapons. For example, between gladiators, a special place belonged to thracian warriors, samnites etc. Today, some representations of games or fights represents artistic patrimonies of humanity: the circus scene in the Palace of Septimius Geta in Rome, mosaic representing a stadium baths of Caracalla in Rome, mosaic of Piazza Armerina from Sicily.

A higher form of culture was the bath, which became mandatory on Romans, developing as well the health culture and other fields related to it: rhetoric, reading, gym exercises etc..

Roman Empire has developed a real strategy of shows and sports entertainments. . During the same year were forty- five days of public celebrations (*Cizek 2002*, p 271), seventy- two festive days, sixty days of public games (circus, station, amphitheatre).

## **CHAPTER III. PHYSICAL EDUCATION(GYMNASTICS,WRESTLING,RIDING,ATHLETICS),PUBLIC GAMES,DANCE AND TOURISM IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE**

### **What do the roman written sources say**

As we have seen at working method (Chapter I.5.) the information we have gathered about the sports movement in the Roman Empire allowed us to establish six groups of activities, each of them having characteristic subgroups. We know that there is no other division of these activities, so we hope that our initiative to do so.

We analyzed two large groups of sources :literary sources, epigraphic and numismatic on the one hand and archaeological sources on the other hand.

Let' s make a brief analyze concerning to what written sources, numismatic and epigraphic are offering.

In literary sources we find information about places where activities took place, various activities are defined,such as the game, nominating certain physical activities (walking, running, swimming, pugilat, fights in the amphitheatre).

In the epigraphic sources we fiind poor data,like names of athletes or sports activities performed by a certain person.

The numismatic sources are those that are mediating the games at the Empire level, the organizers, the places where are taking place (circus, stadium, theatre) or parts of competitions (Premiers).

Let's make a detailed study of the literary sources:

- about the places where physical exercises and sports took place; the most data we have are about the Field of Mars (Rome and the banks of the Tiber); here were held celebrations in honor of the god and practiced many races (*Lascau 1965*, 394-395 , ECR 473);

- about the construction of the palestres as parts of the baths we have informations from Vitruvius (V, 11, p 223-226, 256-257) ,quadrilateral plan with a long side; a lateral pavilion is for oil massage and for pugilat exercises;

- stadium - the stadium was a construction for athletic competitions; a construction with quadrilateral plan and a round extremity , gates at the opposite extremity with a lateral disposal (*Tudor 1976, 95, ECR, p 732*);

- circus - the circus was the place for horse racings and carts (*ludi circenses*); quadrilateral construction rounded at the extremities, with stands along sides; along the stands were sandy tracks; in the middle was a higher which had protection pillars in places where carts were turning; racings included usually seven tours (*Lascau 1965, p.405 ff, Larousse DCR, pp. 67-68, Tudor 1976 , p 92-94*);

- amfiteatrum – amphitheatre is a construction designed for combined performances (individual fights, group fights, gladiators fights, hunting wild animals, naval battle). The number of amphitheatres is very high and they are grouped mainly in West Europe. The biggest and most complex remains amphitheatre called Colloseum from Rome (cf. *SHA Claudius, note 4, Tudor 1976, pp. 84-92; Lascau 1965, p 410, Larousse DCR, p 22, ECR, p 53 -54*).

**a. literary information related to sports activities**(cf. *Petecel 1980, passim*)

### **physical activities**

Marcus Porcius Cato (234-148 BC.) in the education of his son gives strong emphasis to heat and cold resistance, swimming, riding and pugilatului (*Kirițescu 1964, p 128*);

Vergilius (70-19 BC.) in his opera named Eneida (VIII, verses 62-165) is mentioning riding, spear throwing at target, runnings, wrestlings, all being considered necessary to strengthening the body (*Lascau 1965, p 353-396* ).

### **First century**

Titus Livius (73 a.Chr.-17 p.Chr.). *De urbe condita*, cap. XII: about bulls games, contests of athletes, lions and panthers huntings;

Ovidius (43 a.Chr.-18 p.Chr.): *Ars Amandi* I 135 about the carts racings beautiness, one hundred and forty seven about the bets; about fights;

Horatius (65 a.Chr.-9 p.Chr.): *Ode* I, vers 4-12; the importance of sport and especially of swimming; he names a series of sports activities: riding, swimming, disc throwing, spear throwing, runnings, marching (*Lascau 1965, p 394*);

Cicero (106-43 BC.) mentions swimming as an important physical activity (*Lascu 1965*, p 395);

Seneca (2 a.Chr.-65 AD.), Ep. Luc 7 about punishing criminals as gladiators in the amphitheatre, he manifest love for athletics; about the importance of trainings (*Grimal 1960*, p 397);

Martialis (43, 104), epigrams X, 41: about the expenses with the shows, XIV, 47 about ball games, XI.1, 3 about bets, IV, 67 about awards and salaries of carts leaders, XI, 6 about the periods when the game of dice was forbidden, XII, 20.1 Domitianus Emperor forgave a defeated gladiator, XI, 1, X, 50 about the spectators worship of victorious cart leaders ;

Quintilianus (35-95 AD.), a known educator, in his opera named *Ars oratorica* proposed an educational system that in which physical exercises had an important role "one hour of exercise enhances understanding, rejuvenates and refreshes" (*Kirițescu 1964*, p 137; *Rusu 2008*, p 63); Quintilianus (first century), *Oratorical Art* VI, 3, 63 about the circus behavior, I, XI, 15-10 about dance.

## **Second century**

Iuvenalis (55-130 AD.), III, 30 about the murder of a defeated gladiator; X, 36 about racings arbitrators; X, 75 about imperial policy "bread and games"; VII, 113-114 about hunting in the amphitheatre;

Cornelius Tacitus (55-120 AD.) underlines the importance and the value of physical exercises (*Rusu 2008*, p 63);

Petronius (first century), 27: about playing with the ball in palaestras.

Fronto (second century), *Principiae Historiae* 4, 11: about the shows;

Epictet (50-125 AD.) wrote a manual for athletes (study of the conditions, lifestyle, training);

Suetonius (AD 75-160.), *Vita duodeci, im Caesarum: Lives of 12 Caesars*, Aug. 6, introduced new sports; Claudius 21: how to dress for the circus ; Nero - personally led the cart for a race; Caesar 10: ordered to senators to finance the games; Claudius 21: about circus constructions; Augustus 43: plan the way of seating in the stands in the amphitheatre; Domitianus 4: about the number of rounds at the circus; Titus 6-7: about

the number of killed animals; Claudius 21: gladiators salute to the emperor; Claudius 34: concern to occupy a good place in the amphitheatre;

Plinius the Younger (62-114 AD.), Letters IV, 22: Senate has forbidden to Vienna (Gallia) to organize "greek" games;

Galenus (second century):about the exercises with the ball, gymnastics hygiene;

Lucianus (second century): about dance;

Pausanias (second century), in the description of Greece V, 89: about pentathlon, wrestling / fighting, cart racings, pancration, running with arms;

### **Third century**

Dio Cassius (163-235), Roman History, LIV,10:importance of the performances to the society; LII, 30 circus games; battles offered by Traianus; LIV 17 the emperor behavior at the shows; LII, 30 the maintain of valuable athletes; awards for victories;

Tertullianus (115/160-240/250),De spectacula; describes the circus, the stadium, the amphitheatre, mostly with their negative parts;

Dio Cassius LXII, 15 mentions an organizer of games under Nero: Tigelinus, prefect of the praetorium;

Philostratos (end of the third century – start of the fourth century), author of a treaty "De arte gymnastica" including fights, pancration, boxing, trainings, the mental state of athletes, victory through reason;

SHA, Commodus 17: the emperor had an athlete as a trainer.

### **epigraphics informations**

CIL X, 1074 Pompei: Aulus Claudius Flaccus organized in the second year of his duumvirat a parade with thirty pairs of athletes;

### **monuments**

Pompei:on a house door is represented an athlete who holds a palm branch in his hand after the victory;those who occupied second and third place are represented on the extremity doors (*Etienne 1970*, pp. 343-344);

Pompei: house with mural decoration;in the back of the stage are some athletes (*Etienne 1970*, p 351).

Without going into core sports, the data provided by literary sources give very important informations: about the contest places (stadium, circus, theatre), methods of

construction, the organization of the stands, how the places are being occupied. There are mentioned a number of physical exercises, data about organizing performances, the behavior during the shows etc. Unfortunately, most of them refers exclusively to Rome rather than the provinces of the empire.

Literary sources allow us to compose a list of Olympic champions during the I-III century AD. (cf. *Petecel 1980*, passim).

Polyctor	fight between children	OL 192	12 BC.
Nikostratos	fight, pancration	OL 204	37 AD.
Artemidorus of Tralles	fight, pancration	OL 212	69
Demonstrated of Sinope	isthmian games	–	–
Polites of Keramos	stage, running	OL 212	69
Hermogenes of Xantos	stage, biathlon, running with arms	OL 215	81
Sarapion of Alexandria	pugilism	OL 217	89
Helenius of Roma	gladiator		sec. I
Geranos of Naucratos	fight	OL 247	209
Modrogenes of Magnesia	stage	OL 249	217
Sarapamon of Alexandria	pugilism	OL 264	227
Gorgos of Elea	running with weapons		sec. II-III.

As we can see, the majority that are registered here, have names with Greek resonance and they come from places like Greece, Southern Italy or Egyptus. Area where Olympic champions are spread at this stage of knowledge is quite low. They won at sports like athletics (running, throwing, wrestling, boxing) or like complex sports such as biathlon, pentathlon and pancration.

#### **b. about the proper games in literary sources (smart games)**

Suetonius (17-160 AD.) speaks about *Iudus telus* (knucklebone game that everybody were playing, including emperors Augustus, Nero and Claudius);

Horatius (65 a.Ch.-8 AD.) Intelligence and luck games are forbidden at certain times (*Lasca 1965*, p 391-393);

#### **c. sports competitions; professional sports in the inscriptions**



CIL X, 1074; Aulus Claudius Fispicus, duumvir quinquenalis in Pompei organized a parade during the first duumvirat, with troops of pugilists and isolated pugilists; in the second duumvirat it has marched a band of pugilists at the parade.

#### **d. sports competitions; public games in the literary texts**

Res gestae divi Augusti, 22, 3: twenty six times, either in the circus or in the forum we have offered shows with animals fights; 22, 2 "I organized the games in my name for four times and for twenty three times on behalf of other magistrates; I organized the secular games (ludus seculares) and for the first time, games of Mars"; 22, 1 "I offered three times gladiatorial games in my name and five times on behalf of my sons and my grandchildren" (*Zugravu 2004*, p 99);

SHA Hadrianus, 19: "organized for the people games with gladiators, that he attend himself";

SHA Commodus, 11: under Nero, games were held for 4-6 days, and also the carts racings, wrestling with beasts, gladiator fights;

Dio Cassius, LXI, 17: „Nero led the cart in the circus and fell off from the car”.

Dio Cassius, LXIII, 14: the emperor (Lucius Verus) loved carts racings and he sympathized with the greens;

#### **representations related to sports in numismatic sources**

T. Deidius (113-112 BC.) Rome, denarius, the reverse shows gladiators in battle with shields and whips (*Münzkabinett Gotha 1980*, p 31, no. 29, page 51 Taf. 29);

Titus (79-81) Rome sestertius, on the obverse is the representation of the amphitheatre of Rome (Colosseum) (*Münzkabinett Gotha 1980*, p 40, Taf. 56, no. 114);

Traianus (86-118) Rome, sestertius of 104-114, BMC 853; reverse; the representation of the circus maximus, with colonnades and quadriga (*Bauten Roms auf und Münzen Medaillen*, p 38, no. 70);

Septimius Severus (192-209); Rome, denarius from 203-208, BMC 432; reverse ship moved by oars, lower register; above carts racings; under various wild animals (*Bauten Roms auf und Münzen Medaillen*, p 39, no. 71);

#### **Tertullianus and christian reaction against performances and sports competitions**

Tertullianus, first christian author of the latin language in Africa;fundamentalist; militant opera against declined morals, against pagans, against jews, against heretics, against kind christians ( *Larousse DCR*, p 195-196). In his work about the shows,he makes a harsh criticism against them,against the organizers and spectators. On this occasion he provides important data about all these components:

**the organization of the games** (VII, 2-3, 4): the organization of the games in Rome and in the provinces; the series of the statues,the parade of the images, triumphal carts , sacred carts ,closed carts drawn by elephants , thrones, crowns, rituals and sacrifices;in the provinces there are organized with a little less effort.

**the circus:** wall that crosses it,statues columns, altars (VIII, 1);

XVIII, 1 - what happens on the stadium: fists, feet, aggression; all forms of human facial disfiguremen; racings, runnings, spear throwings, jumpings;

XXX, 5: beatings with fists and fights (not a few, but many);

XVIII, 3: the specific gesture of the fighter was character of the snake : strong in tightening , coiled to keep connected, slippery to escape;

XXVIII, 4: you sigh after the scenes ,after the circus landmarks,after the dust and sand;

### **amphitheatre**

XII, 7, XX, 4: amphitheatre is the temple of all demons; archways, solar screen;

### **way of running the circus**

XV, 1: horse,carts drawn by four horses, carts drawn by two horses, coachmans dressed in colors;

IX, 5: the praetor rotates the urn with stones chosen by chances;

XXII, 2: carts leaders, actors, gymnasts, wrestlers in the arena;

XXIII, 2: the leader that is causing the outbreak;

### **audience**

XVI, 1: at the circus the unleashes yelling it really reigns, the unleashed crowd comes shouting, filled with frenzy;

XXV, 2: the show is characterized by exaggerated trimmings of the women and men;

### **athletes**

XXII, 2: they are so loved ... the men lay at their feet their souls, and women (and even men) their bodies;

**e.dance:** dance can be grouped as public entertainment and dance as a part of pantomime;

### **The literary sources**

Seneca (2-65 AD.) ; mentions the dance (*Lasca 1965*, p 395-396);

Horatius (65 a.Chr.-9 AD.) mentions dance as a form of decadence (*Lasca 1965*, p 396);

Suetonius (75-160): Emperor Caligula was a great dancer (*Lasca 1965*, p 391);

Tacitus (55-120 AD.) mentions several dance styles (*Lasca 1965*, p 398);

Dio Cassius, LX, 7, Note 4: under Nero, children who had been called to learn the pyric dance ,have played it only once (warrior dance, dance with swords and fake a fight);

SHA, Hadrianus, 19: the emperor organized for the people warrior dance performances, being a witnesses himself;

### **f.tourism**

It was never considered between physical exercises and sports from antiquity. Probably also because in modern sports entered later. General paper works about ancient civilization (*Lasca 1965*, p 354-387) but,mostly related to travelling and transportation from antiquity ,have managed, systematically analyzing the sources, to identify different types of journeys: business jorney, diplomatic journeys, inspections on the one hand and, on the other hand, pleasure journeys (of education, tourism itself and pilgrimage).

- **villegiatura:** Horatius (63 a.Chr.-9 AD.), journey from Rome to Brindisi (approximative 250 km) indicating the roads, hotels, restaurants, historical localities;

- journeys of the provincials from Gaul and Africa to Italy and Aquileia (*Chevalier 1988*, p 13);

### **historical tourism**

- visiting the colossus from the Mnemon (*Chevalier 1988*, p 299-309);

- visiting the mosaics from Sicily: Piazza Armerina (*Chevalier 1988*, p 316-318);

- visitingthe villas of Cicero (*Chevalier 1988*, p 337-340);

### **visiting natural curiosities**

- volcanoes and special waters (*Chevalier 1988*, p 310-312);

### **information and cultural journeys**

Plutarch (46-120), *Aemilius*, 6: writes that Aemilius Paulus ordered that his son, accompanied by specialized tax collectors should visit Macedonia and the library of Perseus;

Philostratos (170 -?), *Vita Apollonii I*, 20: Apollonius traveled from Athens to India, and the border post (Syria) was cleared customs (*Gudea 1986*, p 87-125);

### **journeys with scientific interest**

Plinius the Elder, *Historia Naturalia V*, 9-10 says that in times when Scipio Aemilianus was governor of Africa, Polibius made a boat trip in order to find out the outline of Africa (*Chevalier 1988*, p 345);

### **religious tourism / pilgrimages**

Titus Livius, *XXVII*, 35, 3 L. Manlius was sent to the Olympic Games (*Chevalier 1988*, p 372);

- pilgrimages to oracles e.g. Oracle of Delphi (*Chevalier 1988*, p 384-385);
- travels of the Apostle Paul (*Chevalier 1998*, p. 384-385);
- pilgrimages to sacred places, to the tombs of saints (*Chevalier 1988*, p 392-393);

Reviewing the data offered by the five groups of sources that certifies activities considered as "sportive" has allowed us a number of legal findings related to the literary certified documentary about sport:

- in present, there are numerous data related to the official development places: stadium, circus and amphitheatre, relatively accurate as technical informations; less data exist about the free events (olympic-type) and those who were held in the large baths of the palestras;

- there are data about the financing and the organization of the games where the emperor had a great role, followed by all magistrates.

- there was a calendar of public games; some dates were fixed, other had happened during certain events (victories in wars, anniversaries of different characters, born of the throne etc.)

- data are given separately in connection with certain athletes; for example, under Tiberius, was a famous gladiator Castro, due to the scandals he used to cause (Dio

Cassius, LVII, 14, note 72), the popularity of sports boxer, gladiators, carts leaders was very large; they were sung by poets;

- there are many data about the rewards they received;
- there are also data about the audience, supporters of fighters or leaders of carts.

### **Technical and historical perspective of sport based on data provided by archeology**

Based on illustrations that we have studied it can be completed what is known from written sources:

- first of all, after studying these illustrations and representations, the conclusion is that sport was very popular; the advertising materials circulated over large areas of the Empire, representations were made on very different artifacts from all areas and on monuments of art "(some of them visited as tourist destinations: eg. Piazza Armerina in Sicily with its mosaics);

- secondly, we can remark how important were the rewards, either honorary reward (consisting of olive or palm branches) or cups of bronze, silver or gold, or even money;

- the various way of the publicity by different forms of art, artifacts, jewelry, gifts;

### **Conclusions**

1. the intrinsic value of written and archaeological sources about ancient Roman sports is great. Some literary, epigraphic and numismatic sources, those that are direct sources can not be disputed. They must be taken as they are written. Archaeological sources, which are certainly more numerous and more widespread, can be interpreted both in terms of representation and interpretation. But it is difficult not to take them into account. But in the same time, the advertising policy of sports becomes difficult to understand, although it is comparable to nowadays policy, based more on interpretation.

Luxury terra sigillata vessels, especially those produced in Gaul, during the second and third centuries, were spread throughout the empire, bringing with them nearly every scene of ancient sports. Their spreading may be a sign that all or many sports have come to the attention of people in the farthest corners of the empire, especially in its western part.

2. it is obvious that, after the demonstrations made especially by Weeber, the Roman state, the emperor and those around him, have financially supported, directly or indirectly,

sports, building in the same time sporting facilities (stadiums, circuses, amphitheatres) and they also financed the games. In this process they have attracted individual persons (animal capturers, conveyors to the bases of games, animal maintenance, schools for athletes and for gladiators).

3. From all sports events in the Roman Empire, certified both in writing and archaeological, we chose a limited number (as many as were necessary to be able to study the similitude of the process in the Dacian provinces) but enough, we believe, to show the proportion of sports movement in the empire, the variety of sports, the popularity of sports and athletes of certain specialties, the realism that some sports have been described both in written sources and archaeological representations.

4. It is obvious that the sports movement was financed by the state (by the emperor) for the physical preparation of young people and especially in the interest of imperial dynasties. Maintaining a sporting spirit, be it physically through movement and through intelligence was well distributed policy over three centuries of the empire.

## **CHAPTER IV. REPERTORY OF IMAGES SHOWING PHYSICAL EXERCISES,SPORTS,PUBLIC GAMES,SPORT CONTESTS,DANCE AND TOURISM IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE**

On the Roman Empire map from II-III century AD. I put all the provinces because the images I have used use come from very different provinces of the Roman Empire. In some of them dried climate did manage to keep well the vestiges,but in other provinces archaeological research found vestiges related to sport.

The repertory was organized so that improvement or removal of some illustrations will not affect the general intuitive image.

### **pictures of winners arrival**

#### 1. physical exercises

- 1.athletics (sprints)
2. gymnastics
3. riding
4. swimming
5. archery
6. fight with weapons
7. march
- 8.combined samples (e.g. penthalon)

#### II. proper games.

- 1.ball game
- 2.brain games (and games of luck)

#### III. sports competitions: 1. professional sports

- 1.pancratium
2. wrestlings (grek-roman)
3. pugilism

#### IV.sports competitions:2.public games

1. racings with horses
2. carts racings
3. hunting in the amphitheatre
4. gladiators fights

V.dance

IV.tourism

1. journey for information and interest

2.journeys for pleasure

3.pilgrimages



## CHAPTER V.SHORT HISTORY OF DACIAN PROVINCES

This chapter was elaborated only to show that in the Dacian provinces (Porolissensis, Apulensis and Malvensis) have worked the same state institutions , there was the same military and administrative organization,were identical social ,social classes which were identical those from other provinces of the Roman Empire. So, naturally, the interests of the sport fun and social pleasure must have been the same.

### V.I. .The extension and the organization,institutions and the duration of existence

The territories of the dacian kingdom led by the king Decebalus were conquered after great wars between 101-106 by roman army led by emperor Traianus (96-117). It was the last conquered european province of the empire .

The territory of the dacian state had a much greater extent than that which was turned into a roman province. The extra Carpathians territories situated in the north-west and north-east (Crisana,Maramures and northern Moldova) remained outside the roman province. Without its part of south-east ( Country of Fagaras,Country of Barsa, Harghita and Covasna) Transylvania(historical) and Banat belonged to the province territory.Those two,Banat and Transylvania,together with the West Oltenia,have formed the province of Dacia. East Oltenia and Wallachia ,together with the South of Moldova were annexed to Moesia Inferior province . This situation lasted until the death of the Emperor Trajan around 117/118.

Hadrianus emperor has reorganized this territory as follows:

- the northern part of Transylvania, to the north of the Mures and Aries rivers, was formed the province of Dacia Porolissensis, with the capital in Porolissum / Moigrad;
- the central part of Transylvania (without Covasna ,Country of Barsa, Country of Fagaras ) with west Oltenia and Banat formed Dacia Superior / Apulensis,with the capital in Apulum / Alba Iulia;
- the eastern part of Oltenia, with south-eastern Transylvania (Covasna,Country of Barsa, Country of Fagaras) and Wallachia until Milcov have formed a new province, Dacia Inferior Malvensis, with the capital in Romula.

Eastern territories of Wallachia and southern Moldavia were abandoned.

This territorial organization lasted until the end of Roman domination in Dacia (275). It is believed that around 250 the eastern parts of Dacia Inferior, Wallachia and East Oltenia have been lost .

Reasons of the conquest of Dacia and of the organization of dacian provinces were many:

- Dacia province, especially in the natural protected to the north, east and west, was a bastion submitted barbarian world and avoided the possible barbaric attacks not only itself but also the provinces south of the Danube (Lower Pannonia, Moesia Superior , Moesia Inferior). Some historians consider that Dacia organized as a shield made up even for Italy;
- The province of Dacia,naturally protected in its north,east and west part,was an advanced bastion in the barbarians world and it was a shield against barbarian attacks and also for the provinces which were situated in the south part of the Danube.
- the conquest of Dacia rebuilt the state finances , after being captured huge treasures of dacian kings;
- Dacias wealth,represented by agricultural and grazing land, precious metals, have been put to the disposal of the empire,and it formed years that followed a very solid base.

Roman administration was slightly different in those three dacian provinces. At first, between 106-118, the province was ruled by a governor *legatus Augusti propraetore*,having a consular rank. This rank existed because in the province had stationed three legions (15.000 soldiers): *legio I Adiutrix*, *legio III Flavia*, *legio XIII Gemina*. The governor had military and legal responsibilities. After the reorganization of the territory under Hadrianus, situation has changed radically.

Dacia Superior-Apulensis, which was the largest and richest of the dacian provinces, had as a leader a *legatus augusti propraetore* with praetorian rank;the diminution of governor rank is owed to the fact that only one legion had stationed in the province (*XIII Gemina*),at Apulum / Alba Iulia .

Dacia Porolissensis was ruled by a *procurator Augusti*, having military and administrative duties.

Dacia Inferior Malvensis was led by a procurator Augusti.

In the years 168/169, because of some military events that have threatened also the Dacians, Emperor Marcus Aurelius united the three provinces under a single military authority, a general governor having the title of Augusti pro praetore trium Daciarum. This had also a consular rank because in Dacia Porolissensis had been brought the fifth Macedonica legion, to Potaissa / Turda.

The governor of Dacia Superior was assisted by a procurator with financial responsibilities. M. Macrea believed that financial procurator of Dacia Superior had his residence and his desk in Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa (tabularium provinciae), driving a single system for the three provinces, which formed a single tax unit. There were kept registers with tax records. Taxes are paid on the base of the census which was renewed every five years. There were taxes on land ownership, on the number of persons and property.

**The limes** – fortified border of the province was the leading institution for the defense of the territory. It was formed from over 90 large and small fortifications, earth walls and stone walls. Following this border from southwest to west, north and east, we have a picture of it:

- in the southwest, the border consisted of the lower course of Tisa from the river mouth of Mures, from Vețel to east; along these courses were fortifications; better known are those from the Mures;

- the west border was formed by Western Carpathians, from Mures to the Someșul Mare, ending with Meses mountain chain; in the south the passes were blocked by walls, and in north, along the mountains Meses, was the most powerful line of fortifications from Dacia (camps, burgos, advanced towers, ramparts and walls);

- from Tihău, the east border was formed by the Someșul Mare to Bistrița's Orhei; at north of Someș were camps and at the north of the camps were guardings towers;

- Transylvania eastern border starts at Orheiul Bistrița and keeps up to Râșnov; its course lead the intern mountains line (without the Ciuc Harghita depression), blocks the passes and has an advanced line towers; in the south of the great passes Oituz blocks, up to Olteni and Crasna are blocked;

- from Râșnov to south across the mountains, you can arrive to Câmpulung Muscel, from where begins a long wave of land of 250 km, which goes until the Danube, called symbolic limes transalutanus; along it are camps of soil; behind it is the line along the Olt where are houses made of stone.

Border defense system was completed with interior defense; in Dacia Porolissensis were linking camps between Potaișsa / Turda and the border, constituting a network. A similar situation existed in Dacia Superior. From the camp of the legion of Apulum to the interior of the Eastern Carpathians and Apuseni Mountains existed a series of camps that represented here a network of defense.

This defensive system consists of fortified border and interior defense provided a good defense for the three dacian provinces for 165 years. There are not known cases of attack or penetration of this system. Assumptions exist, but they can not be proved archaeologically.

**Army** was an institution strictly related to the system of border defense and inside defense. It can be said that the heavy infantry troops stationed inside – legions; on the defense lines of the network stood cavalry troops and on the border stationed mixed depending on the situation in the area.

Army of Dacia Superior – Apulensis province was consisted of Legion XIII Gemina, led by a legatus Augusti legionis, the guard troops of the governor, three units of cavalry and 13 infantry units, last located, especially on the eastern border. Infantry units were formed either of 500 people, or either of more than 1000 people.

Army of Dacia Porolissensis province (after 168) was consisted of Legion V Macedonica and of auxiliary units: three units of cavalry on the roads to the border (alae), four small infantry units (500 soldiers) and six mixed infantry units all located on the borders. There is also two special cavalry units armed with bow: numerus palmyrenorum and numerus Maurorum.

Army of Dacia Inferior - Malvensis was consisted only of auxiliary units: two units of cavalry and 7-8 infantry units, from which 6-7 were small units (500 soldiers) and one had 100 soldiers.

All these units are certified by military diplomas (a kind of military book granted on the discharge), by the inscriptions and especially by bricks and tiles with their own stamps of each unit.

M. Macrea appreciates that the army of Dacian provinces had about 50.700 soldiers. They were supplemented by police units. Of course, the number of people was completed by the number of animals for traction and battle, which together formed the most important institution of the provinces.

### **Communication system**

The organization of the provinces, the defensive system, the economic life, have been supported, encouraged and served by a communication system (roads networks); this served to the troops movements, to the connections with the empire, to transmission of the communiques and of course to economic life.

First roads of Dacia were built even during the wars of conquest and served initially to military needs.

Construction activities can be clearly seen on Traianus Column; it is also known the bridge of Apollodorus of Damascus from Drobeta; there are known two bridges: one bridge to Lederata and another to Sucidava. From an inscription found in Aiton, a kind of kilometric pillar, (miliarium) we find that the main road from the Danube to Porolissum had reached in the year 107 at Aiton, between Potaissa and Napoca.

Dacia's roads network was usually connected to the roads of the Empire, providing links to all the neighboring provinces (Pannonia Inferior, Moesia Superior, Moesia Inferior) and through these with the rest of the Empire.

For the knowledge of the road system of Dacia we have cartographic sources (Tabula Peutingeriana, a kind of ancient itinerary), epigraphic evidence: many kilometric pillars (miliary) and also portions of roads archaeologically identified.

Traianus's Column shows also the construction of some bridges over waters. They have not been identified yet, but in such places we have ancient toponymy that show their existence Pons Augusti (over Timis river), Pons Aluti (over Olt river) and Pons Vetus.

The road system can be shortly presented, as follows:

From the Danube (Lederata, Drobeta, Sucidava) start three main roads to the north:

- Lederata - Tibiscum - Ulpia Traiana - Micia - Apulum - Potaissa - Porolissum;

- Drobeta/Dierna, possibly Tibiscum - Ulpia Traiana - Apulum - Potaissa - Napoca - Porolissum;

- Sucidava - Romula - Bumbesti - Ulpia Traiana – Apulum

From these main arteries of communication system proceeded lateral roads:

- from Micia to west ,along Mures river;

- from Caineni up Olt river, until Oituz mountain pass;

- from Apulum to gold areas in the middle of the Western Carpathians, along the rivers Mures and Târnave, to the eastern border;

- from Napoca started roads along the river Somesul Mic, to the border;

- from Porolissum ,the roman road went out of the province heading to Pannonia Inferior; a branch of road linked this important military centre with the camps from the meseşan limes. We must mention the exploitation and the use of waters as means of transport. At Apulum there is attested by an inscription the existence of a college sailors.

Along the roads were military checkpoints, vama points, tax points, guarded by soldiers.

Maintenance and care of the roads was entrusted to special military units. In Dacia Inferior-Malvensis the maintenance of the roads was made by the numerus Burgariorum et Veredariorum unit.

## **V.2. Daco-Roman civilization in the second and third centuries AD**

The term "civilization" is a complex term that includes all values that may be applied to a human society in order to satisfy certain material, comfort and security needs.

Regarding to roman Dacia ,we will discuss under this term data about economic life, human settlements, religious life and cultural and artistic life.

Economic life is itself a complex of production branches. The most important branch of production was agriculture. It provided the subsistence of the army, cities and even of the producers. The agriculture was completed by raising animals for the army (horses and mules), for transport (oxen, horses, mules) and, especially, for consumption. Osteological analyzes made on animal bones from camps, cities and civil settlements, show an intensive meat consumption. As evidence of the importance of agriculture and livestock farming we bring the fact that agrarian terminology had been almost entirely transmitted in Romanian language.

After agriculture, it follows the exploitation of forests for wood constructions, for consumption, for furniture etc.. If we count the fact that the fortifications were covered and the roof structure was made of wood, the wood quantity was huge, if we count also the urban settlements with houses of stone covered, this quantity increases.

Exploitation of the subsoil was very important; the first place was occupied by stone exploitation for construction of roads, official buildings, for fortifications, for the houses.

Exploitation of precious metals like gold, silver, mercury, was as important; it was concentrated in the Metaliferi Mountains in Western Carpathians, in Dacia Superior, but there were exploitations also in Banat and northern Oltenia; for gold mining were brought by the emperor experienced colonists in traditional mining from areas like Dalmatia and Noricum. Zlatna, Buciumi, Brad, Abrud, Rosia Montana, were important large centers of exploitation; exploitation of iron, copper and lead was also a branch of economic life.

Salt mining was the target of subsoil exploitation; except for the food necessary for animals, salt was a very important export product in Balkan world, short in salt resources; it has been a continuity of dacian tradition in this field.

From metal, wood and stone exploitation had been born many trades, processing activities and productions of artifacts; there were produced iron tools for agriculture, smith's trades, constructions; tools were produced also from bronze; stone was processed for monuments, forms of art, statues; stone and clay were processed for mosaics; building materials (bricks, tiles, tile), water pipes, hot air pipes, were obtained from clay; the wool and leather were processed wool for clothing and footwear.

Cities, markets and villages are living forms of civilization, places where housing was provided. The certifies of the names of some localities in Dacia are few, about 80. Most of them can be found in the famous map Tabula Peutingeriana, in epigraphic sources (inscriptions) and many are brought to light by archaeological researches. There are known twelve cities, about five hundred villages and over one hundred fortifications of which most had stone walls. Urbanization has evolved along with administrative and military structures. We have cities with colony rank (Ulpia Traiana, Drobeta, Apulum, Napoca, Potaissa, Romula / Malva), towns with municipality rank (Porolissum Tibiscum, Dierna, Apulum).

The cities were organized by roman model; were led by a council (ordo decurionum):the presence on the board was conditioned by age and income tax; from this council were elected two persons (decuriones) who had executive functions;closed to the magistrates ,priests of the main religions were elected in the council (pontifices, flamines, augures, haruspices). Of course, the council had his own tax bureaucracy.

Also,the most important rural settlements and probably the markets were led by prefects. Gold miners , illyrians as origin,had settlements led by princess dalmati settlements; settlements were called Castella.

Religion and religious life played an important role in the Empire. You could even say that the empire was a religious state. About religious cults of dacian provinces have been made some very important historical findings:

- number of cults is higher than provinces majority;
- religious diversity is also very high, due to population origin;
- it is also very high the number of places of worship discovered or epigraphic certified.

Leading place among religious cults is occupied by the main deities of roman pantheon: Jupiter, Juno, Minerva; then Saturn, Mars, Silvanus, Diana,Fortuna, Nemesis (especially venerated by gladiators), and then other italics deities , less adored: Venus, Ceres, Priapus, Luna, Dis Pater;less worship is dedicated to Neptunus and Lares.

From deities with greek origin are worshiped Hygia and Aesculap, Apollo, Mercur, Liber Pater and Hercules.

Oriental cults occupy an important place in the daco-roman pantheon. About 1/5 of the inscriptions are dedicated to them; of them we must remember Cybele, Domnus /Domna,Iupiter Dolichenus, Bel / Bal, Dea Syria, Mithras, Azizus, Sabazius. It should be also noted the presence of african , germanic, celtic, jewish, egyptian religions.

Cults of Dacia are characterized by interference, mutual assimilation of qualities (interpretatio), which makes that some deities receive qualities of others deities o. To foreign cults are being added local cults like danubian knights.

Starting with the second century it has been imposed an official cult of the emperor and of imperial house . In Dacia this cult had an altar to Ulpia Traiana and a college of priests also there.



Each cult organization was identical to what was happening in every province of the Empire, especially at Rome; they were organized as public cults by *ordo decurionum* (city council); the priests made the sacrifices and they were organizing the celebrations.

Latest research claim that in Dacia appeared since the third century, the christian religion, attested by several categories of artifacts with christian symbols.

Cultural and artistic life had the same wealth as all western roman provinces. Dacian provinces were latin-speaking territories; there are known over four thousand latin inscriptions concentrated mostly in cities and camps; in rural areas their number is lower; only forty inscriptions are in greek and some in syrian languages.

Cursive writing - a certain element of latin knowledge level - was quite widespread, at a high level of proficiency; there are known cursive inscriptions on the tiles and bricks, on clay vassels, on pieces of metal and even exercises of writing learning. They are found especially in camps, hence the assumption that the soldiers had to know reading and writing necessarily; so camps were truly schools of latin language (but of other knowledges also).

Latin written language in the dacian provinces has a good quality, with very few deviations from the literary language. There are sculptural monuments indicating the existence of public schools: child with backpack, child with pen; in camps, especially, there are many writing instruments. In many localities versified inscriptions were found; the most beautiful one is a versified inscription at Romula / Resca.

Roman architecture in the province can be found in official buildings in cities, in certain types of temples dedicated to gods, in the bath plans and in component parts of some typical constructions; military architecture is typical for the epoch.

A special place in cultural life is occupied by artifacts that represent deities or some typical objects. Also a special place is occupied by the three amphitheatres (Drobeta, Ulpia Traiana and Porolissum), but partially also the small amphitheater at Micia/Vețel. What is important and M. Gramatopol underlined is that there are all forms of art (glyptics, jewelry, glassware, toreutica, plastic clay), all types of votive sculptures, funerary and statuary. There was mosaic and painting as well, but were less important.

### V.3. Daco-Roman society

In dacian provinces the society was differentiated as in the rest of the Empire, according to several criterias, of which the most important are social condition (free men or slaves), wealth and civic status (roman citizen or pilgrim).

Senatorial aristocracy is represented only by the governor and his family; knights group was composed of wealthy citizens, the city magistrates, officers of military units; roman citizens were municipal office workers, villages leaders, former soldiers (veterans). Pilgrims were free people of the province which did not have roman citizenship; they had public and private rights, but were deprived of citizens rights; they could become citizens if they would have brought great services to the state. Slaves were relatively few; they were used by their masters in various functions in administration, finance; slave and emperor's enfranchised were important office workers in custom system, in the administration of gold mines and they had many responsibilities.

Society was organized in private associations (collegia), recognized by the state and participating to public life. The members of these associations were meeting in various festive occasions, religious occasions or for help issues. The most important were professional colleges, grouping masters of different specialties or employers (bricklayers, ironsmiths, shoemakers, carpenters, drapers, surfers, manufacturers of bottles, stone). Colleges were organized quasi military, split in decurii, led by decurioni and principales; in the structures were also the vexillarii and imaginiferi. Their offices were called aedes, schola. There were also associations with ethnic or religious character.

It is assumed to have existed in Dacia, as elsewhere in the Empire, social unrests, but this fact could not be demonstrated. What is certain is the existence of gangs of robbers.

Province's population is attested by all categories of sources: narrative sources, epigraphic, archaeological. The main part of the population was made up of colonists; the expression "infinite copiae hominum" (VIII, 6, 2) brought from *toto orbe romano* of the historic Eutropius, is a reality, attested archaeological and epigraphic. Colonists settled mostly in cities, but also in rural areas. Of the approximately 3000 known names from the inscriptions, inscriptions, 75% are roman latins, 14% are greeks, and the rest are celtic, thracians and sirios.

The second largest group were the dacians local residents; some who did not withdrew at the beginning, others who have returned from refuge, many colonists in the territories around the Dacia; they can be distinguished only by different specific forms of material culture. There are known settlements (mostly urban) in which all inhabitants appear as colonized; there are known mixed settlements of colonists and local residences; elements of material culture of the dacians have entered particularly in camps, proving their integration and their recruitment in roman army. It is estimated that the province's total population was about 500 000 inhabitants.

After reading this brief history of the dacian provinces we can appreciate in relation to the history of the Empire (see Chap. III) that there were the necessary conditions in order that certain manifestations in physical education occur.

## **CHAPTER VI. PHYSICAL EXERCISES,SPORT CONTESTS,PUBLIC GAMES,DANCE AND TOURISM IN DACIAN PROVINCES**

### **Historical comment**

It could be said, following closely the scheme proposed for the working method (Chapter 1.4.), that things are repeating, but at a much lower scale. This may be due on the one hand to the fact that Dacia was framed less time in the Roman Empire or because the archaeological researches about roman epoch are far from being at a high level.

As I was saying in the chapter 1.3 (the stage of researches and knowledges) the knowledge of the sport history is far behind in comparison with the countries of Western Europe.

The basic feature of images that are found in Dacia and, of course,of the artifacts related to sports, is that the sport representations appear on the same types of artifacts: luxury pottery (TS), decorated pots, tiles, bricks and tiles with sports designs, glass vessels, stone monuments and inscriptions, bronze statues, bronze vessels.

Sometimes, images and representations are parts of the series that are found throughout the Roman Empire, eg terra sigillata vessels, bronze statuettes. Sometimes, some local creations (such as drawings of gladiators on bricks) show an admirable unity in representation to the ones of the Empire.

The pieces that I have used as evidence of sports activities in Dacia are distributed;they were found, especially in large cities (Porolissum, Napoca, Potaissa, Apulum, Ulpia Traiana, Drobeta ,Romula) and in the camps which were better researched and published (Porolissum-Pomet, Buciumi, Vețel, Feldioara ,Râșnov).

### **Technical and historical comment of sport point of view**

Naturally, given the phase of research, I did not identified a number of sports such as ball games, pancratium, pugilism, information travels, pilgrimages, games:

a. there are representation of athletes in action, bronze statuettes (Rep. I.1. Ulpia Traiana), gymnasts (Rep. I, 2-3 Potaissa), scenes of demonstrative battles (Rep. I.6. Arcalia near camp of Ilișua);

b. of the actual games, we have many evidence only of intelligent games (places where they could play on money!) there are many representations mill games scheme drawn on bricks (Rep. II.1. Potaissa; II .2. Drobeta; Rep. II.3. Bistrețu);

There are many fragments of bricks that represents rests of drawings of the game ludus militum or ludus latrunculorum (Rep. II, 4, 6, 17 Ulpia Traiana, II.5. Porolissum; from the same game we have many parts = chips, milites, latrunculi), made of clay (several of them unfinished) or of bone (II.2, 9, 12 Ulpia Traiana; II.2, 11, 14. Vețel, Porolissum; II.2, 13. Porolissum, II.2, 15. Buciumi). The frequency of this game is very high. We gave some examples but pieces of the game and fragments of the table board are found in all camps and even in the houses from civil settlements (eg Porolissum - vicus). Even the fact that the pieces of the game were not finished anymore, having some rough on their surface, simply made of walls or vessels, could be an evidence. From the intelligent game we have many typical dice made of bones (Rep. II.2, 8. Ulpia Traiana Apulum, but there are also at Porolissum, Bucium).

c. sport contests, especially pugilism and pancratium are less represented. We only have representations of fighters. Pancratium and pugilism were not atested. But, on a bronze vessel from Gilau camp we have an almost complete fight scene; it is almost complete because it does not have elements of contest opening; we have instead fight scenes, table with cash prizes and laurel leaves. Scenes of this kind are well known in the Empire. Perhaps the vessel is imported and is part of a series of promotion (Rep. III.2.1).

A bronze statue representing a warrior standing, leaning on a piece that can not be determined, comes from Porolissum (Rep. III.2.2.). Another piece of bronze representing a fighter comes from Ocnita (Dacia Inferior) (Rep. III.2.3.); curious representation of a dressed character. A side wall of the funeral aedicule near Sângătin (Sibiu county) presents, among other images, two fighters face to face trying to "catch" themselves in battle.

More interesting is the representation on a glass bottom from the camp of Bologna of two fighters that are staying face to face. The piece was found in a backup products storage and it is dating from the third century AD.

As part of sports contests we have some representation carts raceings, which probably took place in Dacia also,in the circus (although this is not yet archaeological identified).

On a pattern of clay found in Apulum (Rep. IV.2, 1) is represented an auriga (car driver with whip in his hand, driving a cart with four horses;in the field representation inscription NIKA = victory);on another pattern of clay of Porolissum (Rep. IV.2.2) is a rider in the race to the left, the piece was discovered in Porolissum / Moigrad. From a tomb in the cemetery at Locusteni (Dacia Malvensis) appears it appears a medalion with a racing cart,drawn by four horses,auriga having the whip in his left hand (Rep. IV.2, 4).  
V.3. Fewer are representations of hunting in the amphitheatre, but they are not missing completely.

On a funerary stele from Zegaia (Hunedoara county, near Ulpia Traiana) appears the text of the inscription that was put by the revengers of a robber attack,a scene with bears hunting scene (Rep. IV.3, 1). It is difficult to explain the context.

On a side wall of terra sigillata (TS) from Romula (Rep. IV.3, 2) appears a bestiarius with a whip in his hand, rushing after a lion. Also on a side wall of a vessel TS from Apulum (Rep. IV.3, 3) appears (several times) a spear fighter that attacks or is being attacked by a boar, a lion.

IV.4.The representations about the fights of gladiators, are numerous,suggesting that they were most enjoyed by the public. It can be seen that they are more diversly widespread.

First we have the amphitheatres,the most eastern amphitheatres of the Roman Empire (as in the greek world of the Orient amphitheatres are rare). There have been identified and investigated three amphitheatres : two of them with two phases of construction (wood and stone), at Ulpia Traiana and Porolissum (Rep. IV.4.2, 4.5), one with simple wooden enclosure, at Vețel / Micia (Rep. . IV.4.4).

An amphitheater could be identified on the column in Drobeta. That was then certified and archaeological research is ongoing. Two amphitheatres are only assumed ,on the based of some findings of artifacts related to the activity of the amphitheater - Apulum and Napoca (gladiator designs on brick).

The two amphitheatres , studied systematically (the one from Ulpia Traiana benefiting from an archaeological and architectural extended study ) are, so to speak, classical: : ellipsoidal plan, several rows of stands, high garden towards the arena, ellipsoidal arena, four gates.Both amphitheatres had, as I said above, a phase of wood and were built with stone walls in the middle of the second century AD. For the amphitheatre of Porolissum there is even a building inscription dated to 157, under emperor Antoninus Pius.

A number of artifacts sustain the work of a gladiators from amphitheatres:

- from Orsova / Dierna (a roman city vanished in the lake from Portile de Fier) comes a pattern of clay for casting votive disks (Rep. IV.4, 5) on which appear two gladiators in battle;it seems to be one retiarius;
- from Cluj / Napoca is known a fragment of a pattern on which appears a gladiator armed with sword and shield (Rep. IV.4, 6);
- from Moigrad / Porolissum is known a clay fragment of a pattern with two gladiators in combat (Rep. IV.4, 7).

Such patterns were used to multiply similar parts or to prepare cakes with sports representations.

Even more interesting are the bricks that had incised drawings representing gladiators:

- from Chinteni / Cluj-Napoca comes a piece of brick (Rep. IV.4. 8) which stores a part of a drawing representing a gladiator;
- from Ulpia Traiana comes a brick (Rep. IV.4, 9) that has scratched into the smooth paste a gladiator with shield and sword in attack;
- from Apulum,from old discoveries, comes a brick that has painted in soft paste a gladiator (retiarius) with net and hook, nude; the inscription Herculanus indicates his name ; the brick belongs to the ceramic workshop and also to the guard of the governor numerus singulariorum Governor (Rep. IV.4, 10).

By comparing with similar parts of the Empire,we can see how unitary is the representation of the gladiators .

A group of artifacts related to fighters in the amphitheatre,is formed by the bronze statues representing the gladiators. Their number is large:

- from Turda / Potaissa comes a bronze statuette representing two gladiators clenched in battle (Rep. IV.4, 11);
- from Zeicani (near Ulpia Traiana) comes a head banner on which is a gladiator with the helmet, huge shield and short sword (Rep. IV.4, 12);
- from Moigrad / Porolissum comes a bronze statuette representing a gladiator attacking forwards (Rep. IV.4, 13); the shield is broken and the right hand fractured, the weapon it can not be seen, it probably was a short sword .

Many representations of gladiators appear on rushlights. Unfortunately, in Dacia we have only one rushlight with such representation:

- rushlight made of clay; the disc shows a gladiator in attack to the left; it comes from Porolissum / Moigrad (Rep. IV.4, 14).

Representations of gladiators on luxury vessels are few . It is true that I have not inspected all the vessels TS published in Dacia:

- from Moigrad / Porolissum comes a fragment of a pattern with two gladiators (Rep. IV.4, 15);
- on a clay fragment of a vessel from Micasasa (Rep. IV.4, 16) is part of a gladiator;
- on a clay fragment of a vessel from Turda TS / Potaissa is a gladiator in the attack to the left and another (represented below) in the attack to the right (Rep. IV.4, 17);
- on a fragment of a bowl from Romula appears in a medallion a gladiator with sword attacking to the right (Rep. IV.4, 18).

Gladiators appear even on tiles (statuettes) of clay:

- a fragment of clay statuette from Apulum (Rep. IV.4, 19) is the top of a piece of clay, representing a gladiator with helmet.

An inscription from Ulpia Traiana (Rep. IV.4, 20) dedicated to the goddess Nemesis (patroness of gladiators), a fragmentary piece, has a trident on one of its ends who suggests by his presence of that we deal with a retiarius.

On a funeral aedicula without known the place of the discovery located in the National History Museum of Transylvania in Cluj-Napoca, are represented two gladiators standing and armed with daggers (Rep. IV.4, 21) . On another aedicula funeral wall, without known the place of the discovery, located in Sibiu museum, are represented two gladiators in battle, shields are face to face, in their hands were wearing short daggers.



V. Dance, treated by us as physical ,artistic and public activity , appears less in Dacia, but is not missing.

- from Ulpia Traiana comes a bronze statuette representing a dancer in motion; his raised left hand and right foot are a proves of a dance figure (Rep. V.1);

- also from Ulpia Traiana ,we have a bronze statuette representing a man lying in an artistic dance figure (Rep. V.2);

- from Potaissa comes a bronze statuette of a dancing figure (Rep. V.5);

- from Moigrad / Porolissum comes a bronze statuette representing a man in dance motion (Rep. V.6);

- from Gherla camp area, comes a statue representing a man in dance motion (Rep. V.7).

- from Medias,from a rural settlement comes a bronze statuette representing a dancer (Rep. V.6).

As we can see, unlike the Empire (the other provinces), where representations of the dance are painted,are on stone monuments,in Dacia we have more bronze artifacts representing dancers.

VI. Tourism is represented in Dacia only by the presence of some vehicles and by an inscription that certifies the journey of some characters from Ulpia Traiana in Rome:

-votive altar dedicated by several citizens to water goddesses of Baile Herculane , who had travelled to Rome for a political event and,at their return, they stopped in Herculane to treat (Rep. VI .1);

-wall of funeral aedicule on which is represented a chariot pulled by horses;the place of the discovery is not known and this piece is in Brukenthal Museum in Sibiu (Rep. VI.2).

## **CHAPTER VII. REPERTORY OF IMAGES SHOWING PHYSICAL EXERCISES,SPORT CONTESTS,PUBLIC GAMES,DANCE AND TOURISM FROM DACIAN PROVINCES**

Dacian provinces, conquered at the beginning of the second century and lost at the end of third century III AD. failed to assimilate all forms of physical activity, sports competitions, public games, dance and tourism, so that the repertory of images is poorer than the one from the eldest imperial provinces (which is described in Chapter IV). We have the following sections of sport activity:

### **I. physical exercises**

- 1.athletics
2. gymnastics
3. fight with weapons

### **II. proper games.**

- 2.brain games and games of luck

### **III. sports competitions: 1. professional sports**

2. wrestlings (greek-roman)

### **IV. sports competitions:2.public games**

- 2.carts racings
- 3.hunting in the amphitheatre
- 4.gladiators fights

### **V. dance**

### **IV. tourism**

2. journeys for pleasure

Basic feature of images that are found in Dacia is that they appear on the same types of artifacts (pottery, glass vessels, bricks and tiles, stone monuments) ; images are the same because they have the same sources (vessels of terra sigillata); in the case of local creations we can remark there



## CHAPTER VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The review of the main literary ,epigraphic and archaeological sources about physical education and sport races of the Roman Empire in the centuries plus / minus I-III AD. have shown that:

1.Physical education and sport contests had an important place in the life of the Empire's inhabitants ;

- physical activities and sports competitions were very numerous and complex,starting from the simple movement outdoors (running, marching, swimming) to systematically organized activities ,that are linked to certain political and religious events or to public sports competitions (wrestlings, racings , fights in the amphitheatre etc..) and to activities that had either a luxury character (dance) or wew involving large material investments (tourism trips);

- the roman state initiated, encouraged, popularized and financed many of these sport activities,having the obvious tendency to ensure the population with fun and relaxation; among donors was the emperor; so the funding has become a policy of the state;

- roman state supported or facilitated the sport advertising and ,especially,of public games,either by building sports bases (stadiums, circuses, amphitheatres) along the length of the roman state (and especially in its western part where there was a taste for such events),either by advertising sports through monetary shows, inscriptions, models of action;

- along with the state and taking his model,the private entrepreneurs started to make publicity to physical activities by art (paintings, mosaics, sculptures) of different sport events (especially carts racings and gladiator fights) or producing many artifacts with representations related to various sports (luxury vessels of clay or glass, patterns of clay for cakes or bread, statues of bronze, clay, lead, bone, etc. representing fighters;

- such sports and games (especially the popular ones) had reached through the way of art or artifacts all over the Empire, especially in its european and north-africans parts .

Based on these data, it seemed natural to approach the situation of physical exercises and sport systematically , in the three dacian provinces.

1. Province of Dacia (106-118 AD.) and then the three dacian provinces - Porolissensis, Apulensis and Malvensis / Inferior (118-275 AD.), came later in the composition of the Roman Empire and were parts of it a short time (about 165 years). And yet, I thought that as it integrated very well from political, military and economic point of view, as population and territory has suffered the effects of romanization ,it was necessary to identify elements of physical education and public sports competitions here.

- unfortunately, there is no literary source related to Dacia on this regard;
- there are inscriptions and monuments that show that were built also in Dacia "sport bases" and especially amphitheatres . Traian's Column shows an amphitheatre near Drobeta (which has been archaeological identified ),at Ulpia Traiana was investigated an amphitheatre, at Micia / Vețel was investigated a small amphitheatre, at Porolissum we have an inscription and an amphitheatre largely investigated. In Porolissum case we know that the stone amphitheatre was made by the governor of the province on behalf of the emperor, at 157. Many artifacts found in localities (gladiator statues, representations of gladiators, etc..) had made throughout the roman cities (Apulum, Potaissa, Napoca), where had been found such representations, to assume the existence of some amphitheatres;
- there have been found numerous artifacts of bronze, clay, bone,that present athletes, wrestlers, gymnasts and pugilism scenes;
- There are sculptured images and artifacts showing that it have been practiced also higher forms of physical movement, as was the dance;

Of course, the number of evidence about "sports branch" is smaller, and its representation is more modest compared with those of the oldest and most developed provinces than Dacia and, in fact, better and more researched, but more important to us it the fact that it can be shown that it exist a part of every branch of sport life. The fact that certain representations and local daco-roman artifacts produced present a great resemble to products from other provinces (eg. representation on bricks of gladiators) shows that there were general knowledge about these games that crossed border.

My paper work has approach in a general way this field of spiritual life of the mass culture from those three dacian provinces,for the first time,sistematically,from archaeological point of view and, especially,from physical education and sport games point of view.

Glossary of ancient terms related to physical education and romans games: amphitheatre, carts racings,gladiators, athletics, gymnastics,fights with weapons, brain games and games of luck, wrestlings, .hunting in the amphitheatre,pugilism,pancratium,artifatcs.

## ABBREVIATIONS AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

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- Cato                    M. Porcius Cato, *Opera omnia*; ed. A. Mazzarino, Roma 1962
- Cicero                 M. Tulli Ciceronis, *Opera omnia*; ed. C.F.W. Mueller, Leipzig 1878-1905
- CIL                    *Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*, Berlin
- Gallenus             Gallenus, *Este igiena de domeniul medicinei sau al gimnasticii ?*, în *Sportul la eleni*, Cluj, 1930
- Horatius             Horatius, *Opera omnia. 2. Satira, epistola, arta poetică*, București 1980
- ILS                    *Inscriptiones Latinae Selectae*, I-III, ed. H. Dessau, Berlin 1916
- IDR                    *Inscripțiile Daciei Romane*, București
- Iuvenal              Persius-Iuvenal-Martial, *Satire și epigrame*, București 1967
- T. Livius             T. Livius, *De la fundarea Romei*, I, București 1962
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- Quintilianus        M. Fabius Quintilianus, *Artă oratorică*, București 1974, cf. Larousse DCR, p. 165
- Plinius Maior        Plinius Maior, *Histoire Naturelle de Pline*, II, Paris 1883 (NatHist)
- Plinius cel Tânăr   Plinius, *Opere complete*. București 1977
- Philostratos        Philostratos Athenaios, *Despre gimnastică*, în *Sportul la eleni*, Cluj 1930
- Res Gestae Divi Aug. Res Gestae Divi Augusti/*Faptele divinului Augustus*, ed. îngrijită, studiu introductiv, note și comentarii de N. Zugravu, Iași 2004
- Suetonius            C. Suetonius Tranquillus, *Viețile celor 12 Caesari*, București 1958

SHA	<i>Scriptores Historiae Augustae</i> . Studiu introductiv de Vl. Iiescu, partea I; traducere și note de D. Popescu; partea a II-a traducere și note de C-tin Drăgulescu, București 1971
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Tacitus a	P.C. Tacitus, <i>Opere</i> II. Istorii, traducere, studiu introductiv și note de N. Lascu, București 1963
Tertulianus	Cl. Tertulianus, <i>Despre idolatrie și alte scrieri morale</i> , ediție îngrijită și studiu introductiv de Claudiu Arieșan, Timișoara 2001
Vergilius	Virgile. <i>Oevres</i> . Text établi et traduit par H. Gelzer, I-III, Paris 1933-1935
Vitruvius	Vitruvius, <i>Despre arhitectură</i> , traducere de G.M. Cantacuzino, Tr. Costa și Gr. Ionescu, București 1964
Zugravu 2004	N. Zugravu (ed.), <i>Res gestae Divi Augusti</i> , Iași 2004

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Étienne 1970	R. Étienne, <i>Viața cotidiană la Pompei</i> , București 1970
Lascu 1965	N. Lascu, <i>Cum trăiau romanii</i> , București 1965
Lascu 1986	N. Lascu, <i>Călători și exploratori în antichitate</i> , București 1986
Casson 1974	L. Casson, <i>Travel in the ancient world</i> , London 1974
Iordănescu 2003	A. Iordănescu, <i>Viața privată în Imperiul Roman</i> , București 2003
Ariès-Duby 1994	Ph. Aries-G. Duby, <i>Istoria vieții private de la Imperiul Roman la anul 1000</i> , trad. de I. Hârdan, București 1994
Petecel 1980	Stela Petecel, <i>Antichitatea greco-romană despre sport</i> , București 1980
Tudor 1976	D. Tudor, <i>Arheologia romană</i> , București 1976

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DACL	H. Leclerc-F. Cabrol, <i>Dictionnaire d'archéologie chrétienne et de liturgie</i> , Paris
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- DAGR *Dictionnaire des antiquités grecques et romaines*, Ch. Daremberg-Edm. Saglio, Paris 1877-1919
- DLRC *Dicționarul limbii române contemporane*, București
- ECR *Enciclopedia civilizației romane*, ed. D. Tudor, București 1982
- ES *Encyclopedie des sports*, 1, Paris 1969
- Kretschmer 1958 Fr. Kretschmer, *Bilddokumente römischer Technik*, Düsseldorf 1958
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- atleta 1877 atleta, în DAGR I.1, 1877, p. 515-521
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- gladiator gladiator, în DA II.2, 1896, p. 1562-1599
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#### KEYWORDS:

*Circus, palestre, for, pugilat, duumvirat, pancrațiu, pentatlon, venațio, Dominus, cohortes, sesterți, Strabo, Pausanias, Ptolemeus, Vitruvius, Caracalla, Piazza Armerina, stadium, anfiteatrum, Decebalus, Porolissum, Moesia, Malvensis, Potaissa, Limes, Gemina, Napoca, Apulum, Micia, Cybele, ove, Dierna, votiv.*