

Crescent School Model United Nations 2025



A Background Guide for:
JCC: Roman Civil War

Written by: **Ethan Wu and Isaac Fong**

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Land Acknowledgement

Crescent School and the staff of CSMUN III acknowledge that we are gathered upon and would like to honour the traditional territory of many nations, including the Mississaugas of the Credit, the Anishnabeg, the Chippewa, the Haudenosaunee, and the Wendat peoples and it is now home to many diverse First Nations, Inuit, and Métis peoples. We thank them for their stewardship of the land, and we are in solidarity with our Indigenous Brothers and Sisters as we move forward in reconciliation.

Acknowledging the traditional territories of Indigenous peoples is not only a gesture of respect but also a recognition of the historical and ongoing injustices they face. It is a reminder that the impacts of colonization, displacement, and systemic discrimination continue to reverberate today. We would like to take the opportunity to honour the resilience of Indigenous communities and commit to amplifying their voices in our pursuit of justice and equity.

Equity Disclaimers

In the event that you have concerns about equity, diversity, inclusion, or belonging or are uncomfortable due to the actions of another delegate, chair, co-chair, or staff member of CSMUN III, please reach out to the Equity Team to file your concern. Equity is outlined through the code of conduct listed above. You may reach out to the equity team through an anonymous form, by speaking with your chairs, or by emailing any member of the CSMUN II Secretariat if you feel comfortable doing so. The Equity team can be reached at csmunequity@crescentschool.org

The Equity Form is here to submit any equity concerns ([Equity Form](#)). This can be found also in committee rooms.

Equity concerns are taken very seriously at CSMUN III. The equity policy of CSMUN III is strict in accordance with the school's Diversity Statement and the Crescent School Constitution, which includes the Crescent School Declaration of Student Rights, and violations outside of reason will not be tolerated. The School's Constitution was prepared in accordance with, and in support of, the Safe Schools Act and corresponding principles in the Education Act, as well as the Human Rights Code. When an equity is filled, the CSMUN III Equity team will step in and take appropriate steps and actions to remedy the situation. CSMUN III is committed to ensuring that everyone is valued with respect, responsibility, honesty, and compassion. We are committed to pursuing disciplinary action as stated above if needed to facilitate a positive and safe environment.

Tech Policy

Please note that some form of Smart Device is required to participate in CSMUN III. While we are a paper conference (with the exception of crisis committees), delegates will need to use their computers to write and work during the unmods. Communications with delegates, the dias or other staff can be done either via paper notes or email.

Delegates at CSMUN are expected to utilize technology responsibly and ethically throughout the conference. While the use of smart devices, computers, and digital tools is necessary for research, writing, and collaboration, delegates are prohibited from utilizing artificial intelligence (AI) systems or automated tools to gain an unfair advantage or manipulate conference proceedings. Pre-writing resolutions outside of unmods and using AI to write resolutions and working papers is also prohibited. Delegates must also refrain from engaging in any illegal activities, including but not limited to hacking, piracy, or the distribution of harmful content to anyone in or outside of the conference.

Letter from the Secretary-General

A Letter from the Secretaries General and Deputy Secretary General of CSMUN III

Dear Delegates and Faculty Advisors,

Welcome to the third iteration of the Crescent School Model United Nations conference! Thanks to your support, our inaugural conference in April 2024 was a tremendous success, and CSMUN II built on that momentum with even greater participation and enthusiasm. We are now thrilled to invite you to CSMUN III, taking place on December 13–14, 2025, at Crescent School in Toronto.

Since our last conference, the Crescent MUN team has continued to grow in both size and passion. We've welcomed new members, explored fresh ideas, and remained committed to fostering a vibrant environment where students can engage with global affairs, diplomacy, and debate. We're excited to share this passion with you once again.

CSMUN III will feature a dynamic range of committee simulations, including but not limited to DISEC, WHO, the Canadian House of Commons, and an Ad Hoc, along with a special networking event. Delegates can look forward to rigorous debate, thought-provoking dialogue, and the opportunity to connect with peers from across the region and beyond. Registration for CSMUN III is now open! We encourage all interested delegates and faculty advisors to explore our website for full details and to secure your place at the conference. Please note that registration will close on December 10, 2025.

To stay updated on all things CSMUN, be sure to follow us on Instagram at [@cs.modelun](#). If you have any questions or need assistance, don't hesitate to reach out to us at modelun@crescentschool.org. Our team is here to support you every step of the way.

Thank you for considering attending CSMUN III. We can't wait to welcome you to Crescent School for what promises to be our most exciting conference yet.

Sincerely,

Deren Terzioglu & Gregory Mavroudis | Secretaries-General of CSMUN III
Joel Green | Deputy Secretary-General of CSMUN III
Crescent School Model United Nations 2025

A letter from Dais

A Letter from the Caesarian Director

Honourable Delegates,

My name is Ethan Wu and it is my honour to serve as your director on the Caesarian side of this JCC. Model UN has been one of the most defining parts of my high school experience, shaping the way I understand leadership, conflict, politics and the forces that guide history. As the Vice President of the Crescent School Model UN Club, I have had the privilege of watching delegates grow into powerful thinkers and advocates, each with their own world view. I hope this committee is another stepping stone in that journey for each of you.

This crisis invites you to one of the most consequential turning points in ancient history. In January of 49 BCE, Julius Caesar crossed the Rubicon River with a single legion. What seemed like one step across a narrow frontier became another step into civil war. Caesar's march challenged not only Pompey and the Senate, but the very framework of authority that had defined the Roman Republic for centuries.

As delegates, you are not passive observers. You will stand at the heart of this crisis as senators, generals, statesmen and commanders, each wielding influence over a Republic on the brink of collapse. You will confront questions of legality and loyalty, ambition and fear, tradition and reform. Your decisions will determine whether Rome clings to its Republican institutions or embraces a new Political order.

I look forward to witnessing your leadership, your ambition and the unique ways each of you will bring this conflict to life. May your decisions shape the future of Rome with conviction and purpose.

“Veni, Vidi, Vici”

“I came, I saw, I conquered.”

– Gaius Julius Caesar

Sincerely,

Ethan Wu | Director of CSMUN III: JCC Caesarian

A letter from Dais

A Letter from the Pompeian Director

Salve Delegates,

My name is Isaac Fong and I have the honour of serving as your Director on the Pompeian side of this JCC. As a delegate, I've participated in mun conferences all across the country and the globe. Experiencing model UN helps me develop a passion for debate and by extension, history. Having won in conferences such as MUNUC, NAIMUN and Oxford Mun, I have had the privilege to experience different styles all across the world. I hope you all take this weekend as a chance to learn, experience and become the most powerful in the Roman Republic.

Assassinations, plots and battles will be prevalent the entire weekend. Watch your back, delegates, you will either be erased from history or be enshrined as legends. While Rome is the pinnacle of technological advancements, creativity and the starting point of a new age in history, delegates must remember that this is a dangerous time. Not everyone is your ally and not everyone is your enemy. Be prepared, delegates, for there will be many conflicts. Only the strong survive.

"Plures adorant solem orientem quam occidentem."

"More people worship the rising sun than the setting sun."

- Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus

Sincerely,

Isaac Fong | Director of CSMUN III: JCC Pompeian

A letter from Dais

A Letter from the Backroom Director

Dear Delegates,

I'm Owen Zeng, a Grade 10 student at HSC, and an avid enjoyer of Model UN since 2023. I've competed in and staffed conferences all around the country, been in committees of all types. But to me, the peak model UN experience has always been the historical JCC. And so, I've been pursuing this as a passion project. I truthfully cannot believe this day is coming so soon! This committee to me is the culmination of several years as a Roman history buff and an enthusiast of crisis.

Having been in several historical crises and JCCs, running one myself seemed like the next natural step. I signed up to direct this conference, knowing very little about what would be next. I look back with fondness on the countless nights of drafting the background guide, drawing the map, and training my staff, or just yelling back and forth in DMs with my co-directors; and I look forward with excitement to our two days together at Crescent Model UN. I hope you all have fun fighting, marrying and betraying one another, and I hope you all find this an enriching and enjoyable experience.

Sincerely,

Owen Zeng | Backroom Director of CSMUN III: JCC Rome VS Pompey

Part 1

Founding of Rome

Founding of Rome

According to legend, following the Greeks' sacking of Troy in around 12th century BCE, Aeneas, a Trojan, fled the city with his son Ascanius, his father Anchises, and a few comrades to found a new Troy. Guided solely by the vague prophecy of his destiny to found a city that would turn into a great empire, Aeneas began his journey across the Mediterranean.

Early on in his voyage, Aeneas' guiding mentor and father, passed away. This death left Aeneas to bear the burden of leadership and the responsibility of fulfilling his prophecy alone. Further along into his journey, the goddess Juno, who despised the Trojans, sent a storm that wrecked Aeneas' entire fleet. Shipwrecked and in desperation, Aeneas and his followers washed ashore in Northern Africa near the city of Carthage.

Carthage was an independent Phoenician maritime city state founded by their queen, Dido. Concerned for her son's safety, Aeneas' mother, Venus, goddess of love, made Dido fall in love with him. Aeneas likewise fell in love with Dido, causing the Trojans to remain in Carthage for longer than initially intended.

Unfortunately, the love story between Dido and Aeneas was cut short as the gods reminded him of his higher calling. The messenger god Mercury instructed Aeneas to leave Carthage and found the city that would later become Rome. Aeneas, torn between love and duty, reluctantly chose duty and left both his wife and the city of Carthage for the sake of fulfilling his prophecy.

Devastated by the choice that Aeneas has made, Dido took her own life and used her last breaths to curse the man who left her along with his descendants. She declared there would be eternal hostility between Carthage and the empire Aeneas was destined to found. This curse symbolically foreshadowed the Punic Wars between Carthage and Rome centuries later, Rome being the empire that rose out of Aeneas' divine prophecy.

After leaving Carthage, Aeneas finally reaches Italy and seeks guidance in the underworld from his deceased father. There, his father tells Aeneas about the list of Roman heroes yet to come and of Rome's future greatness. Invigorated by this prophecy, Aeneas wages war on the local people of Italy and secures alliances with them. Eventually Aeneas marries Lavinia, daughter of king Latinus and founded the city of Lavinium in her honour.

Anchises, Aeneas' son, carries on his father's legacy by founding the city of Alba Longa. Generations down in the royal bloodline of Alba Longa, the twins Romulus and Remus are born. These twin brothers, according to Roman legend, are the ones who founded Rome.

Fall of the Monarchy, Beginnings of the Republic

For roughly 240 years, from its legendary founding in 753 BCE to 509 BCE, Rome was ruled by kings. This period, known as the Roman Kingdom, was characterized by the rule of 7 monarchs, each of whom contributed to the city's early political, religious and infrastructural foundations. The monarchy was both authoritarian and sacred. The king held supreme executive, military and religious power, and was often viewed as a divine intermediary between the gods and the people. For many years, kings built Rome's foundations.

However, the monarchy's final decades became defined by tyranny and corruption. The last king, Lucius Tarquinius Superbus, ruled through fear, execution and absolute control. His disregard for senatorial authority and Roman tradition alienated both patricians and plebeians alike. This became the catalyst for a popular uprising led by Junius Brutus and Lucius Tarquinius Collatinus, who rallied citizens to overthrow the monarchy. This transition was not merely a political shift, but a foundational transformation of Roman identity. The Romans would never tolerate the title of "king" again, as the word rex (King) became synonymous with tyranny and all future leaders, even emperors centuries later would choose to avoid it.

The newly established Republic replaced monarchic rule with a system of shared governance based on checks and balances. Executive authority was now held by two consuls, elected annually and each possessing equal power and the ability to veto the other. The Senate, originally an advisory council to the kings, evolved into the dominant institution of Roman politics, composed primarily of patricians who guided foreign policy and financial decisions. Meanwhile, popular assemblies such as the Comitia Centuriata and Comitia Tributa gave Roman citizens a voice in elections and legislations, though real power remained concentrated in aristocratic hands.

Early Republican Rome was marked by internal tension between the patricians and plebeians, who sought political equality. This social conflict, known as the Conflict of the Orders, would define the next two centuries, leading to landmark reforms such as the Twelve Tables, Rome's first written code of law. Despite internal divisions, the Republic's structure of combining elements of monarchy, aristocracy and democracy created a remarkably stable and flexible system that allowed Rome to grow from a city state to a Mediterranean power.

Thus, from the ashes of monarchy, Rome laid the institutional and ideological foundations that would sustain it for nearly 5 centuries; a republic born from rebellion, strengthened by its hatred of kingship and defined by its pursuit of power balanced by law.

Roman Territorial Gains Until the Second Punic War



The Second Punic War (218 BCE–201 BCE)

After losing the First Punic War, Carthage was unable to pay the mercenaries they had hired, leading to growing impatience and anger amongst the unpaid soldiers. The tension soon rose into a large-scale rebellion, known as the Mercenary War (Truceless War). The revolt spread across Carthaginian territory and nearly caused the collapse of Carthage itself. Ultimately quelled under the leadership of General Hamilcar Barca, the war left Carthage in a severely weakened state both economically and militarily.

Taking advantage of Carthage's weakened state, Rome declared another war, forcing Carthage to surrender immediately. Using this opportunity, Rome seized control of Sardinia and Corsica, further expanding its territory and influence into the western Mediterranean. Already depleted of its resources and having to face the harsh treaties imposed by Rome, Carthage's economy was in ruins.

In desperate need of money and resources, Hamilcar proposed a plan to expand further into Spain and take control of Spanish silver mines. He argued the expansion would provide the necessary resources and wealth to bring Carthage out of financial struggle and rebuild its former strength. Although partially aiming to improve the cities' finances, Hamilcar's reasons for expanding into Spain were not completely selfless. He also sought to build his own power and independent army, away from the Carthaginian government he deemed to be weak.

On his journey, Hamilcar brought along his son, Hannibal Barca, whom he raised alongside his military life, making him a child of war. His father instilled in him a deep hatred of Rome, constantly reminding him of the humiliation Carthage had suffered years prior. Eventually growing to be a great military leader himself, highly regarded by his soldiers, Hannibal swore an oath of eternal hostility toward Rome, an oath he would uphold.

Reaching Spain, Hamilcar was able to secure control over the silver mines and began mining operations. He sent the profits back to Carthage, relieving the country of its economic crisis, and helped fund further expansion into Spain. Through these efforts, Carthage was able to financially recover extremely quickly, causing great concern to Rome. At the time, Rome was already preoccupied by other conflicts, being in a war with Illyria and an expansion war with the Northern Celtic tribes. Consequently, Rome was unable to pay much attention to Carthage's growing influence in Spain. This gave Hamilcar the ability to continue operations and expansions without interference.

In attempts to keep Carthage in check, Rome insisted on signing a new treaty. The Ebro Treaty (226 BCE) was agreed upon and aimed to solve territorial disputes between Carthage and Rome, solidifying each republic's sphere of influence in the western Mediterranean. North of the river would be under Roman control, and vice versa south of the river.

Two years into his conquest of Spain, while retreating from a siege, Hamilcar was thrown off his horse and drowned. Following his passing, Hamilcar's son in law Hasdrubal took command of the Carthaginian armies and continued campaigns in Spain before he was assassinated in 221 BCE. The army then elected 26 year old Hannibal as the new commanding chief of the army, where he was highly regarded and supported by his soldiers. Hannibal often shared the same physical hardships as his soldiers, mutual bond of trust. His troops would follow him to the grave, a crucial factor in carrying out his revenge against Rome.

Saguntum, a small town south of the Ebro River, became the catalyst that sparked the Second Punic War. By this point, tensions between Rome and Carthage were extremely high, and one minor event would be enough to trigger a second all-out war. Located south of the Ebro River, Saguntum was technically under Carthaginian jurisdiction following treaty guidelines. However, this small city had forged an informal alliance with Rome after it had aided the city in an internal dispute. Watching Carthage continue its campaign further into Spain, Saguntum feared for its independence, and seeing this, Rome had declared itself Saguntum's protector.

Viewing this alliance as a violation of the treaty, Hannibal laid siege to the city in 219 BCE. After 8 months of besieging the city, Hannibal broke through the city defenses and massacred the people of Saguntum. Failing to negotiate terms between the two superpowers, Rome declared war on Carthage and sent out their consuls. Similarly, Carthage also began its war plan of travelling across the Alps and invading Rome from the north. Hannibal began his journey to Rome with over a hundred thousand soldiers; however, the journey claimed the lives of the majority of his army, leaving him with only twenty six thousand soldiers when he reached Rome.

Although Hannibal's army had finally reached Roman territory, they were both deeply demoralized and caught behind Roman territory with no way for supplies or reinforcements. However, Hannibal had planned for this. He hoped to recruit the recently colonized Celtic people in northern Rome, who were filled with resentment. If he could convince the Celtic people to cut ties with Rome and join his army instead, Hannibal would effectively create a way for supplies and reinforcements inside Roman territory.

In order to reach his goal of expanding his army and getting supplies, Hannibal gained the loyalty of the Celts by murdering the first Celtic tribe who refused to join him. This massacre set a tone for the other Celtic tribes, convincing them to join him in his conquest against Rome.

218 BCE, the battle of Ticinus was a small but decisive fight between Carthage and Rome, ending in a Carthaginian victory. This victory set the tone for the remainder of the war, expanding Carthage's army to 40,000 soldiers. In the first major battle of the Second Punic War, The Battle of Trebia (218 BCE), the Romans suffered thousands of losses due to haste and Hannibal continued to recruit and expand his army to 60,000 soldiers.

After continual losses, Rome adopted an emergency "dictator" who had absolute power and control over Rome for 6 months. The dictator, Quintus Fabius Maximus adopted a new strategy to combat the Carthaginian army. He chose to watch as Hannibal looted the Italian countryside instead of engaging in direct combat which was effective due to the Carthaginian army being too small to engage Rome themselves. Unfortunately, Roman pride caused this strategy to create distrust amongst the people of Rome as Hannibal strategically avoided raiding property owned by Maximus. This led to the people believing there was a secret alliance between Maximus and Hannibal, sowing seeds of discourse.

After the dictator's 6 months in power had ended, Rome reverted back to its original leadership structure and elected two new consuls. The two new consuls, Paullus and Varro, were extremely different from each other and alternated on who would command the army. Consul Paullus was overtly cautious, while Varro was traditionally Roman, creating a difficult dynamic to navigate within the army. In the Battle of Cannae (216 BCE), one of the most famous battles in military history, Rome, with over eighty six thousand soldiers, and Carthage, with around fifty thousand soldiers, lost. Carthage secured the victory and killed forty eight thousand Romans while capturing twenty thousand alive. This humiliating loss depleted Roman morale and caused more Italians to revolt against Rome and join Hannibal's army. Although not aiding much in real battle, their allegiance ensured protection from Rome.

Losing so many battles, the Romans were in no rush to continue fighting. They proceeded to wait for years, knowing the Carthaginian army would eventually be forced to engage them in combat first. During this pause, in 215 BCE, Hannibal received only a singular shipment of reinforcements. Otherwise, he was forced to rely on the original troops he had brought with him through the Alps and whoever he could recruit behind Roman borders. Several Carthaginian armies had attempted to join Hannibal on his endeavors, but all failed to do so. Both of Hannibal's brothers tried to aid him in battle but were prevented from doing so and passed away.

14 years after the beginning of the Second Punic War, Carthage sent a message out to Hannibal about the dire situation back home. Understanding the urgency of the situation, Hannibal was forced to return to Carthage and command his army against the Romans who had just landed in Africa. Having already taken both Sicily and Iberia, the Carthaginians knew they were outmatched yet again and were going to lose the fight. Suffering a loss of forty thousand soldiers, Carthage was forced to agree to yet another Roman treaty, preventing them from starting another war without Roman approval.

The importance of the Second Punic War is simple: Past this point, Rome cemented itself as a true one in a million states. Rome would not face another foreign existential crisis for at least five centuries. Additionally, the military tactics used in this war proved both the strengths and weaknesses of Roman legions, as well as the persistence and stability of the Roman Republic.

Part 2

Roman Technology

Roman Technology

The Roman Empire was a civilization defined not only by its politics and military might, but by its extraordinary master of advanced technology for their time period. Roman engineers, soldiers and architects combined practicality with innovation, developing systems and machines that shaped the ancient world and influenced every empire that followed. Understanding these technologies allows delegates to accurately gauge the capacities of Roman forces, infrastructure and society.

Siege Weaponry

Oftentimes in the ancient world, armies facing overwhelming force would retreat behind defensible positions, usually cities, and hold out, either for reinforcements or for the end of the campaigning season in November. The Romans therefore invented high-powered siege offense to fuel their military offensives.

The ballista and onager were the backbone of Roman siege warfare. The ballista functioned as a giant torsion-powered crossbow, capable of firing large iron tipped bolts or small stones with remarkable precision and force. The twin arms of the crossbow were powered by twisted sinew ropes, which could launch projectiles hundreds of meters, making it ideal for targeting individual defenders, towers or siege engines. In contrast, the onager employed a single vertical arm that hurled stones or incendiary materials in a high arc. It was less accurate but more destructive, used primarily to batter walls or cause chaos within enemy defenses. These engines required specialized crews, often between 6 and 12 men to wind, load, and aim each shot. Their rate of fire was limited as a few projectiles were launched every several minutes, but their psychological impact was immense. The logistics behind such weapons were demanding as they required timber, iron fittings and stockpiles of ammunition. Still, their ability to break fortifications or suppress defenders made them indispensable in siege operations.

The scorpio was a smaller, portable version of the ballista. Designed for precision rather than brute force, it could be operated by two to four soldiers and moved easily around the battlefield. The scorpio's bolts were capable of piercing armor and shields at ranges up to 200 meters, allowing Roman units to snipe at enemy officers, archers or siege crews. Due to the portability and accuracy, the Scorpio became a favourite defensive weapon, often mounted on fortress walls or carried into field camps, it lacked the destructive power to break structures, but its ability to inflict casualties quickly and quietly made it an effective deterrent.

A Soldier's Kit

The gladius and pilum were the defining weapons of the Roman legionary. The gladius was a short, double edged sword designed for stabbing in tight formations. Its length was typically between 50 and 70 centimeters, making it perfect for close quarter thrusting tactics of Roman infantry. The pilum was a heavy javelin with an iron shank engineered to bend upon impact, penetrating shields, rendering them unwieldy or useless upon impact. The Roman combat sequence was methodical, soldiers first hurled their pila (singular pilum) to break enemy formations, then advanced behind their large shields to strike with the gladius. This combination of disciplined coordination and weapon design made the Roman legion nearly unstoppable in direct engagement. However, gladius and pilum were limited in supply and their effectiveness diminished against mobile or long range opponents.

The Pugio was a short dagger and the scutum was a large rectangular shield. The pugio served both practical and symbolic purposes, a background weapon and a badge of status. The scutum was made from layered wood and covered with leather or metal, which was crucial for the testudo (tortoise) formation, where soldiers interlocked shields to form an almost impenetrable shell. This combination provided unmatched defense and flexibility. Shield discipline allowed legions to advance under heavy missile fire or hold tight formations against cavalry.

The hasta, a thrusting spear and the spatha, a longer sword, became prominent as Roman warfare evolved. The hasta was primarily used by early infantry and some cavalry units, while the spatha was favoured by cavalry and late imperial soldiers. Together, they reflected the adaptability of the Roman army to new forms of combat, particularly as it faced barbarian horsemen and longer armed foes.

The Lorica Hamata was a flexible armor made of interlinked iron rings, protecting soldiers against slashes and light thrusts while allowing free movement. Its design borrowed and refined from Celtic models, provided a balance of defense and comfort that made it ideal for long campaigns. Maintenance was key, as mail required regular oiling and repair to prevent rust. This armor gave Roman infantry a significant edge over less protected opponents and was worn by legionaries and auxiliaries alike.

The Montefortino helmet, made of bronze and often decorated with a plume, was the standard headgear of early Roman soldiers. Its design offered substantial protection while leaving the ears uncovered, preserving hearing and communication in battle. The helmet's simple yet effective construction symbolized Roman practicality. It could be mass produced while still allowing individual identification through crests or insignia. Protecting officers and centurions with high quality helmets can reduce leadership casualties, a factor that often determines the success or collapse of military formations.

Roman Naval Technology

The corvus was a revolutionary naval device that transformed sea battles into extensions of Roman land combat. It was a heavy boarding bridge equipped with a metal spike that could drop onto an enemy ship's deck, locking two vessels together. Once attached, Roman soldiers could storm and fight hand to hand. While devastating in calm seas, the corvus also made ships less stable and vulnerable in rough conditions. Its use emphasized Rome's reliance on infantry tactics even in naval warfare. In crisis terms, fleets equipped with corvuses excel in boarding actions but risk disaster in stormy conditions or against highly mobile enemies.

Roman Societal Technology

The Cursus Publicus was the empire's official courier and logistics service, ensuring swift communication across thousands of kilometers. Supported by a chain of relay stations and lodging houses, it allowed messengers to exchange horses and continue without rest, achieving remarkable speeds for the era. This system was essential for imperial command, tax collection and coordination of military movements. It relied heavily on state funding, local cooperation and control of major roads.

Roman roads were among the Empire's most enduring achievements, forming a vast network that connected distant provinces to the capital. Built with multiple layers of compact rubble, sand and heavy paving stones, these roads were engineered for durability and efficient drainage. Their remarkable straightness and structural stability allowed legions, supply convoys and messengers to travel at unprecedented speed across the empire. Roads were not only military assets, but strategic lifelines. They enabled the rapid deployment of troops, the transport of siege engines and the movement of raw material vital for construction and warfare. Maintenance was crucial as damaged or blocked roads could paralyze an army's logistics.

Among the most revolutionary Roman innovations was opus caementicium, or Roman concrete. Made from a mixture of lime, volcanic ash and aggregate, this hydraulic cement could set underwater and grew stronger with age. It allowed the construction of vast domes, vaults and harbors that would have been impossible with traditional masonry. Structures like the pantheon and aqueducts stand as enduring examples of its resilience. Roman concrete democratized monumental architecture as what once took decades of stone cutting could now be completed within a fraction of the time. The Empire's ability to build durable fortifications, harbors and infrastructure depended on access to lime and volcanic ash deposits.

The aqueducts of Rome were marvels of civil engineering that used gravity alone to transport water from distant sources to cities and military outposts. Built from stone, brick and concrete, these channels are often elevated on graceful arches, delivering millions of gallons of water daily to public baths, fountains, latrines and private homes. Beyond convenience, aqueducts were the foundations of Roman urban life, supporting population growth, hygiene and industry. However, they were also strategic targets as cutting off an aqueduct could cripple a city's water supply within days, leading to panic, disease and revolt.

Rome's Cloaca Maxima was one of the world's earliest large scale sewer systems. Initially designed to drain marshland, it evolved into a massive underground network that carried both stormwater and waste into the Tiber River. Built from stone and later reinforced with concrete, it represented a monumental commitment to urban sanitation and engineering. The sewer system allowed for the city to sustain a dense population without the constant threat of disease. It was maintained through a combination of municipal labor and imperial funding.

The thermae were Roman public bathhouses, which were technological and social marvels. Heated through the hypocaust system, they featured raised floors supported by pillars that allowed hot air from furnaces to circulate beneath the rooms and within hollow walls. This innovation provided efficient and even heating across massive buildings, creating an advanced public health and social infrastructure. The baths were more than leisure spaces, rather they were the centers of political discussion, cultural exchange and civic pride. Maintaining them required a constant supply of water, fuel and skilled labor. Their closure could signify decline or unrest, while their restoration symbolized stability and prosperity. Controlling or reopening a city's baths could become a potent political statement, restoring public morale and legitimacy.

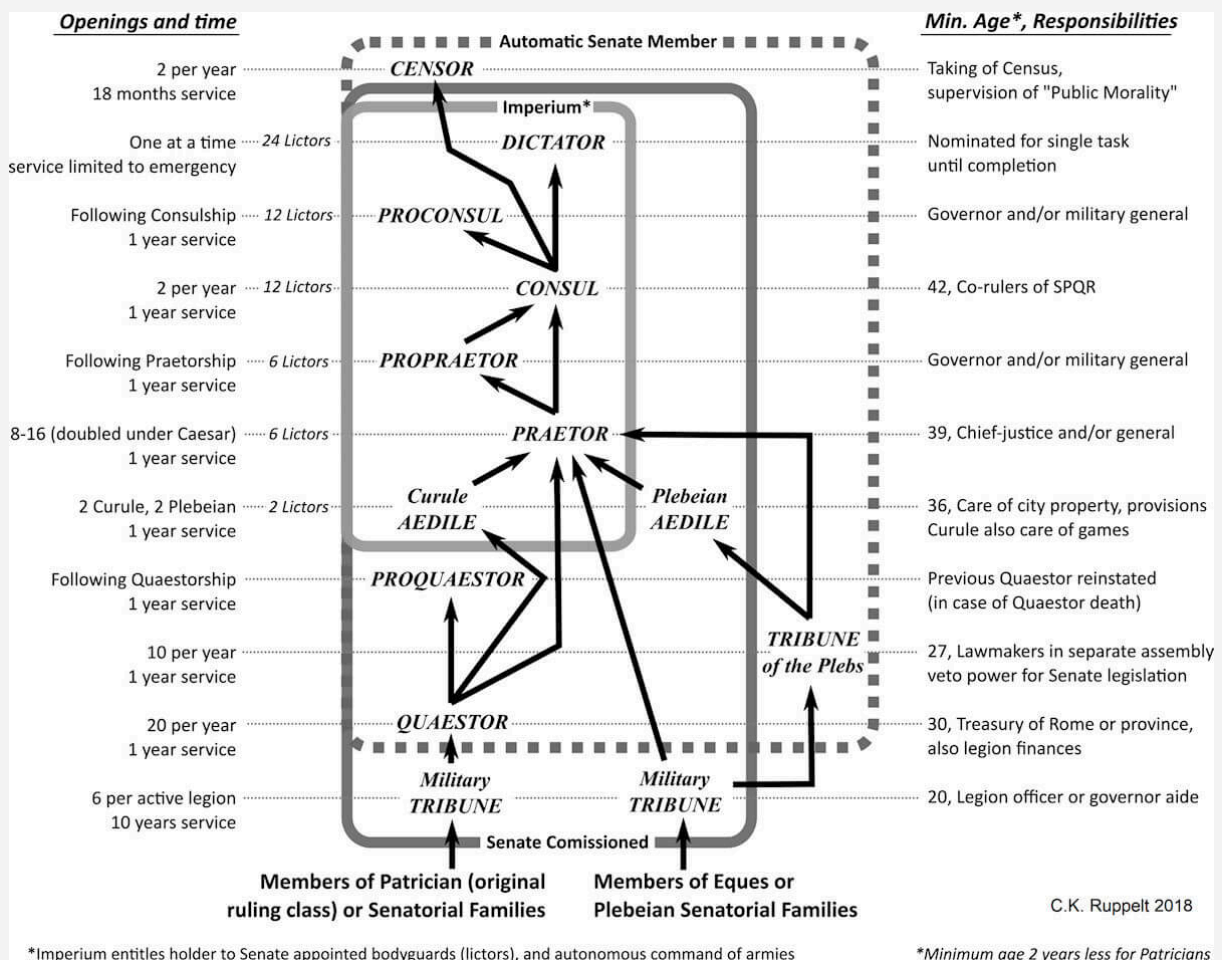
Roman technology was not merely a collection of inventions, it was an integrated system of engineering, logistics and organization that underpinned the empire's dominance. From siege engines and weapons to aqueducts, roads and public works, these innovations reflected a society that valued efficiency and durability. Delegates will utilize and specify different strategies from many technologies listed above in order to achieve their aimed goal, whether that be political domination, conquest of neighboring nations or amplifying their own wealth and power.

Part 3

Roman Society

Current Situation:

The Romans were a militaristic and political society where these aspects were deeply embedded into daily lives. The difference of being the commander of the cavalry versus being a member of the senate provided a wide range of different benefits. However, there was a general prerequisite guide on how to advance your social status. This guide was named the *Cursus Honorum*.



To begin one's political journey, a Roman noble must serve as a *Tribunus Angusticlavus*. These military tribunes served as the general staff of a legion, managing staff work or cohorts at a time. After a year or two of servitude, a military tribune would usually be inducted by the Censors into the Senate and follow the *Cursus Honorum*. It is noted that during the time of the late Republic, the *Cursus Honorum* would be substantially ignored as more liberal changes were apparent.

After the rank of Senator was achieved, the next step up the political ladder was Quaestor. This was a financial position which managed the treasury of Rome and provinces. Quaestors often worked close with Governors, Proprators and Proconsuls to help manage finances and coordinate logistics. Aedile was a public servant, taking care of city provisions and games. This position was highly coveted yet highly costly. By investing in procuring better and more spectacular games, more influence was gained. This role was used as a huge stepping stone to either Praetor or Consul. The more popular stepping stone to Consul was Praetor. Praetors were either judicial officers serving as judges, presiding over the senate or generals commanding legions. Finally, the highest non extraordinary role in the Roman Republic was Consuls. Serving in pairs, Consuls served to replace the original Roman Kings and divide up executive power. Similar to modern day presidents, consuls were the joint heads of state and military.

However, there were extraordinary positions such as Dictator. A Dictator, usually a consul, is only appointed when a special issue needs extraordinary powers to solve it. This includes internal strife within the Republic, wars and more. Once the issue was solved, Dictators gave up their powers. Once one's term as Dictator was over, they could be liable for prosecution if the Senate deemed their task incomplete or harmful to the Roman People.

Class Divide

There was a constant class divide in Roman society. At the top stood the Patricians, wealthy aristocratic families who controlled and dominated both political and religious offices. The plebeians, who comprised the majority of Roman civilization, were governed by the patricians. Although farmers, artisans, and soldiers were all considered plebeians, even wealthy plebeians weren't allowed to hold high office. This class division later became known as the Struggle of the Orders.

The First Secession of the Plebeians occurred in 494 BCE as a result of the growing hostility between Plebeians and Patricians. During this initial succession, plebeian soldiers refused to serve in the military until they were granted representation in office. Their protests succeeded, leading to the establishment of a powerful office, the Tribune of the Plebs. The office was created to represent the interests of the common people. Tribunes held significant authority, including the ability to veto legislation and decisions made by the senate and magistrates. The tribunes served as a crucial check on the power of other Roman officials. Despite this, Patricians still held great power over the common people. The tribunes were the plebeians' sole representatives in the government.

All magistrates and consuls were patricians, patricians alone knew the laws, which were not recorded on paper but passed down orally through generations. This created an imbalance of knowledge and power where patricians would change the law as they saw fit.

Roman Elections

Over the following centuries, Plebeians secured access to Rome's highest offices. After years of protest and discrimination a law was passed in 367 BCE that allowed plebeians to become consul. The first plebeian consul was elected in 365 BCE and from 342 BCE onwards, one of two consuls had to be of plebeian background. Although there was still a strong division between patricians and plebeians by birth, there had been considerable progress made to bridge the gap.

After the replacement of the Roman monarchy, the Roman Republic filled the power vacuum left by the monarchy with the consuls. Despite forgoing the king, the consuls were still considered to have unlimited power almost parallel to a king, known as imperium. The consul's imperium gave them power to command armies, propose legislations, inflict death penalties, and preside over the senate. But in order to limit the authority of an individual consul, the Romans elected two consuls who jointly shared powers, and the two consuls are limited to nonconsecutive, one-year terms before annual reelections.

Each year, the comitia centuriata (centuriate assembly) is responsible for electing consuls. The comitia centuriata splits Roman citizens into 193 units called "centuries" based on age, wealth, and status. As Rome is heavily military-oriented, the comitia centuriata is designed to group citizens based on their ability to contribute to the military, giving disproportionately more voting influence to wealthy and affluent individuals. The centuries of the comitia centuriata is assigned as such:

Class	Wealth (total property value in As.)	Held centuries
Equestrians (made up of equistrates)		18
Class I	Over 100,000 As.	80
Class II	75,000-100,000 As.	20
Class III	50,000–75,000 As.	20
Class IV	25,000–50,000 As.	20
Class V	Less than 25,000 As.	30
Proletariates	Almost none	5

The collective votes of each century retain the same weight during elections, despite the population within each century varies significantly between upper and lower classes. Even though the Equestriates and citizens of Class I represent a small portion of the Roman voting population, they collectively can outvote all other classes ($18+80=98$, more than fifty per cent of the total 193 centuries). Furthermore, the upper classes were given priority during voting, so they may determine election outcomes before other classes can vote.

Part 4

Rise of Pompey and Caesar

Overview of the topic

Historians often divide the history of the Roman Republic into three phases. The early and middle republics marked Rome's rise towards being the dominant local and regional powers respectively. Our scenario however, begins in the late republic.

The Late Republic, starting between 146 and 100 BCE, was the beginning of true Roman dominance. By this point, Rome was the dominant power in the Mediterranean and faced no prominent or particularly promising existential threats. Although consistent conflict with foreign nations and tribes would continue, Rome's strategic depth extended to every corner of the Mediterranean, and wars would be fought in and around their provinces, far from the Italian homeland.

The late Roman Republic is however most known for deepened administrative, institutional and bureaucratic corruption, due to an overarching and gradual deterioration of the Republic's political systems. The extensive and incessant degradation of these political systems created cracks in the rule of law, and would mark a phase ruled by dictators, purges, and political violence.

The Roman Republic's stability partially relied on its electoral system and senate. By the late republic, most electoral campaigns were won with sizable bribes or political loopholes, and elected officials no longer achieved a baseline of representing political views in the Republic. Essentially, all of the pressure release valves the state relied on to prevent civil war, all of the peaceful and legalized methods of conflict resolution were dissolved or became unusable. It is unsurprising then that this period coincides with frequent civil wars, insurgencies and uprisings.

Pompey's Eastern Campaign (66 BCE – 62 BCE)

The Third Mithridatic War, the last in a long series of wars between Mithridates IV and the Roman Republic, was Pompey's greatest achievement. For years prior to 66 BCE, when Rome had been handed several defeats and Mithridates consolidated his empire in Pontus (modern day northern Turkey).

In 66 BCE, Pompey was offered command in the Roman Near East, with the goal of defeating Mithridates. In the years that followed, Pompey would lead armies into Pontus and Armenia, driving Mithridates to Crimea. Through this, he annexed territories which would enlarge the province of Asia, and create the provinces of Bithynia et Pontus and Cilicia. Additionally, he converted a reduced Armenia into a Roman client kingdom.

From there, Pompey would march south into Syria, which was under the control of a dysfunctional, rump Seleucid state left over from Alexander the Great's conquests. Pompey swept through the region, and knocked out both leaders of the Seleucid state, leaving another Roman client kingdom (Judea) and converting Syria into a Roman province.

These provinces would form the Roman East, and would collectively become the most profitable and resourceful region of the Republic. The conquest then gave Pompey his third triumph (a celebration for the Roman conquest of territory) and made him, without a doubt, the most accomplished general in Rome.

Caesar's Conquest of Gaul

Following a successful Spanish campaign and consulship, Caesar was handed three provinces for an unprecedented period of five years. The three, Transalpine Gaul, Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum, would serve as Caesar's base of operation for the next decade.

Caesar, seeing the meteoric rise of Pompey, believed military success could serve as a launchpad to political power, and thus, set out to conquer Gaul. Gaul was a vast territory extending from the Pyrenees mountains to the Rhine River, held by hundreds of tribes and millions of people.

In 58 BCE, the Helvetii, a tribe from modern day Switzerland, led a large-scale migration through the territory of a couple Roman-Gallic allies. Caesar found this to be an acceptable pretense for war, and began 7 years of campaigning, culminating with a decisive battle in Alesia, in 52 BCE.

In 56 BCE, with his governorship set to expire soon, he met with Pompey and Crassus, the two other most prominent politicians of his time. In this conference, they agreed to push bills to the Senate that would grant them control over specific provinces. Being three of the most influential men in Rome at that point, all of the bills were widely supported. Caesar requested a 5 year extension on his governorship, which would be passed into law during 55 BCE. Pompey in turn received governorship over both provinces in Hispania.

By the end of the campaign, Caesar had occupied and annexed all of the aforementioned territories in Gaul. During the time, he built an army of 10 grizzled, loyal legions, and built up many skilled commanders and lieutenants by his side, such as Marc Antony and Labienus. Additionally, he became the first Roman general to make military excursions to Britain and Germania.

Pompey in Rome: 56-52 BCE

The preceding years, 58 and 57 BCE were marked by extreme violence, led by two men: Clodius and Milo. Clodius was a radical reformer that, instead of climbing the cursus honorum, took to mob violence and rioting to take control of the politics of Rome. For almost a year, Clodius' street gangs roamed the capital, disrupting senate meetings, elections, and political proceedings. Milo, deciding to fight fire with fire, raised street gangs of his own. Both hired gladiators and brought weapons across the Pomerium to arm them (an offense punishable by death). By 56 BCE, the politics of Rome had regressed from legal proceedings and elections to seeing who had the bigger stick.

With the political situation in Rome deemed untenable, many called on Pompey to step in. As a result, Pompey acquired a second consulship in 55 BCE. At the height of the political violence, Pompey was offered an unprecedented position of sole consul, which empowered him to march soldiers into Rome and restore order, expelling the street gangs. Pompey then spent the majority of his time throwing lavish public games and building parks and stadiums, which greatly improved his popularity.

The Death of the Triumvirate

Up to this point, Caesar, Pompey and Crassus were held together in a tight political alliance. The three were all prominent politicians and now two of three, Pompey and Caesar, were accomplished generals and Crassus was by most accounts the wealthiest man in Rome. As such, they held a grip over the politics of Rome. In order to hold the alliance together, Caesar married off his daughter, Julia, to Pompey, and Crassus bankrolled both Caesar and Pompey in their youth. The trio also shared similar political views for the majority of their careers. Due to this, the triumvirate didn't appear unstable.

In 54 BCE, Crassus assumed command of an army in Syria and began an invasion of Parthian Mesopotamia, in an attempt to seize military glory of his own. In 53 BCE his entire army of 43,000 men was destroyed at the battle of Carrhae, culminating with the execution of Crassus. With Crassus now dead, Pompey and Caesar were the two remaining, most powerful men in Rome

Part 5

Road to War

This section covers a couple major shifts that would bring down the remaining alliance between Pompey and Caesar, and many reasons for war between the two.

1. Pompey's new allegiance with the Optimates

The Reformers (the Populares) and the Conservatives (the Optimates) were the two parties at the core of Roman politics. Caesar had been a reformer his whole life, and Pompey had been one for at least a decade up to this point. However, with the recent political situation in Rome, Pompey began to spend time with more conservatives, eventually adopting their policies and becoming one himself. After this point, it is no longer useful to think of the divide as "Reform" and "Conservative", and instead, think of the two sides as Caesarian and Pompeian factions respectively.

2. Prosecuting Caesar

During his time in office, Caesar had committed several crimes (politically motivated arrests, bribery, corruption), crimes which he was certainly guilty of. One of the members of the Pompeian faction, Cato, had pledged to prosecute Caesar as soon as he returned to Rome.

In Rome, Consuls and Governors had legal immunity. Prosecution had not happened earlier due to Caesar holding office in consecutive years. Now, Caesar was poised to be elected consul again in 48 BCE, directly after the end of his governorship. Following that, would likely be another decade of governorship. If the Pompeians wanted to prosecute the leader of the political opposition, they would need to do it soon, and so, they made the claim that Caesar's 5 year extension began in 55 BCE, not in 53 BCE, and so he would therefore lose legal immunity midway through 50 BCE.

The Pompeian and Caesarian factions would attempt to pass bills on the issue, however, every single bill was vetoed by the opposing tribunes of the plebs. Therefore, no peaceful resolution could be found.

3. It made sense for Caesar to go to war

Of the two factions, the Pompeians had more support amongst the aristocrats, greater resources and recruitment potential in the provinces of Rome, and a stronger popular base. An extended period of tension for Caesar would have meant giving time for the Pompeians to prepare for a war, at which point Caesar would face several strong armies on several fronts.

Caesar had the most formidable consolidated army in Rome at the time and was the only one capable of carrying out large-scale offensive warfare, and therefore decided it was better to strike early than late.

4. It made sense for Pompey to go to war

The advantage in the war certainly went to Pompey. Pompey held the prosperous Roman East, the silver mines and recruitment power of Spain and Greece, the political center in Italy, and the breadbaskets of Sicily and Africa. If it came to war, Pompey believed that he would have an immense advantage, and that Caesar would have to fight multiple battles with his life on the line before victory could be achieved.

And for all these reasons, when peaceful negotiations broke down, Caesar took the initiative and crossed the Rubicon in force.

Part 6

Committee Mechanics

Current Positioning

Disclaimer: Due to the difficulty of finding reliable data on ancient Rome, we have decided to create a standard basis of information. The numbers here are gross approximations. We encourage you to find unique insights and additional knowledge. Feel free to include those insights in your backroom notes or frontroom discussion--so long as the information does not conflict with the following guide.

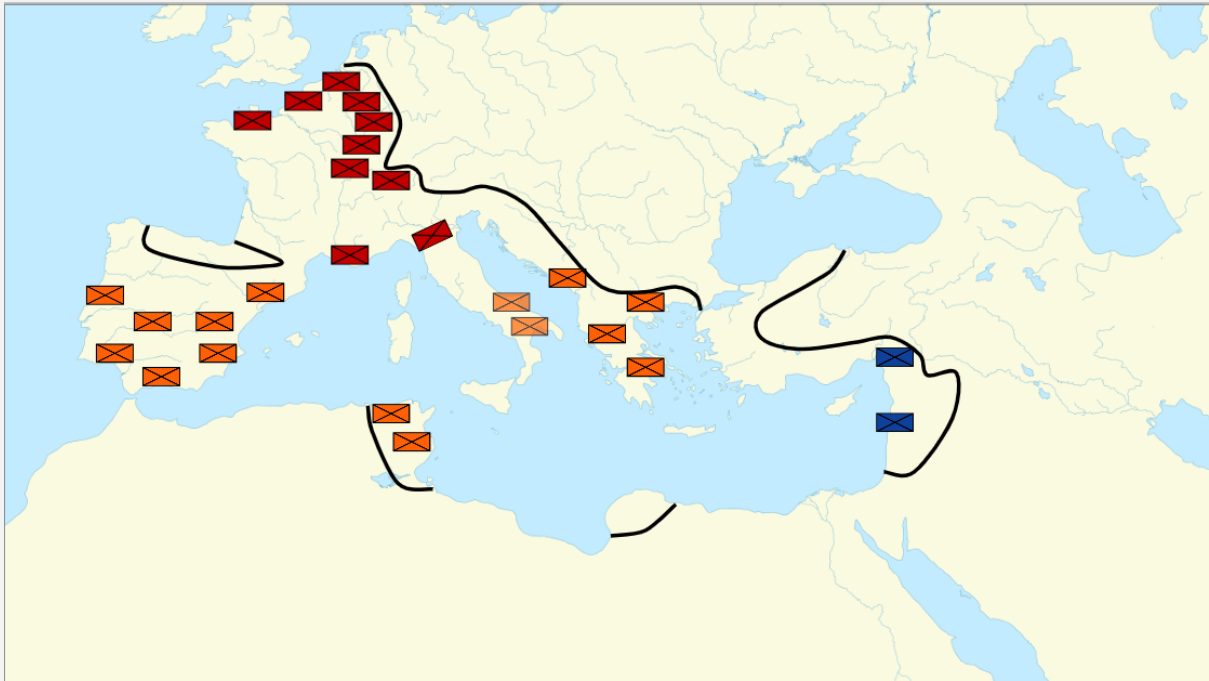
Militaries

Caesar's army (in red) is the single largest and most experienced army in Rome. Caesar's army has a unique ability to use geography, construction and attrition to their advantage, allowing them to regularly defeat armies outnumbered, and ensure defeats are rarely decisive. In this sense, despite Caesar starting with far fewer legions, he has by far the stronger starting army. However, the legions are stationed deep into Gaul and therefore must be consolidated before making any major military action against another standing army.

In the meantime, Caesar brings one legion (the 13th) to cross the Rubicon and march on Rome, which up to this point was a demilitarized zone.

Pompey's armies are split across the provinces of Rome. Due to this, instead of taking 2 to 3 months to consolidate forces like Caesar, consolidation would potentially take a year or more. His most prominent holding is Spain, where he holds 7 of his most experienced legions. In Italy, facing direct threat and under the impression that he would have many more months to prepare, stand two legions of raw recruits in the process of completing their training. Pompey also holds the provinces of Greece and Africa, which have a combined 6 legions.

There are also a few neutral forces in the area, prominently the survivors left over from Crassus' botched Parthian campaign.



Controlled Regions

Caesar controls the three provinces which he initially governed (Transalpine Gaul, Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum). Caesar also has direct control over the newly conquered territories in Gaul. Gaul, although vast, is neither populous in Roman citizens nor wealthy nor a strong base of recruitment. Cisalpine Gaul however, is moderately wealthy and can serve as the Caesarian faction's main base for the war.

On the other hand, Pompey holds the governorships over Spain and Africa, while his allies command the provinces of Macedonia and Asia Minor. Additionally, Pompey has the de facto ability to raise armies and fight using the resources that are found in Rome and Italy, although rapid mobilisation may be difficult.

Pompey's provinces are not only more numerous and populous in total, they are also greater in individual value. Asia and Syria are two of the most profitable provinces in Rome. Sicily and Africa serve as the breadbasket of the Republic. Macedonia is one of the best provinces for military recruitment. The two Spanish provinces don't only hold legions, they also hold key silver mines and many other resources. Furthermore, if Italy falls, Caesar can only access the remaining provinces by sea or through crossing mountain ranges.

Allies of both sides

Caesar had developed a network of allies in Gaul during his campaigns. These allies previously supplied him with skirmishers, light infantry, cavalry, as well as supplies. Many tribes in Germania and Gaul have also agreed to pay tributaries to Rome, which could supply his campaigns or help pay off his immense debts.

On the other hand, Pompey has numerous foreign allies, however, none are currently mobilized for war, and it is unclear if these allies will be able to measurably aid Pompey's campaigns. From his Eastern reorganization, he gained the allyship of his Roman client kingdoms. Additionally, his governorships in Africa and Spain gave him the support of a few local allies.

Examples

Numidia (west of the Roman province of Africa) known for having the best cavalry in the known world.

Egypt, a vastly wealthy power centered on the Nile. Currently undergoing a civil war that broke out due to a succession crisis. The Pompeians supported in this civil war Ptolemy XIII, currently in control of the Nile river delta.

Pontus, Armenia, Judea and Cappadocia, wealthy client kingdoms left over from the Third Mithridatic War.

There were also neutral (unswayed) forces.

Dacia, led by king Burebista.

Parthia, although due to the recent war with the Roman Republic, was unlikely to support either side. Parthia was however the strongest empire known to Rome, and had unique tactical advantages against Roman legions.

Part 7

Political Situation

Political Situation

Following Caesar's crossing of the Rubicon, senators begin debating whether to flee the city, or join one of the two sides on campaign. However, Pompey appears to be the more appealing of the two candidates for the majority of the senators.

The entire senate is taken aback by Caesar's immediate action. Believing that an invasion must have been months away, Pompey is therefore caught flat footed with only a small force of raw recruits available for the defense of Rome.

Additionally, the Pompeians, due to having the support of many of Rome's wealthy and elite, have sufficient funds to raise and upkeep large armies, while Caesar has already begun paying many of his legions with I.O.U.s. A priority of Caesar's is therefore to immediately secure a source of revenue in order to pay his soldiers.

Beginning of Committee

(there will be an in-committee crisis update at the start of committee session I)

This committee starts when news of Caesar crossing the Rubicon reaches Rome (approximately 3 days following the invasion). Caesar is crossing with one legion, while two additional legions originally stationed on the Cisalpine side of the Alps begin their march to join him in Italy. The Pompeians have two Italian legions in training, one at Taranto and one in Neapolis. It is predicted that, if both sides make a beeline for Rome, Pompey's legions will arrive 2 days earlier; however, this is not guaranteed.

Guiding Questions

Caesar

1. How can the Caesarians neutralize the resource advantage Pompey holds in the provinces? How could Caesar capture enough provinces or muster sufficient resources to match that of the Pompeian faction?
2. How will the Caesarian faction raise money to pay its soldiers during this war, and pay off the debts from earlier?
3. How should Caesar recover popular support, both from the proletariat and aristocrats of Rome? Should the faction lean more to gain the support of one of the sides?
4. How will the Caesarian faction, which has been condemned by the Senate, gain legal legitimacy for their actions?
5. How does the Caesarian faction gain the favor and allyship of neutral forces, domestic and foreign?

Pompey

1. Should the Pompeian faction move to defend Rome, or should they withdraw from the peninsula. If you choose to make a stand, where and how? And if you choose to withdraw, what resources will you use and where will you go?
2. How can we ensure Caesar is unable to build strength or capture provinces (aside from Italy)? How will we press the time advantage to ensure we build sufficient strength to challenge Caesar's army?
3. How do we keep the political situation in the Roman Republic stay in favor of the Pompeian side, with or without the city under our control? How do we ensure Caesar's act of war stays illegitimate?
4. Should we consolidate the majority of Pompeian forces towards one region to make a singular stand? If so, where and how do we consolidate the legions?
5. How does the Pompeian faction make use of their allies, domestic and foreign, and how should we sway neutral forces towards us?

Part 8

Character Matrix

Note that

Some characters (Such as Quintus, Brutus and Labienus) defected after Caesar crossed the Rubicon. These actions therefore occur following the beginning of the crisis, and they will therefore be placed on the side they were on as of January 10th, 49BCE. Even if your character did defect, feel no obligation to in your crisis arc. Additionally, note that characters with little information have fictionalized backstories, intents and resources.

If a character description dictates that a person is “in control of a legion” (not a foreign or private army), that the legion will still be subservient to any passed public directive from the committee. If a delegate wishes to gain unilateral control over armies, they must write private directive notes that convince that legion to be personally loyal to them.

Caesarian Faction

1. Marc Antony

Marc Antony was Caesar's second in command throughout the latter half of his Gallic Conquests. During 49 BCE, prior to the beginning of the civil war, he was elected Tribune of the Plebs. In this position, he ensured Caesar was not prosecuted by continuously exercising his veto. Marc Antony is now with Caesar's 13th legion, being the first to cross the Rubicon.

2. Marcus Aemilius Lepidus

Lepidus is an accomplished general who managed to put down a revolt in Spain without ever drawing blood, a feat that earned him a triumph. As a result, he became one of Caesar's trusted lieutenants for the upcoming Gallic campaigns. In his personal life, Lepidus is a moderately wealthy man, but does not have many aristocratic connections.

3. Quintus Tullius Cicero

Quintus Tullius Cicero, younger brother of the famed orator Marcus Tullius Cicero served as a legate under Caesar during the Gallic wars. During this time, he proved himself a competent general, fighting on the British expedition while also surviving a siege from the enemy tribe, the Nervii. Quintus was a notably wealthy man with significant connections in the Roman aristocracy, but most importantly, the legion he led through the siege, is first and foremost loyal to him.

4. Marcus Junius Brutus

Part of the most prestigious family lineage in Rome, the Julii, Brutus was never short on wealth or connections. In 54 BCE, he was appointed *monetalis*, leading the minting of coins in the Republic. During this time, he printed *denarii* with an anti-Pompeian message, spreading news of his dictatorial ambitions. Later, he would be elected as a *pontifex* (religious official). In his core, he was a statesman, and strongly believed, above all else, that no one man should ever lead the Republic.

5. Cleopatra

When Ptolemy XII died in 51 BC, he left Egypt to three heirs: his son Ptolemy XIII, his daughter Cleopatra and Rome, to whom he owed a generational debt. However, the coregency broke apart quickly, and Ptolemy expelled Cleopatra. Cleopatra was therefore in the process of raising an army in Syria by the start of the Roman Civil War to reclaim the throne. Cleopatra was, in her own right, described as a beautiful, intelligent woman with deep political understanding. She was also the first ruler of Egypt to actually learn the native language.

6. Lucius Aemilius Paullus

In 50 BCE, Paullus was elected consul, originally as a conservative. However, he received a king's ransom of a bribe from Caesar, flipping him over to veto anti Caesarian bills proposed in the Roman senate. Paullus therefore acquired immense wealth and political influence, leading a large voting bloc in the Roman senate.

7. Gaius Antonius

Brother of Caesar's left hand man, Marc Antony, Gaius Antonius was left in charge of the defense of the Roman province of Illyricum from the Pompeians with 1 fresh legion under his command. Antonius is an influential politician and skilled general in his own right, and his current post serves as a launchpad for potentially successful campaigns and military victories.

8. Gaius Octavius

Gaius Octavius, only 14 years of age, was almost like a son to Julius Caesar. Caesar brought Octavius along during his most recent military campaigns, and eventually Octavius became a close advisor to Caesar, certainly in his inner circle, a direct pipeline to the man himself. This also resulted in significant gifts and a couple of political followers. There were also rumors floating around this time that Caesar would leave a sizable portion of his wealth to Octavius, naming him as a potential primary heir in his will.

9. Gaius Trebonius

Another legate in Caesar's Gallic Wars, Trebonius was left in command of 4 legions, wintering in Belgae territory when Caesar crossed the Rubicon. Trebonius didn't have unilateral command over the armies, but had partial control over their movement and use in the absence of direct orders from Caesar. Trebonius had also made many allies in Gaul, among them, the Remi and the Suessiones, two tribes of the Belgae.

10. Marcus Licinius Crassus the Younger

Marcus Licinius Crassus was appointed legate under Caesar during 49 BCE, in command of the legion currently wintering in modern day Brittany. Licinius, being the son of the triumvir Crassus, received his generational fortune upon his untimely death at Carrhae; boosting him to one of the wealthiest men in Rome himself.

11. Calpurnia

Calpurnia was the wife of Caesar, a man he had sparsely seen since the start of the Gallic campaigns. Calpurnia was however an influential figure in Rome, and was the closest thing the Romans had to an atheist. Calpurnia also had some control over the fortune and assets Caesar had left in Rome, most importantly, his properties and a small amount of money.

12. Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus

Decimus, a lieutenant under Caesar during the Gallic Wars, found himself to be the most experienced and skilled naval commander of his generation. Decimus had a unique understanding of both fleetbuilding and naval combat. He had gained these skills through defeating the Venetii, and later, building fleets for the amphibious landings on Britain. Caesar therefore appointed him to be the main naval commander of the war.

13. Aulus Hirtius

The night prior to Caesar's crossing of the Rubicon, Aulus broke bread with him. Aulus had served as an envoy to Pompey during the lead up to the civil war, and had therefore placed several informants inside of the Pompeian circle. Additionally, he was a key advisor to Caesar and previously a legate. Now, Hirtius' connections served as a pipeline to either spy on or sabotage Pompey's war operations.

14. Diviciacus

Diviciacus was a key local ally of Caesar's during the Gallic Campaigns. Following Alesia in 52 BCE, he retook control of his tribe, the Aedui, and began to supply Caesar with supplies, mercenaries and bases. By the time of the Civil War, Diviciacus was Caesar's most prominent and powerful ally in Gaul. He was also known for having the best regional cavalry and skirmishers, forces which he would have in a parallel command with Caesar's main army.

15. Titus Labienus

Titus Labienus was Caesar's left hand man all throughout the conquest of Gaul. Compared to Caesar, the Gallic legions believed he was equal in skill and superior in authority. As such, Labienus held unilateral command over the 7 Gallic legions in the absence of direct orders from Caesar, and could conduct military operations of his own volition with 2 of the 7 legions, the ones currently stationed on the south of the Rhine River. Labienus had also been told by Caesar that, as soon as the political situation settled down, the Gallic provinces would likely be his.

16. Gaius Scribonius Curio

In 50 BCE, serving as a tribune of the plebs with veto power, Caesar bribed Curio with generational wealth to become one of his proponents in the Senate. When Caesar crossed the Rubicon, Curio was in the Roman countryside, stationed in Campania, ready to strike at a moment's notice. Now, his main goal was to avoid potential political persecution, or to aid the Caesarian cause in Italy.

Pompeian Faction

1. Cato The Younger

Cato had been a prominent political figure in the Conservative and later Pompeian faction for years. Cato had also pledged to personally lead the prosecution against Caesar whenever his legal immunity ended. Now, the chance to defeat Caesar in a courtroom would never come, and Cato switched his policy to one of relentless war against Caesar. Cato held immense political influence and wealth, especially with connections in the Roman East due to his time successfully administrating Cyprus.

2. Marcus Tullius Cicero

Cicero was a famous orator, and the predominant statesman of his generation. Cicero was a deep political thinker, and decided early on that he would not take part in the fighting of the civil war. Instead, for now, Cicero was to hold down the political situation in Rome and attempt to make legal and political attacks against Caesar and in support of Pompey. Cicero was also in a unique position to do this, as many neutral or even opposing politicians had a deep respect for the man and his handling of the Catiline Conspiracy a decade earlier.

3. Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus

Domitius was a proconsul (ex-consul) and a major member of the Pompeian faction. He also held an extremely strong belief that the Pompeians should not abandon Rome and withdraw without a fight. Domitius also had a tendency to act on his own, and had the capabilities to raise armies and lead peripheral operations against Caesar independent of the main Pompeian battlefronts.

4. Marcus Calpurnius Bibulus

Bibulus had served as consul alongside Caesar in 59 BCE, during which Caesar had pushed him out and illegally ignored his veto. Bibulus had long since held a rivalry against Caesar, a rivalry which landed him firmly in the Pompeian camp at the beginning of the civil war. It was decided that Bibulus would take a position recruiting additional legions in Greece at the beginning of the Civil War.

5. Quintus Caecilius Metellus Scipio

When the civil war began, Scipio had just started serving his term as the governor of Syria, a position which required him to both mobilise his own forces, fend off potential Parthian counterattacks, and secure the support of local Roman allies. Scipio was tasked with securing supplies for a Pompeian stand in the East, should it ever come down to such a battle. Additionally, Scipio was a proconsul and a respected politician in his own right.

6. Sextus Pompeius

Sextus Pompeius was the younger of Pompey's two legitimate sons, and was beginning his career as a prominent politician. The civil war derailed this, however, Pompey quickly set him up as the governor of Sicily, a province he would hold with 4 cohorts (2000 men). Sextus was also tasked with building a fleet and recruiting additional soldiers to bring to his fathers' cause.

7. Juba of Numidia

King Juba was the leader of the African empire of Numidia. Numidia was widely known for having some of the best light cavalry in the known world. Numidia was also during this time at conflict with Mauritania, a minor power until the king Bocchus II. Therefore, King Juba made his main goal to defeat the minor power in order to consolidate his forces for the upcoming Roman Civil War.

8. Ptolemy XIII

Following the death of his father, Ptolemy XIII was handed coregency alongside her sister Cleopatra. Prior to the beginning of the Roman Civil War, Ptolemy managed to exile Cleopatra from the core of Egypt, however, being only 13 years of age, he faced internal struggles as administrators and aristocrats attempted to fight for control over Egypt believing they could influence the young king. Ptolemy also faced an existential threat, the return of Cleopatra, potentially with her at the head of an army. Therefore, on the outbreak of the Roman Civil War, Ptolemy sided himself with Pompey in hope of receiving aid from the Pompeian faction.

9. Marcus Petreius

In 53 BCE, Marcus Petreius was tasked with governing Hispania Ulterior in the absence of Pompey. In this position, he was left in executive command of four Pompeian legions in the absence of further orders. From his position in Spain, he held a unique ability to threaten Caesar's bases of support in Transalpine Gaul. This gave Petreius the goal of securing glory for himself by potentially winning major battles against Caesar. His governorship of the Hispanic province also allowed him to collect supplies and raise funds from the silver mines of the area.

10. Pharnaces II

When Mithridates IV died at the end of the Third Mithridatic War, Pharnaces succeeded him and took control of a weakened Pontus. Pontus, sitting on the Black Sea, still held considerable wealth and the ability to raise large armies. Pontus now sided with Pompey in the civil war, believing that if Pompey won, he would be permitted greater independence to build his own sphere of influence.

11. Lucius Afranius

In 54 BCE, Lucius Afranius was given governorship over Hispania Citerior, and executive control over its three legions in the absence of direct orders from the Pompeian faction. Afranius was himself a proconsul, an accomplished politician and had proven himself a competent administrator of the province. Afranius now stood the closest anybody to Caesar's provinces in Transalpine Gaul and knew there would be a high chance of Caesar's legions crossing the Pyrenees mountains, attacking his province.

12. Lucius Scribonius Libo

Holding the office of Praetor in 50 BCE, Scribonius was given the position of raising legions in the south of Italy, with the promise that he would be a Pompeian legate upon the completion of the legions' training. Scribonius was from a plebeian family and had connections to many of the groups in the southern Italian countryside. Scribonius' daughter was also married to Sextus Pompeius, the son of Pompey.

13. Gaius Cassius Longinus

Cassius was one of Crassus' lieutenants on the botched Parthian campaign. Originally having advised against the invasion, Cassius now faced the impossible task of fending off the Parthians in the Roman province of Syria. After a series of impressive maneuvers, Cassius soundly defeated the Parthians, forcing them to retreat back into Mesopotamia. Cassius had also been elected Tribune of the Plebs in 49 BCE. Pompey recognized Cassius' talent and placed him in charge of 70 triremes (warships) in Greece, tasking him with both the command and expansion of the fleet.

14. Artavasdes II (Armenia)

An ally of Pompey, and king of an allied kingdom in Armenia, Artavasdes promptly threw in his lot with the Pompeians following the beginning of the civil war. Artavasdes had previously offered help to Crassus during his campaign in Parthia and was reportedly capable of mobilizing over 40,000 men, although it was unclear how Artavasdes could sustain a standing army of this size for an extended period of time. Artavasdes also faced the threat of a neighboring, Parthian allied kingdom known as Atropatene.

15. Ariobarzanes III of Cappadocia

Ariobarzanes was the king of Cappadocia, another one of Pompey's allies during his Eastern campaign. Cappadocia was capable of raising around 8,000 men to assist with the Pompeian cause. Ariobarzanes did however struggle with finding domestic support within the aristocrats of his kingdom, although he was popular amongst the people and soldiers of the country.

16. Publius Attius Varus

A proprætor, Varus governed Pompey's province of Africa in his absence. Following the recent outbreak of civil war, Pompey ordered him with the defense of the province, the construction of a small fleet, and the providing of supplies (primarily grain) to Pompey's

main army. Varus was also in a unique position to reinforce Pompey's armies in Italy, although he only held two legions in the province of Africa, and would struggle to transport them with expedience.

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