

# ACI'25 MUN



ANTALYA PRIVATE ACI COLLEGE MODEL UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE 2025

## JCCC

# AGENDA ITEM: OPEN AGENDA

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## Letter from the Secretary-General

First of all, let me extend a huge and warm welcome to all of the participants to the very first official session of Private Açı High School Model United Nations Conference of 2025, which will be held in Antalya from September 2nd to 4th!

I, Yasemin Raithel, as the Secretary-General of this well-planned and coordinated conference, it is my immense pleasure to be able to present this organization with this position. I sincerely wish you a fulfilling and thriving one. Model United Nations Conferences are not just a conference, you have a wonderful opportunity to level-up your knowledge of international relations and today's issues, gaining confidence whilst being a representative in the committees. Especially, members of the Academic Team; our Under-Secretary Generals, Academic Assistants and Board Members are the best you could ever ask for in Antalya society. Each of our committees are carefully selected for you to have the best experience ever. From advanced committees to beginner ones.

My utmost gratitude to the Principals and Teachers of our school, their effort and guidance made this conference possible. Moreover, I want to thank every single attendee of AÇIMUN'25, particularly our Academic and Organization Teams, who worked hard and served their best. Also a special appreciation goes to the only other person of the Executive Team, his organization skills are beyond any measure.

Last but not least, I want to leave a quote from Founder Father of the Republic of Turkey, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk:

Turkish Youth, your first duty is to preserve and to defend Turkish Independence and the Turkish Republic forever. This is the very foundation of your existence and your future. This foundation is your most precious treasure.

Lastly, whether you are a first timer delegate or an experienced member of ours, I wish everyone a marvelous experience and success during the conference. Hope to see you soon!

Sincerely,

Yasemin RAITHEL

Secretary-General of AÇIMUN'25



# Letter from the Under-Secretaries-General

Dear Delegates,

First of all, we want to welcome you all to the JCC of AÇIMUN'25. It is a joy to call ourselves the Under-Secretaries-General of this committee. We are sure beyond any doubt that no participant will encounter any trouble with anything.

Ancient history is thoroughly fascinating, and the 2nd Punic War is an event that shaped the future of the Mediterranean. We, especially our hardworking academic assistant Deniz, have compiled a beyond comprehensive study guide for you to not only prepare well for the committee, but learn about the history, religion, archaeology and culture of both Republican Rome and Carthage at their height. Nevertheless we encourage you to do some extra research on your own, especially regarding your allocations and perhaps some more detailed plans you may have.

Lastly, we wish to thank the executive board of our prestigious conference. Our Secretary General, Deputy Secretary General, Director General and Deputy Director General, as well as the advisory team. With again special thanks to our academic assistant Deniz for his wonderful work on this guide as we were mostly unavailable.

Come prepared, and see Rome burned, or Carthage raised. Enjoy!

USGs Can & Timur

## Committee Procedure

### *Directives And Types Of Directives*

#### What is a Directive?

A crisis cabinet is a specialized committee that replicates decision-making during a crisis.

Individual delegates or members inside the Crisis Cabinet provide directives to guide their actions and responses to the crisis. Delegates use directives to propose specific courses of action, tactics,

or policies to handle the situation. Depending on the committee structure, and the course of actions currently happening in the committee, these directives can take many forms, such as **Individual, Joint, Committee, Intelligence, Top Secret Directive, and Press Release.**

### ***Individual Directive:***

When an action is within your character's authority or is achievable due to their abilities, you write personal commands. To begin, there is a format for writing directives; so, you must state who is sending the directive and to whom it is being sent (from, to). Following that, whose cabinet is sending the directive, followed by the time and current date of the committee. Finally, the format of your directive and its title. That's all there is to it; this is the only format you need to know to write a directive. The only thing left is the content of your directive, and the way through which you compose it is fairly simple; You write it by answering the what, why, when, who, where, and, most crucially, how questions. You write the action you want to take by answering the WH questions and then elaborating and discussing it as much as possible to make your plan as thorough as feasible. Also, whenever possible, employ the future tense.

On paper, a directive looks like this:

From: Menelaus	Personal Directive	Date: 1192BC
May 3		
To: Related Authorities	Capturing Tiryns	Time: 12.34
(Spartan Cabinet)		

**What:** I will capture Tiryns with my 5,000 agoge men stationed on the Tiryns frontline. My soldiers will kill and destroy any enemy forces they come across, as well as any enemy military bases. Women and children in the city will not be murdered unless they attack the soldiers. To reduce noise, the 5,000 agoge soldiers will be divided into 50 groups, with 200 soldiers per group. Each group will have a commander, and the commanders will be the best warriors among their groups. They will be well-armed with their hoplons, xiphos, and dorus (Spartan agoge soldiers' shields, spearheads, and small swords). Each group will apply the doctrine properly to

face the fewest casualties. If needed, 3 soldiers from each group will bring supplies to their own group from the frontlines, and these 3 soldiers will be picked randomly from the commanders. They will use the safest route and avoid the enemy. Our men will take the safe paths suggested by our spies.

**Why:** Tiryns plays a crucial role in the war, and it must be captured in order to cut the enemy's supply lines.

**When:** Soldiers will charge at 02.00 a.m. to catch the enemy off guard.

**Who:** I will be operating this attack, and if I fall during the war, my right-hand man, Analus, will take over. 5,000 agoge soldiers will assault the enemy.

**Where:** 2,500 of my soldiers will charge from the southeast frontline, and the other 2,500 will charge from the west to capture Tiryns.

**How\*:** Soldiers will check and control their weapons before charging. They will pray, remember how brave they are, and then honour their nation and gods by demolishing the enemy. They will not disobey their commander's orders and apply the doctrine as they say. To avoid being affected by attrition, our soldiers will study their geographical situation as well as the enemy's to use in their favour. Soldiers will use an offensive phalanx formation when I order them to charge, and they will slaughter each enemy troop they face. They will use the offensive formation until they face a larger enemy force to quickly capture as many critical areas as possible. If they face a larger enemy force, to be exact, 1.5 times larger than them, they will quickly change to a defensive phalanx formation and wait for recruitment whilst defending themselves. Their priority will be killing the enemy rather than cutting supply lines. In mountain areas, they will use the highlands in their favour and quickly oppress the enemy to finish them. Once they reach the city, their priority will be killing the cabinet members of Tiryns. If possible, they will defenestrate them to entertain themselves. After the military bases and the city are captured, soldiers will go to the possible conflict areas to recruit other soldiers. Even though we sent spies before, our soldiers will be vigilant for any kind of trap. Their main objective is to capture the city, and for that purpose, they will sacrifice themselves without hesitation.

(keep in mind you don't actually need to give us headers that say 'what' or 'when' etc. Just make sure its all in the text.)

### **Joint Directive:**

Directives written by more than one individual are considered joint directives. You write joint directives when you can only achieve your purpose in the directive by utilizing the authority of other cabinet members. Assume you are the commander of the army, and you want to take Warsaw. Yet you understand that conquering it without air superiority would be impossible, so you write a joint directive with the general of the air force. So it makes the "from:" part your

name and the general of the air forces' name, and instead of a personal directive you write a Joint Directive. Everything else is the same.

### **Committee Directive:**

A committee directive is written when you wish to use everyone's authority or when you are about to deliver your final directive (in most cases). Delegates frequently ask me, "How are we meant to write a committee directive with the other cabinet?" But that's just a common misunderstanding. You write the committee directive with your cabinet; the formal name is "Committee Directive," but it is basically a cabinet directive. So, simply writing a Committee Directive to the "from:" part will do.

### **Intelligence Directive:**

You write intelligence directives when you want to acquire the necessary information about you or your country/cabinet. The format is exactly the same, except for the "WH Questions" part. For example:

From: Winston Churchill	Intelligence Directive	Date: 1942 May 3
To: Crisis Team	Our Troop Counts	Time: 16.21

(The Great Britain Cabinet)

How many troops does our country have? Do we possess any nuclear weapons? How many of our military factories are assigned to manufacture infantry weapons, and what kind of weapons are they producing?

### **Top Secret:**

Top Secret directives are those that your chair is not allowed to read. You hand over your Top Secret directive to the admin. They are written precisely the same, but you must fold your paper and write "TOP SECRET" on the back side of it. The major reason for writing a Top Secret Directive is treason, a diabolical strategy to crash one's own cabinet or to switch sides. For instance, if a person secretly kills his cabinet members and becomes the dictator, the winning condition changes and only that person wins, whereas the cabinet loses. But I don't recommend writing Top Secret Directives unless you're planning on writing a brilliant 10-page long directive, because failing to do so will backfire much worse. You will earn your cabinet's distrust, and you may die and be given an insignificant character. Furthermore, updates to the Top Secret Directives are only sent to the person who sent them, unless they directly affect the other cabinet members.

## **Tour De Table**

In Model United Nations (MUN) crises committees, "tour de table" is a term used to describe a specific procedure or phase of the committee session. It is a French term that translates to "turn of the table" in English.

During a tour de table, each delegate representing a country or entity in the committee takes turns speaking and sharing their country's or entity's stance, opinions, or proposed actions on the crisis at hand. This process allows all delegates to express their views and contribute to the discussion in a structured and organized manner.

Tour de table is often used at the beginning of a crisis committee session or at crucial points during the committee's work to gauge the positions and perspectives of each delegation. It helps set the stage for further debate, collaboration, and negotiation among delegates as they work to find solutions to the crisis. In a typical tour de table, the chair or moderator of the committee will go around the room or call upon delegates in a specific order to speak. Each delegate is given a limited time (usually around 1-2 minutes) to make their statement. This process ensures that all countries or entities have an equal opportunity to be heard and participate actively in the committee's discussions.

**Semi-moderated Caucus:** Unlike moderated caucuses, delegates in a semi-moderated caucus are allowed to speak without the chair's permission, as long as they do not interrupt other cabinet members and treat each other with respect.

**Unmoderated Caucus:** In an unmoderated caucus, delegates are free to draft any kind of paper they want to achieve their goals, and support others. The majority of the cabinet's time should be spent on unmoderated caucuses rather than semi-moderated.

Unlike the General Assembly Committees, at a Joint Crisis Committee, the sessions proceed with Semi-Moderated caucuses and Unmoderated caucuses. The reason for that is to have a more smooth experience. Since the participants of a Joint Crisis Committee have already had a few experiences with how committees and MUN conferences proceed, semi and unmoderated caucuses are to advance the efficiency of debates, thus making crucial and quick decisions. It was mentioned earlier, but directives are the primary reason that a JCC's procedure is so unique. So later on with the sessions based on your chair's initiative you needn't take one or two semi-moderated caucuses before an unmoderated caucus to write directives, directly voting for an unmoderated caucus before moderated will be allowed to continue writing directives.



On a Joint Crisis Committee, after the roll call and Tour de Table, delegates may take semi-moderated caucuses to discuss future actions, strategies and plans. After determining their move, delegates write down the designated act to put into practice. There isn't a General Speakers' List, resolution paper, or opening speech.

### ***Edicts and Declarations (Ancient Press Releases)***

In a contemporary committee, you would be using press releases to address the general public about any actions or situations. You can use press releases for propaganda to cleanse your own image, or black propaganda to tarnish somebody else's image. You can rally the commoner to join the army or try to break apart your opponent's military.

A press release is as its name implies, an act of publishing media. Press releases are important as a ruler is only as powerful as their flock is loyal.

Now in BCE the printing press or modern media obviously didn't exist. Yet rulers and people in positions of power have always utilized the power of controlling and speaking to the public. This can be done through Declarations and Edicts.

Imagine a marketplace in ancient times, you've seen it in a lot of movies. Some guy with a fanfare trots in on a horse and plays his tune, then proceeds to read loudly off a piece of parchment addressing the people in the name of the ruler. This is basically what a declaration is. The where, when and how is of course subject to your imagination and your creativity is the limit. You may choose to deliver speeches yourself at an important ceremony, or in front of your army to boost morale or approval of some sort. You may organize a whole event just for your declaration to be read. Just be creative.

An edict on the other hand is a little different. While a declaration is a mere giving of information, something you'd just listen to, an edict is an official order. A press release might say; Come and join your military now to help us beat our foul opponents and save your motherland from invasion!

An edict will say; By the ruler's authority, conscription has begun. Every man capable of holding a weapon must check-in for further procedure at the nearest military outpost in the next week. Citizens who fail to cooperate shall be punished.

Think of it as a "could/should" and a "must". Edicts are direct orders and might even be regarded as legislature. You might issue edicts to conscript members to your army, protect certain areas or properties, protect intellectual property, ban certain things or allow certain things etc. They're basically laws in short.

## Introduction to the Committee

The Punic Wars were a series of three conflicts between the Roman Republic and the Empire of Carthage from 264 BCE to 146 BCE. For over a century the Romans and the Carthaginians hustled to control the seas and the lands of the Italian peninsula, Sicily, southern Spain and northern Africa. There were a total of 3 wars, involving a total of 43 years of warfare on both land and sea across the western Mediterranean region, and a 4 year revolt against Carthage. In 264 BC, Carthage's possessive approach to the island and Rome's expansionist mindset led to **the First Punic War** on the Mediterranean island of Sicily. Here it is important to consider that Sicily, though a stern part of modern Italy and evident geographical proximity, was not considered part of the traditional 'Italia' by the Romans, whom remained uninterested in the island until later, more expansionist periods. Rome was rapidly gaining influence in Italy at the beginning of the war, with a powerful army but no navy, while Carthage was the dominant force in the western Mediterranean with a vast maritime empire (a thalassocracy). Sicily and its surrounding waterways, as well as North Africa, Corsica, and Sardinia, were the main locations for the conflict. It continued for 23 years until the Carthaginians were vanquished in 241 BC. Carthage made significant reparations as stipulated in the peace treaty, and Sicily became the first Roman province to be annexed. The end of the war sparked a major but eventually unsuccessful revolt within Carthaginian territory known as the Mercenary War. **The Second Punic War's** beginning was in 218 BC and witnessed the Carthaginian general Hannibal's crossing of the Alps and invasion of mainland Italy. This expedition witnessed considerable early success and campaigned in Italy for 14 years before the survivors withdrew. There was also extensive fighting in Iberia (modern Spain and Portugal), Sicily, Sardinia and North Africa. The Romans' successful invasion of the Carthaginian homeland in Africa (204 BC) led to Hannibal's recall. He was defeated in the battle of Zama in 202 BC and Carthage sued for peace. A treaty was agreed upon in 201 BC which took away Carthage's overseas territories and some of its African ones, imposed a large compensation, thoroughly restricted the size of its armed forces and banned Carthage from

waging war without Rome's permission. This caused Carthage to stop being a military threat to Rome. In 151 BC Carthage attempted to defend itself from Numidian encroachments. Rome used this as a justification to declare war in 149 BC, starting **the Third Punic War**. This conflict was fought fully on Carthaginian territory in what is currently Tunisia and centred on the siege of Carthage. In 146 BC the Romans attacked the city of Carthage, raided it, slaughtered or enslaved its population and razed (completely destroyed) the city, salting the earth behind them so that nothing may grow again.. The Carthaginian territories were taken over as the Roman province of Africa. The ruins of the city are located on the North African coast, east of modern Tunis.

## Matrix

### *Roman Republic*

#### Roman Board Member

Name	Details
Gaius Claudius Nero	Roman general active during the Second Punic War against the invading Carthaginian force. (This is <b>NOT</b> the emperor Nero.)

#### Delegate Allocations

Name	Role in the Punic War
Marcus Livius Salinator	Nero's co-consul in 207 BCE; helped defeat Hasdrubal Barca.
Scipio Africanus	Later hero of Zama (202 BCE). Campaign in Hispania, critical strategist.
Fabius Maximus "Cunctator"	Architect of the "delay" strategy after Cannae. Politically dominant.
Marcus Junius Pera	Emergency dictator after Cannae to rebuild Rome's forces.

Q. Fabius Maximus (the Younger)	Participated in later phases of the war.
Lucius Aemilius Paullus	Consul at Cannae (216 BCE); died in that catastrophic defeat.
Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus	Innovator who raised armies including slaves to counter Hannibal.

## ***Carthaginian Republic***

### **Carthaginian Board**

Name	Details
Hannibal Barca	Supreme commander in Italy. brilliant general with personal vendetta against Rome.

### **Delegate Allocations**

Name	Role During the War
Hasdrubal Barca	Hannibal's brother. Led Iberian campaign. Died at Metaurus (207 BCE).
Mago Barca	Youngest Barca. Supported campaigns in Italy and Spain.
Hanno the Elder	Leading senator. Political rival to Barcid faction. Anti-war stance.

Bomilcar	Naval commander. Involved in African defense and Carthaginian logistics.
Himilco Phameas	Skilled cavalry leader. Defected to Rome later in the war.
Hasdrubal Gisco	Iberian general. Led major campaigns in Spain and North Africa.
Syphax (Ally)	King of the Masaesyli Numidians. Briefly aligned with Carthage against Rome.

## The Roman Republic

The Roman Republic was founded after the Roman kingdom was overthrown in 509 BC and it lasted until 27 BC. According to tradition, in 509 BC a series of key events took place in the history of Rome. If you were to be there at that time your description of these events would include: “The last monarch is expelled, Rome is taken by Porsenna’s army, Rome and Carthage signed a treaty, the Consular Fasti began and the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus (better known as *Jupiter Optimus Maximus*, “the best and greatest”) is consecrated.”. And this obviously seems like a lot of events for such a short time. The only one that belongs with certainty to the year 509 BC is the dedication of the temple of Jupiter. The other events might have taken place later, although within a short period of time. The Fasti consulares (the documents with the names of the consuls or magistrates that described the main events of the period) are crucial for the understanding of the historical flow and sequence of events of the Roman Republic from 503 BC, from when they are considered credible. Another crucial method used to gain understanding of this period of Roman history is the clavus annalis ritual. One year after the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus was consecrated, this practice began, and it consisted of fixing a bronze nail to the right of the altar once a year. The first nail was placed in 508 BC. The temple of Jupiter Capitolinus had the cella of Jupiter,, alongside the cella of Minerva and Juno. The decade after 509 BC (509 BC is the year when the last King of Rome was dethroned, whilst he was away from Rome) is a dark period and there is very little information known about this period..



## ***Transition to the Roman Republic***

Several internal social tensions were caused by the transition of Rome from a monarchy to a republic. This lack of control over the city caused neighbouring tribes (Etruscan, Sabine, Volsci, Aequi, and Latins) to siege the city and reduce its power. This is why Rome had to confirm its identity on numerous occasions during the first 70 years of the Republic.

These occasions consist of;

<b>Type</b>	<b>Occasion</b>	<b>The Identity Reaffirmed</b>
Political	Overthrow of monarchy	REPUBLICANISM over tyranny
Military	Siege by Lars Porsenna	Heroism & resistance to monarchy
Social	First Plebeian Secession	Inclusion of plebeian voice
Legal	Twelve Tables	Rome is ruled by LAW
Political	Fall of Decemvirs	Power must rotate: NO PERMENANT RULERS
Military	Wars with neighbors	Rome survives through unity & strength
Symbolic	Anti-Tarquin wars	No return to kingship!!

The early years of the Republic are of political fuss. The population was divided into 4, some wanted a monarchy, others wanted a republic, others favoured Lars Porsenna, king of Clusium, and the remaining wanted to form part of the Latin civilisation. The nobles who had overthrown the king and his family had not and could not come to an agreement regarding the type of government that would replace the overthrown monarchy. Thus, the consuls, which would later be replacing the leadership of the Roman kings, were not put in place immediately, but many years later. Many historians believe that in the first stages of the Roman Republic, a praetor with the so-called name Maximus was appointed for one year only. His duties would later be split in two by choosing two consuls at a time to govern Rome. This form of government continued until 449 BC, with the Valeria Horaria law. These laws were three laws which were passed by the consuls of Rome for 449 BC. They reinstated the right of appeal for the citizens and implemented measures that benefited the plebeians. The consuls acted following a plebeian uprising, the second plebeian secession, which removed the second decemvirate that had governed tyrannically. The two consuls had expressed compassion for the plebeians and, consequently, had been selected to mediate the resolution of the revolt. The new regulations pacified the popular discontent. The position of chief magistrate was not exclusively for the “patres” (members of any of the families constituting the populus Romanus, before the development of the plebeian order), who were the ones to form the Roman senate, and controlled the army and the priests since the time of Romulus, as there is evidence that shows plebeians, common civilians, becoming consuls up until 485 BC. The political instability led the strongest factions to form alliances between themselves. From 485 BC, the patricians no longer permitted commoners to play roles in the government and began to control all civil and religious matters.

## ***Roman Law***

As well as the constant patrician - plebeian rivalry, the Republic is also known as a period in which the power of Rome reached the whole Italian peninsula and Roman law was founded with the Law of the Twelve Tables in 450 BC. Furthermore, it was also a period in which many wars took place for the purpose of equality between the Roman inhabitants. The Twelve Tables were written up to soothe the demands of the commoners. Until the Tables were written, Roman law had had a sacred character, as it had been linked to the monarchy and the college of pontiffs. With its drafting, Roman law was desacralised and became the basis of the law of the Western world. Between 133 BC and 27 BC, Rome suffered from heavy internal tensions, leading to numerous civil wars. The Graco brothers, who proposed a series of laws in favour of the plebeians, also led to a social crisis in Rome. Perhaps one of the greatest benefits of Roman law and its legal systems was that, as the empire grew and populations grew more cosmopolitan, the law and its protection of citizens acted as a binding force on

communities and raised the expectation that a citizen's rights (and in time even a non-citizen's rights) would be supported, assisted and a system was in place. Thus, wrongs could be compensated. In addition, the Romans have handed down to us not only many legal terms still-used today in the field of law and legal science but also their passion and expertise for precise and exact legal terminology in order to avoid uncertainty or even misinterpretation of the law, once again, an approach that all modern legal documents attempt to emulate.

## *The Founding Myth of Rome*



The story of Rome begins with Romulus and Remus being suckled by the she-wolf who raised them. “Romulus and Remus were purported to be sons of Rhea Silvia and Mars, the god of war. Because of a prophecy that they would overthrow

their great-uncle Amulius, who had overthrown Silvia’s father, Numitor, they were, in the manner of many mythological heroes, abandoned at birth. Both sons were left to die on the Tiber River, but were saved by a number of miraculous interventions. After being carried to safety by the river itself, the twins were nurtured by a she-wolf and fed by a woodpecker, until a shepherd, named Faustulus, found them and took them as his sons.” is how the story first goes. “When Remus and Romulus became adults and learned the truth about their birth and upbringing, they killed Amulius and restored Numitor to the throne. Rather than wait to inherit Alba Longa, the city of their birth, the twins decided to



establish their own city. They quarreled, however, over where to locate the new city, and in the process of their dispute, Romulus killed his brother. Thus Rome began with a fratricide, a story that was later taken to represent the city's history of internecine political strife and bloodshed."

One more thing they did in the process included inviting some neighboring cities over for a big feast but since Rome consisted almost entirely of men when it was first founded, this feast resulted in Rome kidnapping the neighboring cities' women. Which is painted on the left too.



### ***The Roman Political System***

Western Civilization will always owe a debt to the citizens of ancient Greece and Rome. Among the many contributions of these societies are in the areas of art, literature, and philosophy; however, their most significant gift to future generations may be the modern understanding of government. The modern concept of

democracy, originating from the political conflicts in Athens, was realized in the Roman Republic and persisted, despite ongoing interruptions by the emperor, throughout the Roman Empire. Despite the significant changes in the current definition of democracy, it remains essential to acknowledge its early development in the timeless city of Rome.

### ***From Monarchy to Representation***

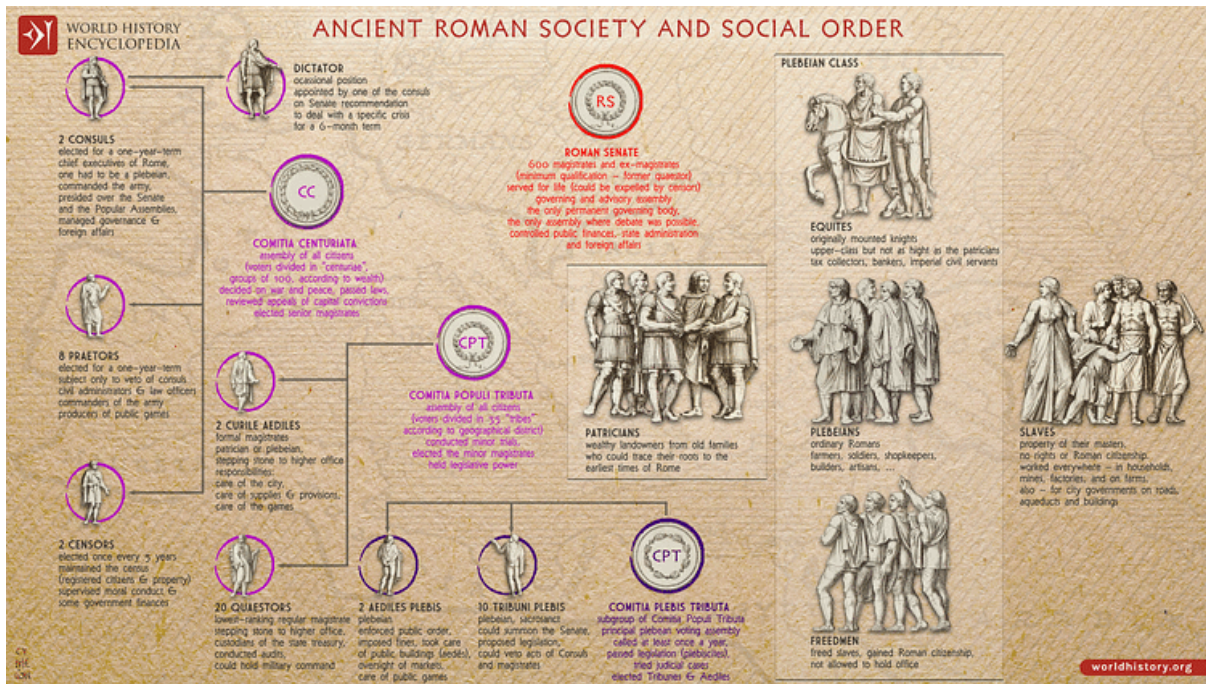
The Roman Republic arose from what a historian described as "the remnants of the monarchy." Years spent under the relentless control of a king taught the Roman people to protect themselves against the dominance and potential tyranny of one person. The genuine authority or imperium of the republic, and later the empire, was to be shared among three fundamental components - elected non-hereditary officials, a Senate for advice and consent, and popular assemblies. Sadly

for many individuals in Rome, during the initial phases of the Republic, authority was exclusively held by the wealthy elite, the ancient landowning families or patricians. The rest and most significant portion of the city's inhabitants - the plebeians - possessed few, if any, rights. This imbalanced distribution of power would not endure for much time.

## ***The Consuls***

To prevent tyranny, the new government opted for consuls, choosing two instead of a king. These people were not chosen by the public but rather designated by the popular assembly, the Comitia Centuriata. Every consul held a one-year, non-consecutive term, but he could later take on a second or third term. As the political and military leaders of the state, consuls held ultimate executive authority, leading the army, overseeing the Senate, and suggesting laws; nevertheless, as a protection, each consul could reject the other's choice - an *intercessio*. To signify their power, they donned a traditional wool toga featuring a purple trim, occupied a unique chair known as sella curulis, and were accompanied by no fewer than six specialized aides or lictors. The fasces, a bundle of rods and an axe, served as their symbol. At the conclusion of their one-year term, they were answerable to the public assembly for any choices made or actions undertaken. Numerous consuls would see their roles broadened by assuming the position of proconsul, a governor of one of the several Roman provinces. At first, the consul position was restricted to patricians, but in 367 BCE plebeians gained eligibility, and by 342 BCE laws mandated that one of the two consuls must be a plebeian. Notable individuals who held the office of consul include Julius Caesar, Marcus Licinius Crassus, Pompey the Great, and Mark Antony.





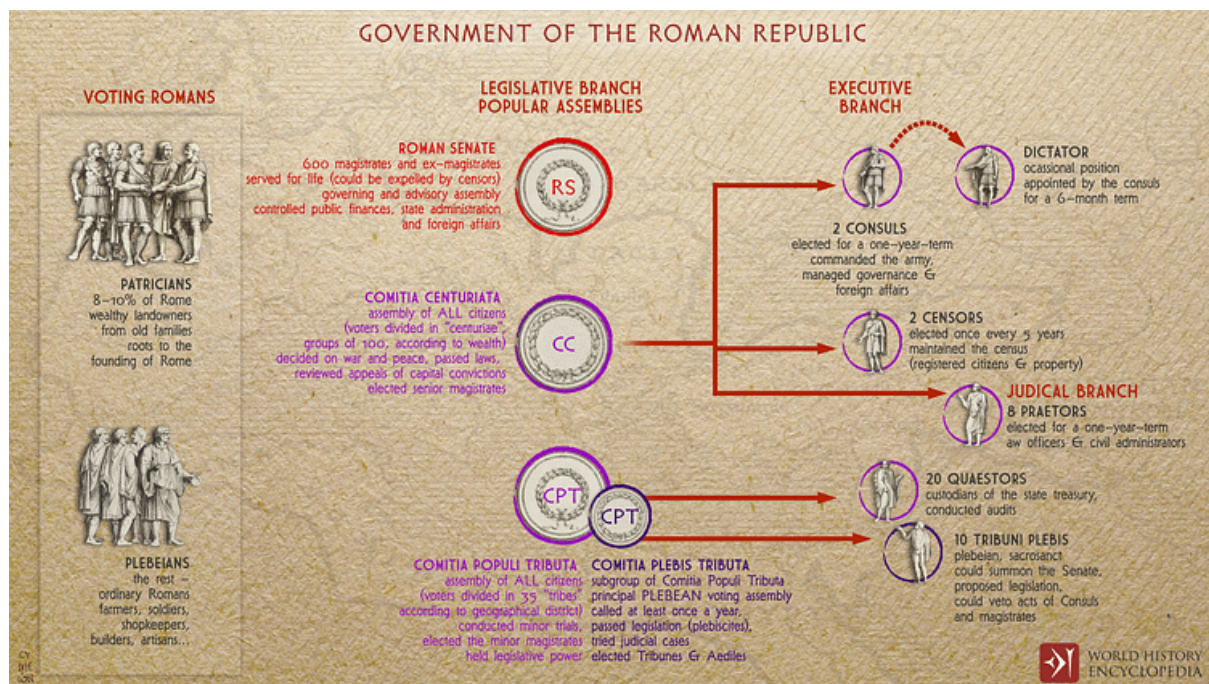
## The Senate

In contrast to subsequent parliamentary institutions, the Roman Senate possessed minimal, if any, legislative power, as that authority resided with the popular assemblies. Initially accessible solely to the patricians, the Senate possessed what could be termed “indirect” executive authority known as *auctoritas*. Although it lacked legal authority, it maintained considerable influence, acting as a consultative entity to the consuls and subsequently the emperors. Members of this conservative group were not compensated and held their positions for life unless convicted of public or private wrongdoing. Senators were not allowed to participate in banking or international trade.

For the majority of its history, the Roman Senate was dominated by the affluent. Although its capacity to sway leadership diminished over time, particularly during the emperors' rule, participation in this revered institution fluctuated. In the era of the kings, when it functioned as a council or *patres et conscripti*, its membership was set at 100; later, during Tiberius and the Gracchi brothers in the 2nd century BCE, this amount was raised to 300. A hundred years later, Sulla, aiming to implement significant land reforms, would increase this total threefold when he expanded the Senate to 900 members. Julius Caesar would increase the number by another hundred, making the total 1,000, while Emperor Augustus established its membership at 600.

The Senate discussed both domestic and foreign policy, supervised relations with foreign powers, directed the religious life of Rome, and controlled state finances.

Although the Senate might not have possessed true legislative power, it held crucial responsibilities that made its views vital to the operation of the Roman government. Initially, the senators engaged in discussions about both domestic and international policies while overseeing interactions with foreign nations. They managed the spiritual affairs of Rome and, crucially, oversaw government finances. At first, following the collapse of the monarchy, senators were appointed by the consul; however, with the enactment of the Lex Ovinia in the 4th century BCE, this authority shifted to the censor, who then had the ability to include new members. Senate sessions were summoned by the magistrates, who would present a list of subjects for deliberation. Moreover, as the meetings took place privately to prevent public observation, unrestricted freedom of speech enabled every senator to express his views or *senatus consultum*.



## Government of The Roman Republic

This ability to influence the views of magistrates and the public enabled several notable senators to rise, including Cato the Elder, his grandson Cato the Younger, Marcus Junius Brutus, and finally, Marcus Tullius Cicero. The initial figure, Marcus Porcius, recognized in history as Cato the Elder or Cato the Censor, was a prominent speaker and politician. Though noted for his views on the Republic's moral decay, he is more famous for his tirade on the Senate floor in the last years of the Punic Wars. Carthage, he stated, must be obliterated. "Carthage must be destroyed." Ultimately, Rome would heed his advice and eventually destroy the conquered city. Cato the

Younger emulated his grandfather's path. A Pompey supporter and outspoken opponent of Julius Caesar, he opted for suicide rather than yield to the dictator. Subsequently, Brutus, his son-in-law, along with Senators Decimus, Cimber, and Gaius Trebonius, took part in the murder of Julius Caesar. Lastly, there was the renowned speaker, attorney, and statesman Cicero, another outspoken opponent of Caesar and an idealistic champion of the Republic. Though he did not take part in Caesar's murder, he backed the assassins and advocated for their mercy. Cicero fled Rome but was hunted down by Octavian, Caesar's adopted son and successor, and killed.

## ***The Assemblies***

Rather than authority residing in the Senate, the power to enact laws was assigned to various popular assemblies. Initially, there existed the Comitia Curiata, a legislative assembly originating from the time of the kings that developed into the Comitia Centuriata. Following that, the Concilium Plebis represented the plebeians, and finally, from the era of the monarchy, the various smaller tribal assemblies also existed.

While many might not see these assemblies as genuinely democratic, prior to the rise of the empire, they possessed the people's power. Following the collapse of the monarchy, the initial Comitia Curiata, which represented the three primary tribes, forfeited its ability to create laws but temporarily maintained the power of *lex curia de imperio* - the authority to validate the appointment of magistrates; it also oversaw the selection of priests, adoptions, and wills. Over time, it turned mostly ceremonial, leading to the rise of the very conservative Comitia Centuriata - another assembly based on wealth. The members of this new organization were arranged into centuries (groups of one hundred men), totaling 193. Every century voted collectively; as a result, the more affluent centuries overpowered the "less wealthy" ones. In contrast to the other assemblies that gathered in the Forum, the Centuriata convened on the Campus Martius or Field of Mars beyond the city. Its responsibilities involved selecting different magistrates (consuls, praetors, and censors), passing laws, proclaiming war and peace, and imposing the death penalty on Romans accused of political offenses.

The essential role of assemblies is seen in the Roman army's use of SPQR - *Senatus Populusque Romanus* or Senate and Roman people - on their military standards.

In addition to the Centuriata, there existed the Concilium Plebis, known as the Council of the Plebs, and the Comita Tributa, the tribal assemblies. As mentioned previously, the Council of the Plebs arose from the Conflict of Orders and reflected the issues of the plebeians. Similar to the other assemblies, they cast their votes based on tribal affiliations, with each tribe receiving a



single vote. They passed laws or referendums that originally applied to the plebeians but ultimately became mandatory for all citizens. They appointed tribunes or *tribuni plebis* and conducted trials for non-lethal crimes. Every plebeian was mandated by law to pledge an oath, a *pomerium*, to uphold the choices made by the tribunes.

Subsequently, there were assemblies composed of both plebeians and patricians. These gatherings were organized into the 35 tribes, according to an individual's lineage, and could be called by a consul, praetor, or tribune. They handled small public affairs and chose quaestors, aediles, and military tribunes. They additionally voted on laws proposed by the magistrates and acted as a court of appeals for non-capital matters.



In the era of the Republic, these diverse assemblies represented the citizens of Rome, and while they were not entirely democratic by today's standards, they enabled a portion of the Roman populace to express their views. Their fundamental function in Roman governance was significant enough that the military engraved the letters SPQR on their banners - *Senatus Populusque Romanus*, meaning Senate and the Roman people.

## ***The Tribunes & The Rule of Law***

At first, as one could deduce, the actual power of the republic was held by the patricians; yet, this influence could not and would not last. The plebeians, making up the bulk of the army and performing most of the actual labor, revolted, staging a strike and seeking an equal say in the government. From this struggle arose the Conflict of Order, a class "war" that persisted from 494 to 287 BCE. It was a battle that resulted in major transformation: a common people's assembly, the Concilium Plebis. With this new congress, the plebeians had the ability to choose tribunes who, similar to consuls, held office for one year. Their main role was to protect the rights of the plebeians from the abuses of the patricians. Their responsibilities were largely akin to those of the consuls; nonetheless, they had the power to veto any magistrate decision concerning the plebeians. Subsequently, to enhance the safeguarding of plebeian rights, the Twelve Tables, which included Ten plus Two, was established as the initial documentation of Roman law - Rome had never possessed a written constitution before. By the 4th century BCE, every citizen possessed the right of *provocatio populum* - the right to challenge a magistrate's ruling, and by 287 BCE, the

Lex Hortensia declared that laws enacted by the Concilium Plebis were obligatory for everyone, including patricians.

### ***The Magistrates - Praetors, Quaestors & Aediles***

In the initial years of the Republic, the consuls recognized the necessity for lower magistrates to manage different administrative tasks - some of these positions had been present during the monarchy. Numerous people would subsequently utilize these lower roles as a pathway to attaining a consulship. This "route" was referred to as the *cursus honorum*. The praetors were the foremost among these "lesser" magistrates, as they, alongside the consuls, possessed *imperium* power, allowing them to oversee the Senate and lead the army. In addition to stepping in during the consuls' absences, their formal role involved supervising the Republic's judicial responsibilities, exercising both civic and provincial authority.

Next came the quaestors, the financial officials, wielding the authority of *quaestores aerarii* or overseeing the treasury situated in the Roman Forum. They gathered taxes and tributes. Another significant figure was the aedile. Originally assigned to oversee the temples, his responsibilities grew during the early years of the Republic (he vanished with the rise of the empire). This official held numerous duties, including overseeing public records, managing public works (such as roads, water, and food supply), and regulating the markets, festivals, and games. Moreover, because the Senate and Concilium Plebis members aimed to conceal their actions from public observation, the aediles were responsible for their documents.

### ***The Censors & Magister Populi***

Subsequently, there came the censor - frequently, these officials were ex-consuls. The role was regarded as the peak of a person's professional journey. Under the king and subsequently the Republic, this individual not only managed public morality but also conducted the census, recording both citizens and their possessions. He was chosen every four to five years and occupied the role for just eighteen months. The role appealed to numerous ex-consuls due to its various distinctive advantages. In addition to conducting the census, he had the ability to reprimand someone or potentially disallow them from voting. The censor also authorized all contracts for public works. A prominent early censor was Appius Claudius, who authorized the first aqueduct and commissioned the Appian Way, the route from Rome to Capua. Another figure, Cato the Elder, thought that Rome was experiencing moral decline and consequently expelled multiple Roman senators due to their alleged misconduct.



Finally, one should not ignore a distinctive if not uncommon “public” figure - the dictator or *magister populi*. During extreme emergencies, this individual was designated to serve for six months; however, throughout this time, he held full power. The most recent individual to occupy this role was Julius Caesar - the Senate appointed him to serve indefinitely. Regrettably for Caesar, “life” extended only until the Ides of March. His passing marked the conclusion of the Republic.

### ***The Emperors (not part of the committee timeline)***

As Rome expanded its borders northward into Gaul, further east into Asia, and southward into Africa, the government of the Republic was unable to cope and so entered the first emperor, Augustus, and the birth of an empire. With the emperor in charge, the popular assemblies nearly vanished, and the Senate increasingly turned into a ceremonial body. They would primarily support the desires of the emperor. Augustus possessed the highest executive authority, conferred by the Senate, and received powers surpassing those of a consul or tribune - consular imperium and tribunicia potestates - enabling him to introduce legislation, veto laws, and command the military. With Senate approval, Augustus assumed the title of princeps, which means “first citizen.” He took on the role of consul and provincial governor, granting him authority over most of the military. He managed the imperial patronage, and no one could occupy a position without his approval. To uphold his power and shield himself from his own “Ides of March,” he established the Praetorian Guard. Multiple emperors like Claudius, who was Caligula's uncle, were “appointed” by the Praetorian Guard - formally approved by the Senate. It is important to recall that the Praetorian Guard also ousted Emperor Caligula.

Augustus similarly intervened in the empire's religion. In his effort to purify the declining ethics of Rome, he decided to bring back the ancient “religion” by restoring crumbling temples, reinstating traditional rituals, and taking on the title of Pontifex Maximus or Chief Priest. For the common person, he was the nation's father or *pater patriae*. This near reverence for the emperor would eventually transform into the imperial cult. In the empire, the government's responsibility was straightforward - to uphold peace and stability, known as the Pax Romana or Roman Peace

# Religious Beliefs and Practices in Rome

## *The Beginnings of Religion in Ancient Rome*

The beginnings of the Roman pantheon trace back to the small agricultural society that constituted the ancient settlement of Rome. The mythology was built on nameless and faceless gods that provided assistance to the community while existing in all objects and living beings. Numen, the belief in a pantheistic presence in all entities, eventually evolved into a more distinct pantheon of gods; however, in the beginning, the idea that all things were filled with numina was the dominant belief system. Some sources indicate that the earliest Romans practiced a form of animism: their beliefs focused on unembodied spirits, not too different from the Etruscan belief system, which the Romans were so influenced by. Contemporary sources, however, have discredited this theory, asserting instead that faith in the Roman gods existed in the earliest forms of religion. Although the early Romans did not pay much attention to the unique identities of each god in their pantheon, there was a strict delineation of the responsibilities assigned to each specific deity. Every facet of life in Rome was influenced not only by the well-known pantheon we recognize but also by the household rites of the Dii Familiaris. According to this belief system, each family or household was thought to have a protective spirit called the Lar Familiaris (Lars). Every family event incorporated these spiritual protectors in one way or another. Among these deities that influenced the spiritual existence of Romans were Genii for males and Junii for females. Every one of these unique deities accompanied a person throughout their life, embodying the creative power that defined gender and enabled individuals to develop, acquire knowledge, and act ethically in society. The Dii Familiaris were deeply embedded in the household, with various spirits allocated specific duties within a home. Forculus protected the door, Limentinus the threshold, Cardea the hinges, and Vesta the hearth.

## ***Roman Gods and Goddesses***

The majority of Roman deities were a mixture of various religious traditions. A number of these were brought in through the Greek settlements in southern Italy, while others originated from the Etruscan or Latin groups of the area. In certain instances, the Etruscan or Latin names persisted during Rome's cultural history, yet numerous names were so thoroughly embraced that they preserved names from different cultures. In the east, the Greek names continued to be favored by the populace, and thus, the principal deities of the system were recognized by both. The rituals of the early faith were straightforward and precise. As Rome expanded, the beliefs of the conquered peoples were gradually assimilated into Roman religion and culture. Numerous Greek deities and ceremonies were incorporated into Roman religion, and by examining Greek art, literature, and mythology, many Greek gods were recognized as Roman gods. Initially, the Romans lacked religious temples or statues to pay tribute to the spirits or deities. The initial temples and deities' statues in Rome were constructed by Etruscan rulers. The first of these, a temple on Capitoline hill, was built to honor Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva. The gods of the Roman pantheon began taking on the forms known today during the dynasty of the Etruscan kings in the 6th century BC. These gods being mentioned (Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva) were worshiped at the grand temple on the Capitoline Hill. As Rome's power grew and expanded throughout the known world, the Roman Empire came into contact with the cultures and religious beliefs of many cultures. The Romans, eager to embrace and integrate any culture they met, enjoyed the advantages of its riches and spiritual impact, forming a mosaic of belief systems

## ***Contract with the Gods***

At its simplest, the ancient Romans viewed their religion as an agreement between humans and the deities. Consequently, rituals were conducted with utmost care and precision; if errors occurred, it was thought that the deities would no longer be inclined to honor their part of the agreement. With the concept of a pact with the deities arose the custom of the *votum*. The *votum* represented a particular pledge to the deities. If someone desired a particular favor or blessing, they would vow to perform specific rituals or sacrifices in return for answered prayers.

## ***The Integration of Foreign Gods***

Foreign deities and traditions not only had significant influence but were also granted temples and priesthoods within Rome itself. The goddess Cybele, a deity from Phoenicia, was embraced during the Second Punic War to negate any advantages that Hannibal might have achieved. Despite his loss, Cybele continued to be a vital component of the Roman framework. Another widely known foreign deity was the Persian god Mithra. Widely endorsed among the legions, this deity promised everlasting salvation for the eternal soul, and its appeal facilitated the emergence of the subsequent Christian sect, whose resemblances eased its acceptance.

### ***Religion Within the Family***

In the family, the pater familias, or head of the household, served as the priest for the household. He managed all spiritual practices at home with assistance from his wife. A critical element of the family faith was the family worship. Romans thought that gifts to their departed ancestors were essential for their joy in the afterlife. Moreover, they were concerned that failing to honor their ancestors would result in the sorrowful ancestral spirits haunting them and their families. As a result, Romans believed it was essential to ensure their ancestors were properly looked after throughout their lives and for generations to come. Upholding the family legacy, therefore, was a significant priority for the pater familias. To guarantee the family's preservation, marriage was regarded as a sacred religious obligation. Prior to the wedding, the auspices were sought to secure the gods' approval and ensure a favorable union. The new wife was entirely distanced from her family and brought into her husband's family. The correct veneration of home deities and spirits was undeniably as significant as the worship of ancestors. Prayers and offerings were typically conducted during the interval between dinner and dessert, although certain particularly devout families opted to carry out this obligation in the mornings too. These tasks were carried out daily, and every family event included rituals. Every gens (clan) possessed its distinct sacra, or rituals, deemed essential not only for the family but also for the state.

## ***Rome's Historical Trajectory up to the Second Punic War***

*753 BCE - 510 BCE*

*Regal Period of ancient Rome from Founding to Birth of the Republic.*

*753 BCE*

*The legendary founding date of Rome.*

*750 BCE - 510 BCE*

*The (semi-mythological) seven kings of Rome: Romulus, Numa Pompilius, Tulus Hostilius, Ancus Marcius, Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, Lucius Tarquinius Superbus.*

*c. 620 BCE*

*Probable founding date for Ostia, the port of Rome.*

*599 BCE - 500 BCE*

*The traditional date when the Circus Maximus of Rome is first laid out.*

*534 BCE - 510 BCE*

*Reign of Lucius Tarquinius Superbus, last king of Rome.*

*510 BCE - 509 BCE*

*First treaty between Rome and Carthage.*

*509 BCE*

*Foundation of the Roman Republic.*

*c. 508 BCE*

*Lars Porsenna, Etruscan king of Chiusi, lays siege to Rome.*

*504 BCE*

*Migration of Claudii from Sabine lands to Rome.*

*c. 499 BCE*

*Battle of Lake Regillus between Rome and the Latin League.*

*c. 497 BCE*

*The first temple dedicated to Saturn is constructed in the Forum Romanum of Rome.*

*495 BCE*

*Lucius Tarquinius Superbus, last king of Rome, dies in exile at Cumae.*

*495 BCE*

*A temple is built in honour of Mercury near Rome's Circus Maximus.*

*494 BCE*

*Traditional date the office of the tribuni plebis is created in Rome.*

*493 BCE*

*Foedus Cassianus - treaty by Spurius Cassius Vecellinus with the Latin League after the Battle of Lake Regillus.*

*484 BCE*

*The first temple of the Dioscuri (Castor & Pollux) is dedicated in Rome's Forum Romanum by Aulus Postumius following his victory over the Latins at the Battle of Lake Regillus.*

*451 BCE - 450 BCE*

*Decemvirate and Publication of Twelve Tables of Roman Law.*

*c. 400 BCE*

*Roman tale of mythical twins Romulus and Remus first recorded.*

*394 BCE*

*Etruscan Volsinii and their ally Sappinum unsuccessfully attacks Rome.*

*390 BCE*

*Gauls sack Rome.*

*c. 390 BCE*

*"Gallic Catastrophe:" Brennus of the Senones defeats the Romans at Allia, and subsequently sacks Rome.*

*380 BCE*

*Rebuilding of Rome. Strong walls around the seven hills.*

*343 BCE - 341 BCE*

*First Samnite War (Rome vs. Samnites).*

*340 BCE - 338 BCE*

*Latin War, victory for Rome.*

*326 BCE - 304 BCE*

*Second Samnite War.*

*321 BCE*

*The Via Appia, a famous Roman road, is constructed.*

*298 BCE - 290 BCE*

*Third Samnite War between Rome and the Samnite people.*

*295 BCE*

*Roman victory over Samnites, Gauls and Umbrians at Sentinum.*

*292 BCE*

*The Romans adopt the Greek god of medicine Asclepius by stealing his sacred snake from Epidaurus and setting up a temple on the Tiber Island.*

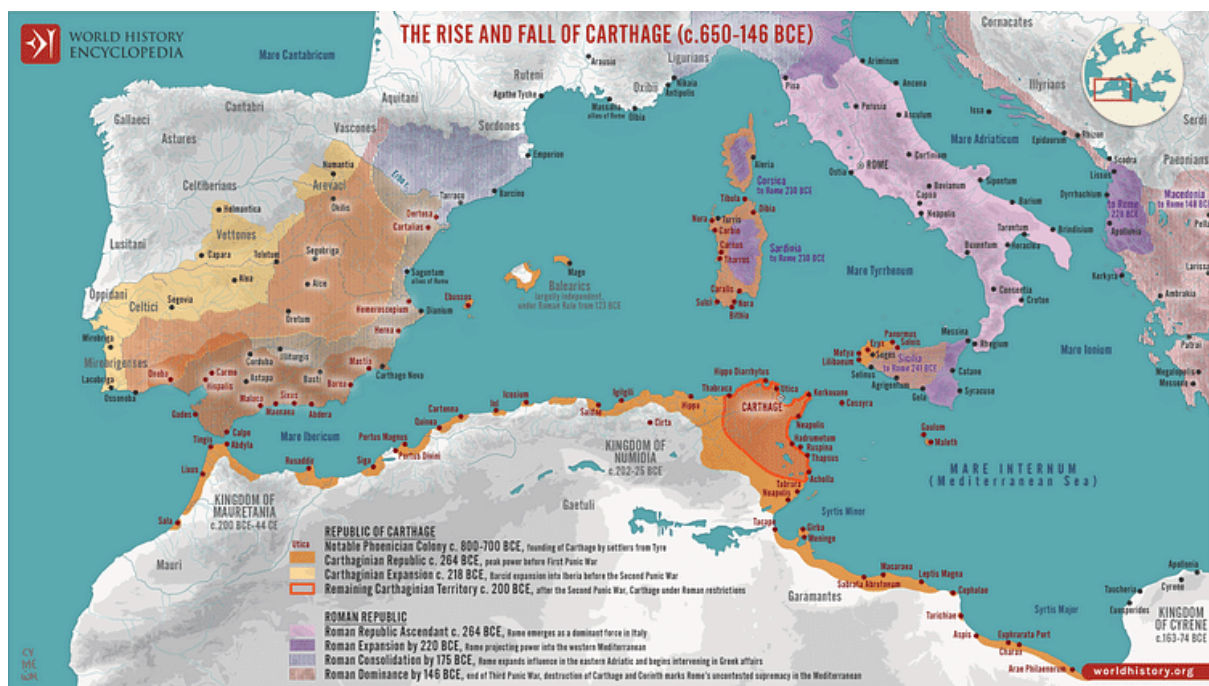
**Mar 218 BCE**

Rome declares war on Carthage after Hannibal sacks Saguntum in Spain. The Second Punic War begins.



## The Carthaginian State

Carthage was a Phoenician city-state on the coast of North Africa (the site of modern-day Tunis) which, prior to the conflict with Rome known as the Punic Wars (264-146 BCE), was the largest, most affluent, and powerful political entity in the Mediterranean. The city was originally known as Kart-hadasht (new city) to distinguish it from the older Phoenician city of Utica nearby. The Greeks called the city Karchedon and the Romans turned this name into Carthago. It was founded c. 814 BCE by the legendary Phoenician queen Dido, increased in size after an influx of refugees from the city of Tyre following Alexander the Great's conquests of 332 BCE, and afterwards expanded until it was the seat of the Carthaginian Empire with colonies (such as Sabratha) along the North African coast, in Sicily, Spain, and elsewhere; these would all be lost following the Punic Wars which elevated Rome to Carthage's former position as the greatest Mediterranean power. In 698 CE, the city was taken over during the North African Muslim Arab invasion and obliterated. It would be reconstructed, albeit on a smaller scale than the city at its peak, until it was entirely obliterated during the rule of Muhammad I al-Mustansir (r. 1228-1277 CE) following the victory over the European Christian invasion during the Eighth Crusade of 1270 CE. The location remained occupied, although the old ruins were ignored until the 1830s CE when contemporary excavations commenced.



## ***Affluence & Invasion***

The city's prosperity stemmed not only from its strategic location on the North African coast, which allowed it to manage maritime trade with its colony in Sicily, but also from the population's agricultural expertise. The author Mago of Carthage (dates unknown) produced a 28-volume work focused on agriculture and veterinary science, regarded as the most extensive of its era and showcasing the Carthaginian's strong enthusiasm for farming and livestock management. Mago's writings were deemed so significant that they were among the select few to be preserved by the Romans following Carthage's ultimate defeat in 146 BCE. Only Roman references to the books still exist. The Carthaginians cultivated fruit trees, grapes, olive trees, and vegetables in a circular arrangement of gardens nourished by narrow canals and subsequently extended their farming outward past the city walls to grain fields. The land's fertility and their cultivation skills enhanced the city's wealth via trade with the interior and maritime commerce elsewhere as Carthage thrived. This expansion was what initially led Carthage to clash with others. In 310-307 BCE, Agathocles of Syracuse launched an invasion of North Africa (r. 317-289 BCE) who aimed to conquer Carthage and utilize its riches to finance his military campaigns. Agathocles could readily sustain his army from the land due to the plentiful crops. His defeat came solely because the Libyans and Berbers, who cultivated the land, allied with the Carthaginians who had treated them favorably. Agathocles was expelled from North Africa, and Carthage thrived until it entered a conflict with Rome, then merely a small city-state on the Tiber River in Italy, in 264 BCE.

## ***The Founding Myth of Carthage***

As the story goes, Dido was the child of King Mutto from Tyre. She was Pygmalion's sister and wed to her uncle, Sichaeus. As recorded in the stories told, upon becoming King, Pygmalion desired Sichaeus' riches and, out of envy, had him killed. Dido left her homeland with several companions and the riches of her deceased husband. She fled Tyre and began the search for a new homeland. Upon arriving in Libya, she asked the locals for land, seeking only as much as she could cover with a bull's hide. The community agreed to her request, and she began the process of slicing a bull's hide into very narrow strips (ultimately securing a large area of land). This boundary was utilized by her to create and develop the city of Carthage in 814 B.C. It is important to mention that determining the founding date of Carthage poses several challenges. Though most contemporary science and archaeology place the city's founding in the late-mid 9th century, several early writers contest this (for instance, Philistos of Syracuse claims it was in 1215 BC, the Roman historian Appian believes it occurred 50 years before the Trojan War (1244-1234 B.C.), and the Roman poet Virgil determined it was established after Troy's destruction. These earlier dates align with later mythology described in the Aeneid, but have lost favor among contemporary scholars due to insufficient archaeological evidence.

Carthage transformed into a magnificent city. So remarkable, that Aeneas, the final surviving prince of Troy, arrived at the city with his companions after the destruction of his cherished Troy. Seven years had passed since the Trojan War. Dido welcomed him with immense hospitality (so states the Aeneid) and as the sovereign of Carthage, she became enamored with Aeneas. Nevertheless, their romance was brief, and she was left heartbroken when he and his friends left Carthage, departing for Italy. In hopelessness, she ended her life.

## **Carthaginian Religious Beliefs and Cultural Traditions**

### ***The Gods***

The majority of Carthaginian deities were derived from the Phoenicians, yet these were modified, and their titles and roles changed over time. The primary deity of Carthage was Melqart, who served as the patron and guardian of Tyre, possibly holding a similar position in early Carthage. Certainly, the colonists had to pay an annual tribute - a tenth of their yearly profits - to the temple of Melqart at Tyre for the initial several centuries of the colony's existence. During the 3rd century BCE, the prominent Barcid family of Carthage was especially devoted to Melqart. In 237 BCE, at the age of 9, Hannibal famously vowed an oath to the god, declaring that he would always oppose Rome. Hannibal was not the sole Carthaginian general who deified himself and adopted the look of a god. The Greeks associated Melqart with their hero Hercules, leading to the spread of a Melqart-Hercules cult throughout the Mediterranean.

Baal Hammon ('master of the incense altars') was another significant deity, influenced by the Baal who held supreme authority in the Phoenician city of Sidon. Baal had numerous other manifestations, or possibly distinct gods sharing that name: Baal Iddir, Baal Marqod, Baal Oz, Baal Qarnem, Baal Sapon, and Baal Shamin. Historians, due to the ambiguity surrounding the details of Phoenician and Carthaginian deities, persist in debating his connection or even similarity to Melqart and the Phoenician god El.

The key goddess was Tanit, symbolizing a mother figure, life, and fertility. Likewise, the Phoenician deities Eshmun (similar to Adonis and also recognized as Asclepius by the Greeks, indicating a connection to healing in Carthage), Reshef (the fire and lightning god, associated with Apollo by the Greeks), and Rasap (linked to war) were revered in Carthage, but with variations in meanings, such as Reshef (a variant of Rasap) and Shadrach (connected to serpents and healing). Less significant Phoenician deities that persisted in Punic faith encompassed Hawot (deity of the deceased), Hudis (the crescent moon), Kesh (the lunar full phase), Kusor/Kusorit (god/goddess of wisdom), and Semes (the solar goddess).

Tanit (Tnt) was one of the significant Punic deities not venerated in Phoenicia, though she might have been seen as an attendant of Astarte in that region. Tanit rose to prominence beginning in the 5th century BCE at Carthage, ultimately surpassing Melqart and Baal Hammon in significance. She symbolized a maternal deity, existence, and reproduction. Tightly associated with Baal and viewed as the partner of Baal Hammon, she was often called 'Tanit face of Baal' (Tnt pn B'l) and depicted in carvings, mosaics, ceramics, and stelae as a symbol (a triangle with a line and circle above) that appears to illustrate a stylized female figure with arms raised. No additional symbols are recognized for the other Carthaginian deities. Tanit was linked with the palm tree, dove, moon, fish, and pomegranate, all of which are depicted alongside her on Carthaginian coins and stelae.

devoted to her. In subsequent sculptures, she is frequently depicted with a lion's head and wings, while a second emblem associated with her is the bottle shape commonly found on votive stelae.

Ultimately, deities were embraced and modified from the Greek pantheon due to the growing Hellenization of Carthage starting in the 4th century BCE. Demeter and Persephone (Kore) gained significant popularity and were integrated into the Punic pantheon after a sequence of military failures that the Carthaginians attributed to their reckless devastation of the goddesses' temple in Syracuse in 396 BCE. Senior priests and priestesses were specifically designated to worship the goddesses. Another external import was Isis, who possessed a temple in the city. A beautiful marble sarcophagus lid from the St. Monique tomb features one of the goddess' priestesses. The prevalence of Egyptian-crafted and locally replicated amulets was evident at Carthage, as seen by their plentiful presence in graves.

## ***The Priests***

In the founding myth of Carthage, Dido (Elissa), the queen who escaped from Tyre, collected the High Priest of Astarte in Cyprus while traveling to North Africa, assuring him that he and his offspring would have the role of High Priest in the new city. This was the initial group of a religious class in the city. The ruling class of Carthage held sway over the significant religious positions. The leader of the priests (rb khnm) was additionally a part of the Senate and the powerful Council of 104. A committee of 10 senators was in charge of state religious issues. Priests held a prestigious status but led a severe lifestyle, marked by their unique shaved heads. During ceremonies, priests further distinguished themselves by applying red ochre to their bodies. Most of the city's religious roles appear to have been passed down through families. Inscriptions tell us that a high priest oversaw a specific temple and was supported by a lower rank of priests (khnm). Female priests existed, but the specifics of their initiation and the responsibilities of the priestly class are still unclear. Priests might have overseen education, of which little is known, as well as the libraries that are known to have existed during the time of Carthage's destruction in 146 BCE.

## ***The Tophet***

According to ancient sources, one of the practices in the Phoenician and Punic religions involved sacrificing humans, particularly children (though not exclusively). The victims died due to fire,

but the exact cause remains unclear. As per the ancient historians Clitarch and Diodorus, a hearth was positioned in front of a bronze statue of the god Baal (or El), who had arms extended on which the victim was placed prior to being thrown into the flames. They also note the victims donning a smiling mask to conceal their tears from the deity to whom they were being sacrificed. The ashes of the victim were subsequently put into an urn that had a stone on top. The urns were frequently repurposed pots and jars originating from distant places like Corinth and Egypt, thus offering a fascinating and important account of Mediterranean commerce. Starting in the 6th century BCE, stelae were devoted to Baal or Tanit and positioned on the urns in place of stones. Numerous examples remain of these votive markers and serve as strong evidence that the Carthaginian religion was observed by all social classes. Certain urns were interred in shaft tombs, and the consecrated open area for these urns was enclosed by walls and referred to as a tophet. The tophet in Carthage was referred to as the 'area of Tanit' and situated to the south of the city in Salammbô. It was initially utilized in the 8th century BCE and consistently afterward until Carthage's demise in the Punic Wars. At its maximum size, it spanned 6,000 square meters and features nine lower levels. There is a sacred area featuring an altar where the offerings were performed. In antiquity, the Phoenicians and Carthaginians gained a notorious reputation for regularly sacrificing children, though certain historians have doubted the extent of this ritual. Many stelae have an inscription which describes a human blood sacrifice, but others describe the substitution of a sheep or lamb for a child. Further, on closer inspection, it is notable that all of the literary references to human sacrifice suggest that it was necessary only in times of great danger to the state such as wars, plagues, and natural disasters, and was not an everyday practice. Even in Phoenician/Punic mythology, where the god El sacrifices his son Ieud, it is to save his country from collapse. In another example, Diodorus describes the Carthaginian general Hamilcar sacrificing a child during the siege of Agrigento in the 5th century BCE when the defenders were suffering from a fatal outbreak of disease. Further, human sacrifices in ancient sources are almost always the children of rulers and the ruling class, as the gods, apparently, were not to be moved by the sacrifice of the common people.

Analysis of the remains found within the urns at Carthage reveals that, overall, 80% of the human remains are from newborn babies or fetuses. This is similar to the percentage at other tophets such as on Tharros. The exact cause of death is not possible to determine, but historian M. E. Aubet concludes the following,

“...all indications suggest they die from natural causes, either at birth or shortly thereafter.” Even though human sacrifice might have occurred, the significant number of infants in the tophets indicates that these sites functioned as burial grounds for children who died during childbirth or were younger than two years old.

Aubet additionally observes that the burial grounds of Punic cities lack the remains of young children, indicating that all children, regardless of the reason for death, were interred in the tophet. Child sacrifice took place at Carthage, similar to many other ancient societies, but the tangible proof of the extent of this practice does not appear to align with the notorious reputation the Phoenicians and Carthaginians have endured since ancient times.

## ***Carthage's Historical Development until the Second Punic War***

814 BCE

Traditional founding date for the Phoenician colony of Carthage by Tyre.

580 BCE - 376 BCE

Carthage and Greece fight for dominance in Sicily.

540 BCE

A joint Carthaginian and Cerveteri force wins the Battle of the Sardinian Sea against the Phocaeans.

539 BCE

Etruscan & Carthaginian alliance expels the Greeks from Corsica.

535 BCE

Battle of Alalia. Carthaginian navy, in alliance with Etruscans, defeated Greek ships off the island of Corsica.

510 BCE - 509 BCE

First treaty between Rome and Carthage.

500 BCE

Carthage expands into southern Spain.



480 BCE

Tyrant of Syracuse Gelon defeats the Carthaginians at the battle of Himera.

480 BCE

Agrigento defeats Carthage at the battle of Himera.

406 BCE

Agrigento is attacked and destroyed by Carthage.

405 BCE

Segesta comes under Carthaginian control.

396 BCE

The Carthaginian city of Lilybaeum is founded on Sicily.

c. 341 BCE

Timoleon defeats a Carthaginian army at the battle of Crimisus in Sicily.

338 BCE

Timoleon agrees a peace treaty with Carthage over their control of Sicily.

311 BCE

A Carthaginian army defeats Agathocles of Syracuse near Gela, Sicily.

310 BCE

Agathocles of Syracuse lands an army of 14,000 in North Africa.

309 BCE

Syracuse defeats a Carthaginian army in Sicily and kills their general Hamilcar.

309 BCE - 308 BCE

Agathocles of Syracuse successfully campaigns in North Africa defeating Carthaginian armies and taking Utica and Hippacra.

307 BCE

Carthage defeats the army of Agathocles of Syracuse led by Archagathus while Agathocles is in Sicily.

306 BCE

Carthage and Agathocles of Syracuse sign a peace treaty and divide Sicily between them.

264 BCE

The Mamertines at Messana on Sicily call for Carthaginian and then Roman help in defence against Syracuse, sparking the First Punic War.

264 BCE - 241 BCE

First Punic War. Carthage cedes Sicily to Rome.

c. 263 BCE

Antaros and 3000 Celts fight with Carthage in the First Punic War.

256 BCE

Rome lands an army of four legions on African soil at Clupea during the First Punic War.

255 BCE - 253 BCE

Roman fleets are wrecked by storms off Pachynus and Palinurus during the First Punic War.

255 BCE

Carthage sues for peace during the First Punic War but the Roman consul Regulus' excessive demands are rejected.

255 BCE

A Carthaginian army led by the mercenary Spartan commander Xanthippus defeats two Roman legions near Tunis during the First Punic War.

249 BCE

Carthage defeats Rome in a naval battle at Drepanum during the First Punic War.

249 BCE

Antaros withdraws his support from Carthage.

247 BCE - 183 BCE

Life of Hannibal.

247 BCE

Hamilcar Barca raids southern Italy and then lands on Sicily during the First Punic War.

241 BCE - 238 BCE

The rebellion of the mercenaries: Unpaid mercenaries under the leadership of Mathos and Spendios rebel against Carthage. Despite a peace treaty, Rome seizes the opportunity to strip Carthage of Sardinia and Corsica.

237 BCE

Hamilcar Barca arrives in southern Spain to expand Carthage's interests there. He makes his base at Gades and founds Acra Leuce.

229 BCE

Hasdrubal takes command of Carthage's armies in Spain.

226 BCE

Hasdrubal signs an agreement with Rome not to cross the Ebro river in Spain.

221 BCE

Hannibal takes command of Carthage's armies in Spain.

219 BCE

Hannibal crosses the Ebro river in Spain and sacks the city of Saguntum, Rome's ally, sparking off the Second Punic War.

Mar 218 BCE

Rome declares war on Carthage after Hannibal sacks Saguntum in Spain. The Second Punic War begins.

## Rome & Carthage's Military or Political Alliances



### *Trade Treaties & Diplomatic Dynamics*

Saguntum

Saguntum was a Spanish city located south of the Ebro and it upheld a lasting alliance with Rome even though Rome's official endorsement was unclear. In 226 BC the Ebro Treaty defined Carthaginian control north of the river and limited Roman expansion. Saguntum's status outside these boundaries made its relationship a diplomatic loophole. Hannibal laid siege to Saguntum in 219 BC, Rome's diplomatic hesitance, despite earlier connections, ignited conflict.

In 219 BC, Hannibal besieged Saguntum, a coastal city in northeast Hispania that had a long-term treaty of alliance with Rome... When the encircled Saguntines sought help from Rome... Hannibal captured the city after an eight-month siege. When Carthage refused Roman demands for Hannibal's extradition, both sides prepared for war."

Syracuse

Initially aligned with Rome—bearing significant grain and siege machinery, Syracuse changed course under Hieronymus in 215 BC, leaning toward Carthage. This switch disrupted Rome's food supply and Mediterranean control until Rome's siege (214–212 BC) brought it back into Roman orbit. Though direct treaty texts are elusive, economic and military ties were pivotal.

## ***Mercenary Recruitment & Military Alliances***

Saguntum

While not a mercenary provider, Saguntum's fall was pivotal in enabling war funding, Hannibal exploited its wealth to bolster troops, primarily mercenaries of Iberian origin.

Syracuse

Though not a mercenary hub, Syracuse controlled strategic trade and provided provisions, indirectly supporting Carthaginian efforts. Its defection in 215 BC helped Hannibal's access to eastern supplies and diplomatic clout.

Carthage's Broader Mercenary System

During the Second Punic War, Carthage's military was made of various additions: Greeks, Iberians, Celts, Balearic slingers, Libyans, and Numidians made up the core. Meanwhile Punic citizens were rarely deployed (primarily in significant battles like Zama). Roman accounts highlight its cohesion despite diversity. Numidian light cavalry, in particular, were essential units.

“According to Polybius, Carthage relied heavily... on foreign mercenaries... auxiliaries from allied or client states, provided through formal agreements... Greek mercenaries... Celts, Balearics, and Iberians... Carthage... capitalizing on the particular strengths of each nationality.”

Numidian cavalry harassed Roman supply lines, scouted, and executed devastating flanking maneuvers—especially at Trebia and Zama.

### ***Trade & Political Alliances with Numidia***

Numidian Alliances played a dual role both economically and diplomatically:

Carthaginian Period: Numidia supplied resources like livestock, grain, gold, and served as trade intermediaries. Their allegiance was often secured through economic and military arrangements.

Late War Shift: Masinissa initially fought for Carthage, later allying with Rome. His Numidian cavalry at Zama was the greatest factor to decide the outcome. Rome granted him land and client-state status, undermining Carthage

### ***City / City-State / State Allies of Rome during the Second Punic War***

Massilia (Marseille)

Massilia was a strategic Greek maritime ally in Gaul. Massilia provided Rome with important naval intelligence and maritime support. Its longstanding commercial ties and mutual rivalry with Carthage made its alignment essential. Massilia's position helped secure logistic routes and served as a buffer along Rome's western flank.

Latin Colonies & Central Italian Peoples (Etruscans, Umbrians, Sabines)

Despite Hannibal's destructive victories like Cannae, Rome's internal allies held firm. These groups continued supplying soldiers, provisions, and infrastructure reliability under Rome's foedus treaty system. Their unwavering loyalty was foundational in allowing Rome to rebuild armies and prosecute the war.

### Sicilian Allies & Allies in Hispania

Regardless of the diplomatic bleakness after the fall of Saguntum, several Sicilian cities and regions established various alliances. This started with Syracuse, then other agreements that supported Rome's capability to secure grain and naval dominance. Even though Rome's alliance with Saguntum, was vital in expanding influence beyond Italy.

## ***Cities / City-States / States Rome Had Strong Political or Trade Relations With***

### Massilia & Syracuse

Massilia's trade networks and Syracuse's initial alliance fortified Rome's economic reach. Syracuse's subsequent betrayal highlighted the fragility of political ties; nonetheless, prior to its shift, the city helped facilitate trade and resource flow to Rome.

### Saguntum

Though ultimately sieged, Saguntum was a long-standing ally whose relationship served as both a diplomatic flashpoint and a strategic extension into Hispania. Its alliance pre-war exemplified Rome's expanding sphere of influence.

## ***Cities Within Roman Italy Supporting Rome***

### Rhegium & Neapolis

Even as southern Italy fractured, these coastal city-states held firm. Their commitment was grounded in trade interests and fears of Carthaginian encirclement, anchoring Rome's control along maritime routes.

### Cumae & Latin Colonies

Cumae notably resisted Hannibal's siege under leadership such as Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, illustrating steadfast internal loyalty. Other Latin towns similarly provided auxiliary support, helping Rome sustain its defensive resilience.

## ***City / City-State / State Allies of Carthage During the Second Punic War***

### Capua

Founded on Roman alliance, Capua's defection post-Cannae became Hannibal's winter stronghold, supplying arms, provisions, and symbolic power. Its recapture in 211 BC forced harsh retribution, underscoring its impact.

### Tarentum

This major Greek city in southern Italy invited Carthaginian forces in 212 BC. Tarentum's treason provided Hannibal with a strategic coastal base and significantly deepened Rome's tactical vulnerabilities in the south.

### Locri, Bruttii, Lucani

During the conflict, these regional powers shifted their alliances—Locri joined forces with Hannibal in 215 BC to provide elephants and soldiers; Bruttii and Lucani offered operational bases and troops, complicating Rome's control in southern Italy.

## ***Cities / City-States / States That Carthage Had Strong Political or Trade Ties With***

### Carthaginian Sister Cities (Utica, Hadrumetum, Leptis Magna)

These North African centers acted as vital trade locations and reinforced Carthage's logistical network thanks to labor, resources, and political cohesion.

### Gades & Tartesso

Situated in Iberia, Gades and the Tartessian area were crucial to silver extraction and sea commerce. Their economic connection to Carthage strengthened the Punic war economy.

### Phoenician Settlements & Initial Trade Routes

Carthage's familial connections to other Phoenician cities broadened diplomatic influence and maintained commercial collaboration in the western Mediterranean



## ***Cities Inside Roman Italy That Supported Carthage***

Capua, Tarentum, Locri, Croton, Metapontum, Herdonia, Thurii, Heraclea

These cities separated from Rome to align with Hannibal. Motivated by either the regional concerns, leveraging Carthaginian support, or shifts in local political factions. Their rebellion weakened Rome's influence over activities, aided Carthaginian incursions, and highlighted the flexibility of Italian city allegiances in times of stress

### **7) Celts**

Specifically in the Second Punic War, the Celts played one of, if not the most, crucial role. Since the Roman Republic, on their previous expansion towards the north, had enslaved and taken the lands of the Celts, they were already furious. And upon Hannibal's arrival down from the Alps (in which he was left with around 26,000 soldiers in the road that he started off with 100,000), Hannibal, being the military genius he is, already had a plan in mind and had already known that he would lose a lot of men. So, after devastating the Romans in the Trebbia River, Hannibal achieved his plan of taking the Celts towards his side which increased their odds incredibly. More details of this explained in the section: [Outbreak of The Second Punic War](#).

## **The First Punic War**

### ***Reasons of the War & The War Itself***

By the middle of the 3rd century BC, the Italian Peninsula was dominated by the Roman Republic through winning battles against the Etruscans, Latin League, Samnites, and Pyrrhus. Even though all opponents fought fiercely for victory, gave confidence to the Romans, and while clashes with regional powers like Carthage were intimidating, Rome was ready for that challenge. Carthage was a previous Phoenician colony and now a sovereign Mediterranean force, having already become a naval superpower and a major commercial trading entity. The initial conflict between Rome and Carthage would start in Sicily, and the island would continue to be the primary battlefield and goal during the extended war.



A map of the western Mediterranean Sea in 264 BC, showing territory before the First Punic War

During that period, Sicily was split among three governing factions. Carthage held a strong control over the western region of the island, featuring key cities such as Agrigentum, Panormus, and Lilybaeum. The King of Syracuse ruled in the southeast, overseeing that city and a number of surrounding towns. The northeast became the point of disagreement among these competing factions. Mercenaries from Campania, Italy, who had formerly served Syracuse, captured the town of Messana, thus taking control of the northeast. In 288 BC, these mercenaries, known as Mamertines (sons of Mars), captured Messana through deceit while returning to their homeland after serving with Syracuse. By doing so, they killed many members of the indigenous population. They claimed the women as their wives and utilized the city as a stronghold to plunder the nearby lands. By 265 BC, when Heiro II ascended to power in Syracuse, conditions had deteriorated, prompting him to promptly address his problematic northern neighbors. Heiro besieged the Mamertines and Messana to halt the raids and to regain the city for Syracuse. At one stage, the siege became so effective that the Mamertines had no option but to seek assistance, initially from Carthage and subsequently from Rome. Initially, Rome was hesitant to assist the troublesome mercenaries who had deceitfully seized Messana from Syracuse, due to its amicable ties with Syracuse. The recent conflict with Pyrrhus in comparable situations likely contributed to their hesitation to participate. Carthage, as one of the occupying powers in Sicily, felt a stronger obligation and harbored hidden motivations to participate. Carthage deployed forces to the region,

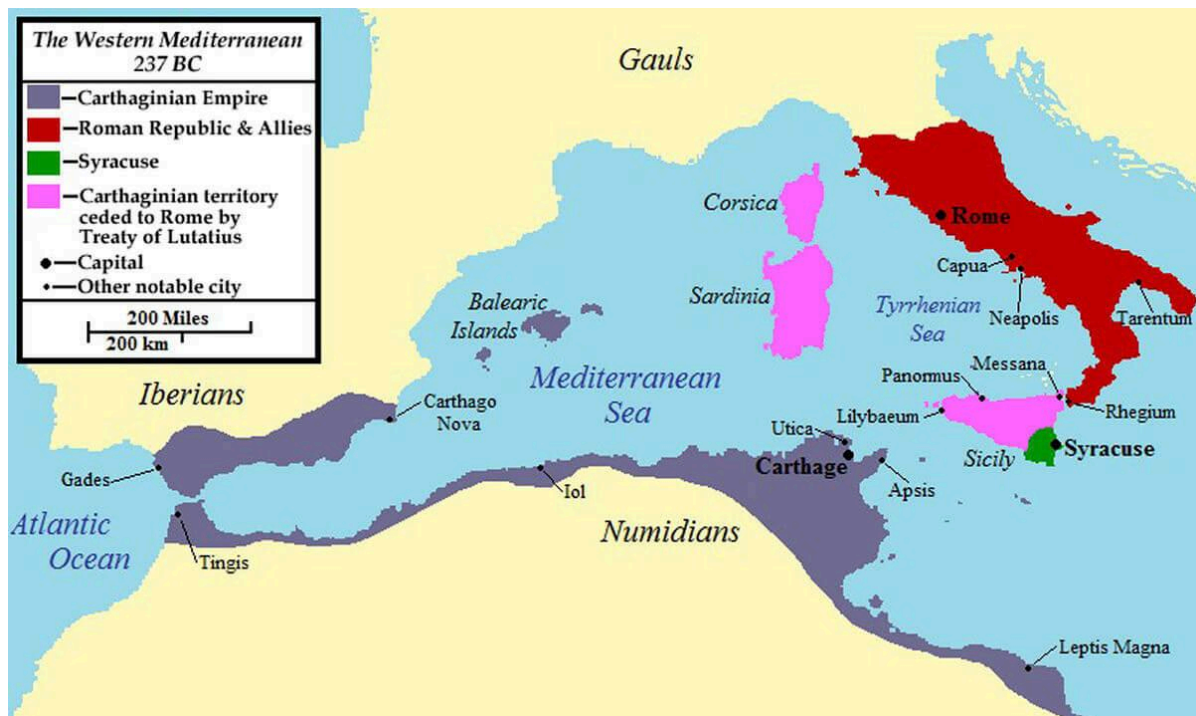
and Rome, now apprehensive about Carthaginian control over Sicily, swiftly altered their stance and formed an alliance with the Mamertines. In 264 BC, Roman legions left Italy for the first time, arrived in Sicily, and initiated the first Punic War. The Roman troops, now on an expedition, were sent by Appius Claudius Caudex and swiftly advanced toward Messana. There is some proof that Carthage contested the crossing, but consistently, the Roman delay permitted the Carthaginians to arrive first. The Mamertines, desperate for assistance against Syracuse from anyone, permitted the Carthaginians to occupy the city, but quickly came to regret their choice. Upon reaching Messana, the Romans proposed to negotiate with the Carthaginian leader, Hanno. He consented to engage in negotiations with the Romans but was quickly captured by Caudex, and to secure his release, he agreed to relinquish Messana. Ultimately, he would sacrifice his life as punishment for this shortcoming, but the Carthaginians were not as eager to concede defeat. They quickly severed their connections with the Mamertines and sought alliance with Syracuse for joint actions. Heiro, still keen on bringing Messana back under his control, consented to assist in sending the Romans away. A Syracusan fleet, accompanied by a Carthaginian force, quickly surrounded the city. Both would reject Caudex, and Messana was firmly part of Rome. Beginning with the initial clash in Messana, the circumstances quickly intensified. Rome dispatched two Consular legions to Sicily led by Manius Valerius and Manius Otacilius Crassus, aiming to secure dominance over the entire island. Roman achievements were plentiful at the beginning of this phase. Numerous Carthaginian cities came under Roman control, turning attention toward Syracuse. Valerius commanded a significant force against Heiro, who, wary of Roman power, swiftly began discussions. To change allegiance from Carthage to Rome, he transferred uncontested authority of Messana to Rome and paid a yearly tribute of one hundred talents for 15 years to ensure his Kingship of Syracuse and maintain his 'independence'. Following Heiro's betrayal of Carthage, various other minor Greek cities in Sicily also aligned themselves with Rome. Valerius, due to his effective negotiations, was granted the title "Messalla" by the Senate. Having established significant control over eastern Sicily, they advanced westward into the fortified regions of Carthaginian land. In 262 BC, the Roman Consuls Lucius Postumius Megellus and Quintus Mamilius Vitulus encountered a Carthaginian reinforcement at the significant town of Agrigentum. The Romans triumphed, though specifics are unclear, and compelled the foe inside the city walls. After seven months, a siege that lasted until 261 BC, the Romans plundered the city, selling its inhabitants as slaves. Attention turned to Greek cities that were allied with Carthage, and the vanquished in each place received the same treatment. This shift towards Rome, from merely embracing conquered cultures to pillaging and enslavement, solely fueled resentment and animosity among the Sicilian inhabitants. Carthage, possessing a formidable fleet, remained the supreme maritime authority and was soon to return under Hamilcar Barca's command. Rome recognized that the sole means for the war to conclude favorably for them was to strive to equal Carthage on the ocean. The Carthaginian navy swiftly regained the

Sicilian coastal cities they had lost and devastated the coastline of Italy. Their supremacy hindered attempts to bolster the garrisons in Sicily. In contrast to certain common beliefs, the Romans maintained a modest navy even during this period. The vessels, however, were merely smaller triremes that could not compete with the larger and more skilled crews of the Carthaginian *quinqueremes*. Rome had to yield or equal the enemy's ships. The Greek historian Polybius reported that the Romans found a chance to construct a new fleet when a *quinquereme* washed ashore on the Italian coast. The Senate commissioned the building of a hundred ships similar to it in sixty days, and shortly after, the Romans were prepared to test their skills at sea. In initial encounters, the Romans realized their naval skills were inadequate, and the only path to victory was to leverage their conventional strength in land warfare. The *corvus*, or "crow," was created based on a comparable apparatus utilized by Syracuse. This apparatus operated as a 35-foot-long rotating bridge that could be connected to adversary ships. Instead of trying to ram, sink, or outmaneuver the more powerful Carthaginian navy, the Romans could seize the ships and deploy their land combat resources. The two fleets encountered each other in the initial battle of this nature in 260 BC. Carthaginian troops were ravaging the Sicilian shoreline when the new Roman navy, commanded by Consul Duilius, encountered them close to Mylae. 143 Roman vessels vanquished 130 Carthaginian ships, seizing 31 and sinking 14, marking the beginning of a new era in Roman dominance. Duilius received a triumph, and a column (*Columna Rostrata*), embellished with the prows of seized ships, was constructed in the Forum to honor him. In the years 259 to 256 BC, numerous Roman triumphs occurred at sea, along with the invasions of Sardinia and Corsica. In 259 BC, Lucius Cornelius Scipio (the first of several Scipios to command forces during the Punic Wars) attacked Corsica and swiftly seized the city of Alalia. Efforts to achieve the same in Sardinia were unsuccessful, and full domination of Corsica would require an additional century, yet the outcome was the loss of Carthaginian authority over both islands. In 258 BC, Gaius Sulpicius Paterculus achieved a naval victory near Sulci, while Atilius Regulus attacked the city of Panormus in Sicily and took Mytistratus. The next year Regulus built on his achievements in Sicily with maritime victories near Tyndaris and the shores of Malta. In 256 BC, the Roman navy sustained its achievements, led by Lucius Manlius Vulso Longus and Atilius Regulus, during maritime battles near the coast of Sicily. Even with their successes, deadlock persisted in western Sicily, and Rome believed the sole path to triumph was to invade North Africa directly. As they prepared to set sail, the two fleets confronted each other in the Battle of Ecnomus near Southern Sicily. Rome secured another significant victory, paving a clear route directly to Carthage. Guided by Lucius Manlius Vulso Longus and Atilius Regulus, the Romans arrived at Aspis in 256 BC and set up a fortified encampment at Clypea. During the campaign's early stages at Adys, Rome achieved a significant victory but couldn't defeat the Carthaginians before winter arrived and the campaigning season concluded. The escalating expenses of the war and the drained treasury of the Republic compelled Vulso Longus to head

back to Italy with a section of the army to alleviate the financial strain, while Regulus was left with about 15,000 to 20,000 troops. In the spring of 255 BC, the campaign resumed with the Romans advancing to Tunes, merely a day's march from Carthage. Invaders provoked local communities to rise up, prompting Carthage to seek negotiations. Regulus, nonetheless, presented terms that were deemed unacceptable (apparently at the time), and the Carthaginian citizen troops, having shown ineffectiveness, turned to mercenaries to drive out the invaders. They sought the famous Spartans, led by Xanthippus, who would turn out to be a valuable choice. The Spartans, accompanied by Carthaginian elephants, confronted the Romans with equal strength at the Battle of Bagradas and completely annihilated Regulus's forces. Out of approximately 20,000 Romans, merely 2,000 to 3,000 managed to flee to Aspis. The others, together with Regulus, were either killed or taken prisoner. A naval rescue team dispatched to save the survivors, led by Marcus Aemilius Paullus and Fulvius Nobilior, arrived in Africa after overcoming the complete Carthaginian fleet near Cape Hermaeum in an extensive naval campaign. Having secured control of the African coast, they managed to pull back all the remaining forces at Aspis. Yet, in what Polybius referred to as the worst naval disaster recorded, the same fleet encountered a storm near Camarina in southern Sicily. Almost 70% of the 264-ship fleet, along with around 100,000 rowers, marines, and rescued legionaries, were lost as the vessels struck the rocks in coastal waters. The Romans, in spite of the significant loss of manpower, demonstrated their resilience by reconstructing the fleet and retraining their crews. The African invasion became a significant failure for Rome, yet the venture marked Rome's entry into the ranks of major powers in the ancient world. Even with the catastrophe, Carthage was never able to truly reclaim the upper hand, and the conflict dragged on in Sicily. In 254 BC, the Romans took control of the fortified town of Panormus and continued their naval endeavors. In 253 BC, another storm interrupted a raid along the African coast, leading to the demise of an additional Roman fleet at Cape Palinurus. The Senate and the Roman allies, almost out of funds and low on troops, adjusted their strategy temporarily to focus solely on land combat. Gallic invasions in northern Italy and the Numidians in Africa waging war on Carthage surely played a role in this. By 252 BC, this shift resulted in greater success in Sicily, highlighted by the capture of Lipara and Thermae, the defeat of a Carthaginian rescue attempt at Panormus, and the beginning of a prolonged siege of Lilybaeum. In 250 or 252 BC, the Romans restored their confidence and chose to return to the sea. Although Carthage attempted to negotiate peace, Rome reconstructed its navy again to safeguard its siege of Lilybaeum from an oncoming Carthaginian fleet. Under Publius Claudius Pulcher, the Roman naval force of 123 vessels was dispatched to confront the Carthaginian Adherbal positioned close to Drepanum. Pulcher, entirely unseasoned, was defeated by Adherbal, suffering the loss of over ninety vessels compared to fewer than ten lost by Carthage. A different Roman fleet, which had the remaining survivors from Drepanum, commanded by Lucius Junius Pullus, was wrecked soon after close to Camarina. The crews largely endured, though, and they

continued up Mt. Eryx is set to adopt a strategic stance in that location. Returning to Rome, the naval circumstances appeared dire (three fleets lost in three successive campaigns), prompting the Senate to appoint Aulus Atilius Caiatinus as Dictator. The opportunity to agree on Carthaginian discussions to conclude the war had gone, and the deadlocked combat in Sicily would start up once more. The year 247 BC marked Hamilcar Barca's involvement in the conflict. Hannibal's father, a future adversary of Rome, landed in Sicily and repelled all Roman assaults for four years. Though he couldn't extend Carthaginian power or take the battle to Italy, he effectively diminished Rome's capacity to control the conflict on land. With the cause appearing close to defeat, or at the very least the gains achieved vulnerable, the constant Roman resilience persisted and thrived. Despite losing one sixth of their population and depleting a significant treasury, they continued their efforts to conquer Sicily. Affluent individuals once more funded the construction of a new fleet, resulting in the creation of two hundred ships which were assigned to consul Gaius Lutatius Catulus. In 241 BC, Catulus achieved a significant victory against the Carthaginian fleet at the Aegates Islands, located at the western edge of Sicily. The Carthaginian vessels were filled with grain and provisions for Hamilcar's troops stationed on Mt. Eryx and the fleet of 170 ships lost their advantage in maneuverability. In the ensuing conflict, it was noted that fifty Carthaginian galleys were sunk completely and seventy taken prisoner. The other ships were saved solely by a lucky shift in the wind that enabled their return to Africa. The Romans took nearly 100,000 prisoners and Hamilcar, with no way to be re-supplied and after 23 years of war, was forced to sue for peace.

## *Outcomes of the War*



A map of the western Mediterranean Sea in 237 BC showing territory changes as a result of the First Punic War

Though the Roman "victory" came at a great price, they secured full control of Sicily due to Carthaginian retreat and guaranteed that Syracuse would remain untouched in the future. Carthage had to pay a total of 3,200 gold talents over a span of 10 years, in addition to submitting substantial ransoms for its captives. Due to this compensation, Carthage could not pay her mercenary army, resulting in a catastrophic uprising. Sicily was established as Rome's initial province shortly after the war concluded, and a true treasure trove of grain riches was acquired. The losses for both sides must have been catastrophic. Polybius claimed that the conflict was the most devastating in the annals of military history. Rome suffered a minimum of 50,000 genuine citizens, possessing Latin rights, while allied and auxiliary numbers increased significantly. Rome lost more than 600 vessels while Carthage lost at least 500. Rome had never been a naval power and relied on its navy only when necessary during conflicts and did not maintain it as a reliable and stable force, resulting in fewer significant losses of ships. Carthage, due to its loss of naval superiority, needed to seek alternative ways to reclaim its power and status. As a further result of

the conflict, Rome succeeded in acquiring Sardinia and Corsica as new Roman provinces. While Carthage, under Hamilcar's command, was engaged in its 'mercenary war', Rome seized the chance to take Sardinia and assert its influence in Corsica by 238 BC. Carthage protested, but in its current state, could only do so much and was ultimately forced to pay a greater tribute. An additional 1200 talents were sent to Rome, and it also took control of the three main western Mediterranean islands. Carthage would need to find alternatives to expand and finance Rome aside from the navy, which resulted in the eventual colonization of Hispania. Persistent hostility would quickly resurface, and the rise of the Barca family (Hamilcar, Hasdrubal, and Hannibal) in Carthage would leave a lasting and dreadful effect on the new rulers of the Mediterranean. The Romans could focus on the North and the troublesome Gauls and Illyrians while Carthage managed its internal issues. They gained significant insights from this conflict, particularly regarding the utilization of the sea in strategic combat. Although they never mastered the art of sailing, they leveraged technology, specifically the corvus, to their benefit and incorporated more skilled Greek officers and crews whenever feasible. More significantly, Rome learned to wage war on a grand scale and to endure the chaos it could generate. The Senate gained control over funding these expansionist endeavors, while the realms of legion recruitment, logistics, political espionage, and fleet construction contributed to the essential knowledge and experience accumulated. Despite being a lengthy and expensive war that greatly aided Rome, this was merely the start of a much longer and bloodier struggle, and both factions were aware of it.



# The Second Punic War



A map of the western Mediterranean Sea in 218 BC, showing Roman and Carthaginian territory at the start of the Second Punic War

After its loss in the First Punic War, the Carthaginian Empire aimed to restore its strength by dominating Spain. Hamilcar Barca, the leading Phoenician commander, infuriated and insulted by Rome's peace conditions and the capture of Sardinia amid Carthage's mercenary conflict, turned to Spain as a land-based platform for future endeavors against Rome. Soon, Hamilcar would transfer his animosity and fixation on Rome to his son Hannibal, who would become one of history's most remarkable generals. By 220 BC, as the Romans were engaged in Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum, Hannibal and his brother Hasdrubal secured dominion over the Hispania peninsula extending northward to the Ebro (Iberus) River. Previously, as Hamilcar was consolidating control over Spain, Rome was worried about the revival of Carthage. In the 220s BC, they formed

an agreement with Carthage restricting expansion to areas south of the Ebro. Saguntum, a minor town in that region, formed an alliance with Rome, granting the Romans a small stronghold deep within Carthaginian territory. Hannibal gained power in 221 BC following the murder of his father, Hamilcar. Imbued from infancy with his father's disdain for Rome and nurtured to command others, Hannibal emerged as Rome's most significant peril in history. Upon taking command, he promptly aimed to pacify the rebellious tribes behind him, with the ultimate objective of invading Italy. In the coming year, Hannibal would find contentment with the circumstances in Spain and aimed at Saguntum to provoke the Romans into conflict and legitimize his intended invasion. In 220 BC, Hannibal besieged and initiated one of the ancient world's significant conflicts. Following an eight-month siege, Saguntum was taken. After gathering the spoils, Hannibal spent the winter in Carthago Nova, preparing for his assault over the Alps into Italy in the spring. After Rome's triumph in the first Punic War, the famed Carthaginian navy was inferior to Rome, and Hannibal understood that the Romans would be at risk only from a land assault. He anticipated that by advancing through southern Gaul and northern Italy, recent tensions between the Romans and indigenous tribes would swell his forces with new, enraged volunteers. Roman efforts during the winter to obtain justice from Carthage regarding Hannibal's siege ended in failure. During discussions with the Carthaginian capital, the Roman representative Fabius made a final attempt to prevent war. As Livy recounts, drawing the edges of his toga together, Fabius declared, "we bring you peace and war. Take which you will.". Hardly had he finished speaking when the response resounded just as proudly: 'Whichever you please, we do not care.' Fabius released the gathered folds and declared: 'We give you war.'

## Outbreak of the Second Punic War



The outbreak of the Second Punic War began when Hannibal moved north across Ebro to begin his historic march over the Alps. Before leaving Spain, however, Hannibal was well aware that

Roman forces intended for him would try to meet him there. He secured Spain with an army of about 16,000 men under the command of Hasdrubal and took 80,000 infantry, 12,000 Numidian and Iberian cavalry and a number of elephants with him on his march. In the early spring of 218 BC, Hannibal departed from Carthago Nova, making his way to the Ebro River. He had faith in Hasdrubal's skills in Spain, as his brother had battled with their father Hamilcar against the Iberian Celts since early childhood. Sadly for Hasdrubal, Hannibal departed with all the senior leaders and elite troops on his campaign, impacting events later in the struggle. Hasdrubal's responsibility was to uphold Carthaginian supremacy in Spain and protect vital interests (particularly mines and resources) from Roman opposing forces. After attaining those primary goals, he was to recruit another army and chase Hannibal into Italy. When Hannibal crossed the Ebro in April or May of 218 BC, he encountered few choices and needed to conquer local tribes as he progressed. Abandoning a hostile population could have resulted in disaster, and despite some delays and losses during the campaigns against the Celts, he swiftly secured control of the area. Aside from the Greek coastal cities that supported Rome in diplomatic relations, the entirety of Spain remained secure. General Hanno received 10,000 infantry and 1,000 cavalry to ensure stability in the area located between the Ebro and the Pyrenees. With his back protected, Hannibal moved northward. Permitting certain local Spanish soldiers to go back to their homes (and potentially join Hasdrubal's army) and reductions for Hanno's occupying troops, he proceeded with 50,000 men, 9,000 cavalry, and his elephants. Later that year, 218 BC, Hannibal crossed the Pyrenees and entered Gaul, never returning to Spain again. Upon arriving in Gaul, Hannibal encountered minimal opposition from the local Celts present. During the journey from the Pyrenees to the Rhodenus (Rhône), Hannibal's initial plans began to yield results. The Gallic Celts were hostile toward the Romans, and numerous individuals allied with him during his journey. Polybius states that they traversed the Rhône four days' march from the sea, employing boats crafted by local Celts for the infantry and cavalry, along with large, flat-bottomed wooden skiffs for the elephants. While crossing the Rhône, Hannibal and his troops began to encounter some opposition. Gauls emerged on the other bank to hinder the crossing, but Hannibal was prepared. A contingent led by Hanno was deployed upstream to cross and assault the Gauls from behind. The effective maneuver eliminated the danger, and tranquil passage recommenced. After the hostile Celts were dealt with, only amicable tribes were left on both sides of the Alps, and Rome's sole opportunity to confront Hannibal was to intercept him at the Rhône. Two Roman

legions had been assembled to confront Carthage. The initial force, led by Publius Cornelius Scipio the Elder, was scheduled to head to Spain. The second, led by Tiberius Sempronius Longus, was initially meant to serve as an invasion army in Africa. Hannibal's strategy, along with other elements, triggered a rebellion among the Boii and Insubrian tribes in Cisalpine Gaul, compelling Rome to alter its plans. Scipio's troops were halted from advancing to Spain and dispatched with Lucius Manlius to protect the Po Valley against the Gauls. Sempronius' troops were in Sicily getting ready for the African invasion, and Scipio had to remain in Rome until a new army could be assembled to confront Hannibal heading east. Before too long, yet another army was prepared for Scipio. He and his sibling Gnaeus Cornelius Scipio journeyed to Massilia, located in southeastern Gaul, aiming to encounter Hannibal before he could attain the security of the Alps. Meanwhile Hannibal had outsmarted the Romans and was advancing northward along the Rhone, aiming to find a way around the Romans and then head south through the mountains. The Romans realized they had no option to halt Hannibal's advance and needed to take action. Sempronius's army was summoned to the Po, and his plans to invade Africa were canceled. Scipio the Elder went back to Italy to prepare for the Carthaginians, while most of his forces traveled west with Gnaeus Scipio to Spain. After breaking free from the Roman checkpoint, Hannibal entered the territory of Transalpine Gaul inhabited by the Boii. Understanding the local Celts' connection to Rome, Hannibal exploited the situation completely. The Celts were eager to help Hannibal cross the Alps, and their knowledge of safe routes played a crucial role in Hannibal's successful passage across the Alps. However, before crossing the mountains, Hannibal's forces were short of supplies and exhausted after traveling 1,200 km from Carthago Nova to Transalpine Gaul. A civil war waged between two brothers of an unspecified tribe in a highly fertile area in the mountain foothills also benefited Hannibal. To help secure his position, the tribal chief supplied the Carthaginians with food and enough provisions to complete their journey. By October of 218 BC, Hannibal and his formidable army were prepared to traverse the Alps into Italy.

## *The Invasion of Italy*

Though Hannibal's advance through Gaul faced little resistance, the endurance of his forces across the Alps - not to mention his later triumphs - was an extraordinary feat. Emaciated, battered by the elements, and weary, the Carthaginian army encountered opposition from numerous local Gallic tribes. The Allobroges presented the initial challenge by assaulting the back of his column. Other Celts attacked Hannibal's supply trains, dropping heavy stones from the cliffs onto the Carthaginian troops, creating chaos and destruction among the casualties. Intense opposition during the march weakened Hannibal's army, and the frigid heights of the Alps offered little relief to some of the inadequately clothed tribal fighters in his ranks. Chilly and famished, Hannibal and his troops attacked a Gallic village on the third day of the mountain trek. The resulting spoils provided some respite in the shape of food and resources, yet relentless pressure from the Celts, landslides, ongoing inclement weather, and inadequate supplies made the mission's success even more remarkable. On the fifteenth day, Hannibal descended into the foothills of northern Italy. Having merely 20,000 foot soldiers, 6,000 horsemen, and just a handful of elephants left, his forces were severely weakened by the trek. Luckily for Hannibal, the Celts on the Italian side of the Alps were much more amicable, and Gallic recruits increased the strength of the Carthaginian army to between 30,000 and 40,000 troops. At the same time, the Romans remained in Cisalpine Gaul under Scipio the Elder. With a limited contingent already established to monitor the Gauls, Scipio advanced to confront Hannibal. During the Battle of Ticinus, toward the end of 218 BC, the two armies initially clashed in a minor skirmish. Scipio's light troops dispatched to observe the enemy encountered Numidian cavalry and were thoroughly defeated. As a precursor to future events, the key outcome was Scipio's injury and the initiation of further Gallic enlistment for Hannibal. Under Manlius, the Romans had to retreat to Placentia to strategize for a new offensive. Following the slight triumph at Ticinus, but more significantly the Roman retreat, Gallic and Ligurian enlistments were now keen to combat Rome. Hannibal's forces, considerably reinforced, were now prepared to advance vigorously into Italy. At the Trebbia River, the Romans united Scipio's remaining legions with Tiberius Sempronius Longus's forces. December 218 BC was the date, with Scipio incapacitated because of his injuries, the impatient Sempronius in disregard of caution and moved forward against Hannibal. The Battle of the Trebbia River marked the first major confrontation of the war and was the first true challenge for Hannibal and his forces. He cleverly foresaw Sempronius' rashness and arranged an ambush. Prior to the upcoming battle, Hannibal dispatched a contingent of 2,000, consisting of 1,000 infantry and 1,000 cavalry, led by his brother Mago to hide in the riverbeds. As dawn arrived, the Numidian cavalry troubled the Roman camp, infuriating Sempronius and prompting him to act. The primary Roman forces advanced toward Trebbia, driving the Numidians back without any

knowledge of the ambush awaiting them. Hannibal stood by with his forces deployed as a shield, comprising 10,000 cavalry and elephants on the sides of the 30,000 infantry. Sempronius confronted him with over 40,000 soldiers. Roman light infantry (velites) engaged the enemy initially and faced a severe defeat, yet they would play a key role in dispatching the rest of Hannibal's limited elephants. Numidian cavalry devastated the Roman cavalry on the sides, and conditions were difficult for Sempronius right from the beginning. When the primary forces confronted each other, the condition improved somewhat for Rome, but the encircling pressure from the more skilled Numidian cavalry began to shift momentum. At the crucial moment, Mago launched his ambush, and the Romans were done for. Disheartened by the harsh cold of December in northern Italy, the Romans were defeated and slain while they escaped. Ultimately, close to half of Sempronius' troops were lost, roughly 15 to 20,000 soldiers. The rest of the Roman army succeeded in fleeing to Placentia. Hannibal's defeats were much smaller. His elephants had vanished, but among his regular troops, only the freshly enlisted Gauls endured any losses. At Trebbia, Hannibal demonstrated his exceptional leadership by grasping his opponent's psychology, employing tactical strategies, and engaging in propaganda warfare. By winning, Hannibal freed most of the prisoners he had taken to gain favor with Rome's allies across Italy. Although it was an outstanding idea in theory, this ongoing hope for open rebellion significantly contributed to his eventual downfall.

## *Hannibal's War in Italy*



Following Hannibal's victory at Trebbia and in the later spring's campaign, the Romans designated a new role for Consul Flaminius. Flaminius was bold and keen to confront the



Carthaginian army and take vengeance for past Roman defeats. Hannibal, ever the strategist, understood the Roman leader's approach and prepared to ambush. At first, Hannibal outsmarted his Roman foes and sought a different location to set a trap. In April of 217 BC, he discovered an ideal one at Lake Trasimenus. Hannibal arranged an ambush that would push the Romans into exposed terrain, trapped between the northern edge of the lake and the opposing hilly area. A Carthaginian lure enticed the Romans to chase it into the ambush, while the majority of the main forces held the elevated terrain around the northern lake banks. The evening prior to the battle, Hannibal instructed his troops to ignite campfires on the Tuoro hills, at a significant distance, to create the illusion that his forces were much more remote. Flaminius was deceived by the trick and entered a lengthy, misty, and narrow valley that led directly into the open area set for the Carthaginian ambush. At dawn, Hannibal commanded a total attack on Flaminius, leading to an utter slaughter. Cavalry and infantry surged down from the hills into the unaware Roman ranks and caught them entirely out of their usual formations. Compelled to battle in the open without the closely arranged legion tactics, the Romans were pushed back to the lake and wholly encircled. Ultimately, the Roman forces of 25,000 suffered casualties of up to 15,000, including Flaminius. 4,000 cavalry reinforcements, dispatched late under Gaius Centenius, were likewise intercepted and eliminated in the total Carthaginian defeat. The ancients asserted that the blood in the Lake was exceedingly thick, leading to the renaming of a small stream that fed it as Sanguineto, the Blood River. Upon the arrival of the news in Rome, gloom and anxiety dominated the atmosphere. Hannibal had dealt the largest defeat in Roman history to Flaminius, and their troop resources were rapidly running low. Hannibal's tactic of inciting rebellion among the Roman allies could be catastrophic if Rome was unable to deploy additional legions. To oppose Hannibal's tactics, the Romans appointed Fabius Maximus as their dictator. In urgent situations, autocratic authority enabled one individual to formulate plans, designate officials, and organize the military without the typical political disputes. Maximus also turned out to be an excellent selection, as his approach of survival rather than direct confrontation would demonstrate its value, despite being unpopular. Following Trasimenus, Maximus believed that the Romans had slim prospects against Hannibal in direct combat. His strategies of stalling and intimidation sufficiently prevented the Roman allies in central Italy from defecting to Hannibal. As Hannibal ravaged and pillaged during his march across the plains, he couldn't persuade others to join his cause. His generals and army, fueled by triumph and aspirations for the ultimate reward, motivated a direct assault on Rome to conclude the conflict. Hannibal, nonetheless, understood that although his battlefield skills were greater, he did not possess the numbers needed for a successful prolonged siege. Siege machinery was also scarce, and he sought improved alternatives for his troops. Rather than proceeding straight along a clear route to Rome, Hannibal opted to head south in search of more favorable outcomes with the locals to support his mission. Fabius Maximus, however, despite his attempts and achievements in maintaining the economic

and political stability of Rome at the same level, was diminishing in popularity among the Senate and the citizens. Romans sought victory in warfare, not a prolonged battle of endurance. Maximus' attempts to diminish Hannibal's forces, knowing his struggles with reinforcements, and to bide his time for the perfect opportunity to attack were undervalued by a restless and apprehensive populace. Maximus, known as the "Delayer," became a despised figure, and his rule was short-lived. Hannibal traversed the Apennines and spent the summer of 217 BC exploring southern Italy. He attacked Picenum, Apulia, and Campania, where his strategies of division and conquest were starting to yield greater results. Victory in the south sparked a transformation in Rome. The citizens ousted Fabius Maximus from his dictatorship and reverted to the Consular elections. Gaius Terentius Varro and Lucius Aemilius Paullus were chosen to take his position, and their task was to eliminate Hannibal permanently. During the winter of 217 to 216 BC, while the Carthaginians were in Gerontium, the two new consuls assembled a significant army to confront Hannibal definitively. In the spring of 216 BC, Hannibal abandoned his winter encampment and captured the major military supply base at Cannae on the Aufidus River in Apulia. Although ancient accounts differ, Varro and Paulus commanded between 70,000 and 80,000 troops after Hannibal. Even after earlier catastrophic defeats, Roman custom maintained that strength could only be opposed with strength, and the considerably restored Roman army was set to confront Hannibal at Cannae in August, 216 BC.

## ***The Battle of Cannae***

The recently elected Roman Consuls, Gaius Terentius Varro and Lucius Aemilius Paullus, who campaigned on a promise to confront Hannibal, were eager to start their term with a military success. In response to the stalling strategies of the dictator Fabius Maximus, Varro and Paulus swiftly assembled a sizable army to confront the Carthaginians devastating southern Italy. Though ancient accounts vary, it is reasonable to conclude that together, the two Consuls gathered an army of around 80,000 soldiers. Hannibal, while continuing to undermine Roman control in the allied regions of Italy, awaited the Romans with around 40,000 troops; including Gauls, Carthaginians, and Numidian cavalry. Although many believe the elephants were crucial to the campaign, by this moment, all of his elephants had perished. Even with fewer troops, Hannibal

had such a dominating strategic advantage that he was keen to confront the Roman threat. Theoretically the Roman strategy of trapping Hannibal between two massive armies should have led to his defeat however Hannibal's genius enabled him to reverse the situation once the battle took place. On August 2, 216 BC, in the Apulian countryside, close to Cannae and the mouth of the Aufidus River, the two formidable armies confronted each other. On the initial day for the Romans, the Consul Varro held command, with the consuls alternating their leadership as they advanced. It has been proposed that Paullus was against the engagement as it was developing, yet he still committed his troops. The two armies set their formations and quickly moved towards each other. The cavalry was to rendezvous initially on the sides. Hasdrubal, leading the Numidians, swiftly defeated the weaker Romans on the right flank and scattered them. By forcing them into the river and dispersing any enemy foot soldiers in his way, Hasdrubal controlled the right flank and swiftly managed to position himself behind the enemy formations. Although the far more skilled Numidians handled their Roman foes swiftly, the same did not apply to the infantry. While Hasdrubal was retreating away from the Roman cavalry, the large groups of infantry on both sides moved towards each other in the center of the battlefield. The Celts from Iberia and Gaul allied with Carthage. Regardless of how brutal they are, they could not compete with the weaponry and tactics of the Romans in close combat. At first, the significant superiority of the legions advanced deeply into the heart of the Carthaginians. Although the Celts faced setbacks, they kept being resilient. They were really determined, while Hasdrubal's cavalry moved to encircle the enemy's back and the Carthaginian infantry secured the nearby sides. The Romans quickly realized that their achievements in the center were leading them toward possible catastrophe. While they triumphantly advanced deeper into Hannibal's formation, they were inadvertently moving directly into a position of total encirclement. As the Romans were about to defeat the enemy center, the Carthaginian sides came into play and halted the Roman progress. Hasdrubal's cavalry closed the loop by compelling the back of the Roman line to pivot and create a square formation. All around, the large mass of the Roman army was compelled into a restricted area. Hannibal deployed his archers and slingers effectively, resulting in a devastating outcome within the confines. Unable to maintain their initial advance against the Celts within Hannibal's ranks, the Romans became easy targets for the Carthaginians. Hannibal was angry, and he motivated his troops, threatening them with punishments if they did not show enough enthusiasm in the killings. Amidst the conflict, the Consul, Paullus, had an injury (either actually early or late, depending on whether Livy or Polybius is referenced). He bravely tried to uphold the Roman lines, although unsuccessfully. As Varro, the day's commander, retreated from the battle, Paullus remained steadfast, attempting to rescue his troops. Ultimately, it resulted in a horrific massacre, and Paullus would perish alongside most of his soldiers. Romans attempting to flee were hamstrung while they ran, enabling the Carthaginians to focus on those still battling while permitting time to return later and finish off the injured. In a swift and intense exhibition of

demise, Hannibal commanded his troops to cease hostilities just hours after they had initially surrounded the foe. On a narrow piece of land where the Romans were confined, estimates suggest that as many as 60,000 bodies were stacked atop each other. An additional 3,000 Romans were taken prisoner, and more stumbled into nearby villages around the battleground. Hannibal, nevertheless, aiming to win the favor of the Italian Roman allies, once again freed the prisoners, much to the disappointment of his commanders. In tribute to the deceased Paullus, Hannibal similarly commemorated him with ceremonial acts to acknowledge his courageous deeds. Ultimately, perhaps only around 15,000 Romans were able to flee alongside Varro. These survivors were subsequently reformed into two units and sent to Sicily for the duration of the war as a penalty for their defeat. Together with Paullus, both Quaestors were slain, along with 29 of 48 military tribunes and 80 other senators (when the Roman Senate comprised no more than 300 individuals). The rings indicating membership in the Senate and those of Equestrian (Knight class or elite class after Patrician) status were gathered from the deceased in baskets and subsequently tossed onto the floor of the Carthaginian Senate in a show of disrespect. In comparison, Hannibal's losses were only between 6,000 and 7,000 soldiers, the majority of whom were his Celtic soldiers. Hannibal once more demonstrated his brilliance in battlefield strategy, turning the enemy's tactics against them and defeating an army twice as large as his. In under a year after the tragedy at Trasimenus, the Roman's worst defeat ever caused the state to enter a state of panic. At this moment, nothing prevented Hannibal from conquering Rome except for Hannibal himself. His commanders once more pressed him to stop wasting effort and aim for the final strike, but Hannibal hesitated. Still convinced he couldn't capture Rome itself, he favored his approach of inciting rebellion among the Roman allies. In spite of this significant loss, the subsequent betrayal of numerous allied cities, along with the impending declaration of war by Philip of Macedon, the Romans demonstrated a resilience that characterized their identity. Livy states, "No other nation in the world could have suffered so tremendous a series of disasters and not been overwhelmed." The reality of that essence was obvious. Although some senators, including Lucius Caecilius Metellus, were prepared to give up on the Republic as a hopeless endeavor, others like Scipio invigorated the waning Roman morale with support and unwavering pledges of allegiance to Rome. Soon after Cannae, the Romans regrouped, announcing total mobilization. Another tyrant, Marcus Junius Pera, was chosen to restore stability to the Republic. New legions were formed using conscripts from previously untrained citizen groups. With the landowning population drastically reduced due to losses against Hannibal, the Romans exploited the large numbers of people. Debtors were freed from their responsibilities, non-property owners were enlisted, and even slaves were liberated to serve in the legions. The Romans likewise declined to pay ransoms to Hannibal for any legionaries that were still captured. Hannibal, it was proposed, diminished in resolve, realizing that Rome would prefer to sacrifice its own rather than concede anything to

him. Although luck would favor Hannibal for a while longer, the war of attrition would ultimately advantage Rome.

### *After The Battle of Cannae*

Unflinching in his goals, Hannibal, during 216 and 215 BC, continued to evade the siege of Rome. The primary theatre during this period of the war took place mainly in Campania. Whether he considered the march itself too exhausting, a concern about a lack of supplies, or simple shock over his complete victory at Cannae, Hannibal refused to move on Rome. Of supplies, Hannibal only received support directly from Carthage once, in 215 BC. Opposition to his war from the Carthaginian Senate, mainly from Hanno, along with Roman superiority at sea, prevented Hannibal from ever securing the resources needed to complete his conquests. The victory at Cannae, however, began to take a toll on the Italian allies of Rome. The Samnites - a historic enemy of Rome - various towns in Apulia, and numerous others in the south allied with Hannibal. Only the coastal cities influenced by the Greeks appeared to maintain their loyalty strongly to Rome. In late 216 BC, Hannibal advanced on Neapolis, but his efforts to capture the city were thwarted. As winter drew near, the Carthaginians shifted northward to the town of Capua. The inhabitants embraced Hannibal and his troops, who utilized the city as their winter headquarters until 215 BC. During this period, Rome had appointed Marcus Claudius Marcellus as the leader of its southern army, and he awaited Hannibal in the town of Nola. In the cold months of winter, Hannibal took action. Until now, Hannibal had successfully utilized his exceptional tactical leadership to gain an edge, but he encountered a competent Roman commander for the first time. Marcellus deceived the Carthaginian army into thinking he was busy quelling a rebellion, while Hannibal attacked the Romans with a major offensive. Greatly outnumbered, Marcellus' strategy succeeded and, with a weaker contingent, managed to battle Hannibal to an incredibly bloody stalemate. Hannibal pulled back, neither triumphant nor vanquished, but for the first time, a Roman force demonstrated that Hannibal could be defeated. Although Marcellus performed well, Carthage successfully seized Acerrae, Casilinum, and Arpi, enhancing their power in central

Italy. Following their defense against Hannibal at Nola, the Romans lacked the strength to go on the attack. Fabius had an effort to trap the Carthaginians at Apulia that ended with Hannibal's army escaping by employing oxen with torches affixed to their horns. The oxen sent at night misled Fabius into thinking an assault was close. This allowed Hannibal to avoid a possible disaster. Hannibal quickly required reinforcements. The Romans were well aware of this problem so they used the initial strategy used by Fabius. Their goal was to protect the faithful allied towns, reclaim those towns that were reachable, and keep Hannibal in motion without confronting him directly. 215 BC turned out to be an important year for Rome. In Sicily, Hiero II of Syracuse, a longstanding ally of Rome, passed away. This resulted in his pro-Carthaginian son Hieronymos taking over. In Cisalpine Gaul to the north, the Celts defeated a Roman army. In Macedonia, Philip V took action against Illyricum and Roman interests in Greece while openly collaborating with Hannibal. In Italy, Carthage ultimately dispatched a modest group of reinforcements that met up with Hannibal at Lucri. To address these setbacks, Marcellus was dispatched to Sicily, an alliance with the Aetolian League in Greece was formed to confront Philip, and Fabius upheld the status quo through his evasion strategies in Italy. As Marcellus relocated to Sicily in 214 BC, the Carthaginian senate opted to attempt to reclaim the island that was once under their control instead of bolstering Hannibal. Still in dire need of a sufficiently large army to accomplish more than seize small towns and devastate the rural areas, Hannibal had to head south. Casilinum and Arpi were regained by Rome, but Hannibal desired Tarentum as a long-anticipated harbor for reinforcements and provisions. At the same time, Hannibal's sibling Hanno occupied himself with quelling a rebellion against Carthage near Bruttium. In 212 BC, due to a betrayal by local nobles in Tarentum, Hannibal managed to seize Tarentum without bloodshed. Roman citizens were slaughtered, whereas Tarentine locals remained unharmed, granting Hannibal his port at last. His brother Hanno, however, was defeated at Beneventum, further depleting the overall Carthaginian force. Despite the success of Hannibal at Tarentum and the resistance of the Romans at Herdonea, the tide was slowly beginning to turn in Rome's favor. By the following year, Samnium and Apulia would both be back under Roman control and the path was open for the Romans to besiege Capua, Hannibal's former winter base. In 211 BC, Hannibal desperately tried to relieve Capua by feigning an attack on Rome itself. Utterly undisturbed throughout the war, Rome was ready; consequently, Hannibal could do little beyond encamping outside the Colline gates. He expected that his deception regarding Rome would compel the lifting of the Capua siege and entice the army into the open, allowing Hannibal to execute his strategic brilliance. The fortifications of Rome were too formidable, and the Romans were aware, thus they held their ground. Hannibal had to retreat south without any gains. Soon after, the Romans captured Capua. As a result, many of the Capuan inhabitants were enslaved as punishment, and the town's land was put up for sale to Roman citizens. In Sicily, the new King of Syracuse, Hieronymos, was assassinated by Roman agents due to concerns over his loyalty to Carthage. The attempt

backfired, though, leading to a civil war, with pro-Carthaginian factions ultimately seizing control of the city. Marcellus was dispatched to Sicily to reestablish Roman authority with multiple legions, while the Carthaginians attempted to regain a foothold with their own army. The Carthaginian senate authorized a force of 25,000 foot soldiers, 3,000 horsemen, and 12 elephants that arrived in Sicily to aid Syracuse, yet they ultimately fell short against Marcellus. By 210 BC, Syracuse would be reclaimed by Rome after a siege, and all traces of Carthaginian opposition had vanished. Marcellus was subsequently able to return to Italy and intensify his assault on Hannibal.

## ***The End of The War in Italy***

As Marcellus guided the Romans to victory in Sicily, Hannibal continued to devastate the southern Italian rural areas. In 210 BC Hannibal had another victory against the Romans at Herdonea, where the Romans reportedly suffered an additional loss of 16,000 soldiers. Immediately after, Marcellus crossed from Sicily and met Hannibal at the Battle of Numistro. Like what happened before when these two met at Nola, a long bloody fight took place that ended in a tactical draw. Hannibal withdrew and Marcellus followed. Though technically a tie, the Romans were able to handle such confrontations. Hannibal, even with his significantly advantageous win ratio in the overall campaign, was increasingly desperate for reinforcements following each battle, regardless of victory or defeat. The year 209 BC was distinctly positioned to turn the tide in favor of Rome. While Marcellus carefully followed Hannibal's ever-moving army, the Romans regained control of the port base at Tarentum. Even though the Carthaginian area of control was rapidly diminishing, Hannibal was still not prepared to give up. In 208 BC, Hannibal persisted in resisting the Romans. At Asculum, he overcame a significantly larger Roman force, and soon after achieved a more substantial victory in a smaller clash at Venusia. At Venusia, Marcellus perished in combat, and the "Sword of Rome," the sole Roman general to pose difficulty for Hannibal, would no longer be in the way. The passing of Marcellus, however, brought little genuine enhancement to Hannibal's situation. His army was severely undermanned with low morale, and he had no option but to request additional troops from Hispania, where his brother Hasdrubal continued to oversee the defense of Carthaginian interests. The conflict in Spain never turned out as favorably for Carthage as it did in Italy. Following the assumption of total control of all Roman troops by Scipio the Younger (later known as Africanus) in 210 BC, Hasdrubal was perpetually fleeing. With the new Carthaginian Empire in Hispania appearing to be a futile effort, Hasdrubal led his troops along a path reminiscent of Hannibal's journey through the Alps a decade prior. Upon reaching northern Italy in the spring of 208 BC, Hasdrubal promptly began his journey to unite with Hannibal in the south and strengthen his brother's

struggling forces. While Hasdrubal advanced through the Adriatic, Hannibal remained restrained in the south due to concerns over maintaining the allegiance of regional allies and the territories he had acquired there. Cut off on the eastern Italian coast, the Romans seized the opportunity to defeat Hasdrubal before he could aid Hannibal. In 207 BC, Hasdrubal confronted two Roman armies led by Consuls Gaius Claudius Nero and Marcus Livius Salinator near the Metaurus River. From the beginning, the 30,000 Carthaginians were outnumbered by the 35,000 to 40,000 Romans arrayed against them. Although the conflict was uncertain for a period, Nero's greater forces ultimately enabled him to outmaneuver and surround Hasdrubal. By the end of the day, 20,000 of the Carthaginian force, including a great many Gauls, were killed. Hasdrubal himself was also killed in battle, and his head was soon to be thrown into Hannibal's camp to demoralize him. As the remaining Gauls fled the battle, the Romans allowed them to leave, to spread the word of the great Roman victory and the re-establishment of dominance in Italy. The Battle of Metaurus was the most crucial engagement of the whole conflict. If Hasdrubal had triumphed, a sufficiently large army from both the north and south could have advanced on the capital. The Roman triumph guaranteed that Hannibal would never receive significant reinforcements. In spite of all his earlier triumphs, Rome managed to endure. Two years later, as Scipio continued his campaign, the final stronghold of Carthaginian presence was eliminated from Hispania. Another sibling of Hannibal, Mago, departed with his remaining forces from the siege of Carthago Nova, traveling through the Balearic Islands to reach Liguria in northern Italy. In an effort to reignite the spirits of the Gauls who were crushed after Metaurus, Mago remained in Celtic lands to enlist fresh support. Shortly after his arrival, however, the Romans confronted him and defeated his forces, along with any Carthaginian hopes for final triumph. During the conflict, Mago sustained injuries and Hannibal's other brother, Hanno, was slain. Mago brought his dwindling forces to ally with Hannibal in Bruttium. Following the defeat of Hasdrubal and Mago, Rome was able to carry out actions against Carthage in response to its incursion into Italy. Although Hannibal succeeded in delaying his defeat while being confined in Bruttium for an additional four years, Scipio was able to strategize the invasion of Africa. After establishing a significant presence to secure Spain's Roman dominance, Scipio, who had just been elected Consul, traveled to Sicily and coordinated the troops that remained from prior campaigns. In 204 BC, Scipio crossed the Mediterranean Sea and attacked Africa. Roman victories within a year compelled Hannibal and Mago to return for the protection of Carthage, although Mago would perish during the journey. In 203 BC, Hannibal returned with his remaining force of around 15,000 soldiers, marking the end of the war in Italy. The fate of Carthage rested in Hannibal's defense against Scipio Africanus.



## ***The First Punic War in Spain (218-214 BC)***

While Hannibal was making his march across the Alps, the Romans took the fight and retaliation for Saguntum, directly to the Carthaginians in Spain. An invasion by a Roman Consular army under Publius Cornelius Scipio was launched in 218 BC, but a revolt among the Celts in Cisalpine Gaul forced a change in the plans. P. Cornelius Scipio came back to Italy to handle the uprising and the looming arrival of Hannibal, whereas his brother Gnaeus Cornelius Scipio led the invading army to Hispania. Gnaeus commanded an initial force of 22,000 infantry, 2,200 cavalry, and a robust fleet of 60 quinqueremes. Gnaeus Scipio arrived at Emporiae in northeastern Hispania in October 218 BC and swiftly moved south, seizing land up to Tarraco. With no Carthaginian opposition during his march, he began to subdue the native Iberian Celts. Hannibal's sibling, Hanno, who was in charge in Northern Spain, chose to confront Scipio even though he commanded a significantly weaker army. Hanno's army, outnumbered by as much as 2 to 1, was defeated close to the town of Cissa, and Hanno was taken prisoner. Consequently, right from the beginning of the Roman invasion, Rome successfully established a port as a supply center and instantly rendered Spain ineffective as a source of supplies and reinforcements for Hannibal in Italy. In 217 BC, Hasdrubal, now leading the Carthaginian army, extensively recruited from the local Iberians. His fleet was bolstered to approximately 40 vessels commanded by Himilco. He moved towards Scipio's position on the Ebro River with his unified land and naval forces, but his fleet was unexpectedly ambushed by a newly reinforced group of Roman ships. Following the triumph on the Ebro, the supremacy of the Roman fleet faced no further challenges for the duration of the war. Shipping routes and Carthaginian harbors were obstructed and managed, which would ultimately affect Hannibal's efforts in Italy significantly. Following the triumph at the Ebro, the Roman senate dispatched Publius Scipio back to Spain accompanied by 8,000 additional troops. Gnaeus raided the Balearic Islands to put down a revolt of the local Iberians and Publius took control of the overall navy. In the year 216 BC, both Roman and Carthaginian commands were occupied consolidating control over their own territories rather than fighting one another. The Romans grappled with King Indibilis and his Balearic Iberians, and Hasdrubal with the Tartesii tribe. Due to the Tartesii, Hasdrubal, even with recent reinforcements of 4,000 foot soldiers and 500 horsemen from Africa, had to defer any intentions to halt the Roman progression until the next year. As the campaign season commenced in 215 BC, Hasdrubal Barca directed his force of 30,000 northward to confront the Romans. Meanwhile, the Scipios, with a similar army, advanced south to intercept Hasdrubal at the Ebro. In the little town of Detrosia, the forces clashed under remarkably similar circumstances to those experienced by Hannibal at Cannae. Hasdrubal's plan all along was to mimic Hannibal's strategy and hold the Roman infantry in the

center while his cavalry enveloped the flanks. Unlike Hannibal's army, Hasdrubal lacked the disciplined cavalry of his brother and the result was a far different outcome. Quickly after the battle opened, the Scipios recognized the strategy and effectively countered it. In the end, Hasdrubal's army was routed and its effects were felt throughout the course of the entire war. The loss at Dertosia was significant for the Carthaginians. Numerous regional Iberian tribes changed their loyalty to Rome, and dominance over Spain's extensive mineral riches was gradually eroding. The Romans seized several cities south of the Ebro and took control of territory belonging to the Carthaginian allied tribes, the Intibili and the Illiturgi. The arrival of Mago with 12,000 infantry, 1,500 cavalry and 20 elephants helped to avert complete disaster for Carthage, but its effect on Hannibal in Italy was profound. Mago had been enroute to join Hannibal and the diversion helped stem the Roman advance in Hispania but reduced the overall effectiveness of the Italian campaign.

### ***The Second Punic War in Spain (214-211 BC)***

By 214 BC, Mago and Hasdrubal had levied new forces and decided to strike first. Moving into the region of some of Rome's new Spanish allies close to Acra Leuce, they overcame the indigenous tribal forces. Publius Scipio acted swiftly to respond to the fresh attack but was surprised by the Punic cavalry, resulting in the loss of 2,000 soldiers. He retreated north to meet Gnaeus Scipio's army, at the same time a third Carthaginian contingent led by Hasdrubal Gisco reached from Africa. The five armies (3 Carthaginian, 2 Roman) took part in several operations near the cities of Iliturgi and Intibili in east-central Hispania, with the Carthaginians leading the efforts. At the conclusion of the campaign season, the Romans preserved their hold over the recently acquired land, but Gnaeus had sustained significant injuries in battle. The following three years involved maneuvering for advantage by both parties. The three Carthaginian forces were satisfied to annoy the Romans while keeping dominance over their stronghold in southern Spain. The Romans, lacking their own reinforcements since arriving years prior, faced restricted options. Due to the restricted manpower, progress necessitated stationing excessive troops at the back to uphold supply and communication routes, rendering any advancements unsustainable. The Carthaginians encountered challenges in the shape of uprisings in Africa. King Syphax of the Numidians rose against Carthage, an uprising eagerly incited by the Romans, troubling the Carthaginian's cause in Spain even further. As a result Spanish forces were sent to Africa to help quell the rebellion, but rather than putting it to an end, Syphax was able to withdraw via Gibraltar and add his vaunted Numidian cavalry to the Roman cause. Through the whole affair, the Scipios

took advantage of the situation and recaptured the site that started the entire war, Saguntum. They also gained ground with the Celtiberians and managed to enlist a further army of 20,000 tribesmen. The start of 211 BC turned out to be a significantly improved year for the Barca family. At that time, estimates for the total Carthaginian force were provided as 35,000 infantry, 6,000 cavalry, and 30 elephants among the 3 armies. In contrast, the Romans possessed almost 50,000 combined legionary and Celtic foot soldiers along with 5,000 cavalry. The strategy of the Romans for the season was straightforward: confront and overcome the Carthaginian land troops. The issue, however, was that the Carthaginians were so evenly split among three distinct armies that Roman attacks on one force would expose their land to an unengaged Carthaginian army. Consequently, the Scipios split their troops to try to confront the various Carthaginian armies. Gnaeus pursued Hasdrubal with an army twice as large, while Publius attacked Mago. Hasdrubal, despite being vastly outnumbered, succeeded in staving off the Roman onslaught. Discovering that most of his adversaries were Celtic warriors, Hasdrubal decided to bribe the Celts and send them away, leaving Gnaeus with merely a small group of real legionaries. Left entirely defenseless, Gnaeus Scipio had few options but to gradually retreat while fending off Hasdrubal's assaults. Publius Scipio, moving toward Mago close to Castulo, faced his own difficulties. Mago received reinforcement from Gisco and extra Numidian cavalry led by Masinissa. As he neared the foe, Publius realized he was stepping into a hornet's nest, receiving stings from every direction. In his attempt to escape his troubles, he quickly realized that an extra force led by Indibilis from the Balearic Islands was nearing his side. Encircled and outnumbered, Publius Cornelius Scipio was slain, and his force of 23,000 soldiers was annihilated at the Battle of Castulo (211 BC). After a single Roman army was defeated, the distinct Carthaginian factions now united with Hasdrubal against Gnaeus. Ignorant of his brother's outcome, Gnaeus would likely attempt to flee once he learned the truth, so the Carthaginians acted quickly to thwart any getaway. As the enemy advanced in formation, Scipio understood that he confronted the full force of the Carthaginian army in Hispania and tried to make a rapid retreat from the open engagement. He seized elevated terrain on a hill close to Ilorca and promptly started strengthening defenses, readying for a siege. His attempts were fruitless, however, as the Punic forces breached the quickly built fortifications and annihilated the Roman legions. Within 30 days of his brother's demise at Castulo, Gnaeus Cornelius Scipio encountered the same destiny at the Battle of Ilorca. The surprising wins surprised both the winners and the losers. The Carthaginians, now fully in control of Hispania, appeared unready for complete success and did not take advantage of the chance. Reinforcements might have been dispatched to Hannibal in Italy or to counter advances in northern Spain, yet their enthusiasm for victory appeared to diminish. Instead, the Carthaginians utilized the subsequent months to reinforce their positions and reestablish dominance in the south. In Rome, the losses were clearly surprising but were met with a determined reaction. The Senate promptly sent C. Claudius Nero to reinforce the surviving

garrisons in Spain. Victories against Syracuse in Sicily and at Capua in Italy enabled the Romans to dispatch reinforcements and strategize for the following year's campaign. By the close of 211 BC, the standings of each side were precisely as they had been at the conflict's onset in 218. The Romans, under Marcius Septimus who preserved the remnants of the defeated armies by retreating north after the battles of Castulo and Ilorca, and his successor Nero, were able to maintain control over territory north of the Ebro, while the Carthaginians regained full dominance over all southern regions.

### ***The Third Punic War in Spain (210-207 BC)***

Third Punic War, is the Punic War that resulted in the final destruction of Carthage, the enslavement of its population, and Roman hegemony over the western Mediterranean. The first and second Punic wars effectively deprived Carthage of its political power. However, its commercial endeavors expanded rapidly in the 2nd century BCE, inciting the envy of Rome's burgeoning trade network. In 150, the Carthaginians opposed Masinissa's assaults using military strength, officially breaching the treaty with Rome, which led to the sending of a Roman army to Africa. Although the Carthaginians consented to compensate by offering 300 hostages and surrendering their arms, they were provoked to revolt by the extra stipulation that they move to an inland location at least 10 miles (16 km) away from the coast, making the maritime trade vital to the city's economy impractical. Carthage endured the Roman siege for two years. In 147, a command was given to Scipio Aemilianus, the adopted grandson of the earlier conqueror of Carthage. Scipio strengthened the blockade by surrounding the isthmus where the city was situated and by cutting off its supply lines from other places. His main attack was executed on the waterfront, where he managed to gain access despite encountering determined and clever resistance. House by house, he seized command of the paths that led upward to the stronghold. From a city population estimated to have exceeded 250,000, only 50,000 remained at the final surrender. The city was ruined, the survivors were enslaved, and the land turned into a Roman province named Africa.

## ***The End of the War in Spain***

The Carthaginians spent the winter of 207 and 206 BC recruiting the locals for a final shot against Scipio, once again. During spring 206 BC Mago and Hasdrubal Gisgo marched from Gades with between 50,000 and 70,000 infantry, 4,000 to 5,000 cavalry and 32 war elephants. Scipio also prepared for the final campaign in securing new recruits among local Roman allies. Diminished by the requirement to protect numerous new acquisitions, the Romans had merely a limited number of true legionaries within 45,000 foot soldiers and 3,000 horsemen. Regardless of this, Scipio was prepared to end the conflict in Spain and so he proceeded to Illipa to confront the already-advancing Carthaginian forces. Due to Scipio's exceptional tactical skills, his numerical disadvantage (and an army primarily composed of non-Romans) had no impact. Ready for a decisive and ultimate confrontation, Scipio arranged his troops to block any Carthaginian escape back to their stronghold at Gades. Similar to Hannibal's strategies in Italy, Scipio arranged a cavalry trap and enticed Mago to launch an assault. Mago advanced toward Scipio, assuming he held the advantage, and the ambush was set in motion. The Carthaginians were pushed back at first but succeeded in regrouping and prolonging the fight over several days. As it progressed, both formations were organized in comparable patterns on the battlefield, with the primary infantry of each army positioned in the middle, supported by local tribesmen on the sides. On the last day, Scipio positioned his troops with the tribesmen in the center and regular legionaries on the sides. At dawn, Scipio initiated his assault, and the Carthaginians, taken off guard, were defeated. Throughout the lengthy conflict, the Carthaginians, who had skipped breakfast, were undeniably famished and fatigued all day, ultimately falling to the Roman attack. A significant downpour towards the end of the day postponed the unavoidable, yet since Scipio had previously blocked the escape path to Gades, the whole army of Mago and Hasdrubal Gisgo was quickly surrounded and annihilated. The conflict marked a significant triumph for Rome, and Scipio, specifically, was guaranteed a prominent place in history as one of the ancient era's top generals. Battling illness, Scipio persisted in the campaign against the remnants of Carthaginian opposition. As Scipio advanced towards Gades, his health deteriorated, leading many to think that he had passed away at one point. His forces had been working without pay for a long time, and the recent looting from multiple campaigns incited them into a rebellious mood. Thinking Scipio was too sick, or maybe even deceased, to fulfill his financial obligations, they rebelled at the Sucro River in 206 BC. The rebellion was swiftly suppressed as Scipio recuperated, arrangements for payments were made, the instigators were executed, and operations soon resumed normally. By the conclusion of the year 206 BC, Gades was seized, and numerous Spanish tribes were likewise defeated by the Roman forces. Preparations for political alliances were established with multiple

African tribes to support the impending invasion of Africa. By 205 BC, Mago, realizing the situation in Spain was hopeless, departed from Liguria to Italy to unite with Hannibal but was eventually beaten in Cisalpine Gaul, similar to Hasdrubal prior to him. All traces of Carthaginian opposition had disappeared, and the Romans emerged as the new rulers of Spain. Scipio departed from the Roman garrison and went back to Rome to campaign for the Consul position. From that point, he proceeded to Sicily to get ready for the assault on Carthage on the African continent. He demonstrated his value to Rome and executed an impressive campaign in Spain. The sole imperfections in his record, for which he would be vehemently reprimanded politically by Cato the Elder years later, were his inability to prevent Hasdrubal from fleeing to Italy and the brief, uneventful mutiny in 206 BC. Though the complete conquest of Hispania would require another 200 years, Scipio's campaigns in western Europe contributed to Rome's emergence as the dominant force in the Mediterranean.

## ***The Invasion of Africa***

In 205 BC, Publius Cornelius Scipio landed in Sicily with a volunteer army to join the forces (the survivors from Cannae) that were assigned to him. While a heated discussion occurred in the Senate regarding the next steps, no new taxes were approved for the invasion of Africa, yet Scipio was permitted to strategize his campaign. Agreements were established with several African tribes, Libyans, Moors, and the Numidian prince Massinissa to support the impending invasion. In 204 BC, Scipio sailed across the sea and arrived in North Africa with a seasoned force of up to 35,000 soldiers. While Scipio had secured the support of Masinissa, another Numidian, King Syphax, remained loyal to Carthage. The Numidian forces had been engaged in conflict on both sides, and although this served the interests of both Rome and Carthage, each also aimed to gain favor with the two battling factions. Masinissa had often been defeated in battles against Syphax, yet he managed to supply Scipio with 6,000 foot soldiers and 4,000 renowned Numidian cavalry. At the campaign's outset, Scipio advanced toward Utica and commenced a siege. Confronted by a combined force of Carthaginian and Numidian troops, commanded by Syphax and Hasdrubal Gisgo, he found himself trapped along the African coast for a while and compelled to abandon the siege. During the winter of 204 to 203 BC, each army remained in their respective camps until the next spring. In the early phase of the 203 BC season, Scipio executed a sudden assault, setting the enemy camps ablaze and inducing widespread panic. Following the swift triumph, Scipio continued his siege on Utica, whereas the Carthaginians promptly started assembling a new army.

Shortly thereafter, another Carthaginian contingent of approximately 30,000 soldiers started to gather at the Great Plains by the Bagradas River. Scipio abandoned his siege of Utica and launched a strong attack on the green army. The Romans defeated the defenders through a double flanking tactic, yet Hasdrubal and Syphax managed to flee once more. Towards the end of 203 BC, Syphax continued to operate with a limited contingent near Cirta. Scipio sent Laelius and Masinissa, the Numidian king allied with him, with a contingent of troops to eliminate the threat definitively, while he continued the siege of Utica. Close to the Ampsaga River, Syphax engaged in his final battle as his outnumbered troops were severely defeated. Masinissa seized Syphax and brought him to Cirta, leading the city to capitulate without opposition. Following this loss and the capture of Utica, Carthage had no option but to plead for peace and agree to Scipio's severe conditions. Carthage, nonetheless, had summoned Hannibal back from Italy and appeared to agree to the terms merely to provide Hannibal sufficient time to come back. While Hannibal was navigating the perilous trip home to Africa (in an effort to evade the formidable Roman fleets) accompanied by his seasoned army, a Roman supply fleet ran aground close to Carthage, where it was captured and raided by the locals. Envoys dispatched to Carthage to address this breach of the recently established peace treaty were swiftly assaulted, forcing Scipio to resume his offensive. He devastated the inland cities of Carthaginian land and encountered Masinissa along with his Numidian cavalry close to the Bagradas River. By this time, in 202 BC, Hannibal had also returned and recruited a new army of 25,000 men to supplement his 12,000 veterans. Marching towards Scipio, the two armies met near Zama on the plains of the Bagradas River.

## ***The Battle of Zama***

In 202 BC, Hannibal heard that Publius Cornelius Scipio was wreaking havoc near Zama and departed from his stronghold in Hadrumetum to face him. Carthage relied significantly on the area's rich grain harvests and had to confront the threat, even with Hannibal's newly enlisted and unskilled soldiers. Scipio was also fully aware of Hannibal's immense skill in a defensive stance, particularly near Carthage. He anticipated that his actions in the crucial region close to Zama would lure Hannibal away from his fortifications at Hadrumetum and Carthage. It also offered a chance to connect with Masinissa's cavalry active in the same region. Hannibal, by this point, had succeeded in assembling around 40,000 foot soldiers and 4,000 horsemen to face Scipio's smaller contingent of 30,000 infantry and 6,000 cavalry. When the march commenced, Masinissa had not arrived with Scipio, and Carthaginian spies were permitted entry into the Roman camp to observe

the absence of cavalry present. Eagerly, Hannibal rushed to Scipio's camp planning to utilize his cavalry to defeat the Romans, oblivious to the fact that Masinissa and his renowned Numidians would soon come. While the two armies stood in formation, Hannibal asked for a direct meeting with Scipio. With both armies arranged for combat, Hannibal encountered Scipio in an inconclusive discussion. Hannibal believed that, despite Rome's advantage in the conflict, his greater strength on the battlefield could protect Carthage from additional devastation. He proposed to Rome Spain, Sicily, and Sardinia, assuring that Carthage would not attack again, but Scipio declined. With Masinissa's imminent arrival, the balance of battlefield power would shift back to the Romans, and Hannibal had nothing to present that the Romans hadn't already secured. Following the time acquired from the parlay, Masinissa showed up and evaded an effort by Hannibal to obstruct the union. Scipio selected the location of his camp for the battle, placed by a natural spring. Hannibal, in the meantime, was immersed in African land without a readily available water supply for his troops. The level terrain was destined to become the future location of the Roman settlement of Zama, and the conflict was named after this settlement 150 years later. Hannibal's strategy was a straightforward repetition of his methods used at Cannae. In creating a sound plan, he neglected to consider several factors. His cavalry was weaker than that of the Romans, his forces comprised numerous untrained recruits, and now he confronted a general as skilled as himself in Scipio, instead of the incompetent leadership demonstrated by the Romans in Italy. Hannibal positioned all of his elephants at the forefront of his army, with diverse infantry behind and cavalry on the sides. He wished for the elephants to disrupt the Romans' central formations while his cavalry could surround them from the sides. The conflict began with the elephants attacking the Roman formations. Though a terrifying vision for the Romans, Scipio's strategy was effective, and the elephants moved smoothly into the open paths. The massive creatures swiftly became frantic and shifted within their ranks to flee the slaughter. They advanced straight toward Hannibal's cavalry, effectively eliminating an entire flank. Without his elephants and a cavalry that was already weakened by the disaster, Hannibal found himself in significant trouble before the infantry even clashed. Scipio subsequently reversed the situation and employed similar strategies at Zama as Hannibal had at Cannae. His cavalry easily forced Hannibal's back, driving them away, as the infantry clashed in the middle. Initially, the Roman front line suffered significant losses in the center, but Scipio held back additional troops, compelling Hannibal to keep some soldiers unengaged. Soon, the standard legionaries started to drive back the forefront of Hannibal's army, but their own reserve line prevented the fleeing Carthaginians from breaking through the lines to safety. Although Hannibal's frontline was decimated, his renowned veterans blocked the Romans' advance. Both armies extended their lines as long as possible to prevent being flanked, and Scipio failed to encircle Hannibal. Both lines fought fiercely with neither infantry gaining an advantage and it looked as if Scipio's plan to emulate Cannae might fail. At the critical juncture, however, the Roman and Numidian cavalry



broke off its pursuit of the fleeing Carthaginian cavalry and returned to attack Hannibal's flanks. Despite the brilliance of his veterans, the Carthaginians had no chance while being crushed on all sides. The Carthaginians quickly faltered and the conflict, along with the Second Punic War, would soon conclude. Sixteen years following his invasion of Italy, Hannibal's army was annihilated and Carthage was vanquished. Around 20,000 soldiers from his army were slain, with the same number captured to be sold at slave auctions. The Romans, on the other hand, suffered only around 500 fatalities and 4,000 injured. Scipio, after conquering the top strategist of that era, now emerged as the finest general in the world. In recognition of his achievements, Publius Cornelius Scipio received the title Africanus. Hannibal, nonetheless, succeeded in evading the massacre and came back to Hadrumetum with a limited guard. He urged Carthage to agree to the most favorable terms possible and that waging more war against Rome, at this moment, was pointless

## ***Outcomes of The Second Punic War***

Spain was permanently surrendered to Carthage and fell under Roman control for the subsequent 7 centuries, albeit not without its own challenges. Carthage became a client state and forfeited all authority to negotiate its own treaties and conduct diplomacy. It was compelled to pay a tribute of 10,000 talents, and all warships, except for 10, were surrendered to Rome along with any leftover war elephants. Carthage was similarly prohibited from assembling an army without Rome's consent. Grain and compensation for missing supplies needed to be sent to Rome, along with the duty of capturing runaway slaves and bringing them back. Masinissa, in the meantime, was honored for his loyalty to Rome by being appointed King of greater Numidia, with nearly unrestricted authority in his domain. He certainly capitalized on Carthaginian vulnerability and seized extensive land from the city following its loss (likely motivated by Rome.) Hannibal continued to be a perpetual source of dread for Rome. Although the treaty established in 201 BC, Hannibal was permitted to stay free in Carthage. In 196 BC, he was appointed as a Shophet, the principal magistrate of the Carthaginian Senate. He quickly changed numerous corrupt policies in the Carthaginian government and aimed to bolster its internal political framework. Internal conflicts, however, compelled Hannibal to escape to the east, where he subsequently allied with Antiochus III of Syria to battle the Romans again. Scipio Africanus was initially celebrated as a remarkable hero, which he indeed was. Rome had lost over 300,000 men over the course of the war, farms and other establishments in Italy were devastated. Without the leadership of Scipio in Spain, Rome may very well not had the resources to continue the fight, or Hannibal would've been reinforced making Carthaginian victory far more likely. Scipio would later serve in the east during the Macedonian Wars and against Antiochus, but would be victimized later in life by the brilliant politics of Cato the Censor. By conquering Carthage and defeating the Macedonians in various conflicts, Rome emerged as the ruler of all of Italy, along with Africa, Spain, and Greece. The downfall of Carthage changed the Roman Republic from an expanding regional influence into the dominant Empire of the Mediterranean.

## **Chronological Timeline**

264 BCE - 241 BCE

First Punic War. Carthage cedes Sicily to Rome.

237 BCE

Hamilcar Barca arrived in southern Spain to expand Carthage's interests there. He makes his base at Gades and founded Acra Leuce.

229 BCE

Hasdrubal takes command of Carthage's armies in Spain.

226 BCE

Hasdrubal signs an agreement with Rome not to cross the Ebro river in Spain.

221 BCE

Hannibal takes command of Carthage's armies in Spain.

219 BCE

Hannibal crosses the Ebro river in Spain and sacks the city of Saguntum, Rome's ally, sparking off the Second Punic War.

218 BCE - 201 BCE

Second Punic War.

218 BCE

Scipio Africanus lands an army at Empuries in northeastern Spain during the Second Punic War.

Mar 218 BCE

Rome declares war on Carthage after Hannibal sacks Saguntum in Spain. The Second Punic War begins.

Apr 218 BCE - May 218 BCE

Hannibal leaves Spain to cross the Pyrenees and Alps into Italy.

Nov 218 BCE

Hannibal wins the battle of Ticinus.

Dec 218 BCE

Hannibal wins the battle of Trebia.

Jun 217 BCE

Hannibal wins the battle of Lake Trasimene.

216 BCE

Marcus Claudius Marcellus successfully defends Nola against attack from Hannibal during the Second Punic War.

216 BCE

"Hannibal ante portas." Hannibal directly threatens the city of Rome, but cannot advance due to lack of supplies and reinforcements.

Aug 216 BCE

Hannibal wins the battle of Cannae, the worst defeat in Roman history.

215 BCE

A Carthaginian army led by Hasdrubal is defeated at the battle of Iberia in Spain.

214 BCE

Syracuse joins the side of Carthage in the Second Punic War.

213 BCE - 212 BCE

Roman commander Marcus Claudius Marcellus lays siege to and ultimately sacks Syracuse.

212 BCE

A Carthaginian army is defeated in Sicily by a Roman army led by Marcellus. Syracuse falls to Rome who now control the island.

211 BCE

Marcus Claudius Marcellus is given a triumph for his capture of Syracuse and victories in Sicily.

211 BCE

Scipio Africanus lands an army for the second time at Empuries in northeastern Spain during the Second Punic War.

211 BCE

A Carthaginian army defeats two Roman consuls and their armies in the Tader valley, Spain.

210 BCE - 207 BCE

Scipio Africanus conquers Spain for Rome.

209 BCE

Tarentum came under Roman control during the Second Punic War.

209 BCE

Scipio Africanus captures the Carthaginian base and treasury Carthago Nova in southern Spain.

208 BCE

Roman commander Marcus Claudius Marcellus is killed in an ambush in Venusia, southern Italy.

208 BCE

Scipio Africanus defeated a Carthaginian army led by Hasdrubal at Baecula in Spain.

207 BCE

Hannibal, harassed by Roman forces, is reduced to controlling only Bruttium in southern Italy.

c. 22 Jun 207 BCE

Rome defeats a Carthaginian army at the battle of Metaurus.

206 BCE

Massinissa of Numidia betrays Carthage and joins forces with the Roman Republic.

206 BCE - 205 BCE

The Romans conquer Gades. End of the Carthaginian presence on the Iberian Peninsula.

206 BCE

Scipio Africanus wins the battle of Ilipa in Spain.

204 BCE - 203 BCE

Scipio Africanus wins two battles and besieges Utica in North Africa.

204 BCE

Scipio Africanus sails to North Africa in the Second Punic War.

203 BCE

Carthaginian commander Mago is unable to join forces with Hannibal and his army is defeated in Cisalpine Gaul.

203 BCE

Scipio Africanus attacks the two camps of Syphax and Gisgo in North Africa and destroys their armies.

203 BCE

Scipio Africanus defeated a Carthaginian army led by Hasdrubal in North Africa.

203 BCE

Hannibal is recalled from Italy to defend Carthage against Scipio Africanus.

19 Oct 202 BCE

Battle of Zama: Scipio Africanus defeated Hannibal, ending the Second Punic War.

149 BCE - 146 BCE

Third Punic War.

## **Military & Warfare**

### ***How Military Action Will Work***

Military action will be taken from personal/joint/committee directives. A directive can never be too detailed so please put your heart and soul in them. When writing you must pay attention to:

1. Logistics

Where, how and when you deploy which troops is very important. Travelling on foot can take a while, and the more supplies you'll carry the longer it'll take.

2. Tactics



“I attack” is not a valid tactic. No, seriously I want long directives with extensive drawings of how your troops will attack, or defend. You may even write them in a first-person style as a commander addressing his soldiers. The enemy will exploit your weaknesses so account for them.

### 3. Quality Over Quantity

I can tell you in advance that you will be writing war/battle directives so I want the war that you write to be a collective and well-done effort. Time will also matter since it is a JCC.

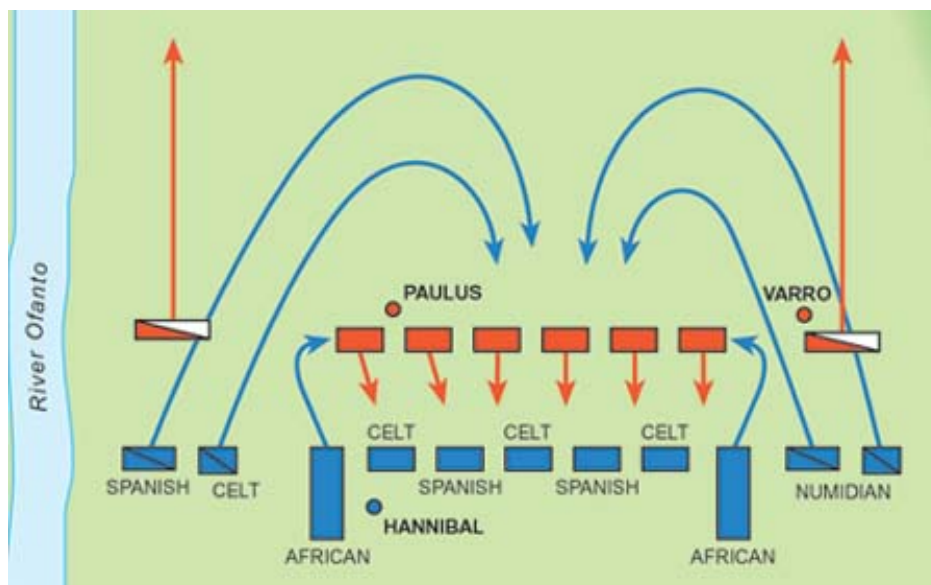
You'll come together in an unmoderated caucus and discuss over what you'll do.

### 4. Legibility

A directive is not of much use when it can't be read. It does not matter who writes or submits committee directives. Someone with legible and nice handwriting should write committee directives. Of course, you must write your individual directives on your own. Please still try to write in an easily understandable manner.

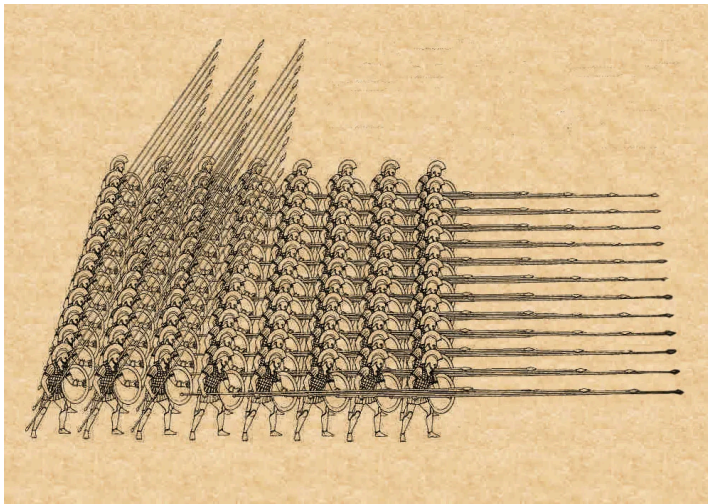
## ***Tactical Formations***

### Double Envelopment



Mastered by Hannibal Barca himself mostly in the Second Punic war, in the battles they had after their descent from the Alpines in the Italian Peninsula, The double envelopment tactic took advantage of the incredibly fast numidian cavalry (can also be other cavalry as well however this was what Hannibal did historically). These cavalry would firstly be spread on the right and left sides of the Celt and Carthaginian troop (once again, can also be other troops in the committee) and once the battle of the main (middle) side commenced, the cavalry would then go around the side, to the back of the enemy which gave this tactic its name: Double Envelopment.

### *The Phalanx*



The Phalanx formation in this day and age was still widely used and did its job rather well being utilized actively by the Greek world.

The phalanx was a tightly packed formation of infantry soldiers standing shoulder to shoulder creating a solid wall of shields and spears. The overlapping shields provided tight protection against footsoldiers and enemy projectiles while the spears were able to push back enemies for defensive or offensive purposes.

Its weaknesses lie in its flanks. The phalanx required organized and synchronized action to work well, meaning it is slow to turn or attack at an angle. Its flanks are also open so it is very vulnerable to attacks from the side, and its back is wholly unprotected. It also needed a rather flat and straight terrain to operate at its best.

### *Testudo Formation*



The main purpose of the Testudo, or Tortoise formation, is to protect from enemy projectiles such as arrows, rocks and javelins. The testudo provided a mobile shelter in order to advance to the enemy frontline without getting taken out on the way. Similar to the Phalanx soldiers stood shoulder to shoulder with the front row holding their shields straight and the others forming a roof.

Though a strong defensive formation if your enemy is fighting you from afar, the Testudo is nearly useless in frontline hand-to-hand combat. It is also vulnerable to attacks from the sides or the rear, as is the Phalanx.

## *The Wedge*

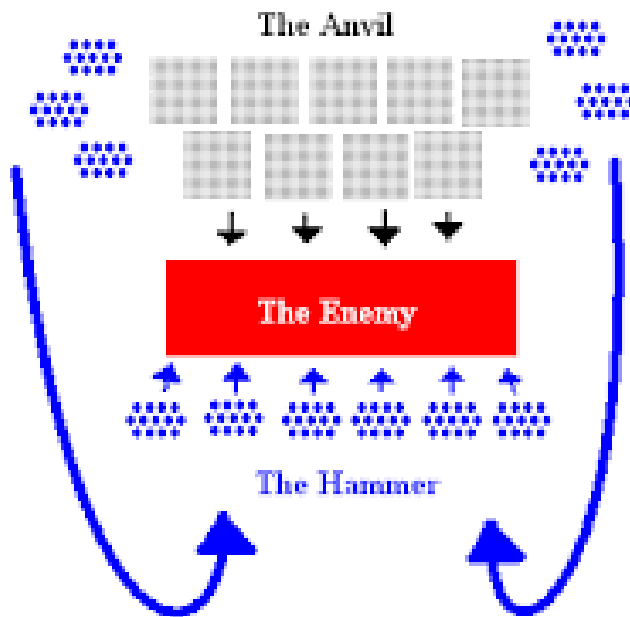


The purpose of the Wedge Formation was to create impact at a specific point to break through the enemy's line of defence. The strength at the tip of the wedge with cover from behind would disrupt and split enemy forces while also creating an opening for follow-up forces.

The Wedge relied heavily on a build-up of momentum with lacking speed often resulting in a failure concluding in the exact opposite, an opening in YOUR line. It was particularly effective against defensively focused formations such as shield walls and Phalanxes. It can also be used by cavalry in the exact same way and structure. While also having use in defence in order to split the enemy and create an opportunity for a counterattack.

Its only weakness really lies in its difficulty to build up momentum. As mentioned, if the Wedge fails it might result in a grand chance for your enemy to disrupt and split your line of attack or defence causing severe losses on your hand.

## *Hammer and Anvil*



Being rather difficult to execute on the open battlefield spontaneously, the Hammer and Anvil require planning and expert positioning. It involves using two forces to sandwich the enemy with one acting as the “hammer”, providing immense frontal impact, and the other as the “anvil”, blocking escape and attacking from the rear.

The Anvil force from the rear has a severe flanking advantage that should but doesn’t necessarily have to be utilized. Blocking the sides sandwiches the enemy more while leaving the flanks open would spread the forces apart. As long as you don’t have a crushing force to finish the enemy quickly, leaving the flanks open would create risk and probably cause more casualties on your end.

The weakness of this tactic lies in its difficulty and known proneness for counter-positioning. Failing to organize or time the attack correctly, or a well-prepared tactically advanced enemy might give them a chance to counter the attack by maintaining a strong reserve force or swiftly repositioning to defend both sides.

The Hammer and Anvil is still in use in modern times with tanks and such. Don’t overestimate your own forces, and don’t underestimate your enemy or this tactic might fail.



### *Crescent Formation*



The goal of the Crescent was to surround and possibly encircle the enemy, taking advantage of superior positioning and speed. As the name suggests, forces attack in a crescent shape and extend the flanks from behind support forces as they enclose the enemy. When successful, encircling the opponent creates a vast tactical advantage, making the opposition vulnerable to all kinds of attacks from basically everywhere. When encircled, surrender is advised.

Geography again plays an important role here as the crescent can become more circular or even S-shaped according to rough terrain. The tactic also has a strong psychological impact as it gives the illusion of being outnumbered as more and more troops attack from all sides. Chaos would often ensue and tactical order would be disrupted.

Its weaknesses lie in its elongated and rather slim flanks, which are susceptible to counterattacks or fissures in the line when defended well enough. The terrain is also vital as it requires a wide field. Communication can also create an issue as it can be challenging to coordinate in this formation. Its rear is also susceptible to attacks and lacks defensive mobility.

### *Open Order*

The Open or Loose order formation involves spacing out troops to create a flexible constant and spread the battle to a large and loose area. It is primarily used to make the army less susceptible to projectile attacks such as arrows or artillery. Open order relies on easy manoeuvres and quick responses to enemy actions. It makes evasion easier, visibility clearer and reduces casualties.

Its weakness lies in its reliance on individual classes. Not only the commanders but also the soldiers will be involved in more one-to-one fights with a lack of stamina or failure to respond tactically likely to result in massive casualties of maybe the whole squadron. Strong individual fighters such as mercenaries or better-equipped high-rank soldiers shine in open order as they mostly destroy their opponents in one-to-one combat.

Open order also slows down the attack with only a retreat or annihilation of the opposing force changing the direction. It is also vulnerable to cavalry charges and lacks military cohesion, as mentioned as it relies heavily on individual hand-to-hand power.

## **Roman Troops**

Before Marius's reforms in the late 2nd and early 1st century BC, the organization of the Republican Roman Legion was entirely different from the structure typically depicted for the Imperial era.

The first Roman army was initially founded on the Greek Phalanx model, and the legion developed further from that source and from aspects of Latin tribes in Italy.

When the Romans started to oppose Etruscan domination, the distinctive legionary system was already well established. The Romans ceased using the hoplite spear as their main weapon of warfare and transitioned to the large shield (scutum) and short sword (gladius) as their preferred weapons and tactics.

The primary distinction between the Republican and Imperial legions was related to their social and economic criteria for membership.

Apart from exceptional situations, where Rome's survival relied on utilizing anyone for defense, the Republican legion upheld a rigid social order. Only citizens who owned land could serve under ideal conditions, and a person's overall wealth and military experience determined their position in the infantry.

Since every citizen before Marius supplied weapons and gear from their own properties, the equipment could differ, yet there was a fundamental uniform standard that needed to be adhered to, within limits.

This system was created from necessity, but possibly integrating the idea of loyalty to the city and the morale of the soldiers. As the military consisted of citizens able to purchase their own armor, they were the clear option for service. Nonetheless, during the initial period, the prevailing idea that solely landowners had a genuine interest in the battle's outcome likely significantly influenced the formation of the early Roman Legion.

Every level of a soldier's status depended on his capability to arm himself. There is ongoing discussion about the social advancement within the ranks of Republican legionaries. Outside the lower orders, it is very possible that the status of wealth enabled a citizen to transition into a different rank class within the military. For the sake of overall cohesion, though, upward mobility—once a rank was set—was likely restricted until a legion was dissolved.

Experience was much more likely to be the key factor in determining whether a soldier was promoted within a legion after the initial status was established. After a veteran was 're-enlisted', his rank in the army was determined once more by his wealth, as well as his age and experience.

A soldier in the Republican Legion functioned similarly to those in the Imperial Legion. They qualified for service for a span of 20 years and were retired or excused from additional service afterward.

In contrast to the Imperial army, the earlier Republic did not have a permanent army per se, and soldiers might or might not be fully engaged during this time frame. In certain instances, like during the Punic Wars, an individual soldier might have experienced almost constant service over his 20-year eligibility, while in other situations, he might have been required to provide only occasional service according to the army's needs.

Although the Romans seldom experienced complete peace in their history, there were periods when it seemed possible for these citizen soldiers to dedicate significant time to tending their own farms.

## ***Organization of the Roman Republican Legion***

The Republican system included three main infantry categories, supported by a fundamental skirmishing unit and a minor cavalry contingent.

The Republican legion typically consisted of around 4,000 to 6,000 soldiers, across different infantry tiers, with 4,200 seemingly being the ideal figure. Regrettably, Polybius, who offers one



of the most notable accounts from an ancient viewpoint, is highly inconsistent, yet the fundamental idea can be discerned from his writings.

Moreover, the cavalry included a total of 200 to 300 troopers.

The combat capability, as well as the structure, of groups within the Republican legion transformed in different ways throughout the years. However, in the subsequent example, the shared legion from the Punic Wars until the era of Marius will be exemplified.

Under this system, the legion was made of the Maniple formation, which generally consisted of two centuries of men. The centuries were organized as a base unit of 60 men, but these numbers fluctuated depending upon the type of infantry.

Hastati had 60 men augmented by 20 skirmishing Velites, bringing the total to 80 per century. The Principes seem to have used 60 men centuries, and the Triarii Maniples were made up of single centuries of 60, rather than two separate centuries.

Under this system the basic formation was as follows:

10 Maniples of Hastati - 20 centuries of 60 Hastati, with an additional 20 Velites.

10 Maniples of Principes - 20 centuries of 60 men.

10 Maniples of Triarii - 10 centuries of 60 men.

In formation, the Hastati with their Velite attachments occupied the front of the formation, with the Principes and Triarii following behind. Therefore:

1,200 Velites, attached to Hastati centuries for organization purposes but occupying their own line on the battlefield.

Hastati - 1,200 men in 10 Maniples, comprised of two centuries of 60 men each.

Principes - 1,200 men in 10 Maniples, comprised of two centuries of 60 men each.

Triarii - 600 men in 10 Maniples, comprised of single centuries of 60 men each.

Every Century of the Maniple was led by a centurion (with the unit on the right led by the senior centurion) who was supported by an optio and other 'enlisted officers' as specified in the Imperial structure.

The Maniple provided more adaptability than the traditional phalanx, as these distinct groups of soldiers within the overall formation could detach from each other to address different battlefield situations.

The cavalry of the Republican legion was restricted to a notably smaller unit relative to the infantry. The cavalry wings of 200 to 300 men were structured into decuriae consisting of 10 men each, led by a decurion.

Three groups of decuriae were assembled into a turma made up of 30 men, with the senior decurion of the three holding complete authority.

## ***Equipment and Tactics of the Roman Republican Legion***

### **Velites**

The lowest class of citizens permitted to serve had various names during Roman history, but each fulfilled a comparable role. The Velites (Ferentarii, Procubitores, or Leves in earlier periods) were not structured as separate units; instead, they were linked to the Hastati Maniples.

These units were lightly-equipped skirmishers positioned in large numbers on the battlefield ahead of the heavier infantry formations, but retreated behind the Hastati after throwing their javelins as the foe drew near.

The Velites played a crucial role in defending against war elephants. With their enhanced mobility from lighter weapons, Velites were able to evade elephant charges and attack from the sides. Jabbing the elephants in the sides as they walked was an effective strategy.

The Velites were equipped with the light javelin, known as hasta velitaris, which is the origin of their name, and a gladius that resembled that of the heavier infantry. Similar to the Pilum, or the heavier spear utilized by the primary soldiers, the velitaris featured a finely honed and slender tip that would bend upon impact, thereby diminishing its potential for reuse against the enemy.

Their headgear comprised a lightweight helmet, typically enveloped in wolf fur or a similar animal hide. For body protection, they donned whatever they could afford, probably basic bronze chest plates or comparable materials, if anything.

Moreover, the Velites carried a small buckler or parma for close combat, although it was generally preferred that they allow their heavily armed allies to engage in such encounters.

## **Hastati**

These formed the initial line of the Roman heavy infantry, consisting of the younger, less experienced, yet wealthier citizens.

They donned a full set of protective armor, which included the traditional Legionary shield, or scutum, an unadorned bronze helmet (galea), a bronze breastplate or cuirass, and potentially leg greaves (ocrea). The wealthiest Hastati may have been able to obtain better protection through chainmail, but it was probably rare for this group.

Their armaments included the traditional legionary equipment, featuring the pilum and gladius. Their helmets featured purple and black feather plumes that measured up to 18 inches tall. This was included to enhance their perceived physical size and potentially seem more daunting to the opponent.

The Hastati served as the main fighting unit of the Republican legion, consistently facing the enemy first in hand-to-hand combat. If situations worsened, or they just required a break to recover, the Hastati would fall back behind the Princeps, alternating in this role until they were prepared to attack again.

## **Princeps**

These were merely regarded as the aristocracy of the Republican legion. They were at the peak of their professions in terms of age and experience, representing the affluent segment of the citizen soldier.

Consequently, they were the most well-prepared, albeit in a way akin to that of the Hastati. In addition to the chance of utilizing scaled armor or chain instead of basic bronze breastplates, the weaponry and additional armor remained unchanged.

The Princeps was simply required to achieve victory in the battle. Initially, they would assist the Hastati, but afterwards, they would engage in the battle with full intensity. It was a fascinating and effective strategy to exhaust the opponent with competent, yet not top-tier troops, then striking decisively with your elite forces at a critical moment in the battle.

## **Triarii**

Although the triarii wore armor similar to that of the Hastatii and Princeps, their role was quite distinct and resembled that of Greek hoplites more than Roman heavy infantry.

The Triarii typically comprised the oldest and most seasoned soldiers in the Roman army, tasked with defending against catastrophe as a final measure, or surprising the foe at a decisive moment.

The Triarii wielded the Roman counterpart of the phalanx spear, known as the Hastae. Should the heavy infantry be driven back, the Triarii would advance with their spears, ideally aiming to surprise the enemy and give the Princeps and Hastati a chance to reorganize.

As mentioned, they were utilized only as a final option, and the Latin phrase 'ad triarios redisse', translating to "it has reached the triarii", evolved into a common saying indicating that something was in a dire predicament!

## **Cavalry**

The Republican cavalry was intended for rapid movement and was similarly outfitted to the Hastati. Their primary responsibility was to offer reconnaissance and possible rapid assistance to faltering sections of a front line.

Occasionally, the cavalry might be employed to exploit a flank or strike unexpectedly at a crucial moment, yet their small numbers typically constrained their effectiveness.

Since the Romans were not seen as especially skilled horsemen, the significant impact of cavalry in the Roman army emerged with the addition of several auxiliary cavalry units such as those from the Gauls and Germanic tribes.

## **General Tactics**

Prior to the great wars against Carthage, Roman strategy (and their enemy counterparts) was relatively simple; most battles consisted of a straight march against one another, with little thought of complicating matters!

As most armies were levied and used on an 'as needed' basis, initial and continued training was limited. Until the Punic Wars, Rome rarely maintained any semblance of a continual standing army, and it was just too risky to attempt many complex maneuvers with inadequately trained or experienced troops.

The wars with Pyrrhus of Epirus, and those with Carthage, changed everything entirely, and the Roman battle strategies were forced to adapt. Years of brutal losses to Hannibal can be partially attributed to this fact, and of course, to Hannibal's own brilliance on the battlefield.

Until the rise of Scipio Africanus, there were few Roman commanders who implemented a great deal of strategy other than a straight frontal assault on an enemy position.

## **Carthaginian Troops**

### Commanders

The leader of a Carthaginian army in the battlefield (rab mahanet) was appointed for the period of a particular conflict, typically from the ruling lineage. The general sometimes had full freedom to act independently, while at other times had to depend on the council of 104 and the two leading political figures at Carthage, the suffetes (magistrates), for crucial decisions like when to make a truce, seek peace, or retreat. Furthermore, following a battle or war, the commanders would face a tribunal that examined their ability or lack thereof. Various family factions in Carthage maintained their own private militias, which could subsequently be utilized for the state; a scenario that generated fierce competition among leaders. Furthermore, authority was occasionally divided among two or even three generals, leading to increased chances for intense rivalry.

The army of Carthage consisted of citizen hoplites, cavalry from Africa, and mercenaries from various parts of the empire.

Motivation likely was elevated since generals who didn't succeed in wartime faced severe consequences. A significant penalty was a hefty fine, while the most severe outcome was crucifixion. Multiple commanders, after their defeat, took their own lives to evade the subsequent punishment, yet this did not prevent the council of 104 from crucifying the body of one Mago c. 344 antes de Cristo. A significant result of the fear of failure ingrained in the army hierarchy could be that generals often became overly cautious and conservative during combat.

## ***Organisation***

The Carthaginian army consisted of heavily armored foot soldiers recruited from the local population. This was a select cadre of 2,500-3,000 foot soldiers recognized by their white shields and referred to as the Sacred Band. The name is derived from the prestigious army of Greek Thebes and signifies a broader shift away from Near Eastern customs toward a Hellenization of the Carthaginian military starting in the 4th century BCE. The Sacred Band was stationed inside the enormous fortification walls of Carthage. Another source of soldiers came from the allied cities and the captured regions of North Africa, particularly ancient Libya and Tunisia. These would have been commanded by Carthaginian leaders and were compensated for their duties.

Since the last two factions were not large in number and lacked a remarkable combat reputation – given that the Carthaginians were famous for their naval strength – a third group of hired soldiers was depended upon to form an army capable of rivaling Carthage's foes. These originated from all of Carthage's allied and subjugated territories across the Mediterranean, particularly Greece, Iberia, Gaul, and southern Italy. A significant element of a Carthaginian army in battle was the proficient Numidian cavalry, whose horsemen wielded a javelin and rode without a bridle, reflecting their expertise in managing their steeds. They wielded a compact shield for defense and hurled lengthy poisoned darts at their foes. An atypical group of mercenaries originated from Libyan-Egyptian territories, featuring women in combat, typically mounted on chariots or horses. They bore crescent-shaped pelta shields and brandished double axes.

All these bands of mercenaries persisted as a constant presence in the Carthaginian standing army from the close of the 3rd century BCE. To prevent the risk that victorious mercenary armies might decide to overthrow the ruling class of Carthage and seize the city's riches, the Carthaginians ensured that all high and mid-level command roles were occupied by Carthage's citizens. Still, in spite of this measure, mercenary armies would often turn against their employers and instigate conflicts among the competing factions of Carthage's elite, particularly noted during the Truceless War (also known as the Mercenary War, 241-237 BCE).

## ***Weapons & Armor***

As the armies of Carthage were usually composite groups of Punic, African, and foreign mercenary forces their weapons and armour differed depending on the unit's origin or preferences. In addition, the Carthaginians were not averse to equipping themselves with the arms and armour of their fallen enemies. Contact with Greek forces in Magna Graecia and Sicily resulted in the Carthaginians themselves adopting such quintessentially Greek paraphernalia as the crested bronze Corinthian and Thracian helmets and heavy hoplite armour (a metal or leather tunic and greaves to protect the lower legs). Conical helmets of an older design were utilized, along with helmets featuring face masks and metal breastplates sheathed in leather inspired by Cypriot armor. The reinforced linen armor (linothorax) adorned with bronze studs and featuring hanging strips (pteryges) for groin protection was likewise inspired by Greek soldiers.

Shields were either circular (approximately 90 cm in diameter) or oval featuring a central vertical rib (the thyreos-type), although Celtic warriors, for instance, possessed a slender rectangular shield made



of oak. Shields featured designs tied to Punic religion, classical symbols like Medusa, the Evil Eye, or even customized ones – Hasdrubal Barca had his likeness depicted on his silver shield. The Carthaginians appeared to be adorned for combat, with numerous gold ornaments and animal hides, particularly on the officers. Carthaginian commanders would have been more noticeable in the chaos of combat because of their striking helmet crests and shining precious-metal armor. Generals frequently possessed costly scale armor, like the gilded bronze scales worn by Hannibal, which he inherited from his father.

The standard weapon was a sword, featuring either a straight blade or a curved single-edged version, like the Near Eastern kopis, accompanied by a dagger as a secondary option. Celts were known for their long slashing swords, whereas Iberian infantry wielded unique curved swords. Las tribus españolas también utilizaron una espada corta con gran eficacia; algo que no pasó desapercibido para los romanos, quienes más tarde adoptarían un tipo similar, el gladius hispaniensis.

Archers, particularly the adept Moors and Cretans, were employed, but to a lesser extent than in other forces. Bowmen were mainly utilized in chariots or on elephants to shoot at enemy infantry below. Additional weapons employed included spears (3-6 m long), short javelins (the main weapon for cavalry), and double-headed axes (bipennis). Slings were employed to launch lead or stone projectiles that were almond-shaped for optimal armor penetration. They were particularly employed by the lethal mercenary slingers hailing from the Balearic Islands.

Artillery was part of Carthaginian forces in Sicily where the cities were heavily fortified. The Carthaginians rapidly adopted the Hellenistic innovations of catapults (for stones and incendiaries) and crossbows. In a siege, they utilized battering rams, portable siege towers, earthworks, and mining techniques to breach enemy defenses. Carthage was known to have defense artillery machines in place.

### Chariots

The Carthaginians utilized war chariots until the 3rd century BCE. These were built using wooden frames that were covered with panels made of woven willow branches. They were chariots with a single axle that could transport two individuals: a driver and an archer. Occasionally, a third person, a hoplite, would accompany them. The wheels could have blades attached, while the team of two or four horses was shielded with metal chest plates and ox-hide flank covers. Similar to cavalry, they were employed to disrupt the lines of enemy infantry. Requiring level ground for effective operation, they were mostly limited to North Africa and southern Spain, becoming entirely obsolete by the 3rd century BCE.

## War Elephants

The Carthaginians employed in battle a now-extinct species of elephant that was once indigenous to North Africa. Hannibal might have possessed some bigger Indian elephants through his ally Ptolemy II of Egypt. With tusks and a height of 2.5 metres, the elephants were rendered even more terrifying by equipping their head, trunk, and sides with armour along with blades or spears attached to their tusks. Guided by their handler (mahout), they were employed to break enemy formations. Not big enough to support a superstructure (howdah), this type of elephant might have allowed a second rider equipped with a bow or javelins. Prior to combat, elephants were administered fermented wine to induce more unpredictable behavior and amplify their trumpeting and stomping. Certainly, the sight and sounds of elephants instigated fear among the enemy soldiers and horses, yet they were erratic in combat and could inflict just as much harm on their own troops as on the adversary. When opposing troops adapted to them and conditioned their horses not to be afraid, or if the landscape was inappropriate, their impact was significantly diminished.

## Strategies & Tactics

Following an initial series of skirmishes featuring light cavalry, the Carthaginian forces launched a direct assault against the enemy using heavy infantry, similar to the tactics the Greeks had employed for centuries with the phalanx, where tightly packed hoplites shield one another. Inspired by the effective Macedonian model of a speared phalanx, the Carthaginian army was likewise structured into companies of about 250 soldiers arranged in 16 lines of 16 troops, which together constituted battalions of roughly 4,000 soldiers. Light infantry was positioned on the flanks and safeguarded the sides of the phalanx, potentially attracting the enemy troops. During battle, troops were organized using standards that, for Carthaginian units, consisted of staffs adorned with ribbons featuring the well-known Punic crescent moon and sun disc emblem. Every ethnic group would possess distinct symbols, like the Celtic wild boar representation and shield designs, which helped to distinguish individuals.

The elephant unit was deployed ahead of the infantry to break the enemy formations and light cavalry forces to trouble the foe from the flanks or behind. A small contingent of heavy cavalry, made up exclusively of Carthaginian citizens, was also present and could disrupt the enemy's infantry formations during combat. Cavalry was also utilized to annoy the enemy during their withdrawal. When not engaged in direct confrontations, the cavalry, particularly the agile and highly mobile Numidian units, were utilized to surprise enemy forces or to guide them into traps set by infantry troops.

In some battles, the Carthaginian army numbered up to 70,000 men (but more often less than half that figure) and its success was very much down to the commander's ability to galvanise all of the disparate groups into a cohesive fighting force. Hannibal was particularly renowned for his ability in this area and in his willingness to adapt superior enemy tactics and formations such as after the Battle of Lake Trasimene (217 BCE) when he likely adapted the more flexible Roman manipular troop deployment as opposed to the more static phalanx.

## **The Role and Use of Mercenary Troops**

During the Punic Wars and, in general, during ancient ages, it was quite common to hire mercenaries with promises such as loots, alliances, wealth or similar agreements. Carthage did not have a lot of population and they needed to keep on hiring new mercenaries for its expansion and to be able to have a continuous supply of raw materials for the Republic.

Before the Second Punic War (218 BC - 201 BC) Carthage began to spread out through the Iberian Peninsula due to the loss of their main resource suppliers. The losses of Sicily, Corsica and mainly Sardinia caused a lack of raw material for Carthage. Apart from that its main Army has difficulties as well, both for having blocked its way to Greece and Macedonia, and for its impossibility to hire mercenaries in Cisalpine Gaul, Narbonese Gaul and the whole Italy.

Hamilcar (Hannibal's father), the most strengthened man after the war, discovers a new land. A virgin land, close enough to Carthage to become a supplier of basic resources for the Republic and far enough from Rome to avoid any interference with them: The Iberian Peninsula, Hispania in Phoenician language. Hamilcar hated Rome and spread this feeling through his sons Hannibal and Hasdrubal Barca. In the end this hate was the threshold for the Second Punic War.

Hispania became a resource supplier for Carthage and the main supplier of soldiers for the mercenary Carthaginian army, the Celtiberians: turdetani, carpetani, oretani, ilergetes, etc. that joined the African soldiers: Libyans-Phoenicians and Numids.

Rome hired mercenaries as well, mainly from its allies in Gaul and later in time also in Hispania, where they recruited Iberians and Celtiberians, thanks to several agreements signed by the Scipio family.

Disclaimer for the committee: Be careful with mercenaries and how you use them, because sooner or later, they are working for money and we all know what will happen if you don't pay them (none of us would want to mess around and find out, because Carthage did historically). :)

# **Siege Warfare and Ancient Siege Technologies**

Siege warfare has been a very important side of military strategy throughout history, and ancient civilizations were no exception of this, obviously. The ability to breach fortifications and capture key strongholds was usually the decisive factor in conflicts. Also ancient armies developed sophisticated tactics, techniques, and technologies to achieve this goal.

## **Siege Engine Construction**

Siege engines were a key piece of ancient siege warfare, allowing armies to breach or overcome fortifications. The construction of these engines needed really careful planning, well engineering, and an understanding of the materials and techniques available at the time.

## **Materials and Techniques Used in Siege Engine Construction**

The materials used in siege engine construction changed depending on the region they were in and also the current tech available. The materials to make these siege engines were:

Wood: Wood was for the frame and also other structural components of siege engines.

Rope and similar tied bands etc.: These were used mainly for torsion springs, tensioning, and other applications.

Animal sinew: Was used for torsion springs and other applications.

The techniques used in siege engine construction also changed, however they were mainly made of a combination of carpentry, rope-making, and metalworking. For example, the construction of a torsion catapult required the careful crafting of wooden frames, the production of high-quality rope or sinew for the torsion springs, and the fabrication of metal fittings and fasteners.

## **Design and Functionality of Various Siege Engines**

Ancient siege engines came in some different designs. Obviously, each had its own strengths and weaknesses separately. The most known types of siege engines were the torsion catapults, tension catapults, battering rams and siege towers.

Torsion catapults: engines used torsion springs to store energy. This was then released to propel projectiles. Torsion catapults were really really effective against fortifications and were used by many ancient armies.

Tension catapults: These babies used tension springs to store energy. That same energy was then released to propel projectiles. Tension catapults were less common than torsion catapults but don't worry, they were still used by some ancient armies.

Battering rams: These engines were used to breach gates and walls by applying repeated blows. Battering rams were often protected by a canopy or other form of shielding to protect the operators from defensive fire.

Siege towers: These engines were used to allow attackers to scale walls and gain access to fortifications. Siege towers were often equipped with bridges or other features to facilitate the movement of troops.

This diagram illustrates the basic components of a torsion catapult:

Frame → Torsion springs → Arms → Projectile → Target

## **Siege Warfare in Ancient Battles**

Siege warfare had a huge role in many ancient battles, often deciding the outcome of conflicts. The use of siege warfare gave the armies the ability to capture important strongholds and fortifications. This exact ability gave them the chance to use it as bases for further operations or as bargaining chips in negotiations.

## **Use of Siege Warfare to Capture Key Strongholds**

Siege warfare was often used to gain important locations, bases, strongholds etc. The captured places could be capital cities and it would be a huge blow, because capitals often contained the seat of government and also other important institutions. Or it could also be fortified ports, and capturing that would give a strategic advantage because armies would then be able to control the flow of goods and supplies. One more possibility was that it could be a strategic stronghold, mountain passes or river crossings are perfect examples for this. Capturing an area like that would provide great chances and opportunities by the means of control, only if the right tactics are used though, and this was one of the things that Hannibal took great advantage of (being the military genius he was) during the Punic Wars)

## **Impact of Siege Warfare on the Outcome of Conflicts**

Siege warfare had a great impact on the result of many ancient conflicts. Being able to capture strongholds and fortifications was basically almost every time a decisive factor, because it allowed armies to gain control of the surrounding territory and dictate the terms of the conflict.

## **Defensive Countermeasures**

As siege warfare evolved, so too did the defensive countermeasures used to counter it. Ancient armies developed a range of strategies and technologies to defend against siege engines and other siege warfare tactics.

## **Development of Defensive Strategies Against Siege Warfare**

Fortification design: The design of fortifications was one of , if not the most, important factors in defending against siege warfare. Features such as walls, towers, and ditches were used to slow down or prevent the approach of siege engines.

Defensive artillery: Defensive artillery, such as catapults and ballistae, were used to counter enemy siege engines and other defensive positions.

Garrisoning and provisioning: Garrisoning fortifications with sufficient troops and provisioning them with food, water, and other supplies was critical in withstanding a siege.

### **Use of Fortifications and Defensive Structures**

Fortifications and defensive structures were a critical component of defensive countermeasures against siege warfare. Features such as:

Walls and ramparts: Walls and ramparts were used to protect fortifications from siege engines and other forms of attack.

Towers and bastions: Towers and bastions were used to provide defensive positions for troops and to allow them to engage enemy siege engines.

Ditches and moats: Ditches and moats were used to slow down or prevent the approach of siege engines and other enemy troops.

### **Mathematical Analysis of Siege Warfare**

We can also look at this from a math nerd perspective :) In that circumstance, the trajectory of a projectile fired from a catapult is modeled with.

$$y = x \tan(\theta) - \frac{gx^2}{2v_0^2 \cos^2(\theta)}$$

In this equation right on the left, y is for the height of the projectile while x is the horizontal distance,  $\theta$  is the angle of elevation, g is the acceleration due to gravity, and  $v_0$  is the initial velocity of the projectile.

With the help of this cute equation we can calculate the trajectory of a projectile and to optimize the design of catapults and other siege engines.

# Geographic References

## Geography of Carthage



In Carthage's mainland, the peninsula consisted of flat and well shaped ground, making it provide the perfect conditions for cavalry in battles. Of course, there were some mountains as well which are shown on the map above. Its climate conditions are also usually dry with not so often rain.



## Seven Hills of Rome

Rome geographically features seven hills: Esquiline, Palatine, Aventine, Capitoline, Quirinal, Viminal, and Caelian Hill. Before the founding of Rome, each of the seven hills boasted its own small

settlement. The groups of people interacted with each other and eventually merged together, symbolized by the construction of the Servian Walls around the seven traditional hills of Rome.



## Esquiline Hill

The Esquiline was the largest of the seven hills of Rome. Its claim to fame comes from the Roman emperor Nero who built his domus aurea 'golden house' upon it. The Colossus, Temple of Claudius, and Baths of Trajan were all located on the Esquiline.

Before the Empire, the eastern end of the Esquiline was used for dumping refuse and the puticuli (burial pits) of the poor. Carcasses of criminals executed by the Esquiline gate were left to the birds. Burial was forbidden within the city proper, but the burial area of the Esquiline was outside the city walls. For health reasons, Augustus, the first Roman emperor, had the burial pits covered over with soil to create a park called the Horti Maecenatis 'Gardens of Maecenas'. (Augustus = out of committee timeline)

## Palatine Hill

The area of the Palatine is about 25 acres with a maximum height of 51 m above sea level. It is the central hill of the seven hills of Rome joined at one time with the Esquiline and the Velia. It was the first hill area to become a settlement.

## Aventine Hill

Legend tells us that Remus had selected the Aventine to live on. It was there that he watched the bird omens, while his brother Romulus stood on the Palatine, each claiming the better results.

The Aventine Hill became the home of the plebeians. It was separated from the Palatine by the Circus Maximus. On the Aventine were temples to Diana, Ceres, and Libera. The Armilustrium was there, too. It was used to purify arms used in battle at the end of the military season. Another significant place on the Aventine was Asinius Pollio's library.

## Capitoline Hill

The religiously important head hill, Capitoline (460 m long northeast to southwest, 180 m wide, 46 m above sea level high), is the smallest of the seven and was situated in Rome's heart (the forum) and the Campus Martius.

The Capitoline was located within the earliest city walls, the Servian Wall, in their northwestern section. It was like the Acropolis of Greece, serving as a citadel in the legendary period, with sheer cliffs on all sides, except the one that used to be attached to the Quirinal Hill.

The Capitol hill was known as the Mons Tarpeius. It is from the Tarpeian Rock that some of Rome's villains were tossed to their deaths on the Tarpeian crags below. There was also an asylum Rome's founding king Romulus was said to have established in its valley.

### Quirinal Hill

The Quirinal is the most northerly of the seven hills of Rome. The Viminal, Esquiline, and Quirinal are referred to as colles, more diminutive than montes, the term for the other hills. In the early days, the Quirinal belonged to the Sabines.

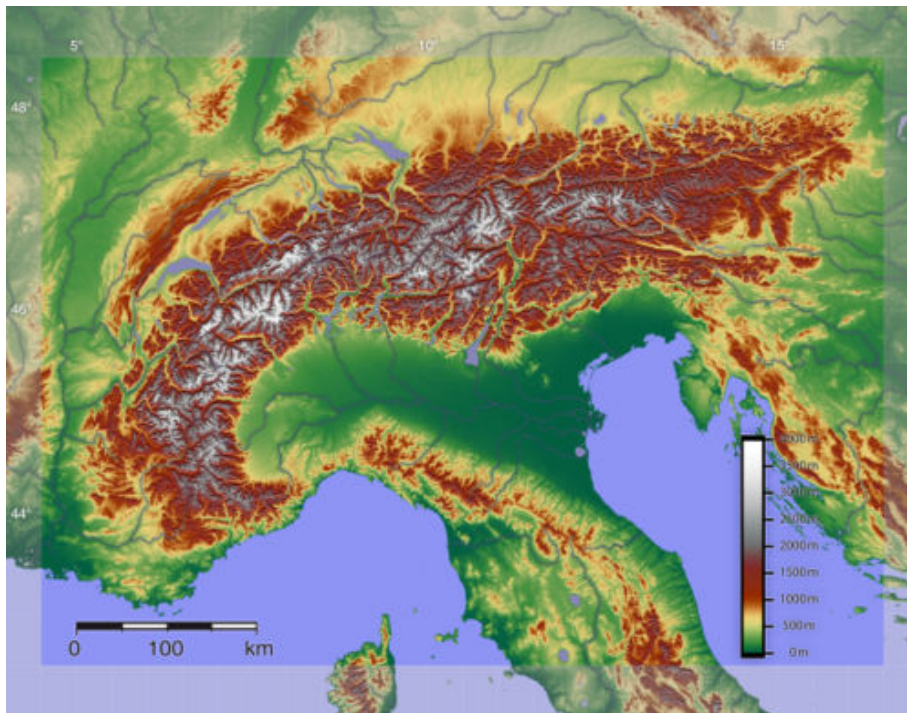
### Viminal Hill

Viminal Hill is a small, unimportant hill with few monuments. Caracalla's temple of Serapis was on it. To the northeast of the Viminal were the thermae Diocletiani, Baths of Diocletian.

## Caelian Hill

The Baths of Caracalla were built south of the Caelian Hill, which was the most south-easterly of the seven hills of Rome. The Caelian is described as a tongue "2 kilometers long and 400 to 500 meters wide" in A Topographical Dictionary of Ancient Rome. The Servian Wall included the western half of the Caelian in the city of Rome.

## The Alps



If you read the guide fully until this page, you already know about Hannibal's crossing of the Alps (Hannibal's brother also crossed the alps after being defeated in Spain). This crossing was rough, and included many deaths to cold, falling off the edges or the ground literally breaking whilst people were standing on it and also other territorial hazards like tribes etc.

Because of this, crossing the Alps will never be something easy in this committee, thus you will need to work very specifically with the mapping and the strategy of it.

## Campus Martius

Campus Martius, in ancient Rome, a low-lying area by the Tiber River, the location of the altar dedicated to Mars and the temple of Apollo in the 5th century BCE. Initially utilized mainly as a training area for the military, it was subsequently drained and, by the 1st century BCE, became adorned with substantial public structures—baths, an amphitheater, theaters, a gymnasium, a crematorium, and numerous additional temples.

The Campus Martius was located north of the Capitoline Hill, rather than within the city itself. Until the time of the empire, a large part of the area was outside the pomerium. The area encompassed roughly 250 hectares, or 600 acres (243 ha), stretching just over two kilometres north and south from the Capitoline to the porta Flaminia, and just under two kilometers east and west at its broadest point, between the Quirinal and the river. In ancient times, it was situated at a height of 10 to 15 meters above sea level; now it stands at 13 to 20 meters, and is 3 to 8 meters above the Tiber, frequently experiencing flooding

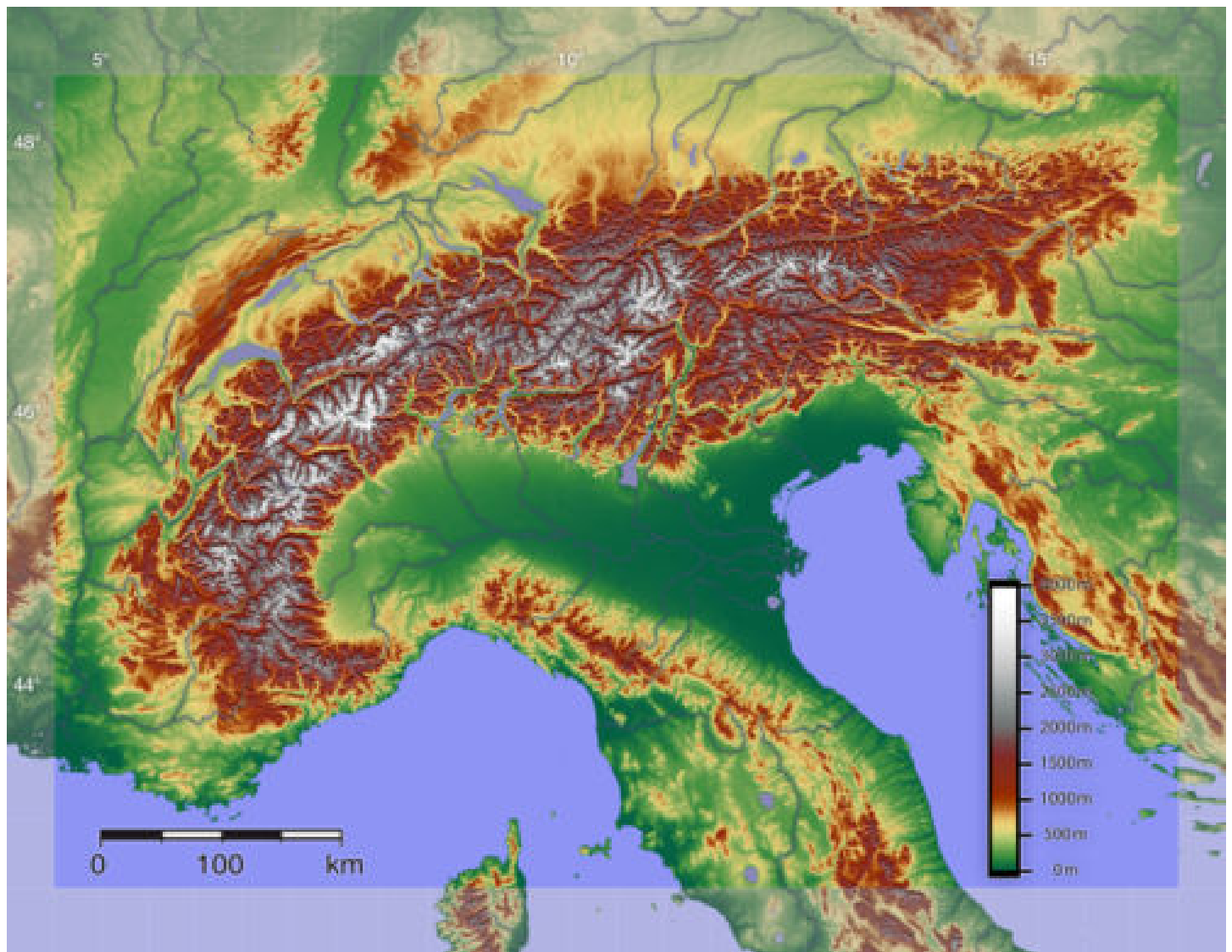
## Maps

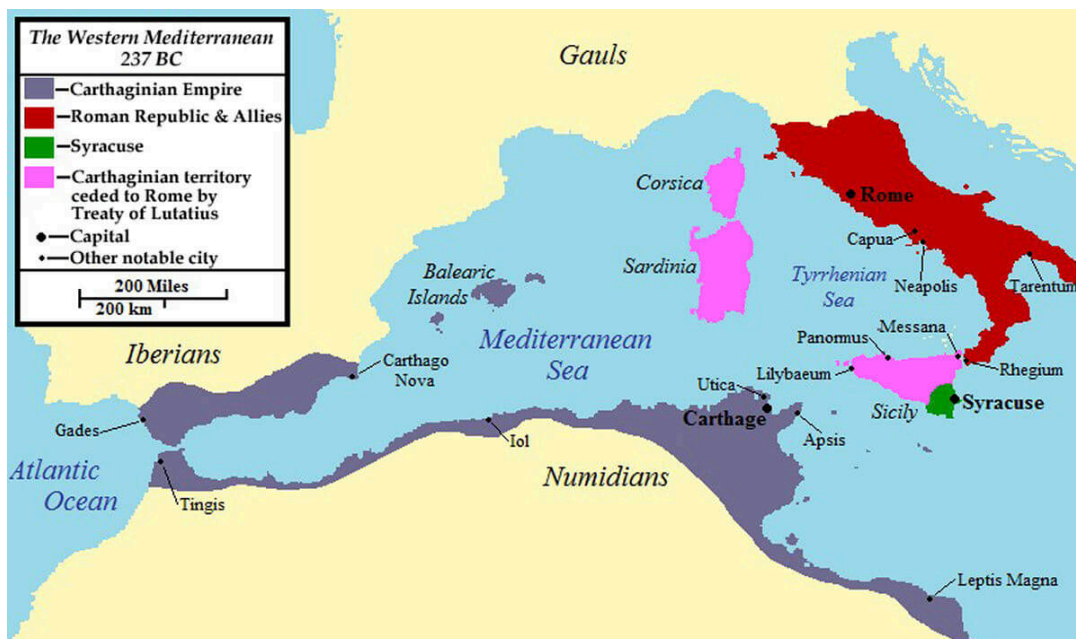




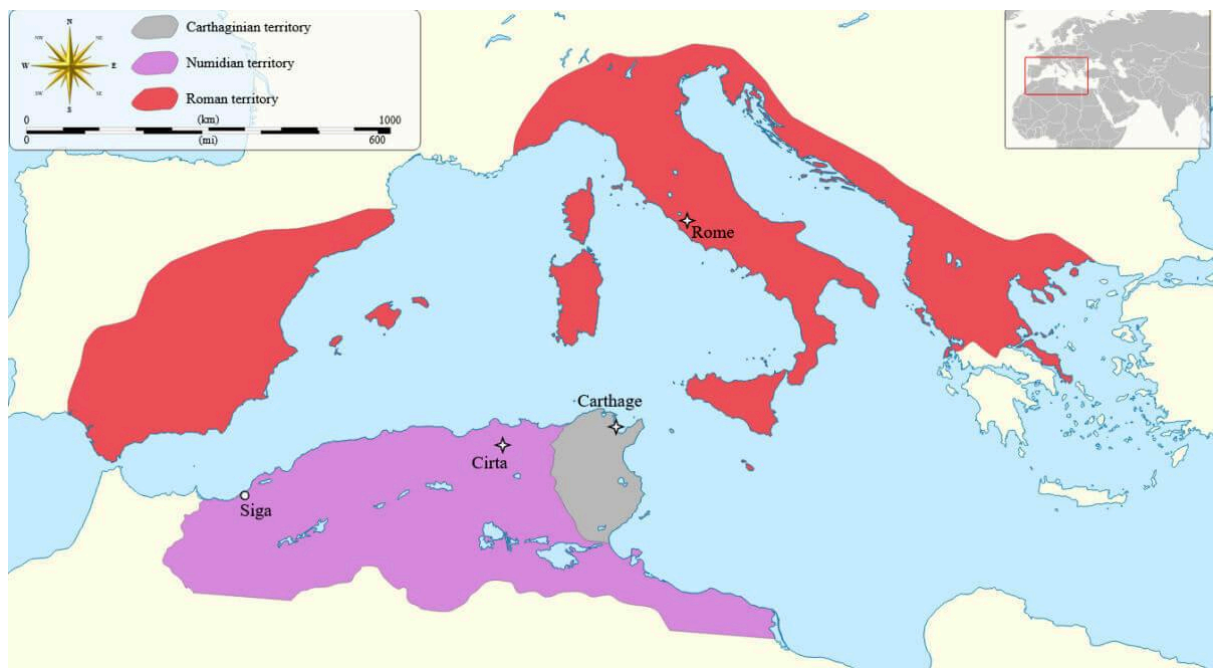
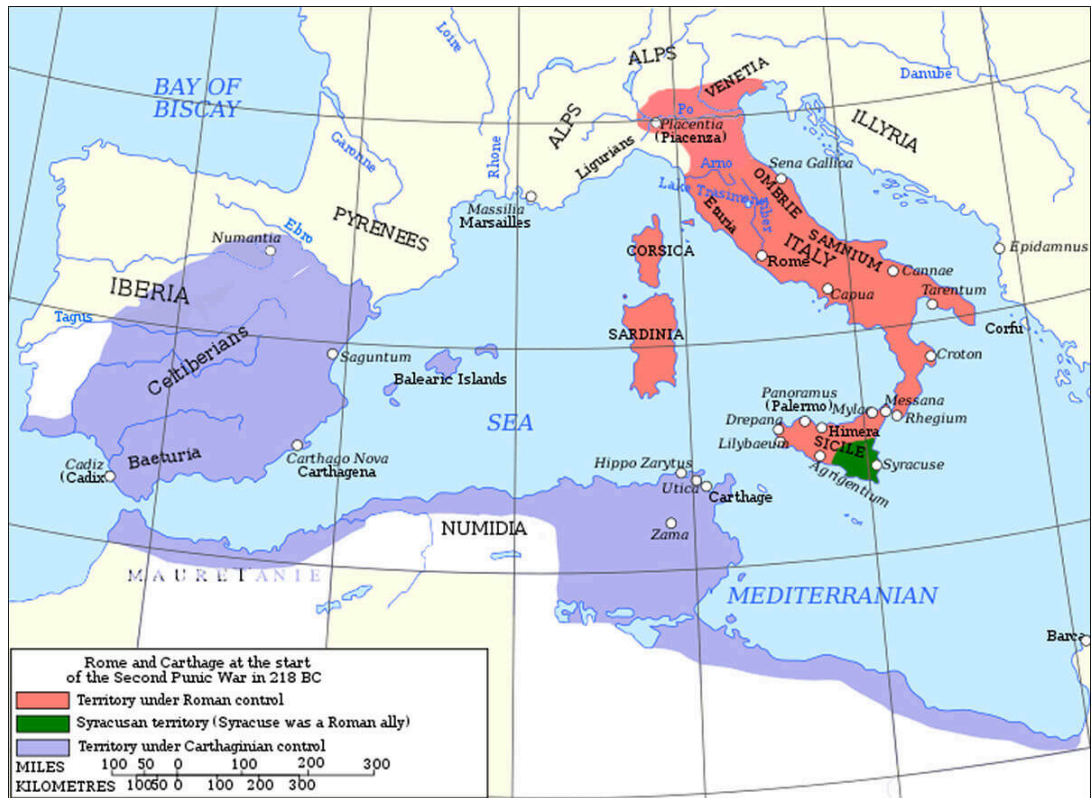


**This one is specifically very crucial for the crossing of the Alps**













**What We Expect of You**

If you have completed reading this guide, firstly we congratulate you for this important feat, reading over 140 pages is not everyone's cup of tea.

That being aside, you are most probably well aware of the historical timeline and in the committee that will hold importance. You will need to be at your best version of a crisis delegate, coming up with solutions to things the other side does (or things that you had backfired on you), come up with original ideas, take initiatives.

Since this is a Joint Crisis Cabinet and the two sides will be in war by directives in real-time actions, we don't suggest that you go for undermining plans immediately and focus on the reason and purpose of the war instead.

Last but not least, don't forget to have fun.

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