

IDUTRAIN'26

ROMAN SENATE

STUDY GUIDE



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1. Letter From Secretary General

Dear Delegates and Members of the Academic Team,

When we first started discussing the idea for IDUTRAIN'26 back in October, we had a very specific goal in mind. We felt that İzmir's university scene needed a more professional and dedicated platform for high-level debate, a place where students could truly challenge themselves. Today, seeing that idea turn into our first annual session is an incredibly proud moment for all of us.

Building a conference from the ground up is a long and demanding journey. It requires more than just planning; it takes a team that truly cares about the outcome. While every member of our team has given their best, I want to personally acknowledge one of our Directors General, Umutcan Altunok. I have seen firsthand the immense effort and the countless hours he has put into this project since day one. His dedication has been the driving force behind making this vision a reality.

Our mission for this session is simple: we want to provide you with a space for real personal growth and innovative thinking. This is not just about following a procedure; it is about finding creative solutions to global challenges and engaging in debates that actually matter. I encourage you to push your boundaries, share your unique perspectives, and make the most of this experience.

I am genuinely looking forward to seeing the results of your hard work and meeting you all in person. Let's make this inaugural session of IDUTRAIN'26 a meaningful start for everyone involved.

See you all there, and I hope to continue this journey with you at IDUMUN'26.

Sincerely,

Yusuf Say

Secretary-General, IDUTRAIN'26

2. Letter From Under Secretary General

Greetings, esteemed delegates and readers of this guide,

I am Bora Yunus Özçetemen, and I am honored to serve as your Under-Secretary-General throughout this conference.

For the past year and a half, I have envisioned organizing this committee. Ever since my first experience in a Roman Senate simulation, I believed that I would one day have the authority to bring such a committee to life. I am proud to have reached that goal here at the IDUTRAIN'26 conference.

Drawing upon the procedural knowledge and insights gained from my previous experiences, my team and I have been working tirelessly to ensure you have the best possible committee experience.

Thanks to the technical expertise of my team and myself, an unforgettable experience, featuring innovative committee mechanics and unique features never seen before, awaits you.

I sincerely hope this conference proves to be beneficial, highly competitive, and equally enjoyable for all of you.

Best Regards,

Bora Yunus Özçetemen

Under-Secretary-General

3. Agenda Item of the Committee: Caesar's Civil War



4. Definition of the Roman Republic's Terms

Roman Republic: This was a form of government established in 509 BC after the overthrow of the monarchy, based on the principle of "the people's business" (Res Publica) to prevent power from being concentrated in a single individual. In this system, the administration of the state relied on a delicate balance between the magistrates, the Senate, and the popular assemblies.

Senate: This was the most powerful advisory body, consisting mainly of former high-ranking state officials, which directed foreign policy, the treasury, and religious affairs. Although it did not have the direct power to pass laws, its advisory decrees (senatus consultum) determined the actual day-to-day governance of the state.

Centuriate Assembly(comitia centuriata): This was the primary assembly where citizens voted according to their wealth and military units (centuriae), responsible for electing the highest-ranking magistrates and declaring war. Since the voting system was designed to favor the wealthier classes, it maintained a strictly aristocratic structure.

Tribal Assembly(comitia tributa):

This was the popular assembly that divided Roman citizens according to their residential districts (tribus) and elected lower-level magistrates. It offered a more democratic form of representation than the Centuriate Assembly because it was based on geographical distribution rather than wealth.

Plebeian Council(concilium plebis):

This was an exclusive assembly where only Plebeians could participate, electing their own leaders (tribunes) and passing resolutions that initially only bound their own class. Over time, the decisions made in this council (plebiscites) gained the force of law for all Roman citizens.

Rostra: This was a high platform in the Forum Romanum where politicians and orators addressed the public, decorated with the prows



(rostra) of captured enemy ships. As the heart of public debate and political propaganda, it served as the physical symbol of Roman democracy.

Imperium: This was the absolute executive power granted to high-ranking magistrates, encompassing both military command and civil judicial authority. A leader with this power could command armies outside Roman borders and exercise the power of life and death over citizens.

Cursus Honorum: This was the mandatory and hierarchical career path a politician followed in Rome, rising from military service through the offices of Quaestor, Aedile, Praetor, and finally Consul. Specific age limits and waiting periods were applied at each stage to ensure that leaders gained experience and that power was shared incrementally.

Patricians: This was the aristocratic class belonging to the oldest and most noble families of Rome, who initially held all political and religious privileges. They formed the ruling elite for centuries, claiming descent from the founding fathers (patres) of the state.

Plebeians: This was the broad mass of citizens who were not of noble birth, merchants, craftsmen, or farmers, and who initially had restricted political rights. They engaged in a centuries-long struggle (Conflict of the Orders) to gain their rights, eventually winning representation at every level of government.

Roman Citizenship: This was a privileged legal and social status that granted individuals specific rights, such as the right to vote, hold office, and be protected by Roman law from arbitrary punishment or execution. While initially restricted to the free inhabitants of the city of Rome, it was gradually extended to the people of Italy and eventually to all free males across the empire to ensure political stability and military loyalty.

Curator: This was an overseer or official appointed to perform specific administrative tasks, such as the maintenance of public buildings, aqueducts, or grain supplies. Usually responsible for technical operations requiring expertise, these individuals ensured the continuity of state functions.

Patron-Client Relationship: This was a relationship of mutual dependency between a protector of higher social status (patronus) and an individual of lower status (cliens) who provided loyalty and service. The patron provided legal and economic protection, while the client supported the patron's political and social prestige.

Flamen Dialis: This was the high priest serving Jupiter, the supreme god of Rome, who lived under strict religious taboos and prohibitions throughout his life. As a figure representing spiritual purity for the welfare of Rome, this individual was forbidden from pursuing a political career.

Pontifex Maximus: This was the chief priest at the top of the Roman religious hierarchy, responsible for managing the calendar and overseeing other priests. Holding both religious and political significance, this office was the highest authority regulating the state's relationship with the gods (pax deorum).

Domus Publica: This was the official state building located next to the Forum Romanum, serving as the residence of the Pontifex Maximus. It was the headquarters of religious authority, where religious ceremonies were planned and some state archives were kept.

Pomerium: This was the sacred spiritual boundary line drawn around the city of Rome. Within this boundary, it was strictly forbidden to carry weapons, station armies, or exercise military imperium authority.

Military Tribune: These were officers serving in the command structure of the Roman legions, responsible for the discipline and administration of the soldiers. Often chosen from young nobles starting their political careers, these individuals formed the middle management of the army.

Quaestor: This was the first official step of the Cursus Honorum, responsible for the state treasury and financial records. They managed financial affairs both in the center of Rome and alongside commanders in the provinces.

Magistrate: These were public officials elected by popular assemblies for a specific period (usually 1 year) who held executive authority. These offices were organized hierarchically and were directly responsible for the daily operations of the Roman state.

Aedile: This was an official similar to a mayor, responsible for the maintenance of order in Rome, the inspection of marketplaces, grain distribution, and public games. Organizing magnificent festivals was a key task for politicians wishing to gain the favor of the people.

Tribune of the Plebs: This was a leader of the people elected to defend the rights of the Plebeians, possessing sacred inviolability and the power to veto the decisions of all other magistrates. Their doors remained open day and night to citizens in need, serving as the system's most powerful check and balance.

Praetor: This was a high-level official in charge of the Roman justice system who held judicial authority. Ranking second only to the Consuls, they had imperium authority to govern provinces and manage the courts.

Consul: This was the highest executive office of the Republic, with two individuals elected each year to serve as heads of state. They commanded the army, convened the Senate, and ensured the balance of power by exercising the right to veto each other's decisions.

Dictator: This was an individual appointed with absolute authority by a decree of the Senate for a maximum of 6 months during emergencies, such as a major war or internal crisis. During this period, all other offices and laws were suspended, and the dictator's decisions were beyond dispute.

Censor: These were high-ranking officials elected every five years to conduct the census, assess property, and oversee the moral conduct of citizens. Their power to appoint Senate members or remove them for immorality gave them immense prestige and influence.

Optimates: This was the conservative political faction in the Roman Senate that sought to protect traditional authority and the exclusive privileges of the aristocracy. They aimed to limit the power of the popular assemblies and maintain the status quo by ensuring that state governance remained solely in the hands of the "best men" (optimates).

Populares: This was a group of reformist politicians who relied on the support of the popular assemblies and the broad masses to gain political power. They aimed to break the aristocratic hegemony of the Senate by advocating for the interests of the people (populus) through promises such as grain doles, land reform, and debt relief.

Provincia: This was the specific task or geographic area assigned to a magistrate for the exercise of their imperium authority. As the Republic expanded, the term came to represent the overseas provinces and the responsibility of governing these territories.

Twelve Tables: These were the first written laws of Rome, drafted in 451–450 BC under pressure from the Plebeians and displayed in the Forum for everyone to see, forming the foundation of Roman law. By replacing oral traditions, these laws prevented arbitrary decisions by magistrates and established a basis for legal equality between Patricians and Plebeians.

Provocatio ad Populum: This was the right of a Roman citizen to appeal to the popular assembly against a severe sentence or execution ordered by a magistrate. This right was the fundamental legal guarantee protecting citizens against the abuse of imperial power by state officials.

Lex Hortensia: This was a law passed in 287 BC, which decreed that resolutions passed by the Plebeian Council (plebiscites) were binding on all Roman citizens without needing Senate approval. This law marked the legal end of the Conflict of the Orders and confirmed the political victory of the Plebeians.

Princeps Senatus: This was an honorary title given to the most senior and respected member of the Roman Senate, meaning "First Man of the Senate." This individual was the first to be asked for his opinion during Senate debates, which granted him immense moral authority (auctoritas) to set the tone and direction of the discussions.

5. Short history of the Roman Republic

BC 500 - BC 400

The Roman Republic was founded in BC 509 after the tyranny of the last King, Lucius Tarquinius Superbus. His son Sextus Tarquinius had raped her before she stabbed herself because of it. That was the last straw for the Roman people, and they founded another system called “Libertas”.

Libertas means the absence of a king rather than freedom in the modern sense. The Roman Senate played a key role in deciding the future of the country with its 2 Consuls which have different roles from the king. These two men were elected annually, each having the right to command. Crucially, they held the power to veto over one another. This was designed to ensure that the monarchy would never come back.

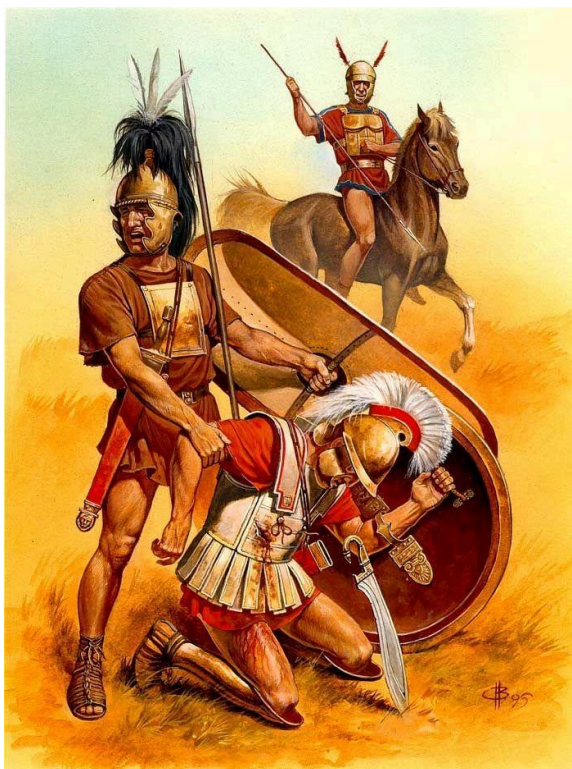
Yet, there was some way to suspend the Libertas, which was that, in times of extreme military emergency, the Consuls could appoint a single man as Dictator for a strictly limited six-month term.

The early Republic was divided into 2 societies called the Patricians (the elite) and the Plebeians (the commoners). The Patricians held a monopoly on all religious and political offices. The Plebeians, ranging from wealthy merchants to the landless poor, were the

primary tax-paying and soldier-producing class, although they lacked legal protection. This economic injustice, combined with the lack of rules over Patricians, led to a two-century-long conflict known as the Struggle of the Orders.

The first breakthrough occurred with the First Secession in 494 BC when Rome was in a war with tribes in the Italian Peninsula. Plebeian soldiers refused to march against the enemy and seceded to the Mons Sacer outside Rome.

This forced the creation of the Tribune of the Plebs and Plebeian Council. The Tribunes were special as anyone who physically harmed a Tribune could be killed without trial. With the power of veto, a Tribune could reject any



act of the Senate or the Consuls. This provided the Plebeians a way to go against aristocratic overreach and established a parallel government that eventually gained the right to pass its own resolutions.

In BC 451, a commission of ten men known as the Decemviri was appointed to publish all the laws which were previously just known as oral traditions. The resulting Twelve Tables were inscribed on bronze and displayed in the Forum Romanum. Though the laws were harsh, they made justice nearly equal for everyone.

BC 400 - BC 300

The fourth century BCE began with the Sack of Rome in 390 BCE. A warband of Senones Gauls, led by the chieftain Brennus, descended from the Alps and crushed the Roman army at the Battle of the Allia. The Gauls occupied the city for months, leaving only the Capitoline Hill under Roman control. Though the Romans eventually drove the invaders out,



seeing their temples burned and their Senate slaughtered, it created a permanent collective fear known as *Metus Gallicus* (Gallic Fear).

This deep-seated anxiety became a powerful political tool; centuries later, Julius Caesar would justify his strike into Transalpine Gaul by invoking the memory of 390 BC, framing his conquest as a necessary move to ensure Rome was never humiliated again.

After the Gallic Sack, Rome realized that its military, based on the rigid Greek-style warriors, was slow. During the Samnite Wars, a series of three brutal conflicts occurred against the hill tribes of the Apennine Mountains. The Samnites' hit-and-run tactics in broken, mountainous terrain where the solid wall of Roman spears was easily fractured. Following the surrender at the Caudine Forks, the Republic implemented the Maniple Reform.

Rome abandoned the singular type of warriors for a checkerboard formation. The army was divided into small, independent units called Maniples, which could move, retreat, and reinforce one another without breaking the entire line. It allowed the Roman legion to become the most flexible and resilient fighting force in the ancient world.

The Republic began the construction of the Via Appia (The Appian Way) in 312 BC, which was the first of the great Roman military highways, designed to move troops and supplies with unprecedented speed, regardless of the season.

At the same time, Rome developed a revolutionary diplomatic strategy for managing defeated enemies. Rather than simply enslaving conquered cities, Rome offered various levels of incorporation. The most ingenious of these was *Civitas sine suffragio* (Citizenship without the vote). This allowed a defeated people to maintain their local laws and internal government while gaining the protection of Roman law and the right to trade, provided they supplied soldiers for the Roman army.

By 300 BCE, this strategy had turned Central Italy into a massive manpower pool. Every victory for Rome both eliminated an enemy and added an ally to the Republic. This created a self-sustaining cycle of expansion: Rome needed more land to reward its growing citizen-army, and it needed more allies to protect that land. By the end of this century, the Republic had successfully integrated the Latins, the Etruscans, and the Samnites into a unified Italian confederacy.

BC 300 - BC 200

Rome's first major encounter with the professional Hellenistic armies of the Greek East was between 280 and 275 BC. King Pyrrhus of Epirus invaded Italy at the request of the Greek city of Tarentum. Pyrrhus was a cousin of Alexander the Great and brought with him a terrifying new weapon that the Romans had never seen before, the war elephant. Although Pyrrhus won several battles, the Romans refused to surrender, continually raising new legions from their vast Italian manpower pool. This stubbornness shocked the Greeks, for the first time, a Mediterranean power realized that defeating a Roman army did not mean defeating the Roman State. By 272 BC, the Greeks had retreated, and Rome was the undisputed master of the entire Italian Peninsula.

The expansion of Roman influence inevitably led to a clash with Carthage, the naval titan of North Africa. The First Punic War (264–241 BC) was a brutal 23-year struggle centered on the control of Sicily. This war forced the traditionally land-based Romans to become a naval power. Legend holds that they found a wrecked Carthaginian quinquereme on a beach and used it as a blueprint to build 100 ships in just 60 days. To compensate for their lack of seamanship, they invented the *Corvus*, a spiked boarding bridge that allowed Roman soldiers to storm enemy decks, effectively turning a sea battle into a land battle. Rome's victory was absolute: they seized Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, establishing their first Provinces. This marked a shift in Roman governance; these lands were not integrated as allies like the

Italians, but were governed as conquered territories, taxed heavily to fund the growing Roman war machine.

However, the peace won't be continued for a long time. In 218 BC, the Carthaginian general Hannibal Barca launched a daring invasion of Italy by crossing the Alps with his army and elephants. For fifteen years, Hannibal campaigned on Italian soil, inflicting three of the most crushing defeats in military history: Trebia, Lake Trasimene, and finally Cannae (216 BCE). At Cannae, Hannibal's tactical genius allowed him to surround and slaughter nearly 50,000 Romans in a single day. Many of Rome's allies defected, and the city was on the brink of collapse. Yet, the Roman Senate displayed extraordinary resilience. They refused to negotiate with Hannibal, adopted the Fabian Strategy (a war of attrition to avoid direct battle), and eventually took the fight to Africa under Scipio Africanus. Scipio's decisive victory at the Battle of Zama (202 BC) ended the war.

To survive Hannibal, Rome had to maintain a massive standing army for nearly two decades. This led to an imbalanced economic shift that opened the gap between the wealthy and the poor. While the soldiers were away fighting, their small family farms fell into neglect or were bought up by wealthy senators who had profited from the war. By 200 BC, Rome was the master of the Mediterranean, but the very victories that secured its empire had begun to undermine the internal stability of the Republic.



BC 200 - BC 100

Following the defeat of Carthage, Rome turned its attention to the successors of Alexander the Great. Through the Macedonian Wars and the Syrian War, Rome dismantled the power of the Antigonids and the Seleucids. The Battle of Pydna (168 BC) was particularly symbolic; it proved once and for all that the flexible Roman Legion was superior to the legendary but rigid Macedonian Phalanx. By 146 BC, Rome had reached a point of no return. In a single year, they burned both Carthage and Corinth to the ground, signaling to the world that any resistance to Roman hegemony would result in total annihilation.

This cultural shift was accompanied by a devastating Agrarian Crisis. The Roman military system was still based on citizens, men who were required to own land to serve. The result was a demographic catastrophe: the countryside was filled with foreign slaves, while the city of Rome was flooded with thousands of displaced, landless, and angry former soldiers. These men had lost their livelihoods to the very empire they had built.

The breaking point arrived in 133 BC with the Tribune of Tiberius Gracchus. A noble-born populist, Tiberius bypassed the Senate and went directly to the People's Assembly to pass a land redistribution law. He sought to limit the amount of public land a single person could hold and give the surplus to the landless poor. The Senate viewed this not just as a financial threat but as a revolutionary challenge to their authority. In an act of political violence, a mob of senators and their clients beat Tiberius to death with wooden benches in the streets of Rome. Ten years later, his brother Gaius Gracchus attempted even more radical reforms, including subsidized grain and judicial changes, only to be hunted down and forced into suicide. These murders shattered the *Mos Maiorum* (the unwritten customs of the ancestors). For the first time in nearly four centuries, the Romans had turned to domestic slaughter to solve political disagreements.



The death of the Gracchi gave birth to the two factions that would eventually lead to Caesar's Civil War: the Optimates (The "Best Men") and the Populares (The "People's Men"). The Optimates sought to maintain the supremacy of the Senate, while the Populares used the power of the Tribunes and the People's Assembly to bypass Senatorial gridlock. This era of internal friction was capped by the Social War (91–87 BC), a massive

rebellion of Rome's Italian allies. Having fought in Rome's wars for centuries without the right to vote, the Italians demanded full citizenship. Although Rome won the war militarily, they were forced to concede the political point, granting citizenship to all of Italy. This turned Italy into a single political unit, but it also made the Republic's city-state institutions, based on physical voting in the Roman Forum, completely unworkable for a peninsula-wide electorate.

BC 100 - BC 50

The century began with a fundamental transformation of the Roman military known as the Marian Reforms (107 BC). The general Gaius Marius, who held the consulship an unprecedented seven times, abolished the property requirement for military service. He invited the *Capite Censi* (the landless poor) to join the legions, providing them with equipment and a professional wage. While this saved Rome from Germanic invasions, it caused soldiers to look to their generals for their pay and their retirement land. This birthed the "Client Army," a private political tool that allowed generals to dictate terms to the state. The rivalry between Marius and his former lieutenant, Lucius Cornelius Sulla, escalated this into Rome's first full-scale Civil War. In 82 BC, Sulla became the first general to march his own legions into the city of Rome, declaring himself Dictator for "reconstituting the Republic."

Sulla's reign introduced the daily lists of "enemies of the state" who could be killed by anyone for a cash reward, with their property seized by the treasury. Although Sulla eventually resigned his powers, the damage to the Roman legal system was permanent. He had shown that the rules could be bypassed by any man with enough legions. The following decades were dominated by Sullan men, most notably Pompey the Great, who bypassed every traditional age and office requirement to achieve three Triumphs and massive military commands. Pompey became the sword of the Senate, clearing the Mediterranean of pirates and expanding Rome's borders to the Euphrates, but his immense popularity made the traditional aristocracy deeply uneasy.

In 60 BC, the First Triumvirate, a secret, legal alliance, was formed to bypass the Senate's gridlock. It combined the three vital pillars of Roman power: Julius Caesar (the political visionary and populist leader), Pompey the Great (the military prestige), and Marcus Crassus (the immense wealth). Together, they controlled the Republic as a private entity, ensuring their own laws were passed and their preferred candidates elected. Caesar used this alliance to secure a long-term command in Gaul (58–50 BC). His campaigns there were a masterpiece of military strategy and propaganda; he conquered a massive territory, amassed a fortune in gold and slaves, and forged a veteran army that was fanatically loyal to him. However, the death of Crassus in battle and the death of Pompey's wife (Caesar's daughter, Julia) severed the ties holding the alliance together.

By 50 BC, the Senate, fearing Caesar's rising power, allied with Pompey and ordered Caesar to disband his army and return to Rome to face trial for his previous political irregularities. Caesar knew that to return without his army was to face exile or death. On January 10, 49 BC, he reached the Rubicon, a small river marking the boundary between his province and Italy. By crossing it with the Thirteenth Legion, he committed an act of high treason and signaled the start of a final, existential civil war.



6. General Procedure of the Roman Senate

Internal Regulation of the Roman Senate

Part One

General Provisions

Clause 1 (Total Membership): The total membership consists of seventy Senators. This number may be changed by the joint decision of the Consuls.

Clause 2 (General oath): The Committee starts with a general oath. This oath, usually read by the Under Secretary General and Other members of the committee, repeats that oath.

Clause 3 (First Meeting and Oath of Office): To assume their duties, Senators must take an oath at the assembly convened following elections. The oath may be taken from one's seat or from the podium. The oath text may be read by the Under Secretary General or the Academic Assistant of the Committee.

Clause 4 (Convening): The interval between Senate sessions is six months. The Senate may hold an extraordinary meeting when deemed necessary.

Part Two

Consuls

Clause 5 (Presidency): The Senate is presided over by two Consuls. The Consuls are the supreme legislative and executive body of the state. In times of war, one Consul commands the army while the other governs the Senate.

Clause 6 (Election of Consuls): The term of office of the Consuls is one year. New Consuls are elected by a two-thirds majority vote of the Senate.

Clause 7 (Re-election of Consuls): No Senator may be elected Consul for two consecutive terms, nor may they stand as a candidate again after completing their term.

Clause 8 (Prerequisite of Consul Elections): All of the senators have personal stats: fame level, corruption percent, legitimacy rate, and holding. Those stats are essential for the Roman Senate, and if any candidate can not provide the minimum levels of these stats, he cannot be a consul. Corruption percent must be under 70 percent, fame level must be a

minimum of 60/100, legitimacy must be 4/10, and his holding must be a minimum of 2 talents.

Clause 9 (Details of Election Processes): Senators announce their candidacies to the popular assemblies via directive. Senators whose candidacies are approved by the popular assemblies are given a preparation period in which to deliver speeches. The number of candidates should be five. The candidates must take care of the stats (writing at Clause 8). The speaking time is 4 minutes for each candidate. Total 20 minutes. If candidates finish their speeches, they can yield their time to the chair or open the floor to questions. Whoever gathers the most of the votes will be chosen as the next consul, and whoever gathers the most of the votes after the first consul will be chosen as the second consul.

Clause 10 (Extraordinary Circumstances): If a Consul resigns, is removed from office, or dies, a Senator shall be elected to fill the vacant seat by a two-thirds majority vote of the Senate. The newly elected Consul assumes the powers of the previous Consul until the end of that Consul's term.

Clause 11 (Duties of Consuls): The Consuls are responsible for presiding over the Senate and ensuring that the rules of procedure are correctly applied. In times of war, they are tasked with commanding the army, and in Rome with administering all affairs of state.

Clause 12 (Powers of Consuls): At the opening of Senate sessions, the Consuls hold the right of priority to speak. They may initiate legal proceedings, serve as judges, and render verdicts on their own initiative. They may also appoint a Praetor (Legislator or Prosecutor) to cases heard within the Senate and decide the outcomes of those cases. The Consuls may convene the popular assemblies (Comitia Centuriata) and submit legislative proposals to them.

Clause 13 (Decision-Making): All powers of the Consuls are shared equally, and to reach a decision, they must act jointly, that is, decide by unanimous agreement. Both Consuls hold the right to veto each other's decisions; however, the validity of a veto may be overturned by a two-thirds majority vote of the Senate. The motion to put a veto to a vote requires only a proposal from the vetoed Consul.

Clause 14 (Dictator): In times of war or crisis, one of the Consuls may request dictatorial powers. The Dictator holds a consolidation of powers for six months and may act independently of the Senate. The Consul, not holding dictatorial authority, serves as the Dictator's deputy. To obtain dictatorial powers, the proposing Consul must secure a two-thirds majority vote of the assembly.

Clause 15 (Successor): Consuls (Predecessors) have the option of designating a successor to take their place should something happen to them during their term. If a Consul has a designated heir, the vote specified in Clause 7 shall not be held. If the successor receives a confidence vote of 50+1 from the Senate, they shall assume the powers of their predecessor

until the end of that predecessor's term. If the predecessor completes their term, the successor may stand as a candidate for the office of Consul without consulting the popular assemblies.

Clause 16 (Immunity): Consuls are immune from prosecution during their term of office; however, since they will become Senators upon the completion of their terms, they may be tried for actions taken during their time in power.

Part Three

Senate Proceedings

Clause 17 (Senate Session): The Roman Senate conducts all its work under an assigned agenda and in accordance with that agenda. The agenda is prepared by the Consuls based on the proposals of the Senators and is read at the opening of the session. The Committee Board and Crisis Team have the authority to make unforeseen additions to the agenda. Additions are included in the agenda after being approved by the highest academic member of the committee existing there. In the absence of a pre-existing agenda, the session may proceed based on off-agenda motions. Off-agenda speeches may be made before agenda assignments.

Clause 18 (Committee Board): The word of the Committee Board is law. They are responsible for ensuring that the Consuls manage the Senate correctly, maintaining order within the committee, and providing equal opportunity to delegates. As they stand outside the proceedings, they hold no authority within the Senate itself, but serve as a consultative body on matters of procedure. Consuls and Senators may not speak during regular sessions without being recognized by the Committee Board.

Clause 19 (Agenda): Senate agendas may consist of the following:

- Legislation
- Filing of Legal Cases
- Consular Elections
- Extraordinary Circumstances
- General State of the Nation
- Taking Military Action

Agendas are implemented in the order determined by the Consuls. Once the agendas have been prepared, a Consul takes the podium and reads the Senate agenda. After the agenda is read, off-agenda matters may not be deliberated until the agenda has been completed. Agendas may be interrupted by priority agendas issued by the Crisis Team.

Clause 20 (Off-Agenda Speech): After agenda items have been exhausted, Senators may deliver off-agenda speeches until a new agenda is assigned. Off-agenda speeches may be delivered a maximum of five times and shall not exceed three minutes each.

Clause 21 (Submission of Motions): Senators may use motions to move to a formal or informal session, deliver an off-agenda speech, ask questions, deliver a rebuttal speech, or

make additions to the agenda. Motions may not interrupt another Senator's speech. Motions may be used while the agenda is being set or to add a new item between agenda items. To submit a motion, Senators must raise their placards at an appropriate time and verbally state the type of motion they intend to submit.

Clause 22 (Taking the Floor): Agenda items are opened for debate by the Consuls. The Consuls hold priority speaking rights on these agenda items. Senators may take the floor on agenda items opened for debate. The names of four Senators are listed at a time for each agenda item. Unless modified by the Committee Board, each agenda item may be debated seven times. Senators who take the floor have a maximum speaking time of two minutes.

Clause 23 (Formal Session): When the session begins, the Senate enters formal session. The formal session is indefinite and continues until interrupted by a motion for an informal session. During formal sessions, Senators may not speak without being recognized and may not rise from their seats without permission.

Clause 24 (Informal Session): Informal sessions are subject to a time limit and last a maximum of thirty and a minimum of five minutes. During an informal session, delegates may rise and move about and may converse among themselves without needing to be recognized.

Clause 25 (Asking Questions): Senators who take the floor during a formal session are deemed to be open to questions from other Senators and Consuls. Senators have the discretion to decline questions; however, they are required to accept at least one question if there are any.

Clause 26 (Right of Rebuttal): When Senators disagree with other Senators or are dissatisfied with a speech that has been delivered, they may use the right-of-rebuttal motion. After a Senator's speaking time has concluded and questions have been taken, Senators may avail themselves of the right-of-rebuttal motion to deliver a speech in opposition to the one delivered. The rebuttal speaking time is one and a half minutes. Rebuttal speeches are subject to questions, but a rebuttal to a rebuttal may not be delivered. The Senator against whom a rebuttal has been delivered is granted a right of response like a question. This response is governed by the same principles as the question motion.

Clause 27 (Opening and Closing of the Session): The authority to open and close the session is delegated to the Consuls by the Committee Board. When opening the session, the Consuls read a pre-determined text, and the session begins. When closing the session, the Consuls summarize the agenda discussed during the session, read out any remaining agenda items to be discussed in future sessions, and then close the session with their good wishes.

Clause 28 (Attendance): Attendance at Senate sessions is not mandatory. Entry to and exit from the committee is not permitted during formal sessions. However, during informal sessions, Senators may leave the committee after informing the Committee Board for reasons

such as taking a meeting, writing a directive, or attending to personal needs. Senators wishing to leave the committee shall convey their requests to the Committee Board in writing. If the Committee Board deems the request valid, it shall sign the paper and send it to the door attendant, and the Senator may exit. The Committee Board may, if necessary, have the exit permit approved by the Consuls. For exits other than personal needs, it shall be assumed that the Senator has also left the Senate within the crisis proceedings and has gone to the location stated in the exit request or directive. Senators wishing to enter the committee after the formal session has commenced shall be turned away.

Clause 29 (Evaluation of Requests): Requests for motions, taking the floor, asking questions, delivering rebuttals, and off-agenda speeches are evaluated by the Committee Board and implemented by the Consuls. The Committee Board is under no obligation to provide explanations regarding its decisions. Consuls who object to a decision made by the Committee Board may raise an immediate verbal objection. If a verbal objection is raised, it is evaluated by the Crisis Team; if not, by the Committee Board.

Part Four

Legislation

Clause 30 (Draft Legislation Submission): Senators wishing to submit a new draft of law or revise existing laws shall convey their petitions to the board in writing. After drafts are transmitted to the Consuls, the Committee Board reads them aloud. Drafts are written in directive format, with "Draft of Legislation" indicated at the top. Each draft is put to a vote through the Board. A draft is adopted if it receives one-third of the votes of the assembly. Drafts may be submitted at any time when legislation is on the agenda.

Clause 31 (Adopted Drafts): Every draft of legislation that receives one-third of the votes advances to the next stage. The Board may, if it chooses, merge or amend drafts. Following the adoption process, one of the Senators who submitted each selected draft takes the podium to defend it; this procedure is repeated for each draft. Each Senator at the podium has a speaking time of five minutes. Speaking time may not be extended. After their speeches, they may take a choice question, but a minimum of 5 questions are necessary. If any senators don't ask any questions, the chair chooses 5 senators using chairboard authority. After each Senator has delivered their speech, each draft is put to a separate vote. Drafts that receive two-thirds of the Senate's votes are enacted into law and added to the *Senatus Consultum Ultimum*.

Clause 32 (Alternative Way of Adopted Drafts): Any senator can bring the law to the *concilium plebis* and expand the topic to the nation.

Part Five

Judicial Proceedings

Clause 33 (Laws): The Twelve Tables are applied within the committee.

Clause 34 (Judiciary): If a crime is committed or suspicion of a crime arises within the committee, Senators or Consuls may file a criminal complaint against the individual or individuals who committed the crime. The complaint is evaluated by the popular assemblies, and at the conclusion of the evaluation, proceedings either commence or do not.

Clause 35 (Filing a Criminal Complaint): Senators file a criminal complaint via a directive in petition format. The complaint is transmitted in writing to the popular assemblies and its validity is assessed by the magistrates and praetors of the popular assemblies. Valid complaints are converted into a bill of indictment. Bills of indictment are announced to the Senate by the Committee Board, and the legal process begins.

Clause 36 (Bill of Indictment): The bill of indictment is prepared by the prosecutor. It contains the content of the complaint, the judicial authorities, and the parties. Once completed, the bill of indictment is submitted to the Committee Board.

Clause 37 (Legal Process): When the trial session begins, the Committee Board announces to the Senate the judges, the prosecutor, the defendant or defendants, and the plaintiff or plaintiffs (including legal entities), and reads the bill of indictment. Once proceedings commence, the judges read the charges against the defendant or defendants. The plaintiff then delivers an opening statement lasting a minimum of one and a maximum of five minutes. The parties may request the Committee Board to extend their opening statements. After the defense party has similarly completed its opening statement, the case continues with the calling of witnesses and/or expert witnesses. Evidence brought to light during this process may be added to the case. The proceedings continue until all evidence and witnesses have been examined. Any party can quote or give evidence that someone saw the crime. Also, the parties can use rhetorical techniques to interrupt the opponent's side. But if they cannot achieve that, the case turns against them, and the opponent side gains pressure rights. But the last 2 clauses are implemented by the chairboard. If the chairboard doesn't recognize, these tactics fall.

Clause 38 (Appointment of Prosecutor): Prosecutors are appointed to cases at the initiative of the Consuls.

Clause 39 (Adjudication): Judicial functions in cases are assumed by the Consuls. The outcome of the case and the penalties to be imposed are determined by the joint decision of the two Consuls. The judging person can demand different judging ways

Part Six

Popular Assemblies

Clause 40 (Authority): All bills about economic, social, societal, and general legal matters are sent to the popular assemblies after being debated in the Senate. Bills about governance, the military, or diplomacy are not sent to the popular assemblies and are put to a vote in the

Senate after deliberation. The Committee Board and Crisis Team decide which matters debated in the Senate are of a nature to be sent to the popular assemblies. The popular assemblies evaluate the petitions submitted to them. Petitions that pass evaluation are returned to the Senate.

Clause 41 (Representation): The popular assemblies are represented by the crisis team. Applications made to the popular assemblies are evaluated by the crisis team, and the necessary responses are provided.

Clause 42 (Convening): The popular assemblies may convene ordinarily, or extraordinarily upon the call of the Consuls. The ordinary meetings of the popular assemblies take place once a year.

Clause 43 (Extraordinary Meeting): Upon the request of the Consuls, the popular assemblies may convene extraordinarily. Extraordinary meetings that do not have their own agenda are obliged to evaluate requests coming from the Senate.

Clause 44 (Consular Support): The list of Senators who have announced their candidacy for the Consulship via directive is sent to the popular assemblies. Senators who achieve an average vote ratio of 50+1 from the popular assemblies may stand as candidates for the Consulship.

Clause 45 (Final Document): *Senatus Consultum Ultimum*, at the final part of a crisis, a final document is written by members of *senatus*. It includes all new draft Laws and should be the last decision of *senatus*. Eventually, the final document is read on the floor by the speaker.

Clause 46 (Voting Procedure of *Senatus Consultum Ultimum*): A vote of Confidence is not necessary at this voting part. 2/3 of the members of the Senate must vote in favor of the validity of the document. If any consul or consuls give an objection, then this document has not passed. If any group gives an objection, the two parts must designate one speaker to explain and represent their ideas. A total of 2 speakers must be elected by their own group. Election time maximum is 2 minutes. The speaker has a maximum of 3 minutes to explain the group's ideas. During this process, the cross-talking is strictly out of order. If anyone would like to reply, the speakers must use the right of reply. And if the chairboard doesn't recognize this point, it's not passed. When this process is finished, and the *senatus* does not pass any *senatus consultum ultimum*, the crisis is insoluble.

7. Introduction of Allocations

1) ***Sulpicius Rufus***: Neutral. A renowned jurist and close friend of Caesar. He remained neutral during the civil war to mediate between factions.

2) ***M. Claudius Marcellus***: Optimates. Consul of 51 BC and fierce enemy of Caesar. He led official efforts to terminate Caesar's command before its expiration.

3) ***Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus***: Optimates. Commander-in-Chief representing the Senate's military power. He acted as the de facto leader of the republican faction against Caesar.

4) ***Marcus Porcius Cato***: Optimates. Ideologue of the conservative faction and Caesar's most rigid opponent. He used every legal obstacle to defend the Republic against Caesar.

5) ***Marcus Tullius Cicero***: Neutral. Master orator and politician representing the moderate wing. He sought to prevent the conflict between Caesar and Pompey through diplomacy.

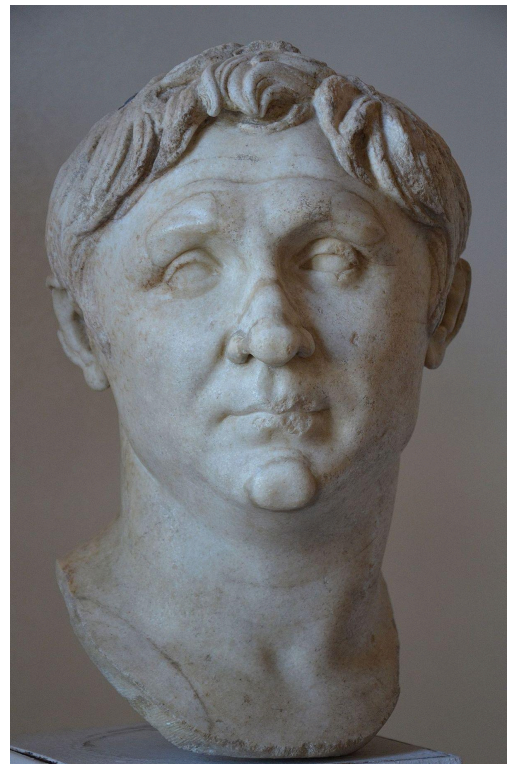
6) ***Metellus Pius Scipio***: Optimates. Father-in-law of Pompey and consul of 52 BC. He was the primary architect of the Senate proposals demanding Caesar's disarmament.

7) ***Marcus Junius Licinus Crassus***: Populares. Son of the wealthy Crassus and member of the Triumvirate. He took military roles under Caesar after his father's death.

8) ***Marcus Calpurnius Bibulus***: Optimates. Caesar's former consular colleague and lifelong political enemy. He served as a naval commander for Pompey to block Caesar's crossings.

9) ***Marcus Junius Brutus***: Optimates. A young senator raised under Caesar's patronage. He became a leader of the conspiracy against Caesar for republican ideals.

10) ***Gaius Claudius Marcellus***: Optimates. Member of the anti-Caesarian Marcelli family and consul of 50 BC. He handed the sword to Pompey to declare Caesar a public enemy.



11) **Appius Claudius Pulcher:** Optimates. Leading defender of the conservative aristocracy. He supported traditional Senate authority within the Optimates faction.

12) **Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus:** Optimates. One of the most loyal and harsh members of the aristocratic faction. He was the primary candidate to replace Caesar as governor of Gaul.

13) **Quintus Hortensius Hortalus:** Optimates. One of the greatest orators and legal defenders of the conservatives. At the end of his life, he was known for luxury and legal cases.

14) **Lucius Cornelius Lentulus:** Optimates. Consul of 49 BC who favored war for his own economic interests. He was among those who issued the harshest decrees against Caesar.

15) **Publius Servilius Vatia:** Optimates. Respected statesman and former consul. He played a guiding role during Senate crises through his vast experience.

16) **Manius Acilius Glabrio:** Neutral. Maintained a balanced and moderate profile during political conflicts. He avoided cutting ties completely with either faction.

17) **Lucius Aurelius Cotta:** Populares. Prestigious jurist with family ties to Caesar. He attempted to remain neutral in legal matters to preserve state order.

18) **Lucius Julius Caesar:** Neutral. Despite being Caesar's relative, he leaned toward the conservative wing of the Senate. He undertook diplomatic missions to prevent the outbreak of war.

19) **Marcus Antonius:** Populares. Caesar's most trusted commander and vocal representative in the Senate. He used his powers as tribune to veto moves against Caesar.

20) **Gaius Trebonius:** Populares. Soldier elevated by Caesar but later turned against him. He was a key figure in planning the assassination of Caesar.

21) **Gaius Scribonius Curio:** Populares. An influential orator was brought to Caesar's side after his debts were paid. He blocked decrees against Caesar by proposing simultaneous disarmament.

22) **Quintus Cassius Longinus:** Populares. Caesar's governor in Spain was a loyal supporter. His harsh administration and pro-Caesarian stance caused unrest in the province.

23) **Publius Cornelius Lentulus:** Optimates. Defended Senate authority as a member of the traditionalist wing. He played an active role in the conservative bloc against Caesar's rise.

24) **Lucius Marcius Philippus:** Neutral. Stepfather of Octavian and ally of Caesar. He secured his family and position by remaining neutral during the civil war.

25) **Gaius Cassius Longinus:** Optimates. Pompey's naval commander and a chief architect of the assassination. He fought against Caesar to preserve the aristocratic structure of the Republic.

26) **Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus:** Populares. One of Caesar's most successful commanders in Gaul and a close friend. Despite this, he joined the conspirators and led Caesar to his death.

27) **Publius Cornelius Dolabella:** Populares. Caesar's son-in-law was an ambitious populist politician. He instigated riots in Rome with demands such as debt cancellation.

28) **Quintus Tullius Cicero:** Optimates. Brother of the famous Cicero and former legatus of Caesar. He joined the Pompeian side when the war began.

29) **Titus Labienus:** Optimates. Caesar's most talented commander in Gaul, who switched sides in the civil war. He became a major threat to Caesar while fighting for Pompey.

30) **Gaius Junius Claudius Marcellus:** Optimates. Member of the Marcelli family who stood in the anti-Caesarian camp. He defended Senate traditions and aristocratic rights.

31) **Lucius Calpurnius Piso:** Neutral. Caesar's father-in-law was a respected senator. He remained neutral throughout the war, attempting to build bridges between the sides.

32) **Servius Sulpicius Galba:** Optimates. A former officer of Caesar who turned against him after failing to receive a promotion. He joined the conspiracy out of personal vengeance.

33) **Publius Vatinius:** Populares. Loyal supporter who used harsh methods to implement Caesar's orders in the Senate. He was accused of bribery by traditionalist senators.

34) **Quintus Fufius Calenus:** Populares. Known as one of Caesar's most loyal political enforcers. He defended Caesar's laws against all pressure from the opposition.

35) **Gaius Sosius:** Populares. Consul of 32 BC and one of Mark Antony's most loyal supporters. He defended Antony's rights against Octavian in the Senate.

36) **Lucius Munatius Plancus:** Neutral. A statesman known for switching sides according to the political wind. He served Caesar, Antony, and finally Octavian to protect his career.

37) **Marcus Calpurnius Piso:** Populares. Renowned orator and jurist of the period. Before the civil war, he suggested reconciliation instead of dismissing Caesar's army.

38) **Publius Junius Cornelius Lentulus (Spinther):** Optimates. Consul of 54 BC and loyal member of the Optimates faction. He lobbied in the Senate to restrict Caesar's provincial powers.

39) Gaius Furnius: Populares. Friend of Caesar and a close correspondent of Cicero. Though he tried to mediate, he eventually joined Caesar's side.

40) Aulus Hirtius: Populares. Military advisor and close confidant of Caesar. After Caesar's death, he fought at Mutina to protect the Republic.

41) Lucius Cornelius Balbus: Populares. Caesar's most trusted financial advisor and private secretary. His rise as a non-Roman citizen caused resentment among conservative senators.

42) Marcus Aemilius Lepidus: Populares. Caesar's master of the horse and member of the Second Triumvirate. He used his military power to maintain peace in post-Caesar Rome.

43) Lucius Scribonius Libo: Optimates. Father-in-law of Pompey and his naval commander in the civil war. He was an intermediary who attempted to conduct peace talks during the conflict.

44) Lucius Manlius Torquatus: Optimates. Loyal defender of the Optimates faction and close friend of Marcus Cato. He fought at the forefront of the political and military struggle against Caesar.

45) Lucius Caesar: Neutral. Caesar's relative who leaned toward the Senate's traditionalist wing. He undertook embassy duties to prevent the outbreak of war.

46) Gaius Claudius Marcellus (Younger): Optimates. Opposed Caesar's power in accordance with family tradition. He prioritized the preservation of Republican institutions.

47) Caius Cassius Parmensis: Optimates. One of the conspirators in the assassination and a poet. He saw the assassination as the only way for the Republic.

48) Gaius Julius Caesar: Populares. Conqueror of Gaul and general aiming for absolute power. He crossed the Rubicon and started the civil war by rejecting Senate orders.

49) Sextus Pompeius: Optimates. Son of Pompey the Great and leader of Republican naval resistance. He controlled Sicily and cut off Rome's supply lines.

50) Faustus Cornelius Sulla: Optimates. Son of the dictator Sulla and son-in-law of Pompey. He fought against Caesar within the Optimates faction following family tradition.



- 51) Panaetius:** Neutral. A Stoic philosopher is mentioned in the list. He was a key figure who introduced Greek philosophy to the Roman aristocracy.
- 52) Marcus Favonius:** Optimates. Most loyal follower of Marcus Cato and spokesperson for the conservative wing. He was known for his extreme commitment to his principles.
- 53) Gaius Considius Longus:** Optimates. Commanded Pompeian forces in the province of Africa. He was the organizer of local resistance against Caesar.
- 54) Gaius Coponius:** Optimates. Managed naval operations as one of Pompey's fleet commanders. He provided technical support to the Republican military strategy.
- 55) Volumnius Flaccus:** Optimates. Military figure who served under Pompey. He held technical responsibilities in logistics and military operations during the civil war.
- 56) Lucius Lucceius:** Optimates. Famous historian of the period and a close friend of Pompey. He was known for recording political events rather than active military service.
- 57) Marcus Porcius Cato Jr.:** Optimates. Harsh defender of Republican ideals. He became a symbol by choosing suicide over surrendering to Caesar's tyranny.
- 58) Lucius Julius Libo:** Optimates. Former Roman noble and statesman. He remained committed to conservative Senate traditions throughout his political career.
- 59) Manius Aemilius Lepidus:** Neutral. Consul of 66 BC who followed a moderate policy. He defended order by avoiding extremes during the Civil War.
- 60) Lucius Volcaciuss Tullus:** Neutral. Consul of 66 BC who remained neutral during the civil war. He did not provide active support to any military faction.
- 61) Gaius Cassius Longinus (Younger):** Optimates. One of the military brains of the anti-Caesarian movement. He fought for the continuation of the Republican order.
- 62) Marcus Valerius Messalla Niger:** Optimates. Consul of 61 BC and a renowned orator. He served as a balancing figure within the Senate.
- 63) Marcus Pupius Piso Calpurnianus:** Optimates. Ally of Pompey and consul of 61 BC. He stood by Pompey during the eastern campaigns.
- 64) Gnaeus Cornelius Lentulus:** Optimates. Consul of 56 BC and member of the Optimates. He joined the bloc opposing Caesar's policies.

65) **Marcus Perperna:** Neutral. Consul of 92 BC and one of the oldest members of the Senate. He served as a consultant and memory for the Senate during crises.

66) **Lucius Caninius Gallus:** Populares. Politician aligned with the Antonian and Caesarian line. He shaped his career according to the dominant power centers.

67) **Quintus Minucius Thermus:** Optimates. Pompeian governor and commander. He served in the defense of Italy before retreating to the East.

68) **Gaius Lucilius Hirrus:** Optimates. Envoy conducting diplomacy on behalf of Pompey. He was sent to the Parthian Kingdom to gather support against Caesar.

69) **Lucius Calpurnius Piso:** Neutral. Caesar's father-in-law and respected senator. He communicated with both sides during the war to seek peace.

70) **Lucius Afranius:** Optimates. Veteran general and consul of 60 BC who served as Pompey's primary legatus. He commanded the Republican forces in Spain and remained a senior military leader for the Optimates until the end of the civil war.

71) **Lucullus Pompeius Hirtius:** *Populares. An underestimated senator from the Optimates. To rise in Rome, he chose the Populares side.*

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