



CALMUN'24

Historical Cabinet

**The Assassination of Julius
Caesar**



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Glossary

Etruria and Latium: These were two ancient sites in Italy during the Roman Republic and the Roman Empire. Etruria was located in central Italy, north of Latium, and was inhabited by the Etruscans. Latium was the region where Rome was located and was inhabited by Latins, including the Romans.

Carthage: Carthage was an ancient city located on the northern coast of Africa, near modern-day Tunisia. After the Third Punic War, the city passed to the Roman Republic. Over time, the city was rebuilt by the Romans and years later it became an important center of the Roman Empire.

Valeria-Horatia Laws: The Valerio-Horatian laws are three laws adopted by the Roman consuls Lucius Valerius Poplicola Potitus and Marcus Horatius Barbatus, which restored the people's right of objection and took measures in favour of the plebeians.

Augur: A religious official who observed natural signs, especially the behaviour of birds, interpreting these as an indication of divine approval or disapproval of a proposed action.

Pontiff : a pope (leader of the Roman Catholic Church)

Pontifex Maximus: He is the highest priest of the Pontifical College, one of the ancient Roman state religious institutions.

Introduction

Rome stands as a huge empire, encompassing diverse territories and ethnicities. For the ordinary Roman citizen, their world is confined to this singular civilization, surrounded by menacing barbarian tribes to the north, expansive waters to the west, arid desolation to the south, and the nearby and perilous Parthian Empire to the east. A pronounced social hierarchy is present, from enslaved individuals to the wealthy elite. While social mobility is a mainstay of the empire, equal distribution of power has never been extremely successful, with the plebeians often receiving very little representation and the wealthy controlling most of the government. The vastness of its borders requires Rome to have a massive standing army, and it is through military expeditions that Romans have been able to gain glory and prestige, such as Caesar did when he conquered Gaul.

On the fateful Ides of March, Rome has been irrevocably shaken by the brutal stabbing of Julius Caesar, its once-powerful dictator, within the very halls of the Senate. Shock and bewilderment hang heavy in the air, mixed with the stench of spilled blood and the echoes of desperate cries. The assassins, a group of prominent senators led by Brutus and Cassius, claim action for the sake of the Republic, fearing Caesar's growing disregard for its traditions and his path towards autocracy. However, the ramifications of this act are far-reaching and uncertain. The brutal assassination of Julius Caesar plunged the Republic into a state of unprecedented chaos and uncertainty. The Senate, once the bastion of Roman power, now stands fractured and leaderless.

The Constitution of the Republic

a. Senate

The powers of the Senate derived from the prestige and prestige of the senators. This dignity and prestige were based on both precedent and tradition, as well as on the calibre and reputation of the senators. The Senate issued decrees called "senatus consulta". Officially, these were recommendations from the Senate to a magistrate, but in practice magistrates often relied on them. Throughout the Middle Republic and the expansion of Rome, the senate became more dominant in the state. As the only institution with the expertise to govern the empire effectively, the Senate controlled state finances, the appointment of judges, foreign affairs, and the deployment of military forces. This institution, which was also a powerful religious body, received reports of prophecies and directed Roman responses to them.

2. Century, when its privileges began to be challenged, the Senate lost its customary prior approval for legislation. Moreover, following the precedent set by the murder of Gaius Gracchus in 121 BC, the senate claimed to have assumed the power to issue *Senatus Consumum Ultimium*. such decrees directed judges to take whatever actions were necessary to protect the state, regardless of legality, and signaled the Senate's willingness to support that judge if such actions were later challenged in the courts.

Its members were usually appointed by the censors who selected the newly elected judges to be members of the Senate, making it a partially elected body. Status was not hereditary and there were always some new men, but the sons of old judges found it easier to get elected to

qualified judgeships. In emergencies, a dictator could be appointed to appoint senators (as was done after the Battle of Cannae). but by the end of the republic, people like Caesar and members of the Second Triumvirate had usurped these powers for themselves.

b. Legislative Assemblies

It was the people of Rome - the legislative assemblies - who had the final say on the election of the Magistra, new laws, the execution of capital punishment, the declaration of war and peace, and the making or breaking of alliances. There were two types of legislative assemblies. The first was the *comitia* (committees), the councils of all citizens, and the second was the *concilia* ("councils"), the councils of specific groups of citizens.

i. Comitia Centuriata

Citizens were formed on the basis of *Chenturia* and tribes. The *Chenturias* and tribunes met in their own councils. The Comitia Centuriata was made up of centurions. The president of the Comitia Centuriata was usually a consul. The *Chenturians* would vote one by one until they had the support of their majority. The Comitia Centuriata elected magistrates (consuls and pretors) with imperium power. The censors were also chosen by this board. Only the Comitia Centuriata could declare war and approve the results of a census. It has also served as the highest court of appeal in certain types of cases.

ii. Comitia Tributa

The council of tribunes, the Comitia Tributa, was headed by a consul and was composed of thirty-five tribunes. Tribunes were not ethnic or kinship clusters, but rather geographical divisions. Thirty-five tribunes would vote for the line-up, chosen by random lottery. Once there was support from a majority of the tribunes, the vote was over. The Comitia Tributa, while not enacting many laws; would choose the *kukestors*, the establishment's adeles, and the military tribunes.

iii. Plebeian Council

Plebeian Council; of plebeians, non-patrician Roman citizens, who gathered in their own tribunes. They elected their own officials, the plebeian tribunes and plebeian adeles. Usually, a plebeian tribune presided over the assembly. It enforced many laws and could also serve as

an appellate court. Since it was formed on the basis of tribunes, its rules and procedures were almost identical to those of the Comitia Tributa.

c. Magistrates

Roman magistrates were elected officials of the Roman Republic. Every Roman magistrate had some degree of authority. Dictators (a temporary position for emergencies) had the ultimate power. After the dictator came the consul (the highest position unless there was an emergency), then the praetor, then the censor, then the curule aedile, and finally the quaestor. Each magistrate could only veto a decision made by a magistrate of equal or lesser power. Since the plebeian tribunes (as well as the plebeian aediles) were not technically judges, they relied on the sanctity of their person to obstruct. If the orders of a Plebeian Tribune were disobeyed, the Tribune could invoke the sanctity of his person (*intercessio*) to physically stop the action in question. Any resistance to the tribune was considered a capital offense.

Each republican magistrate had certain constitutional powers. Only the Roman People (both plebeians and patricians) had the right to offer these powers to any individual magistrate. The greatest constitutional power was the imperium. Both consuls and praetors had imperium. The Imperium authorized a magistrate to command a military force. All magistrates also had the power of coercion. This was used by magistrates to maintain public order. In Rome, all citizens had a judicial power against oppression. This protection was called *provocatio*. Moreover, it was both a power and a duty for magistrates to look into the oracles. This power was often used to suppress political opponents.

One of the checks on a magistrate's power was his colleagues. There were at least two people in each magistral office simultaneously. Another check on a magistrate's power was *provocatio*. *Provocatio* was a primitive form of legal procedure. If any magistrate attempted to use the powers of the state against a citizen, the citizen could appeal the magistrate's decision to a tribune. Furthermore, once a magister's yearly term in office had expired, he had to wait ten years before he could serve in that office again. Since this created problems for some consuls and praetors, these magistrates sometimes had their imperium extended. In fact, they withheld the powers of the office without being officially present in that office.

The **consulship** of the Roman Republic was the highest ordinary rank of *magistra*; each consul served for one year. The consuls had supreme power in both civil and military matters. In the city of Rome, the consuls were the heads of the Roman government. They presided over the Senate and councils. Abroad, each consul commanded an army. Abroad, his powers were almost absolute.

Pretors administered public law and commanded the provincial armies. Every five years, two censors were elected for a period of eighteen months. During their term in office, two censors would conduct a census. During the census, they could enroll citizens in the Senate or purge citizens from the Senate.

The **Adeles** were officials elected in Rome to run internal affairs, such as the management of public games and performances.

The **Quaestor** often assisted the consuls in Rome and the governors in the provinces. They are responsible for the state treasury, and criminal and financial affairs.

The **tribunes** were sacred because they were the embodiment of the plebeians. This sanctity was fulfilled by an oath taken by the plebeians, which required them to kill anyone who had harmed or clashed with a tribune during his term in office. All the power of the tribunes derived from this sanctity. This is a clear significance of holiness; the fact that harming a tribune, ignoring his veto, or clashing with him was a capital offense.

In times of military emergency, a **dictator** was appointed for a six-month term. The constitutional government would be dissolved and the dictator would become the absolute head of state. At the end of the dictator's term, a constitutional government would be re-established.

Historical Background of the Roman Republic

The Roman Republic refers to the era during which the city-state of Rome functioned as a republic, representing one of the earliest instances of representative democracy globally.

a. Previous to the Republic

Founded around 625 BCE in the regions of ancient Italy encompassing Etruria and Latium, Rome's origin is believed to stem from the collaboration of Latium villagers and settlers from the surrounding hills, possibly prompted by an [Etruscan](#) invasion. The exact nature of their coming together, whether in defence or submission to Etruscan rule, remains unclear. Archaeological findings suggest a significant period of change and unity around 600 BCE, likely culminating in the establishment of Rome as a bona fide city.

The first phase in Roman history, named the Period of Kings, extended from the city's foundation until 509 BCE. Throughout this relatively brief era, Rome, under the leadership of at least six kings, experienced military and economic advancements, including territorial expansion, enhanced military prowess, and growth in the production and trade of various goods, such as oil lamps. Politically, this period witnessed the nascent development of the Roman constitution. The conclusion of the Period of Kings coincided with the waning influence of the Etruscans, marking the onset of Rome's Republican Period.

b. Early Republic

The establishment of the Roman Republic followed the overthrow of the Roman kingdom in 509 BCE. In that pivotal year, the noblemen of Rome deposed King Lucius Tarquinius Superbus. Subsequently, Rome faced a siege by Lars Porsenna, the king of Clusium, prompting the city to forge a support treaty with Carthage. To manage the evolving political landscape, a new authority known as the consul was instituted.

The shift from monarchy to republic triggered significant internal social tensions, creating a lack of control over Rome. This vulnerability led neighbouring tribes to besiege the city, diminishing its power. Consequently, Rome had to reaffirm its identity on multiple occasions during the initial seventy years of the Republic.

The early years of the Republic were marked by political upheaval as the population remained divided. Some advocated for a monarchy, others favored a republic, some supported King Lars Porsenna, and others sought integration into the Latin civilization. The nobles who had ousted the king and his family struggled to reach a consensus on the form of government to replace the monarchy.

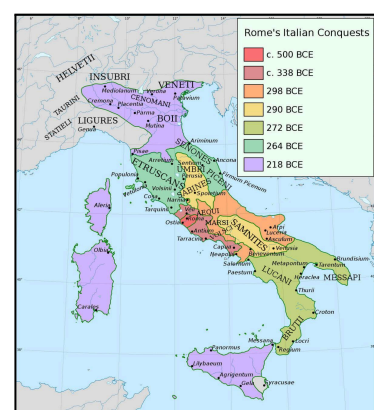
The implementation of consuls, who would later supplant the Roman kings' leadership, did not occur immediately but was delayed by several years. Historians posit that, initially, a praetor maximus was appointed for a one-year term during the early stages of the Roman Republic. Eventually, this role evolved into a dual consulship, with two consuls governing Rome simultaneously, a system that endured until 449 BCE with the enactment of the Valeria Horatia law.

Political instability during this period led to the formation of alliances among the strongest factions. By 485 BCE, the patricians restricted commoners from participating in the government, solidifying their control over both civil and religious matters.

c. Mid-Republic

The mid-Roman Republic, which lasted from the 4th century BCE to the late 1st century BCE was a significant period characterised by political, social, and military advancements that paved the way for the eventual transition to the Roman Empire. Here's an overview of the events that took place during this era;

- 1. Conflict of the Orders (367–287 BCE):** The Conflict of the Orders refers to a prolonged clash between two groups; the patricians (aristocrats) and the plebeians (commoners). The plebeians aimed to achieve equality and safeguard their rights. As a response, several institutions were established during this time to address their concerns among them being the creation of the Tribune of the Plebs.
- 2. The Punic Wars (264-146 BCE):** The Punic Wars played a role, in shaping Rome's future as they were fought against Carthage, a city-state. Rome's control, over Sicily, was established during the First Punic War (264 241 BCE). Hannibal's renowned crossing of the Alps and subsequent campaigns, in Italy distinguished the Second Punic War (218 201 BCE). The Third Punic War (149 146 BCE) ultimately led to the annihilation of Carthage.
- 3. Conquest of Italy (343-264 BCE):** Rome continued its expansion throughout Italy by engaging in a series of wars known as the



Samnite Wars and Latin War. Gradually through treaties and alliances, Rome asserted its dominance over neighbouring regions. Incorporated them into its state.

4. **Marian Reforms (107-86 BCE):** Gaius Marius, a prominent military leader, implemented significant military reforms, including the professionalisation of the Roman army and the recruitment of landless citizens. This increased the loyalty of soldiers to their commanders rather than the Roman state.
5. **Sulla's Dictatorship (82-79 BCE):** Lucius Cornelius Sulla, a rival of Marius, became dictator after a series of civil conflicts. Sulla's dictatorship marked a departure from traditional Roman political norms, as he purged political opponents and increased the power of the Roman Senate.

d. The Life of Caesar

Gaius Julius Caesar, born in 100 BCE to the Julii family, claimed divine descent. Early experiences in common Rome shaped his advocacy for the common man, influenced by his father's death and Aunt Julia's marriage to Gaius Marius. Rome's political turmoil, marked by Marius and Sulla's rivalry, deeply impacted his formative years. Surviving Sulla's proscription, Caesar defied Sulla's demand to divorce, setting the stage for his future endeavors.

Pardoned by Sulla, Caesar went to Asia in 80 BC, participating in military missions and gaining honors. Returning to Rome, he excelled as a trial attorney, earning a reputation as a *populares* champion. In 75 BC, Caesar's capture by pirates showcased his resourcefulness. Defending Roman Asia against Mithridates, he garnered support for his service. Returning to Rome in 73 BC, Caesar's alliance with Crassus and marriage to Pompeia solidified his political standing.

Despite Senate opposition, Caesar's bold approach elevated his popularity. In 63 BCE, financial troubles led him to become *Pontifex Maximus*. Winning the office of urban Praetor, the Catiline Conspiracy erupted, highlighting Rome's tensions. Caesar's political maneuvers continued, leading to the [First Triumvirate](#) with Crassus and Pompey. His consulship in 59

BCE saw significant legislative achievements, setting the stage for his transformative role in Roman history.

In the late 50s and early 50s BCE, Julius Caesar, along with Crassus and Pompey, formed the First Triumvirate, reshaping Roman politics. Caesar's strategic moves and legislative successes, supported by his allies, set the stage for future military campaigns. As governor of Spain, Caesar paid off debts and achieved military victories, enhancing his reputation.

Caesar's campaigns in Gaul began in 59 BCE. Faced with Germanic and Gallic threats, he secured alliances and decisively defeated the Helvetii. The Battle of Vosges stabilised the region, and subsequent victories over the Belgae solidified Roman control. In 55 BCE, Caesar faced Germanic challenges, crossed the Rhine, and invaded Britain in 55 and 54 BCE. Despite initial difficulties, he secured partial victories and expanded Roman influence. The Gallic Revolt erupted in 53 BCE, led by Vercingetorix. Despite setbacks at Gergovia, Caesar's tactical brilliance eventually gained control, setting the stage for continued conflicts and political turmoil in Rome. A while later, Julius Caesar encountered challenges in Gaul (A Western European region of great strategic importance), facing setbacks at Gergovia but regaining control through strategic maneuvers and victories against the Paris and Senones. Seeking Germanic support, Caesar built a bridge across the Allier, countering an attack by Vercingetorix and achieving victory. The Siege of Alesia showcased Caesar's brilliance, with double walls effectively defending against Gaulish resistance. Despite a relief force, Vercingetorix surrendered, marking a turning point in the Gallic Wars. Subsequently, Caesar addressed the remaining revolts in Gaul, employing disciplined legions to subdue tribes. Winter challenges were overcome, and a Senate-approved festival celebrated his triumphs. The final battle at Uxellodunum showcased Caesar's ruthless tactics, crushing the last resistance. The Gallic Wars concluded with Caesar establishing Roman dominance over Gaul.

Simultaneously, in the mid-1st century BCE, Caesar faced opposition in Rome, leading to a political standoff. The Senate, aligned with Pompey, rejected peace proposals, declared Caesar a public enemy, and triggered his crossing of the Rubicon in 49 BCE. The ensuing civil war unfolded in various theaters, with Caesar securing victories in Hispania while Pompey retreated to Greece. Caesar's popularity and strategic brilliance undermined Senate support, leading to the capture of Massilia and Rome. The Senate's miscalculations resulted in a loss of credibility, shifting the people's loyalty to Caesar, and marking a significant turning point in Roman history.

In 48 BCE, Caesar achieved significant victories in Hispania, weakening Pompey's position. Returning to Rome, he became Consul for the year. Despite initial hopes for peace, news of Curio's defeat in Africa prompted Caesar to believe victory in the field was necessary. He resigned as dictator, gathered his legions, and headed to Brundisium, preparing to confront the remaining Republican forces led by Pompey.

In 48 BCE, Caesar arrived in Alexandria, Egypt, embroiled in the power struggles between Cleopatra and her brother Ptolemy XIII. After supporting Cleopatra, Caesar faced the Alexandrian War, dealing with internal conflicts and challenges from Ptolemy's forces. Cleopatra emerged victorious, solidifying her rule in Egypt. Following the Alexandrian War, Caesar and Cleopatra strengthened their relationship. In 47 BCE, Caesar confronted Pharnaces in the East, achieving a swift victory at the Battle of Zela. His return to Rome marked an increase in power, with honors and titles, although tensions rose over concerns of Caesar assuming the title of king.

Despite Caesar's rejection of the title, conspiracies against him grew. In 44 BCE, the opposition, including those previously pardoned by Caesar, aimed to prevent his campaign to Dacia and Parthia. The political landscape in Rome became complex, setting the stage for the conspiratorial actions that would lead to Caesar's assassination.

Structures in the Republic

a. Social Hierarchy

In ancient Rome, the social structure was hierarchical, featuring multiple overlapping hierarchies that made an individual's relative position complex. The status of freeborn Romans during the Republic depended on factors such as ancestry, census rank, gender, and citizenship grades. These different classes conferred various rights and privileges, including voting and marriage rights.

Traditionally, patricians belonged to the upper class, while plebeians were considered lower class. Economic disparities led to the creation of these classes, but over time, the hereditary nature of the divide became more pronounced. Despite this, by the second century BC, the

distinction between patricians and plebeians began to fade, merging into a more unified class. Patricians, as the upper class, controlled the best land, dominated the Roman senate, and exclusively held the office of the censor. They engaged in a *clientela* system, forming strong relationships with plebeian clients who provided services in exchange for support in times of war.

Plebeians, the majority of Roman citizens, were laborers and farmers often tied to patricians through the *clientela* system. Although initially barred from marrying patricians, their civil rights increased over time, and some plebeian families achieved wealth and power.

Roman society was patriarchal, with the *pater familias* (the father of the family) holding special legal powers and privileges over the entire household. Free-born women were citizens but lacked political rights, being under the control of their *pater familias*. Marriages involved various forms, with *matrimonium in manu* becoming the standard by the end of the second century CE, granting women more autonomy over their property and the ability to initiate divorce. The legal status of a mother as a citizen influenced her son's citizenship, distinguishing Roman women from *peregrina*.

b. Military

During the period from 335 to 325 BC, the Romans underwent a comprehensive military reform known as the Manipular Reform. This involved abandoning traditional hoplite tactics and restructuring the Roman legion into smaller, more flexible sub-units called manipuli. The reform was prompted by the inadequacies of phalanx formations in the challenging terrain of southern Italy. Inspired by the military organisation of the Samnites, the Romans adopted manipuli, each consisting of 60 warriors, offering increased flexibility on the battlefield.

To address deficiencies in their infantry and weaponry, the Romans replaced their hoplite spears with javelins and reorganised their troops into three categories: *hastati* (young and agile), *principes* (strong and well-trained), and *triarii* (experienced veterans). The original five classes based on economic background were replaced by age and combat experience, resulting in a more dynamic system. A manipular legion comprised 45 manipuli, with 15 each of *hastati*, *principes*, and *triarii*, totaling 2,700 medium/heavy infantrymen.

The Roman Army expanded significantly after the dissolution of the Latin League, transforming two Servian legions into four manipular legions. Each consular army comprised

two legions, consisting of 9,600 infantry and 600 cavalry, with a total Roman Army strength of 19,200 infantry and 1,200 cavalry.

Allies of Rome, known as *alae sociorum*, adopted the manipular system, contributing 5,700 soldiers (4,800 infantry and 900 cavalry) per legion. By the time of the Second Samnite War, allies provided an impressive force of 22,800 soldiers, combining with Roman forces for a total of 43,300 combatants.

Facing challenges from Hellenistic armies, the Romans initiated a new military reform. The manipulus size was increased from 60 to 120 soldiers. The revised manipular legion deployed on three lines, with the proportions of heavy infantry to light infantry changing. The infantry of a new manipular legion consisted of 4,200 men. In times of national emergency, the legion's infantry could also be expanded to 5,100 men.

c. Religion

Religion in the Roman Republic was more than just a set of beliefs and rituals. It was intertwined with society; influencing politics, warfare, and daily life. At the heart of Roman religion lay polytheism, with a pantheon of gods and goddesses governing various aspects of life. Jupiter, the supreme deity, embodied authority and justice, while Mars represented war and Venus embodied love and beauty. These deities were not distant figures, but active participants in human affairs, their will deciphered through auspices and omens. Priests, augurs, and haruspices played crucial roles in interpreting these signs, and guiding decision-making and religious practices.

Public rituals and festivals formed the backbone of religious life. Sacrifices, prayers, and processions aimed to appease the gods and garner their favor for military victories, bountiful harvests, and overall prosperity. These public displays further strengthened social cohesion and emphasized the importance of piety within the community.

There was no equivalent principle to the separation of church and state. Individuals elected as public officials could also hold positions as *augurs* and *pontiffs*. Priests were permitted to marry, raise families, and actively participate in political life. Julius Caesar, for instance, assumed the role of *pontifex maximus* before securing his election as consul. Throughout the Republic, religion also served as a potent tool for political legitimacy. Leaders consulted oracles and performed rituals before embarking on campaigns, attributing their victories to

divine favor and bolstering their authority. Conversely, religious failures could be interpreted as signs of divine disapproval, potentially damaging a leader's reputation and political standing. The rise of Julius Caesar and his eventual assassination further intertwined religion with politics. Caesar, adopting titles and symbols associated with divinity, fueled concerns about his ambitions and potential for monarchy. His assassination, partly motivated by fears of breaking religious traditions and angering the gods, highlighted the explosive mix of religion and political power during this turbulent period.



Pontifex Maximus Performing Rituals

The Assassination of Julius Caesar

a. Events Leading to the Assassination

The Ides of March, 44 BC, witnessed more than a spontaneous act of violence in the assassination of Julius Caesar; it marked the conclusion of an intricate journey driven by ambition, political strategies, and triumphant military endeavors. To unravel the reasons behind Caesar's dramatic downfall, we need to explore his remarkable accomplishments, strategic alliances, and the fissures that emerged within the meticulously constructed foundation of his power.

i. The Rise of Caesar

Caesar's journey began with a distinguished lineage, placing him amidst Rome's political elite. He possessed a natural charisma and talent for oratory, which he honed early on. On the

battlefield, Caesar was seen as a prodigy and his military prowess was undeniable, as evidenced by his successful campaigns in Gaul. His campaigns in Gaul, spanning a decade, expanded Roman territory and enriched the coffers of the Republic. His victories were swift and decisive, garnering him immense popularity with his legions. Caesar's soldiers witnessed his courage, strategic brilliance, and willingness to share in the hardships of war, fostering an unyielding loyalty that would become a crucial component of his rise. However, these victories also sowed the seeds of discontent. Caesar's growing power and popularity threatened established factions within the Senate, particularly the Optimates, who clung to traditional ideals and feared the rise of a single, powerful leader.

Caesar's political maneuvering further exacerbated these tensions. He formed a powerful alliance with Pompey and Crassus, known as the First Triumvirate, which effectively divided power between them. This alliance, while initially successful, eventually fractured, leading to a civil war between Caesar and Pompey. Caesar emerged victorious, crossing the Rubicon River and marching on Rome. This act, considered a violation of Republican norms, further alienated his opponents and solidified their resolve to remove him from power. The senators started to fear Caesar's defiance of their norms. His military triumphs, once celebrated, now fueled fears of dictatorship. His political cunning, while securing his ascent, had sowed the seeds of discontent among the very institutions he claimed to uphold. It was during this period as Dictator that Caesar's actions truly ignited the flames of opposition. He implemented reforms that centralized power, bypassed the Senate, and granted him unprecedented authority.

ii. Concerns and Opposition

One of the primary reasons behind Caesar's assassination was the alarming concentration of power in his hands. Caesar's unparalleled military successes, most notably in Hispania and against Pompey, had solidified his dominance in the Roman military. As he extended his influence over the legions, his appointment as dictator *perpetuo* (dictator in perpetuity) raised concerns about his ambitions to centralize authority. Holding governorships in key provinces further fueled apprehensions, as it granted him immense wealth and control over vast territories. The accumulation of religious titles, such as Pontifex Maximus, also contributed to Caesar's growing power, blurring the lines between the secular and the sacred. This

consolidation of authority triggered anxieties among those who feared a shift towards autocracy, threatening the traditional balance of power in the Roman Republic.

Caesar's actions, notably his crossing of the Rubicon River and the defeat of Pompey, marked a turning point in the erosion of the Republic's institutions. The crossing of the Rubicon, a symbolic act defying the Senate's authority, underscored Caesar's disregard for established norms. The subsequent victory over Pompey not only eliminated a political rival but also showcased the vulnerability of the Republic's checks and balances. Caesar's ascent to power through military conquest rather than traditional political processes eroded the foundation of the Roman Republic, fostering an environment of uncertainty and instability.

Various opposition groups coalesced against Caesar, each driven by distinct concerns. Conservative Senators, adhering to the principles of the Republic, feared the emergence of tyranny and the potential loss of their political influence. The Pompeians, remnants of Pompey's defeated forces, sought revenge for their leader's demise, viewing Caesar as a usurper. Additionally, citizens were apprehensive about the erosion of their liberties under a centralized authority added to the opposition. This multifaceted resistance reflected the diverse challenges Caesar faced, ranging from political adversaries within the Senate to disgruntled factions seeking retribution.

iii. Dictatorship and Monarchical Fears

In the Roman Republic, the senatorial roles were assigned for one year in order to avoid the senators gaining extreme power for a longer period. With Caesar fighting and eventually winning the latest civil war, he became a powerful individual. However his supposedly "one year rule" turned into a decade. After Caesar refused to relinquish his dictatorship, despite initial assurances that it would be temporary, he was addressed as "dictator for life." Dictatorship has historically been usually associated with kingship. Rome had never experienced a lifelong dictator, let alone one ruling for a decade. This sparked suspicion among senators, leading to fear. Despite the ruler's attempts to sway the Roman people, especially the nobility, they remained unconvinced. The elite concluded that Caesar aimed to become an "uncrowned king of Rome," leaving the traditional nobility with mere titles and no genuine power.

Some also interpreted his involvement with Egypt's Queen Cleopatra as a threat. During that time Egypt was ruled by monarchy and in the eyes of the senators Caesar's connection with a Queen was not only morally wrong but also was a potential step towards monarchy. In March 44 B.C. Cleopatra lived in Caesar's villa on the outskirts of Rome. Her young son was Caesar's illegitimate child, which would make him the perfect prince. The adoption of the Egyptian-style calendar was also seen as a sign of a desire for a monarchy akin to Egypt's. It is also known that Caesar's acceptance of honors like golden laurel wreaths and a golden chair also fueled the fears of monarchical aspirations.



Caesar with a laurel wreath

b. Ides of March

While whispers of discontent surrounding Julius Caesar's growing power had already permeated the Senate, the specific planning for his assassination on the Ides of March did not occur overnight. It was a gradual process, unfolding in stages marked by secrecy, coded messages, and meticulously chosen moments.

i. Planning and Coordination

Early 44 B.C. Gaius Cassius Longinus, fueled by personal animosity and political opposition to Caesar, began sounding out trusted senators like Marcus Junius Brutus, stressing to their republican ideals and anxieties about Caesar's increasing authority. Under the cloak of darkness, small gatherings took place in private homes and gardens, with participants swearing oaths of secrecy on statues of liberty. Initial discussions likely focused on gauging interest and exploring the feasibility of an assassination attempt. Subtle efforts were made to

test the political climate – cryptic pronouncements, coded messages, and seemingly innocuous inquiries aimed at assessing public opinion and potential support for a drastic action.

As initial discussions bore fruit, more senators were cautiously recruited, each chosen for their specific skills, influence, or grievances against Caesar. Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus, surprisingly close to Caesar, was brought in, adding an air of betrayal to the plot. A detailed assassination plan was hatched. A bold plan was made to surround Caesar and stab him to death during a meeting in the Senate. Plans were also made to reduce the amount of protection given to Caesar and to monitor potential allies. The significance of the Ides of March, coinciding with a full moon and the Lupercalia festival, provided the perfect cover for an unusual gathering and potential explanations for unusual behavior surrounding the event.



The Assassination of Julius Caesar

ii. The Death of Julius Caesar

On the morning of March 15, 44 BC, the Ides of March, Julius Caesar woke up to his wife Calpurnia's distress. She had experienced nightmares foretelling danger, marking the final meeting between Caesar and the Senate before his intended departure for Parthia in three

days. Although Caesar desired to attend the session to finalize his agenda, his wife's apprehension, possibly influenced by Caesar's potential illness, compelled him to take heed. Sending a message to Antony to dismiss the Senate based on unfavorable omens, Caesar opted to prioritize his wife's concerns over the Senate meeting.

Simultaneously, the Senate gathered at Pompey's theatre, likely intending to confer upon Caesar the title of king of all Roman territory outside Italy. The conspirators planned to assassinate Caesar upon his arrival, using concealed daggers. Gaius Trebonius aimed to engage Antony in conversation to keep him occupied outside the theatre, though suspicions arose regarding Antony's involvement.

The conspirators had envisioned gladiators nearby to control potential chaos, but their lack of a concrete plan to seize control became apparent after the murder. As morning passed and Caesar failed to appear, panic loomed among the conspirators, as this was the only opportune time for the plot. Decimus Brutus, Caesar's close friend, was dispatched to persuade him to attend the Senate meeting. Exploiting Caesar's dignity and mocking the priestly auspices, Decimus downplayed Calpurnia's dreams and appealed to Caesar's vanity by suggesting the Senate's readiness to proclaim him king. Convinced, Caesar set out with Decimus Brutus, despite his wife's pleas. While praetors Marcus Junius Brutus and Gaius Cassius Longinus conducted state affairs in the Senate, Caesar headed to Pompey's theatre. Two notable incidents occurred during his journey: a warning from Artemidorus, thwarted by the crowds, and an encounter with the soothsayer Spurinna.

Entering the Curia of Pompey, Caesar took his place as Senators approached him for various petitions. Unbeknownst to him, 60 conspirators, concealed daggers under their togas, surrounded him. The signal to initiate the attack came when Tillius Cimber petitioned Caesar to pardon his exiled brother, leading to the removal of Caesar's purple robe by Cimber and the subsequent assault. Publius Servilius Casca, positioned behind Caesar, struck first, stabbing him near the neck. In response, Caesar reportedly exclaimed, "*Vile Casca?*" ("Casca what is this?") as he fiercely grabbed Casca's arm, stabbing it with his own pen. The conspirators, including Brutus, wounded Caesar 23 times in a swift and frenzied attack. Despite the onslaught, Caesar maintained dignity by covering his face with the folds of his toga. At the foot of Pompey's statue, Gaius Julius Caesar, aged 55, succumbed to the onslaught on March 15, 44 BC.

The
of



Death
Caesar

iii. The Immediate Aftermath

In the immediate aftermath of Caesar's assassination, Brutus descended from the Capitol to address the public. He reassured the crowd by asserting that the act was undertaken solely to preserve liberty and the Republican system, dispelling fears of widespread proscriptions or power seizures by the conspirators. Dio describes the situation as relatively calm, attributing the conspirators' challenges not to immediate public outrage but to errors in executing their plan. They did not have a concrete strategy to seize control, resulting in an immediate power vacuum that bred uncertainty and anxiety.



Caesar is carried out of the Senate where he had been assassinated

After Caesar's murder, Mark Antony hastily fled Pompey's theater, shedding his consular robe to maintain anonymity for personal safety. While Antony's initial concern was self-preservation, the conspirators had not intended harm to him or anyone other than Caesar. With Caesar gone, Antony emerged as the heir apparent, exploiting the situation to his advantage. Initially adopting a conciliatory stance to bring calm to Rome, Antony's approach changed after the reading of Caesar's will. Realizing that inciting the crowd against Caesar's assassins was his best chance to garner support, he shifted his strategy accordingly.

Following the assassination, Caesar's battered body was taken to his home by slaves. Despite the conspirators' initial plan to confiscate Caesar's property, the scheme was abandoned due to the immediate chaos on the Senate floor.

As family members gathered at Caesar's home to mourn and discuss their fate, Lucius Calpurnius Piso, Caesar's father-in-law, retrieved the dictator's crucial will from the Vestal Virgins, who safeguarded all the wills in Rome. The contents of the will likely shocked those present. Antony, along with other members of Caesar's political circle, was designated a share. The Roman populace was also slated to receive a portion of Caesar's substantial wealth. However, the most surprising revelation was the primary heir — Caesar's 18-year-old and relatively unknown great-nephew, Octavian, waiting in Apollonia to accompany Caesar to Parthia. The world stage awaited the grandson of Caesar's sister, but first, the tumultuous situation in Rome needed resolution.

Roman Republic at the Time of the Assassination

a. Domestic Political Situation

The assassination of Julius Caesar in 44 BCE sent shockwaves through the heart of the Roman Republic, leading to a transformative period of domestic upheaval and political turmoil. At the center of this chaos was the intricate web of power dynamics within Rome, where competing factions and individuals vied for control and sought to shape the future of the republic

i. The Roman Army

At the heart of Rome's geopolitical dynamics was the formidable Roman Army, a force that had been instrumental in expanding and maintaining the vast territories under Roman control. The loyalty of the legions was not only essential for safeguarding the borders of the empire but also for upholding the stability of the government in times of internal brawl. The legions, spread across the far reaches of the Roman territories, served as a symbolic representation of Roman authority and power.

However, the aftermath of Caesar's assassination witnessed a profound shift in the allegiance of the legions. The divisions within Roman society found a reflection in the military ranks, as different legions aligned themselves with political factions that best represented their perceived interests. The loyalty that was once dedicated to the Roman state became fragmented, with individual legions now pledging allegiance to leaders or ideologies that resonated with their particular grievances or aspirations.

This internal fragmentation added a layer of complexity to the already tumultuous domestic geopolitical landscape. Legions stationed in various provinces began to act as autonomous entities, each with its own agenda and loyalties. The schisms within the Roman Army not only mirrored the political divisions in the Senate and among the populace but also exacerbated the challenges faced by those vying for control in the power vacuum left by Caesar's demise.

The consequences of this fractured military landscape were far-reaching. The potential for internal conflicts within the legions, clashes between opposing factions, and the manipulation of military forces for political gain heightened the sense of uncertainty within Rome and beyond. As the once-unified military apparatus now bore the scars of internal discord, the stability of the Roman Republic was shaken.

ii. Social and Economic Impacts

The aftermath of Caesar's assassination had a profound impact not only on Rome's political landscape but also on the daily lives of its people and the city's economic pulse. The once-thriving businesses, which had flourished under the stability of Caesar's rule, now faced uncertainty, causing them to struggle.

Trade, a vital element of Rome's prosperity, took a severe hit. The complex network of trade routes that connected the city to various parts of the Mediterranean experienced disruption as political turmoil raised concerns about the safety and stability of commerce. Merchants, cautious about the unpredictable future, hesitated to participate in trade, fearing potential losses and instability stemming from the power vacuum. This economic downturn didn't stay confined within Rome's boundaries; it had a ripple effect on its trading partners, contributing to a broader regional economic downturn. Beyond Rome's borders, the interconnected economies of the ancient world meant that disruptions in one region had a cascading effect on

others, which is why merchants, also from distant lands, who had once found Rome to be a lucrative market, now reconsidered their involvement in trade with the city. The collective hesitation to invest in an environment marked by political instability had a domino effect on the economies of neighboring states.

On the social front, the emergence of competing factions vying for control heightened tensions among citizens. People found themselves compelled to align with one group or another, deepening existing societal divisions. This polarization pitted supporters of different political ideologies against each other, creating an atmosphere of unease and distrust. People were now confronted with not only political uncertainty but also economic challenges that touched the lives of its diverse populace. The situation was complex, and the repercussions were felt across various aspects of Roman society, requiring a nuanced understanding of the multifaceted issues at play.

iii. Public Opinion and Unrest

The assassination of Caesar was a big deal, not just for Rome's own politics, but also for its reputation in the world. Imagine the city as a buzzing beehive after the news broke. People were in the streets, talking passionately about what had happened and what it meant. Public opinion became a powerful force. Influential people like senators and speakers knew how to use words to win over the Roman people. Senators and speakers were like puppet masters, pulling the strings to navigate public opinion. Some senators supported the assassins, while others tried to find a middle ground to keep things stable. The power struggle wasn't just about who had the biggest army; it was also a battle of words and persuasion.

The citizens, who had just seen their leader murdered, couldn't agree on how to feel. Some were mad at the people who killed Caesar. They liked him and wanted things to stay the same. Others thought Caesar was a threat to the way things should be, and they saw his killers as heroes. This split in opinions created a tense atmosphere in the city. Factions formed, and people took sides based on what they thought about the situation.

The Senate itself also turned into a battleground. Senators fought for their own interests, trying to grab power in the aftermath of Caesar's death. The delicate balance that had kept Rome going for centuries was now hanging by a thread. The future of the nation depended on the decisions made by its political leaders.

iv. Power Vacuum

The political scene at the time was marked by a heated clash between the Senate, representing the old-school Roman elite, and the populists who were backing Caesar's popular changes. After Caesar's downfall, the Roman Senate, used to holding considerable sway, aimed to regain its traditional authority. The Senate was concerned about a powerful leader gathering too much control, and this fear fueled their determination to rein in what they saw as a threat to the stability of the republic. On the flip side, the populists, who had been supported by Caesar, joined forces to defend the socio-political progress made during his rule.

The struggle for power became increasingly apparent as both groups competed for dominance following Caesar's assassination. The Senate, standing for the more conservative elements of Roman society, wanted to bring back the old ways and prevent power from concentrating on one person. In contrast, the populists, who had benefited from Caesar's popular policies, aimed to safeguard and build upon these reforms.

The group that supports Caesar may want to take revenge or they try to ensure the security of the novel by protecting Caesar's legacy. As one of the natural heirs, Octavius could take initiatives to continue Caesar's policies and pull the public to his side. On the other hand Antony could provide an effective leadership to the Caesars supporters with his strong military power. Antony and Octavius, as Caesar's closest relatives, can continue the sociopolitical reforms and go on with the projects initiated by Caesar. Therefore, by having the public support behind them, they can individually or collectively take control of the novel and establish a solid political identity.

In return, the senate could launch a bid to take back power, exert influence over Rome, and bring back the conventional republican government. However, other factions and military commanders might have attempted to take control, which would have led to internal strife and possibly further destabilized Rome, as the Senate was sharply split and lacked the military might to impose its will. Brutus could have formed alliances with other political leaders in the struggle for power and worked together to shape Rome's future, even though he could have claimed that Caesar's assassination was an act to protect Rome's freedom and strengthened the Senate to restore Rome's traditional republican values after his assassination.

b. International Geopolitical Factors

The consequences of these internal power dynamics spilled over onto the international stage as Rome grappled with the power vacuum. Neighboring states and allies watched with both expectation and concern, uncertain about the future course of Roman rule and its potential impact on existing alliances. The drama unfolding in Rome was not merely an internal matter; It was a spectacle that attracted the attention of foreign powers, each calculating their moves according to the evolving political landscape.

i. Parthia

In the aftermath of Caesar's assassination, the Parthian Empire, situated to the east of Rome, saw a chance to expand its influence into the Roman territories. The power vacuum created by Caesar's demise presented an alluring opportunity for the Parthians to consider moving westward. With their long-standing rivalry with Rome, the Parthian Empire may see Caesar's fall as an opportunity to exploit Rome's weakness and push for territorial gains in the East. The valuable eastern Roman provinces, with their wealth and resources, became attractive targets for Parthian conquest. The idea of challenging Rome's dominance in the region and shifting the balance of power in the eastern Mediterranean became appealing to the Parthian leadership.

At the same time, the Kingdom of Armenia, strategically located between Rome and Parthia, became a key player in this unfolding situation. Recognizing the internal strife within Rome and the vulnerability it presented, the Armenian Kingdom engaged in diplomatic efforts to secure alliances that would safeguard its own interests.

Following Caesar's assassination, the potential for international involvement in the affairs of the Roman Republic became increasingly evident. The Parthian Empire, driven by expansionist ambitions, may have viewed the internal chaos in Rome as a unique opportunity

to extend its influence in the Western territories. The Kingdom of Armenia, aware of its delicate position, likely engaged in careful diplomatic maneuvers, weighing the advantages of aligning with the emerging power or maintaining a delicate balance between Rome and Parthia.



Map of Roman-Parthian War, 58-60 CE

ii. Germanic Tribes

The relationship between the Germanic tribes and Rome was historically complex, marked by occasional conflicts and uneasy alliances. The assassination of Caesar provided these tribes with a strategic opportunity to exploit Rome's vulnerabilities. The power vacuum and internal discord within Rome created a moment of weakness, prompting the perceptive Germanic tribes to consider a united front to capitalize on Rome's weakened state.

A significant driving force behind the potential Germanic incursions was the desire for territorial gains. The attractiveness of Roman lands, resources, and the perception of a weakened Roman military could have encouraged the Germanic tribes to contemplate more aggressive actions. Territorial expansion served not only in the means of securing resources but also as a display of strength and a strategic move to disrupt Roman control over its northern frontiers. For the Germanic tribes, destabilizing Roman presence in the northern

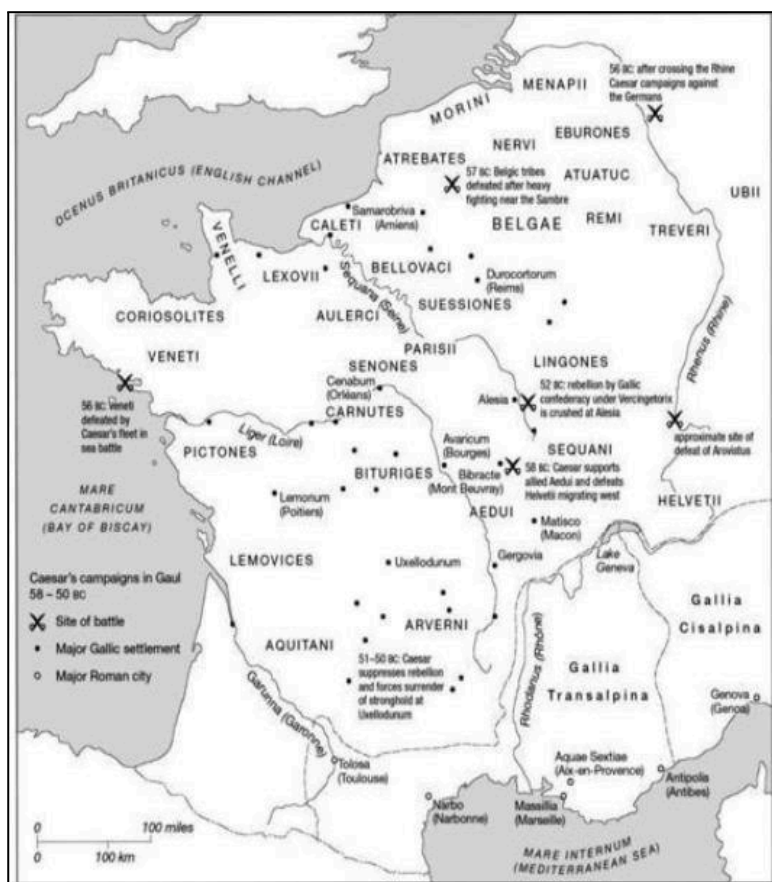
territories would be crucial. The prospect of challenging the established order and tipping the balance of power in their favor was an enticing proposition. A united front among the Germanic tribes could potentially allow them to assert dominance in the regions bordering the Roman Republic.

iii. The Gallic Tribes in Gaul

The interaction between Rome and Gaul was intricate, characterized by conquest and subsequent efforts at integration. Caesar's campaigns in Gaul had brought the region under Roman control, but the relationship between the conquerors and the conquered remained volatile. When Caesar died, leaving a power vacuum, the Gallic tribes saw an opportunity to reconsider their allegiance to Rome. This created conditions for a potential revolt, with far-reaching implications for the geopolitical landscape of the western provinces.

The possibility of a Celtic revolt in Gaul had significant consequences for Roman dominance in the western provinces. The once-subdued Gallic tribes, galvanized by the power vacuum, could have united to exploit Rome's internal strife for their benefit. The quest for autonomy and a chance to assert their cultural and political identity might have empowered the Gallic tribes to challenge Roman rule.

Facing this potential threat, neighboring powers might have considered intervening in Roman Republic affairs. The Germanic tribes to the north of Gaul, witnessing the unrest, could have seen an opportunity to form alliances with the Gallic tribes against their common Roman adversary. Germanic leaders might have offered military aid, aiming to weaken Roman control and secure territorial gains for themselves. Additionally, tribes in Britannia, closely monitoring events in Gaul, might have seen a Celtic revolt as a chance to contest Roman influence in their own territories. Collaborative action with the Gallic tribes



could have been seen as a strategy to diminish Roman hegemony in the broader Western region.

iv. Egypt

The relationship between Rome and Ptolemaic Egypt was already strained due to Caesar's participation in the Battle of Alexandria and his connection with Cleopatra. Cleopatra, the knowledgeable and politically astute Queen of Egypt, sided with Caesar to preserve her throne and Egypt's independence. However, with Caesar's death, the delicate balance between Rome and Egypt was disrupted. The power vacuum in Rome could have been perceived by the Ptolemaic rulers as a chance to reassess and renegotiate their terms with Rome. Cleopatra may have seen the turmoil as an opportunity to advance Egyptian interests and possibly reduce Roman influence in the eastern Mediterranean.

Additionally, Caesar's child, Caesarion could become a target of political rivals and enemies in both Rome and Egypt. Concerned for her son's safety and future, Cleopatra may seek intervention to secure her position as the legitimate heir to Caesar's legacy.

Beyond Cleopatra's individual actions, broader Levantine powers might also consider intervening to take advantage of Rome's internal instability. Rival kingdoms and empires may view the Roman Republic as vulnerable and seize the opportunity to expand their influence, renegotiate treaties, or make territorial gains.

v. Macedon and Hellenistic Kingdoms

Among the potential threats weighing on Rome was the possibility of intervention by his Macedonian successors, rulers of the vast Hellenistic kingdoms that had once belonged to Alexander the Great. Dominating lands stretching from Greece to the farthest reaches of the East, the Macedonian successors represented a formidable power in the geopolitical landscape of the ancient world. As Rome grappled with an internal power struggle following Caesar's assassination, these successors watched the unfolding drama with great interest and perceived the opportunity to shape Roman politics to their own advantage. One of the potential threats from their Macedonian successors was their capacity to manipulate Rome's power struggle. By encouraging alliances with Roman political figures or supporting

particular factions, successors could effectively direct the direction of Roman rule and place puppet leaders sympathetic to their interests in positions of power.

Moreover, their Macedonian successors could engage in direct diplomatic interventions aimed at establishing alliances that suited their geopolitical goals. Using their military prowess, vast resources, and the allure of Hellenistic culture, they could persuade Roman factions to join their cause and deftly extend their influence throughout the eastern Mediterranean.

The influence of their Macedonian successors was not limited to diplomatic intrigue; military intervention remained a looming possibility. These rulers, heirs to Alexander's military legacy, possessed formidable armies capable of extending power over great distances. If Rome appeared weak and divided, successors might consider direct military intervention, seek to exploit internal chaos for territorial gains or establish client states suitable to their influence.

Motivations of the Assassins

a. Marcus Junius Brutus

In 49 BC, a war broke out between Pompey and Caesar. Brutus sided with the senatorial consul Pompey during this battle. During the battle, Caesar ordered his own officers to lock Brutus in a hut. After Caesar won the battle, Brutus sent a letter full of apologies asking for forgiveness. In response, Caesar declared his forgiveness. When Brutus declared his allegiance to Caesar, Caesar gave him a senior executive position. After the assassination, Brutus would be in a dilemma: if Caesar were declared a tyrant, nothing he did would be considered valid, and his own senatorship would also be dropped. On the other hand, if Caesar could not be declared a tyrant, he and his companions would be declared murderers, but they would be spared if they were granted a general amnesty. Marcus Junius Brutus' reasons for killing Julius Caesar include the preservation of the Roman Republic, the maintenance of the authority of the Senate, concern for tyranny, the Republic's desire to return to ancient traditions, and Brutus' personal beliefs. Brutus, seeing himself as a patriot, stood up to Caesar's power in defense of the freedom and institutions of the Republic. Brutus

believed that he carried out the assassination with the aim of protecting the traditional values and institutions of the Roman Republic. Caesar's growing power aroused the idea that the Republic was in danger, and Brutus aimed to try to save the Republic by filling this power vacuum. In addition, Brutus was known as an honest and fair figure in his political life. Standing against Caesar's monarchical tendencies, he aimed to exploit the power vacuum created after the assassination for political reform in an effort to defend the traditional institutions of Rome. He wanted to win the sympathy of the people and be seen as the saviour of the Republic in their eyes. With his speeches and actions after the assassination, he tried to increase his political influence by gaining the support of the people. Brutus was a political figure who was committed to the ideals of freedom and equality. He carried out the assassination because he believed that Caesar's only personal power would undermine these ideals.

b. Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus

Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus decided to assassinate Julius Caesar because of the Roman Republic's desire to return to ancient traditions and the authority of the Senate, his concern about Caesar's growing power and cruelty, and Brutus' personal political ambitions. A senator of the Roman Republic, Albinus has been a faithful adherent to its traditional values. By opposing Caesar's growing power, he sought to protect the institutions and freedoms of the state. Caesar's death allowed Albinus to fill a political vacuum in Rome by himself. By increasing his own political influence, he wanted to play an important role in the administration of the Republic, and he was motivated by his desire to restore the Senate's powers. Caesar's ascension had reduced the influence of the Senate, and Albinus was determined to reverse that situation by taking advantage of the power vacuum brought on by his death. His commitment to Rome's traditional values and the old order of the Republic was at the heart of Albinus' opposition against Caesar. To that end, he opposed Caesar's imperialist tendencies in order to restore the old values of Rome.

c. Gaius Cassius Longinus

Cassius was known for his commitment to the traditional values and institutions of the Roman Republic. Caesar's growing power strengthened the sentiment among some senators

that the Republic was in danger. Cassius wanted to increase his own power as a political figure. Caesar's rule challenged Cassius' own political ambitions, and he did not want Caesar to gain any more power. He also defended the freedom of Rome and the right of the people to influence the administration. Caesar's monarchical tendencies clashed with Cassius' ideals of freedom. There were previous disagreements and personal tensions between Cassius and Caesar. Cassius had a negative attitude towards Caesar's rule.

The primary causes of Gaius Cassius Longinus's assassination of Julius Caesar were the preservation of the Republic, loyalty to traditional Rome values, private ambition and concern for Caesar's increasing authority. The Roman Republic was trying to keep the Senate's power and independence, Cassius thought. The threat he perceived to Rome's established institutions was also posed by Caesar's increasing monarchical impulses.

Cassius was a senator who adhered to the traditional values of the Roman Republic. Opposed to Caesar's growing power, he sought to protect the freedoms and institutions of the Republic. Caesar's death gave Cassius the opportunity to take advantage of the political uncertainty in Rome and to increase his own political influence, wanting to play an influential role in the administration of the Republic. Cassius made an effort to re-establish the power of the Senate, and his rise limited the influence of the Senate, and Cassius took advantage of the power vacuum after Caesar's death in order to regain this influence. Cassius' devotion to the ancient values of liberty and the Republic was instrumental in his desire to restore the old order of Rome by opposing Caesar's monarchical tendencies.

d. Mark Antony

Caesar's close friend was one of the people that felt the assassination in the bottom of their hearts. It was not even in his mild thoughts that Caesar would one day get murdered. However, following Caesar's murder, Antony entered politics in an attempt to change public perception and seek retribution. Antony had a strong relationship of friendship and loyalty with Caesar. After the assassination, Antony deeply felt Caesar's death and was determined to maintain his devotion to him. After Caesar's death, he wanted to rise as a political player. He aimed to continue Caesar's legacy and increase his own political power by winning over his followers. Antony tried to win the sympathy of the people with his famous speech at Caesar's funeral. This is a strategy to keep Caesar's legacy alive in the eyes of the public and to

condemn those who carried out the assassination. Antony's motivations included both personal friendship and devotion, as well as his ambition for political power. Antony wanted to increase his own political power by taking advantage of the political uncertainty in Rome that had arisen with the death of Caesar. Inheriting Caesar's legacy and backing his followers meant strengthening Antony's own political influence. After Caesar's death, he aimed to attract Caesar's supporters to his side and gain their support. This strategy was aimed at establishing supremacy over other political rivals by establishing an influential power in Rome.

As a result, Antony's desire to exploit the power vacuum after Caesar's death was based on both his political ambitions and his strategies to inherit Caesar's legacy and win over his followers.



Mark Antony with the dead body of Caesar

e. Cicero

Cicero's desire to capitalise on the power vacuum that resulted after Julius Caesar's killing is not immediately apparent. While Cicero worked to uphold the Republic and voiced criticism of Caesar, he refrained from taking part in the latter's murder.

f. Augustus

Augustus was the nephew and adopted son of Julius Caesar. After Caesar's death, he became his heir. This family bond gave him an advantage because he had the support of Caesar's followers and his army. Caesar's death creates a political vacuum in Rome. Taking advantage of this situation, Augustus wanted to establish himself as the leader of Rome by inheriting Caesar's legacy. He tried to gain military power by winning the loyalty of Caesar's army. The support of the military was a crucial element in the Roman political arena and helped strengthen Augustus. Presenting himself as a defender of the legal institutions of the Roman Republic, Augustus sought to continue Caesar's legacy while preserving the formal structure of the republic. So Augustus' desire to take advantage of the power vacuum that arose after Caesar's death was based on a number of factors, including family ties, political opportunities, military support, and a desire to preserve the formal structure of the republic.

g. Lepidus

Lepidus was one of Caesar's most trusted generals, and in the political uncertainty that followed Caesar, he wanted to preserve Caesar's legacy and keep the forces associated with him together. After Caesar's death, there was a desire to increase his political influence and secure his own power. The power vacuum was seen as an opportunity to rise in his political career. The army he possessed enabled him to play an effective role in the struggle for power. This was considered an advantage in favor of the strife within Rome.

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