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ISBN 978-88-89951-44-6

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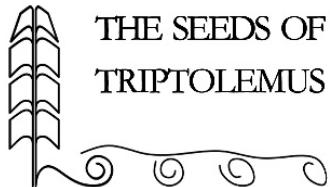
THE RECEPTION OF ANCIENT CYPRUS IN ROMAN SOURCES AND BEYOND: ELEVEN STUDIES



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THE SEEDS OF TRIPTOLEMUS
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On the cover: reworking of the mosaic of the House of Dionysus, Paphos
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ISSN 2784-8000
ISBN 978-88-89951-44-6
Copyright © 2023 Deinotera Editrice
di R.P.C.T. s.r.l.
sede legale: Piazza Filattiera, 48, 00139 - Roma
<http://www.deinoteraeditrice.com>
Proprietà letteraria riservata - Printed in Italy
Finito di stampare nel mese di agosto 2023
presso Mediagraf, Padova

Edited by

SPYRIDON TZOUNAKAS



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PREFACE
Spyridon Tzounakas

This volume (*The Reception of Ancient Cyprus in Roman Sources and Beyond: Eleven Studies*) emerged as a result of the papers presented in two Workshops that took place in Nicosia, on 29 May 2021 and 7 July 2021 respectively, within the context of my research programme entitled *The Reception of Ancient Cyprus in the Culture of the Western World* (RACCWW). This work was co-funded by the European Regional Development Fund and the Republic of Cyprus through the Research and Innovation Foundation (Project: EXCELLENCE/1216/0525). The main aim of this research programme is to shed light on the presence of Cyprus in the ancient world and on how it was perceived, as well as to consider its contribution to the Roman world and, by extension, to Western European culture. The important geographical position of the island, which constituted a point of transition to the East, the island's presence in various historical developments, and especially its rich mythology, offered ancient Cyprus many opportunities to appear – explicitly or implicitly – in Classical, Postclassical and Modern European literature and art. The studies in this volume move in this direction and supplement a volume with a similar title that ensued from an international conference held in Nicosia in February 2021: Spyridon Tzounakas, Stella Alekou and Stephen Harrison (eds.), *The Reception of Ancient Cyprus in Western Culture*, Berlin / Boston: De Gruyter 2023 (Trends in Classics 139). For more information on the aims and the main findings of the research programme, see the “Introduction” there (pp. 1-10), as well as the website of the programme (<https://receptionofancientcyprus.com.cy>).

The present volume is divided into three parts. Part 1, entitled “The Roman Conquest of Cyprus and the Exemplarity of the Island”, includes three studies. Spyridon Tzounakas (“The Roman Conquest of Cyprus in the Rhetorical Strategies of Cicero’s *De domo sua* and *Pro Sestio*”) examines the way the Roman conquest of Cyprus is rhetorically exploited by Cicero in his attempt to denigrate Clodius’ image in two speeches. He argues that the case of Ptolemy, king of Cyprus, is harmoniously incorporated in the broader argumentation of the speeches, reinforces the tragic aspects of Clodius’ opponents and works as an *exemplum* that illuminates Clodius’ stance towards Cicero and Sestius. Georgios Vassiliades (“The Roman Conquest of Cyprus in Ancient Sources: A *bellum iustum* or *iniustum*?”) continues the discussion of the Roman conquest of Cyprus. Through the analysis of relevant Latin and Greek sources, his chapter attempts to show how the Roman authors and, probably, the Roman public opinion of the 50s BC morally evaluated the annexation of Cyprus on the basis of the moral and legal category of *bellum iustum*. It is concluded that Roman public opinion, which is reflected in

contemporary and later sources, was divided on the moral evaluation of whether the annexation of Cyprus was a *bellum iustum* or a *bellum iniustum*, by thus adopting the arguments of Clodius or Cicero respectively. Margot Neger (“Cyprus *in exemplis*: Cypriot Episodes as Narrated by Valerius Maximus”) scrutinizes the presence of Cyprus in Valerius Maximus’ narrative techniques. The chapter investigates a series of anecdotes concerning the island of Cyprus in the *Facta et dicta memorabilia* of Valerius Maximus. The single *exempla* are both self-contained narrative units and parts of different thematic sections on various virtues and vices. The chapter argues that the anecdotes on incidents regarding Cyprus can be read not only within their respective section but also as a cycle which reaches from the first to the last book of the collection. It also examines how the island, its inhabitants and visitors are depicted in a literary work composed in the time of the emperor Tiberius.

Part 2, entitled “The Cypriot Myths in Ovid and Beyond”, deals with the Cypriot myths in Orpheus’ song in Ovid’s *Metamorphoses* 10 and their reception in later literature and art. In his study “Prostitution in Ancient Cyprus, the Myth of the Propoetides in Ovid’s *Metamorphoses* and the Perpetuation of a Stereotype” Spyridon Tzounakas examines various ancient sources (with special emphasis on Latin literature and the myth of the Propoetides in Ovid’s *Metamorphoses*) that contributed to the entrenchment of the promiscuous Cypriot women stereotype, which survives for centuries and is especially evident in travel writing from the 15th to the 18th century. Sophia Papaioannou’s study (“Pygmalion’s Inspiration and Pygmalion as Inspiration”) on the one hand discusses the presence of the myth of Pandora in Pygmalion and Ovid’s engagement with one of the most celebrated myths of the Hesiodic corpus, while on the other, it examines the incorporation of the Pygmalion episode in the stories of agalmatophilia featuring famous works of art and creators as well as in the Roman ideology of the *imagines maiorum*. In Stella Alekou’s study (“The Ambiguity of Love and the Ideology of Rape in Ovidian *ekphraseis*: Pygmalion’s Prequel to Arachne’s Story”) the myth of Pygmalion is examined as a prequel to that of Arachne, another famous artist in Ovid’s *Metamorphoses*. She reveals the ambiguous representation of love in these episodes, when Ovid exposes rape while apparently praising love, and argues that Ovid employs optical illusions to shed light on the image of love which in art appears as distorted, to address the politics of rape. The next study of this Part (“From the Humble Workshop in Cyprus to the Victorian Stage: Ovidian Pygmalion’s Reception in W. S. Gilbert’s Mythological Comedy *Pygmalion and Galatea*”) also deals with Ovid’s Pygmalion. Here Stamatia Kitsou demonstrates that W. S. Gilbert exploited the main outline of the Ovidian myth and proceeded to a generic transformation composing the first mythological comedy with Galatea, the statue’s name after Rousseau, as a

protagonist. As Galatea's inanimation and interaction with the other characters of the play is problematic and a series of misunderstandings arises from her lack of social education, Gilbert proves himself to be prolific in social criticism and masterful, almost latent, considerations regarding the gender-based roles and their social construction. In her second contribution to this volume ("The Ovidian and Alfierian Myrrha as an Odalisque in Lord Byron's *Sardanapalus*: Transformations and a Play of Identities"), Stamatia Kitsou investigates the presence of the Ovidian myth of Cinyras and Myrrha in Lord Byron's tragedy *Sardanapalus*. She argues that for the formation of Myrrha's dramatic persona, Byron takes into account the Ovidian Myrrha (*met.* 10.298-502) and mainly the protagonist of the pre-Romantic tragedy of Vittorio Alfieri, *Mirra*; thus, he creates a play of mutual transformations and conflicting identities, while maintaining the core of his classical models.

Part 3, entitled "Numismatic and Archaeological Evidence", includes three studies. In the first of them, Daniele Castrizio ("A Coin Series with Capricorn and Scorpion from Cyprus") deals, from an iconographic point of view, with an emission of bronze coins generally attributed to the island of Cyprus, and provides elements for a more precise dating of the coin series. Based on the writings of Manilius, this paper provides an interpretation of the importance of the zodiacal signs on ancient coins, and discusses the relationship between the zodiacal sign of Capricorn and the imperial propaganda at the time of Augustus. Next, Antonio Corso ("Pliny, *nat.* 34.81: The Bronze Sculptor Styppax of Cyprus and the *Splanchnoptes*") studies Pliny's inclusion of Styppax and of his bronze statue of the *Splanchnoptes* in his selective catalogue of the most important bronze statues and connects it to the political environment of the Flavian dynasty. Finally, Alessandra Bravi's article ("An Excellent Foreigner: Titus at the Sanctuary of the Paphian Aphrodite") sheds new light on the visit paid by Titus to the sanctuary of Aphrodite at Paphos. Based on the archaeological data, she reconstructs the site as it looked at the time of the visit of Titus, and suggests a link between the sanctuary at Paphos and the *Templum Pacis*, inaugurated by the Flavians, where Venus has her own space. She concludes that the great eastern goddess Aphrodite/Isis/Astarte was the primary legitimacy of the *imperium* of the Flavians, since her oracle was needed to a plebeian family which could not claim mythical ancestors.

I would like to express my sincere thanks and gratitude to the Research and Innovation Foundation of Cyprus, which generously supported our research project, to the Department of Classics and Philosophy of the University of Cyprus, which immediately embraced our workshops, to my dear colleagues and collaborators Dr. Stella Alekou, Dr. Despina Keramida and Dr. Stamatia Kitsou for their valuable involvement in the preparation of these events, and, of course, to all the speakers and the participants in these two

workshops, who contributed to their success. Special thanks go to Stefano Rocchi, the Director of the series *The Seeds of Triptolemus*, who supported the preparation of the manuscript with his help and advice, as well as to our publisher, Dr. Zaira Maranelli, and to Dr. Marco Filippi, at Deinotera Editrice, for their assistance and patience. I also thank the anonymous readers for their invaluable comments and suggestions which helped to improve the quality of the volume.

Nicosia, July 2022

PART 1
THE ROMAN CONQUEST OF CYPRUS AND THE
EXEMPLARITY OF THE ISLAND

THE ROMAN CONQUEST OF CYPRUS IN ANCIENT SOURCES:
A *BELLUM IUSTUM* OR *INIUSTUM*?
Georgios Vassiliades
University of Cyprus

INTRODUCTION

The facts related to the annexation of Cyprus appear scattered throughout various sources, some of which are anecdotal in nature. Let us provide a brief overview of the major facts: as related by Strabo (14.6.6) and Appian (*BC* 2.23), when the famous demagogue Clodius was captured by pirates near Cilicia, he asked King Ptolemy of Cyprus, brother of Ptolemy XII Auletes, the king of Egypt, to ransom him. Ptolemy of Cyprus sent such a small amount of money that the pirates freed Clodius without accepting it. After this event, Clodius intensified his attacks against the king and in 58 BC, when he became *tribunus plebis*, proposed a law according to which the island should be detached from the sovereignty of Ptolemy and annexed to the Roman *imperium*, while the king's fortune would be confiscated. Clodius' law was based on a controversial testament of Ptolemy X Alexander I or his son Ptolemy XI Alexander II, appointing the Romans heirs to his kingdom (including Cyprus).¹ Upon the approval of this law, Clodius proposed a new law which entrusted to Cato the mission of executing this decision.² When the king of Cyprus learned this news, he committed suicide, his fortune was auctioned and Cato removed a large amount of money to Rome.

It is clear that the annexation of Cyprus is difficult to analyse as a just or an unjust war, since no violent conflicts seem to have taken place. Nevertheless, as will be pointed out, the corresponding facts are viewed from this angle in contemporary and later sources, attempting to defend or to oppose Clodius' actions. The analysis of relevant Latin and, secondarily, Greek sources will show how the Roman authors and, probably, the Roman public opinion of the 50s morally evaluated the annexation of Cyprus on the basis of the moral and legal category of *bellum iustum*.

Without entering into detail, it would be useful to recall that the concept of *bellum iustum* dates back to the period of the *regnum* and was adapted to the

¹ On this testament, the identity of its author and the debate it raised in Rome, see CHAPOT 1912; DE SANCTIS 1932; LUZZATTO 1941; BRAUND 1983, 24-28; CALVELLI 2020, 139-153. All of them consider Ptolemy XI Alexander II as the author of the testament. Cf. BADIAN 1967, 178, who argues in favour of Ptolemy X Alexander I.

² See on these laws OOST 1955; BADIAN 1965; CALVELLI 2020, 44 ff.; 61 ff.

changing historical and political circumstances.³ According to a famous passage drawn from Livy's account of the ritual established by Ancus Marcius (1.32.5-14) to declare war, at least during the period of the *regnum*, the declaration of war was preceded by a long process involving religious or even magical elements.⁴ The *collegium of fetiales*,⁵ who were at the head of this ceremony, proceeded, first of all, to claim the stolen possessions (*repetitio rerum*), then to the notification of war (*denuntiatio belli*) and finally to the declaration of war (*indictio belli*).⁶ During the first centuries of the *res publica*, religious elements, intended to ensure that a war was just, were reinforced. The *repetitio rerum*, however, was gradually extended not only to the usurpation of possessions found in Roman territory, but to a wide range of causes (*causae*) which could be invoked by the *res publica* in order for a war to be considered just. The rigid ritualistic procedure in declarations of war also seems to have been progressively abandoned,⁷ but the observance of fetial law was still important when Rome entered the phase of Mediterranean expansion;⁸ the constitutional aspect of *bellum iustum* was also reinforced. In this context, no declaration of war and no peace treaty was considered valid, unless it had been ratified by the Roman people in the *comitia* or in the *concilium plebis*. During the late Republican period, the notion of *bellum iustum* gradually lost its religious and sacred aspect, while any claim to independence or any disregard of Roman authority appears to have been enough for a war to be considered just.⁹

Based on these premises, to what extent can the annexation of Cyprus be regarded as a just or an unjust war? The survey of relevant sources will show that no unanimous, one-dimensional answer was given to this question, and that there was instead a clear effort to shape public opinion in Rome in favour of the former or the latter view. To this end, we will not focus on

³ On the adaptation of the concept of *bellum iustum* to the changing historical and political circumstances, as described in this paragraph, see the detailed study of CHEMAIN 2015. More generally on the notion of *bellum iustum*, see DREXLER 1959; KORFMACHER 1972; ALBERT 1980; BARNES 1986; KASER 1993, 28-32; LORETO 2001.

⁴ See also on this ritual Dion. Hal. 2.72.1-9 with ALBERT 1980, 12-36; BARNES 1986, 43-45.

⁵ See SANTANGELO 2008 on the changing, but always important role of the *collegium of fetiales* in the declaration of wars throughout the Republican period.

⁶ See Cic. *off.* 1.36, with BARNES 1986, 50-52, on this triple ritual and the meaning of the phrase *res repeteret*; SANTANGELO 2008, 81-82.

⁷ See on this point RICH 1976, 90-91; FERRARY 1995, 422-424.

⁸ See GIOVANNINI 2000, 94-101; SANTANGELO 2008, 72-77.

⁹ HARRIS 1979, 166-175 argues that this ritual was not observed, at least systematically, during the late Republican period and that the concept of the just war was not always binding for the Senate to declare a war, although some grievances had to be sought out.

THE CONQUEST OF CYPRUS AS A *BELLUM (IN)IUSTUM*

sources referring to the conquest of Cyprus in a morally neutral way or when the moral judgement does not pertain to the decision to annex the island.¹⁰

THE CONQUEST OF CYPRUS IN LATIN SOURCES

CLODIUS' *LEGES* AS A FOUNDATION OF A *BELLUM IUSTUM*

It is a well-known fact that Clodius sent Cato to Cyprus after the approval of his law propositions by the people. The first *rogatio* of Clodius aimed at validating the controversial testament of King Ptolemy Alexander, on the basis of which Cyprus came under Roman rule. Following the approval of this law, Clodius secured the approval of a second law entrusting Cato, whom Clodius and the first triumvirate wanted to remove from Rome,¹¹ with the responsibility of executing the decision of the Roman people. Cato was also charged with the mission of bringing some Roman exiles from Byzantium back to Rome, either by passing a third law or by adding a relevant provision to the second law.¹² We do not know the circumstances of the approval of these laws. Nevertheless, this triple success of Clodius demonstrates that he had managed to win over a considerable segment of public opinion. Strabo indirectly refers to Clodius' influence on the people, stating that Cato's mission to Cyprus was the result of the growing power (*ἰσχυσε τοσοῦτον*) of the *tribunus plebis*: γενόμενος δῆμαρχος ἵσχυσε τοσοῦτον ὥστε ἐπέμφθη Μάρκος Κάτων ἀφαιρησόμενος τὴν Κύπρον τὸν κατέχοντα.¹³

What arguments did Clodius use to influence the people? It goes without saying that the financial and political motives which led to this decision should not be underestimated. Some of the reasons invoked by modern historians are the following: the wealth of the island combined with the

¹⁰ The following sources fall into this category: Liv. *period.* 104.6; Pomp. Trog. *hist. prol.* 40; Plin. *nat.* 7.113; 29.96; 34.92; Plut. *Brut.* 3; App. *BC* 2.23; Vir. *ill.* 80.2; *Adnot. Lucan.* 3.164, p. 90 Endt.

¹¹ See on this Dio Cass. 38.30.4-5.

¹² OOST 1955, esp. 99-100 and 109 nn. 11-12, has shown that the mission to Cyprus was entrusted to Cato by a special law, different to that ordaining the confiscation of the possessions of the Cypriot king. The mission to bring back the Roman exiles from Byzantium was probably added as a complementary provision to the second law. CALVELLI 2020, 62-64 reaches the same conclusion. Cf. BADIAN 1965, esp. 116, who argues that the restoration of the Roman exiles from Byzantium was ordained by a third law.

¹³ Strab. 14.6.6.

shortage of public funds,¹⁴ the strategic position of Cyprus,¹⁵ Clodius' desire to get rid of the annoying presence of Cato in Rome,¹⁶ and the very existence of a testament providing the Romans with even questionable legal grounds.¹⁷ However, what is important for the present study is to investigate the arguments explicitly invoked by Clodius in order to morally and legally legitimate his expansionist initiatives against Cyprus in the eyes of the Roman people. This moral and legal legitimization of the proposed laws helped Clodius ensure the people's approval of his laws.

As Calvelli¹⁸ has recently demonstrated, based on the study of later sources, in the law on the confiscation of the possessions of the Cypriot king Clodius used the verb *publicare*, a *terminus technicus* referring to the appropriation of property by the State to the benefit of the people.¹⁹ Even the use of this term reveals the clear intention of Clodius, famed for his demagogic style, to please the people and to stress that his actions aimed at the benefit of the people as a whole. Besides, during the second and especially the first century BC, the concept of *maiestas populi Romani* increasingly affected foreign policy decisions. In this context, any situation that might be considered to offend the *maiestas* of the Roman people should be redressed. Therefore, almost any war could be justified as a *bellum iustum*.²⁰

In the case in question, what might be considered an offense to the Roman people which could render the expansionist initiative against Cyprus a *bellum iustum*? The first relevant element is the accusation against the king-

¹⁴ See in this respect HILL 1940, 206; OOST 1955, esp. 99; 103 ff.; BADIAN 1965, esp. 117 ff.; FEHRLE 1983, 141-142; cf. RISING 2019, 194, and especially CALVELLI 2020, 132-139, who casts doubt on the role of the shortage of public funds in the decision to annex Cyprus.

¹⁵ CALVELLI 2020, 12-14, with earlier bibliography on the role of Cyprus as a commercial and strategic centre of the Eastern Mediterranean.

¹⁶ This idea is clearly articulated in ancient sources: Cic. *dom.* 21-22; 65-66; *Sest.* 60; Vell. 2.45.4 (*Idem P. Clodius in tribunatu, sub honorificentissimo ministerii titulo, M. Catonem a re publica relegavit*); Plut. *Cat. Min.* 34.1-3 and 6; *Pomp.* 48.6 (Κάτωνα προφάσει στρατηγίας εἰς Κύπρον ἀπέπεμψε); *Caes.* 21.8 (Κάτωνος μὲν οὐ παρόντος, ἐπίτηδες γὰρ αὐτὸν εἰς Κύπρον ἀπεδιοπομπήσαντο...); Dio Cass. 38.30.5 (βουληθεὶς δὲ Κλώδιος τὸν τε Κάτωνα ἐκποδῶν, ὅπως ᾧδον ὅσα ἔπραττε κατορθώσῃ, ποιήσασθαι...). See also on the same theory HILL 1940, 206; OOST 1955, esp. 98-99; ZECCHINI 1979, 78 ff.; FEHRLE 1983, 142-144; contra BADIAN 1965. CHRYSANTHOU 2022, 27-32 examines the relevant sources and attributes Plutarch's emphasis on Clodius' desire to get rid of Cato to the moral agenda of the biographer, who "allows Cato's virtuous character to shine in contrast to Clodius, who tries to fulfil an imperialistic desire" (32).

¹⁷ This point was recently raised by CALVELLI 2020, 139-153.

¹⁸ CALVELLI 2020, 25-43.

¹⁹ See ThLL X 2, 2444, 30-36; OLD, *s.v. publico* 1a, 2.

²⁰ CHEMAIN 2015, 258-272.

dom of Cyprus that it provided assistance to pirates. This is clearly stated in the *Scholia Bobiensia* on Cicero's *Pro Sestio* 57:

Hunc etiam Ptolemaeum regem Cypri amicum quodammodo a senatu appellatum fuisse, quandoquidem frater eius qui in Aegypto regnabat consecutus iam societatis et amicitiae honorem videretur. Ferente autem rogationem Cludio publicatum fuerat eius regnum, quod diceretur ab eo piratas adiuvarii. (*Schol. Cic. Bob.* p. 133.3-6 St.)

Scholars are divided on the scholiast's latter statement. Despite the hesitancy of older scholars like Hill to accept the validity of this information, recent historians, such as Fezzi and Calvelli,²¹ argue that its trustworthiness should not be underrated: beyond the fact that it seems to have been no accident that when Clodius was captured by pirates, he chose to address himself specifically to the king of Cyprus, there is indeed important literary and epigraphic evidence confirming that the kingdom of Cyprus occasionally provided assistance to pirates in the Eastern Mediterranean. In any case, the impact of such an argument on Roman public opinion should not be overlooked, especially taking the recent struggles of the Romans against the pirates into account: let us recall that ten years earlier, in 67 BC, despite the warnings of the *tribunus plebis* Trebellius and the *princeps Senatus* Catulus that the extraordinary powers entrusted to Pompey represented a bad precedent for the Roman *res publica*, the Roman people, concerned about the material effects of pirate raids in Italy and the Mediterranean, approved the *lex Gabinia* with great eagerness and zeal.²² Moreover, given that the scholiast uses the *terminus technicus* which was probably included in Clodius' *rogatio*, it cannot be excluded that the subordinate causal clause expressed in the subjunctive (*diceretur*), showing that the reason is given on the authority of another, reproduces the arguments of Clodius himself, perhaps in the context of *contiones* preceding the passing of the laws.²³

Furthermore, it seems that the accusation that Ptolemy of Cyprus supported pirates exempted Clodius from following the formal procedure of declaration of war, which consisted of the following stages: identifying a just cause (*iusta causa*), claiming of rights (*repetitio rerum*) and official declaration of

²¹ HILL 1940, 206; cf. FEZZI 1999, 286; CALVELLI 2020, 122 ff.

²² See Cic. *Manil.* 44; Plut. *Pomp.* 26-27; Dio Cass. 36.28-35, on the events related to the passing of the *lex Gabinia*.

²³ See HIEBEL 2009, on the role of *contiones* in the decision-making process during the late Republican period.

war (*indictio belli*).²⁴ The jurist Pomponius sets pirates and robbers apart from other enemies and states that there is no obligation of official declaration of war against them:

'Hostes' hi sunt, qui nobis aut quibus nos publice bellum decrevimus; ceteri 'latrones' aut 'praedones' sunt. (Pompon.
Dig. 50.16.118)

What Pomponius is saying, in fact, is that the *ius gentium* is not valid in the case of pirates and robbers. Cicero had claimed in the *Pro lege Manilia* that the war on pirates, entrusted to Pompey through the *lex Gabinia*, was a war common to all nations (Cic. *Manil.* 44: *commune omnium gentium bellum*). In his *De officiis*, Cicero will emphatically add that there is no obligation to observe any oath given to pirates, since the latter are not just a rival against whom we fight, but also the common enemy of humankind. Thus, neither the *ius iurandum* nor any rule arising from *fides* is valid in this case: *nam pirata non est ex perduellium numero definitus, sed communis hostis omnium; cum hoc nec fides debet nec ius iurandum esse commune* (Cic. *off.* 3.107). It follows that any act of violence against pirates is considered justified. The expansionist laws against Cyprus could thus be presented by Clodius as a *bellum iustum* on these grounds. Besides, this concept had probably been put into practice in the conduct of the Romans in the case of the *lex Gabinia*: whereas the sources reporting the circumstances of the passing of this law do refer to the pirates' wrongdoings,²⁵ they make no allusion to any sort of negotiation between the pirates and the Romans before the decision to declare war or even to the necessity of following such a procedure. On the contrary, our sources tend to insist on the speed with which the law was adopted²⁶ and the war was completed by Pompey within just forty days.²⁷ In the case of the *lex Clodia*, the 'war' was not, of course, declared here against the pirates themselves, but against one of their supposed supporters. However, this detail was probably downplayed by Clodius in the context of his persuasive strategy.

Another element which may have been used by the *tribunus plebis* and his supporters as an argument for presenting the mission of Cato to Cyprus as a *bellum iustum* is the *locus communis* of the proverbial arrogance and avarice of

²⁴ On the several forms of *instae causae* which could be adduced to declare a war see ALBERT 1980, 12-36.

²⁵ See Cic. *Manil.* 53; Plut. *Pomp.* 25; Flor. *epit.* 3.7; Dio Cass. 16.21.

²⁶ Plut. *Pomp.* 26; Dio Cass. 36.28.

²⁷ See Liv. *periodch.* 99; Vell. 2.32.4-5; Plut. *Pomp.* 27; cf. Dio Cass. 36.35, who mostly focuses on Pompey's clemency towards the pirates who decided to surrender to the forces of the Roman general.

the Cypriot king.²⁸ The historian of the Tiberian period Velleius Paterculus, despite his generally critical attitude towards the annexation of Cyprus, whose glory, in his opinion, cannot be attributed to anyone (*nullius adsignanda gloriae est*), does not hesitate to criticize the king of Cyprus. Let us recall that the latter committed suicide before Cato's arrival on the island, or perhaps as soon as he heard about the Roman plans.²⁹ Velleius notes that he committed suicide because he had a bad conscience; he also adds that the king deserved to be deprived of his kingdom and his fortune, because of his moral vices of every kind:

Cyprus devicta nullius adsignanda gloriae est; quippe plebis
scito, ministerio Catonis, regis morte, qua m ill e
c o n s c i e n t i a a c c i v e r a t, facta provincia est.
(Vell. 2.38.6)

Idem P. Clodius in tribunatu sub honorificentissimo
ministerii titulo M. Catonem a re publica relegavit: quippe
legem tulit, ut is quaestor cum iure praetorio, adiecto etiam
quaestore, mitteretur in insulam Cyprum ad spoliandum
regno Ptolemaeum, o m n i b u s m o r u m v i t i i s
e a m c o n t u m e l i a m m e r i t u m. Sed ille sub
adventum Catonis vitae suae vim intulit. (Vell. 2.45.4-5)

What are the moral faults of which the king of Cyprus is accused and for which he deserved such a punishment? Valerius Maximus proposes Ptolemy as a negative *exemplum* of *avaritia* by relating an anecdote: when it was announced to him that his immense fortune would pass into the hands of the Romans, he decided to cast his belongings to the bottom of the sea; however, when he saw the ships loaded with gold and silver, he could not bear to see them sink, and thus withdrew his decision and returned to his palace (Val. Max. 9.4.*ext.* 1). The same anecdote appears in Rufius Festus, who in his *Breviarium* notes more succinctly that the king committed suicide when he learned that his fortune would be confiscated by the Romans, “in order to lose his life before his riches” (Ruf. Fest. 13.1: *ut vitam prius quam divitias amitteret*), although in the same passage, Festus is equally critical toward the Roman people, since the conquest of Cyprus is attributed to their *avaritia*. Cassius Dio adds the accusation of cowardice and ambition, attributing the king's suicide to the fact that he dared neither to resist the Romans, nor to be

²⁸ See on this point CALVELLI 2020, 202-213.

²⁹ See Strab. 14.6.6; Vell. 2.45.4-5; Plut. *Cat. Min.* 36.1-2; Flor. *epit.* 3.9.3-4; App. BC 2.23; Dio Cass. 39.22.2; Ruf. Fest. 13.1.

deprived of his power (Dio Cass. 39.22.2: μήτ' ἀντάραι τοῖς 'Ρωμαίοις ἐτόλμησε μήτ' αὖ στερηθεὶς τῆς ἀρχῆς ζῆν ὑπέμεινε).

Whereas Valerius Maximus, Rufius Festus and Cassius Dio imply an *a posteriori* justification of the Roman behaviour on the basis of the actual facts which occurred, Velleius Paterculus stresses that the Cypriot king deserved *a priori* to suffer all that befell him. The view of Velleius, who lived at a time not far removed from the historical facts, may allude to the arguments used by Clodius to support his *rogatio*. Nevertheless, why would the king deserve such treatment? A piece of information contained in Strabo's account may provide the key to answering this question. The Greek geographer states that the king of Cyprus, by refusing to offer enough money to ransom Clodius, was considered disagreeable and ungrateful to his benefactors, the Romans (Strab. 14.6.6: ἔδοξε πλημμελῆς τε εἶναι καὶ ἀχάριστος εἰς τοὺς εὐεργέτας). As has been recently pointed out by Calvelli, the “ungratefulness” of the Cypriot king may have consisted in the fact that contrary to his brother, the king of Egypt, he did not offer money to the Romans, in order to confirm their friendship and alliance and thus keep his kingdom, which had been ceded to the Romans on the basis of the recent testament of Ptolemy Alexander.³⁰ The verb ἔδοξε, a *terminus technicus* used in the people's resolutions,³¹ may reflect the debate on the law or perhaps the content of the law itself.

Therefore, the king of Cyprus was probably accused of breaking his relationship of friendship with the Romans. This accusation could provide a legal foundation for Clodius' laws, especially given that breach of friendship, which includes ungratefulness towards the Romans, is increasingly invoked as a *insta causa belli* during the second and first century BC. In this way, the Romans presented what were basically expansionist wars as defensive.³² To sum up, the king of Cyprus was accused of sheltering piracy and breaking his friendship with the Romans. These two charges provided Clodius with a moral and legal foundation to present his proposed expansionist laws against Cyprus as a *bellum iustum* and thus obtain the approval of the Roman people.

CLODIUS' LEGES AS A FOUNDATION OF A BELLUM INIUSTUM

Clodius' arguments did not, however, convince the whole of his audience. The emergence of an opposing point of view on the annexation of Cyprus is reflected in some contemporary and later sources which view Cato's mission to Cyprus as a *bellum iniustum*. Based on their content, one can reasonably

³⁰ See CALVELLI 2020, 155-158.

³¹ See LSJ, s.v. δοκέω 4b.

³² See on this point CHEMAIN 2015, 251-254.

assume that a segment of Roman public opinion condemned the Roman conduct against Cyprus as hardly consistent with the moral standards of Roman foreign policy.

First of all, Clodius' *leges* were considered unfair from a legal viewpoint. This criticism is reflected in the speeches delivered by Cicero during the few months following his recall from exile in 57 BC, not long after Cato's departure from Rome to Cyprus. Cicero's views are important to help us survey the way in which Roman public opinion interpreted the annexation of Cyprus, not only because they were contemporary with events, but also because they probably expressed the feelings of a major section of the Roman people, who seem to have gradually become alienated from Clodius and his intrigues.³³ It is worth remembering that when Cicero was recalled from exile, thanks to the activity of the *tribunus plebis* Milo and on the basis of a law passed by the Roman people, he is said to have arrived at Brundisium and been accompanied by the acclamations of the crowd during his voyage to and entry into Rome.³⁴ The speeches delivered in the immediate aftermath of his return from exile (*De domo sua*, *De haruspicum responsis*, *Pro Sestio*) also convinced their audience and, as a result, Cicero did in fact achieve his purpose in each case.

Cicero refers to the laws on the annexation of Cyprus in his speech *De domo sua*, where he tries to prove that most of the legal acts of Clodius, and especially the confiscation of Cicero's house on the Palatine, were illegal. The orator attempts to reverse Clodius' accusations against him of assigning extraordinary (*extra ordinem*) powers to Pompey during the war against Mithridates and Tigranes, when he underlines that Clodius is the last person in a position to make such an accusation, given that he has violated every notion of justice in the case of the Cypriot king (Cic. *dom.* 20-21):

Sed cum illis possum tamen aliquid disputare: tua vero
quae tanta impudentia est, ut audeas dicere extra ordinem
dari nihil cuiquam oportere? Qui cum legeneferia
Ptolomaicum, regem Cypri, fratrem regis Alexandrini,
eodem iure regnante causa incognita publicasses, populumque Romanum celebrare
obligasses, cum in eius regnum, bona, fortunas,
patrocinium huius imperi inmisisses, cuius cum patre, avo,
maioribus societas nobis et amicitia fuisset, huius pecuniae
deportandae et, si ius suum defendere,
bello gerendo M. Catonem praefecis-

³³ See on this point Dio Cass. 39.22.1. On the historical context of these speeches and their rhetorical dimension against Clodius, see CALVELLI 2020, 25-26, with earlier bibliography.

³⁴ See Cic. *Att.* 4.1.4-5.

t i. Dices: quem virum! sanctissimum, prudentissimum, fortissimum, amicissimum rei publicae, virtute, consilio, ratione vitae mirabili ad laudem et prope singulari! Sed quid ad te, qui negas esse verum quemquam ulli rei publicae extra ordinem praefici?

Cicero accuses Clodius that, on the basis of an iniquitous law (*lege nefaria*) and an unknown or uncertain cause (*causa incognita*), he confiscated the property of an independent king (*eodem iure regnante*) and rendered the Roman people accomplices to a crime (*scelere obligasse*), by persuading them to invade the kingdom, the property and the fortune of a monarch whose ancestors had been allies and friends of Rome (*societas nobis et amicitia fuisse*).³⁵

Therefore, whereas Clodius tried to persuade the Roman people that the expedition against Cyprus was a *bellum iustum*, Cicero reproaches him, on the contrary, of a loose interpretation of the concept of *bellum iustum*, concluding that the annexation of the island was not only a *bellum iniustum*, but, far worse, a crime (*scelus*). The vocabulary used in this respect is revealing. The adjective *nefaria* characterizing Clodius' law alludes to the archaic conception of war, which should be based on *fas*, that is to say on the gods' approval, in order to be in accordance with *ius* and thus a *bellum iustum*;³⁶ this is clearly not the case here. Cicero's criticism that the cause of war in this case remained unknown (*causa incognita*) shows that, according to the orator, there had been no *iusta causa* and the war was thus a *bellum iniustum*. This is a view clearly expressed by Cicero at *rep.* 3.35 (= *Isid. orig.* 18.1.3):

Illa iniusta bella sunt, quae sunt sine causa suscepta. Nam extra ulciscendi aut propulsandorum hostium causam bellum geri iustum nullum potest [...] Nullum bellum iustum habetur nisi denuntiatum, nisi indictum, nisi repetitis rebus.

The legal status of the king of Cyprus strengthens Cicero's argument concerning the unjustified nature of the decisions against the Cypriot king: contrary to Clodius who, as we have said, tried to highlight the connection of the king of Cyprus with the pirates, in order to avoid the formal stages of the declaration of war, Cicero underlines that he was a sovereign king (*eodem iure regnante*). The orator thus implies that, if the Romans had wished to conduct

³⁵ Cic. *dom.* 20-21; see also *ibid.* 52; 59, where Cicero refers again to the alliance and friendship of King Ptolemy's ancestors with the Romans.

³⁶ See CHEMAIN 2015, 72 ff.; see also DREXLER 1959, 97-111, who examines the Roman idea pervading historical accounts, according to which a war, in order to be considered just, should be approved by the will of the gods.

a *bellum iustum*, they should have negotiated with the king and claimed their rights (*repetitio rerum*) before taking the decision to subjugate his kingdom. Cicero explicitly expresses this view not only in the above-cited fragment of the *De re publica*, but also in the *De officiis*: we should give even the enemies who offend us the opportunity to apologize for their mistakes and redress their injustice, before thinking of resorting to violence (Cic. *off.* 1.34).³⁷ Contrary to this principle, Cato was sent to Cyprus with the order and the power to declare war (*bello gerendo*) without any sort of negotiation, if the king of the island decided to defend his own rights (*si ius suum defendere*).³⁸ The alliance and friendship of the ancestors of the king with the Romans (*patre, avo, maioribus societas nobis et amicitia fuisset*) render the king's right to defend himself even more inalienable.

Cicero's conclusion is that Cato's mission to Cyprus was decided *extra ordinem*, even if Cato's own behaviour and character remained irreproachable. Cicero attempts here to dissociate Clodius' nefarious actions from Cato, who had not yet returned to Rome, thus preparing for Cato's support of his analysis of Clodius' actions. Despite this effort, Plutarch and Cassius Dio inform us that the friendship between the two men was harmed when Cicero forcibly took away and destroyed, in Clodius' absence, the records of his tribuneship which Clodius had deposited on the Capitol, on the grounds that his election as a tribune was illegal. Cato objected that if Cicero's view was accepted, all his own proceedings in Cyprus should be considered invalid.³⁹ It follows that Cato probably distanced himself from the Ciceronian view that the annexation of Cyprus should be considered a *bellum iniustum*.

Some months later, in 56 BC, in his speech *Pro Sestio*, Cicero successfully defends the *tribunus plebis* Publius Sestius, who was accused of organizing armed gangs who attacked those organized by Clodius, in order to promote Cicero's recall from exile. The orator repeats the same charges against Clodius, including the laws against Ptolemy among his illegal actions. Nevertheless, this time, he is clearer regarding the legal status of the king of Cyprus (Cic. *Sest.* 57):

³⁷ On the conditions of *bellum iustum* according to Cicero see more generally BARNES 1986, 47-49, who mostly focuses on the stages of declaring a *bellum iustum* rather than on the question of *iustae causae*. On the Ciceronian theory of *bellum iustum* in Cicero's *De officiis* see KORFMACHER 1972. Cf. LORETO 2001, 13-26, who argues that there is no theory about the just causes of war (*iustae causae bellū*) in Cicero.

³⁸ On the title *quaestor propraetor* held by Cato and his power to declare war see CALVELLI 2020, 49 ff.; see also on this question BADIAN 1965, 110-113.

³⁹ See Plut. *Cat. Min.* 40; Cic. 34; Dio Cass. 39.21.1-22.2, with the analysis of CALVELLI 2020, 280-289.

Rex Ptolomeus, qui, si nondum erat ipse a senatu socius appellatus, erat tamen frater eius regis qui, cum esset in eadem causa, iam erat a senatu honorem istum consecutus, erat eodem genere eisdemque maioribus, eadem vetustate societatis, denique erat rex, si nondum socius, a t n o n h o s t i s; pacatus, quietus, fretus imperio populi Romani regno paterno atque avito regali otio perfruebatur: de hoc nihil cogitante, nihil suspicante, eisdem operis suffragium ferentibus, est rogatum ut sedens cum purpura et sceptro et illis insignibus regii praeconi publico subiceretur, et imperante populo Romano, qui etiam bello victis regibus regna reddere consuevit, rex amicus nulla iniuria commemorata, nullis rebus repetitis, cum bonis omnibus publicaretur.

The orator admits that the king of Cyprus had not yet been called *socius* by the Senate. This is an argument which had probably been raised by Clodius as a basis of his *rogatio*. Cicero attempts to reverse this argument by stating that, despite his imprecise status, the king of Cyprus was still the brother of the king of Egypt Ptolemy XII Auletes, on whom this honour had been bestowed.⁴⁰ He was also a member of the same family and was linked with Rome by the same old alliance (*eadem vetustate societatis*). Moreover, even if he was not formally an ally, he was a king and, in any case, he was not an enemy (*at non hostis*), especially given that he attempted no aggressive action against Rome and that he remained, on the contrary, quiet, peaceful and reliant on the power of the Roman people.

Cicero here indirectly alludes to the philosophical idea already present in the second century BC, but also in Cicero himself, according to which there is a bond (*societas*) uniting not only the citizens of the same State, the *ius civile*, but also all humankind; the relations of Rome with other peoples should be regulated by the *ius gentium*, which is equally binding on Roman citizens as the *ius civile*.⁴¹ According to the philosophical concept of the *ius gentium*, expressed by Cato the Elder a century earlier, even the intention of a rival to declare war on Rome should not constitute a just case of war. The context is well known: Cato defended the Rhodians for their neutrality during the war of the Romans

⁴⁰ CALVELLI 2020, 99-110 highlights the different legal status of the Ptolemies of Cyprus and Egypt and points to the absence of a formal alliance between Ptolemy of Cyprus and the Roman Senate.

⁴¹ Cic. off. 3.69: *Societas est enim – quod etsi saepe dictum est, dicendum est tamen saepius – latissime quidem quae pateat, omnium inter omnes, interior eorum, qui eiusdem gentis sint, propior eorum, qui eiusdem civitatis. Itaque maiores aliud ius gentium, aliud ius civile esse voluerunt, quod civile, non idem continuo gentium, quod autem gentium, idem civile esse debet.*

against Perseus, whereas other Romans claimed that the Rhodians deserved to be punished with a declaration of war, because many of them harangued the people in their assemblies, urging that if peace were not made, the Rhodians should aid the king in his contest with the people of Rome. The argument adduced by Cato is revealing for the strict preconditions which should be set to justify the declaration of war: the Rhodians did not make war; they only wished to do so; unaccomplished wishes or desires should not be punished as if they had been actions.⁴²

Within this context, the Roman people thus violated the *ius gentium* by deciding to attack the Cypriot king, who had not even shown any intention to move against Rome; despite their general tendency to restore dethroned kingdoms, in this case the Roman people violently confiscated the fortune of the Cypriot king, without any previous negotiation (*nullis rerum repetitis*). Cicero alludes by this phrase to the violation of the legal procedure which renders a war just (*bellum iustum*): according to Varro, no declaration of war (*indictio belli*) was ratified by the Roman people, unless the *fetiales* were sent in advance to claim restitution (*res repetitum*).⁴³

This conduct of the Romans against Ptolemy is then juxtaposed with their recent approach to the Armenian king Tigranes, who had hardly been peaceful vis-à-vis the Romans. Nevertheless, he was allowed to continue to be a king, while the unfortunate Cypriot king (*ille Cyrius miser*) suffered all this disaster (Cic. *Sest.* 59):

Qui [scil. Tigranes] et ipse hostis fuit populi Romani et acerrimum hostem in regnum recepit, qui conflixit, qui signa contulit, qui de imperio paene certavit, regnat hodie et amicitiae nomen ac societatis, quod armis violarat, id precibus est consecutus: ille Cyrius miser, qui semper

⁴² Gell. 6.3.36-38; 47: [36] *Verba autem ex ea oratione M. Catonis haec sunt; “Qui acerrime adversus eos dicit, ita dicit ‘hostes voluisse fieri.’ Ecquis est tandem, qui vestrorum, quod ad sese attineat, aequum censeat poenas dare ob eam rem, quod arguatur male facere voluisse? Nemo, opinor; nam ego, quod ad me attinet, nolim.”* [...] [38] Postea ita dicit: *“Sed si honorem non aequum est haberi ob eam rem, quod bene facere voluisse quis dicit neque fecit tamen, Rodiensibus oberit, quod non male fecerunt, sed quia voluisse dicuntur facere?”* [...] [47] *Atque interim neque fecisse Rodenses bellum neque facere voluisse dicit, interim autem facta sola censenda dicit atque in iudicium vocanda, sed voluntates nudas inanesque neque legibus neque poenis fieri obnoxias; interdum tamen, quasi delinquisse eos concedat, ignosci postulat et ignoscentias utiles esse rebus humanis docet ac, nisi ignoscant, metus in republica rerum novarum movet; sed enim contra, si ignoscatur, conservatumiri ostendit populi Romani magnitudinem.*

⁴³ See Varro *Vit. Pop. Rom.* 2, fr. 72 P. = 75 R. (= Nonius, p. 850 L.): *itaque bella et tarde et magna diligentia suscipiebant, quod bellum nullum nisi priusquam putabant geri oportere: priusquam indicerent bellum is, a quibus iniurias factas sciebant, fetiales legatos res repetitum mittebant quattuor, quos oratores vocabant.* CALVELLI 2020, 103-104, also associates this passage with Cicero's argumentation against the acts of Clodius in *Pro Sestio*.

amicus, semper socius fuit, de quo nulla umquam suspicio durior aut ad senatum aut ad imperatores adlata nostros est, vivus, ut aiunt, est et videns cum victu ac vestitu suo publicatus. Em cur ceteri reges stabilem esse suam fortunam arbitrentur, cum hoc illius funesti anni prodito exemplo videant per tribunum aliquem et sescentas operas se fortunis spoliari et regno omni posse nudari!

Cicero deplores here the moral decadence of Roman foreign policy, to which he also refers in his philosophical works. In *De re publica*, commenting on Gracchus' violation of the treaty rights of the Latins and the allies of the Romans, Laelius warns that ruling based on force and fear rather than justice places the stability of the *res publica* at risk (*rep.* 3.41). In *De officiis*, the Arpinate notes that “as long as the empire of the Roman People maintained itself by acts of service, not of oppression, wars were waged in the interest of our allies or to safeguard our supremacy; the end of our wars was marked by acts of clemency or by only a necessary degree of severity; the Senate was a haven of refuge for kings, tribes, and nations; and the highest ambition of our magistrates and generals was to defend our provinces and allies with justice and honour. And so our government could be called more accurately a protectorate of the world (*patrocinium orbis terrae*) than a dominion (*imperium*)”.⁴⁴ The Roman approach had changed since Sulla, who used his habit of plundering and ruining within Rome also against allies of Rome (*off.* 2.27). Cicero treats the Romans' behaviour towards the king of Cyprus as symptomatic of their departure from their standards of *aequitas*, especially when compared with their unjustifiably clement attitude towards other kings.

In sum, Cicero seems to indirectly reply to the legal argument used by Clodius to lend legal validity to his laws. According to the orator's analysis, the invoked support of the Cypriot king to the pirates and his ungratefulness towards the Romans did not represent just causes of war (*iustae causae belli*). In the above-cited passages, Cicero makes no allusion to the testament of Ptolemy Alexander, on which Clodius also based his promotion of the *de rege Ptolemaeo*. Nevertheless, Cicero's view on this question had already been clarified. In 65 BC he had delivered his speech *De rege Alexandrino*, of which only some fragments survive. It is well established, however, that in this speech Cicero tried to persuade the Senate not to concede to Crassus' demands to turn Egypt into a Roman province.⁴⁵ In his speech *De lege agraria*, spoken at the beginning of his consulship in 63 BC, Cicero expresses some doubts

⁴⁴ Cic. *off.* 2.26-27. The translation is that of MILLER 1913, for Loeb.

⁴⁵ See CRAWFORD 1994, 43-56, for the edition, the commentary and the reconstruction of the context of the fragments of this speech.

about the validity of this testament, without reaching a final conclusion on the matter; he does note, however, that some people argued that this testament did not exist and that the Roman people should not create the impression that they strive after all the kingdoms because of their wealth (*non oportere populum Romanum omnium regnorum appetentem videri*).⁴⁶ Cicero, without of course being aware of it, presents an *a priori* moral evaluation of the decisions of the Roman people in the age of Clodius: the annexation of Cyprus was not only not a *bellum iustum*, since it did not rely on *instae causae*, but was also morally objectionable, since it was motivated by the cupidity of the Romans.

This viewpoint of Cicero is reflected in a historiographical *locus communis*, which shows that it was well received not only by the contemporary, but also by the later audience of the orator. The annexation of Cyprus is often interpreted as a symptom of moral decadence of Roman foreign policy. In a recent article in which I tried to reconstruct in what context reference is made to Cato's mission to Cyprus in fr. 1.10 M. of the preface of Sallust's *Histories*, I argued that this concept was already elaborated by the Roman historian, a contemporary of Cicero. Sallust, who often stresses in his monographs that moral corruption within Rome brings about the deterioration of Roman foreign policy, repeats the same theory in the preface of his *Histories*, presenting the annexation of Cyprus as a crying example.⁴⁷

Similarly, many later writers name the cupidity of the Roman people, who wanted to take advantage of the island's wealth, as the true cause of the annexation of Cyprus. For instance, the historian Florus disapproves of that decision, essentially summarizing Cicero's points. He notes that this people, the victor of nations (*victor gentium populus*), who used to offer kingdoms as a gift, attacked a king who was still alive and an ally (*socii vivique*), and conquered Cyprus without war (*sine bello*), because of the renown of its wealth (*divitiarum tanta erat fama*).⁴⁸ In the same context, Rufius Festus mentions that despite the fact that the king was an ally of the Romans and the sovereign ruler of the island, the financial difficulties of the Roman treasury were so pressing and the riches of Cyprus so immense that the law on the annexation of Cyprus was passed.⁴⁹ Ammianus Marcellinus states that he has no hesitation in admitting that the Roman people attacked the island mostly through avidity rather than justice (*avide magis ... quam iuste*): King Ptolemy, an ally and friend

⁴⁶ See Cic. *leg. agr.* 2.41 ff.; cf. CALVELLI 2020, 151-153, who doubts the validity of Cicero's arguments.

⁴⁷ See VASSILIADES 2018.

⁴⁸ Flor. *epit.* 3.9.

⁴⁹ Ruf. *Fest.* 13.

of the Roman people, was deprived of his fortune due to the shortage of public funds.⁵⁰

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the conquest of Cyprus by the Romans was probably a question which preoccupied the Roman public opinion of the late Republican period, as we can deduce from contemporary and later sources. It seems that the Roman people were divided on the moral evaluation of their own decision on the question of whether the annexation of Cyprus was a *bellum iustum* or a *bellum iniustum*. Therefore, on the one hand, Clodius promoted his laws for Cyprus by arguing that this aggressive initiative rested on a moral and legal foundation: based on a somewhat looser interpretation of the standards required for considering a war just, Clodius convinced the Roman people of his view that the Cypriot king's association with piracy and his breach of friendship with the Romans were adequate justifications for subjugating Cyprus. Clodius' approach had a minor impact on some later authors who believe that the king of Cyprus was justly punished by the Roman people for his moral vices. Cicero, on the contrary, insists on a stricter legal interpretation of *bellum iustum* and argues in his speeches in favour of the opposite view: Clodius' actions constituted a clear violation of the *ius gentium*, and thus the annexation of Cyprus could not be considered a *bellum iustum*. Cicero's view influenced the interpretation of the same facts by many later historians who see the conquest of Cyprus as a proof of Roman cupidity.

⁵⁰ Amm. 14.8.15.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ABBREVIATIONS

- ANS = American Numismatic Society.
- BMC Greek (Cyprus) = *A Catalogue of the Greek Coins in the British Museum*, vol. 24: G. F. Hill, *Catalogue of the Greek Coins of Cyprus*, London 1904.
- BMCRE = H. Mattingly *et al.*, *Coins of the Roman Empire in the British Museum*, London 1923-1976.
- CNNM = J. Mazard, *Corpus Nummorum Numidiae Mauretaniaeque*, Paris 1955-1958.
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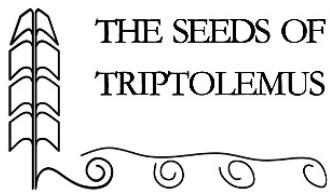
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