

Chapter 1 : Greek and Roman Literature | Department of Classics

3 The course content has been divided into units (i.e., 'Overview of Roman History', 'Roman Society', 'Roman Literature', etc). Depending on the topic(s) each unit may last from one to three weeks.

He composed an epic poem about the first Punic War, in which he had fought. Other epic poets followed Naevius. Quintus Ennius wrote a historical epic, the *Annals* soon after BC, describing Roman history from the founding of Rome to his own time. He adopted Greek dactylic hexameter, which became the standard verse form for Roman epics. He also became famous for his tragic dramas. In this field, his most distinguished successors were Marcus Pacuvius and Lucius Accius. These three writers rarely used episodes from Roman history. Instead, they wrote Latin versions of tragic themes that the Greeks had already handled. But even when they copied the Greeks, they did not translate slavishly. Only fragments of their plays have survived. Cato the Elder Considerably more is known about early Latin comedy, as 26 Early Latin comedies are extant – 20 of which Plautus wrote, and the remaining six of which Terence wrote. But they treated the plots and wording of the originals freely. Plautus scattered songs through his plays and increased the humor with puns and wisecracks, plus comic actions by the actors. His works provided the chief inspiration for French and English comedies of the 17th century AD, and even for modern American comedy. Cato also wrote the first Latin history of Rome and of other Italian cities. Early Latin literature ended with Gaius Lucilius, who created a new kind of poetry in his 30 books of *Satires* 2nd century BC. He wrote in an easy, conversational tone about books, food, friends, and current events. The Golden Age[edit] Main article: Classical Latin Traditionally, the height of Latin literature has been assigned to the period from 81 BC to AD 17, although recent scholarship has questioned the assumptions that privileged the works of this period over both earlier and later works. The age of Cicero[edit] Roman Orator. Cicero has traditionally been considered the master of Latin prose. His letters provide detailed information about an important period in Roman history and offer a vivid picture of the public and private life among the Roman governing class. His philosophical works were the basis of moral philosophy during the Middle Ages. His speeches inspired many European political leaders and the founders of the United States. Caesar wrote commentaries on the Gallic and civil wars in a straightforward style to justify his actions as a general. Sallust adopted an abrupt, pointed style in his historical works. He wrote brilliant descriptions of people and their motives. The birth of lyric poetry in Latin occurred during the same period. The short love lyrics of Catullus are noted for their emotional intensity. Catullus also wrote poems that attacked his enemies. In his longer poems, he suggested images in rich, delicate language. One of the most learned writers of the period was Marcus Terentius Varro. Called "the most learned of the Romans" by Quintilian, [7] he wrote about a remarkable variety of subjects, from religion to poetry. But only his writings on agriculture and the Latin language are extant in their complete form. The Augustan Age[edit] Main article: Augustan literature ancient Rome Virgil The emperor Augustus took a personal interest in the literary works produced during his years of power from 27 BC to AD This period is sometimes called the Augustan Age of Latin Literature. Virgil published his pastoral *Eclogues*, the *Georgics*, and the *Aeneid*, an epic poem describing the events that led to the creation of Rome. Virgil told how the Trojan hero Aeneas became the ancestor of the Roman people. Virgil also provided divine justification for Roman rule over the world. Although Virgil died before he could put the finishing touches on his poem, it was soon recognized as the greatest work of Latin literature. The perfection of the *Odes* in content, form, and style has charmed readers for hundreds of years. The *Satires* and *Epistles* discuss ethical and literary problems in an urbane, witty manner. It stated the basic rules of classical writing as the Romans understood and used them. Most of this poetry is concerned with love. Ovid also wrote the *Fasti*, which describes Roman festivals and their legendary origins. Ovid was a witty writer who excelled in creating lively and passionate characters. The *Metamorphoses* was the best-known source of Roman mythology throughout the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. It inspired many poets, painters, and composers. In prose, Livy produced a history of the Roman people in books. Only 35 survived, but they are a major source of information on Rome. During the reign of Nero from 54 to 68, the Stoic philosopher Seneca wrote a number of dialogues and letters on such moral themes as mercy and

generosity. In his *Natural Questions*, Seneca analyzed earthquakes, floods, and storms. His nephew Lucan wrote the *Pharsalia* about 60, an epic poem describing the civil war between Caesar and Pompey. The *Satyricon* about 60 by Petronius was the first Latin novel. It describes the adventures of various low-class characters in absurd, extravagant, and dangerous situations, often in the world of petty crime. At the hands of Martial, the epigram achieved the stinging quality still associated with it. Juvenal brilliantly satirized vice. The historian Tacitus painted an unforgettably dark picture of the early empire in his *Histories* and *Annals*, both written in the early 2nd century. His contemporary Suetonius wrote biographies of the 12 Roman rulers from Julius Caesar through Domitian. The letters of Pliny the Younger described Roman life of the period. Quintilian composed the most complete work on ancient education that we possess. Important works from the 2nd century include the *Attic Nights* of Aulus Gellius, a collection of anecdotes and reports of literary discussions among his friends; and the letters of the orator Marcus Cornelius Fronto to Marcus Aurelius. This novel concerns a young man who is accidentally changed into a donkey. The story is filled with colorful tales of love and witchcraft. Latin in the Middle Ages, Renaissance, and Early Modernity[edit] Pagan Latin literature showed a final burst of vitality in the late 3rd century through 5th centuries. Ammianus Marcellinus in history, Quintus Aurelius Symmachus in oratory, and Ausonius and Rutilius Claudius Namatianus in poetry all wrote with great talent. The *Mosella* by Ausonius demonstrated a modernism of feeling that indicates the end of classical literature as such. At the same time, other men laid the foundations of Christian Latin literature during the 4th century and 5th century. They included the church fathers Augustine of Hippo, Jerome, and Ambrose, and the first great Christian poet, Prudentius. During the Renaissance there was a return to the Latin of Classical times, called for this reason Neo-Latin. This purified language continued to be used as the *lingua franca* among the learned throughout Europe, with the great works of Descartes, Francis Bacon, and Baruch Spinoza all being composed in Latin. Among the last important books written primarily in Latin prose were the works of Swedenborg. Several of the leading English poets wrote in Latin as well as English. Some indeed wrote chiefly in Latin and were valued for the elegance and Classicism of their style. Examples of these were Anthony Alsop and Vincent Bourne, who were noted for the ingenious way that they adapted their verse to describing details of life in the 18th century while never departing from the purity of Latin diction. Public speaking had great importance for educated Romans because most of them wanted successful political careers. When Rome was a republic, effective speaking often determined who would be elected or what bills would pass. After Rome became an empire, the ability to impress and persuade people by the spoken word lost much of its importance. But training in rhetoric continued to flourish and to affect styles of writing. A large part of rhetoric consists of the ability to present a familiar idea in a striking new manner that attracts attention. Latin authors became masters of this art of variety. Language and form[edit] Latin is a highly inflected language, with many grammatical forms for various words. As a result, it can be used with a pithiness and brevity unknown in English. It also lends itself to elaboration, because its tight syntax holds even the longest and most complex sentence together as a logical unit. Latin can be used with striking conciseness, as in the works of Sallust and Tacitus. Or it can have wide, sweeping phrases, as in the works of Livy and the speeches of Cicero. Latin lacks the rich poetic vocabulary that marks the Greek poetry. Some earlier Latin poets tried to make up for this deficiency by creating new compound words, as the Greeks had done. But Roman writers seldom invented words. Except in epic poetry, they tended to use a familiar vocabulary, giving it poetic value by imaginative combinations of words and by rich sound effects. They also had an intimate knowledge of the Greek poets, whose themes appear in almost all Roman literature. Latin moves with impressive dignity in the writings of Ovid, Cicero, or Virgil. It reflects the seriousness and sense of responsibility that characterized the ruling class of Rome during the great years of the republic. But the Romans could also relax and allow what Horace called the "Italian vinegar" in their systems to pour forth in wit and satire.

Chapter 2 : History of Ancient Rome for Kids: Roman Food, Jobs, Daily Life

Perhaps the most famous type of Roman literature is poetry. The three most famous Roman poets are Virgil, Horace, and Ovid. Virgil (70 BC to 19 BC) - Virgil is known for writing the epic poem the Aeneid.

A wariness that has been slowly brewing is turning into a regionwide consensus: The benefits of screens as a learning tool are overblown, and the risks for addiction and stunting development seem high. The debate in Silicon Valley now is about how much exposure to phones is O. It has often been said that until it can be determined when the soul joins the body of a new baby, abortion cannot be called murder. This, however, is not the main concern of the Bible. The key phrase of Scripture is found in Genesis 9: What relation does this verse have to the problem of abortion? Before the fetus is three weeks old, it has a beating heart. Also, its primitive vessels and blood are in the process of developing continuously throughout the.. Read More Independent Baptist Pragmatism Pragmatism is to focus on the practicality of a decision rather than a principle. At least another 25 verses are devoted to songs and prayers by women: The simplicity of the words, mostly one syllable, creates power. Awake, awake, Deborah; awake, awake, utter a song At her feet he bowed, he fell, he lay down: I cannot remember when I began to be an infidel. Certainly at a very early age -- even before I knew what infidelity meant. There was nothing in my home life to beget or suggest it. My father was a self-educated Baptist minister, preaching -- mainly without compensation -- to village or country.. The bloodletting was accomplished by knives and leeches and was performed by barbers as well as physicians. The red-and-white pole still used to identify barber shops is derived from this practice. Originally it signified bloody bandages wrapped around a pole. For this they willingly are ignorant of, that by the word of God the heavens were of old, and the earth standing out of the water and in the water: Whereby the world that then was, being overflowed with water, perished: But the heavens and the earth, which are now, by the same word are kept in store, reserved unto fire against the day of judgment and perdition of ungodly..

Chapter 3 : mariamilani Ancient Rome

Roman literature was from its very inception influenced heavily by Greek authors. Some of the earliest works currently discovered are of historical epics telling the early military history of Rome. As the Republic expanded, authors began to produce poetry, comedy, history, and tragedy.

The Positive View of Roman Literature Taking a positive view of ancient Roman literature we can say that certainly a great quality underlying ancient Roman culture was the ability to appreciate, accommodate and assimilate the best of what could be gained from the conquered and allied territories. This is not a negative aspect as such and in fact came through in many aspects of Roman society, all the way through to the openness to different cultures and ideas, religions: A proverb taken from Aristotle lent itself well to Roman pragmatism: Roman schools gave the bare essentials and elitist Roman schooling frequently implied travel to foreign lands such as Greece or Crete where the techniques of oratorical and literary tradition could be perfected. The spread of literacy in Rome civilisation was supported by all those aspects which one might expect in a modern society: The access to increasingly broad sources of knowledge and thinkers was also a fundamental part of the jigsaw: Creation of cultural centres which could be consulted: Last but not least the wealth of Rome, its reach and focus on public works further underpinned the above through the widespread construction of Roman libraries and the great focus placed on stocking them with the works which could be found across the empire, in all languages and covering all themes.

The Negative view of Roman Literature Two generally disparaging generalisations can be made of Roman literature: First and foremost that Roman literature was essentially a copy of that of Greece. Imperial and political propagandistic influence which stifled creativity. Certainly both of the above are to a great extent true although the resulting body of Roman literature is proof that on the whole the net effects of the positive and negative influences was a net positive. The short list of Roman writers below is proof enough.

Greek influence on Roman literature: The influence of Greece on Roman literature is undeniable, particularly so during the republican period when the Romans were an essentially agricultural and military society and hence had a language which likely lacked the flexibility of expression required of high literature. The factors already listed above which underpin literacy within society had been weak but were continuously strengthening, just as Roman dominion enabled control first of the Greek colonies in southern Italy and later on of the Greek city-states themselves. The influence of Greece was to last throughout the growth of the Roman empire in many shapes and forms, not least because Greeks themselves were the holders of such knowledge. An exemplar evidence of this is that Emperor Vespasian encouraged the foreign elite thinkers to move to Rome so that the Roman scholars might stay and learn at home rather than spending their money abroad. Sculpture and visual arts were often performed by Greeks or by Romans copying Greek originals all over the empire. However, poetry, by virtue of the very material language and driven by very Roman social characteristics did form connotations of its own in parallel with those of Greece.

Political influence and censorship on Roman literature: Observing this phenomenon therefore rightly starts with Caesar and Augustus. Catullus was an established and recognised poet of the time, not well regarded by some: However, political control of literature would inevitably carry its cost and prove detrimental in the long run: Similar examples might be had in Ptolemaic Alexandria with its world famous library which was a centre of knowledge but not necessarily a centre of innovation and creativity because of the continued controlling influence of politics. An example closer to our own times might be communist Russia or other totalitarian regimes in general. This process of increased censorship went in parallel with an increasing attention to the language itself: This is particularly noticeable if we compare the Latin of say Cicero or Horace to that of Plautus.

Roman writers We take the opportunity to provide a simple short list of interesting Roman writers, short notes about them and a mention of the works they are known for: Roman Writers Notes about the Roman writers L. Came to Rome from the North African provinces. He receives salvation from the goddess Isis. A book in the tradition of Don Quixote and Decameron. Interestingly Apuleius himself had to defend himself from public accusations of dabbling in magic. A statesman of the old tradition, devoted to parsimony and austerity and farming. He wrote a variety of works amongst which De

Agricultura is the earliest surviving piece of Latin prose. It is said to have been influenced also by what was learned of books surviving the destruction of Carthage, in particular one written by Mago supposedly brother of Hannibal. It inspired many writers and farmers! A poet of Equestrian class. In spite of having some political roles his poetry was largely about his personal lifestyle and love. There are many surviving examples of his works arranged into a cohesive body of work. He wrote a great body of work, and given the generally positive view of him taken by the later Christians a good volume of his work has come down to us for example some letters, not to mention books and speeches: Letters and Prose work about rhetoric, philosophy and public speeches covering themes such as oratory, friendship, religion, constitutionalism. Initially in the faction against Augustus but eventually reconciled and befriended by the rich patron Maecenas. His letters and satires hold great information about daily life. Perhaps a little contrived. Unlikely to have been written with an impartial view, and in fact a good piece of political propaganda to maintain support from home. Some parts were completed by his aides de camp. Lucilius BC approx BC. A Roman citizen of Equestrian class. He was highly regarded by Cicero and Horace. A poem describing Epicurean philosophy of atomism to convince the readers of the foolishness behind superstition and fear of death. Read and admired by Cicero and Virgil. Very witty satirist from Hispania Iberian peninsula. Great poet, wrote much about love. He had to tread carefully and was eventually caught out with an accusation of treason and committed suicide, related to us by Tacitus. Translated many humorous works from Greek, often for theatrical plays. Great reading for both humour and an insight into everyday language. Plutarch Polibius Greek captive, great historian to whom we owe some great insights into Roman society and the Roman army. Opened a school of rhetoric, probably taught Pliny the younger and possibly Tacitus. Reached the high position of Consul under Emperor Vespasian. Sallust Suetonius Tacitus A good factual historian who recorded many events, including the masterly suicide of Petronius in the 16th book of his Annals. A later ancestor of Tacitus was made emperor and ensured that the works of Tacitus be stocked into public libraries.

Chapter 4 : Latin Literature - History for Kids Facts

Roman Life and Literature - Life and Literature in the Roman blog.quintoapp.com Tenney Frank, Professor of Latin in the Johns Hopkins University, Sather Professor of Classical Literature in the University of California,

See Article History Greek literature, body of writings in the Greek language , with a continuous history extending from the 1st millennium bc to the present day. Later, after the conquests of Alexander the Great, Greek became the common language of the eastern Mediterranean lands and then of the Byzantine Empire. Literature in Greek was produced not only over a much wider area but also by those whose mother tongue was not Greek. Even before the Turkish conquest the area had begun to shrink again, and now it is chiefly confined to Greece and Cyprus. Ancient Greek literature Of the literature of ancient Greece only a relatively small proportion survives. Yet it remains important, not only because much of it is of supreme quality but also because until the mid-th century the greater part of the literature of the Western world was produced by writers who were familiar with the Greek tradition, either directly or through the medium of Latin, who were conscious that the forms they used were mostly of Greek invention, and who took for granted in their readers some familiarity with Classical literature. The periods The history of ancient Greek literature may be divided into three periods: Archaic to the end of the 6th century bc ; Classical 5th and 4th centuries bc ; and Hellenistic and Greco-Roman 3rd century bc onward. Archaic period , to the end of the 6th century bc The Greeks created poetry before they made use of writing for literary purposes, and from the beginning their poetry was intended to be sung or recited. The art of writing was little known before the 7th century bc. The script used in Crete and Mycenae during the 2nd millennium bc [Linear B] is not known to have been employed for other than administrative purposes, and after the destruction of the Mycenaean cities it was forgotten. Its subject was myth – part legend , based sometimes on the dim memory of historical events; part folktale; and part religious speculation. But since the myths were not associated with any religious dogma , even though they often treated of gods and heroic mortals, they were not authoritative and could be varied by a poet to express new concepts. Thus, at an early stage Greek thought was advanced as poets refashioned their materials; and to this stage of Archaic poetry belonged the epics ascribed to Homer, the Iliad and the Odyssey, retelling intermingled history and myth of the Mycenaean Age. These two great poems, standing at the beginning of Greek literature, established most of the literary conventions of the epic poem. The didactic poetry of Hesiod c. The several types of Greek lyric poetry originated in the Archaic period among the poets of the Aegean Islands and of Ionia on the coast of Asia Minor. Archilochus of Paros, of the 7th century bc, was the earliest Greek poet to employ the forms of elegy in which the epic verse line alternated with a shorter line and of personal lyric poetry. His work was very highly rated by the ancient Greeks but survives only in fragments; its forms and metrical patterns – the elegiac couplet and a variety of lyric metres – were taken up by a succession of Ionian poets. At the beginning of the 6th century Alcaeus and Sappho , composing in the Aeolic dialect of Lesbos, produced lyric poetry mostly in the metres named after them the alcaic and the sapphic , which Horace was later to adapt to Latin poetry. No other poets of ancient Greece entered into so close a personal relationship with the reader as Alcaeus, Sappho, and Archilochus do. They were succeeded by Anacreon of Teos, in Ionia, who, like Archilochus, composed his lyrics in the Ionic dialect. Choral lyric, with musical accompaniment, belonged to the Dorian tradition and its dialect , and its representative poets in the period were Alcman in Sparta and Stesichorus in Sicily. Both tragedy and comedy had their origins in Greece. Comedy , too, originated partly in Dorian Greece and developed in Attica, where it was officially recognized rather later than tragedy. Both were connected with the worship of Dionysus , god of fruitfulness and of wine and ecstasy. Written codes of law were the earliest form of prose and were appearing by the end of the 7th century, when knowledge of reading and writing was becoming more widespread. No prose writer is known earlier than Pherecydes of Syros c. To Aesop , a semi-historical, semi-mythological character of the mid-6th century, have been attributed the moralizing beast fables inherited by later writers. Classical period, 5th and 4th centuries bc True tragedy was created by Aeschylus and continued with Sophocles and Euripides in the second half of the 5th century. Aristophanes , the greatest of the comedic poets, lived on into the 4th century,

but the Old Comedy did not survive the fall of Athens in 404 BC. The sublime themes of Aeschylean tragedy, in which human beings stand answerable to the gods and receive awe-inspiring insight into divine purposes, are exemplified in the three plays of the Oresteia. The tragedy of Sophocles made progress toward both dramatic complexity and naturalness while remaining orthodox in its treatment of religious and moral issues. Euripides handled his themes on the plane of skeptical enlightenment and doubted the traditional picture of the gods. Corresponding development of dramatic realization accompanied the shift of vision: The Old Comedy of Aristophanes was established later than tragedy but preserved more obvious traces of its origin in ritual; for the vigour, wit, and indecency with which it keenly satirized public issues and prominent persons clearly derived from the ribaldry of the Dionysian festival. This phase was followed toward the beginning of the 3rd century by the New Comedy, introduced by Menander, which turned for its subjects to the private fictional world of ordinary people. Later adaptations of New Comedy in Latin by Plautus and Terence carried the influence of his work on to medieval and modern times. In the 5th century, Pindar, the greatest of the Greek choral lyricists, stood outside the main Ionic-Attic stream and embodied in his splendid odes a vision of the world seen in terms of aristocratic values that were already growing obsolete. Greek prose came to maturity in this period. Earlier writers such as Anaxagoras the philosopher and Protagoras the Sophist used the traditional Ionic dialect, as did Herodotus the historian. His successors in history, Thucydides and Xenophon, wrote in Attic. The works of Plato and Aristotle, of the 4th century, are the most important of all the products of Greek culture in the intellectual history of the West. They have formed the basis of Western philosophy and, indeed, they determined, for centuries to come, the development of European thought. This was also a golden age for rhetoric and oratory, first taught by Corax of Syracuse in the 5th century. The study of rhetoric and oratory raised questions of truth and morality in argument, and thus it was of concern to the philosopher as well as to the advocate and the politician and was expounded by teachers, among whom Isocrates was outstanding. The orations of Demosthenes, a statesman of 4th-century Athens and the most famous of Greek orators, are preeminent for force and power. Hellenistic and Greco-Roman periods In the huge empire of Alexander the Great, Macedonians and Greeks composed the new governing class; and Greek became the language of administration and culture, a new composite dialect based to some extent on Attic and called the Koine, or common language. Everywhere the traditional city-state was in decline, and individuals were becoming aware of their isolation and were seeking consolidation and satisfaction outside corporate society. Artistic creation now came under private patronage, and, except for Athenian comedy, compositions were intended for a small, select audience that admired polish, erudition, and subtlety. An event of great importance for the development of new tendencies was the founding of the Museum, the shrine of the Muses with its enormous library, at Alexandria. The chief librarian was sometimes a poet as well as tutor of the heir apparent. The task of accumulating and preserving knowledge begun by the Sophists and continued by Aristotle and his adherents was for the first time properly endowed. Through the researches of the Alexandrian scholars, texts of ancient authors were preserved. The Hellenistic period lasted from the end of the 4th to the end of the 1st century BC. For the next three centuries, until Constantinople became the capital of the Byzantine Empire, Greek writers were conscious of belonging to a world of which Rome was the centre. The genres Epic narrative At the beginning of Greek literature stand the two great epics, the Iliad and the Odyssey. Some features of the poems reach far into the Mycenaean age, perhaps to 1200 BC, but the written works are traditionally ascribed to Homer; in something like their present form they probably date to the 8th century. The Iliad and the Odyssey are primary examples of the epic narrative, which in antiquity was a long narrative poem, in an elevated style, celebrating heroic achievement. The Iliad is the tragic story of the wrath of Achilles, son of a goddess and richly endowed with all the qualities that make men admirable. With his readiness to sacrifice all to honour, Achilles embodies the Greek heroic ideal; and the contrast between his superb qualities and his short and troubled life reflects the sense of tragedy always prevalent in Greek thought. Whereas the Iliad is tragedy, the Odyssey is tragicomedy. Odysseus too represents a Greek ideal. Though by no means inadequate in battle, he works mainly by craft and guile; and it is by mental superiority that he survives and prevails. Both poems were based on plots that grip the reader, and the story is told in language that is simple and direct, yet eloquent. The Iliad and the Odyssey, though they are the oldest European poetry, are by no means primitive. They marked the fulfillment

rather than the beginning of the poetic form to which they belong. They were essentially oral poems, handed down, developed, and added to over a vast period of time, a theme upon which successive nameless poets freely improvised. The world they reflect is full of inconsistencies; weapons belong to both the Bronze and Iron Ages, and objects of the Mycenaean period jostle others from a time five centuries later. In the ancient world the Iliad and the Odyssey stood in a class apart among Archaic epic poems. Of these, there were a large number known later as the epic cycle. They covered the whole story of the wars of Thebes and Troy as well as other famous myths. A number of shorter poems in epic style, the Homeric Hymns, are of considerable beauty. A subgenre was represented by epics that recounted not ancient mythical events but recent historical episodes, especially colonization and the foundation of cities. Examples include Archaeology of the Samians by Semonides of Amorgos 7th century bc; in elegiac couplets, Smyrneis by Mimnermus of Colophon 7th century bc; in elegiac couplets, Foundation of Colophon and Migration to Elea in Italy by Xenophanes of Colophon 6th century bc; metre unknown, none of which are extant. Epic narrative continued and developed in new forms during the Classical, Hellenistic, and Greco-Roman periods; works represented both subgenres. Notable mythical epics included the lost Thebais of Antimachus of Colophon 4th century bc, the surviving Argonautica in 4 books by Apollonius of Rhodes 3rd century bc, and the surviving Dionysiaca in 48 books by Nonnus of Panopolis 5th century ad. The historical epics do not survive, but among them were Persica, on the Persian Wars, by Choerilus of Samos 5th century bc; an epic on the deeds of Alexander the Great by Choerilus of Iasus 4th century bc; an epic on the deeds of Antiochus Soter 3rd century bc by Simonides of Magnesia; and Thessalic History, Achaean History, and Messenian History by Rhianus of Crete 3rd century bc. As the greatest epic poet, however, Homer continued to be performed in rhapsodic contexts and was read in schools through the Classical, Hellenistic, and Greco-Roman periods. Didactic poetry was not regarded by the Greeks as a form distinct from epic. Yet the poet Hesiod belonged to an altogether different world from Homer. He lived in Boeotia in central Greece about bc. Lyric poetry Hesiod, unlike Homer, told something of himself, and the same is true of the lyric poets. Except for Pindar and Bacchylides at the end of the Classical period, only fragments of the works of these poets survive. There had always been lyric poetry in Greece. All the great events of life as well as many occupations had their proper songs, and here too the way was open to advance from the anonymous to the individual poet. The word lyric covers many sorts of poems. On the one hand, poems sung by individuals or chorus to the lyre, or sometimes to the aulos double-reed pipe, were called melic; elegiacs, in which the epic hexameter, or verse line of six metrical feet, alternated with a shorter line, were traditionally associated with lamentation and an aulos accompaniment; but they were also used for personal poetry, spoken as well as sung at the table. Iambic verse of iambs, or metrical units, basically of four alternately short and long syllables were the verse form of the lampoon. Usually of an abusive or satirical "burlesque and parodying" character, they were not normally sung. If Archilochus of Paros in fact was writing as early as bc, he was the first of the post-epic poets. The fragments reflect the turbulent life of an embittered adventurer. Scorn both of men and of convention is the emotion that seems uppermost, and Archilochus was possessed of tremendous powers of invective. Of lesser stature than Archilochus were his successors, Semonides often mistakenly identified with Simonides of Amorgos and Hipponax of Ephesus. Like the iambic writers, the elegiac poets came mostly from the islands and the Ionian regions of Asia Minor. Chief among them were Callinus of Ephesus and Mimnermus of Colophon. On the mainland of Greece, Tyrtaeus roused the spirit of the Spartans in their desperate struggle with the Messenian rebels in the years after His martial poems are perhaps of more historical than literary interest. The same is to some extent true of the poems in elegiac, iambic, and trochaic the latter a metre basically of four alternately long and short syllables metres by Solon, an Athenian statesman, who used his poetry as a vehicle for propaganda.

Chapter 5 : Horace - Ancient Rome - Classical Literature

Excerpt. This book, like the volume on Society and Politics in Ancient Rome, deals with the life of the common people, with their language and literature, their occupations and amusements, and with their social, political, and economic conditions.

A late Republican banquet scene in a fresco from Herculaneum, Italy, c. The pater familias was the absolute head of the family; he was the master over his wife if she was given to him cum manu, otherwise the father of the wife retained patria potestas, his children, the wives of his sons again if married cum manu which became rarer towards the end of the Republic, the nephews, the slaves and the freedmen liberated slaves, the first generation still legally inferior to the freeborn, disposing of them and of their goods at will, even having them put to death. Slavery and slaves were part of the social order. The slaves were mostly prisoners of war. There were slave markets where they could be bought and sold. Roman law was not consistent about the status of slaves, except that they were considered like any other moveable property. Many slaves were freed by the masters for fine services rendered; some slaves could save money to buy their freedom. Generally, mutilation and murder of slaves was prohibited by legislation, [citation needed] although outrageous cruelty continued. Apart from these families called gentes and the slaves legally objects, mancipia i. They had no legal capacity and were not able to make contracts, even though they were not slaves. To deal with this problem, the so-called clientela was created. By this institution, a plebeian joined the family of a patrician in a legal sense and could close contracts by mediation of his patrician pater familias. Everything the plebeian possessed or acquired legally belonged to the gens. He was not allowed to form his own gens. The authority of the pater familias was unlimited, be it in civil rights as well as in criminal law. The patricians were divided into three tribes Ramnenses, Titientes, Luceres. These included patricians and plebeians. Women, slaves, and children were not allowed to vote. There were two assemblies, the assembly of centuries comitia centuriata and the assembly of tribes comitia tributa, which were made up of all the citizens of Rome. In the comitia centuriata the Romans were divided according to age, wealth and residence. The citizens in each tribe were divided into five classes based on property and then each group was subdivided into two centuries by age. All in all, there were centuries. Like the assembly of tribes, each century had one vote. The Comitia Centuriata elected the praetors judicial magistrates, the censors, and the consuls. The comitia tributa comprised thirty-five tribes from Rome and the country. Each tribe had a single vote. Fresco of a seated woman from Stabiae, 1st century AD Over time, Roman law evolved considerably, as well as social views, emancipating to increasing degrees family members. Justice greatly increased, as well. The Romans became more efficient at considering laws and punishments. Life in the ancient Roman cities revolved around the Forum, the central business district, where most of the Romans would go for marketing, shopping, trading, banking, and for participating in festivities and ceremonies. The Forum was also a place where orators would express themselves to mould public opinion, and elicit support for any particular issue of interest to them or others. Before sunrise, children would go to schools or tutoring them at home would commence. Going to a public bath at least once daily was a habit with most Roman citizens. There were separate baths for men and women. Depending on the nature of the events, they were scheduled during daytime, afternoons, evenings, or late nights. Huge crowds gathered at the Colosseum to watch events such as events involving gladiators, combats between men, or fights between men and wild animals. The Circus Maximus was used for chariot racing. Life in the countryside was slow-paced but lively, with numerous local festivals and social events. Farms were run by the farm managers, but estate owners would sometimes take a retreat to the countryside for rest, enjoying the splendor of nature and the sunshine, including activities like fishing, hunting, and riding. On the other hand, slave labor slogged on continuously, for long hours and all seven days, and ensuring comforts and creating wealth for their masters. The average farm owners were better off, spending evenings in economic and social interactions at the village markets. The day ended with a meal, generally left over from the noontime preparations. Clothing in ancient Rome Toga-clad statue, restored with the head of the emperor Nerva In ancient Rome, the cloth and the dress distinguished one class of people from the other class. The tunic worn

by plebeians common people like shepherds was made from coarse and dark material, whereas the tunic worn by patricians was of linen or white wool. A magistrate would wear the tunica angusticlavi; senators wore tunics with purple stripes clavi, called tunica laticlavi. Military tunics were shorter than the ones worn by civilians. The many types of togas were also named. Boys, up until the festival of Liberalia, wore the toga praetexta, which was a toga with a crimson or purple border, also worn by magistrates in office. The toga picta was worn by triumphant generals and had embroidery of their skill on the battlefield. The toga pulla was worn when in mourning. Patricians wore red and orange sandals, senators had brown footwear, consuls had white shoes, and soldiers wore heavy boots. Women wore closed shoes of colors such as white, yellow, or green. The bulla was a locket-like amulet worn by children. When about to marry, the woman would donate her bulla sometimes called partha to the household gods, along with her toys, to signify maturity and womanhood. A fibula or brooch would be used as ornamentation or to hold the stola in place. A palla, or shawl, was often worn with the stola. Ancient Roman cuisine and Grain supply to the city of Rome Since the beginning of the Republic until BC, ancient Romans had very simple food habits. Breakfast was called ientaculum, lunch was prandium, and dinner was called cena. Appetizers were called gustatio, and dessert was called secunda mensa or second table. Usually, a nap or rest followed this. The family ate together, sitting on stools around a table. Later on, a separate dining room with dining couches was designed, called a triclinium. Fingers were used to take foods which were prepared beforehand and brought to the diners. Spoons were used for soups. Eggs, thrushes, napkin, and vessels wall painting from the House of Julia Felix, Pompeii Wine in Rome did not become common or mass-produced until around B. It was more commonly produced around the time of Cato the Elder who mentions in his book De Agri Cultura that the vineyard was the most important aspect of a good farm. Wine to water ratios of 1: Many types of drinks involving grapes and honey were consumed as well. Mulsum was honeyed wine, mustum was grape juice, mulsa was honeyed water. The per-person-consumption of wine per day in the city of Rome has been estimated at 0. Even the notoriously strict Cato the Elder recommended distributing a daily ration of low quality wine of more than 0. Cato the Younger was also known as a heavy drinker, frequently found stumbling home disoriented and the worse for wear in the early hours of morning by fellow citizens. During the Imperial period, staple food of the lower class Romans plebeians was vegetable porridge and bread, and occasionally fish, meat, olives and fruits. Sometimes, subsidized or free foods were distributed in cities. Sometimes, dancing girls would entertain the diners. Women and children ate separately, but in the later Empire period, with permissiveness creeping in, even decent women would attend such dinner parties. Roman school Roman portraiture fresco of a young man with a papyrus scroll, from Herculaneum, 1st century AD Schooling in a more formal sense was begun around BC. Education began at the age of around six, and in the next six to seven years, boys and girls were expected to learn the basics of reading, writing and counting. By the age of twelve, they would be learning Latin, Greek, grammar and literature, followed by training for public speaking. Oratory was an art to be practiced and learnt and good orators commanded respect; to become an effective orator was one of the objectives of education and learning. Poor children could not afford education. In some cases, services of gifted slaves were utilized for imparting education. School was mostly for boys, however some wealthy girls were tutored at home, but could still go to school sometimes. Latin and Languages of the Roman Empire Fragmentary military diploma from Carnuntum; Latin was the language of the military throughout the Empire The native language of the Romans was Latin, an Italic language in the Indo-European family. Several forms of Latin existed, and the language evolved considerably over time, eventually becoming the Romance languages spoken today. Initially a highly inflectional and synthetic language, older forms of Latin rely little on word order, conveying meaning through a system of affixes attached to word stems. Like other Indo-European languages, Latin gradually became much more analytic over time and acquired conventionalized word orders as it lost more and more of its case system and associated inflections. Its alphabet, the Latin alphabet, is based on the Old Italic alphabet, which is in turn derived from the Greek alphabet. The Latin alphabet is still used today to write most European and many other languages. Most of the surviving Latin literature consists almost entirely of Classical Latin. In the eastern half of the Roman Empire, which became the Byzantine Empire; Greek was the main lingua franca as it had been since the time of Alexander the Great, while Latin was

mostly used by the Roman administration and its soldiers. Eventually Greek would supplant Latin as both the official written and spoken language of the Eastern Roman Empire, while the various dialects of Vulgar Latin used in the Western Roman Empire evolved into the modern Romance languages still used today. The expansion of the Roman Empire spread Latin throughout Europe, and over time Vulgar Latin evolved and dialectized in different locations, gradually shifting into a number of distinct Romance languages beginning in around the 9th century. Many of these languages, including French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, and Spanish, flourished, the differences between them growing greater over time. Although English is Germanic rather than Romanic in origin, Britannia was a Roman province, but the Roman presence in Britain had effectively disappeared by the time of the Anglo-Saxon invasions. English today borrows heavily from Latin and Latin-derived words. Old English borrowings were relatively sparse and drew mainly from ecclesiastical usage after the Christianization of England. When William the Conqueror invaded England from Normandy in 1066, he brought with him a considerable number of retainers who spoke Anglo-Norman French, a Romance language derived from Latin. Anglo-Norman French remained the language of the English upper classes for centuries, and the number of Latinate words in English increased immensely through borrowing during this Middle English period. More recently, during the Modern English period, the revival of interest in classical culture during the Renaissance led to a great deal of conscious adaptation of words from Classical Latin authors into English.

Chapter 6 : Ancient Rome: Literature

Formal Latin literature began in BC, when a Roman audience saw a Latin version of a Greek play. The adaptor was Livius Andronicus, a Greek who had been brought to Rome as a prisoner of war in BC.

Ancient Latin literature Literature in Latin began as translation from the Greek, a fact that conditioned its development. Latin authors used earlier writers as sources of stock themes and motifs, at their best using their relationship to tradition to produce a new species of originality. They were more distinguished as verbal artists than as thinkers; the finest of them have a superb command of concrete detail and vivid illustration. Hellenistic influence came from the south, Etrusco-Hellenic from the north. Improvised farce, with stock characters in masks, may have been a native invention from the Campania region the countryside of modern Naples. The historian Livy traced quasi-dramatic satira medley to the Etruscans. The statesman-writer Cato and the scholar Varro said that in former times the praises of heroes were sung after feasts, sometimes to the accompaniment of the flute, which was perhaps an Etruscan custom. If they existed, these carmina convivalia, or festal songs, would be behind some of the legends that came down to Livy. There were also the rude verses improvised at harvest festivals and weddings and liturgical formulas, whose scanty remains show alliteration and assonance. The nearest approach to literature must have been in public and private records and in recorded speeches. Stylistic periods Ancient Latin literature may be divided into four periods: Early writers The ground for Roman literature was prepared by an influx from the early 3rd century bc onward of Greek slaves, some of whom were put to tutoring young Roman nobles. Among them was Livius Andronicus , who was later freed and who is considered to be the first Latin writer. His success established a tradition of performing such plays alongside the cruder native entertainments. He also made a translation of the Odyssey. For his plays Livius adapted the Greek metres to suit the Latin tongue; but for his Odyssey he retained a traditional Italian measure, as did Gnaeus Naevius for his epic on the First Punic War against Carthage. Scholars are uncertain as to how much this metre depended on quantity or stress. A half-Greek Calabrian called Ennius adopted and Latinized the Greek hexameter for his epic Annales, thus further acquainting Rome with the Hellenistic world. Unfortunately his work survives only in fragments. The Greek character thus imposed on literature made it more a preserve of the educated elite. In Rome, coterie emerged such as that formed around the Roman consul and general Scipio Aemilianus. This circle included the statesman-orator Gaius Laelius , the Greek Stoic philosopher Panaetius, the Greek historian Polybius, the satirist Lucilius, and an African-born slave of genius, the comic playwright Terence. Soon after Rome absorbed Greece as a Roman province , Greek became a second language to educated Romans. Early in the 1st century bc, however, Latin declamation established itself, and, borrowing from Greek, it attained polish and artistry. Plautus, the leading poet of comedy, is one of the chief sources for colloquial Latin. Ennius sought to heighten epic and tragic diction , and from his time onward, with a few exceptions, literary language became ever more divorced from that of the people, until the 2nd century ad. Golden Age , 70 bcâ€”ad 18 The Golden Age of Latin literature spanned the last years of the republic and the virtual establishment of the Roman Empire under the reign of Augustus 27 bcâ€”ad The first part of this period, from 70 to 42 bc, is justly called the Ciceronian. It produced writers of distinction, most of them also men of action, among whom Julius Caesar stands out. As a poet, although uninspired, he was technically skillful. He edited the De rerum natura of the philosophical poet Lucretius. After the destruction of Carthage and Corinth in bc, prosperity and external security had allowed the cultivation of a literature of self-expression and entertainment. The Neoteric influence persisted into the next generation through Cornelius Gallus to Virgil. Virgil, born near Mantua and schooled at Cremona and Milan, chose Theocritus as his first model. The self-consciously beautiful cadences of the Eclogues depict shepherds living in a landscape half real, half fantastic; these allusive poems hover between the actual and the artificial. They are shot through with topical allusions , and in the fourth he already appears as a national prophet. In 38 bc he and Varius introduced the young poet Horace to Maecenas; and by the final victory of Augustus in 30 bc, the circle was consolidated. It gave encouragement to the classical notion that a writer should not so much try to say new things as to say old things better. The rhetorical figures of thought and speech were mastered

until they became instinctive. Perfection of form characterizes the odes of Horace; elegy, too, became more polished. About 28 or 27 bc Livy began his monumental history. Propertius, when admitted to the circle, was simply a youth with an anti-Caesarian background who had gained favour with passionate love elegies. Poems were recited in literary circles and in public, hence the importance attached to euphony, smoothness, and artistic structure. They thus became known piecemeal and might be improved by friendly suggestions. When finally they were assembled in books, great care was taken over arrangement, which was artistic or significant but not chronological. Meanwhile, in prose the Ciceronian climax had been followed by a reaction led by Sallust. In 43 bc he began to publish a series of historical works in a terse, epigrammatic style studded with archaisms and avoiding the copiousness of Cicero. Later, eloquence, deprived of political influence, migrated from the forum to the schools, where cleverness and point counted rather than rolling periods. Thus developed the epigrammatic style of the younger Seneca and, ultimately, of Tacitus. Spreading to verse, it conditioned the witty couplets of Ovid, the tragedies of Seneca, and the satire of Juvenal. Though Livy stood out, Ciceronianism only found a real champion again in the rhetorician Quintilian. Silver Age , ad 18â€” After the first flush of enthusiasm for Augustan ideals of national regeneration, literature paid the price of political patronage. It became subtly sterilized; and Ovid was but the first of many writers actually suppressed or inhibited by fear. Late Augustans such as Livy already sensed that Rome had passed its summit. Later writers The decentralization of the empire under Hadrian and the Antonines weakened the Roman pride and passion for liberty. Romans began again to write in Greek as well as Latin. An effete culture devoted itself to philology, archaism, and preciousness. After Juvenal, years elapsed before Ausonius of Bordeaux 4th century ad and the last of the true classics, Claudian flourished about , appeared. Ausonius, though in the pagan literary tradition, was a Christian and contemporary with a truly original Christian poet, the Spaniard Prudentius. Henceforward, Christian literature overlaps pagan and generally surpasses it. In prose these centuries have somewhat more to boast, though the greatest work by a Roman was written in Greek, the Meditations of the emperor Marcus Aurelius. Elocutio novella , a blend of archaisms and colloquial speech, is seen to best advantage in Apuleius born about Other writers of note were Aulus Gellius and Macrobius. The 4th century ad was the age of the grammarians and commentators, but in prose some of the most interesting work is again Christian. The genres Comedy Roman comedy was based on the New Comedy fashionable in Greece, whose classic representative was Menander. But whereas this was imitation of life to the Greeks, to the Romans it was escape to fantasy and literary convention. But he slipped in details of Roman life and outspoken criticisms of powerful men. His imprisonment warned comedy off topical references, but the Roman audience became alert in applying ancient lines to modern situations and in demonstrating their feelings by appropriate clamour. Unlike his predecessors, Plautus specialized, writing only comedy involving high spirits, oaths, linguistic play, slapstick humour, music, and skillful adaptation of rhythm to subject matter. Some of his plays can be thought of almost as comic opera. Part of the humour consisted in the sudden intrusion of Roman things into this conventional Greek world. As Greek influence on Roman culture increased, Roman drama became more dependent on Greek models. Singing almost disappeared from his plays, and recitative was less prominent. From Menander he learned to exhibit refinements of psychology and to construct ingenious plots; but he lacked comic force. His pride was refined languageâ€”the avoidance of vulgarity, obscurity, or slang. His characters were less differentiated in speech than those of Plautus, but they talk with an elegant charm. The society Terence portrayed was more sensitive than that of Plautine comedy; lovers tended to be loyal and sons obedient. Though often revived, plays modeled on Greek drama were rarely written after Terence. The Ciceronian was the great age of acting, and in 55 bc Pompey gave Rome a permanent theatre. Plays having an Italian setting came into vogue, their framework being Greek New Comedy but their subject Roman society. A native form of farce was also revived. Under Julius Caesar, this yielded in popularity to verse mime of Greek origin that was realistic, often obscene, and full of quotable apothegms. Finally, when mime gave rise to the dumb show of the pantomimus with choral accompaniment and when exotic spectacles had become the rage, Roman comedy faded out. He was followed by Naevius and Ennius, who loved Euripides. Pacuvius , probably a greater tragedian, liked Sophocles and heightened tragic diction even more than Ennius. His successor, Accius , was more rhetorical and impetuous. They did not always deal in Greek mythology: The Roman

chorus, unlike the Greek, performed on stage and was inextricably involved in the action. Classical tragedy was seldom composed after Accius, though its plays were constantly revived. Writing plays, once a function of slaves and freedmen, became a pastime of aristocratic dilettantes. Such writers had commonly no thought of production: The extant tragedies of the younger Seneca probably were not written for public performance. They are melodramas of horror and violence, marked by sensational pseudo-realism and rhetorical cleverness. Characterization is crude, and philosophical moralizing obtrusive. Yet Seneca was a model for 16th- and early 17th-century tragedy, especially in France, and influenced English revenge tragedy. This compound of legendary origins and history was in Latin, in a transplanted metre, and by a poet who had imagination and a realization of the emergent greatness of Rome. In form his work must have been ill-balanced; he almost ignored the First Punic War in consideration of Naevius and became more detailed as he added books about his own times. But his great merit shines out from the fragmentsâ€”nobility of ethos matched with nobility of language. On receptive spirits, such as Cicero, Lucretius, and Virgil, his influence was profound.

Chapter 7 : Latin literature | blog.quintoapp.com

2. *On-line Discussion Forum* You will be required to participate in an on-line discussion forum during the course of the semester. The discussion is designed to give you the opportunity to reflect on the reading more critically and consider a.

Greek and Roman Literature Classics and Literature The study of literature in Greek and Latin lies at the center of all the fields covered by the Department of Classics. The differences are in how each field construes textual evidence and defines the parameters of the literary. The Program in Classical Languages and Literatures makes literature and literary culture the focus of its curriculum. Our faculty represent a wide range of approaches and read literature in relation to: Reception studies is a concern shared by all. In addition to courses originating in Classics, students may also take offerings from Comparative Literature, the Committee on Social Thought, the Divinity School, Near Eastern Languages and Civilizations, and the various modern literature departments. Two workshops housed in the department have a strong orientation toward literary topics: Metaphor, and Rhetoric and Poetics. Many of the faculty and students also attend the workshops on Poetry and Poetics, Literature and Philosophy, and the Renaissance. The Classical Performance Society regularly puts on plays and the poetry readings on campus are innumerable. People While many of our faculty work on literature in its relation to some other field, all the members of our faculty teach courses that include literary texts. Listed below are those whose research interests concentrate primarily on the interpretation of literature as such. Her interests cover literature, philosophy, and rhetoric in Imperial Roman literature as well as the reception of the Western classical corpus in modern China. A Study in Food, Philosophy, and the Figural. She works on literature and politics in Republican and Augustan Rome and on the reception of Roman political thought. She specializes in Greek tragedy with a focus on the interaction of sound and signification. A current project is the reception of Athenian drama in twentieth-century African literature. He works on the literary imagination within the framework of animal studies and classical reception from a broadly comparatist orientation. He works on gender, ancient philosophy, translation in theory and practice, and has wide interests in classical reception. In addition, the following faculty members edit texts and teach textual criticism, papyrology, and epigraphy. His focus on the ancient Greek economy requires a broad range of sources, including literary texts, coins, inscriptions, and archaeological data. He works on Greek papyrology and paleography, early Christian literature, and the Hellenistic background to the New Testament. He is currently editing papyri housed at the University of Texas, Austin, which mainly date from the Ptolemaic period. She is the curator of the collection of papyri at Abadia de Montserrat. She participates in several international research groups [http:](http://) Courses We have offered a wide range of courses on individual texts or authors read in the original languages as well as broader topics offered in translation that have touched on literary texts. The following listing includes only courses taught or co-taught by professors of Classics. Others have been available through cross-listing with the modern literature departments, History, or Near Eastern Languages and Civilizations.

Chapter 8 : Greek literature | blog.quintoapp.com

The Life of the Flesh Is in the Blood "For the life of the flesh is in the blood: and I have given it to you upon the altar to make an atonement for your souls: for it is the blood that maketh an atonement for the soul" (Leviticus).

The Romans wrote a lot of poetry and history. They also wrote letters and made a lot of formal speeches. What language did they use? Latin was the main language used for writing during Ancient Rome. Greek was also a popular language because it was used by so many people in the eastern portion of the Roman empire. What did the Romans write on? Important documents were written on papyrus scrolls made from the papyrus plant in Egypt or on parchment pages made from animal skin. They wrote with a metal pin that they dipped in ink. For more temporary day-to-day writing they used a wax tablet or thin pieces of wood. The three most famous Roman poets are Virgil, Horace, and Ovid. The Aeneid tells the story of a Trojan hero named Aeneas. It incorporates many historic events in the history of Rome. Other works of Horace include Satires and Epistles. It tells the history of the world from creation to when Julius Caesar was made a god. Ovid was also famous for writing love poems. Speeches and Rhetoric The art of rhetoric the ability to speak in public and persuade others was considered an important skill in Ancient Rome. Many Roman statesmen wrote down their ideas and speeches. The writings of some of these men had a major impact on the use of the Latin language and Roman literature. The most famous of these men was Cicero who wrote letters, speeches, and works on philosophy. Historians Roman literature also includes many writers who recorded the history of Rome. The most famous Roman historian was Livy. Livy wrote volumes of history that covered events from the founding of Rome up to the reign of Augustus. Roman Philosophy After conquering the Greeks, the Romans became interested in philosophy. The most popular school of philosophy with the Romans was stoicism. Stoicism taught that the universe was very ordered and rational. It said that everyone, regardless of their wealth and position, should always try to do their best. These ideas appealed to the Romans. Roman Records The Romans are famous for keeping lots of written records. It was how they kept their large empire so organized. They had records on every Roman citizen including things like age, marriages, and military service. They also kept written records of wills, legal trials, and all the laws and decrees made by the government. Much of Roman literature was influenced and inspired by Greek literature. It is said that the philosophical writings of Cicero influenced the Founding Fathers of the United States. One of the most important Roman writings on stoic philosophy, Meditations, was written by Emperor Marcus Aurelius. Activities Take a ten question quiz about this page. Listen to a recorded reading of this page: Your browser does not support the audio element. For more about Ancient Rome:

Chapter 9 : Culture of ancient Rome - Wikipedia

A typical Roman day would start off with a light breakfast and then off to work. Work would end in the early afternoon when many Romans would take a quick trip to the baths to bathe and socialize. At around 3pm they would have dinner which was as much of a social event as a meal. Ancient Rome was a.

Plautus Titus Maccius Plautus was a playwright whose comedies are likely the earliest Roman writing to have survived. He lived from B. Terence Publius Terentius Afer was another playwright. A former slave, who was educated and freed, it is believed that all six of the plays Terence wrote managed to survive. His letters alone have taught us so much about this period of Roman history, yet his strength lied in his philosophical writings and his orations speeches. Before assuming the title of dictator, Julius Caesar was a respected writer himself. His orations were very moving, as you would expect from such a historical figure. He also wrote about his military conquests, which entertained Romans at the time and inspired future generations of leaders. Although most of his work has been lost, Varro was another important writer from this period. It is estimated that he wrote nearly pieces, yet only one book has survived completely. Varro wrote about many topics, including religion, poetry, and agriculture. Augustus served as Emperor of Rome from 27 B. Often included in any list of the best poets in history, Horace wrote about politics, love, and philosophy, among other subjects. A number of his works are still read today, mainly his Odes. The Imperial Period began with the death of Augustus in 14 A. During this time, writers became more conscious of the world around and them and began to ask deeper questions. Seneca, for example, wrote about floods, earthquakes, and other events occurring in nature. He also explored moral themes like mercy and generosity. While we know that most of these writers were respected during their careers and we have the opportunity to still read some of their work today, we cannot be sure about how much money they were able to earn as writers. It is possible that the writers earned a small fee for each copy that was sold, similar to royalty payments for authors today. But we can safely assume that publishers were making money and that printing books was likely a lucrative business. For us, the surviving pieces offer a chance to see what life was truly like for Ancient Romans. Like the ancient artifacts we discover and the pieces of art depicting daily life, these writers and many of their peers have provided us with important details about a wonderful period in history.