



MUNIAL'26

JCC: Punic Wars

Study Guide

Head of Crisis: Bilgehan Sarısoy

Academic Assistants: Rahmetullah Arayıcı,
Arda Karakaş, Barış Sever

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LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY-GENERAL

Dear Attendees,

It is an honor to welcome you all to the 7th annual session of İzmir Atatürk Lisesi Model United Nations Conference. I am Duru Kılıç, your Secretary-General. If you are reading this letter, you probably already know why you should be here, but let us remind you once more.

MUNIAL is a legacy preserved by generations, now bestowed upon us by our upperclassmen. Being entrusted with this conference was not an easy feat; so you can be sure that we are no amateurs when it comes to MUN, and that it isn't a coincidence you are attending the best. Our esteemed Director-General, Can Karadağ, and I have sacrificed months, if not years, working for our titles. But it wasn't just for MUNIAL; it was for the journey where we grew, improved, and found the best versions of ourselves. Now we stand proud, confident that this year will be no short of what our upperclassmen showed us, if not better.

MUN isn't just an academic achievement, though. This is a free space where you can improve your people skills, make new connections, have fun, and enhance your cultural knowledge. For me, this journey was one where I found family, and now I am honored to be the one creating the opportunity for others to do the same.

Sincerely,

Duru Kılıç

LETTER FROM THE HEAD OF CRISIS

Dear delegates,

It's my honor to greet you all as the Head of Crisis. Welcome to the crisis committee of İzmir Atatürk High School Model United Nations conference. I am Bilgehan Sarısoy, currently a senior at İzmir Atatürk High School. During these 3 days, I will be leading the committee with my fabulous academic team. There is no doubt that if you are wishful for the committee, we are going to make your ambition worthwhile. The directives that you send will be read by our academic assistant, crisis team member, and me with our greatest and most attentive efforts. The research on the topic and the analysis of the study guide for the committee are valuable and gainful for your experience. We worked a lot on this Study Guide to make you ready for the committee. If you have any questions, ideas, or something that you would like to consult, don't hesitate to contact our academic team. I wish you a perfect experience that you will enjoy, learn new things, and improve your MUN abilities.

Kind Regards,

Bilgehan Sarısoy

POWER BALANCE IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

1. Rome

a. Roman Expansion in Italy

The Roman expansion in Italy involved a series of conflicts that saw Rome grow from a small Italian city-state into the ruler of the Italian region. Roman tradition attributes to the Roman kings the first war against the Sabines and the first conquests around the Alban Hills and down to the coast of Latium. The birth of the Roman Republic after the overthrow of the Etruscan monarch of Rome in 509 BC marked the beginning of a series of major wars between the Romans and the Etruscans. In 390 BC, Gauls from northern Italy sacked Rome. In the second half of the 4th century BC, Rome clashed repeatedly with the Samnites, a powerful tribal coalition of the Apennine region.

By the end of these wars, Rome had become the most powerful state in central Italy and had begun to expand north and south. The last threat to Roman hegemony came during the Pyrrhic War (280–275 BC), when Tarentum enlisted the aid of the Greek king Pyrrhus of Epirus to campaign in northern Italy. Resistance in Etruria was finally crushed in 265–264 BC.

i. *Roman Expansion in Italy: Central Italy*

The Samnites were just as warlike and rich as the Romans and set out to expand into new lands in the fertile Italian plains near Rome. The First Samnite War, between 343 and 341 BC, began with widespread Samnite incursions into the territory, which were followed by a series of battles. The Romans defeated the Samnites but were forced to withdraw from the war without being able to fully exploit their success, due to the revolt of many of the Latin allies in the conflict known as the Latin War. Around 340 BC, Rome found itself having to contain both the Samnite incursions in its territory and those of the rebellious Latin cities, after a series of conflicts. Eventually, the Latins were defeated, after which the Latin cities were forced to submit to Roman power.

The Second Samnite War, from 327 to 304 BC, represented a more serious and lengthy affair, both for the Romans and for the Samnites. More than 20 years of conflict and 24 battles took place, and there were losses from both sides. There were also gains from both sides; Samnites took possession of Naples in 327 BC, which the Romans recovered before being defeated in a battle, and after one more battle, the Romans finally emerged victorious. As early as 314 BC, the tide of the war was turning decisively in Rome's favor, forcing the Samnites to negotiate a surrender on

increasingly unfavorable terms. In 304 BC, the Romans came to a massive annexation of Samnite territories, on which they even founded many of their colonies. But seven years after their defeat, while Rome's dominance over the area seemed secure, the Samnites rose again and defeated the Romans in a battle in 298 BC, which started the Third Samnite War. Strengthened by this success they tried to put together a coalition of many of the populations that had once been hostile to Rome to prevent Rome from dominating all of central and southern Italy. The army that in 295 B.C. faced the Romans at the battlefield included a coalition of Samnites, Gauls, Etruscans and Umbri. When the Roman army won a convincing victory even over these combined forces, it became clear that nothing more could prevent Rome from dominating Italy. In subsequent battles, in 282 BC, Rome put an end to the last vestiges of Etruscan hegemony over the region. The Roman victory in the three Samnite Wars (343–341; 326–304; 298–290 BC) therefore ensured the control of a large part of central-southern Italy for the city; the political and military strategies implemented by Rome, such as the foundation of colonies under Latin rights, the deduction of Roman colonies and the construction of the Appian Way, testify to the power of this expansionist push towards the South. The interest in territorial domination was in fact, not a simple goal of some aristocratic families, but the entire Roman political scene; the Roman Senate and the people accepted and in fact quietly liked the situation. The advance towards the South was stimulated by economic and cultural interests; while the presence of Magna Graecia, that has a capable military, political and cultural organization, capable of resisting Roman expansion, contributed in the expansion's loss of momentum.

ii. *Roman Expansion In Italy: Southern Italy*

With the beginning of the third century, Rome had become a great power in the Italian peninsula, but had not yet entered into the same league as the dominant Mediterranean powers of the time, Carthage and the poleis of Greece. Southern Italy still remained in the hands of the colonies of Magna Graecia, which had been allies of the Samnites.

Although the commercial relationships between Rome and the centres of Magna Graecia are little known, a certain sharing of commercial interests between Rome and the Greek cities of Campania at least is thought to be possible, as evidenced by the issue, starting from 320 BC, of Roman-Campanian coins. These commercial agreements may have resulted from the Samnite wars and Roman expansion towards the South. However, the needs of the Roman rural populace for new arable lands also determined the need for territorial expansion towards the south, which the expansion in central and northern Italy had not satisfied.

After Pyrrhus' invasion of southern Italy in 280 BC, which was joined by some from the Greek colonies and by some of the Samnites who had revolted against

Roman control, the Romans were defeated in several battles. When Pyrrhus realised that his stay in Italy was unsustainable and withdrew, Rome moved rapidly into southern Italy, subjugating and dividing Magna Graecia by pacts and treaties with most of the cities, which introduced a sort of indirect control over the region. However, there is no evidence of major military impositions on the Greek cities even during the 1st Punic War, the only contribution being a fleet of transport ships borrowed from Naples, Tarentum, and Locri in 264 at the start of the war.

b. Roman Citizenship

Citizenship in ancient Rome (Latin: *civitas*) was a privileged political and legal status afforded to free individuals with respect to laws, property, and governance. Citizenship in ancient Rome was complex and based upon many different laws, traditions, and cultural practices. There existed several different types of citizenship, determined by one's gender, class, and political affiliations, and the exact duties or expectations of a citizen varied throughout the history of the Roman Empire. The oldest document currently available that details the rights of citizenship is the Twelve Tables, ratified c. 449 BC. Much of the text of the Tables only exists in fragments, but during the time of Ancient Rome, the Tables would be displayed in full in the Roman Forum for all to see. The Tables detail the rights of citizens in dealing with court proceedings, property, inheritance, death, and (in the case of women) public behavior. Under the Roman Republic, the government conducted a census every five years in Rome to keep a record of citizens and their households. As the Roman Empire spread, so did the practice of conducting a census. Roman citizens were expected to perform some duties (*munera publica*) to the state in order to retain their rights as citizens. Failure to perform citizenship duties could result in the loss of privileges, as seen during the Second Punic War, when men who refused military service lost their right to vote and were forced out of their voting tribes. Women were exempt from direct taxation and military service. Anyone living in any province of Rome was required to register with the census. The exact extent of civic duties varied throughout the centuries.

i. Types of Citizenship

- Cives Romani

The *cives Romani* were full Roman citizens, who enjoyed full legal protection under Roman law. *Cives Romani* were subdivided into two classes: The *non optimo iure* who held the *ius commercii* and *ius conubii*[a] (rights of property and marriage). The *optimo iure*, who held these rights as well as the *ius suffragii* and *ius honorum* (the additional rights to vote and to hold office).

- Latini

The *Latini* were a class of citizens who held the Latin rights (*ius Latii*), including *ius commercii* and *ius migrationis* (the right to migrate), but not *ius conubii*.

The term Latini originally referred to the Latins, citizens of the Latin League who came under Roman control at the close of the Latin War, but eventually came to denote a legal category rather than a national or ethnic one. The Latin rights status could be assigned to different classes of citizens, such as freedmen, cives Romani convicted of crimes, or colonial settlers.

- Socii

Under Roman law, citizens of another state allied to Rome by treaty were assigned the status of socii. Socii (also known as foederati) could obtain certain legal rights under Roman law in exchange for agreed-upon levels of military service, i.e., the Roman magistrates had the right to levy soldiers from such states into the Roman legions. However, foederati states that had once been conquered by Rome were exempt from paying tribute to Rome due to their treaty status.

- Provinciales

Provinciales were people who fell under Roman influence or control but lacked even the rights of the foederati, essentially having only the rights of the ius gentium (rules and laws common to nations under Rome's rule).

- Peregrini

A peregrinus (plural peregrini) was originally any person who was not a full Roman citizen, that is, someone who was not a member of the cives Romani. With the expansion of Roman law to include more gradations of legal status, this term became less common, but peregrini included Latini, socii, provinciales, and subjects of foreign states.

ii. *Citizenship for Different Social Classes*

Individuals belonging to a specific social class in Rome had modified versions of citizenship.

Roman women had a limited form of citizenship. They were not allowed to vote or stand for civil or public office. The rich might participate in public life by funding building projects or sponsoring religious ceremonies and other events. Women had the right to own property, to engage in business, and to obtain a divorce, but their legal rights varied over time. Marriages were an important form of political alliance during the Republic. Roman women mostly remained under the guardianship of their father (pater familias) or their closest male relative on the father's side (agnate).

Client state citizens and allies (socii) of Rome could receive a limited form of Roman citizenship, such as the Latin rights. Such citizens could not vote or be elected in Roman elections.

Freedmen were former slaves who had gained their freedom. They were not automatically given citizenship and lacked some privileges, such as running for

executive magistracies. The children of freedmen and women were born as free citizens; for example, the father of the poet Horace was a freedman.

Slaves were considered property and lacked legal personhood. Over time, they acquired a few protections under Roman law. Some slaves were freed by manumission for services rendered, or through a testamentary provision when their master died. Once free, they faced few barriers, beyond normal social stigma, to participating in Roman society. The principle that a person could become a citizen by law rather than birth was enshrined in Roman mythology; when Romulus defeated The Sabines in battle, he promised the war captives that were in Rome that they could become citizens.

c. Roman Legion

The Republican army of this period, like its earlier forebear, did not maintain standing or professional military forces but levied them by compulsory conscription as required for each campaigning season and disbanded thereafter (although formations could be kept in being over winter during major wars). Service in the legions was limited to property-owning Roman citizens, normally those known as *iuniores* (ages 16–46). The army's senior officers, including its commanders-in-chief, the Roman consuls, were all elected annually at the People's Assembly. Only members of the Roman equestrian order—the *equites*—were eligible to serve as senior officers. *Iuniores* of the highest social classes (*equites* and the First Class of commoners) provided the legion's cavalry, and the other classes the legionary infantry.

d. Patricians and Plebeians

Traditionally, patrician refers to members of the upper class, while Plebeian refers to the lower class. Economic differentiation saw a small number of families accumulate most of the wealth in Rome, leading to the creation of the patrician and plebeian classes. After this initial distinction, however, the divide between patrician and plebeian families was strictly hereditary and based on social status.

The plebeians constituted the majority of Roman citizens after a series of political conflicts and equalization. Although patricians are often portrayed as rich and powerful families who secured power over the less fortunate plebeian families, plebeians and patricians within the senatorial class were often equally wealthy. As civil rights for plebeians increased during the middle and late Roman Republic, many plebeian families had attained wealth and power, while some traditionally patrician families had fallen into poverty and obscurity. Regardless of how rich a plebeian family became, it would not rise to the ranks of the

patricians. By the second century BC, the divide between patricians and plebeians had lost most of its distinction and was beginning to merge into one class.

e. Roman Governmental Structure

The constitutional history of the Roman Republic began with the revolution that overthrew the monarchy in 509 BC and ended with constitutional reforms that transformed the Republic into what would effectively be the Roman Empire in 27 BC. The Roman Republic's constitution was a constantly evolving, unwritten set of guidelines and principles passed down mainly through precedent, by which the government and its politics operated.

i. *Senate*

The Senate's authority derived from the senators' esteem and prestige. This esteem and prestige were based on both precedent and custom, as well as the senators' calibre and reputation. The senate passed decrees called *senatus consulta*. These were officially "advice" from the senate to a magistrate, but in practice, magistrates usually followed it. Throughout the middle republic and Rome's expansion, the senate became more dominant in the state: as the only institution with the expertise to administer the empire effectively, it controlled state finances, the assignment of magistrates, external affairs, and the deployment of military forces. Also a powerful religious body, it received reports of omens and directed Roman responses accordingly.

ii. *Magistrates*

Each republican magistrate held certain constitutional powers. Each was assigned a province by the Senate. This was the scope of that particular office holder's authority. It could apply to a geographic area or to a particular responsibility or task. The powers of a magistrate came from the people of Rome (both plebeians and patricians). *Imperium* was held by both consuls and praetors. Strictly speaking, it was the authority to command a military force, but in reality, it carried broad authority in other public spheres, such as diplomacy and the justice system. In extreme cases, those with imperial power could sentence Roman Citizens to death. All magistrates also had the power of *coercitio* (coercion). Magistrates used this to maintain public order by imposing punishment for crimes. Magistrates also had both the power and the duty to seek omens. This power could also be used to obstruct political opponents.

One check on a magistrate's power was *collega* (collegiality). Each magisterial office was held concurrently by at least two people. In addition, once a magistrate's one-year term of office expired, he would have to wait ten years before serving in that office again. This created problems for some consuls and praetors, and these

magistrates occasionally had their imperium extended. In effect, they retained the powers of the office (as a promagistrate) without officially holding that office.

During a military emergency, a dictator was appointed for a six-month term. Constitutional government was dissolved, and the dictator was the absolute master of the state. When the dictator's term ended, constitutional government was restored. The consuls of the Roman Republic were the highest-ranking ordinary magistrates. Each served for one year. Consular powers included the kings' former imperium and the appointment of new senators. Consuls had supreme power in both civil and military matters. While in the city of Rome, the consuls were the heads of the Roman government. They presided over the senate and the assemblies. While abroad, each consul commanded an army. His authority abroad was nearly absolute.

2. Carthage

Carthage was settled around 814 BC by colonists from Tyre, a leading Phoenician city-state located in present-day Lebanon. In the 7th century BC, following Phoenicia's conquest by the Neo-Assyrian Empire, Carthage became independent and gradually expanded its economic and political hegemony across the western Mediterranean. By 300 BC, through its vast patchwork of colonies, vassals, and satellite states held together by its naval dominance of the western and central Mediterranean Sea, Carthage controlled the largest territory in the region, including the coast of northwestern Africa, southern and eastern Iberia, and the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Malta, and the Balearic Islands. Tripoli remained autonomous under the authority of the local Libyco-Phoenicians, who paid nominal tribute.

Among the ancient world's largest and richest cities, Carthage's strategic location gave it access to abundant fertile land and major maritime trade routes that reached West Asia and Northern Europe, bringing commodities from across the ancient world, as well as lucrative exports of agricultural products and manufactured goods. This commercial empire was secured by one of the largest and most powerful navies in classical antiquity, and an army composed heavily of foreign mercenaries and auxiliaries, particularly Iberians, Balearics, Gauls, Britons, Sicilians, Italians, Greeks, Numidians, and Libyans.

As the dominant power in the western Mediterranean, Carthage inevitably came into conflict with many neighbours and rivals, from the Berbers of North Africa to the nascent Roman Republic. Following centuries of conflict with the Sicilian Greeks, its growing competition with Rome culminated in the Punic Wars (264–146 BC), which saw some of the largest and most sophisticated battles in antiquity.

Despite the cosmopolitan character of its empire, Carthage's culture and identity remained rooted in its Canaanite heritage, albeit in a localised form known as Punic. Like other Phoenician peoples, its society was urban, commercial, and oriented towards seafaring and trade; this is reflected in part by its notable innovations, including serial production, uncolored glass, the threshing board, and the cothon harbor. Carthaginians were renowned for their commercial prowess, ambitious explorations, and unique system of government that combined elements of democracy, oligarchy, and republicanism, including modern examples of the separation of powers.

Despite being one of the most influential civilizations of antiquity, Carthage is mostly remembered for its long and bitter conflict with Rome, which threatened the rise of the Roman Republic and almost changed the course of Western civilization.

a. Carthaginian Governmental Structure

The Carthaginian republic was characterized by an intricate system of checks and balances, a complex administrative system, civil society, and a fairly high degree of public accountability and participation.

At the top of this hierarchy stood the most influential and affluent merchant families, who exercised a form of executive power. Leadership rotated among different families rather than being passed down through a single hereditary line, meaning that the political authority rested on the approval of the ruling council.

At the head of the Carthaginian state were two sufetes, or "judges", who held judicial and executive power.

Unique among rulers in antiquity, the suffetes had no power over the military: From at least the sixth century BC, generals (rb mhnt or rab mahanet) became separate political officials, either appointed by the administration or elected by citizens. In contrast to Rome and Greece, military and political power were separate, and it was rare for an individual to simultaneously serve as general and suffete. Generals did not serve fixed terms; instead, they served for the duration of a war. However, a family that dominated the suffetes could install relatives or allies in the generalship, as occurred with the Barcid dynasty.

Most political power rested in a "council of elders", variably called the "supreme council" or Adirim. The Adirim perhaps numbered thirty members and had a broad range of powers, including administering the treasury and conducting foreign affairs. During the Second Punic War, it reportedly exercised some military power. Like the sufetes, council members were elected from the wealthiest elements of Carthaginian society. Important matters of state required the unanimous agreement of the sufetes and of council members.

Although oligarchs exercised firm control over Carthage, the government included some democratic elements, such as trade unions, town meetings, and a popular assembly. If the suffetes and the supreme council could not reach an agreement, an assembly of the people had the deciding vote.

RISING TENSIONS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

In 289 BC, a group of Italian mercenaries known as Mamertines, previously hired by Syracuse, occupied the city of Messana (modern Messina) on the north-eastern tip of Sicily. Hard-pressed by Syracuse, the Mamertines appealed to both Rome and Carthage for assistance in 265 BC. By 265 B,C Carthage and Rome were the preeminent powers in the western Mediterranean.

The Carthaginians acted first, pressing Hiero II, king of Syracuse, into taking no further action and convincing the Mamertines to accept a Carthaginian garrison. According to Polybius, a considerable debate then took place in Rome as to whether to accept the Mamertines' appeal for assistance. As the Carthaginians had already garrisoned Messana, acceptance could easily lead to war with Carthage. The Romans had not previously shown any interest in Sicily and did not wish to come to the aid of soldiers who had unjustly seized a city from its rightful owners. However, many of them saw strategic and monetary advantages in gaining a foothold in Sicily. The deadlocked Roman Senate, possibly at the instigation of Appius Claudius Caecus, put the matter before the popular assembly in 264 BC. Caudex encouraged a vote for action and held out the prospect of plentiful booty; the popular assembly decided to accept the Mamertines' request. Caudex was appointed commander of a military expedition with orders to cross to Sicily and place a Roman garrison in Messana.

1. First Punic War

Much of the First Punic War was fought on or in the waters near Sicily. Away from the coasts, its hilly and rugged terrain made manoeuvring large forces difficult, which encouraged defensive strategies. Land operations were largely confined to raids, sieges, and interdiction; in twenty-three years of war on Sicily, there were only two full-scale pitched battles.

The war began when the Romans landed in Sicily in 264 BC. The Romans gained control of the city and a foothold on Sicily at the Battle of Messana.

They then pressed Syracuse, the only substantial independent power on the island, into allying with them and laid siege to Carthage's main base, Agrigentum, on the south coast. A Carthaginian army of 50,000 infantry, 6,000 cavalry, and 60 elephants attempted to lift the siege in 262 BC, but was badly defeated at the battle of Agrigentum. The Carthaginian garrison escaped during the night after the battle, and the Romans seized the city and its inhabitants, selling 25,000 of them into slavery.

After this, the land war on Sicily reached a stalemate as the Carthaginians focused on defending their well-fortified towns and cities; these were mostly on the coast and so could be supplied and reinforced without the Romans being able to use their superior army to interfere.

The focus of the war shifted to the sea, where the Romans had less experience. On the few occasions they had previously felt the need for a naval presence greater than anti-piracy squadrons, they had relied on their Latin or Greek allies for larger warships. But the Romans did have extensive commercial maritime experience and access to a large pool of experienced sailors and shipwrights, enabling them to rapidly build a navy to challenge Carthage's. Using this navy and their new invention, the *corvus*, the Romans won a major victory at the battle of Mylae in 260 BC. A Carthaginian base on Corsica was seized, but an attack on Sardinia was repulsed; the base on Corsica was then lost. In 258 BC, a Roman fleet defeated a smaller Carthaginian fleet at the battle of Sulci off the western coast of Sardinia.

Taking advantage of their naval victories, the Romans launched an invasion of North Africa in 256 BC, which the Carthaginians intercepted at the battle of Cape Ecnomus off the southern coast of Sicily. The Carthaginians' superior seamanship was not as effective as they had hoped, while the Romans' *corvuses* gave them an edge as the battle degenerated into a shapeless brawl. The Carthaginians were again beaten in what was possibly the largest naval battle in history by the number of combatants involved. The invasion initially went well, and in 255 BC the Carthaginians sued for peace; the proposed terms were so harsh that they decided to fight on. At the battle of Tunis in spring 255 BC, a combined force of infantry, cavalry, and war elephants under the command of the Spartan mercenary Xanthippus crushed the Romans. The Romans sent a fleet to evacuate their survivors, and the Carthaginians opposed it at the battle of Cape Hermaeum (modern Cape Bon); the Carthaginians were again heavily defeated. The Roman fleet, in turn, was devastated by a storm while returning to Italy, losing most of its ships and more than 100,000 men. It is possible that the presence of the *corvus*, making the Roman ships unusually unseaworthy, contributed to this disaster; there is no record of their being used again.

The war continued, with neither side able to gain a decisive advantage. The Carthaginians attacked and recaptured Akragas in 255 BC, but not believing they could hold the city, they razed and abandoned it. The Romans rapidly rebuilt their fleet, adding 220 new ships, and captured Panormus in 254 BC. The next year, they lost another 150 ships to a storm. On Sicily, the Romans avoided battle in 252 and 251 BC, according to Polybius, because they feared the war elephants which the Carthaginians had shipped to the island. In 250 BC, the Carthaginians advanced on Panormus, but in a battle outside the walls, the Romans drove off the Carthaginian elephants with javelins. The elephants routed through the Carthaginian infantry, who were then charged by the Roman infantry, completing their defeat.

Slowly, the Romans had occupied most of Sicily; in 250 BC, they besieged the last two Carthaginian strongholds – Lilybaeum and Drepana in the extreme west. Repeated attempts to storm Lilybaeum's strong walls failed, as did attempts to block access to its harbour, and the Romans settled down to a siege which was to last nine years. They launched a surprise attack on the Carthaginian fleet, but were defeated at the battle of Drepana, Carthage's greatest naval victory of the war. Carthage turned to the maritime offensive, inflicting another heavy naval defeat at the battle of Phintias and all but sweeping the Romans from the sea. It was to be

seven years before Rome again attempted to field a substantial fleet, while Carthage put most of its ships into reserve to save money and free up manpower.

After more than 20 years of war, both states were financially and demographically exhausted. Evidence of Carthage's financial situation includes their request for a 2,000-talent loan from Ptolemaic Egypt, which was refused. Rome was also close to bankruptcy, and the number of adult male citizens, who provided the manpower for the navy and the legions, had declined by 17 per cent since the start of the war. Goldsworthy describes Roman manpower losses as "appalling".

The Romans rebuilt their fleet in 243 BC after the Senate approached Rome's wealthiest citizens for loans to finance the construction of one ship each, repayable from the reparations to be imposed on Carthage once the war was won. This new fleet effectively blockaded the Carthaginian garrisons. Carthage assembled a fleet that attempted to relieve them, but it was destroyed at the Battle of the Aegates Islands in 241 BC, forcing the cut-off Carthaginian troops in Sicily to negotiate for peace. The Treaty of Lutatius was agreed by which Carthage paid 3,200 talents of silver in reparations, and Sicily was annexed as the first Roman province.

2. Period Between the First and Second Punic Wars

a. Mercenary War

The Mercenary War began in 241 BC as a dispute over the payment of wages owed to 20,000 foreign soldiers who had fought for Carthage in Sicily during the First Punic War. This erupted into a full-scale mutiny under the leadership of Spendius and Matho; 70,000 Africans from Carthage's oppressed, dependent territories and towns flocked to join the mutineers, bringing supplies and funds. Rome initially declined to take advantage of Carthage's troubles. Italians were prohibited from trading with the rebels, and Hiero, the king of the Roman satellite kingdom of Syracuse, was allowed to supply Carthage with the large amounts of food it needed and was no longer able to obtain from its hinterland.

War-weary Carthage fared poorly in the initial engagements, especially under the generalship of Hanno. Hamilcar Barca, a veteran of the campaigns in Sicily, was given joint command of the army in 240 BC and supreme command in 239 BC. He campaigned successfully. By early 237 BC, after numerous setbacks, the rebels were defeated, and their towns brought back under Carthaginian rule.

An expedition was prepared to reoccupy Sardinia, where mutinous soldiers had slaughtered all Carthaginians. The Roman Senate stated that they considered the preparation of this force an act of war and demanded that Carthage cede Sardinia and Corsica and pay an additional 1,200-talent indemnity. Weakened by 30 years of war, Carthage agreed rather than enter into conflict with Rome again. These events fuelled resentment of Rome in Carthage, which was not reconciled to Rome's perception of its own situation. This breach of the recently signed treaty was to be one of the greatest causes of war with Carthage breaking out again in 218 BC in the Second Punic War.

b. Barcid Conquest of Hispania

With the suppression of the rebellion, Hamilcar Barca understood that Carthage needed to strengthen its economic and military base if it were to confront Rome again. After the First Punic War, Carthaginian possessions in Iberia were limited to a handful of prosperous coastal cities in the south. Hamilcar took the army which he had led in the Mercenary War to Iberia in 237 BC and carved out a quasi-monarchical, autonomous state in its southeast. This gave Carthage the silver mines, agricultural wealth, manpower, military facilities such as shipyards, and territorial depth to stand up to future Roman demands with confidence. Hamilcar ruled as a viceroy and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, in the early 220s BC, and then by his son, Hannibal, in 221 BC. In 226 B,C the Ebro Treaty was agreed with Rome, specifying the Ebro River as the northern boundary of the Carthaginian sphere of

influence. However, at some time during the next six years, Rome made a separate alliance with the city of Saguntum, which was situated well south of the Ebro.

3. Second Punic War

In 219 BC, a Carthaginian army under Hannibal besieged, captured, and sacked Saguntum, and in spring 218 BC, Rome declared war on Carthage.

a. Hannibal's Campaign Into Italy

In 218 BC, there was some naval skirmishing in the waters around Sicily; the Romans defeated a Carthaginian attack and captured the island of Malta. In Cisalpine Gaul, the major Gallic tribes attacked the Roman colonies, causing the Roman settlers to flee to their previously established colony of Mutina, where they were besieged. A Roman relief force broke through the siege, but was then ambushed and besieged itself. A Roman army had been assembled to campaign in Iberia; one Roman and one allied legion was detached from it and sent to northern Italy. Raising fresh troops to replace these delayed the army's departure for Iberia until September.

Meanwhile, Hannibal assembled a Carthaginian army in New Carthage in Iberia and led it northwards along the coast in May or June. It entered Gaul and took an inland route to avoid the Roman allies to the south. At the battle of the Rhône crossing, Hannibal defeated a force of local Gauls which sought to bar his way. A Roman fleet carrying the Iberian-bound army landed at Rome's ally Massalia at the mouth of the Rhône, but Hannibal evaded the Romans, and they continued to Iberia. The Carthaginians reached the foot of the Alps by late autumn and crossed them in 24 days, surmounting the difficulties of climate, terrain, and the guerrilla tactics of the native tribes. The Carthaginians arrived in what is now Piedmont, northern Italy, in early November. They comprised 20,000 infantry, 6,000 cavalry, and an unknown number of elephants – the survivors of the 37 with which they left Iberia. The Romans were still in their winter quarters. The Carthaginians' surprise entry into the Italian peninsula led to the cancellation of Rome's planned campaign for the following year: an invasion of Africa.

The Carthaginians captured the chief settlement of the hostile Taurini Gauls (in the area of modern Turin) and seized its food stocks. In late November, the Carthaginian cavalry routed a Roman force of cavalry and light infantry at the battle of Ticinus. As a result, most of the Gallic tribes declared for the Carthaginian cause, and Hannibal's army grew to 37,000 men. A large Roman army was lured into combat by Hannibal at the Battle of the Trebia, encircled and destroyed. Some 10,000 Romans out of 42,000 were able to fight their way to

safety; most of their comrades were killed or captured. Gauls now joined Hannibal's army in large numbers. The Romans stationed an army at Arretium and another on the Adriatic coast to block Hannibal's advance into central Italy.

In early spring 217 BC, the Carthaginians crossed the Apennines unopposed, taking a difficult but unguarded route. Hannibal attempted to draw the westernmost of the two Roman armies into a pitched battle by devastating the area it had been sent to protect. This prompted its commander to order a hasty pursuit without proper reconnaissance. Hannibal set an ambush and, in the battle of Lake Trasimene, completely defeated this Roman army, killing 15,000 Romans, including their commander, and taking 15,000 prisoners. A cavalry force of 4,000 from the Roman army based at Arretium was also engaged and wiped out. The prisoners were badly treated if they were Romans, but released if they were from one of Rome's allies. Hannibal wished to stir up disaffection in the states that made up many of Rome's allies in Italy. These allied states provided more than half of Rome's military manpower. The Carthaginians marched deeper into Italy, hoping that the ethnic Greek and Italic states of southern Italy, in particular, could be persuaded to defect.

The Romans, panicked by these heavy defeats, appointed Fabius Maximus as dictator, with sole charge of the war effort. Fabius introduced the Fabian strategy of avoiding open battle with his opponent while constantly skirmishing with small enemy detachments. This was not popular with parts of the Roman army, public, and Senate, since he avoided battle while Italy was being devastated by the enemy. Hannibal marched through the richest and most fertile parts of Italy, hoping the devastation would draw Fabius into battle, but Fabius refused.

In the 216 BC elections, Terentius Varro and Aemilius Paullus were elected as consuls; both were more aggressively minded than Fabius. The Roman Senate authorised the raising of a force of 86,000 men, the largest in Roman history to that point. Paullus and Varro marched southward to confront Hannibal, who accepted battle on the open plain near Cannae in south-east Italy. In the battle of Cannae, the Roman legions forced their way through Hannibal's deliberately weak centre, but Libyan heavy infantry on the wings swung around their advance, menacing their flanks. Another Carthaginian commander named Hasdrubal – not the same man as Hasdrubal Barca, one of Hannibal's younger brothers – led the Carthaginian cavalry on the left wing, which routed the Roman cavalry opposite. It then swept around the Romans' rear to attack the cavalry on the other wing, before charging into the legions from behind. As a result, the Roman infantry was surrounded with no means of escape. At least 67,500 Romans were killed or captured.

Within a few weeks of Cannae, a Roman army of 25,000 was ambushed by the Boii Gauls at the battle of Silva Litana and annihilated. Fabius was elected consul in 215 BC and re-elected in 214 BC.

Several of the city-states in southern Italy allied with Hannibal or were captured when pro-Carthaginian factions betrayed their defences. These included the large city of Capua and

the major port city of Tarentum. Two of the major Samnite tribes also joined the Carthaginian cause. By 214 BC, the bulk of southern Italy had turned against Rome, although there were many exceptions. The majority of Rome's allies in central Italy remained loyal. All except the smallest towns were too well fortified for Hannibal to take by assault, and blockade could be a long-drawn-out affair, or, if the target was a port, impossible. Carthage's new allies felt little sense of community with Carthage, or even with each other. The new allies increased the number of places that Hannibal's army was expected to defend against Roman retribution, but provided relatively few fresh troops to assist him in doing so. Such Italian forces as were raised resisted operating away from their home cities and performed poorly when they did.

When the port city of Locri defected to Carthage in the summer of 215 BC, it was immediately used to reinforce the Carthaginian forces in Italy with soldiers, supplies, and war elephants. It was the only time during the war that Hannibal received reinforcements from Carthage. A second force, under Hannibal's youngest brother, Mago, was meant to land in Italy in 215 BC but was diverted to Iberia after the Carthaginian defeat there at the Battle of Dertosa.

Meanwhile, the Romans took drastic steps to raise new legions: enrolling slaves, criminals, and those who did not meet the usual property qualification. By early 215 BC, they were fielding at least 12 legions; two years later, they had 18; and a year after that, 22. By 212 BC, the full complement of the legions deployed would have been in excess of 100,000 men, plus, as always, a similar number of allied troops. The majority were deployed in southern Italy in field armies of approximately 20,000 men each. This was insufficient to challenge Hannibal's army in open battle, but sufficient to force him to concentrate his forces and to hamper his movements.

The war surged around southern Italy as cities went over to the Carthaginians or were taken by subterfuge, and the Romans recaptured them by siege or by the support of pro-Roman factions. Hannibal repeatedly defeated Roman armies; in 208 BC, both consuls were killed in a cavalry skirmish. But wherever his main army was not active, the Romans threatened Carthaginian-supporting towns or sought battle with Carthaginian or Carthaginian-allied detachments; frequently with success. By 207 BC, Hannibal had been confined to the extreme south of Italy and many of the cities and territories which had joined the Carthaginian cause had returned to their Roman allegiance.

In the spring of 207 BC, Hasdrubal Barca repeated the feat of his elder brother by marching an army of 35,000 men across the Alps and invading Italy. His aim was to join forces with Hannibal, but Hannibal was unaware of his presence. The Romans, facing Hannibal in southern Italy, tricked him into believing the whole Roman army was still in camp, while a large portion marched north under the consul Claudius Nero and reinforced the Romans facing Hasdrubal, who was commanded by the other consul, Marcus Salinator. The combined Roman force attacked Hasdrubal at the Battle of the Metaurus and destroyed his

army, killing Hasdrubal. This battle confirmed Roman dominance in Italy and marked the end of their Fabian strategy.

In 205 BC, Mago landed in Genoa in north-west Italy with the remnants of his Spanish army, where it received Gallic and Ligurian reinforcements. Mago's arrival in the north of the Italian peninsula was followed by Hannibal's inconclusive battle of Crotona in 204 BC, in the far south of the peninsula. Mago marched his reinforced army towards the lands of Carthage's main Gallic allies in the Po Valley, but was checked by a large Roman army and defeated at the Battle of Insubria in 203 BC.

After a Roman army invaded the Carthaginian homeland in 204 BC, defeated the Carthaginians in two major battles, and won the allegiance of the Numidian kingdoms of North Africa, Hannibal and the remnants of his army were recalled. They sailed from Croton and landed at Carthage with 15,000–20,000 experienced veterans. Mago was also recalled; he died of wounds on the voyage, and some of his ships were intercepted by the Romans, but 12,000 of his troops reached Carthage.

b. Greece, Sardinia, and Sicily During Hannibal's Campaign

During 216 BC, the Macedonian king, Philip V, pledged his support to Hannibal, initiating the First Macedonian War against Rome in 215 BC. In 211 BC, Rome contained this threat by allying with the Aetolian League, a coalition of Greek city-states which was hostile towards Macedonia, and persuading them to participate in the war. In 205 BC, this war ended with a negotiated peace.

A rebellion in support of the Carthaginians broke out on Sardinia in 213 BC, but it was quickly put down by the Romans.

Up to 215 BC, Sicily remained firmly in Roman hands, preventing the easy seaborne reinforcement and resupply of Hannibal from Carthage. Hiero II, the tyrant of Syracuse for the previous sixty years and a staunch Roman ally since 263 BC, died in 215 BC, and his successor Hieronymus was discontented with his situation. Hannibal negotiated a treaty under which Syracuse defected to Carthage in exchange for a Carthaginian pledge to allow the whole of Sicily to become a Syracusan possession. The Syracusan army proved no match for a Roman army led by Claudius Marcellus, and by spring 213 BC, Syracuse was besieged. The siege was marked by Archimedes' ingenuity in inventing war machines to counter the Romans' traditional siege warfare methods.

A large Carthaginian army led by Himilco was sent to relieve the city in 213 BC. It captured several Roman-garrisoned towns on Sicily; many Roman garrisons were either expelled or massacred by Carthaginian partisans. In spring 212 BC, the Romans stormed Syracuse in a surprise night assault and captured several districts of the city. Meanwhile, the

Carthaginian army was crippled by plague. After the Carthaginians failed to resupply the city, Syracuse fell that autumn; Archimedes was killed by a Roman soldier.

Carthage sent more reinforcements to Sicily in 211 BC and went on the offensive. A fresh Roman army attacked the main Carthaginian stronghold on the island,

Agrigentum, in 210 BC was betrayed to the Romans by a discontented Carthaginian officer. The remaining Carthaginian-controlled towns then surrendered or were taken through force or treachery, and the Sicilian grain supply to Rome and its armies was secured.

c. Roman Campaign in Iberia

The Roman fleet continued on from Massalia in the autumn of 218 BC, landing the army it was transporting in north-east Iberia, where it won support among the local tribes. A rushed Carthaginian attack in late 218 BC was beaten back at the battle of Cissa. In 217 BC, 40 Carthaginian warships were defeated by 55 Roman and Massalian vessels at the battle of the Ebro River, with 29 Carthaginian ships lost. The Romans' lodgement between the Ebro and the Pyrenees blocked the route from Iberia to Italy and greatly hindered the dispatch of reinforcements from Iberia to Hannibal. The Carthaginian commander in Iberia, Hannibal's brother Hasdrubal, marched into this area in 215 BC, offered battle, and was defeated at Dertosa, although both sides suffered heavy casualties.

The Carthaginians suffered a wave of defections of local Celtiberian tribes to Rome. The Roman commanders captured Saguntum in 212 BC and, in 211 BC, hired 20,000 Celtiberian mercenaries to reinforce their army. Observing that the three Carthaginian armies were deployed separately, the Romans split their forces. This strategy resulted in two separate battles in 211 BC, usually referred to jointly as the Battle of the Upper Baetis. Both battles ended in complete defeat for the Romans, as Hasdrubal had bribed their mercenaries to desert. The Romans pulled back to their coastal stronghold north of the Ebro, from which the Carthaginians again failed to expel them. Reinforcements arrived in 210 BC and stabilised the situation.

In 210 BC, Publius Cornelius Scipio arrived in Iberia with further Roman reinforcements. In a carefully planned assault in 209 BC, he captured New Carthage, the lightly-defended centre of Carthaginian power in Iberia. Scipio seized a vast booty of gold, silver, and siege artillery, but released the captured population. He also liberated the Iberian hostages, who had been held there by the Carthaginians to ensure the loyalty of their tribes. Even so, many of them later fought against the Romans.

In the spring of 208 BC, Hasdrubal moved to engage Scipio at the battle of Baecula. The Carthaginians were defeated, but Hasdrubal was able to withdraw the majority of his army and prevent any Roman pursuit; most of his losses were among his Iberian allies. Scipio was not able to prevent Hasdrubal from leading his depleted army through the western passes

of the Pyrenees into Gaul. In 207 BC, after recruiting heavily in Gaul, Hasdrubal crossed the Alps into Italy to join his brother, Hannibal, but was defeated before he could.

In 206 BC, at the battle of Ilipa, Scipio with 48,000 men, half Italian and half Iberian, defeated a Carthaginian army of 54,500 men and 32 elephants. This sealed the fate of the Carthaginians in Iberia. The last Carthaginian-held city in Iberia, Gades, defected to the Romans. Later the same year, a mutiny broke out among Roman troops, which attracted support from Iberian leaders, disappointed that Roman forces had remained in the peninsula after the expulsion of the Carthaginians, but it was effectively put down by Scipio. In 205 BC, a last attempt was made by Mago to recapture New Carthage when the Roman occupiers were shaken by another mutiny and an Iberian uprising, but he was repulsed. Mago left Iberia for Cisalpine Gaul with his remaining forces. In 203 BC, Carthage succeeded in recruiting at least 4,000 mercenaries from Iberia, despite Rome's nominal control.

d. Scipio's African Campaign

In 205 BC, Publius Scipio was given command of the legions in Sicily and allowed to enrol volunteers for his plan to end the war by an invasion of Africa. Preparations were extensive, including thorough training of the soldiers involved and the stockpiling of a vast quantity of food. Scipio intended to largely feed his army from stockpiles in Sicily, Sardinia, and southern Italy, thus freeing it from the need to forage. War materiel was also prepared in great quantities. After landing in Africa in 204 BC, he was joined by Masinissa and a force of Numidian cavalry. The ships which had landed the Roman army returned to Sicily to pick up supplies; Scipio wished to build up a large stock of food and materiel in Africa. In spring and summer 203 BC, the Romans battled with two large Carthaginian armies and destroyed both. After the second of these, Syphax was pursued and taken prisoner by Masinissa at the battle of Cirta; Masinissa then seized most of Syphax's kingdom with Roman help.

Rome and Carthage entered into peace negotiations, and Carthage recalled Hannibal from Italy. The Roman Senate ratified a draft treaty, but because of mistrust and a surge in confidence when Hannibal arrived from Italy, Carthage repudiated it. Hannibal was placed in command of an army formed from his and Mago's veterans from Italy and newly raised troops from Africa, but with few cavalry. The decisive battle of Zama followed in October 202 BC. Unlike most battles of the Second Punic War, the Romans had superiority in cavalry, while the Carthaginians had superiority in infantry. Hannibal attempted to use 80 elephants to break into the Roman infantry formation, but the Romans countered them effectively, and they routed back through the Carthaginian ranks. The Roman and allied Numidian cavalry then pressed their attacks and drove the Carthaginian cavalry from the field. The two sides' infantry fought inconclusively until the Roman cavalry returned and attacked the Carthaginian rear. The Carthaginian formation collapsed; Hannibal was one of the few to escape the field.

The new peace treaty dictated by Rome stripped Carthage of all of its overseas territories and some of its African ones; an indemnity of 10,000 silver talents was to be paid over 50 years; hostages were to be taken; Carthage was forbidden to possess war elephants and its fleet was restricted to 10 warships; it was prohibited from waging war outside Africa and in Africa only with Rome's express permission. Many senior Carthaginians wanted to reject it, but Hannibal spoke strongly in its favour, and it was accepted in spring 201 BC. Henceforth, it was clear that Carthage was politically subordinate to Rome. Scipio was awarded a triumph and received the agnomen "Africanus".

The fate of the Mediterranean was sealed.

e. Hannibal's Retirement

Hannibal was 46 at the conclusion of the Second Punic War in 201 BC and quickly showed that he could be a statesman as well as a soldier. Following the conclusion of a peace that left Carthage saddled with an indemnity of ten thousand talents, he was elected suffete (chief magistrate) of the Carthaginian state. After an audit confirmed that Carthage had the resources to pay the indemnity without increasing taxation, Hannibal initiated a reorganization of state finances aimed at eliminating corruption and recovering embezzled funds.

Seven years after the victory at Zama, the Romans, alarmed by Carthage's renewed prosperity and suspicious that Hannibal had been in contact with Antiochus III of the Seleucid Empire, sent a delegation to Carthage, alleging that Hannibal was helping an enemy of Rome. Aware that he had many enemies, not the least of whom were those who opposed his financial reforms that eliminated corruption, Hannibal fled into voluntary exile before the Romans could demand that Carthage surrender him to their custody.

During his exile, it is said Hannibal served as a political advisor in the Seleucid Kingdom, and many years after their battle, Scipio arrived there on a diplomatic mission from Rome.

It is said that at one of their meetings in the gymnasium, Scipio and Hannibal had a conversation on the subject of generalship, in the presence of a number of bystanders, and that Scipio asked Hannibal whom he considered the greatest general, to which the latter replied, "Alexander of Macedonia".

To this Scipio assented since he also yielded the first place to Alexander. Then he asked Hannibal whom he placed next, and he replied "Pyrrhus of Epirus", because he considered boldness the first qualification of a general; "for it would not be possible", he said, "to find two kings more enterprising than these".

Scipio was rather nettled by this, but nevertheless, he asked Hannibal to whom he would give the third place, expecting that at least the third would be assigned to him; But

Hannibal replied, "to myself; for when I was a young man I conquered Hispania and crossed the Alps with an army, the first after Hercules."

As Scipio saw that he was likely to prolong his self-laudation, he said, laughing, "Where would you place yourself, Hannibal, if you had not been defeated by me?" Hannibal, now perceiving his jealousy, replied, "In that case, I should have put myself before Alexander". Thus Hannibal continued his self-laudation, but flattered Scipio indirectly by suggesting that he had conquered one who was superior to Alexander.

At the end of this conversation, Hannibal invited Scipio to be his guest, and Scipio replied that he would gladly do so if Hannibal were not living with Antiochus, who was held in suspicion by the Romans. Thus did they, in a manner worthy of great commanders, cast aside their enmity at the end of their wars.

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