

# University of Texas Bulletin

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## LATIN LEAFLET

Issued by the Department of Classical Languages in the interest  
of Latin teaching in the high schools of Texas

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## University of Texas Publications

### TEXAS LATIN TOURNAMENT

(Conducted under the auspices of the  
Texas Classical Association)

Time: April 13, 1928

Places:

1. Childress, Mrs. Clarence E. Baley.
2. Commerce, Miss Dora Flaek.
3. Corpus Christi, Miss Mary Carroll.
4. Eastland, Miss Ivie Q. Wilson.
5. Lufkin, I. A. Coston.
6. Mineral Wells, Miss Laura Wallace.
7. Palestine, M. D. Stewart.
8. San Marcos, E. O. Tanner.
9. Waco, Miss Annie M. Forsgard.

It will be noticed that for 1928 there are nine centers for the tournament. Up to this time 111 schools have registered with more than six hundred contestants.

Little has been said in print about the Tournaments. This does not mean that preparations are not being made in every center. The general director, Mrs. Marian C. Butler, 2316 Colcord Avenue, Waco, knows precisely what is going on. The teachers of Latin in Texas owe a great debt of gratitude to this busy teacher who, out of love for the cause, gives unstintingly of her time.

Those who have had a part in the Tournaments can testify to the impetus received, either directly or in-

directly, from the contests. The results are more far reaching than we can measure by immediate gains. To illustrate, let us consider how long and arduously Dean West, of Princeton, worked for the Classical League. He has devoted to this organization some of the best years of his professional life. He might well be discouraged, now that he is ill and that the work has been put into other hands to carry forward, and yet Dean West has cause for comfort. Out of the League came the Classical Investigation, a gigantic and heroic piece of coöperation that is just now beginning to bear fruit in better texts, revised courses of study—an impetus that is reaching down to the teachers in the high schools and arousing them to an ambition for wider reading, for graduate study, and for travel. Let us take courage in Texas and press on.

### WHAT WILL YOU DO WITH YOUR VACATION?

Every year the editor of the LEAFLET asks this question. It would be a great satisfaction if letters would come pouring into the office telling of plans for study and for travel. The fact that many of the Texas teachers of Latin do use the summer months to advantage should be an incentive to others who have not acquired the habit. It isn't altogether a bad idea to choose a different university each summer, but

teachers would do well to take work for credit rather than to register as visitors. Credits which accumulate can be transferred. Summer catalogues are to be had for the asking. If you have not seen the circulars advertising Yale's interesting program, read this:

You are invited to participate in the Linguistic Institute to be held at Yale University from July 9 to August 17, 1928, by the Linguistic Society of America.

Courses will be given to meet the needs of the teachers who attend.

Professor Showerman of the University of Wisconsin, who directs the American Academy in Rome, generously offers to lend money to young and healthy teachers who desire work in this institution. Such opportunities do not arise every year.

To those teachers who feel that physical rest is necessary, it is suggested that a bit of Latin be read at home, and that some parallel reading be done. A list of books will be given in the next issue of the LEAFLET.

## A PERSONAL APPEAL TO LATIN TEACHERS IN TEXAS

### FELLOW-TEACHERS:

If you want to receive the LEAFLET;

If you want to encourage us to make the LEAFLET better;

If you want to keep in touch with other Latin teachers in Texas;

Please within two weeks after your school begins next fall send us your name and address.

ROBERTA F. LAVENDER.

University of Texas, Austin.

## TWO BOOKS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS OF LATIN

*The Founding of the Roman Empire*, by Dr. F. B. Marsh, University of Texas. Second edition. Oxford University Press, American Branch, 35 West Thirty-second Street, New York City. Price, \$3.50.

The appearance of the second and revised edition of this work, originally published by the University of Texas in 1922, brings to the attention of teachers a book which will prove of interest to those concerned with high-school Latin, since the volume is devoted entirely to the historical period covering the principal texts read in the high-school course; namely, those of Caesar, Cicero, and Virgil.

The earlier chapters explain the economic and political forces which

underlay Rome's supposed greed for conquest and the apparently arbitrary policy of Sulla. They help to clarify the sequence of events to which Cicero refers incidentally by way of illustration. The chapter on "The Supremacy of Pompey" gives a modern objective view of the situation, which the teacher of the oration "On the Manilian Law" will do well to compare for his own enlightenment with the subjective attitude of Cicero, the contemporary Roman. The subordinate position of the Catilinarian conspiracy in the sequence of events may surprise the teacher of the orations dealing with that episode.

Likewise, the chapters which explain the circumstances preceding and the motives underlying Caesar's conquest of Gaul throw light on the acts which he himself described in the "Commentaries." The concluding chapters explain the foundation on which rested the return of tranquillity which Virgil celebrated.

Since Dr. Marsh's conclusions rest on a careful sifting of the evidence of ancient authors, the reader is familiarized in the notes with the ancient sources of information for the period. While the book is far too technical to be placed in the hands of the average high-school student, and will require careful reading on the part of the teacher who has not worked in scientific history, its study will repay those who strive to come to class with a wider point of view than that offered by school editions of the texts.

ERNESTINE F. LEON.

*The Roman Forum, the Greatest Small Spot on Earth*, by Dr. Ralph Van Deman Magoffin. Published by the American Classical League and the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers. Pages 38, with 50 illustrations. Price, 25 cents.

This pamphlet is perhaps the most complete and certainly the most attractive non-technical description of the ancient Forum and the history of its subsequent demolition and excavation. It is admirably illustrated with photographs of the present state of the Forum and copies of drawings from the Renaissance period and historical paintings depicting scenes in the Forum. It will prove a great addition to those schools which have no access to the larger works on topography and is far more readable for the high-school student.

The proceeds from the sale of this pamphlet go toward the development of Latin over the entire country, through the channels of the League.

Professor Magoffin has generously allowed a rebate of 5 cents each per copy sold in Texas, the proceeds to be used for the Latin Tournament. The Latin classes in the University of Texas have just ordered 100 copies. It is hoped that other colleges will do the same thing this year and that later on, perhaps next year, teachers in high schools will find a place for the pamphlet in their courses.

Induce your students to subscribe. Send your order with 25 cents for each copy to Mrs. M. C. Butler, 2316 Colcord Avenue, Waco, Texas. She will forward 20 cents to the publishers and keep 5 cents for the Tournament. The pamphlets will be sent you direct by the publishers.

### AN ENCOURAGING LETTER

FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION  
Washington

WASHINGTON, D.C.,  
March 18, 1926.

TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY  
OF TEXAS,  
AUSTIN, TEXAS,  
DEAR SIR:

Someone gave me a while ago the LATIN LEAFLET, No. 1: January, 1922, published by your University. I wish very much that I might have any others that you have published and that you would place me on your mailing list for future issues. Any charge therefor I will be glad to pay. Thank you for any attention you may pay to this. I am a lawyer, trial and appellate, and I find much interest and profit in reviewing and keeping up my Latin studies. I had recently occasion to make use of an oration by the Greek orator Lysias, his "On the Corn Laws," in a brief of mine in an action against the Chamber of Commerce of Minneapolis, filed in St. Paul and argued there last May, in the Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals, United States Court. On certain points, *e.g.*, the public interest, there was nothing to add to the argument of Lysias.

With very best wishes, I am, Sir,  
CHARLES MELVIN NEFF.

### AN EXAMINATION PAPER IN FRESHMAN LATIN COMPOSITION

(First Semester Final Paper for  
Latin 202 in the University of  
Texas, January, 1928.)

I. Turn into Latin (express *italicized* phrases in two ways):

1. (a) *After delaying* for a few days, he set out for Carthage.
- (b) *On finishing this work*, what will you do?
- (c) *After encouraging* his men, the general leads them into battle.
- (d) *After encouraging* his men, the general led them into battle.
- (e) *After encouraging* his men, the general will lead them into battle.
2. The mother sat at home reading a book; there she sits every day reading; you will find her in the evening by the window reading.
3. The boy intending to go to the circus on the following day arose early; arises early; will arise early.
4. Comment on the participles found under 1, 2, and 3 above.

II. Change the following actives into passives (setting down only the words changed):

1. Graeci urbem Troiam ceperunt.
2. Pater filios linguam Latinam docebat.
3. Amicus mihi persuasit ut domum redirem.
4. Milites acriter pugnauerunt.
5. Parentes filiam Iuliam nomina-bunt.
6. State briefly the steps taken in turning from the active to the passive voice.

III. 1. Give the infinitives, active and passive, for: facio, duco, tango, video, audio.

2. Express in Latin:

The messenger reported that the army had plundered the fields, were plundering at that time, and would plunder on the following day.

3. State briefly the rule for the choice of each separate infinitive in an indirect statement.

IV. 1. Give the Latin form of question for each ablative cited below, making a brief question and answer for each:

(a) instrument, (b) separation, (c) time, (d) manner, (e) agent.

2. Give the Latin form of question for teaching two accusatives—both of person or thing; one of person, one of thing. Illustrate each by question and answer.

## V. Express in Latin:

1. (a) The father inflicted punishment on his son.
- (b) The son suffered punishment at the hands of his father.
2. (a) The father gave his daughter in marriage.
- (b) The man married the woman.
- (c) The woman married the man.
3. I wish to ask you, whence you have come, what you are carrying, and when you intend to set-forth.
4. I invite you to go with me today to Geneva.
5. With what motive does the farmer go into his fields? Obviously, to plough.

## VOCABULARY

nubo	porto	mane	duco
moror	lego	solvo	sumo
conficio	surgo	sedeo	vasto
circus	liber	fenestra	posterus
Genava	videlicet	supplicium	

### BEGINNERS' GREEK AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS, 1927-1928

Following a custom in several colleges over the country, the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, together with the Registrar, proposed in the spring of 1927 that the University of Texas offer an option of Latin 1 or Greek 1 for Mathematics 1, as a prescribed freshman course toward the bachelor's degree. The motion, after being discussed back and forth by the General Faculty in three lengthy sessions, was finally passed by a large majority—approximately two to one.

In the September registration ninety students enrolled for Greek 1, making a group large enough for three substantial sections. Out of this number the rolls show that 58 survived the final examinations for the first semester. Of these there are 12 seniors, 17 juniors, 12 sophomores, 17 freshmen. The grades made by these students are: A's, 10; B's, 16; C's, 8; D's, 17; E's, 5; F's, 2. It is interesting to note that 41 of the 58 students have had Latin from one to six years, counting the work done in high school and in college. It is illuminating also to note that in general the A's and B's were made by the students with the Latin background. A few of the higher grades, however, were made by gifted freshmen who had had no Latin, this exception

merely proving that there is no substitute for brains.

By a questionnaire it has been found that those who registered for Greek as an option for Mathematics 1 totaled 30 out of the 58. In answer to other questions included in this same questionnaire, it was found that more than 20 expect to take Greek another year and that with one or two exceptions the entire group is enthusiastic about the subject. To make the facts stand out clearly for closer investigation a table is here appended.

## GREEK 1 FOR 1927-1928

1. Enrollment	90
2. Number surviving first semester	58
3. Rank: seniors, 12; juniors, 17; sophomores, 12; freshmen, 17	58
4. Grades: A's, 10; B's, 16; C's, 8; D's, 17; E's, 5; F's, 2	58
5. Number of those have studied Latin	41
6. Number of those not having studied Latin	17
7. Prospective students for another year of Greek	20
8. Number who like Greek (approximate)	55

There has been this year no perceptible increase in Latin 1, as an option for Mathematics 1. The reasons for this lack of increase are not readily at hand. A few, however, can be cited. Many of those who enrolled for Greek registered at the same time for Latin. Moreover, a rather large group taking the Greek are students from the Presbyterian Theological Seminary. Others in all probability would have registered for Latin, if the option had included Latin B, the course open for those who present two high-school units. Let it be said here parenthetically that it was at first proposed to include Latin B in the option for Mathematics 1 and that it was a member of the classical staff who made the motion to eliminate this elementary course.

As a result of this option Greek will have a chance to make its own appeal. Those who have had it and liked it will naturally pass the word along and others in increasing numbers will have the courage to try it. For the past few decades, Greek has suffered because it has had so few students prepared to champion its cause.

### CERTAIN FRESHMAN WEAKNESSES

University of Texas freshmen are particularly deficient in English but they fail in swarms in other subjects



as well. More than nine hundred failed to pass the first-year course in botany, chemistry, geology, physics, and zoology. At last it looks as though something were wrong with our educational program. We have sowed the wind; now we are reaping the whirlwind. Surely, if enough publicity can be given to facts, every person responsible for this chaotic condition will share in the effort to find a way out.

No one person or group of persons is wholly responsible. It is easy for the college professor to hold the high-school teacher responsible for freshman failures. The teachers in the senior high schools can easily claim that they do the best they can with those who are allowed to come up from the junior high schools. Junior high-school teachers in turn are sure that the trouble lies back in the intermediate grades. The faithful teachers in these grades say that they might secure results if they could get the cooperation of the parents. It is a vicious circle. We all know that something is the matter and desperately the matter. Are we willing to confess that *we all lack courage*?

In spite of the pressure that is brought to bear to get pupils through grades, are we—all the way down the line—giving the pupil exactly what he makes and no more? What too many pupils of the present day desire (and, alas, what too many parents desire for their children) is grades. Caring little for knowledge, these pupils juggle words and count themselves fortunate to "get by." They refuse to make an effort to think except spasmodically. Such pupils should be failed wherever and whenever they deserve it.

No standard of scholarship or of honor can be maintained in a school where the teachers are not left free and unhampered in the matter of grades. If every step is taken in fairness, if the teachers, though firm and immovable, are sympathetic and approachable, the pupils will soon learn that they must work or fail. It is not expected that a pupil must "grind," but that he must get the habit of using his mind, that he should scorn to use the work of his classmate, that he should acknowledge frankly his mistakes and be willing to profit by them, and that he should take a pride in work well done. Administrators and teachers should set this standard as their goal, counting anything short of this standard a failure. As illustrations of the hazy notions that pupils get when they

have been supposed to be thinking, note these answers taken from some first-semester papers in Latin and Greek in the University of Texas. The first answers quoted were taken out of the Freshman Greek class after repeated drills had been given on the principles involved.

This was one question: How many voices are possible for an active transitive verb? Define, and illustrate each voice by an English sentence. Note three answers received:

1. "The present, middle, and passive voices are possible for an active transitive verb. The present is an act being done in present time, the passive is the subject in the past being acted upon."

2. "The three voices are the present, aorist, and perfect. The present voice signifies action taking place in the present time, aorist one time."

3. "The three voices are active, middle, and passive—active is action happening in active time, passive in passive time, middle is on self."

In defining a deponent verb the writers of Nos. 1 and 2 above answered:

1. "A deponent verb is one that does not have a regular present voice."

2. "A deponent verb is one that has passive endings but present meaning."

Although the question included a request for an illustration of each voice, the students giving the answers quoted above ignored this request. Mark these examples given, if it can be believed, by a young woman who is a senior in the University:

1. "I hit Mary." (Active.)

2. "Mary hit me." (Passive.)

3. "Mary herself hit me." (Middle.)

It should be said that these language classes contain many students who have been well trained in English and who think clearly and with exactness, but there are others, many others, who have been allowed to go from grade to grade and to graduate from the public schools without earning their promotions.

Let us call attention to a few other prevalent weaknesses in the matter of syntactical principles:

It is rare that students, even those who have had Latin three years or even four in high school, have any definite knowledge of noun clauses. Is it any wonder, then, that they are

confounded when required to diagram sentences containing such clauses or to turn English sentences of this type into Latin? Noun clauses are common in English. Noun clauses are likewise common in Latin and Greek. They are found over and over again in Caesar and Cicero. They are found as objects of certain types of verbs, and as subjects of these same verbs when impersonally passive; they are found in apposition to a preceding neuter demonstrative pronoun (*e.g., hoc, id, illud*). The pupil should be required to discover the type of verb that governs each of the five noun clauses. The verbs under each group should be memorized. The pupil should be led to look keenly for these clauses, and to copy them in notebooks under the five separate headings: (1) indirect statement, (2) indirect question, (3) indirect command, (4) quod—the fact that, (5) noun result.

Another principle that gives trouble to students in Latin and Greek is the so-called *second-accusative*. Again the pupil should be made to discover the type of verb that governs two accusatives: (1) the first accusative (the outer object) being a person or a thing, and the second accusative likewise a person or a thing, *e.g., appellare puerum Marcum*; (2) the first accusative being a person, and the second a thing, *e.g., docere discipulum historiam*. These verbs should be collected and memorized and illustrations should be copied into notebooks. It may surprise many teachers to find that these principles are common in Caesar and Cicero. It would aid the pupil when collecting these sentences to practice turning the governing verb into the passive. Let them be required to know what becomes of the second accusative. Let them be met with a number of questions like these:

1. Can a passive verb govern an accusative object?
2. Why is *rogatus est* always personally passive? Name other verbs that are always personal in the passive.
3. What is meant by a personally passive verb? What is meant by a verb that is impersonal in the passive voice?
4. Why must *quaesitum est* or *petitum est* be impersonal? Name other verbs that must be impersonal in the passive.
5. What is the only case used as object that can be made the subject when the governing verb is turned into the passive?
6. What becomes of original da-

tives, genitives, and ablatives when the governing verb is made passive?

These may seem to be simple questions, too simple to be discussed in a LATIN LEAFLET. If any one thinks so, let him test his class whether it be English, Latin, Greek, or a modern foreign language. A decade or more ago, a language teacher in college could have taken for granted that freshmen knew these principles, along with other principles equally common and fully as difficult. Those were years when English grammar was taught throughout the school system. If we have found the cause for our failure in language study and if the remedy is at hand, why not apply it, and that speedily?

### CICERO'S ORATORICAL TECHNIQUE\*

That Cicero was the greatest of Roman orators, one of the greatest, in fact, that the world has produced, has been universally recognized from Cicero's own time until the present day, but scholars have been satisfied to take his greatness for granted. Not until very recent times has any serious effort been made to study the technique of this great orator, to examine minutely the devices through which he secured those effects to which he owed his success in his lifetime and his fame with posterity, a fame which he so eagerly craved. It is now recognized that these amazing effects are not the unpremeditated product of unconscious genius, not the spontaneous outpourings of righteous emotion, but the result of a conscious technique, in which every detail is carefully worked out beforehand according to definite rules; a technique in which as little as possible is left to chance, in which every effect of spontaneity is as much the result of a painstaking preparation as a young woman's apparently random curl, which has cost no end of manipulation before the mirror.

In this brief paper it will, of course, be quite impossible to consider Cicero's technique as a whole, for that could well be the subject of a volume, a volume which, incidentally, needs still to be produced, for although numerous books have been written about many aspects of Cicero, none has yet dealt comprehensively with his technique as an orator.

At the outset we had best bear in mind certain essential differences be-

\*A paper read before the Texas Classical Association at its meeting in Houston, November, 1927.

tween the ancient and the modern concepts of oratory.

First, the ancient orator laid greater stress on form, whereas the modern orator stresses substance. The accomplished orator of Greece and Rome paid careful attention to artistic arrangement, to balance of sentences, to fine effects of emphasis, to meticulous choice of words, to the securing of harmonious combinations of words. Hence the ancient oration was more often a work of art than the speech of a modern orator. In fact, rarely does the modern criminal lawyer publish his court orations as works of literature, whereas in antiquity most great lawyers regularly published their speeches.

Secondly, the ancient orator tended to be more personal than would be considered proper in modern times; that is, he would often dwell more upon personalities than upon issues. Hence the more frequent references to himself and his own achievements, for modesty in referring to oneself was not yet recognized as a virtue. Hence also the more extensive use of invective and of coarse personal abuse. The Greeks and Romans were much less sensitive about such matters than we are, and one could call a man a liar and a libertine in public without losing his friendship. Accordingly, many passages in both Cicero and Demosthenes, which seem to us disgustingly personal, were not so regarded at the time they were uttered, because the airing of the unsavory secrets of an opponent's private life was considered an entirely legitimate weapon. At least the ethical, if not the artistic standards of oratory are higher in our day. Besides, we must remember, there were no laws against slander in those days.

Thirdly, and most important, the ancient orator appealed chiefly to the emotions of his hearers, while the modern orator professes, at least, to appeal to their intellects. The logical accuracy and the close reasoning which characterize the masterpieces of modern British and American oratory are rarely to be found in an ancient oration. Nor is this surprising, for the ancient Greeks and Romans were a more emotional people than our comparatively cold Englishmen or Americans. An appeal to their hearts was certain to be more successful than an appeal to their reasons. Hence, quite naturally, the skilful orator sought to direct his appeal where it would be most effective; for after all, the ultimate purpose of the orator, ancient or modern, is to convince his hearers,

whether he is addressing a jury or a body of voters. We find, consequently, in the orations of Cicero a large element of the purely emotional and sentimental, many effects calculated to elicit tears from his hearers, effects which may perhaps leave us, his unemotional twentieth-century readers, quite cold; but we must remember that the effect must have been far different in the crowded courtroom, amid the deep excitement of a stirring trial, where the jurors had before their eyes the mourning relatives of the wretched defendant, and ringing in their ears the harmonious cadences of the great master of pathos.

We must, therefore, judge these orations not according to the criteria of our own day and our own country, but according to the requirements of the situation in which they were delivered. That Cicero's orations were ideally adapted to the audiences which he addressed is evident from his extraordinary reputation and success, for he rarely lost a case or a cause.

Cicero states, in more than one place, that the functions of the orator are threefold: *docere, delectare, movere*; that is, to give information, to impart aesthetic pleasure, to stir the emotions. For the first of these (*docere*) a lucid exposition of the subject matter and a clear, straightforward handling of the theme are essential; for the second (*delectare*) the requisites are an artistic literary style and an attractive delivery; for the third (*movere*), which is by far the most important, the orator must employ every device of his art: telling argument, skilful arrangement, effective style, impressive delivery. Fortunately for our study of Cicero, there have come down to us several ancient works which treat in detail the rules and devices which the orator must master. The most important of these rhetorical works are by Cicero himself, and they include first, *De Inventione*, on rhetorical invention, a handbook written in his early twenties; second, *De Oratore*, on the training and equipment of the orator; third, *Orator*, a picture of the ideal orator; fourth, *Partitiones Oratoriae*, a sort of catechism on the rules of rhetoric. Cicero's *Brutus*, a history of oratory, also yields much valuable information on this subject.

We learn from these treatises, which are to a large extent influenced by the rhetorical works of the Greeks, that an oration had five parts: the *exordium*, or introduction; the *narratio*, or exposition of the situation; the *partitio*, or outline of the heads

(usually three) under which the argument would be treated—this point is often omitted; the *argumentatio*, the argument proper, which involves both positive argument (*probatio*) and refutation (*refutatio*); and lastly the *peroratio*, or emotional conclusion. Each of these parts had its own elaborate rules. I shall here consider only—and briefly—the rules for the exordium and the peroration, since in these parts especially Cicero's strength as an orator can most easily be demonstrated.

We are told in *De Inventione* that the exordium is that part of the oration which properly prepares the auditors for the main speech which is to follow, and that in order to secure this result, the speaker must make his hearers *benevolos, attentos, dociles*; that is, he must secure first, their good will; secondly, their interested attention; thirdly, their readiness to receive information.

Good will (*benevolentia*) may be secured in four ways: first, with reference to the orator himself or his client; second, with reference to the opposition; third, with reference to the auditors; fourth, with reference to the case itself.

Under the first of these methods the orator talks modestly about himself or his client. He states that although he realizes that he is hardly adequate to so important a task, he will do his best. He depreciates his own ability as a speaker. He points out the difficulties which he has to face, the obstacles put in his path by the opposition. It is particularly important to disarm at the beginning any prejudice that may exist against himself, especially if the orator is defending a man whom he had on a previous occasion accused (as in the case of Cluentius) or if he is opposing one toward whom he is supposed to have certain obligations (as in the defense of Murena, where Cicero opposed his friend, Sulpicius). He must point out that his client is a man of the finest character, although laboring under a false accusation, and that any prejudice which may be felt against the man is due to a misunderstanding of the circumstances.

The second method of securing the good will of the hearers, especially of the jury, is by referring to the opposition. This is done, Cicero informs us in three ways: by arousing against them first, hatred (*odium*); second, prejudice (*invidia*); third, contempt (*contemptio*). Hatred is aroused against them by stating that they have been guilty of acts that are

cruel, immoral, arrogant, malicious, outrageous; especially that they are attempting to use the members of the jury as tools in accomplishing their crimes when other methods have failed. (Thus, in the exordium of the oration, for Sextus Roscius, Cicero points out that after an unsuccessful attempt to murder the young defendant, the opposition has trumped up against him the false accusation of parricide, hoping to accomplish the ruin of an innocent man through the medium of the laws and the jury.) Secondly, prejudice is aroused against the opposition by showing that in this case they are relying not on the justice of their cause, but on such weapons as coercion, political influence, wealth, bribery. (Everyone is familiar with the case of Verres, of whom Cicero states significantly that he boasted that his wealth and influential friends would secure his acquittal.) Thirdly, contempt is aroused against those on the other side by showing that they are indolent, worthless, luxury loving, immoral, stupid. Here the orator may indulge in biting jests and in ridicule.

The third method of securing good will is with reference to the auditors. The speaker praises the moral courage of the jury, their good judgment, their tender hearts; he states that this is the most select group that he has ever addressed. This must be done in a very subtle manner, we are told, so that it will not appear as flattery.

Fourthly, good will is secured by referring to the case itself. The orator points out that the cause is a just one, and is identified with the cause of all good citizens or with the state. He contrasts the justice of his client's cause with the injustice of the opposition. He states that his client has the support of all the best people.

Having secured the good will of the hearers by these four methods, the orator next seeks to secure their attention. This is done first, by stating that the speech will be a brief one. The orator does not need to keep this promise, for he can afterwards apologize for going into more detail than was expected by saying that it will be easier for his auditors to grasp the situation if they hear all the details. Secondly, attention is secured by showing that this case is important, unique, incredible. There has never before been so unusual a case before the courts in all the history of the state, in all the history of human civilization. The speaker may state here that this case involves not only

his client, but also the welfare of his auditors, or of certain illustrious citizens, or that the safety of the individual citizen is imperiled, or that the future of the entire country is at stake.

The last part of the exordium makes the hearers *dociles*; that is, ready to receive this important information. This is done by presenting the point at issue in a nutshell and indicating just what the jury must decide.

The rhetorical works of Cicero indicate with much detail how the exposition (*narratio*) may be treated so as to be the most favorable to one's own case; and then, as regards the argument proper, what types of arguments are to be employed, how they can be most effectively arranged so that the weaker points of the case will be overlooked and the stronger points will be brought into the foreground, how the arguments of the opposition may be undermined, how witnesses are to be handled.

After the oration proper has been concluded, the orator throws all of his art into the final appeal or peroration. This consists often of three parts: first, of an *enumeratio*, a brief summing up of the main argument, done carefully, Cicero cautions, so as not to imply for a moment that the orator does not trust the memories of his hearers. The other two parts are the *indignatio*, by which indignation is aroused against the opposition, and the *conquestio*, which is the last appeal to the sympathies of the audience. It is an indication of how carefully the technique of the peroration was worked out that Cicero, in his treatise *De Inventione*, details fifteen ways of arousing indignation and sixteen ways of securing sympathy. Without enumerating all of these, I shall cite several of those which are most frequently used by Cicero himself.

The methods of arousing indignation will, of course, be employed chiefly by a prosecutor, but occasionally will also serve a speaker for the defense. Among the fifteen methods are the following: The orator will point out that if this crime is not punished, others will feel that they can do the same with impunity; that as a result, no citizen will be safe; that all honest men, even the gods themselves, are watching the outcome of this trial with anxiety; that all criminals are watching the trial with anticipation, ready to let loose their savage fury if the jury does not act with firmness; that a courageous and

uncompromising decision will put an end to this evil situation. He will point out further, if the situation warrants it, that the crime was one of cold premeditation and not the rash act of a thoughtless moment. He will amplify any element of violence or of cruelty. If the crime was committed against a near relative, or a friend, or a host or guest, or an old man, or a cripple, or a woman, or a child, the orator will state that the act was inhuman, that not even savages or wild beasts would be guilty of so heinous a deed. He will compare this crime with other crimes and show that this is far more outrageous and horrible than any other crime that has ever been committed; that it is, in fact, absolutely without precedent. He will vivify and amplify each detail of the crime with exclamations of horror. He will stress the fact that this scoundrel by his haughty and arrogant attitude is adding insult to injury. He will call upon the jurors to imagine themselves in the place of the victim: if the victim was a child, to think of their own children; if a woman, to think of their own wives; if an old man, to think of their parents.

It was in the concluding portion of the peroration, the *conquestio* or *com-miseratio*, that Cicero's art was most effective. As a lawyer who rarely conducted a prosecution, but appeared almost invariably for the defense, he used every device in his power to arouse sympathy for his client. So successful was he in appealing to the emotions of a jury, that when more than one lawyer spoke for the defense, as often happened, Cicero was always selected to make the concluding speech. Here Cicero's style is seen in its most brilliant form with its rich, flowing periods, its musical cadences, its crashing climaxes, which held his hearers fascinated and so overwhelmed them that the arguments of the other side were forgotten and their hearts were melted with compassion for the unhappy victim whom they alone could save. It should be noted here that a final appeal of this type was all the more effective with a Roman jury, which cast its ballots immediately upon the conclusion of the case with no opportunity for retiring and coldly deliberating together on the evidence. We must remember also that no unanimous vote was required, as with us, but that the vote of a majority was sufficient for a verdict. If, therefore, the orator could stir the emotions of more than half of his jury, his case was won.

Of the sixteen ways of securing sympathy, which Cicero enumerates, the following are especially worthy of mention: Point out, if possible, that your client, who was recently so prosperous and fortunate, is now reduced to poverty and misfortune, for nothing so arouses pity as wretchedness which follows good fortune. Enumerate the misfortunes through which he has passed or is about to pass. State that he least of all men deserves such misfortune because he is a man of the finest character or because he has done noteworthy services to the state. In a case where the penalty is exile, dwell upon the heart-breaking aspects of separation from one's parents, wife, children, friends. Show that he has been wronged by those from whom he should least of all have expected such treatment, as relatives, friends, or persons whom he had benefited. Appeal in the humblest manner to the compassion of the jury and beg them to picture their own dear ones in a similar situation. Conclude by saying that this unfortunate man will accept courageously whatever happens, for, the writer notes, in many cases fortitude and a noble spirit of

resignation will be even more effective than humility and entreaty. In desperate cases this final appeal can be made more potent if the pleader takes by the hand the little son of the defendant or points to his aged father or sorrowing wife, or pretends that his own voice is so choked with tears that he is unable to proceed with his speech. The orator is cautioned, in this connection, not to dwell too long on his emotional appeal, but to stop as soon as his hearers are worked up, because, he remarks, nothing dries more quickly than a tear, especially in the misfortune of others.

I shall not touch here on the suggestions which Cicero offers for delivery, especially the modulation of the voice, types of gestures, walking up and down the platform, or, on occasion, stamping the foot or tearing the hair; nor shall I cite the elaborate rules which he lays down for choice of words, sentence structure, rhythmic effects. I have sought merely to indicate that Cicero's success as an orator was due not only to his great natural genius for oratory, but also to the fact that he had mastered the technique of his profession.



# UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

## Summer School of 1928

### COURSES IN GREEK AND LATIN

First Term, June 5–July 16

#### GREEK

*1x. Beginners Greek.*—Intended for persons who have not studied Greek, especially teachers of Latin who would make some acquaintance with the language of the people who so powerfully affected Rome. With this beginning Greek may well be continued by correspondence in the Department of Extension. Two semester hours. DR. D. A. PENICK and DR. H. J. LEON.

#### LATIN

*1z. Virgil.*—A knowledge of the common forms of elementary syntax is presupposed. Pronunciation and correct phrasing will be stressed. Applicants not credited with three admission units in Latin will be admitted only by special permission of the instructor. Two semester hours. MRS. MYRTLE E. CLOPTON, M.A., Teacher of Latin in the North Dallas High School.

*202. First Writing Course.*—An elementary composition course strongly urged in conjunction with Latin 1 and required for recommendation as a teacher of Latin. Prerequisite: Three admission units in Latin or the special permission of the instructor. Two semester hours. MISS ANNIE LAURIE WALKER, B.A., Teacher of Latin in the Fort Worth Junior High School.

*13z. Horace's Odes and Epodes.*—Prerequisite: Latin 1. Two semester hours. DR. H. J. LEON.

*25x, y or z. Junior Reading.*—May be counted for any term of junior Latin of the Long Session. Prerequisite: Latin 13. The text will be determined when the class meets. Two semester hours. DR. D. A. PENICK.

*68x, y or z. Senior Reading.*—May be counted for any term of senior Latin of the Long Session. Prerequisite: Latin 25. Two semester hours. The text will be determined when the class meets. DR. H. J. LEON.

*83x, y or z. Graduate Reading.*—Prerequisite: Latin 68. Two semester hours. The text will be determined when the class meets. DR. D. A. PENICK.

*Education 215. Teachers' Course in Latin.*—A discussion of modern methods with daily attendance on a class in practice teaching. Two semester hours. Prerequisite: Latin 1 and six semester hours in education. MRS. MYRTLE E. CLOPTON, of the North Dallas High School.

### Second Term, July 16–August 27

#### LATIN

*1x or y. Cicero's De Senectute.*—Prerequisite: Three admission units in Latin. Two semester hours. MISS TRUDIE WILSON, M.A., Teacher of Latin in the San Jacinto High School, Houston.

*25y. Junior Reading.*—May also be registered for as 25x or 25z. Prerequisite: Latin 13. The text will be determined when the class meets. Two semester hours. DR. D. A. PENICK.

*25z. Junior Reading.*—May also be registered for as 25x or 25y. Prerequisite: Latin 13. The text will be determined when the class meets. Two semester hours. DR. DONALD CAMERON, of Boston University.

*68x, y or z. Senior Reading.*—The topography of Rome and Latium. Illustrated with photographs and lantern slides. Prerequisite: Latin 25. DR. DONALD CAMERON, of Boston University.

*83x, y or z. Graduate Reading.*—For this term the same as Latin 68, with special conference work in addition. Prerequisite: Latin 68. Two semester hours. DR. DONALD CAMERON, of Boston University.

For Catalogue of the Summer Session, address E. J. MATHEWS, Registrar, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.